Tune-n-Batch: Fine-Tuning LLMs for Batch Prompting

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

The growing capabilities of Large Language Models (LLMs) have enabled batch prompting (BP), the technique of concatenating multiple questions into one prompt and answer-004 ing all questions in one inference pass. However, current batch prompting techniques require lengthy prompts that need few-shot examples and formatting instructions, reporting decreased accuracy per question as the batch size grows. In this paper, we show that this accuracy loss can be mitigated by fine-tuning 011 models for batch prompting. We aggregate training data for batch prompting by selecting batches from nine datasets with varying batch sizes. We demonstrate that after limited fine-tuning of LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct on our batch prompting dataset, BP can be per-017 formed effectively without in-prompt exam-019 ples or repetitive formatting. Our fine-tuned LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct model exhibits consistent performance across various batch sizes on tasks seen and unseen during training.

1 Introduction

024

027

Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in understanding and generating human language. Their capability for in-context learning (ICL), where instructions and examples are provided within the input prompt, is widely used across different tasks and model sizes. By leveraging the patterns and information present in the prompt, LLMs can infer the desired task and generate suitable responses without explicit training on that particular task. However, the best performance of in-context learning is often achieved through detailed instructions (Bai et al., 2022) or by providing many ICL examples (Agarwal et al., 2024; Bertsch et al., 2024), both of which result in high inference costs: when standard prompting (SP) is used to do inference, this context is re-encoded for every problem instance.



Figure 1: Standard prompting involves completing one query per inference call. Batch prompting (Cheng et al., 2023) batches multiple queries into a single prompt, enabling all questions to be completed in a single inference call. Our approach, Tune-n-Batch, improves upon batch prompting by batching queries into a smaller, tokenefficient prompt, that is then passed through an LLM fine-tuned for batch prompting.

To address the inefficiency, Cheng et al. (2023) proposed *batch prompting*, a technique that concatenates multiple problem instances into one prompt and answers them through a single inference pass. Batch prompting amortizes the prompting costs by only encoding the prompt once per batch, rather than once per example. However, existing batch prompting methods (Cheng et al., 2023; Lin et al., 2023; Son et al., 2024) rely on lengthy, repetitive prompts needing examples to ensure instruction following. As batch sizes increase, these methods typically see drops in accuracy (Cheng et al., 2023; Lin et al., 2023). Teaching a model the batch prompt format may require few-shot examples, hindering its applicability to zero-shot prompting settings (e.g., if examples for the task are not readily available).

In this work, we use fine-tuning to build an LLM 058 capable of batch prompting without the need for 059 lengthy contexts or in-context examples. As de-060 scribed in Figure 1, our approach, Tune-n-Batch, improves upon prior batch prompting methods, by enabling the LLM to process smaller, token-063 efficient batch prompts through fine-tuning. We 064 construct a new dataset for this purpose by batching a varying number of problem instances from nine existing datasets and concatenating them with task 067 descriptions and any additional required context, thereby automatically generating a large number of batch prompts from existing data. After finetuning LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct on only 25 questions per task-batch size combination on a subset of tasks, our fine-tuned model can effectively answer batch prompts for both tasks included and excluded from training. Fine-tuned LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct maintains stable performance across various batch sizes for each task and successfully follow formatting instructions.

> Our contributions are: (1) Tune-n-Batch, a new approach to enable the use of more token-efficient batch prompts through LLM fine-tuning; (2) a new dataset, containing 815,310 batch prompts, for the purpose of fine-tuning and evaluating LLMs according to our methodology; (3) an extensive evaluation assessing our approach across various language understanding and reasoning tasks.

2 Methodology

079

084

091

098

099

100

101

102 103

104

105

107

2.1 Batch Prompt Format

Assume an LLM \mathcal{M} places a probability distribution over strings $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{V}^*$ given inputs $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{V}^*$. While inputs to LLMs can be formatted in a variety of ways, in the context of prompting, they typically break down into a few distinct pieces.

First, a *task description* T outlines the nature of the task to be performed. An example of a task description is given in the top box in Figure 2. Often this is placed in the system prompt as opposed to the user prompt in LLMs that make the distinction.

We then have a specific problem instance q to handle. q may be a one-off request (*Generate a story about...*). q may also reference some context C that is problem specific (e.g., a document that a question should be answered from). In general, our task is to address a set of queries q_1, \ldots, q_N , all of which share T and some of which share C. In Figure 2, T consists of the task description, Cconsists of the article, and q_1, \ldots, q_4 are questions. Typical LM prompting will invoke $a_i \sim \mathcal{M}(\cdot | T, C, q_i)$ for each q_i in the dataset. a_i is an answer extracted from a sampled response; we assume access to some response postprocessor to extract the answers from the raw LLM output.

Batch prompting allows us to amortize the effort of encoding T and C across different queries q by invoking $a_1, \ldots, a_B \sim \mathcal{M}(\cdot \mid T', C, q_1, \ldots, q_B)$ for a batch size B. T' is a modified version of the prompt T to enable the model to simultaneously answer q_1, \ldots, q_B (highlighted in red in Figure 2). However, this batched formulation is not one that LLMs are necessarily adapted to by default.

Previous Work on Batch Prompting Batch prompting, initially proposed by Cheng et al. (2023), involves a straightforward process of concatenating k selected in-context examples with b queries, indexed as Question[i] and Answer[i], into a single prompt, enabling a language model to answer all questions in a single inference call to an LLM. Figure 2 shows the context for a single batch prompt. Batch prompting exploits the expanding context windows of LLMs (Xiong et al., 2023) to answer more questions per inference while preserving the efficiency of parallel processing.

Cheng et al. (2023) validate both its effectiveness and efficiency (with token cost scaling theoretically inversely proportional to b) on batch sizes up to b = 6 on a range of CommonsenseQA, arithmetic reasoning, and NLU/NLI benchmarks. Cheng et al. found that BP performance suffers mild degradation with batch size, which steepens with task complexity. Lin et al. (2023) developed a more verbose batch prompt that incorporates instructions for intermediate reasoning techniques such as chainof-thought (Wei et al., 2023). Furthermore, they scaled their experiments to a much larger batch size (b = 64) and subsequently proposed an iterative voting strategy over permuted intra-batch orders to mitigate the greater observed performance degradation at larger batch sizes. While ensembling multiple attempts per question mitigates performance loss, it undermines the token efficiency gains that primarily motivate batch prompting.

Token Usage In terms of token usage, batch prompting can be significantly more efficient that standard prompting, as shared components, such as T and C, are processed just once across multiple problem instances. Although batch prompting does require additional formatting instructions, these costs are *fixed*, and are therefore amortized as the

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

108

109

110



Figure 2: Example of a batch prompt for the RACE task. The task description T describes the RACE task; the shared context C needed for each problem instance q in this example is the article needed to answer each comprehension question. Note, T has been modified to include formatting instructions (as indicated by highlighted text) to become T'. Batch prompting enables answering multiple questions about the same article without repeating the context or task description, significantly reducing the input tokens required and the time needed per question.

