

Stance Detection with Fine-Tuned Large Language Models

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Abstract

Stance detection, a key task in natural language processing, determines an author’s viewpoint based on textual analysis. This study examines the evolution of stance detection methods, transitioning from early machine learning approaches to the groundbreaking BERT model, and eventually to modern Large Language Models (LLMs) such as ChatGPT. While ChatGPT’s closed-source nature and associated costs present challenges, the open-source model LLaMa-2 offers an encouraging alternative. We fine-tuned both ChatGPT and LLaMa-2 on two publicly available datasets: SemEval-2016 and P-Stance. Results highlight the efficacy of fine-tuned LLMs in stance detection, with both models surpassing previous benchmarks. LLaMa-2’s performance, despite having fewer parameters than ChatGPT, underscores the efficiency of open-source models. This study emphasizes the potential of LLMs in stance detection and calls for more extensive research in this field. To further contribute to the research community, our code for this study will be made publicly available.

1 Introduction

Stance detection seeks to determine an author’s viewpoint—whether supportive, oppositional, or neutral—on a variety of subjects ranging from opinions on political figures to views on pressing environmental policies, based on textual analysis (Hasan and Ng, 2013; Küçük and Can, 2020; Al-Dayel and Magdy, 2021). Given the proliferation of content on social media platforms like X, formerly Twitter, the task of extracting and accurately parsing underlying stances has become paramount (Siddiqua et al., 2019). Interpreting these perspectives not only offers a window into society’s collective opinions but also facilitates better insights into societal shifts, directly benefiting areas such as data extraction and policy formulation (Darwish et al., 2017; Glandt et al., 2021). As natural language processing (NLP) and social computing continue

to grow and overlap, advancements in these fields allow researchers to improve models, leading to better results in extracting stances from given texts.

Stance detection in textual data began with a heavy emphasis on rule-based and traditional machine learning approaches, with support vector machines (SVM) standing out as an early benchmark (Anand et al., 2011; Walker et al., 2012; Mohammad et al., 2016). Over time, deep learning models started playing a pivotal role in stance detection (Wei et al., 2016; Zarrella and Marsh, 2016). Despite initial challenges, these models, through continuous refinement and innovative strategies, began to outperform the traditional rule-based and machine learning methods (Dey et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019a). The introduction of pretrained language models, particularly BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), marked a significant advancement. A significant shift in stance detection came with Google’s BERT model (Devlin et al., 2019). BERT showcased the potential of large pre-trained language models (PLM) in stance detection by employing bidirectional encoders and fine-tuning on vast datasets (Li et al., 2021). This approach not only raised the bar for many NLP tasks but also improved the precision and depth of stance detection models (Allaway and McKeown, 2020; Shin et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2022).

The capabilities of Large Language Models (LLMs) have significantly advanced, enabling marked improvements in NLP (Brown et al., 2020). Trained on large datasets, these models have refined their ability to understand and mimic human language patterns (Wei et al., 2023). With this enhanced capability, LLMs differ from BERT in their approach; while BERT often requires fine-tuning on specific tasks, LLMs, through the use of prompting techniques, can make predictions without the need for fine-tuning. This allows them to become more proficient in accurately detecting stances and understanding the relationship between

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the target and the text in alignment with the author’s viewpoint. ChatGPT¹ and ChatGPT Plus² by OpenAI are models that have gained significant attention in the field (OpenAI, 2023).

Much of the recent research on LLMs, particularly ChatGPT, frequently employs zero-shot and, in certain studies, few-shot prompt engineering techniques. Notably, studies like such as (Aiyappa et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023) have underscored ChatGPT’s accuracy and consistency in stance detection. Given that ChatGPT is not open-source and considering the initial guidelines set by OpenAI, these methodologies became the primary approach for many researchers in the field.

