Predictive Pipelined Decoding: A Compute-Latency Trade-off for Exact LLM Decoding

Seongjun Yang^{*1} Gibbeum Lee^{*1} Jaewoong Cho¹ Dimitris Papailiopoulos¹² Kangwook Lee¹²

Abstract

This paper presents "Predictive Pipelined Decoding (PPD)," an approach that speeds up greedy decoding in Large Language Models (LLMs) while maintaining the exact same output as the original decoding. Unlike conventional strategies, PPD employs additional compute resources to parallelize the initiation of subsequent token decoding during the current token decoding. This innovative method reduces decoding latency and reshapes the understanding of trade-offs in LLM decoding strategies. We have developed a theoretical framework that allows us to analyze the trade-off between computation and latency. Using this framework, we can analytically estimate the potential reduction in latency associated with our proposed method, achieved through the assessment of the match rate, represented as p_{correct} . The results demonstrate that the use of extra computational resources has the potential to accelerate LLM greedy decoding.

1. Introduction

The recent advances in LLMs, especially transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017), have brought a breakthrough to the domain of natural language processing. The notable generative language models include GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020), GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023), PaLM (Chowdhery et al., 2022), LaMDA (Thoppilan et al., 2022), OPT (Zhang et al., 2022), and LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023). The power of LLMs is primarily driven by their enormous scale, often involving hundreds of billions of parameters (Hoffmann et al., 2022). However, the considerable size of these models can present challenges in practical applications where immediate responses are crucial (Kasai et al., 2020).

Generative transformers usually create text sequences using auto-regressive decoding. After passing through all layers of the transformer, each token is generated using the hidden representation from the final layer of the transformer (Kim et al., 2023a). Some studies (Schuster et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2023), however, suggest that it is not necessary to pass through all layers, but similar results can be obtained using a sub-network of the transformer's layers. Still, these methods do not always ensure the same output as when all transformer layers are utilized.

In this paper, we introduce *Predictive Pipelined Decoding* (*PPD*), a new approach that lowers latency by utilizing additional compute resources, while keeping the exact same decoding results, as illustrated in Figure 1. Our methodology is motivated by early-exiting, specifically as described by (Schuster et al., 2022). Early-exiting allows the generation process to exit before reaching the final layer, enabling predictions to be made earlier in the process. PPD shares similarities with early exit strategies as it also utilizes intermediate representations to make early predictions on the next token. However, PPD distinguishes itself by continuing the current token decoding without exiting. In other words, the main process remains focused on the current token while other subprocesses early start the generation process with predicted next token(s).

PPD accelerates decoding by parallelizing processes, each of which begins decoding from the top-k token predictions of the specific transformer layer. Simultaneously, the main process continues to compute the output of the final layer and predicts the next token. By aligning the results with the next token prediction from the final layer, we can maintain the original decoding result.

To assess the potential benefits of our method, we conduct an analysis to determine the extent of latency reduction and the associated compute resource costs. Also, we measure the match rate, the probability that the early top-*k* predictions match the top-1 prediction from the final layer, with the commonly utilized dataset in NLP such as SQUAD 1.1 (Rajpurkar et al., 2016), WMT EN-FR (Bojar et al., 2015), and CNN/DM (Hermann et al., 2015). We could estimate the potential savings in latency and the corresponding compute resources based on the match rate. However, it is essential

^{*}Equal contribution ¹KRAFTON ²Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, University of Wisconsin-Madison. Correspondence to: Kangwook Lee <kw1jjang@gmail.com>.

Work presented at the ES-FoMo Workshop at ICML 2023, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA. Copyright 2023 by the author(s).



Figure 1. An overview of the proposed method. In a scenario where three words are generated from a pre-trained transformer decoder with d layers, "She" is fed as an input for the decoder. PPD forecasts the next token at an intermediate transformer layer, such as the top-3 tokens from the d/2-th layer. PPD simultaneously launches three sub-processes, each feeding a predicted token into the model, while the main process continues to forward the intermediate output to the final layer. Once the main process is complete, PPD verifies if any predicted tokens match the main process's final output. If a match is found, this method reduces decoding latency, yielding results equivalent to those of conventional decoding methods. "TL" stands for transformer layers.

to mention that we have not implemented the algorithm, and this work is purely providing a performance modeling and analysis. We believe that once properly implemented, the predicted latency reduction can be realized, but we leave it to the future work.

In summary, our contributions are: (1) a framework, which we call PPD, that boosts the speed of the decoding, (2) a theoretical analysis of latency savings versus computing resource costs, and (3) an empirical measurement of match rate to estimate how effective PPD would be in an actual situation.

2. Related Work

Various strategies have been proposed to improve the inference speed of large-scale transformer models. These include employing model pruning techniques (Fan et al., 2019; Gale et al., 2019; Michel et al., 2019; Voita et al., 2019; Sanh et al., 2020; Kurtic et al., 2022; Kwon et al., 2022; Campos & Zhai, 2023); implementing knowledge distillation methods to downsize the models (Jiao et al., 2019; Sanh et al., 2019); and adopting quantization procedures (Zafrir et al., 2019; Shen et al., 2020; Zadeh et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2021; Dettmers et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2022; Frantar et al., 2022). However, these approaches do not necessarily guarantee the original inference quality since they do not have a mechanism that verifies the validity of the generated token.

Our research is inspired by *early-exiting* approaches (Liu et al., 2021; Schuster et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2022; Xin et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2021; Schuster et al., 2022) that utilize only the initial segments of transformer layers for inference, rather than the entire network. Especially, Schuster et al. (2022) implements an early-exiting approach for decoder-only models in which one can select the layer to

exit and check the confidence measure of each token using a threshold function. However, the approach could not be as exact as conventional decoding due to its dependency on a threshold-based confidence measure.

Similarly, with the goal of reducing the inference time of transformers while preserving the original inference quality, numerous studies (Stern et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2023b; Chen et al., 2023; Leviathan et al., 2023) have utilized two language models which are one smaller and one larger. The smaller model rapidly generates output, while the larger model verifies its validity. Despite the potential speed advantage, this method might not consistently match the exact output of larger models, resulting in discrepancies since the larger model relies on the smaller model's confidence score.

