KnowGPT: <u>Know</u>ledge <u>G</u>raph based <u>PrompTing</u> for Large Language Models

Qinggang Zhang^{*†}, Junnan Dong^{*†}, Hao Chen[†], Daochen Zha[‡], Zailiang Yu[§], Xiao Huang[†]

[†]The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, [‡]Rice University, [§]Zhejiang Lab {qinggangg.zhang,hanson.dong}@connect.polyu.hk, sundaychenhao@gmail.com daochen.zha@rice.edu, yuzl@zhejianglab.com,xiaohuang@comp.polyu.edu.hk

Abstract

Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in many real-world applications. Nonetheless, LLMs are often criticized for their tendency to produce hallucinations, wherein the models fabricate incorrect statements on tasks beyond their knowledge and perception. To alleviate this issue, graph retrieval-augmented generation (GraphRAG) has been extensively explored which leverages the factual knowledge in knowledge graphs (KGs) to ground the LLM's responses in established facts and principles. However, most state-ofthe-art LLMs are closed-source, making it challenging to develop a prompting framework that can efficiently and effectively integrate KGs into LLMs with hard prompts only. Generally, it usually suffers from three critical issues, including huge search space, high API costs, and laborious prompt engineering, that impede the widespread application in practice. To this end, we introduce a novel **Know**ledge Graph-based **PrompTing** framework, namely **KnowGPT**, to enhance LLMs with domain knowledge. KnowGPT contains a knowledge extraction module to extract the most informative knowledge from KGs, and a context-aware prompt construction module to automatically convert extracted knowledge into effective prompts. Experiments on three benchmark datasets demonstrate that KnowGPT significantly outperforms all competitors including the state-of-the-art GraphRAG models. Notably, KnowGPT achieves a 92.6% accuracy on OpenbookQA leaderboard, close to human-level performance.

1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs), such as GPT-4 [54] and Claude 3 [3], have surprised the world with superior performance in a wide range of real-world applications [14, 38, 82, 83]. Despite their impressive performance, LLMs are frequently criticized for their limited ability to handle factual information accurately and their tendency to generate hallucinations [18], especially when faced with questions requiring domain-specific or professional knowledge not covered in their training corpus [2, 59]. For example, when queried about nutrient composition, an LLM might erroneously associate it with "energy", as depicted in Figure 1. This error stems from the model's insufficient biological knowledge. Therefore, integrating domain knowledge into LLMs is crucial for reducing hallucinations and unlocking their full potential in diverse industry applications [24].

Recently, retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) has been explored, which can enhance LLMs with external knowledge from text corpora or online sources [41, 89, 53]. It combines LLMs with external knowledge retrieval systems to help reduce hallucinations. However, these models face challenges in real-world applications due to the varying quality of available data. Domain knowledge is often scattered across different sources, such as textbooks, research papers, technical manuals, and industry

^{*}Equal contribution

³⁸th Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2024).

reports [42]. These textual documents may have varying levels of quality, accuracy, and completeness, leading to potential inconsistencies or errors in the retrieved knowledge [92].

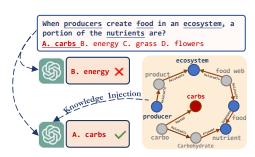


Figure 1: A real-world question from OpenbookQA. GPT-3.5 could effectively correct the answer given the scientific reasoning background from ConceptNet (blue: question concepts, red: answers, grey: entities not present in questions).

A promising avenue for addressing the above issue entails the integration of Knowledge Graphs (KGs) into LLMs. KGs provide a structured representation of domain knowledge, as they are constructed based on rigid ontologies that clearly define the jargon, acronyms, specialized terminologies and their relationships in specific domains [43, 60, 84, 85, 86]. The enormous factual knowledge stored in KGs holds the potential to ground the model's responses in established facts and principles [29, 77, 56]. For instance, in Figure 1, an LLM can correct itself by leveraging the related background knowledge in ConceptNet [62]. Earlier studies adopted a heuristic way to inject knowledge from KGs into the LLMs during pre-training or fine-tuning. For example, ERNIE [63] incorporates entity embeddings and aligns them with word embeddings in the pre-training phase, encouraging the model

to better understand and reason over entities. Similarly, KnowBERT [57] integrates entity linkers with BERT to infuse knowledge about entities during fine-tuning for knowledge-intensive applications. Another line of work focuses on retrieving relevant knowledge from KGs at inference time to augment the language model's context. Typically, K-BERT [47] uses an attention mechanism to select relevant triples from KGs based on the query context, which are then appended to the input sequence. Similarly, KEPLER [73] learns joint embeddings of text and KG entities to enhance the model's predictions. Subsequent works have further integrated graph neural networks alongside LLMs for joint reasoning [80, 87, 15] and introduced interactions between text tokens and KG entities within the intermediate layers of LLMs [64, 67].

However, as LLMs have been keeping evolving, most SOTA LLMs remain *closed-source* in practice. For instance, GPT-4 [54] and Claude 3 [3] exclusively grant access through their APIs, which means we can only retrieve model responses by submitting textual inputs, with model specifics inaccessible. As such, the research focus has recently shifted towards KG prompting that enhances fixed LLMs with KG-based hard prompts [46, 56]. KG Prompting for LLMs has been a new learning paradigm in natural language processing. Specifically, CoK [71] introduces Chain-of-Knowledge prompting to decompose LLM-generated reasoning chains into evidence triples, verifying their factuality and faithfulness using an external KG. Mindmap [74] provides more transparency on LLMs' decision-making by enabling comprehension and reasoning over structured KG inputs. RoG [50] presents a planning-retrieval-reasoning framework that synergizes LLMs and KGs for more transparent and interpretable reasoning. KGR [25] proposes an autonomous approach to retrofit LLM-generated responses by leveraging KGs to extract, verify, and refine factual information throughout the reasoning process, effectively mitigating hallucination for knowledge-intensive applications.

Despite the promising performance of existing KG prompting methods, three critical issues hinder their widespread application in practice. • Huge search space. Real-world KGs often consist of millions of triples, resulting in a vast search space when retrieving relevant knowledge for prompting. • High API cost. Closed-source LLMs, like GPT-4 and Claude 3, are accessible through proprietary APIs, which can incur significant costs when performing KG prompting at scale [17]. Thus, careful selection of the most informative knowledge from KGs is essential to minimize costs. • Laborious prompt design. LLMs are highly sensitive to prompts, with even minor variations in prompts conveying the same semantic meaning potentially yielding drastically different responses. However, existing methods rely on manually designed or rule-based prompts to present factual knowledge from KGs. These hard prompts are inherently inflexible and rigid, lacking the adaptability to accommodate variations in question semantics and KG structures.

To this end, we propose a novel <u>Know</u>ledge <u>G</u>raph-based <u>PrompTing</u> framework, namely KnowGPT, which leverages the factual knowledge in KGs to ground the model's responses in established facts and principles. In this paper, we aim to answer two key research questions. **①** Given a query and a large-scale KG, how could we effectively and efficiently retrieve factual knowledge from KG that is

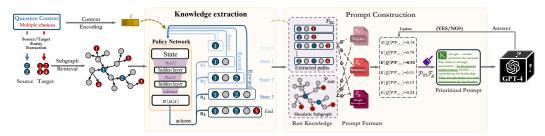


Figure 2: The overall architecture of our proposed knowledge graph prompting framework, i.e., KnowGPT. Given the question context with multiple choices, we first retrieve a question-specific subgraph from the real-world KG. *Knowledge Extraction* is first dedicated to searching for the most informative and concise reasoning background subject to the context. Then the *Prompt Construction* module is optimized to prioritize the combination of knowledge and formats subject to the given question.

relevant to the query? **②** Given the raw knowledge extracted from KGs, how could we convert the extracted knowledge into an effective prompt that is easily understandable for LLM?

We shed light on the the above questions with a novel prompt learning method that is rather effective, generalizable, and cost-efficient. Specifically, to address question ①, we leverage deep reinforcement learning (RL) to extract the most informative knowledge from KGs. To encourage the agent to discover more informative knowledge chains, we devise a tailored reward scheme that promotes the reachability, context-relatedness, and conciseness of the extracted paths. Then, a policy network is trained to maximize the reward using training questions and applied to unseen questions. To tackle question ②, we introduce a prompt construction strategy based on Multi-Armed Bandit (MAB). Given several knowledge extraction strategies and prompt templates, an MAB is learned to select the most effective combination for each question by balancing exploration and exploitation. The learned MAB is then applied to new questions to select knowledge extraction strategies and prompt templates automatically. Our main contributions are summarized as follows:

- Formally define the problem of KG-based prompting, which leverages the structured knowledge in KGs to ground the LLM's responses in established facts and principles.
- Propose KnowGPT, a novel prompting framework that leverages deep reinforcement learning (RL) and Multi-Armed Bandit (MAB) to generate effective prompts for domain-specific queries.
- Implement KnowGPT upon GPT-3.5. Experiments on three QA datasets shows KnowGPT outperforms SOTA baseline models by a large margin. Notably, KnowGPT achieves an average improvement of 23.7% over GPT-3.5 and an average improvement of 2.9% over GPT-4. Additionally, it attains a 92.6% accuracy on the OpenbookQA leaderboard, which is comparable to human performance.

2 Problem Statement

We formally define the problem of knowledge graph based prompting for LLMs in question answering. We represent each question as a question context $Q = \{Q_s, Q_t\}$, where $Q_s = \{e_1, e_2, ..., e_m\}$ is a set of *m* source entities, and $Q_t = \{e_1, e_2, ..., e_n\}$ is a set of *n* target entities. Following prior work [20, 79], Q_s is extracted by concept recognition, and we assume it is given in our problem. Similarly, each target entity in Q_t is extracted from a corresponding candidate answer. We denote an LLM as f, a real-world KG as G, which consists of triples (head entity, relation, tail entity), denoted as (h, r, t). In our setting, we only have access to the APIs of f. However, we can employ open-source lightweight language models (not f), like Bert-Base [35], to initialize question embeddings. Using the above notations, we describe our problem below.

Given a question Q, an LLM f, and a domain KG G, we aim to learn a prompting function $f_{\text{prompt}}(Q, G)$, which generates a prompt **x** that incorporates the context of Q and the factual knowledge in G, such that the prediction of the LLM $f(\mathbf{x})$ can output the correct answers for Q.

3 KnowGPT Framework

Learning the prompting function $f_{\text{prompt}}(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{G})$ involves two challenges, i.e., what knowledge should be used in \mathcal{G} , and how to construct the prompt. To address these challenges, we present KnowGPT, which extracts raw knowledge with deep RL and then constructs the prompt with MAB. An overview of our framework is shown in Figure 2.

3.1 Knowledge Extraction with Deep Reinforcement Learning

Intuitively, the relevant reasoning background lies in a question-specific subgraph \mathcal{G}_{sub} that contains all the *source* entities \mathcal{Q}_s , *target* entities \mathcal{Q}_t , and their neighbors. An ideal subgraph \mathcal{G}_{sub} is expected to have the following properties: (i) \mathcal{G}_{sub} encompasses as many source and target entities as possible, (ii) the entities and relations within \mathcal{G}_{sub} exhibit a strong relevance to question context, and (iii) \mathcal{G}_{sub} is concise with little redundant information such that it can be fed into LLMs with limited lengths.

