

ACING: Actor-Critic for Instruction Learning in Black-Box LLMs

Salma Kharrat

Fares Fourati

Marco Canini

KAUST

{salma.kharrat, fares.fourati}@kaust.edu.sa

Abstract

The effectiveness of Large Language Models (LLMs) in solving tasks depends significantly on the quality of their instructions, which often require substantial human effort to craft. This underscores the need for automated instruction optimization. However, optimizing instructions is particularly challenging when working with black-box LLMs, where model parameters and gradients are inaccessible. We introduce ACING, an actor-critic reinforcement learning framework that formulates instruction optimization as a stateless, continuous-action problem, enabling exploration of infinite instruction spaces using only black-box feedback. ACING automatically discovers prompts that outperform human-written prompts in 76% of instruction-induction tasks, with gains of up to 33 points and a 10-point median improvement over the best automatic baseline in 33 tasks spanning instruction-induction, summarization, and chain-of-thought reasoning. Extensive ablations highlight its robustness and efficiency. An implementation of ACING is available at <https://github.com/salmakh1/ACING>.

1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated impressive capabilities across tasks like classification, summarization, and reasoning (Cobbe et al., 2021; Touvron et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024). A key driver of this success is their ability to follow natural language instructions, commonly known as prompts (Chen et al., 2023a; Wei et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023). Yet crafting effective prompts remains labor-intensive and brittle, particularly in black-box settings where model internals are inaccessible.

A core challenge in prompt engineering lies in the extreme sensitivity of LLMs to subtle linguistic variations. Even minor changes in phrasing can lead to substantial performance shifts. As shown in Table 1, a minor wording change yields a 12-point gain (using GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024)) despite

preserving semantics. Such prompt sensitivity is pervasive, underscoring the need for robust, automated prompt optimization methods.

Recent work has explored automating prompt design to reduce human effort (Reynolds and McDonnell, 2021; Mishra et al., 2021). Soft prompting techniques (Li and Liang, 2021; Lester et al., 2021) and heuristic-based discrete search methods (Zhou et al., 2023; Pryzant et al., 2023) have shown promise, yet each faces key limitations in black-box settings. Soft prompts require access to the model internals, limiting them to white-box scenarios. Discrete search methods, in turn, often struggle to explore vast and nuanced instruction spaces efficiently. More recent hybrid methods combine white-box prompt generation with black-box evaluation (Chen et al., 2023b; Lin et al., 2024b), but typically rely on finite candidate pools or rigid reward assumptions, constraining their applicability.

To overcome these limitations, we introduce ACING, an actor-critic reinforcement learning (RL) framework for automated instruction optimization in black-box LLM settings. ACING formulates prompt optimization as a stateless, continuous-action RL problem within a continuum bandit environment. By learning a latent instruction space through an off-policy actor-critic algorithm, ACING efficiently explores infinite instruction candidates, using only black-box feedback for evaluation. A frozen white-box model is used as a decoder to convert latent vectors into discrete prompts, enabling both scalability and linguistic richness. The generated instructions are not only high-performing but also naturally interpretable, clear, and semantically aligned with the tasks, making them suitable for practical deployment. To effectively guide exploration under tight query budgets, ACING leverages entropy-regularized policy optimization, encouraging diversity in sampled prompts and improving the likelihood of discovering high-performing instructions.

Source	Instruction	Score
Human	Write a word that means the opposite of the input word.	0.70
ACING	Take a word and change it to its opposite.	0.82

Table 1: Our prompt vs human on GPT-4o for antonym task.

Notably, to our knowledge, ACING is the first approach to apply off-policy, continuous-action actor-critic reinforcement learning to instruction learning in black-box LLMs, using lightweight actor and critic neural networks (rather than LLMs), making the approach both efficient and widely applicable.

We evaluate ACING against state-of-the-art techniques, including Bayesian optimization, contextual bandits, and evolutionary strategies. Empirical results across 33 diverse tasks—including instruction induction, reasoning (including zero-shot Chain-of-Thought (CoT)), semantics, syntax, phonetics, translation, summarization, and code understanding—show that ACING outperforms both human-written prompts and strong automated baselines. Notably, it surpasses human instructions in 76% of instruction induction tasks, achieving gains of up to 33 points and a median improvement of 10 points over the best automatic baselines.

In summary, our contributions are threefold:

(1) An RL formulation of instruction learning:

We propose a continuous-action actor-critic RL approach for instruction optimization in black-box LLMs, enabling scalable exploration of infinite instruction spaces using entropy-regularized policies.

(2) Comprehensive validation. Across 33 diverse tasks, including instruction induction, zero-shot CoT reasoning, and summarization, ACING consistently outperforms both human-written and strong automated instructions, achieving statistically significant gains.

(3) In-depth analysis and insights: Through extensive ablation studies, we analyze the impact of latent dimensionality, exemplar configuration, decoder architecture, and optimization budget, highlighting the robustness of the ACING approach. Additionally, human evaluation and automated readability analysis confirm the clarity and semantic faithfulness of the generated instructions.

2 Problem Formulation

2.1 Problem: Prompt Optimization for Black-Box LLMs

We aim to improve the performance of a black-box LLM, denoted by f , which can only be accessed through its API, while its internal parameters remain unknown. Given a task represented by an (un-

known) distribution $(x, y) \sim \mathcal{D}$ —where x denotes possible inputs and y the corresponding correct outputs—our goal is to find the optimal prompt τ^* that maximizes the likelihood of f producing correct outputs for a given task. This is evaluated using a scoring function $q(\cdot, \cdot) \in [0, 1]$.

The black-box model f processes an input formed by concatenating (\oplus) the prompt τ with the sentence x , producing a predicted output $\hat{y} = f(\tau \oplus x)$. More formally, the objective is to maximize the expected score of the LLM in solving the task represented by the distribution \mathcal{D} , defined as:

$$\max_{\tau} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim \mathcal{D}} [q(y, f(\tau \oplus x))]. \quad (1)$$

We utilize a validation dataset $\mathcal{V} = \{(x_j, y_j)\}_{j=1}^m$, where each pair consists of an input sentence x_j and its corresponding ground truth output y_j . Our objective is to find the prompt that maximizes the scoring function $q(\cdot, \cdot)$ across the validation dataset, where $q(\hat{y}_j, y_j)$ measures the quality of the predicted output \hat{y}_j against the true output y_j . Thus, our objective becomes finding the prompt τ^* that maximizes the average score over the validation set \mathcal{V} . The derived prompt τ^* is then evaluated on a separate test set $\mathcal{T} = \{(x'_j, y'_j)\}_{j=1}^{m'}$ to assess its generalization performance.

