Self-Select: Optimizing Instruction Selection for Large Language Models

Keshav Ramji† University of Pennsylvania keshavr@upenn.edu

Alexander Kyimpopkin† University of Pennsylvania alxkp@upenn.edu

† equal contribution

Abstract

The same question can often be presented in different ways, depending on the audience and the intent with which it is being posed. To determine whether large language models (LLMs) demonstrate preferences for one phrasing over another regardless of semantic content, we introduce *Self-Select*, a method for selection of a preferred instruction template, and generation of high-quality synthetic data samples. This algorithm makes use of a *meta-prompt* to decide on an instruction template, given a task and candidate templates then generates n new samples using the chosen template. We evaluate *Self-Select* on numerical reasoning and sentiment classification tasks, using a variety of instruction-tuned and base models, providing insights into their abilities and biases in performing instruction selection. We find that permuting the instruction template ordering in the prompt leads to vastly different choice distributions, suggesting that decisions may be influenced more by inductive biases than by semantic understanding, even after instruction tuning.

1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated their ability to both generate seemingly novel data as well as critique generated responses $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$ $([27], [32], [53], [14])$. At the same time, many models require large amounts of human labeled training data, motivating recent exploration of methods for synthetic data generation. That is, using model generated data to improve performance on a downstream task, largely by fine-tuning a model on a data mixture consisting of an existing corpus for the task and the synthetically generated data.

For a given task, instructions can be presented with several possible structures, which we call *templates*, and new data may be generated using many of these possible templates ([\[49\]](#page-13-1)). While the differences in these instruction formats may be evident to humans – after all, users may present the same question in various ways to a conversational agent – it is unclear the extent to which template selection influences the quality of the generated data, nor whether LLMs can distinguish the merits of one template against another. Therefore, by framing this decision problem as one posed to the model for a particular task, we can gain valuable insights into the ability of the instruction-tuned models to distinguish between instructions, compared to vanilla pre-trained language models.

In our work, we propose a new algorithm, *Self-Select*, for generation of synthetic data samples corresponding to a model-selected instruction template. In the first module, *SELECT*, we introduce a meta-prompt for the model to consider the set of provided templates, and choose the template it perceives to be the best. Then, in the *GENERATE* module, we fit in-context exemplars to the chosen template, and prompt the model to generate new samples that follow the same structure as the exemplars. To ensure that the final n samples for the particular task are of sufficient quality, we verify

Figure 1: Overview of the *Self-Select* algorithm, which consists of *SELECT* and *GENERATE* modules. In the former, we provide a meta-prompt and several templates for the task, and obtain the selected template. In the latter, we first generate samples according to the provided template, and use model self-critique to determine whether those samples are of sufficiently high quality. For those that are insufficient, we use in-context refinement examples and attempt to improve the response.

the output samples relative to a benchmark; depending on the task, this can be chosen to be a metric (with a threshold for admittance into the final set) or even a model-generated label of the response quality. If a sample is deemed to be of insufficient quality, we prompt the model to refine its response, conditioned on the previous output, such that the new response takes its place as a candidate. Thus, upon the algorithm's termination, n samples per task of interest will be obtained; these samples can be used to fine-tune the model, or themselves be applied as exemplars for few-shot prompting.

We evaluate the *Self-Select* algorithm on two tasks – numerical reasoning (arithmetic) and sentiment classification, and benchmark the performance of each model in zero-shot and few-shot prompted settings, with and without model fine-tuning. Our results show that models are able to successfully identify the template it deems to be optimal, and can generate high-quality samples corresponding to the templates given by a hand-selected prompt structure. This provides preliminary evidence of the ability for LLMs to optimize instruction selection via meta-prompts, building on the recent findings of [\[50\]](#page-13-2), and generate faithful synthetic data samples, in line with [\[55\]](#page-13-3).

2 Algorithmic Approach

Given a set of possible instruction templates for a task, such as those manually curated in FLAN ([\[46\]](#page-13-4)), *Self-Select* firstly chooses the instruction it deems to be most appropriate for the task, given the task description, generates new data which fit the structure of the template (with regards to the terms to be "filled in"), and then uses a quality control criterion to re-sample responses if they are of insufficient quality. This mechanism to determine when refinement is necessary may be defined several ways by the user, and can be specified for the particular task.

