DeepSeekMoE: Towards Ultimate Expert Specialization in Mixture-of-Experts Language Models

Damai Dai^{†‡*}, Chengqi Deng[‡], Chenggang Zhao^{‡§*}, Runxin Xu[‡], Huazuo Gao[‡], Deli Chen[‡], Jiashi Li[‡], Wangding Zeng[‡], Xingkai Yu^{‡¶*}, Y. Wu[‡], Zhenda Xie[‡], Y.K. Li[‡], Panpan Huang[‡], Fuli Luo[‡], Chong Ruan[‡], Zhifang Sui[†], Wenfeng Liang[‡]

[†]State Key Laboratory of Multimedia Information Processing, Peking University [‡]DeepSeek-AI [§]Institute for Interdisciplinary Information Sciences, Tsinghua University

[¶]National Key Laboratory for Novel Software Technology, Nanjing University

{daidamai,szf}@pku.edu.cn,{damai.dai,wenfeng.liang}@deepseek.com https://github.com/deepseek-ai/DeepSeek-MoE

Abstract

In the era of large language models, Mixtureof-Experts (MoE) is a promising architecture for managing computational costs when scaling up model parameters. However, conventional MoE architectures like GShard, which activate the top-K out of N experts, face challenges in ensuring expert specialization, i.e. each expert acquires non-overlapping and focused knowledge. In response, we propose the DeepSeek-MoE architecture towards ultimate expert specialization. It involves two principal strategies: (1) finely segmenting the experts into mN ones and activating mK from them, allowing for a more flexible combination of activated experts; (2) isolating K_s experts as shared ones, aiming at capturing common knowledge and mitigating redundancy in routed experts. Starting from a modest scale with 2B parameters, we demonstrate that DeepSeekMoE 2B achieves comparable performance with GShard 2.9B, which has $1.5 \times$ expert parameters and computation. In addition, DeepSeekMoE 2B nearly approaches the performance of its dense counterpart with the same number of total parameters, which sets the upper bound of MoE models. Subsequently, we scale up DeepSeekMoE to 16B parameters and show that it achieves comparable performance with DeepSeek 7B and LLaMA2 7B, with only about 40% of computations.

1 Introduction

Recent research and practices have empirically demonstrated that, with sufficient training data available, scaling language models with increased parameters and computational budgets can yield remarkably stronger models (Brown et al., 2020; OpenAI, 2023; Touvron et al., 2023a; Hoffmann et al., 2022; DeepSeek-AI, 2024). However, the endeavor to scale models to an extremely large scale is also associated with exceedingly high computational costs. Considering the substantial costs, the Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) architecture (Jacobs et al., 1991; Jordan and Jacobs, 1994; Shazeer et al., 2017) has emerged as a popular solution, which enables parameter scaling while concurrently keeping modest computational costs.

Despite the promising potential of MoE architectures, existing MoE architectures like GShard (Lepikhin et al., 2021) potentially suffer from issues of knowledge hybridity and knowledge redundancy: (1) Knowledge Hybridity: existing MoE practices often employ a limited number of experts, and thus tokens assigned to a specific expert will be likely to cover diverse knowledge. Consequently, the designated expert will intend to assemble vastly different types of knowledge in its parameters, which are hard to utilize simultaneously. (2) Knowledge Redundancy: tokens assigned to different experts may require common knowledge. As a result, multiple experts may converge in acquiring shared knowledge in their respective parameters, thereby leading to redundancy in expert parameters. These issues collectively limit the expert specialization in MoE models, i.e., each expert acquires non-overlapping and focused knowledge.

In response to the aforementioned issues, we introduce DeepSeekMoE, an innovative MoE architecture specifically designed towards ultimate expert specialization. Our architecture involves two principal strategies: (1) Fine-Grained Expert Segmentation: while maintaining the number of parameters constant, we segment the experts into a finer granularity by splitting the FFN intermediate hidden dimension. Correspondingly, keeping a constant computational cost, we also activate more fine-grained experts to enable a more flexible and adaptable combination of activated experts. Finegrained expert segmentation allows diverse knowledge to be decomposed more finely and be learned more precisely into different experts, where each expert will retain a higher level of specialization. In addition, the increased flexibility in combining

^{*} Contribution during internship at DeepSeek-AI.

[°] Corresponding author.

activated experts also contributes to more accurate knowledge acquisition. (2) **Shared Expert Isolation:** we isolate certain experts to serve as shared experts that are always activated, aiming at capturing and consolidating common knowledge across varying contexts. Through compressing common knowledge into these shared experts, redundancy among other routed experts will be mitigated. This can enhance the parameter efficiency and ensure that each routed expert remains specialized by focusing on distinctive aspects. These architectural innovations in DeepSeekMoE offer opportunities to train a parameter-efficient MoE language model where each expert is highly specialized.

