

MAKING TEXT EMBEDDERS FEW-SHOT LEARNERS

**Chaofan Li^{1,2*}, Minghao Qin^{2,3*}, Shitao Xiao^{2*}, Jianlyu Chen^{2,4}, Kun Luo^{2,3}, Defu Lian^{4†},
Yingxia Shao^{1†}, Zheng Liu^{2†}**

¹Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications

²Beijing Academy of Artificial Intelligence

³Chinese Academy of Sciences

⁴University of Science and Technology of China

{cfl, shaoyx}@bupt.edu.cn qinminghao24@ia.ac.cn

stxiao@baai.ac.cn chenjianlv@mail.ustc.edu.cn

liandefu@ustc.edu.cn {luokun695, zhengliu1026}@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Large language models (LLMs) with decoder-only architectures have demonstrated exceptional text-generation capabilities across a variety of tasks. Some researchers have also adapted these models for text representation tasks. However, in text representation tasks, these models often face performance degradation on unseen tasks. In-context learning (ICL), which leverages examples provided in the input context, enables LLMs to handle unseen tasks effectively. Inspired by this, we aim to fully utilize the inherent properties of LLMs to enhance text representation performance across different tasks through the ICL approach.

In this paper, we introduce a simple yet effective training strategy, which significantly improves text representation capabilities. Unlike previous models that prepend task instructions to the text, our method randomly samples a varying number of examples during training, endowing the embedding model with in-context learning abilities while maintaining its zero-shot capabilities. This approach does not require additional data construction or modifications to the model architecture. On the contrary, we find that some popular modifications to the model, such as bidirectional attention, can degrade performance, undermining the inherent characteristics of LLMs. We have publicly released our method at this repo.

1 INTRODUCTION

Text embeddings are vector representations that capture the semantic and contextual meaning of natural language text. They play a pivotal role in natural language processing (NLP) tasks, facilitating a wide range of applications such as information retrieval, text classification, item recommendation, and question answering (Karpukhin et al., 2020; Xiong et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2024b). Pre-trained bidirectional encoder and encoder-decoder architectures have been widely adopted as backbone models for embedding model, owing to their effectiveness in producing high-quality vector embeddings for text thanks to their extensive pre-training (Xiao et al., 2022; Gao et al., 2021).

The impressive performance showcased by Large Language Models (LLMs) has sparked a growing interest in exploring how these decoder-only models can be utilized as embedding models (Ma et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2023b). These LLM-based embedding models have exhibited remarkable enhancements in domain-specific accuracy and generalization capabilities, particularly when trained through supervised learning approaches (Wang et al., 2023b). A popular adaptation in training LLMs for embedding purposes is instruction-tuning (Wei et al., 2021; Ouyang et al., 2022), which involves providing varied instructions specific to different tasks. This targeted fine-tuning has proven superior to traditional methods (Wang et al., 2023b; Lee et al., 2024a; Asai et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023a). However, the information contained within the instructions is still limited.

*Co-first authors

†Corresponding authors, with Zheng Liu as the project lead

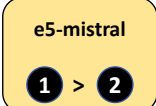
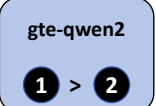
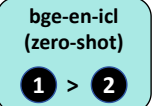
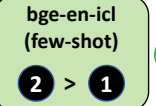
Instruction	Given a scene, retrieve the fairy tale that unfolds with this scene.			
Examples	Scene: A young girl discovers an old, dusty book in an attic. Fairy Tale: Once upon a time, a curious young girl named Eliza found an old, dusty book in her grandmother's attic. As she opened it, she was transported into a magical realm where she had to help a brave knight save a cursed kingdom. Together, they broke the curse and restored peace.			
	Scene: A frog is sitting on a lilypad under a moonlit sky. Fairy Tale: Under a moonlit sky, a cursed prince in the form of a frog sat on a lilypad. A kind maiden named Lila came by and, moved by his sorrow, kissed him. The curse was broken, and the frog transformed into a prince. They married and ruled a kingdom happily ever after.			
	Scene: A cat is chasing a mouse through a castle. Fairy Tale: In an ancient castle, a mouse named Max and a cat named Sir Whiskers stumbled upon a secret chamber with a magical crystal. Instead of continuing their chase, they called a truce to protect the crystal. Together, they used its magic to bring prosperity and harmony to the castle.			
Query	A group of rabbits are running.			
Candidates	1 On a meadow, a group of rabbits are running, with an eagle chasing them from behind. To survive, the rabbits must run as fast as they can.			
	2 Once upon a time, in a blooming meadow, a group of rabbits were happily racing each other. Their playful chase led them to a hidden, glowing burrow. Inside, they discovered an enchanted world where animals spoke and wishes came true, a secret haven of endless adventures.			
Similarity Score				

Figure 1: For a new task, conventionally tuned instruction-tuning embedding models use only task instructions and queries. They assign a higher similarity score to the incorrect candidate 1 than to the correct candidate 2, resulting in incorrect retrieval results. However, with our ICL strategy-trained embedding model, although zero-shot retrieval results may remain incorrect, providing a few examples enables the model to retrieval successfully.

When faced with an entirely new task, the model may struggle to fully understand the task based solely on the instructions. For example, as shown in Figure 1, when given a new retrieval task, both E5-mistral (Wang et al., 2023b) and GTE-qwen2 (Li et al., 2023) assign a higher similarity score to the incorrect candidate 1 than to the correct candidate 2, resulting in incorrect retrieval results.

In-context learning (ICL) is a core capability of LLMs, enabling them to incorporate task-specific examples directly into input prompts to generate desired outputs (Radford et al., 2019; Brown, 2020; Gao et al., 2020). The scope of ICL extends beyond tasks seen during training; it enables LLMs to generalize to new and complex tasks by learning patterns from the provided examples. This allows LLMs to adapt dynamically to novel tasks without additional training, making them highly applicable to real-world scenarios (Wei et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2022; Dong et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2024c).

Recognizing the robust ICL abilities of LLMs, in this work, we introduce ICL Embedder, a model capable of handling various tasks within a single framework by given the input text, task instruction and a few task-related examples. Unlike previous models, we not only provide task instructions to guide the generation of query embeddings but also incorporate task-related examples to further enhance the query embeddings. To train the ICL Embedder, we randomly select examples for each training step to ensure robust few-shot capabilities, and we use a diverse numbers of examples to train for maintaining the model’s zero-shot performance. As illustrated in Figure 1, while our model *bge-en-icl* exhibits unsatisfactory performance in the zero-shot scenario, its retrieval accuracy significantly improve when provided with few-shot examples. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first embedding model to leverage the ICL strategy for generating embeddings. Our model *bge-en-icl* achieves state-of-the-art (SOTA) results on both the MTEB (Up to August 29, 2024) (Muennighoff et al., 2022) and AIR-Bench (Chen et al., 2024) benchmarks.

Moreover, LLMs are predominantly utilized for text generation tasks, and adapting them for text representation tasks requires specific fine-tuning strategies. Recent studies have introduced various approaches, including the generation of high-quality training data through LLMs (Wang et al., 2023b), modifications to attention mechanisms, and changes in pooling methods (Ma et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024). In this paper, we also investigate how to effectively utilize LLMs as embedding models by modifying various architectures, e.g., bidirectional attention, meaning pooling. Our experimental

findings indicate that in the ICL scenario, making complex modifications to the models does not lead to significant improvements. In contrast, the best results are obtained using the original, unmodified architecture.

In summary, the key contributions of our work are as follows:

- We propose to integrate ICL capabilities into the embedding model and introduce a simple but effective training strategy, which empowers the ICL Embedder to achieve exceptional performance without requiring additional training data or modifications to the model architecture. Remarkably, our model *bge-en-icl* achieves SOTA performance on both the MTEB and AIR-Bench benchmarks. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work to successfully incorporate ICL capabilities into an embedding model.
- We rethink and explore how to effectively utilize LLMs as embedding models by evaluating various attention mechanisms and pooling methods. Our findings highlight that simplicity is best; simply combining ICL capabilities with embedding models can achieve excellent performance.
- In contrast to other leading models on the MTEB benchmark, we provide open access to our model checkpoint, dataset, and training scripts.

2 RELATED WORK

Text embedding is a critical research direction in the field of information retrieval, with wide-ranging applications including web search, question answering, and dialogue systems. (Fujiwara et al., 2023; Jiajia WANG, 2023; Yuan GAO, 2023) The fundamental principle involves encoding both queries and documents into embedding vectors within the same latent space. By calculating similarity scores between these vectors, effective retrieval is achieved. In recent years, numerous studies have leveraged pre-trained language models such as BERT (Devlin, 2018), T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), and RoBERTa (Liu, 2019) as the backbone for embedding models. They have consistently demonstrated superior performance compared to sparse retrieval methods.

