CILDA: Contrastive Data Augmentation using Intermediate Layer Knowledge Distillation

Md Akmal Haidar^{1*} Mehdi Rezagholizadeh¹ Abbas Ghaddar¹ Khalil Bibi¹ Philippe Langlais² Pascal Poupart³

¹Huawei Noah's Ark Lab

² RALI/DIRO, Université de Montréal, Canada

³ David R. Cheriton School of Computer Science, University of Waterloo

{mehdi.rezagholizadeh,abbas.ghaddar}@huawei.com
felipe@iro.umontreal.ca, ppoupart@uwaterloo.ca

Abstract

Knowledge distillation (KD) is an efficient framework for compressing large-scale pretrained language models. Recent years have seen a surge of research aiming to improve KD by leveraging Contrastive Learning, Intermediate Layer Distillation, Data Augmentation, and Adversarial Training. In this work, we propose a learning based data augmentation technique tailored for knowledge distillation, called CILDA. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that intermediate layer representations of the main task are used in improving the quality of augmented samples. More precisely, we introduce an augmentation technique for KD based on intermediate layer matching using contrastive loss to improve masked adversarial data augmentation. CILDA outperforms existing state-of-theart KD approaches on the GLUE benchmark, as well as in an out-of-domain evaluation.

1 Introduction

The exponentially increasing size of pre-trained large language models (Devlin et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020; Raffel et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2020) has been a persistent concern regarding the efficiency and scalability of Natural Language Understanding (NLU) in real world applications. Knowledge Distillation (KD) (Buciluă et al., 2006; Hinton et al., 2014) is a technique for transferring the knowledge from a large-scale model (called teacher) to a smaller one (called student), so that the latter model can be employed on edge device (Sanh et al., 2019a; Tang et al., 2019; Mukherjee and Awadallah, 2020; Li et al., 2021). This is done by minimizing the KL divergence between the teacher and student probabilistic outputs. Numerous techniques have been exploited recently to increase the knowledge transfer beyond logits matching. For instance, it has been found beneficial to perform distillation on the internal components (parameters) of the teacher and student, which is known as Intermediate Layer Distillation (Sun et al., 2019, 2020b; Passban et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020a,b; Fu et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021).

Data Augmentation has also been successful for KD (Jiao et al., 2019; Shen et al., 2020; Qu et al., 2021), as researchers have found that the student has less opportunity to acquire useful information from the teacher when limited data are available for training (Kamalloo et al., 2021, 2022; Jafari et al., 2021a). Adversarial Training was also employed in KD (Zhu et al., 2019; Rashid et al., 2020, 2021; He et al., 2021) to improve the robustness and generalization, as the student may predict inconsistent outputs with slight distortion to the data distributions (Li et al., 2021). Recently, Contrastive Learning (Gutmann and Hyvärinen, 2010; Hjelm et al., 2018; Arora et al., 2019) has been exploited for improving knowledge transfer (Tian et al., 2019), and to optimize the intermediate layer mapping scheme (Sun et al., 2020a).

Each of the aforementioned techniques has proven effective in addressing a specific challenge in KD. Yet, we are not aware of a single method that takes advantage of all of them. In this paper, we propose CILDA, a KD method that incorporate Contrasting Learning, Intermediate Layer Distillation, Data Augmentation, and Adversarial Training. Distilling into a 6-layer BERT model, CILDA delivers new state-of-the-art results on the GLUE benchmark (Wang et al., 2018), as well as outperforming other KD methods in out-of-domain evaluations.

^{*} Work done while at Huawei.

2 Related Work

Many studies (Jawahar et al., 2019; Tenney et al., 2019; Kovaleva et al., 2019) have noticed that important structural linguistic information are hidden in the intermediate layers of Transformer models (Vaswani et al., 2017). Recent KD methods propose to match teacher and student: intermediate layers representations (Jiao et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019, 2020b; Wu et al., 2020), embedding matrix (Sanh et al., 2019a), and self-attention distributions (Wang et al., 2020a,b). Other variants of KD methods have been proposed such as Annealing-KD (Jafari et al., 2021b) and Pro-KD (Rezagholizadeh et al., 2021), two stage distillation methods where a smooth and gradual training of the student is controlled by a dynamic temperature factor, followed by a simple cross entropy loss for a few epochs.

