Semantic Contribution-Aware Adaptive Retrieval for Black-Box Models

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) plays a critical role in mitigating hallucinations and improving factual accuracy for Large Language Models (LLMs). While dynamic retrieval techniques aim to determine retrieval timing and content based on model intrinsic needs, existing approaches struggle to generalize effectively in black-box model scenarios. To address this limitation, we propose the Semantic Contribution-Aware Adaptive Retrieval (SCAAR) framework. SCAAR iteratively leverages the semantic importance of words in upcoming sentences to dynamically adjust retrieval thresholds and filter information, retaining the top-P% most semantically significant words for constructing retrieval queries. We comprehensively evaluate SCAAR against baseline methods across four long-form, knowledge-intensive generation datasets using three different models. Extensive experiments also analyze the impact of various hyperparameters within the framework. Our results demonstrate SCAAR's superior or competitive performance across all tasks, showcasing its ability to effectively detect model retrieval needs and construct efficient retrieval queries that help models find relevant knowledge for problem-solving in black-box scenarios. Code is released in our Github repository.

1 Introduction

003

014

017

034

042

Large Language Models (LLMs) demonstrate impressive capabilities in various natural language processing tasks such as question-answering (QA), abstractive summarization, and machine translation (Zhao et al., 2023). The emergence of prompt tuning and in-context learning (Brown et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2022; Chan et al., 2022) facilitates LLMs to generate convincing and human-like responses. This feature enables LLMs to be increasingly integrated into AI-powered intelligent assistants to support human reasoning and decision-making processes in everyday contexts (OpenAI,

2022; Achiam et al., 2023). However, when confronting time-dependent and complex reasoning tasks, LLMs inevitably demonstrate reasoning inconsistencies and factual inaccuracies during response generation, which is referred to as the hallucination of LLMs (Huang et al., 2023).

043

045

047

049

051

054

055

057

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

070

071

072

073

074

075

077

079

Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) (Guu et al., 2020; Lewis et al., 2020) effectively alleviates the hallucination issue by dynamically incorporating relevant knowledge into the context during the reasoning process, thereby enhancing the model's reasoning ability (Ram et al., 2023). The conventional RAG framework implements a single retrieval operation upon receiving a question and leverages the retrieved knowledge to assist the response generation (Izacard et al., 2022; Luo et al., 2023). While this approach demonstrates efficacy in simple QA tasks, it shows limited performance in long-form generation and tasks requiring multi-step reasoning. This limitation stems from single-step retrieval, which only retrieves knowledge relevant to the initial question, neglecting the potential need for knowledge during the iterative generation process.

Recent work focuses on the problem of when and what to retrieve during the generation process of LLMs. Self-RAG (Asai et al., 2023) learns to output a special control token indicating the need for retrieval during training, IRCoT (Trivedi et al., 2022) triggers retrieval at the end of each sentence, and Toolformer (Schick et al., 2023) triggers retrieval when seeing named entities. Meanwhile, adaptive retrieval, a more flexible methodology for retrieval determination and query construction, has received increasing attention. The advantage of the adaptive retrieval lies in its ability to decide whether to trigger retrieval and determine the query for retrieval in accordance with the generation status of the model. This ability facilitates the RAG framework to avoid unnecessary retrieval overhead and reduce the interference caused by wrong retrievals, thus improving the quality of the query and the retrieved content. Recent work has ex-

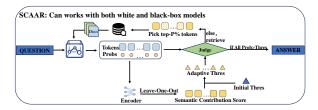


Figure 1: An illustration of our SCAAR framework via baseline.

plored different implementations of adaptive retrieval. FLARE (Jiang et al., 2023) uses the probability of the generated tokens to determine whether to retrieve and uses the model's current generation as the query, treating low-confidence tokens as hallucinations. DRAGIN (Su et al., 2024) proposes an attention-based dynamic retrieval determination criterion assigns different significance values to content words and stopwords when building the query for retrieval. SeaKR (Yao et al., 2024) proposes a retrieval determination criterion based on self-aware uncertainty. These methods effectively enhance RAG, but they rely on models' hidden states and can't work with black-box models. So we focus on threshold adaptive weighting schemes that work in black-box scenarios and retrieval problem construction schemes based on these weights.

090

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

In this work, we propose Semantic Contribution-Aware Adaptive Retrieval (SCAAR) as shown in Figure 1, which adopts an encoder model to compute the semantic contribution value of each token. The semantic contribution values are then leveraged to dynamically adjust the retrieval threshold and filter low-importance words in the query for retrieval. We perform RAG on four knowledgeintensive datasets using SCAAR against whitebox adaptive retrieval approaches, and static retrieval approaches. Experimental results show that SCAAR achieves comparable performance with white-box adaptive retrieval approaches, which indicates that SCAAR can effectively capture the value of each token and determine "when to retrieve" in black-box settings. On the other hand, the contribution-based query construction in SCAAR outperforms existing approaches, indicating that SCAAR can better determine "what to retrieve".

Our work makes following main contributions:

 We present SCAAR, a semantic contributionbased adaptive retrieval framework for blackbox models, which combines dynamic retrieval and adaptive query construction to accurately capture the model's intent under black-box settings. 126

127

128

129

131

132

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

170

171

172

173

174

 We empirically demonstrate that the SCAAR framework achieves state-of-the-art performance on four knowledge-intensive datasets compared to baselines.

2 Related Work

2.1 Adaptive Retrieval

Conventional RAG frameworks generally determine to perform retrieval at a fixed time or based on simple rules, for example, every question (Khandelwal et al., 2019), every N tokens (Borgeaud et al., 2022; Ram et al., 2023) or every N sentences (Shi et al., 2023). Such mechanisms not only introduces additional overhead, but also frequently fail to match the knowledge need of models, and even weakens final performance with unnecessary retrieved contents (Mallen et al., 2022).

Adaptive retrieval determines whether to retrieve by dynamically sensing the potential quality issues in the model generation process. Existing adaptive retrieval approaches can be based on question difficulty assessment (Mallen et al., 2022; Li et al., 2023; Asai et al., 2023), uncertainty qualification (Su et al., 2024; Yao et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2023), and retrieval result postprocessing (Wang et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2023; Yao et al., 2024), among which the approaches based on uncertainty qualification are most relevant to our work.

FLARE (Jiang et al., 2023) is the fundamental work that effectively applies uncertainty qualification to RAG. If the confidence of any token is lower than the preset threshold, FLARE triggers retrieval and uses the remaining tokens with confidence above the threshold to compose a query for retrieval. FLARE effectively explores the model generation intention and requirement, but lacks flexibility due to the fixed threshold.

DRAGIN (Su et al., 2024) dynamically sets a threshold for each token based on its attention score, where tokens with higher attention scores are regarded as more significant so they are assigned higher thresholds. However, this approach cannot be generalized to black-box models.

Our mechanism aligns conceptually with DRA-GIN in its objective to assign dynamic thresholds to different tokens by incorporating a lightweight language model to quantify token semantic significance as weighting factors of thresholds, introducing minimal computational overhead but enhancing performance metrics in black-box scenarios.

2.2 Retrieval for Black-Box Models

175

176

178

179

180

181

182

183

185

187 188

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

199

200

207

208

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

222

223

Adaptive retrieval works generally focus on whitebox models since the LLMs' internal states are considered to be significant in hallucination detection (Chen et al., 2024). However, some powerful models such as GPT-4 do not provide any information of the internal states, posing a challenge to perform RAG based on these models. Existing black-box approaches focus on the consistency between multiple responses for the question to assist retrieval determination. The more consistent answers are, the more likely the model is to know the correct answer. Otherwise, the model tend to give hallucinated responses with high semantic diversity. Fomicheva et al. (Fomicheva et al., 2020) employs Meteor score to quantify the consistency of multiple responses. Lin et al. (Lin et al., 2023) propose to use semantic sets and graph Laplacian eigenvalues to estimate the uncertainty and confidence from the Jaccard similarities over multiple generations. Manakul et al. (Manakul et al., 2023) considers the similarities adopted in the above two approaches. Farquhar et al. (Farquhar et al., 2024) constructs different queries for the specific idea generated by the LLM and determine the factuality of the idea by the consistency of the final results over different queries. These approaches facilitate hallucination detection in black-box models and achieves effective performances, but still introduces much computational complexity due to the need for a large amount of extra generations.