The recent introduction of fine-tuning capabilities by OpenAI³ presents a potential improvement for model performance in stance detection. While ChatGPT exhibits significant potential, its closed-source design poses challenges. Accessing its fine-tuning features necessitates the use of the API, incurring associated costs. For researchers with budgetary constraints, these financial considerations, combined with the model’s restricted accessibility, pose significant barriers. In light of these challenges, and given the notable attention LLaMa-2⁴, an open-source model, has received since its release by Meta AI (Touvron et al., 2023), we incorporate it into our study alongside ChatGPT.

In this paper, we want to determine whether fine-tuned LLMs, specifically ChatGPT and LLaMa-2, could outperform previous stance detection benchmarks. Additionally, we aimed to compare the post-fine-tuning performance of these two models to provide insights for ongoing and future research.

2 Methods

2.1 Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

Datasets. To assess the performance of our fine-tuned LLMs, we employed two publicly available datasets. The SemEval-2016 Dataset (Mohammad et al., 2016) addresses several targets that include political figures and broader societal concerns. These targets are categorized into three stances: Favor, Against, and None. The specific targets in the dataset are Atheism (A), Climate Change is a Real Concern (CC), Donald Trump (DT), Feminist Movement (FM), Hillary Clinton (HC),

¹<https://openai.com/blog/chatgpt>

²<https://openai.com/blog/chatgpt-plus>

³<https://openai.com/blog/gpt-3-5-turbo-fine-tuning-and-api-updates>

⁴<https://ai.meta.com/llama/>

and Legalization of Abortion (LA). The P-Stance Dataset (Li et al., 2021), on the other hand, narrows its focus to the political domain and classifies stances as either Favor or Against. The specific political figures targeted in this dataset are Bernie Sanders, Donald Trump, and Joe Biden.

Evaluation Metrics. In line with the standards set by previous studies (Mohammad et al., 2016, 2017), we adopt F_{avg} as our primary evaluation metric. This metric, F_{avg} , computes the average of the $F1$ scores for the ‘favor’ and ‘against’ classes.

2.2 Models

For the fine-tuning of the ChatGPT model, which comprises 175 billion parameters, we followed the guidelines provided on the official OpenAI website⁵. After the fine-tuning process, the resulting model is referred to as ChatGPT-ft. Notably, the only adjustable hyperparameter available during the fine-tuning process was the number of epochs, which we set to three for our experiments.

For the fine-tuning of the LLaMa-2 models, specifically LLaMa-2-7b representing the version with 7 billion parameters and LLaMa-2-13b denoting the one with 13 billion parameters, we adjusted our approach based on the dataset in question: three epochs for SemEval-2016 and one epoch for the P-Stance dataset⁶. Post fine-tuning, the resulting models are labeled as LLaMa-2-7b-ft and LLaMa-2-13b-ft. For both the SemEval-2016 and P-Stance datasets, we employed the parameter-efficient fine-tuning method with Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) using the Lit-GPT⁷ framework. The specific methodological and hyperparameter details for the fine-tuning process of the LLaMa-2 models have been included in the Appendix A.

For comparative analysis against the fine-tuned models, we performed zero-shot stance detection using the models: ChatGPT, LLaMa-2-7b-chat, and LLaMa-2-13b-chat.

2.3 Prompting Details

For the ChatGPT model, we employed specific prompting methods for each dataset. For the LLaMa-2 model, our prompting strategy was inspired by the template samples available in HuggingFace’s resources.⁸ Detailed specifications

⁵<https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/fine-tuning>

⁶The adjustment to one epoch for fine-tuning P-Stance was due to its larger training set size compared to SemEval-2016, minimizing overfitting concerns.

⁷<https://github.com/Lightning-AI/lit-gpt>

⁸<https://huggingface.co/blog/llama2>

of the prompts used for each dataset can be found in the Appendix B.

