An Exam for Anyone on Anything: LLM-Based Textbook Data Transformation

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Abstract

Supervised learning traditionally depends on labeled data, collected and organized for specific tasks. Producing these datasets has generally been time-consuming, costly and errorprone. The emergence of large language models (LLMs) demonstrate a remarkable ability to produce well-formatted data, which could potentially revolutionize the dataset construction process. In this paper, we propose an LLMbased data transformation pipeline to generate multiple-choice question-answer (MCQA) data from raw sources such as textbooks. Furthermore, we extend this process by proposing a pseudo-open-book reasoning approach, wherein student LLMs are trained to first recreate the original textbook excerpts used to generate the questions, before answering them. We evaluate our methods using the Llama2 13B model on domain-specific subsections from the MMLU testing set, and observe an improvement of up to 18.8% in testing accuracy, increasing from 45.8% to 64.6%, without accessing the corresponding MMLU training set.

1 Introduction

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At the time of writing, an enormous amount of data is available online for most fields. These *raw* data come in various forms such as textbooks, spreadsheets, videos, forums, and so on. Domain experts can learn from these data sources and improve in their respective fields. However, it is generally difficult to use these types of raw data directly to train machine learning models. Instead, training data are usually manually crafted with knowledge and constraints specific to each field and task, and therefore differ among each other in format and usage. This manual process is usually time-consuming, costly, and error-prone. It is challenging to find a general-purpose dataset or data-generation method that is useful for every problem setting.

The emergence of large language models (LLMs) demonstrates powerful generative capabili-



Figure 1: Example flow

ties, and could potentially revolutionize the dataset construction process. Compared to manual work, the use of LLMs in data generation is much faster and more cost-efficient. Additionally, generated data tend to be more uniform, whereas human data collectors and annotators may be influenced from time to time by their mood, interest, and individual differences, especially when multiple annotators are employed. In this work, we propose an LLMbased data transformation pipeline to generate formatted data in order to exploit these advantages.

One of the major challenges in creating a single data transformation method effective across all fields is that each field requires different thought processes. For instance, math and physics often demand analytical and quantitative reasoning, whereas law and history necessitate critical think-

ing and interpretation. A dataset structured as <question, variables, formulas, computation, re-060 sult> might be ideal for mathematics but irrelevant for law. Consequently, it is less favorable to define a one-size-fits-all data format, then process raw data into this format. Instead, any general-purpose data preprocessing method should be sufficiently 065 flexible to produce different formats tailored to the needs of the specific task. Interestingly, this notion 067 brings us back to the utility of LLMs. Many studies (Zhang et al., 2024a) (Zhang et al., 2023) have demonstrated their strong versatility in handling various input and output formats. Since pretrained LLMs have been exposed to large quantities of data in formats specific to each domain, the data they generate naturally aligns with the standard thought processes of those domains, and is not confined to a single format.

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Multiple-choice question answering (MCQA) has historically been a versatile form of assessment and has been used across various fields. Conveniently, it also yields a consistent single-dimension performance metric, regardless of the field of application, making it straightforward to compare the same data transformation method across different fields. The abundant existing studies on MCQA have also left many valuable datasets for both training and evaluation. These traits demonstrate that MCQA is a well-suited application for a generalpurpose data transformation method, and therefore, it will be used throughout this work.

For traditional MCQA exam construction, domain experts and researchers presumably acquire task-specific knowledge from lectures, literature, and experience. Their primary goal when composing a question is typically to assess students' knowledge and understanding of specific knowledge points. During this process, background motivation is formulated into the question, while theory and methods form the solutions, both of which can be seen as forms of knowledge distillation. This approach inspires us to adopt a similar strategy, where larger, more powerful instructor LLMs act as domain experts to create MCQA data based on literature. This data is then used to train lightweight, cost-effective student LLMs. Fig. 1 illustrates an example of the complete process. Additional examples are included in the appendix, which we will reference later on as we detail our methods.

Various methods have been proposed to improve LLM training and inference. Since our method is applied to the source data, we demonstrate through several examples that when these training and inference methods are combined with our data transformation, they continue to yield their respective performance gains. Specifically, we work with chain-of-thought (CoT) prompting, instruction tuning, few-shot learning, retrieval-augmented generation (RAG), among others. Additionally, we propose a novel form of CoT, which we refer to as "pseudo-open-book examination." When posed with a question, the model first generates an intermediate result in the form of a textbook excerpt, which may have been originally used to produce the question. Then, with the assistance of this excerpt, it answers the question, thereby simulating an openbook exam experience. As our training MCQA datasets are constructed from textbook excerpts, it is particularly convenient to train our student LLMs to apply this reasoning process. Employing every method, we achieve up to an 18.8% improvement in domain-specific subsets of the MMLU dataset (Hendrycks et al., 2020) with a trained Llama2 13B model (Touvron et al., 2023), increasing from 45.8% to 64.6%.

