# EpLSA: Synergy of Expert-prefix Mixtures and Task-Oriented Latent Space Adaptation for Diverse Generative Reasoning

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#### Abstract

Existing models for diverse generative reasoning still struggle to generate multiple unique and plausible results. Through an in-depth examination, we argue that it is critical to leverage a mixture of experts as prefixes to enhance the diversity of generated results and make task-oriented adaptation in the latent space of the generation models to improve the quality of the responses. At this point, we propose EpLSA, an innovative model based on the synergy of expert-prefix mixtures and task-oriented latent space adaptation for diverse generative reasoning. Specifically, we use expert-prefixes mixtures to encourage the model to create multiple responses with different semantics and design a loss function to address the problem that the semantics is interfered by the expert-prefixes. Meanwhile, we design a task-oriented adaptation block to make the pre-trained encoder within the generation model more effectively adapted to the pre-trained decoder in the latent space, thus further improving the quality of the generated text. Extensive experiments on three different types of generative reasoning tasks demonstrate that EpLSA outperforms existing baseline models in terms of both the quality and diversity of the generated outputs. Our code is publicly available at https://github.com/IMU-MachineLearningSXD/EpLSA.

Keywords: diverse generative reasoning, mixture of expert, task-oriented

## 1. Introduction

Diverse generative reasoning aims to generate multiple semantically distinct and reasonable outputs according to the same context, like abductive commonsense reasoning, where there are multiple possible intermediate hypotheses. Figure 1 shows an example of abductive commonsense reasoning. Given the cause "Mickey was bored." and the effect "Then, they played for the next hour.", there are multiple possible explanations for the intermediate hypothesis. As proved, generating multiple outputs with different semantics presents unique challenges in diverse generative reasoning. Therefore, this paper investigates diverse generative reasoning and expects to improve the quality and diversity of the generated text.

There are many models developed for diverse generative reasoning due to their importance in NLP applications. Among them, pre-trained language models have been successful in performing commonsense inference by implicitly learning relational patterns from large-scale corpora (Trinh and Le, 2018). ClarET (Zhou et al., 2022) proposes a general pre-trained framework for generative reasoning tasks. MoKGE (Yu et al., 2022) also uses a pre-trained Transformer as the backbone network to diversify the generative reasoning. COLD Decoding (Qin et al., 2022) proposes a decoding framework that unifies the constrained generation as the



Figure 1: An example of abductive commonsense reasoning. It aims to generate explanatory hypotheses given two observations:  $O_1$  as the cause and  $O_2$  as the effect.

specific constraints through an energy function. To improve diversity, the latest methods for generating diverse sequences attempt to introduce uncertainty by incorporating random noise into latent variables (Gupta et al., 2018) or by using alternative search algorithms (Vijayakumar et al., 2018; Fan et al., 2018). The mixture of experts models has also recently started to be widely used for diversity generation (He et al., 2018; Cho et al., 2019; Shen et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2022).

After examining the examples from the models with the pre-trained models and the mixture of ex-

pert noise prefixes, we find that the models focusing on promoting diversity lead to the result that the generated texts do not match the semantics of the source text, while the models aiming to improve the quality of generation tend to produce duplicate text when multiple samples are expected. There are two reasons for such problems. The first reason is that these models introduce noise prefixes that interfere with the semantics of the source text, thus leading to poor inference. The second reason is that the pre-trained models, such as BART (Lewis et al., 2020), are not trained for the specific tasks, which means that the latent representations of the BART encoder for different types of generative reasoning tasks do not match well with the BART decoder through limited fine-tuning alone. In different generative reasoning tasks, the source text and the target text will show different types of relationships, such as the causal relationship between the source text and the target text in the Abductive Commonsense Reasoning task, and the summarization relationship between the source text and the target text in the Story Ending Generation task. Therefore, to enhance the diverse generative reasoning, it is necessary to design a specified loss function to correct the semantic information after the introduction of the noisy prefix and make the latent representations of the encoder better adapted to the decoder according to task types.

