

Dialogue Summarization with Mixture of Experts based on Large Language Models

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Abstract

Dialogue summarization is an important task that requires to generate highlights for a conversation from different aspects (e.g., content of various speakers). While several studies successfully employ large language models (LLMs) and achieve satisfying results, they are limited by using one model at a time or treat it as a black box, which makes it hard to discriminatively learn essential content in a dialogue from different aspects, therefore may lead to anticipation bias and potential loss of information in the produced summaries. In this paper, we propose an LLM-based approach with role-oriented routing and fusion generation to utilize mixture of experts (MoE) for dialogue summarization. Specifically, the role-oriented routing is an LLM-based module that selects appropriate experts to process different information; fusion generation is another LLM-based module to locate salient information and produce finalized dialogue summaries. The proposed approach offers an alternative solution to employing multiple LLMs for dialogue summarization by leveraging their capabilities of in-context processing and generation in an effective manner. We run experiments on widely used benchmark datasets for this task, where the results demonstrate the superiority of our approach in producing informative and accurate dialogue summarization.¹

1 Introduction

Dialogue summarization is a crucial task that aims to extract essential information from a dialogue, which attracts much attention from existing studies in recent years (Gurevych and Strube, 2004; Gliwa et al., 2019). Different from documents that are monographs from one writer, dialogues involve contents from different roles and thus summarizing them needs to consider the interactions among

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¹Materials related to the paper is available at <https://github.com/synlp/DiaSum-MoE>.

DIALOGUE

S1: Hi, Mr. Smith. I'm Doctor Hawkins. Why are you here today?
S2: I found it would be a good idea to **get a check-up**.
S1: Yes, well, you haven't had one for 5 years. **You should have one every year**.
S2: I know. I figure as long as there is nothing wrong, why go see the doctor?
S1: Well, the best way to avoid serious illnesses is to find out about them early. So try to come at least once a year for your own good.
S2: Ok.
S1: Let me see here. Your eyes and ears look fine. Take a deep breath, please. Do you smoke, Mr. Smith?
S2: Yes.
S1: **Smoking is the leading cause of lung cancer and heart disease, you know. You really should quit.**
S2: I've tried hundreds of times, but I just can't seem to kick the habit.
S1: Well, we have classes and some medications that might help. I'll give you **more information before you leave**.
S2: Ok, thanks doctor.

SUMMARY

Mr. Smith's **getting a check-up**, and Doctor Hawkins **advises him to have one every year**. Hawkins'll give some information about their classes and medications to help Mr. Smith quit smoking.

Table 1: An example dialogue between two speakers (i.e., S1 and S2) and its corresponding summary, where essential content shared in the dialogue and the summary are highlighted in the same colors.

them. Table 1 presents an example dialogue with its summary from two speakers (i.e., S1 and S2), where key information (in green and blue) of different roles are drawn from their interactions on discussing a concerned topic (in purple).

Existing studies for dialogue summarization (Li et al., 2023b; Gao et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023a; Hua et al., 2023; Ouyang et al., 2023) tend to utilize end-to-end approaches to produce dialogue summaries, where advanced text encoders, such as large language models (LLMs), are used to identify the key content in the dialogue. To further enhance the capability of models to identify essential information in the dialogue, additional information is applied with the interaction among dialogue participants, the structure of the dialogue, and the topics they are discussing, etc. (Kano et al., 2020; Song et al., 2020; Krishna et al., 2021; Zou et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2023; Liang et al., 2023; Liu and Xu, 2023). Although these studies obtain promising results, they

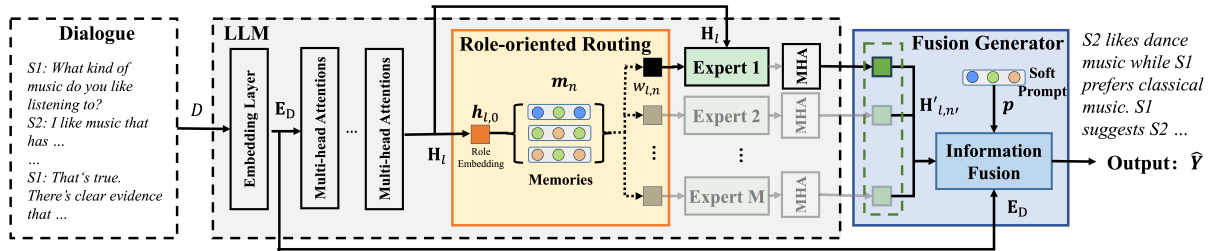


Figure 1: The overall architecture of our approach with an example input dialogue and output summary. The role-oriented routing and fusion generation are illustrated in the middle and right parts of the figure, respectively.

are mainly performed with a single-model or black box design, thus is potentially limited in generating biased output in the dialogue summary where diversified information are not comprehensively processed. Therefore, it is inevitable to consider whether there are more reasonable model designs to overcome such limitation.