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To summarize, our contribution in this work are as follows:

- We propose a data transformation pipeline to process raw textbook data into strictly formatted MCQA pairs with detailed solutions in addition to final answers. This pipeline extracts knowledge from both the instructor LLM and the raw data source into the result dataset.
- We propose a novel intermediate reasoning step for MCQA where the model first attempts to recover the original textbook excerpt used to generate each question, then answers the question given this information.
- We evaluate our methods on seven domainspecific subsets of the MMLU testing set for English MCQA, using GPT3.5 as the instructor LLM and Llama2 13B as the student LLM, and observe an improvement of up to 18.8% in test accuracy. All of our experiments are conducted without accessing the training set of MMLU to show generality.

2 Related Work

CoT Prompting.Recent LLMs demonstrate156emerging CoT reasoning capabilities by integrat-
ing a series of logical reasoning steps. It not only157enables LLMs to better understand input questions159

and their underlying complex logic, but also out-160 put step-by-step logical reasoning (Fu et al., 2023; 161 Wang et al., 2023; Gu et al., 2023). Jin et al. exam-162 ines how the length of reasoning steps in prompts 163 affects the performance of LLMs (Jin et al., 2024). 164 They argue that longer reasoning steps, even with-165 out new information, improve LLMs' reasoning 166 abilities. In addition, the benefits of longer reason-167 ing steps vary by task complexity: simpler tasks 168 need fewer steps, whereas complex tasks benefit 169 more from extended reasoning sequences. Olapa-170 MCoT introduces SimRRHF algorithm and Incor-171 rect Data Relearning to enhance the learning of 172 LLMs, resulting in a significant improvement, with 173 a 36% increase in accuracy compared to LLaMA2-174 13B (Zhu et al., 2023). 175

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Instruction Fine-Tuning. Fine-tuning LLMs using instruction-following data has been demonstrated to be an effective approach for enhancing performance on downstream tasks. Li et al. propose instruction backtranslation, a technique for creating high-quality instruction-following models by automatically generating instructions (Li et al., 2023). Wang et al. introduce Self-Instruct, a framework that enhances the instruction-following capabilities of pre-trained LLMs by leveraging their own generated content (Wang et al., 2022). Liu et al. first analyze data across dimensions of complexity, quality, and diversity and then introduce DEITA (Data-Efficient Instruction Tuning for Alignment) to enhance data measurement. DEITA achieves comparable or superior performance to state-ofthe-art alignment models while using only 6K SFT training data samples, which is more than 10 times less than the data employed by baseline models (Liu et al., 2023).

LLM-based Data Augmentation As LLM research progresses, researchers began to use them for data generation and augmentation. Peng et al. create more data from existing data samples by breaking down each source sentence into attributes, manipulating a single attribute, then assembling them back into a sentence, all in the form of a CoT reasoning(Peng et al., 2023). Park et al. generate fresh data without existing data samples, instead they use combinations of grammatical components and assemble them into grammatically incorrect sentences to be used in error detection (Park et al., 2024). Zhang et al. takes existing data and rephrase them at either a word level, syntax level, or discourse level, adding constraints in the process to ensure richness in the data (Zhang et al., 2024b).

3 Methods

This section presents the detailed data transforma-
tion pipeline used in this work. The pipeline in-
cludes three stages: the distillation stage, the train-
ing stage, and the inference stage. Fig. 2 illustrates213214214215215216216217217

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3.1 Distillation Stage

The distillation stage is inspired to simulate the process of an instructor creating an MCQA exam for a course. The questions are composed from both information within the course literature, as well as the personal understanding and expertise the instructor gained over their study, both of which are very valuable. In this work, this examiner position is taken by an instructor LLM. The instructor LLM is trained by large quantities of data, including textbooks which contain theory and exercise questions in alternation, as well as answer keys where question and answers are presented in adjacency. By prompting the instructor LLM to generate questions with input textbook excerpts, we expect to receive questions specifically focused on information from the excerpts, as well as its solution. This extracts domain-specific knowledge gained by the instructor LLM into small, well-formatted datasets, allowing them to be used for training or referencing.

