

---

# All You Need is One: Capsule Prompt Tuning with a Single Vector

---

Yiyang Liu<sup>1</sup> James C. Liang<sup>2</sup> Heng Fan<sup>3</sup> Wenhao Yang<sup>4</sup> Yiming Cui<sup>5</sup>  
Xiaotian Han<sup>6</sup> Lifu Huang<sup>7</sup> Dongfang Liu<sup>8</sup> Qifan Wang<sup>9</sup> Cheng Han<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Missouri-Kansas City <sup>2</sup>U.S. Naval Research Laboratory <sup>3</sup>University of North Texas  
<sup>4</sup>Lamar University <sup>5</sup>ByteDance <sup>6</sup>Case Western Reserve University  
<sup>7</sup>University of California, Davis <sup>8</sup>Rochester Institute of Technology <sup>9</sup>Meta AI

## Abstract

Prompt-based learning has emerged as a parameter-efficient finetuning (PEFT) approach to facilitate Large Language Model (LLM) adaptation to downstream tasks by conditioning generation with task-aware guidance. Despite its successes, current prompt-based learning methods heavily rely on laborious grid searching for optimal prompt length and typically require considerable number of prompts, introducing additional computational burden. Worse yet, our pioneer findings indicate that the task-aware prompt design is inherently limited by its absence of instance-aware information, leading to a subtle attention interplay with the input sequence. In contrast, simply incorporating instance-aware information as a part of the guidance can enhance the prompt-tuned model performance without additional fine-tuning. Moreover, we find an interesting phenomenon, namely “attention anchor,” that incorporating instance-aware tokens at the earliest position of the sequence can successfully preserve strong attention to critical structural information and exhibit more active attention interaction with all input tokens. In light of our observation, we introduce Capsule Prompt-Tuning (CaPT), an efficient and effective solution that leverages off-the-shelf, informative instance semantics into prompt-based learning. Our approach innovatively integrates both instance-aware and task-aware information in a nearly parameter-free manner (*i.e.*, one single capsule prompt). Empirical results demonstrate that our method can exhibit superior performance across various language tasks (*e.g.*, 84.03% average accuracy on T5-Large), serving as an “attention anchor,” while enjoying high parameter efficiency (*e.g.*, 0.003% of model parameters on Llama3.2-1B).

## 1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) [1, 2, 3, 4] initiate a revolutionary transformation in both artificial intelligence and various domains of human activity. Among their fruitful applications, a widely adopted paradigm for adapting pre-trained LLMs to downstream tasks is known as “pretrain-then-finetune.” As these LLMs continue to grow in size and complexity for enhanced performance, parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) methods [5, 6, 7, 8] have emerged as compelling alternatives to full fine-tuning, demonstrating competitive performance with noticeably lower parameter usage.

Prompt-based Learning [5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13], a well-recognized approach within PEFT, offers a simple yet effective fine-tuning strategy in which researchers employ learnable soft prompts [5, 9, 11] to activate model capabilities without modifying existing parameters. Prompting methods [3, 14, 15, 16] initially relied on the manual design of discrete prompts, which often suffer from limited flexibility and require extensive effort. Therefore, trainable soft prompts utilizing continuous embeddings have emerged as the predominant strategy [11, 12, 13]. Nevertheless, current soft prompt-based learning have two main limitations:

---

\*Corresponding author

**I. Limited Capability.** Soft prompts are typically optimized to encode task-aware instructions to guide generation in an one-size-fits-all manner [11, 12, 17, 18]. Since soft prompts are integrated into the actual sequence, their strong performance suggests a potentially significant interplay with original input tokens in the view of attention [19, 20, 21]. Counterintuitively, our finding suggests that these task-specific soft prompts actually fail to exhibit strong interaction with input tokens (*i.e.*, Fig. 1 (left)) — they primarily attend to each other (*i.e.*, the blue box), with minimal focus on critical input tokens (*i.e.*, the red box) which input sequences predominantly attend to. This observation reveals that the task-aware design of soft prompts may limit their capability to adapt to diverse input semantics, potentially constraining the effectiveness of prompt-based learning. Consequently, a natural question arises: ❶ *Can soft prompts be interactive for improved adaptation to diverse instances?*

**II. Inefficient Searching.** Another critical limitation of soft prompt-based learning is the time-intensive grid searching for the optimal prompt length [9, 11, 12, 22, 23]. This searching generally results in a considerable number of prompts, thereby extending the sequence length of LLM and incurring additional training overhead. Even worse, recent studies have shown that these elaborately searched soft prompt tokens may still fail to effectively capture task-aware semantics for downstream tasks [24, 25], and in some cases, certain prompt tokens can even negatively impact model performance [17]. Therefore, our research question turns into: ❷ *Is it possible to eliminate the inefficient and time-consuming grid searching of prompt length while preserving informativeness?*

In response to questions ❶-❷, we investigate the possibility of incorporating off-the-shelf instance-aware information as a part of prompts to address these limitations. Our preliminary study (see §3.1) reveals the power of instance-aware information — even **one** simple, training-free integration of instance-aware token results in noticeable performance increase. Employing a compact, fixed length design can therefore eliminate the need for extensive searching on prompt length, significantly reducing the overall training time. Our observation on attention pattern further strengthen this idea. We reveal that, unlike soft prompt tokens, single instance-aware token can consistently attend to critical input tokens (*i.e.*, structural information) and be consistently and actively attended by input sequences, acting as “attention anchors.” These attention anchors can be leveraged to guide model’s attention toward structurally important regions of input sequences and actively propagate guidance signals into the sequence, leading to better contextual grounding.

To this end, we propose a simple yet effective prompt-based learning strategy — Capsule Prompt-Tuning (CaPT). We integrate both instance-aware information from each input sequence and task-aware information from learnable vectors to form capsuled prompts. The instance-aware information helps preserve strongly attentive interplay with input sequences, while the learnable vector encodes task-aware inductive bias as a general guidance. Notably, CaPT can operate in an almost parameter-free manner, utilizing only one single vector, which eliminates the need for time-intensive grid searching, varied lengths across different tasks, and substantial training overhead [9, 11, 12]. Experimental results demonstrate that CaPT enjoys not only training and parameter efficiency, but also state-of-the-art performance (*e.g.*, **7.5%** higher performance compared to vanilla Prompt-Tuning for T5-Large). We further confirm that our capsule prompt tokens can successfully act as “attention anchor” to establish a mutual and contextual attention pattern. We believe our work offers an innovative perspective on efficiently leveraging instance-aware information into prompt-based learning.

## 2 Related Works

**Attention in Large Language Models.** Unlike earlier architectures such as RNNs [26, 27] and CNNs [28, 29], LLMs incorporate Transformer [1, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35], allowing them to capture complex dependencies and contextual nuances, thereby achieving superior performance across various tasks (*e.g.*, classification [1, 31], translation [4, 36, 37], summarization [38, 39], question answering [2, 3]). They have revolutionized the domain of natural language processing (NLP). Recently, a growing body of research [20, 21, 40, 30, 41] has investigated the success of attention mechanism from the Transformer layer via its patterns, highlighting their critical roles in model behavior and network interpretability. Research shows that these patterns can be leveraged for various purposes, such as probing the internal representation relationship and decision-making processes of the model [20, 21, 30, 42], and for leveraging attention sink to stabilize processing over infinite input sequences [40, 43]. Though promising, such attempts remain largely underexplored within prompt-based learning [18, 19, 22]. In this work, we question the sufficiency of current prompt-based learning designs and rethink then redesign it from the perspective of attention based on our observation (see §3.1).

**Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning.** Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning (PEFT) [6, 11, 44, 45] in NLP offers solutions to the computational challenges inherent in adapting LLMs to diverse tasks under the “pretrain-then-finetune” paradigm, striving to deliver performance comparable to full fine-tuning. Generally, current PEFT methods fall into three categories: *reparameterization* [6, 7], *adapter tuning* [8, 46], and *prompt-based learning* [11, 12, 17]. Among them, *reparameterization* and *adapter tuning* face two significant limitations that hinder their applications. First, they still require a substantial amount of trainable parameters — reparameterization needs enormous low-rank matrices for every targeted linear layer [6, 47], while adapters insert entire large modules throughout the model [8, 48, 49], both resulting in heavy computational costs. Second, these approaches lack flexibility, as they often necessitate customized implementations for varying model architectures and complicate task switching due to modifications made to the model structure [50, 51].

*Prompt-based learning* offers a more flexible and efficient solution with minimal input sequence adjustment, thus enabling faster adaptation [17, 22, 52]. Despite the current success, two limitations remain unaddressed: I. Soft prompts typically capture solely the task-aware information [5, 12]. We argue that adopting the current task-aware prompt-based learning may fail to capture critical content (*i.e.*, structural information) of input sequences, ultimately impairing its capability to establish a contextual attention pattern and constraining the overall effectiveness of prompt-based learning; II. Prompt-based learning requires grid search to determine the optimal soft prompt length [22, 44], presenting a double-edged trade-off between parameter and training time efficiency (see §4.2 and Appendix §S3). In light of this view, we propose CaPT, which deliberately addresses the aforementioned issues by integrating both off-the-shelf instance semantics and task-aware guidance.

### 3 Methodology

We introduce Capsule Prompt-Tuning (CaPT), a novel prompt-based learning approach aims to enhance LLM performance and eliminate the need for time-intensive grid search. The problem and notations are defined below, drawing on the description of P-Tuning v2 (Deep Prompt-Tuning) [53], which represents one of the strongest baselines in prompt-based learning. The key findings of the effectiveness of instance-aware semantics and prompt-based learning attention are presented in §3.1, followed by the design of CaPT in §3.2. The overall framework is shown in Fig. 3.

**Preliminary for Deep Prompt-Tuning.** Given a pre-trained LLM, the objective of Deep Prompt-Tuning is to adapt the model into new task with the learning of a set of continuous embeddings  $P = \{P^1, P^2, \dots, P^N\}$  (*i.e.*, soft prompts), where  $N$  denotes the number of Transformer layers and  $P^i$  represents the learnable prompts in the  $i$ -th layer. During fine-tuning, the entire model is frozen, with the prepended learnable prompts guide the model prediction on task. Formally, the Transformer layers with prompts are defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} H^1 &= L_1(P^1, E) \\ H^i &= L_i(P^i, H^{i-1}) \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, N \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where the embeddings  $E$  of the input text are initialized with the embedding layer, and  $H^i$  is the contextual embeddings processed by the  $i$ -th Transformer layer. The different colors indicate **trainable** and **frozen** parameters during fine-tuning, respectively.

#### 3.1 Key Findings

**Finding I: Task-aware prompts exhibit limited interplay with input sequences.** The effectiveness of task-specific prompt-based learning is well-recognized, however, the underlying mechanism of soft prompts remains a relatively underexplored area in current research [19, 18, 42, 24, 54]. Recognizing this, we inspire by the critical role of attention in facilitating effective information flow and shaping model behavior [20, 21, 30, 55] and analyze on the attention pattern of soft prompts. This reveals a striking trend: soft prompts predominantly attend to themselves, with only subtle interaction with the rest of key input tokens. To better illustrate the point, we analyze the attention pattern over all attention heads and encoder layers on traditional Deep Prompt-Tuning. As seen in Fig. 1 (left), regular input tokens tend to exhibit strong attention to critical positions within the input sequences (*e.g.*, the  $5_{th}$  -  $7_{th}$  tokens “sentence”, “I” and “:.”). These tokens carry key structural information that supports both syntactic and semantic parsing, enabling the model to accurately interpret the hierarchical and contextual relationships within the input [20, 56, 57]. In contrast, soft prompts predominantly attend to one another and struggle to form interactive attention links with input tokens, as they are discarded after each layer, often leaving them detached from key structural information. This observation

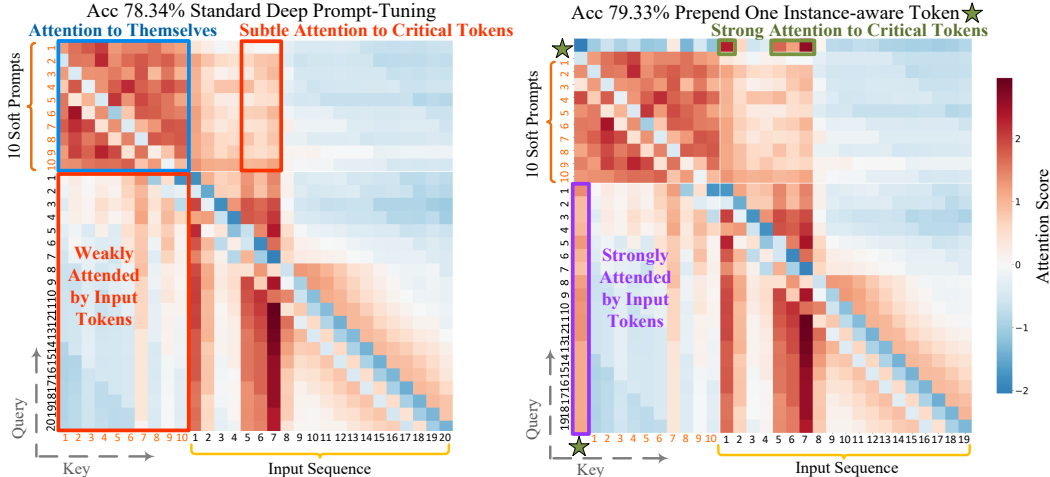


Figure 1: **Attention Analysis on T5-Base.** Attention patterns are analyzed averagely across all heads and encoder layers on the RTE validation set. Darker red indicates higher attention scores, while darker blue means lower scores. The left and right figures indicate the patterns of T5-Base with 10 soft prompts and T5-Base with one additional prepended instance-aware token (*i.e.*,  $\star$ ) alongside 10 soft prompts, respectively. Critical input tokens refer to structurally important tokens such as the token “\_” at  $1_{st}$  and the  $5_{th}$  -  $7_{th}$  tokens “sentence”, “1” and “:.”. A more detailed analysis of impact on specific heads is provided in Appendix §S5.

suggests that the current design of soft prompts is inherently limited in their ability to interact with input content like regular input tokens. Therefore, in this work, we investigate whether incorporating meaningful, instance-aware semantics as a part of prompt can foster better attentive interaction with input sequences and, in turn, enhance the performance of prompt-based learning.

