# Hyper-X: A Unified Hypernetwork for Multi-Task Multilingual Transfer

Ahmet Üstün<sup>1</sup>, Arianna Bisazza<sup>1</sup>, Gosse Bouma<sup>1</sup>, Gertjan van Noord<sup>1</sup>, Sebastian Ruder<sup>2</sup>

> <sup>1</sup>University of Groningen <sup>2</sup>Google Research a.ustun@rug.nl

### Abstract

Massively multilingual models are promising for transfer learning across tasks and languages. However, existing methods are unable to fully leverage training data when it is available in different task-language combinations. To exploit such heterogeneous supervision, we propose Hyper-X, a single hypernetwork that unifies multi-task and multilingual learning with efficient adaptation. This model generates weights for adapter modules conditioned on both tasks and language embeddings. By learning to combine task and language-specific knowledge, our model enables zero-shot transfer for unseen languages and task-language combinations. Our experiments on a diverse set of languages demonstrate that Hyper-X achieves the best or competitive gain when a mixture of multiple resources is available, while being on par with strong baselines in the standard scenario. Hyper-X is also considerably more efficient in terms of parameters and resources compared to methods that train separate adapters. Finally, Hyper-X consistently produces strong results in few-shot scenarios for new languages, showing the versatility of our approach beyond zero-shot transfer.<sup>1</sup>

### **1** Introduction

Transfer learning across languages and tasks has long been an important focus in NLP (Ruder et al., 2019). Recent advances in massively multilingual transformers (MMTs; Devlin et al., 2019; Conneau et al., 2020) show great success in this area. A benefit of such models is their ability to transfer task-specific information in a high-resource source language to a low-resource target language (Figure 1, (1)). Alternatively, such models can leverage knowledge from multiple tasks for potentially stronger generalization (Figure 1, (2)).

Over time, many research communities have been developing resources for specific languages

<sup>1</sup>Our code for Hyper-X will be released at https://github.com/ahmetustun/hyperx



Figure 1: Experimental settings of different (zero-shot) cross-lingual transfer scenarios. Single-task (1) is the standard setting; multi-task (2) enables cross-task transfer. Mixed-language multi-task (3) additionally allows leveraging task data from multiple source languages for different tasks.

of focus (Strassel and Tracey, 2016; Nivre et al., 2018; Wilie et al., 2020). In practice, it is thus common for data to be available for different tasks in a mixture of different languages. For instance, in addition to English data for both POS tagging and Named Entity Recognition (NER), a treebank with POS annotation may be available for Turkish, while NER data may be available for Arabic. This example is illustrated in Figure 1, (3).

In contrast to existing cross-lingual transfer paradigms such as single-task zero-shot transfer (Hu et al., 2020) or few-shot learning (Lauscher et al., 2020a), multi-task learning on such a mixture of datasets (mixed-language multi-task) poses an opportunity to leverage all available data and

Model	DESCRIPTION	X-Lang.	New Lang.	M-Task	X-Pair (LT)
MAD-X (Pfeiffer et al., 2020b)	Cross-lingual transfer via language/task adapters	~	~	×	<b>v</b>
HyperFormer (Mahabadi et al., 2021b)	Multi-task learning via shared hypernet adapters	×	×	~	×
Parameter Space Fact. (PSF; Ponti et al., 2021)	Transfer to unseen task-language pairs via PSF	×	×	~	<b>~</b>
Hyper-X (this work)	Multi-language/task transfer via a unified hypernet	~	~	~	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>

Table 1: A comparison of existing approaches and Hyper-X based on their transfer capabilities. We characterize approaches based on whether they can perform cross-lingual transfer (X-Lang.) and cross-task transfer via multitask learning (M-Task) in the zero-shot setting or to unseen language-task pairs (X-Pair). As a particular case of cross-lingual transfer, 'New Lang' represents the case when transfer is generalizable to unseen languages not covered by the multilingual pre-trained model.

to transfer information across both tasks and languages to unseen task–language combinations (Ponti et al., 2021).

Standard fine-tuning strategies, however, are limited in their ability to leverage such heterogeneous task and language data. Specifically, MMTs are prone to suffer from catastrophic forgetting and interference (Wang et al., 2020) when they are finetuned on multiple sources. Adapters (Houlsby et al., 2019), a parameter-efficient fine-tuning alternative are commonly used for transfer either across tasks (Mahabadi et al., 2021b) or languages (Üstün et al., 2020) but require training a new adapter for each new language (Pfeiffer et al., 2020b).

In this paper, we propose a unified hypernetwork, **HYPER-X** that is particularly suited to this setting by leveraging multiple sources of information including different languages and tasks within a single model. The core idea consists of taking language and task embeddings as input, and generating adapter parameters via a hypernetwork for the corresponding task-language combination. By parameterizing each task and language separately, Hyper-X enables adaptation to unseen combinations at test time while exploiting all available data resources.

Additionally, Hyper-X can make seamless use of masked language modelling (MLM) on unlabelled data, which enables it to perform zero-shot adaptation to languages not covered by the MMT during pre-training. MLM also enables Hyper-X to learn a language representation even without available task-specific data.

In sum, our work brings together a number of successful transfer 'ingredients' that have been explored in very recent literature (see Table 1), namely multi-task learning, multilingual learning, further pre-training, along a high degree of compute- and time-efficiency.

We evaluate Hyper-X for cross-lingual transfer on two sequence labelling tasks, namely part-ofspeech (POS) tagging and named-entity recognition (NER) in 16 languages-7 of which are not covered in pre-training-across the three experimental setups depicted in Figure 1. Our experiments demonstrate that Hyper-X is on par with strong baselines for cross-lingual transfer from English. In the multi-task and mixed-language settings, Hyper-X shows a large improvement compared to the standard baselines and matches the performance of the less efficient adapter-based model due to its ability to leverage heterogeneous sources of supervision. Analysis highlights that Hyper-X is superior in terms of efficiency-performance tradeoffs. Finally, we evaluate our model in a few-shot setting, where Hyper-X consistently achieves competitive performance across different languages and tasks, which suggests the usability of our approach in continuous learning scenarios.

### 2 Background

### 2.1 Adapters

Adapters (Rebuffi et al., 2018) are light-weight bottleneck layers inserted into a MMT to fine-tune the model for a new task (Houlsby et al., 2019), language (Pfeiffer et al., 2020b) or domain (Bapna and Firat, 2019). The pre-trained weights of the transformer remain fixed and only adapter parameters are updated. This setup prevents catastrophic forgetting (McCloskey and Cohen, 1989) by encapsulating specialized knowledge.

Formally, an adapter module  $A_i$  at layer *i* consists of a down-projection  $\mathbf{D}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times b}$  of the in-



Figure 2: Overview of Hyper-X. The hypernetwork (1) takes the concatenation of task, language and layer embeddings as input and generates a flat parameter vector. Before the final transformation, the source projector network projects the combination of these embeddings to a smaller dimension. The parameter vector is then reshaped and cast to weights of the adapter (2), which are inserted into a transformer layer (3).

put  $\mathbf{z}_i \in \mathbb{R}^h$  with the bottleneck dimension *b*, a non-linear function (ReLU) and an up-projection  $\mathbf{U}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{b \times h}$ :

$$A_i(\mathbf{z}_i) = \mathbf{U}_i.\text{ReLU}(\mathbf{D}_i.\mathbf{z}_i) + \mathbf{z}_i$$
(1)

where this feed-forward network is followed by a residual link connecting to the input  $\mathbf{z}_i$ .

### 2.2 Hypernetworks

A hypernetwork is a network that generates the weights for a larger main network (Ha et al., 2016). When using a hypernetwork, the main model learns the desired objective (e.g. classification) whereas the hypernetwork takes an auxiliary input (usually an embedding) that represents the structure of the weights and generates parameters of the main model. A hypernetwork thus enables learning a single parameter space shared across multiple transfer dimensions such as tasks (Mahabadi et al., 2021b) or languages (Platanios et al., 2018) while also allowing input-specific reparametrization.

More concretely, a hypernetwork is a generator function  $\mathcal{H}$  that takes an embedding  $\mathbf{s}^{(h)} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_s}$  representing the input sources, and generates the model parameters  $\Theta$ :

$$\Theta \triangleq \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{s}^{(h)}) \tag{2}$$

While  $\mathcal{H}$  can be any differentiable function, it is commonly parameterized as a simple linear transform ( $\mathbf{W}_h$ ) that generates a flat vector with the dimension of  $d_a$ , which corresponds to the total number of model parameters.  $\mathbf{W}_h$  is shared across all input sources, enabling maximum sharing.

## 3 Hyper-X

We propose, Hyper-X, an efficient adaptation of a MMT by exploiting multiple sources of information for transfer to an unseen language or tasklanguage pairs. Specifically, Hyper-X learns to combine task and language-specific knowledge in the form of embeddings using a hypernetwork. Conditioned on the task and language embeddings, the hypernetwork generates *composite* adapter layers for the corresponding task-language combination (e.g. NER in Turkish), thereby enabling transfer to arbitrary task-language pairs at test time. Figure 2 provides an overview of our model.