Based on the above analysis, we propose EpLSA, a novel method for diverse generative reasoning tasks. In EpLSA, we employ a mixture of expertprefixes (MoE) module to extend the semantics of the source text, in which each expert-prefix represents different semantic perspectives of the source text. We design a loss function to correct the semantic information after the introduction of the noisy prefix (&3.2). We introduce a task adapter in EpLSA to address the problem that the latent representation of the encoder of pre-trained models for different types of tasks can't be better adapted to the decoder (&3.3). We utilize a hard-EM algorithm to train EpLSA. Unlike other MoE models, we use the minimum loss to choose the optimal expert-prefix (&3.4). We conduct experiments on three different types of generative inference tasks and found that our model outperformed the strong baseline in terms of diversity and generation guality, demonstrating the effectiveness of our approach.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We propose a mixture of expert-prefixes in EpLSA to improve the diversity in generative reasoning tasks. Different from the previous works, we design a loss function to correct the semantic information after the introduction of the noisy expert-prefixes.
- · We introduce a task-oriented adapter in EpLSA,

which allows pre-trained models to be better adapted to different tasks through the adapter.

 The proposed EpLSA for diverse generative reasoning outperforms all baseline models in terms of both the diversity and quality of the generated outputs on three different types of generative reasoning tasks.

## 2. Related work

## 2.1. Diversity Text Generation

Multiple output generation had a wide range of applications in machine translation (Shen et al., 2019), question generation (Cho et al., 2019), dialogue systems (Dou et al., 2021), story generation (Yu et al., 2021), and paraphrase generation (Gupta et al., 2018).

To improve generation diversity, various methods were developed by exploring different perspectives. Some research focused on generating uncertainty by introducing random noise (Gupta et al., 2018) or changing latent variables (Lachaux et al., 2020), thereby increasing generation diversity. Shi et al. (2018) used inverse reinforcement learning methods for unconditional diversified text generation. The mixture of experts model was also used to enhance generation diversity. Cho et al. (2019) divided diversified generation into two stages: selection and generation. Intuitively, at the selection stage, each latent variable indicated which part of the source sequence was important. The generation, phase was biased towards their focus for generation. Shen et al. (2019) used a mixture of experts module to improve machine translation diversity, where each source input was assigned to a minimum-loss predictor. Wen et al. (2023) proposed an Equal-size Hard Expectation-Maximization algorithm to train a multi-decoder model for diverse dialogue generation. In addition, sampling-based decoding was one of the most effective solutions to improve generation diversity. Truncated sampling (Fan et al., 2018) limited the range of values that can be generated by the sampling process based on a predetermined cutoff value. Nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020) sampled the next token from a dynamic core unit that contains most of the probability mass, rather than decoding text by maximizing the likelihood. Some of these methods do not reason about the semantic information of the source text from different perspectives, and some do not correct the semantic information of the source text after introducing noise prefixes.



Figure 2: Overview of EpLSA. Expert-prefixes for diversity: we focus on k perspectives of the source text through k expert-prefixes (&3.2); Task adapter for latent representation: we make the BART encoder more effectively adapted to the BART decoder in the latent space (&3.3).

#### 2.2. Generative Reasoning

In recent years, commonsense reasoning tasks have received widespread attention. GRF (Ji et al., 2020) proposed a method that utilizes the structure and semantic information of external knowledge bases by performing dynamic multi-hop reasoning on relationship paths. MoKGE (Yu et al., 2022) was the first work to boost diversity in natural language generation by diversifying knowledge reasoning on commonsense knowledge graphs. ClarET (Zhou et al., 2022) proposed a pre-training framework for event-centered reasoning by learning relevant perceptual contexts to event transformers from eventrich textual corpora. COLD Decoding (Qin et al., 2022) was an energy-based Constrained Text Generation with Langevin Dynamics. Arabshahi et al. (2021) also explored generative reasoning in commonsense scenarios, but the domain of their approach is limited. Chain-of-thought prompting techniques were used to conduct step-by-step reasoning by eliciting intermediate steps from large language models (Wei et al., 2022; Creswell et al., 2022). However, none of the existing methods took into account the adaptation of the encoder and decoder to different types of tasks.