2.4 Baselines

We have selected various stance detection models as our baselines, categorizing them based on their foundational architectures and approaches. From the category of recurrent neural networks (RNN), our choices include the BiLSTM (Augenstein et al., 2016) and BiCond (Augenstein et al., 2016) models, both of which deploy bidirectional LSTM layers for processing. MemNet (Tang et al., 2016) serves as a representative of memory networks, with a primary focus on aspect-level sentiment analysis. Both AoA (Huang et al., 2018) and TAN (Du et al., 2017) employ attention mechanisms, enabling them to effectively weigh different segments of the input text for stance detection purposes. ASGCN (Zhang et al., 2019b) integrates graph-based methodologies for capturing dependencies in text, while AT-JSS-Lex (Li and Caragea, 2019) stands out as a multi-task model, merging sentiment and stance detection while also incorporating a lexicon. On another front, TPDG (Liang et al., 2021) delves into target-centric methodologies, and StSQA (Chen et al., 2023) employs a novel method, teaching ChatGPT stance detection by using a 1-shot example.

3 Results

3.1 Zero-shot vs. Fine-Tuning

In Tables 1 and 2, we present the performance scores of LLMs, ChatGPT and Llama, in a zero-shot setting. Although these models exhibit impressive zero-shot performance, our evaluations highlight that their true potential is unlocked post fine-tuning. Notably, the zero-shot evaluations on the SemEval-2016 and P-Stance datasets utilized the same prompts as those used during the fine-tuning phase.

Within the SemEval-2016 dataset, ChatGPT’s zero-shot capability stood out as superior compared to both Llama models. A parallel trend is observed in the P-Stance dataset, where ChatGPT similarly outperformed its counterparts in a zero-shot setting.

A notable difference emerged in prediction times. Predictions using the zero-shot approach, specifically with LLaMa-2-7b-chat, took about 39 minutes for the SemEval-2016 test set, while its fine-tuned counterpart completed in just 2 minutes. The extended runtime of zero-shot models stems from their generation of full answer sentences, in contrast to the fine-tuned models which are optimized to

| Models | FM | HC | LA |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| BiLSTM | 52.2 | 57.4 | 54.0 |
| BiCond | 61.4 | 59.8 | 54.5 |
| MemNet | 57.8 | 60.3 | 61.0 |
| TAN | 58.3 | 67.7 | 65.7 |
| AoA | 60.0 | 58.2 | 62.4 |
| ASGCN | 58.5 | 64.3 | 62.9 |
| AT-JSS-Lex | 61.5 | 68.3 | 68.4 |
| TPDG | 67.3 | 73.4 | 74.7 |
| <i>Zero-shot</i> | | | |
| ChatGPT | 74.6 | 82.8 | 59.6 |
| LLaMa-2-7b-chat | 51.6 | 63.9 | 49.2 |
| LLaMa-2-13b-chat | 55.0 | 61.5 | 45.9 |
| <i>Fine-tuned</i> | | | |
| ChatGPT-ft | 79.7 | 83.4 | 72.6 |
| LLaMa-2-7b-ft | 73.3 | 84.2 | 71.2 |
| LLaMa-2-13b-ft | 76.0 | 84.8 | 72.5 |

Table 1: SemEval-2016 Dataset performance comparison (using F_{avg} scores)

| Models | Bernie | Biden | Trump |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| BiLSTM | 63.9 | 69.5 | 72.0 |
| BiCond | 64.6 | 69.4 | 73.0 |
| MemNet | 72.8 | 77.6 | 77.7 |
| TAN | 72.0 | 77.9 | 77.5 |
| AoA | 71.7 | 77.8 | 77.7 |
| ASGCN | 70.8 | 78.4 | 77.0 |
| StSQA | 80.8 | 82.6 | 85.7 |
| <i>Zero-shot</i> | | | |
| ChatGPT | 75.2 | 82.6 | 73.7 |
| LLaMa-2-7b-chat | 48.3 | 52.9 | 43.6 |
| LLaMa-2-13b-chat | 49.8 | 53.7 | 45.3 |
| <i>Fine-tuned</i> | | | |
| ChatGPT-ft | 81.8 | 89.7 | 91.9 |
| LLaMa-2-7b-ft | 79.0 | 87.2 | 89.8 |
| LLaMa-2-13b-ft | 81.0 | 89.0 | 88.9 |

Table 2: P-Stance Dataset performance comparison (using F_{avg} scores)

output just a single token indicating the stance.