Since mixture-of-experts (MoE) with LLMs demonstrates their effectiveness in many tasks (Chen et al., 2023b; Shen et al., 2023a,b; Li et al., 2023a), it is inspired to leverage such design for dialogue summarization to fully leverage the potential of LLMs to understand and generate summaries from different aspects. However, applying MoE to LLMs for dialogue summarization is not a trivial task, where careful design of the “mixture” is essential to prevent issues such as information dilution, so that essential contents are processed and preserved by appropriate experts, and the outputs from all experts retains a sufficient information-bearing without being distracted. Therefore, in this paper, we propose an MoE-based approach for dialogue summarization that alters the inner structure of LLMs. Specifically, we perform an utterance based processing with role-oriented routing, which is a part of LLM, to effectively identify the mapping of different experts for a particular utterance with the support of the entire dialogue, so as to avoid “Blind Men and the Elephant” phenomenon² when comprehending the content and extracting key information from the utterance. Then use another parts of LLM as experts and use the routing to selected some of them to take the utterance and generate outputs based on essential content in it. The fusion generation uses another LLM to combine the output of each expert and chooses the most valuable ones from them to form the final summary

²This anecdote originates from an ancient Indian parable, in which a group of blind men, each positioned around an elephant, attempt to understand the nature of the animal by touching a specific part, thus resulting an incomplete and weird figure of the elephant.

with all essential information from various aspects included in the dialogue. We run experiments on four widely used benchmark English and Chinese datasets. The results and further analyses demonstrate the superiority of our approach, which outperforms strong baselines and achieves state-of-the-art performance on all datasets, also show the validity of our design for each component.

2 The Approach

The overall architecture of our approach for dialogue summarization is illustrated in Figure 1, where the MoE framework consists of three main components, namely, role-oriented routing (RoR), expert processing, and fusion generation (FG). Specifically, RoR is based on the first K layers of an LLM that takes the input dialogue $\mathcal{D} = [(\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{U}_1), \dots, (\mathcal{R}_L, \mathcal{U}_L)]$ with L utterances associated with their speakers (i.e., \mathcal{R}_l denotes the speaker of the l -th utterance \mathcal{U}_l), then selects appropriate experts to process each utterance \mathcal{U}_l and its \mathcal{R}_l . The selected experts (each of which is the last $(K_{LLM} - K)$ layers of the LLM, where K_{LLM} is the number of layers in the LLM) generate key content of \mathcal{U}_l with the guidance of \mathcal{R}_l , which is repeated L times to process all utterance-speaker pairs. The FG combines and emphasizes the content procured by the experts to form the final summary $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$. Details regarding RoR, MoE, and FG in our approach for dialogue summarization are elaborated in the subsequent subsections.

2.1 Role-oriented Routing

Existing studies demonstrate that task-related information is helpful for improving model performance (Zhang et al., 2019a,b; Kano et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020; Chen and Yang, 2020a; Song, 2022; Lin et al., 2022; Tian et al., 2024). Consider the characteristics of dialogue, e.g., contents are from different roles (speakers), there are interactions among multiple roles, key information

from them are imbalanced to contribute to the summarization process, it is crucial to have a routing design for LLM activation in MoE that incorporates such characteristics for better matching and preparation of input utterances for later expert processing. Given different experts in our approach are expected to produce appropriate information from various aspects, the speaker role is then encoded and contributes to dynamically determining which experts are suitable to generating particular contents. We propose RoR that is built upon an LLM with a memory module to perform the routing, where the LLM is used to encode the entire dialogue and the memory module is designed to select appropriate experts for each utterance.

Specifically, we feed the entire dialogue \mathcal{D} into the embedding layer of LLM and obtain the embedding matrix \mathbf{E}_D . Next, the LLM takes \mathbf{E}_D and compute the dialogue representation \mathbf{H}_D following the standard LLM process procedure. \mathbf{H}_D contains a list of matrixes $\mathbf{H}_1 \cdots \mathbf{H}_l \cdots \mathbf{H}_L$, where \mathbf{H}_l denotes the representation for the l -th utterance and the speaker role in the dialogue. This process is formulated as

$$\mathbf{H}_1 \cdots \mathbf{H}_l \cdots \mathbf{H}_L = f_{LLM}(\mathbf{E}_D) \quad (1)$$

where each column in \mathbf{H}_l corresponds to a particular token or the role representation in the input. Thus, $\mathbf{H}_l = [\mathbf{h}_l^r, \mathbf{H}_l']$ where \mathbf{h}_l^r denotes the vector representation of speaker role \mathcal{R}_l and \mathbf{H}_l' the matrix representation of the utterance. Then, for each utterance \mathcal{U}_l and its speaker \mathcal{R}_l , we feed the role representation \mathbf{h}_l^r into the memory module to select appropriate experts. Specifically, for each expert $f_{e,n}$ ($1 \leq n \leq N$), we associate it with a memory vector \mathbf{m}_n , which is used to store the aspects of summary that the corresponding expert is designed to address. For the current input utterance \mathcal{U}_l with the role \mathcal{R}_l , the matching scores $w_{l,n}$ of the n -th expert ($f_{e,n}$) to \mathcal{U}_l is calculated by

$$w_{l,n} = \mathbf{h}_l^r \cdot \mathbf{W}_a \cdot \mathbf{m}_n \quad (2)$$

where \mathbf{W}_a is a trainable parameter matrix. Note that, \mathbf{h}_l^r is a contextualized representation that contains both roles and their related context information. Therefore, the matching score $w_{l,n}$ is determined by both the role associated with the context (i.e., the current utterance).