The capability of the backbone is a crucial determinant in the effectiveness of retrieval systems. (Luo et al., 2024) have demonstrated that performance improves with increased scale and extensive pre-training. Currently, numerous studies have explored the effectiveness of utilizing LLMs as backbone encoders for text embedding tasks.

Repllama (Ma et al., 2023) fine-tuned Llama-2 to serve as both a dense retriever and a reranker, demonstrating the effectiveness of applying large language models (LLMs) in text embedding tasks. To further align LLMs with text embedding tasks, Llama2Vec (Li et al., 2024) introduced two pre-training tasks specifically designed to enhance the model’s performance, which led to significant improvements on the BEIR benchmark. E5-mistral and Gecko (Wang et al., 2023b; Lee et al., 2024b) advanced the training of LLM-based embedding models through the use of synthetic data (Zhou et al., 2024a), markedly boosting their performance across a diverse range of retrieval and non-retrieval tasks. NV-Embed (Lee et al., 2024a) innovatively proposed a latent attention layer to replace conventional pooling methods and implemented a two-stage training strategy to address the challenge of false negatives in non-retrieval tasks. This model has shown strong performance in both retrieval and non-retrieval domains. Additionally, GRIT (Muennighoff et al., 2024) successfully integrated text embedding and generation within a single LLM, achieving performance levels on par with specialized models focused solely on either embedding or generation. In the exploration of LLMs as embedding models from an unsupervised perspective, LLM2Vec (BehnamGhader et al., 2024) presented a novel unsupervised method to transform decoder-only LLMs into embedding models. This approach demonstrated significant potential for modifying LLM backbone encoders to perform retrieval without any supervision. Similarly, PromptReps (Zhuang et al., 2024) leveraged chat-based LLMs aligned with human preferences to generate high-quality dense representations in an unsupervised manner.

The LLM-based embedding models mentioned above exhibit commendable performance across both retrieval and non-retrieval tasks. However, much of the existing work has disproportionately focused on altering model architectures, thereby neglecting the intrinsic capabilities of LLMs. Even models like GritLM, which integrate generation and embedding functionalities, fail to fully exploit the potential ICL capabilities of LLMs within the embedding process. By leveraging the innate

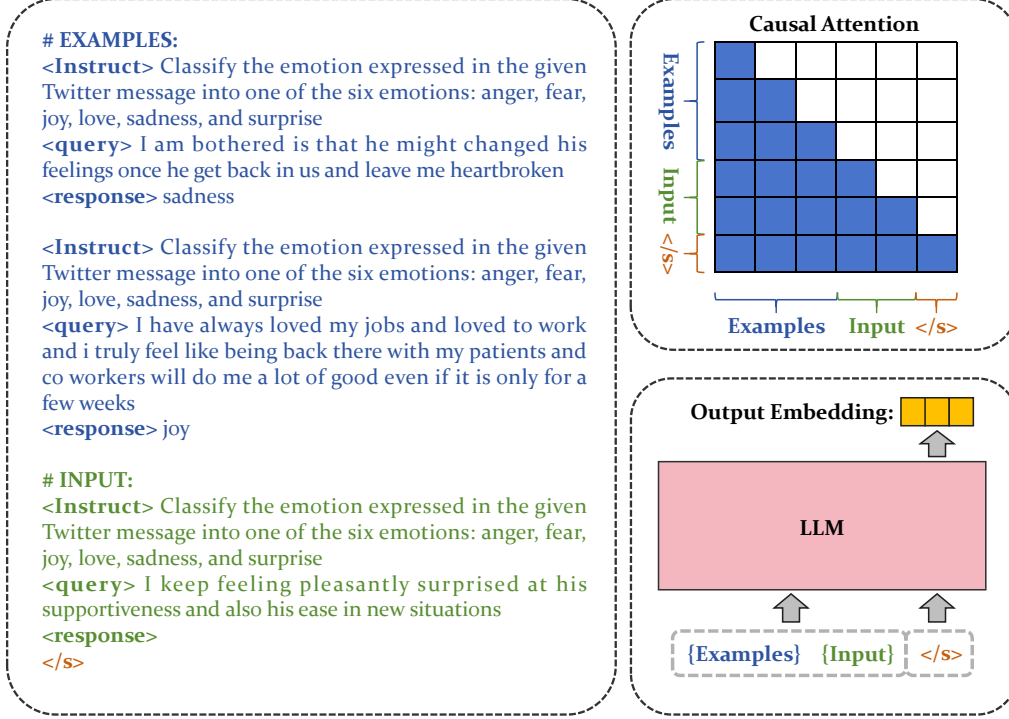


Figure 2: The query representation of the ICL Embedder.

ICL capabilities of LLMs, embedding models can be more versatile and adapt to diverse scenarios without necessitating additional fine-tuning. Our model effectively utilizes the inherent strengths of LLMs and achieves SOTA results on the MTEB and AIR-Bench benchmarks.

3 METHODOLOGY

To ensure the embedding models can be used for various tasks with ICL capabilities, without any additional training, we propose a simple yet effective strategy. We will present the ICL representation for embedding models and our training strategy in the following section.

3.1 THE ICL REPRESENTATION FOR EMBEDDING MODELS

Traditional embedding models often directly input the query to generate target embeddings. However, this approach struggles to handle tasks with different intents, limiting the model’s adaptability and generalization capabilities. To overcome this limitation, researchers have introduced appending task instructions (Su et al., 2022) to queries, enabling a single embedding model to generalize across various domains by altering the instructions.

Despite these advancements, the information provided by the instruction remains constrained. Inspired by the remarkable capability of LLMs to adapt and perform well on unseen tasks through ICL, we seek to integrate this powerful feature into our embedding model. Consequently, we propose an innovative query representation format that leverages ICL, as depicted in Figure 2.

Consider a new query q^+ , its corresponding positive passage p^+ , and a few-shot set of n query-passage pairs $\{(q_1, p_1), \dots, (q_n, p_n)\}$ in an embedding task. The traditional instruction-based query template (Wang et al., 2023b) has the following format:

$$\langle \text{Instruct} \rangle \{ \text{task_definition} \} \langle \text{query} \rangle \{ q^+ \} \quad (1)$$

Here, “*task_definition*” represents the description of the specific embedding task. However, the information provided in the instruction alone is also limited. To overcome this limitation, we propose an expanded query format that incorporates few-shot examples. First, we suggest organizing each query-passage pair (q_k, p_k) as follows:

$$\langle \text{Instruct} \rangle \{ \text{task_definition} \} \langle \text{query} \rangle \{ q_k \} \langle \text{response} \rangle \{ p_k \} \quad (2)$$

Once the few-shot examples are obtained, they can be concatenated with the query to form the following format:

$$\{\text{example 1}\} \dots \{\text{example n}\} \langle \text{Instruct} \rangle \{\text{task_definition}\} \langle \text{query} \rangle \{q^+\} \langle \text{response} \rangle \quad (3)$$

We then append an [EOS] token to the end of the modified input queries and passages, and feed them into the language model to obtain embeddings (h_{q^+}, h_{p^+}) , the final hidden state of the [EOS] token is used as the embedding, and we apply the same [EOS] token for encoding both queries and passages.

3.2 THE ICL EMBEDDER TRAINING STRATEGY

While previous works (Wang et al., 2023b; Lee et al., 2024a) have proposed the training method of instruction-tuning, which incorporates a large number of task-specific instructions during the training process, enabling the model to adapt to various downstream retrieval tasks based on different instructions, it is not applicable to the ICL strategy. As demonstrated by GRIT (Muennighoff et al., 2024), directly supplying few-shot examples when generating embeddings can actually degrade model performance.

A straightforward approach to train ICL Embedder is providing task-specific few-shot examples and instructions along with each query during training, which helps the model effectively leverage the examples to enhance the representation of the query’s embedding. However, such a training process raises several issues. On the one hand, if few-shot samples are always used during the training process, there is a risk that the model’s zero-shot capabilities could be hindered. On the other hand, if the examples used for training remain static, the model may not be able to handle new examples, resulting in a decline in performance in the few-shot scenario.

To enable the embedding model with ICL capabilities and ensure high performance in both zero-shot and few-shot scenarios, we propose a simple yet effective training strategy. Within each training batch, we utilize the same dataset. During the training process, we select different examples from the same batch at each step to ensure variability in the data exposed to the model, thereby enhancing its few-shot robustness. Simultaneously, the number of examples is randomly chosen between 0 and the maximum value, which supports the development of the model’s zero-shot capabilities.