As it turns out, the raw text extracted from literature would contain large amounts of misaligned text such as credit, titles, page numbers, figure captions, special characters, and so on. Additionally, while these standalone text interrupt the natural flow of the main text body, they are usually short enough to stay uninterrupted themselves. This results in a unfavourable phenomenon where the question generation model pays too much attention to these text, and generate questions such as "which of the following individuals authored this chapter", which does not seem helpful in domain knowledge training for the student model. In order to resolve this issue, we introduce an additional data cleaning step ahead of the question generation step, as illustrated in Fig. 2(a), during which we specifically instruct the LLM to exclude any information irrelevant to the domain. Detailed LLM conversations and formatted data are shown in appendix section A.1.



Figure 2: Full Pipeline

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3.2 Training Stage

After obtaining a set of MCQA during the distillation stage, the next phase would be to effectively train a student LLM with this data. In this work, our main training method is instruction tuning. We either compose text blocks from generated questionanswer data points and train student models to complete these text sequences offline, or prepend them to the question during inference time in the form of few-shot learning. In addition, we also propose a pseudo-open-book flow for training and inference.

The idea of an open-book exam, where the examinee may bring a textbook or cheatsheets as supplementary material, is typically considered to be much easier than the alternative closed-book format. In fact, in a real world exam scenario when no supplementary material is allowed, it is a rather common strategy for students to memorize a cheatsheet last-minute before entering the exam, then quickly write down what they remember on their desk before their memory fade away, they would then refer to this information throughout the exam. With the strong generative capability of LLMs, it is possible to simulate an open-book exam experience as an intermediate reasoning step, where the student model first attempts to recreate a relevant textbook excerpt based on the question, and then solve the question in the presence of the excerpt. As shown in many existing works such as (Wei

et al., 2022), the use of CoT prompting is often very helpful and would improve model performance significantly. This textbook excerpt recovery step can be seen as a form of CoT, and may introduce similar performance gains.

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Specifically, we train two different student models which we refer to as the "opener" and the "answerer". The opener model is trained to recover original literature segments from generated questions (named to "make the exam open-book"), as seen in Fig. 2(c); while the answerer model is trained to predict the answer given literature segments and corresponding questions, as seen in Fig. 2(d). Both models are trained with the idea of instruction tuning, where we simply instruct the model to perform respective tasks. Specifically, we construct text blocks with both instructions and outcome, and employ text-completion methods in supervised fine-tuning (SFT). Detailed conversations are shown in appendix section A.2.

3.3 Inference Stage

Finally, after both student models have been trained, we proceed to the inference stage. The MCQA test set is first processed with the opener model to recover the literature used to generate it, as shown in Fig. 2(e). Realistically, the composition of test questions may be completely different from our setting where an instructor reads some literature and specifically create a question based

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on an excerpt. For example, some of the larger application questions may be completely open-ended, or span knowledge from multiple chapters. Nevertheless, when we attempt to recreate this "history that never took place", it can still be beneficial to our question answering.

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The training stage employs text completion SFT as the training method. However, many existing work show that large language models demonstrate powerful few-shot learning capabilities (Brown et al., 2020), it is often beneficial to simply prepend instruction-following examples in front of the actual testing instruction. We therefore also experiment with directly connecting the distillation stage to the training stage by using formatted MCQA as few-shot examples. We will show later on that trivially selecting random training samples is already beneficial. However, for the same testing question, some training samples may be more helpful than others. We therefore employ the RAG strategy to select the most relevant samples from the training set based on a Hamming distance calculated based on the number of occurrences of each unique word in each question. Specifically, the distance between two questions a and b is defined as $\sum_{i=1}^{n} |W_{a,i} - W_{b,i}|$, where n is the total number of unique words used in the entire experiment, $W_{a,i}$ and $W_{b,i}$ refer to the number of occurrences word *i* showed up in questions *a* and *b* respectively.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experiment Setup

This section presents a series of experimental results under various settings. We mainly used GPT-3.5 (Brown et al., 2020) (specifically, the gpt-3.5-turbo-0125 API by OpenAI) as the instructor model, and Llama-2 13B (Touvron et al., 2023) as the student model. All training and inference is performed on an Nvidia A100 GPU. Some hyperparameters used in this experiment include: learning rate= 10^{-5} , LoRA r=8, alpha=16, dropout=0.05. The testing datasets include MCQAs from the MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020) test set for biology, chemistry, world history, law, mathematics, physics, and psychology.

4.2 Baseline

The Llama-2 team released their official scores on MMLU as part of their paper, however these scores are mostly averaged over multiple subjects, as MMLU originally intends to assess multitask question answering abilities. For the purpose of this paper, we are more interested in the effect of our methods on each domain, as the training literature focuses on a single subject area at a time. When these subjects are taken individually, the zero-shot accuracy scores we reproduced are as shown in Table 1. We used CoT prompting for the baseline, as otherwise the results would be much worse and almost close to random.