3 Methodology

3.1 Formulation of Adaptive Retrieval

Given a language model M and a user question \mathbf{q} , the generated response of the language model can be denoted as $\mathbf{y} = M(\mathbf{q})$. Here, the response \mathbf{y} can be regarded as a sequence of sentences, i.e., $\mathbf{y} = [\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{s}_n]$, where each sentence \mathbf{s}_i can be regarded as a sequence of words, i.e., $\mathbf{s}_i = [w_{i,1}, w_{i,2}, \cdots, w_{i,m}]$.

A knowledge base in an RAG framework can be denoted as a set of general Wikipedia or customized documents $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{d}_i\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{D}|}$, where \mathbf{d}_i is a single document. The RAG framework is able to retrieve the k documents most relevant to the user question \mathbf{q} from the knowledge base \mathcal{D} . The set of

the retrieved k documents is referred to as the context knowledge, denoted as $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{c}_k\}$, where $\mathbf{c}_i \in \mathcal{D}$. The context knowledge \mathcal{C} , along with the original user question \mathbf{q} , is then input to the language model M to perform augmented generation, which is denoted as $\mathbf{y}' = M(\mathcal{C}, \mathbf{q})$. Generally, the generation quality of \mathbf{y}' is obviously better than \mathbf{y} if given relative retrieved context knowledge.

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

In contrast to conventional RAG solutions, adaptive retrieval approaches perform retrieval determination and query construction based on the information generated by the model itself. Retrieval determination is the problem of determining when to and when not to retrieve during the generation process. Given a question, at timestep t of the response generation process, the model is regarded as having insufficient knowledge to answer the question if it is not confident in its current generaiton. One of the simplest way to determine whether the model is confident is to compare the probability of the currently generated token y_t with a threshold θ . If $y_t < \theta$, the RAG framework will determine to trigger retrieval at timestep t to supplement the model's insufficient knowledge. Query construction is the problem of determining what to retrieve when the retrieval is triggered, i.e., a query \mathbf{q}_r should be constructed to retrieve the most relevant knowledge from the knowledge base. The query is generally constructed based on the original question q and the already generated response $\mathbf{y}_{< t} = [y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_{t-1}]$ through a query construction function qry, denoted as $\mathbf{q}_r = \text{qry}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}_{< t})$.

3.2 Semantic Contribution-Aware Retrieval Determination

We propose a novel semantic contribution-aware retrieval determination method to address the problem "when to retrieve" in an RAG framework. The retrieval determination consists of 3 steps: (1) compute the word contribution, (2) scale the original threshold based on the computed contribution, (3) compare the word probability with the threshold to determine whether to retrieve.

Word Contribution Inspired by SAR (Duan et al., 2024), we compute the contribution of a specific word using the leave-one-out method, which involves comparing the semantic change before and after removing the word. Unlike the conventional SAR method, we consider word-level instead of token-level contributions. Specifically, given a question \mathbf{q} and a specific sentence \mathbf{s}_t from response

 \mathbf{y} , we first remove word $w_{t,i}$ from \mathbf{s}_t , obtaining a corrupted response sentence $\mathbf{s}_t \backslash w_{t,i}$. Then, we compute the similarity between the complete context $[\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t]$ and the corrupted context $[\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t \backslash w_{t,i}]$ through an external cross-encoder model $f_{x-\text{enc}}$ (e.g., RoBERTa (Liu, 2019)), as shown in Eq. 1:

274

275

277

279

281

282

284

287

290

297

300

301

303

307

308

310

311 312

313

314

316

$$r(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t) = f_{\text{x-enc}}([\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t], [\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t \backslash w_i]).$$
 (1)

The similarity denoted by $r(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)$ is regarded as the semantic contribution of word $w_{t,i}$

Threshold Scaling. The contribution $r(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)$ is a similarity value, which falls between 0 and 1 and cannot be used to scale up the threshold. Therefore, we normalize the contribution value along sentence \mathbf{s}_t , as shown in Eq. 2, where a value lower or greater than 1 indicates that the contribution of the word is under or above average. Then, we scale the threshold for the specific word by the exponential of the contribution value, as shown in Eq. 3, where $\theta(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)$ denotes the original threshold (generally a constant value) of $w_{t,i}$.

$$r'(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t) = \frac{|\mathbf{s}_t| \cdot r(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)}{\sum_{w_{t,k} \in \mathbf{s}_t} r(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)} \quad (2)$$

$$\theta_{\text{scaar}}(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t) = e^{r(w_{t,i})} \cdot \theta(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)$$
 (3)

Retrieval Determination. During generation, the probability of a word is computed as the product of the probabilities of all its tokens in Eq. 4:

$$P(w_{t,i}|\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{w}_{t,< i}) = \prod_{k=m}^{n} P(w_{t,k}|\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{w}_{t,< k}), \quad (4)$$

where m,n are beginning and end of a word, \mathbf{Q} is composed of $\mathbf{C},\mathbf{s}_{< t} = [s_1,s_2,\cdots,s_{t-1}]$ and $\mathbf{w}_{t,< i} = [w_{t,1},w_{t,2},\cdots,w_{t,i-1}]$ denote previously generated content. However, this computation results in lower probability values for words with more tokens. Therefore, we perform length normalization as shown in Eq. 5:

$$P'(w_{t,i}|\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{w}_{t,< i}) = P(w_{t,i}|\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{w}_{t,< i})^{\frac{1}{|w_{t,i}|}}, \quad (5)$$

Then, the normalized word probability is compared with the scaled word threshold. If the normalized probability of any word $w_{t,i}$ in the response sentence \mathbf{s}_t is lower than the corresponding scaled threshold $\theta_{\text{scaar}}(w_{t,i};\mathbf{q},\mathbf{s}_t)$, then the response sentence \mathbf{s}_t should trigger retrieval.

By introducing an external cross-encoder model for word contribution computation, our retrieval determination approach can be generalized to blackbox LLMs. The additional overhead introduced by the cross-encoder model is slight since it is generally a lightweight model compared to the LLM.

317

318

319

323

324

325

326

327

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

353

3.3 Semantic Contribution-Aware Query Construction

To address the problem "what to retrieve", we propose a novel query construction approach based on the computed word contribution through α percentile filtering policy. Given the question q, during the generation process, if some word in response sentence s_t triggers retrieval according to our thresholding method, then we say s_t is a hallucination sentence. Given the hallucination sentence $\mathbf{s}_t = [w_{t,1}, w_{t,2}, \cdots, w_{t,n}]$, we sort the words in the sentence by their semantic contribution from large to small and only keep the words with top $\alpha\%$ contribution values (i.e., words whose contribution values are greater than the α -th percentile). The remaining words after α -percentile filtering may still contain hallucination words, i.e., words whose contribution values are below their specific thresholds. Therefore, we further remove the hallucination words and concatenate the question q with the remaining words to obtain the final query \mathbf{q}_r . The complete algorithm of semantic contribution-aware query construction is shown in Algorithm 1 As indicated by the input and the output of the algorithm, we denote the query as a function of the question and the response sentence, i.e., $\mathbf{q}_r = \operatorname{qry}_{\operatorname{scaar}}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s_t})$.