2.2 The Experts

The expert system in our approach employs N experts, which are Transformer decoders (e.g., the

last $(K_{LLM} - K)$ layers of LLM) and denoted as $f_{e,1} \cdots f_{e,n} \cdots f_{e,N}$. For each utterance \mathcal{U}_i , we collect the contribution scores $w_{l,n}$ from RoR, rank them in descending order, and select the corresponding experts with top N' scores (denoted as $f_{e,l,1} \cdots f_{e,l,n'} \cdots f_{e,l,N'}$). For each selected experts $f_{e,l,n'}$, it processes \mathbf{H}_l ($1 \leq l \leq L$) and generate a representation matrix $\mathbf{H}'_{l,n'}$ that carry important content about the dialogue, so that covers one or more essential aspects of the key information in each utterance, which is formulated as

$$\mathbf{H}'_{l,n'} = f_{e,l,n'}(\mathbf{H}_l) \quad (3)$$

Particularly, the entire dialogue information is also considered in producing $\mathbf{H}'_{l,n'}$ since \mathbf{H}_l is directly obtained from the LLM f_{LLM} , which has the dialogue as the input. Finally, we perform the same process for all experts and all utterances, which leads to $\mathbf{H}'_{1,1} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{1,N'} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{L,1} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{L,N'}$.

2.3 Fusion Generator

Once the information is processed by different experts, we use FG (denoted as f_{FG}) to collect the representations $\mathbf{H}'_{l,1} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{l,N'}$ ($1 \leq l \leq L$) produced from them, in association with the entire dialogue \mathcal{D} , to predict the final dialogue summary $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$. Specifically, FG is also an LLM-based generator that takes prompts (i.e., vectors) to perform a standard LLM generation process. We feed \mathbf{E}_D and all $\mathbf{H}'_{l,1} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{l,N'}$ ($1 \leq l \leq L$) from experts into FG and generate the final summary $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ by

$$\hat{\mathcal{Y}} = f_{FG}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{E}_D, \mathbf{H}'_{1,1} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{1,N'}, \cdots, \mathbf{H}'_{L,1} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{L,N'}) \quad (4)$$

where \mathbf{p} is a soft prompt to instruct FG to generate the summary that designed specifically for all $\mathbf{H}_{l,n'}$ on the condition of \mathbf{D} , who provides global information to guide FG generation. During training, we compare the generated summary $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ with the gold standard summary \mathcal{Y}^* to compute the cross-entropy loss, and follow the standard procedure to update model parameters accordingly. The FG ensures effective combination of contents from different experts and the regularization of producing the final summary for each dialogue.

3 Experimental Settings

3.1 Datasets

In our experiments, we use four benchmark datasets, namely, DialogSum (Chen et al., 2021), SAMSum (Gliwa et al., 2019), CSDS (Lin et al.,

DATASETS		# DIAL.	AVG. LEN.	AVG. TURNS
DIALOGSUM	TRAIN	12,460	131.0	9.5
	VALID	500	129.3	9.4
	TEST	1,500	134.5	9.7
SAMSUM	TRAIN	14,732	93.8	11.2
	VALID	818	91.6	10.8
	TEST	819	95.5	11.3
CSDS	TRAIN	9,101	401.1	26.0
	VALID	800	396.3	25.9
	TEST	800	387.1	25.1
MC	TRAIN	35,987	311.9	9.6
	TEST	8,996	313.3	9.5

Table 2: The statistics of the datasets in the train, valid, and test sets. “# Dial.,” “Avg. Len.,” and “Avg. Turns” are the number of dialogues, the average number of characters/tokens, and the number of turns in a dialogue, respectively.

2021), and MC (Song et al., 2020) to evaluate our approach and different baselines for dialogue summarization, where the first two are English datasets and the rest are in Chinese. Specifically, DialogSum is a large-scale dialogue summarization dataset from daily life topics, where the dialogues are manually annotated with overall summaries and topics. SAMSum contains dialogues between two or more persons under different scenarios such as meetings, phone calls, online posts and replies, etc., where each dialogue is associated with a summary. CSDS dataset contains Chinese customer service dialogues and their summaries, where every dialogue has three different types of summaries for customer, agent, and the entire dialogue, where each summary of the entire dialogue is the concatenation of its customer and agent summaries.³ MC is a Chinese medical conversation dataset that contains dialogues between patients and physicians with two types of summaries for each of the role, i.e., patients or physicians, respectively. To facilitate dialogue summarization for MC, we concatenate patient and doctor summaries for each dialogue to form the overall summary and use it in our experiments. For all four datasets, we follow their standard train, valid, and test splits⁴. The statistics of the datasets are illustrated in Table 2, where the number of dialogues, the average number of characters or tokens in each dialogue, and the number of turns in every dialogue are reported.

³We perform experiments on the summaries of the entire dialogue for CSDS, not the role-based ones.

⁴There is no official validation set for MC.