3. Predictive Pipelined Decoding

We introduce Predictive Pipelined Decoding (PPD), a lowlatency decoding method that leverages multiple compute resources. PPD utilizes an intermediate output of a transformer to predict the next token, which is typically produced by the final layer's output. This allows PPD to start the forward propagation of the next sequence earlier than the conventional decoding. Despite this early start, the original forward propagation continues uninterrupted up to the final layer. This parallel approach accelerates the conventional greedy decoding process while ensuring the same decoding result.

In the following, we elaborate on the process of PPD. This method predicts the next token early at an intermediate transformer layer. PPD employ an intermediate hidden representation h, e.g., $\frac{d}{2}$ -th layer's output, to estimate the probability p(x|h) of the next token. This is done by applying a language modeling classifier and a softmax activation to the

hidden representation. Subsequently, PPD identifies the top-k candidate tokens with regard to p(x|h) and initiates k parallel sub-processes. Each sub-process then inputs the selected token into the transformer. In parallel, the main process continues to forward the intermediate output up to the final layer.

Once the main process completes the forward propagation to the final layer, PPD checks if the decoded next token from the final output matches any of the top-k next token candidates previously predicted from the intermediate output. If a match is found, PPD only continues the forward propagation associated with the matching token, disregarding the results from other processes. In cases where no matches are found, all results from sub-processes are disregarded, and PPD proceeds with the output from the final layer. This approach enables us to achieve decoding results identical to those of the original method while improving latency efficiency. Figure 1 provides an overview of the proposed method. For subsequent rounds, the main process repeatedly employs the output from the intermediate layer of sub-processes. The algorithm description is provided in Algorithm 1.

4. Theoretical Analysis

4.1. Model

For fixed k, PPD makes an early next-token prediction at the d-th intermediate layer out of the total d layers in a transformer, and we model that one of the top-k early predictions will match the actual top-1 at the final layer with probability $0 < p_{\text{correct}} < 1$. Furthermore, we model that these events are independent of all the others. We define a sequence of consecutively generated tokens as a run. PPD begins a run and continues until all early predictions no longer match the final prediction, at which point all sub-processes are disregarded. Counting from the beginning of the generated text, we denote the *i*-th run's length by X_i , where $X_i \geq 1$. Note that $X_i \sim \text{Geom}(1 - p_{\text{correct}})$ except for the last run, where Geom denotes a geometric distribution, and $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = 1/(1 - p_{\text{correct}})$. Assume that the length of the text to be generated is ℓ tokens, where $\ell \ge 1$. Then, we have $\sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i = \ell$, where N is a random variable that denotes the number of runs required to completely generate ℓ tokens. We assume an equal amount of computational time is required for each layer of the transformer, which is mainly due to the majority of layers being composed of the same self-attention and feed-forward network. We refer to this consistent time requirement for one layer as one 'time unit'. Consequently, forwarding through d layers of the transformer would demand d time units.

4.2. Latency Analysis

Before we show our exact analysis, we first present an approximate analysis for $\ell \gg 1$. Also, for simplicity, let us assume $\bar{d} = \frac{d}{2}$, i.e., we make an early prediction after

Algorithm 1 Predictive Pipelined Decoding (PPD)

- 1: **Input:** the maximum number of tokens ℓ , the number of transformer decoder layers d, the intermediate layer number $\overline{d} \ge 0.5d$, the number of compute units k + 1, the start token x_0
- 2: Launch Process 0
- 3: Initialize:

4:

5:

6:

7:

16:

- $t \leftarrow 0$ eps_flag (early prediction success flag) \leftarrow False while $t < \ell$ or $x_t \neq \text{EOS do}$ for PID (Process ID) = 0 do if eps_flag = False then Start forwarding from the 1st layer with x_t
- 8: else 9: Start forwarding from $(d - \bar{d} + 1)$ -th layer with $h_{d-\bar{d}}^{(0)}$ 10: end if
- 11: Compute the output of the \bar{d} -th layer $h_{\bar{d}}^{(0)}$
- 12: Estimate the next token distribution $\hat{p}(x_{t+1}|h_{\bar{A}}^{(0)})$
- 13: Select the top-k tokens $\hat{x}_{t+1}^{(1)}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{t+1}^{(k)}$ from \hat{p} .
- 14: $eps_flag \leftarrow False$
- 15: **if** t = 0 then
 - **Replicate** process 0 to generate processes 1 to k
- 17: end if 18: end for
- 18:
 end for

 19:
 for PID = 0, 1, ..., k in parallel do
- 20: **if** PID = 0 **then**
- 21: $x_{t+1} \leftarrow \arg \max_{x_{t+1}} \hat{p}(x_{t+1}|h_d^{(0)})$
- 22: else $t_{d-\bar{d}}^{(\text{PID})}$ with $\hat{x}_{t+1}^{(\text{PID})}$ 23: Compute $h_{d-\bar{d}}^{(\text{PID})}$ with $\hat{x}_{t+1}^{(\text{PID})}$ 24: if $\hat{x}_{t+1}^{(\text{PID})} = x_{t+1}$ then 25: $h_{d-\bar{d}}^{(0)} \leftarrow h_{d-\bar{d}}^{(\text{PID})}$ 26: eps-flag \leftarrow True 27: end if 28: end if 29: end for
- $\begin{array}{l} 30: \quad t \leftarrow t+1 \\ \underline{31: \ \text{end while}} \end{array}$

processing through the middle layer.

Let us first find the expression for N. Since $\ell \gg 1$, we also have $N \gg 1$. Thus, we have $\ell = N \cdot \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_N}{N} \approx N \mathbb{E}[X_1]$, where the last approximation is derived from the law of large numbers, with the assumption that X_i s are i.i.d.

Now, we compute the expected latency to generate ℓ tokens with PPD. Recall that for a run of length X, it takes $d + (X-1)\frac{d}{2} = \frac{d(X+1)}{2}$ time units to generate the run. Thus, the total time to generate the ℓ tokens is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{d(X_i+1)}{2} = \frac{d(\sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i + N)}{2} = \frac{d(\ell+N)}{2}.$$
 (1)

By dividing the total latency by ℓ , we get the per-token latency:

$$\frac{d(\ell+N)}{2\ell} = \frac{d(1+N/\ell)}{2} \approx \frac{d(1+1/\mathbb{E}[X_1])}{2}$$
$$= d\left(1 - \frac{p_{\text{correct}}}{2}\right). \quad (2)$$

This reveals an intuitive relationship between the per-token latency and the probability of successful early token prediction. If p_{correct} is close to 1, then the per-token latency becomes 0.5*d*, while if p_{correct} is close to 0, then the average per-token latency remains as *d*.

