Task Facet Learning: A Structured Approach To Prompt Optimization

Gurusha Juneja^{1,*}, Gautam Jajoo^{2,*}, Nagarajan Natarajan³, Hua Li⁴, Jian Jiao⁴, Amit Sharma^{3,†}

¹UC Santa Barbara, ²BITS Pilani, ³Microsoft Research, ⁴Microsoft Bing Ads

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

[†]Corresponding author: amshar@microsoft.com

Abstract

Given a task in the form of a basic description and its training examples, prompt optimization is the problem of synthesizing the given information into a text prompt for a large language model. Humans solve this problem by also considering the different facets that define a task (e.g., counter-examples, explanations, analogies) and including them in the prompt. However, it is unclear whether existing algorithmic approaches, based on iteratively editing a given prompt or automatically selecting a few in-context examples, can cover the multiple facets required to solve a complex task. In this work, we view prompt optimization as that of learning multiple facets of a task from a set of training examples. We exploit structure in the prompt optimization problem and break down a prompt into loosely coupled semantic sections. The proposed algorithm, UNIPROMPT, (1) clusters the input space and uses clustered batches so that each batch likely corresponds to a different facet of the task, and (2) utilizes a feedback mechanism to propose adding, editing or deleting a section, which in turn is aggregated over a batch to capture generalizable facets. Empirical evaluation on multiple datasets and a real-world task shows that prompts generated using UNIPROMPT obtain higher accuracy than human-tuned prompts and those from state-of-the-art methods. In particular, our algorithm can generate long, complex prompts that existing methods are unable to generate. Code for UNIPROMPT is available at https://aka.ms/uniprompt.

1 Introduction

Given a task, choosing an input prompt is a key part of optimizing Large Language Model's (LLM) performance (Kojima et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2023). Minor changes in prompt can lead to performance gains or losses, necessitating prompt engineering (Liu et al., 2023). Typically, manually-developed prompts combine task description with a

few in-context examples, along with modifiers like chain-of-thought (Kojima et al., 2024). For greater accuracy, human prompt engineers spend considerable time to identify errors with a current prompt, consider the different facets of a task (e.g., counter-examples, explanations, analogies) that may fix those errors, and include them in the prompt. For instance, for a hate speech classification task, in addition to the definition, it may be helpful to specify the facets that lead to hate speech: the context of conversation, identifying intent, and differentiating hate speech from opinions or closely-related concepts such as vulgarity and profanity.

To avoid the above cumbersome manual process, recent work aims to automate the process of generating natural language prompts that are also interpretable. Since language tokens are discrete, this leads to a challenging discrete optimization problem with a combinatorial space of possible outputs. Techniques for prompt optimization can be divided in two categories: non-directional, e.g., random search (Zhou et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023) and genetic algorithms (Yang et al., 2023; Guo et al., 2023), where the sampling of new input is "random" and does not explicitly aim to reduce error on a train set; and directional, where the sampling of new input depends on some error measure on a representative train sample. Recently, more complex methods have been proposed in the second category including RL (Zhang et al., 2022; Deng et al., 2022), updating prompts using feedback from auxiliary LLMs (Hu et al., 2024; Pryzant et al., 2023), and optimizing the input to a small LM that generates the prompt (Lin et al., 2024b; Chen et al., 2024). While these techniques focus on editing parts of a given prompt, they are developed with the goal of obtaining a concise description of the task. None of these focus on ensuring multiple facets of a task are added to the prompt.

In this paper, we propose UNIPROMPT, a prompt optimization method to cover diverse, multiple

facets of a task and improve overall accuracy. To simulate the manual prompt engineering process, we propose that prompts be constructed from individual sections, where each section may correspond to a different facet that humans may consider for the task. Prompt editing proceeds at a sectionlevel: we can add, edit or delete a section from the prompt. Similar to (Pryzant et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2024), prompt edits are based on an auxiliary LLM's feedback about example predictions with the current prompt. We contribute two key insights in this feedback-based optimization process. First, we find that the feedback on a single example or a randomly selected batch of examples does not yield generalizable facet descriptions. Instead, we propose clustering the inputs and creating mini-batches such that each mini-batch is sourced from a single cluster. Second, even with clustered batches, the feedback tends to overfit to specific examples or their properties. To generate a prompt edit that conveys a generalizable concept relevant to the task, we propose generating edits at a minibatch level and then aggregating them at the batch level to yield the final edit (Figure 1). While the two insights may appear simple, we show that they significantly improve extracting diverse task facets.

We evaluate UNIPROMPT on several benchmarks where it consistently achieves higher accuracy than existing prompt optimization methods. On Ethos, a hate speech dataset, UNIPROMPT obtains 94% accuracy whereas the next best method obtains 82%. Even though UniPrompt focuses only on the instruction and does not include any in-context examples, we find that its instructiononly accuracy is often higher than methods such as DSPy (Khattab et al., 2024) that optimize both. In the few-shot setting, we also compare UNIPROMPT to MedPrompt (Nori et al., 2023), a state-of-theart prompt composition method. We find that UNIPROMPT, requiring only one LLM call at inference time, obtains the same accuracy as Med-Prompt that requires five calls. If we allow multiple calls to UNIPROMPT, we obtain over 4% accuracy gains. Finally, we also evaluate UNIPROMPT on a real-world semantic matching task in a web search engine. Compared to the best manual prompt, the prompt generated from UNIPROMPT leads to over 5% increase in accuracy on the rare class and nearly 2% accuracy increase overall.

2 Related Work

Here, we highlight relevant work that are not addressed in the manuscript otherwise. Deng et al. (2022) present a discrete prompt optimization method, RLPrompt, using reinforcement learning, where a policy network learns to generate effective prompts through reward-based training, with an emphasis on enhancing training efficiency through effective reward stabilization techniques. A drawback of such automatic prompt optimization approaches (Pryzant et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2022; Deng et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2023) is that the prompts generated tend to be short, often comprising only one or two sentences, which may not fully encapsulate the complexity of the task at hand.

Another recent line of work leverages human feedback. Automated Prompt Optimization with Human Feedback (Lin et al., 2024a) optimizes prompts for black-box LLMs using human preference feedback. Besides the obvious overhead, it might also introduce potential biases.

Prior research (Wei et al., 2023, 2024) has highlighted the significance of specific sections within prompts. However, existing methods do not specifically target the optimization of individual sections and their respective contents within the prompts. Hsieh et al. (2023) investigate the use of greedy and genetic algorithms to edit lengthy prompts. Their method focuses on paraphrasing one line at a time starting from an existing prompt, compared to our goal of learning facets of a task from scratch. Another orthogonal line of work explores algorithmic selection of in-context examples (Min et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023; Srivastava et al., 2024; Sun et al., 2024).

3 UniPrompt: Capturing Task Facets

State-of-the-art prompt optimization methods such as ProTeGi (Pryzant et al., 2023) and TextGrad (Hou et al., 2023) iteratively optimize the prompt for a given task. At a high-level, they proceed as follows: (1) start with an initial prompt and a training dataset of \(\lambda \text{question}, \text{answer} \rangle \text{ pairs for the task,} \) (2) randomly sample from the questions wrongly answered by the current prompt to form a batch, (3) use an expert LLM to obtain feedback on the random batch, (4) apply the feedback to the prompt. This procedure is illustrated in Figure 1 [Left]. Our work is motivated by three key observations.

1. Larger models are more amenable to prompt optimization. We observe that the change in the

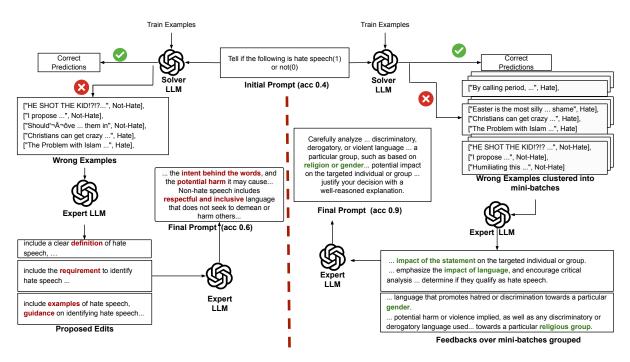


Figure 1: Existing prompt optimization methods (left) versus UNIPROMPT (right) on the Ethos dataset: [Left] State-of-the-art prompt optimization methods like ProTeGi (Pryzant et al., 2023) sample from the questions wrongly answered by the current prompt, and use an expert LLM (e.g., GPT-4) to obtain feedback on the mistakes. This approach tends to give very general edits or overfits to specific examples. [Right] In contrast, UNIPROMPT identifies key task *facets* by: (1) clustering examples with similar task facets, and (2) employing a two-tier feedback-based update strategy. The resulting prompt updates extract generalizable concepts from the specific examples.

objective function (i.e., loss on a validation set for a given prompt) per change in input is relatively more stable for larger models like GPT-4 (Figure 2) than for GPT-3.5 (analysis in Appendix A.1).

- 2. Clustered-batching improves the quality of text gradients (i.e., feedback), as against the standard random batching adopted in state-of-the-art prompt optimization methods (Section 5.1).
- **3. Two-tier feedback helps learn generalizable facets.** Collecting feedback from an expert LLM over mini-batches, and then summarizing the individual feedback texts via a second step (Section 5.1) helps learn generalizable task concepts in prompts.