It is worth noting that when the base Llama2 13B model is asked questions, it may not necessarily select an option as intended. Appendix section A.3 shows several examples of this issue, including cases where the LLM: (1) does not output anything, (2) outputs uninterpretable junk, (3) outputs too much text and gets cut off by our output length threshold, (4) does not select an option. We therefore add an "attempted" stat to reflect the formatting coverage. In order to normalize the impact of unanswered questions, we calculated the correctness percentage based on the number of questions attempted rather than the total number of questions.

4.3 Main Results

Table 1 shows our main experimental results. Specifically, 2000 generated questions were used as the training set and retrieval pool for SFT and RAG respectively. For SFT, we first used another 500 generated questions per subject area as validation set, and trained for up to 1000 steps of 5 samples per batch. We evaluated every 200 steps on the validation set and picked the step with the highest validation accuracy as the final model for testing. For RAG, we obtain a word count for each question body in the training pool and the testing set, then match each test question to its closest 4 training questions by Hamming distance. The average stats are computed as mean percentages across the subjects rather than totaling each specific count first, as the number of questions that MMLU happen to include for each individual subject should not be used as the weight during averaging.

Testing results show that coverage stats increase significantly from 65.54% to 92.46% and 96.33% for SFT and RAG respectively, demonstrating the instruction tuning potential on LLMs. Between the two main training methods, RAG also outperformed SFT in coverage stats in all subjects except for chemistry, which shows that the LLM is more likely to follow instructions when presented as fewshot examples rather than trained offline.

Acccuracy stats increase by 6.72% for SFT and

Subject	Question count	Baseline zero-shot	SFT	RAG	
5		Attempted Correct	Attempted Correct	Attempted Correct	
Biology	454	394 (86.78%) 185 (46.95%)	447 (98.45%) 257 (57.49%)	452 (99.55%) 258 (57.71%)	
Chemistry	303	191 (63.03%) 62 (32.46%)	295 (97.35%) 105 (35.59%)	286 (94.38%) 107 (37.41%)	
History	765	497 (64.96%) 262 (52.71%)	698 (91.24%) 417 (59.74%)	754 (98.56%) 472 (62.59%)	
Law	1655	982 (59.33%) 325 (33.09%)	1390 (83.98%) 506 (36.4%)	1623 (98.06%) 605 (37.27%)	
Mathematics	994	353 (47.19%) 123 (34.84%)	665 (88.90%) 260 (39.09%)	665 (88.90%) 212 (31.87%)	
Physics	488	289 (59.22%) 90 (31.14%)	457 (93.64%) 177 (38.73%)	466 (95.49%) 175 (37.55%)	
Psychology	1157	906 (78.30%) 415 (45.80%)	1084 (93.69%) 618 (57.01%)	1150 (99.39%) 743 (64.60%)	
Averaged		65.54% 39.57%	92.46% 46.29%	96.33% 47.00%	

Table 1: Main performance

Instructor model	Instructor	nstructor SFT		RAG	
	Correct	Attempted	Correct	Attempted	Correct
GPT-4	96.12%	447 (98.45%)	275 (61.52%)	436 (96.03%)	255 (58.48%)
GPT-3.5	80.60%	447 (98.45%)	257 (57.49%)	447 (98.45%)	258 (57.71%)
Llama2 13B	N/A	453 (99.78%)	229 (50.55%)	442 (97.36%)	224 (50.68%)

Table 2: Distillation stage impact

7.43% for RAG overall. For individual subjects, 417 accuracy increases by up to 10.54% for SFT in biol-418 ogy and 18.8% for RAG in psychology. We notice 419 that the performance gains are more significant in 420 421 subjects with more verbal reasoning such as biology, history, and psychology, and less significant in 422 subjects with more mathematical computation such 423 as chemistry, math, and physics. This may be be-424 cause our data volume is still rather small with only 425 thousands of examples, and therefore each number 426 that show up in our training set would end up as an 427 outlier in occurrence compared to others. Law is an 428 exception to this observation, as it does not involve 429 much computation but see low gains overall. This 430 may be due to data-specific issues where the text 431 used for training did not quite align with the testing 432 questions. We observe a single case where testing 433 accuracy drops in RAG with math, which may be 434 due to a combination of reasons above, as well as 435 data fluctuation. Overall, the experimental results 436 are consistent to show that our data transformation 437 method is effective to produce a training set for 438 MCQA across various subject areas, fulfilling its 439 440 original purpose.