Augmented adversarial examples (Miyato et al., 2016) are label-preserving transformations in the embedding space that are used to improve generalizability of models. FreeLB (Zhu et al., 2019) is an adversarial algorithm which creates virtual adversarial examples from word embeddings, and then performs the parameter updates on these adversarial embeddings. MATE-KD (Rashid et al., 2021) is a min-max adversarial data augmentation approach for KD, where an extra *generator* model is trained to generate adversarial text by maximizing the logit output margins between the teacher and the student.

Contrastive learning is a self-supervised representation learning method (Chen et al., 2020; Qu et al., 2021; van den Oord et al., 2018) which learns the feature representation of the samples by contrasting positive and negative samples. CODIR (Sun et al., 2020a) is a contrast-enhanced diversity promoting method between teacher and student intermediate representations of data samples from the same class. MATE-KD is the most related to our solution, with one notable difference: we believe our technique is the first to deploy intermediate layers distillation with the contrastive objective in the data augmentation process.

3 CILDA

In this section, we introduce CILDA, our contrastive approach for masked adversarial text augmentation for knowledge distillation using intermediate layer matching. Inspired by (Rashid et al., 2021), we deploy a generator (e.g. BERT) which will be trained to map masked inputs, \tilde{X} , to augmented samples, X'. The objective of this mapping is to perturb the inputs (in their vicinity) such that their corresponding output and intermediate layer representations of the teacher and student networks diverge to their maximum. Generating such maximum divergence augmented samples aims to fill the existing major gaps in the training data. We mask input tokens with a certain pre-defined probability, p. The architecture of our model is depicted in Figure 1. Our training is comprised of two alternating steps we describe hereafter.



Figure 1: Illustration of maximization and minimization steps of CILDA.

Maximization Step: Generating Augmented Samples In the maximization step, the generator is trained in a way that the difference between the teacher and the student are maximized. As opposed to MATE-KD which only evaluates the divergence of the student and teacher networks based on their output, our technique takes intermediate layer matching into account as well. To the best of our knowledge this is the first time that the distance of intermediate layer representations are considered in the data-augmentation generation process. To be concise, MATE-KD only pays attention to the distance of samples in the output space, while our technique concerns the distance of samples in the input space as well. We hypothesize that to identify maximum divergence augmented samples, both input feature distances and output predictions are important. Our CILDA loss function to train

the generator can be described as:

$$L_{G_{\phi}} = \alpha_1 L_G + \alpha_2 L_{CRD}$$

$$L_G = KL\left(\sigma(\frac{T(X')}{\tau_1}), \sigma(\frac{S_{\theta}(X')}{\tau_1})\right) \qquad (1)$$

where L_G is the KL-divergence loss between the teacher and the student logits, T and S_{θ} represent the teacher model and the student model with θ parameters respectively, σ is the softmax function and τ_1 is the temperature parameter that controls the softness of the output distributions, α_1 and α_2 are hyper-parameters. X' is the adversarial text output obtained by applying argmax to the generator output in the forward pass. Due to the nondifferentiability issue of argmax in the backward pass, we use Gumbel-Softmax (Jang et al., 2016) at the output of the generator. More details can be found in (Rashid et al., 2021). L_{CRD} is the contrastive distillation loss that we introduced to the maximization step of MATE-KD. This contrastive loss is obtained by using the intermediate representation outputs of the teacher and the student models:

$$L_{CRD} = -\log \frac{exp(\langle \bar{h}_{k}^{T}, \bar{h}_{k}^{S_{\theta}} > /\tau_{2})}{\sum_{j=0}^{K} exp(\langle \bar{h}_{k}^{T}, \bar{h}_{j}^{S_{\theta}} > /\tau_{2})}$$
(2)