During training, we employ the standard InfoNCE (Izacard et al., 2021) loss function \mathcal{L} :

$$\mathcal{L} = -\log \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(q^+, p^+))}{\exp(\text{sim}(q^+, p^+)) + \sum_j \exp(\text{sim}(q^+, p_j^-))} \quad (4)$$

In this equation, p_j^- denotes the set of negative passages. For retrieval tasks, this set encompasses both in-batch negatives and hard negatives, whereas for non-retrieval tasks, it is limited solely to hard negatives. The function $\text{sim}(q, p)$ is the scoring function between the query and passage. The scoring function is a temperature-scaled cosine similarity, defined as:

$$\text{sim}(q, p) = \frac{1}{\tau} \cos(h_q, h_p) \quad (5)$$

Here, τ is a temperature hyperparameter, which is fixed at 0.02 during training. The $\cos(h_q, h_p)$ term represents the cosine similarity between the query representation h_q and passage representations h_p .

4 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we examine the effectiveness of the ICL Embedder training strategy and rethink the training methodologies for LLM-based embedding models. We focus on the following questions:

- **RQ 1:** How does our ICL Embedder perform in zero-shot and few-shot scenarios?
- **RQ 2:** How does the performance of our ICL Embedder compare to other LLM-based embedding methods?
- **RQ 3:** How does our ICL training strategy affect the performance of embedding models compared to normal ICL training strategy.
- **RQ 4:** Will changes in model architecture, such as bidirectional attention and mean pooling, improve the performance of ICL Embedder?

4.1 SETUP

LLM. Following E5-Mistral (Wang et al., 2023b), SFR, and NV-Embedder (Lee et al., 2024a), we have adopted Mistral-7B (Jiang et al., 2023) as the backbone for our framework.

Training Data. To ensure a fair comparison, we use the **E5-Mistral dataset**, which is employed to fine-tune both the E5-Mistral (Wang et al., 2023b) and LLM2Vec (BehnamGhader et al., 2024). This dataset includes some in-domain retrieval datasets from MTEB, including HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018), FEVER (Thorne et al., 2018), MSMARCO passage ranking (Nguyen et al., 2016), NQ (Karpukhin et al., 2020) and Quora Duplicate Questions (DataCanary et al., 2017), as well as other publicly available retrieval datasets, including ELI5 (Fan et al., 2019), MIRACL (Zhang et al., 2023), MSMARCO document ranking (Nguyen et al., 2016), NLI (Gao et al., 2021), SQuAD (Karpukhin et al., 2020), TriviaQA (Karpukhin et al., 2020), MrTyDi (Zhang et al., 2021), DuReader (Qiu et al., 2022), and T2Ranking.

However, methods that typically perform exceptionally well, such as NV-Embedder (Lee et al., 2024a) and SFR, often require more MTEB in-domain training data. Additionally, some of these methods, such as GTE-Qwen2 (Li et al., 2023), do not disclose their sources of training data. We speculate that they might have also utilized additional MTEB in-domain data. Therefore, we have collected a new dataset, the **Augmented E5-Mistral dataset**. This dataset builds on the English retrieval dataset from the E5-Mistral dataset, incorporating extra in-domain training data from MTEB. It includes data for various tasks including Retrieval, Reranking, Clustering, Classification, and STS. Specifically, the Augmented E5-Mistral dataset contains the following categories of datasets:

- **Retrieval:** ELI5, HotpotQA, FEVER, MSMARCO passage and document ranking, NQ, NLI, SQuAD, TriviaQA, Quora Duplicate Questions, Arguana (Wachsmuth et al., 2018), and FiQA (Maia et al., 2018).
- **Reranking:** SciDocsRR (Cohan et al., 2020) and StackOverFlowDupQuestions (Liu et al., 2018).
- **Classification:** AmazonReviews-Classification (McAuley & Leskovec, 2013), Amazon-Counterfactual-Classification (O’Neill et al., 2021), Banking77-Classification (Casanueva et al., 2020), Emotion-Classification (Saravia et al., 2018), TweetSentimentExtraction-Classification (Maggie, 2020), MTOPIntent-Classification (Li et al., 2020), IMDB-Classification (Maas et al., 2011), ToxicConversations-Classification (Adams et al., 2019).
- **Clustering:** {Arxiv/Biorxiv/Medrxiv/Reddit/StackExchange}-Clustering-{S2S/P2P}, TwentyNewsgroups-Clustering (Lang, 1995).
- **STS:** STS12 (Agirre et al., 2012), STS22 (Chen et al., 2022), STS-Benchmark (Cer et al., 2017).

Training Detail. We fine-tune the Mistral-7B model using the contrastive loss and train it for a single epoch. For efficient fine-tuning, we employ Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) (Hu et al., 2021), setting the LoRA rank to 64 and the LoRA alpha to 32, with a learning rate of $1e-4$. For retrieval tasks, we use in-batch negatives. Each dataset incorporates 7 hard negatives. The batch size is set to 512 for retrieval tasks and 256 for other types of tasks. We maintain consistency by using the same dataset throughout one training step. To distill the score from reranker in retrieval tasks, we use the bge-reranker model (Liu et al., 2025) as the teacher. For in-context learning training, we implement a in-batch random examples selection training strategy. For each query, considering excessively long inputs will severely restrict the batch size, we select between 0 to 5 examples from the in-batch training data. In training, the maximum length for the query, passage, and example is set to 512. The example comprises the example query and example passage, each with a maximum length of 256. The maximum length for the concatenated query and examples is 2048.

Evaluation. We evaluate the performance of our model on MTEB (Muennighoff et al., 2022) and AIR-Bench (Chen et al., 2024). MTEB is a comprehensive benchmark designed to evaluate the performance of text embedding models. AIR-Bench is dedicated to the evaluation of retrieval performance, its testing data is automatically generated by large language models without human intervention. We evaluate the performance of our model under both zero-shot and few-shot scenarios. In the few-shot scenario, fixed in-context examples are applied to each query within the same dataset. We use the following strategy to select examples for evaluation:

Task # of datasets →	Retr. 15	Rerank. 4	Clust. 11	PairClass. 3	Class. 12	STS 10	Summ. 1	Avg. 56
w/ E5-Mistral dataset								
E5-mistral-7b-instruct	52.78	60.38	47.78	88.47	76.80	83.77	31.90	64.56
GritLM-7B	53.10	61.30	48.90	86.90	77.00	82.80	29.40	64.70
LLM2Vec-Mistral-supervised	55.99	58.42	45.54	87.99	76.63	84.09	29.96	64.80
bge-en-icl (E5-Mistral dataset) (zero-shot)	59.59	56.85	42.61	87.87	75.47	83.30	29.52	64.67
bge-en-icl (E5-Mistral dataset) (few-shot)	60.08	56.67	46.55	88.51	77.31	83.69	30.68	66.08
E5-mistral-7b-instruct	56.90	60.21	50.26	88.34	78.47	84.66	31.40	66.63
GritLM-7B	57.41	60.49	50.61	87.16	79.46	83.35	30.37	66.76
SFR-Embedding	59.00	60.64	51.67	88.54	78.33	85.05	31.16	67.56
Linq-Embed-Mistral	60.19	60.29	51.42	88.35	80.20	84.97	30.98	68.17
voyage-large-2-instruct	58.28	60.09	53.35	89.24	81.49	84.31	30.84	68.23
NV-Embed-v1	59.36	60.59	52.80	86.91	87.35	82.84	31.20	69.32
bge-multilingual-gemma2	59.24	59.72	54.65	85.84	88.08	83.88	31.20	69.88
stella.en_400M.v5	58.97	60.16	56.70	87.74	86.67	84.22	31.66	70.11
gte-Qwen2-7B-instruct	60.25	61.42	56.92	85.79	86.58	83.04	31.35	70.24
SFR-Embedding-2_R	60.18	60.14	56.17	88.07	89.05	81.26	30.71	70.31
stella.en_1.5B.v5	61.01	61.21	57.69	88.07	87.63	84.51	31.49	71.19
NV-Embed-v2 (August 30, 2024)	62.65	60.65	58.46	88.67	90.37	84.31	30.70	72.31
bge-en-icl (Augmented E5-Mistral dataset) (zero-shot)	61.67	59.66	57.51	86.93	88.62	83.74	30.75	71.24
bge-en-icl (Augmented E5-Mistral dataset) (few-shot)	62.16	59.82	57.89	88.14	88.95	84.24	30.77	71.67

Table 1: The performance on the MTEB benchmark.