To run PPD with a fixed choice of k, one needs k + 1 compute resources. However, at the beginning of each run, only one compute resource is used. Thus, to compute the average compute resources required for running PPD, we need the following calculation. For a run of length X, the first $\frac{d}{2}$ time units requires one compute resource, while the remaining $\frac{Xd}{2}$ time units use k + 1 compute resources. Therefore, the total compute resources spent for the run of length X is $\frac{(k+1)dX+d}{2}$, and the total compute resources spent for the entire text generation is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(k+1)dX_i + d}{2} = \frac{(k+1)d\ell + dN}{2}.$$
 (3)

By dividing the total compute resources by the total generation time, we get the average compute resources per time unit:

$$\frac{\frac{(k+1)d\ell+dN}{2}}{\frac{d(\ell+N)}{2}} \approx \frac{(k+1) + 1/\mathbb{E}[X_1]}{1+1/\mathbb{E}[X_1]} = \frac{k+2-p_{\text{correct}}}{2-p_{\text{correct}}}.$$
 (4)

If $p_{correct}$ is close to 1, then the average compute resources per time unit becomes k + 1. Note that this makes sense since when $p_{correct}$ is 1, one can generate the whole text in one run, and hence all k + 1 compute units will be used almost all the time. If $p_{correct}$ is close to 0, then the average compute units per time unit becomes $\frac{k+2}{2}$. This also makes sense as if the early prediction is always wrong, the run length is always 1. For the first half unit time, we use one compute units. Thus, on average, we use $\frac{k+2}{2}$ compute units throughout the generation.

Recall that the above analysis was approximate, assuming $\ell \gg 1$ and $\bar{d} = \frac{d}{2}$. The following theorem gives the exact analysis without the assumption, when \bar{d} is greater than or equal to 0.5*d*.

Theorem 4.1 (Latency-compute trade-off with PPD). Given p_{correct} , k, and for fixed ℓ , if PPD makes an early prediction at the \bar{d} -th intermediate layer out of the total d layers ($\bar{d} \ge \frac{d}{2}$), then the expected latency to generate a sequence of ℓ tokens is

$$d\ell - (d-d)(\ell-1)p_{\text{correct}},$$

and the expected total compute units is

$$d\ell - (d - \bar{d})(\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}} + k(d - \bar{d})\ell.$$

Proof. The proof is in Appendix D.

Conventional decoding requires $d\ell$ time units to generate ℓ tokens. However, in PPD, there is an expectation that a

			1				
					Layers		
dataset	top-k	trained	10	20	30	35	37
	1	Ν	5.88%	38.90%	62.90%	79.77%	88.01%
	1	Y	15.45%	52.81%	72.34%	87.68%	91.67%
SOUND	2	Ν	9.25%	54.04%	77.92%	92.64%	97.67%
SQUAD	3	Y	23.48%	68.37%	87.49%	97.33%	98.91%
	5	Ν	11.04%	60.15%	83.84%	95.85%	99.08%
	5	Y	27.90%	74.15%	92.29%	98.81%	99.62%
	1	Ν	2.40%	21.63%	39.69%	68.64%	78.15%
		Y	11.06%	29.17%	48.20%	74.84%	82.69%
WMT	3	Ν	4.38%	31.69%	61.71%	85.03%	93.53%
VV IVI I		Y	14.83%	41.14%	68.50%	89.84%	95.48%
	5	Ν	5.57%	37.13%	68.84%	89.54%	96.41%
		Y	16.82%	47.84%	75.46%	93.36%	97.67%
	1	Ν	7.23%	32.08%	53.07%	68.90%	78.82%
	1	Y	19.02%	43.65%	61.45%	78.46%	84.42%
CNN/DM	2	Ν	12.84%	46.36%	68.14%	85.07%	93.81%
	3	Y	27.57%	60.60%	78.55%	93.07%	96.62%
	5	Ν	15.21%	52.51%	74.22%	90.04%	96.88%
	5	Y	31.33%	67.33%	84.83%	96.06%	98.40%

Table 1. The result of $\hat{p}_{correct}$ from Vicuna-13B. The match rate, $\hat{p}_{correct}$, represents the probability where one of the top-k predictions from the intermediate layer matches the top-1 prediction from the final layer. In the "trained" column, the letter "N" signifies that the language modeling classifier, which is trained specifically for the final layer, tests across all layers. Conversely, the letter "Y" represents the classifier individually trained for each layer.

proportion of $(\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}}$ tokens accurately match the predictions made at the intermediate layer. For these instances, parallel pre-computations up to the $(d - \bar{d})$ -th layer result in time savings. Consequently, it allows PPD to reduce the expected latency by $(d - \bar{d})(\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}}$ time units.

To achieve these savings, PPD employs one computational unit dedicated to the main process for $d\ell - (d - \bar{d})(\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}}$ time units. In addition, PPD allocates k computational units for each of the ℓ tokens to pre-compute the output of the $(d - \bar{d})$ -th layer along with the predictions.

4.3. Simulations

Experimental Setup In order to theoretically estimate the potential improvements in decoding latency in real-world NLP tasks, we examine the match rate, denoted by $\hat{p}_{correct}$. This match rate is empirically estimated across multiple token geration processes by verifying if any of the top-k predicted tokens from the intermediate layer match the top-1 token from the final layer.

We test the NLP tasks on three benchmark datasets: SQUAD 1.1 (Rajpurkar et al., 2016), WMT EN-FR (Bojar et al., 2015), and CNN/DM (Hermann et al., 2015). We use their respective test datasets for evaluations. The model for the test is Vicuna-13B (Chiang et al., 2023), a transformer with a total of 40 layers. We specifically probe the early prediction at the 15th, 20th, 30th, 35th, and 37th layers to derive the match rate (see Table 1).



Figure 2. Theoretical trade-off curve of average compute resources per time unit and per token latency. The curve graph is derived from Equation (2) and (4). For example, with k = 3 and while performing the SQUAD task with a trained classifier, latency can be reduced by 34% at the expense of using 3.2 times more computational resources. This is demonstrated using Vicuna-13B, a model with 40 layers, where the intermediate layer is set to d/2. The notation "tr" indicates that the language modeling classifier has been individually trained for each transformer decoder layer.