where τ_2 is the temperature parameter that controls the concentration level (Sun et al., 2020a). \bar{h}_k^T and $\bar{h}_{k}^{S_{\theta}}$ are the intermediate layer representation of the teacher and student networks respectively, and < ... > is the cosine similarity between two feature vectors. k and j are indices of the samples of a mini-batch: k is the index of positive samples (i.e. the k^{th} sample of the mini-batch is sent to both of the student and teacher networks to obtain their representations) and when $j \neq k$, we get negative samples (i.e. any other sample in the mini-batch excluding the k^{th} sample) in a batch of K samples. The goal of this objective function is to map the student representations $\bar{h}_k^{S_{\theta}}$ of the positive sample k to \bar{h}_k^T , as well as the negative representations $\{\bar{h}_{j}^{S_{\theta}}\}_{j\neq k}^{\tilde{K}}$ far apart from \bar{h}_{k}^{T} .

For an arbitrary sample l in a mini-batch, the entire intermediate layer representations of the teacher and the student models (e.g. the $\langle CLS \rangle$ representation of each layer of the networks) are concatenated to form $\hat{h}_l^T = [\bar{h}_{1,l}^T, \cdots, \bar{h}_{n,l}^T], \hat{h}_l^{S_{\theta}} = [\bar{h}_{1,l}^{S_{\theta}}, \cdots, \bar{h}_{m,l}^{S_{\theta}}]$. Then these concatenated representations are further mapped into the same-size

lower-dimensional spaces using linear projections $\bar{h}_l^T, \bar{h}_l^{S_{\theta}} \in R^u$ to calculate the distillation loss L_{CRD} . Here, n and m denote the number of intermediate layers of the teacher and the student networks respectively.

Minimization Step: Deploying Augmented Samples In the minimization step, the augmented adversarial samples produced by the generator and the training samples are used to minimize the difference between the teacher and the student. For this step, in the very general form, one can consider to match the student and teacher networks on their outputs and intermediate layer representations (e.g. using the contrastive loss) and the CE loss to match the output of the student with the labels:

$$L_{S_{\theta}} = \lambda_1 L_{CE} + \lambda_2 L_{KD} \tag{3}$$

where, L_{CE} describes the cross-entropy loss between the true label.

4 Experiments

4.1 Datasets and Evaluation

We experiment on 7 tasks from the GLUE benchmark (Wang et al., 2018): 2 single-sentence (CoLA and SST-2) and 5 sentence-pair (MRPC, RTE, QQP, QNLI, and MNLI) classification tasks. Following prior works, we report Pearson correlation on STS-B, Matthews correlation on CoLA, F1 score on MRPC, and use the accuracy otherwise. For out-ofdomain evaluation, we report the performances on HANS (McCoy et al., 2019), SciTail (Khot et al., 2018), and IMDB using the models finetuned on MNLI, QQP, and SST-2 respectively.

4.2 Implementation Details

We use the 24-layer RoBERTa-large (Liu et al., 2020) and the 6-layer DistilRoBERTa (Sanh et al., 2019b) as the backbone for the teacher and the student models respectively. We perform hyperparameter tuning, and select best performing models using early stopping on dev sets. We use a linear transformation to map the intermediate representations into a 128-dimensional space and normalized them before computing the loss L_{CRD} . For each batch of data, we train the generator for n_G steps and the student model for $n_S = 100$ steps. We use $n_G = 20$ for CoLA, MRPC, RTE tasks and $n_G=10$ for the rest of the tasks. Following (Rashid et al., 2021), we set $p_{th} = 0.3$, $\alpha_1 = 1, \alpha_2 = 1, \tau_1 = 1.0, \tau_2 = 2.0$ for all of our