Starting from a modest scale with 2B parameters, we validate the advantages of the DeepSeekMoE architecture. Empirical results on 12 diverse benchmarks indicate that DeepSeekMoE 2B surpasses GShard 2B (Lepikhin et al., 2021) by a substantial margin, and even matches GShard 2.9B, a larger MoE model with $1.5 \times$ expert parameters and computation. Remarkably, we find that DeepSeekMoE 2B nearly approaches the performance of its dense counterpart with an equivalent number of parameters, which sets the strict upper bound of MoE language models. We also conduct elaborate ablation studies and specialization analysis, and the studies validate the effectiveness of our main strategies, and provide evidence supporting that DeepSeek-MoE can achieve higher expert specialization.

Subsequently, we scale up the model parameters to 16B and train DeepSeekMoE 16B on a largescale corpus with 2T tokens. Evaluation results reveal that with only about 40% of computations, it achieves comparable performance with DeepSeek 7B (DeepSeek-AI, 2024) and LLaMA2 7B (Touvron et al., 2023b), two strong 7B dense models.

Our contributions are summarized as follows: (1) We introduce DeepSeekMoE, an innovative MoE architecture aiming at achieving ultimate expert specialization. (2) We conduct extensive experiments to empirically validate the effectiveness of DeepSeekMoE and reveal its high level of expert specialization. (3) We scale up DeepSeekMoE to train a 16B MoE model which shows strong performance. (4) We will release the code and model checkpoint of DeepSeekMoE 16B to the public.

2 Preliminaries

We first introduce a generic MoE architecture for Transformer language models. A standard Transformer language model is constructed by stacking L layers of standard Transformer blocks, where each block can be represented as follows:

$$\mathbf{u}_{1:T}^{l} = \text{Self-Att}\left(\mathbf{h}_{1:T}^{l-1}\right) + \mathbf{h}_{1:T}^{l-1},\tag{1}$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{t}^{l} = \mathrm{FFN}\left(\mathbf{u}_{t}^{l}\right) + \mathbf{u}_{t}^{l},\tag{2}$$

where T denotes the sequence length, $\mathbf{u}_{1:T}^{l} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$ are the hidden states after the *l*-th attention module, and $\mathbf{h}_{t}^{l} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is the output hidden state of the *t*-th token after the *l*-th Transformer block. For brevity, we omit the layer normalization.

A typical practice to construct an MoE language model usually substitutes Feed-Forward Networks (FFNs) in a Transformer with MoE layers at specified intervals (Fedus et al., 2021; Lepikhin et al., 2021; Du et al., 2022; Zoph, 2022). An MoE layer is composed of multiple experts, where each expert is structurally identical to a standard FFN. Then, each token will be assigned to a few experts. If the *l*-th FFN is substituted with an MoE layer, its computation can be expressed as:

$$\mathbf{h}_{t}^{l} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(g_{i,t} \operatorname{FFN}_{i} \left(\mathbf{u}_{t}^{l} \right) \right) + \mathbf{u}_{t}^{l}, \tag{3}$$

$$g_{i,t} = \begin{cases} s_{i,t}, & s_{i,t} \in \operatorname{Topk}(\{s_{j,t} | 1 \le j \le N\}, K), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}$$
(4)

$$s_{i,t} = \text{Softmax}_i \left(\mathbf{u}_t^{l^T} \mathbf{e}_i^{l} \right), \tag{5}$$

where N denotes the total number of experts, $FFN_i(\cdot)$ is the *i*-th expert FFN, $g_{i,t}$ denotes the gate value for the *i*-th expert, $s_{i,t}$ denotes the tokento-expert affinity, $Topk(\cdot, K)$ denotes the set comprising K highest affinity scores among those calculated for the *t*-th token and all N experts, and e_i^l is the centroid of the *i*-th expert in the *l*-th layer. Note that for each token, only K out of N gate values are nonzero. This sparsity property ensures computational efficiency within an MoE layer.

3 DeepSeekMoE Architecture

On top of the generic MoE architecture, DeepSeek-MoE introduces two principal strategies, finegrained expert segmentation and shared expert isolation, as illustrated in Figure 1. Both strategies aim at elevating the level of expert specialization.

3.1 Fine-Grained Expert Segmentation

In scenarios where the number of experts is limited, tokens assigned to a particular expert will be more likely to cover diverse types of knowledge. As a consequence, the designated expert will intend



Figure 1: Illustration of DeepSeekMoE. (a) showcases an MoE layer with the conventional top-2 routing strategy. (b) illustrates the fine-grained expert segmentation strategy. Subsequently, (c) introduces the shared expert isolation strategy, constituting the complete DeepSeekMoE architecture.

to learn vastly different types of knowledge in its parameters, and they are hard to be simultaneously utilized. However, if each token can be routed to more experts, diverse knowledge will gain the potential to be decomposed and learned in different experts respectively, where each expert can still remain specialized and focused.

