

# Geometry of Knowledge Allows Extending Diversity Boundaries of Large Language Models

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## Abstract

Starting from the hypothesis that knowledge in semantic space is organized along structured manifolds, we argue that this geometric structure renders the space explorable. By traversing it and using the resulting continuous representations to condition an LLM’s generation distribution, we can systematically expand the model’s reachable semantic range. We introduce a framework that requires no modification of LLM parameters and operationalizes this idea by constructing a conditioning distribution from a small set of diverse anchor generations. This distribution conditions LLM’s generation via an xRAG-style projector (Cheng et al., 2024). Our experiments demonstrate that this manifold-based conditioning substantially increases generative diversity, with direct benefits for enhancing divergent thinking, a core facet of creativity, in language models.

## 1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) have become the foundation of modern NLP systems, yet their generative behavior exhibits a persistent limitation: despite using stochastic decoding methods such as temperature or nucleus sampling, repeated generations from the same prompt tend to be semantically similar. This lack of variance constrains applications that rely on broad exploration of the semantic space, including synthetic data generation, brainstorming, and divergent thinking tasks.

A widely adopted strategy for increasing diversity is to manipulate the *context* presented to the model, for example through paraphrasing, persona shifts, stylistic changes, or multi-agent discussions. Although effective to a degree, these methods operate over a finite (or effectively finite) set of reachable contexts. Because the conditional distribution  $p_{\theta}(y | c)$  associated with each context is known to exhibit low variance (Zhang et al., 2025), the diversity obtainable by marginalizing over such a

finite set is inherently limited. Empirically, this manifests as rapid saturation: after only a handful of samples, prompt- and agent-based methods cease to discover new semantic variants.

In this work, we propose a different perspective. Instead of relying solely on symbolic prompt manipulations, we introduce a *continuous* conditioning variable in the model’s semantic space. For a given input, we derive a latent representation and modulate the generation context via a multimodal projector, following the xRAG mechanism (Cheng et al., 2024). Crucially, this conditioning operates directly in the token-embedding space of the LLM and therefore requires *no fine-tuning* of the underlying model. By exploring this continuous manifold, we enable the model to access semantic variations that are unattainable through prompt engineering alone.

A central challenge is determining how to sample the latent variable. We show that classical latent models such as VAEs (Kingma and Welling, 2014) are ill-suited for this task due to a topological mismatch between their unimodal latent priors and the clustered, multi-component structure of LLM semantic representations (Cai et al., 2021). Instead, we propose an exploration-based construction: we obtain a small number of diverse anchor responses, embed them into semantic space, and define a continuous latent region by interpolating and perturbing these anchors. This approach naturally supports geometric search procedures and allows semantic variation to scale beyond the limits of prompt-based methods.

Our experimental results demonstrate that continuous semantic conditioning substantially increases the variance of generated outputs without compromising quality. On the NOVELTYBENCH benchmark, our method uncovers new semantic classes even at large sampling budgets while maintaining high utility. On the Alternative Uses Test (AUT), a classical measure of divergent thinking, latent-

space exploration yields the highest originality scores across all settings, approaching the practical upper bound of the scoring scale.

**Contributions.** This work makes the following contributions:

- We identify a structural limitation of prompt-based and agent-based diversity methods, showing that their generative variance is bounded by the conditioning context.
- We introduce a plug-in latent-conditioning framework that modulates a LLM distribution through continuous exploration in semantic space, requiring no modification of model parameters.
- We provide a topological analysis explaining why VAE-style latent methods cannot align with the clustered geometry of LLM semantic activations.
- We empirically demonstrate substantial gains in semantic diversity and divergent thinking performance on NOVELTYBENCH and AUT task.

## 2 Related Work

A growing line of work has argued that contemporary LLMs suffer from mode collapse and limited semantic variability despite stochastic decoding. NoveltyBench (Zhang et al., 2025) introduces a benchmark and metric suite specifically designed to assess the ability of models to produce multiple distinct and high-quality responses to a single prompt. Instead of relying on surface-level overlap, it clusters outputs into abstract equivalence classes and reports diversity in terms of the number of occupied classes and their utility. Our work adopts this abstraction-based view of diversity and builds on NoveltyBench as a primary evaluation environment.

Classical approaches increase variability by modifying the decoding procedure, e.g., through temperature scaling or nucleus sampling. These methods flatten the output distribution but do not exploit structure across multiple generations and often exhibit a sharp diversity–quality trade-off. Inference-time methods based on diverse beam search (Cho, 2016; Li and Jurafsky, 2016; Vijayakumar et al., 2017; Kulikov et al., 2019) and related decoding heuristics similarly operate on the token distribution of a *fixed* conditional  $p_{\theta}(y | c)$ : they ensure

that hypotheses in a beam differ lexically, but they do not explicitly reason about semantic redundancy between complete responses. Empirical comparisons with simple temperature tuning suggest that these decoding tweaks only partially alleviate diversity collapse and can harm quality when pushed too far (Ippolito et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021; Peeperkorn et al., 2024; Shur-Ofry et al., 2024).

Recent work proposes more principled training-time mechanisms. Early approaches encourage diversity by modifying the maximum-likelihood objective itself: mutual-information objectives discourage generic replies (Li and Jurafsky, 2016; Li et al., 2016), unlikelihood losses penalize degenerate loops and repetitions (Welleck et al., 2020), and smoothing or reshaping the target distribution (e.g., data-dependent Gaussian priors or explicitly diffuse targets) biases models toward broader output distributions (Li et al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2024). More recent preference-based methods encode diversity directly into the reward or preference model: Diverse Preference Optimization and related objectives (Lanchantin et al., 2025; Slocum et al., 2025) and Creative Preference Optimization (Ismayilzada et al., 2025) jointly optimize for quality and variety of generations. In the context of reasoning models, online RL methods further adjust rewards or weighting schemes to encourage exploration of diverse solution trajectories (Cui et al., 2025; Cheng et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2025; Zeng et al., 2025; Kirk et al., 2024). While effective, all of these techniques require supervised fine-tuning or RL-style updates to the base model, which we explicitly avoid: our goal is to increase diversity *without* modifying LLM parameters. Our method is therefore complementary to these approaches.