**Finding II: Instance-aware tokens can enhance model performance without fine-tuning.**

We first investigate the overall significance of instance-aware semantics by figuring out whether it is effective in enhancing LLM performance. Surprisingly, we observe that even the simplest and most direct incorporation of instance-aware information yields measurable improvements across all test examples without any additional fine-tuning. Specifically, we conduct our preliminary experiments on T5-Base (see Fig. 2), compressing input tokens into short sequences of varying lengths (*i.e.*, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 10) via pooling the input sequences. These sequences are then prepended as special instance-aware tokens before the soft prompts at each layer. The results show that one single instance-aware token is able to effectively improve the test accuracy on both RTE and COPA (*i.e.*, the orange box). This suggests that incorporating instance-aware semantics, even from a minimally intrusive perspective, enhances the the overall quality of guidance signals. We also find that increasing the number of prepended instance-aware tokens (*e.g.*, 2, 3, 4, and 10) gradually declines the performance, with accuracy dropping below that of standard Deep Prompt-Tuning. We thus acknowledge that the effectiveness of guidance signals does not depend on the quantity of information provided, but rather on how well it aligns with the model’s capacity to utilize it — an observation consistent with prior findings on prompt pruning strategies [5, 17]. This observation is further supported by the study on CaPT length (see §4.5).

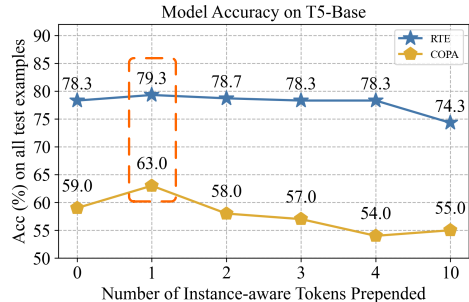


Figure 2: **Incorporating of instance-aware semantics** lifts the model performance during testing without any additional fine-tuning. (0 token indicates the original accuracy with standard soft prompts only.)

**Finding III: Instance-aware tokens present strongly attentive interaction with input sequences as “attention anchor.”** Recognizing the surprising performance gains from **Finding II**, we are excited to explore the underlying attention behavior that may explain this effect. Our analysis reveals a marked contrast in how attention is distributed across the input sequence when comparing instance-aware token to task-aware soft prompts. Unlike soft prompts, the instance-aware token successfully receives

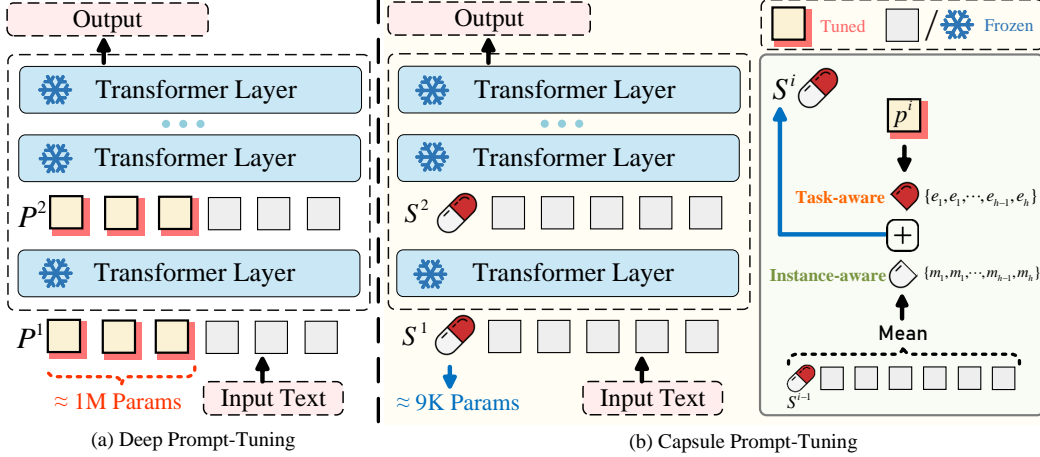


Figure 3: **Overview of Deep Prompt-Tuning vs. CaPT (ours) Frameworks.** (a) Original Deep Prompt-Tuning. (b) The overall architecture of our proposed CaPT (see §3.2), integrating both task-aware guidance and instance-aware signal to trigger “attention anchor” (see §4.3).

positive attention from input sequences (*i.e.*, the purple box), as illustrated in Fig. 1 (right). This behavior indicates that guidance signals are actively propagated into the input sequences. Moreover, the instance-aware token also consistently directs attention toward key structural tokens of the input (*i.e.*, the green box), a property that could be exploited to improve representation learning and gradient flow during fine-tuning. We refer to this phenomenon as “attention anchor,” highlighting the role of instance-aware semantics in establishing stronger attentive interaction between guidance signals and input sequences. Motivated by this insight, we propose an interactive and adaptive prompt design that incorporates instance-aware information. In §3.2, we introduce the most effective and efficient design to trigger “attention anchor.” Furthermore, in §4.5, we demonstrate that realizing attention anchors is highly flexible and consistently yields robust performance gains across different settings. For completeness, we include a case study examining the impact of incorporating instance-aware information on particular heads of a single instance in Appendix §5.

### 3.2 Capsule Prompt-Tuning

Building on these observations, we propose Capsule Prompt-Tuning (CaPT), a lightweight, instance-adaptive prompt-tuning framework that eliminates costly prompt-length search while strengthening the interaction between guidance tokens and the input sequence. As shown in Fig. 3, conventional prompt-based learning prepends a fixed number of randomly initialized continuous vectors (“soft prompts”) to every Transformer layer. These vectors encode task-level priors but neither adapt to individual examples nor scale gracefully across tasks, forcing practitioners to tune the prompt length by grid search. In contrast, CaPT employs a single continuous “capsule” vector per layer to compactly incorporate instance-specific information. This capsule prompt serves as a concise carrier of guidance for the model at that layer, allowing the prompt to adapt to each input instance without introducing numerous prompt parameters, achieving parameter efficiency and strong contextual grounding.

Formally, at each Transformer layer  $i$ , we introduce a learnable capsule  $p^i$ . During processing, the capsule prompt  $S^i$  for layer  $i$  is derived from  $p^i$  in combination with a mean representation derived from the model’s inputs or intermediate states, and is supplied to the Transformer alongside the usual sequence embeddings. For the first layer,  $S^1$  is constructed from  $p^1$  and the mean of the input embeddings  $E$ , and the Transformer layer  $L_1$  processes this prompt together with  $E$  to produce the processed capsule prompt  $\underline{S}^1$  and sequence representation  $H^1$ . For each subsequent layer  $i \geq 2$ , the prompt  $S^i$  is formed by combining  $p^i$  with the mean of the previous processed capsule prompt  $\underline{S}^{i-1}$  and sequence representation  $H^{i-1}$ . The layer  $L_i$  then consumes  $S^i$  and  $H^{i-1}$ , yielding  $\underline{S}^i$  and  $H^i$ . In sum, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 S^1 &= p^1 + \text{Mean}(E) \\
 \underline{S}^1, H^1 &= L_1(S^1, E) \\
 S^i &= p^i + \text{Mean}(\underline{S}^{i-1} \oplus H^{i-1}) \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, N \\
 \underline{S}^i, H^i &= L_i(S^i, H^{i-1}) \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, N
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where  $S^i$  denotes the integrated capsule prompt at layer  $i$  encoding instance-specific semantics.  $\oplus$  denotes concatenation and  $H^{i-1}$  is the representation of the input sequence from layer  $i-1$ .

The manner in which  $S^i$  injects instance-aware semantics is flexible – for example, the capsule vector can be *prepended* as an extra token or *added* into the hidden state. In other words,  $S^i$  is formed by adding the trainable capsule vector to the average embedding of the previous layer’s outputs (including the previous capsule). This mean-based construction yields a compact, length-invariant prompt at each layer that adapts dynamically to the input’s evolving representations through the network. Rather than relying on a large number of soft prompt tokens, we focus on a single, concise, and informative prompt vector, capturing the essential task and instance information. By prioritizing prompt quality over quantity in this way, CaPT effectively addresses the limitations of conventional soft prompting, enabling robust performance without burdensome prompt-tuning overhead.

It is worth noticing that each prompt token is shaped by both the instance semantics and one single parameter-efficient learnable vector. Specifically, the instance semantics provide semantically rich, instance-aware context to trigger “attention anchor,” while the learnable vector encodes task-aware inductive bias. This design enables adaptive alignment between instance information and task objectives, ensuring that the semantic guidance remains both compact and informative. Our analysis of CaPT attention (see §4.3) confirms that the capsuled instance semantics can actively guide the model’s attention toward critical input features. This guidance, as a result, promotes stronger contextual alignment and enhances task performance across diverse benchmarks (see §4.2).

## 4 Experiments

### 4.1 Experimental Setup

**Datasets.** Following common practices [11, 23], we evaluate our approach on six Natural language understanding (NLU) corpora from the SuperGLUE dataset [58], including Question Answering task (*i.e.*, BoolQ and MRC), Natural Language Inference task (*i.e.*, CB and RTE), Sentence Completion task (*i.e.*, COPA), and Word Sense Disambiguation task (*i.e.*, WiC). Since the official test sets are not publicly available, we follow [23, 59] to divide the train sets into train and validation sets by 90%/10% proportion, and translate each SuperGLUE corpus into text-to-text format. The original validation sets are considered as the test sets. More details are shown in Appendix §S1.

**Baselines.** For fair comparison, we compare our method with standard Fine-Tuning, Classification Head adaptation (*i.e.*, only tuning the linear classification head), vanilla prompt-based learning, and several state-of-the-art prompt-based learning approaches. More results are shown in Appendix §S4.

**Implementation Details.** Our method is built upon four different pretrained LLMs: T5-Base (220M) [4], T5-Large (770M) [4], Llama-3.2 (1B) [60], and Qwen-2.5 (1.5B) [61]. Specifically, we train our model under different learning rate settings for 50 epochs with early stopping, using a batch size ranging from 16 to 32. Benefiting from the simplicity and effectiveness of our design, our method does not require any hyperparameter searching which is typically time-consuming for most prompt-based learning approaches. We confirm this advantage of our design by exploring different prompt length settings in §4.5. Detailed implementation setups are provided in §S2.

**Reproducibility.** CaPT is implemented in Pytorch [62]. Experiments are conducted on NVIDIA RTX 6000 Ada 48GB GPUs. Our full implementation is available at <https://github.com/comeandcode/CaPT>.

### 4.2 Main Results

In Table 1, we report a comprehensive comparison of CaPT with other strong baselines on six NLU tasks, resulting in two key observations. ① **Robust superior performance.** CaPT demonstrates consistently superior performance across both encoder-decoder and decoder-only architectures. On encoder-decoder T5 models, CaPT narrows the performance gap with full fine-tuning significantly, achieving **99.56%** of the average full fine-tuning performance on T5-Base. Remarkably, on T5-Large, CaPT not only outperforms strong baselines such as P-Tuning v2 and XPrompt but also exceeds the performance of full fine-tuning by 0.43%. Moreover, on decoder-only causal models Llama3.2-1B and Qwen2.5-1.5B, CaPT presents a significant improvement of **24.44%** and **10.56%** compared to Linear Head adaptation and P-Tuning v2, respectively. This consistency demonstrates the effectiveness of the attention anchor role of capsule prompt on models with different architectures. ② **Extreme parameter and training efficient.** CaPT benefits from its almost parameter-free design,

Table 1: **Evaluation on SuperGLUE Validation Sets.** The best performance except full fine-tuning is in **bold**, and the second best is shown in underline. “\*\*” and “†” indicate the results reported from [63] or its corresponding paper, respectively. For tasks with two metrics, the average score is reported. All scores are averaged over 3 runs.