In pursuit of this goal, while maintaining a consistent number of expert parameters and computational cost, we segment the experts with a finer granularity. To be specific, on top of a typical MoE architecture shown in Figure 1(a), we segment each expert FFN into m smaller experts by reducing the FFN intermediate hidden dimension to $\frac{1}{m}$ times its original size. Since each expert becomes smaller, in response, we also increase the number of activated experts to m times to keep the same computation cost, as illustrated in Figure 1(b). Then, the output of an MoE layer can be expressed as:

$$\mathbf{h}_{t}^{l} = \sum_{i=1}^{mN} \left(g_{i,t} \operatorname{FFN}_{i} \left(\mathbf{u}_{t}^{l} \right) \right) + \mathbf{u}_{t}^{l}, \tag{6}$$

$$g_{i,t} = \begin{cases} s_{i,t}, s_{i,t} \in \operatorname{Topk}(\{s_{j,t} | 1 \le j \le mN\}, mK), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}$$
(7)

$$s_{i,t} = \text{Softmax}_i \left(\mathbf{u}_t^{l^T} \mathbf{e}_i^{l} \right),$$
 (8)

where the number of expert parameters is equal to N times a standard FFN, and mN denotes the number of fine-grained experts. Also, the number of nonzero gates will increase to mK.

From a combinatorial perspective, fine-grained

expert segmentation substantially enhances the combinatorial flexibility of activated experts. As an example, we consider the case where N = 16. A typical top-2 routing strategy can yield $\binom{16}{2} = 120$ possible combinations. By contrast, if each expert is split into 4 smaller experts, we can yield $\binom{64}{8} = 4,426,165,368$ potential combinations. The surge in combinatorial flexibility enhances the potential for achieving more accurate and targeted knowledge acquisition.

3.2 Shared Expert Isolation

With a conventional routing strategy, tokens assigned to different experts may require some common knowledge. As a result, multiple experts will converge in acquiring shared knowledge in their respective parameters, leading to parameter redundancy. However, if there are shared experts that capture and consolidate common knowledge across varying contexts, the parameter redundancy among other routed experts will be alleviated.

Towards this objective, we further isolate K_s experts as shared experts. Regardless of the router, each token will be deterministically assigned to these shared experts. In order to maintain a constant computational cost, the number of activated routed experts will be decreased by K_s , as depicted in Figure 1(c). Finally, an MoE layer in the com-

plete DeepSeekMoE architecture is formulated as:

$$\mathbf{h}_{t}^{l} = \sum_{i=1}^{K_{s}} \operatorname{FFN}_{i} \left(\mathbf{u}_{t}^{l} \right) + \sum_{i=K_{s}+1}^{mN} \left(g_{i,t} \operatorname{FFN}_{i} \left(\mathbf{u}_{t}^{l} \right) \right) + \mathbf{u}_{t}^{l},$$
(9)

 $g_{i,t} = \begin{cases} s_{i,t}, s_{i,t} \in \operatorname{Topk}(\{s_{j,t} | K_s + 1 \le j \le mN\}, mK - K_s), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}$ (10)

$$s_{i,t} = \text{Softmax}_i \left(\mathbf{u}_t^{l^T} \mathbf{e}_i^{l} \right). \tag{11}$$

Finally, the number of shared experts is K_s , the number of routed experts is $mN - K_s$, and the number of nonzero gates is $mK - K_s$. The prototype of shared expert isolation can be credited to some previous work Rajbhandari et al. (2022); Elbayad et al. (2023), but we derive this strategy from different standpoints.

3.3 Load Balance Consideration

We employ an expert-level balance loss to mitigate the risk of routing collapse (Shazeer et al., 2017). The computation of the balance loss is as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{Bal}} = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{N'} f_i P_i, \tag{12}$$

$$f_i = \frac{N'}{K'T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathbb{1}(\text{Token } t \text{ selects Expert } i), \qquad (13)$$

$$P_i = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} s_{i,t},$$
(14)

where balance factor α is a hyper-parameter, $\mathbb{1}(\cdot)$ denotes the indicator function, N' is equal to $(mN - K_s)$, and K' is equal to $(mK - K_s)$.

4 Validation Experiments

4.1 Experimental Setup

Training Data and Tokenization. Our training data is sampled from a large-scale corpus created by DeepSeek-AI (DeepSeek-AI, 2024), which focuses on English and Chinese and is derived from diverse sources. For the purpose of validation experiments, we sample a subset containing 100B tokens from the corpus to train our models. For tokenization, we utilize the HuggingFace Tokenizer¹ tools to train a byte pair encoding (BPE) (Sennrich et al., 2016) tokenizer with an 8K vocabulary size on a subset of the training corpus.

Hyper-Parameters. In the validation experiments, we set the number of Transformer layers to 9 and the hidden dimension to 1280. We substitute all FFNs with MoE layers, and ensure that the total number of expert parameters equals 16 times that of a standard FFN. Additionally, we keep the activated expert parameters, including shared expert parameters and activated routed expert parameters, as 2 times that of a standard FFN. Under this configuration, each MoE model has approximately 2B total parameters, with the number of activated parameters around 0.3B. As for training, we employ the AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019) and set the maximum learning rate to 1.08×10^{-3} . The batch size is set to 2K, and with a maximum sequence length of 2K, each training batch contains 4M tokens. Correspondingly, the total number of training steps is set to 25,000 to achieve 100B training tokens. In order to prevent routing collapse, we set a balance factor of 0.01. Due to the page limit, we leave the other hyper-parameters in Appendix A.1. We also describe the training framework and infrastructures in Appendix B.