A complementary direction explores post-hoc guidance during generation. G2 (Ruan et al., 2025) (Guided Generation) uses an auxiliary classifier to steer the model towards more diffuse response distributions while maintaining task usefulness, and serves as a strong decoding-based baseline in our experiments. Our approach is orthogonal: rather than shaping token probabilities via an external guidance signal, we modify the semantic *conditioning* itself by moving along a continuous manifold in embedding space.

Beyond generic methods, some work targets diversity in application-specific formats. For instance, Holysz et. al. have explored JSON-based prompting schemes to induce structurally diverse outputs in medical scenario (Holysz et al., 2025);

183 however, such JSON schemas are highly task- 235  
184 specific and do not naturally generalize to open- 236  
185 ended semantic variation. In contrast, our method 237  
186 operates at the level of continuous text embeddings 238  
187 and applies uniformly across tasks. 239

188 A long-standing line of research uses variational 240  
189 autoencoders to endow language models with a con- 241  
190 tinuous latent code controlling generation. OPTI- 242  
191 MUS (Li et al., 2020a) and follow-up work (Zhang 243  
192 et al., 2023) train VAEs on top of large pretrained 244  
193 models to organize sentences in a latent space that 245  
194 supports interpolation, traversal, and conditional 246  
195 control. These methods, however, require optimiz- 247  
196 ing the decoder. This introduces the usual costs 248  
197 and risks of model fine-tuning, including potential 249  
198 catastrophic forgetting of pretrained semantics. In 250  
199 Appendix B we deep dive into this phenomenon. 251

200 xRAG (Cheng et al., 2024) demonstrates that 252  
201 LLMs can be conditioned directly through dense 253  
202 semantic vectors injected via a multimodal projec- 254  
203 tion layer. Their goal, however, is orthogonal to 255  
204 ours: xRAG uses embedding-based conditioning 256  
205 to *compress external documents* for efficient RAG, 257  
206 keeping the model aligned to retrieved evidence. 258  
207 We instead generalize this mechanism to modu- 259  
208 late the model’s *internal* semantic state, treating 260  
209 the conditioning vector not as compressed context 261  
210 but as a latent variable for controlled exploration. 262  
211 Thus, while xRAG establishes that continuous con- 263  
212 ditioning is feasible without fine-tuning, our work 264  
213 leverages this capability to expand semantic vari- 265  
214 ance in generation.

215 Our second line of evaluation concerns diver- 266  
216 gent thinking and creativity. Recent work has be- 267  
217 gun to systematically assess language creativity of 268  
218 LLMs and humans using batteries of psychological 269  
219 tests. Dinu et al. propose an integrated creativity 270  
220 suite (Dinu and Florescu, 2025), including the Al- 271  
221 ternative Uses Test (AUT), and report that strong 272  
222 LLMs can approach or slightly surpass human per- 273  
223 formance under certain conditions. These works 274  
224 focus primarily on measuring creativity, not on al- 275  
225 gorithmic mechanisms for increasing it. We adopt 276  
226 AUT as an evaluation task and interface with an ex- 277  
227 isting automatic originality scoring framework (Or- 278  
228 ganisciak et al., 2023), which introduced a method 279  
229 for automated scoring that demonstrates high align-  
230 ment with human annotators.

231 Multi-agent schemes have been explored as a 280  
232 way to enhance creativity and diversity by simu- 281  
233 lating human-like group discussions. Lu et al. 282  
234 propose *LLM Discussion* (Lu et al., 2024), a three-

235 phase multi-agent, role-play framework which sig- 236  
237 nificantly improves performance on AUT and other 238  
239 creativity tests compared to single-agent baselines 240  
241 and simpler multi-agent setups. Subsequent sur- 242  
243 veys further document the promise of LLM-based 243  
244 multi-agent systems for creativity. Conceptually, 244  
245 such methods still operate within the prompt-based 245  
246 paradigm: they generate a finite set of discussion 246  
247 contexts and aggregate the resulting outputs. Our 247  
248 analysis shows that, even with sophisticated interac- 248  
249 tion patterns, these methods remain constrained by 249  
250 the low variance of  $p_\theta(y | c)$  for each context and 250  
251 by the finite size of the reachable context set. Our 251  
252 experiments corroborate this: increasing the depth 252  
253 of LLM Discussion yields only marginal gains be- 253  
254 fore diversity saturates. 254

255 A related line of research studies interpolation- 255  
256 based mechanisms for extending datasets and im- 256  
257 proving coverage of underrepresented regions in 257  
258 feature space. Classical oversampling method 258  
259 SMOTE (Chawla et al., 2002) generate synthetic 259  
260 examples by linear interpolation between nearest 260  
261 neighbors and have been widely and successfully 261  
262 applied to *tabular data*. Deep variants such as 262  
263 DeepSMOTE (Dablain et al., 2023) extend this idea 263  
264 to learned representation spaces, enabling interpo- 264  
265 lation in latent embeddings learned by neural en- 265  
266 coders in vision domain. Our approach is inspired 266  
267 by these techniques, but extends the paradigm to 267  
268 natural language domain. 268