3.2 Implementation Details

Deep modeling of text representation plays an essential role in text understanding (Song et al., 2017, 2018; Devlin et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2020; Diao et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2023; Touvron et al., 2023a) and thus determines the quality of the generated summary. In the experiments, we use the LLaMA-2 (Touvron et al., 2023b) and Ziya (Gan et al., 2023) that achieve state-of-the-art performance on natural language processing tasks as the LLMs in our approach for English and Chinese processing, respectively, following their default configurations. There are 40 layers of multi-head attention in the LLMs. By default, the number of multi-head attention layers in the expert is set to 5, the number of experts N is set to 4, and the number of selected experts N' is set to 2. It is worth noting that compared with the standard LLM, our approach has more Transformer layers. For example, following the default settings, the standard LLM with 13B parameters has 40 layers of Transformer; our approach needs to compute over $35 + 5 * 2 = 45$ layers of Transformer, and the FG model needs more computation on 40 layers of Transformer.

We tune hyper-parameters on the validation set and use the setting that achieves the best performance to train our final models.⁵ In evaluation, we use both automatic and human evaluations. Following existing studies, the automatic evaluation includes **ROUGE** (Lin, 2004) (i.e., the F-scores

⁵For MC that does not have the official validation set, we randomly select 10% dialogues from its training set and use them to tune hyper-parameters, which are used on the final model for the entire training set.

	R-1	R-2	R-L	BL	BS	MS
LLAMA-2	44.88 \pm 0.11	21.87 \pm 0.10	44.64 \pm 0.10	16.25 \pm 0.09	62.79 \pm 0.10	50.12 \pm 0.11
+ MOE	45.35 \pm 0.11	22.34 \pm 0.10	45.11 \pm 0.10	16.72 \pm 0.09	63.26 \pm 0.10	50.59 \pm 0.11
+ RoR	47.31 \pm 0.10	23.44 \pm 0.08	46.99 \pm 0.10	17.43 \pm 0.09	64.58 \pm 0.09	52.30 \pm 0.07
+ FG	47.56 \pm 0.13	23.69 \pm 0.10	47.03 \pm 0.10	17.73 \pm 0.11	65.90 \pm 0.11	52.49 \pm 0.12
+ RoR + FG	49.82 \pm 0.10	24.80 \pm 0.11	47.37 \pm 0.09	18.41 \pm 0.13	68.48 \pm 0.08	53.86 \pm 0.10
(A) DIALOGSUM						
LLAMA-2	52.48 \pm 0.14	28.90 \pm 0.11	50.10 \pm 0.12	23.55 \pm 0.10	72.95 \pm 0.09	58.47 \pm 0.12
+ MOE	52.95 \pm 0.14	29.37 \pm 0.11	50.57 \pm 0.12	24.02 \pm 0.10	73.42 \pm 0.09	58.94 \pm 0.12
+ RoR	53.98 \pm 0.09	29.80 \pm 0.11	51.61 \pm 0.12	25.83 \pm 0.11	74.79 \pm 0.09	61.32 \pm 0.10
+ FG	54.58 \pm 0.13	30.15 \pm 0.10	51.42 \pm 0.10	25.80 \pm 0.11	74.96 \pm 0.11	61.46 \pm 0.12
+ RoR + FG	55.93 \pm 0.11	30.86 \pm 0.11	52.02 \pm 0.12	26.03 \pm 0.13	75.66 \pm 0.10	62.76 \pm 0.09
(B) SAMSUM						
ZIYA	58.42 \pm 0.13	46.37 \pm 0.08	56.46 \pm 0.09	29.52 \pm 0.07	80.81 \pm 0.05	59.40 \pm 0.10
+ MOE	58.89 \pm 0.13	46.84 \pm 0.08	56.93 \pm 0.09	29.99 \pm 0.07	81.28 \pm 0.05	59.96 \pm 0.10
+ RoR	59.11 \pm 0.11	47.35 \pm 0.07	56.88 \pm 0.11	30.54 \pm 0.05	82.46 \pm 0.10	60.78 \pm 0.07
+ FG	59.06 \pm 0.12	46.72 \pm 0.08	57.77 \pm 0.10	31.61 \pm 0.06	82.29 \pm 0.06	61.56 \pm 0.06
+ RoR + FG	61.86 \pm 0.12	47.07 \pm 0.09	60.04 \pm 0.11	32.10 \pm 0.08	83.26 \pm 0.14	61.94 \pm 0.06
(C) CSDS						
ZIYA	91.35 \pm 0.13	87.45 \pm 0.11	87.79 \pm 0.12	76.31 \pm 0.08	91.28 \pm 0.11	83.80 \pm 0.10
+ MOE	91.82 \pm 0.13	87.92 \pm 0.11	87.86 \pm 0.12	76.78 \pm 0.08	91.75 \pm 0.11	83.27 \pm 0.10
+ RoR	92.83 \pm 0.11	88.71 \pm 0.07	90.72 \pm 0.08	79.35 \pm 0.07	93.67 \pm 0.06	87.29 \pm 0.12
+ FG	93.05 \pm 0.11	89.03 \pm 0.07	90.91 \pm 0.09	79.62 \pm 0.04	94.16 \pm 0.05	87.43 \pm 0.07
+ RoR + FG	93.45 \pm 0.11	89.40 \pm 0.07	91.71 \pm 0.10	80.47 \pm 0.06	95.67 \pm 0.13	88.72 \pm 0.05
(D) MC						