Algorithm 1: Query construction

```
Data: Question \mathbf{q}, hallucination response sentence \mathbf{s}_t
Input: Percentage to keep \alpha
Result: a constructed query \mathbf{q}_r

1 Sort \mathbf{s}_t as \mathbf{s}_t' descendingly of word contributions;

2 Let r_\alpha be the \alpha-percentile of contributions in \mathbf{s}_t';

3 Initialize the query as the question: \mathbf{q}_r \leftarrow \mathbf{q};

4 for w_{t,i} \in \mathbf{s}_t' do

5 r_{t,i} \leftarrow r'(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t);

6 \theta_{t,i} \leftarrow \theta_{\text{scaar}}(w_{t,i}; \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t);

7 \mathbf{if} r_{t,i} > \theta_{t,i} \ and \ r_{t,i} > r_\alpha \ then

8 \mathbf{q}_r \leftarrow \text{concat}(\mathbf{q}_r, w_{t,i});

9 \mathbf{end}

10 end

11 return \mathbf{q}_r
```

The α -percentile filtering policy provides a relative criterion to remove low-semantic-contributory words that may interfere with qualities of retrieval results. Intuitively, when confronted with unevenly distributed word semantics, the criterion based on α -percentile can better control the query length

and quality compared to absolute filtering criteria. Like retrieval determination, the remaining high-semantic-contributory words are determined as hallucinated or not by comparing their generation probabilities with their adaptive thresholds, where higher-contributory words are assigned with higher thresholds, as shown in Eq. 3. This effectively addresses cases where the semantic contribution distribution of the remains has a large variance.

3.4 Generation Refinement

354

355

356

364

367

374

379

384

387

388

390

394

396

397

400

The SCAAR framework adopts a refinement idea of generating refinement with retrieved knowledge, similar to most RAG frameworks. Given the response sentence s_t generated by the model M at the sentence-level timestep t, we perform retrieval determination based on the original question q and s_t to determine whether s_t triggers retrieval.

If s_t does not trigger retrieval, we directly use it as the output of timestep t. If s_t triggers retrieval, we first perform query construction given question q and response sentence s_t to obtain the query $qry_{scaar}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)$. Then, we use the query to retrieve the context knowledge C_t from knowledge base \mathcal{D} , denoted by Eq. 6. Finally, we perform generation refinement through model M to generate a better response sentence s'_t based on the context knowledge C_t , the original question q, and the outputs of previous timesteps $\mathbf{s}'_{< t}$, denoted by Eq. 7. Note that we use the knowledge C_t retrieved at the current timestep t instead of all historical knowledges $\mathcal{C}_1, \cdots, \mathcal{C}_t$. The refined response sentence \mathbf{s}'_t will replace the hallucination sentence s_t as the new output of timestep t.

$$C_t \sim \mathcal{D}|_{\text{query}=\text{qry}_{\text{scaar}}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_t)}$$
 (6)

$$\mathbf{s}_t' = M(\mathcal{C}_t, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}_{\leq t}') \tag{7}$$

4 Experiment

In this section, we first demonstrated and compared the performance of the SCAAR method with other baselines on the evaluation data, and then analyzed the effectiveness of different components in SCAAR through ablation studies.

4.1 Experiment Setup

Baselines. We compared SCAAR with methods including non-retrieval method, fix-sentence RAG (FS-RAG) (Trivedi et al., 2022), which retrieves every sentence, alongside the adaptive retrieval methods FLARE (Jiang et al., 2023) and DRAGIN (Su

et al., 2024). The original FLARE perform retrieval determination based on token-level probabilities. We adapted it to word-level by computing a geometric mean probability of all tokens in a word, in line with other methods. Results of more methods and different granularities are in Appendix C.

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

Datasets. We tested on four open-source datasets: 2WikiMultiHopQA (Ho et al., 2020), HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018), IIRC (Ferguson et al., 2020), and StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021).

Evaluation Metrics. We randomly selected 300 samples from each dataset for evaluation. We incorporated Chain-of-Thought (Wei et al., 2022) and few-shot prompting (Brown et al., 2020) into the prompt to guide the model's reasoning process and generate correct answers for evaluation. The prompt we used is shown in Appendix A. For StrategyQA, we evaluated the exact match (EM) score since the answer is in "yes/no" format. For the other three datasets, we adopted both EM and F1 scores as evaluation metrics since the answers are phrases. Moreover, to evaluate the retrieval efficiency, we measured the average improvement brought by each retrieval. Given the average number of retrievals N_R and the improvement in F1 or EM score ΔS compared to the non-RAG baseline, the retrieval efficiency is computed as $S_{\rm eff} = \Delta S/N_R$. For StrategyQA, we evaluated the efficiency in EM score improvement. For other three datasets, we evaluated the efficiency in F1 score improvement.

Models. We utilized the instruct version of open-source Llama-2-7B, Llama-2-13B (Touvron et al., 2023), and Llama-3.1-8B (Dubey et al., 2024) for white-box evaluation. For SCAAR, these models were encapsulated into an API designed to simulate a black-box scenario.

Knowledge Base and Retriever. We used Wikipedia (Karpukhin et al., 2020) as the external knowledge base, splitting the text into blocks of length 100 for retrieval. Each retrieval returns]ed the top 3 documents most relevant to the question, using BM25 (Robertson et al., 2009).

For more details, refer to the Appendix A.

4.2 Overall Result Analysis

We compared SCAAR with baselines on evaluation data, as shown in Table 1, we found that: (1)FS-RAG notably underperforms adaptive retrieval methods (FLARE, DRAIN, SCAAR) and in some experiments even underperform the non-retrieval approach (w/o RAG). This is because

Table 1: Overall results of SCAAR and baselines on four datasets.

	2Wi	kiMulti	HopQ	Α		Hotpot	QA			IIRO	7		Stra	tegyQ	A
	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	Fĺ	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	N_R	
Llama-2-13B															
w/o RAG	0.1658	0.2779	-	-	0.1623	0.2736	-	-	0.1111	0.1454	-	-	0.6710	-	-
FS-RAG	0.3389	0.4701	3.48	5.52			2.73	3.62	0.2291	0.2813	4.03	3.38		4.22	-0.10
FLARE	0.3910	0.4912	2.71			0.4339	3.80			0.3078	3.98	4.08			0.07
DRAGIN	0.3400	0.4637		7.01	0.3415		3.16		0.2385	0.2806	3.75		0.7069		0.78
SCAAR (Ours)	0.3918	0.4973	3.14	6.99	0.3333	0.4369	3.39	4.81	0.2490	0.3091	4.20	3.90	0.7090	5.56	0.68
Llama-2-7B															
w/o RAG	0.2367	0.3099	-	-	0.2033	0.3158	-	-	0.1367	0.1665	-	-	0.6455	-	-
FS-RAG	0.2214	0.3106	2.48	0.03	0.1979	0.3014	1.74	-0.83	0.1483	0.1937	1.85	1.47	0.5933	3.49	-1.49
FLARE	0.2644	0.3509	2.31	1.78	0.2510	0.3628	2.34	2.01	0.2000	0.2358	1.82	3.81	0.6651	4.50	0.44
DRAGIN	0.2761	0.3751	2.86	2.28	0.2258	0.3310	1.69	0.90	0.1937	0.2431	1.95	3.92			1.26
SCAAR (Ours)	0.2778	0.3677	2.36	2.45	0.2680	0.3762	1.69	3.57	0.1964	0.2361	1.92	3.63	0.6944	3.78	1.29
Llama-3-8B															
w/o RAG	0.3211	0.3907	-	-	0.2238	0.3354	-	-	0.2089	0.2500	-	-	0.7615	-	-
FS-RAG	0.4034	0.4950	4.05	2.57	0.3581	0.4661	3.25	4.02	0.2734	0.3223	3.92	1.84	0.7912	4.86	0.61
FLARE	0.5000	0.5812	3.09	6.16	0.4181	0.5347	3.27	6.10	0.2929	0.3496	3.27	3.05	0.7963	4.44	0.78
DRAGIN	0.3605	0.4236	0.77	4.28			1.07	3.81	0.1886	0.2120	1.58	-2.40	0.8048	1.38	3.14
SCAAR (Ours)	0.5246	0.6026	2.70	7.84	0.4460	0.5570	3.40	6.52	0.3203	0.3694	3.31	3.60	0.7799	4.35	0.42

when these methods retrieve content that is similar to but irrelevant to the question, even if the model could inherently derive the correct answer, its overreliance on context leads it to use this incorrect information in its reasoning and response. (2)DRA-GIN failed to surpass FS-RAG with Llama-3.1-8B. We contributed it to the fact that model assigns higher probabilities to tokens, leading to fewer triggered retrievals compared to other models. This reduction in retrieval frequency results in degraded performance. (3)The adaptive retrieval methods demonstrated significantly higher performance and retrieval efficiency compared to static methods, indicating that the adaptive retrieval determination based on model confidence works effectively. (4)Our SCAAR approach outperforms FLARE and DRAGIN in most cases without accessing models' internal states. It proves that our retrieval determiniation and query construction approach based on semantic contribution, effectively perceive the model's behavioral intentions and knowledge gaps, resulting in relevant retrievals.