2.2 Reformulating Discrete Prompt Search as a Continuous Optimization Problem

Directly optimizing the prompt τ for the black-box LLM model f presents substantial challenges due to the discrete combinatorial nature of token selection in τ . To mitigate this challenge, similar to prior approaches (Chen et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2024b; Hu et al., 2024) we employ a publicly available, open-source white-box model, represented by h , and introduce a *soft prompt* vector $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, which is a continuous d -dimensional vector representing the token embedding of a set of virtual tokens. The white-box model h , which remains entirely frozen, with no training or gradient updates, serves as a proxy mapping \mathbf{z} into a discrete prompt τ for the black-box LLM.

Given a dataset of exemplars, $\mathcal{E} = \{(u_j, v_j)\}_{j=1}^k$, where each pair (u_j, v_j) defines input-output text sequences that exemplify a downstream task and the vector \mathbf{z} , their concatenation is input to the white-box model, generating the discrete prompt $\tau(\mathbf{z}) = h(\mathbf{z}, \mathcal{E})$. This generated prompt $\tau(\mathbf{z})$ is prepended to a test input x_j from the validation set \mathcal{V} , and the combined input is provided to the black-box LLM f to generate

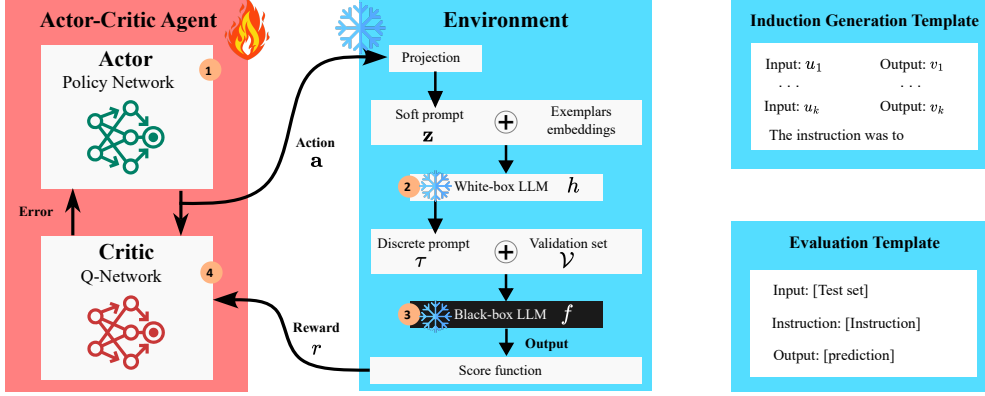


Figure 1: **Pipeline of ACING.** At each iteration, a soft prompt and task exemplars are fed to the white-box model to generate an instruction. This instruction queries the black-box LLM, whose outputs are scored. The resulting score is returned to the agent as a reward, which is used to update its networks and adjust its policy. Both LLMs remain frozen throughout.

an output $\hat{y}_j = f(\tau(\mathbf{z}) \oplus x_j)$. The output \hat{y}_j is then evaluated using the scoring function $q(\hat{y}_j, y_j)$. By using a fixed set of exemplars \mathcal{E} , the original discrete problem (Eq. (1)) of finding the optimal prompt τ is effectively transformed into a continuous optimization problem over the soft prompt vector \mathbf{z} , as follows:

$$\max_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim \mathcal{D}} [q(y, f(\tau(\mathbf{z}) \oplus x))]. \quad (2)$$

The soft prompt \mathbf{z} is typically high-dimensional. Therefore, we employ random projection techniques to reduce the input dimension as done in prior works (Chen et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2024b). Specifically, we sample a matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d'}$ with entries from $\text{Uniform}(-1, 1)$, and optimize a lower-dimensional vector $\mathbf{a} \in [0, 1]^{d'}$. The soft prompt is then given by $\mathbf{z} = P\mathbf{a}$, transforming the original problem into optimization over a compact and continuous space as follows:

$$\max_{\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{d'}} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim \mathcal{D}} [q(y, f(\tau(P\mathbf{a}) \oplus x))]. \quad (3)$$

This optimization problem is central to our framework. The following section elaborates on our approach to solving it. For clarity, we summarize all symbols used in our actor-critic framework in Table 6.

3 Framework for Instruction Learning

We formulate the problem of prompt learning for black-box LLMs as a RL problem, where the agent explores an infinite instruction space by sampling continuous actions $\mathbf{a} \in [0, 1]^{d'}$. Each action corresponds to a latent prompt representation, which is mapped—via a fixed projection matrix and a

decoder—into a discrete instruction. This instruction is then evaluated by the black-box LLM on a validation set to produce a reward indicating task performance. The stateless, stochastic setup places the problem in the continuum bandit regime, unlike traditional discrete multi-armed bandits (Slivkins, 2019; Lattimore and Szepesvári, 2020).

3.1 Actor-Critic for Instruction Optimization

To efficiently learn in a high-dimensional and limited-feedback setting, we propose a stateless, off-policy actor-critic framework inspired by recent advances in continuous control (Konda and Tsitsiklis, 1999; Mnih et al., 2016; Haarnoja et al., 2018, 2019). Our framework comprises lightweight networks: (1) a policy network (actor) $\pi(\cdot; \theta)$, which outputs latent action vectors corresponding to soft prompts, and (2) two critics to compute a value function $Q(\mathbf{a}) = \min\{Q_{\mathbf{w}_1}(\mathbf{a}), Q_{\mathbf{w}_2}(\mathbf{a})\}$, which estimates the expected reward of a given action. Formally, the policy $\pi(\cdot; \theta)$ is modeled as a Gaussian distribution with a diagonal covariance matrix. The actor network outputs the mean and log standard deviation for each action dimension, and actions are sampled using the reparameterization trick. The critics, $Q_{\mathbf{w}_1}(\cdot)$ and $Q_{\mathbf{w}_2}(\cdot)$, are trained to minimize the mean squared error between predicted and observed rewards:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} J_Q(\mathbf{w}) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{a} \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\frac{1}{2} (Q_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{a}) - r(\mathbf{a}))^2 \right], \quad (4)$$

which can be optimized with stochastic gradients

$$\hat{\nabla}_{\mathbf{w}} J_Q(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} Q_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{a}_t) (Q_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{a}_t) - r(\mathbf{a}_t)). \quad (5)$$