Table 3: Experiment results of different models on the test set of DialogSum, SAMSum, CSDS, and MC, respectively, where “+ MOE” denote the model with standard MoE, and “+ RoR” and “+ FG” means that RoR and FG are added on top of the “MOE” baseline. We also report the average and standard deviation over five runs with different random seeds. Metrics “R-1”, “R-2”, and “R-L” correspond to the F-scores of ROUGE-1, ROUGE-2, and ROUGE-L, respectively. Similarly, “BL”, “BS” and “MS” denote BLEU, BERT-Score, and Mover-Score, respectively.

	R-1	R-2	R-L
OUYANG ET AL. (2023)	47.94	21.67	45.10
CHEN ET AL. (2023A)	48.29	23.65	46.23
GAO ET AL. (2023)	48.02	21.68	45.88
OURS	49.82	24.80	47.37

Table 4: Experiment results from previous studies and ours (LLaMA-2 + RoR + FG) for the dialogue summaries on the test set of DialogSum.

	R-1	R-2	R-L
OUYANG ET AL. (2023)	53.56	28.66	50.04
CHEN ET AL. (2023A)	53.76	28.04	50.56
GAO ET AL. (2023)	54.97	30.01	56.27
OURS	55.93	30.86	52.02

Table 5: Experiment results from previous studies and ours (LLaMA-2 + RoR + FG) for the dialogue summaries on the test set of SAMSum.

of **ROUGE-1**, **ROUGE-2** and **ROUGE-L** and **BLEU** (Papineni et al., 2002) that measures the n-gram overlap between the model output and reference summaries, as well as **BERT-Score** (Zhang et al., 2019c) and **Mover-Score** (Zhao et al., 2019) that computes the text similarity based on BERT embeddings (Devlin et al., 2019). Human evaluation metrics include **informativeness** that measures the coverage of the key points, **non-redundancy** that evaluates whether the generated summary con-

tains redundant or repeated information, and **fluency** that examines whether the generated summary is fluent and grammatically correct. All human evaluation metrics have three levels: 0, 1, and 2, where 0 denotes the worst and 2 the best.

4 Results and Analysis

4.1 Overall Results

We report experiment results (i.e., the average and the standard deviation of five runs) of baselines and

	R-2	R-L	BL	BS	MS
*SEE ET AL. (2017)	39.19	47.94	32.31	78.40	28.58
*CHEN AND BANSAL (2018)	41.39	47.07	33.04	79.57	29.78
*LIU AND LAPATA (2019)	37.03	45.30	24.59	78.45	27.00
*ZOU ET AL. (2021)	33.19	42.43	20.24	76.84	24.29
LIANG ET AL. (2022)	44.25	58.64	35.09	80.92	60.29
LIANG ET AL. (2023)	45.83	59.25	36.43	81.83	61.03
OURS	47.07	60.04	34.30	83.15	61.96

Table 6: Experiment results from previous studies and ours (Ziya + RoR + FG) for the dialogue summaries on the test set of CSDS. The results marked by “*” come from Lin et al. (2021).

	PATIENT						DOCTOR					
	R-1	R-2	R-L	BL	BS	MS	R-1	R-2	R-L	BL	BS	MS
SONG ET AL. (2020)	91.01	87.38	91.01	-	-	-	80.87	72.07	80.84	-	-	-
LIN ET AL. (2022)	95.19	94.63	95.14	87.40	97.90	90.72	82.11	77.49	80.92	65.40	91.91	68.95
LIANG ET AL. (2022)	96.78	95.86	96.12	91.22	98.13	95.10	88.21	84.58	86.56	70.08	92.84	81.95
LIANG ET AL. (2023)	96.84	96.14	96.23	91.32	98.25	95.35	88.47	84.62	86.77	70.18	92.96	82.10
OURS	96.60	95.82	95.40	92.84	98.51	95.94	89.71	85.93	88.34	74.57	93.43	84.62

Table 7: Experiment results from previous studies and ours (Ziya + RoR + FG) for dialogue summarization on the test set of MC. We follow the convention of existing studies to generate the summaries for different speakers (i.e., patients and physicians) separately and compare them with the gold standard.

our approach on the four benchmark datasets in Table 3. “LLAMA-2” and “ZIYA” are baselines that directly applying LLMs to the task without using MoE, RoR, or FG, where “MOE” means the standard MoE approach on LLMs; “+ROR” and “+FG” stand for RoR and FG are added on top of “MOE”, respectively; “+ROR+FG” is our full model. There are observations as follows. First, compared with the vanilla LLAMA-2 and ZIYA, models with MoE achieve better results, which indicates that utilizing different experts allows models to learn important information for dialogue summarization from different aspects and thus leads to better summaries. Second, models with RoR or FG outperform the ones with only “MOE” setting, which demonstrates the effectiveness of using RoR or FG to select appropriate experts to generate essential content or combine different information so as to improve dialogue summarization, respectively. Third, our full model with both RoR and FG achieves the best performance on all datasets with different LLMs, which indicates that RoR and FG collaborate well and are able to be complementary to each other, thus further improve the quality of dialogue summarization.