The proposed method UNIPROMPT, in Figure 1 [Right], makes two contributions. First, we follow a two-tier setup of synthesizing feedback for a batch of training examples. We break up a batch into mini-batches, collect feedback on each of the mini-batches and then use a separate prompt to aggregate the different feedback texts into a generalizable concept. Second, to increase chances that a mini-batch corresponds to a coherent facet, we periodically (re)cluster the training data and ensure that each mini-batch consists of examples from the same cluster.

Algorithm 1 receives as input a one-line task de-

scription and a train set D_t of N (question q_i , answer a_i) demonstrations. It extracts key concepts or facets relevant to the task and updates prompt sections using them, with the goal of increasing accuracy on the validation set D_v . We assume access to an "expert LLM" such as GPT-4.

3.1 Task facet learning using examples

Extracting task-relevant concepts from a set of examples to refine a prompt is a complex problem comprising multiple steps. Given a set of incorrect predictions, one needs to analyze what went wrong in each prediction, form hypotheses, aggregate the hypotheses to identify specific concepts that are relevant for the task. Then, for each concept, one needs to attribute which facet/section of the current prompt needs to be edited to incorporate the concept. These operations are highly model-specific and are difficult to execute reliably. Therefore, we exclusively rely on an expert LLM.

First, we prompt the expert LLM to diagnose mistakes (*feedback*) in each example given the answer and chain-of-thought reasoning produced by the solver LLM. Subsequently, we use this feedback to generate precise edits for the prompt that may fix the error. These individual edits are then aggre-

gated over a mini-batch and fed back into the same LLM, which then identifies a few major edits to be applied to the current prompt. To aid in identifying major edits that correspond to generalizable facets, we propose to cluster the examples as a preprocessing step and create clustered batches, such that each cluster shares some common facet of the task.

We explore two approaches for clustering: topic-

3.1.1 Clustering for identifying facets

based clustering, and feedback-based clustering. Topic-Based Clustering. Given a set of examples, we identify l topics spanning the entire train set. This type of clustering is motivated by the observation that solver LLM may make similar mistakes on examples from the same topic. Hence, for such examples, a common edit to the prompt could improve predictions for all the examples. To obtain the clusters, the expert LLM is prompted (for prompt see Appendix A.10) to provide a broad sub-topic t_i for each question. Then the resultant list of sub-topics $\{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N\}$ is again clustered into k topics $\{t'_1, t'_2, \dots, t'_l\}$ by prompting the expert LLM. Based on this clustering, each example q_i, a_i is assigned a cluster t'_j corresponding to t_i . Feedback-Based Clustering. Examples that receive similar feedback based on a prompt's predictions can help identify task facets. Consider a physics-based task where two examples from different topics obtain the same feedback from the expert LLM to edit the "Rules" section of the prompt to include the statement, "Draw all forces on each body before writing the equations". We argue that such examples can be clustered. This type of clustering makes the broad edit identification step easier. To obtain the clusters, we first evaluate all training examples against the current best prompt and store the feedback f_i from the expert LLM, corresponding to each incorrectly answered example q_i , a_i (all the correctly answered questions form one cluster). We then prompt the expert LLM to cluster these feedbacks $\{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_N\}$ into l clusters (see Appendix A.11). For each cluster, we create a batch q_i, a_i corresponding to feedbacks in that cluster.

3.1.2 Obtaining generalizable prompt edits

Two-tier Feedback. To encourage generalizable feedback from the expert LLM, we obtain feedback at two levels: mini-batch and batch. Given a batch (created using clustering discussed above), we break it up into mini-batches.

For each mini-batch m, we construct a prompt

consisting of incorrectly-answered questions in m, the chain-of-thought produced by the solver LLM, their incorrect predictions and the ground-truth answers. We ask the expert to provide one feedback for the mini batch (prompt is provided in Appendix A.12). The expert can suggest the following edits: add a section or subsection, delete a section or subsection, and edit a section or subsection.

Given the different edits for mini-batches within a batch b, we invoke the expert LLM again to summarize these edits into a single section update. This combination ensures some degree of smoothness at every update which helps stabilize training. To make sure that the expert is able to generate generalizable edits, we additionally provide a random set of incorrect examples that are not in the current batch and ask it to suggest an edit based on the existing edits that can correct the errors. As before, the class of edits allowed is the same.

History for effective exploration. To ensure comprehensive, non-repetitive exploration of prompts, we also provide the batch-level history of edits (Hu et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2023) in the minibatch-level prompt. History H[b] is presented as $\{e_i, acc_i - acc_{i-1}\}$ where e_i is the edit proposed at the i^{th} update and acc_i is the accuracy of the i^{th} updated prompt (See Appendix A.12 for the prompt).

3.1.3 Editing the prompt

Once the final set of edits is received for a batch, we use the expert LLM to apply edits to the current prompt (See Appendix A.13 for the prompt). An edit is accepted only if it increases the validation accuracy (**Greedy**). Alternatively, we maintain a beam of 2 best performing prompts based on validation accuracy, apply the edit to the two prompts, and update the beam to retain the top 2 performing prompts (**Beam**). To avoid overfitting on the train examples (or adding unnecessary information to the prompt), we employ early stopping in the optimization process (more details in Section 4).

3.2 Prompt Initialization

We use two types of initialization: (1) task description, i.e., p_0 has a single section titled *Introduction* containing the input task description. (2) finetune Llama2-13B model to generate a prompt with sections such as *Introduction*, *Tricks*, and *Corner Cases*, similar to the initial prompt that a human prompt engineer may produce. To finetune, we use GPT-4 generated data consisting of (task descrip-

Algorithm 1: UNIPROMPT

```
Input: Train set D_t, validation set D_v, initial prompt for the task p_0, one-line task description T
   Output: Optimized prompt P^* for the given task
1 \ C \leftarrow \text{cluster}(D_t, p_0), initialize history H \leftarrow \{\}, and validation accuracies V \leftarrow [];
2 Initialize a beam of size 2 with the initial prompt: p_1 \leftarrow p_0 and p_2 \leftarrow p_0
3 for epoch e and each cluster c in C do
        for each\ batch\ b \in \mathsf{batches}(C)\ \mathbf{do}
4
            F \leftarrow []
 5
            for each mini-batch m \in mini-batches(b) do
 6
                 Evaluate the best prompt on mini-batch: a_m \leftarrow LLM(m, p_1)
                 Get expert feedback: f \leftarrow \text{Feedback}(T, a_m, H[m])
                 F.insert(f)
            Combine feedbacks over a batch: F_b \leftarrow \mathsf{Combine}(F)
10
            Apply feedback to get updated prompts: q_1 \leftarrow \mathsf{apply}(F_b, p_1); q_2 \leftarrow \mathsf{apply}(F_b, p_2)
11
            Update the beam: if not(p_1 = p_0) then p_2 \leftarrow \text{second-high-acc}([p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2], b)
12
            p_1 \leftarrow \mathsf{highest-acc}([p_1, q_1, q_2], \mathsf{b})
13
        Evaluate the best prompt on validation set: acc_v \leftarrow \text{evaluate}(p_1, D_v)
14
        V \leftarrow V.append(acc_v)
15
        if early-stop-criteria (V) then break
16
        if recluster(e) then C \leftarrow \text{cluster}(D_t, p_1)
17
18 return p_1 as P^*;
```

tion, section title, section contents) triples. Details and examples are in Appendices A.4 and A.7.

Computational Complexity: The complexity of clustering and of getting mini-batch and batch-level feedbacks per epoch is O(N) expert LLM queries, where N is the number of training examples. Details are in Appendix A.3.

Experiments Setup

Datasets: We perform comprehensive evaluation on five standard datasets: (1) Ethos (Mollas et al., 2020), (2) ARC (Clark et al., 2018), (3) MedQA (Jin et al., 2021), (4) GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), and (5) BBH (Suzgun et al., 2022). Ethos, ARC, and MedQA contain multiple choice questions, and GSM8K contains questions with integer answers. BBH is a subset of 10 tasks, spanning 4 main categories, from the challenging BIG-Bench benchmark that requires multi-step reasoning. In addition, we also evaluate UNIPROMPT on the medical QnA datasets used in the MedPrompt (Nori et al., 2023) work; as well as two popular code generation datasets, HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021) and MBPP (Austin et al., 2021).

Implementation details: We set the initial prompt p_0 for each task as the one-line task description. We use 200 examples as the train set, 200 examples as the test set, and 100 examples as the validation set for all the compared methods. We use GPT-3.5-Turbo as the solver model. For Feedback and Combine in UNIPROMPT, we use GPT-4 as the expert (see ablation in Section 5.5). We maintain a beam size of 2. Mini-batch sizes (and batch sizes) are constrained by the context length of GPT-4. We find that mini-batch sizes 3 to 5 and batch sizes 5 to 7 work the best for our datasets. The temperature of the LLMs for our method is set to 0 for reproducibility. We employ early stopping at batch-level in UNIPROMPT.