Evaluation Benchmarks. We conduct evaluations on a wide range of benchmarks covering various types of tasks. For language modeling, we evaluate the models on the test set of Pile (Gao et al., 2020), and the evaluation metric is the crossentropy loss. For language understanding and reasoning, we consider HellaSwag (Zellers et al., 2019), PIQA (Bisk et al., 2020), ARC-challenge and ARC-easy (Clark et al., 2018), and the evaluation metric for these tasks is accuracy. For reading comprehension, we consider RACE-high and RACE-middle (Lai et al., 2017), and the evaluation metric is accuracy. For code generation, we consider HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021) and MBPP (Austin et al., 2021), and the evaluation metric is Pass@1. For closed-book question answering, we consider TriviaQA (Joshi et al., 2017) and NaturalQuestions (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019), and the metric is the Exactly Matching (EM) rate.

4.2 Evaluations

Baselines. Including DeepSeekMoE, we compare five models for validation experiments. **Dense** denotes a standard dense Transformer model with 0.2B total parameters. **Hash Layer** (Roller et al., 2021) and **Switch Transformer** (Fedus et al., 2021) are two well-known MoE architectures based on top-1 routing, with 2.0B total parameters and 0.2B activated parameters. **GShard** (Lepikhin et al.,

¹https://github.com/huggingface/tokenizers

Metric	# Shot	Dense	Hash Layer	Switch Transformer	GShard	DeepSeekMoE
# Total Params	N/A	0.2B	2.0B	2.0B	2.0B	2.0B
# Activated Params	N/A	0.2B	0.2B	0.2B	0.3B	0.3B
FLOPs per 2K Tokens	N/A	2.9T	2.9T	2.9T	4.3T	4.3T
Pile (Loss)	N/A	2.060	1.932	1.881	1.867	1.808
HellaSwag (Acc.)	0	38.8	46.2	49.1	50.5	54.8
PIQA (Acc.)	0	66.8	68.4	70.5	70.6	72.3
ARC-easy (Acc.)	0	41.0	45.3	45.9	43.9	49.4
ARC-challenge (Acc.)	0	26.0	28.2	30.2	31.6	34.3
RACE-middle (Acc.)	5	38.8	38.8	43.6	42.1	44.0
RACE-high (Acc.)	5	29.0	30.0	30.9	30.4	31.7
HumanEval (Pass@1)	0	0.0	1.2	2.4	3.7	4.9
MBPP (Pass@1)	3	0.2	0.6	0.4	0.2	2.2
TriviaQA (EM)	5	4.9	6.5	8.9	10.2	16.6
NaturalQuestions (EM)	5	1.4	1.4	2.5	3.2	5.7

Table 1: Evaluation results for validation experiments. Bold font indicates the best.



Figure 2: Ablation studies for DeepSeekMoE. The performance is normalized by the best performance.

2021) employs a top-2 learnable routing strategy, with 2.0B total parameters and 0.3B activated parameters. **DeepSeekMoE** has 1 shared expert and 63 routed experts, where each expert is 0.25 times the size of a standard FFN. Including DeepSeek-MoE, all compared models share the same training corpus and training hyper-parameters.

Results. As shown in Table 1, (1) With more total parameters, Hash Layer and Switch Transformer achieve significantly stronger performance than the dense baseline with the same number of activated parameters. (2) Compared with Hash Layer and Switch Transformer, GShard has more activated parameters and achieves slightly better performance. (3) With the same number of total and activated parameters, DeepSeekMoE demonstrates overwhelming advantages over GShard. These results show the superiority of our DeepSeekMoE architecture.

4.3 DeepSeekMoE Aligns Closely with the upper bound of MoE Models

For a more precise understanding of the performance of DeepSeekMoE, we compare it with larger baselines with more parameters or computations.

Comparison with GShard $\times 1.5$. We first compare DeepSeekMoE with a larger GShard model with 1.5 times the expert size, which results in 1.5 times both expert parameters and expert computation. Evaluation results show that GShard $\times 1.5$ achieves a Pile test loss of 1.808, and DeepSeekMoE also achieves the same Pile test loss. This underscores the significant advantage of the DeepSeekMoE architecture. Due to the page limit, we show the complete evaluation results including all the benchmarks in Appendix C.

Comparison with Dense $\times 16$. We also compare DeepSeekMoE and a dense model with the same number of total parameters. For a fair comparison, we do not use the widely used ratio (1:2) between the attention and FFN parameters. Instead, we configure 16 shared experts where each expert has the same number of parameters as a standard FFN. This architecture mimics a dense model with 16 times standard FFN parameters, which sets the strict upper bound of MoE models in terms of the



Figure 3: Pile test loss with regard to different ratios of disabled top routed experts.

model capacity. We find that this dense model achieves a Pile test loss of 1.806, while DeepSeek-MoE achieves a close Pile test loss of 1.808. Due to the page limit, we also show the complete evaluation results in Appendix C. To summarize, these results suggest that, at least at the scale of about 2B parameters and 100B training tokens, the performance of DeepSeekMoE aligns closely with the theoretical upper bound of MoE models.