Furthermore, our analysis includes two different utilization of the language modeling classifier for estimating the distribution of tokens over vocabulary. The first employs the common classifier across all layers, trained specifically for the final layer, and the second uses the classifier trained uniquely for each layer. An in-depth explanation of the experimental setup can be found in Appendix B.

Result Table 1 reveals that the accuracy of token prediction enhances with an increase in both the top-k and layer values. Indeed, the $\hat{p}_{correct}$ can be represented with the term k as you can see in Section 4.2. Additionally, the overall performance shows improvement when the language modeling classifier is individually trained for each layer. However, it is critical to note that as the number of layers increases, the method starts to resemble the vanilla approach, implying a potential loss in latency benefits. Nevertheless, it becomes clear that training the classifier with an increase in top-k values, or computational resources, can effectively contribute to reducing latency. Further results based on the token positions can be found in Appendix C.

Figure 2 shows the theoretical results of the trade-off between latency and computational resources from Equation (2) and (4). The figure, which represents theoretical estimations rather than empirical data, sets the intermediate layer at 20, using $\hat{p}_{correct}$ values from Table 1 for scatter plots. With normalized latency and computational resources of the original decoding, we observe latency per token varying from 0.629 (SQUAD+"tr", k=5) to 0.892 (WMT, k=1). These findings suggest a speed improvement between 10.8% and 37.1%, whilst maintaining output quality equivalent to the original decoding. It is crucial to note, however, that this speed increase requires more computational resources, escalating by 1.561 to nearly 4.973 times the original usage. Additionally, we present the trade-off graph between average compute resource *per token* and latency per token in Figure 4.

5. Limitations

While our method has the potential for latency improvements, this comes at the cost of increased computational requirements. To reduce the computation costs, future research should focus on better utilization of GPU resources. It is also crucial to consider other factors that impact latency, such as GPU synchronization, data transfer overhead, and communication and memory management overhead, as highlighted in Kim et al. (2023a). The scope of our current work specifically targets greedy decoding, yet it is worth acknowledging that other decoding algorithms (Holtzman et al., 2019; Radford et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022) have demonstrated superior performance. Thus, future endeavors intend to extend our methodology to other decoding methods.

6. Conclusion

We introduced PPD, a method aimed at reducing the decoding latency while maintaining the original decoding result of LLM. Based on our theoretical analysis and empirical measurements, we identified the potential of PPD to reduce latency. Furthermore, we demonstrated that training the language modeling classifier for an intermediate transformer layer can effectively enhance early prediction accuracy, potentially leading to further reductions in latency.

References

- Bojar, O., Chatterjee, R., Federmann, C., Haddow, B., Huck, M., Hokamp, C., Koehn, P., Logacheva, V., Monz, C., Negri, M., Post, M., Scarton, C., Specia, L., and Turchi, M. Findings of the 2015 workshop on statistical machine translation. In *Proceedings of the Tenth Workshop* on Statistical Machine Translation, pp. 1–46, Lisbon, Portugal, September 2015. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/W15-3001. URL https://aclanthology.org/W15-3001.
- Brown, T., Mann, B., Ryder, N., Subbiah, M., Kaplan, J. D., Dhariwal, P., Neelakantan, A., Shyam, P., Sastry, G., Askell, A., et al. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33: 1877–1901, 2020.
- Campos, D. and Zhai, C. To asymmetry and beyond: Structured pruning of sequence to sequence models for improved inference efficiency. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.02721*, 2023.
- Chen, C., Borgeaud, S., Irving, G., Lespiau, J.-B., Sifre, L., and Jumper, J. Accelerating large language model

decoding with speculative sampling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.01318*, 2023.

- Chiang, W.-L., Li, Z., Lin, Z., Sheng, Y., Wu, Z., Zhang, H., Zheng, L., Zhuang, S., Zhuang, Y., Gonzalez, J. E., Stoica, I., and Xing, E. P. Vicuna: An open-source chatbot impressing gpt-4 with 90%* chatgpt quality, March 2023. URL https://lmsys.org/blog/ 2023-03-30-vicuna/.
- Chowdhery, A., Narang, S., Devlin, J., Bosma, M., Mishra, G., Roberts, A., Barham, P., Chung, H. W., Sutton, C., Gehrmann, S., et al. Palm: Scaling language modeling with pathways. arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.02311, 2022.
- Dettmers, T., Lewis, M., Belkada, Y., and Zettlemoyer, L. Gpt3. int8 (): 8-bit matrix multiplication for transformers at scale. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:30318–30332, 2022.
- Fan, A., Grave, E., and Joulin, A. Reducing transformer depth on demand with structured dropout. arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.11556, 2019.
- Frantar, E., Ashkboos, S., Hoefler, T., and Alistarh, D. Gptq: Accurate post-training quantization for generative pretrained transformers. arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.17323, 2022.
- Gale, T., Elsen, E., and Hooker, S. The state of sparsity in deep neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1902.09574*, 2019.
- Hermann, K. M., Kocisky, T., Grefenstette, E., Espeholt, L., Kay, W., Suleyman, M., and Blunsom, P. Teaching machines to read and comprehend. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 28, 2015.
- Hoffmann, J., Borgeaud, S., Mensch, A., Buchatskaya, E., Cai, T., Rutherford, E., Casas, D. d. L., Hendricks, L. A., Welbl, J., Clark, A., et al. Training compute-optimal large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.15556*, 2022.
- Holtzman, A., Buys, J., Du, L., Forbes, M., and Choi, Y. The curious case of neural text degeneration. arXiv preprint arXiv:1904.09751, 2019.
- Jiao, X., Yin, Y., Shang, L., Jiang, X., Chen, X., Li, L., Wang, F., and Liu, Q. Tinybert: Distilling bert for natural language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.10351*, 2019.
- Kasai, J., Pappas, N., Peng, H., Cross, J., and Smith, N. A. Deep encoder, shallow decoder: Reevaluating non-autoregressive machine translation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.10369*, 2020.