Baselines: We compare UNIPROMPT with the following techniques and baselines: (1) Task Description: prompt is the one line task description that we use to initialize UNIPROMPT; (2) Chain-**Of-Thought** (or CoT) prompting (Kojima et al., 2024); (3) **Expert Prompt**: the prompt optimized by humans taken from prior works (Nori et al., 2023); (4) **OPRO** (Yang et al., 2023), that uses LLMs for discrete optimization over text prompts; (5) **ProTeGi** (Pryzant et al., 2023) that proposes textual gradients and selects edits to prompts using bandit techniques; (6) Evoke (Hu et al., 2024) that uses two instances of LLM, one that scores the current prompt, and the other that edits the prompt; (7) **EvoPrompt** (Guo et al., 2023) that uses genetic

algorithms to search through the space of prompts; (8) **TextGrad** (Hou et al., 2023), state-of-the-art framework for automatic differentiation of prompts via text; (9) **DSPy** (Khattab et al., 2024), a recent programming model for optimizing LLM prompts; and (10) **MedPrompt** (Nori et al., 2023), a state-of-the-art prompt composition method.

5 Results and Analysis

We present detailed quantitative and qualitative results, along with key ablations.

5.1 Performance of UNIPROMPT

We start with the zero-shot setting, where we do not include labeled examples in the prompt for any of the compared methods. We report results for two versions of our method in Table 1, which differ in the combining strategy (from Section 3.1.3)—beam search vs greedy.

UNIPROMPT variants significantly outperform the baselines including CoT and the state-of-the-art prompt optimization techniques like ProTeGi that crucially leverage LLMs for performing iterative prompt edits. UNIPROMPT is the best performing method on three out of four datasets. It achieves maximum gains on the Ethos dataset with a 18.2% increase in accuracy over the expert prompt. Further, we see accuracy increases of 4.0% on MedQA, 3.5% on GSM8k, and 7.6% on ARC-Challenge datasets. We show UNIPROMPT training behavior in Appendix A.19.

We also present comparisons to state-of-theart DSPy method in the few-shot setting (8 bootstrapped_demos) using two optimization settings provided by their framework. The last two rows of Table 1 show that UNIPROMPT in the zeroshot setting convincingly outperforms DSPy in the few-shot setting, on three out of four datasets.

Qualitative Analysis: ProTeGi and TextGrad also adopt batching by randomly sampling from training examples where the solver LLM made mistakes. In the early iterations of optimization, there can be many such examples. So, do our key observations and hypotheses (beginning of Section 3) hold empirically? We give some evidence below.

1. **Employing clustering to create batches** (Section 3.1): An example feedback obtained on the Ethos dataset using UNIPROMPT is shown below:

The instruction should include..potential harm or violence implied, as well as

any discriminatory or derogatory language used...towards a particular religious group.

The instruction should include ...think about the impact of the statement on the targeted individual or group.

The instruction should...language that prompts hatred or discrimination towards a particular gender.

To contrast, we employ random batching as in the standard prompt optimization techniques, on the same dataset. The feedback obtained, given below, is relevant for the task, but fails to identify specific concepts.

The instruction should include a clear definition of hate speech...

The instruction should include examples of hate speech, guidance on identifying hate speech...

The former feedback (UNIPROMPT) captures the facet of measuring impact on the targeted entity whereas the latter only captures religious and harmbased aspect of hate speech. The same expert LLM is able to identify different facets due to clustered batches.

2. **Employing two-tier feedback**: In Section 3, we argued that employing two-tier feedback strategy to aggregate the feedback texts encourages the expert LLM to propose edits that are generalizable. The following feedback is received on the Ethos dataset after the aggregation:

The instruction should...consider whether the statement contains discriminatory, derogatory, or violent language that promotes hatred or harm towards a particular group, such as based on religion and gender.

We see that two-tier feedback helps in distilling important aspects of the task implicit in the examples, rather than directly using or rephrasing the (limited) examples.

Results on BBH: From Table 2, it is evident that UNIPROMPT shows a significant improvement over OPRO (that also evaluates on these tasks in their paper) for a majority of tasks. It achieves significantly higher accuracy in Boolean Expression (92.37% vs. 78.74%), Date Understanding (81.96% vs. 52.59%), and Navigate (77.16% vs. 51.74%).

Table 1: Test accuracies (%) of the compared methods with GPT-3.5-Turbo as the solver model in the zero-shot setting (**best** in bold; <u>second best</u> underlined). The two UNIPROMPT rows are our proposed method. We compare with few-shot methods in the last two rows (DSPy variants); ***best** in bold to distinguish the few-shot setting.

Method	Ethos	ARC	MedQA	GSM8K
Task Description	76.8	79.7	52.7	59.4
Expert Prompt	74.1	78.4	53.1	78.9
Llama Prompt (Section 3.2)	74.0	89.7	52.6	79.5
СоТ	72.0	79.4	50.3	76.3
OPRO	65.4	79.1	53.3	77.1
ProTeGi	76.0	78.8	52.9	77.3
Evoke	63.5	89.0	52.8	81.0
EvoPrompt	81.6	89.9	50.3	81.4
DSPy (MIPRO v2, zero-shot)	79.7	82.8	61.9	77.3
TextGrad	79.5	76.5	50.6	81.6
UNIPROMPT (Init = Task Description) + Beam	92.3	86.0	<u>57.1</u>	82.4
UNIPROMPT (Init = Task Description) + Greedy	93.7	90.5	55.5	<u>82.3</u>
DSPy (BootstrapFewShotWithRandomSearch)	86.6	87.5	*68.5	74.3
DSPy (MIPRO v2, few-shot)	84.0	86.0	62.9	79.7

Table 2: Test accuracies (%) on BBH dataset with GPT-3.5-Turbo as the solver model

Task	Init	OPRO	UNIPROMPT	
Algo & Multi-Step Arithmetic Reasoning				
Bool Exp.	83.64	78.74	92.37	
Logical Ded.	29.53	38.97	39.62	
Navigate	60.95	51.74	77.16	
Natural Language Understanding				
Snarks	67.00	67.88	74.30	
Disamb. QA	53.30	57.43	67.05	
Fallacies	57.60	53.14	57.90	
Use of World Knowledge				
Causal Judg.	54.29	57.24	59.37	
Movie Rec.	58.04	77.81	71.80	
Dates	74.21	52.59	81.96	
Multilingual Knowledge & Reasoning				
Salient Trans.	42.59	50.61	50.77	

5.2 Comparison with MedPrompt

MedPrompt (Nori et al., 2023) is a recent, competitive prompting technique without any training component. It employs three key ingredients: (1) few-shot prompting, where five relevant examples are selected using k-nearest neighbors (kNN); (2) CoT reasoning on the selected examples; and (3)

self-consistency and ensembling with option shuffling at inference time. They evaluate on 4 medical datasets (that none of the competing methods in Table 1 evaluate on) using GPT-4 as the solver model. So, we compare UNIPROMPT in the same setting in Table 8 (in Appendix A.8). UNIPROMPT (first row), which requires only one call at inference time, performs almost as well as MedPrompt (last row), which requires five calls, on three out of four datasets. As we incrementally add kNN few-shot, CoT, and ensembling to our prompt, we see a significant increase in accuracy of 4.35% on average across all datasets.

5.3 Performance on generation tasks

Our evaluations so far have been on multiplechoice QnA, math, and classification datasets. We now evaluate UNIPROMPT on generating code given a natural language specification. We use HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021) and MBPP (Austin et al., 2021) datasets consisting of Python coding problems. We initialize with a simple prompt, "You are a software engineer. You are given a function signature and a description of the function. You have to complete the function." We use GPT-4-Turbo as both the solver and the expert LLM. HumanEval does not have train or validation sets. So, we take random 100 examples from MBPP as train. Similarly, for MBPP, we take random 50 examples from HumanEval as train. We evaluate the final prompts on HumanEval and MBPP test sets. The results are given in Table 4 (in Appendix A.8). The metric is % of solved coding problems (evaluated using the provided test cases) in the datasets. The prompts produced by UNIPROMPT outperform standard prompting of LLMs.

5.4 Results on a Real-world Task

The task of inferring if two search queries share identical intent or not arises in search and recommendation pipelines. It is challenging because it requires domain knowledge (e.g., brands and product categories), and depends on cultural and geographical biases (e.g., "cricket" in UK vs. "cricket game" in the US). So, examples are crucial for engineering a prompt that generalizes well.

We sample 200 train, 50 validation, and a separate 2527 test user queries from a real proprietary application. More details on the dataset and the one-line initial prompt are provided in Appendix A.5.

The prompt obtained using UNIPROMPT improves over the best manual prompt by 5.77% on the negative (rare) class, by 0.23% on the positive class, and by 1.86% overall on the test set. The learnt prompt captures the following task facets: (1) recognizing variations in names and abbreviations, and how they do not change the context; (2) recognizing brand specificity, and how even minor variations do change the context; and (3) recognizing the specificity of terms in queries, and how lack of specific terms can indicate departure of intent.

5.5 Ablations

Impact of Clustering, Inclusion of History, and Greedy Update: The results are shown in Table 6 (in Appendix A.8). We see that clustering as well as edit history components (Section 3.1) are critical for performance of UNIPROMPT in all the datasets. We see a major drop of 14.8% in accuracy in the Ethos dataset when clustering is removed, and a 4.3% drop when history component is removed. In all the datasets except GSM8K, we find clustering is more important than history. This can attributed to limited variability of question types (all grade-8 arithmetic) in GSM8K than in others.