#### 3. Methodology

#### 3.1. Overview of EpLSA

Generative reasoning tasks are characterized by having multiple possible reasoning results that correspond to the same given reasoning premise, which means one-to-many generation. Given a source input x, a set of outputs  $Y = (y_1, y_2...y_k)$ is obtained. Our goal is to model a conditional distribution for the target outputs: p(y|x) that assigns high values to  $\{p(y_1|x), \cdots, p(y_k|x)\}$  for kmappings, i.e.,  $\{x \to y_1, \cdots, x \to y_k\}$ . To improve the diversity and quality of the generated text, this paper proposes a model with the synergy of expert-prefix mixtures and task-oriented latent space adaptation (EpLSA), as shown in Figure 2. The expert-prefix provides a semantics aspect prefix for diversity generation, and the task adapter improves the latent representation for better generation quality. We model expert-prefixes mixtures as a hard mixture of experts (hard-MoE) (Jacobs et al., 1991; Shen et al., 2019). We use the BART encoder and BART decoder for information encoding and decoding.

#### 3.2. Expert-prefixes for Diversity

To perform diverse generations, we explore different semantic perspectives of the source text. Inspired by the mixture of experts (MoE) approach, we regard experts as prefixes, and reason from different semantic perspectives of the source text by mixing expert-prefixes (ep). As shown in Figure 2, we include k expert-prefixes with a length of lbefore each input text sequence, thus providing different inferred views of the source text.

Splicing noisy expert-prefixes with the source text sequence brings multiple inference perspectives while causing disturbance to the semantics of the source text. Therefore, we design a loss function to correct the semantic information of the source text. Specifically, we introduce the task type, denoted as tt. We randomly initialize the tt and let it be updated during training. The semantic information is corrected by learning the similarity between the task type tt and the semantic difference of (ep, x) and y. To facilitate the similarity calculation, we define a linear transformation function LT(h), which converts the hidden state of the BART encoder to the sentence-level semantic information similar to

Bert's [cls] (Devlin et al., 2019).

$$\mathbf{LT}_t = Adapter(tt) , \qquad (1)$$

$$LT_x = LT(BART\_Enc(ep, x))$$
, (2)

$$\mathbf{LT}_{y} = LT(\mathsf{BART\_Enc}(y)) . \tag{3}$$

The training loss (here only for one expert-prefix) is

$$\mathcal{L}_{Task} = 1 - \cos(\mathbf{LT}_x + \mathbf{LT}_t, \mathbf{LT}_y), \qquad (4)$$

where  $cos(\cdot, \cdot)$  is the cosine similarity. By this method, we alleviate the problem that the semantics is interfered by the expert-prefixes for better diverse reasoning.

#### 3.3. Task Adapter for Latent Representation

In diverse generative reasoning, the pre-trained models are not trained specifically for downstream tasks, so the latent representations of the BART encoder for different types of generative reasoning tasks do not match well with the BART decoder. To allow the model to better adapt to different generative reasoning tasks, we introduce a task adapter denoted as Adapter. The Adapter includes only a position embedding layer, leading to a small increase in parameters compared to the original pretrained model. We refer to the relationship between the source text and the target text as the task type tt, and use tt as the input of Adapter. After that, the hidden state of the BART encoder and the output of Adapter is used as the input of the BART decoder.

$$LR = BART\_Enc(X) + Adapter(tt),$$
 (5)

$$output = BART_Dec(LR).$$
 (6)

To enhance the compatibility between the encoder-adapter combination and the decoder, we define the training loss for *Adapter* (here only for one expert-prefix) :

$$\mathbf{LT}_A = LT(Adapter(tt)),\tag{7}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{Ada} = max(0, \lambda + d(\mathbf{LT}_x + \mathbf{LT}_A, \mathbf{LT}_y)), \quad (8)$$

where  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$  represents the distance in semantic space, which is the Euclidean distance used in this work.  $\lambda$  is a hyperparameter that is used to balance the difference between the source semantic representation and the target semantic representation. It is worth noting that our task adapter module is applicable to all models with encoder-decoder structures.