Model	CoLA	SST-2	MRPC	STS-B	QQP	MNLI	QNLI	RTE	Avg.
				DEV					
Teacher	68.1	96.4	91.9	92.3	91.5	90.2	94.6	86.3	88.9
Vanilla-KD	60.9	92.5		89.0	91.6	84.1	91.3	71.1	83.8
Annealing-KD	61.7	93.1	90.6	89.0	91.5	85.3	92.5	73.6	84.7
MATE-KD	65.9	94.1	91.9	90.4	91.9	85.8	94.6	75.0	86.2
Ī CILDĀ	67.1	⁻ 94.7	<u> </u>	90.5	92.1	86.8	- 92.9	76.2	86.5
				TEST					
Teacher	68.6	97.1	93.0	92.4	90.2	90.7	95.5	87.9	89.4
Vanilla-KD	54.3 -	93.1	86.0	85.7	89.5	83.6	- 90.8	74.1	82.1
Annealing-KD	54.0	93.6	86.0	86.8	89.7	84.4	90.8	73.7	82.4
MATE-KD	56.0	94.9	90.2	88.0	89.7	85.2	92.1	75.0	83.9
Ī CILDĀ	56.2	94.9	90.5	89.0	89.9	<u> </u>	92.5	77.0	84.5

Table 1: DEV and TEST performances on GLUE benchmark when $RoBERTa_{24}$ and $DistillRoberta_6$ are used as backbone for the teacher and student variants respectively. Bold mark describes the best results.

experiments. We set λ_1 and λ_2 to 1/3 for the original training samples. For the augmented samples, we use $\lambda_2 = 2/9$, $\lambda_3 = 1/9$ for all tasks. The learning rate and the batch size are tuned from the set of {1e-5, 2e-5, 4e-6} and {8, 16, 32} respectively.

4.3 Results and Analysis

Table 1 shows the performances of the teacher, baselines, and our method on the GLUE dev and test sets. We compared CILDA to the Vanilla-KD (Hinton et al., 2014) baseline, and against 2 strong recently proposed methods ¹: Annealing-KD (Jafari et al., 2021b) and MATE-KD (Rashid et al., 2021). We observe that CILDA outperforms these models on all GLUE tasks, except on QNLI dev where MATE-KD performs better and SST-2 test where CILDA is on par with MATE-KD. On average over test sets, CILDA outperforms MATE-KD and Annealing-KD by a margin of 0.6% and 2.1% respectively.



Figure 2: Divergence (lower is better) between the teacher and student logits on GLUE dev sets.

We investigate the logits generated by different methods to better understand why CILDA performs better. Figure 2 shows the divergence (lower is better) between the teacher and student logits on GLUE dev sets (except STS-B since it is a regression task) for 4 KD methods. Expectedly, Vanilla-KD (no enhancement) had the maximum divergence with teacher logits (which can be easily distinguished from other methods). We observe that CILDA mimic the teacher better than other methods on all tasks, which may partially explain the performance gains obtained by CILDA.

Model	HANS	PAWS	IMDB
Teacher	78.2	43.3	88.9
w/o KD Vanilla-KD Annealing-KD MATE-KD	58.6 58.9 61.2 66.6	34.7 36.5 35.8 38.3	83.7 84.0 84.6 85.0
CILDA	68.1	40.5	85.2

Table 2: Out-of-domain performances of models trained on MNLI, QQP, SST-2 and evaluated on HANS, PAWS, and IMDB respectively.

Furthermore, we measure the robustness and generalization ability of the tested methods by evaluating them on out-of-domain test sets. Table 2 shows performances of models fine-tuned on MNLI, QQP, SST-2 and tested on HANS, PAWS, and IMDB respectively. CILDA significantly outperforms the second best method (MATE-KD) by 1.6% and 2.2% on HANS and PAWS respectively, and by a margin of 0.2% on IMDB.

¹We compare with these models because we have published results on GLUE leaderboard using the same teacher and student backbone models.

5 Conclusion and Future Work

We proposed a min-max adversarial data augmentation framework for KD, which is powered by contrastive distillation loss for intermediate layer matching. Our algorithm maximizes the intermediate and logit representation margin between the teacher and the student models. In future works, we would like to investigate the distillation from superlarge models such as Megatron (Shoeybi et al., 2019) and T5 (Raffel et al., 2020). Also, we would like to improve the generator output quality via distillation from generative models like GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019).

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²A new deep learning computing framework https:// www.mindspore.cn/

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