We also find that the greedy update rule (Section 3.1.3) proves to be superior or competitive compared to beam search in relatively easier datasets — where even less exploration produces good results, greedy proves to be a more effective update rule. On the other hand, in more complex datasets like MedQA, greedy appears to be a bad strategy. We also see that clustering examples based on feedback

Table 3: Impact of UNIPROMPT's key hyperparameters

Hyperparameter	Value	Accuracy
	2	84.90%
Mini-batch Size	5	90.36%
	8	91.15%
	2	85.81%
Number of Clusters	5	90.36%
	10	87.82%

("Fb Clustering") is a better strategy than clustering based on topics, except for the Ethos dataset.

Impact of Mini-batch size and Number of Clusters: First, we vary mini-batch size in UNIPROMPT. The results for the ARC dataset are shown in Table 3 (in Appendix A.8). With an increase in mini-batch size, we observe an increase in accuracy. That said, it is a hyperparameter, hence there will be an optimal number for each dataset. The mini-batch size affects the feedback based on the wrong examples that are obtained in each round. Next, we vary the number of clusters in UNIPROMPT. We find that the parameter has a clear impact on performance. We use the default choice of 5 clusters in all our experiments, which provides concise and generalizable feedback.

Impact of initial prompt and Expert model capacity: In Table 7 (Appendix A.8), we find that one-line task description initialization for UNIPROMPT achieves the best accuracy on three out of four datasets. On ARC, initializing with the prompt generated by the Llama2-13B model gives significant improvement over other initializations. In Table 5 (Appendix A.8), we show UNIPROMPT improves prompts for more capable solver LLMs while using less capable expert LLMs.

6 Conclusions

We presented a method inspired by the human prompt engineering process to generate complex prompts from scratch that include different facets of a task. Our algorithm provides significant improvements over baseline prompt generation methods on multiple standard datasets. Just like incontext learning (Ji et al., 2024), task facet learning could also benefit from connections to submodular optimization (Krause and Golovin, 2014). We leave this as future work.

7 Limitations

We provide an analysis of the impact of model size on the amenability to prompt optimization in Appendix A.1. However, in our evaluation, we only use GPT-3.5 (and in some cases GPT-4) as the solver LLM. We want to leave extensive evaluations of using open-source LLMs as solver LLMs, and perhaps even as expert LLMs, to future work. Further, we also want to evaluate on other generative tasks, besides the code generation task we study in the paper.

References

- Jacob Austin, Augustus Odena, Maxwell Nye, Maarten Bosma, Henryk Michalewski, David Dohan, Ellen Jiang, Carrie Cai, Michael Terry, Quoc Le, et al. 2021. Program synthesis with large language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2108.07732.
- Lichang Chen, Jiuhai Chen, Tom Goldstein, Heng Huang, and Tianyi Zhou. 2024. Instructzero: Efficient instruction optimization for black-box large language models. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*.
- Mark Chen, Jerry Tworek, Heewoo Jun, Qiming Yuan, Henrique Ponde de Oliveira Pinto, Jared Kaplan, Harri Edwards, Yuri Burda, Nicholas Joseph, Greg Brockman, Alex Ray, Raul Puri, Gretchen Krueger, Michael Petrov, Heidy Khlaaf, Girish Sastry, Pamela Mishkin, Brooke Chan, Scott Gray, Nick Ryder, Mikhail Pavlov, Alethea Power, Lukasz Kaiser, Mohammad Bavarian, Clemens Winter, Philippe Tillet, Felipe Petroski Such, Dave Cummings, Matthias Plappert, Fotios Chantzis, Elizabeth Barnes, Ariel Herbert-Voss, William Hebgen Guss, Alex Nichol, Alex Paino, Nikolas Tezak, Jie Tang, Igor Babuschkin, Suchir Balaji, Shantanu Jain, William Saunders, Christopher Hesse, Andrew N. Carr, Jan Leike, Josh Achiam, Vedant Misra, Evan Morikawa, Alec Radford, Matthew Knight, Miles Brundage, Mira Murati, Katie Mayer, Peter Welinder, Bob McGrew, Dario Amodei, Sam McCandlish, Ilya Sutskever, and Wojciech Zaremba. 2021. Evaluating large language models trained on code.
- Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and Oyvind Tafjord. 2018. Think you have solved question answering? try arc, the ai2 reasoning challenge. *ArXiv*, abs/1803.05457.
- Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John Schulman. 2021. Training verifiers to solve math word problems. arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.14168.

- Mingkai Deng, Jianyu Wang, Cheng-Ping Hsieh, Yihan Wang, Han Guo, Tianmin Shu, Meng Song, Eric Xing, and Zhiting Hu. 2022. RLPrompt: Optimizing discrete text prompts with reinforcement learning. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 3369–3391, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Qingyan Guo, Rui Wang, Junliang Guo, Bei Li, Kaitao Song, Xu Tan, Guoqing Liu, Jiang Bian, and Yujiu Yang. 2023. Connecting large language models with evolutionary algorithms yields powerful prompt optimizers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.08532*.
- Shivanshu Gupta, Matt Gardner, and Sameer Singh. 2023. Coverage-based example selection for incontext learning. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2023*, pages 13924–13950, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Bairu Hou, Jinghan Jia, Yihua Zhang, Guanhua Zhang, Yang Zhang, Sijia Liu, and Shiyu Chang. 2023. Textgrad: Advancing robustness evaluation in nlp by gradient-driven optimization. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Cho-Jui Hsieh, Si Si, Felix X. Yu, and Inderjit S. Dhillon. 2023. Automatic engineering of long prompts. *ArXiv*, abs/2311.10117.
- Xinyu Hu, Pengfei Tang, Simiao Zuo, Zihan Wang, Qiang Lou, Jian Jiao, and Denis Charles. 2024. Evoke: Evoking critical thinking abilities in Ilms via reviewer-author prompt editing. In *ICLR* 2024.
- Baijun Ji, Xiangyu Duan, Zhenyu Qiu, Tong Zhang, Junhui Li, Hao Yang, and Min Zhang. 2024. Submodular-based in-context example selection for Ilms-based machine translation. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Joint International Conference on Computational Linguistics, Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC-COLING 2024)*, pages 15398–15409.
- Di Jin, Eileen Pan, Nassim Oufattole, Wei-Hung Weng, Hanyi Fang, and Peter Szolovits. 2021. What disease does this patient have? a large-scale open domain question answering dataset from medical exams. *Applied Sciences*, 11(14):6421.
- Omar Khattab, Arnav Singhvi, Paridhi Maheshwari, Zhiyuan Zhang, Keshav Santhanam, Saiful Haq, Ashutosh Sharma, Thomas T Joshi, Hanna Moazam, Heather Miller, et al. 2024. Dspy: Compiling declarative language model calls into state-of-the-art pipelines. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. 2024. Large language models are zero-shot reasoners. In *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, NIPS '22, Red Hook, NY, USA. Curran Associates Inc.

- Andreas Krause and Daniel Golovin. 2014. Submodular function maximization. *Tractability*, 3(71-104):3.
- Xiaoqiang Lin, Zhongxiang Dai, Arun Verma, See-Kiong Ng, Patrick Jaillet, and Bryan Kian Hsiang Low. 2024a. Prompt optimization with human feedback. In *ICML* 2024 Workshop on Models of Human Feedback for AI Alignment.
- Xiaoqiang Lin, Zhaoxuan Wu, Zhongxiang Dai, Wenyang Hu, Yao Shu, See-Kiong Ng, Patrick Jaillet, and Bryan Kian Hsiang Low. 2024b. Use your instinct: Instruction optimization for llms using neural bandits coupled with transformers. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*.
- Pengfei Liu, Weizhe Yuan, Jinlan Fu, Zhengbao Jiang, Hiroaki Hayashi, and Graham Neubig. 2023. Pretrain, prompt, and predict: A systematic survey of prompting methods in natural language processing. *ACM Comput. Surv.*, 55(9).
- Cédric Malherbe and Nicolas Vayatis. 2017. Global optimization of lipschitz functions. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 2314–2323. PMLR.
- Ravi Mangal, Kartik Sarangmath, Aditya V Nori, and Alessandro Orso. 2020. Probabilistic lipschitz analysis of neural networks. In *International Static Analysis Symposium*, pages 274–309. Springer.
- Sewon Min, Xinxi Lyu, Ari Holtzman, Mikel Artetxe, Mike Lewis, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2022. Rethinking the role of demonstrations: What makes in-context learning work? In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 11048–11064, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ioannis Mollas, Zoe Chrysopoulou, Stamatis Karlos, and Grigorios Tsoumakas. 2020. Ethos: a multi-label hate speech detection dataset. *Complex & Intelligent Systems*, pages 1–16.
- Harsha Nori, Yin Tat Lee, Sheng Zhang, Dean Carignan, Richard Edgar, Nicolo Fusi, Nicholas King, Jonathan Larson, Yuanzhi Li, Weishung Liu, et al. 2023. Can generalist foundation models outcompete special-purpose tuning? case study in medicine. *Medicine*, 84(88.3):77–3.
- OpenAI, :, Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, Red Avila, Igor Babuschkin, Suchir Balaji, Valerie Balcom, Paul Baltescu, Haiming Bao, Mo Bavarian, Jeff Belgum, Irwan Bello, Jake Berdine, Gabriel Bernadett-Shapiro, Christopher Berner, Lenny Bogdonoff, Oleg Boiko, Madelaine Boyd, Anna-Luisa Brakman, Greg Brockman, Tim Brooks, Miles Brundage, Kevin Button, Trevor Cai, Rosie Campbell, Andrew Cann, Brittany Carey, Chelsea Carlson, Rory Carmichael, Brooke Chan, Che Chang, Fotis Chantzis, Derek Chen, Sully Chen,