However, it is challenging to find such a \mathcal{G}_{sub} since extracting a subgraph is NP-hard. To effectively and efficiently find a satisfactory \mathcal{G}_{sub} , we develop a tailored knowledge extraction method, named \mathcal{P}_{RL} , that employs deep RL to sample reasoning chains in a trial-and-error fashion. Specifically, we assume \mathcal{G}_{sub} is constructed based on a set of reasoning chains $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2, ..., \mathcal{P}_m\}$, where each knowledge chain $\mathcal{P}_i = \{(e_i, r_1, t_1), (t_1, r_2, t_2), ..., (t_{|\mathcal{P}_i|-1}, r_{|\mathcal{P}_i|}, t_{|\mathcal{P}_i|})\}$ is a path in \mathcal{G} starting from the *i*-th source entity in \mathcal{Q}_s , and $|\mathcal{P}_i|$ is the path length. \mathcal{G}_{sub} encompasses all the entities and relations appeared in \mathcal{P} .

• **State:** A state indicates the current location in KG, i.e., one of the entities in KG. Specifically, it represents the spatial change from entity *h* to *t*. Inspired by the prior study [76], we define the state vector *s* as:

$$\boldsymbol{s}_t = (\boldsymbol{e}_t, \boldsymbol{e}_{target} - \boldsymbol{e}_t), \tag{1}$$

where e_t and e_{target} are the embedding vectors of the current entity and the target entity. To get the initial node embeddings for entities extracted from the background KG, we adopt the approach proposed by the previous study [20]. Specifically, we transform knowledge triples from the KG into sentences and feed them into pre-trained LM to get node embeddings.

- Action: The action space encompasses all the neighboring entities of the current entity, enabling the agent to explore the KG flexibly. By taking an action, the agent will move from the current entity to the chosen neighboring entity.
- **Transition:** The transition model P measures the probability of moving to a new state (s') given existing state (s) and the undertaken action (a). In KGs, the transition model takes on the form P(s'|s, a) = 1 if s is directed to s' through action a; Otherwise, P(s'|s, a) = 0.
- **Reward:** To determine the quality of the formed path, we define the reward based on reachability:

$$r_{reach} = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if target;} \\ -1, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$
(2)

which represents whether the path eventually reaches the target within limited steps. Specifically, the agent receives a reward of +1 if it can attain the target within K actions. Otherwise, it will receive -1 as the reward.

Reaching a target entity is not our sole focus. To avoid overlong and rigmarole reasoning chains, we also design two auxiliary rewards to promote context-relatedness and path conciseness.

3.1.1 Context-relatedness Auxiliary Reward

The key motivation is to encourage paths closely related to the given question context. Specifically, we evaluate the semantic relevance of a path \mathcal{P}_i to the context \mathcal{Q} . Inspired by the prevailing study [80], a fixed but well-trained matrix W is applied to map the path embedding \mathcal{P} to the same semantic space with context embedding c. To this end, this auxiliary reward is formulated as:

$$r_{\rm cr} = \frac{1}{|i|} \sum_{source}^{i} \cos(\boldsymbol{W} \times \boldsymbol{\mathcal{P}}_{i}, \boldsymbol{c}), \tag{3}$$

where c is the embedding of context Q we obtained from a pre-trained LM [35] and the embedding of path \mathcal{P}_i is the average of the embeddings of all the entities and relations we have walked through till i, i.e., $Avg(e_{source} + re_1... + e_i)$, where $i \leq length(\mathcal{P}_{target})$. This step-by-step reward scheme provides rewards before the target is reached.

3.1.2 Conciseness Auxiliary Reward

There are two additional significant challenges for the candidate reasoning background. (i) The natural limitation of LLMs for over-long context understanding gives constrained budgets for prompts, where the extracted knowledge chain is expected to be concise enough to ensure the full understanding by closed-source LLMs. (ii) The prohibitive cost of calling LLMs' API guides the prompt to be more concise. By limiting the step size, we encourage the policy to find as much valuable information as possible within the shortest path length.

Considering the inevitable homogeneity in the large-scale real-world KG constructed from the online corpus, each step in the final path is ideally a necessity. Specifically, we evaluate the conciseness of a path to reduce twists and turns on redundant entities, e.g., synonyms. Thus, the reward for the conciseness of a path \mathcal{P}_i is formulated as follows.

$$r_{\rm cs} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{P}_i|}.\tag{4}$$

To this end, our overall reward modeling consists of three major criteria that comprehensively incentivize the entire policy learning for an effective knowledge extraction.

3.1.3 Training Policy Network

To solve the MDP defined above, a tailored policy network $\pi_{\theta}(s, a) = p(a|s; \theta)$ is trained to extract a reasoning chain in the KG. We optimize the network with policy gradient [76]. The optimal policy navigates the agent from the source entity to the target entity while maximizing the accumulated rewards. We provide more training details in the Appendix.

3.2 Prompt Construction with Multi-armed Bandit

In this subsection, we design a tailored prompt construction strategy based on Multi-Armed Bandit (MAB). The key idea is to learn to select the best knowledge extraction and prompt templates at a meta-level. We will begin by outlining the overall strategy, followed by detailing its instantiation with two knowledge extraction methodologies and three templates.

Suppose we have several knowledge extraction strategies $\{\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2, ..., \mathcal{P}_m\}$ and several candidate prompt formats $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, ..., \mathcal{F}_n\}$. Each knowledge extraction strategy \mathcal{P}_i is a method for selecting reasoning background given a question context, such as the RL-based strategy discussed above. Every prompt template \mathcal{F}_j represents a mechanism to transform the triples within the subgraph into a prompt for an LLM prediction.

The prompt construction problem is to identify the best combination of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{F} for a given question. We define the overall process of selection as a reward maximization problem, $\max \sum r_{pf}$, where r_{pf} is obtained as:

$$\sigma(f(\mathcal{PF}_{(i)})) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if accurate;} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(5)

Specifically, $\mathcal{PF}_{(i)}$, $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, m \times n\}$ is one of the combination, and $r_{pf} \in \{0, 1\}$ indicates the performance of the output of LLM in answering the current question.

To capture the context-aware correlation between questions and different combinations of knowledge and prompt formats, we formulate the selection mechanism of MAB with an expectation function $E(\cdot)$. It adaptively measures the potential expectation of a combination for different questions.

$$E(\mathcal{Q}|\mathcal{PF}_{(i)}) = \mathbf{c} \times \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{(i)} + \beta_{(i)}.$$
(6)

Here, c represents the embedding of Q. The vector $\alpha(i)$ corresponds to a set of non-negative parameters associated with $\mathcal{PF}(i)$, which have been learned during the previous k-1 iterations. Additionally, $\beta_{(i)}$ stands for a balancing factor introducing noise according to a Gaussian distribution.

Empirically maximizing $c \times \alpha_i$ could encourage exploitation [12, 16] for the best combination, we could effectively update $\alpha_{(i)}$ via modeling the correlations between the context embedding of the anchor question c_i and all the previously selected contexts $C_{(i)}$ for particular combination

 $\mathcal{PF}_{(i)}$ in former k steps, and the rewards $\mathbf{r}_{pf}^{(i)}$ obtained from the selection of the current combination. Concretely, the $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(b)}$ is updated as:

$$J(\mathbf{C}_{(i)}^{(k)}, \mathbf{r}_{pf}^{(i)(k)}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (\mathbf{r}_{pf}^{(i)(k)} - \mathbf{C}_{(i)}^{(k)} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(i)})^{2} + \lambda^{i} \| \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(i)} \|_{2}^{2} .$$

$$\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(i)} = \left((\mathbf{C}_{(i)}^{(k)})^{\top} \mathbf{C}_{(i)}^{(k)} + \lambda^{i} \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} (\mathbf{C}_{(i)}^{(k)})^{\top} \mathbf{r}_{pf}^{(i)(k)} .$$
(7)

Here, J denotes the OLS training loss. $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ is an identity matrix and λ^i is a regularization factor that controls the complexity of the model.

Similarly, in order to encourage exploration within less frequently selected pairings, we employ an upper confidence bound approach to balance exploration and exploitation. This is achieved through the introduction of the parameter $\beta^{(i)}$. Inspired by prevailing studies [70, 16], we can derive the following exploration term $\beta^{(i)}$:

$$\beta^{(i)} = \gamma \times \sqrt{\mathbf{c}_i \left((\mathbf{C}_{(i)}^{(k)})^\top \mathbf{C}_{(i)}^{(k)} + \lambda^i \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} (\mathbf{c}_{(i)})^\top},$$
(8)

where γ is a fixed constant, i.e., $\gamma = 1 + \sqrt{ln(2/\delta)/2}$.

When the model picks a combination with a large $c \times \alpha_i$, it signifies an exploitation process. Likewise, when the model selects a combination with larger $\beta^{(i)}$, this variance indicates an exploration process due to the model making fewer selections of the current combination. Thus, jointly maximizing $c \times \alpha_i + \beta_{(i)}$ could help us get rid of the dilemma of exploration and exploitation.

Consequently, our MAB design can leverage the feedback from the LLM to optimize the selection policy. By maximizing the expectation function $E(\cdot)$, it learns to balance the exploitation and exploration to prioritize the most promising prompts for specific question contexts.

3.2.1 Implementation

We implement the above MAB strategies with two knowledge extraction strategies and three templates. Note that our MAB design is general and can be implemented with more knowledge extraction strategies and prompt templates for better performance. The knowledge extraction strategies include:

- \mathcal{P}_{RL} : The RL-based knowledge extraction strategy presented in the previous subsection.
- \mathcal{P}_{sub} : A heuristic sub-graph extraction strategy that extracts a 2-hop subgraph around both the source and target entities. Detailed implementation can be found in Section B.1 of Appendix. Since RL is notoriously unstable [65], we introduce \mathcal{P}_{sub} as an alternative candidate strategy for the MAB selection, ensuring a fallback option if the RL-based approach does not perform well.

The prompt templates include:

- **Triples**, denoted as \mathcal{F}_t , are indeed the originally extracted knowledge and empirically tested that could be understood by the black-box LLMs, e.g., (*Sergey_Brin, founder_of, Google*),(*Sundar_Pichai, ceo_of, Google*), (*Google, is_a, High-tech Company*).
- Sentences is a following solution to transform the knowledge into a colloquial \mathcal{F}_s , e.g., 'Sergey Brin, who is a founder of Google, a high-tech company, has now passed the reigns to Sundar Pichai, who is currently serving as the CEO of the company.'
- Graph Description, \mathcal{F}_g prompts the LLM by treating the knowledge as a structured graph. We preprocess the extracted knowledge with black-box LLM itself to generate the description by highlighting the center entity, e.g., 'Google, a high-tech company, stands central in the network. The entity is strongly associated with significant individuals in the tech industry. Sergey Brin, one of the founders, established Google, underscoring its historical beginnings. In the present graph context, Sundar Pichai is recognized as the CEO of Google, symbolizing the company's current leadership. Thus, Google serves as a vital link between these key figures.'

Considering two knowledge extraction methods: \mathcal{P}_{sub} and \mathcal{P}_{RL} , as well as three prompt translation methods: \mathcal{F}_t , \mathcal{F}_s and \mathcal{F}_q , the MAB is trained to learn from the feedback from LLMs

to prioritize the most appropriate combination among two extraction methods and three predefined prompt formats for different real-world question contexts, i.e., $\mathcal{PF} = \{(\mathcal{P}_{sub}\mathcal{F}_t), (\mathcal{P}_{sub}\mathcal{F}_s), (\mathcal{P}_{sub}\mathcal{F}_g), (\mathcal{P}_{RL}\mathcal{F}_s), (\mathcal{P}_{RL}\mathcal{F}_g)\}$.