The observed differences in performance between ChatGPT and the LLaMa-2 models can be partly attributed to the Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) employed by ChatGPT⁹. This training strategy, which is absent in the LLaMa-2 models, incorporates feedback loops with human input. This could provide ChatGPT with insights into the training data we’re using,

⁹<https://openai.com/blog/chatgpt>

potentially leading to domain-specific contamination and explaining its stronger performance in a zero-shot setting. However, this advantage diminishes when both models are fine-tuned.

Comparing zero-shot and fine-tuned results as presented in Tables 1 and 2, ChatGPT, which stood out in its zero-shot evaluations, exhibited even more impressive results after fine-tuning. Conversely, the LLaMa-2 models, which started with lower performance scores in the zero-shot setting, demonstrated substantial improvements with fine-tuning. This highlights that while task-specific tuning is beneficial for both models, ChatGPT’s initial lead might be influenced by its RLHF training, potentially exposing it to targets available in the datasets.

This pattern of improvement across both datasets underscores the pivotal role of fine-tuning. While LLMs inherently possess strong generalization abilities, adapting them to specific tasks through fine-tuning is essential. This adaptation through fine-tuning not only enhances their performance but also ensures LLMs reach their full potential in specific tasks.

3.2 Fine-Tuned Models vs. Baselines

In the results presented in Table 1, we can observe the prominence of the ChatGPT-ft model across all targets. It becomes clear that its performance is above the average when compared to other models in the table. Moreover, the other fine-tuned LLMs, LLaMa-2-7b-ft and LLaMa-2-13b-ft, also consistently delivered good results. The difference in performance underscores the unique strengths of LLMs, especially when fine-tuned for specific tasks.

Transitioning to Table 2, the stance prediction performance across different political figures is presented. Again, ChatGPT-ft stands out, but it’s closely followed by the LLaMa-2 models. The difference between these fine-tuned LLMs and the rest is evident and substantial. Such a distinction in scores not only emphasizes the superiority of the fine-tuned models but also raises questions about how other models could be improved.

For a more detailed analysis of the SemEval-2016 results, please refer to Appendix C.

4 Discussion

Our experiments with the SemEval-2016 and P-Stance 2021 datasets highlight the effectiveness of fine-tuned LLMs in stance detection. Specifically, the ChatGPT-ft model consistently outperformed

other models in our tests, as shown in Tables 1 and 2. The LLaMa-2 models also performed notably well, further indicating the power of LLMs in this domain.

However, there were intriguing variations. Despite being larger, the LLaMa-2-13b-ft model didn’t consistently outperform the smaller LLaMa-2-7b-ft. This suggests that model size alone doesn’t determine success. Fine-tuning, dataset specifics, and architecture also play crucial roles.

Differences in performance across targets hint at these models being sensitive to specific domains. For instance, while ChatGPT-ft excelled in many categories, it faced challenges matching the performance of LLaMa-2-13b-ft in the Hillary Clinton domain. This variance might also be attributed to the datasets used during the initial pre-training of LLMs, which can introduce biases or domain knowledge that influence their subsequent fine-tuned performance. This shows that a model’s general effectiveness can be influenced by topic-specific factors.

Compared to other models we evaluated, LLMs consistently stood out, highlighting their significant potential in modern NLP tasks. The evident differences in results indicate that both the data-intensive training and the size of LLMs could be crucial contributors to their enhanced performance. These findings open doors for further research, suggesting that refining LLM techniques and architectures could lead to even more advanced results.

In a broader context, the strong performance of LLMs in our study highlights their potential in real-world stance detection tasks, such as identifying the stance of news articles and analyzing public opinions on key societal issues.