452

453

454

455

456

457 458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

473

474

475

476

477

478

479 480

481

482

483

484

We further analyze the effectiveness of each pipeline in subsequent ablation studies.

4.3 Initial Threshold Ablation

As shown in Equation 3, the variation of the initial threshold will alter the dynamic threshold, thereby affecting the final performance. Existing work only reports results under the best initial threshold of corresponding approaches, ignoring comparison of all approaches under a same initial threshold. We evaluate the performance of FLARE, DRAGIN, and SCAAR at initial threshold of 0.9, 0.8, and

0.7, respectively. We believe that an excessively low initial threshold has little practical significance. As shown in Figure 2a and 2b the difference in initial threshold results in different generation performance (F1 score) and retrieval efficiency ($S_{\rm eff}$), and SCAAR consistently outperforms FLARE and DRAGIN in both generation performance and retrieval efficiency under all threshold configurations.

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

4.4 Adpative Weight and Query Formulation

Two key components in SCAAR are the semanticcontribution-weighting (SCW) method, which determines the thresholds for each words, and the Quantile-Filtered Query (QFQ) formulation method, which works to construct queries for retrieval. To demonstrate the effectiveness of the former, we replace it with ORIGIN and ATTN, where ORIGIN means assigning a weight of "1" to all words and ATTN means computing weights of words based on attention scores. As for the latter, we replace it with Curr-Sent and Real-Words, where Curr-Sent means directly using the highconfidence words in current sentence as the query and Real-Words means using the real words (i.e., content words). We evaluate these two pipelines on the aforementioned four datasets using the Llama-2-7B model. As shown in Table 2, Under various weighting methods, our QFQ achieves the best performance compared to Curr-Sent and Real-Words in most cases. However, we cannot infer which combination of adaptive weighting method and query formulation method achieves best performance (i.e., having the most underlined scores) from Table 2, since 4 out of 9 combinations achieve

Table 2: Experiments on Llama-2-7B with different adaptive weighting and query formulation methods. The bold values indicates the best query formulation method under the same weighting method, and the underlined values indicates the best combination of weighting method and query formulation methods.

Weighting	Query	2WikiMultiF EM F1		$S_{ m eff}$	EM	otpotQA F1	S _{eff} EM	IIRC F1	$S_{ m eff} \mid {f Strateg} \ { m EM}$	S_{eff}
ORIGIN ORIGIN ORIGIN	Curr-Sent Real-Words QFQ (Ours)	0.2644 0.2534 0.2838	0.3509 0.3434 0.3707	1.78 1.44 2.48	$\begin{array}{ c c } 0.2510 \\ $	0.3628 0.3693 0.3544	2.01 0.2000 2.93 0.1952 1.73 0.2218	0.2432	3.81 0.6651 3.08 0.6632 4.35 0.6986	0.44 0.43 1.22
ATTN	Curr-Sent	0.2795	0.3675	2.02	0.2198	0.3357	1.19 0.1918		3.26 0.6429	-0.07
ATTN	Real-Words	0.2761	0.3751	2.28	0.2258	0.3310	0.90 0.1937		3.92 0.6118	-0.93
ATTN	QFQ (Ours)	0.3014	0.3787	2.41	0.2313	0.3471	1.86 0.2082		4.48 0.6485	0.08
SCW (Ours)	Curr-Sent	0.2664	0.3562	1.93	0.2556	0.3505	2.05 0.1906	0.2239	3.11 0.6844	0.96
SCW (Ours)	Real-Words	0.2525	0.3425	1.58	0.2609	0.3532	2.09 0.1713		2.57 0.6655	0.41
SCW (Ours)	QFQ (Ours)	0.2778	0.3677	2.45	0.2680	0.3762	3.57 0.196 4		3.63 0.6944	1.29

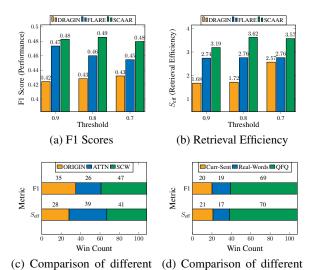


Figure 2: Comparison under same initial thresholds and Win count of adaptive weighting methods and query formulation methods.

query formulation methods.

the best performance on at least one task.

adaptive weighting methods.

518

519

525

527

529

531

534

We further combine the two pipelines in pairs and perform detailed experiments over all 3 models and 3 different thresholds (0.9, 0.8, 0.7) on 4 datasets for each combination. We count the number of times each weighting method achieves the best performance and efficiency given the specific query formulation method and report the results in Figure 2c, where SCW achieves the highest win count in F1 and $S_{\rm eff}$ scores. Similarly, results of query formulations given a specific weighting method in Figure 2d show QFQ achieves the highest win count in F1 and $S_{\rm eff}$ scores.

To more intuitively analyze the difference between ATTN and SCW, we visualize the word significance computed by the two methods. Given a specific question, the first sentence of the response

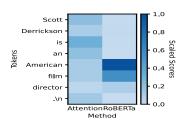


Figure 3: Visualization of word significance for answer of "Were Scott Derrickson and Ed Wood of the same nationality?" in ATTN and SCW.

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

552

553

554

555

556

558

559

560

is "Scott Derrickson is an American film director." with 7 words. Figure 3 demonstrates the significance score of each word computed by ATTN and SCW, where SCW effectively captures "American" and "film", the two words that contributes most to the semantics of the sentence. These two words are indeed potential hallucinations since they describe some factual and knowledgeable content, therefore need to be assigned with a stricter threshold.

4.5 Percentile Ablation

In QFQ, we keep words with top $\alpha\%$ contribution values. To clarify the influence of α , we perform ablation experiment on Llama-2-7B model with different α values and same weighting methods. Results in Figure 4 shows that for each dataset, at least three α values outperform the Curr-Sent approach. This improvement is particularly pronounced in IIRC and HotpotQA, where the percentile filtering approach consistently outperforms baselines. However, for 2WikiMultiHopQA and StrategyQA, the improvements are predominantly observed at higher α values. We attribute this to the inherent characteristics of IIRC and HotpotQA: they emphasize the model's accuracy in entity analysis, where semantically significant terms tend to rank higher in importance. Consequently, even with small α

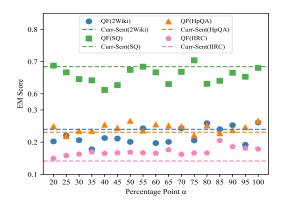


Figure 4: EM scores under different filtering percentage.

values, the filter effectively eliminates extraneous information from current generations while maintaining focus on entity analysis. In contrast, the other two prioritize logical reasoning that incorporates both entity-related information and world knowledge. In these cases, the terms carry substantial significance, and excessive filtering may lead to bias in retrieval objectives. These observations align with previous analysis in the QFQ section.

4.6 Impact of Num of Documents

562

565

566

567

568

570

573

574

575

577

580

583

584

To compare performance as the number of documents changes, we vary the number of documents from 2 to 5 (performance remains largely stable when the number of documents exceeds 5). The results of Llama-2-7B on the 2WikimultihopQA are presented in Table 3. The best performance is achieved when the number of documents is set to 3. Across all experiments, the dynamic threshold scheme, DRAGIN and SCAAR outperform FLARE, thereby demonstrating the effectiveness of our approach. However, no clear trend is observed between the number of documents and performance on this dataset. Additional experimental results are provided in the Appendix E.