- Kim, S., Gholami, A., Yao, Z., Mahoney, M. W., and Keutzer, K. I-bert: Integer-only bert quantization. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 5506– 5518. PMLR, 2021.
- Kim, S., Hooper, C., Wattanawong, T., Kang, M., Yan, R., Genc, H., Dinh, G., Huang, Q., Keutzer, K., Mahoney, M. W., et al. Full stack optimization of transformer inference: a survey. arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.14017, 2023a.
- Kim, S., Mangalam, K., Malik, J., Mahoney, M. W., Gholami, A., and Keutzer, K. Big little transformer decoder. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.07863*, 2023b.
- Kurtic, E., Campos, D., Nguyen, T., Frantar, E., Kurtz, M., Fineran, B., Goin, M., and Alistarh, D. The optimal bert surgeon: Scalable and accurate second-order pruning for large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.07259*, 2022.
- Kwon, W., Kim, S., Mahoney, M. W., Hassoun, J., Keutzer, K., and Gholami, A. A fast post-training pruning framework for transformers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.09656*, 2022.
- Leviathan, Y., Kalman, M., and Matias, Y. Fast inference from transformers via speculative decoding, 2023.
- Liu, Y., Meng, F., Zhou, J., Chen, Y., and Xu, J. Faster depthadaptive transformers. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 35, pp. 13424– 13432, 2021.
- Michel, P., Levy, O., and Neubig, G. Are sixteen heads really better than one? *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 32, 2019.

OpenAI. Gpt-4 technical report, 2023.

- Radford, A., Wu, J., Child, R., Luan, D., Amodei, D., Sutskever, I., et al. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners. *OpenAI blog*, 1(8):9, 2019.
- Rajpurkar, P., Zhang, J., Lopyrev, K., and Liang, P. SQuAD: 100,000+ questions for machine comprehension of text. In *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 2383– 2392, Austin, Texas, November 2016. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D16-1264. URL https://aclanthology.org/D16-1264.
- Sanh, V., Debut, L., Chaumond, J., and Wolf, T. Distilbert, a distilled version of bert: smaller, faster, cheaper and lighter. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1910.01108*, 2019.
- Sanh, V., Wolf, T., and Rush, A. Movement pruning: Adaptive sparsity by fine-tuning. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 33:20378–20389, 2020.

- Schuster, T., Fisch, A., Jaakkola, T., and Barzilay, R. Consistent accelerated inference via confident adaptive transformers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.08803*, 2021.
- Schuster, T., Fisch, A., Gupta, J., Dehghani, M., Bahri, D., Tran, V., Tay, Y., and Metzler, D. Confident adaptive language modeling. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:17456–17472, 2022.
- Shen, S., Dong, Z., Ye, J., Ma, L., Yao, Z., Gholami, A., Mahoney, M. W., and Keutzer, K. Q-bert: Hessian based ultra low precision quantization of bert. In *Proceedings* of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, volume 34, pp. 8815–8821, 2020.
- Stern, M., Shazeer, N., and Uszkoreit, J. Blockwise parallel decoding for deep autoregressive models. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 31, 2018.
- Sun, T., Liu, X., Zhu, W., Geng, Z., Wu, L., He, Y., Ni, Y., Xie, G., Huang, X., and Qiu, X. A simple hash-based early exiting approach for language understanding and generation. arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.01670, 2022.
- Tang, S., Wang, Y., Kong, Z., Zhang, T., Li, Y., Ding, C., Wang, Y., Liang, Y., and Xu, D. You need multiple exiting: Dynamic early exiting for accelerating unified vision language model. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 10781–10791, 2023.
- Thoppilan, R., De Freitas, D., Hall, J., Shazeer, N., Kulshreshtha, A., Cheng, H.-T., Jin, A., Bos, T., Baker, L., Du, Y., et al. Lamda: Language models for dialog applications. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.08239*, 2022.
- Touvron, H., Lavril, T., Izacard, G., Martinet, X., Lachaux, M.-A., Lacroix, T., Rozière, B., Goyal, N., Hambro, E., Azhar, F., et al. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971, 2023.
- Vaswani, A., Shazeer, N., Parmar, N., Uszkoreit, J., Jones, L., Gomez, A. N., Kaiser, Ł., and Polosukhin, I. Attention is all you need. *Advances in neural information* processing systems, 30, 2017.
- Voita, E., Talbot, D., Moiseev, F., Sennrich, R., and Titov, I. Analyzing multi-head self-attention: Specialized heads do the heavy lifting, the rest can be pruned. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1905.09418*, 2019.
- Wang, X., Wei, J., Schuurmans, D., Le, Q., Chi, E., and Zhou, D. Self-consistency improves chain of thought reasoning in language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.11171*, 2022.
- Wolf, T., Debut, L., Sanh, V., Chaumond, J., Delangue, C., Moi, A., Cistac, P., Rault, T., Louf, R., Funtowicz,

M., Davison, J., Shleifer, S., von Platen, P., Ma, C., Jernite, Y., Plu, J., Xu, C., Scao, T. L., Gugger, S., Drame, M., Lhoest, Q., and Rush, A. M. Transformers: Stateof-the-art natural language processing. In *Proceedings* of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations, pp. 38–45, Online, October 2020. Association for Computational Linguistics. URL https://www.aclweb. org/anthology/2020.emnlp-demos.6.

- Wu, X., Yao, Z., Zhang, M., Li, C., and He, Y. Extreme compression for pre-trained transformers made simple and efficient. arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.01859, 2022.
- Xin, J., Tang, R., Yu, Y., and Lin, J. Berxit: Early exiting for bert with better fine-tuning and extension to regression. In *Proceedings of the 16th conference of the European chapter of the association for computational linguistics: Main Volume*, pp. 91–104, 2021.
- Yao, Z., Yazdani Aminabadi, R., Zhang, M., Wu, X., Li, C., and He, Y. Zeroquant: Efficient and affordable posttraining quantization for large-scale transformers. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35: 27168–27183, 2022.
- Yin, H., Vahdat, A., Alvarez, J., Mallya, A., Kautz, J., and Molchanov, P. Adavit: Adaptive tokens for efficient vision transformer. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2112.07658*, 2021.
- Zadeh, A. H., Edo, I., Awad, O. M., and Moshovos, A. Gobo: Quantizing attention-based nlp models for low latency and energy efficient inference. In 2020 53rd Annual IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Microarchitecture (MICRO), pp. 811–824. IEEE, 2020.
- Zafrir, O., Boudoukh, G., Izsak, P., and Wasserblat, M. Q8bert: Quantized 8bit bert. In 2019 Fifth Workshop on Energy Efficient Machine Learning and Cognitive Computing-NeurIPS Edition (EMC2-NIPS), pp. 36–39. IEEE, 2019.
- Zhang, S., Roller, S., Goyal, N., Artetxe, M., Chen, M., Chen, S., Dewan, C., Diab, M., Li, X., Lin, X. V., et al. Opt: Open pre-trained transformer language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.01068*, 2022.