Training alternates between actor and critic updates. Despite the lack of state transitions, this

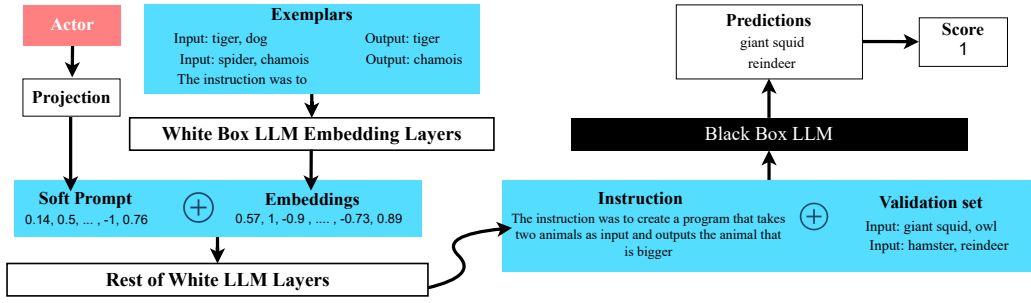


Figure 2: Illustration of the prompt generation and testing inside the environment using the *larger_animal* dataset as an example.

architecture proves effective: the critic generalizes reward signals in prompt space, stabilizes updates by reducing reward variance, and enhances robustness via a twin-critic setup to mitigate overestimation. Empirically, this actor-critic formulation consistently outperforms no-critic baselines.

3.2 Enhancing Exploration via Entropy Regularization

In our setting, the agent operates under a fixed evaluation budget of T queries and must discover the best-performing instruction within this limit. This corresponds to a pure exploration regime, where broad coverage of the action space is essential. While random exploration may seem sufficient, effective learning often requires balancing exploration with exploitation of prior observations to guide the search toward high-reward regions.

To encourage systematic exploration while leveraging past experience, we adopt the maximum entropy reinforcement learning framework (Ziebart, 2010; Haarnoja et al., 2018). This approach augments the expected reward with a policy entropy term, promoting stochasticity in the actor’s decisions. The objective becomes:

$$\min_{\theta} J_{\pi}(\theta) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{a} \sim \pi(\cdot; \theta)} [\alpha \log(\pi(\mathbf{a}; \theta)) - Q_w(\mathbf{a})], \quad (6)$$

where α is a temperature coefficient that governs the exploration-exploitation trade-off. A higher α encourages greater policy entropy, while a lower value biases the policy toward exploitation.

This formulation simplifies the soft actor-critic objective (Haarnoja et al., 2018), omitting state-related components and long-horizon returns, since our environment is stateless and rewards are immediate. The entropy term, $-\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{a} \sim \pi(\cdot; \theta)} [\log \pi(\mathbf{a})]$, incentivizes the actor to maintain a diverse action distribution, thereby avoiding premature convergence to suboptimal prompts.

To avoid manual tuning of α , we follow prior work (Haarnoja et al., 2019) and adapt it to match a target entropy H_{target} , by minimizing:

$$\min_{\alpha} J_{\alpha} \triangleq -\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{a} \sim \pi(\cdot)} [\alpha \cdot (\log \pi(\mathbf{a}; \theta) + H_{\text{target}})]. \quad (7)$$

We use stochastic gradient descent, specifically the Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2017; Reddi et al., 2018), to jointly update the policy, critic, and entropy temperature.

3.3 Putting it All Together

Fig. 1 illustrates our actor-critic framework and its interaction with the environment. Fig. 2 zooms in on an example from the *larger_animal* dataset.

Overview: In each iteration $t \leq T$, the actor-critic agent generates a continuous vector “action” \mathbf{a} (step 1). The action is then projected into the appropriate space using a fixed matrix P to obtain \mathbf{z} . The environment then concatenates the projected vector \mathbf{z} with a set of exemplars’ embeddings from \mathcal{E} and feeds it into a white-box model h (step 2). The white-box model produces a discrete prompt, τ , which is evaluated using the validation dataset \mathcal{V} based on the responses from the black-box LLM f (step 3). The black-box LLM’s prediction is compared to true labels of the validation examples, and a score function provides a reward, used to update both the critic and actor networks accordingly.

Step ①. The actor outputs the mean and variance of a distribution from which the action, a soft prompt vector $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{d'}$, is sampled. It also computes the log probability, which is key for policy optimization, as shown in Eq. (6).

Step ②. As shown in the left side of Fig. 2, the examples describing the task from the set of exemplars \mathcal{E} , along with additional text such as “The instruction was to,” are input into the embedding layer of the white-box model to generate continuous vectors (using the instruction generation template in Fig. 1 top right). These continuous vectors

are then concatenated with the soft prompt \mathbf{z} , projected from the action \mathbf{a} . The white-box model layers subsequently process the resulting concatenated vector to produce the discrete prompt τ , suitable for input into the black-box LLM.

Step ③. As depicted in the right side of Fig. 2, for every input x_i in the validation set $\mathcal{V} = \{(x_j, y_j)\}_{j=1}^m$, the generated prompt τ is concatenated to the input sentence x_i and fed to the black-box LLM, which generates an output sentence $\hat{y}_i = f(\tau(\mathbf{z}) \oplus x_i)$. The output of the black-box LLM is fed into a scoring function $q(\cdot, \cdot)$, which computes the score between the predicted output \hat{y}_i and the true label y_i . The overall score is calculated by averaging the scores across all samples, representing the reward: $r = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m q(\hat{y}_i, y_i)$, where m represents the number of samples.

Step ④. The critic evaluates the actions taken by the actor using the network Q_w , which estimates the expected reward for a generated action \mathbf{a} from the policy network π . Based on the observed reward $r(\mathbf{a})$, the critic updates its network using the loss function (Eq.(4)) and gradient (Eq.(5)). The critic’s feedback helps the actor improve its policy by maximizing the reward (Eq. (6)), ensuring a balance between exploration and exploitation.

After T iterations, the agent returns the best-performing prompt τ^* , which is evaluated on the test set \mathcal{T} in the black-box LLM using the evaluation template shown in Fig. 1 (bottom right).