Method	# Para	Boolq Acc	CB F1/Acc	COPA Acc	MRC F1a	RTE Acc	WiC Acc	Average Score
<b>T5-Base (220M)</b>								
Fine-Tuning† [64]	100%	82.30	91.30	60.00	79.70	84.50	69.30	77.85
Prompt-Tuning* <sub>[EMNLP21]</sub> [11]	0.06%	78.12	84.42	54.37	78.30	75.27	62.29	72.13
P-Tuning v2* <sub>[ACL22]</sub> [53]	0.53%	<b>80.81</b>	90.23	61.28	<u>79.83</u>	<b>81.98</b>	67.56	<u>76.94</u>
XPrompt* <sub>[EMNLP22]</sub> [17]	0.04%	79.67	86.72	56.95	78.57	78.29	64.31	74.09
ResPrompt* <sub>[ACL23]</sub> [52]	0.21%	79.25	85.33	58.64	78.42	77.14	62.36	73.52
SMoP† <sub>[EMNLP23]</sub> [23]	8e-3%	79.40	86.42	58.30	79.60	77.50	65.20	74.40
SuperPos-Prompt† <sub>[NeurIPS24]</sub> [65]	-	74.00	80.20	<b>62.00</b>	72.90	70.40	67.60	71.18
VFPT <sub>[NeurIPS24]</sub> [10]	0.21%	78.38	<u>90.92</u>	61.76	78.73	76.90	65.36	75.34
DePT† <sub>[ICLR24]</sub> [66]	-	79.30	-	-	74.30	79.10	<b>68.70</b>	-
EPT <sub>[NAACL25]</sub> [67]	0.06%	79.14	90.18	56.33	73.43	78.99	<u>67.71</u>	74.30
<b>Ours</b>	4e-3%	79.54	<b>94.16</b>	<b>64.33</b>	<b>80.46</b>	<u>79.78</u>	66.77	<b>77.51</b>
<b>T5-Large (770M)</b>								
Fine-Tuning [64]	100%	85.75	95.26	76.00	84.41	88.05	72.11	83.60
Prompt-Tuning <sub>[EMNLP21]</sub> [11]	0.04%	83.20	90.32	57.50	83.10	86.11	68.74	78.16
P-Tuning v2 <sub>[ACL22]</sub> [53]	0.52%	<b>85.82</b>	<u>95.56</u>	77.00	<u>84.07</u>	<b>89.25</b>	71.03	<u>83.79</u>
XPrompt* <sub>[EMNLP22]</sub> [17]	0.02%	83.82	91.39	<u>82.05</u>	81.26	87.72	<b>73.51</b>	83.29
ResPrompt* <sub>[ACL23]</sub> [52]	0.15%	83.51	90.64	<b>82.79</b>	84.02	86.97	71.13	83.18
SMoP <sub>[EMNLP23]</sub> [23]	3e-3%	83.45	92.37	71.00	83.92	87.70	68.60	81.17
VFPT <sub>[NeurIPS24]</sub> [10]	0.18%	83.89	93.71	75.63	83.24	88.10	71.00	82.56
EPT <sub>[NAACL25]</sub> [67]	0.04%	84.77	93.40	54.00	80.03	86.33	71.79	78.39
<b>Ours</b>	3e-3%	84.56	<b>97.22</b>	80.00	<b>84.53</b>	<u>88.45</u>	69.44	<b>84.03</b>
<b>Llama3.2-1B</b>								
Linear Head [60]	3e-4%	59.85	51.69	56.33	48.94	55.23	53.45	54.25
Prompt-Tuning <sub>[EMNLP21]</sub> [11]	0.06%	60.95	61.61	57.67	57.00	62.50	54.70	59.07
P-Tuning v2 <sub>[ACL22]</sub> [53]	0.53%	<u>62.48</u>	64.29	<b>61.00</b>	<u>60.34</u>	58.12	<u>60.15</u>	<u>61.06</u>
SMoP <sub>[EMNLP23]</sub> [23]	0.04%	61.13	62.50	59.33	57.46	57.40	54.23	57.51
VFPT <sub>[NeurIPS24]</sub> [10]	0.17%	62.44	61.72	<u>59.67</u>	58.41	<u>64.35</u>	57.60	60.70
EPT <sub>[NAACL25]</sub> [67]	0.06%	61.56	<u>65.22</u>	56.00	60.18	63.90	59.45	61.05
<b>Ours</b>	3e-3%	<b>77.28</b>	<b>65.82</b>	58.00	<b>65.73</b>	<b>72.56</b>	<b>65.67</b>	<b>67.51</b>
<b>Qwen2.5-1.5B</b>								
Linear Head [60]	2e-4%	59.54	64.66	52.00	53.38	62.45	56.58	58.10
Prompt-Tuning <sub>[EMNLP21]</sub> [11]	0.05%	61.38	65.22	52.33	53.41	63.18	56.90	58.74
P-Tuning v2 <sub>[ACL22]</sub> [53]	0.51%	62.08	<u>68.84</u>	<u>55.33</u>	<u>56.31</u>	66.43	<b>59.09</b>	<u>61.35</u>
SMoP <sub>[EMNLP23]</sub> [23]	0.03%	61.41	66.76	54.00	55.34	64.62	58.15	60.05
VFPT <sub>[NeurIPS24]</sub> [10]	0.12%	<u>63.64</u>	67.78	52.67	55.61	63.54	58.05	60.22
EPT <sub>[NAACL25]</sub> [67]	0.05%	63.10	68.17	52.33	56.02	<u>67.53</u>	58.30	60.91
<b>Ours</b>	3e-3%	<b>64.13</b>	<b>72.42</b>	<b>57.67</b>	<b>57.49</b>	<b>68.59</b>	<u>58.46</u>	<b>63.17</b>

achieving superior parameter-efficiency compared to all the other baselines (*i.e.*,  $\leq 0.004\%$  parameter usage on all models). Additionally, CaPT can bypass the time-consuming grid search procedure commonly required in prompt-based learning (see §4.4), indicating the effectiveness of attention anchor in efficiently guiding model generation (see §4.3). An interesting observation is that both causal models exhibit suboptimal performance gain compared to two T5 models. We assume this is caused by the inherently different pre-training objectives and the architecture differences (*i.e.*, decoder-only *vs.* encoder-decoder), which aligned with other research’s observation [68]. More analysis of CaPT length, per layer attention are conducted in §4.5 and Appendix §S6, respectively.

### 4.3 Attention Anchor

To strengthen our finding (*i.e.*, §3.1 **Finding III**) that the incorporating of instance-aware semantics can trigger “attention anchor” via enabling a mutual and context-sensitive attention, we compare both model performance and attention pattern of CaPT and Deep Prompt-Tuning with one soft prompt at each encoder layer on T5-Base. As shown in Fig. 4, we visualize the attention pattern on the RTE and CB validation sets of both models and have two key observations. *I.* Capsule prompt successfully exhibits more focused attention towards input tokens at the early positions of input sequence that carry critical structural information (*e.g.*, tokens in blue boxes are fixed structural instructions for all examples in the dataset, see Appendix §S5). This concentrated attention effectively grounds the

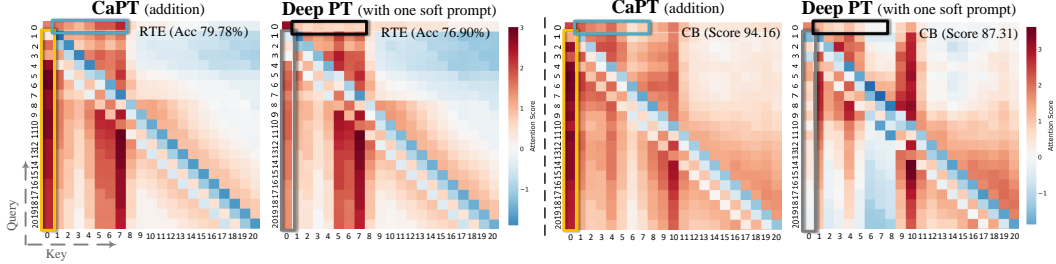


Figure 4: **Attention Analysis on T5-Base.** Attention patterns are analyzed averagely across all heads and encoder layers. Per layer encoder attention analysis and decoder attention (*i.e.*, causal attention) analysis are shown in Appendix §S6 and §S7, respectively.

LLM’s focus on structural content and enhances the contextual relevance of the overall attention distribution [20, 21, 30]. In contrast, the traditional prompt struggles to attend to these key tokens (*i.e.*, black boxes), suggesting a lack of targeted interaction with structurally important tokens of input sequences. *II.* Capsule prompt receives strong and widespread attention from all input tokens (*i.e.*, yellow boxes), while the traditional prompt exhibits limited influence on input tokens (*i.e.*, gray boxes). This broad attention pattern suggests that capsule prompt provides global guidance signal that is relevant throughout the input, allowing it to play a cohesive and guiding role in generation. This observation aligns with previous studies on attention sinks [40, 69], which show that tokens designed to consistently receive attention can be able to enhance model performance. As a result, we prove that CaPT effectively triggers the “attention anchor,” demonstrating a significant performance improvement compared to Deep Prompt-Tuning with a single prompt (*e.g.*, 6.73% improvement on CB) across multiple models (see Appendix §S7 for decoder-only Llama model).

#### 4.4 Training Time Comparison

We compare the total training time of various prompt-based learning methods across six SuperGLUE corpora, including the searching procedures for framework-related hyperparameter (*e.g.*, prompt length, rank). For fairness, we use a consistent experimental setup: up to 50

epochs with early stopping and a fixed batch size per task. As shown in Table 2, our default variant of CaPT demonstrates superior training efficiency, benefiting from the design that avoids grid search for prompt length optimization (see §3.2). In contrast, all baseline methods require significantly longer training durations in order to reach their optimal performances. Specifically, both Prompt-Tuning and P-Tuning v2 heavily rely on task-specific searches for optimal prompt lengths, extending the overall training time (*e.g.*, 8.77× training time). More critically, M-IDPG and LoPA involve searching for both optimal prompt length and rank, resulting in substantially higher computational overhead (*e.g.*, 14.93× training time). This observation further supports the effectiveness and efficiency of our design, which leveraging “attention anchor” to prioritize efficiency without compromising performance.

#### 4.5 Ablation Study

We include a performance comparison with other PEFT methods in Appendix §S4, and analyze the differences between CaPT and other instance-incorporated prompt-based methods in Appendix §S3.

**CaPT Variants.** As stated in §3.2, the capsulation of instance-aware semantics can be achieved flexibly. Here we include three additional designs of CaPT that combines instance-aware and task-aware information, which are prepending, extraction, and projection, as shown in Fig. 5. For prepending, we prepend the mean representation of input instance to learnable task prompt as independent tokens. For extraction and projection, we consider employing learnable 1D convolutional filters and learnable low-rank linear layers to capture instance features respectively, before integrating with the task-aware vector. The results in Table 3 shows that these variants are able

Table 2: **Training Time Comparison on T5-Base.**

Method	# Para	Time	Average Score
Prompt-Tuning [11]	0.06%	8.77×	72.13
P-Tuning v2 [53]	0.53%	8.37×	76.94
M-IDPG [70]	0.47%	12.58×	76.96
LoPA [71]	0.44%	14.93×	77.98
<b>Ours</b>	4e-3%	1.00×	77.51

Table 3: **Comparison of CaPT Variants.**

Variant	# Para	Average Score
Addition	4e-3%	77.51%
Prepending	4e-3%	77.44%
Extraction	0.03%	77.21%
Projection	0.07%	77.64%



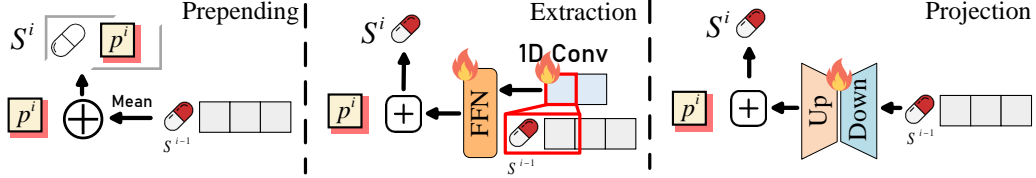


Figure 5: **CaPT Variants.** Three additional designs of CaPT are illustrated: Prepending, Extraction and Projection. The latter two designs require additional trainable modules to process hidden state (e.g., 1D CNN, low-rank Linear). Of all the variants, our default addition design offers the best balance of efficiency and effectiveness, see Table 3.

to exhibit consistent performance on T5-Base. Notably, the default *addition* design (§3.2) can achieve competitive performance compared to projection (i.e., 77.51% vs. 77.64%) with a substantial fewer parameter usage (i.e.,  $17.5\times$  lower). Considering the substantial reduction in time by eliminating the need for time-intensive grid search during fine-tuning, we adopt *addition* as our default method.