2.1 Instruction Template Selection

For the given task t , we wish to consider the set of potential candidate instruction templates, in order to select the best one; this set is denoted as S_t . The *SELECT* module involves querying the model using a *meta-prompt*, given the $|S_t|$ template options:

$$
\tau = \mathcal{M}(mp \mid t, S_t) \tag{1}
$$

We define the structure of the meta-prompt as follows (specific examples of meta-prompts used in our work are given in [Appendix A\)](#page-14-0), yielding a prompt index. This, in turn, is mapped to the particular template within the S_t set:

"The following templates correspond to different problems. Choose which one best fits the problem above. Respond with Template: <NUM>"

It is to be noted that meta-prompting using the above query may be done with either zero-shot or few-shot settings, wherein one can provide demonstrations of a human annotator-chosen optimal template for framing a particular problem as an instruction, perhaps subject to certain desirable criteria. However, this is beyond the present scope of our empirical exploration, given the emphasis of this work is on the comparison of the behaviors between base models and instruction-tuned models, and their respective abilities to perform template selection as a means to elicit their instruction preferences.

Inputs : Large Language Model M $\mathcal{T} \leftarrow Set \ of \ tasks$ $S_t \leftarrow Set \space of \space candidate \space templates \space for \space task \space t$ $X_t \leftarrow Set \ of \ in\-context \ exemplars \ for \ initial \ generation \ for \ task \ t$ $R_t \leftarrow Set \ of \ in\-context \ exemplars \ for \ refinement \ for \ task \ t$ mp : *meta-prompt* gp : *generation-prompt* rp : *refinement-prompt* μ_t : Response quality metric for task t with quality threshold λ_t n : Number of samples to generate per task for each task $t \in \mathcal{T}$: $\tau = \mathcal{M}(mp \mid t, S_t)$ \triangleright Meta-prompt yields selected instruction $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{W} = \{\}$ for each iteration $i \in 1, 2, \ldots n$: $y_i = \mathcal{M}(gp \mid \tau, \mathcal{X}_t)$ \triangleright Sample responses, given template $W = W \cup \{y_i\}$ end for while $|W| \neq \{\}$ if max refinement iterations reached: \triangleright 2nd Stopping criterion for refinement return F $\gamma_i = \mu_t(y_i)$ if $\gamma_i \geq \lambda_t$: \triangleright Response quality check $\mathcal{F} = F \cup \{y_i\}$ $\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{W} \setminus \{y_i\}$ else: $y'_i = \mathcal{M}(rp \mid y_i)$ ▷ Response refinement $\mathcal{W}=W\cup \{y_{i}'\}\setminus \{y_{i}\}$ end while return F end for

Figure 2: The *Self-Select* algorithm and the assumed notation. Please see Section 2 (Algorithmic Approach) for a more comprehensive discussion of the method.

2.2 Synthetic Data Generation and Refinement

The *GENERATE* module encompasses both generation of new samples (a user-defined value of n, per task) and refinement based on a user-defined metric, subject to a scoring threshold per sample. In this module, we sample a new response for the refinement prompt, conditioned on both the previous response and a small set of manually-curated examples for refinement for that particular task. For example, for arithmetic tasks, refinement only occurs when the provided answer is incorrect, and thus the in-context example set, R_t , consists of $\langle (x_i, y_i), (x_i, y'_i) \rangle$ pairs, where y_i is an incorrect response and y_i is correct.

$$
y_i' = \mathcal{M}(rp \mid y_i, R_t) \tag{2}
$$

Refinement ensures that the *Self-Select* algorithm enables quality control on responses – for generations deemed acceptable based on the threshold and criterion, we add those samples to the set $\mathcal F$, and return $\mathcal F$ upon termination of the loop, for the current task.

However, as the LLM may prove to be incapable of refining its response to the level of sufficiency, we enforce a stopping criterion on the basis of the number of refinement iterations that have occurred; prior work (27)) demonstrates that weaker (smaller, non-instruction-tuned) models may struggle with iterative refinement procedures. This guarantees termination within a fixed number of iterations, even if it results in producing fewer than the desired n high-quality samples.