#### 3.4. Overall objective

Taking the expert-prefixes ep, source text x and task type tt as model inputs and generating the

### Algorithm 1 Training (N: Dataset size, K: Number of expert-prefixes)

Input: 
$$D = \{(ep_K, x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}, tt)\}_{i=1}^N$$

Unipul. 
$$\mathcal{L}$$

- for each i ∈ [1, N] do
   /\*E-step select best expert-prefix.\*/
- 3: for each  $z \in [1, K]$  do

4: 
$$\mathcal{L}_{LM}^{(i)z} = -\log p(y|ep, x, tt)$$

- 4.  $\mathcal{L}_{LM}^{+}$ 5: end for
- 6:  $z^{(best)i} = \arg \min \mathcal{L}_{LM}^{(i)z}$
- 7: /\*M-step updates the parameters with gradients of the best expert-prefix from E-step.\*/

8: 
$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{LM}^{z^{(best)i}} + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{Task}^{z^{(best)i}} + \beta \mathcal{L}_{Ada}^{z^{(best)i}}$$
  
9:  $\theta = \theta - \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}$   
10: end for

output sequence y, we adopt the cross-entropy loss, which can be denoted as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{LM} = -\log p(y|ep, x, tt)$$
  
= 
$$\sum_{t=1}^{|y|} \log p(y_t|ep, x, tt, y < t).$$
 (9)

The final loss we need to optimize is a linear combination

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{LM} + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{Task} + \beta \mathcal{L}_{Ada}, \tag{10}$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are hyperparameters set according to different tasks.

#### 3.5. Model Training and Inference

**Training Stage:** Ideally, different expert-prefixes represent different reasoning perspectives, allowing for diverse reasoning. However, in the training phase, only one reasoning perspective should be dominant for a given input premise (Shen et al., 2019). Unlike other mixture of experts models that select a guidance expert, we select the optimal expert-prefix based on the  $\mathcal{L}_{LM}$ . Specifically, we employ a hard mixture model with hard-EM algorithm (Dempster et al., 1977; Shen et al., 2019) and select the best expert-prefix with the minimum  $\mathcal{L}_{LM}$  as the prefix during the training process. The specific training process be expressed as:

**E-STEP** (line 3-6 in Alg. 1) we sample all the expert-prefixes and calculate their  $\mathcal{L}_{LM}$  using the current parameters  $\theta$ ; We then select the best expert-prefix with the minimum  $\mathcal{L}_{LM}$ .

**M-STEP** (line 8-9 in Alg. 1) we only use the gradient of the expert-prefix selected by E-STEP to update the parameters.

Independently parameterizing each expert-prefix would lead to a dramatic increase in the number

of parameters. Therefore, we follow the parameter sharing mode used by Cho et al. (2019); Shen et al. (2019); Yu et al. (2022). This only requires a negligible increase in parameters over the models that do not use MoE.

**Inference Stage:** To generate *k* different reasoning results on the test set, we follow the method proposed by (Shen et al., 2019). By enumerating all expert-prefixes, we decode each token through  $\hat{y}_t = \arg \max p(y|\hat{y}_{1:t-1}, ep, x, tt)$ , where we require each expert-prefix to represent different perspectives of the source text. The decoding process is efficient, easily parallelized, and can accommodate a variety of decoding strategies. We use Nucleus sampling at p = 0.95 (Holtzman et al., 2020).

## 4. Experiments

#### 4.1. Tasks and Datasets

Abductive Commonsense Reasoning ( $\alpha$ NLG) : It aims to generate explanatory hypotheses when two observations are given:  $O_1$  is the cause and  $O_2$ is the effect. We use the  $\mathcal{ART}$  benchmark dataset (Bhagavatula et al., 2020), following the data split (Yu et al., 2022) with 50,481/1,779/3,560 in training/dev/test. Each example in the  $\mathcal{ART}$  dataset has 1 to 5 references.

**Explanation Generation (EG) :** Its purpose is to provide explanations when counterfactual statements are given (Wang et al., 2019). We use the benchmark dataset ComVE from SemEval-2020 Task 4 (Li et al., 2020). We follow the data split Yu et al. (2022) with 10000/997/1000 in training/de-v/test. All examples in the dataset have 3 references.

