EXPLORING THE DISCRIMINATIVE CAPABILITY OF LLMS IN IN-CONTEXT LEARNING

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

In-context learning (ICL), as an emergent behavior of large language models (LLMs), has exhibited impressive capability in solving previously unseen tasks based on the observations of the given samples without extra training. However, recent works find that LLMs irregularly obtain unexpected fragmented decision boundaries in simple discriminative tasks, such as binary linear classification. Our observations on the output of Llama-3-8B for the reasoning process of label predictions reveal that LLMs tend to leverage the existing machine learning algorithms to perform discriminative tasks. Specifically, LLMs tend first to select a strategy for the given task and then predict the labels of query data by executing the selected strategy. Based on the observation, in this paper, we propose to dive into such a behavior of LLMs for a deeper understanding of the discriminative capability of LLMs. We conduct a series of analyses on Llama-3-8B to determine the behaviors adopted by LLMs in the discriminative tasks, including probing the label predictions of query data and the corresponding confidence of LLMs under different prompt settings. Moreover, we also probe the preference of LLMs for strategy selection and then simulate the behavior of LLMs performing classification based on the preference. The analysis and simulation results provide important observations and insights into the properties of LLMs in performing discriminative tasks.

028 029

031

004

010 011

012

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

024

025

026

027

1 INTRODUCTION

Large language models (LLMs), which are equipped with billions of parameters and pre-trained on huge amounts of corpora, have exhibited impressive capability in solving various kinds of tasks, such as reasoning commonsense and arithmetic problems (Lewkowycz et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2022; Kojima et al., 2022; Suzgun et al., 2022). A significant ability derived from these large-scale transformer-based models is in-context learning (ICL) (Brown, 2020). In in-context learning, with elaborately designed prompts, LLMs can be adapted to previously unseen tasks conditioning on the given in-context samples and instructions (Wei et al., 2022) without having to be explicitly trained.

An essential problem in in-context learning is determining the underlying mechanism of in-context learning for a comprehensive understanding of such a powerful paradigm. Several works have been done from both theoretical and empirical perspectives (Von Oswald et al., 2023; Dai et al., 2023; Shi et al., 2023; Wei et al., 2023; Webson & Pavlick, 2021; Chen et al., 2024; Reid et al., 2024; Agarwal et al., 2024; Bertsch et al., 2024; Garg et al., 2022; Nguyen & Grover, 2022). Recently, an interesting paradigm (Zhao et al., 2024) for understanding in-context learning is qualitatively analyzing the decision boundaries generated by LLMs on discriminative tasks, such as binary classification, which is widely adopted in conventional machine learning topics, under the in-context learning setting.

Although great success has been achieved in complex problems (Achiam et al., 2023; Lampinen et al., 2022; Suzgun et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024), current works (Zhao et al., 2024; Xiao et al., 2024)
find that LLMs perform poorly on simple discriminative tasks. In detail, compared to conventional machine learning algorithms (e.g., SVM and MLP), which can generate smooth and continuous decision boundaries, LLMs irregularly obtain unexpected fragmented decision boundaries on the simple linearly separate data (cf. Fig. 1). Although a series of analyses, ranging from the hyperparameter setting (e.g., the numbers of model parameters and in-context samples) to prior information (e.g., the order of in-context samples and the names of labels) have been done by Zhao et al. (2024), the



- 106
- In-context Learning Formulation. Consider a pretrained large language model parameterized with 107 θ^* and a set of labeled data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\text{IC}}, y_i^{\text{IC}})\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}|}, y_i^{\text{IC}} \in \{0, 1, ..., N_{\text{cls}} - 1\}$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\text{IC}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

and $y_i^{\text{IC}} \in \mathbb{R}$ respectively denote the *i*-th *d*-dimension data point and its corresponding label, and N_{cls} denotes the number of classes in \mathcal{D}_{IC} . Then, given a query data point $x^{\text{query}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the label of the query data point can be predicted via conditioning on the data samples in \mathcal{D}_{IC} . To be specific, the inference of the label can be formulated as:

$$P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}} | \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, (\boldsymbol{x}_1^{\text{IC}}, y_1^{\text{IC}}), ..., (\boldsymbol{x}_{|\mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}|}^{\text{IC}}, y_{|\mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}|}^{\text{IC}}), \theta^*).$$

$$(1)$$

114 In this case, Eq. (1) allows LLMs to infer the labels of previously unseen data based on the reference 115 examples. Thus, \mathcal{D}_{IC} is also known as the in-context data set in the setting of in-context learning. 116 Intuitively, such a learning paradigm resembles few-shot learning (Finn et al., 2017; Snell et al., 117 2017). However, in in-context learning, model adaptation on the labeled data is not allowed.

Task Formulation. In this paper, we mainly focus on in-context samples that are linearly separated.
The generation process and hyperparameter settings follow those adopted in Zhao et al. (2024). More details about the task settings are available in Appendix B.

Consider a set of in-context samples $\mathcal{D}_{IC} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{IC}, \boldsymbol{y}_i^{IC})\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{D}_{IC}|}$ composed of data from N_{cls} classes. We assume that each data pair $(\boldsymbol{x}^{IC}, \boldsymbol{y}^{IC}) \in \mathcal{D}_{IC}$ are uniformly sampled with a distribution p_{data} . Then, we can respectively obtain the minimum and maximum values $\boldsymbol{x}_{min} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{max} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ along *each dimension* of the data. Next, we uniformly divide each dimension into N_g coordinates. Specifically, the *j*-th coordinate of dimension *i* can be expressed as $c_j^i = \boldsymbol{x}_{min}^i + \frac{j}{N_g}(\boldsymbol{x}_{max}^i - \boldsymbol{x}_{min}^i)$. In such a case, a set of N_g^d points can be obtained by combining these coordinates. For example, when $N_g = 50$ and d = 2, we can obtain 2500 data points uniformly distributed in a plane space.

130 In this paper, the set of synthetic data is treated as query dataset $\mathcal{D}_{query} = \{(x_i^{query}, y_i^{query})\}_{i=1}^{N_g^d}$. 131 The LLMs are expected to infer the labels of the synthetic data in the context of \mathcal{D}_{IC} via Eq. (1).

132

112 113

133 134 135

136

137

138

139

3 A REVIEW ON DISCRIMINATIVE CAPABILITY OF LLMS

In this section, we follow Zhao et al. (2024) and conduct analyses on the decision boundaries on classification tasks to explore the discriminative capability of LLMs. Specifically, we first reproduce the decision boundaries of both conventional machine learning algorithms and Llama-3-8B (Touvron et al., 2023) on the typical binary linear classification tasks. Different from Zhao et al. (2024), in addition to the prediction results, we also care about the behavior of LLMs in discriminative tasks.

In in-context learning, LLMs perform the classification by inferring the labels of query data based
on the observation of a few labeled in-context data. In this work, the LLM will be exposed to a set
of data points belonging to 2 classes to infer the labels of query data in the same plane. To make it
easier to visualize, we follow Zhao et al. (2024) and perform the classification on 2-dimension data.

| 45 | Prompt for Standard Case |
|-------------------|--|
| 146 147 148 | Given pairs of numbers and their labels, predict the label for a new input pair of numbers based on the provided data. Answer with only one of the labels 0 and 1: |
| 149 | Input: 2.327369299801017 2.238478737209186 Label: 1 |
| 150 151 | Input: -0.7246972544778265 0.3996389489449079 Label: 0 |
| 152 153 | Input: 2.2105720569686538 0.9862902654079408 |
| 154 | Label: 1 What is the label for this input? |
| 155 156 | Input: -3.915171090551515 -1.1395254205266334 Label: |
| 157 158 | Please directly provide the answer. Do not give any analysis. |

According to the results reproduced in Fig. 1, it is easy to observe that the decision boundaries of conventional machine learning methods are continuous and smooth, while the decision boundary generated by Llama-3-8B is fragmented. The observations are consistent with those reported in the original work (Zhao et al., 2024). According to the original work, it has been demonstrated that such

162 a phenomenon cannot be solved by simply modifying the hyperparameter settings (e.g., increasing 163 the size of the model and in-context samples) and prior knowledge (e.g., such as label names). 164

As an initial step to figure out how LLMs perform classification tasks and why fragmented decision 165 boundaries are generated, we investigate the reasoning processes of the predictions of query data. To 166 be specific, we take the first 10 data samples in the query set as examples and ask the LLM to output 167 the reasoning process and analyses for their predictions. Representative examples of the prompts and 168 reasoning output is presented in the following. More reasoning outputs are available in Appendix D. 169

A Example Reasoning Output of Llama-3

Based on the provided data, I will use a machine learning model to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers. First, I will analyze the distribution of the input values and the corresponding labels. The input values range from approximately -4 to 4, and the labels are either 0 or 1. Next, I will use a simple machine learning model, such as a *decision tree* or a *random forest*, to train on the provided data. The model will learn to identify patterns in the input values and predict the corresponding labels. After training the model, I will use it to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers: -3.401109562469796 -1.1395254205266334. Based on the analysis and the model's prediction, I predict that the label for this input is: **0** ...

The example reasoning output above implies two important aspects of how LLMs perform classification tasks. On the one hand, LLMs tend to resort to existing mathematical methods (e.g., machine 181 learning algorithms) to infer the labels of query data. On the other hand, LLMs tend to generate 182 the predictions of labels based on the execution of the selected algorithm. Thus, the behavior of the 183 LLM in solving discriminative tasks can be seen as a two-step paradigm, in which a strategy is first sampled from a strategy space and then the selected strategy is executed to predict the labels of query 185 data. Meanwhile, according to all reasoning outputs (cf. Appendix D) from Llama-3-8B, we can also 186 observe that LLMs leverage the machine learning and other statistical methods in a hybrid way.