159batch size increases. Figure 2 illustrates this bene-160fit as it compares the size of a standard prompt for161a single problem instance as compared to a batch162prompt for four of them. In batch prompting, the163added cost for an additional problem is simply the164length of the problem instance q, whereas standard165prompting would also require shared components166such as T and C. We describe these benefits more167formally in Appendix A.

2.2 Fine-tuning for Batch prompting

169

172

Our goal is to fine-tune a model \mathcal{M} to perform well at the batch prompting task. To do this, we will train on an aggregated dataset \mathcal{D} collected from different tasks.

173Each dataset instance consists of (q_i, a_i, C_i) tu-174ples, with the shared context C_i being optional175(e.g., a context in QA datasets). From these, we176form tuples $(T'_i, C'_i, \{q_1, \dots, q_B\}, \{a_1, \dots, a_B\})$.177We then fine-tune a language model of choice in a178supervised fashion on this data. We minimize the179negative log likelihood of the tokens $\{a_1, \dots, a_B\}$ 180given $(T'_i, C'_i, \{q_1, \dots, q_B\})$. In Section 3.2, we181describe the choices of models and optimization182framework we use for this.

2.3 Training Data for Batch Prompting

Our batch prompting dataset includes the following datasets, with specific task instructions and templates designed to minimize redundancies across questions in the same batch.

187

188

190

191

192

193

194

195

197

201

202

204

- Tasks from the GLUE benchmark (Wang et al., 2019), including linguistic acceptability with CoLA (Warstadt et al., 2019), natural language inference with MNLI and RTE (Williams et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019), paraphrase detection with MRPC (Dolan and Brockett, 2005), and question paraphrase detection with QQP (Iyer et al., 2017). The MNLI dataset is split into matched and mismatched subsets to test in-domain and crossdomain performance, respectively.
- CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2019) for evaluating commonsense reasoning abilities.
- The RACE dataset (Lai et al., 2017), designed for reading comprehension tasks, is particularly effective for batch prompting because it provides multiple questions for each reading passage, thereby eliminating the need to repeat the document context for every question.

279

281

284

285

286

287

289

290

291

292

253

254

255

256

257

258

Amount of Data Used To balance the number of examples across different datasets and prevent large training datasets such as MNLI from being overrepresented, we subsample from our batch prompting dataset. The number of training examples for each task-batch size combination is determined by $\left[\frac{25}{\text{batch size}}\right]$, indicating that as batch sizes increase, the number of training examples decreases. For batch sizes of 32 or greater, we train on just one example per task. Our evaluation sets consist of 1,000 questions in the test set for each task.

3 Experimental Setup

3.1 Datasets

207

208

209

210

212

213 214

215

216

218

219

222

224

226

227

232

240

241

242

243

244

245 246

247

251

252

We evaluate the performance of both our nonfine-tuned model and fine-tuned models across the same nine datasets used for batch prompting (Section 2.3).

For most of our datasets, we use a leave-one-out approach where we fine-tune for batch prompting *excluding that dataset*. This tests whether our batch prompting system generalizes across tasks.¹

We also reserve three tasks (CoLA, QQP, and SST-2) to observe the performance of our model fine-tuned on all 9 datasets, including training data from the target tasks. This reflects the most optimistic measure of "in-domain" performance from batch prompting.

We use the existing train-test split established from the original datasets of our batch prompting dataset, except for datasets whose test set did not include ground truth answers. For these datasets, we use the validation sets as the test set.

In addition, we create a standard prompting dataset, using the same tasks and train-test split. Standard prompts are the same as batch prompts with the exception that they only ask the model to answer one question and have simpler formatting instructions. Examples of our batch prompts, standard prompts, and related prior literature few-shot batch prompts can be found in Appendix Section E.

3.2 Models

We use LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct (AI@Meta, 2024) with 4-bit quantization to evaluate our methodology under two different configurations.

• Non-Fine-Tuned Model: We evaluated the

original version of LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct in its original weights.

• **Tune-n-Batch:** We evaluated a version of the base model LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct fine-tuned on Batch Prompting training data as described in Section 2.3.

Due to the cost of fine-tuning a large language model, we fine-tuned the base LLaMA-3-8B Instruct using parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT). We use LoRA (Hu et al., 2021), a PEFT method in which trainable low-rank matrices are inserted into each transformer layer.

3.3 Baselines

To quantify any performance loss from batch prompting, we compare the performance of standard prompting and batch prompting using both respective datasets.

3.4 Metrics

Following Cheng et al. (2023), we use **accuracy** as the primary metric for measuring model performance. The accuracy metric enables us to identify trends across tasks, models, and batch sizes, facilitating statistical testing and automatic evaluation.

We calculate accuracy using an answer parser designed to robustly extract the answer across several different formats we observed our LLMs producing. If an answer is not parseable, the model is treated as having guessed the most likely class (or randomly for multiple-choice tasks). We evaluate the fraction of instances on which our parser fails as **parser error rate**.²

We assess the significance of our results using a paired t-test (Gosset, 1908) to compare overall finetuned and non-fine-tuned model performance, and Spearman correlation (Spearman, 1961) to investigate relationships between batch size and answer accuracy.

4 Results & Analysis

The results of our experiments are presented in Figure 3. We observed a substantial improvement in performance for batch prompts ($BP \ge 2$) after

¹When evaluating the fine-tuned model on the MNLI datasets, we exclude both MNLI datasets from training.

²Note that this is an underestimate of the fraction of cases where the model does not follow the exact output format specified in the instruction. In a real-world setting, we determined that a system designer would most likely be using a flexible answer parser, but note that answer parsing error rates are generally higher for non-fine-tuned batch prompting if held to the strict standard.



Comparing Tune-n-Batch and Non-Fine-Tuned Performance of LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct for Batch Prompting

Figure 3: Comparison of batch prompts performance before and after fine-tuning on various tasks. The nonfine-tuned models shows decreased performance for batch prompting as batch size increases. After fine-tuning, performance remains more stable across batch sizes for both fine-tuned tasks (solid lines) and tasks not included in the fine-tuning (dashed lines). All accuracy results reported use multiple regular expressions to extract each answer, with random guessing as a fallback when all regular expressions fail.

fine-tuning the model with the batch prompting dataset. Notably, the fine-tuned model maintained stable performance for batch prompts of all batch sizes for tasks both tasks and unseen during training. In contrast, the non-fine-tuned model's performance decreased as the batch size increased.