**Story Ending Generation (SEG)**: It is to generate a reasonable ending given a four-sentence story context. The stories come from ROCStories corpus (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016). We follow the data split (Guan et al., 2019) with 90000/4081/4081 in training/dev/test. All examples in the dataset only have 1 reference.

## 4.2. Baseline Methods

When we perform diversified reasoning, which means one-to-many text generation, we exclude baseline methods that can't produce multiple outputs mentioned in related work and only compare with methods that can generate diverse outputs, e.g., Ji et al. (2020); Zhou et al. (2022); Qin et al. (2022).

**BART-base** (Lewis et al., 2020) is a pre-trained language generation model based on the Transformer structure. We fine-tune the model on the abductive commonsense reasoning, explanation generation, and story ending generation tasks. Then using Nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020) also known as **Top-p sampling** and Truncated sampling (Fan et al., 2018) also known as **Top-k sampling** for sampling in the generation phase.

**CVAE-SVG** (Gupta et al., 2018) is a conditional VAE model that can produce multiple outputs based on an original sentence as input.

**MoE-based method** (Shen et al., 2019; Cho et al., 2019): Mixture models provide an alternative approach to generating diverse outputs by sampling different mixture components. We compare two mixture of experts (MoE) implementations by Shen et al. (2019) and Cho et al. (2019). We refer to them as MoE-Shen (Shen et al., 2019) and MoE-Cho (Cho et al., 2019).

**MoKGE** (Yu et al., 2022) is the first work to boost diversity in NLG by diversifying knowledge reasoning on commonsense knowledge graphs. MoKGE uses both embed and prefix to implement mixture of experts. We refer to them as MoKGE\_embed and MoKGE\_prompt. It is also the current SOTA for the abductive commonsense reasoning and explanation generation tasks.

## 4.3. Implementation Details

We initialize EpLSA and baseline model use BARTbase (Lewis et al., 2020), which is one of the stateof-the-art pre-trained Transformer models for natural language generation (Gehrmann et al., 2021).

For model training, we use Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2015) with a batch size of 15, gradient accumulation steps of 4, the learning rate of 3e-5, learning rate warm-up over the first 10,000 steps, and linear decay of the learning rate. Our model is trained by one GTX 1080Ti GPU with 11GB memory, and implemented on PyTorch with the Huggingface's Transformer (Wolf et al., 2020).

### 4.4. Automatic Evaluation

We evaluate the performance of different generation models from two aspects: quality and diversity. Quality metric(1). We compare the highest accuracy between all generated sequences in the Top-K list with the target sequence to measure generation quality (Ott et al., 2018; Vijayakumar et al., 2018). Concretely, we generate K hypotheses  $\left\{\widehat{Y}(1),\cdots \widehat{Y}(K)
ight\}$  from each source X and keep the hypothesis  $\hat{Y}^{best}$  that achieves the best sentence level metric with the target Y. Then, we calculate a corpus-level metric with the greedilyselected hypotheses  $\{Y^{(i)best}\}_{i=1}^{N}$  and references  ${Y^{(i)}}_{i=1}^{N}$ . We use BLEU-4 (Papineni et al., 2002) and ROUGE-L (Lin, 2004) to evaluate the abductive commonsense reasoning and the explanation generation tasks and use BLEU-1 and BLEU-2 (Papineni et al., 2002) to evaluate the story ending generation task.

Models	$\alpha$ NLG				EG			
	SB-3(↓)	SB-4(↓)	B-4(↑)	R-L(↑)	SB-3(↓)	SB-4(↓)	B-4(↑)	R-L(↑)
CVAE-SVG (Gupta et al., 2018)	57.02	53.40	11.91	36.46	54.81	49.28	15.62	41.23
Top-k sample (Fan et al., 2018)	52.11	47.75	14.01	38.98	61.39	56.93	17.48	42.44
Top-p sample (Holtzman et al., 2020)	56.32	52.44	13.53	38.42	63.43	59.23	17.68	42.60
MoE_embed (Cho et al., 2019)	29.02	24.19	14.31	38.91	33.64	28.21	18.66	43.72
MoE_prompt (Shen et al., 2019)	28.05	23.18	14.26	38.78	33.42	28.40	18.91	43.71
MoKGE_embed (Yu et al., 2022)	29.17	24.04	13.74	38.06	35.36	29.71	19.13	43.70
MoKGE_prompt (Yu et al., 2022)	27.40	22.43	14.12	38.41	30.93	25.30	19.01	43.83
EpLSA (Ours)	23.18	17.82	15.25	40.35	27.93	21.33	19.40	44.02