Formally, consider a set of learning strategies $S = \{s_i\}_{i=1}^{|S|}$ where s_i denotes the *i*-th strategy (e.g., 188 Decision Tree), a set of in-context samples \mathcal{D}_{IC} , and a large language model f_{θ^*} pre-trained on large 189 amounts of corpus, where θ^* denotes the pre-trained model parameters which are frozen during the 190 inference phase, Eq. (1) can then be reformulated as: 191

$$P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}} | \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*) = \sum_{s} P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}}, s | \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*)$$
$$= \sum_{s} P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}} | s, \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*) P(s | \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*).$$
(2)

196 In general, the strategy set S is determined by pre-training and can be infinitely large. In Eq. (2), 197 Problem 1 can be seen as a case of $P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}}, s | \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*)$ where the variable s is marginalized.

The right side consists of two parts. On the one hand, a learning strategy is first selected based on 199 the model parameters, in-context data and the given query example via $P(s|\boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*)$. On the 200 other hand, the selected learning strategy s will be further applied to predict the labels of query data 201 via $P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}}|s, x^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*)$. Obviously, the inference is a two-step process, and the prediction 202 of the labels of query data is closely related to the strategy selection and fitting. Thus, the selection 203 and execution of learning strategies potentially influence the boundaries of the classification tasks. 204

Based on our observation on the behavior of Llama-3-8B above, two questions are raised: (1) Do 205 LLMs take full advantage of existing machine learning algorithms to perform classification? Since 206 the visualization results in Fig. 1 demonstrate that these classical methods can perfectly solve the 207 classification task, we are curious about whether LLMs benefit from these tools. (2) How do LLMs 208 select the algorithm to solve each task? According to our observation on the reasoning output of 209 Llama-3-8B, LLMs solve classification tasks by leveraging the existing methods in a hybrid way. 210 However, the property of such a behavior remains unclear. Thus, in order to have a comprehensive 211 understanding, we propose to dive into the behavior of LLMs in performing classification tasks.

212 213

170 171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178 179

187

192 193 194

4 ANALYSES ON LLMS LEVERAGING EXISTING METHODS

214

In this section, we conduct analyses to study whether LLMs effectively leverage existing meth-215 ods to perform classification. Specifically, LLMs are required to perform classification tasks for



Figure 2: Visuallization of decision boundaries of Llama-3-8B with specialized machine learning methods. Fig. (a)-(e) show the decision boundaries of Llama-3-8B with specialized machine learning methods. Compared to Fig. 1, we can observe that all cases fail to achieve similar boundaries to those in conventional machine learning algorithms. Meanwhile, we can also observe that Llama-3-8B tends to be overconfident in a specific class while tending to misclassify data samples from the other class.

227

228 decision boundaries with prompts where learning methods are specialized, which is equivalent to 229 $P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}}|\boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*) = P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}}|\hat{s}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*)$, where \hat{s} denotes a pre-defined strategy. 230 However, according to the results, we find that LLMs fail to take advantage of machine learning 231 algorithms effectively and tend to be overconfident in prediction, which results in the misclassification of some areas. By observing the reasoning output, we find that such overconfidence may be derived 232 from the CoT-like reasoning trajectory of Llama-3-8B and the poor ability in calculation (e.g., the 233 calculation of Euclidean distance). Moreover, our further quantitative results indicate that the decision 234 behavior of the LLM, where the learning strategies are specialized in prompts, resembles that of MLP. 235

236 237

4.1 OVERCONFIDENCE WITH SPECIALIZED LEARNING STRATEGY

238 As observed in Section 3, LLMs tend to perform classification tasks by using conventional machine 239 learning methods in a hybrid way. However, decision boundaries generated in such a case are irregularly fragmented. Meanwhile, in the cases, where classical machine learning algorithms 240 are applied, continuous and smooth decision boundaries are obtained (Fig. 1(a) - 1(e)). Thus, it 241 is reasonable to conjecture that it is the hybrid use of existing methods that results in such an 242 undesirable boundary. A spontaneous intuition here is that LLMs may be able to achieve similar 243 decision boundaries to those obtained in Fig. 1 if machine learning methods are fully leveraged in 244 inference. Ideally, the decision boundaries should be the same as those in Fig. 1(a) - 1(e). To examine 245 this intuition, we prompt Llama-3-8B to perform classification on query data with a machine learning 246 method specialized during the inference phase. For simplicity, in this paper, we mainly consider 247 methods like Decision Tree, K-NN, SVM, MLP, and linear regression, which are frequently adopted 248 by Llama-3-8B. The detailed prompt example for this analysis is available in Appendix C.

According to the visualization results shown in Fig. 2, two phenomena are worth noticing: (1) **Decision boundary remains fragmented.** Although equipped with specialized machine learning methods (e.g., Decision Tree, etc.), Llama-3-8B still fails to achieve the same smooth boundaries as those obtained from the true machine learning algorithms (cf. Fig. 1(a) - 1(e)). Specifically, the decision boundaries obtained are still fragmented. These empirical results indicate that Llama-3-8B does not effectively leverage the machine learning algorithms mentioned in its inference of the labels of query data.

255 (2) Greedy decision boundaries. Moreover, when the machine learning method is specialized 256 in prompts, Llama-3-8B is greedy in the label 257 prediction of query data. On the one hand, differ-258 ent from the case where the standard prompt is 259 adopted, we notice that the lower right area is con-260 sistently predicted as Class 1 in cases where learn-261 ing methods are specialized. This phenomenon 262 conforms to our intuition and the predictions 263 generated from conventional machine learning 264 methods. On the other hand, we also notice that 265 Llama-3-8B reveals a preference to assign query 266 data to a specific class. Specifically, as shown in Fig. 2(a) - 2(e), Llama-3-8B tends to assign the 267 data points between the two classes to Class 1 268 (red), and thus misclassifies some cases that obvi-269 ously belong to Class 0 (blue). As a comparison,



(a) Standard Prompt

(b) Decision Tree

Figure 3: The confidence of Llama-3-8B in prediction of labels. Fig. (a) shows the confidence with standard prompts. Fig. (b) shows the confidence of the case where Decision Tree is specialized. It is easy to observe that LLMs tend to be overconfident when the method is specialized. 270 Table 1: Quantitative evaluation on decision boundaries. The difference in predictions between 271 Llama-3-8B and conventional machine learning methods is calculated in the table. The "conv" 272 denotes the results obtained from conventional machine learning algorithms while "LLM" denotes the results obtained from Llama-3-8B. 273

| 275 | Specialized Method | Decision Tree (conv) | KNN (conv) | SVM (conv) | MLP (conv) | LR (conv) |
|-----|---------------------|----------------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| 270 | Decision Tree (LLM) | 0.20 | 0.14 | 0.14 | 0.11 | 0.30 |
| 211 | KNN (LLM) | 0.21 | 0.15 | 0.14 | 0.11 | 0.30 |
| 278 | SVM (LLM) | 0.20 | 0.14 | 0.12 | 0.10 | 0.29 |
| 279 | MLP (LLM) | 0.16 | 0.10 | 0.09 | 0.08 | 0.27 |
| 280 | LR (LLM) | 0.16 | 0.11 | 0.10 | 0.09 | 0.28 |

when Llama-3-8B is allowed to adopt arbitrary learning methods in inference (cf. Fig. 1(f)), the phenomenon of greedy decision boundaries is significantly alleviated. Such a phenomenon implies that the specialized learning strategy may incentivize LLMs to be overconfident in the specific class.

The overconfidence phenomenon observed above reveals both advantages and disadvantages in prediction. On the positive side, it improves the predictions of Class 1 (the lower right area), which fits our intuition about the decision boundaries. However, such overconfidence also drives the LLM to greedily assign more data samples near boundaries to Class 1, which further results in the misclassification of Class 0. In order to further study this phenomenon, we propose to probe the confidence of Llama-3-8B when performing the classification tasks. Specifically, we probe the confidence of Llama-3-8B respectively with the standard prompt and the prompt where a learning strategy (e.g., Decision Tree) is specialized. The confidence is obtained by asking Llama-3-8B to evaluate the confidence in the answer provided by itself. The results are visualized in Fig. 3.

| Prompt for Confidence Probing |
|--|
| Given pairs of numbers and their labels, predict the label for a new input pair of numbers based on the provided data. Answer with only one of the labels 0 and 1: Input: 2.327369299801017 2.238478737209186 Label: 1 |
| Input: -0.7246972544778265 0.3996389489449079 |
| Label: 0 |
| |
| Input: 2.2105720569686538 0.9862902654079408 |
| Label: 1 |
| What is the label for this input? |
| Input: -3.915171090551515 -1.1395254205266334 |
| Output the confidence score of your answer with a float number between 0.0 and 1.0 (including 0.0 and |
| 1.0) in the format of 'My confidence is [confidence score]'. 0.0 means you are not confident and 1.0 means you are very confident. |
| Please directly provide the answer. Do not give any analysis. |
| |

308 310

305 306 307

274 275

281

283

284

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

According to the figures, we find that Llama-3-8B with the standard prompt are more confident in 311 the prediction of query data which are close to Class 1 in the upper right area (cf. Fig. 3(a)). The 312 phenomenon reflects Llama-3-8B's preference for Class 1. In fact, the difference in confidence shown 313 in Fig. 3(a), to some extent, is consistent with the decision boundary in Fig. 1(f). Intuitively, we 314 can observe that both the upper right and lower left areas should be predicted with high confidence 315 since they are evidently closer to Class 1 and Class 0 respectively. However, Llama-3-8B only shows 316 high confidence for Class 1. This implies that Llama-3-8B tends to select a class as the "anchor" 317 for classification. Specifically, Class 1 is selected as the "anchor" in this case, if the given query 318 sample reveals the same features as the "anchor" class (e.g., Class 1), it will be assigned to Class 319 1. Otherwise, the given query sample will be assigned to Class 0. In other words, Llama-3-8B 320 tends to be more cautious to assign a query sample to Class 1 than to Class 0. However, when the 321 learning strategy is specialized in the prompts, the LLM becomes confident in almost all query data samples (cf. Fig.3(b)). In this case, the LLM seems to consider all query data samples cautiously for 322 classification. Even so, we can still observe that there are more fragmented areas with relatively low 323 confidence in the left part. This indicates that Llama-3-8B's preference for Class 1 still exists.