We further compare the performance of our approach with existing studies on the four benchmark datasets and report the results in Table 4, Table 5, Table 6, and Table 7. It is observed that our approach outperforms existing studies on all datasets,

	INFO.			NR			FLU.		
	DIALOGSUM	SAMSUM		DIALOGSUM	SAMSUM		DIALOGSUM	SAMSUM	
LLAMA-2	1.40	1.35	1.33	1.27	1.18	1.19			
+ MoE	1.42	1.40	1.52	1.38	1.27	1.33			
+ RoR	1.46	1.46	1.50	1.42	1.41	1.32			
+ FG	1.50	1.47	1.56	1.40	1.31	1.33			
+ ZERO-SHOT	1.48	1.41	1.42	1.42	1.30	1.36			
+ ONE-SHOT	1.51	1.46	1.53	1.49	1.43	1.50			
+ ZERO-SHOT CoT	1.58	1.53	1.60	1.50	1.46	1.54			
+ RoR + FG	1.64	1.68	1.73	1.57	1.50	1.61			
	CSDS			MC					
ZIYA	1.48	1.33	1.52	1.40	1.33	1.43			
+ MoE	1.50	1.35	1.56	1.43	1.31	1.42			
+ RoR	1.56	1.41	1.50	1.42	1.30	1.45			
+ FG	1.58	1.42	1.53	1.47	1.34	1.50			
+ ZERO-SHOT	1.39	1.42	1.46	1.44	1.31	1.40			
+ ONE-SHOT	1.42	1.47	1.52	1.47	1.43	1.51			
+ ZERO-SHOT CoT	1.51	1.50	1.57	1.54	1.42	1.50			
+ RoR + FG	1.60	1.55	1.69	1.64	1.58	1.70			

Table 8: Human evaluation scores (the higher the better) of different models on the test set of all datasets. “INFO”, “NR”, and “FLU” refer to “informativeness”, “non-redundancy”, and “fluency”, respectively.

where these studies mainly use a single model to process the text and generate summaries accordingly. This observation indicates that “many hands make light work”, where using MoE with RoR and FG allows the model to effectively use different experts to capture various key information and smartly optimize the output of the experts to produce summaries, therefore is a more reasonable solution than that only uses a single model.

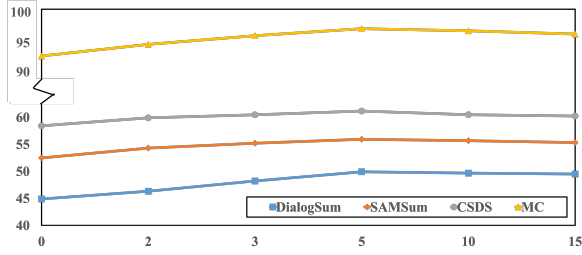


Figure 2: The performance (R-1 scores) of our approach with respect to the number of LLM layers used in the experts on four benchmark datasets.

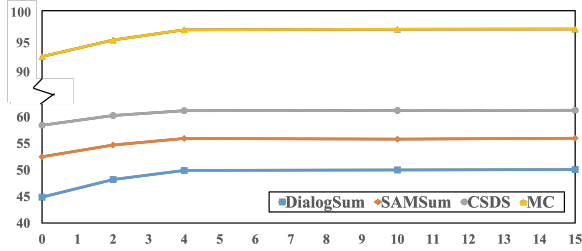


Figure 3: The R-1 scores of our approach with respect to the number of experts on four benchmark datasets.

4.2 Human Evaluation

To further evaluate whether MoE is truly useful in dialogue summarization, we also perform human evaluation on different baselines and our approaches following the evaluation criteria specified in Section 3.2. The results are reported in Table 8. In addition to the baselines in Table 3, we also evaluate the performance of directly using LLMs under zero-shot, one-shot, and zero-shot chain-of-thought (CoT) (Wei et al., 2022) settings. It is observed that, the results show a similar trend to the results in Table 3 with our approach outperforming all baselines, which confirms the effectiveness of our approach for dialogue summarization.

4.3 Effect of Different Expert Settings

To investigate the effect of the experts, we run two groups of experiments, where the first one tries to set each expert by adjusting the numbers of LLM layers used in it, and the second one explores the relations of total expert number with model performance. For the first one, we try 2, 3, 5, 10, 15 layers in Transformer for the experts and present the curve of performance against such settings on different datasets in Figure 2. The results show that, when the number of layers is small, increasing the number of layers leads to improvements, which is intuitive since more layers enable the experts to capture more essential information from each particular aspect and thus connects to better performance. However, when the number reaches