By jointly learning from task and language information, Hyper-X overcomes some of the limitations of prior work: Unlike adapter-based approaches (Pfeiffer et al., 2020b; Üstün et al., 2020) that transfer cross-lingual information only to the task of the task adapter, our model is capable of leveraging supervision—and positive transfer from both multiple tasks and languages. Moreover, unlike Ponti et al. (2021) who require annotated data in one of the target tasks for each language, Hyper-X is able to perform zero-shot transfer even when there is no annotated data from any of the target tasks, by using MLM as an auxiliary task for each language.

## 3.1 A Hypernetwork for Task-Language Adapters

We use a standard hypernetwork as the parameter generator function. However, instead of generating the full model parameters, our hypernetwork generates the parameters for each adapter layer. Concretely, the hypernetwork  $\mathcal{H}$  generates adapter parameters where each adapter layer  $A_i$  consists of down and up-projection matrices ( $\mathbf{D}_i, \mathbf{U}_i$ ):

$$\mathbf{D}_i, \mathbf{U}_i \triangleq \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{s}^{(h)}) \tag{3}$$

**Decoupling Tasks and Languages** In Hyper-X, we condition the parameter generation on the input task and language. Therefore, given a combination of task  $t \in \{t_1, ..., t_m\}$  and language  $l \in \{l_1, ..., l_n\}$ , the source embedding contains knowledge from both sources:  $\mathbf{s}^{(h)} \approx (t, l)$ . We parameterize each task and language via separate embeddings, which enables adaptation to any tasklanguage combination. Task and language embeddings  $(\mathbf{s}^{(t)}, \mathbf{s}^{(l)})$  are low-dimensional vectors that are learned together with the parameters of the hypernetwork. During training, for each mini-batch we update these embeddings according to the task and language that the mini-batch is sampled from.

MLM as Auxiliary Task Hyper-X learns separate tasks and languages embeddings—as long as the task and language have been seen during training. As annotated data in many under-represented languages is limited, we employ MLM as an auxiliary task during training to enable computing embeddings for every language. Moreover, MLM enables a better zero-shot performance for languages that are not included in MMT pre-training (see § 6.2 for a detailed analysis of the impact of MLM).

Sharing Across Layers In addition to the task and language embedding, we learn a layer embedding  $s^{(i)}$  (Mahabadi et al., 2021b; Ansell et al., 2021) corresponding to the transformer layer index *i* where the respective adapter module is plugged in. Since Hyper-X generates an adapter for each Transformer layer, learning independent layer embeddings allows for information sharing across those layers. Moreover, as layer embeddings allow the use of a single hypernetwork for all Transformer layers, they reduce the trainable parameters, i.e., size of the hypernetwork, by a factor corresponding to the number of layers of the main model.

**Combining Multiple Sources** To combine language, task and layer embeddings, we use a simple source projector network  $\mathcal{P}_s$  as part of our hypernetwork. This module consisting of two feed-forward layers with a ReLU activation takes the concatenation of the three embeddings and learns a combined embedding  $\mathbf{s}^{(p)} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_p}$  with a potentially smaller dimension:

$$\mathbf{s}^{(h)} = \mathbf{s}^{(l)} \oplus \mathbf{s}^{(t)} \oplus \mathbf{s}^{(i)}$$
(4)

$$\mathbf{s}^{(p)} = \mathcal{P}_s(\mathbf{s}^{(h)}) \tag{5}$$

where  $\mathbf{s}^{(h)} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_s}$  refers to the concatenated embedding before the  $\mathcal{P}_s$ , with  $d_s = d_l + d_t + d_i$ . This component enables learning how to combine source embeddings while also reducing the total number of trainable parameters.

## **4** Experiments

**Dataset and Languages** We conduct experiments on two downstream tasks: part-of-speech (POS) tagging and named entity recognition (NER). For POS tagging, we use the Universal Dependencies (UD) 2.7 dataset (Zeman et al., 2020) and for NER, we use WikiANN (Pan et al., 2017) with the train, dev and test splits from Rahimi et al. (2019). In addition to these two tasks, we also use masked language modelling (MLM) on Wikipedia articles as an auxiliary task. We limit the number of sentences from Wikipedia to 100K for each language, in order to control the impact of dataset size and to reduce the training time.

For the language selection, we consider: (i) typological diversity based on language family, script and morphosyntactic attributes; (ii) a combination of high-resource and low-resource languages based on available data in downstream task; (iii) presence in the pre-training data of mBERT; and (iv) presence of a language in the two task-specific datasets.<sup>2</sup> We provide the details of the language and dataset selection in Appendix A.

Experimental Setup We evaluate Hyper-X for zero-shot transfer in three different settings: (1) English single-task, where we train the models only on English data for each downstream task separately. (2) English multi-task, where the models are trained on English POS and NER data at the same time. (3) Mixed-language multi-task, where we train the models in a multi-task setup, but instead of using only English data for both POS and NER, we use a mixture of task-language combinations. In order to measure zero-shot performance in this setup, following Ponti et al. (2021) we create two different partitions from all possible language-task combinations in such a way that a task-language pair is always unseen for one of the partitions (e.g. NER-Turkish and POS-Arabic in Figure 1). Details of partitions and our partitioning strategy are given in Appendix A.

### 4.1 Baselines and Model Variants

**mBERT** (Devlin et al., 2019) is a MMT that is pre-trained for 104 languages. We use mBERT by fine-tuning all the model parameters on the

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ (i) and (ii) are necessary for a realistic setting and to evaluate full-scale cross-lingual capabilities; (iii) allows us to measure if models are able to extend the limits of the MMT; (iv) enables us to assess supervision from a mixture of task and language combinations.

available sources. As this standard approach enables cross-lingual transfer from both a single source or a set of language-task combinations, we compare it to Hyper-X in all three settings. Moreover, we use mBERT as the base model for both Hyper-X and the other baselines.

**MAD-X** (Pfeiffer et al., 2020b) is an adapter-based modular framework for cross-lingual transfer learning based on MMTs. It combines a task-specific adapter with language-specific adapters that are independently trained for each language using MLM. We train MAD-X language adapters on the same Wikipedia data that is used for Hyper-X, for all languages with a default architecture.<sup>3</sup> Finally, for the mixed-language setup, as the original MAD-X does not allow standard multi-task training, we train the task adapters by using multiple source languages but for NER and POS separately. We call this model MAD-X MS.

**Parameter Space Factorization** (Ponti et al., 2021) is a Bayesian framework that learns a parameter generator from multiple tasks and languages for the softmax layer on top of a MMT. However, if a language lacks annotated training data, this model cannot learn the required latent variable for the corresponding language. Therefore, we evaluate this baseline only for the mixed-language multi-task setting using the same partitions as Hyper-X. We use the original implementation with default hyper-parameters and low-rank factorization.

**Model Variants** We evaluated two variants of Hyper-X in order to see the impact of Hypernetwork size: Hyper-X Base model fine-tunes 76m parameters ( $d_s = 192$ ), compatible with MAD-X in terms of total number of trainable parameters, and Hyper-X Small updates only 13m parameters ( $d_s = 32$ ). Table 3 shows the parameter counts together with the corresponding runtime.

### 4.2 Training Details

For all the experiments, we used a batch size of 32 and a maximum sequence length of 256. We trained Hyper-X for 100,000 updates steps by us-

ing a linearly decreasing learning rate of 1e-4 with 4000 warm-up steps. We evaluated checkpoints every 5,000 steps, and used the best checkpoint w.r.t. the average validation score for testing. As for baselines, we trained mBERT and MAD-X tasks adapters for 20 epochs by using learning rate of 1e-5 and 1e-4 respectively with the same scheduler and warm-up steps. Since MAD-X requires prerequisite language adapters, we trained language adapters for 100,000 steps for each language separately.

In terms of model size, we use a bottleneck dimension of 256 to learn adapters for Hyper-X. Similarly, we train language and adapters with dimension of 256 and 48 for MAD-X to create a comparable baseline. In Hyper-X, as input to the hypernetwork, dimensions for task, language and layer embeddings are all set to 64 (total 192). During training, we create homogeneous mini-batches for each task-language combination to learn the corresponding embeddings together with the hypernetwork. Moreover, following Mahabadi et al. (2021b), we also update the original layer-norm parameters. During multi-task training, we use temperature-based sampling with T = 5 to balance each task-language pair during training (See Appendix § B.1 for details).

## 5 Zero-shot Transfer Results

Table 2 shows the aggregate zero-shot results in NER and POS tagging respectively. In addition to the average scores across all 15 zero-shot languages, we show the average of the 8 'seen' and 7 'unseen' languages separately with respect to language coverage of mBERT. We present results for English single-task, English multi-task and Mixed-language multi-task settings.