4 **Experiments**

We conduct extensive experiments to evaluate KnowGPT on three benchmark question-answering datasets, covering both commonsense and domain-specific QA. We implement KnowGPT upon GPT-3.5. Our experiments are designed to answer the following research questions:

- **RQ1** (Main results): How does KnowGPT perform when compared with the state-of-the-art LLMs and KG-enhanced QA baselines?
- RQ2 (Ablation Study): How does each key component of KnowGPT contribute to the performance?
- RQ3 (Case study): How could KG help solve complex reasoning tasks? See Appendix 4.4.

4.1 Experimental Setup

Datasets. We evaluate KnowGPT on three QA datasets spanning two fields: CommonsenseQA [66] and OpenBookQA [52] serve as benchmarks for commonsense reasoning, while MedQA-USMLE [34] acts as a domain-specific QA benchmark. The statistics of these three datasets can be found in Table 5 in the Appendix.

Baselines. We carefully select baseline models from four categories for a comprehensive evaluation.

LM + *Fine-tuning*. We compare our method with vanilla fine-tuned LMs. Specifically, we choose Bert-base, Bert-large [35], and RoBerta-large [49] as representative fine-tune LM methods. To conduct commonsense and biomedical QA, we fine-tune these three LMs via additional linear layers.

KG-enhanced LM. We have also implemented several recently released models for integrating KGs into question answering, which encompass MHGRN [20], QA-GNN [80], HamQA [15], JointLK [64], GreaseLM [88] and GrapeQA [67]. To ensure a fair comparison, we implement these baselines with advanced language models that are optimized for particular datasets. Specifically, RoBerta-large [49] is used for CommenseQA, while AristoRoBERTa [13] is designated for OpenBookQA. For MedQA, we opt for the top-tier biomedical language model, SapBERT [45]. Note that due to the white-box nature of these methods and their high computation overheads, it is infeasible to apply them to state-of-the-art LLMs, like GPT-3.5 and GPT-4.

LLM + *Zero-shot*. We include several representative generative LLMs, including ChatGLM, Chat-GLM2, Baichuan-7B, InternLM, GPT-3, GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 as knowledge-agnostic alternatives. Specifically, we used the model 'text-davinci-002' provided by OpenAI as the implementation of GPT-3, and 'gpt-3.5-turbo' and 'gpt-4' as the implementations of GPT-3.5 and GPT-4, respectively (we have provided more implementation details of all LLMs in Appendix A.4). The question-answering task is conducted under the zero-shot setting with the question query from the test set as input.

LLM + *KG Prompting*. To verify the effectiveness of our prompting strategy, we also add the state-of-the-art KG prompting methods, i.e., CoK [71], RoG [50], and Mindmap [74] as baselines. Notably, we did include KGR [25] in our main results, since the authors have not released their codes.

4.2 Main Results (RQ1)

To address **RQ1**, we evaluate KnowGPT by comparing it to state-of-the-art baselines on the three benchmark datasets. KnowGPT is based on the original GPT-3.5. We measure the performance using accuracy, which calculates the percentage of questions correctly predicted by the model out of the total questions in the test set. We have the following observations:

- KnowGPT outperforms all categories of methods, including sixteen different baselines, across all datasets and model architectures. This suggests that KnowGPT can effectively inject the knowledge from KGs to LLMs.
- KnowGPT surpasses the performance of GPT-3.5 and even GPT-4. On average, KnowGPT achieves a 23.7% higher testing accuracy than GPT-3.5. Specifically, KnowGPT outperforms GPT-3.5 by 10.8%,

Catagory	Model	Commor	isenseQA	OpenBookQA		MedQA	
Cumgory		IHdev-Acc.	IHtest-Acc.	Dev-Acc.	Test-Acc.	Dev-Acc.	Test-Acc.
	Bert-base	0.573	0.535	0.588	0.566	0.359	0.344
LM + Fine-tuning	Bert-large	0.611	0.554	0.626	0.602	0.373	0.367
	RoBerta-large	0.731	0.687	0.668	0.648	0.369	0.361
	MHGRN	0.745	0.713	0.786	0.806	-	-
	QA-GNN	0.765	0.733	0.836	0.828	0.394	0.381
KG-enhanced LM	HamQA	0.769	0.739	0.858	0.846	0.396	0.385
KG-ennanced LM	JointLK	0.777	0.744	0.864	0.856	0.411	0.403
	GreaseLM	0.785	0.742	0.857	0.848	0.400	0.385
	GrapeQA	0.782	0.749	0.849	0.824	0.401	0.395
	ChatGLM	0.473	0.469	0.352	0.360	0.346	0.366
	ChatGLM2	0.440	0.425	0.392	0.386	0.432	0.422
	Baichuan-7B	0.491	0.476	0.411	0.395	0.334	0.319
	InternLM	0.477	0.454	0.376	0.406	0.325	0.348
LLM + Zero-shot	Llama2 (7b)	0.564	0.546	0.524	0.467	0.338	0.340
	Llama3 (8b)	0.745	0.723	0.771	0.730	0.639	0.697
	GPT-3	0.539	0.520	0.420	0.482	0.312	0.289
	GPT-3.5	0.735	0.710	0.598	0.600	0.484	0.487
	GPT-4	0.776	0.786	0.878	0.910	0.739	0.763
	СоК	0.759	0.739	0.835	0.869	0.706	0.722
LLM + KG Prompting	RoG	0.750	0.734	0.823	0.861	0.713	0.726
	Mindmap	0.789	0.784	0.851	0.882	0.747	0.751
Ours	KnowGPT	0.827	0.818	0.900	0.924	0.776	0.781
KnowGPT vs. GPT-3.5	+ 23.7% (Avg.)	+ 9.2%	+ 10.8%	+ 31.2%	+ 32.4%	+ 29.2%	+ 29.4%
KnowGPT vs. GPT-4	+2.9% (Avg.)	+ 5.1%	+ 3.3%	+ 2.2%	+ 1.4%	+ 3.7%	+ 1.8%

Table 1: Performance comparison among baseline models and KnowGPT on three benchmark datasets.

*We used 'text-davinci-002' and 'gpt-3.5-turbo' provided by OpenAI as the implementation of GPT models. *The results compared with fine-tuning LLMs on CommonsenseQA are placed in Table 6 of Appendix.

32.4%, and 29.4% on the CommonsenseQA, OpenBookQA, and MedQA datasets, respectively. More importantly, despite being based on GPT-3.5, KnowGPT outperforms the state-of-the-art LLM GPT-4 by 3.3%, 1.4%, and 1.8% on the CommonsenseQA, OpenBookQA, and MedQA datasets, respectively. These results confirm that black-box knowledge injecting can effectively enhance the capabilities of LLMs.

• KnowGPT outperforms all KG-enhanced LMs significantly. This implies our black-box knowledge injection method proficiently encodes knowledge into LLMs. Furthermore, it showcases the superiority of our black-box approach, given its adaptable application to GPT-3.5 using only the model API, a feat not achievable by white-box methods.

4.2.1 Leaderboard Ranking

We submit our results onto the official leaderboard maintained by the authors of OpenbookQA. The full records on the leaderboard are shown on the website², while our result can be found from here³.

We summarize the related submissions in Table 2, including three categories: traditional KG-enhanced LM, fine-tuning of LLMs, e.g., T5-11B used in UnifiedQA, and ensemble of multiple predictors. KnowGPT significantly outperforms traditional KG-enhanced LMs with 5.2% improvements when compared to the best baseline. The third group of methods occupies the leaderboard by leveraging ensemble learning strategies. Nevertheless, KnowGPT can still obtain competitive performance without ensembling with 0.6% above GenMC Ensemble [33]. Notably, our KnowGPT is remarkably comparable to the human performance.

²https://leaderboard.allenai.org/open_book_qa/submissions/public.

³https://leaderboard.allenai.org/open_book_qa/submission/cp743buq4uo7qe4e9750.

Human Performance (0.917)						
w/o KG	0.778	UnifiedQA [36]	0.872			
MHGRN [20]	0.806	DRAGON [79]	0.878			
QA-GNN [80]	0.828	28 GenMC [33]				
GreaseLM [88]	0.848	Human Performance	0.917			
HamQA [15]	0.850	GenMC Ensemble [33]	0.920			
JointLK [64]	0.856	X-Reasoner [32]	0.952			
GSC [72]	0.874	KnowGPT	0.926			

Table 2: OpenBookQA Official Leaderboard records of three groups of related models.

4.3 Ablation Studies (RQ2)

To answer **RQ2**, we conduct two ablation studies. **First**, in Table 3, we measure the importance of the tailored reinforcement learning-based knowledge extraction module, i.e., \mathcal{P}_{RL} . Specifically, we compare it with the heuristic sub-graph extraction strategy, i.e., \mathcal{P}_{sub} . The performance is evaluated by directly feeding the extracted knowledge with the prompt format of 'Sentence', i.e., \mathcal{F}_s , to GPT-3.5. We also include 'w/o KG' as the baseline where GPT-3.5 is asked to independently answer the given question with no reasoning background provided. The results clearly indicate the vital role of our proposed knowledge extracted knowledge. The detailed results are shown in Table 4. Though different formats perform similarly within the difference of 2.2% - 3.3%, they are particularly suitable for different kinds of questions. We illustrate this observation in the following case study section. Both ablation studies support the indispensability of each module, armed with a tailored deep reinforcement learning-based knowledge extraction and a context-aware prompt translation, our KnowGPT performs best on all three benchmark datasets.

Table 3: Ablation study on the effectiveness of two knowledge extraction methods.

Table 4: Ablation study on different prompt formats for the extracted knowledge.

Knowledge Extraction	Model	CSQA		OBQA	MedQA	
inovicuge Extruction	model	IHdev	IHtest	Test	Test	
	GPT-3	0.539	0.520	0.482	0.289	
w/o KG	GPT-3.5	0.735	0.710	0.598	0.487	
	GPT-4	0.776	0.786	0.910	0.763	
\mathcal{P}_{sub}	GPT-3.5	0.750	0.739	0.865	0.695	
\mathcal{P}_{RL}	GPT-3.5	0.815	0.800	0.889	0.755	
Ours	KnowGPT	0.827	0.818	0.924	0.781	

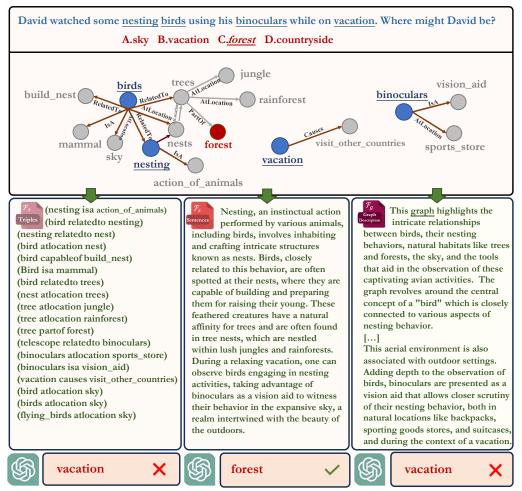
Knowledge Extraction	Prompts	CSQA		OBQA	MedQA	
ino sicuge Estu acuon	Trompts	IHdev	IHtest	Test	Test	
\mathcal{P}_{sub}	\mathcal{F}_t	0.728	0.701	0.832	0.589	
	\mathcal{F}_{s}	0.750	0.739	0.865	0.695	
	\mathcal{F}_{g}	0.737	0.715	0.871	0.680	
	\mathcal{F}_t	0.782	0.769	0.853	0.739	
\mathcal{P}_{RL}	\mathcal{F}_{s}	0.815	0.800	0.889	0.755	
	\mathcal{F}_{g}	0.806	0.793	0.906	0.762	
Full KnowGPT		0.827	0.818	0.924	0.781	

4.4 Case Studies (RQ3)

For **RQ3**, we provide insights into how KnowGPT facilitates the prompt translation with a real case from CommonsenseQA. We visualize both the extracted knowledge and the textual inputs to GPT-3.5 in Figure 3. In this example, given the same extracted knowledge, GPT-3.5 answers correctly based on the sentence format that we provide. In contrast, it fails to answer the question with triples and graph descriptions. They clearly indicate the superiority of KnowGPT in an automatic context-aware prompt translation. We make the following observations: (*i*) Triple format \mathcal{F}_t is intuitively suitable for all the simple questions by directly indicating the one-hop knowledge. (*ii*) Graph description may inevitably introduce noise to ensure the completeness and contextual fluency of the directed graph. In this example, since 'vacation' appears in both question and answer choices, over-emphasizing and connecting the knowledge about 'vacation' with other concepts in the graph misleads the model to make a prediction with an oblique focus. (*iii*) Our KnowGPT has shown superior performance in automatically constructing suitable prompts for particular questions.