One may look to use 0-1 critiques generated by the model as a means to determine response sufficiency (that is, if the model deems the response quality to be good, it assigns a score of 1 to that response; else assigns 0). This could also be replaced with a known reference metric for a particular task, including semantically-oriented metrics like BERTScore ([\[54\]](#page-13-5)) or for mathematical tasks, custom-defined metrics based on the outcomes of a call to a calculator API (e.g. Wolfram Alpha); hence, this is defined generally as μ_t in Algorithm 1.

3 Experimental Setup and Results

3.1 Numerical Reasoning

Figure 3: Results on instruction template selection for the numerical reasoning task. The bars with the striped lines correspond to the same model as the solid bar, but where the striped bars are results with shuffled instruction options, mapped back to their original template numbering.

For numerical reasoning, we selected two-number addition with one to five digit numbers, using the prompt in Figure 4. Our meta-prompt consists of seven possible options with slight changes in instruction format, such as how each operand is specified or identifying particular qualifiers on the operands and the resulting quantities.

We experimented with the Llama-2 7B and 13B variants, with and without chat-tuning [\[39\]](#page-12-1), as well as MPT-7B and MPT-7B-instruct [\[38\]](#page-12-2) and find that these smaller models struggle to perform instruction selection, instead generating seemingly random code segments. We believe this result to be tied to the use of curly brackets (i.e. $\{\}$) as a means to specify an argument to be filled in its place for a given template – this choice was done to maintain the ambiguity of the argument to be inserted, with an emphasis on the structure implied by the template. That being said, curly brackets most often occur in programming languages (hence the term "curly-bracket languages") such as C and C++. Thus, it is likely that models that have seen some program synthesis data (whether solely in the pre-training corpora, for base models, or in the fine-tuning data as well, for instruction-tuned models) would interpret the template as code, when presented with the options in the meta-prompt, and thus generate code in response.

```
SELECTION: The following templates correspond to different problems.
Choose which one best fits addition. Respond with Template: <NUM>
Template 0 : Addition; Problem: \{\} + \{\} =; Answer: \{\}Template 1 : Addition;
Problem: \{\} + \{\} = \{\}Template 2 : Addition; Generate a problem following this template:
\{\} + \{\} = \{\}Template 3 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerTemplate 4 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are integers
Template 5 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are numbers
Template 6 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are real numbers
 Choose the best template by returning its number.
```
Figure 4: Above is the prompt used for the numerical reasoning task, with 7 manually curated templates for performing addition, with slight differences in how the problem is phrased.

We ran the template selection task 50 times per model (45 times for GPT-4 with unshuffled template choices, due to query rate limits), with the GPT-3.5, GPT-4, and Llama-2-70B-Chat models. We also performed this experiment with the aforementioned smaller models, but found their generations to be highly inconsistent and noisy with code samples, rather than a proper template selection. It is worth noting that of these three models, GPT-4 often elaborated on its logic even when unprompted to do so – behaviors in desirable templates from GPT-4's perspective include simplicity, straightforwardness, being "the most general", and clarity. As a result, on occasion, GPT-4 would output multiple potential options for its instruction of choice, based on its reasoning path to classify certain characteristics of groups of templates; for example, "Templates 0, 2, 4, and 6 provide explanatory text followed by a simple format for the problem."

There exists prior literature demonstrating LLMs' sensitivities to the order of choices in making decisions – in multiple choice questions ($[30]$), in-context examples ($[56]$), and response critique and evaluation ([\[42\]](#page-12-4)). This led us to examine whether shuffling the instruction template options would have an impact on the models' preferred choice; maintaining the same option as before would indicate a degree of semantic understanding and having learned the differences between structures. In both the unshuffled (Table 1) and shuffled (Table 2) settings, we found that small models had difficulty following instructions, while the large instruction-tuned and/or chat-tuned models demonstrated a near deterministic preference for a specific template. That being said, in the shuffled case, all three models chose a completely different template compared to their selections in the original prompt ordering. Notably, all three models coalesced on a single choice in the shuffled regime. They all selected template 2. These results are shown for the original ordering and shuffled templates in Tables 1 and 2, respectively, and consolidated in Figure 3. Indices are given in terms of the original indices before shuffling for comparison.