4.4 Ablation Studies

We conduct ablation studies for DeepSeekMoE to substantiate the effectiveness of our two principal strategies. For a fair comparison, we ensure all models included in the comparison have the same number of total and activated parameters.

Shared Expert Isolation. In order to evaluate the influence of shared expert isolation, based on GShard, we isolate one expert as the shared one. From Figure 2, we observe that compared with GShard, the isolation yields improved performance across a majority of benchmarks.

Fine-Grained Expert Segmentation. For assessing the effectiveness of fine-grained expert segmentation, we segment each expert into 2 or 4 smaller experts, resulting in 32 (1 shared + 31 routed) or 64 (1 shared + 63 routed) total experts. Figure 2 shows a consistent trend that finer expert segmentation granularity corresponds to better performance.

4.5 Analysis on Expert Specialization

We conduct an empirical analysis on the expert specialization of DeepSeekMoE 2B, which refers to the model reported in Table 1.

DeepSeekMoE Exhibits Lower Redundancy Among Routed Experts. In order to assess the redundancy among routed experts, for each token, we mask a certain ratio of experts with the highest routing probability, and then select top-K experts



Figure 4: Pile loss with regard to different numbers of activated routed experts in DeepSeekMoE.



Figure 5: Comparison between GShard and DeepSeek-MoE trained from scratch and with half the activated experts.

from the remaining routed experts. For fairness, we compare DeepSeekMoE with GShard $\times 1.5$ since they have the same Pile loss when no experts are disabled. As shown in Figure 3, compared with GShard $\times 1.5$, DeepSeekMoE is more sensitive to the disabling of top routed experts. This implies lower parameter redundancy in DeepSeekMoE, since each routed expert is more irreplaceable.

Shared Experts Are Irreplaceable by Routed Experts. In order to investigate the role of the shared expert in DeepSeekMoE, we disable it and activate one more routed expert. The evaluation on Pile shows a significant increase in the Pile loss, rising from 1.808 to 2.414, even though we maintain the same computational cost. This result indicates that the shared expert captures fundamental and essential knowledge not shared with routed experts, making it irreplaceable by routed ones.

DeepSeekMoE Acquires Knowledge More Accurately. In order to validate our claim that higher flexibility in combining activated experts contributes to more accurate and targeted knowledge acquisition, we investigate whether DeepSeek-MoE can acquire requisite knowledge with fewer activated experts. To be specific, we vary the number of activated routed experts from 3 to 7 and evaluate the resulting Pile loss. As demonstrated in Figure 4, even with only 4 routed experts activated, DeepSeekMoE is still comparable with GShard.

Encouraged by these findings, we further train a new MoE model from scratch, which comprises 1 shared expert and 63 routed experts but only 3 routed experts are activated. Figure 5 demonstrates that, even with the same total expert parameters and only half of the activated expert parameters, DeepSeekMoE still outperforms GShard.

5 Scaling up to DeepSeekMoE 16B

With the DeepSeekMoE architecture, we further scale up our MoE model to a larger scale with 16B total parameters and train it on 2T tokens.

5.1 Experimental Setup

Training Data and Tokenization For training DeepSeekMoE 16B, we sample 2T tokens from the same corpus as described in Section 4.1, and use a larger BPE tokenizer with a 100K vocabulary size.

Hyper-Parameters For DeepSeekMoE 16B, we set the number of Transformer layers to 28 and the hidden dimension to 2048. We substitute all FFNs except for the first layer with MoE layers, since we observe that the load balance status converges especially slower for the first layer. Each MoE layer consists of 2 shared experts and 64 routed experts, where each expert is 0.25 times the size of a standard FFN. Each token will be routed to these 2 shared experts and 6 out of 64 routed experts. Under this configuration, DeepSeekMoE 16B has approximately 16.4B total parameters, with the number of activated parameters around 2.8B. As for training, we employ the AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019) and set the maximum learning rate to 4.2×10^{-4} . The batch size is set to 4.5K, and with a maximum sequence length of 4K, each training batch contains 18M tokens. Correspondingly, the total number of training steps is set to 106,449 to achieve 2T training tokens. In order to prevent routing collapse, we set a balance factor of 0.001. Due to the page limit, we leave the other hyper-parameters in Appendix A.2.

Evaluation Benchmarks In addition to the benchmarks used in the validation experiments, we incorporate additional benchmarks for a more comprehensive evaluation. For **language model-ing**, we also evaluate the models on the test set of Pile (Gao et al., 2020). Since the tokenizer used in DeepSeekMoE 16B is different from that used in LLaMA2 7B, we use bits per byte (BPB)

as the evaluation metric for a fair comparison. For reading comprehension, we additionally consider DROP (Dua et al., 2019) and the evaluation metric is EM. For math reasoning, we additionally incorporate GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) and MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021), using EM as the evaluation metric. For multi-subject multiplechoice, we additionally evaluate the models on MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020) and the evaluation metric is accuracy. For disambiguation, we additionally consider WinoGrande (Sakaguchi et al., 2019) and the evaluation metric is accuracy. Since DeepSeekMoE 16B is pretrained on a bilingual corpus, we also evaluate it on four Chinese benchmarks: CLUEWSC (Xu et al., 2020), CEval (Huang et al., 2023), CMMLU (Li et al., 2023), and CHID (Zheng et al., 2019). Evaluation metrics for these benchmarks are accuracy or EM.