Ruby Chen, Jason Chen, Mark Chen, Ben Chess, Chester Cho, Casey Chu, Hyung Won Chung, Dave Cummings, Jeremiah Currier, Yunxing Dai, Cory Decareaux, Thomas Degry, Noah Deutsch, Damien Deville, Arka Dhar, David Dohan, Steve Dowling, Sheila Dunning, Adrien Ecoffet, Atty Eleti, Tyna Eloundou, David Farhi, Liam Fedus, Niko Felix, Simón Posada Fishman, Juston Forte, Isabella Fulford, Leo Gao, Elie Georges, Christian Gibson, Vik Goel, Tarun Gogineni, Gabriel Goh, Rapha Gontijo-Lopes, Jonathan Gordon, Morgan Grafstein, Scott Gray, Ryan Greene, Joshua Gross, Shixiang Shane Gu, Yufei Guo, Chris Hallacy, Jesse Han, Jeff Harris, Yuchen He, Mike Heaton, Johannes Heidecke, Chris Hesse, Alan Hickey, Wade Hickey, Peter Hoeschele, Brandon Houghton, Kenny Hsu, Shengli Hu, Xin Hu, Joost Huizinga, Shantanu Jain, Shawn Jain, Joanne Jang, Angela Jiang, Roger Jiang, Haozhun Jin, Denny Jin, Shino Jomoto, Billie Jonn, Heewoo Jun, Tomer Kaftan, Łukasz Kaiser, Ali Kamali, Ingmar Kanitscheider, Nitish Shirish Keskar, Tabarak Khan, Logan Kilpatrick, Jong Wook Kim, Christina Kim, Yongjik Kim, Hendrik Kirchner, Jamie Kiros, Matt Knight, Daniel Kokotajlo, Łukasz Kondraciuk, Andrew Kondrich, Aris Konstantinidis, Kyle Kosic, Gretchen Krueger, Vishal Kuo, Michael Lampe, Ikai Lan, Teddy Lee, Jan Leike, Jade Leung, Daniel Levy, Chak Ming Li, Rachel Lim, Molly Lin, Stephanie Lin, Mateusz Litwin, Theresa Lopez, Ryan Lowe, Patricia Lue, Anna Makanju, Kim Malfacini, Sam Manning, Todor Markov, Yaniv Markovski, Bianca Martin, Katie Mayer, Andrew Mayne, Bob McGrew, Scott Mayer McKinney, Christine McLeavey, Paul McMillan, Jake McNeil, David Medina, Aalok Mehta, Jacob Menick, Luke Metz, Andrey Mishchenko, Pamela Mishkin, Vinnie Monaco, Evan Morikawa, Daniel Mossing, Tong Mu, Mira Murati, Oleg Murk, David Mély, Ashvin Nair, Reiichiro Nakano, Rajeev Nayak, Arvind Neelakantan, Richard Ngo, Hyeonwoo Noh, Long Ouyang, Cullen O'Keefe, Jakub Pachocki, Alex Paino, Joe Palermo, Ashley Pantuliano, Giambattista Parascandolo, Joel Parish, Emy Parparita, Alex Passos, Mikhail Pavlov, Andrew Peng, Adam Perelman, Filipe de Avila Belbute Peres, Michael Petrov, Henrique Ponde de Oliveira Pinto, Michael, Pokorny, Michelle Pokrass, Vitchyr Pong, Tolly Powell, Alethea Power, Boris Power, Elizabeth Proehl, Raul Puri, Alec Radford, Jack Rae, Aditya Ramesh, Cameron Raymond, Francis Real, Kendra Rimbach, Carl Ross, Bob Rotsted, Henri Roussez, Nick Ryder, Mario Saltarelli, Ted Sanders, Shibani Santurkar, Girish Sastry, Heather Schmidt, David Schnurr, John Schulman, Daniel Selsam, Kyla Sheppard, Toki Sherbakov, Jessica Shieh, Sarah Shoker, Pranav Shyam, Szymon Sidor, Eric Sigler, Maddie Simens, Jordan Sitkin, Katarina Slama, Ian Sohl, Benjamin Sokolowsky, Yang Song, Natalie Staudacher, Felipe Petroski Such, Natalie Summers, Ilya Sutskever, Jie Tang, Nikolas Tezak, Madeleine Thompson, Phil Tillet, Amin Tootoonchian, Elizabeth Tseng, Preston Tuggle, Nick Turley, Jerry Tworek, Juan Felipe Cerón Uribe, Andrea Vallone, Arun Vijayvergiya, Chelsea Voss, Carroll Wainwright, Justin Jay Wang, Alvin Wang, Ben Wang, Jonathan Ward, Jason Wei, CJ Weinmann, Akila Welihinda, Peter Welinder, Jiayi Weng, Lilian Weng, Matt Wiethoff, Dave Willner, Clemens Winter, Samuel Wolrich, Hannah Wong, Lauren Workman, Sherwin Wu, Jeff Wu, Michael Wu, Kai Xiao, Tao Xu, Sarah Yoo, Kevin Yu, Qiming Yuan, Wojciech Zaremba, Rowan Zellers, Chong Zhang, Marvin Zhang, Shengjia Zhao, Tianhao Zheng, Juntang Zhuang, William Zhuk, and Barret Zoph. 2023. Gpt-4 technical report. *Preprint*, arXiv:2303.08774.

Reid Pryzant, Dan Iter, Jerry Li, Yin Tat Lee, Chenguang Zhu, and Michael Zeng. 2023. Automatic prompt optimization with "gradient descent" and beam search. In *The 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*.

Damien Sileo. 2023. tasksource: Structured dataset preprocessing annotations for frictionless extreme multi-task learning and evaluation. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:2301.05948.

Pragya Srivastava, Satvik Golechha, Amit Deshpande, and Amit Sharma. 2024. Nice: To optimize in-context examples or not? *Preprint*, arXiv:2402.06733.

ZhongXiang Sun, Kepu Zhang, Haoyu Wang, Xiao Zhang, and Jun Xu. 2024. Effective in-context example selection through data compression.

Mirac Suzgun, Nathan Scales, Nathanael Schärli, Sebastian Gehrmann, Yi Tay, Hyung Won Chung, Aakanksha Chowdhery, Quoc V. Le, Ed H. Chi, Denny Zhou, and Jason Wei. 2022. Challenging big-bench tasks and whether chain-of-thought can solve them. *Preprint*, arXiv:2210.09261.

Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Brian Ichter, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc Le, and Denny Zhou. 2023. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2201.11903.

Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Brian Ichter, Fei Xia, Ed H. Chi, Quoc V. Le, and Denny Zhou. 2024. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. In *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, NIPS '22, Red Hook, NY, USA. Curran Associates Inc.

Zhiyong Wu, Yaoxiang Wang, Jiacheng Ye, and Lingpeng Kong. 2023. Self-adaptive in-context learning: An information compression perspective for incontext example selection and ordering. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1423–1436, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Chengrun Yang, Xuezhi Wang, Yifeng Lu, Hanxiao Liu, Quoc V. Le, Denny Zhou, and Xinyun Chen. 2023. Large language models as optimizers.

Tianjun Zhang, Xuezhi Wang, Denny Zhou, Dale Schuurmans, and Joseph E Gonzalez. 2022. Tempera: Test-time prompting via reinforcement learning. arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.11890.

Zhihan Zhang, Shuohang Wang, Wenhao Yu, Yichong Xu, Dan Iter, Qingkai Zeng, Yang Liu, Chenguang Zhu, and Meng Jiang. 2023. Auto-instruct: Automatic instruction generation and ranking for blackbox language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2310.13127.

Yongchao Zhou, Andrei Ioan Muresanu, Ziwen Han, Keiran Paster, Silviu Pitis, Harris Chan, and Jimmy Ba. 2022. Large language models are human-level prompt engineers.

Terry Yue Zhuo, Zhuang Li, Yujin Huang, Fatemeh Shiri, Weiqing Wang, Gholamreza Haffari, and Yuan-Fang Li. 2023. On robustness of prompt-based semantic parsing with large pre-trained language model: An empirical study on codex. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:2301.12868.

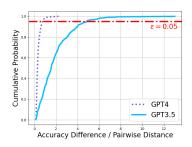
A Appendix

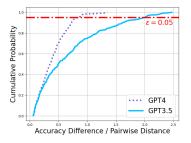
A.1 When is directional text optimization feasible?