Overall, Hyper-X Base performs on par with the strongest baseline when transferring from English. In the presence of additional sources, such as a mixture of task-language pairs, Hyper-X outperforms both mBERT and parameter space factorization (PSF). In comparison to MAD-X, Hyper-X generally performs better on seen languages. We relate this to the unified hypernetwork enabling maximum sharing between languages and higher utilization of the pre-trained capacity in contrast to the isolated adapters. On unseen languages, Hyper-X is outperformed by MAD-X in most cases. However, we emphasize that MAD-X requires training separate language adapters for each new language,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>MAD-X also introduce 'invertible adapters' that adapt token embeddings. We did not use them for simpler experimental setup. Note that, as our hypernetwork is able to generate parameters for any component, it is possible to generate invertible adapters as in MAD-X.

		#Params /	]	Named-Enti Recognition	5	Pa	Part-of-Speech Tagging			
Source	Method	Time	SEEN	UNSEEN	ALL	SEEN	UNSEEN	ALL		
	mBERT MAD-X	177m / 2h 76m / 116h	53.4 54.3	40.3 <b>51.1</b>	47.3 <b>52.8</b>	66.3 67.7	48.9 <b>62.6</b>	58.1 <b>65.4</b>		
English (Single-Task)	Hyper-X Small Hyper-X Base	13m / 16h 76m / 18h	54.2 <b>54.4</b>	47.7 50.7	51.2 52.7	66.5 <b>67.8</b>	57.9 58.7	62.5 63.5		
English (Multi-Task)	mBERT Hyper-X Small Hyper-X Base	177m / 2h 13m / 16h 76m / 18h	53.8 52.2 <b>54.4</b>	40.4 49.3 <b>51.1</b>	47.6 50.8 <b>52.9</b>	65.8 65.1 <b>67.0</b>	47.7 57.9 <b>59.7</b>	57.3 61.7 <b>63.6</b>		
Mixed-Language (Multi-Task)	mBERT PSF MAD-X MS Hyper-X Small Hyper-X Base	177m / 2h 185m / 4h 76m / 116h 13m / 16h 76m / 18h	56.4 58.1 62.4 62.0 <b>63.3</b>	48.7 54.1 <b>62.2</b> 58.3 61.0	52.8 56.2 <b>62.3</b> 60.3 <b>62.3</b>	67.2 70.4 70.7 70.7 <b>71.5</b>	54.7 53.8 <b>67.0</b> 63.2 63.8	61.4 62.7 <b>69.0</b> 67.2 67.9		

Table 2: Zero-shot cross-lingual transfer results averaged over 3 runs on Named-Entity Recognition (NER; F1) and Part-of-Speech Tagging (POS; Accuracy) for mBERT, MAD-X (Pfeiffer et al., 2020b), parameter space factorization (PSF; Ponti et al., 2021) and Hyper-X. We highlight the best results per-setting in bold. We also report the total number of parameters and fine-tuning time for all models. Note that Hyper-X corresponds to a single model trained for each partition while MAD-X consists of N independently trained adapters for each task and language. MAD-X MS refers to an adapted version of the original model trained on multiple source languages but each task separately.

which makes it considerably less resource-efficient than Hyper-X (see § 6.1).

**English Single-Task** When English is used as the only source language for each task separately, Hyper-X (Base) performs on par with MAD-X for NER (52.7 vs 52.8 F1) but falls behind for POS tagging (63.5 vs 65.4 Acc.) on average. Both models significantly outperform mBERT. Looking at the individual language results, Hyper-X performs slightly better on 'seen' languages compared to MAD-X in NER and POS tagging respectively. For 'unseen' languages, both MAD-X and Hyper-X benefit from MLM, which results in large improvements with respect to mBERT. Between the two models, MAD-X achieves a higher average score in both NER and POS tagging.

**English Multi-Task** In a multi-task setting where only English data is available, fine-tuning mBERT for both target tasks at the same time gives mixed results compared to single-task training—in line with previous findings noting catastrophic forgetting and interference in MMTs (Wang et al., 2020). Hyper-X Base, on the other hand, shows a small but consistent improvement on the majority of languages, with 0.2 (F1) and 0.1 (Acc.) average increase in NER and POS tagging respectively. This confirms that Hyper-X is able to mitigate interference while allowing for sharing between tasks when enough capacity is provided.<sup>4</sup>

Mixed-Language Multi-Task In this setting, a mixture of language data is provided for NER and POS via two separate training partitions while keeping each task-language pair unseen in one of these partitions. All the models including mBERT achieve better zero-shot scores compared to the previous settings. Among the baselines, parameter space factorization (PSF) gives a larger improvement compared to mBERT on both tasks, indicating the importance of task- and language-specific parametrization for adapting a MMT. Hyper-X Base produces the largest performance gain among the models that trains only a single model: it achieves 9.0 (F1) and 4.3 (Acc.) average increase for NER and POS. Although both PSF and Hyper-X enable adaptation conditioned on a mixture of task and language combinations, we relate the difference between PSF and Hyper-X to the contrast in parameter generation. PSF only generates parameters of the softmax layer and is thus unable to adapt deeper layers of the model. Hyper-X, on the other hand, generates adapter layer parameters inserted throughout the model, which provide a higher degree of adaptation flexibility. Hyper-X outperforms PSF particularly on unseen languages as it benefits from MLM as an auxiliary task.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>MAD-X learns independent adapters for each target task, which does not allow for positive cross-task transfer.

Model	#Params.	Training Time
mBERT PSF	177m 185m	2h 4h
MAD-X	76m	116h
$ \begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	4.7m x <i>l</i> 0.9m x <i>t</i>	7h x <i>l</i> 2h x <i>t</i>
Hyper-X Small Hyper-X Base	13m 76m	16h 18h

Table 3: Compute efficiency with respect to number of fine-tuned parameters and training time for mBERT, PSF, MAD-X and Hyper-X. Training time includes both NER and POS-tagging. For MAD-X, the total number of parameters and training time is calculated for 16 (l)languages and 2 (t) tasks.

Finally, Hyper-X tends to perform slightly better on seen languages compared to the adapted multisource version of MAD-X. However, MAD-X outperforms Hyper-X on unseen languages by 1.2 (F1) and 2.8 (Acc.) for NER and POS respectively. Besides the expected benefits of independently trained language adapters in MAD-X, we relate this to the limited cross-task supervision for unseen languages in Hyper-X for this setting. Especially, when the target task is POS, most of the unseen languages have only 100 sentences available in NER dataset, which leaves only a little margin for improvements.

## 6 Analysis

### 6.1 Parameter and Time Efficiency

Table 3 shows the fine-tuned parameter counts and the training time required for the baselines and Hyper-X models. Unlike mBERT, PSF and Hyper-X, MAD-X consists of 16 and 2 independently trained language and task adapters respectively. In terms of parameter efficiency, MAD-X and Hyper-X Base models correspond to 43% of mBERT's parameters. However, in terms of training time, Hyper-X Base is trained only once for about 18 hours, as opposed to MAD-X's considerably high total training time (116 hours in total). Thus, considering the competitive zero-shot performances across different languages and settings, Hyper-X Base provides a better efficiencyperformance trade-off. Furthermore, in the case of adding more languages, MAD-X's parameter count and training time increase linearly with the number of new languages, while Hyper-X's computational cost remains the same.

As Hyper-X model variants, we evaluated



Figure 3: Impact of auxiliary MLM traning on zero-shot results for SEEN and UNSEEN language groups on NER and POS tagging, when MLM data removed from the corresponding groups incrementally.

two different sizes of the source embedding  $(d_s; 32\rightarrow 192)$ . Although Hyper-X Small is much more parameter-efficient (7.2% of mBERT's parameters) and takes slightly less time to train (16h), its zero-shot performance is significantly lower than the base model, especially for unseen languages. Nevertheless, Hyper-X Small remains a valid alternative for particularly 'seen' languages.

### 6.2 Impact of Auxiliary MLM Training

Figure 3 demonstrates the impact of auxiliary MLM training in Hyper-X Base for the mixedlanguage multi-task setting. As this setting provides training instances for each task and language, we evaluated the impact of MLM by removing the corresponding Wikipedia data first for 'seen' languages, then for 'all' languages. As shown in the figure, although the availability of MLM data slightly increases seen language performance, it mainly boosts the scores in unseen languages: +6.2 F1 and +10.5 Acc. for NER and POS respectively. Furthermore, when MLM data is removed for only seen languages, Hyper-X can mostly recover performance on seen languages, confirming the dominant effect of MLM on unseen languages.