5.2 Evaluations

We compare DeepSeekMoE 16B with LLaMA2 7B (Touvron et al., 2023b) and DeepSeek 7B (DeepSeek-AI, 2024), two strong and wellknown dense models trained on 2T tokens. In addition, DeepSeekMoE 16B and DeepSeek 7B use the same training data. As shown in Table 2, we have the following observations: (1) On the whole, with about only 40% of the computations, DeepSeekMoE 16B achieves comparable performance with LLaMA2 7B and DeepSeek 7B. (2) DeepSeekMoE 16B exhibits notable strengths in language modeling and knowledge-intensive tasks such as Pile, HellaSwag, and TriviaQA. (3) Compared with the excellent performance on other tasks, DeepSeekMoE exhibits limitations in addressing multiple-choice tasks, which may stem from the limited attention parameters in DeepSeekMoE 16B. (4) Compared with LLaMA2 7B, DeepSeek 7B and DeepSeekMoE 16B have much stronger performance on math, coding, and Chinese benchmarks. For a more comprehensive understanding of the training process of DeepSeekMoE 16B, we also provide the benchmark curves of DeepSeekMoE 16B and DeepSeek 7B (Dense) during training in Appendix **D**.

In addition, we provide a comparison between DeepSeekMoE 16B and other open source models on the Open LLM Leaderboard in Appendix E.

Metric	# Shot	LLaMA2 7B (Dense)	DeepSeek 7B (Dense)	DeepSeekMoE 16B
# Total Params	N/A	6.7B	6.9B	16.4B
# Activated Params	N/A	6.7B	6.9B	2.8B
FLOPs per 4K Tokens	N/A	187.9T	183.5T	74.4T
Pile (BPB)	N/A	0.76	0.75	0.74
HellaSwag (Acc.)	0	75.6	75.4	77.1
PIQA (Acc.)	0	78.0	79.2	80.2
ARC-easy (Acc.)	0	69.1	67.9	68.1
ARC-challenge (Acc.)	0	49.0	48.1	49.8
RACE-middle (Acc.)	5	60.7	63.2	61.9
RACE-high (Acc.)	5	45.8	46.5	46.4
DROP (EM)	1	34.0	34.9	32.9
GSM8K (EM)	8	15.5	17.4	18.8
MATH (EM)	4	2.6	3.3	4.3
HumanEval (Pass@1)	0	14.6	26.2	26.8
MBPP (Pass@1)	3	21.8	39.0	39.2
TriviaQA (EM)	5	63.8	59.7	64.8
NaturalQuestions (EM)	5	25.5	22.2	25.5
MMLU (Acc.)	5	45.8	48.2	45.0
WinoGrande (Acc.)	0	69.6	70.5	70.2
CLUEWSC (EM)	5	64.0	73.1	72.1
CEval (Acc.)	5	33.9	45.0	40.6
CMMLU (Acc.)	5	32.6	47.2	42.5
CHID (Acc.)	0	37.9	89.3	89.4

Table 2: Comparison among LLaMA2 7B, DeepSeek 7B, and DeepSeekMoE 16B.

6 Related Work

The Mixture of Experts (MoE) technique is first proposed by Jacobs et al. (1991); Jordan and Jacobs (1994) to deal with different samples with independent expert modules. Shazeer et al. (2017) introduce MoE into language model training and build a large-scale LSTM-based (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) MoE models. As Transformer become the most popular architecture for NLP, many attempts extend FFNs in a Transformer as MoE layers to build MoE language models. GShard (Lepikhin et al., 2021) and Switch Transformer (Fedus et al., 2021) are pioneers which employ learnable top-2 or top-1 routing strategies to scale the MoE language models to an extremely large scale. Hash Layer (Roller et al., 2021) and StableMoE (Dai et al., 2022) use fixed routing strategies for more stable routing and training. Zhou et al. (2022) propose an expert-choice routing strategy, where each token can be assigned to different numbers of experts. Zoph (2022) focus on the issues of training instability and fine-tuning difficulty in MoE models, and propose ST-MoE to overcome these challenges. Gao et al. (2022) investigate parameterefficient MoE architectures via sharing information among experts. Krishnamurthy et al. (2023) attempt to improve the expert specialization on toy data. In addition to research on MoE architectures and training strategies, recent years have also witnessed the emergence of numerous large-scale language or multimodal models (Lin et al., 2021; Du et al., 2022; Ren et al., 2023; Xue et al., 2023) based on existing MoE architectures. By and large, most of the previous MoE models are based on conventional top-1 or top-2 routing strategies, leaving large room for improving expert specialization. In response, we design the DeepSeekMoE architecture to improve the expert specialization.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduce the DeepSeekMoE architecture for MoE language models, with the objective of achieving ultimate expert specialization. Through fine-grained expert segmentation and shared expert isolation, DeepSeekMoE achieves significantly higher expert specialization and performance compared with prevailing MoE architectures. Starting with a modest scale of 2B parameters, we validate the advantages of DeepSeekMoE, demonstrating its capability to approach the upper bound performance for MoE models. Further-