We additionally generated 9,600 examples using a similar template to the ones given above; shown below to validate the feasibility of our proposed *GENERATE* module. An example of one such prompt is shown in Figure 5. Our model was able to generate data which consistently tracked both

Template (Unshuffled)	$GPT-3.5$	GPT-4	Llama-2-70B-Chat
Template 0	0%	0%	100%
Template 1	88%	4.9%	0%
Template 2	12%	2.4%	0%
Template 3	0%	0%	0%
Template 4	0%	92.7%	0%
Template 5	0%	0%	0%
Template 6	0%	0%	0%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Table 1: Results on instruction template selection for the numerical reasoning task with 50 samples (45 for GPT-4), using an unshuffled list of template options.

Table 2: Results on template selection for the numerical reasoning task with 50 samples, with shuffled templates (mapped back to original numbering). (Samples with 2 or more results were excluded)

```
We have an arithmetic task below:
Generate in JSON {n} more correct examples, following the template below:
\Gamma{
        Problem: num_1 + num_2 =Answer: num_3
        Where num_1, num_2, and num_3 are {d} digit numbers
    },
    .
    .
    .
] '''
```
Figure 5: Above is the prompt for generation of n new samples following the LLM-chosen template, as specified in the *GENERATE* module of the *Self-Select* algorithm.

3.2 Sentiment Classification

We experimented on the sentiment classification task using 10 templates corresponding to the IMDB dataset ([\[26\]](#page-11-2)), from the FLAN ([\[46\]](#page-13-4)) work. These include "How would you describe the sentiment of this review?", "Generate a movie review with answer sentiment.", and "Would you say this review is positive or negative?" (note that these are paraphrased). Similar to the numerical reasoning task, we also consider both unshuffled and shuffled template choices, to further examine models' consistency.

Figure 6: Results on instruction template selection for the sentiment classification task. The bars with the striped lines correspond to the same model as the solid bar, but where the striped bars are results with shuffled instruction options, mapped back to their original template numbering.

GPT-4 similarly attempts to provide a line of reasoning for its choices: its criterion includes looking for the most direct, unambiguous, clear, and neutral template. The inclusion of "neutral" is particularly noteworthy, as it suggests GPT-4's inherent understanding of the requirements of the sentiment analysis task, and the objective to be unbiased in a certain direction with the instruction itself. We find that both GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 have a higher degree of variability for this task as compared to the numerical reasoning task, across 3 options.

Once again, we find that shuffling the instruction options results in a vastly different "preference" distribution, with only GPT-4 maintaining its primary choice from the unshuffled setting. Furthermore, we find that the smaller 7B and 13B models still struggle to produce outputs in the desired format (i.e. a template number) and hallucinate information, rendering them unable to consistently perform instruction selection (albeit, Llama-2-13B-Chat can still generate valid template numbers on rare occasion). We present these results in Tables 3 and 4 in Appendix B, and are summarized in Figure 7.