Table 3: Performance of Llama-2-7B-chat on 2Wiki-multihopQA.

method	doc_num	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$
	2	0.2391	0.3280	2.33	0.78
FLARE	3	0.2644	0.3509	2.30	1.78
FLAKE	4	0.2383	0.3166	1.55	0.43
	4 5	0.2375	0.3326	1.64	1.38
	2	0.2742	0.3657	2.40	2.33
DRAGIN	3	0.2761	0.3751	2.85	2.28
DIAGIN	4	0.2341	0.3387	1.77	1.63
	5	0.2609	0.3505	1.55	2.61
	2	0.2755	0.3627	2.49	2.12
SCAAD	$\bar{3}$	0.2778	0.3677	2.36	2.45
SCAAR		0.2508	0.3239	1.54	0.91
	4 5	0.2752	0.3626	1.46	3.75

Table 4: Performance on Llama2-7B-chat over four datasets with DPR.

dataset	method	EM	F1	$S_{ m eff}$
2WikiQA	FLARE	0.2475	0.3105	0.03
	DRAGIN	0.2575	0.3336	0.98
	SCAAR	0.2450	0.3189	0.45
HotpotQA	FLARE	0.2068	0.2695	-2.94
	DRAGIN	0.1773	0.2678	-3.15
	SCAAR	0.2162	0.3245	0.56
IIRC	FLARE	0.1204	0.1373	-1.36
	DRAGIN	0.1313	0.1663	-0.01
	SCAAR	0.1370	0.1689	0.13
StrategyQA	FLARE	0.6469	0.6469	0.03
	DRAGIN	0.6566	0.6566	0.31
	SCAAR	0.6763	0.6763	0.65

585

586

588

589

591

592

594

596

597

598

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

4.7 Impact of Retriever

There are two types retrieval: lexical matching and dense retrieval. We also employ the DPR model (Karpukhin et al., 2020) as dense retriever and conduct tests on the Llama2-7B-chat model, comparing the performance enhancements and retrieval efficiencies. For more detail about the retriever, please refer to Appendix D. Results as shown in Table 4, indicate that the SCAAR scheme outperform the FLARE scheme across all four datasets and, except for the 2Wikimultihop dataset, also surpass the DRAGIN scheme demonstrating that our scheme can consistently deliver effective results with the DPR model. We observe that the performance of the three dynamic retrieval schemes was significantly lower than that of the BM25-based retriever and the baseline methods even underperform the non-retrieval method on the hotpotga and iirc datasets. A similar phenomenon was noted in DRAGIN's experiments with SGPT. We hypothesize that the short length of up-coming sentences resulting in encoding vectors that do not accurately represent the semantics.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose an adaptive RAG framework tailored incorporating a dynamic weight adjustment mechanism based on semantic contribution and a percentile-filtered query construction method for black-box scenarios. Extensive experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of our framework. Furthermore, ablation study results show the contributions of individual pipeline components to the enhanced performance.

6 Limitations

We acknowledge that there remains significant room for enhancement on the following directions: Enhancing Semantic Weight Representativeness: domain-specific fine-tuning of the encoder during application may strengthen the representativeness of the weight coefficients; Learnable Quantile Filtering: our percentile filtering method relies on heuristic constants. We argue that training a classifier for percentile prediction is a necessary step; Optimizing Dense Passage Retrieval: experiment results indicate that dpr still has substantial potential for improvement. A key challenge in adaptive retrieval scenarios is capturing the semantics of up-coming sentences with limited word counts.

7 Ethics Statement

In our research and experimental endeavors, we adhere strictly to ethical guidelines to ensure that our development and application of artificial intelligence technology are conducted responsibly. Throughout our research process, we have refrained from utilizing data that relies on personal information or manual annotations. Moreover, we have employed open-source models for our experiments without any additional training, thereby ensuring that we do not introduce bias or other harmful knowledge into them. In addition, we have made our code and data publicly available on the GitHub community. This allows the community to verify the performance of our proposed method and to further enhance and optimize it.

References

- Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. 2023. Gpt-4 technical report. arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774.
- Akari Asai, Zeqiu Wu, Yizhong Wang, Avirup Sil, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2023. Self-rag: Learning to retrieve, generate, and critique through self-reflection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.11511*.
- Sebastian Borgeaud, Arthur Mensch, Jordan Hoffmann, Trevor Cai, Eliza Rutherford, Katie Millican, George Bm Van Den Driessche, Jean-Baptiste Lespiau, Bogdan Damoc, Aidan Clark, et al. 2022. Improving language models by retrieving from trillions of tokens. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 2206–2240. PMLR.
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind

Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. 2020. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:1877–1901.

- Stephanie Chan, Adam Santoro, Andrew Lampinen, Jane Wang, Aaditya Singh, Pierre Richemond, James McClelland, and Felix Hill. 2022. Data distributional properties drive emergent in-context learning in transformers. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:18878–18891.
- Chao Chen, Kai Liu, Ze Chen, Yi Gu, Yue Wu, Mingyuan Tao, Zhihang Fu, and Jieping Ye. 2024. Inside: Llms' internal states retain the power of hallucination detection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.03744*.
- Jinhao Duan, Hao Cheng, Shiqi Wang, Alex Zavalny, Chenan Wang, Renjing Xu, Bhavya Kailkhura, and Kaidi Xu. 2024. Shifting attention to relevance: Towards the predictive uncertainty quantification of freeform large language models. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 5050–5063.
- Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, et al. 2024. The llama 3 herd of models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2407.21783.
- Sebastian Farquhar, Jannik Kossen, Lorenz Kuhn, and Yarin Gal. 2024. Detecting hallucinations in large language models using semantic entropy. *Nature*, 630(8017):625–630.
- James Ferguson, Matt Gardner, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Tushar Khot, and Pradeep Dasigi. 2020. Iirc: A dataset of incomplete information reading comprehension questions. arXiv preprint arXiv:2011.07127.
- Marina Fomicheva, Shuo Sun, Lisa Yankovskaya, Frédéric Blain, Francisco Guzmán, Mark Fishel, Nikolaos Aletras, Vishrav Chaudhary, and Lucia Specia. 2020. Unsupervised quality estimation for neural machine translation. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 8:539–555.
- Mor Geva, Daniel Khashabi, Elad Segal, Tushar Khot, Dan Roth, and Jonathan Berant. 2021. Did aristotle use a laptop? a question answering benchmark with implicit reasoning strategies. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 9:346–361.
- Kelvin Guu, Kenton Lee, Zora Tung, Panupong Pasupat, and Mingwei Chang. 2020. Retrieval augmented language model pre-training. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 3929–3938. PMLR.
- Xanh Ho, Anh-Khoa Duong Nguyen, Saku Sugawara, and Akiko Aizawa. 2020. Constructing a multi-hop qa dataset for comprehensive evaluation of reasoning steps. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2011.01060*.

Lei Huang, Weijiang Yu, Weitao Ma, Weihong Zhong, Zhangyin Feng, Haotian Wang, Qianglong Chen, Weihua Peng, Xiaocheng Feng, Bing Qin, et al. 2023. A survey on hallucination in large language models: Principles, taxonomy, challenges, and open questions. *ACM Transactions on Information Systems*.

- Gautier Izacard, Patrick Lewis, Maria Lomeli, Lucas Hosseini, Fabio Petroni, Timo Schick, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Armand Joulin, Sebastian Riedel, and Edouard Grave. 2022. Few-shot learning with retrieval augmented language models. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:2208.03299, 1(2):4.
- Zhengbao Jiang, Frank F Xu, Luyu Gao, Zhiqing Sun, Qian Liu, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Yiming Yang, Jamie Callan, and Graham Neubig. 2023. Active retrieval augmented generation. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:2305.06983.
- Vladimir Karpukhin, Barlas Oğuz, Sewon Min, Patrick Lewis, Ledell Wu, Sergey Edunov, Danqi Chen, and Wen-tau Yih. 2020. Dense passage retrieval for open-domain question answering. arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.04906.
- Jacob Devlin Ming-Wei Chang Kenton and Lee Kristina Toutanova. 2019. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Proceedings of naacL-HLT, volume 1. Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- Urvashi Khandelwal, Omer Levy, Dan Jurafsky, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Mike Lewis. 2019. Generalization through memorization: Nearest neighbor language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1911.00172*.
- Tom Kwiatkowski, Jennimaria Palomaki, Olivia Redfield, Michael Collins, Ankur Parikh, Chris Alberti, Danielle Epstein, Illia Polosukhin, Jacob Devlin, Kenton Lee, Kristina Toutanova, Llion Jones, Matthew Kelcey, Ming-Wei Chang, Andrew M. Dai, Jakob Uszkoreit, Quoc Le, and Slav Petrov. 2019. Natural questions: A benchmark for question answering research. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 7:452–466.
- Kenton Lee, Ming-Wei Chang, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. Latent retrieval for weakly supervised open domain question answering. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 6086–6096, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, et al. 2020. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive nlp tasks. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:9459–9474.
- Junyi Li, Tianyi Tang, Wayne Xin Zhao, Jingyuan Wang, Jian-Yun Nie, and Ji-Rong Wen. 2023. The web can be your oyster for improving language models. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2023*, pages 728–746.