A. Datasets

SQUAD 1.1 (Rajpurkar et al., 2016) is a Question Answering dataset which has 10,570 test pairs. WMT15 FR-EN (Bojar et al., 2015) is a machine translation dataset that includes 1,500 test pairs of English to French translations. CNN/DM (Hermann et al., 2015) is a dataset for text summarization which has 11,487 test pairs. For these datasets, we set the token length for text generation at 16 for SQUAD 1.1, and 128 for both the WMT EN-FR and CNN/DM.

B. Experiment Setting

We measured match rate, $\hat{p}_{correct}$, based on Vicuna-13B (Chiang et al., 2023) which was fine-tuned using the LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023) on user-shared dialogues collected from the website ShareGPT. To the best of our knowledge, Chiang et al. (2023) is claimed to be the best performance among the open-source models available. Also, we conduct our experiments using the Huggingface Transformers library (Wolf et al., 2020).

For the language modeling classifier training of each layer in the Vicuna-13B model, we utilize the ShareGPT dataset used in fine-tuning. We freeze all model parameters except for the language modeling classifier. Training is conducted using 8 A100 GPUs, and the hyperparameters for the training can be found in Table 2. Additionally, please refer to Table 3 for the prompts we use in our evaluation.

Hyperparameter	Value
Number of Epochs	3
Learning Rate	0.00002
Batch Size	128
Optimizer	AdamW
Loss Function	Cross-Entropy
Max Sequence Length	2048
Warmup ratio	0.04
Weight Decay	0.0

Table 2. Training Hyperparameters

	Prompt						
	We have provided context information below.						
SQUAD	{context}						
	### Given this information, please answer the question: {question} ### Assistant:						
	### Instruction: Translate English sentence into French.						
	English: Sounds like a typical rugby club to me.						
	French: Ça m'a l'air d'être un club de rugby typique. #						
WMT EN-FR	English: At an English university, perhaps						
	French: Dans une université anglaise, peut-être #						
	English: {source_sentence}						
	French:						
	# Article						
	{context}						
CNN/DM							
	# Summarize the article						
	### Assistant:						

Table 3. Prompts used for the test. The terms "context", "question", and "source_sentence" represent the data inputs for each task.

C. Additional Results

In this section, we present the results of token prediction for the generated tokens in three text generation tasks, based on their respective positions. The corresponding findings can be observed in Tables 4 to 6. For the sake of clarity, token prediction was represented by grouping 2 tokens together for SQUAD, and by grouping 16 tokens together for WMT EN-FR and CNN/DM. Within the three tables, the "N" notation signifies evaluation using the pretrained lanage modeling classifier of Vicuna-13B, while "Y" indicates evaluation with the trained language modeling classifier for each layer. Overall, the analysis of the results reveals a consistent pattern of token prediction across various token positions when utilizing the same layer, *k*, and language modeling classifier.

D. Proof of Theorem 4.1



Figure 3. The given figure represents the total per-token latency and usage of compute resources when the run's length X and sub-processes k are both equal to 3. The total per-token latency will be calculated as $d + 2\bar{d}$. Over the entirety of a unit time, four compute resources are engaged for a duration of $3(d - \bar{d})$. The remaining time makes use of just one compute resource.

Proof. For a run of length X, the time required to generate the run T_X is given by

$$T_X = d + (X - 1)\overline{d}.$$

Therefore, the total per-token latency is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} T_{X_i} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} d + (X_i - 1)\bar{d}$$
$$= \bar{d} \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i + (d - \bar{d})N$$
$$= \bar{d}\ell + (d - \bar{d})N.$$

To compute the expected value of this quantity without assuming $\ell, N \gg 1$, we first need to identify the distribution of N. Note that the expectation here is over different instances of sequence generations. Since N is the number of runs, N - 1 is the number of times early predictions fail. Thus, $N - 1 = \text{Bin}(\ell - 1, 1 - p_{\text{correct}})$. Hence, $N = 1 + \text{Bin}(\ell - 1, 1 - p_{\text{correct}})$. Thus, $\mathbb{E}[N] = 1 + (\ell - 1)(1 - p_{\text{correct}}) = \ell - (\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}}$. With this, we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\bar{d}\ell + (d-\bar{d})N\right] = \bar{d}\ell + (d-\bar{d})\mathbb{E}\left[N\right] = \bar{d}\ell + (d-\bar{d})\ell - (d-\bar{d})(\ell-1)p_{\text{correct}}$$
$$= d\ell - (d-\bar{d})(\ell-1)p_{\text{correct}}.$$

For a run of length X, the $(d - \bar{d})X$ time units require k + 1 compute resources while the remaining $T_X - (d - \bar{d})X$ time unit requires one compute resource. Therefore, the total compute resources spent for the run of length X are

$$T_X - (d-d)X + (k+1)(d-d)X = d + (X-1)d - (d-d)X + (k+1)(d-d)X$$

= $\bar{d}X + d - \bar{d} + k(d-\bar{d})X$
= $(\bar{d} + k(d-\bar{d}))X + (d-\bar{d}),$

and the total compute resources spent for the entire text generation is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (\bar{d} + k(d - \bar{d}))X_i + (d - \bar{d}) = (\bar{d} + k(d - \bar{d}))\ell + (d - \bar{d})N.$$
(5)

By computing the expected value of it, we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[(\bar{d} + k(d - \bar{d}))\ell + (d - \bar{d})N \right] = (\bar{d} + k(d - \bar{d}))\ell + (d - \bar{d})\mathbb{E}[N] \\= (\bar{d} + k(d - \bar{d}))\ell + (d - \bar{d})(\ell - (\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}}) \\= (\bar{d} + (k + 1)(d - \bar{d}))\ell - (d - \bar{d})(\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}} \\= (d + k(d - \bar{d}))\ell - (d - \bar{d})(\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}} \\= d\ell - (d - \bar{d})(\ell - 1)p_{\text{correct}} + k(d - \bar{d})\ell.$$

E. Additional Trade-off Graph

We illustrate the trade-off between latency and compute resources per token. The "compute resources per token" is calculated by multiplication of equation (2) and (4). We set $\bar{d} = \frac{d}{2}$ for the following equation.