4 Related Work

4.1 Instruction Tuning

Several prior works demonstrate the effectiveness of instruction tuning as a promising framework for yielding greater generalization to a wide variety of tasks $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$ $([46], [31], [28], [24], [6]$). Recently, there has been growing interest in minimizing the amount of instruction-following data necessary to still obtain strong instruction-tuned models ([\[37\]](#page-12-6), [\[17\]](#page-11-5), [\[22\]](#page-11-6), [\[5\]](#page-10-1)). On a similar lens, it has been shown that small but well-curated datasets can lead to strong alignment to human preferences ([\[57\]](#page-13-7)). However, open questions remain on what level of semantic understanding, rather than simply superficial pattern following can be learned by instruction tuning [\[20\]](#page-11-7). Some models tuned via instruction tuning exhibit good performance in tasks in the specific corpus, but fail to meaningfully improve on robust benchmarks due to a lack of data [\[15\]](#page-11-8). Other recent work [\[44\]](#page-13-8) has successfully used synthetic data with self-filtering methods to bootstrap a much larger corpus and attempt to address the data bottlenecks in instruction tuning. Approaches such as [\[55\]](#page-13-3) reinforce the value of template-based generators by leveraging them through a pre-trained language model distilled to yield more fluent and faithful responses. Our work aims to continue the exploration into effective means of generating high-quality synthetic instruction-following data, such that even a relatively small number of samples, when distilled, can yield strong instruction-tuned models, while simultaneously achieving fluency and accuracy as a robust language agent.

```
SELECTION: The following templates correspond to different problems.
Choose which one best fits sentiment
Template 0 : {text}
Did this review think positively or negatively of the movie?
{options_}
Template 1 : {text}
Would you say this review is positive or negative?
{options_}
Template 2 : {text}
Is the sentiment of this review positive or negative?
{options_}
Template 3 : Please tell me the sentiment of the following review: {text}
{options_}
Template 4 : {text}
What is the sentiment of this review?
{options_}
Template 5 : Determine the sentiment:
{text}
{options_}
Template 6 : Write a {answer} movie review.
Template 7 : {text}
How would you describe the sentiment of this review?
{options_}
Template 8 : Generate a movie review with {answer} sentiment.
Template 9 : What's an example of a movie review? {text}
 Choose the best template by returning its number.
Please respond with the number of the chosen template
```
Figure 7: Above is the prompt used for the sentiment classification task, with 7 manually curated templates for performing addition, with slight differences in how the problem is phrased.

4.2 Chain-of-Thought and Refinement Approaches

4.2.1 Chain-of-Thought Prompting

Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting was introduced in [\[47\]](#page-13-9), inducing the model to generate stepby-step rationales, which provided insights into their ability to perform more complex, multi-step reasoning tasks. [\[19\]](#page-11-9) found evidence of the effectiveness of zero-shot chain-of-thought prompting through "*Let's think step by step*"; the Optimization by Prompting (OPRO) algorithm introduced in [\[50\]](#page-13-2), when applied to prompt optimization, shows that for the PaLM-2 model, "*Take a deep breath and work on this problem step-by-step*" is the most effective prompt for the GSM8K dataset. [\[25\]](#page-11-10) uses symbolic reasoning chains as a means to induce faithful explanations, which motivates our future line of exploration into LLMs' abilities to articulate its instruction selection decisions. [\[43\]](#page-13-10) introduces a decoding strategy known as self-consistency for the chain-of-thought setting, which enables sampling of multiple reasoning paths and chooses the most consistency answer via aggregation. Another recent work [\[41\]](#page-12-7) demonstrates that chain-of-thought reasoning still largely holds even with invalid

intermediate reasoning steps, and suggests that query relevance and coherence (consistent ordering of the steps) are the key principles for successful CoT prompting.

4.2.2 Extensions on Chain-of-Thought

While CoT assumes a linear reasoning path that reaches the desired results, recent works have motivated more intricate formulations that may further improve performance on more complex tasks. [\[51\]](#page-13-11) introduces Tree-of-Thoughts (ToT), enabling broader exploration across multiple chains of reasoning, self-evaluation of the current state (thought), and graph traversal (backtracking), resulting in more robust problem-solving abilities. The Algorithm-of-Thoughts (AoT; [\[34\]](#page-12-8)) method uses in-context examples of graph search algorithms (DFS and BFS paths) on top of the ToT framework, resulting in more fluid exploration of subproblems / individual thoughts as opposed to a rooted tree.

Graph-of-Thoughts (GoT; [\[3\]](#page-10-2)) proposes a generalization of sorts on the ToT approach, no longer confining the thought structure to a tree, and introducing the notions of aggregation and refinement. Thought aggregation in GoT is task-specific, and enables parallel reasoning chains to be condensed into one (e.g. via summarization or merging); similar to our work and other in-context refinement strategies, individual thoughts can be scored and ranked using a general scoring function. In the present work, we largely explore tasks that are solvable within a single step, but this can be modified to support multi-step reasoning via CoT (or similar) framing of the generation prompt.