294

295

297

298

302

303

310

311

312

313

314

317

Effect of fine-tuning Figure 3, depicts the accuracy across standard prompts and batch prompts before and after fine-tuning. When the batch size is sufficiently large, the fine-tuned model consistently outperforms the non-fine-tuned model across all tasks for batch prompting. This trend persists even on tasks not included as part of training for the finetuned model. The improvement in unseen tasks for larger batch sizes indicates that our fine-tuning approach is generalizable to tasks beyond those used during training. As the batch size increases, the widening performance gap in unseen tasks between both models suggests that the fine-tuned model is learning the overall batch prompting task and answer formatting rather than superficially learning the underlying tasks during fine-tuning. 315

> For significance testing, we randomly sample 200 examples for each task-batch size combination

across all batch sizes ≥ 2 , excluding the RACE task due to insufficient data at larger batch sizes. We control for the number of questions per taskbatch size, only performing tests on subsets with an equal number of batch sizes. We conducted a paired t-test to determine if the performance difference between the fine-tuned and non-fine-tuned models was statistically significant. The results showed that the fine-tuned model significantly outperformed the non-fine-tuned model with a p-value of 3.7×10^{-6} .

Similarly, we examined the relationship between batch size and overall answer accuracy using Spearman correlation. For the non-fine-tuned model, we found a significant negative correlation ($r_s =$ $-0.183, p = 3.2 \times 10^{-3}$). For the fine-tuned model, we did not find a statistically significant correlation between accuracy and batch size using the Spearman correlation test (p > 0.05). This nonsignificant result, along with the visual evidence provided in Figure 3, suggests that fine-tuning the LLM mitigates the negative impact of increasing batch sizes on performance. In other words, after fine-tuning, the model's performance remains relatively stable across different batch sizes, indicating

341

342

318

319

320

321

Average Accuracy per Question Index for Batch Size 8



Figure 4: Examining the relationship between question index and average accuracy at that question index. Results are from an earlier training run, so per-task performance may differ from other figures.

that larger batch sizes do not lead to a significant degradation in accuracy.

343

344

345

347

352

361

366

371

Relation Between Question Index and Accuracy In Figure 4, we explore the impact of a query's position within a batch prompt on its accuracy. We focus on batch size 8, since for larger batch sizes, the number of examples per each bucket becomes very small. Apart from the first question often exhibiting slightly higher performance, we do not observe a consistent pattern across question indices. We again see that the fine-tuned model consistently outperforms the non-fine-tuned model. However, we do not see a trend of either the fine-tuned or non-fine-tuned models consistently answering the first or the last question more accurately than other questions, which previous work on attention patterns might suggest (Liu et al., 2023).

Prior work on batch prompting from Lin et al. (2023) reports, in their experiments, that the average accuracy at each answer index within the response to a batch prompt varies widely across batch prompts for both GPT-3.5 and GPT-4. The methodology used in their experiments is based on a round-robin approach in which they run batch prompts several times with questions rotated to have visited each batch index. Our methodology instead evaluates batch prompts in which questions are batched and ordered randomly from a set of 1,000 batch prompts.

Analysis of Formatting Errors We manually
 inspected various outputs generated through our

batch prompts prior fine-tuning to identify what was causing parsing errors in this setting, especially for high batch sizes. Table 1 shows an illustrative sample of the outputs we evaluated. Overall, we saw in our analysis that parsing errors were caused by a complete breakdown in the model's ability to follow the provided instructions. Our parsing methods were able to handle deviations from the correct format with the main requirement that each answer began with the correct indexing. However, responses that ignore answer indexing requirements and fail to consecutively answer questions with the correct indexing resulted in parsing error. 374

375

376

378

379

380

381

382

384

386

387

390

391

392

393

394

395

397

398

400

401

402

403

404

In addition to responses that were essentially nonsensical hallucinations, we found examples of non-parseable responses that could interpreted to provide valid answers upon further scrutiny. We also show examples of these responses in Table 1. Since these types of responses vary significantly in terms of format and writing style, we did not attempt to build an automatic parsing system for them. Moreover, we did not manually parse all of these responses as the cost for doing so was deemed excessive.

Token Efficiency in Batch Prompting Cheng et al. (2023) defines the token efficiency for standard prompting as $\eta_{standard} = \frac{1}{K+1}$ and for batch prompting as $\eta_{batch} = \frac{b}{K+b}$ in Equation 1, where *K* denotes the number of in-context exemplars and *b* is the number of samples in a batch.

Task	Response	Correctly Formatted	Parseable
QQP	Answer[0]: The answer is 0.	True	True
RACE	Answer[1]: The answer is T. Answer[0]: The answer is C. Answer[1]: The answer is B.	True	True
QQP	Question[0]: The answer is 0. Question[1]: The answer is 1.	False	True
RACE	Question[0]: The correct answer is C: Sunshine in Seattle is rare during the winter months. Question[1]: The correct answer is B: exhaustion, depression and lack of energy caused by a lack of sunlight.	False	True
QQP	Answer[index]: The answer is 0. For question pairs 0-2, 4-6, 8-10, 12-14, 16-18, 20-22, 24-26, 28-30, 32-34, 36-38, 40-42, 44-46, 48-50, 52-54, 56-58, 60-62, and 63-64: The questions are not duplicates. For question pairs 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 25, 27, 29, 31, 35, 37, 39, 41, 43, 45, 47, 49, 51, 53, 55, 57, 59, 61, and 62: The questions are duplicates.	False	False
RACE	Answer[0]: The gentleman dismissed the other boys because they didn't pick up the book lying on the floor. Answer[1]: The gentleman hired the boy because he was polite and gentlemanly.	False	False

Table 1: Examples of formatting errors produced by the non-fine-tuned model. Note, these responses have been shortened as their actual length is too long to display in this table.

$$\eta_{standard} = \frac{1}{K+1}$$

$$\eta_{batch} = \frac{b}{K+b}$$
(1)

However, the token efficiency formulas in Equation 1 make several simplifying assumptions that may not hold in practice. The formulas do not explicitly account for tokens used for the task description (T), answer, or batch prompt-specific formatting instructions (F), which may differ between standard prompting and batch prompting. Moreover, they overlook the potential presence of shared context tokens (C) that need not be repeated for multiple questions over the same context or document. Additionally, the formulas assume an equal number of query (Q) and answer (A) tokens for both prompting methods and do not distinguish between input and output tokens. While these simplifications may be justified when few-shot examples dominate the token count, a more precise breakdown of the components is necessary for accurate token efficiency analysis in concise prompts.

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

We present further discussion of token efficiency in Appendix A.