## 269 3 Method 270

### 271 3.1 Continuous semantic conditioning 272

273 We propose approach that adds conditioning with 274  
275 a continuous latent variable defined in a semantic 275  
276 embedding space. For a given input  $x$ , an encoder 276  
277

$$278 e = E(x) \in \mathbb{R}^d \quad (1) \quad 279$$

280 produces a dense representation related to the task. 281  
282 A latent variable 282

$$283 z \sim q_\phi(z | e), \quad z \in \mathbb{R}^d \quad 284$$

285 is drawn from a distribution whose support is re- 286  
287 stricted to a continuous submanifold of the lan- 287  
288 guage manifold associated with  $e$ . 288

289 The latent variable  $z$  modulates context construc- 290  
291 tion; a context is formed as 291

$$292 c = g(x, z). \quad (2) \quad 293$$

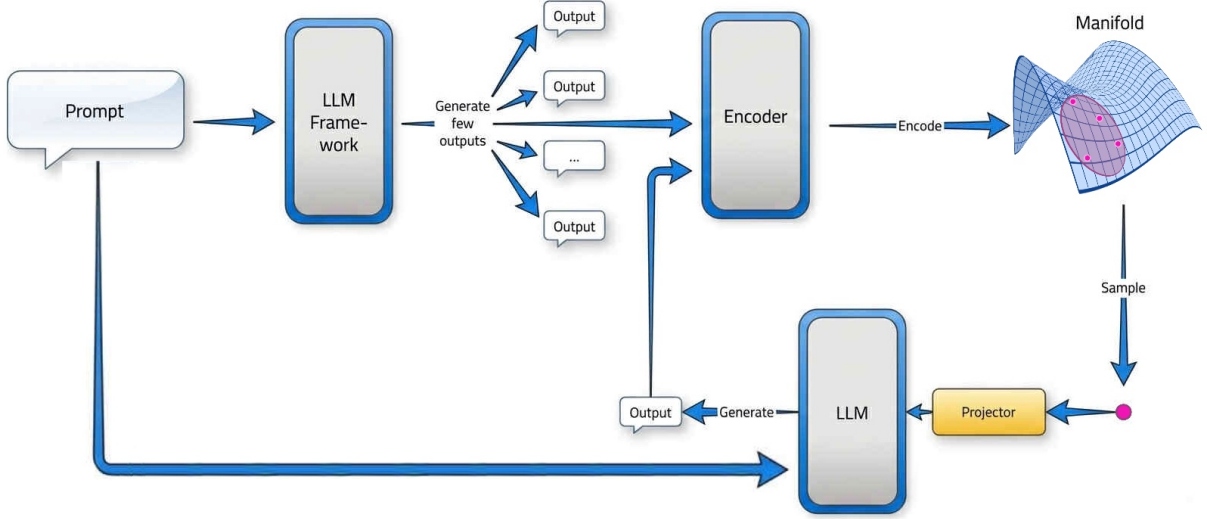


Figure 1: Given an input prompt, a base LLM first generates a small set of candidate outputs. These outputs are encoded into continuous semantic embeddings, forming a local semantic manifold. New vectors are sampled from this manifold and mapped via a xRAG projector (Cheng et al., 2024) into the LLM’s embedding space. The LLM then generates new outputs conditioned on these sampled embeddings.

We realize  $g$  by mapping  $z$  into the input token embedding space via a multimodal projector, following the approach from (Cheng et al., 2024), in order to perform conditioning directly in the language semantic space. This allows the method to be plugged into an LLM without any fine-tuning of the language model. The LLM then generates

$$Y \sim p_\theta(\cdot | c) = p_\theta(\cdot | g(x, z)). \quad (3)$$

The resulting marginal distribution over outputs is

$$p(y | x) = \int p_\theta(y | g(x, z)) q_\phi(z | E(x)) dz. \quad (4)$$

The conditioning variable is

$$z \in \mathcal{Z}_x \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d, \quad (5)$$

where  $\mathcal{Z}_x$  is a continuous, high-dimensional subset of the semantic space induced by the encoder.

For any feature functional  $f(Y)$ , the law of total variance gives

$$\text{Var}[f(Y) | x] = \mathbb{E}_z[\text{Var}[f(Y) | x, z]] + \text{Var}_z(\mathbb{E}[f(Y) | x, z]). \quad (6)$$

In prompt based settings, that we described in Appendix A, the analogue of  $z$  takes values in a finite set  $\mathcal{C}_x$  or is induced by weak decoding noise, which typically yields a small second term. In contrast, the latent-conditioned formulation allows  $z$  to explore a continuous semantic manifold, so that  $\text{Var}_z(\mathbb{E}[f(Y) | x, z])$  can be substantially larger.

### 3.2 Distribution of conditioning variable

To obtain the conditioning distribution  $q_\phi(z | e)$ , we seek a method that enables semantic modulation *without* fine-tuning the underlying language model, because it is computationally expensive, carries a significant risk of catastrophic forgetting, and often disrupts the delicate balance of pre-trained semantic representations.

A natural candidate is to use a variational autoencoder as the mapping  $g$ , since a VAE provides a smooth latent manifold that is easy to sample from safely. However, prior work indicate that VAEs are unsuitable for this setting, as they require training with unfrozen generator (Li et al., 2020a; Zhang et al., 2023). In Appendix B we explain in detail why this alignment cannot be achieved without re-training.

Instead, we propose a lightweight exploration-based approach for constructing  $q_\phi(z | e)$  directly in the semantic space. Although prompt-based methods exhibit limited variance, they are nevertheless capable of producing several distinct outputs. We treat these outputs as *anchor points* and embed them into the semantic space, forming a discrete set

$$A_x = \{e_1, \dots, e_m\},$$

which serves as a basis for defining the latent region  $\mathcal{Z}_x$ .