#### 6.3 Impact of Source Languages

In the mixed-language multi-task setting, we deliberately avoid grouping languages from same families to different partitions, in order to restrict the transfer from the same-language family instances, and to observe the effect of cross-task supervision. However, we also evaluate the impact of source languages in this setup, to measure the degree of potential positive transfer. To this end, we switched the partitions of kk, mt, yue, so that all of them will likely benefit from a high-resource language



Figure 4: Impact of source language for Hyper-X Base performance on SEEN, UNSEEN language groups in mixed-language multi-task setup.

from the same family for the same target task. Figure 4 and 5 shows the aggregated results in both Hyper-X Base and mBERT. Firstly, both models benefit from positive transfer. Secondly, although the relative increase in mBERT is slightly higher Hyper-X still outperforms mBERT with a large margin, showing the robustness of our model with regard to different partitions.

### 6.4 Few-shot Transfer

Fine-tuning an MMT with a few target instances has been shown to increase zero-shot performances (Lauscher et al., 2020b). Therefore, we evaluate Hyper-X for few-shot transfer on 5 languages—3 of which are high-resource and covered by mBERT and 2 are low-resource and unseen. To this end, we further fine-tune Hyper-X and the corresponding baselines that are trained initially in the English multi-task by using 5, 10, 20, and 50 training instances for each language separately on NER and POS-tagging (see details in Appendix §D).

Figure 6 presents the average results comparing mBERT to MAD-X. Similar to the zero-shot results, on seen languages, Hyper-X constantly provides better adaptation than both baselines for NER and POS. On unseen languages, MAD-X gives the best result on average. This is because MAD-X starts with better initial representations for Maltese and Uyghur. When more samples are provided Hyper-X reduces the initial gap. Overall, Hyper-X consistently achieves the best or competitive performance on the majority of the experiments, except 'unseen' languages for POS tagging, showing the effectiveness of our approach beyond the standard zero-shot transfer. Taken together with the parameter and training efficiency, these results show that Hyper-X can be easily extended to new languages without incurring large computing costs.



Figure 5: Impact of source language for mBERT performance on SEEN, UNSEEN language groups in mixedlanguage multi-task setup.

## 7 Related Work

Adapters As a parameter-efficient alternative to standard fine-tuning, adapters have been used for quick training (Rücklé et al., 2021), multi-task learning (Stickland and Murray, 2019) and knowledge composition (Pfeiffer et al., 2021a; Wang et al., 2021; Poth et al., 2021). Moreover, Mahabadi et al. (2021a) and He et al. (2022a) extended adapters for better performance with fewer parameters. In the context of multilingual transfer, adapters enable allocation of additional languagespecific capacity, thereby mitigating the 'curse of multilinguality' (Üstün et al., 2020). Such language adapters (Pfeiffer et al., 2020b; Ansell et al., 2021) achieve high zero-shot results when combined with task adapters and enable generalization to languages unseen during pre-training via MLMbased adaptation (Pfeiffer et al., 2021b). Philip et al. (2020) and Üstün et al. (2021) also used monolingual adapters for zero-shot and unsupervised NMT.

Hypernetworks in NLP Tay et al. (2021) propose a multi-task model that uses a hypernetwork to condition on input to learn task-specific reparametrizations. Similarly, Mahabadi et al. (2021b) generate task-specific adapters via a hypernetwork. Recently, He et al. (2022b) use a hypernetwork to generate prompts. For multilingual learning, where the input sources correspond to language embeddings, Ustün et al. (2020) and Ansell et al. (2021) learn these embeddings from the typological feature vectors of languages, enabling generalization to unseen languages based on a hypernetwork. In a similar spirit to our work, parameter space factorization (PSF; Ponti et al., 2021), learns task and language-specific embeddings from seen task-language combinations. However, unlike our model, these embeddings are used



Figure 6: Few-shot transfer for 5 new languages on NER, POS-tagging. Results are averaged over SEEN (ar, tr, zh) and UNSEEN (mt, ug) languages. In first three settings, *both* Hyper-X models competitive or better than other models. Results for all few-shot experiments are given in Appendix D

for task/language-specific parametrization in the softmax layer.

## 8 Conclusion

We have proposed Hyper-X, a novel approach for multi-task multilingual transfer learning, based on a unified hypernetwork that leverages heterogeneous sources of information, such as multiple tasks and languages. By learning to generate composite adapters for each task-language combinations that modify the parameters of a pretrained multilingual transformer, Hyper-X allows for maximum information sharing and enables zeroshot prediction for arbitrary task-language pairs at test time. Through a number of experiments, we demonstrate that Hyper-X is competitive with the state-of-the-art when transferring from a source language. When a mixture of tasks and languages is available, Hyper-X outperforms several strong baselines on many languages, while being more parameter and time efficient. Finally, we show that for few-shot transfer, Hyper-X is a strong option with a less computing cost than baselines for the initial task adaptation.

## 9 Limitations

Firstly, although our experiments show the potential of Hyper-X to benefit from multiple tasks for zero-shot transfer, so far we evaluated our model on a limited set of tasks: NER and POS-tagging, which may limit the generalizability of our model to other tasks.

Secondly, for the few-shot transfer, we limit our experiments to languages that we learn via MLM and to existing tasks. Our work does not include languages without MLM data as well as completely new tasks. Learning the task and language embeddings separately, however, creates a possibility to interpolate existing embeddings for new languages or new tasks, which especially may work for the few-shot learning. We leave exploration of these two limitations to future work.

### Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Noah Constant, Asa Cooper Stickland and the anonymous reviewers for their helpful feedback on a previous version of this paper. We also would like to thank the Center for Information Technology of the University of Groningen for providing access to the Peregrine HPC cluster.

## References

- Alan Ansell, Edoardo Maria Ponti, Jonas Pfeiffer, Sebastian Ruder, Goran Glavaš, Ivan Vulić, and Anna Korhonen. 2021. MAD-G: Multilingual adapter generation for efficient cross-lingual transfer. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2021*, pages 4762–4781, Punta Cana, Dominican Republic. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ankur Bapna and Orhan Firat. 2019. Simple, scalable adaptation for neural machine translation. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 1538– 1548, Hong Kong, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Alexis Conneau, Kartikay Khandelwal, Naman Goyal, Vishrav Chaudhary, Guillaume Wenzek, Francisco Guzmán, Edouard Grave, Myle Ott, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2020. Unsupervised cross-lingual representation learning at scale. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 8440– 8451.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of*

the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pages 4171–4186.

- David Ha, Andrew Dai, and Quoc V Le. 2016. Hypernetworks. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Junxian He, Chunting Zhou, Xuezhe Ma, Taylor Berg-Kirkpatrick, and Graham Neubig. 2022a. Towards a unified view of parameter-efficient transfer learning. In *Proceedings of ICLR 2022*.
- Yun He, Huaixiu Steven Zheng, Yi Tay, Jai Gupta, Yu Du, Vamsi Aribandi, Zhe Zhao, YaGuang Li, Zhao Chen, Donald Metzler, Heng-Tze Cheng, and Ed H. Chi. 2022b. HyperPrompt: Prompt-based Task-Conditioning of Transformers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.00759*.
- Neil Houlsby, Andrei Giurgiu, Stanislaw Jastrzebski, Bruna Morrone, Quentin De Laroussilhe, Andrea Gesmundo, Mona Attariyan, and Sylvain Gelly. 2019. Parameter-efficient transfer learning for nlp. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 2790–2799.
- Junjie Hu, Sebastian Ruder, Aditya Siddhant, Graham Neubig, Orhan Firat, and Melvin Johnson. 2020. XTREME: A Massively Multilingual Multitask Benchmark for Evaluating Cross-lingual Generalization. In *Proceedings of ICML 2020*.
- Anne Lauscher, Vinit Ravishankar, Ivan Vulić, and Goran Glavaš. 2020a. From Zero to Hero: On the Limitations of Zero-Shot Cross-Lingual Transfer with Multilingual Transformers. In *Proceedings of EMNLP 2020*.
- Anne Lauscher, Vinit Ravishankar, Ivan Vulić, and Goran Glavaš. 2020b. From zero to hero: On the limitations of zero-shot language transfer with multilingual Transformers. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, pages 4483–4499, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Rabeeh Karimi Mahabadi, James Henderson, and Sebastian Ruder. 2021a. Compacter: Efficient low-rank hypercomplex adapter layers. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*.
- Rabeeh Karimi Mahabadi, Sebastian Ruder, Mostafa Dehghani, and James Henderson. 2021b. Parameterefficient multi-task fine-tuning for transformers via shared hypernetworks. In Proceedings of the 59th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 11th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 565–576, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Michael McCloskey and Neal J Cohen. 1989. Catastrophic interference in connectionist networks: The

sequential learning problem. In *Psychology of learning and motivation*, volume 24, pages 109–165. Elsevier.