5 Conclusion

In conclusion, our exploration of stance detection, particularly using ChatGPT and LLaMa-2, provides clear insights into the significant potential these models offer. Their superior performance, as demonstrated in our results, firmly establishes them as frontrunners in the domain. Understanding stance detection remains a multifaceted challenge, and while LLMs have made notable progress, their role in guiding the future trajectory of NLP is evident. As we anticipate further advancements, the evolution of LLMs and their broader applications will be of great interest. These developments signal a new era of refined and accurate NLP models, bringing significant benefits to the wider academic community.

331 Limitations

332 In conducting this research, several limitations per-
333 taining to the use of ChatGPT were encountered.
334 First and foremost, the exclusive nature of ChatGPT
335 means that it is accessible solely via its designated
336 API. This limited the extent of model adjustments,
337 with the number of epochs during fine-tuning being
338 the only modifiable hyperparameter at the time of
339 our experimentation. Furthermore, financial con-
340 siderations present an additional constraint. As per
341 the current pricing structure, the cost for training
342 ChatGPT stands at \$0.008 per 1,000 tokens¹⁰. Fine-
343 tuning a dataset with 100,000 tokens over three
344 epochs is estimated to cost about \$2.40 USD. To put
345 this in perspective, the estimated cost for training
346 the SemEval-2016 dataset was around \$21.77 USD.
347 Given such pricing, the act of fine-tuning becomes
348 financially challenging without a substantial budget.

349 In the fine-tuning process of the Llama 2 models,
350 we encountered certain limitations. We were
351 able to successfully fine-tune the Llama 2 7b and
352 Llama 2 13b models using the NVIDIA A100 GPU
353 with 40GB. However, due to the more extensive
354 structure of the Llama 2 70b model, we needed a
355 more powerful GPU to fine-tune it. This emerged
356 as a constraint that we couldn't overcome with our
357 current resources.

358 In the SemEval-2016 dataset, a notable limitation
359 was the training dataset size for the targets. In
360 comparison, there was a more extensive training
361 resource available for P-Stance. With more training
362 data for each target in SemEval-2016, the LLMs
363 could likely achieve better stance detection results.

364 Ethical Considerations

365 In the course of this research, it's crucial to
366 acknowledge the potential limitations of Large
367 Language Models. Both ChatGPT and Llama 2, like
368 other LLMs, may produce inaccurate information
369 about targets present in stance detection datasets.
370 Such inaccuracies can emerge from various factors
371 inherent to algorithmic predictions and inherent
372 model limitations.

373 This research relied on publicly available datasets
374 for the fine-tuning of LLMs. The primary goal in
375 using these datasets was academic research. At no
376 stage was there an intention to produce or support
377 biased predictions. For transparency and further
378 review, both the predictions made by the fine-tuned

models and the code used in the research will be
made publicly available.

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¹⁰<https://openai.com/pricing>

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569 A Fine-tuning Details for Llama 2 Models

570 The LoRA method was particularly designed to em-
571 phasize the queries and values in the self-attention
572 modules (Hu et al., 2021). The hyperparameters for
573 LoRA were set with a rank of 8, an α of 16, and a
574 dropout rate of 0.05. We employed a warmup strat-
575 egy, utilizing 10% of the training data. Training was
576 set to run for three epochs with a learning rate of $3 \times$
577 10^{-4} and a batch size of 128. We trained the models
578 with bfloat16 precision on an NVIDIA A100 GPU
579 with 40GB. The fine-tuning of Llama2-7b on the
580 SemEval-2016 dataset took approximately 20 min-
581 utes, while Llama2-13b took around 30 minutes.

582 B Prompting Technique

583 In our fine-tuning process, structured prompts were
584 essential in creating the training and test datasets
585 for the LLMs. The prompts are designed to offer
586 context, guidelines, and the exact task the model is
587 expected to accomplish. In this section, we provide
588 a detailed overview of the prompts utilized for each
589 dataset while fine-tuning ChatGPT.