**CaPT Length.** In Fig. 6 (top), we explore whether increasing CaPT length is helpful for capturing quantitatively more information to exhibit a better performance on both T5-Base (220M) and Llama3.2-1B. The results reveal that employing one single capsule prompt is sufficient enough to effectively guide model adaptation. Specifically, we observe significant performance drops when prompt length increases (e.g., 67.51 vs. 59.38), while shorter prompt lengths exhibit competitive scores compared with one single capsule prompt (i.e., two capsule prompts) on both models. This observation is consistent with our **Finding II** (see §3.1), indicating that the effectiveness of prompt guidance depends not on the amount of information provided, but on how well that information matches the model’s ability to utilize it (i.e., in our case, observed from the attention patterns).

**CaPT Depth.** We investigate the impact of applying CaPT at different sets of Transformer layers, following common practices [9, 22, 72]. Specifically, we evaluate five configurations: (a) the input layer; (b) the first half of the layers; (c) the latter half of the layers; (d) every odd-numbered layer; and (e) all layers. As illustrated in Fig. 6 (bottom), performance improves as CaPT is applied deeper in the model for both T5-Base and Llama3.2-1B. Interestingly, the configuration using every odd-numbered layer outperforms both the “first half” and “latter half” settings (i.e., 75.28% vs. 73.67%), suggesting that sparsely distributing CaPT throughout the model may be more effective than concentrating it within a consecutive block.

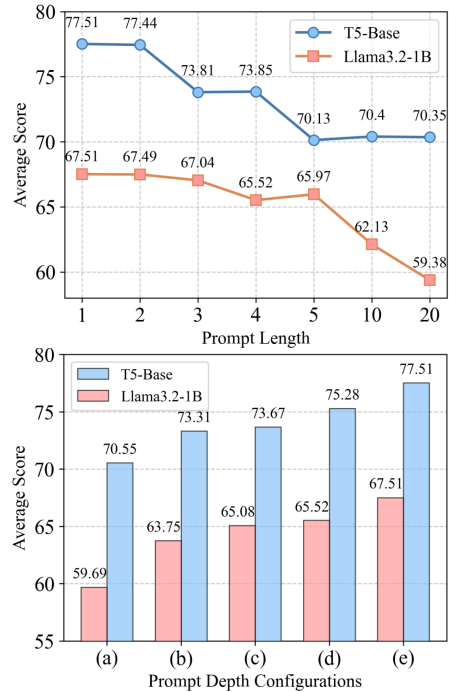


Figure 6: **CaPT Length & Depth.** The top figure shows performance across different prompt lengths, while the bottom figure illustrates the impact of prompt depth.

## 5 Conclusion

Current approaches that adapt LLMs to downstream tasks through task-aware prompt-based learning are constrained by limited interaction with input sequences and often rely on time-consuming grid searches to determine the optimal prompt length. Motivated by the significant role of instance-aware token in guiding model generation as “attention anchor,” we propose CaPT — a simple yet effective framework that bridges between instance-aware and task-aware guidance signals to provide mutual and contextual attention interaction. CaPT achieves robust superior performance and eliminates the need for laborious and time-consuming prompt length searching in an almost parameter-free manner, offering an innovative perspective on LLM adaptation. We conclude that the outcomes elucidated in this paper impart essential understandings and necessitate further exploration within this realm.

## Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. 2450068. This work used NCSA Delta GPU through allocation CIS250460 from the Advanced Cyberinfrastructure Coordination Ecosystem: Services & Support (ACCESS) program, which is supported by U.S. National Science Foundation grants No. 2138259, No. 2138286, No. 2138307, No. 2137603, and No. 2138296.

## References

- [1] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *NAACL*, 2018.
- [2] Alec Radford, Jeffrey Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, Ilya Sutskever, et al. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners. *OpenAI blog*, 2019.
- [3] Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. Language models are few-shot learners. In *NeurIPS*, 2020.
- [4] Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J Liu. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer. *Journal of machine learning research*, 21(140):1–67, 2020.
- [5] Cheng Han, Qifan Wang, Yiming Cui, Zhiwen Cao, Wenguan Wang, Siyuan Qi, and Dongfang Liu. E<sup>2</sup>vpt: An effective and efficient approach for visual prompt tuning. In *ICCV*, 2023.
- [6] Edward J Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang, Weizhu Chen, et al. Lora: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. In *ICLR*, 2022.
- [7] Yiyang Liu, James Chenhao Liang, Ruixiang Tang, Yugyung Lee, Majid Rabbani, Sohail A. Dianat, Raghuv eer Rao, Lifu Huang, Dongfang Liu, Qifan Wang, and Cheng Han. Re-imagining multimodal instruction tuning: A representation view. In *ICLR*, 2025.
- [8] Neil Houlsby, Andrei Giurgiu, Stanislaw Jastrzebski, Bruna Morrone, Quentin de Laroussilhe, Andrea Gesmundo, Mona Attariyan, and Sylvain Gelly. Parameter-efficient transfer learning for NLP. In *ICML*, 2019.
- [9] Taowen Wang, Yiyang Liu, James Chenhao Liang, Yiming Cui, Yuning Mao, Shaoliang Nie, Jiahao Liu, Fuli Feng, Zenglin Xu, Cheng Han, et al. M<sup>2</sup>pt: Multimodal prompt tuning for zero-shot instruction learning. In *EMNLP*, 2024.
- [10] Runjia Zeng, Cheng Han, Qifan Wang, Chunshu Wu, Tong Geng, Lifu Huang, Ying Nian Wu, and Dongfang Liu. Visual fourier prompt tuning. In *NeurIPS*, 2024.
- [11] Brian Lester, Rami Al-Rfou, and Noah Constant. The power of scale for parameter-efficient prompt tuning. In *EMNLP*, 2021.
- [12] Xiang Lisa Li and Percy Liang. Prefix-tuning: Optimizing continuous prompts for generation. In *ACL/IJCNLP*, 2021.
- [13] Taylor Shin, Yasaman Razeghi, Robert L. Logan IV, Eric Wallace, and Sameer Singh. Auto-prompt: Eliciting knowledge from language models with automatically generated prompts. In *EMNLP*, 2020.
- [14] Yuxin Wen, Neel Jain, John Kirchenbauer, Micah Goldblum, Jonas Geiping, and Tom Goldstein. Hard prompts made easy: Gradient-based discrete optimization for prompt tuning and discovery. In *NeurIPS*, 2023.
- [15] Tianyu Gao, Adam Fisch, and Danqi Chen. Making pre-trained language models better few-shot learners. In *ACL/IJCNLP*, 2021.

- [16] Liqi Yan, Cheng Han, Zenglin Xu, Dongfang Liu, and Qifan Wang. Prompt learns prompt: Exploring knowledge-aware generative prompt collaboration for video captioning. In *IJCAI*, 2023.
- [17] Fang Ma, Chen Zhang, Lei Ren, Jingang Wang, Qifan Wang, Wei Wu, Xiaojun Quan, and Dawei Song. Xprompt: Exploring the extreme of prompt tuning. In *EMNLP*, 2022.
- [18] Yihan Wang, Jatin Chauhan, Wei Wang, and Cho-Jui Hsieh. Universality and limitations of prompt tuning. In *NeurIPS*, 2023.
- [19] Samet Oymak, Ankit Singh Rawat, Mahdi Soltanolkotabi, and Christos Thrampoulidis. On the role of attention in prompt-tuning. In *ICML*, 2023.
- [20] Kevin Clark, Urvashi Khandelwal, Omer Levy, and Christopher D. Manning. What does BERT look at? an analysis of bert’s attention. In *BlackboxNLP*, 2019.
- [21] Joseph F DeRose, Jiayao Wang, and Matthew Berger. Attention flows: Analyzing and comparing attention mechanisms in language models. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 27(2):1160–1170, 2020.
- [22] Cheng Han, Qifan Wang, Yiming Cui, Wenguan Wang, Lifu Huang, Siyuan Qi, and Dongfang Liu. Facing the elephant in the room: Visual prompt tuning or full finetuning? In *ICLR*, 2024.
- [23] Joon-Young Choi, Junho Kim, Jun-Hyung Park, Wing-Lam Mok, and SangKeun Lee. Smop: Towards efficient and effective prompt tuning with sparse mixture-of-prompts. In *EMNLP*, 2023.
- [24] Daniel Khashabi, Xinxi Lyu, Sewon Min, Lianhui Qin, Kyle Richardson, Sean Welleck, Hananeh Hajishirzi, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Sameer Singh, and Yejin Choi. Prompt waywardness: The curious case of discretized interpretation of continuous prompts. In *NAACL*, 2022.
- [25] Junda Wu, Tong Yu, Rui Wang, Zhao Song, Ruiyi Zhang, Handong Zhao, Chaochao Lu, Shuai Li, and Ricardo Henao. Infoprompt: Information-theoretic soft prompt tuning for natural language understanding. In *NeurIPS*, 2023.
- [26] Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Long short-term memory. *Neural Comput.*, 1997.
- [27] Alex Sherstinsky. Fundamentals of recurrent neural network (rnn) and long short-term memory (lstm) network. *Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena*, 404:132306, 2020.
- [28] Wei Fang, Zhaofei Yu, Yanqi Chen, Tiejun Huang, Timothée Masquelier, and Yonghong Tian. Deep residual learning in spiking neural networks. In *NeurIPS*, 2021.
- [29] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *CVPR*, 2016.
- [30] Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N. Gomez, Lukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In *NeurIPS*, 2017.
- [31] Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Mandar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. In *ICLR*, 2020.
- [32] Susan Zhang, Stephen Roller, Naman Goyal, Mikel Artetxe, Moya Chen, Shuohui Chen, Christopher Dewan, Mona Diab, Xian Li, Xi Victoria Lin, et al. Opt: Open pre-trained transformer language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.01068*, 2022.
- [33] Zihang Dai, Zhilin Yang, Yiming Yang, Jaime G. Carbonell, Quoc Viet Le, and Ruslan Salakhutdinov. Transformer-xl: Attentive language models beyond a fixed-length context. In *ACL*, 2019.
- [34] Yanzhou Pan, Huawei Lin, Yide Ran, Jiamin Chen, Xiaodong Yu, Weijie Zhao, Denghui Zhang, and Zhaozhuo Xu. Alinfik: Learning to approximate linearized future influence kernel for scalable third-party llm data valuation. In *NAACL*, 2025.