more, we provide empirical evidence to show that DeepSeekMoE has a higher level of expert specialization than GShard. Scaling up to a larger scale of 16B total parameters, we train DeepSeekMoE 16B on 2T tokens and demonstrate its outstanding performance comparable with DeepSeek 7B and LLaMA2 7B, with only about 40% of computations. For research purposes, we will release the model checkpoint of DeepSeekMoE 16B to the public, which can be deployed on a single GPU with 40GB of memory. We aspire for this work to provide valuable insights for both academia and industry, and contribute to the accelerated advancement of large language models.

Limitations and Future Work

Although we find that finer granularity in expert segmentation always leads to better model performance, we just use a moderate granularity in DeepSeekMoE 16B, since too fine granularity will decrease the computational efficiency. In future research, we plan to build a scaling law for the expert segmentation granularity and explore finer segmentation on larger-scale models.

In addition, since DeepSeekMoE will select more experts, it has the potential to result in additional communication overhead when the experts are distributed across different devices. In the future, we will also design better algorithms and parallelism strategies to mitigate such additional communication overhead.

Finally, in this paper, we fix the number of expert parameters to 16 times that of a standard FFN, and the number of activated expert parameters to twice that of a standard FFN. In larger model settings, the optimal numbers of total parameters and activated parameters are also a topic for future research and discussion.

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Appendices

A Details of Hyper-Parameters

A.1 Validation Experiments

Model Settings. In the validation experiments, we set the number of Transformer layers to 9 and the hidden dimension to 1280. We employ the multi-head attention mechanism with a total of 10 attention heads, where each head has a dimension of 128. For initialization, all learnable parameters are randomly initialized with a standard deviation of 0.006. We substitute all FFNs with MoE layers, and ensure that the total number of expert parameters equals 16 times that of a standard FFN. Additionally, we keep the activated expert parameters, including shared expert parameters and activated routed expert parameters, as 2 times that of a standard FFN. Under this configuration, each MoE model has approximately 2B total parameters, with the number of activated parameters around 0.3B.

Training Settings. We employ the AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019) with hyperparameters set to $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.95$, and weight_decay = 0.1. The learning rate is scheduled using a warmup-and-step-decay strategy. Initially, the learning rate linearly increases from 0 to the maximum value during the first 2K steps. Subsequently, the learning rate is multiplied by 0.316 at 80% of the training steps, and again by 0.316 at 90% of the training steps. The maximum learning rate for validation experiments is set to 1.08×10^{-3} , and the gradient clipping norm is set to 1.0. The batch size is set to 2K, and with a maximum sequence length of 2K, each training batch contains 4M tokens. Correspondingly, the total number of training steps is set to 25,000 to achieve 100B training tokens. Due to the abundance of training data, we do not use dropout during training. Given the relatively small model size, all parameters, including expert parameters, are deployed on a single GPU device to avoid unbalanced computation. In order to prevent routing collapse, we set the balance factor to 0.01.

A.2 DeepSeekMoE 16B

Model Settings. For DeepSeekMoE 16B, we set the number of Transformer layers to 28 and the hidden dimension to 2048. We employ the multi-head attention mechanism with a total of 16 attention heads, where each head has a dimension of 128. As for initialization, all learnable parameters are randomly initialized with a standard deviation of 0.006. We substitute all FFNs except for the first layer with MoE layers, since we observe that the load balance status converges especially slower for the first layer. Each MoE layer consists of 2 shared experts and 64 routed experts, where each expert is 0.25 times the size of a standard FFN. Each token will be routed to these 2 shared experts and 6 out of 64 routed experts. An even finer expert segmentation granularity is not employed due to the potential reduction in computational efficiency associated with excessively small expert sizes. At a larger scale over 16B, a finer granularity can still be employed. Under our configuration, DeepSeekMoE 16B has approximately 16.4B total parameters, with the number of activated parameters around 2.8B.

Training Settings. We employ the AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019) with hyperparameters set to $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.95$, and weight_decay = 0.1. The learning rate is also scheduled using a warmup-and-step-decay strategy. Initially, the learning rate linearly increases from 0 to the maximum value during the first 2K steps. Subsequently, the learning rate is multiplied by 0.316 at 80% of the training steps, and again by 0.316 at 90% of the training steps. The maximum learning rate for DeepSeekMoE 16B is set to 4.2×10^{-4} , and the gradient clipping norm is set to 1.0. The batch size is set to 4.5K, and with a maximum sequence length of 4K, each training batch contains 18M tokens. Correspondingly, the total number of training steps is set to 106,449 to achieve 2T training tokens. Due to the abundance of training data, we do not use dropout during training. We leverage pipeline parallelism to deploy different layers of a model on different devices, and for each layer, all the experts will be deployed on the same device. Therefore, there will not be unbalanced computation during training. In order to prevent routing collapse, we set a quite small balance factor of 0.001 because we find that under our parallelization strategy, a higher balance factor cannot increase the computation efficiency, but instead, it will compromise the model performance.