Token Analysis To show the token efficiency of the batch prompts we are using, we present an analysis of the token counts of batch prompts and standard prompts in Figure 5 for the RTE task.³

Token Efficiency of Batch Prompts on RTE Task



Figure 5: Comparing the token efficiency of batch prompting and standard prompting on the RTE dataset.

As seen in Figure 5, Tune-n-Batch batch prompts are substantially more token efficient than previous batch prompting and standard prompting methods. Across all batch sizes greater than 1, the number of tokens per problem instance was significantly lower for our method than that of other prompting methods. Moreover, the number of tokens per query in our batch prompts decreased inversely with the batch size.

When comparing this method to prior batch prompting methods, we see how the removal of incontext examples have a dramatic effect on reducing the overall prompt length. Through the Tune-

³Prior work creating batch prompts for RTE did not provide complete batch prompts containing in-context examples

across batch sizes or code for forming the batch prompts. The token count estimates for existing batch prompts on are based on assumptions of example formatting and the number of in-context examples.

540

541

542

493

494

495

496

n-Batch method, we do not require these examples to induce correct responses to batch prompts, as we use fine-tuning to teach LLMs to do this. As the batch size increases, we can expect the number of tokens per problem instance to eventually converge among all three methods, but the batch size required for this to occurs is not practically applicable. Moreover, these methods reported decreases in accuracy as batch size increases unlike the results we present in which accuracy remains relatively stable across batch sizes for most tasks.

5 Related Work

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

Batching in Deep Learning Systems Batching has been employed in neural network training since Rumelhart et al. (1986) and has since gained popularity for enhancing the efficiency of both training and inference (Bertsekas, 2011; Bengio, 2012). It has become a standard practice for training large language models since the introduction of the transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2022; Touvron et al., 2023). Under the right conditions, batching can accelerate training through parallelization (Goyal et al., 2018), improve accuracy by aggregating gradients (Masters and Luschi, 2018), and reduce environmental costs (Yarally et al., 2023).

Batching has also been essential for reducing inference time when processing large sets of model queries. However, the parameter count of large language models (LLMs) is growing faster than GPU memory capacities (Rajbhandari et al., 2021), challenging the traditional batching approach where each query is allocated separate GPU memory and processed in parallel.

SysML approaches to redundant input While 477 Cheng et al. (2023), Lin et al. (2023), and this 478 work approach the concept of reusing redundant in-479 puts to an LLM through efficient prompting strate-480 gies, there are also approaches that attempt to solve 481 this problem at a lower level. KV cache reusing 482 schemes reduces the time it take to process input 483 text in an LLM by pre-computing and caching the 484 tensors of frequently reused texts. Yao et al. (2024) 485 improves upon prior methods, which often trade-486 off speed with generation quality, by selectively 487 488 re-computing certain portions of the text while reusing the rest from the KV cache, thereby preserv-489 ing cross-attention and thus the generation quality 490 while still benefiting from the speedup provided 491 by caching. Another approach, called Attention-492

Store, uses a heirarchical KV caching system to reuse input tensors across multi-turn conversations in LLMs (Gao et al., 2024).

Fine-tuning for Instruction Following Our methodology of fine-tuning for batch prompting on certain tasks while expecting the model to generalize this style of prompting on other unseen tasks is motivated by prior work on instruction following. The zero-shot capabilities of LLMs (Brown et al., 2020) drove Sanh et al. (2022) to discover that explicitly fine-tuning an LLM on a large set of tasks could lead to better zero-shot generalization on unseen tasks, implying that LLMs can be trained on how to follow instructions. Wei et al. (2022) further corroborates this phenomenon by developing an instruction-tuned model called FLAN, which outperformed GPT-3 on several tasks despite its smaller size.

6 Conclusion

In this work, we present a novel approach to batch prompting, demonstrating that fine-tuning a large language model on a diverse dataset of batch prompts enables effective batch prompting without the need for lengthy prompts or few-shot examples. Our fine-tuned model maintains stable performance across various batch sizes, even on unseen tasks, contrasting with the performance degradation observed in non-fine-tuned models as batch size increases. Our findings demonstrate that finetuning LLMs for batch prompting can significantly improve their efficiency and applicability in realworld scenarios, making it possible to process a larger number of queries using fewer computational resources.

We encourage future work to explore batch prompting as an efficient alternative to standard prompting methods. Future work on batch prompting should incorporate chain-of-thought (CoT) reasoning (Wei et al., 2023), as CoT could be instrumental for extending batch prompting to multi-step tasks, such as mathematical reasoning. While this paper mainly explored single task batch prompts, the development of well-performing batch prompts encompassing multiple tasks could offer flexibility while retaining the efficiency gains from batch prompting. With these efficiency benefits in mind, we believe future work should also focus on developing large language models capable of processing batch prompts with large batch sizes as accurately as standard prompts.

Limitations

543

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

554

558

560

562

563

564

566

570

571

575

576

580

583

584

585

586

588

589

590

591

592

Our study has several limitations that should be addressed in future research. We only experimented with a single model, LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct, due the computational requirements of fine-tuning larger models. Future work should investigate whether our findings generalize to a diverse set of models of different sizes, architectures, and capabilities, such as T5 and Llama-3-70B-Instruct, to determine if effective batch prompting is an emergent property of larger models or if it can be achieved after fine-tuning with smaller models as well.

Because of limited context window sizes and the token scaling of including larger batches in a context, our analysis only went up to batches of size 32. Further work is needed to determine if the performance stability observed in our experiments extends to larger batch sizes of ≥ 64 .

Another limitation of our study is the potential loss of generalizability due to fine-tuning. When comparing standard prompting to batch prompting, we observed a decrease in performance on tasks that were not included in the fine-tuning process. Although we attempted to mitigate this risk by finetuning on a small number of examples, future work should explore alternative methods for maintaining generalizability, such as meta-learning, multitask learning, and fine-tuning approaches designed to prevent the loss of generality. Exploring the use of instruction tuning (Zhang et al., 2024) and Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) (Ouyang et al., 2022) or Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) (Rafailov et al., 2023) to finetune the model for batch prompting could be a viable alternative to Parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT). Additionally, more extensive experiments are needed to quantify the extent of catastrophic forgetting and its impact on the model's performance on non-batch prompting tasks after fine-tuning.