5 Limitation

Through our exploration, we realize the natural limitations of KnowGPT brought by real-world KGs. Existing KGs are automatically constructed based on online corpora. This inevitably introduces a considerable number of noisy triples into KGs. The noisy knowledge may mislead the LLMs



to wrong predictions despite the effectiveness of our prompting methods. In the future, we would leverage KnowGPT with off-the-shelf KG refinement algorithms to improve the quality of KGs.

Figure 3: A case study on exploring the effectiveness of different prompt formats for particular questions. The extracted knowledge is shown in the middle of this figure in the form of a graph, where the nodes in blue are the key topic entities and the red is the target answer. The text boxes at the bottom are the final prompts generated based on three different formats.

6 Conclusion

The main objective of this paper is to tackle the hallucination issue that arises when applying LLM to specific domains. Although LLMs have strong reasoning capabilities, they still struggle to answer professional questions in specific domains, especially when the pre-training corpus lacks relevant knowledge. To address this issue, we propose a KG-augmented LLM model, named KnowGPT, which injects relevant domain knowledge from KGs into LLMs to assist the LLM in accurately answering professional questions. A novel framework, namely KnowGPT, is presented to integrate KGs into LLMs effectively with model APIs only. We first train a deep RL policy to extract informative and concise reasoning background from the KG. Then we learn an MAB to select the most effective knowledge extraction method and prompt template for each question. Extensive experiments on both general and domain-specific QA show superior performance of KnowGPT compared to all competitors.

Acknowledgement

The work was fully supported by a grant from the Research Grants Council of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China (Project No. PolyU 25208322).

References

- Emily Alsentzer, John Murphy, William Boag, Wei-Hung Weng, Di Jindi, Tristan Naumann, and Matthew McDermott. Publicly available clinical bert embeddings. In *Proceedings of the* 2nd Clinical Natural Language Processing Workshop, pages 72–78, 2019.
- [2] Ilaria Amaro, Attilio Della Greca, Rita Francese, Genoveffa Tortora, and Cesare Tucci. Ai unreliable answers: A case study on chatgpt. In *ICHCI*, pages 23–40. Springer, 2023.
- [3] AI Anthropic. The claude 3 model family: Opus, sonnet, haiku. Claude-3 Model Card, 2024.
- [4] Olivier Bodenreider. The Unified Medical Language System (UMLS): integrating biomedical terminology. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 32:D267–D270, 01 2004.
- [5] Tom B Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. Language models are few-shot learners. In *Proceedings of the 34th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 1877–1901, 2020.
- [6] Ilias Chalkidis, Ion Androutsopoulos, and Nikolaos Aletras. Neural legal judgment prediction in english. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 4317–4323, 2019.
- [7] Ilias Chalkidis, Abhik Jana, Dirk Hartung, Michael Bommarito, Ion Androutsopoulos, Daniel Martin Katz, and Nikolaos Aletras. Lexglue: A benchmark dataset for legal language understanding in english. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.00976*, 2021.
- [8] Hao Chen, Yuanchen Bei, Qijie Shen, Yue Xu, Sheng Zhou, Wenbing Huang, Feiran Huang, Senzhang Wang, and Xiao Huang. Macro graph neural networks for online billion-scale recommender systems. In *Proceedings of the ACM on Web Conference 2024*, pages 3598–3608, 2024.
- [9] Hao Chen, Zhong Huang, Yue Xu, Zengde Deng, Feiran Huang, Peng He, and Zhoujun Li. Neighbor enhanced graph convolutional networks for node classification and recommendation. *Knowledge-Based Systems*, 246:108594, 2022.
- [10] Hao Chen, Yue Xu, Feiran Huang, Zengde Deng, Wenbing Huang, Senzhang Wang, Peng He, and Zhoujun Li. Label-aware graph convolutional networks. In *Proceedings of the 29th ACM International Conference on Information & Knowledge Management*, page 1977–1980, 2020.
- [11] Shengyuan Chen, Qinggang Zhang, Junnan Dong, Wen Hua, Jiannong Cao, and Xiao Huang. Neuro-symbolic entity alignment via variational inference. arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.04153, 2024.
- [12] Yifang Chen, Chung-Wei Lee, Haipeng Luo, and Chen-Yu Wei. A new algorithm for nonstationary contextual bandits: Efficient, optimal and parameter-free. In *COLT*. PMLR, 2019.
- [13] Peter Clark, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Daniel Khashabi, Bhavana Mishra, Kyle Richardson, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, Oyvind Tafjord, Niket Tandon, et al. From 'f'to 'a'on the ny regents science exams: An overview of the aristo project. *AI Magazine*, 41(4):39–53, 2020.
- [14] Junnan Dong, Zijin Hong, Yuanchen Bei, Feiran Huang, Xinrun Wang, and Xiao Huang. Clr-bench: Evaluating large language models in college-level reasoning, 2024.
- [15] Junnan Dong, Qinggang Zhang, Xiao Huang, Keyu Duan, Qiaoyu Tan, and Zhimeng Jiang. Hierarchy-aware multi-hop question answering over knowledge graphs. In WWW, pages 2519– 2527, 2023.
- [16] Junnan Dong, Qinggang Zhang, Xiao Huang, Qiaoyu Tan, Daochen Zha, and Zhao Zihao. Active ensemble learning for knowledge graph error detection. In WSDM, pages 877–885, 2023.
- [17] Junnan Dong, Qinggang Zhang, Chuang Zhou, Hao Chen, Daochen Zha, and Xiao Huang. Cost-efficient knowledge-based question answering with large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.17337*, 2024.

- [18] Junnan Dong, Qinggang Zhang, Huachi Zhou, Daochen Zha, Pai Zheng, and Xiao Huang. Modality-aware integration with large language models for knowledge-based visual question answering, 2024.
- [19] Zhengxiao Du, Yujie Qian, Xiao Liu, Ming Ding, Jiezhong Qiu, Zhilin Yang, and Jie Tang. Glm: General language model pretraining with autoregressive blank infilling. In Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 320–335, 2022.
- [20] Yanlin Feng, Xinyue Chen, Bill Yuchen Lin, Peifeng Wang, Jun Yan, and Xiang Ren. Scalable multi-hop relational reasoning for knowledge-aware question answering. In *EMNLP*, pages 1295–1309, 2020.
- [21] Yasuhiro Fujita and Shin-ichi Maeda. Clipped action policy gradient. In International Conference on Machine Learning, pages 1597–1606. PMLR, 2018.
- [22] Yingqiang Ge, Wenyue Hua, Kai Mei, Juntao Tan, Shuyuan Xu, Zelong Li, Yongfeng Zhang, et al. Openagi: When Ilm meets domain experts. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024.
- [23] Zorik Gekhman, Gal Yona, Roee Aharoni, Matan Eyal, Amir Feder, Roi Reichart, and Jonathan Herzig. Does fine-tuning llms on new knowledge encourage hallucinations? arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.05904, 2024.
- [24] Jocelyn Gravel, Madeleine D'Amours-Gravel, and Esli Osmanlliu. Learning to fake it: limited responses and fabricated references provided by chatgpt for medical questions. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings: Digital Health*, 1(3):226–234, 2023.
- [25] Xinyan Guan, Yanjiang Liu, Hongyu Lin, Yaojie Lu, Ben He, Xianpei Han, and Le Sun. Mitigating large language model hallucinations via autonomous knowledge graph-based retrofitting. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 38, pages 18126–18134, 2024.
- [26] Suchin Gururangan, Ana Marasović, Swabha Swayamdipta, Kyle Lo, Iz Beltagy, Doug Downey, and Noah A Smith. Don't stop pretraining: Adapt language models to domains and tasks. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 8342–8360, 2020.
- [27] Zijin Hong, Zheng Yuan, Hao Chen, Qinggang Zhang, Feiran Huang, and Xiao Huang. Knowledge-to-sql: Enhancing sql generation with data expert llm. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.11517*, 2024.
- [28] Zijin Hong, Zheng Yuan, Qinggang Zhang, Hao Chen, Junnan Dong, Feiran Huang, and Xiao Huang. Next-generation database interfaces: A survey of llm-based text-to-sql. arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.08426, 2024.
- [29] Linmei Hu, Zeyi Liu, Ziwang Zhao, Lei Hou, Liqiang Nie, and Juanzi Li. A survey of knowledge enhanced pre-trained language models. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, 2023.
- [30] Feiran Huang, Zefan Wang, Xiao Huang, Yufeng Qian, Zhetao Li, and Hao Chen. Aligning distillation for cold-start item recommendation. In *Proceedings of the 46th International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*, page 1147–1157, 2023.
- [31] Feiran Huang, Zhenghang Yang, Junyi Jiang, Yuanchen Bei, Yijie Zhang, and Hao Chen. Large language model interaction simulator for cold-start item recommendation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.09176*, 2024.
- [32] Yongfeng Huang, Yanyang Li, Yichong Xu, Lin Zhang, Ruyi Gan, Jiaxing Zhang, and Liwei Wang. Mvp-tuning: Multi-view knowledge retrieval with prompt tuning for commonsense reasoning. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 13417–13432, 2023.