	R-1	R-2	R-L	BL
ALL	47.53	23.70	47.13	17.60
RANDOM	47.30	23.63	46.98	17.52
NO ROLE	47.70	23.81	46.82	17.97

(A) DIALOGSUM

ALL	54.44	30.07	51.02	25.65
RANDOM	54.39	29.96	50.95	25.53
NO ROLE	54.63	30.20	51.38	25.85

(B) SAMSUM

ALL	59.03	46.58	57.16	30.87
RANDOM	58.94	46.40	56.96	30.69
NO ROLE	59.19	46.75	57.54	31.08

(C) CSDS

ALL	92.85	88.64	90.68	79.47
RANDOM	92.73	88.58	90.59	79.32
NO ROLE	93.10	88.97	90.84	79.59

(D) MC

Table 9: The performance of different baseline models on the test sets of the benchmark datasets. ‘‘All’’ indicates all experts are used; ‘‘Random’’ means the experts are randomly selected in routing; and ‘‘No Role’’ indicates the role information is not included in the router.

a threshold, further increasing the number brings fewer improvements. The reason is that, with more layers used for experts, fewer layers are left for RoR, which makes the router hard to understand and process each utterance and select appropriate experts. For the second one, we try 2, 4, 10, 15 experts in experiments and present the results in Figure 3. We find that the performance increases with more experts when their number is smaller than 10. When the number goes beyond 10, adding more experts does not lead to improvements. The explanation is that, when the number is small, the number of experts is not enough for them to learn essential information from different aspects in each dialogue. Therefore, increasing the number of experts allows MoE to gradually learn sufficiently and thus results in better performance. On the contrary, when the number of experts reaches a certain amount, adding new experts does not further help so that the performance is converged.

4.4 Effect of Role-oriented Routing

To illustrate the effect of RoR, we run three baselines, namely, ‘‘ALL’’, ‘‘RANDOM’’, ‘‘NO ROLE’’ as comparison to our approach, where the first one selects all experts, the second randomly se-

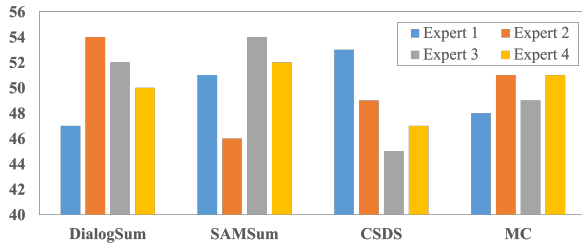


Figure 4: The distribution of top experts in our default setting (select 2 experts out of 4) for different datasets.

lect experts, and the third one does not use role information in router inputs. The results of the aforementioned models are reported in Table 9 with the following observations. First, comparing our approach (in Table 3) with the “ALL” and the “RANDOM” baselines, our approach achieves better performance, which complies with our intuition because that “ALL” and “RANDOM” actually do not select experts to process the input features and thus face problems of utilizing inappropriate experts to process the essential content of the dialogue, which introduces noise that leads to inferior results. Second, when the role information is not included in the router, the model’s performance is also worse than our full model, which indicates that the role information is important to understand the key content of dialogue as we hypothesized in our motivation, so that it helps the router to better associate some contents to particular speakers and perform appropriate expert selection.

In addition, we explore the distribution of top experts (i.e., the number of times an expert is selected to process an utterance based on the score from Eq. (2), divided by the total number of times all experts are selected) under the default setting, i.e., selecting 2 experts from total 4 experts in processing each utterance. The results are presented in Figure 4. We observe that experts contribute differently on all tasks and have their own preference of being selected, which indicates our router is able to select appropriate experts in different scenarios.

4.5 Effect of Fusion Generation

In our main experiments, we use dialogue as the condition for generating the final summary in the FG. To explore the effect of using such condition, we run experiments without using it, where the results are ported in Table 10. It clearly shows that, compared with the models without using the entire dialogue, our approach is able to generate better summaries, which emphasizes the contribution of the entire dialogue, for the reason that it provides

DATASETS	R-1	R-2	R-L	BL
DIALOGSUM	49.04	24.25	46.90	18.13
SAMSUM	55.40	30.47	51.89	25.95
CSDS	60.87	46.93	59.09	31.87
MC	93.32	89.17	91.42	80.33

Table 10: The performance of our approach without using the entire dialogue as condition in FG.

global or environmental information to guide FG identifying useful content produced by the experts.

4.6 Case Study

To further demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach, we use a case study to compare the original dialogue with the gold standard summary, and the final summaries generated by our approach in Figure 5. For better illustration, we also decode the hidden matrixes $\mathbf{H}'_{1,n} \cdots \mathbf{H}'_{L,n}$ produced by the experts into intermediate summaries and present them in Figure 5. The following are some observations. First, the intermediate summaries generated by different experts illustrate that these experts do learn to extract key information from different aspects. For example, expert 1 learns to focus on the information of speaker S2; expert 2 learns to focus on the interactions between speakers. This observation confirms the effectiveness of the router in selecting appropriate experts to process different utterances. Second, the final summary generated by our model includes the essential content covered by the gold standard and it also shows a better combination of intermediate summaries with the duplicate and unimportant content being filtered out, which further confirms the effectiveness of FG to optimize and refine the results produced by experts.