Table 1: Diversity and quality evaluation on the test set of  $\alpha$ NLG and EG. Each model is required to generate three outputs. We use the generation results from Yu et al. (2022). Metrics: SB-3/4: Self-BLEU-3/4 ( $\downarrow$ ), B-4: BLEU-4( $\uparrow$ ), R-L: ROUGE-L ( $\uparrow$ ). ( $\uparrow$ )/( $\downarrow$ ) means the higher/lower score the better.

Models	SEG				
modele	SB-3/4 (↓)	B-1/2 (↑)			
CVAE-SVG	61.78/58.18	30.65/14.60			
Top-k sample	52.54/48.00	31.33/15.34			
Top-p sample	51.83/47.32	31.26/15.37			
MoE_embed	36.77/31.75	32.08/16.13			
MoE_prompt	31.71/27.38	32.12/16.20			
MoKGE_embed	26.02/20.65	29.90/13.76			
MoKGE_prompt	30.00/25.66	30.08/13.85			
EpLSA (Ours)	24.84/19.55	32.18/16.26			

Table 2: Diversity and quality evaluation on the test of SEG. Each model is required to generate three outputs. The above results were obtained by using the open-source code of the paper. Metrics: SB-3/4: Self-BLEU-3/4 ( $\downarrow$ ), B-1: BLEU-1( $\uparrow$ ), B-2:BLEU-2 ( $\uparrow$ ). ( $\uparrow$ )/( $\downarrow$ ) means the higher/lower score the better.

**Pairwise metric**( $\downarrow$ ). Referred as self- (Zhu et al., 2018) or pairwise- (Ott et al., 2018) metric, it measures the within-distribution similarity. This metric computes the average of sentence-level metrics between all pairwise combinations of hypotheses  $\{Y^{(1)}, \dots, Y^{(K)}\}$  generated from each source sequence x. In this paper, we use Self-BLEU-3 and Self-BLEU-4. A low pairwise metric indicates high diversity between generated hypotheses.

#### 4.5. Experimental Results

To evaluate the effectiveness of EpLSA, we perform experiments on three different types of generative reasoning tasks. We present the results of the automatic assessment for abductive commonsense reasoning and explanation generation in Table 1 and the results of the story ending generation in Table 2.

MoKGE (Yu et al., 2022) is the current SOTA for diverse abductive commonsense reasoning and the diverse explanation generation tasks. On the

Models	lphaNLG				
modolo	SB-3/4 (↓)	B-3/4 (↑)			
ChatGPT	23.62/ <b>17.01</b>	1.61/19.32			
EpLSA (Ours)	<b>23.18</b> /17.82	15.25/40.35			

Table 3: Diversity and quality evaluation compare with ChatGPT on the test of  $\alpha$  **NLG**. Each model is required to generate three outputs.

abductive commonsense reasoning task, EpLSA achieves the best results in terms of both generative diversity and generative guality among all baseline methods. EpLSA can further boost diversity by about 4.22% and 4.61% on Self-BLEU-3 and Self-BLEU-4, compared with the MoKGE. Moreover, EpLSA also enhances the generated quality by approximately 1.13% and 1.94% on BLEU-4 and ROUGE-L, compared with the MoKGE. On the explanation generation task, EpLSA achieves competitive results in all baseline models. Compared with MoKGE, EpLSA achieves improvements of 3.00%, 3.97%, 0.39% and 0.19%, respectively. For story ending generation task, EpLSA also achieves the best results in all baseline models. Compared with MoKGE, EpLSA achieves improvements of 1.18%, 1.10%, 2.28% and 2.50%, respectively. The above results confirm that EpLSA improves the quality and diversity of generated text. This is because different expert-prefixes focus on different semantic perspectives of the source text and the introduction of the loss function corrects the semantic information after introducing expert-prefixes, increasing the diversity while ensuring the quality of the generation. The task adapter makes the pre-trained encoder within the generation model more effectively adapted to the pre-trained decoder in the latent space for better diverse reasoning.