- [33] Zixian Huang, Ao Wu, Jiaying Zhou, Yu Gu, Yue Zhao, and Gong Cheng. Clues before answers: Generation-enhanced multiple-choice qa. In Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 3272–3287, 2022.
- [34] Di Jin, Eileen Pan, Nassim Oufattole, Wei-Hung Weng, Hanyi Fang, and Peter Szolovits. What disease does this patient have? a large-scale open domain question answering dataset from medical exams. *Applied Sciences*, 11(14), 2021.
- [35] Jacob Devlin Ming-Wei Chang Kenton and Lee Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *Proceedings of NAACL-HLT*, pages 4171–4186, 2019.
- [36] Daniel Khashabi, Sewon Min, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Oyvind Tafjord, Peter Clark, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. Unifiedqa: Crossing format boundaries with a single qa system. In *EMNLP 2020*, pages 1896–1907, 2020.
- [37] Tomasz Korbak, Hady Elsahar, German Kruszewski, and Marc Dymetman. Controlling conditional language models without catastrophic forgetting. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 11499–11528. PMLR, 2022.
- [38] Tiffany H Kung, Morgan Cheatham, Arielle Medenilla, Czarina Sillos, Lorie De Leon, Camille Elepaño, Maria Madriaga, Rimel Aggabao, Giezel Diaz-Candido, James Maningo, et al. Performance of chatgpt on usmle: Potential for ai-assisted medical education using large language models. *PLoS digital health*, 2(2):e0000198, 2023.
- [39] Jieh-Sheng Lee and Jieh Hsiang. Patent classification by fine-tuning bert language model. *World Patent Information*, 61:101965, 2020.
- [40] Jinhyuk Lee, Wonjin Yoon, Sungdong Kim, Donghyeon Kim, Sunkyu Kim, Chan Ho So, and Jaewoo Kang. Biobert: a pre-trained biomedical language representation model for biomedical text mining. *Bioinformatics*, 36(4):1234–1240, 2020.
- [41] Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, et al. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive nlp tasks. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:9459–9474, 2020.
- [42] Huayang Li, Yixuan Su, Deng Cai, Yan Wang, and Lemao Liu. A survey on retrieval-augmented text generation. arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.01110, 2022.
- [43] Wentao Li, Huachi Zhou, Junnan Dong, Qinggang Zhang, Qing Li, George Baciu, Jiannong Cao, and Xiao Huang. Constructing low-redundant and high-accuracy knowledge graphs for education. In *International Conference on Web-Based Learning*, pages 148–160. Springer, 2022.
- [44] Bill Yuchen Lin, Xinyue Chen, Jamin Chen, and Xiang Ren. Kagnet: Knowledge-aware graph networks for commonsense reasoning. In *EMNLP-IJCNLP*, pages 2829–2839, 2019.
- [45] Fangyu Liu, Ehsan Shareghi, Zaiqiao Meng, Marco Basaldella, and Nigel Collier. Self-alignment pretraining for biomedical entity representations. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 4228–4238, 2021.
- [46] Pengfei Liu, Weizhe Yuan, Jinlan Fu, Zhengbao Jiang, Hiroaki Hayashi, and Graham Neubig. Pre-train, prompt, and predict: A systematic survey of prompting methods in natural language processing. ACM Computing Surveys, 55(9):1–35, 2023.
- [47] Weijie Liu, Peng Zhou, Zhe Zhao, Zhiruo Wang, Qi Ju, Haotang Deng, and Ping Wang. Kbert: Enabling language representation with knowledge graph. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 34, pages 2901–2908, 2020.

- [48] Yezi Liu, Qinggang Zhang, Mengnan Du, Xiao Huang, and Xia Hu. Error detection on knowledge graphs with triple embedding. In 2023 31st European Signal Processing Conference (EUSIPCO), pages 1604–1608. IEEE, 2023.
- [49] Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Mandar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.11692, 2019.
- [50] Linhao Luo, Yuan-Fang Li, Gholamreza Haffari, and Shirui Pan. Reasoning on graphs: Faithful and interpretable large language model reasoning. arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.01061, 2023.
- [51] Donald Metzler, Yi Tay, Dara Bahri, and Marc Najork. Rethinking search: making domain experts out of dilettantes. In *Acm sigir forum*, volume 55, pages 1–27. ACM New York, NY, USA, 2021.
- [52] Todor Mihaylov, Peter Clark, Tushar Khot, and Ashish Sabharwal. Can a suit of armor conduct electricity? a new dataset for open book question answering. In *EMNLP*, pages 2381–2391, 2018.
- [53] Shervin Minaee, Tomas Mikolov, Narjes Nikzad, Meysam Chenaghlu, Richard Socher, Xavier Amatriain, and Jianfeng Gao. Large language models: A survey. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.06196*, 2024.
- [54] OpenAI. Gpt-4 technical report, 2023.
- [55] Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, et al. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. *NeurIPS*, 35:27730–27744, 2022.
- [56] Shirui Pan, Linhao Luo, Yufei Wang, Chen Chen, Jiapu Wang, and Xindong Wu. Unifying large language models and knowledge graphs: A roadmap. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, 2024.
- [57] Matthew E Peters, Mark Neumann, Robert Logan, Roy Schwartz, Vidur Joshi, Sameer Singh, and Noah A Smith. Knowledge enhanced contextual word representations. In *Proceedings* of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 43–54, 2019.
- [58] Adam Santoro, Sergey Bartunov, Matthew Botvinick, Daan Wierstra, and Timothy Lillicrap. Meta-learning with memory-augmented neural networks. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 1842–1850. PMLR, 2016.
- [59] Xinyue Shen, Zeyuan Chen, Michael Backes, and Yang Zhang. In chatgpt we trust? measuring and characterizing the reliability of chatgpt. arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.08979, 2023.
- [60] Chen Shengyuan, Yunfeng Cai, Huang Fang, Xiao Huang, and Mingming Sun. Differentiable neuro-symbolic reasoning on large-scale knowledge graphs. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024.
- [61] Shamane Siriwardhana, Rivindu Weerasekera, Elliott Wen, Tharindu Kaluarachchi, Rajib Rana, and Suranga Nanayakkara. Improving the domain adaptation of retrieval augmented generation (rag) models for open domain question answering. *Transactions of the Association* for Computational Linguistics, 11:1–17, 2023.
- [62] Robyn Speer, Joshua Chin, and Catherine Havasi. Conceptnet 5.5: An open multilingual graph of general knowledge. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 31, 2017.
- [63] Yu Sun, Shuohuan Wang, Shikun Feng, Siyu Ding, Chao Pang, Junyuan Shang, Jiaxiang Liu, Xuyi Chen, Yanbin Zhao, Yuxiang Lu, et al. Ernie 3.0: Large-scale knowledge enhanced pre-training for language understanding and generation. arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.02137, 2021.

- [64] Yueqing Sun, Qi Shi, Le Qi, and Yu Zhang. Jointlk: Joint reasoning with language models and knowledge graphs for commonsense question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 5049–5060, 2022.
- [65] Richard S Sutton and Andrew G Barto. *Reinforcement learning: An introduction*. MIT press, 2018.
- [66] Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. Commonsenseqa: A question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)*, pages 4149–4158, 2019.
- [67] Dhaval Taunk, Lakshya Khanna, Siri Venkata Pavan Kumar Kandru, Vasudeva Varma, Charu Sharma, and Makarand Tapaswi. Grapeqa: Graph augmentation and pruning to enhance question-answering. In *Companion Proceedings of the ACM Web Conference 2023*, pages 1138–1144, 2023.
- [68] InternLM Team. InternIm: A multilingual language model with progressively enhanced capabilities, 2023.
- [69] Mina Valizadeh and Natalie Parde. The ai doctor is in: A survey of task-oriented dialogue systems for healthcare applications. In *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association* for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 6638–6660, 2022.
- [70] Thomas J Walsh, István Szita, Carlos Diuk, and Michael L Littman. Exploring compact reinforcement-learning representations with linear regression. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, pages 591–598, 2009.
- [71] Jianing Wang, Qiushi Sun, Nuo Chen, Xiang Li, and Ming Gao. Boosting language models reasoning with chain-of-knowledge prompting. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.06427*, 2023.
- [72] Kuan Wang, Yuyu Zhang, Diyi Yang, Le Song, and Tao Qin. Gnn is a counter? revisiting gnn for question answering, 2021.
- [73] Xiaozhi Wang, Tianyu Gao, Zhaocheng Zhu, Zhengyan Zhang, Zhiyuan Liu, Juanzi Li, and Jian Tang. Kepler: A unified model for knowledge embedding and pre-trained language representation. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 9:176–194, 2021.
- [74] Yilin Wen, Zifeng Wang, and Jimeng Sun. Mindmap: Knowledge graph prompting sparks graph of thoughts in large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.09729*, 2023.
- [75] David S Wishart, Yannick D Feunang, An C Guo, Elvis J Lo, Ana Marcu, Jason R Grant, Tanvir Sajed, Daniel Johnson, Carin Li, Zinat Sayeeda, Nazanin Assempour, Ithayavani Iynkkaran, Yifeng Liu, Adam Maciejewski, Nicola Gale, Alex Wilson, Lucy Chin, Ryan Cummings, Diana Le, Allison Pon, Craig Knox, and Michael Wilson. DrugBank 5.0: a major update to the DrugBank database for 2018. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 46:D1074–D1082, 2017.
- [76] Wenhan Xiong, Thien Hoang, and William Yang Wang. Deeppath: A reinforcement learning method for knowledge graph reasoning. In *EMNLP*, pages 564–573, 2017.
- [77] Linyao Yang, Hongyang Chen, Zhao Li, Xiao Ding, and Xindong Wu. Give us the facts: Enhancing large language models with knowledge graphs for fact-aware language modeling. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, 2024.
- [78] Zhaorui Yang, Qian Liu, Tianyu Pang, Han Wang, Haozhe Feng, Minfeng Zhu, and Wei Chen. Self-distillation bridges distribution gap in language model fine-tuning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.13669*, 2024.
- [79] Michihiro Yasunaga, Antoine Bosselut, Hongyu Ren, Xikun Zhang, Christopher D Manning, Percy S Liang, and Jure Leskovec. Deep bidirectional language-knowledge graph pretraining. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 35:37309–37323, 2022.

- [80] Michihiro Yasunaga, Hongyu Ren, Antoine Bosselut, Percy Liang, and Jure Leskovec. Qa-gnn: Reasoning with language models and knowledge graphs for question answering. NAACL, 2021.
- [81] Aohan Zeng, Xiao Liu, Zhengxiao Du, Zihan Wang, Hanyu Lai, Ming Ding, Zhuoyi Yang, Yifan Xu, Wendi Zheng, Xiao Xia, et al. Glm-130b: An open bilingual pre-trained model. arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.02414, 2022.
- [82] Daochen Zha, Zaid Pervaiz Bhat, Kwei-Herng Lai, Fan Yang, Zhimeng Jiang, Shaochen Zhong, and Xia Hu. Data-centric artificial intelligence: A survey. arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.10158, 2023.
- [83] Qinggang Zhang, Junnan Dong, Hao Chen, Wentao Li, Feiran Huang, and Xiao Huang. Structure guided large language model for sql generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.13284*, 2024.
- [84] Qinggang Zhang, Junnan Dong, Keyu Duan, Xiao Huang, Yezi Liu, and Linchuan Xu. Contrastive knowledge graph error detection. In *Proceedings of the 31st ACM International Conference on Information & Knowledge Management*, pages 2590–2599, 2022.
- [85] Qinggang Zhang, Junnan Dong, Qiaoyu Tan, and Xiao Huang. Integrating entity attributes for error-aware knowledge graph embedding. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, 2023.
- [86] Qinggang Zhang, Keyu Duan, Junnan Dong, Pai Zheng, and Xiao Huang. Logical reasoning with relation network for inductive knowledge graph completion. In *Proceedings of the 30th* ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, pages 4268–4277, 2024.
- [87] Xikun Zhang, Antoine Bosselut, Michihiro Yasunaga, Hongyu Ren, Percy Liang, Christopher D Manning, and Jure Leskovec. Greaselm: Graph reasoning enhanced language models for question answering. arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.08860, 2022.
- [88] Xikun Zhang, Antoine Bosselut, Michihiro Yasunaga, Hongyu Ren, Percy Liang, Christopher D Manning, and Jure Leskovec. Greaselm: Graph reasoning enhanced language models for question answering. arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.08860, 2022.
- [89] Wayne Xin Zhao, Kun Zhou, Junyi Li, Tianyi Tang, Xiaolei Wang, Yupeng Hou, Yingqian Min, Beichen Zhang, Junjie Zhang, Zican Dong, et al. A survey of large language models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.18223, 2023.
- [90] Haoxi Zhong, Chaojun Xiao, Cunchao Tu, Tianyang Zhang, Zhiyuan Liu, and Maosong Sun. How does nlp benefit legal system: A summary of legal artificial intelligence. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 5218–5230, 2020.
- [91] Huachi Zhou, Hao Chen, Junnan Dong, Daochen Zha, Chuang Zhou, and Xiao Huang. Adaptive popularity debiasing aggregator for graph collaborative filtering. In *Proceedings of the 46th International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*, pages 7–17, 2023.
- [92] Fengbin Zhu, Wenqiang Lei, Chao Wang, Jianming Zheng, Soujanya Poria, and Tat-Seng Chua. Retrieving and reading: A comprehensive survey on open-domain question answering. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2101.00774, 2021.