Domain # of datasets →	wiki 1	web 1	news 1	healthcare 1	law 1	finance 1	arxiv 1	msmarco 1	Avg. 8
E5-mistral-7b-instruct	61.67	44.41	48.18	56.32	19.32	54.79	44.78	59.03	48.56
SFR-Embedding	63.46	51.27	52.21	58.76	23.27	56.94	47.75	58.99	51.58
NV-Embed-v1	62.84	50.42	51.46	58.53	20.65	49.89	46.10	60.27	50.02
Linq-Embed-Mistral	61.04	48.41	49.44	60.18	20.34	50.04	47.56	60.50	49.69
gte-Qwen2-7B-instruct	63.46	51.20	54.07	54.20	22.31	58.20	40.27	58.39	50.26
stella.en_1.5B.v5	61.99	50.88	53.87	58.81	23.22	57.26	44.81	61.38	51.53
NV-Embed-v2 (August 30, 2024)	65.19	52.58	53.13	59.56	25.00	53.04	48.94	60.80	52.28
bge-en-icl (Augmented E5-Mistral dataset) (zero-shot)	64.61	54.40	55.11	57.25	25.10	54.81	48.46	63.71	52.93
bge-en-icl (Augmented E5-Mistral dataset) (few-shot)	64.94	55.11	56.02	58.85	28.29	57.16	50.04	64.50	54.36
bge-en-icl (E5-Mistral dataset) (zero-shot)	64.82	54.96	55.82	57.06	28.87	54.46	49.60	63.25	53.60
bge-en-icl (E5-Mistral dataset) (few-shot)	66.98	56.38	57.17	59.54	32.03	58.81	51.36	65.05	55.92

Table 2: QA (en, nDCG@10) performance on AIR-Bench.

- **For tasks with training sets:** We reserve a small subset of the training set for testing purposes. From the remaining training data, we randomly sample examples three times. We then select the set of examples that achieves the highest accuracy on the small subset as the final in-context examples for evaluation.
- **For tasks without training sets:** We provide ChatGPT with a task description to generate 10 examples. Then, we use ChatGPT to filter these examples and select those that best represent the task.

4.2 MAIN RESULTS (FOR RQ 1 AND RQ 2)

MTEB. Table 1 presents the performance of our model, *bge-en-icl*, evaluated on the MTEB benchmark. It is important to note that the use of the Augmented E5-Mistral dataset may introduce unfair comparisons, as different models often rely on varying datasets, and many of these models do not disclose the specific datasets they use. For a fairer comparison and to better understand the impact of in-context learning, we conduct an evaluation using the E5-Mistral dataset. Under these constraints, our model’s performance in the zero-shot scenario is on par with that of other models such as GritLM (Muennighoff et al., 2024) and LLM2Vec (BehnamGhader et al., 2024). However, in the few-shot scenario, our model shows significant enhancements, particularly in the classification and clustering tasks that are not part of the training data. These improvements underscore the potential benefits of in-context learning, demonstrating its generalizability and effectiveness when applied to tasks outside the original training domain.

When leveraging the Augmented E5-Mistral dataset, our model demonstrates strong capabilities in both zero-shot and few-shot scenarios, achieving SOTA results in the few-shot scenario (Up to August 29, 2024). However, the performance in the few-shot scenario exhibits only a marginal improvement over the zero-shot scenario. Because the model is previously exposed to these specific datasets during its training phase, enables it to perform well on their corresponding test sets. As a result, employing ICL does not yield significant benefits.

Domain # of datasets →	arxiv 4	book 2	healthcare 5	law 4	Avg. 15
text-embedding-3-large	74.53	73.16	65.83	64.47	68.77
E5-mistral-7b-instruct	72.14	72.44	68.44	62.92	68.49
SFR-Embedding	72.79	72.41	67.94	64.83	69.00
NV-Embed-v1	77.65	75.49	72.38	69.55	73.45
Linq-Embed-Mistral	75.46	73.81	71.58	68.58	72.11
gte-Qwen2-7B-instruct	63.93	68.51	65.59	65.26	65.45
stella_en_1.5B.v5	73.17	74.38	70.02	69.32	71.25
bge-multilingual-gemma2	71.77	76.46	73.96	70.86	72.88
NV-Embed-v2 (August 30, 2024)	79.27	77.46	73.01	71.18	74.78
bge-en-icl (Augmented E5-Mistral dataset) (zero-shot)	78.30	78.21	73.65	67.09	73.75
bge-en-icl (Augmented E5-Mistral dataset) (few-shot)	79.63	79.36	74.80	67.79	74.83
bge-en-icl (E5-Mistral dataset) (zero-shot)	79.73	78.66	72.88	70.59	74.86
bge-en-icl (E5-Mistral dataset) (few-shot)	79.82	80.37	74.60	71.66	75.98

Table 3: Long-Doc (en, Recall@10) performance on AIR-Bench.

AIR-Bench. Our model’s performance is further evaluated on the AIR-Bench dataset, encompassing QA and Long-Doc tasks. As shown in Tables 2 and 3, our model demonstrates significant performance across both QA and Long-Doc tasks when trained on either the Augmented E5-Mistral dataset or the E5-Mistral dataset. It is noteworthy that there is no overlap between the model’s training dataset and the AIR-Bench evaluation data, and our model’s few-shot performance significantly surpasses its zero-shot performance in all cases, underscoring its robustness in handling unseen tasks.

Interestingly, the model achieves better results when trained solely on the E5-Mistral dataset compared to training on the Augmented E5-Mistral dataset. This improvement could be attributed to that the Augmented E5-Mistral dataset containing an excessive amount of MTEB-related data, such as clustering and classification tasks. Such data might introduce the risk of overfitting, thereby potentially hampering the model’s generalization performance on the AIR-Bench dataset.

4.3 IN-CONTEXT LEARNING (FOR RQ 3)

Task # of datasets →	Retr. 15	Rerank. 4	Clust. 11	PairClass. 3	Class. 12	STS 10	Summ. 1	Avg. 56
w/ E5-Mistral dataset								
w/o in-context learning (zero-shot)	59.11	57.02	42.60	87.99	76.27	83.93	30.50	64.83
w/ fix examples (zero-shot)	48.98	56.48	41.84	85.94	74.38	84.31	29.68	61.50
w/ fix examples (few-shot)	59.00	56.90	45.75	88.54	75.56	84.67	30.66	65.46
w/ random examples (zero-shot)	59.59	56.85	42.61	87.87	75.47	83.30	29.52	64.67
w/ random examples (few-shot)	60.08	56.67	46.55	88.51	77.31	83.69	30.68	66.08

Table 4: Evaluation of various ICL strategies on the MTEB Benchmark.

To evaluate the impact of the ICL strategy, we conduct a series of ablation studies using the MTEB benchmark. In these studies, we compare the performance of models fine-tuned with the ICL strategy against those fine-tuned without it. These experiments all use the same setting. Specifically, for ICL training, we employ two distinct training approaches: fixed examples and random examples. For fixed examples, each task is trained using three predetermined examples. For random examples, constitution and quantity of examples are random.

Table 4 presents various results from our experiment. When trained without the ICL strategy, the model’s zero-shot performance is 64.83. However, its performance significantly degrades and can even become unusable when provided with few-shot examples.

When fixed examples are used during ICL training, there is a significant decline in zero-shot evaluation performance compared to using random examples. This decline can be attributed to the model’s consistent exposure to the same training examples, which may have impaired its zero-shot ability. On the other hand, in the few-shot scenario, the model demonstrates improved performance when trained with fixed examples, exceeding its own zero-shot results by 3.96 points and outperforming models trained without ICL by 0.63 points. This confirms the effectiveness of the ICL strategy in enhancing model performance.

When utilizing random examples during training, the model’s zero-shot capability is preserved. Furthermore, exposing the model to random examples enhances its performance in the few-shot scenario due to the abundance of examples it encounters during the training process.

4.4 ATTENTION (FOR RQ 4)

Task # of datasets →	Retr. 15	Rerank. 4	Clust. 11	PairClass. 3	Class. 12	STS 10	Summ. 1	Avg. 56
causal attention & last token pooling								
w/o in-context learning	59.11	57.02	42.60	87.99	76.27	83.93	30.50	64.83
w/ in-context learning (zero-shot)	59.59	56.85	42.61	87.87	75.52	83.30	29.52	64.67
w/ in-context learning (few-shot)	60.08	56.67	46.55	88.51	77.31	83.69	30.68	66.08
causal attention & mean pooling								
w/o in-context learning	58.50	53.74	36.82	82.14	72.37	77.62	29.10	61.03
bidirectional attention & last token pooling								
w/o in-context learning	59.59	56.96	44.34	87.61	74.77	83.81	30.12	64.96
w/ in-context learning (zero-shot)	59.77	58.09	44.04	87.87	75.35	83.97	29.75	65.19
w/ in-context learning (few-shot)	60.23	57.81	44.45	88.64	77.00	83.77	29.99	65.74
bidirectional attention & mean pooling								
w/o in-context learning	59.13	57.03	43.44	87.25	75.03	84.08	29.17	64.73
w/ in-context learning (zero-shot)	59.53	57.48	43.88	88.12	74.86	83.64	29.58	64.90
w/ in-context learning (few-shot)	59.42	57.29	44.93	88.36	75.26	83.75	29.60	65.18

Table 5: Results of different attention and pooling mechanisms on the MTEB Benchmark.