Zhen Lin, Shubhendu Trivedi, and Jimeng Sun. 2023. Generating with confidence: Uncertainty quantification for black-box large language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2305.19187.

- Yinhan Liu. 2019. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.11692*, 364.
- Hongyin Luo, Yung-Sung Chuang, Yuan Gong, Tianhua Zhang, Yoon Kim, Xixin Wu, Danny Fox, Helen Meng, and James Glass. 2023. Sail: Searchaugmented instruction learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.15225*.
- Alex Mallen, Akari Asai, Victor Zhong, Rajarshi Das, Daniel Khashabi, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2022. When not to trust language models: Investigating effectiveness of parametric and non-parametric memories. arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.10511.
- Potsawee Manakul, Adian Liusie, and Mark JF Gales. 2023. Selfcheckgpt: Zero-resource black-box hallucination detection for generative large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08896*.
- OpenAI. 2022. Introducing chatgpt. https://openai.com/index/chatgpt/.
- Ori Ram, Yoav Levine, Itay Dalmedigos, Dor Muhlgay, Amnon Shashua, Kevin Leyton-Brown, and Yoav Shoham. 2023. In-context retrieval-augmented language models. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 11:1316–1331.
- Stephen Robertson, Hugo Zaragoza, et al. 2009. The probabilistic relevance framework: Bm25 and beyond. *Foundations and Trends® in Information Retrieval*, 3(4):333–389.
- Timo Schick, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Roberto Dessì, Roberta Raileanu, Maria Lomeli, Eric Hambro, Luke Zettlemoyer, Nicola Cancedda, and Thomas Scialom. 2023. Toolformer: Language models can teach themselves to use tools. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:68539–68551.
- Weijia Shi, Sewon Min, Michihiro Yasunaga, Minjoon Seo, Rich James, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Wen-tau Yih. 2023. Replug: Retrieval-augmented black-box language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2301.12652.
- Weihang Su, Yichen Tang, Qingyao Ai, Zhijing Wu, and Yiqun Liu. 2024. Dragin: Dynamic retrieval augmented generation based on the real-time information needs of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.10081*.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, et al. 2023. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288*.

Harsh Trivedi, Niranjan Balasubramanian, Tushar Khot, and Ashish Sabharwal. 2022. Interleaving retrieval with chain-of-thought reasoning for knowledge-intensive multi-step questions. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2212.10509.

Zhiruo Wang, Jun Araki, Zhengbao Jiang, Md Rizwan Parvez, and Graham Neubig. 2023. Learning to filter context for retrieval-augmented generation. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2311.08377.

Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, et al. 2022. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:24824–24837.

Fangyuan Xu, Weijia Shi, and Eunsol Choi. 2023. Recomp: Improving retrieval-augmented lms with compression and selective augmentation. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:2310.04408.

Zhilin Yang, Peng Qi, Saizheng Zhang, Yoshua Bengio, William W Cohen, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, and Christopher D Manning. 2018. Hotpotqa: A dataset for diverse, explainable multi-hop question answering. arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.09600.

Zijun Yao, Weijian Qi, Liangming Pan, Shulin Cao, Linmei Hu, Weichuan Liu, Lei Hou, and Juanzi Li. 2024. Seakr: Self-aware knowledge retrieval for adaptive retrieval augmented generation. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2406.19215.

Wayne Xin Zhao, Kun Zhou, Junyi Li, Tianyi Tang, Xiaolei Wang, Yupeng Hou, Yingqian Min, Beichen Zhang, Junjie Zhang, Zican Dong, et al. 2023. A survey of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.18223*.

Yongchao Zhou, Andrei Ioan Muresanu, Ziwen Han, Keiran Paster, Silviu Pitis, Harris Chan, and Jimmy Ba. 2022. Large language models are human-level prompt engineers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.01910*.

A More Details about Experiment Setup

Datasets. We test on four knowledge-intensive datasets: 2WikiMultiHopQA (Ho et al., 2020), HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018), IIRC (Ferguson et al., 2020), and StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021).

2WikimultihopQA. A multi-hop question answering dataset designed to advance complex reasoning tasks, especially multi-step reasoning tasks. The dataset contains about 20,000 questions that involve a large number of reasoning steps and information synthesis tasks. Each question has multiple candidate answers, and the model needs to select the correct answer from them.

HotpotQA. A large multi-hop question answering dataset designed to advance the ability of machines

to understand complex questions. The dataset contains 113,000 questions, which are characterized by the fact that it contains questions that require multi-step reasoning and information across multiple documents to answer, requiring the model to not only extract information from a single article, but also conduct comprehensive analysis across multiple documents. The answer to a question in HotpotQA is usually a short entity (such as a person's name, a place name, etc.) or a concise fact. IIRC. The IIRC dataset is a collection of incomplete information reading comprehension questions. It comprises 13,441 questions based on 5,698 paragraphs sourced from English Wikipedia. These questions were crafted by crowdworkers who had no access to any linked documents. As a result, the contexts in which the questions and answers appear exhibit minimal lexical overlap. This unique approach not only makes the dataset more reflective of real-world information-seeking scenarios but also significantly increases the complexity of the task. Many questions in the dataset are either unanswerable or require discrete reasoning, posing substantial challenges for models attempting to navigate and retrieve information from multiple

StrategyQA. A dataset comprises 2,780 meticulously crafted samples, each encompassing a strategic policy question, its detailed decomposition steps, and a corresponding evidence paragraph. Utilizing a robust crowdsourcing pipeline, the dataset employs terminology guidance to inspire annotators, enforces strict control over the annotator group, and implements adversarial filtering to eliminate reasoning shortcuts. This comprehensive approach ensures the questions are both creative and challenging, demanding implicit reasoning steps that are not explicitly stated within the questions themselves.

HotpotQA and 2WikiMultihopQA are multi-hop reasoning datasets where models need to extract information from multiple documents to answer questions through basic analysis. IIRC is a conversational dataset that presents greater challenges than HotpotQA and 2WikiMultihopQA, as models must not only acquire document information but also understand and execute instruction-based interactions. StrategyQA aims to evaluate and enhance models' ability to solve problems requiring strategic thinking and reasoning, where models must combine textual information with common sense and logical inference.

sources.

Prompt Settings. The few-shots COT prompt we use in experiments are as shown:

```
[1] Context 1
[2] Context 2
...
[N] Context N
Answer the question by reasoning step-by-step and response result with "So the answer is " format.
Question: Q1
Answer: A1
...
Question: Qn
Answer: An
Question: <<<th>Question to be evaluated>>>
```

Knowledge Base and Retriever. We use Wikipedia (Karpukhin et al., 2020) as the external knowledge base, which contains various topics and information to support us to obtain the context knowledge relevant to test questions. There are 21,015,324 passages in the database which is sufficient for assisting models to answer questions. We employ BM25 (Robertson et al., 2009), which as the retriever following FLARE and most existing works.

Table 5: Average performance of word-level and token-level thresholding with different models.