4 Experiments

We focus on instruction learning for ChatGPT (OpenAI, 2023b), with additional analysis on GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023c) and GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024) as representative black-box LLMs. We conduct instruction induction tasks using 30 datasets spanning several diverse categories from Honovich et al. (2023); Chen et al. (2024), zero-shot CoT reasoning datasets (GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), AQUARAT (Ling et al., 2017)), and summarization on SAMSum (Gliwa et al., 2019).

In §4.1, we compare ACING’s best-learned instructions against human-written prompts from (Honovich et al., 2023). We also benchmark, in §4.2, against four recent black-box instruction optimization methods: APE (Zhou et al., 2023), EvoPrompt (Guo et al., 2024), InstructZero (Chen et al., 2024), and INSTINCT (Lin et al., 2024b). Furthermore, we study the interpretability and clarity of generated instructions (§4.3) and conduct

ablation studies (§4.4) to examine the impact of the different design choices.

To ensure fairness and comparability with other automatic approaches, we adopt a fixed evaluation budget of black-box queries $T = 165$,¹ consistent with prior work. Moreover, ACING uses an off-the-shelf, publicly available white-box decoder to map latent vectors to prompts. Moreover, all learning and evaluation occur solely through black-box interactions, which is consistent with other leading methods (e.g., INSTINCT, InstructZero). To ensure fairness, we fix the same decoder Vicuna-13B (Chiang et al., 2023), as used in their analyses across all methods, while in ablations we compare with WizardLM-13B (Xu et al., 2024).

The experimental setup isolates ACING’s core contribution, ensuring that performance gains are not attributable to decoder selection or tuning. Further details, including hyperparameters, are provided in Appendix B.

4.1 ACING vs. Humans

We compare instructions found by ACING against human-authored prompts from Honovich et al. (2023) across a broad range of instruction-induction tasks. Table 2 highlights only those tasks where test performance differed between the two. The full set of tasks is included in Appendix H.

ACING not only matches but often surpasses human-written instructions—often by substantial margins. For instance, in the Antonyms task, the human instruction (“Write a word that means the opposite of the input word”) scores 0.70. ACING improves this to 0.82 with a more direct and actionable phrasing: “Take a word and change it to its opposite.” The formulation is simpler yet effective.

Consider the rhyming task, where the human instruction—“Write a word that rhymes with the input word”—yields a score of 0.61. ACING significantly improves performance, achieving a perfect score of 1.00 with an alternative phrasing. This highlights ACING’s ability to discover high-performing instructions that align closely with the underlying model behavior.

In the sentence similarity task, where the human instruction results in a score of 0.00, ACING raises performance to 0.21. The highest-scoring ACING instruction introduces a mild incline toward a mid-scale output (“3 - probably”), but its phrasing remains semantically valid and interpretable. A

¹See Appendix G.3 for reward plots where ACING often peaks well before the budget is exhausted.

Category	Task	Human Instruction	ACING Instruction (Ours)	Human	ACING
<i>Spelling</i>	Second_word_letter	Extract the second letter of the input word.	Input a word and output the letter that corresponds to the second letter in that word	0.96 (0.00)	0.92 (0.00)
<i>Syntax</i>	Negation	Negate the input sentence.	Flip the truth value of the statements in the input	0.81 (0.00)	0.82 (0.00)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	Write a word that means the opposite of the input word.	Take a word and change it to its opposite	0.70 (0.00)	0.83 (0.00)
	Synonyms	Write a word with a similar meaning to the input word.	Input a word that is a synonym for the word that was output	0.14 (0.01)	0.13 (0.00)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	Write a word that rhymes with the input word.	Input the word that the program thought I was inputting and then output the word that program thought I was inputting	0.61 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
<i>Semantics</i>	Cause_and_effect	Find which of the two given cause and effect sentences is the cause.	Find the sentence that is the cause of the effect in the pair of sentences	0.97 (0.02)	0.90 (0.02)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	Rephrase the sentence in formal language.	Convert the input into output using the same word order and with the same meaning	0.63 (0.00)	0.50 (0.00)
<i>Multi-lingual</i>	Translation_en-de	Translate the word into German.	Provide a translation for each word in the English text into German	0.81 (0.00)	0.84 (0.00)
	Translation_en-es	Translate the word into Spanish.	Translate the words from English to Spanish, but I noticed that some of the translations are not accurate	0.89 (0.00)	0.88 (0.00)
	Translation_en-fr	Translate the word into French.	Create a program that would take an English word as input and output its French equivalent	0.86 (0.00)	0.87 (0.00)
<i>GLUE</i>	Sentiment	Determine whether a movie review is positive or negative.	Classify each input as positive or negative based on the assessment of the corresponding movie	0.89 (0.01)	0.91 (0.00)
	Sentence_similarity	Rate the semantic similarity of two input sentences on a scale of 0 - definitely not to 5 - perfectly.	Find a sentence pair that is probably not similar, and the output is 3 - probably	0.00 (0.00)	0.21 (0.00)
				<i>median score</i>	0.86
				<i># best-performing tasks</i>	7

Table 2: Tasks from the instruction-induction datasets where the human and ACING test scores differed. For each task, we provide the corresponding human instruction as proposed in (Honovich et al., 2023) and our best discovered instruction. We tested these instructions on the test dataset and report the average score (with standard deviation) over 3 repetitions.

second-best instruction, unbiased, still improves upon the human-written version by 0.14 points.

On average, ACING improves the median task score from 0.81 to 0.86 and outperforms human-written instructions on 7 out of 12 tasks in this subset—underscoring its potential as a practical and effective alternative to manual prompt engineering. Further generated instructions are in Appendix J. Furthermore, extended results with GPT-4o are provided in Table 11 in Appendix E.

4.2 ACING vs. Other Optimization Methods

Instruction-induction datasets: In Table 3, we show tasks from (Honovich et al., 2023) where at least one method failed to achieve 70% score (full results on all 30 tasks can be found in Appendix C). The table shows the average test accuracy (along with the standard deviation) over three independent runs, using three different seeds. For each seed, we selected the best instruction achieved by each method and evaluated it on the testing dataset. The results demonstrate that our method, ACING, outperforms the others, achieving the highest accuracy in 13 out of the remaining 23 tasks, compared to INSTINCT, InstructZERO, EvoPrompt, and APE, which succeeded in 8 tasks or fewer. Additionally, ACING achieves the highest median accuracy across tasks, with a value of 0.69, which is approx-

imately 10 percentage points higher than the best baseline. The score types can be found in Table 8. Moreover, the best prompt achieved for each task and the corresponding test scores, can be found in Table 22 in Appendix C. Further analyses on GPT-4 can be found in the Appendix. D.