Recent studies have explored modifying the attention mechanism in LLMs to adopt bidirectional attention and employ mean pooling for embedding generation. Notably, models such as GritLM (Muennighoff et al., 2024), NV-Embed (Lee et al., 2024a), and LLM2Vec (BehnamGhader et al., 2024) have successfully utilized these techniques, achieving considerable experimental success. Motivated by these advancements, we explore the potential benefits of implementing bidirectional attention in the ICL scenario. Specifically, we investigate the impacts of various attention and pooling mechanisms, including causal and bidirectional attention, coupled with last token pooling and mean pooling.

In a causal attention framework, each token is limited to accessing only the information from preceding tokens, without considering subsequent tokens, and employing mean pooling tends to yield bad results due to this restriction. Therefore, in this specific configuration, we present only the results from experiments without ICL.

Table 5 presents the experimental setup and results in both non-ICL and ICL scenarios. It shows that in non-ICL scenarios, most methods yield consistent performance, except for the combination of causal attention with mean pooling. In contrast, in ICL scenarios, the integration of causal attention and last token pooling emerges as the superior approach. This configuration seems aligned to the model’s pre-training, suggesting that retaining the original architecture and simplicity is advantageous. Moreover, shifting from causal attention to bidirectional attention does not lead to significant improvements, and mean pooling is not necessary for implementing bidirectional attention.

Additionally, configurations utilizing bidirectional attention paired with last token pooling are also effective in both non-ICL and zero-shot scenarios, indicating that it is a viable option in some specific scenarios.

5 CONCLUSION

This paper proposes a novel approach that enables embedding models to leverage ICL capabilities without requiring additional data or modifications to the model architecture. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work to successfully apply ICL capabilities to embedding models through a simple yet effective training strategy. Our approach empowers embedding models to become in-context learners, and experimental results demonstrate that our model achieves SOTA performance on the MTEB and AIR-Bench datasets.

Furthermore, we rethink and explore potential changes to the model structure, such as bidirectional attention. Our findings indicate that these structural modifications do not enhance the few-shot performance of the embedding models but instead lead to a decline in performance. We hope that the ICL Embedder could provide valuable insights for both researchers and practitioners working with embedding models and in-context learning.

6 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is supported by the National Science and Technology Major Project (2023ZD0121504), the National Science and Technology Major Project (2022ZD0116315), National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 62272054, 62192784, U24A20253), Beijing Nova Program (No. 20230484319), and Xiaomi Young Talents Program.

REFERENCES

- C.J. Adams, Daniel Borkan, Jeffrey Sorensen, Lucas Dixon, Lucy Vasserman, and Nithum Thain. Jigsaw unintended bias in toxicity classification, 2019. URL <https://kaggle.com/competitions/jigsaw-unintended-bias-in-toxicity-classification>.
- Eneko Agirre, Daniel Cer, Mona Diab, and Aitor Gonzalez-Agirre. Semeval-2012 task 6: A pilot on semantic textual similarity. in* sem 2012: The first joint conference on lexical and computational semantics—volume 1: Proceedings of the main conference and the shared task, and volume 2: Proceedings of the sixth international workshop on semantic evaluation (semeval 2012). *Association for Computational Linguistics*. URL <http://www.aclweb.org/anthology/S12-1051>, 2012.
- Akari Asai, Timo Schick, Patrick Lewis, Xilun Chen, Gautier Izacard, Sebastian Riedel, Hananeh Hajishirzi, and Wen-tau Yih. Task-aware retrieval with instructions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.09260*, 2022.
- Parishad BehnamGhader, Vaibhav Adlakha, Marius Mosbach, Dzmitry Bahdanau, Nicolas Chapados, and Siva Reddy. Llm2vec: Large language models are secretly powerful text encoders. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.05961*, 2024.
- Tom B Brown. Language models are few-shot learners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2005.14165*, 2020.
- Iñigo Casanueva, Tadas Temčinas, Daniela Gerz, Matthew Henderson, and Ivan Vulić. Efficient intent detection with dual sentence encoders. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2003.04807*, 2020.
- Daniel Cer, Mona Diab, Eneko Agirre, Inigo Lopez-Gazpio, and Lucia Specia. Semeval-2017 task 1: Semantic textual similarity-multilingual and cross-lingual focused evaluation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1708.00055*, 2017.
- Jianlyu Chen, Nan Wang, Chaofan Li, Bo Wang, Shitao Xiao, Han Xiao, Hao Liao, Defu Lian, and Zheng Liu. Air-bench: Automated heterogeneous information retrieval benchmark, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.13102>.
- Xi Chen, Ali Zeynali, Chico Q Camargo, Fabian Flöck, Devin Gaffney, Przemysław A Grabowicz, Scott A Hale, David Jurgens, and Mattia Samory. Semeval-2022 task 8: Multilingual news article similarity. 2022.
- Arman Cohan, Sergey Feldman, Iz Beltagy, Doug Downey, and Daniel S Weld. Specter: Document-level representation learning using citation-informed transformers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.07180*, 2020.
- DataCanary, hilfialkaff, Lili Jiang, Meg Risdal, Nikhil Dandekar, and tomtung. Quora question pairs, 2017. URL <https://kaggle.com/competitions/quora-question-pairs>.
- Jacob Devlin. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805*, 2018.
- Qingxiu Dong, Lei Li, Damai Dai, Ce Zheng, Zhiyong Wu, Baobao Chang, Xu Sun, Jingjing Xu, and Zhifang Sui. A survey on in-context learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2301.00234*, 2022.
- Angela Fan, Yacine Jernite, Ethan Perez, David Grangier, Jason Weston, and Michael Auli. Eli5: Long form question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.09190*, 2019.
- Yasuhiro Fujiwara, Yasutoshi Ida, Atsutoshi Kumagai, Masahiro Nakano, Akisato Kimura, and Naonori Ueda. Efficient network representation learning via cluster similarity. *Data Science and Engineering*, 8(3):279–291, 2023.

- Tianyu Gao, Adam Fisch, and Danqi Chen. Making pre-trained language models better few-shot learners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2012.15723*, 2020.
- Tianyu Gao, Xingcheng Yao, and Danqi Chen. Simcse: Simple contrastive learning of sentence embeddings. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.08821*, 2021.
- Edward J Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang, and Weizhu Chen. Lora: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2106.09685*, 2021.
- Gautier Izacard, Mathilde Caron, Lucas Hosseini, Sebastian Riedel, Piotr Bojanowski, Armand Joulin, and Edouard Grave. Unsupervised dense information retrieval with contrastive learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2112.09118*, 2021.
- Xinhui TU Tingting HE Jiajia WANG, Weizhong ZHAO. A novel dense retrieval framework for long document retrieval. *Frontiers of Computer Science*, 17(4):174609, 2023. doi: 10.1007/s11704-022-2041-5. URL https://journal.hep.com.cn/fcs/EN/abstract/article_33033.shtml.
- Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Arthur Mensch, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de las Casas, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Lample, Lucile Saulnier, et al. Mistral 7b. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06825*, 2023.
- Vladimir Karpukhin, Barlas Öguz, Sewon Min, Patrick Lewis, Ledell Wu, Sergey Edunov, Danqi Chen, and Wen-tau Yih. Dense passage retrieval for open-domain question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.04906*, 2020.
- Ken Lang. Newsweeder: Learning to filter netnews. In *Machine learning proceedings 1995*, pp. 331–339. Elsevier, 1995.
- Chankyu Lee, Rajarshi Roy, Mengyao Xu, Jonathan Raiman, Mohammad Shoeybi, Bryan Catanzaro, and Wei Ping. Nv-embed: Improved techniques for training llms as generalist embedding models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.17428*, 2024a.
- Jinhyuk Lee, Zhuyun Dai, Xiaoqi Ren, Blair Chen, Daniel Cer, Jeremy R Cole, Kai Hui, Michael Boratko, Rajvi Kapadia, Wen Ding, et al. Gecko: Versatile text embeddings distilled from large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.20327*, 2024b.
- Chaofan Li, Zheng Liu, Shitao Xiao, Yingxia Shao, and Defu Lian. Llama2vec: Unsupervised adaptation of large language models for dense retrieval. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 3490–3500, 2024.
- Haoran Li, Abhinav Arora, Shuohui Chen, Anchit Gupta, Sonal Gupta, and Yashar Mehdad. Mtop: A comprehensive multilingual task-oriented semantic parsing benchmark. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2008.09335*, 2020.
- Zehan Li, Xin Zhang, Yanzhao Zhang, Dingkun Long, Pengjun Xie, and Meishan Zhang. Towards general text embeddings with multi-stage contrastive learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.03281*, 2023.
- Xueqing Liu, Chi Wang, Yue Leng, and ChengXiang Zhai. Linkso: a dataset for learning to retrieve similar question answer pairs on software development forums. In *Proceedings of the 4th ACM SIGSOFT International Workshop on NLP for Software Engineering*, pp. 2–5, 2018.
- Yinhan Liu. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.11692*, 2019.
- Zheng Liu, Chaofan Li, Shitao Xiao, Chaozhuo Li, Defu Lian, and Yingxia Shao. Matryoshka re-ranker: A flexible re-ranking architecture with configurable depth and width, 2025. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2501.16302>.