- [35] Huawei Lin, Jikai Long, Zhaozhuo Xu, and Weijie Zhao. Token-wise influential training data retrieval for large language models. In *ACL*, 2024.
- [36] Longyue Wang, Chenyang Lyu, Tianbo Ji, Zhirui Zhang, Dian Yu, Shuming Shi, and Zhaopeng Tu. Document-level machine translation with large language models. In *EMNLP*, 2023.
- [37] Menglong Cui, Jiangcun Du, Shaolin Zhu, and Deyi Xiong. Efficiently exploring large language models for document-level machine translation with in-context learning. In *ACL*, 2024.
- [38] Hyung Won Chung, Le Hou, Shayne Longpre, Barret Zoph, Yi Tay, William Fedus, Yunxuan Li, Xuezhi Wang, Mostafa Dehghani, Siddhartha Brahma, et al. Scaling instruction-finetuned language models. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 25(70):1–53, 2024.
- [39] Haoyu Zhang, Jingjing Cai, Jianjun Xu, and Ji Wang. Pretraining-based natural language generation for text summarization. In *CoNLL*, 2019.
- [40] Guangxuan Xiao, Yuandong Tian, Beidi Chen, Song Han, and Mike Lewis. Efficient streaming language models with attention sinks. In *ICLR*, 2024.
- [41] Mingyu Jin, Kai Mei, Wujiang Xu, Mingjie Sun, Ruixiang Tang, Mengnan Du, Zirui Liu, and Yongfeng Zhang. Massive values in self-attention modules are the key to contextual knowledge understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.01563*, 2025.
- [42] Goro Kobayashi, Tatsuki Kuribayashi, Sho Yokoi, and Kentaro Inui. Attention is not only a weight: Analyzing transformers with vector norms. In *EMNLP*, 2020.
- [43] Chi Han, Qifan Wang, Hao Peng, Wenhan Xiong, Yu Chen, Heng Ji, and Sinong Wang. Lm-infinite: Zero-shot extreme length generalization for large language models. In *NAACL*, 2024.
- [44] Pengxiang Lan, Enneng Yang, Yuting Liu, Guibing Guo, Jianzhe Zhao, and Xingwei Wang. EPT: efficient prompt tuning by multi-space projection and prompt fusion. In *AAAI*, 2025.
- [45] Runjia Zeng, Guangyan Sun, Qifan Wang, Tong Geng, Sohail Dianat, Xiaotian Han, Raghuvver Rao, Xueling Zhang, Cheng Han, Lifu Huang, et al. Mept: Mixture of expert prompt tuning as a manifold mapper. In *EMNLP*, 2025.
- [46] Zhiqiang Hu, Lei Wang, Yihuai Lan, Wanyu Xu, Ee-Peng Lim, Lidong Bing, Xing Xu, Soujanya Poria, and Roy Ka-Wei Lee. Llm-adapters: An adapter family for parameter-efficient fine-tuning of large language models. In *EMNLP*, 2023.
- [47] Zequan Liu, Jiawen Lyn, Wei Zhu, Xing Tian, and Yvette Graham. Alora: Allocating low-rank adaptation for fine-tuning large language models. In *NAACL*, 2024.
- [48] Sylvestre-Alvise Rebuffi, Hakan Bilen, and Andrea Vedaldi. Learning multiple visual domains with residual adapters. In *NeurIPS*, 2017.
- [49] Han Cai, Chuang Gan, Ligeng Zhu, and Song Han. Tinytl: Reduce memory, not parameters for efficient on-device learning. In *NeurIPS*, 2020.
- [50] Shibo Jie, Haoqing Wang, and Zhi-Hong Deng. Revisiting the parameter efficiency of adapters from the perspective of precision redundancy. In *ICCV*, 2023.
- [51] Jeffrey O Zhang, Alexander Sax, Amir Zamir, Leonidas Guibas, and Jitendra Malik. Side-tuning: a baseline for network adaptation via additive side networks. In *ECCV*, 2020.
- [52] Anastasia Razdaibiedina, Yuning Mao, Rui Hou, Madian Khabisa, Mike Lewis, Jimmy Ba, and Amjad Almahairi. Residual prompt tuning: Improving prompt tuning with residual reparameterization. In *ACL*, 2023.
- [53] Xiao Liu, Kaixuan Ji, Yicheng Fu, Weng Lam Tam, Zhengxiao Du, Zhilin Yang, and Jie Tang. P-tuning v2: Prompt tuning can be comparable to fine-tuning universally across scales and tasks. In *ACL*, 2022.
- [54] Colin Wei, Sang Michael Xie, and Tengyu Ma. Why do pretrained language models help in downstream tasks? an analysis of head and prompt tuning. In *NeurIPS*, 2021.

- [55] Ashok Vardhan Makuva, Marco Bondaschi, Adway Girish, Alliot Nagle, Martin Jaggi, Hyeji Kim, and Michael Gastpar. Attention with markov: A framework for principled analysis of transformers via markov chains. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.04161*, 2024.
- [56] Zifan Zheng, Yezhaohui Wang, Yuxin Huang, Shichao Song, Mingchuan Yang, Bo Tang, Feiyu Xiong, and Zhiyu Li. Attention heads of large language models: A survey. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2409.03752*, 2024.
- [57] Dongjun Jang, Sungjoo Byun, and Hyopil Shin. A study on how attention scores in the BERT model are aware of lexical categories in syntactic and semantic tasks on the GLUE benchmark. In *LREC/COLING*, 2024.
- [58] Alex Wang, Yada Pruksachatkun, Nikita Nangia, Amanpreet Singh, Julian Michael, Felix Hill, Omer Levy, and Samuel Bowman. Superglue: A stickier benchmark for general-purpose language understanding systems. In *NeurIPS*, 2019.
- [59] Guanzheng Chen, Fangyu Liu, Zaiqiao Meng, and Shangsong Liang. Revisiting parameter-efficient tuning: Are we really there yet? In *EMNLP*, 2022.
- [60] Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, et al. The llama 3 herd of models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.21783*, 2024.
- [61] An Yang, Baosong Yang, Beichen Zhang, Binyuan Hui, Bo Zheng, Bowen Yu, Chengyuan Li, Dayiheng Liu, Fei Huang, Haoran Wei, et al. Qwen2. 5 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.15115*, 2024.
- [62] Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Francisco Massa, Adam Lerer, James Bradbury, Gregory Chanan, Trevor Killeen, Zeming Lin, Natalia Gimelshein, Luca Antiga, Alban Desmaison, Andreas Kopf, Edward Yang, Zachary DeVito, Martin Raison, Alykhan Tejani, Sasank Chilamkurthy, Benoit Steiner, Lu Fang, Junjie Bai, and Soumith Chintala. Pytorch: An imperative style, high-performance deep learning library. In *NeurIPS*, 2019.
- [63] Qifan Wang, Yuning Mao, Jingang Wang, Hanchao Yu, Shaoliang Nie, Sinong Wang, Fuli Feng, Lifu Huang, Xiaojun Quan, Zenglin Xu, and Dongfang Liu. Aprompt: Attention prompt tuning for efficient adaptation of pre-trained language models. In *EMNLP*, 2023.
- [64] Vamsi Aribandi, Yi Tay, Tal Schuster, Jinfeng Rao, Huaixiu Steven Zheng, Sanket Vaibhav Mehta, Honglei Zhuang, Vinh Q Tran, Dara Bahri, Jianmo Ni, et al. Ext5: Towards extreme multi-task scaling for transfer learning. In *ICLR*, 2022.
- [65] Mohammad Ali Sadraei Javaheri, Ehsaneddin Asgari, Alice C. McHardy, and Hamid R. Rabiee. SuperPos-Prompt: Enhancing soft prompt tuning of language models with superposition of multi token embeddings. In *NeurIPS Workshop*, 2024.
- [66] Zhengxiang Shi and Aldo Lipani. Dept: Decomposed prompt tuning for parameter-efficient fine-tuning. In *ICLR*, 2024.
- [67] Pengxiang Lan, Haoyu Xu, Enneng Yang, Yuliang Liang, Guibing Guo, Jianzhe Zhao, and Xingwei Wang. Efficient and effective prompt tuning via prompt decomposition and compressed outer product. In *NAACL*, 2025.
- [68] Bokai Hu, Sai Ashish Somayajula, Xin Pan, Zihan Huang, and Pengtao Xie. Improving the language understanding capabilities of large language models using reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.11020*, 2024.
- [69] Zhongzhi Yu, Zheng Wang, Yonggan Fu, Huihong Shi, Khalid Shaikh, and Yingyan Celine Lin. Unveiling and harnessing hidden attention sinks: Enhancing large language models without training through attention calibration. In *ICML*, 2024.
- [70] Zhuofeng Wu, Sinong Wang, Jiatao Gu, Rui Hou, Yuxiao Dong, V. G. Vinod Vydiswaran, and Hao Ma. IDPG: an instance-dependent prompt generation method. In *NAACL*, 2022.

- [71] Abhinav Jain, Swarat Chaudhuri, Thomas W. Reps, and Christopher M. Jermaine. Prompt tuning strikes back: Customizing foundation models with low-rank prompt adaptation. In *NeurIPS*, 2024.
- [72] Menglin Jia, Luming Tang, Bor-Chun Chen, Claire Cardie, Serge Belongie, Bharath Hariharan, and Ser-Nam Lim. Visual prompt tuning. In *ECCV*, 2022.
- [73] Wei Zhu, Aaron Xuxiang Tian, Congrui Yin, Yuan Ni, Xiaoling Wang, and Guotong Xie. IAPT: instance-aware prompt tuning for large language models. In *ACL*, 2024.
- [74] Zhangyin Feng, Daya Guo, Duyu Tang, Nan Duan, Xiaocheng Feng, Ming Gong, Linjun Shou, Bing Qin, Ting Liu, Daxin Jiang, and Ming Zhou. Codebert: A pre-trained model for programming and natural languages. In *EMNLP Findings*, 2020.
- [75] Dejjiao Zhang, Wasi Uddin Ahmad, Ming Tan, Hantian Ding, Ramesh Nallapati, Dan Roth, Xiaofei Ma, and Bing Xiang. Code representation learning at scale. In *ICLR*, 2024.
- [76] Amirhossein Kazemnejad, Inkit Padhi, Karthikeyan Natesan Ramamurthy, Payel Das, and Siva Reddy. The impact of positional encoding on length generalization in transformers. In *NeurIPS*, 2023.
- [77] Guolin Ke, Di He, and Tie-Yan Liu. Rethinking positional encoding in language pre-training. In *ICLR*, 2021.
- [78] Jianlin Su, Murtadha Ahmed, Yu Lu, Shengfeng Pan, Wen Bo, and Yunfeng Liu. Roformer: Enhanced transformer with rotary position embedding. *Neurocomputing*, 568:127063, 2024.
- [79] Yu-An Wang and Yun-Nung Chen. What do position embeddings learn? an empirical study of pre-trained language model positional encoding. In *EMNLP*, 2020.
- [80] Aakanksha Chowdhery, Sharan Narang, Jacob Devlin, Maarten Bosma, Gaurav Mishra, Adam Roberts, Paul Barham, Hyung Won Chung, Charles Sutton, Sebastian Gehrmann, et al. Palm: Scaling language modeling with pathways. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 24(240):1–113, 2023.
- [81] Teven Le Scao, Angela Fan, Christopher Akiki, Ellie Pavlick, Suzana Ilić, Daniel Hesslow, Roman Castagné, Alexandra Sasha Luccioni, François Yvon, et al. Bloom: A 176b-parameter open-access multilingual language model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.05100*, 2022.
- [82] Tri Dao, Daniel Y. Fu, Stefano Ermon, Atri Rudra, and Christopher Ré. Flashattention: Fast and memory-efficient exact attention with io-awareness. In *NeurIPS*, 2022.
- [83] Xinyi Wu, Amir Ajorlou, Yifei Wang, Stefanie Jegelka, and Ali Jadbabaie. On the role of attention masks and layernorm in transformers. In *NeurIPS*, 2024.
- [84] Huawei Lin, Tong Geng, Zhaozhuo Xu, and Weijie Zhao. Vtbench: Evaluating visual tokenizers for autoregressive image generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2505.13439*, 2025.
- [85] Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. Commonsenseqa: A question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. In *NAACL-HLT*, 2019.
- [86] Laura Weidinger, John Mellor, Maribeth Rauh, Conor Griffin, Jonathan Uesato, Po-Sen Huang, Myra Cheng, Mia Glaese, Borja Balle, Atoosa Kasirzadeh, Zac Kenton, Sasha Brown, Will Hawkins, Tom Stepleton, Courtney Biles, Abeba Birhane, Julia Haas, Laura Rimell, Lisa Anne Hendricks, William Isaac, Sean Legassick, Geoffrey Irving, and Iason Gabriel. Ethical and social risks of harm from language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2112.04359*, 2021.
- [87] Aiwei Liu, Qiang Sheng, and Xuming Hu. Preventing and detecting misinformation generated by large language models. In *SIGIR*, 2024.
- [88] Yikang Pan, Liangming Pan, Wenhui Chen, Preslav Nakov, Min-Yen Kan, and William Yang Wang. On the risk of misinformation pollution with large language models. In *EMNLP Findings*, 2023.

- [89] Boxin Wang, Chejian Xu, Shuohang Wang, Zhe Gan, Yu Cheng, Jianfeng Gao, Ahmed Hassan Awadallah, and Bo Li. Adversarial GLUE: A multi-task benchmark for robustness evaluation of language models. In *NeurIPS Datasets and Benchmarks*, 2021.
- [90] Ethan Perez, Saffron Huang, H. Francis Song, Trevor Cai, Roman Ring, John Aslanides, Amelia Glaese, Nat McAleese, and Geoffrey Irving. Red teaming language models with language models. In *EMNLP*, 2022.
- [91] Deep Ganguli, Liane Lovitt, Jackson Kernion, Amanda Askell, Yuntao Bai, Saurav Kadavath, Ben Mann, Ethan Perez, Nicholas Schiefer, Kamal Ndousse, et al. Red teaming language models to reduce harms: Methods, scaling behaviors, and lessons learned. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2209.07858*, 2022.
- [92] Weixuan Wang, Barry Haddow, Alexandra Birch, and Wei Peng. Assessing factual reliability of large language model knowledge. In *NAACL*, 2024.
- [93] Jakob Mökander, Jonas Schuett, Hannah Rose Kirk, and Luciano Floridi. Auditing large language models: a three-layered approach. *AI and Ethics*, 4(4):1085–1115, 2024.
- [94] Alejandro Salinas, Amit Haim, and Julian Nyarko. What’s in a name? auditing large language models for race and gender bias. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.14875*, 2024.
- [95] Milind Shah and Nitesh Sureja. A comprehensive review of bias in deep learning models: Methods, impacts, and future directions. *Archives of Computational Methods in Engineering*, 32(1):255–267, 2025.
- [96] Yunbei Zhang, Akshay Mehra, Shuaicheng Niu, and Jihun Hamm. DPCore: Dynamic prompt coreset for continual test-time adaptation. In *ICML*, 2025.
- [97] Xi Xiao, Yunbei Zhang, Xingjian Li, Tianyang Wang, Xiao Wang, Yuxiang Wei, Jihun Hamm, and Min Xu. Visual instance-aware prompt tuning. In *ACM Multimedia*, 2025.
- [98] Yunbei Zhang, Akshay Mehra, and Jihun Hamm. Ot-vp: Optimal transport-guided visual prompting for test-time adaptation. In *WACV*, 2025.