CoT datasets. We evaluate our method on two zero-shot CoT reasoning datasets: GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) and AQUA-RAT (Ling et al., 2017). Prior work (Kojima et al., 2022) shows that simple CoT prompts can enhance LLM performance. Using 100 steps (and other settings as above), ACING achieves the best results on both, demonstrating strong CoT reasoning capability.

Summarization dataset. We compare the performance of ACING with other methods on summarization tasks using the SAMSum dataset (Gliwa et al., 2019). The results, presented in Table 4, show that ACING outperforms the other methods across the three metrics considered: ROUGE-1, ROUGE-2, and ROUGE-L (Lin, 2004).

Statistical significance test. We conduct a Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Wilcoxon, 1992), a non-parametric test. The results confirm that ACING significantly outperforms all baselines across tasks, with $p = 0.0005$ (APE), 0.0041 (INSTINCT), 0.0092 (EvoPrompt), and 0.0335 (InstructZero), all below the standard 0.05 threshold, indicating that

Category	Task	APE	EvoPrompt	InstructZero	INSTINCT	ACING
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	0.59 (0.02)	0.97 (0.03)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	First_word_letter	0.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	0.00 (0.00)	0.63 (0.17)	0.35 (0.09)	0.39 (0.28)	0.70 (0.15)
<i>Morpho-Syntax</i>	Negation	0.79 (0.00)	0.84 (0.02)	0.65 (0.10)	0.58 (0.22)	0.71 (0.06)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Synonyms	0.14 (0.01)	0.19 (0.07)	0.22 (0.11)	0.19 (0.08)	0.13 (0.02)
	Word_unscrambling	0.54 (0.00)	0.44 (0.06)	0.59 (0.06)	0.54 (0.02)	0.50 (0.07)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.59 (0.01)	0.52 (0.05)	0.99 (0.01)	0.36 (0.04)	0.57 (0.31)
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	0.87 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	0.70 (0.21)	1.00 (0.00)
	Diff	0.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	0.93 (0.09)	1.00 (0.00)
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.72 (0.02)	0.58 (0.06)	0.63 (0.07)	0.81 (0.09)	0.84 (0.07)
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.44 (0.09)	0.48 (0.10)	0.52 (0.09)	0.55 (0.11)	0.69 (0.15)
	Common_concept	0.03 (0.02)	0.17 (0.00)	0.14 (0.04)	0.09 (0.04)	0.19 (0.05)
	Object_counting	0.30 (0.02)	0.50 (0.06)	0.38 (0.06)	0.40 (0.12)	0.41 (0.03)
	Odd_one_out	0.32 (0.02)	0.64 (0.04)	0.57 (0.02)	0.25 (0.18)	0.64 (0.00)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.23 (0.01)	0.47 (0.02)	0.41 (0.09)	0.54 (0.06)	0.60 (0.12)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.02 (0.02)	0.38 (0.15)	0.67 (0.14)	0.85 (0.06)	0.71 (0.02)
	Auto_categorization	0.31 (0.01)	0.20 (0.03)	0.29 (0.02)	0.07 (0.07)	0.29 (0.04)
	Word_sorting	0.58 (0.01)	0.01 (0.00)	0.64 (0.05)	0.23 (0.20)	0.70 (0.03)
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.00 (0.00)	0.05 (0.00)	0.10 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.13 (0.07)
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	0.13 (0.02)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)
	Translation_en-es	0.86 (0.01)	0.76 (0.00)	0.67 (0.24)	0.89 (0.00)	0.87 (0.02)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.57 (0.01)	0.50 (0.02)	0.48 (0.02)	0.54 (0.09)	0.44 (0.05)
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)	0.07 (0.07)	0.25 (0.00)
	median score	0.31	0.50	0.59	0.54	0.69
	# best-performing tasks	3	7	8	4	13

Table 3: Average test performance (with standard deviations) over 3 seeds comparing ACING to APE (Zhou et al., 2023), EvoPrompt (Guo et al., 2024), InstructZero (Chen et al., 2024), and INSTINCT (Lin et al., 2024b) on the 23 most challenging tasks (where at least one method has score < 0.7). Bottom rows show median scores and the number of best-performing tasks.

Metric	APE	EvoPompt	InstructZero	INSTINCT	ACING
ROUGE-1	0.35 (0.01)	0.35 (0.01)	0.33 (0.00)	0.36 (0.01)	0.37 (0.01)
ROUGE-2	0.12 (0.00)	0.12 (0.00)	0.11 (0.00)	0.14 (0.00)	0.14 (0.00)
ROUGE-L	0.25 (0.00)	0.26 (0.00)	0.24 (0.01)	0.27 (0.01)	0.28 (0.01)

Table 4: Average test performance (and standard deviations) for summarization task using SAMSum dataset.

the observed gains are statistically significant.

Results breakdown. To better understand ACING’s strengths, we grouped the tasks into various categories. On cognitive tasks, requiring complex reasoning, ACING demonstrates the clearest advantage. It ranks first on 5 out of 8 such tasks from Table 3, including Cause_and_effect (0.69, +14%), Word_sorting (0.70, +6%), Odd_one_out (0.64, tied), and Orthography_starts_with (0.60, +6%). As shown in Fig. 3 (ordered left to right by median ranking), ACING achieves the best median rank and shows a strong skew toward top rankings in this category. Furthermore, ACING shows the best performance in the zero-shot CoT reasoning tasks (Table 5). In symbolic manipulation, ACING again performs best, achieving perfect scores on Letters_list and First_word_letter, and leading on Second_word_letter (0.70 vs. 0.63). This highlights its precision in low-level, structured tasks. ACING is competitive but not dominant in tasks involving lexical semantics, world knowledge, and translation—e.g., Informal_to_formal (0.44 vs. 0.57), and Translation_en-es (0.87 vs. 0.89). Finally, it consistently outperforms the other methods in summarization.