Average compute resources per token
$$\approx \frac{2+k-p_{\text{correct}}}{2}$$
. (6)



Figure 4. Theoretical trade-off curve of compute resources per token and latency for each task at the d/2 layer. In this figure, we plot the graph in terms of average computer resources per token.

			Token position								
\bar{d}	Κ	Trained	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-14	15-16	Total
	1	Ν	0.80%	7.29%	6.02%	5.66%	5.93%	6.62%	7.02%	7.66%	5.88%
	1	Y	3.06%	16.79%	16.76%	15.45%	16.58%	17.72%	17.98%	19.28%	15.45%
10 100000	2	Ν	1.43%	11.74%	9.31%	9.23%	9.70%	10.53%	10.61%	11.40%	9.25%
10 layers	3	Y	13.52%	25.17%	24.14%	23.20%	24.40%	25.35%	25.38%	26.69%	23.48%
-	5	Ν	1.91%	14.34%	11.11%	11.11%	11.70%	12.38%	12.52%	13.25%	11.04%
	5	Y	23.42%	29.57%	27.36%	27.04%	27.87%	28.92%	28.85%	30.14%	27.90%
	1	Ν	19.56%	43.20%	44.55%	43.36%	41.81%	40.36%	39.31%	39.04%	38.90%
	1	Y	37.54%	56.01%	56.53%	55.93%	54.96%	53.92%	53.69%	53.93%	52.81%
20 lavora	2	Ν	30.15%	60.79%	60.86%	59.67%	57.75%	55.23%	54.35%	53.52%	54.04%
20 layers	3	Y	51.10%	72.95%	72.39%	71.82%	71.24%	69.80%	68.60%	69.06%	68.37%
	5	Ν	36.47%	67.80%	66.63%	65.79%	63.89%	61.24%	59.86%	59.51%	60.15%
	5	Y	57.37%	79.05%	78.03%	77.62%	76.92%	75.63%	74.05%	74.53%	74.15%
	1	Ν	55.05%	70.19%	66.48%	66.25%	64.72%	61.70%	60.42%	58.39%	62.90%
	1	Y	65.36%	78.73%	76.79%	74.30%	73.76%	71.01%	69.65%	69.09%	72.34%
20 101000	2	Ν	71.66%	85.21%	81.68%	80.46%	79.86%	76.47%	74.84%	73.15%	77.92%
50 layers	3	Y	84.03%	92.37%	91.04%	88.73%	88.43%	86.06%	85.05%	84.20%	87.49%
	5	Ν	78.84%	90.15%	87.94%	86.12%	85.43%	82.22%	80.77%	79.30%	83.84%
		Y	91.12%	95.70%	94.90%	93.41%	92.62%	90.85%	90.27%	89.43%	92.29%
	1	Ν	73.73%	85.51%	82.93%	81.13%	80.75%	78.99%	78.10%	76.98%	79.77%
	1	Y	82.74%	91.32%	90.70%	88.20%	88.25%	87.39%	86.96%	85.89%	87.68%
25 lovoro	2	Ν	90.03%	96.02%	94.68%	93.48%	93.48%	92.01%	91.32%	90.10%	92.64%
55 layers	3	Y	96.26%	98.58%	98.32%	97.88%	97.65%	97.11%	96.70%	96.11%	97.33%
	5	Ν	94.64%	98.12%	97.40%	96.54%	96.20%	95.27%	94.64%	94.01%	95.85%
	5	Y	98.55%	99.44%	99.38%	99.19%	98.87%	98.71%	98.37%	97.98%	98.81%
	1	Ν	82.12%	91.66%	90.79%	88.70%	88.90%	87.89%	87.58%	86.44%	88.01%
-	1	Y	87.70%	94.28%	93.73%	91.95%	92.28%	91.66%	91.29%	90.50%	91.67%
	2	Ν	96.84%	98.86%	98.57%	98.09%	98.02%	97.55%	97.04%	96.37%	97.67%
57 layers	3	Y	98.56%	99.47%	99.35%	99.19%	99.12%	98.91%	98.58%	98.07%	98.91%
	5	Ν	99.04%	99.62%	99.53%	99.30%	99.17%	99.03%	98.71%	98.28%	99.08%
	3	Y	99.56%	99.81%	99.84%	99.77%	99.70%	99.62%	99.44%	99.21%	99.62%

Table 4. The token prediction results for each token position in SQUAD. \bar{d} means intermediate transformer layer.