5 Related Work

Dialogue modeling has attracted attention from many existing studies (Li et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2019), especially dialogue summarization. A large body of dialogue summarization studies is devoted to leveraging advanced text encoders, such as BART (Lewis et al., 2020), to achieve a more nuanced modeling of dialogue content and thus optimize role-specific summarization (Chen and Yang, 2020a; Lin et al., 2022; Liang et al., 2022). To enhance the quality and relevance of generated summaries, many studies adopt particular elements in dialogues or extra features, such as important utterances (Song et al., 2020; Krishna et al., 2021), dialogue topics (Zou et al., 2021; Liu

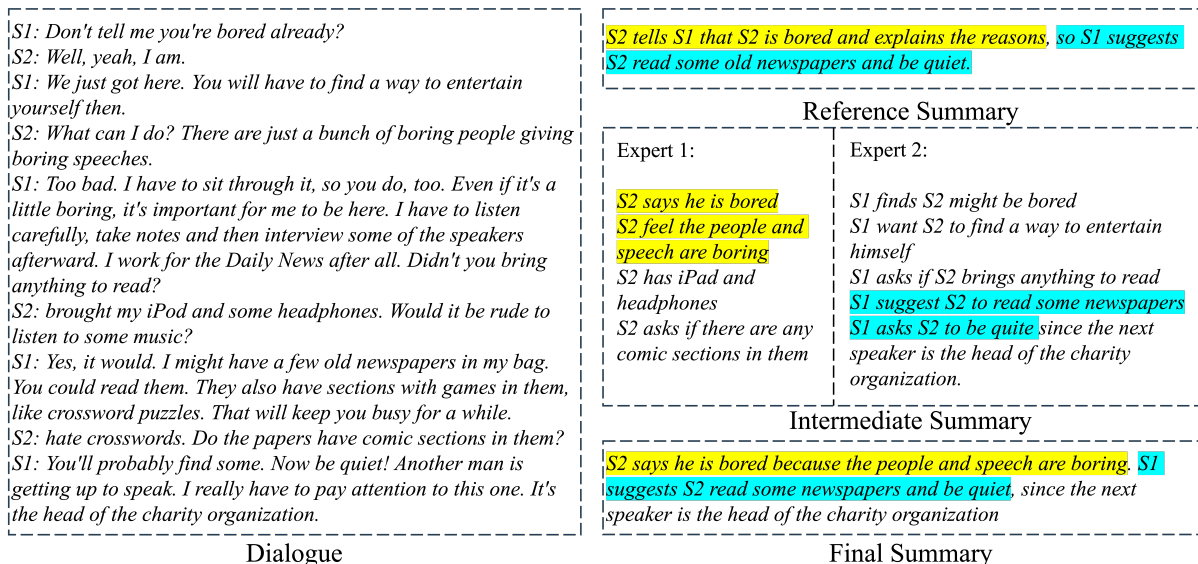


Figure 5: An example dialogue with the reference summary, intermediate summaries produced by experts, and the final summary from the full model. The reference summary is highlighted in yellow and blue, where the content in the intermediate and final summary that matches the reference is highlighted in the same color.

et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2023; Liang et al., 2023), and semantic relations among sentences (Kano et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022; Liu and Xu, 2023) to extend the capability of their summarization models. With the growing recognition of the importance of the structures and interactions in dialogues, summarization is thus performed by incorporating them as core components in several state-of-the-art studies (Chen and Yang, 2020b; Zhu et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2020; Joshi et al., 2020; Chowdhury et al., 2020; Lei et al., 2021; Qi et al., 2021; Chen and Yang, 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2022; Jia et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2023; Zou et al., 2023). Although summarization performance is promoted accordingly with such methodology improvements, these studies mainly use a single-model design to capture various types of essential information in the dialogue and generate summaries in an end-to-end manner. As a choice of using multiple models, MoE offers a solution to separately model different aspects of the input and process them accordingly, achieve remarkable success in handling complex tasks, such as language modeling, natural language inference, question answering, etc., (Fedus et al., 2022; Zoph et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023c; Shen et al., 2023a,b; Li et al., 2023a), where they cover various applications, such as textual-only (Jacobs et al., 1991; Shazeer et al., 2017; Lepikhin et al., 2021; Du et al., 2022; Fedus et al., 2022) as well as cross-modal scenarios (Mustafa et al., 2022), and so far few are used for dialogue summarization. Therefore, compared with previous studies, this pa-

per proposes a way of applying multiple models for dialogue summarization and introduce a novel design that improves MoE, where RoR is proposed to address the challenge of effectively selecting appropriate experts in the particular dialogue circumstance, and the FG highlights the salient content generated by different experts.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose an MoE approach that alter LLMs for dialogue summarization, where a specific router and fusion generator are designed to facilitate the mixture process of experts. Specifically, the routing effectively organizes the matching of different experts to utterances, and the fusion generator further optimizes the information processed by experts and then utilizes appropriate contents from them to provide final summaries with essential information from different aspects. Experiment results and analysis on four English and Chinese benchmark datasets for dialogue summarization illustrate the effectiveness of our approach, which outperforms strong baselines and existing studies on all datasets, and show that MoE successfully distinguishes different contents in each dialogue with processing using appropriate experts.

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