4.3 Instruction Clarity and Readability

To evaluate the interpretability and clarity of generated instructions, we assess whether ACING-generated prompts are understandable and task-aligned. We conduct a human evaluation with 26 participants who rated the clarity and alignment of generated instructions from Table 2 on a 5-point Likert scale. The results show that participants found the prompts generally clear, with a median score of 3.9/5 (see Appendix I for the protocol and statistics). In parallel, we use standard readability metrics to automatically assess the generated prompts. The results show a median Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) of 70.8, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (FKG) of 7.0, and Coleman-Liau Index (CLI) of 7.3. These scores correspond to mid-grade readability (7th–8th grade), indicating that the generated instructions are accessible to a broad user base.

4.4 Ablation Studies

We present detailed ablation studies on key design choices, summarize some below, and provide full results and plots in Appendices G.1–G.7.

Use of critics. We compare our method (with two critics) to variants with a single critic and to a baseline without a critic (policy-gradient). As shown in Appendix G.1, the two-critic architecture yields the highest accuracy, best stability, and top performance in difficult settings (e.g., cognitive), confirming the value of conservative estimation.

Method	Dataset	Best Zero-Shot Instruction	Score
(Kojima et al., 2022)	GSM8K	Let’s think step by step.	0.72
INSTINCT (Lin et al., 2024b)	GSM8K	Let’s use our creativity to find the solution.	0.75
ACING (Ours)	GSM8K	Let’s use our math skills to conquer this challenge.	0.76
(Kojima et al., 2022)	AQUA-RAT	Let’s think step by step.	0.59
INSTINCT (Lin et al., 2024b)	AQUA-RAT	Let’s break it down.	0.59
ACING (Ours)	AQUA-RAT	Let’s use the power of substitution to solve this problem.	0.63

Table 5: Best zero-shot instructions and corresponding scores for different methods and datasets.

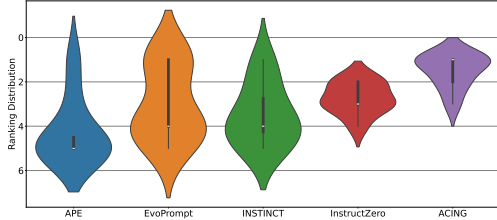


Figure 3: Ranking distributions across cognitive tasks for all algorithms, ordered increasing by median rank.

Budget efficiency. While ACING uses a fixed 165-query budget for fair comparison with prior work, it often converges well before the budget is exhausted. As illustrated in Appendix G.3, many tasks reach optimal rewards within 60–80 queries, and some within 10–20, showing strong sample efficiency under constrained settings.

White-box model. Using WizardLM-13B (Xu et al., 2024) instead of Vicuna improves median test accuracy by 8 points and increases the number of best-performing tasks (Appendix G.7). This demonstrates that ACING can benefit from stronger decoding models, although it remains effective across architectures.

Action dimensionality. We test latent action sizes $d' \in \{5, 10, 20, 40, 100\}$. Results in Appendix G.5 show that $d' = 10$ and $d' = 20$ perform consistently well, while larger dimensions like $d' = 40$ yield improvements on specific tasks.

Number of exemplars. Using a single exemplar performs surprisingly well and matches the 5-exemplar setup on several tasks (e.g., phonetics and summation). Still, five exemplars offer more consistent gains on complex tasks (Appendix G.6).

Budget splitting. We explore dividing the query budget into an exploration phase and a final re-ranking phase, where top prompts are re-evaluated multiple times. This two-phase strategy improves median test scores by 5 points and boosts the number of best-performing tasks (Appendix G.4).

5 Related Work

Early approaches such as AutoPrompt (Shin et al., 2020), FluentPrompt (Shi et al., 2023), and soft prompt tuning (Lester et al., 2021; Li and Liang,

2021; Zhong et al., 2021) rely on access to model gradients or embeddings, limiting their applicability in black-box settings. Grey-box methods such as BBT and BBTv2 (Sun et al., 2022b,a) and CLIP-tuning (Chai et al., 2022) relax these constraints by leveraging token embeddings or logits, but are still incompatible with API-only black-box models.

Several recent works frame instruction search as a discrete optimization problem. RLPrompt (Deng et al., 2022) and Tempera (Zhang et al., 2023) use RL to identify prompts, but assume access to token-level outputs or confidence scores. Alternatively, sampling- and evolution-based strategies such as APE (Zhou et al., 2023), PromptBreeder (Fernando et al., 2024), EvoPrompt (Guo et al., 2024), PromptWizard (Agarwal et al., 2024), and Auto Evol-Instruct (Zeng et al., 2024) iteratively generate and refine candidate prompts via LLM sampling or mutation. While effective in some cases, these methods typically rely on large candidate pools or expensive query budgets.

Zeroth-order optimization (e.g., AIO (Qi et al., 2025), ZOPO (Hu et al., 2024)) estimates gradients without backpropagation, yet incurs high computational cost and query complexity. InstructZero (Chen et al., 2024) and INSTINCT (Lin et al., 2024b) apply Bayesian Optimization (BO) and NeuralUCB (Zhou et al., 2020) within a finite action space. In contrast, StablePrompt (Kwon et al., 2024) uses PPO to stabilize discrete prompt learning, but fine-tune white-box LLMs. Our approach differs by formulating prompt optimization as a continuous-action RL problem, enabling more efficient exploration without gradient access or large models.

Complementary strategies include exemplar selection (Wu et al., 2024), preference-based feedback (Lin et al., 2024a), and best-arm identification (Shi et al., 2024). However, these typically rely on fixed prompt pools or require human preference labels. ACING jointly addresses both the generation and selection in a unified framework, yielding high-performing prompts without pool constraints or external supervision.

6 Conclusion

We present ACING, an actor-critic RL framework for prompt optimization in black-box LLMs. By formulating the task as a continuous-action problem, ACING enables exploration of an infinite space through an entropy-regularized policy under strict query constraints. It outperforms strong baselines and surpasses human-written instructions, without any per-task tuning, demonstrating effectiveness, efficiency, and practicality.

7 Limitations

While ACING achieves strong and consistent performance across diverse tasks, we do not claim universal superiority on every individual task. Given the stochastic and non-convex nature of prompt optimization—particularly in black-box LLMs under tight query budgets—strong prompts can occasionally arise even from random search or other optimization approaches. However, ACING substantially improves the chances of discovering such prompts through a principled exploration strategy grounded in actor-critic learning.