4.2 FURTHER STUDY ON OVERCONFIDENCE

In Section 4.1, we have shown that LLMs tend to be overconfident in predicting the labels of query data. Such overconfidence, in turn, generates more greedy decision boundaries when performing discriminative tasks. Here, we take a further step to explore the reasons for the overconfidence.

An Example of Llama-3-8B with KNN

Based on the provided data, I will use the K-NN algorithm to predict the label for the given input... Here's the calculation: Input: -1.0021557647551051 -1.1395254205266334 1. Calculate the Euclidean distance between the input and each of the training data points: * Distance to the first point: $sqrt((-1.0021557647551051 - 2.327369299801017)^2 + (-1.1395254205266334 - 2.238478737209186)^2) = 3.4325 ($ **The answer should be 4.743.**) $* Distance to the second point: <math>sqrt((-1.0021557647551051 - (-0.7246972544778265))^2 + (-1.1395254205266334 - 0.3996389489449079)^2) = 2.6457 ($ **The answer should be 1.564.**)*... $* Distance to the last point: <math>sqrt((-1.0021557647551051 - 3.6031936591543587)^2 + (-1.1395254205266334 - 3.8021568169893403)^2) = 5.1419 ($ **The answer should be 5.584.**)

2. Select the K nearest neighbors (K=1 in this case): * The closest point is the 14th point, with a distance of 1.4325.

3. Determine the majority vote among the K nearest neighbors: * The 14th point has a label of 0. Therefore, based on the K-NN algorithm, the predicted label for the input is: Label: 0

347 348

324

325 326

327

328

330

331 332

333

334

335

337

338

339

341

342 343

345

As shown in the response above, in the case where Llama-3-8B is equipped with KNN, the LLM 349 performs the classification task by directly executing the KNN algorithm step by step. This is 350 quite different from the case, where the standard prompt is adopted (cf. Section 3). Specifically, 351 in the standard prompt case, the selected strategy is implicitly executed by the LLM. Actually, 352 the execution process of Llama-3-8B with specialized methods resembles the chain-of-thoughts 353 (CoT) (Wei et al., 2022) framework, where the problem-solving is divided into a sequence of simple 354 sub-tasks. Compared to directly solving a complex problem, reasoning the answer from a sequence of 355 simple sub-tasks is much easier. Thus, such a CoT-like reasoning process can enhance the robustness 356 of LLMs to complex problems, and in turn, increase the confidence in the prediction of query data.

357 Empirically, the performance of LLMs is improved when the chain-of-thought framework is applied. 358 However, according to the visualizations, the performance intuitively becomes even worse. We notice 359 that performing classification with specialized methods is equivalent to fixing the strategy selection 360 process and only focusing on the strategy execution and inference $P(\hat{y}^{\text{query}}|s, \boldsymbol{x}^{\text{query}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{IC}}, \theta^*)$. 361 Thus, in the context of prompts with learning strategies specialized, an ablation study is conducted to 362 evaluate the execution capability of LLMs. As shown in the example of Llama-3-8B with KNN, we can observe that Llama-3-8B can execute the KNN algorithm correctly while it fails to calculate the 364 Euclidean distance precisely. This indicates that the poor ability in math probably constrains LLMs from achieving smooth decision boundaries though the algorithms can be executed correctly. 365

366 367

368

4.3 QUANTITATIVE EVALUATION OF DECISION BOUNDARIES

Previous empirical results mainly study the decision boundaries of LLMs from the qualitative per spective. In this section, we propose to evaluate the decision boundaries of LLMs from a quantitative perspective. The main goal of the quantitative evaluation is measuring the differences between the predictions respectively obtained from LLMs and conventional machine learning algorithms. The intuition here is that the differences in predictions should be as small as possible if the corresponding machine learning method is precisely executed by LLMs in performing the classification task.

375

Formally, consider two prediction vectors $\hat{y}_{LLM} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_g^d}$ and $\hat{y}_{ML} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_g^d}$, where \hat{y}_{LLM} denotes the predictions obtained from Llama-3-8B while \hat{y}_{ML} denotes the predictions obtained from specialized conventional machine learning algorithms. The difference between the two prediction vectors S_D can

Table 2: Quantitative results of the preference of Llama-3-8B for machine learning methods.

379 380 381

382

384

385 386

387 388

389

390

391

392

393

394 395

396 397

399

378

| Cases | Decision Tree | KNN | SVM | MLP | Linear Regression |
|----------|---------------|------|------|------|-------------------|
| standard | 0.09 | 0.11 | 0.12 | 0.14 | 0.30 |

be formulated as a squared difference:

$$S_{\rm D} = \frac{1}{N_{\rm g}^d} ||\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}_{\rm LLM} - \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}_{\rm ML}||^2.$$
(3)

The evaluation results are reported in Table 1. According to the table, we can observe that the decision boundaries of all cases, where the learning strategies are specialized, are more similar to the decision boundary derived from KNN, SVM, and MLP methods. Such a phenomenon reveals that (1) LLMs with specialized learning strategies fail to perform discriminative tasks in the same way as conventional machine learning methods; (2) the behavior of LLMs, where learning strategies are specialized, resemble those of KNN, SVM, and MLP algorithms.

SIMULATION OF BEHAVIOR OF LLMS 5

Eq. (2) shows that LLMs perform discriminative tasks through a two-step paradigm, where a learning 398 strategy is first selected (the second term of the right side) and then fit and executed for label prediction of query data (the first term of the right side). In the previous section, we have examined the execution 400 ability of LLMs (the first term of the right side). A key drawback that results in the failure to achieve 401 smooth boundaries refers to the poor ability of calculation. Thus, in this section, we propose to study 402 the capability of selecting learning strategies in LLMs. Specifically, we first collect the frequencies of 403 a set of machine learning methods, including Decision Tree, KNN, SVM, MLP, and linear regression, in the classification tasks. Then, based on the frequencies, we can infer the preference of Llama-3-8B 404 for these learning strategies and formulate such a preference in the form of probability. Based on 405 the probability, we can simulate the behavior of Llama-3-8B by randomly sampling methods for the 406 query data to predict their labels. To avoid unnecessary uncertainty derived from the calculation, we 407 propose to run the calculation with algorithms in scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al., 2011) package. 408

409 410

5.1 PROBING THE PREFERENCE OF LLMS

411 In this section, we propose to probe the preference of LLMs for a set of machine learning strategies. 412 Since it is intractable to probe the preference directly, we approximate the preference simply by 413 formulating the frequency of machine learning methods adopted in the task into probability. 414

Method Frequency Analysis. According to our observation 415

in the previous section, LLMs perform classification by ran-416 domly sampling strategies from a strategy space for query 417 data. Thus, the frequency of each strategy in a task, to some 418 extent, depicts the preference of the LLM for learning strate-419 gies. In this paper, in order to obtain the frequency of learning 420 strategies, the LLM is required to output the reasoning process 421 for each query data sample, and the output is then examined to 422 determine which method is adopted for the prediction. Based 423 on these frequencies, we then formulate the preference for machine learning methods in the form of probability. 424





Figure 4: The frequencies of machine learning methods obtained from Llama-3-8B in both standard prompt and ML-Only settings.

429 prediction (see Appendix C). For simplicity, we only consider Decision Tree, K-NN, SVM, MLP, and linear regression in this analysis. According to the visualization results reported in Fig. 4, Llama-3-8B 430 prefers the decision tree to other methods in both standard and ML-Only cases, while K-NN, SVM, 431 and MLP are rarely selected for predictions. Meanwhile, by quantitatively evaluating the predictions

of Llama-3-8B and conventional machine learning methods (cf. Table. 2), the predictions generated
from Llama-3-8B are more similar to those generated from Decision Tree methods. Moreover, the
preference is obviously changed when the LLM is enforced to use machine learning methods only.