In addition, we compared our method with Chat-GPT (OpenAI, 2023). The experimental data are shown in the Table 3. Since the number of expertprefixes is set to 3 in this paper, we also let Chat-

	_	$\alpha$ NLG			EG	SEG		
Models	dels Size Divers		Reasonability	Diversity	Reasonability	Diversity	Reasonability	
Nucleus sampling	139M	3.01±0.60	3.20±0.62	2.83±0.44	3.64±0.51	2.98±0.30	3.56±0.42	
MoE_embed	140M	$3.71{\pm}0.21$	$3.51{\pm}0.43$	$3.46{\pm}0.41$	3.82±0.42	$3.62{\pm}0.43$	4.10±0.22	
MoE_prompt	140M	$3.78{\pm}0.35$	$3.32{\pm}0.27$	$3.54{\pm}0.52$	$3.88{\pm}0.36$	$3.85{\pm}0.36$	4.15±0.18	
MoKGE_embed	145M	$3.79{\pm}0.45$	$3.49{\pm}0.38$	3.54±0.39	3.92±0.26	4.02±0.27	3.45±0.21	
MoKGE_prompt	145M	3.93±0.26	$3.25{\pm}0.36$	$3.88{\pm}0.27$	$3.91 {\pm} 0.29$	$3.88{\pm}0.36$	$3.51 {\pm} 0.30$	
EpLSA (Ours)	140M	<b>4.22</b> ±0.30	<b>4.12</b> ±0.28	<b>4.15</b> ±0.35	<b>4.08</b> ±0.33	<b>4.16</b> ±0.36	<b>4.20</b> ±0.26	

Table 4: Human evaluation results on three datasets.

Models		$\alpha$ NLG				EG			
	SB-3(↓)	SB-4(↓)	B-4(↑)	R-L(↑)	SB-3(↓)	SB-4(↓)	B-4(↑)	R-L(↑)	
EpLSA (Ours)	23.18	17.82	15.25	40.35	27.93	21.33	19.40	44.02	
$w/o L_{Task}$	26.80	22.09	15.17	40.11	31.77	24.91	19.09	43.82	
w/o Adapter	32.20	24.89	14.73	30.01	32.62	23.34	18.57	43.09	
w/o MoE	44.35	38.91	14.61	39.66	57.91	52.51	18.44	43.37	
BART-base (Top-p sampling)	56.32	52.44	13.53	38.42	63.43	59.23	17.68	42.60	

Table 5: Ablation study of the proposed model. When not using MoE (line -w/o MoE), we set the beam as three to generate three outputs. Metrics: SB-3/4: Self-BLEU-3/4 ( $\downarrow$ ), B-4: BLEU-4( $\uparrow$ ), R-L: ROUGE-L ( $\uparrow$ ). ( $\uparrow$ )/( $\downarrow$ ) means the higher/lower score the better.

GPT generate three different answers for a fair diversity comparison. As shown in the table, the performance of our approach is close to that of ChatGPT, which proves that our method is effective in diversity generation. We significantly outperform ChatGPT on the quality assessment metrics Bleu-4 and ROUGE-L. This is due to the fact that ChatGPT is not fine-tuned in our dataset and the answers are very different from those in the test set resulting in lower metrics. The manual review of the generated results reveals that the answers generated by ChatGPT are logical and easy to understand. Therefore, Bleu-4 and ROUGE-L do not reflect the quality of ChatGPT generation. Overall, our method achieves a similar performance to ChatGPT.

## 4.6. Human Evaluation

Automatic diversity evaluation does not reflect content-level diversity and contextual logical reasonability. Therefore, we conducted an extensive human evaluation to evaluate the quality and diversity of outputs produced by different models. We recruited 20 annotators and evaluated 100 sentences randomly selected from the test set of each pair of models. The diversity and reasonability scores are normalized to the range from 0 to 5 and the results are shown in Table 4. Higher scores represent better diversity and rationality.