Similar to previous prior works (Lin et al., 2024b; Chen et al., 2024; Hu et al., 2024), our reliance on a white-box model introduces variability, as model selection affects performance (Appendix G.7). Addressing this limitation would require operating directly on black-box LLMs, which poses challenges due to the large discrete action space. Adapting RL methods for such spaces, as explored in Fourati et al. (2024), and proposing hybrid approaches combining soft-prompt and discrete optimization, represent promising directions for future research.

Despite the strong performance achieved with a fixed hyperparameter configuration across all tasks, we acknowledge that domain-specific tuning might yield marginal gains, particularly in edge cases. That said, our goal was to emphasize generality and simplicity without introducing per-task overhead—an important factor for real-world usability.

8 Ethical Considerations

ACING automates prompt optimization for LLMs, which can reduce manual effort but may also amplify risks associated with bias, misuse, or harmful content generation. We emphasize that ACING is a general optimization framework and does not guarantee ethical outputs from the underlying LLMs. It should be paired with appropriate content filters

and safety mechanisms when deployed in sensitive domains. Optimized prompts could reinforce or amplify existing biases present in the base LLMs. Future work should incorporate fairness-aware reward functions or post-hoc bias mitigation.

Lastly, our experiments assume legal and ethical API usage, and we caution against applying instruction optimization to restricted or proprietary models without adherence to usage policies and terms of service.

References

- Eshaan Agarwal, Joykirat Singh, Vivek Dani, Raghav Magazine, Tanuja Ganu, and Akshay Nambi. 2024. Promptwizard: Task-aware prompt optimization framework. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.18369*.
- Yekun Chai, Shuohuan Wang, Yu Sun, Hao Tian, Hua Wu, and Haifeng Wang. 2022. [Clip-Tuning: Towards Derivative-free Prompt Learning with a Mixture of Rewards](#). In *EMNLP*.
- Jiuhai Chen, Lichang Chen, Heng Huang, and Tianyi Zhou. 2023a. [When do you need Chain-of-Thought Prompting for ChatGPT?](#) *Preprint*, arXiv:2304.03262.
- Lichang Chen, Jiuhai Chen, Tom Goldstein, Heng Huang, and Tianyi Zhou. 2023b. [Instructzero: Efficient instruction optimization for black-box large language models](#). *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.03082*.
- Lichang Chen, Jiuhai Chen, Tom Goldstein, Heng Huang, and Tianyi Zhou. 2024. [InstructZero: Efficient Instruction Optimization for Black-Box Large Language Models](#). In *ICML*.
- Wei-Lin Chiang, Zhuohan Li, Zi Lin, Ying Sheng, Zhanghao Wu, Hao Zhang, Lianmin Zheng, Siyuan Zhang, Yonghao Zhuang, Joseph E. Gonzalez, Ion Stoica, and Eric P. Xing. 2023. [Vicuna: An Open-Source Chatbot Impressing GPT-4 with 90%* ChatGPT Quality](#).
- Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, and 1 others. 2021. [Training verifiers to solve math word problems](#). *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.14168*.
- Meri Coleman and Ta Lin Liau. 1975. [A computer readability formula designed for machine scoring](#). *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60(2):283.
- 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 *EMNLP*.

- Chrisantha Fernando, Dylan Sunil Banarse, Henryk Michalewski, Simon Osindero, and Tim Rocktäschel. 2024. Promptbreeder: Self-referential self-improvement via prompt evolution. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 13481–13544. PMLR.
- Rudolph Flesch. 1948. A new readability yardstick. *Journal of applied psychology*, 32(3):221.
- Fares Fourati, Vaneet Aggarwal, and Mohamed-Slim Alouini. 2024. Stochastic Q-learning for Large Discrete Action Spaces. In *ICML*.
- Bogdan Gliwa, Iwona Mochol, Maciej Biesek, and Aleksander Wawer. 2019. SAMSUM Corpus: A Human-annotated Dialogue Dataset for Abstractive Summarization. In *Workshop on New Frontiers in Summarization*.
- Qingyan Guo, Rui Wang, Junliang Guo, Bei Li, Kaitao Song, Xu Tan, Guoqing Liu, Jiang Bian, and Yujiu Yang. 2024. Connecting Large Language Models with Evolutionary Algorithms Yields Powerful Prompt Optimizers. In *ICLR*.
- Tuomas Haarnoja, Aurick Zhou, Pieter Abbeel, and Sergey Levine. 2018. Soft Actor-Critic: Off-Policy Maximum Entropy Deep Reinforcement Learning with a Stochastic Actor. In *ICML*.
- Tuomas Haarnoja, Aurick Zhou, Kristian Hartikainen, George Tucker, Sehoon Ha, Jie Tan, Vikash Kumar, Henry Zhu, Abhishek Gupta, Pieter Abbeel, and Sergey Levine. 2019. Soft Actor-Critic Algorithms and Applications. *Preprint*, arXiv:1812.05905.
- Or Honovich, Uri Shaham, Samuel R. Bowman, and Omer Levy. 2023. Instruction Induction: From Few Examples to Natural Language Task Descriptions. In *ACL*.
- Wenyang Hu, Yao Shu, Zongmin Yu, Zhaoxuan Wu, Xiangqiang Lin, Zhongxiang Dai, See-Kiong Ng, and Bryan Kian Hsiang Low. 2024. Localized zeroth-order prompt optimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.02993*.
- Aaron Hurst, Adam Lerer, Adam P Goucher, Adam Perelman, Aditya Ramesh, Aidan Clark, AJ Ostrow, Akila Welihinda, Alan Hayes, Alec Radford, and 1 others. 2024. Gpt-4o system card. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.21276*.
- J Peter Kincaid, Robert P Fishburne Jr, Richard L Rogers, and Brad S Chissom. 1975. Derivation of new readability formulas (automated readability index, fog count and flesch reading ease formula) for navy enlisted personnel.
- Diederik P. Kingma and Jimmy Ba. 2017. Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization. *Preprint*, arXiv:1412.6980.
- Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. 2022. Large language models are zero-shot reasoners. In *Proc. NeurIPS*, pages 22199–22213.
- Vijay Konda and John Tsitsiklis. 1999. Actor-critic algorithms. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 12.
- Minchan Kwon, Gaeun Kim, Jongsuk Kim, Haeil Lee, and Junmo Kim. 2024. Stableprompt: Automatic prompt tuning using reinforcement learning for large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.07652*.
- Tor Lattimore and Csaba Szepesvári. 2020. *Bandit Algorithms*. Cambridge University Press.
- Brian Lester, Rami Al-Rfou, and Noah Constant. 2021. The Power of Scale for Parameter-Efficient Prompt Tuning. In *EMNLP*.
- Xiang Lisa Li and Percy Liang. 2021. Prefix-Tuning: Optimizing Continuous Prompts for Generation. In *ACL-IJCNLP*.
- Chin-Yew Lin. 2004. ROUGE: A package for automatic evaluation of summaries. In *Text summarization branches out*, pages 74–81.
- Xiaoqiang Lin, Zhongxiang Dai, Arun Verma, See-Kiong Ng, Patrick Jaillet, and Bryan Kian Hsiang Low. 2024a. Prompt optimization with human feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.17346*.
- 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 *ICML*.
- Wang Ling, Dani Yogatama, Chris Dyer, and Phil Blunsom. 2017. Program induction by rationale generation: Learning to solve and explain algebraic word problems. In *Proc. Annual Meeting of the ACL*, pages 158–167.
- Pengfei Liu, Weizhe Yuan, Jinlan Fu, Zhengbao Jiang, Hiroaki Hayashi, and Graham Neubig. 2023. Pre-Train, Prompt, and Predict: A Systematic Survey of Prompting Methods in Natural Language Processing. *ACM Computing Surveys*, 55(9).
- Swaroop Mishra, Daniel Khashabi, Chitta Baral, Yejin Choi, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2021. Reframing Instructional Prompts to GPTk’s Language. In *ACL*.
- Volodymyr Mnih, Adria Puigdomenech Badia, Mehdi Mirza, Alex Graves, Timothy Lillicrap, Tim Harley, David Silver, and Koray Kavukcuoglu. 2016. Asynchronous Methods for Deep Reinforcement Learning. In *ICML*.
- OpenAI. 2023a. ChatGPT. <https://chat.openai.com>.
- OpenAI. 2023b. ChatGPT: A Conversational AI Model.