A Related Work

To address the hallucination issues that arise when applying LLMs to specific domains, researchers have proposed various methods, which can be broadly categorized into three main categories: Fine-Tuning (FT), Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) and KG-enhanced LLMs.

A.1 Fine-tune LLMs with Domain-specific Data

To help the language model generate more accurate responses in specific domains, extensive studies have been conducted to investigate the efficacy of fine-tuning LLMs with specialized data [8, 27, 26, 39, 40, 22, 28]. Fine-tuning involves training the pre-trained LLM on a smaller dataset of domain-specific text, enabling the model to adapt its knowledge to the target domain, such as in recommendation [10, 91], and noGCNde classification [9, 30]. By exposing the LLM to domain-specific vocabulary, terminology, and patterns, fine-tuning enables the model to generate more accurate and relevant responses for domain-specific tasks [26, 31]. Fine-tuning LLMs with domain-specific data has been successfully applied across various domains. For example, in the healthcare domain, fine-tuned LLMs have been used for clinical note analysis [1], biomedical text mining [40], and medical dialogue [69]. Similarly, in the legal domain, fine-tuned LLMs have shown promise in tasks such as legal document classification [6], contract analysis [7], and legal judgment prediction [90].

However, recent research has highlighted the limitations and risks associated with fine-tuning LLMs using domain-specific data [37]. A study conducted by Google Research highlighted that using fine-tuning to update LLMs' knowledge can be problematic, particularly when the new knowledge conflicts with pre-existing information [23]. In such cases, acquiring new data through FT can lead to the model generating new hallucinations and even experiencing catastrophic forgetting [37, 78]. Besides that, many state-of-the-art LLMs are confined to a *black-box* role in practice. For instance, Calaude3 [3] and GPT-4 [54] exclusively grant access through their APIs, which means we can only retrieve model responses by submitting textual inputs, with model specifics inaccessible. This lack of access to model architecture and parameters prevents us from employing these fine-tuning methods.

A.2 Retrieval-Augmented Generation for LLMs

Recently, Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) models have been extensively explored to enhance LLMs with external knowledge from text corpora or online sources [41, 89, 53]. Combining LLMs with external knowledge retrieval systems can help reduce hallucinations. However, these approaches face challenges in domain-specific applications: (i) Data quality. Domain knowledge is often scattered across different sources, such as textbooks, research papers, technical manuals, and industry reports [42]. These textual documents may have varying levels of quality, accuracy, and completeness, leading to potential inconsistencies or errors in the retrieved knowledge [92]. (ii) Knowledge hierarchy. Domain knowledge is always complex and hierarchical and contains a high degree of jargon, acronyms, and specialized terminology. However, textual documents typically present this information in a linear and unstructured manner. The lack of explicit relationships and structured organization limits the reasoning and inference capabilities of RAG models, as they cannot leverage the structured connections within domain knowledge to derive new insights or generate more contextually appropriate responses [58]. (iii) Huge search space. There is a lot of domain-irrelevant information in these textual documents, while domain-specific terminologies are always sparsely distributed over these documents [61]. The retrieval model can be computationally expensive and time-consuming, especially when dealing with large-scale knowledge sources, as the model needs to search through vast amounts of unstructured text to find relevant information [51].

A.3 Integration of KGs and LLMs

KG-enhanced LLM aims to leverage the structured knowledge in knowledge graphs (KGs) [11, 48] to ground the model's responses in established facts and principles [29, 77, 56]. This grounding ensures that the generated outputs are based on reliable information rather than arbitrary or fabricated statements.

Integrating KGs during Training. Earlier studies adopted a heuristic way to inject knowledge from KGs into the LLMs during pre-training or fine-tuning. For example, ERNIE [63] incorporates entity

embeddings and aligns them with word embeddings in the pre-training phase, encouraging the model to better understand and reason over entities. KnowBERT [57] integrates entity linkers with BERT to introduce knowledge about entities during fine-tuning for downstream tasks.

Integrating KGs during Inference. Another line of work focuses on retrieving relevant knowledge from KGs at inference time to augment the language model's context. Typically, K-BERT [47] uses an attention mechanism to select relevant triples from a KG based on the input context, which are then appended to the input sequence. Similarly, KEPLER [73] learns joint embeddings of text and KG entities, enabling efficient retrieval of relevant knowledge to enhance the model's predictions. Later works further integrated graph neural networks alongside LLMs for joint reasoning [80, 87, 15] and introduced interactions between text tokens and KG entities within the intermediate layers of LLMs [64, 67].

KG Prompting for LLM. The methods above all assume they know everything about LLMs, including model architectures and parameters. However, as LLMs have been keeping evolving, many SOTA LLMs are confined to a *black-box* role in practice. As such, the research focus has shifted towards KG prompting that enhances fixed LLMs with KG-based hard prompts. KG Prompting for LLMs has been a new learning paradigm in natural language processing [46, 56]. Specifically, CoK [71] introduces a novel Chain-of-Knowledge prompting to decompose LLM-generated reasoning chains into evidence triples. It then verifies the triples' factuality and faithfulness using an external knowledge graph, ensuring the accuracy and reliability of the LLM outputs. By allowing the models to comprehend and reason over structured KG inputs, Mindmap [74] enhances the LLMs' ability to incorporate external knowledge, reduce hallucinations, and provide more transparency into their decision-making process. RoG [50] presents a planning-retrieval-reasoning framework that synergizes the strengths of LLMs and KGs to enhance the reasoning capabilities of language models in a more transparent and interpretable manner. Instead of retrieving factual information from KGs, KGR [25] proposes to autonomously retrofit the initial draft responses generated by LLMs. This innovative technique leverages the knowledge stored within KGs to mitigate hallucination by effectively extracting, verifying, and refining factual information throughout the entire reasoning process of LLMs.

Our model. Despite the promising performance of existing KG prompting methods, their extensive deployment and practical implementation in domain-specific applications are still impeded by two critical issues. **O** The cost associated with calling the LLM API or deploying LLMs with cloud services is prohibitive. For example, GPT-4 is estimated to cost at least thousands of dollars for pilot-scale customer service, making the careful selection of the most informative triples from KGs essential to minimize costs. **O** LLMs are highly sensitive to prompts, with even minor variations in prompts conveying the same semantic meaning potentially yielding drastically different responses. However, existing methods rely on manually designed or rule-based prompts to present factual knowledge from KGs. These hard prompts are always fixed and rigid, lacking the flexibility to adapt to variations in question semantics and KG structures. In this paper, we shed light on the whole community with a novel prompt learning method that is rather effective, generalizable and cost-efficient. There are two key components in our proposed KnowGPT including (i) knowledge retrieval, which leverages deep RL to extract relevant knowledge from KGs, and (ii) context-aware decision module to translate the structured knowledge from KGs into the appropriate prompt format.

B Implementation Details

B.1 Entity Linking and Heuristic Knowledge Extraction

For each QA context, we adopt the methodology outlined in the prior research [44, 79] to extract the subgraph from the background knowledge graph (KG), denoted as \mathcal{G} . We commence by executing entity linking on \mathcal{G} , resulting in an initial collection of nodes, V_{topic} . Next, we incorporate bridge entities that appear within a 2-hop path between any two linked entities from V_{topic} , yielding the set $V_{retrieval}$. Subsequently, we refine this set by evaluating the relevance score for each node, adhering to the method proposed [79]. From this refined set, only the top 200 nodes, based on score, are retained. We then extract all edges connecting any pair of nodes in V_{sub} , creating the retrieved subgraph G_{sub} . Each node within G_{sub} is designated a type based on its association to either the topic entities Q or target entities A. Intuitively, the relevant reasoning background lies in a question-specific subgraph \mathcal{G}_{sub} that contains all the *source* entities S, *target* entities A, and their

k-hop neighbors. Therefore, the reasoning background could be provided as the \mathcal{G}_{sub} , we denote this direct knowledge extraction method as \mathcal{P}_{sub} .

B.2 Feature Initialization of Background KG

To calculate the initial node embeddings for entities extracted from the background KG, we adopt the approach proposed by the previous study [20]. Specifically, we transform knowledge triples from the KG into sentences and feed them into pre-trained LMs to get node embeddings. Specifically, to ensure a fair comparison, we implement all the KG-enhanced baselines and our model with the same advanced language models that are optimized for particular datasets. Specifically, RoBert-large [49] is used for CommenseQA, while AristoRoBERTa [13] is designated for OpenBookQA. For MedQA, we opt for the top-tier biomedical language model, SapBERT [45], to enhance comprehension of the biomedical field.

B.3 Statistical Analysis of Datasets

We evaluate KnowGPT on three QA datasets spanning two fields: CommonsenseQA [66] and Open-BookQA [52] serve as benchmarks for commonsense reasoning, while MedQA-USMLE [34] acts as a domain-specific QA benchmark. While the official test set serves primarily for leaderboard rankings, we initially assess model efficacy using the in-house (IH) data split introduced in [44]. The official dataset is denoted as CSQA, while the IH split is represented by CSQA(IH)*. The statistics of these three datasets can be found in Table 5.

Table 5: The statistical information of three datasets.

Dataset	Question	Choices	Train	Dev	Test
CSQA	#12102	5	9741	1221	1140
CSQA(IH)	#12102	5	8500	1221	1241
OBQA	#5957	4	4957	500	500
MedQA	#12723	4	10178	1272	1273

CommonsenseQA is a multiple-choice question-answering dataset, each question accompanied by five potential answers. Answering its 12,102 questions necessitates a foundation in commonsense knowledge. While the official test set serves primarily for leaderboard rankings, we initially assess model efficacy using the in-house (IH) data split introduced in [44]. The official dataset is denoted as CSQA, while the IH split is represented by CSQA(IH)*.

OpenBookQA, commonly abbreviated as *OBQA*, comprises 5,957 multiple-choice questions, each offering four possible answers. To successfully answer these questions, one must have a comprehensive understanding of fundamental scientific facts and its applications.

MedQA-USMLE, abbreviated as *MedQA*, is a dataset consisting of 4-option multiple-choice questions that demand a grasp of biomedical and clinical understanding. These questions are sourced from preparatory tests for the United States Medical Licensing Examinations, and the dataset encompasses 12,723 questions. We adhere to the original data divisions as outlined in [34].