In our experiments we restrict exploration to interpolation-based families. This choice is moti-

vated by the use of an encoder trained with contrastive objectives, which tends to organize semantic classes into approximately convex clusters. As a result, interpolation between semantic anchors produces stable and meaningful latent variations. Sampling from  $q_\phi(z | e)$  is defined explicitly through anchor selection and interpolation:

$$(i, j) \sim \pi, \quad \lambda \sim \rho,$$

The latent variable is then constructed as

$$z = (1 - \lambda)e_i + \lambda e_j.$$

That produces a continuous latent region  $\mathcal{Z}_x$  spanned by the anchor set  $A_x$ .

We also find considerable potential in using random perturbations around anchors and, more broadly, meta-heuristic search techniques (e.g., evolutionary exploration or gradient-free manifold traversal). These strategies allow  $q_\phi(z | e)$  to cover richer and more diverse semantic regions without modifying the LLM itself. Exploring such families of search-based latent distributions constitutes a promising direction for future work.

## 4 Experiments

Following setup from (Cheng et al., 2024), in all experiments we use **Mistral-7B-Instruct** (Jiang et al., 2023) as the underlying language model responsible for generating textual outputs. Semantic representations are obtained using the **Mistral SRF embedding model** (Meng et al., 2024), which serves as the encoder producing continuous embedding vectors used by our exploration distribution  $q_\phi(z | e)$ . To instantiate the conditioning function  $g(x, z)$ , we employ the *projector* introduced in (Cheng et al., 2024), which maps latent vectors  $z$  into the token-embedding space of the LLM.

### 4.1 Generation diversity

We evaluated the ability of our method to generate diverse responses on the NOVELTYBENCH benchmark on the *curated* dataset, which quantifies output diversity using the *Distinct* metric. Following the benchmark specification (Zhang et al., 2025), *Distinct* is defined as the number of abstract equivalence classes obtained by clustering semantically similar generations. Formally, for a set of  $k$  generations,

$$\text{distinct}_k := |\{c_i : i = 1, \dots, k\}|,$$

where  $c_i$  denotes the functional equivalence class assigned to the  $i$ -th generation. Importantly, these classes are not derived from raw embedding similarity alone: the benchmark employs a trained classifier to identify conceptual usage categories, ensuring that the metric captures semantic rather than surface-level diversity.

Diversity can be trivially increased by producing responses that are uninformative or misaligned with the task. To account for this, we additionally report the *Utility* metric, which evaluates not only whether a generation belongs to a new equivalence class, but also whether it remains meaningful and useful within the task specification. NoveltyBench defines cumulative utility as

$$\text{utility}_k := \frac{1 - p}{1 - p^k} \sum_{i=1}^k p^{i-1} \cdot \mathbf{1}[c_i \neq c_j \forall j < i] \cdot u_i,$$

where  $p$  is the user patience parameter (set to 0.8 in the benchmark),  $\mathbf{1}[\cdot]$  indicates whether the  $i$ -th output introduces a new equivalence class, and  $u_i$  denotes the utility score assigned to that generation.

We evaluate both metrics across multiple generation budgets (10, 15, 20, 25, 30 samples). It is particularly important for diversity to increase with larger sampling budgets, especially in applications such as synthetic data generation, where the marginal gains from additional samples directly translate into broader and more representative coverage of the underlying semantic space.

As initialization points for defining the anchor set  $A_x$ , we used a first generations produced by G2. We selected 30% of the initial outputs for the 10-20 sample budgets and 20% for the 25 and 30 budgets.

To induce high semantic variability within this region, we employed an aggressive exploration strategy. The choose is motivated by ablation studies. We sampled  $\lambda$  coefficient from intervals:

$$\lambda \sim U([6, 10] \cup [-6, -10]).$$

However, we observed that latent conditioning can occasionally introduce noise and structural drift in the generated outputs, for instance, producing responses that differ from the expected format (e.g., returning a paragraph with seven sentences instead of five). To mitigate this, we introduced an additional alignment step: after generating a candidate response, we submitted it back to the model with an explicit instruction to realign the output to the task specified by prompt.

Method	Metric	NoveltyBench (k generations)				
		$k=10$	$k=15$	$k=20$	$k=25$	$k=30$
Standard	Distinct (#)	4.37	4.64	5.43	6.20	6.79
	Distinct-% (%)	43.7	30.9	27.2	24.8	22.6
	Utility	3.62	0.84	0.82	0.78	0.79
In-context	Distinct (#)	<b>7.13</b>	9.35	<u>11.70</u>	<u>12.68</u>	13.31
	Distinct-% (%)	<b>71.3</b>	<u>62.3</u>	<u>58.5</u>	<u>50.7</u>	44.4
	Utility	2.97	2.81	2.71	2.76	2.71
G2	Distinct (#)	6.21	8.29	10.27	12.04	<u>13.60</u>
	Distinct-% (%)	62.1	55.3	51.3	48.2	<u>45.3</u>
	Utility	<u>4.52</u>	<u>4.48</u>	<u>4.31</u>	<u>4.33</u>	<u>4.33</u>
Ours (G2 seeds)	Distinct (#)	<u>7.10</u>	<b>10.11</b>	<b>12.31</b>	<b>14.12</b>	<b>16.65</b>
	Distinct-% (%)	<u>71.0</u>	<b>67.4</b>	<b>61.6</b>	<b>56.5</b>	<b>55.5</b>
	Utility	<b>4.78</b>	<b>4.79</b>	<b>4.56</b>	<b>4.55</b>	<b>4.59</b>

Table 1: Results for different methods across various generation counts (k). Distinct represents the mean number of distinct partitions, Distinct-% is the percentage of distinct generations ( $\text{distinct}/k \times 100\%$ ), and Utility is the mean discounted utility from the scoring pipeline.