4.4 Accuracy Gain Breakdown

The quantitative results have been shown above, we now look into individual questions and give a more specific idea of where the performance gains came from. Firstly, despite achieving a higher accuracy overall, it is still very much possible for performance to degrade on individual questions. Taking the biology subsection as an example, comparing baseline against SFT, the coverage improved from 394 to 447. Out of this increase, 5 questions were attempted in the base run but not in the trained run, and 58 questions were not attempted in former but are attempted in latter. Similarly, out of the 389 questions attempted in both runs, 97 incorrect answers were corrected, while 50 correct answers are now mistaken. The following are a few representative cases of each.

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Degradation case 1: Over-focusing on a single choice. Out of the cases where a question was initially answered correctly but answered incorrectly after training, a common one is when the trained model now focuses on a single choice, and the question contains choices such as "C: both A and B are correct". The trained model happens to have more knowledge on choice A than choice B, therefore decides on answering A instead of C, making a mistake. This case also happens in reverse as a 468 correction case, where the baseline model focuses
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Degradation case 2: Two wrongs make a right. A somewhat amusing degradation case is where the baseline solutions include multiple mistakes, which combine to circle back to the right answer, such as "<choice A> is the best choice because of these reasons, therefore the answer is B". The trained model presumably did not cover the knowledge to correct the reasoning behind thinking choice A is correct, but it is better at following instructions, namely connecting letter choices to their content, and therefore gives choice A as the final answer where choice B is actually correct. Similar to above, this case also happens in reverse, where the baseline model initially had the correct reasoning, but decided to choose a letter choice that did not match the reasoning. The instruction tuning aspect of the training process allows the trained model to correctly pick the right solution.

Correction case 1: Blind picking. Out of the cases when a question was initially answered incorrectly but corrected after training, the baseline model sometimes pick a single solution without producing any reasoning to go with it, even when prompted to do so. After training, this situation happens less and accuracy naturally improves. A similar but fundamentally opposite situation is where the baseline model was originally trained to not answer questions it considers too difficult. The instruction tuning step causes the baseline model to unlearn this ability, therefore answering more questions and producing a better accuracy. This crosses into the realm of trust and safety, and we strongly encourage anyone that apply our methods to reapply the initial safety and ethics -related training steps to recover these abilities for the student LLM.

An interesting phenomenon is that the LLM tends to favor certain letter choices over others for unknown reasons, previous studies (Zheng et al., 2023) focused further on this issue. In our case, out of 389 questions attempted both before and after training, the pick rate of choices A through D are 120, 83, 54, 132 respectively for baseline, and 101, 93, 103, 92 after training. We can see that training helps smooth this distribution.

Correction case 2: Finally, there are the originally intended cases where the baseline model originally does not demonstrate knowledge in a particular area, and through training, gained such



Figure 3: Training set size impact

knowledge and is able to answer these questions correctly. An example is used in Fig.1 above.

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We now present a series of comparative analyses to illustrate the impact of individual methods and hyperparameters. In order to control cost, each study is conducted independently, and only the biology subject area is used. For each analysis, unless otherwise stated, all settings are held the same as the main experiments.

4.5 Distillation Stage Impact

During the distillation stage, we used GPT3.5 to generate the training set from source literature, therefore the quality of data may be influenced by the capabilities of GPT3.5. Table 2 presents the differences caused by replacing GPT3.5 with either GPT4 (specifically, the gpt-4-turbo-0125preview API by OpenAI), or an Llama2 13B instance used with RAG examples from the GPT3.5 results above. Despite the significant differences in accuracy scores by the instructor model, there is actually little difference in the resulting training accuracy from the generated datasets by GPT3.5 vs GPT4. On the other hand, the Llama2 13B instance used for data transformation also yields improvements over the baseline, although less significant than the GPT instructors. These results shows the self-instruction potential of the student model.

4.6 Training Stage Impact

During the training stage, we used a training set size of 2000. Fig. 3 presents the impact on RAG test accuracy and coverage from different training set sizes from 5 to 5000. As we increase the training set size, we observe a slight increase in testing accuracy by up to 2%, which appears small but may contribute to a decent portion as the overall increase from applying this method is about 10%. The coverage stats mostly remained stable at around 99%, with a single outlier around 96%.

For SFT, we previously took the highest validation accuracy as the optimal model, Fig. 4 presents the full validation and testing accuracy scores in



Figure 4: Training trajector	Figure 4	4:	Training	tra	jector
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CoT methods used	Attem	pted	Correct
None	427 (9	94.05%)	229 (53.62%)
Show solution	454 (1	100.0%)	254 (55.94%)
Recover textbook excerpt	454 (9	99.33%)	247 (54.77%)
Both	447 (9	98.45%)	258 (57.71%)

Table 3: Inference stage impact

addition to train and validation losses throughout the training steps. As we can see, validation loss and validation accuracy peak at 600 steps, but testing accuracy actually peaks at 1000 steps, therefore selecting model snapshot based on validation stats is not necessarily the best fit. This is most likely due to inherent differences in data distribution, as the validation and testing sets are not sourced from the same dataset. Nevertheless, it still serves as a reasonable guideline and helps the selection.