Joakim Nivre, Mitchell Abrams, Željko Agić, Lars Ahrenberg, Lene Antonsen, Katya Aplonova, Maria Jesus Aranzabe, Gashaw Arutie, Masayuki Asahara, Luma Ateyah, Mohammed Attia, Aitziber Atutxa, Liesbeth Augustinus, Elena Badmaeva, Miguel Ballesteros, Esha Banerjee, Sebastian Bank, Verginica Barbu Mititelu, Victoria Basmov, John Bauer, Sandra Bellato, Kepa Bengoetxea, Yevgeni Berzak, Irshad Ahmad Bhat, Riyaz Ahmad Bhat, Erica Biagetti, Eckhard Bick, Rogier Blokland, Victoria Bobicev, Carl Börstell, Cristina Bosco, Gosse Bouma, Sam Bowman, Adriane Boyd, Aljoscha Burchardt, Marie Candito, Bernard Caron, Gauthier Caron, Gülsen Cebiroğlu Eryiğit, Flavio Massimiliano Cecchini, Giuseppe G. A. Celano, Slavomír Čéplö, Savas Cetin, Fabricio Chalub, Jinho Choi, Yongseok Cho, Jayeol Chun, Silvie Cinková, Aurélie Collomb, Çağrı Çöltekin, Miriam Connor, Marine Courtin, Elizabeth Davidson, Marie-Catherine de Marneffe, Valeria de Paiva, Arantza Diaz de Ilarraza, Carly Dickerson, Peter Dirix, Kaja Dobrovoljc, Timothy Dozat, Kira Droganova, Puneet Dwivedi, Marhaba Eli, Ali Elkahky, Binyam Ephrem, Tomaž Erjavec, Aline Etienne, Richárd Farkas, Hector Fernandez Alcalde, Jennifer Foster, Cláudia Freitas, Katarína Gajdošová, Daniel Galbraith, Marcos Garcia, Moa Gärdenfors, Sebastian Garza, Kim Gerdes, Filip Ginter, Iakes Goenaga, Koldo Gojenola, Memduh Gökırmak, Yoav Goldberg, Xavier Gómez Guinovart, Berta Gonzáles Saavedra, Matias Grioni, Normunds Grūzītis, Bruno Guillaume, Céline Guillot-Barbance, Nizar Habash, Jan Hajič, Jan Hajič jr., Linh Hà Mỹ, Na-Rae Han, Kim Harris, Dag Haug, Barbora Hladká, Jaroslava Hlaváčová, Florinel Hociung, Petter Hohle, Jena Hwang, Radu Ion, Elena Irimia, Olájídé Ishola, Tomáš Jelínek, Anders Johannsen, Fredrik Jørgensen, Hüner Kaşıkara, Sylvain Kahane, Hiroshi Kanayama, Jenna Kanerva, Boris Katz, Tolga Kayadelen, Jessica Kenney, Václava Kettnerová, Jesse Kirchner, Kamil Kopacewicz, Natalia Kotsyba, Simon Krek, Sookyoung Kwak, Veronika Laippala, Lorenzo Lambertino, Lucia Lam, Tatiana Lando, Septina Dian Larasati, Alexei Lavrentiev, John Lee, Phuong Lê Hồng, Alessandro Lenci, Saran Lertpradit, Herman Leung, Cheuk Ying Li, Josie Li, Keying Li, Kyung-Tae Lim, Nikola Ljubešić, Olga Loginova, Olga Lyashevskaya, Teresa Lynn, Vivien Macketanz, Aibek Makazhanov, Michael Mandl, Christopher Manning, Ruli Manurung, Cătălina Mărănduc, David Mareček, Katrin Marheinecke, Héctor Martínez Alonso, André Martins, Jan Mašek, Yuji Matsumoto, Ryan McDonald, Gustavo Mendonça, Niko Miekka, Margarita Misirpashayeva, Anna Missilä, Cătălin Mititelu, Yusuke Miyao, Simonetta Montemagni, Amir More, Laura Moreno Romero, Keiko Sophie Mori, Shinsuke Mori, Bjartur Mortensen, Bohdan Moskalevskyi, Kadri Muischnek, Yugo Murawaki, Kaili Müürisep, Pinkey Nainwani, Juan Ignacio Navarro Horñiacek, Anna Nedoluzhko, Gunta

Nešpore-Bērzkalne, Luong Nguyễn Thi, Huyền Nguyễn Thị Minh, Vitaly Nikolaev, Rattima Nitisaroj, Hanna Nurmi, Stina Ojala, Adédayo Olúòkun, Mai Omura, Petya Osenova, Robert Östling, Lilja Øvrelid, Niko Partanen, Elena Pascual, Marco Passarotti, Agnieszka Patejuk, Guilherme Paulino-Passos, Siyao Peng, Cenel-Augusto Perez, Guy Perrier, Slav Petrov, Jussi Piitulainen, Emily Pitler, Barbara Plank, Thierry Poibeau, Martin Popel, Lauma Pretkalnina, Sophie Prévost, Prokopis Prokopidis, Adam Przepiórkowski, Tiina Puolakainen, Sampo Pyysalo, Andriela Rääbis, Alexandre Rademaker, Loganathan Ramasamy, Taraka Rama, Carlos Ramisch, Vinit Ravishankar, Livy Real, Siva Reddy, Georg Rehm, Michael Rießler, Larissa Rinaldi, Laura Rituma, Luisa Rocha, Mykhailo Romanenko, Rudolf Rosa, Davide Rovati, Valentin Rosca, Olga Rudina, Jack Rueter, Shoval Sadde, Benoît Sagot, Shadi Saleh, Tanja Samardžić, Stephanie Samson, Manuela Sanguinetti, Baiba Saulīte, Yanin Sawanakunanon, Nathan Schneider, Sebastian Schuster, Djamé Seddah, Wolfgang Seeker, Mojgan Seraji, Mo Shen, Atsuko Shimada, Muh Shohibussirri, Dmitry Sichinava, Natalia Silveira, Maria Simi, Radu Simionescu, Katalin Simkó, Mária Šimková, Kiril Simov, Aaron Smith, Isabela Soares-Bastos, Carolyn Spadine, Antonio Stella, Milan Straka, Jana Strnadová, Alane Suhr, Umut Sulubacak, Zsolt Szántó, Dima Taji, Yuta Takahashi, Takaaki Tanaka, Isabelle Tellier, Trond Trosterud, Anna Trukhina, Reut Tsarfaty, Francis Tyers, Sumire Uematsu, Zdeňka Urešová, Larraitz Uria, Hans Uszkoreit, Sowmya Vajjala, Daniel van Niekerk, Gertjan van Noord, Viktor Varga, Eric Villemonte de la Clergerie, Veronika Vincze, Lars Wallin, Jing Xian Wang, Jonathan North Washington, Sevi Williams, Mats Wirén, Tsegay Woldemariam, Tak-sum Wong, Chunxiao Yan, Marat M. Yavrumyan, Zhuoran Yu, Zdeněk Žabokrtský, Amir Zeldes, Daniel Zeman, Manying Zhang, and Hanzhi Zhu. 2018. Universal dependencies 2.3. LINDAT/CLARIAH-CZ digital library at the Institute of Formal and Applied Linguistics (ÚFAL), Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University.

- Xiaoman Pan, Boliang Zhang, Jonathan May, Joel Nothman, Kevin Knight, and Heng Ji. 2017. Cross-lingual name tagging and linking for 282 languages. In Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 1946–1958, Vancouver, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jonas Pfeiffer, Aishwarya Kamath, Andreas Rücklé, Kyunghyun Cho, and Iryna Gurevych. 2021a. AdapterFusion: Non-destructive task composition for transfer learning. In Proceedings of the 16th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Main Volume, pages 487–503, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jonas Pfeiffer, Andreas Rücklé, Clifton Poth, Aishwarya Kamath, Ivan Vulić, Sebastian Ruder, Kyunghyun

Cho, and Iryna Gurevych. 2020a. Adapterhub: A framework for adapting transformers. In *Proceedings* of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2020): Systems Demonstrations, pages 46–54, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Jonas Pfeiffer, Ivan Vulić, Iryna Gurevych, and Sebastian Ruder. 2020b. Mad-x: An adapter-based framework for multi-task cross-lingual transfer. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*.
- Jonas Pfeiffer, Ivan Vulić, Iryna Gurevych, and Sebastian Ruder. 2021b. UNKs everywhere: Adapting multilingual language models to new scripts. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 10186– 10203, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jerin Philip, Alexandre Berard, Matthias Gallé, and Laurent Besacier. 2020. Monolingual adapters for zero-shot neural machine translation. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, pages 4465–4470, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Emmanouil Antonios Platanios, Mrinmaya Sachan, Graham Neubig, and Tom Mitchell. 2018. Contextual parameter generation for universal neural machine translation. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 425–435.
- Edoardo M. Ponti, Ivan Vulić, Ryan Cotterell, Marinela Parovic, Roi Reichart, and Anna Korhonen. 2021. Parameter space factorization for zero-shot learning across tasks and languages. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 9:410–428.
- Clifton Poth, Jonas Pfeiffer, Andreas Rücklé, and Iryna Gurevych. 2021. What to pre-train on? Efficient intermediate task selection. In *Proceedings of the* 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 10585–10605, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Afshin Rahimi, Yuan Li, and Trevor Cohn. 2019. Massively multilingual transfer for NER. In *Proceedings* of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 151–164, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Sylvestre-Alvise Rebuffi, Hakan Bilen, and Andrea Vedaldi. 2018. Efficient parametrization of multidomain deep neural networks. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 8119–8127.
- Andreas Rücklé, Gregor Geigle, Max Glockner, Tilman Beck, Jonas Pfeiffer, Nils Reimers, and Iryna Gurevych. 2021. AdapterDrop: On the efficiency