Madal	Wo	rd-Leve	l	Token-Level						
Model	EM	F1	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	F1	$S_{ m eff}$				
Llama-2-13B	0.3890	0.4599	3.54	0.3886	0.4579	3.65				
Llama-2-7B	0.3242	0.3840	1.20	0.3203	0.3787	1.02				
Llama-3-8B	0.4874	0.5559	3.47	0.4845	0.5539	3.41				
Overall	0.4002	0.4666	2.73	0.3978	0.4635	2.69				

B Comparison of single-round RAG and fix-length RAG

In the experiment section, limited by page length, we mainly compare our method with other adaptive methods, so we show all comparison results between adaptive methods and static methods here, including single-round RAG (Lewis et al., 2020) and fix-length RAG (Ram et al., 2023).

In all cases, the static retrieval schemes' final performance falls short of ours, and in most instances, it also lags behind the dynamic schemes'. It is noteworthy that, in some scenarios, the single-round scheme boasts the highest retrieval efficiency among all schemes. For example, on the HotpotQA dataset, the Llama2-13B-chat and Llama3.1-8B-chat models exhibit superior efficiency. We posit that this finding underscores the strong correlation between retrieval efficiency and both the model and the question scenario. Therefore, it is imperative to integrate an adaptive scheme that leverages the

model's internal knowledge with external knowledge, such as question difficulty and type, as the basis for triggering retrieval. Additionally, we observe that our retrieval efficiency index declines as the reasoning length increases. Hence, developing a more comprehensive retrieval efficiency evaluation index represents a promising direction for future research.

C Comparison of Different Granularity

We analyze the impact of different configurations in the SCAAR framework on performance through ablation studies. SCAAR computes the semanticbased adaptive weights at word-level to ensure sementic integrity and generation efficiency. Intuitively, using the word-level probability may hinder the distinctness of token proabbility to a certain extent. Specifically, if the initial threshold is 0.8, and the probabilities of the two tokens that make up the word are 0.7 and 1.0 respectively. At token-level, it will trigger retrieval since the probability of the first token 0.7 is lower than the threshold 0.8. However, at word-level, it will not trigger retrieval since the word probability is the geometric mean of 0.8 and 1.0, i.e., 0.83, which is greater than the threshold 0.8. To clarify the impact of different thresholding granularities, we evaluate the performance of using token-level and word-level thresholding under the vanilla RAG framework with a fixed threshold. The average performance over the aforementioned four datasets on different models is shown in Table 5, where overall indicates the average scores over all three models. The results shows that wordlevel thresholding slightly outperforms token-level thresholding in EM and F1 scores overl all model configurations.

D DPR Model Settings

In order to test our method in a dense passage retrieval senarior, we choose the encoder released by Karpukhin et al. (Karpukhin et al., 2020). The question encoder and text encoder used in our experiments use the BERT-base (Kenton and Toutanova, 2019) as backbones and are further trained on Natural Questions (NQ) dataset (Lee et al., 2019; Kwiatkowski et al., 2019). For a question, we obtain a dense embedding of the special token [CLS] which is obtained by applying a linear transformation followed by a tanh activation function to the hidden state of the [CLS] token from the last layer. We used Faiss, a vector database, to load pre-

Table 6: Overall results of SCAAR and baselines on four datasets.

	2Wi	ikiMulti	Hop()A		Hotpot	QA		1	IIRO	<u> </u>		Stra	tegy(<u>A</u>
	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	Fĺ	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$
Llama-2-13B															
w/o RAG	0.1658	0.2779	-	-	0.1623	0.2736	-	-	0.1111	0.1454	-	-	0.6710	-	-
SR-RAG	0.1971	0.3451	1.00	6.72	0.2838	0.4016	1.00	12.80	0.1711	0.2173	1.00	7.19	0.6750	1.00	0.40
FL-RAG	0.2535	0.3674	2.06	4.35	0.2947	0.4151	3.42	4.14	0.1711	0.2314	2.81	3.06	0.6643	5.34	-0.13
FS-RAG	0.3389	0.4701	3.48	5.52	0.2500	0.3724	2.73	3.62	0.2291	0.2813	4.03	3.38	0.6667	4.22	-0.10
FLARE	0.3910	0.4912	2.71			0.4339		4.22	0.2484	0.3078	3.98	4.08	0.6749	5.57	0.07
DRAGIN	0.3400	0.4637	2.65	7.01	0.3415	0.4490	3.16	5.54	0.2385	0.2806	3.75	3.61	0.7069	4.59	0.78
SCAAR (Ours)	0.3918	0.4973	3.14	6.99	0.3333	0.4369	3.39	4.81	0.2490	0.3091	4.20	3.90	0.7090	5.56	0.68
Llama-2-7B									1						
w/o RAG	0.2367	0.3099	_	-	0.2033	0.3158	-	-	0.1367	0.1665	-	-	0.6455	-	-
SR-RAG	0.1945	0.2920	1.00	-1.79	0.1466	0.2427	1.00	-7.31	0.1672	0.2250	1.00	5.85	0.6230	1.00	-2.25
FL-RAG	0.1620	0.2608	1.56	-3.15	0.1554	0.2573	1.18	-4.95	0.1418	0.1865	1.06	1.89	0.6421	1.61	-0.21
FS-RAG	0.2214	0.3106	2.48	0.03	0.1979	0.3014	1.74	-0.83	0.1483	0.1937	1.85	1.47	0.5933	3.49	-1.49
FLARE	0.2644	0.3509	2.31	1.78	0.2510	0.3628	2.34	2.01	0.2000	0.2358	1.82	3.81	0.6651	4.50	0.44
DRAGIN	0.2761	0.3751	2.86			0.3310		0.90	0.1937	0.2431	1.95	3.92	0.6888	3.44	1.26
SCAAR (Ours)	0.2778	0.3677	2.36	2.45	0.2680	0.3762	1.69	3.57	0.1964	0.2361	1.92	3.63	0.6944	3.78	1.29
Llama-3-8B									1						
w/o RAG	0.3211	0.3907	-	-	0.2238	0.3354	-	-	0.2089	0.2500	-	-	0.7615	-	-
SR-RAG	0.3115	0.4193	1.00	2.86	0.3345	0.4640	1.00	12.86	0.2641	0.3377	1.00	8.77	0.7249	1.00	-3.66
FL-RAG	0.3684	0.4679	1.94	3.97	0.3825	0.4903	1.95	7.94	0.2918	0.3337	2.20	3.81	0.7181	2.19	-1.98
FS-RAG	0.4034	0.4950	4.05	2.57	0.3581	0.4661	3.25	4.02	0.2734	0.3223	3.92	1.84	0.7912	4.86	0.61
FLARE	0.5000	0.5812	3.09	6.16	0.4181	0.5347	3.27	6.10	0.2929	0.3496	3.27	3.05	0.7963	4.44	0.78
DRAGIN		0.4236				0.3761			0.1886				0.8048		3.14
SCAAR (Ours)	0.5246	0.6026	2.70	7.84	0.4460	0.5570	3.40	6.52	0.3203	0.3694	3.31	3.60	0.7799	4.35	0.42

encoded external knowledge. Then, we utilized full-precision indexing based on L2 (Euclidean distance) for matching. This approach is faster than using cosine similarity for calculations, though it may result in a slight loss of accuracy.

scenarios but also has performance advantages in white-box scenarios.