For RAG, Fig. 5 explores the comparison between number of fewshot examples. The use of closest examples by Hamming distance is also compared against randomized retrieval. As we can see, having more fewshot examples generally improves accuracy. This aligns with our SFT experiments to show that having more data improves the domain knowledge of the model but does not necessarily improve data format. On the other hand, the random selection performance is noticeably below retrieval by closest Hamming distance, proving the value of the retrieval step. Interestingly, the number of fewshot examples for random selection does not appear to affect the resulting accuracy, this may be due to the model most learning formats from random samples.



Figure 5: Training trajectory

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4.7 Inference Stage Impact

During inference stage, we employed two CoT methods including textbook excerpt recovery and standard "explain your solution" approach. Both methods are used by default in the main results, Table 3 presents the ablation study of these two methods, using RAG with 4 few-shot samples. As we see from the results, having no CoT at all yields the minimum correctness, while having either intermediate reasoning step improves it marginally. Having both CoT methods yield the optimal performance, showing that these two methods generally do not conflict with each other. It is somewhat surprising to see that the results with no CoT still yields reasonable results, as the baseline results with no CoT is merely 27% in accuracy, resembling almost random selection.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose an LLM-based multidisciplinary data transformation method to transform raw textbook data into well-formatted question-answer pairs, and show that the transformed data can be used to effectively improve multiple-choice question-answering testing accuracy without having to consult with the training set. In addition, we propose a novel chain-ofthought pipeline by recovering textbook excerpts from questions, further improving performance. Using GPT3.5 as the instructor LLM for data transformation and Llama2 13B as the student LLM, we evaluate our methods on seven different domains in the MMLU testing set, and achieve an accuracy improvement of up to 18.8% from 45.8% to 64.6%.

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Limitation

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Despite seeing performance improvements, the data transformation method of LLM-based MCQA generation has its own limitations. The most important one is that often times, a real-world question asked during an actual exam would test the examinee's knowledge over multiple units at the same time. In the context of a textbook, this would easily span across different chapters, or even books. By limiting our prompt to a small excerpt for the LLM to generate questions, many questions we obtain would inevitably be factual. This may be strong enough to see performance gains over a dataset like MMLU, many questions in which happen to be factual. However in a different setting where we expect the student LLM to gain more complex expertise, it is likely that this method would need to be changed before it shows similar performance.

Additionally, this method makes an assumption that the retrieved textbook used as data sources would align with the target testing set in distribution. Traditionally, the training and testing set of a particular benchmark is often randomly split off of the same source dataset, and therefore naturally share the same distribution. This assumption is not always true depending on the particular field, for example law, where the legal, political, and economic changes could gradually shift in a particular direction over time, and the literature would be confined to their own time. In the extreme case of history, reading textbooks from a particular era or area would have little benefit on textbooks from a different setting. Nevertheless, one could still argue that both of these limitations only hinders performance and increases cost of initial literature retrieval. When the data source is selected carefully and excerpt length tuned properly, the transformation method expects to yield performance benefits.

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A Appendix

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A.1 Distillation Stage Conversation

Fig. 6 presents a page from original literature, we extract all text and process it through the instructor LLM as shown in Fig. 7, and is transformed into a single paragraph as shown in Fig. 8. Next, Fig. 9 presents the question generation prompts used, and Fig. 10 presents the actual question from the instructor LLM. The contents of Fig. 8 and 10 are then saved as a JSON file, as shown in Fig. 11.

A.2 Training Stage Conversation

Fig. 12 and Fig. 13 present the opener and answer training data format respectively. For testing we use the same format, only without text for opener, and solution / final answer for answerer.

A.3 Baseline Errors

Baseline error cases are shown in Fig. 14, 15, 16, and 17.

Levels of Organization of Living Things

Living things are highly organized and structured. The **atom** is the smallest and most fundamental unit of matter. It consists of a nucleus surrounded by electrons. Atoms form molecules. A **molecule** is a chemical structure consisting of at least two atoms held together by a chemical bond. Many biologically important molecules are macromolecules. A **macromolecule** is a large molecule that is typically formed by combining smaller molecules. For example, nucleotides are small molecules linked together to form the macromolecule, DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) (Figure 1.11). DNA contains the instructions necessary for cells and organisms to maintain homeostasis.



Figure 1.11 A molecule, like this large DNA molecule, is composed of atoms. (credit: "Brian0918"/Wikimedia Commons)

CONCEPTS IN ACTION- To see an animation of this DNA molecule, click here.