References

- Rishabh Agarwal, Avi Singh, Lei M. Zhang, Bernd Bohnet, Luis Rosias, Stephanie Chan, Biao Zhang, Ankesh Anand, Zaheer Abbas, Azade Nova, John D. Co-Reyes, Eric Chu, Feryal Behbahani, Aleksandra Faust, and Hugo Larochelle. 2024. Many-shot incontext learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2404.11018.
- AI@Meta. 2024. Llama 3 model card.
 - Yuntao Bai, Saurav Kadavath, Sandipan Kundu, Amanda Askell, Jackson Kernion, Andy Jones, Anna Chen, Anna Goldie, Azalia Mirhoseini, Cameron

McKinnon, Carol Chen, Catherine Olsson, Christopher Olah, Danny Hernandez, Dawn Drain, Deep Ganguli, Dustin Li, Eli Tran-Johnson, Ethan Perez, Jamie Kerr, Jared Mueller, Jeffrey Ladish, Joshua Landau, Kamal Ndousse, Kamile Lukosuite, Liane Lovitt, Michael Sellitto, Nelson Elhage, Nicholas Schiefer, Noemi Mercado, Nova DasSarma, Robert Lasenby, Robin Larson, Sam Ringer, Scott Johnston, Shauna Kravec, Sheer El Showk, Stanislav Fort, Tamera Lanham, Timothy Telleen-Lawton, Tom Conerly, Tom Henighan, Tristan Hume, Samuel R. Bowman, Zac Hatfield-Dodds, Ben Mann, Dario Amodei, Nicholas Joseph, Sam McCandlish, Tom Brown, and Jared Kaplan. 2022. Constitutional ai: Harmlessness from ai feedback. *Preprint*, arXiv:2212.08073. 593

594

596

597

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

- Yoshua Bengio. 2012. Practical recommendations for gradient-based training of deep architectures. *Preprint*, arXiv:1206.5533.
- Amanda Bertsch, Maor Ivgi, Uri Alon, Jonathan Berant, Matthew R. Gormley, and Graham Neubig. 2024. In-context learning with long-context models: An in-depth exploration. *Preprint*, arXiv:2405.00200.
- Dimitri P Bertsekas. 2011. Incremental gradient, subgradient, and proximal methods for convex optimization: A survey.
- Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel M. Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Christopher Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz Litwin, Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam Mc-Candlish, Alec Radford, Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. 2020. Language models are few-shot learners. *Preprint*, arXiv:2005.14165.
- Zhoujun Cheng, Jungo Kasai, and Tao Yu. 2023. Batch prompting: Efficient inference with large language model apis. *Preprint*, arXiv:2301.08721.
- William B. Dolan and Chris Brockett. 2005. Automatically constructing a corpus of sentential paraphrases. In Proceedings of the Third International Workshop on Paraphrasing (IWP2005).
- Bin Gao, Zhuomin He, Puru Sharma, Qingxuan Kang, Djordje Jevdjic, Junbo Deng, Xingkun Yang, Zhou Yu, and Pengfei Zuo. 2024. Attentionstore: Costeffective attention reuse across multi-turn conversations in large language model serving. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.19708*.
- Sealey Gosset. 1908. The probable error of a mean. *Biometrika*, 6(1):1–25.
- Priya Goyal, Piotr Dollár, Ross Girshick, Pieter Noordhuis, Lukasz Wesolowski, Aapo Kyrola, Andrew Tulloch, Yangqing Jia, and Kaiming He. 2018. Accurate, large minibatch sgd: Training imagenet in 1 hour. *Preprint*, arXiv:1706.02677.

651

703

- Edward J. Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang, and Weizhu Chen. 2021. Lora: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2106.09685.
- Shankar Iyer, Nikhil Dandekar, and Kornél Csernai. 2017. First quora dataset release: Question pairs. Online. Accessed: YYYY-MM-DD.
- Guokun Lai, Qizhe Xie, Hanxiao Liu, Yiming Yang, and Eduard Hovy. 2017. Race: Large-scale reading comprehension dataset from examinations. Preprint, arXiv:1704.04683.
- Jianzhe Lin, Maurice Diesendruck, Liang Du, and Robin Abraham. 2023. Batchprompt: Accomplish more with less. Preprint, arXiv:2309.00384.
- Nelson F. Liu, Kevin Lin, John Hewitt, Ashwin Paranjape, Michele Bevilacqua, Fabio Petroni, and Percy Liang. 2023. Lost in the middle: How language models use long contexts. *Preprint*, arXiv:2307.03172.
- Dominic Masters and Carlo Luschi. 2018. Revisiting small batch training for deep neural networks. Preprint, arXiv:1804.07612.
- Long Ouyang, Jeff Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll L. Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, John Schulman, Jacob Hilton, Fraser Kelton, Luke Miller, Maddie Simens, Amanda Askell, Peter Welinder, Paul Christiano, Jan Leike, and Ryan Lowe. 2022. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. Preprint, arXiv:2203.02155.
- F. Pedregosa, G. Varoquaux, A. Gramfort, V. Michel, B. Thirion, O. Grisel, M. Blondel, P. Prettenhofer, R. Weiss, V. Dubourg, J. Vanderplas, A. Passos, D. Cournapeau, M. Brucher, M. Perrot, and E. Duchesnay. 2011. Scikit-learn: Machine learning in Python. Journal of Machine Learning Research, 12:2825-2830.
- Rafael Rafailov, Archit Sharma, Eric Mitchell, Christopher D Manning, Stefano Ermon, and Chelsea Finn. 2023. Direct preference optimization: Your language model is secretly a reward model. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 36, pages 53728–53741. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Samyam Rajbhandari, Olatunji Ruwase, Jeff Rasley, Shaden Smith, and Yuxiong He. 2021. Zero-infinity: Breaking the gpu memory wall for extreme scale deep learning. Preprint, arXiv:2104.07857.
- David E Rumelhart, Geoffrey E Hinton, and Ronald J Williams. 1986. Learning representations by backpropagating errors. nature, 323(6088):533-536.
- Victor Sanh, Albert Webson, Colin Raffel, Stephen H. Bach, Lintang Sutawika, Zaid Alyafeai, Antoine Chaffin, Arnaud Stiegler, Teven Le Scao, Arun Raja, Manan Dey, M Saiful Bari, Canwen Xu, Urmish Thakker, Shanya Sharma Sharma, Eliza Szczechla,

Taewoon Kim, Gunjan Chhablani, Nihal Nayak, Debajyoti Datta, Jonathan Chang, Mike Tian-Jian Jiang, Han Wang, Matteo Manica, Sheng Shen, Zheng Xin Yong, Harshit Pandey, Rachel Bawden, Thomas Wang, Trishala Neeraj, Jos Rozen, Abheesht Sharma, Andrea Santilli, Thibault Fevry, Jason Alan Fries, Ryan Teehan, Tali Bers, Stella Biderman, Leo Gao, Thomas Wolf, and Alexander M. Rush. 2022. Multitask prompted training enables zero-shot task generalization. Preprint, arXiv:2110.08207.