- Wenhao Lu, Jian Jiao, and Ruofei Zhang. Twinbert: Distilling knowledge to twin-structured compressed bert models for large-scale retrieval. In *Proceedings of the 29th ACM International Conference on Information & Knowledge Management*, pp. 2645–2652, 2020.
- Kun Luo, Minghao Qin, Zheng Liu, Shitao Xiao, Jun Zhao, and Kang Liu. Large language models as foundations for next-gen dense retrieval: A comprehensive empirical assessment. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.12194*, 2024.
- Xueguang Ma, Liang Wang, Nan Yang, Furu Wei, and Jimmy Lin. Fine-tuning llama for multi-stage text retrieval. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.08319*, 2023.
- Andrew Maas, Raymond E Daly, Peter T Pham, Dan Huang, Andrew Y Ng, and Christopher Potts. Learning word vectors for sentiment analysis. In *Proceedings of the 49th annual meeting of the association for computational linguistics: Human language technologies*, pp. 142–150, 2011.
- Wei Chen Maggie, Phil Culliton. Tweet sentiment extraction, 2020. URL <https://kaggle.com/competitions/tweet-sentiment-extraction>.
- Macedo Maia, Siegfried Handschuh, André Freitas, Brian Davis, Ross McDermott, Manel Zarrouk, and Alexandra Balahur. Wwv’18 open challenge: financial opinion mining and question answering. In *Companion proceedings of the the web conference 2018*, pp. 1941–1942, 2018.
- Julian McAuley and Jure Leskovec. Hidden factors and hidden topics: understanding rating dimensions with review text. In *Proceedings of the 7th ACM conference on Recommender systems*, pp. 165–172, 2013.
- Niklas Muennighoff, Nouamane Tazi, Loïc Magne, and Nils Reimers. Mteb: Massive text embedding benchmark. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.07316*, 2022.
- Niklas Muennighoff, Hongjin Su, Liang Wang, Nan Yang, Furu Wei, Tao Yu, Amanpreet Singh, and Douwe Kiela. Generative representational instruction tuning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.09906*, 2024.
- Tri Nguyen, Mir Rosenberg, Xia Song, Jianfeng Gao, Saurabh Tiwary, Rangan Majumder, and Li Deng. Ms marco: A human-generated machine reading comprehension dataset. 2016.
- James O’Neill, Polina Rozenshtein, Ryuichi Kiryo, Motoko Kubota, and Danushka Bollegala. I wish i would have loved this one, but i didn’t—a multilingual dataset for counterfactual detection in product reviews. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.06893*, 2021.
- Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, et al. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35: 27730–27744, 2022.
- Yifu Qiu, Hongyu Li, Yingqi Qu, Ying Chen, Qiaoqiao She, Jing Liu, Hua Wu, and Haifeng Wang. Dureader_retrieval: A large-scale chinese benchmark for passage retrieval from web search engine. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.10232*, 2022.
- Alec Radford, Jeffrey Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, Ilya Sutskever, et al. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners. *OpenAI blog*, 1(8):9, 2019.
- Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J Liu. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer. *Journal of machine learning research*, 21(140):1–67, 2020.
- Elvis Saravia, Hsien-Chi Toby Liu, Yen-Hao Huang, Junlin Wu, and Yi-Shin Chen. Carer: Contextualized affect representations for emotion recognition. In *Proceedings of the 2018 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*, pp. 3687–3697, 2018.
- Hongjin Su, Weijia Shi, Jungo Kasai, Yizhong Wang, Yushi Hu, Mari Ostendorf, Wen-tau Yih, Noah A Smith, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Tao Yu. One embedder, any task: Instruction-finetuned text embeddings. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.09741*, 2022.

- James Thorne, Andreas Vlachos, Christos Christodoulopoulos, and Arpit Mittal. Fever: a large-scale dataset for fact extraction and verification. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.05355*, 2018.
- Henning Wachsmuth, Shahbaz Syed, and Benno Stein. Retrieval of the best counterargument without prior topic knowledge. In *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 241–251, 2018.
- Boxin Wang, Wei Ping, Lawrence McAfee, Peng Xu, Bo Li, Mohammad Shoeybi, and Bryan Catanzaro. Instructretro: Instruction tuning post retrieval-augmented pretraining. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.07713*, 2023a.
- Liang Wang, Nan Yang, Xiaolong Huang, Linjun Yang, Rangan Majumder, and Furu Wei. Improving text embeddings with large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.00368*, 2023b.
- Jason Wei, Maarten Bosma, Vincent Y Zhao, Kelvin Guu, Adams Wei Yu, Brian Lester, Nan Du, Andrew M Dai, and Quoc V Le. Finetuned language models are zero-shot learners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.01652*, 2021.
- 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. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:24824–24837, 2022.
- Shitao Xiao, Zheng Liu, Yingxia Shao, and Zhao Cao. Retromae: Pre-training retrieval-oriented language models via masked auto-encoder. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.12035*, 2022.
- Lee Xiong, Chenyan Xiong, Ye Li, Kwok-Fung Tang, Jialin Liu, Paul Bennett, Junaid Ahmed, and Arnold Overwijk. Approximate nearest neighbor negative contrastive learning for dense text retrieval. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2007.00808*, 2020.
- Zhilin Yang, Peng Qi, Saizheng Zhang, Yoshua Bengio, William W Cohen, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, and Christopher D Manning. Hotpotqa: A dataset for diverse, explainable multi-hop question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.09600*, 2018.
- Shunyu Yao, Jeffrey Zhao, Dian Yu, Nan Du, Izhak Shafran, Karthik Narasimhan, and Yuan Cao. React: Synergizing reasoning and acting in language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.03629*, 2022.
- Xiangnan HE Huamin FENG Yongdong ZHANG Yuan GAO, Xiang WANG. Rumor detection with self-supervised learning on texts and social graph. *Frontiers of Computer Science*, 17(4): 174611, 2023. doi: 10.1007/s11704-022-1531-9. URL https://journal.hep.com.cn/fcs/EN/abstract/article_32720.shtml.
- Xinyu Zhang, Xueguang Ma, Peng Shi, and Jimmy Lin. Mr. tydi: A multi-lingual benchmark for dense retrieval. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2108.08787*, 2021.
- Xinyu Zhang, Nandan Thakur, Odunayo Ogundepo, Ehsan Kamalloo, David Alfonso-Hermelo, Xiaoguang Li, Qun Liu, Mehdi Rezagholizadeh, and Jimmy Lin. Miracl: A multilingual retrieval dataset covering 18 diverse languages. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 11:1114–1131, 2023.
- Junjie Zhou, Zheng Liu, Ze Liu, Shitao Xiao, Yuezhe Wang, Bo Zhao, Chen Jason Zhang, Defu Lian, and Yongping Xiong. Megapairs: Massive data synthesis for universal multimodal retrieval, 2024a. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.14475>.
- Junjie Zhou, Zheng Liu, Shitao Xiao, Bo Zhao, and Yongping Xiong. Vista: Visualized text embedding for universal multi-modal retrieval. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.04292*, 2024b.
- Xuanhe Zhou, Zhaoyan Sun, and Guoliang Li. Db-gpt: Large language model meets database. *Data Science and Engineering*, 9(1):102–111, 2024c.
- Shengyao Zhuang, Xueguang Ma, Bevan Koopman, Jimmy Lin, and Guido Zuccon. Promptreps: Prompting large language models to generate dense and sparse representations for zero-shot document retrieval. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.18424*, 2024.