590 B.1 ChatGPT Fine-tuning Prompts

591 B.1.1 SemEval-2016 Template

592 For the SemEval-2016 dataset, the following
593 structured prompt was utilized:

Instruction:

594 Analyze the tweet below in the following
595 context: [topic]. Consider the text,
596 subtext, regional and cultural references,
597 and any implicit meanings to determine
598 the stance expressed in the tweet towards
599 the target. The possible stances are:
600

- 601 • FAVOR: The tweet has a positive
602 or supportive attitude towards the
603 target, either explicitly or implicitly.
- 604 • AGAINST: The tweet opposes or
605 criticizes the target, either explicitly
606 or implicitly.
- 607 • NONE: The tweet is neutral or
608 doesn't have a stance towards the
609 target.

610 **Tweet:** [tweet]

Question:

611 What is the stance expressed in the tweet
612 towards the target "[target]"?
613

614 Choose one of the following options:
615 FAVOR, AGAINST, NONE.

Answer:

616 For this prompt structure, placeholders are
617 utilized: [tweet], [target], and [topic].
618

- 619 • **[tweet]:** Represents the actual tweet being
620 analyzed.
- 621 • **[target]:** Denotes what or whom the tweet's
622 stance is directed at, whether directly or
623 indirectly.
- 624 • **[topic]:** Offers a brief description of the
625 [target]. Specifically for the SemEval-2016
626 dataset, this description was crafted by us
627 to facilitate the understanding of the tweet's
628 context.

629 When fine-tuning, these placeholders are substi-
630 tuted with real data, making it easier for the model
631 to understand the context and identify the stance.

632 B.1.2 P-Stance Template

633 For the P-Stance dataset, the prompt tailored
634 specifically for political domain analysis was:

Instruction:

635 Analyze the following tweet, which is in
636 the political domain, deeply. Consider
637

| | | | |
|-----|--|---|-----|
| 638 | any subtext, regional and cultural refer- | </SYS> | 684 |
| 639 | ences, or implicit meanings to determine | Tweet: [tweet] | 685 |
| 640 | the tweet’s stance towards the target. The | Stance towards the target | 686 |
| 641 | possible stances are: | [target]:[/INST] | 687 |
| 642 | • FAVOR: The tweet has a positive | For this prompt structure, placeholders are | 688 |
| 643 | or supportive attitude towards the | utilized: [tweet] and [target]. | 689 |
| 644 | target, either explicitly or implicitly. | | |
| 645 | • AGAINST: The tweet opposes or | • [tweet]: Represents the actual tweet being | 690 |
| 646 | criticizes the target, either explicitly | analyzed. | 691 |
| 647 | or implicitly. | • [target]: Denotes what or whom the tweet’s | 692 |
| 648 | Tweet: [tweet] | stance is directed at. | 693 |
| 649 | ### Question: | B.2.2 P-Stance Llama 2 Template | 694 |
| 650 | What is the stance of the tweet above | This prompt template is specifically designed for | 695 |
| 651 | towards the target "[target]"? | analyzing tweets related to the US presidential | 696 |
| 652 | Select from FAVOR or AGAINST. | candidates: | 697 |
| 653 | ### Answer: | [INST] «SYS» | 698 |
| 654 | The placeholders [tweet] and [target] are | You are a helpful, respectful, and honest | 699 |
| 655 | used in a similar manner as explained for the | assistant for stance detection for presi- | 700 |
| 656 | SemEval-2016 template above. | dential candidates for the USA election. | 701 |
| 657 | B.2 Llama 2 Fine-Tuning Prompts | Always answer from the possible options | 702 |
| 658 | B.2.1 SemEval-2016 Llama 2 Template | given below as helpfully as possible. | 703 |
| 659 | This prompt template focuses on detecting the | Stance detection is the process of | 704 |
| 660 | stance in tweets using a structured instruction to | determining whether the author of a | 705 |
| 661 | guide the model: | tweet is in favor of or against a given | 706 |
| 662 | [INST] «SYS» | target. The target may not always be | 707 |
| 663 | You are a helpful, respectful, and honest | explicitly mentioned in the text, and the | 708 |
| 664 | assistant for stance detection for a given | tweet’s stance can be conveyed implicitly | 709 |
| 665 | target. Always answer from the possible | through subtext, regional and cultural | 710 |
| 666 | options given below as helpfully as | references, or other implicit meanings. | 711 |
| 667 | possible. Stance detection is the process | The possible stances are: | 712 |
| 668 | of determining whether the author of a | • support: The tweet has a positive | 713 |
| 669 | tweet is in support of or against a given | or supportive attitude towards the | 714 |
| 670 | target. The target may not always be | target, either explicitly or implicitly. | 715 |
| 671 | explicitly mentioned in the text, and the | • against: The tweet opposes or | 716 |
| 672 | tweet’s stance can be conveyed implicitly | criticizes the target, either explicitly | 717 |
| 673 | through subtext, regional and cultural | or implicitly. | 718 |
| 674 | references, or other implicit meanings. | </SYS> | 719 |
| 675 | The possible stances are: | Tweet: [tweet] | 720 |
| 676 | • support: The tweet has a positive | Stance towards the target | 721 |
| 677 | or supportive attitude towards the | [target]:[/INST] | 722 |
| 678 | target, either explicitly or implicitly. | The placeholders [tweet] and [target] are | 723 |
| 679 | • against: The tweet opposes or | used in a similar manner as explained for the | 724 |
| 680 | criticizes the target, either explicitly | SemEval-2016 template above. | 725 |
| 681 | or implicitly. | Note on Terminology: In the Llama 2 templates, | 726 |
| 682 | • none: The tweet is neutral or doesn’t | we decided to use the term "support" instead of | 727 |
| 683 | have a stance towards the target. | "favor". This decision was made based on token | 728 |
| | | analysis for Llama 2, revealing that the model had | 729 |

730 a specific token for "support" but not for "favor".
731 As a result, for the sake of efficiency, "support" was
732 used in our prompt.

733 **C Stance Detention Results**

734 The summarized comparison for all targets in the
735 SemEval-2016 Dataset is depicted in Table 3. This
736 table encapsulates the strengths and potential areas
737 of improvement for each model across different tar-
738 gets. Observing the data, ChatGPT-ft generally
739 exhibits superior performance across the majority
740 of the targets. Notably, for the Climate Change
741 and Feminist Movement targets, this model dis-
742 tinctly leads, signifying its robustness in these do-
743 mains. However, the competition tightens for the
744 Hillary Clinton target, where the Llama-2-13b-ft
745 model slightly surpasses both the ChatGPT-ft and
746 Llama-2-7b-ft. This reveals that even though
747 large language models like ChatGPT-ft generally
748 excel, they can be outperformed in specific domains
749 or targets by other variants. Furthermore, the perfor-
750 mance of Llama-2-7b-ft is particularly intriguing,
751 given that it achieves higher scores than its more siz-
752 able counterpart, Llama-2-13b-ft, in some targets
753 like Atheism and Donald Trump. This variance reit-
754 erates the importance of model fine-tuning and adap-
755 tation for specific tasks, as mere model size does not
756 guarantee consistent supremacy across all domains.

| Model | A | CC | DT | FM | HC | LA |
|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| ChatGPT-ft | 81.3 | 86.2 | 70.4 | 79.7 | 83.4 | 72.6 |
| llama2-7b-ft | 78.9 | 69.8 | 72.0 | 73.3 | 84.2 | 71.2 |
| llama2-13b-ft | 76.9 | 80.4 | 70.9 | 76.0 | 84.8 | 72.5 |

Table 3: F_{avg} scores among fine-tuned models for each target in SemEval-2016 Dataset.