## 4.2 Results

The results indicate that our latent-conditioning approach reliably expands the variance of generated outputs across all sampling budgets. As the number of generations increases, the method continues to uncover new semantic variants rather than collapsing into repetitive patterns. Importantly, this increase in variance is not accompanied by any degradation in usefulness: utility remains consistently high, demonstrating that the latent-modulated contexts remain aligned with the underlying task objectives. Taken together, the findings provide strong empirical evidence that continuous conditioning in semantic space is an effective and stable mechanism for enhancing generative diversity while preserving output quality.

## 4.3 Impact of Diverse Generation on Divergent Thinking Capabilities

We examine how increased generation diversity translates into improved divergent thinking capabilities. We leveraged psychological Alternative Uses Test (AUT), a classical psychological assessment of divergent thinking and creative potential (Lu et al., 2024; Silvia et al., 2008; Dinu and Florescu, 2025). Participants in an AUT task are asked to propose unusual and non-obvious uses for everyday objects. Responses are traditionally evaluated for originality, flexibility, and fluency. We focus on core metric, originality (Lu et al., 2024).

We used the originality scoring framework from (Organisciak et al., 2023), which provides automated originality ratings (from 1 to 5) aligned with human-labeled AUT datasets, using model **ocsai-**

**4o**, which is said by authors to be good for English Alternate Uses scoring. Following the creativity literature (Silvia et al., 2008; Dinu and Florescu, 2025), which recommends focusing on only a few ideas, we report:

- **Top-1 originality:** the most original idea,
- **Top-2 originality:** the mean of the two most original ideas,
- **Top-3 originality:** the mean of the three most original ideas.

We leveraged dataset from (Lu et al., 2024)

For each AUT prompt, we used the output of the multi-turn **LLM discussion** as the anchor set. Previous work reports that this discussion-based method does not scale (Lu et al., 2024); we confirmed this in our own setup by running discussions of varying lengths. The best-performing discussion depth was selected, and its output served as both our baseline and our anchor points.

We evaluated G2 using the first generations from the LLM discussion as contextual seeds. Our proposed method was likewise evaluated using the LLM discussion outputs as anchors.

For both methods, we ran 500 generations per approach.

We did not apply any alignment step during the AUT experiment. Since the task focuses purely on the originality of semantic content rather than consistency of style or structure, additional stylization mechanisms were unnecessary and were therefore omitted.

## 4.4 Results

Method	Top-1	Top-2	Top-3
LLM Discussion (1 round)	4.17	4.06	3.95
LLM Discussion (3 rounds)	4.57	4.52	4.49
LLM Discussion (5 rounds)	4.58	4.55	4.50
LLM Discussion (7 rounds)	4.58	4.56	4.53
<b>G2</b>	<u>4.93</u>	<u>4.92</u>	<u>4.90</u>
<b>Ours</b>	<b>4.99</b>	<b>4.98</b>	<b>4.95</b>

Table 2: Comparison of AUT originality scores across discussion-based baselines, G2, and our latent-space exploration method. Scores are reported as Top-1, Top-2, and Top-3 originality.

The results highlight three key observations. First, increasing the depth of multi-agent LLM discussion yields only marginal gains: Top-1 plateaus after a few rounds, confirming that this method does not scale. Second, expanding the diversity of generations has a direct and measurable impact on creativity. As illustrated at Figure 2, Top-1, Top-2, and Top-3 scores steadily improve as more latent samples are drawn, indicating that broader exploration of the semantic space translates into consistently more original ideas. Finally, our latent-space method achieves the strongest originality across all evaluation settings, reaching a Top-1 score of 4.99. This value is extremely close to the practical upper bound of the AUT scale - 5, effectively demonstrating that our method pushes the model’s creative capacity to the limits.

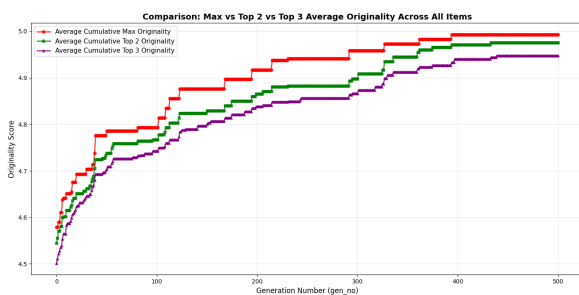


Figure 2: Cumulative originality curves for our latent-space exploration method. As more latent samples are drawn, the Top-1, Top-2, and Top-3 originality scores steadily increase.

## 5 Ablation Studies

### 5.1 Lambda Ablation Study

Figure 3 shows how the interpolation coefficient  $\lambda$  influences diversity and utility. We observed low

Distinct score at  $\lambda = 0.5$ , indicating that prompt-based anchor generations form a tight semantic cluster: staying close to them yields only minor variations. Increasing  $\lambda$  moves the latent variable outside this region, leading to a sharp rise in diversity while maintaining high utility. Performance peaks around  $\lambda = 10$ , showing that broader interpolation unlocks genuinely new semantic direction. These results directly motivate the sampling range used in our main diversity experiments.

### 5.2 Ablation: Dependence on Anchor Seeds

In this experiment we isolate the effect of anchor quality on latent-space conditioning. Instead of the utility metric, we report the mean score of all generations, as utility is highly dependent on first generations.

The results in Table 3 show clear dependence on the chosen anchors. Using in-context anchors yields higher Distinct values but noticeably lower mean scores, reflecting the weakness of in-context prompting from earlier experiment: it produces diverse but low-quality seeds, and our method inherits this trade-off. Conversely, G2 anchors provide stronger and more coherent starting points, leading to consistently higher mean scores while achieving lower distinct value.

## 6 Discussion

Our experimental results demonstrate that the proposed method introduces substantially greater variation in generated outputs, and that this variance translates into responses that are both more diverse and fully comparable in quality to those produced by baseline approaches.