Consider the class of sequential algorithms like ProTeGi (Pryzant et al., 2023) and TextGrad (Hou et al., 2023) . The objective is to improve the accuracy of a given (black-box) solver LLM $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ that takes as input a prompt $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ and outputs the average accuracy on a validation set D_v . Since the set of prompts is combinatorially large, we assume that all prompts can be embedded in a vector space such that distance between two prompts in the space correspond to their semantic similarity. The prompt optimization problem can be written as $\arg\max_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathcal{X}} f(\mathbf{x}; D_v)$.

Previous work has shown that LLMs can be brittle to their input: changing the prompt slightly can create a significant difference in performance (Zhuo et al., 2023). We want to understand if the optimization problem is well-conditioned. Typically, conditioning can be determined by the Hessian. However, since f is black-box, we approximate it by measuring sensitivity, or more specifically, Lipschitz continuity near the optimal solution. Based on prior work on defining continuity of neural networks (Mangal et al., 2020), we use a probabilistic notion.

Definition 1 (Probabilistic Lipschitz Continuity (Mangal et al., 2020)). Given a probability distribution over inputs \mathcal{X} , $r \geq 0$, and a distance measure d such as ℓ_1 or ℓ_2 norm, a function $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is (L, ϵ) -probabilistically Lipschitz with constant





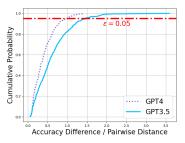


Figure 2: Estimating (probabilistic) Lipschitz constant of models (Definition 1) on (left) Ethos (middle) GSM8K and (right) MedQA datasets for GPT-4 and GPT-3.5 models.

 $L \geq 0$, if

$$\Pr_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \sim \mathcal{X}} [d(f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x}')) \le L \cdot d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$$

$$|d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \le r] \ge 1 - \epsilon.$$
(1)

Note the focus on small changes in input through the parameter r. Intuitively, the Lipschitz property bounds the maximum change in f given a small change in input prompt. Typically, the lower bound of error for any sequential optimization algorithm over f is directly proportional to the Lipschitz constant L (Malherbe and Vayatis, 2017). Therefore, for faster convergence, it is desirable to have a low L, especially near the optimal solution.

Empirically, we estimate L by sampling task-relevant prompts so that they are close to the optimal solution. Then we make small changes to the prompt such that the semantic meaning stays the same and measure the change in f (See Appendix A.2 for experimental details). We show the change in f per change in input for GPT4 and GPT3.5 models in Figure 2 for the Ethos, GSM8K and MedQA datasets. Assuming $\epsilon=0.05$, probabilistic Lipschitz constant L for GPT4 is <1, whereas it is higher for GPT3.5. Thus, as the model sizes increases, the probabilistic Lipschitz constant decreases. So, larger models are more amenable to prompt optimization.

A.2 Details on estimation of Lipschitz constant L

TO calculate the Lipschitz constant for a given LLM and task, we take a human written promp and generate it's paraphrases using GPT-4. We prompt GPT-4 with the following text: "You are given a sentence, you have to generate 30 paraphrases of the sentence, make sure that the core content of each paraphrase is same, you can use add, subtract or change words". These paraphrases are

then evaluated on the validation set D_v . For a measure of distance between two prompts, we take the cosine similarity between the embeddings of two prompts. We use text-ada-002 for generating the text embeddings for prompts.

A.3 Computational Complexity

We now consider the compute complexity of UNIPROMPT in terms of the number of expert or solver LLM calls per epoch, stage-wise.

Clustering: First, we evaluate all the training examples using the current prompt. Second, for every wrongly predicted example, we obtain feedback from the expert LLM. Third, for the given set of feedbacks, we use a single call to cluster it into l clusters. Each of the above steps incurs O(N) queries, so the total query complexity of the clustering stage is O(N). Finally, for each example, i.e., (question, answer) pair, we simply map it to the l clusters (no LLM calls).

Mini-batch feedback and Batch-level aggregation: At a given epoch, we evaluate every question in the mini-batch using the current prompt and the solver LLM (N queries overall). Next, we obtain one feedback over all the wrong questions in the mini-batch m (N/|m| queries). We use one call to aggregate these feedbacks. For prompt selection, we evaluate 4 prompts on the batch b (2 per beam), so O(4|b|) queries per batch. Hence overall query complexity is N + N/|m| + 4N + 1 or O(N). With LLM throughput of 0.5 qps, a training + validation set of 300 examples, 10 clusters, and 20 epochs, it takes under 7 hours to train.

A.4 SLM Training Details

To induce the ability of structured prompt generation in a smaller language model, we curate a section-wise dataset of around 12,000 task-prompt pairs. The tasks for training dataset creation were taken from tasksource library (Sileo, 2023) that

contains around five hundred classification tasks. We extract the task description from tasksource-instruct, which contains tasksource dataset recasted with instructions. For instance, the task description for BIG-bench Entailed Polarity task is, "Given a fact, answer the following question with a yes or a no". The dataset provides diverse tasks and their short description, but not the human-generated prompts for each task. To approximate human-generated prompts, we use GPT-4 as a teacher model.

By prompting GPT-4 with the task description and section description, we ask it to generate the contents of the section. To ensure that the generated section-wise prompts are concise and relevant, we prompt GPT-4 to not generate more than five lines of content for each section. We use LLAMA2-13B model, which we finetune using LoRA adapters as the auxiliary LM that generates sections.

A.5 Data Set Creation of Real-World Task

We sample real user queries from a proprietary application, rewrite them using ML models, and ask expert judges to label the query-pairs as identical or otherwise based on prescribed guidelines. We use a set of 200 examples as training data, and an additional 50 examples as validation set, to learn a prompt using UNIPROMPT, starting from the oneline description: Tell if query A and query B have same intent or not. The dataset is heavily biased towards positive samples, so the metric of success is improvement in accuracy, over the best manuallyengineered prompt, on the positive and negative classes individually. For testing, we use a separate labelled set of 2527 examples from two geographies — one where the training data was sampled from, and the other unseen.

A.6 Prompt to Llama2-13B for fine-tuning

Instruction:

You are a prompt engineer, you have to write a structured prompt. For the given task description, examples and section description, write the contents of the section that align with section description.

```
### Task Description:
{data_point['task_description']}
```

Section Description:

```
{data_point['section']}:
{section_descriptions\
[data_point['section']]}

### Response:
{data_point['prompt']}
```

A.7 Prompt Initialization

One line task descriptions:

- 1. Ethos: In this task, you have to determine whether a given text is hate speech or not.
- 2. ARC: You have to solve the following science question.
- 3. GSM8K: In this task, you are given a math question. You have to solve the question.
- 4. MedQA: In this task, you are given a medical question. You have to solve the question.

A.8 Additional Results

Table 4: Performance (% solved problems) of UNIPROMPT (GPT-4-Turbo solver) on code generation datasets, compared to GPT-4 (OpenAI et al., 2023) and newer models.

Method	HumanEval	MBPP
GPT-4	67.0	87.5
GPT-4-Turbo	87.1	90.9
GPT-4o	90.2	92.4
UNIPROMPT	93.8	92.5

Table 5: Ablation of LLM choices for UNIPROMPT on the Ethos dataset. 'Init' and 'Final' denote initial (i.e., task description) and final prompt accuracies.

Expert LLM	Solver LLM	Init	Final
GPT-3.5-T	GPT-3.5-T	76.8	82.4
GPT-4	GPT-3.5-T	76.8	92.3
GPT-3.5-T	GPT-4	89.8	91.4
GPT-4	GPT-4	89.8	94.3

Table 6: Ablation of design choices in UNIPROMPT with GPT-3.5-Turbo as the solver model.

	Ethos	ARC	MedQA	GSM8K
UNIPROMPT — History	88.0	84.6	55.3	80.8
UNIPROMPT — Clustering	77.5	82.0	54.1	81.5
UNIPROMPT	92.3	86.0	57.1	82.4
UNIPROMPT $+$ Greedy	93.7	90.5	55.5	82.3
UNIPROMPT + Fb Clustering	87.2	91.2	58.3	82.5

An example of sectioned initialization prompt generated using finetuned Llama Model

Introduction:

Assume the role of a science expert and answer the given question by selecting one of the options A, B, C or D.

- 1. Understand and solve science questions by selecting the best answer from a given list of options.
- 2. Identify the logic behind the choices provided and make an informed decision.
- 3. Use contextual clues to choose the most accurate answer.
- 4. Be aware of the differences between science and everyday language.

Task Description:

Scientific inquiry: Science is the systematic study of the structure and behavior of the physical and natural world through observation and experiment. The scientific method is a process for acquiring knowledge that has been improved upon since its inception in the 17th century. It involves making observations, formulating hypotheses as to their causes, and experimenting with them to support or refute the hypotheses.

Real-life Application:

Table 7: Ablation on the initial prompt for UNIPROMPT (best test accuracy in bold).

Init Prompt	Ethos	ARC	MedQA	GSM8K
Expert Prompt	84.0	86.0	52.3	82.4
Llama Prompt	92.0	90.5	55.5	81.5
Task Description	92.3	86.0	57.1	82.4

Table 8: Comparison of UNIPROMPT ("Ours") with MedPrompt, with GPT-4 as the solver model.