## NeurIPS Paper Checklist

### 1. Claims

Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope?

Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

Justification: Motivated by our finding of “attention anchor,” we propose CaPT, a simple yet effective method that integrates both instance-aware and task-aware information to facilitate prompt-based learning. The main contributions of CaPT (*i.e.*, interactivity, training and parameter efficiency) are claimed in both the abstract and introduction accurately.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the abstract and introduction do not include the claims made in the paper.
- The abstract and/or introduction should clearly state the claims made, including the contributions made in the paper and important assumptions and limitations. A No or NA answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers.
- The claims made should match theoretical and experimental results, and reflect how much the results can be expected to generalize to other settings.
- It is fine to include aspirational goals as motivation as long as it is clear that these goals are not attained by the paper.

### 2. Limitations

Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

Justification: We discuss the limitation in §S13 in Appendix.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper has no limitation while the answer No means that the paper has limitations, but those are not discussed in the paper.
- The authors are encouraged to create a separate "Limitations" section in their paper.
- The paper should point out any strong assumptions and how robust the results are to violations of these assumptions (e.g., independence assumptions, noiseless settings, model well-specification, asymptotic approximations only holding locally). The authors should reflect on how these assumptions might be violated in practice and what the implications would be.
- The authors should reflect on the scope of the claims made, e.g., if the approach was only tested on a few datasets or with a few runs. In general, empirical results often depend on implicit assumptions, which should be articulated.
- The authors should reflect on the factors that influence the performance of the approach. For example, a facial recognition algorithm may perform poorly when image resolution is low or images are taken in low lighting. Or a speech-to-text system might not be used reliably to provide closed captions for online lectures because it fails to handle technical jargon.
- The authors should discuss the computational efficiency of the proposed algorithms and how they scale with dataset size.
- If applicable, the authors should discuss possible limitations of their approach to address problems of privacy and fairness.
- While the authors might fear that complete honesty about limitations might be used by reviewers as grounds for rejection, a worse outcome might be that reviewers discover limitations that aren't acknowledged in the paper. The authors should use their best judgment and recognize that individual actions in favor of transparency play an important role in developing norms that preserve the integrity of the community. Reviewers will be specifically instructed to not penalize honesty concerning limitations.

### 3. Theory assumptions and proofs

Question: For each theoretical result, does the paper provide the full set of assumptions and a complete (and correct) proof?



Answer: [NA]

Justification: Our work is based on our observation on attention pattern which does not have theoretical results. We provide assumption and confirmation on the “attention anchor” phenomenon in §3.1 and §4.3, respectively.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include theoretical results.
- All the theorems, formulas, and proofs in the paper should be numbered and cross-referenced.
- All assumptions should be clearly stated or referenced in the statement of any theorems.
- The proofs can either appear in the main paper or the supplemental material, but if they appear in the supplemental material, the authors are encouraged to provide a short proof sketch to provide intuition.
- Inversely, any informal proof provided in the core of the paper should be complemented by formal proofs provided in appendix or supplemental material.
- Theorems and Lemmas that the proof relies upon should be properly referenced.

#### 4. Experimental result reproducibility

Question: Does the paper fully disclose all the information needed to reproduce the main experimental results of the paper to the extent that it affects the main claims and/or conclusions of the paper (regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not)?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We claim reproducibility in both §4.1 and Appendix §S12. Our code will be publicly available after acceptance.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- If the paper includes experiments, a No answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers: Making the paper reproducible is important, regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not.
- If the contribution is a dataset and/or model, the authors should describe the steps taken to make their results reproducible or verifiable.
- Depending on the contribution, reproducibility can be accomplished in various ways. For example, if the contribution is a novel architecture, describing the architecture fully might suffice, or if the contribution is a specific model and empirical evaluation, it may be necessary to either make it possible for others to replicate the model with the same dataset, or provide access to the model. In general, releasing code and data is often one good way to accomplish this, but reproducibility can also be provided via detailed instructions for how to replicate the results, access to a hosted model (e.g., in the case of a large language model), releasing of a model checkpoint, or other means that are appropriate to the research performed.
- While NeurIPS does not require releasing code, the conference does require all submissions to provide some reasonable avenue for reproducibility, which may depend on the nature of the contribution. For example
  - (a) If the contribution is primarily a new algorithm, the paper should make it clear how to reproduce that algorithm.
  - (b) If the contribution is primarily a new model architecture, the paper should describe the architecture clearly and fully.
  - (c) If the contribution is a new model (e.g., a large language model), then there should either be a way to access this model for reproducing the results or a way to reproduce the model (e.g., with an open-source dataset or instructions for how to construct the dataset).
  - (d) We recognize that reproducibility may be tricky in some cases, in which case authors are welcome to describe the particular way they provide for reproducibility. In the case of closed-source models, it may be that access to the model is limited in some way (e.g., to registered users), but it should be possible for other researchers to have some path to reproducing or verifying the results.

## 5. Open access to data and code

Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instructions to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental material?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We claim reproducibility in both §4.1 and Appendix §S12. All the datasets included in our study are publicly available (SuperGLUE). Our code will be publicly available after acceptance. The publicly available code should be adequate to replicate the primary experimental results.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that paper does not include experiments requiring code.
- Please see the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (<https://nips.cc/public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy>) for more details.
- While we encourage the release of code and data, we understand that this might not be possible, so “No” is an acceptable answer. Papers cannot be rejected simply for not including code, unless this is central to the contribution (e.g., for a new open-source benchmark).
- The instructions should contain the exact command and environment needed to run to reproduce the results. See the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (<https://nips.cc/public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy>) for more details.
- The authors should provide instructions on data access and preparation, including how to access the raw data, preprocessed data, intermediate data, and generated data, etc.
- The authors should provide scripts to reproduce all experimental results for the new proposed method and baselines. If only a subset of experiments are reproducible, they should state which ones are omitted from the script and why.
- At submission time, to preserve anonymity, the authors should release anonymized versions (if applicable).
- Providing as much information as possible in supplemental material (appended to the paper) is recommended, but including URLs to data and code is permitted.

## 6. Experimental setting/details

Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyper-parameters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the results?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We specify all the training and test details in §4.1 and Appendix §S2.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The experimental setting should be presented in the core of the paper to a level of detail that is necessary to appreciate the results and make sense of them.
- The full details can be provided either with the code, in appendix, or as supplemental material.

## 7. Experiment statistical significance

Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We include the standard deviation error bars for our main result on T5-Base in Appendix §S3.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The authors should answer "Yes" if the results are accompanied by error bars, confidence intervals, or statistical significance tests, at least for the experiments that support the main claims of the paper.

- The factors of variability that the error bars are capturing should be clearly stated (for example, train/test split, initialization, random drawing of some parameter, or overall run with given experimental conditions).
- The method for calculating the error bars should be explained (closed form formula, call to a library function, bootstrap, etc.)
- The assumptions made should be given (e.g., Normally distributed errors).
- It should be clear whether the error bar is the standard deviation or the standard error of the mean.
- It is OK to report 1-sigma error bars, but one should state it. The authors should preferably report a 2-sigma error bar than state that they have a 96% CI, if the hypothesis of Normality of errors is not verified.
- For asymmetric distributions, the authors should be careful not to show in tables or figures symmetric error bars that would yield results that are out of range (e.g. negative error rates).
- If error bars are reported in tables or plots, The authors should explain in the text how they were calculated and reference the corresponding figures or tables in the text.

#### 8. Experiments compute resources

Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the computer resources (type of compute workers, memory, time of execution) needed to reproduce the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We specify the training computation time in §4.4 and computing resources in §4.1 and Appendix §S12.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The paper should indicate the type of compute workers CPU or GPU, internal cluster, or cloud provider, including relevant memory and storage.
- The paper should provide the amount of compute required for each of the individual experimental runs as well as estimate the total compute.
- The paper should disclose whether the full research project required more compute than the experiments reported in the paper (e.g., preliminary or failed experiments that didn't make it into the paper).

#### 9. Code of ethics

Question: Does the research conducted in the paper conform, in every respect, with the NeurIPS Code of Ethics <https://neurips.cc/public/EthicsGuidelines>?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We conform to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics and show related asset license and consent to our work in Appendix §S11.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the authors have not reviewed the NeurIPS Code of Ethics.
- If the authors answer No, they should explain the special circumstances that require a deviation from the Code of Ethics.
- The authors should make sure to preserve anonymity (e.g., if there is a special consideration due to laws or regulations in their jurisdiction).

#### 10. Broader impacts

Question: Does the paper discuss both potential positive societal impacts and negative societal impacts of the work performed?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: Our work is a parameter-efficient-fine-tuning (PEFT) approach for large language models. We provide the potential misuses of our method and mitigation approaches in Appendix §S10

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that there is no societal impact of the work performed.
- If the authors answer NA or No, they should explain why their work has no societal impact or why the paper does not address societal impact.
- Examples of negative societal impacts include potential malicious or unintended uses (e.g., disinformation, generating fake profiles, surveillance), fairness considerations (e.g., deployment of technologies that could make decisions that unfairly impact specific groups), privacy considerations, and security considerations.
- The conference expects that many papers will be foundational research and not tied to particular applications, let alone deployments. However, if there is a direct path to any negative applications, the authors should point it out. For example, it is legitimate to point out that an improvement in the quality of generative models could be used to generate deepfakes for disinformation. On the other hand, it is not needed to point out that a generic algorithm for optimizing neural networks could enable people to train models that generate Deepfakes faster.
- The authors should consider possible harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended and functioning correctly, harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended but gives incorrect results, and harms following from (intentional or unintentional) misuse of the technology.
- If there are negative societal impacts, the authors could also discuss possible mitigation strategies (e.g., gated release of models, providing defenses in addition to attacks, mechanisms for monitoring misuse, mechanisms to monitor how a system learns from feedback over time, improving the efficiency and accessibility of ML).

#### 11. Safeguards

Question: Does the paper describe safeguards that have been put in place for responsible release of data or models that have a high risk for misuse (e.g., pretrained language models, image generators, or scraped datasets)?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We discuss the potential misuses and prevention approaches in §S10 in Appendix.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper poses no such risks.
- Released models that have a high risk for misuse or dual-use should be released with necessary safeguards to allow for controlled use of the model, for example by requiring that users adhere to usage guidelines or restrictions to access the model or implementing safety filters.
- Datasets that have been scraped from the Internet could pose safety risks. The authors should describe how they avoided releasing unsafe images.
- We recognize that providing effective safeguards is challenging, and many papers do not require this, but we encourage authors to take this into account and make a best faith effort.

#### 12. Licenses for existing assets

Question: Are the creators or original owners of assets (e.g., code, data, models), used in the paper, properly credited and are the license and terms of use explicitly mentioned and properly respected?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We show related asset license and consent to our work in §S11.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not use existing assets.
- The authors should cite the original paper that produced the code package or dataset.
- The authors should state which version of the asset is used and, if possible, include a URL.
- The name of the license (e.g., CC-BY 4.0) should be included for each asset.

- For scraped data from a particular source (e.g., website), the copyright and terms of service of that source should be provided.
- If assets are released, the license, copyright information, and terms of use in the package should be provided. For popular datasets, [paperswithcode.com/datasets](https://paperswithcode.com/datasets) has curated licenses for some datasets. Their licensing guide can help determine the license of a dataset.
- For existing datasets that are re-packaged, both the original license and the license of the derived asset (if it has changed) should be provided.
- If this information is not available online, the authors are encouraged to reach out to the asset's creators.

### 13. **New assets**

Question: Are new assets introduced in the paper well documented and is the documentation provided alongside the assets?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: Justification: We do not release new assets. In Appendix §S11, we include the existing asset license and consent.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not release new assets.
- Researchers should communicate the details of the dataset/code/model as part of their submissions via structured templates. This includes details about training, license, limitations, etc.
- The paper should discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose asset is used.
- At submission time, remember to anonymize your assets (if applicable). You can either create an anonymized URL or include an anonymized zip file.