The lack of scalability observed in LLM discussion further confirms our theoretical considerations: because the underlying variance of the conditional distribution is intrinsically low, the model is unable to discover regions of higher originality within the semantic space. Subsequent perturbations introduced by additional discussion rounds remain too small to meaningfully expand this variance, leading to rapid saturation.

A key insight is that the latent variable we introduce is not a randomness, it is a variable that has its own context that directly influences the model’s response, analogous to the role of retrieved evidence in RAG systems, and this context can be explored geometrically. This makes it possible to apply a wide range of heuristics and metaheuristics

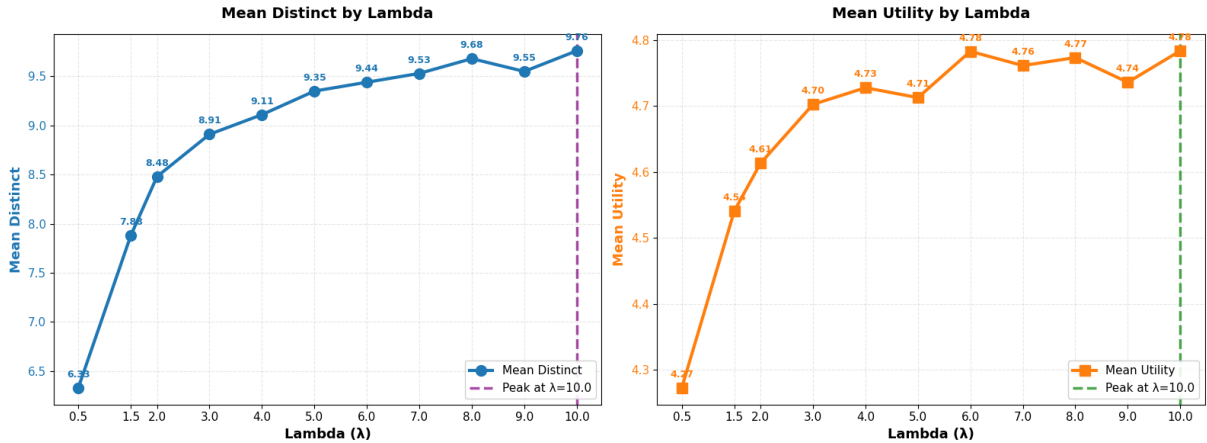


Figure 3: Ablation over  $\lambda$ . Small values keep the latent variable inside the anchor cluster, yielding low diversity; larger values explore broader semantic regions, improving diversity without harming quality.

Anchors source	Metric	NoveltyBench (k generations)				
		$k=10$	$k=15$	$k=20$	$k=25$	$k=30$
In-context	Distinct (#)	7.1	10.23	13.24	15.03	17.85
	Distinct-% (%)	71.0	68.2	66.2	60.1	59.5
	Mean Scores	3.32	3.07	2.81	2.66	2.54
G2	Distinct (#)	7.1	10.11	12.31	14.12	16.65
	Distinct-% (%)	71.0	67.4	61.6	56.5	55.5
	Mean Scores	3.93	3.58	3.24	2.89	2.82

Table 3: Results for our method with In-context and G2 anchors across various generation counts ( $k$ ). Distinct represents the mean number of distinct partitions, Distinct-% is the percentage of distinct generations ( $\text{distinct}/k \times 100\%$ ), and Mean Scores is the mean of all generation scores.

to text representations. For example, evolutionary crossbreeding can be naturally expressed as a linear combination of text embeddings.

The AUT experiment illustrates this particularly clearly: we started from outputs generated by a complex agent-based method, and used these responses as anchors and further optimized them through latent-space exploration. In essence, the way we did it in experiment was as an evolutionary strategy, where whole population breeds together.

Taken together, these findings open a new perspective on NLP: tasks traditionally limited by the symbolic and contextual nature of natural language can now be addressed using classical methods from computer science, enabled by the continuous and geometrically structured semantic space

## 7 Limitations

We used ChatGPT as a writing assistant to improve the clarity and readability of the manuscript. All scientific content, experimental design, analysis, and conclusions were developed and verified by the authors.

Despite strong results, our approach has several limitations.

First, it does not explicitly detect low-quality or out-of-distribution generations. Apart from a heuristic realignment step in some experiments, there is no built-in mechanism for hallucination or factuality control.

Second, the exploration distribution  $q_\phi(z | e)$  is simplistic. We use fixed-range linear interpolations with a scalar  $\lambda$ , ignoring the local geometry of the embedding space (e.g., density, cluster structure). The same  $\lambda$ -range is applied across prompts and tasks, which can lead to under- or over-exploration.

Finally, latent moves are restricted to linear combinations of anchor embeddings and depend heavily on the chosen anchors and embedding stack. Weak anchors yield diverse but low-quality generations, and we have not yet evaluated robustness across different LLMs, encoders, or domains.