In addition, we also notice that Llama-3-8B implicitly performs classification with the idea of Decision Tree. For example, according to the case
 In addition, we also notice that Llama-3-8B implicitly performs classification with the idea of Decision Tree. For example, according to the case

of Llama-3-8B with MLP method in the following, Llama-3-8B predicts the label of the given
query as Class 0 since both numbers of the two
dimensions are negative, though it has claimed
to solve the task by applying MLP. Such a phenomenon can then be used to explain our observation in Table 2, where the predictions obtained

Table 3: Numerical results of correlation between the prediction of Llama-3-8B and the simulations.

| Cases | Co. Coef | \mathbb{R}^2 | HSIC (×1e-2) |
|------------|----------|----------------|--------------|
| Uniform | 0.75 | 0.36 | 0.84 |
| Preference | 0.76 | 0.39 | 0.91 |

from Llama-3 with the standard prompt are more similar to those from true Decision Tree algorithm.

| Example Response of Llama-3-8B with MLP |
|---|
| Based on the provided data, I will use a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) algorithm to predict the label for the given input. |
| Based on the provided data, the predicted label for the input $-3.7438172478576086 - 1.1395254205266334$ is: **0** |
| This prediction is based on the running result of the MLP algorithm/model. The model has learned to recognize patterns in the data and make predictions based on those patterns. In this case, the model predicts that the input belongs to the class labeled 0. |
| * The input values are -3.7438172478576086 and -1.1395254205266334, which are both negative. * The model has learned to recognize patterns in the data, including the relationship between the input values and the output labels. |
| * The model has predicted that the input belongs to the class labeled 0, which is consistent with the patterns it has learned from the training data. |

5.2 BEHAVIOR SIMULATION.

Based on the preference obtained from Llama-3-8B with the standard prompt, we propose to simulate
the behavior of Llama-3-8B in the classification tasks by randomly sampling a machine learning
method for each query based on the preference and performing classification with the selected method.
The simulation decision boundaries are visualized in Fig. 5.

According to the visualization results, it is easy to find that the
decision boundary is also fragmented, even though the strategy fitting and execution are performed by stable algorithms.
The label predictions resemble those in Fig. 1(f).

472 Moreover, we also examine the correlation between the pre-473 dictions of Llama-3-8B and our simulations. As a comparison, 474 we select a set of uniform preferences as the baseline. In the uniform case, the preference for all machine learning methods 475 is set to be equal. Specifically, in this work, all five methods 476 (Decision Tree, KNN, SVM, MLP, and Linear Regression) 477 are sampled with an equal probability of 0.2. We measure 478 the correlation respectively with correlation coefficient (Co. 479 Coef), \mathbb{R}^2 , and HSIC (Gretton et al., 2005). The correlation



Figure 5: Simulated decision boundary on Llama-3-8B with the preference for machine learning methods.

results are reported in Table 3. From the table, we can observe that the simulations with the obtained preferences are more related to the predictions from the LLM compared with the uniform baseline.

482

463

483 484 5.3 FURTHER DISCUSSION ABOUT FRAGMENTED BOUNDARIES.

A main difference in behaviors between LLMs and conventional machine learning methods is that LLMs treat each query data point as an independent task, while conventional machine learning



Figure 6: Visuallizations of decision boundaries of conventional machine learning methods with each query data point treated as an independent task. The boundary of Decision Tree is fragmented.

algorithms treat all query data as a vector and predict the labels together. A problem of the former
paradigm is that the selected strategy has to be trained from scratch each time. Due to the randomness,
the final target functions may be different. Thus, we conduct an analysis to determine whether such a
paradigm influences the decision boundaries. In the analysis, the random state of all methods is set to
None to mimic the case that LLMs randomly apply machine learning methods to solve the problem.

The visualization results are reported in Fig. 6. According to the figures, we find that the decision boundaries of KNN, SVM, MLP, and linear regression are consistent with those obtained by treating query data as a vector (cf. Fig. 1(a) - 1(e)). However, the decision boundary of Decision Tree is fragmented. This implies that the randomness in fitting does affect the prediction behavior of Decision Tree. Specifically, for each classification task, the selected Decision Tree algorithm may derive different feature branches and thus result in different predictions for the same point. Since LLMs tend to leverage the mechanism of Decision Tree to perform classification, the fragmented decision boundaries may be derived from the randomness of feature branches.

508 509

510

492

493 494

6 RELATED WORK

511 With the development of deep learning models, the sizes of models and data have been significantly 512 scaled (Brown, 2020; Achiam et al., 2023; Chowdhery et al., 2023). Along with the increased scale, the capability of these foundation models is also evidently improved. One of these impressive abilities 513 is in-context learning. The key idea of in-context learning is learning to perform tasks with only 514 a few samples in the form of demonstration. Currently, in-context learning is mainly performed 515 via prompts (Liu et al., 2023). Specifically, by elaborately designing the instructions of the tasks, 516 LLMs can follow these contents to complete the complex tasks, such as reasoning (Wei et al., 2022). 517 However, why ICL can achieve such impressive performance remains an open problem. Several 518 works have been done from both theoretical and empirical perspectives (Von Oswald et al., 2023; 519 Dai et al., 2023; Shi et al., 2023; Wei et al., 2023; Webson & Pavlick, 2021; Chen et al., 2024; Reid 520 et al., 2024; Agarwal et al., 2024; Bertsch et al., 2024; Garg et al., 2022; Nguyen & Grover, 2022). 521 Recently, Zhao et al. (2024) proposes to understand in-context learning via discriminative tasks (e.g., 522 binary linear, circle, and moon classification tasks) (Shi et al., 2023; Xiao et al., 2024). Specifically, 523 given two classes of data, LLMs are required to predict the labels of query data in the same plane. In this work, LLMs are found to be irregularly incompetent in achieving smooth decision boundaries as 524 done by conventional machine learning methods if the models are not fine-tuned in an appropriate 525 way. Our work is inspired by Zhao et al. (2024). In this paper, we propose to dive into the behavior of 526 LLMs in discriminative tasks to figure out the reasons for the failure in the simple classification tasks. 527

528 529

530

7 CONCLUSION

531 In this paper, we mainly dive into the behavior of LLMs in classification tasks to explore the reasons for the fragmented decision boundaries derived from LLMs and investigate the discriminative 532 capability of LLMs in in-context learning via a series of analyses. According to the empirical 533 results, we find that LLMs tend to resort to existing methods to perform classification. However, 534 in fact, LLMs cannot effectively leverage the existing machine learning algorithm and tend to be overconfident in predictions. Further, we propose to simulate the behavior of LLMs in classification 536 tasks by probing the preference for machine learning algorithms. The simulation results reveal that 537 LLMs implicitly leverage the mechanism of Decision Tree to perform classification, though it claims 538 to follow the instructions to use the specialized method. Moreover, the results also indicate the reason for the fragmented decision boundaries may be the randomness in feature branches in Decision Tree.

540 ETHICS STATEMENT 541

This paper does not raise any ethical concerns. This study does not involve any human subjects,
 practices to data set releases, potentially harmful insights, methodologies and applications, potential
 conflicts of interest and sponsorship, discrimination/bias/fairness concerns, privacy and security
 issues, legal compliance, and research integrity issues.

Reproducibility Statement

We provide the source codes of our paper to ensure the reproducibility of our experimental results. The source codes are attached to this submission as supplementary materials.

551 552 553

546 547

548 549

550

References

- Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman,
 Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. Gpt-4 technical report.
 arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774, 2023.
- Rishabh Agarwal, Avi Singh, Lei M Zhang, Bernd Bohnet, Stephanie Chan, Ankesh Anand, Zaheer
 Abbas, Azade Nova, John D Co-Reyes, Eric Chu, et al. Many-shot in-context learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.11018*, 2024.
- Kwangjun Ahn, Xiang Cheng, Hadi Daneshmand, and Suvrit Sra. Transformers learn to implement
 preconditioned gradient descent for in-context learning. *NeurIPS*, 2024.
- Amanda Bertsch, Maor Ivgi, Uri Alon, Jonathan Berant, Matthew R Gormley, and Graham Neu big. In-context learning with long-context models: An in-depth exploration. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.00200*, 2024.
- Tom B Brown. Language models are few-shot learners. *arXiv preprint ArXiv:2005.14165*, 2020.
- Xinyun Chen, Ryan A Chi, Xuezhi Wang, and Denny Zhou. Premise order matters in reasoning with
 large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.08939*, 2024.
- 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.
- Damai Dai, Yutao Sun, Li Dong, Yaru Hao, Shuming Ma, Zhifang Sui, and Furu Wei. Why can gpt learn in-context? language models implicitly perform gradient descent as meta-optimizers. In ACL Findings, 2023.
- ⁵⁷⁹ Chelsea Finn and Sergey Levine. Meta-learning and universality: Deep representations and gradient descent can approximate any learning algorithm. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.11622*, 2017.
- 581
 582 Chelsea Finn, Pieter Abbeel, and Sergey Levine. Model-agnostic meta-learning for fast adaptation of deep networks. *ICML*, 2017.
- Shivam Garg, Dimitris Tsipras, Percy S Liang, and Gregory Valiant. What can transformers learn in-context? a case study of simple function classes. *NeurIPS*, 2022.
- Jonathan Gordon, John Bronskill, Matthias Bauer, Sebastian Nowozin, and Richard E Turner. Metalearning probabilistic inference for prediction. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1805.09921*, 2018.
- Arthur Gretton, Olivier Bousquet, Alex Smola, and Bernhard Schölkopf. Measuring statistical dependence with hilbert-schmidt norms. In *Algorithmic Learning Theory: 16th International Conference, ALT 2005, Singapore, October 8-11, 2005. Proceedings 16*, pp. 63–77. Springer, 2005.
- ⁵⁹³ Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. Large language models are zero-shot reasoners. *NeurIPS*, 2022.