704

705

708

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

749

750

751

753

755

756

757

758

- Guijin Son, Sangwon Baek, Sangdae Nam, Ilgyun Jeong, and Seungone Kim. 2024. Multi-task inference: Can large language models follow multiple instructions at once? Preprint, arXiv:2402.11597.
- Charles Spearman. 1961. The proof and measurement of association between two things.
- Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. 2019. Commonsensega: A question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. Preprint, arXiv:1811.00937.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, Dan Bikel, Lukas Blecher, Cristian Canton Ferrer, Moya Chen, Guillem Cucurull, David Esiobu, Jude Fernandes, Jeremy Fu, Wenyin Fu, Brian Fuller, Cynthia Gao, Vedanuj Goswami, Naman Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Saghar Hosseini, Rui Hou, Hakan Inan, Marcin Kardas, Viktor Kerkez, Madian Khabsa, Isabel Kloumann, Artem Korenev, Punit Singh Koura, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Thibaut Lavril, Jenva Lee, Diana Liskovich, Yinghai Lu, Yuning Mao, Xavier Martinet, Todor Mihaylov, Pushkar Mishra, Igor Molybog, Yixin Nie, Andrew Poulton, Jeremy Reizenstein, Rashi Rungta, Kalyan Saladi, Alan Schelten, Ruan Silva, Eric Michael Smith, Ranjan Subramanian, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Binh Tang, Ross Taylor, Adina Williams, Jian Xiang Kuan, Puxin Xu, Zheng Yan, Iliyan Zarov, Yuchen Zhang, Angela Fan, Melanie Kambadur, Sharan Narang, Aurelien Rodriguez, Robert Stojnic, Sergey Edunov, and Thomas Scialom. 2023. Llama 2: Open foundation and finetuned chat models. Preprint, arXiv:2307.09288.
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. 2017. Attention is all you need. Advances in neural information processing systems, 30.
- Alex Wang, Amanpreet Singh, Julian Michael, Felix Hill, Omer Levy, and Samuel R. Bowman. 2019. Glue: A multi-task benchmark and analysis platform for natural language understanding. Preprint, arXiv:1804.07461.
- Alex Warstadt, Amanpreet Singh, and Samuel R Bowman. 2019. Cola: The corpus of linguistic acceptability (with added annotations).

Jason Wei, Maarten Bosma, Vincent Y. Zhao, Kelvin Guu, Adams Wei Yu, Brian Lester, Nan Du, Andrew M. Dai, and Quoc V. Le. 2022. Finetuned language models are zero-shot learners. *Preprint*, arXiv:2109.01652.

760

761

763

764

765

766

770

772

774

778

779

780

781 782

784

785

794

795

- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Brian Ichter, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc Le, and Denny Zhou. 2023. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2201.11903.
- Adina Williams, Nikita Nangia, and Samuel R. Bowman. 2018. A broad-coverage challenge corpus for sentence understanding through inference. *Preprint*, arXiv:1704.05426.
- Wenhan Xiong, Jingyu Liu, Igor Molybog, Hejia Zhang, Prajjwal Bhargava, Rui Hou, Louis Martin, Rashi Rungta, Karthik Abinav Sankararaman, Barlas Oguz, et al. 2023. Effective long-context scaling of foundation models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.16039.
- Jiayi Yao, Hanchen Li, Yuhan Liu, Siddhant Ray, Yihua Cheng, Qizheng Zhang, Kuntai Du, Shan Lu, and Junchen Jiang. 2024. Cacheblend: Fast large language model serving with cached knowledge fusion. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.16444*.
- Tim Yarally, Luís Cruz, Daniel Feitosa, June Sallou, and Arie van Deursen. 2023. Batching for green ai – an exploratory study on inference. *Preprint*, arXiv:2307.11434.
- Gyeong-In Yu, Joo Seong Jeong, Geon-Woo Kim, Soojeong Kim, and Byung-Gon Chun. 2022. Orca: A distributed serving system for {Transformer-Based} generative models. In *16th USENIX Symposium on Operating Systems Design and Implementation* (*OSDI 22*), pages 521–538.
- Shengyu Zhang, Linfeng Dong, Xiaoya Li, Sen Zhang, Xiaofei Sun, Shuhe Wang, Jiwei Li, Runyi Hu, Tianwei Zhang, Fei Wu, and Guoyin Wang. 2024. Instruction tuning for large language models: A survey. *Preprint*, arXiv:2308.10792.

A Batch Prompting Token Efficiency

799

823

825

827

828

829

830

832 833

834

837

839

841

845

800 Table 2 breaks down the components of standard prompts (SP) and batch prompts (BP), providing 801 formulas to calculate input and output token efficiency. The table reveals that SP and BP have relatively equal output token efficiency, with SP 805 slightly more efficient due to not requiring answer index formatting. However, this difference may be significant given the higher API costs for output generation compared to input tokens. The task description T, formatting instructions F, shared context C, and examples K are fixed costs across 810 all batch sizes, while query tokens Q depend on the 811 batch size. In scenarios where fixed costs are a sig-813 nificant portion of the total tokens, batch prompting can be substantially more efficient than standard 814 prompting. As batch size increases, fixed costs are 815 amortized over more queries, reducing per-query 816 token costs. This is particularly beneficial when 817 fixed costs are high relative to variable costs. How-818 ever, the benefits of batch prompting may diminish 819 beyond a certain batch size, as variable costs scale linearly while fixed costs remain constant, leading to a point of diminishing returns.

B Supplemental Results

Table 3 provides the numerical values for accuracy present in Figure 3 along with the MNLI Matched task.

C Licensing and Artifact Information

Our use of LLaMA-3-8B-Instruct is permitted under research purposes. The use of existing datasets, such as those in the batch prompting dataset, is allowed for research and non-commercial purposes in accordance with the applicable data usage agreements.

D Hyperparameter Settings

We used the default hyperparameters for SFT training for LORA. We used LoRA (Low-Rank Adaptation) with default values of $lora_alpha = 16$, $lora_dropout = 0.1$, and r=64. Hyperparameters like a learning rate of 2×10^{-4} weight decay of 0.001, and max gradient norm of 0.3 were employed during training.