of adapters in transformers. In *Proceedings of the* 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 7930–7946, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Sebastian Ruder, Matthew E Peters, Swabha Swayamdipta, and Thomas Wolf. 2019. Transfer learning in natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the 2019 conference of the North American chapter of the association for computational linguistics: Tutorials*, pages 15–18.
- Asa Cooper Stickland and Iain Murray. 2019. Bert and pals: Projected attention layers for efficient adaptation in multi-task learning. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 5986–5995.
- Stephanie Strassel and Jennifer Tracey. 2016. Lorelei language packs: Data, tools, and resources for technology development in low resource languages. In Proceedings of the Tenth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'16), pages 3273–3280.
- Yi Tay, Zhe Zhao, Dara Bahri, Donald Metzler, and Da-Cheng Juan. 2021. HyperGrid Transformers: Towards A Single Model for Multiple Tasks. In *Proceedings of ICLR 2021*.
- Ahmet Üstün, Alexandre Berard, Laurent Besacier, and Matthias Gallé. 2021. Multilingual unsupervised neural machine translation with denoising adapters. In Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 6650–6662, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ahmet Üstün, Arianna Bisazza, Gosse Bouma, and Gertjan van Noord. 2020. UDapter: Language adaptation for truly Universal Dependency parsing. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), pages 2302–2315, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ruize Wang, Duyu Tang, Nan Duan, Zhongyu Wei, Xuanjing Huang, Jianshu Ji, Guihong Cao, Daxin Jiang, and Ming Zhou. 2021. K-Adapter: Infusing Knowledge into Pre-Trained Models with Adapters. In Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL-IJCNLP 2021, pages 1405–1418, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zirui Wang, Zachary C. Lipton, and Yulia Tsvetkov. 2020. On negative interference in multilingual models: Findings and a meta-learning treatment. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), pages 4438–4450, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Bryan Wilie, Karissa Vincentio, Genta Indra Winata, Samuel Cahyawijaya, Xiaohong Li, Zhi Yuan Lim, Sidik Soleman, Rahmad Mahendra, Pascale Fung,

Syafri Bahar, and Ayu Purwarianti. 2020. IndoNLU: Benchmark and resources for evaluating Indonesian natural language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 1st Conference of the Asia-Pacific Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 10th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing*, pages 843–857, Suzhou, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pierric Cistac, Tim Rault, Remi Louf, Morgan Funtowicz, Joe Davison, Sam Shleifer, Patrick von Platen, Clara Ma, Yacine Jernite, Julien Plu, Canwen Xu, Teven Le Scao, Sylvain Gugger, Mariama Drame, Quentin Lhoest, and Alexander Rush. 2020. Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pages 38–45, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Daniel Zeman, Joakim Nivre, Mitchell Abrams, Elia Ackermann, Noëmi Aepli, Hamid Aghaei, Żeljko Agić, Amir Ahmadi, Lars Ahrenberg, Chika Kennedy Ajede, Gabrielė Aleksandravičiūtė, Ika Alfina, Lene Antonsen, Katya Aplonova, Angelina Aquino, Carolina Aragon, Maria Jesus Aranzabe, Hórunn Arnardóttir, Gashaw Arutie, Jessica Naraiswari Arwidarasti, Masayuki Asahara, Luma Ateyah, Furkan Atmaca, Mohammed Attia, Aitziber Atutxa, Liesbeth Augustinus, Elena Badmaeva, Keerthana Balasubramani, Miguel Ballesteros, Esha Banerjee, Sebastian Bank, Verginica Barbu Mititelu, Victoria Basmov, Colin Batchelor, John Bauer, Seyyit Talha Bedir, Kepa Bengoetxea, Gözde Berk, Yevgeni Berzak, Irshad Ahmad Bhat, Riyaz Ahmad Bhat, Erica Biagetti, Eckhard Bick, Agne Bielinskiene, Kristín Bjarnadóttir, Rogier Blokland, Victoria Bobicev, Loïc Boizou, Emanuel Borges Völker, Carl Börstell, Cristina Bosco, Gosse Bouma, Sam Bowman, Adriane Boyd, Kristina Brokaitė, Aljoscha Burchardt, Marie Candito, Bernard Caron, Gauthier Caron, Tatiana Cavalcanti, Gülşen Cebiroğlu Eryiğit, Flavio Massimiliano Cecchini, Giuseppe G. A. Celano, Slavomír Čéplö, Savas Cetin, Özlem Çetinoğlu, Fabricio Chalub, Ethan Chi, Yongseok Cho, Jinho Choi, Jayeol Chun, Alessandra T. Cignarella, Silvie Cinková, Aurélie Collomb, Çağrı Çöltekin, Miriam Connor, Marine Courtin, Elizabeth Davidson, Marie-Catherine de Marneffe, Valeria de Paiva, Mehmet Oguz Derin, Elvis de Souza, Arantza Diaz de Ilarraza, Carly Dickerson, Arawinda Dinakaramani, Bamba Dione, Peter Dirix, Kaja Dobrovoljc, Timothy Dozat, Kira Droganova, Puneet Dwivedi, Hanne Eckhoff, Marhaba Eli, Ali Elkahky, Binyam Ephrem, Olga Erina, Tomaž Erjavec, Aline Etienne, Wograine Evelyn, Sidney Facundes, Richárd Farkas, Marília Fernanda, Hector Fernandez Alcalde, Jennifer Foster, Cláudia Freitas, Kazunori Fujita, Katarína Gajdošová, Daniel Galbraith, Marcos Garcia, Moa Gärdenfors, Sebastian Garza, Fabrício Ferraz Gerardi, Kim Gerdes, Filip Ginter, Iakes Goenaga, Koldo Gojenola, Memduh Gökırmak, Yoav Goldberg,

Xavier Gómez Guinovart, Berta González Saavedra, Bernadeta Griciūtė, Matias Grioni, Loïc Grobol, Normunds Grūzītis, Bruno Guillaume, Céline Guillot-Barbance, Tunga Güngör, Nizar Habash, Hinrik Hafsteinsson, Jan Hajič, Jan Hajič jr., Mika Hämäläinen, Linh Hà Mỹ, Na-Rae Han, Muhammad Yudistira Hanifmuti, Sam Hardwick, Kim Harris, Dag Haug, Johannes Heinecke, Oliver Hellwig, Felix Hennig, Barbora Hladká, Jaroslava Hlaváčová, Florinel Hociung, Petter Hohle, Eva Huber, Jena Hwang, Takumi Ikeda, Anton Karl Ingason, Radu Ion, Elena Irimia, Olájídé Ishola, Tomáš Jelínek, Anders Johannsen, Hildur Jónsdóttir, Fredrik Jørgensen, Markus Juutinen, Sarveswaran K, Hüner Kaşıkara, Andre Kaasen, Nadezhda Kabaeva, Sylvain Kahane, Hiroshi Kanayama, Jenna Kanerva, Boris Katz, Tolga Kayadelen, Jessica Kenney, Václava Kettnerová, Jesse Kirchner, Elena Klementieva, Arne Köhn, Abdullatif Köksal, Kamil Kopacewicz, Timo Korkiakangas, Natalia Kotsyba, Jolanta Kovalevskaitė, Simon Krek, Parameswari Krishnamurthy, Sookyoung Kwak, Veronika Laippala, Lucia Lam, Lorenzo Lambertino, Tatiana Lando, Septina Dian Larasati, Alexei Lavrentiev, John Lee, Phuong Lê Hồng, Alessandro Lenci, Saran Lertpradit, Herman Leung, Maria Levina, Cheuk Ying Li, Josie Li, Keying Li, Yuan Li, KyungTae Lim, Krister Lindén, Nikola Ljubešić, Olga Loginova, Andry Luthfi, Mikko Luukko, Olga Lyashevskaya, Teresa Lynn, Vivien Macketanz, Aibek Makazhanov, Michael Mandl, Christopher Manning, Ruli Manurung, Cătălina Mărănduc, David Mareček, Katrin Marheinecke, Héctor Martínez Alonso, André Martins, Jan Mašek, Hiroshi Matsuda, Yuji Matsumoto, Ryan McDonald, Sarah McGuinness, Gustavo Mendonça, Niko Miekka, Karina Mischenkova, Margarita Misirpashayeva, Anna Missilä, Cătălin Mititelu, Maria Mitrofan, Yusuke Miyao, AmirHossein Mojiri Foroushani, Amirsaeid Moloodi, Simonetta Montemagni, Amir More, Laura Moreno Romero, Keiko Sophie Mori, Shinsuke Mori, Tomohiko Morioka, Shigeki Moro, Bjartur Mortensen, Bohdan Moskalevskyi, Kadri Muischnek, Robert Munro, Yugo Murawaki, Kaili Müürisep, Pinkey Nainwani, Mariam Nakhlé, Juan Ignacio Navarro Horñiacek, Anna Nedoluzhko, Gunta Nešpore-Bērzkalne, Luong Nguyễn Thị, Huyền Nguyễn Thị Minh, Yoshihiro Nikaido, Vitaly Nikolaev, Rattima Nitisaroj, Alireza Nourian, Hanna Nurmi, Stina Ojala, Atul Kr. Ojha, Adédayo Olúòkun, Mai Omura, Emeka Onwuegbuzia, Petya Osenova, Robert Östling, Lilja Øvrelid, Şaziye Betül Özateş, Arzucan Özgür, Balkız Öztürk Başaran, Niko Partanen, Elena Pascual, Marco Passarotti, Agnieszka Patejuk, Guilherme Paulino-Passos, Angelika Peljak-Łapińska, Siyao Peng, Cenel-Augusto Perez, Natalia Perkova, Guy Perrier, Slav Petrov, Daria Petrova, Jason Phelan, Jussi Piitulainen, Tommi A Pirinen, Emily Pitler, Barbara Plank, Thierry Poibeau, Larisa Ponomareva, Martin Popel, Lauma Pretkalnina, Sophie Prévost, Prokopis Prokopidis, Adam Przepiórkowski, Tiina Puolakainen, Sampo Pyysalo, Peng Qi, Andriela Rääbis, Alexandre Rademaker, Taraka Rama, Lo-

