



Figure 4: OOS detection using LLM’s internal representations

		Overall Accuracy	F1 Score	Inscope Accuracy	Out of Scope Recall
SOF	Mistral-7B	0.705	0.699	0.842	0.465
Mattress	Ours	0.748	0.751	0.767	0.715
Curekart	Mistral-7B	0.601	0.615	0.863	0.376
	Ours	0.761	0.766	0.736	0.782
Power	Mistral-7B	0.357	0.384	0.689	0.205
Play11	Ours	0.780	0.739	0.411	0.950

Table 5: Comparison of our two step methodology with baseline across HINT3 datasets

representations in Step 2. But since we just need to do a forward pass for encoding the prompt, it is significantly faster than autoregressive generation.

Additionally, our proposed OOS detection methodology using LLM’s internal representations can be used to improve OOS detection performance of both fine-tuned and non-fine-tuned (base instruct tuned) LLMs. We choose to experiment and show results on non-fine-tuned LLM in Sec 4.2.2 because that is a more practical scenario (as fine-tuning and deployment of a separate instance of LLM for every TODS is prohibitively expensive), but the methodology is generic enough to be used with fine-tuned LLMs as well.

4.2.2 Experiments and Results

Setup. We experiment with base instruct tuned Mistral-7B since its weights are open source. We use cosine similarity for comparing representations in Step 2 and take mean of scores over all training sentences of the predicted intent.

Results. Table 5 compares results of our methodology against baseline LLM methodology discussed in Sec 3.1.2 for HINT3 datasets. We see >5% improvement in performance across datasets at ~300ms additional latency cost on 1 32GB V100 GPU because encoding the prompt through LLM

is cheap. There is drop in in-scope performance as well but that is overcome by significant gains in OOS recall to lead to better overall performance. If needed, threshold in Step 2 of our methodology can be chosen such that drop in in-scope performance is less than an upper limit which in-turn would limit the gains in OOS performance though.

5 Conclusion

Various idiosyncrasies of intent detection task like varying scope of intents within a dataset, need to reject out of scope queries, imbalanced datasets and low resource regime make it a challenging task. In this work we evaluate multiple open source and closed source SOTA LLMs across multiple internal and external datasets for the task of intent detection using adaptive ICL and CoT prompting, compare them with SetFit models and discuss their performance/latency trade-offs. We build a hybrid system which routes queries to LLM when needed and achieves balance between performance and cost. We also propose a novel two step methodology which improves overall LLM performance by >5% across datasets and share insights on how varying scope of intents and number of labels in label space affect LLM performance. We hope our work will be useful for the community to build better TODS.

Limitations

While our current work has broad applicability for the design of accurate and computationally efficient task-oriented dialog systems, there are a few limitations:

Interactive Intent Design. Our current work assumes that intents are specified one-time in the form of examples by human experts, which has been the norm for designing task-oriented conversational assistants. However, there is potential for leveraging LLMs for an interactive class design process. In the future, we plan to investigate the benefits of enabling domain experts to directly interact with these LLMs to interactively define and refine the scope of intents.

Multilingual Support. While our current empirical evaluation was primarily focused on English datasets, the SOTA LLMs we explore already provide multilingual support. To fully harness the potential of our approach, we aim to generalize our ideas to the multilingual setting and evaluate them on diverse dialog datasets across various languages.

Alternative Hybrid Strategies. In the current work, we employ a cascade routing strategy that uses SetFit’s uncertainty to combine the SetFit models and LLMs yielding promising results. However, there are additional hybrid strategies worth exploring. Drawing inspiration from active learning literature, we could investigate alternative utility functions, such as information gain to determine when to invoke the LLM alongside the SetFit model. We also plan to compare our approach with model distillation strategies, where the LLM is used to generate synthetic training data to enhance the SetFit models.

Ethics Statement

Our motivation for the current work is to develop computationally efficient and accurate solutions for intent detection, leveraging prior research on sentence transformers and generative language models. As the focus is on intent classification rather than generation, the typical risks associated with generative content do not directly apply. However, as with any machine learning system, there are other important considerations, such as potential biases in the training data or constituent pre-trained models, the possibility of misuse, and challenges in establishing full accountability. Since our approach incorporates generative LLMs, any application of the proposed ideas needs to be mindful of any bi-

ases present in those models. Overall, the proposed methodological innovations are intended for benign applications and are not associated with any direct negative social impact. The datasets used in this research include public benchmarks and proprietary datasets from safe ecommerce categories, with personally identifiable information (PII) redacted to ensure customer privacy. To enable reproducibility, we plan to share these datasets as a community after internal approvals.

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A Appendix

A.1 AID3 Dataset

ALC contains upper funnel shopping queries for 1 HCTP⁷ category while **ADP** contains lower funnel queries for 6 HCTP categories. **OADP** also contains lower funnel queries from >10 HCTP categories.

A.2 Experiment Setup

For training SetFit models, we use SetFit library (Tunstall et al., 2022b) for implementation. Hyperparameter search space for SetFit model’s training is given in Table 6.

For **negative augmentation**, we use KeyBERT (Grootendorst, 2020) for identifying keywords. For every identified keyword, random 50% of the times we completely remove it, and remaining 50% of the times we replace it with a randomly generated string of 5 characters. For eg: “looking for a gaming laptop” can get converted into “looking for a” or “looking for a XYCVD QSDER” or “looking for a RTYUH”. Since these augmented OOS sentences have similar lexical pattern as in-scope training sentences, these are expected to help the model avoid latching onto any spurious patterns and help overall learning, which shows up in results as well (See 3.4). If U is the set of randomly sampled augmentations to add to train set, then we keep $|U| = 0.2 * |D|$, where $|D|$ is size of train set.

For **choosing ICL examples** for LLMs, we do grid search over ideal number of ICL examples and retriever threshold whose search space is shown in Table 7. We keep ordering of labels in the prompt

⁷High Consideration Technical Products