Background Knowledge To facilitate common sense reasoning, we employ ConceptNet [62], an extensive commonsense knowledge graph comprising more than 8 million interconnected entities through 34 concise relationships. For tasks specific to the medical domain, we leverage USMLE [80] as our foundational knowledge source. USMLE is a biomedical knowledge graph that amalgamates the Disease Database segment of the Unified Medical Language System (UMLS) [4] and DrugBank [75]. This repository encompasses 9,958 nodes and 44,561 edges.

B.4 Implementation of Baselines

To verify the effectiveness of our proposed KnowGPT, we carefully selected baseline models from three aspects to ensure a comprehensive evaluation, among which Bert-base, Bert-large [35], and RoBert-large [49] are picked for being representative fine-tune LM methods; MHGRN [20], QA-GNN [80], HamQA [15], JointLK [64], GreaseLM [88] and GrapeQA [67] represent the state-of-art KG-enhanced LMs; ChatGLM [19], ChatGLM2 [81], Baichuan-7B, InternLM [68], GPT-3 [5],

GPT-3.5 [55] and GPT-4 [54] are picked for being representative generative large language models. To verify the effectiveness of our proposed prompting strategy used KnowGPT, we also add the state-of-the-art KG prompting methods, i.e., CoK [71], RoG [50], and Mindmap [74] as baselines. Notably, while some LLM baselines are actually open-source, we conduct the question-answering task under the zero-shot setting with the question query from the test set as input. All baseline methods used in this paper are based on their open-source implementations or officially-released APIs. Notably, we used the model 'text-davinci-002' provided by OpenAI as the implementation of GPT-3, and 'gpt-3.5-turbo' and 'gpt-4' as the implementations of GPT-3.5 and GPT-4, respectively. All models are implemented in Pytorch and trained on an RTX 3090 with 24 RAM. We use their best configuration as the default value for other distinctive hyperparameters in the baseline methods. To reduce the randomness, we use the random seed and report the average results of three runs.

C Supplementary Results

C.1 Compared to Fine-tune LLMs

To further verify the effectiveness of the knowledge injection framework, we also add several open-source trainable LLMs, i.e., ChatGLM, ChatGLM2, LLaMA-B, Baichuan-7B, InternLM and Vicuna-7B, and fine-tune them for commonsense reasoning on the benchmark CommonseQA. As shown in the Table 6, Our KnowGPT achieves comparable performance with no tuning on the LLM.

LLM	CommonsenseQA	OpenBookQA	MedQA	
ChatGLM	55.9%	54.2%	40.4%	
ChatGLM2	60.0%	55.6%	45.5%	
LLaMA-7B	65.0%	58.8%	46.9%	
Baichuan-7B	58.8%	56.1%	43.4%	
Alpaca-7B	68.7%	63.3%	47.1%	
Vicuna-7B	66.7%	64.0%	45.2%	
InternLM-7B	75.2%	70.7%	48.3%	
KnowGPT	81.8%	92.4%	78.1%	

Table 6: Fine-tuned LLMs on three benchmark datasets.

C.2 The effect of prompt format on different types of questions.

Generally, based on the complexity of the reasoning background, questions can be roughly categorized into three classes: (i) Simple question, like "What could be used as an electrical conductor?". (ii) Multi-hop reasoning question, like "Which school did Bill Gates' wife graduate from?" (iii) Global reasoning questions: "What do cats have in common with most mammals?"

Different types of questions correspond to different reasoning background. For example, simple questions only require basic factual triples, while multi-hop reasoning questions need a reasoning chain, and global reasoning questions require a more complex tree/graph-like reasoning background. To convert the extracted raw knowledge into textual prompt with corresponding logical reasoning structure, we designed three different prompt templates, including F_t , F_s and F_q .

To verify the effectiveness of prompt formats, we conducted a statistical analysis on the benchmark datasets in terms of question types and then separately calculated the accuracy of different prompt formats on specific types of questions. As shown in Table 7, we can observe that triple-based prompt performs best on simple questions while graph description-based prompt performs better than any other prompt formats on complex questions. This is because graph description-based prompt could provide LLMs with more detailed and structured information by highlighting the local structure of the central entity.

In this part, we conduct comprehensive experiments to investigate the effect of prompt format on different types of questions. Table 7 presents the accuracy of different prompt formats on three types of questions. We observe that graph description-based prompt performs significantly better than any other prompt formats on complex questions. It is because graph description-based prompt could

Table 7: Accuracy of different prompt formats on specific types of questions on CommonsenseQA.

Prompt Format	Simple	Multi-hop	Graph reasoning
\mathcal{F}_t	94.12%	74.47%	42.10%
\mathcal{F}_{s}	88.23%	82.98%	47.39%
\mathcal{F}_{g}	85.29%	70.21%	78.95%

provide LLMs with more detailed and structured information by highlighting the local structure of the central entity.

C.3 The Effect of two Knowledge Retrieval Methods

If the background knowledge graph is complete and high-quality, our proposed RL-based knowledge extraction can ideally handle all cases. But in pratical implementation, we found that there are a few long-tail entities in KGs which only have few neighbors. In such cases, RL-based knowledge extraction can hardly retrieve reachable or effective paths due to the incompletion and sparsity of the background graph. Instead, directly extracting the whole subgraph through rule-based subgraph extraction can provide more knowledge for reasoning. The RL-based retrieval method \mathcal{P}_{RL} could make sure our model extracts more concise and informative knowledge in most cases, while the rule-based subgraph extraction \mathcal{P}_{RL} could supplement the former especially when the reasoning background is sparse. Thus, in this paper, we adopt Multi-Armed Bandit (MAB) to automatically select the most suitable retrieval methods from these two candidates, i.e., \mathcal{P}_{RL} and \mathcal{P}_{sub} . The ablation study on the knowledge retrieval method can be found in Table 3 of the main content. Specifically, we compare our model with \mathcal{P}_{RL} , the heuristic sub-graph extraction \mathcal{P}_{sub} , and we also include 'w/o KG' as the baseline where the LLM is asked to independently answer the given question with no reasoning background provided. The results shown in Table 3 of our submission clearly indicate the vital role of our proposed knowledge extraction strategies.

C.4 Efficiency Analysis: API Cost and Model Efficiency

To investigate the efficiency of our model, we compare it on MedQA with six representative baselines from three different categories, including traditional KG-enhanced LMs, i.e., JointLK and GrapQA, zero-shot LLMs, i.e., ChatGPT and GPT-4, and the SOTA KG-prompting-based LLMs, i.e., CoK and Mindmap. Notably, zero-shot LLMs, like ChatGPT and GPT-4, do not require training while traditional KG-enhanced LM methods like JointLK and GrapQA are based on lightweight LMs and do not require interaction with LLMs, thus they do not incur API cost.

From Table 8, we can see that (i) Traditional KG-enhanced LM methods, like JointLK and GrapQA, have the shortest inference time. This is because the other models need to send requests to the Black-box LLM via API, and the extra response time of the LLM leads to long inference times for these models. Despite the efficiency, they have the worst performance. (ii) Our model outperforms the other models with comparable training time and the most economical API cost compared to models in the same category, including CoK and Mindmap. That is because we are the only model that consider the conciseness of knowledge during retrieval and prompt design.

	Table 8. AFT cost and model enclency analysis on MedQA.							
Model	Training time	Inference time	Avg tokens	Cost(\$)	Performance			
JointLK	4.02 h	0.13 h	-	-	40.3%			
GrapeQA	4.49 h	0.15 h	-	-	39.5%			
ChatGPT	-	0.24 h	98	1.87	48.7%			
GPT-4	-	0.21 h	98	29.77	76.3%			
CoK	5.85 h	0.44 h	1129	21.54	72.2%			
Mindmap	4.93 h	0.36 h	761	14.52	75.1%			
KnowGPT	5.47 h	0.33 h	348	6.64	78.1%			

Table 8: API cost and model efficiency analysis on MedOA

C.5 Stability Analysis

Due to page limits, we carefully described how we designed the reward function to ensure the RL model captures effective and informative knowledge in the main content of our submission. Actually, we have also employed the following techniques to stabilize the training process.

Gradient clipping for policy network. The policy network is updated using gradient-based optimization to maximize the expected cumulative reward. To stabilize the training of the policy network, we applied gradient clipping [21] to prevent the gradients from becoming too large. This technique helps mitigate the problem of exploding gradients and ensures stable updates of the network parameters. To demonstrate the effectiveness of gradient clipping, we conducted additional experiments comparing the performance of our model with and without gradient clipping across five runs. The results are presented in the table below. As shown in Table 9, the model with gradient clipping consistently achieves better performance across all datasets, demonstrating the stability and robustness of our method.

Exploration-exploitation balance for MAB. In our designed MAB, we have introduced a penalty term, i.e., β , to encourage exploration on under-explored arms (i.e., prompt formats), otherwise, it will lead to a greedy selection based on $c \times \alpha_{(i)}$. Table 10 shows the performance comparison between with and without this term.

Table 9: Stabilit	y study c	on gradient	clipping.
Model Variant	CSQA	OBQA	MedQA

Table 1	0:	Stability	analysis o	n penalty term.	
---------	----	-----------	------------	-----------------	--

del Variant	CSQA	OBQA	MedQA	Model Variant	CSQA	OBQA	MedQA
dient clipping adient clipping				w. penalty term w/o penalty term			

D Broader Impacts

w. grad w/o grad

We are dedicated to not only focusing on the specific NLP task, i.e., knowledge-based QA, but also inspiring and benefitting a wide range of NLP communities with a novel knowledge injection framework to fast adapt LLMs to specific domains. Specifically, we would like to declare the following two contributions for a wide range of NLP communities.

Exploring Effective Knowledge Injection for LLMs: Applying LLMs for various NLP-related tasks in different domains is gaining momentum. However, fine-tuning LLMs for domain knowledge-based QA is expensive. Our paper presents a remarkably strong framework that could (i) retrieve the reasoning background from domain knowledge graph and (ii) automatically find out the optimal prompt to inject the domain knowledge into the LLM.

Providing Insights in Prompt Learning: While hard prompt is still dominating prompt learning for the majority of LLM-based scenarios, we shed light on the whole community with a novel prompt learning method that is rather generalizable and effective. We propose an auto-selection algorithm that can determine the best prompt format for LLMs to maximally understand the reasoning background.

NeurIPS Paper Checklist

1. Claims

Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We have clearly made the main claims in both the abstract and introduction. Specifically, we have summarized and itemized the contributions at the end of the introduction section.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the abstract and introduction do not include the claims made in the paper.
- The abstract and/or introduction should clearly state the claims made, including the contributions made in the paper and important assumptions and limitations. A No or NA answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers.
- The claims made should match theoretical and experimental results, and reflect how much the results can be expected to generalize to other settings.
- It is fine to include aspirational goals as motivation as long as it is clear that these goals are not attained by the paper.

2. Limitations

Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: Please see page 9, Section 5 for the Discussion and Limitations section.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper has no limitation while the answer No means that the paper has limitations, but those are not discussed in the paper.
- The authors are encouraged to create a separate "Limitations" section in their paper.
- The paper should point out any strong assumptions and how robust the results are to violations of these assumptions (e.g., independence assumptions, noiseless settings, model well-specification, asymptotic approximations only holding locally). The authors should reflect on how these assumptions might be violated in practice and what the implications would be.
- The authors should reflect on the scope of the claims made, e.g., if the approach was only tested on a few datasets or with a few runs. In general, empirical results often depend on implicit assumptions, which should be articulated.
- The authors should reflect on the factors that influence the performance of the approach. For example, a facial recognition algorithm may perform poorly when image resolution is low or images are taken in low lighting. Or a speech-to-text system might not be used reliably to provide closed captions for online lectures because it fails to handle technical jargon.
- The authors should discuss the computational efficiency of the proposed algorithms and how they scale with dataset size.
- If applicable, the authors should discuss possible limitations of their approach to address problems of privacy and fairness.
- While the authors might fear that complete honesty about limitations might be used by reviewers as grounds for rejection, a worse outcome might be that reviewers discover limitations that aren't acknowledged in the paper. The authors should use their best judgment and recognize that individual actions in favor of transparency play an important role in developing norms that preserve the integrity of the community. Reviewers will be specifically instructed to not penalize honesty concerning limitations.