ganathan Ramasamy, Carlos Ramisch, Fam Rashel, Mohammad Sadegh Rasooli, Vinit Ravishankar, Livy Real, Petru Rebeja, Siva Reddy, Georg Rehm, Ivan Riabov, Michael Rießler, Erika Rimkute, Larissa Rinaldi, Laura Rituma, Luisa Rocha, Eiríkur Rögnvaldsson, Mykhailo Romanenko, Rudolf Rosa, Valentin Roșca, Davide Rovati, Olga Rudina, Jack Rueter, Kristján Rúnarsson, Shoval Sadde, Pegah Safari, Benoît Sagot, Aleksi Sahala, Shadi Saleh, Alessio Salomoni, Tanja Samardžić, Stephanie Samson, Manuela Sanguinetti, Dage Särg, Baiba Saulīte, Yanin Sawanakunanon, Kevin Scannell, Salvatore Scarlata, Nathan Schneider, Sebastian Schuster, Djamé Seddah, Wolfgang Seeker, Mojgan Seraji, Mo Shen, Atsuko Shimada, Hiroyuki Shirasu, Muh Shohibussirri, Dmitry Sichinava, Einar Freyr Sigurðsson, Aline Silveira, Natalia Silveira, Maria Simi, Radu Simionescu, Katalin Simkó, Mária Šimková, Kiril Simov, Maria Skachedubova, Aaron Smith, Isabela Soares-Bastos, Carolyn Spadine, Steinhór Steingrímsson, Antonio Stella, Milan Straka, Emmett Strickland, Jana Strnadová, Alane Suhr, Yogi Lesmana Sulestio, Umut Sulubacak, Shingo Suzuki, Zsolt Szántó, Dima Taji, Yuta Takahashi, Fabio Tamburini, Mary Ann C. Tan, Takaaki Tanaka, Samson Tella, Isabelle Tellier, Guillaume Thomas, Liisi Torga, Marsida Toska, Trond Trosterud, Anna Trukhina, Reut Tsarfaty, Utku Türk, Francis Tyers, Sumire Uematsu, Roman Untilov, Zdeňka Urešová, Larraitz Uria, Hans Uszkoreit, Andrius Utka, Sowmya Vajjala, Daniel van Niekerk, Gertjan van Noord, Viktor Varga, Eric Villemonte de la Clergerie, Veronika Vincze, Aya Wakasa, Joel C. Wallenberg, Lars Wallin, Abigail Walsh, Jing Xian Wang, Jonathan North Washington, Maximilan Wendt, Paul Widmer, Seyi Williams, Mats Wirén, Christian Wittern, Tsegay Woldemariam, Tak-sum Wong, Alina Wróblewska, Mary Yako, Kayo Yamashita, Naoki Yamazaki, Chunxiao Yan, Koichi Yasuoka, Marat M. Yavrumyan, Zhuoran Yu, Zdeněk Žabokrtský, Shorouq Zahra, Amir Zeldes, Hanzhi Zhu, and Anna Zhuravleva. 2020. Universal dependencies 2.7. LINDAT/CLARIAH-CZ digital library at the Institute of Formal and Applied Linguistics (ÚFAL), Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University.

## A Language Selection

Table 4 shows that the details for languages such as language code, UD treebank id and language family. For POS tagging, we use the Universal Dependencies (UD) 2.7 dataset (Zeman et al., 2020) and for NER, we use WikiANN (Pan et al., 2017) with the train, dev and test splits from Rahimi et al. (2019). To partition languages for the mixedlanguage multi-task setting, we group languages from the same families into the same partitions to avoid a strong supervision from the same language family when evaluating zero-shot predictions for *unseen* task-language combinations. When there is no available training data in the target treebank, we use the test split for the mixed-language multi-task setting.

## **B** Experimental Details

### **B.1** Impact of Sampling

Hyper-X is a single model that is trained at once for multiple languages and task simultaneously. However, as the amount of total MLM training data is considearbly larger than NER and POStagging data, we experimented with two different sampling methods: size propotional sampling and temperature-based sampling (t = 5). For the temperature-based sampling, we independently sample a batch for each task-language combination. Figure 7 shows the impact of different sampling methods on the zero-shot performance for 'seen', 'unseen' language groups together with average over all languages. As seen, temperature-based sampling, greatly increase performance for all language groups on both NER and POS-tagging. This suggest that when MLM data does not restricted by sampling, it highly influences the learning objective which results a catastrophic forgetting on the target tasks.

## B.2 Implementation and Computing Infrastructure

All the experiments are conducted using Tesla V100 GPUs. We did not use parallel training on multiple GPUs, so each experiment was conducted on a single GPU. Parameters that are fine-tuned for each model and total runtime are reported in the section (§ 6.1). We implemented Hyper-X by using Transformers library (Wolf et al., 2020) and the code will be released upon publication. We used adapterhub (Pfeiffer et al., 2020a) for MAD-X, and



Figure 7: Impact of sampling for SEEN, UNSEEN language groups on NER and POS tagging.

the original repository for parameter space factorization (Ponti et al., 2021). Hyper-parameters that are used in experiments are given in the section 4. We did not conduct a hyper-parameter search due to the computational limitations, and used the reference values in most cases: only the dimension for language adapters in MAD-X is changed to match with the same parameter count of Hyper-X. Finally for mBERT, we did a preliminary experiments with learning rate of 1e-4 and 1e-5, and pick the latter one as it produced better performance.

## C Detailed Results

The results that are averaged over 3 runs for each language are given in Table 6

## **D** Few Shot Experiments

For the few-shot transfer experiments, we fine-tune each model for 50 epochs with the same hyperparameters. We disable the learning rate decay as only a few training instances are provided to the models. Note that, in these experiments, we always start with the models that are already trained in the zero-shot setting and perform fine-tuning for each language and task separately. For the selection of training samples, we randomly sample instances regardless of the labels, as the initial models are already trained for these tasks on English data.

Table 5 show that few-shot results for NER and POS-tagging respectively.