Some cells contain collections of macromolecules surrounded by membranes; these are called organelles. **Organelles** are small structures that exist within cells and perform specialized functions. For example, in some cells, DNA is enclosed within a membrane-bound organelle called the nucleus (plural: nuclei). All living things are made of cells; the **cell** is the smallest fundamental unit found in living organisms. Cells exhibit all of the properties of life discussed above. Viruses are often not considered living because they are not made of cells, nor are they capable of reproducing on their own. To make new viruses, they must invade and take over a living cell.

Some **organisms** consist of a single cell, while others are multicellular. In most multicellular organisms, cells combine to make **tissues**, which are groups of similar cells carrying out the same function. **Organs** are collections of tissues grouped based on a common function. Organs are present not only in animals but also in plants. An **organ system** is a higher level of organization that consists of functionally related organs. For example, vertebrate animals have many organ systems, such as the circulatory system that transports blood throughout the body; it includes organs such as the heart and blood vessels. **Organisms** are individual living entities. For example, each tree in a forest is an organism. Single-celled prokaryotes and single-celled eukaryotes are also considered organisms and are typically referred to as microorganisms.

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Figure 6: Original page from textbook

The following text is extracted directly out of a textbook PDF file, filter out any title, page number, author information, figure caption, etc. leaving only the main text content. Then, summarize the text into a simple paragraph. If no text is remaining after filtering, reply with "no text".

7

Levels of Organization of Living Things

Living things are highly organized and structured. The atom is the smallest and most fundamental unit of matter. It consists of a nucleus surrounded by electrons. Atoms form molecules. A molecule is a chemical structure consisting of at least two atoms held together by a chemical bond. Many biologically important molecules are macromolecules. A macromolecule is a large molecule that is typically formed by combining smaller molecules. For example, nucleotides are small molecules linked together to form the macromolecule, DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) (Figure 1.11). DNA contains the instructions necessary for cells and organisms to maintain homeostasis.

Figure 1.11 A molecule, like this large DNA molecule, is composed of atoms. (credit: "Brian0918"/Wikimedia Commons)

CONCEPTS IN ACTION- To see an animation of this DNA molecule, click here.

Some cells contain collections of macromolecules surrounded by membranes; these are called organelles. Organelles are small structures that exist within cells and perform specialized functions. For example, in some cells, DNA is enclosed within a membrane-bound organelle called the nucleus (plural: nuclei). All living things are made of cells; the cell is the smallest fundamental unit found in living organisms. Cells exhibit all of the properties of life discussed above. Viruses are often not considered living because they are not made of cells, nor are they capable of reproducing on their own. To make new viruses, they must invade and take over a living cell.

Some organisms consist of a single cell, while others are multicellular. In most multicellular organisms, cells combine to make tissues, which are groups of similar cells carrying out the same function. Organs are collections of tissues grouped based on a common function. Organs are present not only in animals but also in plants. An organ system is a higher level of organization that consists of functionally related organs. For example, vertebrate animals have many organ systems, such as the circulatory system that transports blood throughout the body;

it

includes organs such as the heart and blood vessels. Organisms are individual living entities. For

example, each tree in a forest is an organism. Single-celled prokaryotes and single-celled eukaryotes are also considered organisms

Figure 7: Distillation stage data cleaning prompt to instructor LLM

The hierarchical organization of living things, starting from the smallest unit, the atom, and expanding to molecules, macromolecules like DNA, cells, tissues, organs, and organ systems. Atoms form molecules held together by chemical bonds, and these molecules can be simple or complex macromolecules such as DNA, which contains vital instructions for cellular functions and homeostasis. Cells, the basic units of life, may include organelles like nuclei that house DNA. Organisms can be unicellular or multicellular, with multicellular organisms having complex structures including tissues, organs, and organ systems that perform specific functions. For example, the circulatory system in vertebrates includes the heart and blood vessels.

Figure 8: Clean text generated by instructor LLM

Question:

Which of the following best represents the level of biological organization that directly encompasses the structural and functional complexity found between cells and organs?

Choices: A: Molecules B: Tissues C: Organelles D: Organ Systems

Solution:

To find the correct answer, let's analyze the biological hierarchy described in the text:

- 1. Atoms: The simplest units, forming molecules. 2. Molecules and Macromolecules: Such as DNA, which are essential
- for various functions at the cellular level. 3. **Cells**: Described as the basic units of life, which may contain organelles like nuclei.
- Tissues: These are groups of similar cells that work together to perform a specific function.
- Organs: Composed of different types of tissues that work together.
 Organ Systems: A higher level of organization where different organs work together to perform complex functions.