| 594 595 596 | Andrew K Lampinen, Ishita Dasgupta, Stephanie CY Chan, Kory Matthewson, Michael Henry Tessler, Antonia Creswell, James L McClelland, Jane X Wang, and Felix Hill. Can language models learn from explanations in context? <i>EMNLP</i> , 2022. |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 598 599 | Kwonjoon Lee, Subhransu Maji, Avinash Ravichandran, and Stefano Soatto. Meta-learning with differentiable convex optimization. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2019. |
| 600 601 602 603 | Aitor Lewkowycz, Anders Andreassen, David Dohan, Ethan Dyer, Henryk Michalewski, Vinay Ra- masesh, Ambrose Slone, Cem Anil, Imanol Schlag, Theo Gutman-Solo, et al. Solving quantitative reasoning problems with language models. <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022. |
| 604 605 606 | Pengfei Liu, Weizhe Yuan, Jinlan Fu, Zhengbao Jiang, Hiroaki Hayashi, and Graham Neubig. Pre-train, prompt, and predict: A systematic survey of prompting methods in natural language processing. <i>ACM Computing Surveys</i> , 55(9):1–35, 2023. |
| 607 608 | Tung Nguyen and Aditya Grover. Transformer neural processes: Uncertainty-aware meta learning via sequence modeling. <i>ICML</i> , 2022. |
| 609 610 611 612 613 | F. Pedregosa, G. Varoquaux, A. Gramfort, V. Michel, B. Thirion, O. Grisel, M. Blondel, P. Pretten- hofer, R. Weiss, V. Dubourg, J. Vanderplas, A. Passos, D. Cournapeau, M. Brucher, M. Perrot, and E. Duchesnay. Scikit-learn: Machine learning in Python. <i>Journal of Machine Learning Research</i> , 12:2825–2830, 2011. |
| 614 615 | Aravind Rajeswaran, Chelsea Finn, Sham M Kakade, and Sergey Levine. Meta-learning with implicit gradients. <i>Advances in neural information processing systems</i> , 32, 2019. |
| 617 618 619 620 | Machel Reid, Nikolay Savinov, Denis Teplyashin, Dmitry Lepikhin, Timothy Lillicrap, Jean-baptiste Alayrac, Radu Soricut, Angeliki Lazaridou, Orhan Firat, Julian Schrittwieser, et al. Gemini 1.5: Unlocking multimodal understanding across millions of tokens of context. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.05530</i> , 2024. |
| 621 622 623 | Freda Shi, Xinyun Chen, Kanishka Misra, Nathan Scales, David Dohan, Ed H Chi, Nathanael Schärli, and Denny Zhou. Large language models can be easily distracted by irrelevant context. In <i>ICML</i> , 2023. |
| 624 625 626 | Jake Snell, Kevin Swersky, and Richard Zemel. Prototypical networks for few-shot learning. <i>NIPS</i> , 2017. |
| 627 628 629 | Mirac Suzgun, Nathan Scales, Nathanael Schärli, Sebastian Gehrmann, Yi Tay, Hyung Won Chung, Aakanksha Chowdhery, Quoc V Le, Ed H Chi, Denny Zhou, et al. Challenging big-bench tasks and whether chain-of-thought can solve them. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.09261</i> , 2022. |
| 630 631 632 633 | Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, et al. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971</i> , 2023. |
| 634 635 636 | Johannes Von Oswald, Eyvind Niklasson, Ettore Randazzo, João Sacramento, Alexander Mordvintsev, Andrey Zhmoginov, and Max Vladymyrov. Transformers learn in-context by gradient descent. In <i>ICML</i> , 2023. |
| 637 638 639 | Albert Webson and Ellie Pavlick. Do prompt-based models really understand the meaning of their prompts? <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.01247</i> , 2021. |
| 640 641 642 | Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, et al. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022. |
| 643 644 645 | Jerry Wei, Jason Wei, Yi Tay, Dustin Tran, Albert Webson, Yifeng Lu, Xinyun Chen, Hanxiao Liu, Da Huang, Denny Zhou, et al. Larger language models do in-context learning differently. <i>arXiv</i> preprint arXiv:2303.03846, 2023. |
| 647 | Patrick H Winston. Learning and reasoning by analogy. <i>Communications of the ACM</i> , 23(12): 689–703, 1980. |

 Tim Z Xiao, Robert Bamler, Bernhard Schölkopf, and Weiyang Liu. Verbalized machine learning: Revisiting machine learning with language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.04344*, 2024.

- Sohee Yang, Elena Gribovskaya, Nora Kassner, Mor Geva, and Sebastian Riedel. Do large language models latently perform multi-hop reasoning? *ACL*, 2024.
- Ruiqi Zhang, Spencer Frei, and Peter L Bartlett. Trained transformers learn linear models in-context. Journal of Machine Learning Research, 25(49):1–55, 2024.
- Siyan Zhao, Tung Nguyen, and Aditya Grover. Probing the decision boundaries of in-context learning
 in large language models. *NeurIPS*, 2024.
- Pan Zhou, Xiaotong Yuan, Huan Xu, Shuicheng Yan, and Jiashi Feng. Efficient meta learning via minibatch proximal update. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 32, 2019.

| 009 | |
|------------|--|
| 660 | |
| 661 | |
| 662 | |
| 663 | |
| 664 | |
| 665 | |
| 666 | |
| 667 | |
| 668 | |
| 669 | |
| 670 | |
| 671 | |
| 672 | |
| 673 | |
| 674 | |
| 675 | |
| 676 | |
| 677 | |
| 678 | |
| 679 | |
| 680 | |
| 681 | |
| 682 | |
| 683 | |
| 684 | |
| 685 | |
| 686 | |
| 687 | |
| 688 | |
| 689 | |
| 690 | |
| 691 | |
| 602 | |
| 093 | |
| 094 60F | |
| 605 | |
| 607 | |
| 6051 | |
| 690 | |
| 000 | |

700 701

651

| A B C D E F | More Related Work Detailed Task Settings Prompts More Reasoning Results of Llama-3-8B | |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| B C D F | Detailed Task Settings Prompts More Reasoning Results of Llama-3-8B | |
| B C D E F | Prompts More Reasoning Results of Llama-3-8B | |
| C D F | Prompts More Reasoning Results of Llama-3-8B | |
| D E F | More Reasoning Results of Llama-3-8B | |
| E F | | |
| F | Example Responses of Llama-3-8B with ML methods | |
| - | More Visualization Results | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

756 A MORE RELATED WORK

In-context learning is an important capability derived from pertaining large language models on huge amounts of corpora. Abundant works have been done to explore this powerful paradigm.

In-context Learning. With the development of deep learning models, the sizes of models and data have been significantly scaled (Brown, 2020; Achiam et al., 2023; Chowdhery et al., 2023). Along with the increased scale, the capability of these foundation models is also evidently improved. One of these impressive abilities is in-context learning. The key idea of in-context learning is learning to perform tasks with only a few samples in the form of demonstration. This resembles the decision-making process of human beings, where the common features are extracted from the demonstrations and applied to the analogical new tasks (Winston, 1980).

Currently, in-context learning is mainly performed via prompts (Liu et al., 2023). Specifically, by elaborately designing the instructions and the demonstrations of the tasks, LLMs can follow these contents and mimic the behavior to complete complex tasks, such as reasoning (Wei et al., 2022). However, why in-context learning achieves such impressive performance remains an open problem.

Some previous works try to build a connection between in-context learning and gradient-based meta-772 learning (Finn et al., 2017; Finn & Levine, 2017; Gordon et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 773 2019; Rajeswaran et al., 2019). For example, Von Oswald et al. (2023) demonstrates that the linear 774 self-attention and the gradient descent on linear regression are equivalent in construction. Meanwhile, 775 Dai et al. (2023) demonstrates that the calculation of attention can be treated as a dual form of 776 gradient descent. In such a case, the transformer models can thus be viewed as meta-optimizers. In 777 addition, in-context learning can also be explained from the perspective of gradient descent. For 778 instance, Ahn et al. (2024) observe that the transformer performs preconditioned gradient descent 779 when the parameters are trained to converge. Zhang et al. (2024) demonstrates that the transformer is 780 able to achieve competitive prediction error with the best linear prediction on a new prediction task.

In addition, some other works also try to explore in-context learning from a practical perspective.
For example, Wei et al. (2023) studies large language models with respect to the size of models. In
this work, prior knowledge, such as labels, is demonstrated to be essential to the performance of
in-context learning. Lampinen et al. (2022) demonstrates that plugging explanations in in-context
samples can significantly improve the performance of LLMs on the tasks.

786 Discriminative Tasks with LLMs. LLMs have been demonstrated to be powerful on generation 787 tasks, such as reasoning (Wei et al., 2022) and Q&A (Achiam et al., 2023). However, the capability on 788 discriminative tasks is not well explored. Recently, Shi et al. (2023) looks into the discriminative ca-789 pability of LLMs by transferring the discriminative tasks into language descriptions and demonstrates 790 that the performance of LLMs is closely related to the contents in prompts. Specifically, if irrelevant 791 information is contained in the contents, the performance will be significantly damaged. Besides, 792 Xiao et al. (2024) proposes to perform discriminative tasks by optimizing the LLM with LLMs. 793 Specifically, in this work, two LLMs are adopted respectively as the learner and the optimizer. The prompts, which are used in the learner, are treated as some kind of "parameters" and are optimized 794 by the optimizer LLM with specific hyperparameters, such as learning rate. The results show that 795 the performance on discriminative tasks can be improved after a few learning steps. In order to 796 examine the discriminative capability of LLMs, Zhao et al. (2024) proposes to make LLMs perform 797 conventional classification tasks and probe the decision boundaries. In this work, LLMs are found 798 to be irregularly incompetent and fail to achieve smooth decision boundaries if the model is not 799 fine-tuned in an appropriate way. Our work is inspired by Zhao et al. (2024). In this paper, we 800 propose to dive into the behavior of LLMs in discriminative tasks to figure out the reasons for the 801 failure in the simple classification tasks.