B Infrastructures

We conduct experiments based on HAI-LLM (High-Flyer, 2023), an efficient and light-weight training framework which integrates multiple parallelism strategies, including tensor parallelism (Shoeybi et al., 2019; Narayanan et al., 2021; Korthikanti et al., 2023), ZeRO data parallelism (Rajbhandari et al., 2020), PipeDream pipeline parallelism (Harlap et al., 2018), and more specifically, expert parallelism (Lepikhin et al., 2021) by combining data and tensor parallelism. In order to optimize performance, we develop GPU kernels with CUDA and Triton (Tillet et al., 2019) for gating algorithms and fusing computations across linear layers in different experts.

All experiments are carried out on clusters equipped with NVIDIA A100 or H800 GPUs. Each node in the A100 cluster contains 8 GPUs connected pairwise via the NVLink bridge. The H800 cluster also features 8 GPUs per node, interconnected using NVLink and NVSwitch within nodes. For both A100 and H800 clusters, InfiniBand interconnects are utilized to facilitate communication across nodes.

C Comparisons among DeepSeekMoE and Larger Models

We show the comparisons among DeepSeekMoE, larger GShard models, and larger dense models in Table 3.

D Training Benchmark Curves of DeepSeekMoE 16B

We present the benchmark curves during training of DeepSeekMoE 16B and DeepSeek 7B (Dense) in Figure 6 for reference.

E Evaluation on Open LLM Leaderboard

Beyond our internal evaluations, we also evaluate DeepSeekMoE 16B on the Open LLM Leaderboard² and compare it with other open source models. The Open LLM Leaderboard is a public leaderboard supported by HuggingFace, it consists of six tasks: ARC (Clark et al., 2018), HellaSwag (Zellers et al., 2019), MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020), TruthfulQA (Lin et al., 2022), Winogrande (Sakaguchi et al., 2019), and GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021). In addition to LLaMA2 7B, we take a broader set of open source models into consideration, including LLaMA 7B (Touvron et al., 2023a), Falcon 7B (Almazrouei et al., 2023), GPT-J 6B (Wang and Komatsuzaki, 2021), RedPajama-INCITE 7B and 3B (Together-AI, 2023), Open LLaMA 7B and 3B (Geng and Liu, 2023), OPT

2.7B (Zhang et al., 2022), Pythia 2.8B (Biderman et al., 2023), GPT-neo 2.7B (Black et al., 2021), and BLOOM 3B (Scao et al., 2022). The evaluation results, as presented in Figure 7, show that DeepSeekMoE 16B consistently outperforms models with similar activated parameters by a large margin. Moreover, it achieves comparable performance with LLaMA2 7B, which has approximately 2.5 times the activated parameters.

²https://huggingface.co/spaces/HuggingFaceH4/open_llm_leaderboard

Metric	# Shot	GShard $\times 1.5$	Dense ×16	DeepSeekMoE
Relative Expert Size	N/A	1.5	1	0.25
# Experts	N/A	0 + 16	16 + 0	1 + 63
# Activated Experts	N/A	0 + 2	16 + 0	1 + 7
# Total Expert Params	N/A	2.83B	1.89B	1.89B
# Activated Expert Params	N/A	0.35B	1.89B	0.24B
FLOPs per 2K Tokens	N/A	5.8T	24.6T	4.3T
# Training Tokens	N/A	100B	100B	100B
Pile (Loss)	N/A	1.808	1.806	1.808
HellaSwag (Acc.)	0	54.4	55.1	54.8
PIQA (Acc.)	0	71.1	71.9	72.3
ARC-easy (Acc.)	0	47.3	51.9	49.4
ARC-challenge (Acc.)	0	34.1	33.8	34.3
RACE-middle (Acc.)	5	46.4	46.3	44.0
RACE-high (Acc.)	5	32.4	33.0	31.7
HumanEval (Pass@1)	0	3.0	4.3	4.9
MBPP (Pass@1)	3	2.6	2.2	2.2
TriviaQA (EM)	5	15.7	16.5	16.6
NaturalQuestions (EM)	5	4.7	6.3	5.7

Table 3: Comparisons among DeepSeekMoE, larger GShard models, and larger dense models. In the line of "# Experts", a + b denotes a shared experts and b routed experts. In the line of "# Activated Experts", a + b denotes a activated shared experts and b activated routed experts. DeepSeekMoE achieves comparable performance with a GShard model containing 1.5 times expert parameters and computation. In addition, DeepSeekMoE nearly approaches the performance of a dense model with 16 times FFN parameters, which sets the upper bound for MoE models in terms of the model capacity.



Figure 6: Benchmark curves during training of DeepSeekMoE 16B and DeepSeek 7B (Dense).



Figure 7: Comparison between DeepSeekMoE 16B and open source models on the Open LLM Leaderboard.