4.2.3 Refinement and Feedback Mechanisms

In prior literature, there are many approaches for providing feedback on model generations, and incorporating said feedback into informing subsequent decisions by the model. There are extensive precedents for using human evaluation as a feedback mechanism for human-in-the-loop systems ([\[1\]](#page-10-3), [\[7\]](#page-10-4), [\[36\]](#page-12-9), [\[13\]](#page-11-11), [\[4\]](#page-10-5), [\[45\]](#page-13-12)). Feedback mechanisms may include use of scalar reward models trained from human preference data as a proxy method $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$ $([28], [2], [1], [58], [21], [18], [12])$, which have gained traction recently with growing interest in efficient and effective methods of aligning LLMs / Foundation Models more broadly and the rising prevalence of reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF). Model generated feedback methods $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ $([33], [32], [53], [11])$ are also an area of growing interest, as they also provide insights into the capabilities of strong LLMs such as GPT-4 in serving as an effective evaluation substitute for performing human evaluation ([\[23\]](#page-11-15), [\[16\]](#page-11-16)).

The notion of refinement has been explored through multiple lenses, including supervised learners to perform refinement ([\[48\]](#page-13-14), [\[32\]](#page-12-0), [\[9\]](#page-10-8), [\[52\]](#page-13-15), [\[53\]](#page-13-0)), and natural language feedback and refinement ([\[35\]](#page-12-11), $[29]$, and feedback and refinement using the same model $([27], [51], [3])$ $([27], [51], [3])$ $([27], [51], [3])$ $([27], [51], [3])$ $([27], [51], [3])$ $([27], [51], [3])$ $([27], [51], [3])$. Given our aim to explore the decision making capabilities of LLMs of various sizes, in both zero-shot and few-shot settings, to generate high-quality synthetic data, we take inspiration from in-context mechanisms for feedback and refinement in designing the *Self-Select* algorithm, but note that a variety of other metrics (or models) could be used for feedback generation.

5 Discussion

The distribution shifts present in these data as a result of shuffling the order raises questions about the causal factors behind LLM preferences for template selection and beyond. Self-introspection and critique as in Self-Refine [\[27\]](#page-11-0) may provide avenues for understanding the degree to which these models exhibit semantic understanding, as opposed to simple pattern matching via inductive biases. This is perhaps related to the presence of multiple choice problems in either the pre-training or instruction tuning corpus, resulting in biased preferences. These findings may also shed new insights on the trustworthiness of knowledge distillation from larger instruction-tuned models to induce instruction following. We would like to further explore the notion of refinement with different models, given samples corresponding to the chosen template, and with various sufficiency criteria, as this may enable our approach to enforce further checks on template-specific sample quality.

Further work and experiments may also include an extended exploration of what can be termed as *in-context meta-prompting*; that is, providing exemplars for instruction selection, based on human preferences for an ideal template. For example, the template that GPT-4 selected, while justifying its choice as the most simple and straightforward, was not in agreement with the template that the

authors of this work would consider on that criteria. This may suggest new properties regarding LLM steerability in decision making when performing in-context learning.

Studying the decision making process involved in instruction selection through the lens of semantic understanding could perhaps focus on the attention mechanism; this has ties to cognitive neuroscience literature ([\[40\]](#page-12-12)) and computer vision applications ([\[8\]](#page-10-9), [\[10\]](#page-10-10)) as well. Prior behavioral studies suggest that humans who excel in multiple-choice test scenarios, which are inherently similar to the instruction selection problem, appear to shift their attention to more relevant examples over time, and given the impact of the change in ordering on LLMs' performance, this shift does not appear to be replicated.

6 Conclusion

In this work, we present *Self-Select*, a procedure for large language models to select their preferred instruction template, and generate high-quality synthetic data, which may be used for self-training, knowledge distillation, or in-context learning. We find that large language models, even strong instruction-tuned models, are unable to consistently reason semantically about the structure and contents of their instructions when presented with a decision to make in selecting one template over the others, especially in a permutation-invariant manner. Shuffling the order of templates led to substantial changes in the distribution of chosen templates for numerical reasoning and the primary template for each model becoming common – before shuffling, each model had a strong preference for a different template, while after shuffling, they now expressed a preference for the same instruction. The distribution also shifted substantially upon shuffling for the sentiment classification task; in both tasks, we found at least one model demonstrated a near-deterministic preference among the template options. This leads us to conclude that in order for LLMs to exhibit semantic understanding (and thus, some degree of judgement in instruction template decision making), they must be exposed to the same data in several orderings, perhaps motivating data augmentation strategies using permutations. By demonstrating the order dependence on the instruction selection outcomes, and thus, the nature of the synthetic data generated from the *Self-Select* algorithm, we hope for this work to mark a contribution to the ongoing development of large language models for decision making, regarding their suitability for critical applications requiring robustness and high trustworthiness.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Bronco AI for computational resources. We thank the anonymous reviewers for their feedback and suggestions.