802 803

804

B DETAILED TASK SETTINGS

In this section, we provide more detailed task settings for the classification tasks adopted in our paper. Specifically, we will introduce the generation of classification tasks and in-context data in the following. The settings mainly follow those adopted in Zhao et al. (2024).

809 The classification tasks adopted in this paper include linear classification, circle classification, and moon classification. In the main contents of the paper, we mainly consider linear classification tasks.

The classification tasks are generated with the existing functions make_classification, make_circles, and make_moons in scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al., 2011). In this paper, we mainly consider binary classification tasks. In linear classification, a set of linear separated data is generated around a hypercube. In circle classification, two circles of data, where the smaller circle is in the larger one, are generated. In moon classification, two interleaving half circles are generated.

By default, in each class, the number of classes is 2, and the number of samples in each class is set to 64. The class_sep parameter in linear classification is randomly sampled from the range [1.5, 2.0]; the factor parameter in circle classification is randomly sampled from [0.1, 0.4]; and the noise parameter in moon classification is randomly sampled from [0.05, 0.1]. In particular, in circle classification tasks, the parameter noise is set to 0.03.

C PROMPTS

821

822 823 824

825

826

827

828

829

830 831

832 833

834

835

836

837

838 839

840

841

842

843

844 845

846

847

848

849 850

86

In this section, we provide detailed descriptions of the prompts used in the experiments in this paper.

In this paper, the design of prompts follows that proposed by Zhao et al. (2024). For different tasks, we slightly modify the prompts to avoid unexpected effects and guarantee the fairness of all cases.

We treat the prompt adopted in Zhao et al. (2024) as the standard case. Specifically, we prompt LLMs to perform classification in the arbitrary way without any constraint. The prompt adopted in this case is almost the same as that adopted by Zhao et al. (2024). The prompt is presented as follows.

Prompt for Standard Case Given pairs of numbers and their labels, predict the label for a new input pair of numbers based on the provided data. Answer with only one of the labels 0 and 1: Input: 2.327369299801017 2.238478737209186 Label: 1 Input: -0.7246972544778265 0.3996389489449079 Label: 0 ... Input: 2.2105720569686538 0.9862902654079408 Label: 1 What is the label for this input? Input: -3.915171090551515 -1.1395254205266334 Label: Please directly provide the answer. Do not give any analysis.

In the ML-Only case, where machine learning methods are specialized, the LLMs are required to generate the answers based on the running results of the specialized method. Thus, based on the standard case, we add an extra sentence Your answer must be based on the running results of [ML Methods] algorithm/model! in the prompt.

Prompt for Specific ML Method Case

| ~ | |
|---|---|
| 2 | Given pairs of numbers and their labels, predict the label for a new input pair of numbers based on the |
| 3 | provided data. Answer with only one of the labels 0 and 1: |
| 4 | Input: 2.327369299801017 2.238478737209186 |
| - | Label: 1 |
| 0 | Input: -0.7246972544778265 0.3996389489449079 |
| 6 | Label: 0 |
| 7 | |
| 8 | Input: 2.2105720569686538 0.9862902654079408 |
| 9 | Label: 1 |
| 0 | What is the label for this input? |
| | Input: -3.915171090551515 -1.1395254205266334 |
| 1 | Label: |
| 2 | Your answer must be based on the running result of [ML Method] algorithm/model! |
| 3 | Please directly provide the answer. Do not give any analysis. |
| | |

864 MORE REASONING RESULTS OF LLAMA-3-8B D

865 866 867

868

871

In the previous section, in order to figure out the reason for the differences in decision boundaries between conventional machine learning methods and large language models, we investigate the reasoning process of LLMs for each inference episode of query data. Specifically, we ask the LLM (i.e., Llama-3-8B) to output the complete response of each of the first 10 query data samples. In such 870 a way, we can initially examine how LLMs perform classification tasks. In this section, we provide all ten reasoning results in detail.

872 According to the responses for the query instances, it is easy to observe that Llama-3-8B prefers to 873 perform classification in a hybrid combination of existing methods, including machine learning and 874 statistical methods. Specifically, in Examples 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9, conventional machine learning 875 methods, such as decision tree/random forest, k-NN, and linear regression, are adopted to perform 876 classification. Besides, in Examples 1, 7, and 10, statistical methods, such as EDA and mean and 877 standard deviation, are applied. All observations imply that the discriminative capability of LLMs mainly comes from the utilization of existing mathematical (ML and statistical) methods. Thus, we 878 can summarize that LLMs tend to formulate the classification tasks into a two-step learning paradigm. 879 Specifically, LLMs first select a learning strategy from the strategy space for the query data point. 880 Then, the selected strategy is executed to fit the in-context data and predict the labels of query data. 881

882 Another phenomenon that is worthy noticing here is that LLMs tend to mistakenly recognize the 883 information in the tasks. For example, although the data fed into LLMs are well-designed (balanced data), hallucination still takes place in the reasoning process (see Examples 2 and 3). 884

Example 1

Based on the provided data, I'll analyze the relationship between the input pairs and their corresponding labels. Since the labels are either '0' or '1', I'll focus on identifying patterns and trends in the data. After examining the input pairs, I noticed that the values are mostly floating-point numbers, with some being negative. The range of values is quite large, spanning from approximately -4 to 4. To predict the label for the new input pair, I'll use a simple approach: I'll calculate the Euclidean distance between the new input and each of the existing input pairs. Then, I'll count the number of input pairs with a similar distance (i.e., within a certain threshold) and assign the majority label as the predicted label. For the new input pair (-3.915171090551515, -1.1395254205266334), I calculated the Euclidean distance with each of the existing input pairs. After sorting the distances, I found that the top 5 closest input pairs have labels '0'. Specifically: 1. (-3.2298325282631293, 3.7407713881451814) with a distance of 1.345; 2. (-2.8066461994306517, 3.026387757414328) with a distance of 1.356; 3. (-3.715171090551515, 4.085467364870969) with a distance of 1.363; 4. (-2.294534503411707, 2.400338968560583) with a distance of 1.384; 5. (-1.6028075155620585, 1.6507180556978245) with a distance of 1.405. Given the majority label of these closest input pairs is '0', I predict the label for the new input pair to be: **()**

Example 2

To predict the label for the given input pair, I'll analyze the provided data and identify the patterns and relationships between the input features and the corresponding labels. After examining the data, I notice that the input features are numerical values, and the labels are either '0' or '1'. The data appears to be imbalanced (From authors: Hallucination also takes place.), with more instances labeled as '0' than '1'. To build a predictive model, I'll use a simple decision tree classifier. The decision tree will split the data into subsets based on the input features, and the label with the majority vote will be assigned to each subset.

Here's the analysis: 1. **Feature importance**: The most important feature appears to be the first input value, which has a high correlation with the label. The second input value also seems to have some correlation with the label, but to a lesser extent. 2. **Label distribution**: As mentioned earlier, the data is imbalanced, with more instances labeled as '0' than '1'. This might affect the performance of the classifier. 3. **Decision tree structure**: The decision tree will likely have a simple structure, with the first input value being the primary splitting criterion. The second input value might be used as a secondary splitting criterion in some branches. Based on this analysis, I predict that the label for the given input pair is: **0**

17

890 891 892

893

894

895

896

897

899

900

901 902

903 904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

885

886 887

888

Example 3

Based on the provided data, I will use a machine learning model to predict the label for the new input. First, I will preprocess the input data by normalizing the values to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. This is a common technique to improve the performance of machine learning models. Next, I will train a classification model using the preprocessed data. **I will use a** *random forest classifier*, which is a popular and effective algorithm for classification tasks. After training the model, I will use it to predict the label for the new input. The predicted label is: **Label: 0**

Here is a detailed analysis of the prediction: 1. The input values are -3.572463405163702 and -1.1395254205266334. These values are outside the range of the training data, which may affect the accuracy of the prediction. 2. **The model is trained on a dataset with a class imbalance** (From authors: Hallucination also takes place.), meaning that one class has a significantly larger number of samples than the other class. This can affect the performance of the model, especially for the minority class. 3. The model is a random forest classifier, which is a ensemble learning method that combines the predictions of multiple decision trees. This can improve the accuracy and robustness of the model. 4. The predicted label is 0, which is the minority class in the training data. This suggests that the model is biased towards the majority class, which may be due to the class imbalance in the training data.

Example 4

Based on the provided data, I will use a machine learning model to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers. First, I will analyze the distribution of the input values and the corresponding labels. The input values range from approximately -4 to 4, and the labels are either 0 or 1. Next, I will use a simple machine learning model, such as *a decision tree or a random forest*, to train on the provided data. The model will learn to identify patterns in the input values and predict the corresponding labels. After training the model, I will use it to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers: -3.401109562469796 -1.1395254205266334. Based on the analysis and the model's prediction, I predict that the label for this input is: **0**

Here's a detailed analysis of the prediction: 1. The input values are both negative, which is a common pattern in the training data. However, the magnitude of the values is relatively large compared to the average magnitude of the training data. 2. The model has learned to identify patterns in the input values, such as the relationship between the magnitude of the values and the corresponding labels. In this case, the model predicts that the label is 0 because the input values are both negative and relatively large. 3. The model's prediction is based on the weighted average of the features in the input values. In this case, the model gives more weight to the magnitude of the values, which is why it predicts a label of 0.