### 14. **Crowdsourcing and research with human subjects**

Question: For crowdsourcing experiments and research with human subjects, does the paper include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable, as well as details about compensation (if any)?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: Our paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.
- Including this information in the supplemental material is fine, but if the main contribution of the paper involves human subjects, then as much detail as possible should be included in the main paper.
- According to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics, workers involved in data collection, curation, or other labor should be paid at least the minimum wage in the country of the data collector.

### 15. **Institutional review board (IRB) approvals or equivalent for research with human subjects**

Question: Does the paper describe potential risks incurred by study participants, whether such risks were disclosed to the subjects, and whether Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals (or an equivalent approval/review based on the requirements of your country or institution) were obtained?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: Our paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

- Depending on the country in which research is conducted, IRB approval (or equivalent) may be required for any human subjects research. If you obtained IRB approval, you should clearly state this in the paper.
- We recognize that the procedures for this may vary significantly between institutions and locations, and we expect authors to adhere to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics and the guidelines for their institution.
- For initial submissions, do not include any information that would break anonymity (if applicable), such as the institution conducting the review.

**16. Declaration of LLM usage**

Question: Does the paper describe the usage of LLMs if it is an important, original, or non-standard component of the core methods in this research? Note that if the LLM is used only for writing, editing, or formatting purposes and does not impact the core methodology, scientific rigorousness, or originality of the research, declaration is not required.

Answer: [NA]

Justification: Our paper does not use LLMs as any components of the core methods.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the core method development in this research does not involve LLMs as any important, original, or non-standard components.
- Please refer to our LLM policy (<https://neurips.cc/Conferences/2025/LLM>) for what should or should not be described.

## SUMMARY OF THE APPENDIX

This appendix contains additional experimental results and discussions of our NeurIPS 2025 submission: *All You Need is One: Capsule Prompt Tuning with a Single Vector*, organized as follows:

- §S1 provides an additional **introduction of the datasets** and **important terminology explanation**.
- §S2 explains **more implementation details** on experiments.
- §S3 provides a comparison with **existing instance-incorporated** prompt-based learning.
- §S4 presents a comparison with **other PEFT paradigms**.
- §S5 provides a case study of **Finding III 3.1** on attention heads.
- §S6 discusses the **attention dynamics** across different encoder layers.
- §S7 illustrates the role of capsule prompt on **decoder-only model** with causal attention.
- §S8 provides an **additional ablation study** of task-aware and instance-aware guidance signals.
- §S9 provides additional validation of **CaPT’s applicability**.
- §S10 includes additional discussions on **ethics concerns**.
- §S11 shows related **asset license and consent** to our work.
- §S12 claims **reproducibility** of our approach.
- §S13 discusses **limitations, social impact** and directions of our **future work**.

## S1 Dataset Statistics & Terminology

Table S1: **More details on the six SuperGLUE corpora used in our experiments**. Datasets are classified into different task categories, as suggested by [4]. NLI denotes natural language inference, QA denotes questions and answers task, SC denotes sentence completion, WSD denotes word sense disambiguation, Acc denotes accuracy, and F1a denotes the macro F1 score.

Corpus	Examples	Task	Domain	Metric
Boolq	9,427	QA	Wikipedia	Acc
CB	250	NLI	various	F1/Acc
COPA	400	SC	blogs, encyclop	Acc
MRC	27,243	QA	various	F1a
RTE	2,490	NLI	news, Wiki	Acc
WiC	5,428	WSD	lexical databases	Acc

Table S1 shows details of the six corpora from SuperGLUE benchmark [58] that we used for our experiments, along with their training sizes and evaluation metrics. For tasks that have two evaluation metrics, we use the average of both scores as the final performance metric following [4, 11].

We would like to further explain the important terminology used in our work:

**Task-aware** refers to information or components (*e.g.*, soft prompts) specifically designed or optimized to encode general knowledge or instructions about the dataset/task. These prompts remain the same across input instances and aim to guide the model toward task-relevant behavior.

**Instance-aware** describes information tailored to a specific input instance (*e.g.*, a sentence or document). Instead of generic task-aware instructions, instance-aware tokens reflect the feature of each individual input.

**Structurally important tokens** are the critical components of the input sequence that carry essential meaning or structure (*e.g.*, named entities, syntactic anchors). Models benefit from focusing attention on these tokens to ensure accurate comprehension and generation [20, 56, 57].

**Guidance signal** are explicit or implicit instructions (*e.g.*, hard or soft prompts) that guide models decision-making processes toward targeted tasks or behaviors.

## S2 Implementation Details

Our method employs four different pretrained LLMs: T5-Base (220M) [4], T5-Large (770M) [4], Llama-3.2 (1B) [60], and Qwen-2.5 (1.5B) [61]. Specifically, we train our models in float32 precision

Table S2: **Comparison on SuperGLUE validation sets for T5-Base.** Training time refers to the total duration required to train for up to 50 epochs with early stopping to obtain the optimal performance, using the same batch size for individual task.

Method	# Para	Training Time	Boolq Acc	CB F1/Acc	COPA Acc	MRC F1a	RTE Acc	WIC Acc	Average Score
T5-Base (220M)									
Prompt-Tuning [11]	0.06%	8.77×	78.12	84.42	54.37	78.30	75.27	62.29	72.13
P-Tuning v2[53]	0.53%	8.37×	<b>80.81</b>	<u>90.23</u>	61.28	<u>79.83</u>	<u>81.98</u>	67.56	76.94
M-IDPG[70]	0.47%	12.58×	79.60	92.31	60.33	79.90	80.90	68.86	76.96
LoPA[71]	0.44%	14.93×	81.09	91.54	62.00	80.41	83.40	69.44	<b>77.98</b>
<b>Ours</b>	4e-3%	1.00×	79.54 ± (0.09)	<b>94.16 ± (0.59)</b>	<b>64.33 ± (0.33)</b>	<b>80.46 ± (0.07)</b>	<u>79.78 ± (0.76)</u>	66.77 ± (0.12)	<u>77.51 ± (0.33)</u>

for 50 epochs with early stopping based on validation results, using a batch size ranging from 16 to 32 to avoid memory issues. All scores are reported based on the average of three runs. For T5 models, we linearly search the best learning rate from {5, 1, 0.1}; for Llama3.2-1B, we linearly search the best learning rate from {7e-4, 5e-5, 1e-5}; for Qwen2.5-1.5B, we linearly search the best learning rate from {1e-1, 5e-3, 5e-4, 1e-5}. Benefiting from the simplicity and effectiveness of our design, our method does not require any hyperparameter searching which is typically laborious and time-consuming for most prompt-based learning approaches. This advantage is confirmed by our exploring of different prompt length settings in §4.5.

Following common practices [11, 23], we set the maximum input length, including the prompt, to 512 tokens for all experiments. Inputs that exceed this limit are truncated. We do not apply any additional preprocessing (*e.g.*, punctuation removal); instead, we directly tokenize the raw text from the SuperGLUE datasets using the appropriate tokenizer for each model. All experiments adhere to the SMoP [23] formatting, where classification tasks are reformulated into text-to-text format in T5 model. For example, in BoolQ, labels ‘0’ and ‘1’ are converted to ‘True’ and ‘False,’ respectively. For T5 models, we translate each SuperGLUE dataset into a text-to-text format following [23]. For Llama and Qwen models, we continue to use the previously established text-to-text template while preserving the original labels, aligning the task with LlamaForSequenceClassification and Qwen2ForSequenceClassification, respectively. All our models use the Adafactor optimizer with a linear learning rate scheduler.

### S3 Comparison with Existing Instance-incorporated prompt-based learning Approaches

While some prompt-based learning methods [70, 71, 73] have explored utilizing instance semantics, our approach distinguishes itself significantly through its simplicity, efficiency, and minimal overhead. We conduct comparison with two representative instance-based prompting methods across multiple tasks. As shown in Table S2, our method surpasses M-IDPG [70] on average performance and achieves competitive performance compared to LoPA [71] on T5-Base. While LoPA reports marginally better average performance, it requires 110× more trainable parameters (*i.e.*, 0.44% *vs.* 0.004%), which is a critical overhead under the PEFT paradigm. It requires an additional encoder (*e.g.*, CodeBert-125M [74], CodeSage-365M [75]), though frozen, still being a major reason of the significant overhead on training time. In contrast to our intuitive yet effective leveraging of “attention anchor”, both methods employ heavy trainable modules (*e.g.*, MLP and multiple projectors).

### S4 Comparison with Other PEFT Paradigms

For a comprehensive evaluation of the performance of our method, we compare CaPT against other PEFT methods that differs from prompt-based learning, including Adapter [8] and LoRA [6]. While several recent reparameterization and adapter tuning methods have been proposed on different backbones and datasets, the absence of publicly released code hinders reproduction under consistent settings. As shown in Table S3, CaPT is able to surpass the other PEFT baselines (*e.g.*, 77.51% *vs.* 76.16%), while requiring a considerably fewer trainable parameters (*e.g.*, 0.004% *vs.* 1.73%). This demonstrates a unique advantage of our method, highlighting its ability to achieve superior performance with significantly reduced parameter usage.



Table S3: Comparison with other PEFT methods on SuperGLUE for T5-Base.

Method	# Para	Boolq Acc	CB F1/Acc	COPA Acc	MRC F1a	RTE Acc	WiC Acc	Average Score
T5-Base (220M)								
Adapter [8]	0.86%	<b>82.50</b>	88.05	<b>71.50</b>	75.90	71.90	67.10	76.16
LoRA [6]	1.73%	81.30	88.20	70.40	72.60	75.5	<b>68.30</b>	76.05
<b>Ours</b>	4e-3%	79.54	<b>94.16</b>	64.33	<b>80.46</b>	<b>79.78</b>	66.77	<b>77.51</b>

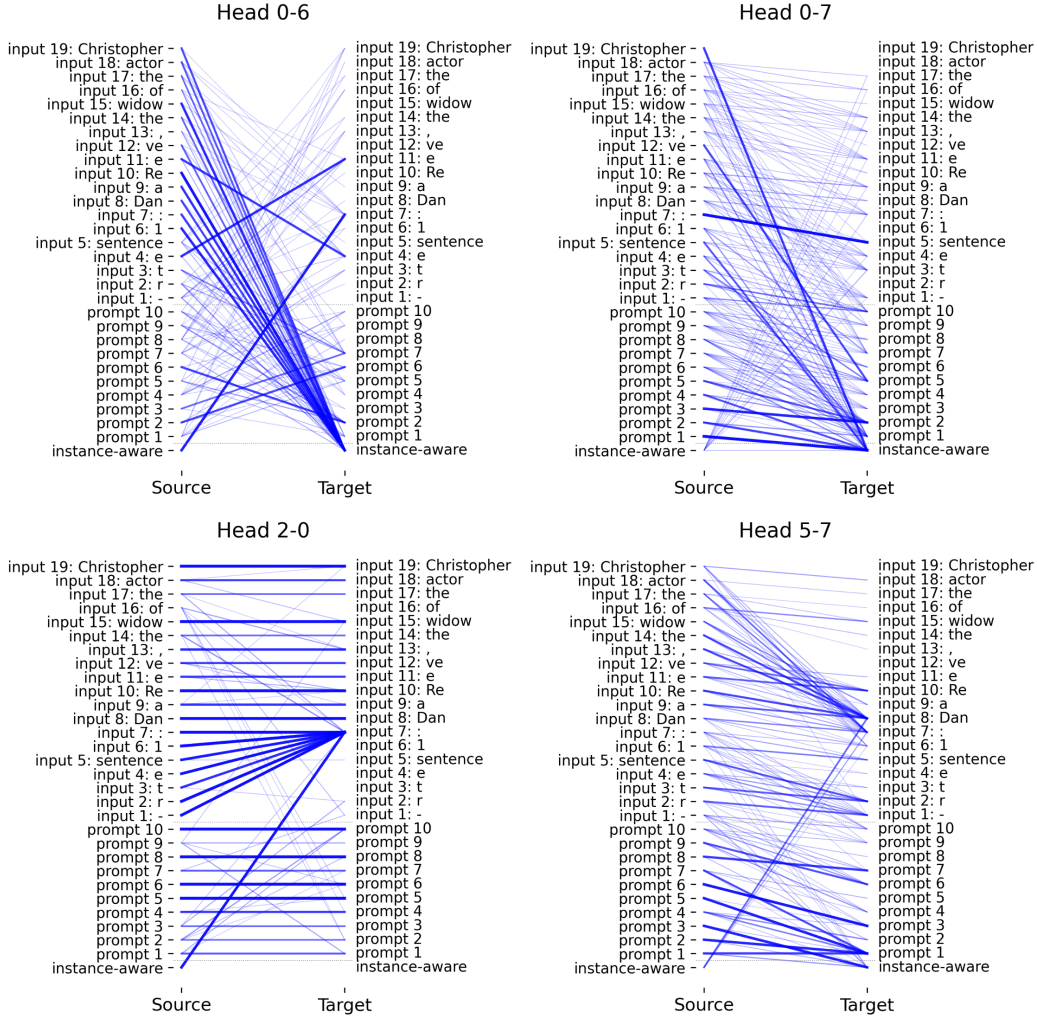


Figure S1: Attention Heads Analysis of Incorporating Instance-aware Information. Head a-b denotes the attention pattern of head b in encoder layer a. Darker lines represent higher attention scores. Token indices are displayed in the same format as in Fig. 1 (right).