A INSTRUCTION

Task Name	Instruction Template
ArguAna	Given a claim, find documents that refute the claim.
ClimateFEVER	Given a claim about climate change, retrieve documents that support or refute the claim.
CQADupStack	Given a question, retrieve detailed question descriptions from Stackexchange that are duplicates to the given question.
DBPedia	Given a query, retrieve relevant entity descriptions from DBPedia.
FEVER	Given a claim, retrieve documents that support or refute the claim.
FiQA2018	Given a financial question, retrieve user replies that best answer the question.
HotpotQA	Given a multi-hop question, retrieve documents that can help answer the question.
MSMARCO	Given a web search query, retrieve relevant passages that answer the query.
NFCorpus	Given a question, retrieve relevant documents that best answer the question.
Natural Question	Given a question, retrieve Wikipedia passages that answer the question.
QuoraRetrieval	Given a question, retrieve questions that are semantically equivalent to the given question.
SCIDOCS	Given a scientific paper title, retrieve paper abstracts that are cited by the given paper.
SciFact	Given a scientific claim, retrieve documents that support or refute the claim.
Touche2020	Given a question, retrieve detailed and persuasive arguments that answer the question.
TREC-COVID	Given a query, retrieve documents that answer the query.
STS*	Retrieve semantically similar text.
SummEval	Given a news summary, retrieve other semantically similar summaries.
AmazonCounterfactualClassification	Classify a given Amazon customer review text as either counterfactual or not-counterfactual.
AmazonPolarityClassification	Classify Amazon reviews into positive or negative sentiment.
AmazonReviewsClassification	Classify the given Amazon review into its appropriate rating category.
Banking77Classification	Given an online banking query, find the corresponding intents.
EmotionClassification	Classify the emotion expressed in the given Twitter message into one of the six emotions: anger, fear, joy, love, sadness, and surprise.
ImdbClassification	Classify the sentiment expressed in the given movie review text from the IMDB dataset.
MassiveIntentClassification	Given a user utterance as query, find the user intents.
MassiveScenarioClassification	Given a user utterance as query, find the user scenarios.
MTOPDomainClassification	Classify the intent domain of the given utterance in task-oriented conversation.
MTOPIntentClassification	Classify the intent of the given utterance in task-oriented conversation.
ToxicConversationsClassification	Classify the given comments as either toxic or not toxic.
TweetSentimentExtractionClassification	Classify the sentiment of a given tweet as either positive, negative, or neutral.
ArxivClusteringP2P	Identify the main and secondary category of Arxiv papers based on the titles and abstracts.
ArxivClusteringS2S	Identify the main and secondary category of Arxiv papers based on the titles.
BiorxivClusteringP2P	Identify the main category of Biorxiv papers based on the titles and abstracts.
BiorxivClusteringS2S	Identify the main category of Biorxiv papers based on the titles.
MedrxivClusteringP2P	Identify the main category of Medrxiv papers based on the titles and abstracts.
MedrxivClusteringS2S	Identify the main category of Medrxiv papers based on the titles.
RedditClustering	Identify the topic or theme of Reddit posts based on the titles.
RedditClusteringP2P	Identify the topic or theme of Reddit posts based on the titles and posts.
StackExchangeClustering	Identify the topic or theme of StackExchange posts based on the titles.
StackExchangeClusteringP2P	Identify the topic or theme of StackExchange posts based on the given paragraphs.
TwentyNewsgroupsClustering	Identify the topic or theme of the given news articles.
AskUbuntuDupQuestions	Retrieve duplicate questions from AskUbuntu forum.
MindSmallReranking	Retrieve relevant news articles based on user browsing history.
SciDocsRR	Given a title of a scientific paper, retrieve the titles of other relevant papers.
StackOverflowDupQuestions	Retrieve duplicate questions from StackOverflow forum.
SprintDuplicateQuestions	Retrieve duplicate questions from Sprint forum.
TwitterSemEval2015	Retrieve tweets that are semantically similar to the given tweet.
TwitterURLCorpus	Retrieve tweets that are semantically similar to the given tweet.
AIR-Bench	Given a question, retrieve passages that answer the question.

Table 6: The instruction we used on the MTEB and AIR-Bench benchmarks.

B DETAILED MTEB RESULTS

Dataset	NV-Em bed-v1	bge-multilin gual-gemma2	gte-Qwen2- 7B-instruct	SFR-Embe dding-2_R	stella_en_ 1.5B_v5	bge-en-icl (zero-shot)	bge-en-icl (few-shot)
ArguAna	68.21	77.37	64.27	62.34	65.27	82.76	83.08
ClimateFEVER	34.72	39.37	45.88	34.43	46.11	45.35	45.43
CQADupStack	50.51	47.94	46.43	46.11	47.75	47.23	47.31
DBPEDIA	48.29	51.37	52.42	51.21	52.28	50.42	51.63
FEVER	87.77	90.38	95.11	92.16	94.83	91.96	92.83
FiQA2018	63.10	60.04	62.03	61.77	60.48	58.77	59.67
HotpotQA	79.92	83.26	73.08	81.36	76.67	84.98	85.14
MSMARCO	46.49	45.71	45.98	42.18	45.22	46.72	46.79
NFCorpus	38.04	38.11	40.60	41.34	42.00	40.69	41.85
Natural Question	71.22	71.45	67.00	73.96	71.80	73.85	73.88
QuoraRetrieval	89.21	90.04	90.09	89.58	90.03	91.02	90.95
SCIDOCS	20.19	26.93	28.91	24.87	26.64	25.25	25.26
SciFact	78.43	72.05	79.06	85.91	80.09	78.33	79.09
Touche2020	28.38	30.26	30.57	28.18	29.94	29.67	30.48
TREC-COVID	85.88	64.27	82.26	87.28	85.98	78.11	79.08
BIOSSES	85.59	85.74	81.37	87.60	83.11	86.35	86.47
SICK-R	82.80	82.66	79.28	77.01	82.89	83.87	83.87
STS12	76.22	77.71	79.55	75.67	80.09	77.73	78.14
STS13	86.30	87.45	88.83	82.40	89.68	85.98	86.59
STS14	82.09	83.48	83.87	79.93	85.07	82.34	82.83
STS15	87.24	87.63	88.54	85.82	89.39	87.35	87.77
STS16	84.77	86.70	86.49	84.50	87.15	86.54	87.04
STS17	87.42	91.18	88.73	88.93	91.35	91.25	91.25
STS22	69.85	69.02	66.88	67.10	68.10	68.08	70.07
STSBenchmark	86.14	87.25	86.85	83.60	88.23	87.92	88.42
SummEval	31.20	31.20	31.35	30.71	31.49	30.75	30.77
SprintDuplicateQuestions	95.94	90.94	92.82	97.62	96.04	95.06	97.23
TwitterSemEval2015	78.73	79.64	77.96	78.57	80.58	78.54	79.34
TwitterURLCorpus	86.05	86.95	86.59	88.03	87.58	87.19	87.84
AmazonCounterfactual	95.12	89.48	91.31	92.72	92.87	92.88	93.15
AmazonPolarity	97.14	96.90	97.50	97.31	97.16	96.86	96.98
AmazonReviews	55.47	61.60	62.56	61.04	59.36	61.28	61.46
Banking77	90.34	92.53	87.57	90.02	89.79	91.42	91.49
Emotion	91.71	92.97	79.45	93.37	84.29	93.31	93.36
Imdb	97.06	96.66	96.75	96.80	96.66	96.91	96.91
MassiveIntent	80.07	82.05	85.41	85.97	85.83	82.26	82.93
MassiveScenario	81.74	84.40	89.77	90.61	90.20	83.92	85.60
MTOPDomain	96.51	98.61	99.04	98.58	99.01	97.99	98.42
MTOPIntent	89.77	95.51	91.88	91.30	92.78	93.56	94.00
ToxicConversations	92.60	87.34	85.12	91.14	88.76	93.16	93.17
TweetSentimentExtraction	80.60	78.86	72.58	79.70	74.84	79.90	79.93
Arxiv-P2P	53.76	54.91	54.46	54.02	55.44	54.42	54.44
Arxiv-S2S	49.59	50.28	51.74	48.82	50.66	49.17	49.33
Biorxiv-P2P	48.15	52.64	50.09	50.76	50.68	52.32	53.05
Biorxiv-S2S	44.74	49.20	46.65	46.57	46.87	48.38	48.38
Medrxiv-P2P	39.24	45.81	46.23	46.66	46.87	46.13	45.86
Medrxiv-S2S	36.98	44.11	44.13	44.18	44.65	44.20	44.33
Reddit	63.20	56.03	73.55	62.92	72.86	71.20	72.33
Reddit-P2P	68.01	65.83	74.13	72.74	75.27	72.17	72.72
StackExchange	74.99	66.21	79.86	76.48	80.29	81.29	81.32
StackExchange-P2P	42.04	45.74	49.41	48.29	49.57	45.53	46.05
TwentyNewsgroups	60.13	70.44	53.91	66.42	61.43	68.51	68.98
AskUbuntuDupQuestions	67.50	64.59	67.58	66.71	67.33	64.80	65.15
MindSmallRerank	30.82	31.79	33.36	31.26	33.05	30.60	30.60
SciDocsRR	87.26	87.60	89.09	87.29	89.20	86.90	86.96
StackOverflowDupQuestions	56.58	54.90	55.66	55.32	55.25	56.32	56.71
MTEB Average (56)	69.32	69.88	70.24	70.31	71.19	71.24	71.67