	MedQA	PubMedQA	MedMCQA	MMLU MG
Ours	80.9	70.3	79.2	78.0
Ours + kNN	81.0	72.2	81.4	94.0
Ours $+$ kNN $+$ CoT	83.9	74.7	82.6	96.0
Ours + $kNN+CoT + Ensemble$	87.0	75.6	84.5	99.0
MedPrompt	80.6	71.2	79.1	98.0

1. Assisting Students in Science Classes:

In the context of science education, the ability to solve science questions can help students to better understand and internalize the concepts. By familiarizing themselves with the basic principles of science, students can develop a stronger foundation of knowledge.

2. Improving Scientific Literacy:

Scientific literacy is a critical skill in today's world, where scientific knowledge is increasingly important. By solving science questions, individuals can improve their understanding of scientific concepts and be more informed about scientific developments.

3. Scientific Questions:

In daily life, there are many questions that require scientific knowledge to answer. For example, understanding the science behind certain phenomena, such as why a magnet sticks to a refrigerator door, can help us in our day-to-day life.

4. Increased Awareness:

By answering scientific questions, we can develop a deeper understanding of the world around us and increase our awareness of scientific phenomena. This can help us in our daily lives and make us more knowledgeable individuals.

Background Knowledge:

- 1. Understanding of the basic concepts of science and physics, such as the difference between heat, temperature and friction.
- 2. Basic knowledge of the different types of skin surfaces, such as dry, wet, rough, smooth, etc.
- 3. Familiarity with the different types of magnets and their properties.
- 4. Understanding of the different factors that affect the adhesion of magnets to different surfaces.
- 5. Knowledge of the different types of sedimentary rocks and

their properties.

Challenges:

1. Ambiguity in the question:

The question might be ambiguous in nature, and it can be difficult to understand the exact meaning of the question. In such cases, it is important to read the question carefully and identify the key concepts or keywords. This can help in arriving at the correct answer.

2. Scientific terms or concepts:

The question might contain scientific terms or concepts that are unfamiliar to the user. In such cases, it is important to understand the meaning of these terms or concepts and their relationship with the question.

- 3. Difficulty in understanding the question:
 Sometimes, the question might be complex or abstract, making it difficult to understand or interpret.
- 4. Misleading statements or information:

 The question might contain misleading or false information,
 making it difficult to determine the correct answer.
- 5. Contradiction:

The answer can be in conflict with well-known scientific facts or principles. In such cases, it is important to make a careful analysis of the evidence and choose the answer that is most consistent with the available

Simplification:

Identify the key elements in the question:
 Ask yourself, "What is the main question in the question?"
 Identify the key elements and focus on them to solve the problem.

2. Understand the context:

Understand the context of the question and the background knowledge you need to answer it.

3. Identify the answer choice:

Identify the answer choice that best fits the context and background knowledge.

4. Eliminate the distractors:

Eliminate the distractors that don't fit

Tricks:

- 1. Read the question carefully: Understand the question and its context. This will help in understanding the information and concepts needed to solve the question.
- 2. Identify the key concepts: Identify the key concepts and keywords in the question. This will help in understanding the main idea and focus on the relevant information.
- 3. Understand the question structure: Understand the structure of the question. This will help in identifying the appropriate answer option and avoiding distractions.
- 4. Look for clues: Look for clues in the question and the answer options

A.8.1 Examples of training dataset

Task: super glue boolq

Task Description: With no explanation, label the following with

either False or True. Section: description

Prompt: As a prompt engineer, your task is to create a prompt that accurately labels statements as either True or False without providing any explanations. The statements may involve general knowledge, trivia, or facts about events, places, people, or objects. Ensure you have a strong understanding of the subject matter and write a concise and specific task description related to the given statements.

Task: glue qnli

Task Description: With no explanation, label A to B with either entailment or not entailment

Section: background

Prompt: 1. Entailment means that the information in statement B can be inferred directly from statement A.

- 2. Not entailment means that the information in statement B cannot be inferred directly from statement A or is unrelated.
- 3. Understanding the context and relationship between the two statements is crucial for accurate classification.

Task: bigbench undo permutation

Task Description: In the following sentences with shuffled words, find the correct order of word swaps to unscramble the sentence.

Section: tricks

Prompt: 1. Identify the key words or phrases in the task to understand the context of the sentence. Look for nouns, verbs, and adjectives that seem related or could logically fit together.

- 2. Start by solving the problem step by step and focus on one swap at a time. Breaking the problem into smaller sub-problems will make it easier to manage.
- 3. To make the task more manageable, first focus on swapping the words that are clearly out of place, such as words that should

be at the beginning or end of the sentence.

A.9 Prompt for identifying important facets

you are given a task, along with it's description, some examples
of how to solve the task and section descriptions.
What do you think would be the most important sections to
include for the given task.
Task
{task}
Task Descirption
{tas_description}
Examples
{Examples_string}
Section Descriptions
{sections}

A.10 Clustering Type 1

You are given a science question, you need to tell which broad topic is this question from.

Question: {train_questions_new[ij]}

Answer: {answer}

Give your answer as a single word, between <Answer></Answer>

tags like: <Answer>Thermodynmics</Answer> or

<Answer>Botany</Answer>.

Subtopic:

A.11 Clustering Type 2

You are given a set of feedbacks, you need to cluster them into five groups based on similarity, and then provide a summary of each group. You can use the following feedbacks to cluster: \n {feedback}

provide each cluster explnation within the following tags:
<Cluster></Cluster>

You are given a feedback and a set of clusters, you need to tell which cluster this feedback belongs to.

```
The clusters are: \n {string_of_clusters}

The feedback is: {feedback}

give your final answer as the number of the correct cluster between <Answer></Answer> tags like: <Answer>1</Answer>.'''
```

A.12 Feedback Prompts

Feedback over mini-batch

You are a teacher and you have to give feedback to your students on their answers.

You are teaching how to solve math problems to your students. You are given a question, it's true answer and answer given by student. You are also given the explanations written by your students while solving the questions.

The questions are answered wrong by the students. You have to tell why is the solution wrong and what information is can be added to the in the Background Knowledge part that would have helped the student to write better explanations.

IMPORTANT: You are also given a history of changes you made to the background knowledge part and the change in student's accuracy after making the change. You have to use this history to make your feedback.

Be explicit and tell the exact information that can be added without further modification / addition.

IMPORTANT: Give feedback in form of instructions like add a section, add a subsection, set the content of a section, set the content of a subsection, delete a section or delete a subsection in the background knowledge part.

Give very granular feedbacks, like if the student has made a mistake in the calculation, then tell what is the mistake in the calculation and how to correct it, if the student has made a mistake in the concept, then tell what is the mistake in the concept and how to correct it.

Now, it is your turn to give feedbacks to the students. You can only provide a one line feedback.

Feedback over batch

You are given a set of feedbacks for some problems. The set feedbacks for each problem separated by ======== symbol. You have to summarize the feedbacks into a final feedback. You are also given a set of wrong questions. You need to tell which edit can be applied to aid the student in solving the wrong question.

To achieve your task, try to follow the following steps;

- 1. Identify the general problem that is being solved by all the feedbacks.
- 2. Once you have identified the problem, try to make a new feedback that covers most of the feedbacks given.

Let's say the problem in the first feedback is the absence of methods to solve linear equation and in the second feedback it is the method to inverse a matrix.

You know that both of these problems can be caused by adding how to solve convert a matrix into row rediced echolon form. So, add that.

3. Try and validate your feedback. Once, you have a feedback try to see if it covers every

feedback, if it does not cover any feedback, add that to your new feedback.

4. See the wrong questions and try to identify what is the problem in the question.

If the problem is not covered by your feedback, add that to your feedback.

5. You can add specifics like examples, definitions etc make sure that the feedback is enough to be directly added without any modification.

You may use the following function templates-

```
add_section(sectioname)
add_subsection(section_name, subsection_name)
set_section_content(section_name, new_content)
set_subsection_content(section_name, subsection_name, new_content)
delete_section(section_name)
delete_subsection(section_name, subsection_name)
```

Your summary cannot include more than four functions. Make sure that the content is useful, not just a very general statement. Something specific.

```
Instructions:
{edits}
```

Wrong Questions:
{wrong_examples_string}

Summary:

A.13 Editing Prompt

You are given an input prompt and a feedback, you have to incorporate the feedback into the input prompt and output the final prompt.

An example of the task is given below

Input Prompt

Introduction: In this task you have to answer the given question.

Table 9: Analysis of the effect of length and contents on the performance of UNIPROMPT

	Ethos	ARC	GSM8K
UNIPROMPT	93.7	90.5	82.4
ICL Prompt	63.0	86.7	76.3
Wrong ICL	70.4	87.1	78.2
Summarized Prompt	84.3	85.5	66.0

Feedback

The background knowledge is incomplete, it does not include what are the factors that affect the water usage and how many water sources are there.

\\add_subsection("Background Knowledge")

\\add_subsection_content(water usage depends on the population,
climate, economic development, and availability of water
sources. There are two sources of water, surface water and
groundwater.)

Final Prompt

Introduction: In this task you have to answer the given question. Background Knowledge: water usage depends on the population, climate, economic development, and availability of water sources. There are two sources of water, surface water and groundwater.