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	<b>A Analysis of Prompt-Based Methods</b>	
	A large language model (LLM) is viewed as a conditional distribution	
	$p_{\theta}(y   c), \quad (7)$	
	where $y$ denotes the generated output sequence, $c$ denotes the input context (system prompt, user prompt, in-context examples, retrieved documents, etc.), $\theta$ are fixed model parameters.	
	For a given task input $x$ (e.g., a user instruction), a deterministic context constructor	
	$c = g(x) \quad (8)$	
	is applied, and the model generates	
	$Y \sim p_{\theta}(\cdot   g(x)). \quad (9)$	
	All stochasticity arises from the sampling procedure used to decode from $p_{\theta}$ (for example, temperature sampling or nucleus sampling), while the initial condition is fully specified by the single context $c$ , and it is shown that the nature of LLMs makes this distribution have low variance (Zhang et al., 2025).	
	<b>A.1 Prompt transformations</b>	
	Many existing approaches to improve diversity operate by applying a finite collection of prompt transformations. Let	
	$c_k = T_k(g(x)), \quad k = 1, \dots, K, \quad (10)$	
	denote the transformed contexts obtained from a fixed input $x$ . Methods such as paraphrasing the	

instruction, switching personas, or adding stylistic variations can all be modeled as choosing one element from the finite set

$$\mathcal{C}_x = \{c_1, \dots, c_K\}. \quad (11)$$

Generation proceeds by first sampling a context

$$C \sim \mu_x, \quad (12)$$

where  $\mu_x$  is a distribution supported on  $\mathcal{C}_x$ , and then sampling

$$Y \sim p_\theta(\cdot | C). \quad (13)$$

Let  $D(\cdot)$  be any functional measuring diversity of a distribution over outputs (e.g., entropy or an expected semantic distance). The induced marginal distribution of  $Y$  for a fixed  $x$  can be written as

$$p(y | x) = \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_x(c_k) p_\theta(y | c_k), \quad (14)$$

and therefore

$$D(p(Y | x)) = D\left(\sum_{k=1}^K \mu_x(c_k) p_\theta(\cdot | c_k)\right) \leq f(K, \{p_\theta(\cdot | c_k)\}_{k=1}^K), \quad (15)$$

for some problem-dependent upper bound  $f$ . In particular, the attainable diversity is structurally controlled by the finite set  $\mathcal{C}_x$  and the conditional distributions  $\{p_\theta(\cdot | c_k)\}$  that are known to have low variance.

## A.2 Iterative in-context prompting

Iterative schemes such as chain-of-thought prompting and self-consistency can be modeled as a sequence of contexts

$$c^{(1)} = g(x), \quad y_1 \sim p_\theta(\cdot | c^{(1)}), \quad (16)$$

$$c^{(2)} = h(c^{(1)}, y_1), \quad y_2 \sim p_\theta(\cdot | c^{(2)}), \quad (17)$$

and, in general,

$$c^{(t)} = H_t(x, y_{1:t-1}), \quad y_t \sim p_\theta(\cdot | c^{(t)}), \quad (18)$$

for  $t = 1, \dots, T$ . The final answer is either  $y_T$  or some aggregation of  $(y_1, \dots, y_T)$ .

This entire procedure can be abstracted as a stochastic operator

$$Y = F_\theta(x, \varepsilon), \quad (19)$$

where  $\varepsilon$  collects all randomness introduced by decoding at each step. For any feature functional  $f$  of the output, the variance is given by

$$\text{Var}[f(Y) | x] = \text{Var}_\varepsilon[f(F_\theta(x, \varepsilon))]. \quad (20)$$

Empirically, the conditional distributions  $p_\theta(\cdot | c^{(t)})$  often exhibit low variance (Zhang et al., 2025). As a consequence, this variance  $\text{Var}_\varepsilon$  tends to remain modest, reflecting that the system remains effectively driven by the initial condition  $x$  together with a relatively weak stochastic perturbation  $\varepsilon$ .

## A.3 Agents Will Not Help

Multi-agent methods instantiate several LLM agents that exchange messages before producing a final answer. Let

$$c_i^{(1)} = g_i(x), \quad y_i^{(1)} \sim p_\theta(\cdot | c_i^{(1)}), \quad i = 1, \dots, M, \quad (21)$$

denote the first round of messages. Subsequent rounds update each agent’s context, for example,

$$c_i^{(2)} = h_i(x, y_{1:M}^{(1)}), \quad y_i^{(2)} \sim p_\theta(\cdot | c_i^{(2)}), \quad (22)$$

and so on, until an aggregation module produces a final output  $Y$  from all intermediate messages.

Again, this can be written in compact form as

$$Y = G_\theta(x, \varepsilon), \quad (23)$$

where  $\varepsilon$  encompasses all decoding randomness across all agents and rounds. For any feature functional  $f$  of the output,

$$\text{Var}[f(Y) | x] = \text{Var}_\varepsilon[f(G_\theta(x, \varepsilon))], \quad (24)$$

and, due to the limited stochasticity of the underlying conditional distributions, this variance tends to remain modest.

## A.4 Conclusion

Collecting the above, prompt-based and multi-agent methods can be viewed as operating within the model class

$$\mathcal{M}_{\text{prompt}} = \{p_\theta(y | c) : c \in \mathcal{C}_x\}, \quad |\mathcal{C}_x| < \infty, \quad (25)$$

where  $\mathcal{C}_x$  contains all contexts reachable from a fixed input  $x$  under the given protocol and decoding scheme. Since these methods marginalize only over a finite (or effectively finite) set of reachable contexts, the diversity of the resulting output distribution is fundamentally constrained.

This limitation is made explicit by the law of total variance. For any feature functional  $f(Y)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}[f(Y) | x] &= \mathbb{E}_{c \sim \mu_x} [\text{Var}[f(Y) | x, c]] + \\ &\quad + \text{Var}_{c \sim \mu_x} (\mathbb{E}[f(Y) | x, c]). \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

First term is shown to be modest (Zhang et al., 2025), and because  $c$  ranges only over the finite set  $\mathcal{C}_x$ , the second term is structurally bounded by  $\mathcal{C}_x$  itself and cannot increase beyond the variance induced by choosing among these finitely many contexts.

Figure 4 shows graphical comparison of prompt based methods with our approach.

## B VAE Projector Leads to OOD Risk

Let  $Z \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  denote the support of the VAE latent distribution used for sampling, and let  $H \subset \mathbb{R}^{d_h}$  denote the support of the LLM’s semantic decoder–input activations (e.g., first-layer token embeddings). We model *semantic clusters* in the LLM as the path–connected components of high-density regions in  $H$ .