For parsing and regular expression testing, we used Python's built-in re library with functions like re.findall(), re.finditer(), and re.search(), along with various regular expression patterns tailored to the task requirements. For testing 846 and evaluation, we employed the scikit-learn li-847 brary (Pedregosa et al., 2011), utilizing modules 848 like sklearn.metrics for computing evaluation met-849 rics, sklearn.model_selection for techniques like 850 cross-validation, and sklearn.preprocessing for data 851 normalization and scaling. The specific implemen-852 tations and parameter settings were adjusted based 853 on the parsing and evaluation needs. 854

Standard Prompting	Batch Prompting						
T - Task Description (T_{SP})	T - Task Description (T_{BP})						
F - Formatting (F_{SP})	F - Formatting (F_{BP})						
C - Context (opt) (C_{SP})	C - Context (opt) (C_{BP})						
K - Examples (opt) (K_{SP})	K - Examples (opt) (K_{BP})						
Q - Query (Q_{SP})	$\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{Q}$ - Query tokens per query (Q_{BP})						
A - Answer (A_{SP})	$\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ - Answer tokens per answer (A_{BP})						
Total Token Formula (T _{total})							
$T_{total,SP} = T_{SP} + F_{SP} + C_{SP} + K_{SP} + Q_{SP} + A_{SP}$	$T_{total,BP} = T_{BP} + F_{BP} + C_{BP} + K_{BP} + b(Q_{BP} + A_{BP})$						
Input Token Formula (T _{input})							
$T_{input,SP} = T_{SP} + F_{SP} + C_{SP} + K_{SP} + Q_{SP}$	$T_{input,BP} = T_{BP} + F_{BP} + C_{BP} + K_{BP} + b(Q_{BP})$						
Output Token Formula (T _{output})							
$T_{output.SP} = A_{SP}$	$T_{output,BP} = b(A_{BP})$						

Table 2: Breaking down the components of prompts for token efficiency analysis.

			No	on-Fine-	Tuned					1	une-n-B	atch		
Task	Prompting Type and Batch Size						Prompting Type and Batch Size							
	Seen	SP=1	BP=2	BP=4	BP=8	BP=16	BP=32	Seen	SP=1	BP=2	BP=4	BP=8	BP=16	BP=32
CoLA	No	80.4	79.0	77.2	77.5	66.7	76.9	Yes	77.6	81.4	80.3	80.5	79.8	80.3
QQP	No	68.8	64.6	63.6	62.5	61.5	54.1	Yes	71.6	68.4	71.7	71.7	71.3	71.4
SST2	No	90.4	91.0	92.4	92.0	91.4	93.2	Yes	93.6	94.6	94.5	95.2	94.7	96.4
Common Sense	No	59.2	61.6	61.1	60.6	50.2	31.8	No	64.0	50.6	54.7	53.5	52.6	53.7
MNLI Matched	No	62.8	56.0	53.7	51.7	49.0	44.6	No	57.6	47.4	48.5	45.3	48.5	44.3
MNLI Mismatched	No	64.0	59.8	54.0	54.2	51.5	47.2	No	61.2	45.0	49.4	47.7	48.9	49.1
MRPC	No	75.6	73.8	72.8	69.6	65.5	58.6	No	68.8	64.5	66.7	64.7	65.3	64.9
RACE	No	64.2	61.0	51.7	54.9	-	-	No	64.8	62.4	66.7	62.0	-	-
RTE	No	68.0	65.6	67.8	64.0	58.1	68.8	No	79.2	77.5	79.3	80.6	80.2	78.7

Table 3: Comparing the Performance of Llama3-8B Instruct before and after fine-tuning. All other tasks report the performance with the task excluded from training. SP denotes Standard Prompting, whereas BP represents Batch Prompting. Seen indicates that the training set of the task was included in fine-tuning.

E Prompt Comparisons

We include our prompts as well as few-shot batch prompts from prior work. We see that the few-shot batch prompts require a significant number of examples and additional text to demonstrate the formatting of the task, which is not required for our fine-tuned model.

Our Zero-Shot Standard Prompt for QQP

Your task is to determine if a pair of questions from the QQP dataset are duplicates. Classify each question pair as 0 (not duplicate) or 1 (duplicate) by analyzing lexical similarity and question intent. Answer using the format "The classification is <calculated_answer>", where <calculated_answer> is 0 or 1. Do not output any other text, such as intermediate reasoning, other than The classification is <calculated_answer> for the question pair asked.

Question1: What is the meaning of the Urdu word 'Jaah'? Question2: What is the meaning of Urdu word 'Ziadti'?

855

858

Our Zero-Shot Batch Prompt for QQP

Your task is to determine if pairs of questions are duplicates from a list of question pairs from the QQP dataset. Classify each question pair as 0 (not duplicate) or 1 (duplicate). Analyze lexical similarity and question intent. For each question pair, answer using the exact format "Answer[index]: The classification is <calculated_answer>", where 'index' is the corresponding question index being answered, and <calculated_answer> is a 0 or 1. Do not output any other text, such as intermediate reasoning, other than Answer[index]: The answer is <calculated_answer> for each question-pair asked.

Question1[0]: What is the meaning of the Urdu word 'Jaah'? Question2[0]: What is the meaning of Urdu word 'Ziadti'? Question1[1]: How can we simplify our life? Question2[1]: Life Advice: How can I make my life simpler? Question1[2]: How does Venmo work? Question2[2]: Are Venmo payouts reversible? Question1[3]: What should I know before buying a house? Question2[3]: What should I know before buying a house in Europe?

(Lin et al., 2023) Few-Shot Batch Prompt for QQP

You are a professional NLP expert at duplicate question detection. You will be given [BATCH-SIZE] pairs of data from Quora Question Pairs (QQP) dataset each time, as input. Each data includes a pair data, "Question1" and "Question2". Your goal to determine whether two questions are duplicates of each other. You need to classify into below two classes: class 1: if they have the same meaning (semantically equivalent).

class 0: if they do NOT have the same meaning.

Question pair 0: Question1: xxxxx Question2: xxxxx Question pair 1: Question1: xxxxx **Ouestion2:** xxxxx _____ Below are the outputs you need to generate. "X" can be '1' or '0'. [Conf-Description] Label for Question pair 0: [class X][Place-Holder-Conf] Label for Question pair 1: [class X][Place-Holder-Conf] ==== Follow the formatting of the following examples. Question pair 0: Question1: Does Hanes's online store accept PayPal? **Ouestion2:** How are Hanes t-shirts made? Ouestion pair 1: Question1: What are the best Norditrac exercise routines? Question2: What are the best exercise routines? Question pair 2: Question1: How does someone sever their carotid artery with a kitchen knife? Question2: Do any muscle protect the carotid artery or is it right under the skin? Question pair 3: Question1: Gravity: Why doesn't the Earth fall into the Sun or the Moon fall into the Earth? Question2: Why doesn't the earth accelerate towards the sun? Label for Question pair 0: [0](Confident) Label for Question pair 1: [0](Not Confident) Label for Question pair 2: [0](Confident) Label for Question pair 3: [1](Confident) Now answer the following questions. Question pair 0: Question1: What is the meaning of the Urdu word 'Jaah'? Question2: What is the meaning of Urdu word 'Ziadti'? Question pair 1: Question1: How can we simplify our life? Question2: Life Advice: How can I make my life simpler? Question pair 2: Question1: How does Venmo work? Ouestion2: Are Venmo payouts reversible? Ouestion pair 3: Question1: What should I know before buying a house? Question2: What should I know before buying a house in Europe? Below are the outputs you need to generate. "X" can be '1' or '0'. [Conf-Description] Label for Question pair 0: [class X][Place-Holder-Conf] Label for Question pair 1: [class X][Place-Holder-Conf] Label for Question pair 2: [class X][Place-Holder-Conf] Label for Question pair 3: [class X][Place-Holder-Conf]

Please make sure each generated label is in format of [class X]. Please make sure to generate [BATCH-SIZE] labels.