Only output the final prompt nothing else.

INPUT PROMPT
{current_prompt}
FEEDBACK
{edits}

FINAL PROMPT

A.14 Example of prompt evolution using our method

See example in Figure 3.

A.15 Comparision of our method with existing methods

See Figure 4.

A.16 Effect of length on performance of prompt

Here we answer the question: *How much does only length contribute to* UNIPROMPT's success?. To answer this, we replace the prompt with in-context examples of the same context length and compare the accuracies in Table 9. We also compare the case where we include only the examples that the solver LLM gives incorrect prediction on, denoted as "Wrong ICL" row in the table. We see that there is a slight increase in accuracy when wrong examples are included in the prompt over randomly including examples. But, overall, UNIPROMPT performs much better than including in-context examples. This shows that length is not the only factor contributing to UNIPROMPT's success.

Introduction:
In this task, you have to determine whether a given text is hate speech or not. 0 means Non-Hate and 1 means Hate

In this task, you have to determine whether a given text is hate speech or not. 0 means Non-Hate and 1 means Hate

Background Knowledge Contextual Understanding

Contextual Understanding:
When determining if a text is hate speech, it is crucial to consider the context. Not all negative or critical statements are hate speech. Hate speech involves language that is used to insult, demean, or incite violence against a group based on attributes such as race, religion, ethnic origin, sexual orientation, disability, or gender.

Corner Cases: Differentiating Hate Speech from Vulgarity:

Hate speech is distinct from vulgarity or rudeness. While hate speech involves promoting hatred against a protected group, vulgar language is often used to express strong emotions or as an insult but does not necessarily carry the same intent to demean a group based on protected characteristics Differentiating Opinions from Hate Speech:

When evaluating statements, consider the presence of explicit language aimed at a group with the intent to cause harm or incite discrimination. Opinions, even if controversial or unpopular, do not automatically ualify as hate speech unless they contain elements that specifically target a group with hateful intent

Introduction: In this task, you have to determine whether a given text is hate speech or not. 0 means Non-Hate and 1 means Hate.

Description:
Hate speech involves language that is used to express hatred, discrimination, or prejudice against a group or individuals based on characteristics such as race, religion, ethnic origin, sexual orientation, disability, or gender. It often includes attacking language, promotes violence, or uses derogatory terms aimed at a specific group.

Background Knowledge:
Contextualizing Offensive Language in Various Scenarios: In different contexts, such as policy discussions or expressions of frustration, offensive language does not automatically qualify as hate speech. It is

Corner Cases:

Differentiating Between Offensive Language and Hate Speech:

Offensive language can be vulgar or distasteful but does not necessarily constitute hate speech. Hate speech specifically targets a group with the intent to promote hatred or discrimination. Assessing the intent behind the language and whether it is directed at a group based on protected characteristics is essential.

Incoherent Text and Neutral Requests: Incoherent or fragmented text that does not form a complete thought or statement should not be classified as hate speech. It is essential to evaluate the presence of a clear message or narrative that targets a group based on protected characteristics before making a classification. Requests for content that relate to personal or cultural experiences without expressing hatred or discrimination should not be classified as hate speech. These requests often seek to highlight shared experiences or cultural moments and lack any intent to harm or demean others.

Withing Implicit Discriminatory Narratives: Statements that imply a group is responsible for negative outcomes or that things were better without them, even if not overity derogatory, can still constitute hate sch. Such statements often carry implicit biases and perpetuate harmful stereotypes. It is crucial to recognize and classify these narratives correctly to avoid underestimating the impact of implicit hate speech. It is a crucial to recognize and classify these narratives correctly to avoid underestimating the impact of implicit hate speech and their impact: Derogatory Terms and Their impact: Derogatory terms that are used to demean or insult individuals based on their sexual orientation, gender identify, race, or other protected characteristics are a rindicator of hate speech. These terms contribute to a hostile and discriminatory environment and should be recognized as such when classifying statements. Examples of such terms include sturs or pejorative language that is commonly understood to be offensive to a particular group.

Figure 3: Evolution of prompts through iterations of UNIPROMPT on the Ethos dataset. Starting from a simple one-line prompt having an accuracy of 82%, UNIPROMPT adds background knowledge, corner cases, and additional sub-sections yielding a prompt with accuracy 88%. After further iterations, our algorithm converges to a detailed, human-like longform prompt that achieves accuracy of 92%.

Human Prompt

Let's differentiate using step by step reasoning like a medical expert.

Introduction: In this task, you are given a medical question. You have to solve the question. Description: To solve medical questions effectively, it is important to understand various

medical conditions, their progression, and associated clinical features. Background Knowledge: Differential Diagnosis of Subcutaneous Nodules:

When evaluating subcutaneous nodules, consider mobility, consistency, and skin adherence. Epidermoid cysts are firm, non-tender, and the skin cannot be pinched over them. Lipomas are soft, mobile, and have pinchable skin.

Corner Cases: Antiretroviral Therapy Complications:

Doctor should be aware of the common side effects of antiretroviral drugs, with specific attention to the association between didanosine and pancreatitis, and the recommended management strategies, such as replacing didanosine with lamivudine.

Figure 4: Comparison of human-written Prompt and prompt produced by UNIPROMPT on MedQA dataset.

A.17 Do diverse task facets organized as sections really help?

We want to empirically validate if all the diverse task facets that UNIPROMPT learns indeed contribute to the performance gains that we observe in Table 1. We consider two ablations:

- 1) We successively remove each facet (i.e., sections) in the learnt prompt for the task and report the performances of the prompts with fewer facets. In Figure 6, for the Ethos dataset, we see that almost every additional facet contributes to non-trivial gains in accuracy.
- 2) Could we have captured the information differently and retained the performance? We do a simple experiment – we summarize all the facets (i.e., learnt prompt) and evaluate the resulting prompt. In Figure

OPRO optimized prompt

Start by dissecting the problem to highlight important numbers and their relations. Decide on the necessary mathematical operations like addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division, required for resolution. Implement these operations, keeping in mind any units or conditions. Round off by ensuring your solution fits the context of the problem to ensure accuracy <code>Our Prompt</code>

Introduction: In this task, you are given a math question. You have to solve the question.
Strategies for Word Problems:

- 1. Understanding Word Problems: When solving word problems, it is crucial to read each sentence carefully and comprehend the time periods and quantities involved. Avoid incorrect multiplication or addition by paying close attention to whether a quantity remains constant over a period or changes. If a quantity is consistent, it does not need to be multiplied by the number of days or weeks unless the problem specifies otherwise.
- 2. Calculating Averages: To calculate the average of a set of numbers, add all the numbers together and then divide by the number of items. In word problems, ensure you have the correct total before dividing by the number of periods, such as weeks, to find the average for each period.
- 3. Understanding Past and Future Events in Word Problems: Distinguish between past and future events by identifying the starting and ending points. To calculate the time interval between two events, determine the direction of time from past to future and compute the interval accordingly. This understanding is essential when dealing with problems that ask for the time since a past event or until a future event.

Figure 5: Comparison of prompt produced by the state-of-the-art ORPO (Yang et al., 2023) and by UNIPROMPT on the GSM8K dataset.

6 (right) (green line), we see that the summarized prompt has a significant accuracy drop.

Table 10: Sensitivity of UNIPROMPT to expert LLM prompts, on the Ethos dataset.

Expert LLM Prompt for UNIPROMPT	Test Accuracy
Simple prompt for mini-batch feedback	83.5
Simple prompt for batch feedback	91.0
Detailed prompts (Appendix A.12)	93.7

A.18 Sensitivity to prompts used for expert LLMs in UNIPROMPT

The prompts used for expert LLMs in our algorithm, i.e., for clustering, feedback over batches and mini-batches, and editing, do matter for obtaining good performance. However, note that the prompts are task-agnostic and can be used as-is for new tasks. Moreover, prompts for clustering and editing are very simple and involved minimal human effort. Further, to study the reliance of UNIPROMPT on the quality of feedback prompts, we run an ablation study, where we replace the engineered prompts for feedback at batch and mini-batch levels with simpler prompts. The results are given in Table 10 for the Ethos dataset. We observe that the performance of UNIPROMPT depends heavily on the prompt used for obtaining feedback at mini-batch level; whereas simplifying prompt for feedback at the batch level has much less impact on the final accuracy.

A.19 UNIPROMPT training behavior

An example of evolution of prompts using our algorithm is given in Appendix 3. It starts with a simple description of task and adds important facets like differentiating between hate speech and rudeness. In contrast, **ProTeGi** (Pryzant et al., 2023) yields a rather terse prompt on the same dataset: "Does the following text contain language that targets a group of people based on their religion, gender, or other personal characteristics?".

The training curves in Figure 6 show that our method initially performs edits on the prompt that simultaneously increase the train as well as the validation accuracy. After about 10 or 15 iterations (each batch update is an iteration), validation accuracy decreases while train accuracy continues increasing, indicating overfitting; which we overcome using early stopping.



Figure 6: Training curves for MedQA (left) and ARC (middle) datasets when UNIPROMPT is initialized with (published) state-of-the-art prompts; (right) ablation of facets on Ethos.