Example 5

Based on the provided data, I will use a machine learning model to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers. First, I will analyze the distribution of the input values and labels. The input values range from approximately -4 to 4, and the labels are either 0 or 1. The distribution of the input values appears to be roughly normal, with a slight skew towards the positive values. Next, I will train a machine learning model on the provided data. I will use a simple *linear regression* model to predict the label based on the input values. After training the model, I will use it to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers. The predicted label for the input pair (-3.2297557197758895, -1.1395254205266334) is:

()

This prediction is based on the analysis of the input values and labels, as well as the trained machine learning model. The model predicts that the label for this input pair is 0, which is consistent with the overall distribution of the data.

Example 6

Based on the provided data, I will use a machine learning model to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers. First, I will preprocess the data by normalizing the input values. This is necessary because the input values have different scales, which can affect the performance of the model. Next, I will split the data into training and testing sets. The training set will be used to train the model, and the testing set will be used to evaluate its performance. I will then train a classification model using the training set. The model will learn to identify patterns in the data and make predictions based on those patterns. Once the model is trained, I will use it to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers. Here is the predicted label:

Label: 0

The model predicts that the label for the input pair of numbers (-3.058401877081983, -1.1395254205266334) is 0. Here is the detailed analysis: 1. Preprocessing: The input values are normalized by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation. This is done to reduce the effect of different scales on the model's performance. 2. Data Split: The data is split into training and testing sets. The training set contains 90% of the data, and the testing set contains 10% of the data. 3. Model Training: A classification model is trained using the training set. The model learns to identify patterns in the data and make predictions based on those patterns. 4. Model Evaluation: The model is evaluated using the testing set. The model's performance is measured using metrics such as accuracy, precision, and recall. 5. Prediction: The model is used to predict the label for the new input pair of numbers. The predicted label is 0. The model's prediction is based on the patterns it learned from the training data. The model is able to identify the input values as belonging to the class with label 0.

| 1003 | |
|------|--|
| 1004 | Example 7 |
| 1005 | |
| 1006 | To predict the label for the given input pair, I'll analyze the provided data and identify patterns. Since the |
| 1007 | between the input features and the target labels. After examining the data. I noticed that the input |
| 1008 | features are mostly continuous values, and the labels are binary (0 or 1). This suggests that the problem |
| 1009 | might be a classification task, where the goal is to predict the label based on the input features. To |
| 1010 | better understand the relationships between the input features and the target labels, I'll perform some |
| 1011 | exploratory data analysis (EDA). Here are some key findings: |
| 1012 | 1. **Correlation analysis**: I calculated the correlation between each input feature and the target label. |
| 1013 | with a few exceptions. For example, the feature with the highest correlation is the first input feature |
| 1014 | (0.37257616846360464), which has a correlation coefficient of approximately 0.45. |
| 1015 | 2. **Distribution analysis**: I analyzed the distribution of the input features and the target label. The |
| 1016 | results show that the input features have a roughly normal distribution, while the target label is binary |
| 1017 | (0 or 1). |
| 1017 | 3. **Visualization**: I created a scatter plot to visualize the relationship between the input features |
| 1018 | and the target label. The plot shows that the data is not linearly separable, but there are some clusters |
| 1019 | and patterns that might be useful for classification. |
| 1020 | Based on these findings, I'll use a simple classification algorithm, such as a decision tree or a random |
| 1021 | forest, to predict the label for the given input. Here's my prediction: |
| 1022 | Manageria in the failure of the inner factor of the sector which is more a sector which is |
| 1022 | My reasoning is as follows: * The input features are mostly negative, which is more common in the |
| 1023 | 0-labeled data. * The input features have a relatively low magnitude, which is also more common in |
| 1024 | the U-labeled data. * The input features do not exhibit any strong patterns or correlations that would |
| 1025 | suggest a high probability of the label being 1. |

| Example 8 |
|--|
| |
| I'll analyze the input data and predict the label for the given input pair. First, I'll calculate the Euclidean |
| distance between the input pair and each of the provided training data points. Then, I'll find the k-nearest |
| neighbors (k-NN) to the input point and determine the majority class among them. For the given input |
| pair, I'll calculate the Euclidean distance as follows: |
| Input: -2.71569419169417 -1.1395254205266334 |
| The Euclidean distance is approximately 0.345. |
| Now, I'll find the <u>k-1010</u> to the input point. Since the input data is not provided, I if assume $k = 5$. The |
| 1 Input: -0.7870667548849866.0.7410912238381263 (Label: 0).2 Input: -0.7189608126277025 |
| 0.5066082034614545 (Label: 0) 3. Input: -0.9547376063677475 2.5421091553127777 (Label: 1) |
| 4. Input: -1.1622796457764308 0.8296566929143679 (Label: 0) 5. Input: -1.1685094506282432 |
| 1.2105631376676411 (Label: 0) |
| The majority class among the 5 nearest neighbors is 0. Therefore, I predict the label for the given input |
| pair as: |
| Label: 0 |
| |

Example 9

Based on the provided data, I will use a machine learning model to predict the label for the given input. First, I will preprocess the input data by normalizing the values to have zero mean and unit variance. This is a common technique to improve the performance of machine learning models. Next, I will train a machine learning model on the provided data. For this task, **I will use a simple** *linear regression* **model**. The model will learn the relationship between the input features and the corresponding labels. After training the model, I will use it to predict the label for the given input. The predicted label will be the output of the model for the given input. Here is the predicted label for the given input: Label: 0

The predicted label is 0, which means that the input is likely to belong to the class labeled as 0. Here is the detailed analysis:

1. Preprocessing: The input data is normalized to have zero mean and unit variance. This is done to improve the performance of the machine learning model. 2. Model Training: A linear regression model is trained on the provided data. The model learns the relationship between the input features and the corresponding labels. 3. Prediction: The trained model is used to predict the label for the given input. The predicted label is the output of the model for the given input. 4. Analysis: The predicted label is analyzed to determine the class that the input belongs to. In this case, the predicted label is 0, which means that the input is likely to belong to the class labeled as 0.

Example 10

| 1005 | |
|------|---|
| 1065 | |
| 1066 | I'll analyze the provided data and predict the label for the new input pair. First, I'll calculate the mean |
| 1067 | and standard deviation of the input values: Mean of input values: -0.0115 Standard deviation of input |
| 1068 | values: 1.1445 |
| 1000 | Next, I'll calculate the <i>mean and standard deviation</i> of the labels: |
| 1069 | Mean of labels: 0.5 Standard deviation of labels: 0.5 |
| 1070 | Now, I'll calculate the Euclidean distance between the new input pair and each of the existing input |
| 1071 | pairs: |
| 1072 | Distance between new input and input 1: 2.3541; Distance between new input and input 2: 2.3552; |
| 1070 | Distance between new input and input 100: 2.3579; |
| 1073 | I'll then calculate the weighted sum of the distances, where the weights are the corresponding labels: |
| 1074 | Weighted sum of distances: $0.5*2.3541 + 0.5*2.3552 + + 0.5*2.3579$. The weighted sum is |
| 1075 | approximately 1.1774. |
| 1076 | Finally, I'll compare the weighted sum with the mean of the labels. If the weighted sum is closer to the |
| 1077 | mean of the labels, I'll predict the label as 1; otherwise, I'll predict the label as 0. |
| 1077 | In this case, the weighted sum (1.1774) is closer to the mean of the labels (0.5), so I predict the label for |
| 1078 | the new input pair as: |
| 1079 | Label: 1 |
| | |

1080 E EXAMPLE RESPONSES OF LLAMA-3-8B WITH ML METHODS

1082

In Setion 4, we conduct an analysis on the case that the Llama-3-8B is prompted to perform
classification with specialized machine learning methods. According to the decision boundaries
visualized in Fig. 2, Llama-3-8B fails to achieve as smooth decision boundaries as those obtained
from the conventional machine learning methods, such as Decision Tree, KNN, SVM, and MLP.

1087 According to the visualized decision boundaries, we can observe that LLMs tend to be overconfident 1088 in label prediction of query data. Our analysis on confidence (cf. Fig. 3) further reveals that the 1089 confidence in the case, where machine learning methods are specialized, is enhanced significantly. 1090 Specifically, in the standard case, LLMs are allowed to leverage arbitrary methods and the high 1091 confidence is only observed in the upper right area. In contrast, in the ML-only case, where only machine learning methods are availabel, the confidence of all query data increases. From our 1092 perspective, we conjecture that such a phenomenon may be derived from the explicit reasoning 1093 process. In detail, given the specialized machine learning method, the LLM tends to list the steps of 1094 the selected algorithm and executes these steps. Such a behavior resembles the chain of thoughts 1095 (CoT, (Wei et al., 2022)), where a complex problem is divided into several simple sub-tasks. 1096

Moreover, according to the example reasoning output mentioned in Section 4.2, we also notice
 that LLMs do poorly in math, especially calculation. Specifically, according to the example output,
 although KNN algorithm is executed, almost all calculations of Euclidean distance are wrong.

With all the results above taken into consideration, two conclusions can be summarized. On the one hand, Llama-3-8B does not successfully perform the specialized machine learning method. On the other hand, Llama-3-8B is not competent enough for the calculation tasks, and such a drawback, to some extent, limits Llama-3-8B's discriminative capability in classification tasks.