(Note: (Lin et al., 2023) only provided a condensed version of the batch prompt for the QQP dataset, omitting few-shot examples and other text instructions. We inferred a likely prompt based on the abbreviated version included in the appendix, but there may be minor differences from the one used by the original authors.)

863

Our Zero-Shot Standard Prompt for SST2

Your task is to classify a sentence from the SST-2 dataset as positive or negative in sentiment. Answer using the format "The answer is <calculated_answer>.", where <calculated_answer> is 0 for negative sentiment and 1 for positive sentiment. Do not output any other text, such as intermediate reasoning, other than The answer is <calculated_answer> for the question asked. Sentence: that stealing harvard is too busy getting in its own way to be anything but frustrating , boring , and forgettable

Our Zero-Shot Batch Prompt for SST2

Your task is to classify sentences for each question in a list of questions from the SST-2 dataset as positive or negative in sentiment. For each question, notated as Question[index], answer using the the exact format "Answer[index]: The answer is <calculated_answer>.", where 'index' is the corresponding question number being answered, and <calculated_answer> is 0 for negative sentiment and 1 for positive sentiment. Do not output any other text, such as intermediate reasoning, other than Answer[index]: The answer is <calculated_answer> for each question asked.

Question[0]: Sentence[0]: that stealing harvard is too busy getting in its own way to be anything but frustrating , boring , and forgettable

Question[1]: Sentence[1]: everyone 's insecure in lovely and amazing , a poignant and wryly amusing film about mothers , daughters and their relationships.

Question[2]: Sentence[2]: good news

Question[3]: Sentence[3]: been saved if the director, tom dey, had spliced together bits and pieces of midnight run and 48 hours (and, for that matter, shrek)

865

(Cheng et al., 2023) Few-Shot Batch Prompt for GSM8K

System

The answers should respond to each question the user inputs. One line one answer starting with A[idx],no other line break.

User

Q[1]: There are 15 trees in the grove. Grove workers will plant trees in the grove today. After they are done, there will be 21 trees. How many trees did the grove workers plant today?

Q[2]: If there are 3 cars in the parking lot and 2 more cars arrive, how many cars are in the parking lot?

Q[3]: Leah had 32 chocolates and her sister had 42. If they ate 35, how many pieces do they have left in total?

Q[4]: Jason had 20 lollipops. He gave Denny some lollipops. Now Jason has 12 lollipops. How many lollipops did Jason give to Denny?

Assistant

A[1]: There are 15 trees originally. Then there were 21 trees after some more were planted. So

there must have been 21 - 15 = 6. The answer is 6.

A[2]: There are originally 3 cars. 2 more cars arrive. 3 + 2 = 5. The answer is 5.

A[3]: Originally, Leah had 32 chocolates. Her sister had 42. So in total they had 32 + 42 = 74. After eating 35, they had 74 - 35 = 39. The answer is 39.

A[4]: Jason started with 20 lollipops. Then he had 12 after giving some to Denny. So he gave Denny 20 - 12 = 8. The answer is 8.

User

Q[1]: Shawn has five toys. For Christmas, he got two toys each from his mom and dad. How many toys does he have now?

Q[2]: There were nine computers in the server room. Five more computers were installed each day, from monday

to thursday. How many computers are now in the server room? Q[3]: Michael had 58 golf balls. On tuesday, he lost 23 golf balls. On wednesday, he lost 2 more. How many golf balls did he have at the end of wednesday?

Q[4]: Olivia has \$23. She bought five bagels for \$3 each. How much money does she have left? Assistant

A[1]: Shawn started with 5 toys. If he got 2 toys each from his mom and dad, then that is 4 more toys. 5 + 4 = 9. The answer is 9.

A[2]: There were originally 9 computers. For each of 4 days, 5 more computers were added. So 5 * 4 = 20 computers were added. 9 + 20 is 29. The answer is 29.

A[3]: Michael started with 58 golf balls. After losing 23 on tuesday, he had 58 - 23 = 35. After losing 2 more, he had 35 - 2 = 33 golf balls. The answer is 33.

A[4]: Olivia had 23 dollars. 5 bagels for 3 dollars each will be 5 x 3 = 15 dollars. So she has 23 - 15 dollars left. 23 - 15 is 8. The answer is 8.

User

Q[1]: A garden produced 237 potatoes, 60 fewer cucumbers and twice as many peppers than the cucumbers. How many vegetables did the garden produce?

Q[2]: John's cow weighs 400 pounds. It increased its weight to 1.5 times its starting weight. He is able to sell the cow for \$3 per pound. How much more is it worth after gaining the weight?

Q[3]: John writes 20 pages a day. How long will it take him to write 3 books that are 400 pages each?

Q[4]: James has a rainwater collection barrel. For each inch of rain he collects 15 gallons. On Monday it rained 4 inches and on Tuesday it rained 3 inches. He can sell water for \$1.2 per gallon. How much money did he make from selling all the water?

Assistant

A[1]: The garden produced 237 - 60 = 177 cucumbers. The garden produced 177 * 2 = 354 peppers. The garden produced 237 + 177 + 354 = 768 vegetables. The answer is 768.

A[2]: The cow initially weighs $400 \times 1.5 = 600$ pounds. So it gained 600 - 400 = 200 pounds. It is worth $200 \times 3 = 600$ dollars more. The answer is 600.

A[3]: He wants to write 3 * 400 = 1200 pages. So it will take him 1200 / 20 = 60 days The answer is 60.

A[4]: It rained 3 + 4 = 7 inches So he collected 7 * 15 = 105 gallons So he makes 105 * 1.2 = 126 from selling the water. The answer is 126.

User

Q[0]: To get to an island called "Virgo", Tom needs to travel by plane and then by boat. The plane trip is four times longer than the boat trip, and the boat trip takes up to 2 hours. In how many hours is Tom able to get to the "Virgo" island?

Q[1]: Winwin won \$50 in a lottery. She paid 20% for the tax and she paid \$5 for the processing fee. How much was she able to take home?

Q[2]: Grandma left \$124,600 in her will. She gave half of it to her favorite grandchild, Shelby.

The rest was to be evenly divided among the remaining 10 grandchildren. How many Q[3]: John and his best friend Steve bought 12 cupcakes together. Each cupcake cost \$1.50. If they split the costs evenly, how much did each person pay? Assistant