E Comparison of Different Num of Documents

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041 1042

1043

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

1051

1052

1053

1054 1055

1056

1057

1059

We conduct experiments on baseline methods and SCAAR methods using different num of retrieved documents. We pick [3, 5, 7] for Llama-3.1-8B and Llama-2-13B, and pick [2,3,4,5,7] for Llama-2-7B. Results are shown in Table 7, 8, 9 respectively. We can draw several conclusions: (1)In all experiments, the setting of doc_num=3 yields the best results in most cases. Having too many or too few retrieved documents may interfere with the model's reasoning ability and cause errors. (2) There is no consistently obvious relationship between the number of documents and performance across all models. We believe this is due to the fixed retrieval number scheme lacking post-retrieval assessment of the quality of retrieved documents. This inspires us to further verify the quality of retrieved documents or the answers generated before and after model retrieval. (3)In most experimental settings, our SCAAR scheme can surpass DRAGIN to achieve the best performance, further proving that our scheme is not only suitable for black-box

1060 1061

Table 7: Ablation results of doc_num for comparison of different methods on Llama-2-13B, 4 datasets. We bold the best result of each method under the dataset. When the results of different doc_num are the same, we bold the result with fewer doc_num . We denote the best result on each dataset with an asterisk.

mathad	doc num	2Wi	kiMultiI	HopQ	A		Hotpot(QA			IIRC	:		Strat	tegyQ	A
memoa	doc_num	\mathbf{EM}	F1	\hat{N}_R	$S_{ m eff}$	\mathbf{EM}	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$
w/o RAG	0	0.1658	0.2779	0	0.00	0.1623	0.2736	0	0.00	0.1111	0.1454	0	0.00	0.6710	0	0.00
FLARE	3	0.3910	0.4912	2.71	7.88*	0.3244	0.4339	3.80	4.22	0.2484	0.3078	3.98	4.08	0.6749	5.57	0.07
	5	0.3664	0.4835	2.90	7.10	0.2984	0.4172	3.85	3.73	0.2744*	0.3356	4.25	4.47	0.6846	4.92	0.28
	7	0.3664	0.4835	2.90	7.10	0.2984	0.4172	3.85	3.73	0.2744	0.3356	4.25	4.47	0.6846	4.92	0.28
	3	0.3400	0.4637	2.65	7.01	0.3415	0.4490	3.16	5.54	0.2385	0.2806	3.75	3.74	0.7069	4.59	0.78*
DRAGIN	5	0.3200	0.4384	2.24	7.17	0.3088	0.4187	2.37	6.12*	0.2586	0.3131	3.73	4.50*	0.6937	5.12	0.44
	7	0.3200	0.4384	2.24	7.17	0.3088	0.4187	2.37	6.12	0.2586	0.3131	3.73	4.50	0.6937	5.12	0.44
	3	0.3918*	0.4973	3.14	6.99	0.3333	0.4369	3.39	4.81	0.2490	0.3091	4.20	3.90	0.7090*	5.56	0.68
SCAAR	5	0.3870	0.5037*	3.20	7.07	0.3674*	0.4639*	3.33	5.71	0.2612	0.3276	4.19	4.34	0.7024	5.04	0.62
	7	0.3870	0.5037	3.20	7.07	0.3674	0.4639	3.33	5.71	0.2612	0.3276	4.19	4.34	0.7024	5.04	0.62

Table 8: Ablation results of doc_num for comparison of different methods on Llama-2-7B, 4 datasets. We bold the best result of each method under the dataset. When the results of different doc_num are the same, we bold the result with fewer doc_num . We denote the best result on each dataset with an asterisk.

method	doc_num							-			IIRC			Strat		
	400_114111	EM	F1	N_R	S_{eff}	EM	F1	N_R	S_{eff}	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{\rm eff}$	F1	N_R	S_{eff}
w/o RAG	0	0.2367	0.3099	0	0.00	0.2033	0.3158	0	0.00	0.1367	0.1665	0	0.00	0.6455	0	0.00
	2	0.2391	0.3280	2.33	0.78	0.2730	0.3736	1.94	2.98	0.1690	0.1979	2.29	1.37	0.6421	5.59	0.00
	3	0.2644	0.3509	2.31	1.78	0.2510	0.3628	2.34	2.01	0.2000*	0.2358	1.82	3.05	0.6651	4.50	0.44
FLARE	4	0.2383	0.3166	1.55	0.43	0.2886*	0.3780	1.53	4.07	0.1831	0.2193	1.80	2.94	0.6678	3.59	0.62
	5	0.2375	0.3326	1.64	1.38	0.2635	0.3767	1.47	4.15	0.1684	0.2056	1.91	2.05	0.6531	4.83	0.16
	7	0.2375	0.3326	1.56	1.46	0.2685	0.3709	1.34	4.12	0.1684	0.2056	1.91	2.05	0.6531	4.83	0.16
	2	0.2742	0.3657	2.40	2.33	0.2575	0.3603	1.75	2.54	0.1800	0.2185	2.46	2.11	0.6296	3.88	-0.04
	3	0.2761	0.3751*	2.86	2.28	0.2258	0.3310	1.69	0.90	0.1937	0.2431	1.95	3.92*	0.6888	3.44	0.13
DRAGIN	4	0.2341	0.3387	1.77	1.63	0.2609	0.3489	1.38	2.40	0.1911	0.2379	2.13	3.35	0.6576	4.01	0.03
	5	0.2609	0.3505	1.56	2.61	0.2676	0.3545	1.37	2.82	0.1886	0.2375	2.38	2.99	0.6712	3.32	0.08
	7	0.2609	0.3505	1.56	2.61	0.2676	0.3545	1.37	2.82	0.1886	0.2375	2.38	2.99	0.6712	3.32	0.08
	2	0.2755	0.3627	2.48	2.12	0.2709	0.3652	1.76	2.81	0.1706	0.2066	2.19	1.83	0.6679	5.29	0.04
	3	0.2778*	0.3677	2.36	2.45	0.2680	0.3762	1.69	3.57	0.1964	0.2361*	1.92	3.63	0.6944*	3.78	1.3*
SCAAR	4	0.2508	0.3239	1.54	0.91	0.2727	0.3814	1.40	4.68	0.1757	0.2246	1.91	3.05	0.6713	4.55	0.06
	5	0.2752	0.3626	1.41	3.75*	0.2635	0.3525	1.38	2.66	0.1741	0.2126	1.89	2.43	0.6761	4.49	0.07
	7	0.2752	0.3626	1.41	3.75	0.2852	0.3828*	1.23	5.43*	0.1741	0.2126	1.89	2.43	0.6761	4.49	0.07

Table 9: Ablation results of doc_num for comparison of different methods on Llama-3.1-8B, 4 datasets. We bold the best result of each method under the dataset. When the results of different doc_num are the same, we bold the result with fewer doc_num . We denote the best result on each dataset with an asterisk.

method	doc_num	2Wi	kiMultiH	HopQ	A		Hotpot(QA			IIRC			Strat	egyQ	ΡA
memou	uoc_num	\mathbf{EM}	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	\mathbf{EM}	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	EM	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$	F1	N_R	$S_{ m eff}$
w/o rag	0	0.3211	0.3907	0	0.00	0.2238	0.3354	0	0.00	0.2089	0.2500	0	0.00	0.7615	0	0.00
	3	0.5000	0.5812	3.09	6.16	0.4181	0.5347	3.27	6.10	0.2929	0.3496	3.27	3.05	0.7963	4.44	0.08
FLARE	5	0.4680	0.5693	3.34	5.35	0.4225	0.5344	3.60	5.53	0.3536	0.3940	3.93	3.67	0.7951	5.06	0.07
	7	0.4680	0.5693	3.34	5.35	0.4225	0.5344	1.78	11.19	0.3536	0.3940	3.93	3.67	0.7951	5.06	0.07
•	3	0.3605	0.4236	0.77	4.28	0.2630	0.3761	1.07	3.81	0.1886	0.2120	1.58	-2.40	0.8048*	1.38	0.31
DRAGIN	5	0.3311	0.4062	0.87	1.78	0.2571	0.3667	1.78	1.76	0.2359	0.2593	2.05	0.45	0.7759	2.08	0.69*
	7	0.3311	0.4062	0.87	1.78	0.2571	0.3667	3.60	0.87	0.2359	0.2593	2.05	0.45	0.7759	2.08	0.69
	3	0.5246*	0.6026*	2.70	7.84*	0.4460*	0.5570*	3.40	6.52*	0.3203	0.3694	3.31	3.60	0.7799	4.35	0.04
SCAAR	5	0.4880	0.5729	3.27	5.58	0.4240	0.5412	3.35	6.14	0.3759*	0.4279*	3.57	4.99*	0.7705	4.73	0.02
	7	0.4880	0.5729	3.27	5.58	0.4456	0.5632	3.53	6.45	0.3759	0.4279	3.57	4.99	0.7705	4.73	0.02