					NER			POS	
Language	Code	UD Treebank	Family	Train	Dev	Test	Train	Dev	Test
English	en	EWT	IE, Germanic	20000	10000	10000	12543	2002	2077
Arabic	ar	PADT	Afro-Asiatic, Semitic	20000	10000	10000	6075	909	680
Breton	br	KEB	IE, Celtic	1000	1000	1000	-	-	888
Chinese	zh	GSD	Sino-Tibetan	20000	10000	10000	3997	500	500
Icelandic	is	PUD	IE, Germanic	1000	1000	1000	-	-	1000
Kazakh	kk	KTB	Turkic, Northwestern	1000	1000	1000	32	-	1047
Tamil	ta	TTB	Dravidian, Southern	15000	1000	1000	400	80	120
Turkish	tr	IMST	Turkic, Southwestern	20000	10000	10000	3664	988	983
Yoruba	yo	YTB	Niger-Congo, Defoid	100	100	100	-	-	318
Faroese	fo	OFT	IE, Germanic	100	100	100			1208
Guarani	gn	Thomas	Tupian, Tupi-Guarani	100	100	100	-	-	98
Upper Sorbian	yo	UFAL	IE, Slavic	100	100	100	-	-	23
Maltese	mt	MUDT	Afro-Asiatic, Semitic	100	100	100	1123	433	518
Sanskrit	sa	UFAL	Indic	100	100	100	-	-	230
Uyghur	ug	UDT	Turkic, Southeastern	100	100	100	1656	900	900
Cantonese	yue	HK	Sino-Tibetan	20000	10000	10000	-	-	1004

Table 4: Languages that are used in the experiments, together with corresponding language code, UD treebank and
language families. We used WikiANN (Pan et al., 2017; Rahimi et al., 2019) and UD version 2.7 (Zeman et al.,
2020) for NER and POS-tagging respectively.

mBERT					MAD-X					Hyper-X Small				Hyper-X Base						
	ar	tr	zh	mt	ug	ar	tr	zh	mt	ug	ar	tr	zh	mt	ug	ar	tr	zh	mt	ug
5 10 20	42.6 54.7 69.2 69.5 74.5	72.8 76.0 78.5	42.0 42.1 49.4	53.9 53.4 53.2	21.8 30.4 30.2	52.4 64.1 66.1	71.5 73.5 75.2 77.4 81.0	39.3 43.8 48.6	67.3 76.1 82.1	37.5 44.3 45.1	56.5 65.1 66.8	74.6 75.0 76.7	34.2 39.5 44.9 51.9 54.6	66.4 78.0 80.3	28.0 39.6 39.8	56.9 67.3 68.8	72.9 74.2 77.8	39.3 44.4 52.1	63.6 65.6 78.3 80.9 83.6	30.4 34.2 43.8
5 10 20	53.4 76.2 81.8 86.9 90.2	75.1 76.6 78.6	73.1 79.5 84.3	51.7 60.8 68.7	55.8 58.9 60.3	76.4 83.4 86.7	73.2 76.3 76.9 79.3 81.9	73.3 78.6 84.2	80.1 83.8 85.8	72.4 73.9 74.7	75.4 84.3 87.2	75.7 76.8 78.4	65.6 76.3 81.6 87.1 90.4	73.2 75.3 78.9	62.1 63.9 65.9	78.4 84.8 87.3	74.2 75.9 76.7	77.9 81.9 86.8	59.7 75.6 79.3 82.3 86.0	63.9 66.0 67.5

Table 5: Per language results for few-shot experiments, where models are further fine-tuned with a few training instances (0, 5, 10, 20, 50) from NER and POS datasets. For the language selection, ar, tr, zh are covered by mBERT and mt, ug are unseen.

				English ingle-Task	:		Englis Multi-T		Mixed-Language Multi-Task						
		mB	MX	HX.32	HX.192	mB	HX.32	HX.192	mB	PSF	MX	HX.32	HX.192		
	$en^{a,b}$	84.2	81.6	83.6	83.8	83.6	82.1	82.6	81.8	79.2	82.2	83.8	83.7		
	ar <sup>b</sup>	40.6	40.3	42.9	39.7	42.6	37.2	39.9	45.5	43.4	53.5	47.8	49.2		
	br <sup>a</sup>	62.9	67.2	67.1	70.2	66.5	66.5	69.5	70.5	70.9	72.3	74.7	76.1		
Ę	is <sup>b</sup>	65.0	70.0	71.0	72.9	69.2	70.7	73.5	70.6	73.5	77.5	77.3	80.2		
itio	kk <sup>a</sup>	47.2	46.7	49.6	46.3	45.9	42.6	47.3	55.4	57.1	58.9	64.5	59.0		
gu	ta <sup>b</sup>	53.8	51.0	47.3	50.6	50.6	49.7	51.0	53.7	52.2	60.4	61.1	62.2		
ecc	$\operatorname{tr}^{a}_{a}$	70.2	71.5	73.8 42.1	71.4	72.5	71.6	72.5	77.2	78.2	78.9	80.3	82.7		
ty r	$yo^a$ zh <sup>a</sup>	47.6 39.5	53.0 34.9	42.1 39.5	50.2 34.7	46.8 36.4	44.9 34.2	47.1 34.6	43.4 35.0	45.6 43.5	54.4 43.3	44.8 45.7	50.2 46.5		
Named entity recognition	gn <sup>a</sup>	43.6	50.3	49.0	57.5	41.7	55.4		52.2	56.8	65.0	63.5	66.1		
Jed	hsb <sup>b</sup>	65.4	75.6	62.2	68.6	61.4	64.3	74.6	73.8	75.3	84.1	78.5	80.0		
Van	fo <sup>b</sup>	62.1	69.1	69.0	70.7	60.7	74.7	74.9	63.3	68.4	83.1	76.8	82.2		
~	mt <sup>b</sup>	34.1	64.4	63.0	62.8	43.4	61.3	63.6	61.1	73.9	73.4	67.7	77.8		
	sa <sup>a</sup>	29.6	33.1	33.2	34.6	29.0	30.3	30.8	30.4	43.7	48.2	43.2	43.6		
	ug <sup>b</sup>	12.8	30.4	20.1	21.1	12.5	22.4	22.5	23.8	16.4	38.8	33.7	27.5		
	yue <sup>a</sup>	34.6	34.8	37.7	39.5	34.3	36.6	37.3	36.6	44.0	42.5	44.4	49.6		
	SEEN	53.4	54.3	54.2	54.5	53.8	52.2	54.4	56.4	58.1	62.4	62.0	63.3		
	UNSEEN	40.3	51.1	47.7	50.7	40.4	49.3	51.1	48.7	54.1	62.2	58.3	61.0		
	ALL	47.3	52.8	51.2	52.7	47.6	50.8	52.9	52.8	56.2	62.3	60.3	62.3		
	$en^{a,b}$	97.0	96.8	96.6	96.1	96.9	96.5	96.8	96.5	95.3	96.7	96.7	96.7		
	ar <sup>a</sup>	53.4	54.0	53.1	54.4	52.6	53.4	54.4	62.0	67.6	55.9	61.6	65.0		
	$br^b$	66.8	70.5	65.2	70.8	68.6	69.9	70.4	64.7	69.7	73.8	74.9	72.5		
	is <sup>a</sup>	82.1	82.8	83.1	83.9	84.1	82.4	83.0	83.2	81.6	84.7	85.4	85.8		
gu	$kk^b$	74.6	75.2	73.1	75.7	75.2	72.2	75.1	70.4	79.7	80.6	80.4	80.5		
. <u>1</u> 83	ta <sup>a</sup>	58.0	59.1	58.5	59.5	58.5	52.6	58.6	63.1	67.2	62.2	61.7	62.7		
ı ta	tr <sup>b</sup>	72.0	73.2	70.6	70.4	70.1	69.2	71.0	70.6	73.5	75.1	74.8	75.6		
ect	yob	55.6	60.3	58.3	60.0	58.4	55.2	56.6	58.8	57.4	64.2	61.0	63.2		
-spe	zh <sup>b</sup>	67.5	67.3	70.2	67.4	63.1	65.6	66.5	64.9	66.6	69.2	65.8	66.8		
Part-of-speech tagging	$gn^b$	27.2	34.9	31.2	37.0	28.3	35.1	36.7	38.6	36.3	44.5	40.8	41.1		
Par	hsb <sup>a</sup>	71.3	76.2	75.7	73.9	69.9	75.3	73.2	70.3	69.0	80.4	77.5	78.5		
_	fo <sup>a</sup>	87.2	88.3	86.4	87.9	80.5	85.8	86.4	82.1	81.1	88.9	88.6	88.6		
	$mt^a_b$	24.6	70.8	61.4	52.7	28.2	58.8	59.7	40.7	38.1	74.3	63.9	64.0		
	$sa^b$	39.4	46.3	43.1	39.5 56.4	40.5	46.3	45.9 50.6	48.1	50.4	54.5	56.6	54.6		
	ug <sup>a</sup> yue <sup>b</sup>	28.9 63.6	57.3 64.2	44.3 62.9	56.4 63.6	26.7 63.1	40.4 62.4	50.6 64.0	40.2 63.2	37.2 64.6	59.7 66.4	53.0 62.2	56.0 64.0		
	SEEN	66.3 48.9	67.7 62.6	66.5 57.0	67.8 58 7	66.3	65.1 57.7	67.0 59.5	67.2 54.7	70.4 53.8	70.7 67.0	70.7 63.2	71.5		
	UNSEEN			57.9 62.5	58.7 63.5	48.2	57.7 61.7	59.5 63.6					63.8 67.9		
	ALL	48.9 58.1	65.4	62.5	63.5	48.2 57.9	61.7	63.6	61.4	62.7	69.0	67.2			

Table 6: Zero-shot cross-lingual transfer results averaged over 3 runs for Named-Entity Recognition (NER; F1) and Part-of-Speech Tagging (POS; Accuracy) for mBERT (mB), MAD-X (MX) and parameter space factorization (PSF) models, together with Hyper-X Small (HX.32) and Base (HX.192). Superscripts denote the partitioning that is used for mixed-language multi-task setting