			Token position								
\overline{d}	Κ	Trained	1-16	17-32	33-48	49-64	65-80	81-96	97-112	113-128	Total
10 layers	1	Ν	1.45%	2.01%	2.35%	2.12%	2.35%	2.66%	2.93%	3.30%	2.40%
	1	Y	3.60%	8.08%	9.60%	10.80%	12.02%	13.42%	14.92%	16.08%	11.06%
	2	Ν	2.65%	3.74%	4.33%	4.35%	4.40%	4.74%	5.20%	5.60%	4.38%
	3	Y	5.53%	11.08%	13.33%	14.33%	15.86%	17.89%	19.75%	20.90%	14.83%
	5	Ν	3.54%	4.82%	5.50%	5.59%	5.58%	6.03%	6.51%	7.00%	5.57%
	5	Y	6.73%	13.00%	15.05%	15.92%	17.84%	20.24%	22.38%	23.43%	16.82%
	1	Ν	11.55%	16.65%	17.45%	20.37%	22.60%	25.95%	28.40%	30.08%	21.63%
	1	Y	13.60%	21.05%	24.03%	28.37%	31.07%	35.65%	38.65%	40.95%	29.17%
20 1.000	2	Ν	17.87%	24.17%	25.78%	29.95%	33.10%	38.50%	41.23%	42.89%	31.69%
20 layers	3	Y	22.08%	30.01%	33.97%	39.87%	43.90%	50.11%	53.63%	55.55%	41.14%
	5	Ν	22.33%	28.84%	30.29%	34.92%	39.20%	44.41%	47.65%	49.44%	37.13%
-	5	Y	27.49%	36.51%	40.65%	46.85%	51.28%	57.24%	60.45%	62.28%	47.84%
	1	Ν	28.97%	32.49%	33.22%	38.12%	40.79%	45.30%	47.90%	50.70%	39.69%
	1	Y	32.79%	39.03%	40.70%	46.02%	50.68%	55.72%	58.84%	61.83%	48.20%
20 101000	2	Ν	48.05%	53.57%	55.64%	60.53%	64.22%	67.84%	70.70%	73.16%	61.71%
50 layers	3	Y	52.70%	59.63%	62.35%	66.78%	72.00%	75.52%	78.53%	80.46%	68.50%
	5	Ν	56.83%	61.02%	62.43%	66.80%	71.14%	75.01%	77.78%	79.71%	68.84%
	5	Y	61.77%	67.57%	69.71%	73.43%	78.43%	81.90%	84.68%	86.21%	75.46%
	1	Ν	59.78%	60.45%	62.65%	66.26%	71.51%	73.71%	76.38%	78.43%	68.64%
	1	Y	64.29%	66.23%	69.20%	73.04%	77.93%	80.60%	82.96%	84.49%	74.84%
25 Januara	2	Ν	79.89%	79.73%	80.28%	82.90%	86.58%	89.11%	90.45%	91.33%	85.03%
55 layers	3	Y	83.93%	86.30%	86.48%	88.28%	91.11%	93.23%	94.40%	94.97%	89.84%
	5	Ν	85.90%	86.35%	85.90%	87.53%	90.48%	92.51%	93.58%	94.05%	89.54%
	5	Y	89.22%	91.40%	90.74%	92.10%	94.12%	95.72%	96.65%	96.90%	93.36%
	1	Ν	73.90%	71.87%	72.45%	75.47%	80.09%	81.95%	84.05%	85.42%	78.15%
	1	Y	77.30%	76.32%	77.35%	80.82%	84.78%	86.85%	88.49%	89.58%	82.69%
-	2	Ν	91.86%	91.50%	91.50%	92.25%	93.83%	95.14%	95.84%	96.34%	93.53%
57 layers	3	Y	93.66%	94.02%	93.89%	94.69%	95.87%	96.79%	97.31%	97.64%	95.48%
	5	Ν	95.60%	95.69%	95.01%	95.56%	96.51%	97.23%	97.76%	97.90%	96.41%
	3	Y	96.69%	97.14%	96.75%	97.15%	97.81%	98.29%	98.66%	98.88%	97.67%

Table 5. The token prediction results for each token position in WMT EN-FR. \bar{d} means intermediate transformer layer.

			Token position								
\overline{d}	Κ	Trained	1-16	17-32	33-48	49-64	65-80	81-96	97-112	113-128	Total
10 layers	1	Ν	0.85%	7.42%	7.43%	7.99%	8.26%	8.64%	8.71%	8.54%	7.23%
	1	Y	15.32%	17.20%	17.80%	18.56%	19.27%	20.29%	21.43%	22.27%	19.02%
	2	Ν	12.75%	11.97%	12.01%	12.94%	13.25%	13.50%	13.33%	13.01%	12.84%
	3	Y	21.92%	25.55%	26.63%	27.63%	28.43%	29.43%	30.18%	30.78%	27.57%
	5	Ν	14.82%	14.31%	14.44%	15.46%	15.73%	16.05%	15.68%	15.21%	15.21%
	3	Y	24.98%	29.34%	30.45%	31.61%	32.41%	33.36%	33.99%	34.53%	31.33%
	1	Ν	33.34%	33.67%	31.85%	31.87%	31.46%	31.64%	31.50%	31.29%	32.08%
	1	Y	42.24%	44.45%	43.03%	43.09%	43.16%	43.75%	44.50%	45.01%	43.65%
20.1	2	Ν	47.68%	48.47%	46.01%	46.23%	45.82%	45.96%	45.64%	45.03%	46.36%
20 layers	3	Y	60.46%	61.38%	59.67%	59.98%	60.19%	60.76%	61.13%	61.25%	60.60%
	5	Ν	54.27%	54.68%	52.17%	52.40%	52.01%	52.06%	51.71%	50.80%	52.51%
	3	Y	67.83%	68.02%	66.35%	66.72%	66.88%	67.52%	67.71%	67.63%	67.33%
	1	N	57.17%	54.63%	52.49%	52.79%	52.35%	52.10%	51.86%	51.15%	53.07%
	1	Y	63.01%	62.35%	60.84%	61.26%	61.17%	61.15%	61.14%	60.68%	61.45%
20.1	2	Ν	70.92%	69.59%	67.80%	68.27%	68.06%	67.64%	67.01%	65.81%	68.14%
30 layers	3	Y	78.99%	79.32%	78.63%	78.98%	78.85%	78.58%	77.97%	77.05%	78.55%
		Ν	76.21%	75.51%	74.03%	74.51%	74.39%	74.05%	73.18%	71.88%	74.22%
	3	Y	84.95%	85.47%	85.31%	85.40%	85.32%	84.94%	84.10%	83.16%	84.83%
	1	Ν	70.56%	70.11%	68.56%	68.49%	68.45%	68.41%	68.40%	68.20%	68.90%
	1	Y	78.70%	79.48%	78.51%	78.44%	78.23%	78.27%	78.14%	77.92%	78.46%
25.1	2	Ν	85.92%	85.89%	85.16%	85.10%	85.00%	84.95%	84.61%	83.95%	85.07%
35 layers	3	Y	93.22%	93.69%	93.52%	93.44%	93.28%	93.02%	92.60%	91.80%	93.07%
	5	Ν	90.46%	90.66%	90.32%	90.27%	90.14%	89.99%	89.67%	88.83%	90.04%
	3	Y	96.33%	96.56%	96.49%	96.41%	96.24%	95.99%	95.59%	94.82%	96.06%
	1	Ν	79.38%	79.84%	78.79%	78.44%	78.36%	78.41%	78.57%	78.78%	78.82%
-	1	Y	84.51%	85.32%	84.51%	84.30%	84.14%	84.12%	84.17%	84.27%	84.42%
	2	Ν	93.72%	94.31%	94.07%	93.97%	93.78%	93.79%	93.57%	93.28%	93.81%
57 layers	3	Y	96.71%	97.02%	96.94%	96.85%	96.74%	96.52%	96.26%	95.91%	96.62%
	5	Ν	96.96%	97.20%	97.15%	97.13%	97.04%	96.88%	96.58%	96.12%	96.88%
	Э	Y	98.64%	98.66%	98.60%	98.59%	98.50%	98.33%	98.11%	97.77%	98.40%

Table 6. The token prediction results for each token position in CNN/DM. \bar{d} means intermediate transformer layer.