#### 4.7. Ablation Study

We conduct ablation studies to assess the effectiveness of the various model components, as summarized in Table 5. Our results demonstrate that each component plays a crucial role in achieving optimal performance. Particularly, removing the mixture of expert-prefixes module (w/o MoE) resulted in a significant decrease in the diversity reasoning ability of the model. It indicates that the mixture of expert-prefixes module is effective in performing high-quality inference from multiple perspectives. In addition, the removal of the loss function that corrects semantic information  $(w/o L_{Task})$  and the task adapter module ( $w/o \ Adapter$ ) both reduce the generation quality and diversity to some extent. This is because the loss function helps to correct semantic representation after introducing expertprefix and task adapter to improve the latent representation for better diversity reasoning. There is also a significant improvement in generation quality and diversity when we do not use the MoE module compared to BART-base. This observation implies that the combination of task type and task adapter effectively adapts the pre-trained model to different tasks.

#### 4.8. Impact of the Sampling Mothed

We carry out numerous experiments to examine the impact of different sampling methods on diverse text generation. We use Self-BLEU-3/4 ( $\downarrow$ ) to evaluate diversity and BLEU-4 ( $\uparrow$ ) to evaluate



Figure 3: Effect of different parameters on the test set of  $\alpha$ NLG.

generation quality. Specifically, we explore the effects of different parameters of Truncated sampling (Fan et al., 2018) and Nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020), as summarized in Figure 3. Overall, it illustrates that the different parameters have a small effect on the generation quality, with large fluctuations in the generation diversity. Notably, we obtain similar results with Truncated sampling at k = 30 or k = 50 and Nucleus sampling at p = 0.95. These observations suggest that the selection of an appropriate sampling method is also crucial for achieving diverse text generation.

### 4.9. Impact of the Numbers of Expert-prefixes

We conduct experiments to analyze the effect of the number of expert-prefixes on diversity and generation quality, as shown in Figure 3 (c). We found that the increase in the number of expert-prefixes negatively impacted the diversity metrics while improving the quality of the generation. Upon closer examination of the generated examples, it becomes evident that the more expert prefixes there are, the greater the diversity of the generated answers. The reason behind the decline in the diversity indicator can be attributed to the presence of common elements within the generated answers, such as shared names or locations. It is necessary to understand that the method employed to calculate the diversity metric, Self-BLEU, magnifies the impact of even subtle similarities. As a result, the metric responds significantly even if there are very few shared elements, resulting in a deteriorating indicator.

Since all baseline models generate three different answers, we also set the number of expertprefixes to 3 in our experiments to maintain fairness. It is worth noting that when the number of mixtures of expert-prefixes is equal to 1, it is equivalent to directly performing the M-step of the hard-EM algorithm, making the mixture of experts system irrelevant at this point.

#### 4.10. Impact of the Length of Expert-prefixes

These expert-prefixes represent different perspectives on the semantics of the source text that we should focus on. To ensure that the length of the expert-prefixes is appropriate to avoid a large interference with the semantics of the source text, we conduct extensive experiments, the results of which are shown in Figure 3 (d). Our results show that the length of the expert-prefixes can't highlight the semantic perspective that needs to be focused on if it is too short, while the length of the expert-prefixes can have an excessive impact on the semantics of the source text if it is too long. The optimal length of the expert-prefixes is different on different datasets, so we need to set it according to different task types. In this paper, we set the length of expert-prefixes to 5.

EpLSA consistently outperforms existing models when the length of expert-prefixes is greater than 1. It is worth noting that the optimal results are achieved when the length of the expert prefix is between 15% and 25% of the average length of the source text.

## 5. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose EpLSA, an innovative model based on the synergy of expert-prefix mixtures and task-oriented latent space adaptation for diverse generative reasoning. We introduce expertprefix mixtures to encourage the model to create multiple responses with different semantics, where each expert-prefix focuses on a different perspective of the source text. Meanwhile, we define a loss function to correct semantic information after introducing expert-prefixes. In addition, the task adapter makes the pre-trained encoder within the generation model more effectively adapted to the pretrained decoder in the latent space for better generation guality. Our experiments show that EpLSA outperforms existing baseline models in terms of diversity and generation quality across three different types of generative reasoning tasks.

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