To further examine the reasoning process above, we check the responses that are generated with prompts where other machine learning algorithms are specialized. The responses are presented as follows. According to these responses, we can observe that Llama-3-8B is able to list the concrete steps of the specialized algorithms and execute them in inference.

| 1110 | Example Response of Llama-3-8B with Decision Tree |
|------|--|
| 1111 | Based on the provided data. I will use a decision tree algorithm to predict the label for the new input |
| 1112 | nair First I will split the data into training and testing sets. Since the data is not explicitly divided I |
| 1113 | will use 80% of the data for training and 20% for testing. Next I will construct a decision tree model |
| 1114 | using the training data. The decision tree algorithm will recursively split the data into subsets based on |
| 1115 | the most informative features until a stopping criterion is reached. After constructing the decision tree |
| 1116 | model, I will use it to predict the label for the new input pair. The prediction will be based on the path |
| 1117 | taken by the input pair through the decision tree. |
| 1118 | Here is the predicted label for the new input pair: |
| 1110 | Input: -3.572463405163702 -1.1395254205266334 Label: 0 |
| 1100 | The decision tree algorithm predicts that the label for this input pair is 0. |
| 1120 | Here is a detailed analysis of the decision tree model: |
| 1121 | The decision tree model consists of 12 nodes, with the root node being the input pair with the highest |
| 1122 | Gini impurity. The Gini impurity is a measure of the diversity of the classes in a node, and it is used to |
| 1123 | determine which feature to split on at each node. |
| 1124 | * Nuclearly reference of the data into subsets based on the following features: |
| 1125 | * Node 1: $x_1 < -0.5$ * Node 2: $x_1 > -0.5$ and $x_1 < 0.5$ |
| 1126 | * Node 2: $x_1 \ge -0.5$ and $x_1 < 0.5$ * Node 3: $x_1 \ge -0.5$ |
| 1127 | * Node 4: $x^2 < -15$ |
| 1100 | * Node 5: $x_2 \ge -1.5$ and $x_2 < 1.5$ |
| 1120 | * Node 6: $x_{2} \ge 1.5$ |
| 1129 | The decision tree model also uses the following stopping criteria: |
| 1130 | * If a node contains only one class, it is considered a leaf node and the prediction is made based on the |
| 1131 | class in the node. |
| 1132 | * If a node contains only two classes and the Gini impurity is less than a certain threshold, it is considered |
| 1133 | a leaf node and the prediction is made based on the class in the node. |
| | |

| 1134 | Example Perpanse of Liama 3.8R with KNN |
|------|--|
| 1135 | Example Response of Liama-5-ob with Rive |
| 1136 | Based on the provided data, I will use the K-Nearest Neighbors (K-NN) algorithm to predict the |
| 1137 | label for the given input. |
| 1138 | First, I will calculate the Euclidean distance between the input and each of the training data points. |
| 1139 | Then, I will select the K nearest neighbors (in this case, K=5) and determine the majority label among |
| 1140 | them. |
| 11/1 | Here is the calculation: |
| 1141 | Input: -2.8870480343880764 -1.1395254205266334 |
| 1142 | 1. Calculate the Euclidean distance between the input and each of the training data points: |
| 1143 | * Distance to the first point: 2.8870480343880764 - 2.327369299801017 = 0.5596787345870593 |
| 1144 | * Distance to the second point: 2.8870480343880764 - (-0.7246972544778265) = 3.6117452888659028 |
| 11/5 | * |
| 1140 | * Distance to the last point: 2.8870480343880764 - (-3.6031936591543587) = 6.490241693542434 |
| 1146 | 2. Select the K nearest neighbors (K=5): |
| 1147 | * The 5 nearest neighbors are: |
| 1148 | + Point 10: (-0.7569292449548891, 0.4789774986494173) with label 0 |
| 1149 | + Point 15: (-0.7870667548849866, 0.7410912238381263) with label 0 |
| 1450 | + Point 20: (-1.7887421990456538, 1.8298493173963173) with label 0 |
| 1150 | + Point 25: (-2.7968970004708877, 3.0349961488801585) with label 0 |
| 1151 | + Point 30: (-3.2298325282631293, 3.7407713881451814) with label 0 |
| 1152 | 3. Determine the majority label among the K nearest neighbors: * The majority label is 0, which is the |
| 1153 | predicted label for the given input. |
| 1154 | Therefore, the predicted label for the input -2.8870480343880764 -1.1395254205266334 is 0. |
| 1155 | |
| 1156 | |
| 1130 | |

| 158 | |
|------|---|
| 159 | Example Response of Llama-3-8B with SVM |
| 160 | Decad on the provided date I will use a Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithm to predict the |
| 161 | label for the given input First I will preprocess the data by normalizing the input values. Then I will |
| 162 | split the data into training and testing sets. After that, I will train an SVM model using the training set |
| 163 | and use it to predict the label for the given input. |
| 164 | Here is the result: |
| 165 | The SVM model predicts the label for the input (-3.915171090551515, -1.1395254205266334) to be |
| 166 | **U**. Here is the detailed analysis: |
| 167 | 1. Preprocessing: I normalized the input values by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard |
| 168 | deviation for each feature. This helps to reduce the effect of feature scales and improves the performance |
| 169 | of the SVM model. |
| 170 | 2. Data Split: I split the data into training and testing sets. The training set contains 80% of the data, |
| 171 | and the testing set contains 20% of the data. |
| 172 | 5. SVM Model Training: I trained an SVM model using the training set. The model uses a radial basis function (RBF) kernel with a gamma value of 0.1 and a regularization parameter (C) of 1 |
| 173 | 4. Prediction: I used the trained SVM model to predict the label for the given input (- |
| 174 | 3.915171090551515, -1.1395254205266334). The model predicted the label to be **0**. |
| 175 | The accuracy of the SVM model on the testing set is 85.7%. This indicates that the model is able to |
| 176 | accurately predict the labels for most of the input values. |
| 1177 | |
| 1178 | |

However, we further notice that Llama-3-8B may fail to execute the selected algorithm. For exam-ple, in the response mentioned in Section 5.1, although Llama-3-8B claims that it will follow the instructions to perform classification with MLP, it actually leverages a similar idea to Decision Tree, which tries to capture the features of the two classes of data. Specifically, the LLM predicts the label of the query data sample as 0 since both numbers of the two dimensions are negtive. Moreover, as shown in the following bad case, where MLP algorithm is specialized for the classification tasks, the LLM does not follow the instructions and perform predictions with the MLP algorithm. Instead, it measures the distance between the given query data and all in-context data. Then, the query data point is assigned to the class, where the closest point belongs to.



1232 F MORE VISUALIZATION RESULTS

1233

1234 In this section, we further validate Llama-3-8B on other discriminative tasks, such as circle classifica-1235 tion and moon classification tasks.

Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 respectively present the decision boundaries obtained from conventional machine
learning algorithms and LLMs on circle classification tasks. Meanwhile, Fig. 8(a) shows the decision
boundaries obtained with Llama-3-8B with the standard prompt while the remaining figures show the
decision boundaries obtained with Llama-3-8B with prompts where machine learning algorithms
are specialized. According to the visualization results, we find that conventional linear regression
performs poorly in circle classification tasks since it is designed for linear classification problems.
For LLMs, we can observe that all decision boundaries in Fig. 8 are consistently fragmented as in



Table 4: Quantitative evaluation of decision boundaries on circle tasks. The difference in predictions between Llama-3-8B and conventional machine learning methods is calculated in the table. The "conv" denotes the results obtained from conventional machine learning algorithms while "LLM" denotes the results obtained from Llama-3-8B.

| Specialized Method | Decision Tree (conv) | KNN (conv) | SVM (conv) | MLP (conv) | LR (con |
|---------------------|----------------------|------------|------------|------------|---------|
| Hybrid (LLM) | 0.40 | 0.34 | 0.33 | 0.35 | 0.20 |
| Decision Tree (LLM) | 0.65 | 0.58 | 0.55 | 0.59 | 0.20 |
| KNN (LLM) | 0.69 | 0.61 | 0.59 | 0.63 | 0.21 |
| SVM (LLM) | 0.68 | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.62 | 0.21 |
| MLP (LLM) | 0.51 | 0.44 | 0.42 | 0.45 | 0.19 |
| LR (LLM) | 0.76 | 0.68 | 0.65 | 0.69 | 0.22 |

Table 5: Quantitative evaluation of decision boundaries on moon tasks. The difference in predictions
between Llama-3-8B and conventional machine learning methods is calculated in the table. The
"conv" denotes the results obtained from conventional machine learning algorithms while "LLM"
denotes the results obtained from Llama-3-8B.

| 1336 | Specialized Method | Decision Tree (conv) | KNN (conv) | SVM (conv) | MLP (conv) | LR (conv) |
|------|---------------------|----------------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| 1337 | Hybrid (LLM) | 0.39 | 0.31 | 0.34 | 0.40 | 0.26 |
| 1338 | Decision Tree (LLM) | 0.43 | 0.35 | 0.36 | 0.42 | 0.35 |
| 1339 | KNN (LLM) | 0.41 | 0.32 | 0.34 | 0.39 | 0.32 |
| 1340 | SVM (LLM) | 0.46 | 0.38 | 0.38 | 0.43 | 0.36 |
| 1341 | MLP (LLM) | 0.41 | 0.32 | 0.35 | 0.41 | 0.31 |
| 1342 | LR (LLM) | 0.52 | 0.45 | 0.44 | 0.48 | 0.38 |