Table 7: MTEB results with Augmented E5-Mistral dataset

Dataset	bge-en-icl (zero-shot)	bge-en-icl (few-shot)
ArguAna	55.81	55.41
ClimateFEVER	45.17	45.14
CQADupStack	46.03	46.46
DBPEDIA	50.79	51.14
FEVER	91.96	92.42
FiQA2018	58.49	58.15
HotpotQA	84.34	84.68
MSMARCO	46.52	46.56
NFCorpus	40.16	40.96
Natural Question	73.56	74.01
QuoraRetrieval	90.79	90.89
SCIDOCS	20.56	20.87
SciFact	78.10	79.65
Touche2020	33.64	34.93
TREC-COVID	77.89	79.95
BIOSSES	86.80	87.49
SICK-R	83.83	83.69
STS12	77.80	78.39
STS13	84.90	85.62
STS14	82.53	82.62
STS15	88.33	88.52
STS16	86.14	86.44
STS17	91.65	91.79
STS22	63.79	64.83
STSBenchmark	87.27	87.52
SummEval	29.52	30.68
SprintDuplicateQuestions	94.79	96.09
TwitterSemEval2015	81.53	82.04
TwitterURLCorpus	87.30	87.39
AmazonCounterfactual	82.40	83.36
AmazonPolarity	88.57	92.69
AmazonReviews	47.25	49.85
Banking77	87.57	88.70
Emotion	53.74	54.24
Imdb	81.14	84.96
MassiveIntent	77.87	79.24
MassiveScenario	79.77	82.00
MTOPDomain	95.68	96.61
MTOPIntent	85.22	88.19
ToxicConversations	63.58	64.68
TweetSentimentExtraction	63.47	63.16
Arxiv-P2P	47.22	48.97
Arxiv-S2S	42.87	45.35
Biorxiv-P2P	33.17	38.37
Biorxiv-S2S	35.00	37.05
Medrxiv-P2P	28.74	30.24
Medrxiv-S2S	28.10	31.45
Reddit	53.83	59.14
Reddit-P2P	64.40	65.51
StackExchange	57.50	68.61
StackExchange-P2P	34.21	36.01
TwentyNewsgroups	43.65	51.40
AskUbuntuDupQuestions	63.71	62.96
MindSmallRerank	27.90	27.90
SciDocsRR	84.31	84.24
StackOverflowDupQuestions	51.48	51.56
MTEB Average (56)	64.67	66.08

Table 8: MTEB results with E5-Mistral dataset

C THE NUMBER OF EXAMPLES

Task # of datasets →	Retr. 15	Rerank. 4	Clust. 11	PairClass. 3	Class. 12	STS 10	Summ. 1	Avg. 56
w/ E5-Mistral dataset								
0-shot examples	59.59	56.85	42.61	87.87	75.52	83.30	29.52	64.67
1-shot examples	59.72	57.43	44.86	88.24	76.91	83.49	30.54	65.57
2-shot examples	59.95	56.90	45.79	88.33	77.25	83.68	30.68	65.90
3-shot examples	60.10	56.94	46.31	88.51	77.59	83.66	30.71	66.12
4-shot examples	60.11	57.18	46.64	88.52	77.54	83.68	30.96	66.18
5-shot examples	60.10	57.15	46.64	88.54	77.45	83.70	30.83	66.18

Table 9: Results with different number of examples on the MTEB Benchmark.

Previous efforts to apply in-context learning techniques developed for generative models have shown that the number of in-context examples significantly influences their performance. To investigate whether this phenomenon similarly affects embedding models, we conduct a series of experiments varying the number of in-context examples. The results are presented in Table 9. It can be observed that the empirical performance of different tasks shows consistent improvement as the number of examples increases within certain ranges. However, beyond these ranges, the performance stabilizes, with additional examples yielding no further gains. This empirical evidence suggests that five examples are sufficient for most tasks.

D THE ORDER OF EXAMPLES

Task # of datasets →	Retr. 15	Rerank. 4	Clust. 11	PairClass. 3	Class. 12	STS 10	Summ. 1	Avg. 56
w/ E5-Mistral dataset								
3-shot examples (shuffle-1)	60.10	56.94	46.31	88.51	77.59	83.66	30.71	66.12
3-shot examples (shuffle-2)	60.16	56.99	46.23	88.46	77.65	83.67	30.58	66.13
3-shot examples (shuffle-3)	60.14	56.96	46.18	88.52	77.59	83.60	30.80	66.10
3-shot examples (shuffle-4)	60.13	57.07	46.29	88.54	77.65	83.61	30.64	66.14

Table 10: Results with different orders of examples on the MTEB Benchmark.

When using in-context learning with generative models, the order in which examples are presented to the model can significantly influence its output. To examine whether the order of examples affects the performance of embedding models, we conduct an experiment involving three examples. We randomly shuffle the order of these examples four times to analyze the potential impact of their ordering on the model’s performance, and the results are shown in Table 10. Across the four random shuffles, the overall performance of the model remains relatively stable. This suggests that different orders of the same examples do not significantly impact the final results. The model demonstrates reliable robustness when faced with varying orders of the same examples.

E THE SELECTION OF EXAMPLES

In the context of in-context learning for text generation, identical inputs can yield different outputs depending on the examples provided. To determine if selecting examples randomly offers substantial improvements over a zero-shot approach, we compare our default example selection strategy with a random selection approach. In the random selection approach, we perform the selection process three times, labeled as "random selection strategy -1, -2, -3". The results are shown in Table 11. It indicates that both the default and random selection strategies significantly outperform the zero-shot baseline. Therefore, employing a random selection strategy is also a viable method for selecting examples to enhance model performance.

Task # of datasets →	Retr. 15	Rerank. 4	Clust. 11	PairClass. 3	Class. 12	STS 10	Summ. 1	Avg. 56
w/ E5-Mistral dataset								
zero-shot	59.59	56.85	42.61	87.87	75.52	83.30	29.52	64.67
the default selection strategy	60.08	56.67	46.55	88.51	77.39	83.69	30.68	66.08
random selection strategy - 1	60.06	57.40	46.74	88.51	77.28	83.29	30.68	66.09
random selection strategy - 2	60.06	57.53	46.75	88.51	76.94	83.59	30.68	66.08
random selection strategy - 3	60.04	57.44	46.68	88.51	77.36	83.50	30.68	66.13

Table 11: Results with different example selection strategies on the MTEB Benchmark.

Task # of datasets →	Retr. 15	Rerank. 4	Clust. 11	PairClass. 3	Class. 12	STS 10	Summ. 1	Avg. 56
w/ E5-Mistral dataset								
rank 8 (zero-shot)	58.78	57.14	42.94	87.03	75.51	82.87	29.62	64.43
rank 8 (few-shot)	59.36	57.26	45.85	88.36	76.90	83.21	29.82	65.60
rank 16 (zero-shot)	59.55	57.32	42.95	87.58	74.99	83.16	29.77	64.62
rank 16 (few-shot)	59.91	57.03	46.78	88.74	76.64	83.71	30.58	65.98
rank 32 (zero-shot)	59.59	56.85	42.61	87.87	75.52	83.30	29.52	64.67
rank 32 (few-shot)	60.08	56.67	46.55	88.51	77.31	83.69	30.68	66.08
rank 64 (zero-shot)	59.21	57.02	43.36	87.34	75.21	83.64	30.40	64.72
rank 64 (few-shot)	59.83	56.83	46.78	88.54	77.51	84.08	30.39	66.18
rank 128 (zero-shot)	59.35	57.24	42.69	87.68	75.59	83.44	29.67	64.70
rank 128 (few-shot)	59.85	57.23	46.38	88.64	77.60	83.93	30.09	66.12

Table 12: Results with different lora rank on the MTEB Benchmark.

F THE RESULTS OF LORA RANK

We also explore the hyperparameters used for training the model. Specifically, in addition to the LoRA rank of 32 employed in our experiments, we investigate the performance of the model with LoRA ranks of 8, 16, 64, and 128. The experimental results are presented in Table 12. It can be observed that as the LoRA rank increases, the overall performance of the model gradually improves until it stabilizes. However, higher LoRA ranks require more computational resources. Therefore, using a default rank of 32 in our experiments strikes a balance between performance and computational efficiency.