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Appendix A: Specific Prompts for the *SELECT* Module

```
SELECTION: The following templates correspond to different problems.
Choose which one best fits addition. Respond with Template: <NUM>
Template 0 : Addition; Problem: \{\} + \{\} =; Answer: \{\}Template 1 : Addition;
Problem: {} + {} = {}
Template 2 : Addition; Generate a problem following this template:
\{\} + \{\} = \{\}Template 3 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerTemplate 4 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are integers
Template 5 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are numbers
Template 6 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are real numbers
Choose the best template by returning its number.
```
Figure 8: Above is the full meta-prompt for template selection with 7 options in the *SELECT* module of the *Self-Select* algorithm. Note that this is the same prompt presented in Figure 3; included here for completeness and comparison to its shuffled counterpart, Figure 9.

The templates shown here correspond to the selection process in the *SELECT* module, with the two prompts given showing the original and permuted versions of the prompt, demonstrating the preference shift evidenced in Figure 4. Observe that the set of templates are indeed the same, but have a different index between the two versions. We note that these are just two of the $7! = 5040$ possible orderings we could have prompted with, and yet they already elicit difference preferences for each model.

```
SELECTION: The following templates correspond to different problems.
Choose which one best fits addition. Respond with Template: <NUM>
Template 0 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are numbers
Template 1 : Addition; Generate a problem following this template:
\{\} + \{\} = \{\}Template 2 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerTemplate 3 : Addition;
Problem: {} + {} = {}
Template 4 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are integers
Template 5 : Addition; Problem: \{\} + \{\} =; Answer: \{\}Template 6 : Generate an addition problem using the following template:
num_1 + num_2 = answerwhere num_1, num_2, and answer are real numbers
Choose the best template by returning its number.
```
Figure 9: Above is the full meta-prompt for template selection with shuffled ordering of the templates. Note that the templates are the same as those in Figure 8, but are re-indexed accordingly.

Appendix B: Results for Sentiment Classification Template Selection

Table 3: Results on instruction template selection for the sentiment classification task, with unshuffled options, with 50 samples (49 for GPT-4, as indecisive responses were omitted).

The results presented here correspond with the charts of Figure 7, for the sentiment classification task, as discussed in Section 3.2. The above table demonstrates the selections for the initial ordering of templates as given. We find that each model displays vastly different preferences across the instruction options, with GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 being less consistent than Llama-2-70B-Chat in its selections. The table below demonstrates the results when the template order is permuted before presenting them via our model query, although for the purposes of comparison, we map the indices back to their original numberings. As with the numerical reasoning task, we find that while the models are much closer to agreement on the "best template," the top choice template for both GPT-3.5 and Llama-2-70B-Chat

changed entirely. We hypothesize that such a phenomenon could lend itself to future explorations where we formally sample responses by multiple agents across several template index permutations and template selection is done via majority voting, as we have done for this small case here. This follows somewhat in the vein of self-consistency [\[43\]](#page-13-10).

Template (Unshuffled)	$GPT-3.5$	$GPT-4$	Llama-2-70B-Chat
Template 0	0%	6%	0%
Template 1	0%	2%	0%
Template 2	0%	0%	0%
Template 3	94%	92%	42%
Template 4	0%	0%	0%
Template 5	0%	0%	0%
Template 6	6%	0%	58%
Template 7	0%	0%	0%
Template 8	0%	0%	0%
Template 9	0%	0%	0%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Table 4: Results on instruction template selection for the sentiment classification task, with shuffled options, mapped back to their original unshuffled numbering.