Let  $p_Z$  be the latent density (typically Gaussian), and let  $p_H$  denote the empirical density of decoder activations. For a threshold  $\epsilon > 0$ , define the super-level sets

$$\begin{aligned} Z_\epsilon &= \{z \in Z : p_Z(z) \geq \epsilon\}, \\ H_\epsilon &= \{h \in H : p_H(h) \geq \epsilon\}. \end{aligned}$$

Because  $p_Z$  is intentionally smooth and unimodal, the set  $Z_\epsilon$  is a *single connected component*. In contrast, the decoder-side super-level set decomposes into  $l$  multiple semantic clusters [literatura]:

$$H_\epsilon = \bigsqcup_{j=1}^{\ell} D_j.$$

### B.1 Splitting Implies Valley Traversal

Let a continuous decoder-conditioning map  $f : Z \rightarrow H$  represent the process of feeding a sampled latent vector into the LLM’s semantic space (e.g., via a multimodal projector). If  $Z_\epsilon$  is connected but  $H_\epsilon$  decomposes into multiple components, then no continuous  $f$  can map the single latent region into multiple semantic clusters without traversing the low-density valleys between them.

**Proposition 1** (VAE Splitting Implies Semantic Valley Traversal). *Assume the “ground-truth” semantic assignment would require*

$$Z_\epsilon \longrightarrow D_{j_1} \cup D_{j_2}, \quad D_{j_1} \cap D_{j_2} = \emptyset.$$

Let

$$V_\tau = \{h \in H : p_H(h) < \tau\}$$

be the low-density valley set separating decoder clusters, for some  $\tau < \epsilon$ . If a continuous  $f$  satisfies

$$f(Z_\epsilon) \cap D_{j_1} \neq \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad f(Z_\epsilon) \cap D_{j_2} \neq \emptyset,$$

then necessarily

$$f(Z_\epsilon) \cap V_\tau \neq \emptyset.$$

Thus any continuous splitting of the single latent component into multiple decoder semantic islands must traverse the valley between them.

*Sketch.* Since  $Z_\epsilon$  is path-connected and  $f$  is continuous, the image  $f(Z_\epsilon)$  is also path-connected. A path connecting a point in  $D_{j_1}$  to one in  $D_{j_2}$  must leave  $D_{j_1} \cup D_{j_2}$  and enter their complement, which is contained in the valley  $V_\tau$ . Hence  $f(Z_\epsilon)$  intersects  $V_\tau$ .  $\square$

### B.2 Out-of-Distribution Risk in VAE Sampling

Because a VAE imposes a *single, connected* latent region from which sampling must cover the entire space, it cannot align its latent topology with the inherently clustered structure of LLM semantic space (Cai et al., 2021). Any attempt to map a single VAE latent component onto multiple semantic clusters forces the image of latent samples to pass through low-density regions  $V_\tau$ . In order to change semantic space on initial layers of LLM, fine tuning is necessary.

Prompt based methods

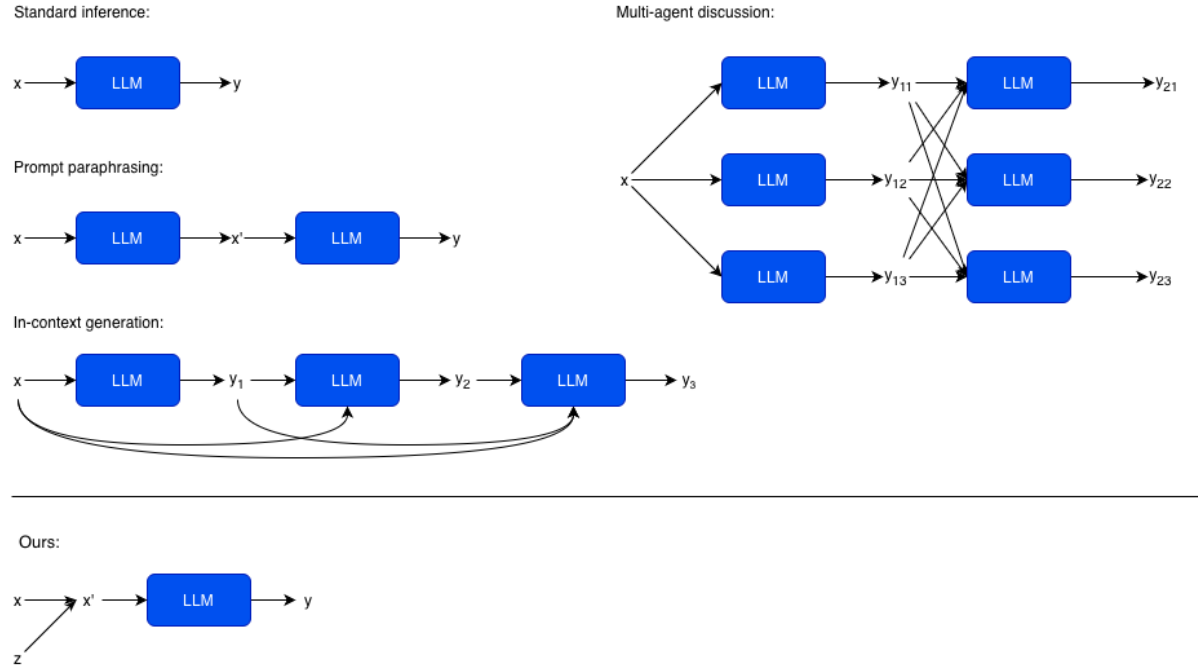


Figure 4: Graphical comparison of prompt based methods with our approach.