Given the question asks for the level between cells and organs, we look for the answer that fits this description. Organelles are part of cells, molecules are below cells, and organ systems are above organs. Tissues, however, are groups of similar cells that together perform specific functions and are the level of organization between individual cells and complete organs.

Final Answer: B: Tissues

Figure 10: Question generated by instructor LLM

Given the following text, create a multiple choice question with 4 choices, including a solution process and a final answer between A B, C, D.

Text:

The hierarchical organization of living things...

Format: Question: < a question >

Choices: A: ...

B: ... C: ... D: ...

Solution:

< a step by step solution to the question >

Final Answer: < A, B, C, D >



{
 "text": "The hierarchical ...",
 "question": "Which of the ...",
 "choices": [
 "Molecules",
 "Tissues",
 "Organelles",
 "Organ Systems"
],
 "solution": "To find the..."
 "answer": "B"
}

Figure 11: MCQA JSON

Given the following Question, generate Text that the Question may have been generated from.

Question: Which of the ...

Choices:

A: Molecules

B: Tissues

C: Organelles

D: Organ Systems

Text:

The hierarchical ...

Figure 12: Training data format for the opener student LLM

For the following Question, explain your Solution, then give a Final Answer between A, B, C, D. Question: Regarding meiosis and mitosis, one difference

between the two forms of cellular reproduction is that in meiosis Choices:

Choices:

A: there is one round of cell division, whereas in mitosis there are two rounds of cell division B: separation of sister chromatids occurs during the second division, whereas in mitosis separation of sister chromatids occurs during the first division C: chromosomes are replicated during interphase, whereas in mitosis chromosomes are replicated during prophase

D: spindle fibers form during prophase, whereas in mitosis the spindle fibers form during metaphase Solution:

(correct: B)

Figure 14: Baseline error case 1: no response

Read the following Text, then for the following Question, explain your Solution, then give a Final Answer between A, B, C, D. Text: The hierarchical ... Question: Which of the ... Choices: A: Molecules B: Tissues C: Organelles D: Organ Systems

Solution: To find the ...

Final Answer: B

Figure 13: Training data format for the answerer student LLM

(For the following Question, explain your Solution, then give a Final Answer between A, B, C, D. Question:
	Which of the following must exist in a population before natural selection can act upon that population? Choices:
	A: Genetic variation among individuals B: Variation among individuals caused by environmental factors
	C: Sexual reproduction D: B and C only
	Solution:
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	(correct: A)

Figure 15: Baseline error case 2: outputs junk

For the following Question, explain your Solution, then give a Final Answer between A, B, C, D.

Question:

A biologist studied a population of squirrels for 15 years. During that time, the population was never fewer than 30 squirrels and never more than 45. Her data showed that over half of the squirrels born did not survive to reproduce, because of competition for food and predation. In a single generation, 90% of the squirrels that were born lived to reproduce, and the population increased to 80. Which inference(s) about this population might be true?

Choices:

A: The amount of available food may have increased.
B: The number of predators may have decreased.
C: The squirrels of subsequent generations should show greater levels of genetic variation than previous generations, because squirrels that would not have survived in the past will now survive.
D: A. B. and C

D: A, B, and C

Solution:

A) The amount of available food may have increased.
 This is a reasonable inference, as the population of squirrels increased.

B) The number of predators may have decreased.

-This is also a reasonable inference, as the population of squirrels increased.

C) The squirrels of subsequent generations should show greater levels of genetic variation than previous generations, because squirrels that would not have survived in the past will now survive.

-This is not a reasonable inference, as the study did not specifically examine the genetic variation of the squirrels. -The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

-The study did not provide enough information to make this inference. -The study did not provide enough information to make this

inference. -The study did not provide enough information to make this inference.

(correct: D)

Figure 16: Baseline error case 3: output is repetitive / too long

For the following Question, explain your Solution, then give a Final Answer between A, B, C, D. Question:

The reaction $A + B \rightarrow C$ is catalyzed by enzyme K. If the reaction is in equilibrium, which of the following would allow more product C to be produced? Choices:

A: removing some of reactant A

B: removing some of reactant C

C: adding more enzyme K

D: increasing the temperature of the system Solution:

The reaction $A + B \rightarrow C$ is catalyzed by enzyme K. If the reaction is in equilibrium, which of the following would allow more product C to be produced? The answer is C. Adding more enzyme K will allow more product C to be produced. Enzymes are biological catalysts that speed up chemical reactions in living organisms. They work by lowering the activation energy required for a reaction to occur. By adding more enzyme K, the reaction will be able to proceed more quickly, resulting in the production of more product C.

(correct: B)

Figure 17: Baseline error case 4: does not select a final answer