## S5 Impact of Incorporating Instance-aware Information on Attention Heads

We present a detailed case study of **Finding III** in §3.1, showing how prepended instance-aware information affects the attention heads of the T5-Base model. Examples of heads are shown in Fig. S1. We have two key observations. First, when input tokens strongly attend to structural tokens (e.g., input 7 “:-” in head 2-0) and semantic tokens (e.g., input 8 “Dan” in head 5-7), the instance-aware token is also able to attend to these tokens, whereas prompt tokens primarily attend to themselves. Second, the instance-aware token is effectively attended to by input tokens (e.g., heads 0-6 and 0-7), thereby providing guidance to the entire input sequence. These observations reinforce the role of instance-aware information as an “attention anchor,” which strongly motivates our design of CaPT.

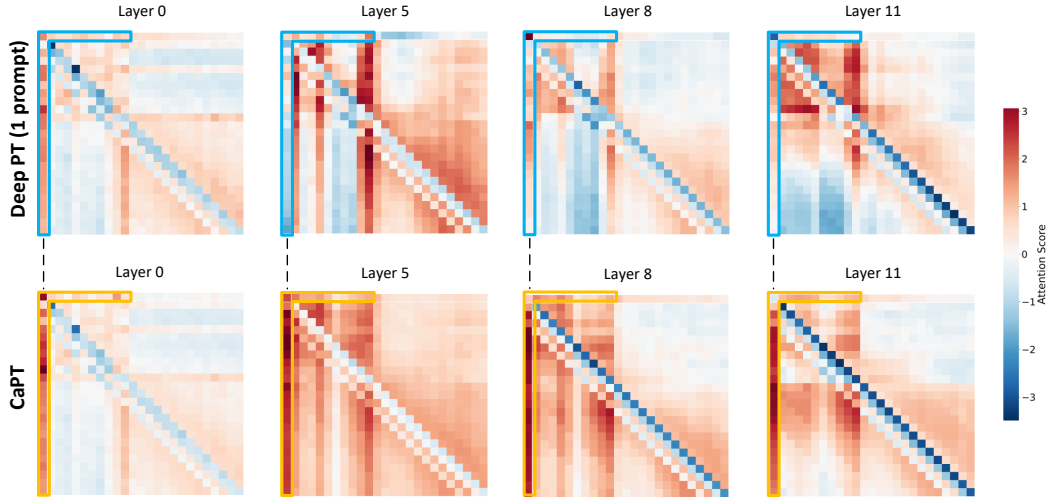


Figure S2: **Per Layer Averaged Attention on CB Validation Set for T5-Base.** Yellow regions indicate the attention behavior of capsule prompt, while blue regions show the attention behavior of traditional task-aware soft prompt.

## S6 Per Layer Attention

To further understand the “attention anchor” phenomenon, we investigate the averaged attention dynamics across different Transformer layers. Specifically, we showcase four layers (*i.e.*, layer index 0, 5, 8, and 11) of both CaPT and Deep Prompt-Tuning models in Fig. S2 to examine the significance of capsule prompt. We observe that compared to traditional deep prompt, capsule prompt is able to consistently exhibit more focused attention towards critical input tokens and strong guidance to other input tokens across all layers (*i.e.*, yellow regions). This aligns with our averaged attention analysis across all layers in §4.3, further confirming our capsule prompt can serve as “attention anchor” to facilitate the interaction between guidance signals and input sequences. Additionally, we analyze the attention logits after applying relative positional encoding (PE) in T5, and after applying both rotary PE and causal masks in Llama. Consequently, the averaged attention scores at diagonal positions may become negative, enabling a more balanced distribution of attention toward non-self tokens, as influenced by PE mechanisms [76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81].

## S7 Decoder-only Attention

Transformer decoders have a fundamentally different attention mechanism (*i.e.*, causal attention) compared to Transformer encoders [30, 82, 83, 84]. The paradigm of prompt-based learning on encoder-decoder T5 models focuses on applying prompts at encoder layer for better adaptation to downstream tasks [23, 17, 12, 11, 63]. Therefore, we further investigate the role of capsule prompt on decoders through decoder-only architecture (*e.g.*, Llama model). As shown in Fig. S3, even under causal attention, where tokens cannot attend to subsequent tokens, the capsule prompt is able to demonstrate superior guidance than the traditional soft prompt. This strong guidance role aligns with our observation on the T5-Base encoders. The higher performance gain (*i.e.*, 65.82 *vs.* 62.11) suggests that concentrated attention on the first token positively impacts model performance, consistent with previous studies on attention sinks in decoder-only models [40, 69]. We also find that attention scores always concentrate on the first token of the input sequence (*i.e.*, the BOS token) for both models. This phenomenon may be attributed to patterns learned during pre-training.

## S8 Impact of Task-aware and Instance-aware Guidance Signals

To understand how different forms of guidance signal contribute to performance, we separately examine task-aware (*i.e.*, Deep PT with a single prompt) and instance-aware (*i.e.*, only the mean pooled

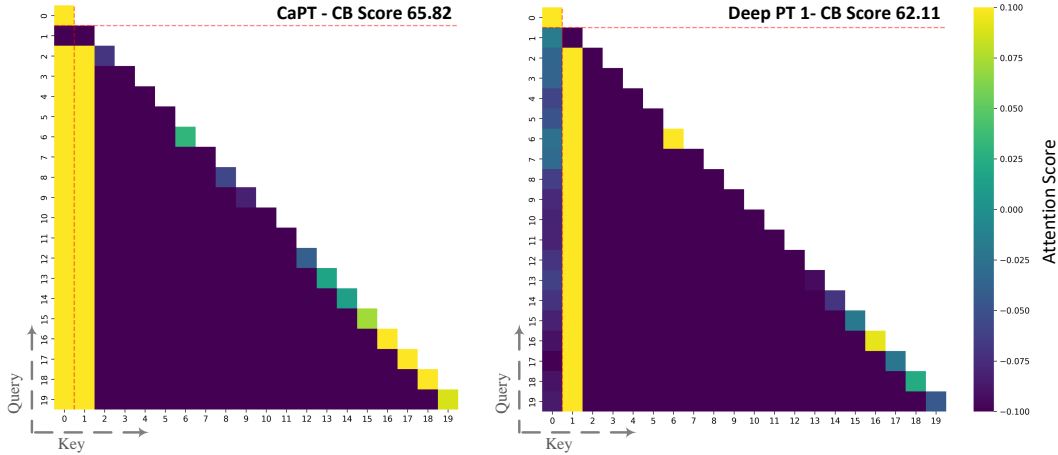


Figure S3: **Attention Analysis on Llama3.2-1B**. Attention patterns are analyzed averagely across all heads and decoder layers on CB validation set. The left figure indicates the attention pattern of CaPT, while the right figure shows the attention pattern of Deep Prompt-Tuning with one single prompt at each layer.

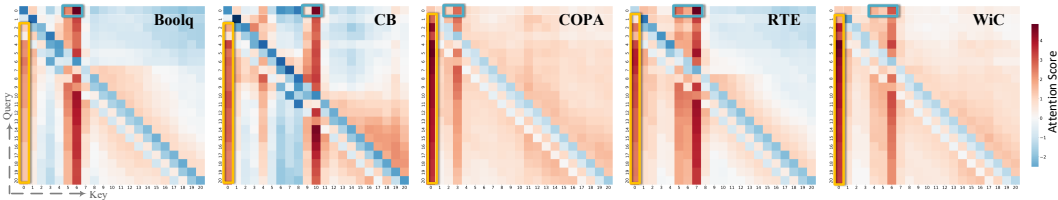


Figure S4: **Attention Patterns for the Instance-aware Guidance Only Setting**.

embedding as a prompt) guidance. As shown in Table S4, the absence of either type of guidance signal results in a performance drop, suggesting that both contribute meaningfully. Interestingly, even without any fine-tuning, instance-aware only signals can guide the model, outperforming Deep PT with a single prompt on tasks like BoolQ and WiC. Although the attention anchor effect also persists for the instance-aware only setting (see Fig. S4), CaPT achieves the best performance, validating the benefit of combining both the instance-aware and task-aware guidance.

Table S4: **Ablation study of task-aware and instance-aware guidance signals for T5-Base.**

Method	Boolq	CB	COPA	RTE	WiC
	Acc	F1/Acc	Acc	Acc	Acc
<b>T5-Base (220M)</b>					
Insta-only-1	<u>77.25</u>	82.86	52.00	65.70	<u>65.36</u>
Deep PT-1	76.51	<u>87.31</u>	<u>58.00</u>	<u>76.90</u>	63.80
<b>CaPT</b>	<b>79.54</b>	<b>94.16</b>	<b>64.33</b>	<b>79.78</b>	<b>66.77</b>

## S9 Further Validation of CaPT’s Applicability

To further examine the applicability of CaPT, we include the comparison of P-Tuning V2 and CaPT on the CSQA [85] dataset across different models in Table S5, including results on a larger model Qwen2.5-7B. The results indicate CaPT’s applicability on larger models and show that CaPT can consistently outperform P-Tuning V2. Specifically, CaPT achieves a notable performance improvement on Llama3.2-1B, highlighting the effectiveness of CaPT on CSQA.

Table S5: Results on CSQA comparing P-Tuning V2 and CaPT across different models.

Method	T5-Base	T5-Large	Llama3.2-1B	Qwen2.5-7B
P-Tuning V2	56.43	70.52	45.29	77.72
CaPT	<b>57.82</b>	<b>72.07</b>	<b>61.60</b>	<b>79.03</b>

## S10 Ethics Concerns

CaPT is a parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) method designed to adapt pre-trained large language models (LLMs) to downstream tasks. However, it also introduces potential risks of misuse. Specifically, malicious actors may fine-tune models to generate or amplify harmful content, misinformation, or biased outputs [86, 87, 88]. To address these concerns, several mitigation strategies can be considered. These include robustness evaluations [89, 90, 91], continuous monitoring of model behavior [92], and systematic bias audits [93, 94]. Another important safeguard is the thorough documentation of models and training data, along with transparent disclosure of any known biases introduced during development [95].

## S11 Asset License and Consent

The majority of prompt tuning [53, 11], T5 [64], and Qwen2.5-1B [61] are licensed under Apache-2.0; Llama3.2 1B [60] is licensed under Llama 3.2 Community License Agreement; SuperGLUE is licensed under MIT.

All the datasets included in our study are publicly available (SuperGLUE), and all the models (T5 models, Llama3.2-1B, and Qwen2.5-1.5B) are publicly available. We would like to state that the contents in the dataset do NOT represent our views or opinions.

## S12 Reproducibility

CaPT is implemented in Pytorch [62]. Experiments are conducted on NVIDIA RTX 6000 Ada 48GB GPUs. To guarantee reproducibility, our full implementation is available at <https://github.com/comeandcode/CaPT>. Implementation details are included in Appendix §S2.

## S13 Social Impact and Limitations

This work provides a prior finding of incorporating instance-aware information as a part of guidance signals in prompt-based learning can facilitate more attentive interaction between prompts and input sequences, namely “attention anchor.” Based on our finding of “attention anchor”, we propose Capsule Prompt-Tuning (CaPT), an extremely lightweight, instance-adaptive prompt-based learning framework that eliminates prompt-length search while strengthening the interaction between guidance tokens and the input sequence, leading to superior performance and outstanding training efficiency. Our work is particularly beneficial for parameter-sensitive training scenarios, such as prompt tuning on resource-constrained devices and rapid adaptation with limited computational overhead.

A potential limitation of the current CaPT design is the extension to models of other modalities (*e.g.*, visual [72, 96, 97, 98]), since visual embeddings generally lack a fixed instruction template (*i.e.*, structural tokens) like those in language tasks, which the capsule prompt uses to ground more focused attention. However, given CaPT’s strong guiding role, as indicated by the high attention it receives in T5 encoder layers, we believe that a carefully redesigned version of CaPT could also benefit vision tasks. In addition, while our results consistently show successful optimization of CaPT across a broad range of datasets and model scales, we acknowledge that this may not generalize to all models and datasets. Further comprehensive examinations are needed.