3. Theory Assumptions and Proofs

Question: For each theoretical result, does the paper provide the full set of assumptions and a complete (and correct) proof?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: The paper does not include theoretical results.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include theoretical results.
- All the theorems, formulas, and proofs in the paper should be numbered and cross-referenced.
- All assumptions should be clearly stated or referenced in the statement of any theorems.
- The proofs can either appear in the main paper or the supplemental material, but if they appear in the supplemental material, the authors are encouraged to provide a short proof sketch to provide intuition.
- Inversely, any informal proof provided in the core of the paper should be complemented by formal proofs provided in appendix or supplemental material.
- Theorems and Lemmas that the proof relies upon should be properly referenced.

4. Experimental Result Reproducibility

Question: Does the paper fully disclose all the information needed to reproduce the main experimental results of the paper to the extent that it affects the main claims and/or conclusions of the paper (regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not)?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We have provided the code for the framework, accessible via this anonymous URL: https://anonymous.4open.science/status/KnowGPT-DD64.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- If the paper includes experiments, a No answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers: Making the paper reproducible is important, regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not.
- If the contribution is a dataset and/or model, the authors should describe the steps taken to make their results reproducible or verifiable.
- Depending on the contribution, reproducibility can be accomplished in various ways. For example, if the contribution is a novel architecture, describing the architecture fully might suffice, or if the contribution is a specific model and empirical evaluation, it may be necessary to either make it possible for others to replicate the model with the same dataset, or provide access to the model. In general. releasing code and data is often one good way to accomplish this, but reproducibility can also be provided via detailed instructions for how to replicate the results, access to a hosted model (e.g., in the case of a large language model), releasing of a model checkpoint, or other means that are appropriate to the research performed.
- While NeurIPS does not require releasing code, the conference does require all submissions to provide some reasonable avenue for reproducibility, which may depend on the nature of the contribution. For example
 - (a) If the contribution is primarily a new algorithm, the paper should make it clear how to reproduce that algorithm.
- (b) If the contribution is primarily a new model architecture, the paper should describe the architecture clearly and fully.
- (c) If the contribution is a new model (e.g., a large language model), then there should either be a way to access this model for reproducing the results or a way to reproduce the model (e.g., with an open-source dataset or instructions for how to construct the dataset).
- (d) We recognize that reproducibility may be tricky in some cases, in which case authors are welcome to describe the particular way they provide for reproducibility. In the case of closed-source models, it may be that access to the model is limited in some way (e.g., to registered users), but it should be possible for other researchers to have some path to reproducing or verifying the results.
- 5. Open access to data and code

Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instructions to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental material?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: Code and datasets are accessible through this anonymous URL: https://anonymous.4open.science/status/KnowGPT-DD64. In this repository, we included detailed instructions for running the code in the readme.md file.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that paper does not include experiments requiring code.
- Please see the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (https://nips.cc/ public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy) for more details.
- While we encourage the release of code and data, we understand that this might not be possible, so "No" is an acceptable answer. Papers cannot be rejected simply for not including code, unless this is central to the contribution (e.g., for a new open-source benchmark).
- The instructions should contain the exact command and environment needed to run to reproduce the results. See the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (https://nips.cc/public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy) for more details.
- The authors should provide instructions on data access and preparation, including how to access the raw data, preprocessed data, intermediate data, and generated data, etc.
- The authors should provide scripts to reproduce all experimental results for the new proposed method and baselines. If only a subset of experiments are reproducible, they should state which ones are omitted from the script and why.
- At submission time, to preserve anonymity, the authors should release anonymized versions (if applicable).
- Providing as much information as possible in supplemental material (appended to the paper) is recommended, but including URLs to data and code is permitted.

6. Experimental Setting/Details

Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the results?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We present the experimental setting details at the beginning of the experiment section. We also provide the dataset statistics and the preprocessing details in the appendix.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The experimental setting should be presented in the core of the paper to a level of detail that is necessary to appreciate the results and make sense of them.
- The full details can be provided either with the code, in appendix, or as supplemental material.

7. Experiment Statistical Significance

Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: To control for the randomness introduced by the Large Language Models, we repeat each experiment three times and report the mean and standard deviation in tables.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The authors should answer "Yes" if the results are accompanied by error bars, confidence intervals, or statistical significance tests, at least for the experiments that support the main claims of the paper.

- The factors of variability that the error bars are capturing should be clearly stated (for example, train/test split, initialization, random drawing of some parameter, or overall run with given experimental conditions).
- The method for calculating the error bars should be explained (closed form formula, call to a library function, bootstrap, etc.)
- The assumptions made should be given (e.g., Normally distributed errors).
- It should be clear whether the error bar is the standard deviation or the standard error of the mean.
- It is OK to report 1-sigma error bars, but one should state it. The authors should preferably report a 2-sigma error bar than state that they have a 96% CI, if the hypothesis of Normality of errors is not verified.
- For asymmetric distributions, the authors should be careful not to show in tables or figures symmetric error bars that would yield results that are out of range (e.g. negative error rates).
- If error bars are reported in tables or plots, The authors should explain in the text how they were calculated and reference the corresponding figures or tables in the text.

8. Experiments Compute Resources

Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the computer resources (type of compute workers, memory, time of execution) needed to reproduce the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We have provided the computation resources required to reproduce our experiment in Appendix B.4.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The paper should indicate the type of compute workers CPU or GPU, internal cluster, or cloud provider, including relevant memory and storage.
- The paper should provide the amount of compute required for each of the individual experimental runs as well as estimate the total compute.
- The paper should disclose whether the full research project required more compute than the experiments reported in the paper (e.g., preliminary or failed experiments that didn't make it into the paper).

9. Code Of Ethics

Question: Does the research conducted in the paper conform, in every respect, with the NeurIPS Code of Ethics https://neurips.cc/public/EthicsGuidelines?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We checked and ensured that our paper conforms with the NeurIPS Code of Ethics in every respect.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the authors have not reviewed the NeurIPS Code of Ethics.
- If the authors answer No, they should explain the special circumstances that require a deviation from the Code of Ethics.
- The authors should make sure to preserve anonymity (e.g., if there is a special consideration due to laws or regulations in their jurisdiction).

10. Broader Impacts

Question: Does the paper discuss both potential positive societal impacts and negative societal impacts of the work performed?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: See Section D in Appendix.

Guidelines:

• The answer NA means that there is no societal impact of the work performed.

- If the authors answer NA or No, they should explain why their work has no societal impact or why the paper does not address societal impact.
- Examples of negative societal impacts include potential malicious or unintended uses (e.g., disinformation, generating fake profiles, surveillance), fairness considerations (e.g., deployment of technologies that could make decisions that unfairly impact specific groups), privacy considerations, and security considerations.
- The conference expects that many papers will be foundational research and not tied to particular applications, let alone deployments. However, if there is a direct path to any negative applications, the authors should point it out. For example, it is legitimate to point out that an improvement in the quality of generative models could be used to generate deepfakes for disinformation. On the other hand, it is not needed to point out that a generic algorithm for optimizing neural networks could enable people to train models that generate Deepfakes faster.
- The authors should consider possible harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended and functioning correctly, harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended but gives incorrect results, and harms following from (intentional or unintentional) misuse of the technology.
- If there are negative societal impacts, the authors could also discuss possible mitigation strategies (e.g., gated release of models, providing defenses in addition to attacks, mechanisms for monitoring misuse, mechanisms to monitor how a system learns from feedback over time, improving the efficiency and accessibility of ML).

11. Safeguards

Question: Does the paper describe safeguards that have been put in place for responsible release of data or models that have a high risk for misuse (e.g., pretrained language models, image generators, or scraped datasets)?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: This paper poses no such risks, as the work involves only querying the API of an LLM to get pseudo-labels, without releasing a generative model or datasets.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper poses no such risks.
- Released models that have a high risk for misuse or dual-use should be released with necessary safeguards to allow for controlled use of the model, for example by requiring that users adhere to usage guidelines or restrictions to access the model or implementing safety filters.
- Datasets that have been scraped from the Internet could pose safety risks. The authors should describe how they avoided releasing unsafe images.
- We recognize that providing effective safeguards is challenging, and many papers do not require this, but we encourage authors to take this into account and make a best faith effort.

12. Licenses for existing assets

Question: Are the creators or original owners of assets (e.g., code, data, models), used in the paper, properly credited and are the license and terms of use explicitly mentioned and properly respected?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We have cited the original papers of the datasets and EA models used in our experiments, ensuring proper credit and respect for their licenses and terms of use. For the open-source code and datasets, we have also stated the licenses they use in the readme.txt file in our code repository.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not use existing assets.
- The authors should cite the original paper that produced the code package or dataset.
- The authors should state which version of the asset is used and, if possible, include a URL.

- The name of the license (e.g., CC-BY 4.0) should be included for each asset.
- For scraped data from a particular source (e.g., website), the copyright and terms of service of that source should be provided.
- If assets are released, the license, copyright information, and terms of use in the package should be provided. For popular datasets, paperswithcode.com/datasets has curated licenses for some datasets. Their licensing guide can help determine the license of a dataset.
- For existing datasets that are re-packaged, both the original license and the license of the derived asset (if it has changed) should be provided.
- If this information is not available online, the authors are encouraged to reach out to the asset's creators.

13. New Assets

Question: Are new assets introduced in the paper well documented and is the documentation provided alongside the assets?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: Code of the proposed framework is released and accessible via this anonymouse URL: https://anonymous.4open.science/status/KnowGPT-DD64. It contains a readme.md file and a GPLv3 license.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not release new assets.
- Researchers should communicate the details of the dataset/code/model as part of their submissions via structured templates. This includes details about training, license, limitations, etc.
- The paper should discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose asset is used.
- At submission time, remember to anonymize your assets (if applicable). You can either create an anonymized URL or include an anonymized zip file.

14. Crowdsourcing and Research with Human Subjects

Question: For crowdsourcing experiments and research with human subjects, does the paper include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable, as well as details about compensation (if any)?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: The paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.
- Including this information in the supplemental material is fine, but if the main contribution of the paper involves human subjects, then as much detail as possible should be included in the main paper.
- According to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics, workers involved in data collection, curation, or other labor should be paid at least the minimum wage in the country of the data collector.

15. Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approvals or Equivalent for Research with Human Subjects

Question: Does the paper describe potential risks incurred by study participants, whether such risks were disclosed to the subjects, and whether Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals (or an equivalent approval/review based on the requirements of your country or institution) were obtained?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: The paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.
- Depending on the country in which research is conducted, IRB approval (or equivalent) may be required for any human subjects research. If you obtained IRB approval, you should clearly state this in the paper.
- We recognize that the procedures for this may vary significantly between institutions and locations, and we expect authors to adhere to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics and the guidelines for their institution.
- For initial submissions, do not include any information that would break anonymity (if applicable), such as the institution conducting the review.