- OpenAI. 2023c. [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 *EMNLP*.
- Yunzhe Qi, Jinjin Tian, Ruirui Li, Tianci Liu, Tianxin Wei, Hui Liu, Xianfeng Tang, Monica Xiao Cheng, and Jingrui He. 2025. [Automatic task-aware instruction optimizer for black-box llms](#).
- Sashank J Reddi, Satyen Kale, and Sanjiv Kumar. 2018. [On the Convergence of Adam and Beyond](#). In *ICLR*.
- Laria Reynolds and Kyle McDonell. 2021. [Prompt Programming for Large Language Models: Beyond the Few-Shot Paradigm](#). In *CHI EA*.
- Chengshuai Shi, Kun Yang, Jing Yang, and Cong Shen. 2024. [Best Arm Identification for Prompt Learning under a Limited Budget](#). In *ICLR 2024 Workshop on Mathematical and Empirical Understanding of Foundation Models*.
- Weijia Shi, Xiaochuang Han, Hila Gonen, Ari Holtzman, Yulia Tsvetkov, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2023. [Toward Human Readable Prompt Tuning: Kubrick’s The Shining is a good movie, and a good prompt too?](#) In *EMNLP*.
- Taylor Shin, Yasaman Razeghi, Robert L Logan IV, Eric Wallace, and Sameer Singh. 2020. [AutoPrompt: Eliciting Knowledge from Language Models with Automatically Generated Prompts](#). In *EMNLP*.
- Aleksandrs Slivkins. 2019. [Introduction to Multi-Armed Bandits](#). *Foundations and Trends® in Machine Learning*, 12(1-2).
- Tianxiang Sun, Zhengfu He, Hong Qian, Xuanjing Huang, and Xipeng Qiu. 2022a. [BBTv2: Towards a Gradient-Free Future with Large Language Models](#). In *EMNLP*.
- Tianxiang Sun, Yunfan Shao, Hong Qian, Xuanjing Huang, and Xipeng Qiu. 2022b. [Black-Box Tuning for Language-Model-as-a-Service](#). In *ICML*.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurelien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. 2023. [LLaMA: Open and Efficient Foundation Language Models](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2302.13971.
- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, brian ichter, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, and Denny Zhou. 2022. [Chain-of-Thought Prompting Elicits Reasoning in Large Language Models](#). In *NeurIPS*.
- Frank Wilcoxon. 1992. [Individual comparisons by ranking methods](#). In *Breakthroughs in statistics: Methodology and distribution*, pages 196–202. Springer.
- Zhaoxuan Wu, Xiaoqiang Lin, Zhongxiang Dai, Wenyang Hu, Yao Shu, See-Kiong Ng, Patrick Jaillet, and Bryan Kian Hsiang Low. 2024. [Prompt optimization with ease? efficient ordering-aware automated selection of exemplars](#). *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.16122*.
- Can Xu, Qingfeng Sun, Kai Zheng, Xiubo Geng, Pu Zhao, Jiazhan Feng, Chongyang Tao, and Daxin Jiang. 2024. [WizardLM: Empowering Large Pre-Trained Language Models to Follow Complex Instructions](#). In *ICLR*.
- Weihao Zeng, Can Xu, Yingxiu Zhao, Jian-Guang Lou, and Weizhu Chen. 2024. [Automatic instruction evolving for large language models](#). In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 6998–7018.
- Tianjun Zhang, Xuezhi Wang, Denny Zhou, Dale Schuurmans, and Joseph E Gonzalez. 2023. [TEMPERA: Test-Time Prompt Editing via Reinforcement Learning](#). In *ICLR*.
- Wayne Xin Zhao, Kun Zhou, Junyi Li, Tianyi Tang, Xiaolei Wang, Yupeng Hou, Yingqian Min, Beichen Zhang, Junjie Zhang, Zican Dong, Yifan Du, Chen Yang, Yushuo Chen, Zhipeng Chen, Jinhao Jiang, Ruiyang Ren, Yifan Li, Xinyu Tang, Zikang Liu, and 3 others. 2024. [A Survey of Large Language Models](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2303.18223.
- Zexuan Zhong, Dan Friedman, and Danqi Chen. 2021. [Factual Probing Is \[MASK\]: Learning vs. Learning to Recall](#). In *NAACL*.
- Dongruo Zhou, Lihong Li, and Quanquan Gu. 2020. [Neural Contextual Bandits with UCB-based Exploration](#). In *ICML*.
- Yongchao Zhou, Andrei Ioan Muresanu, Ziwen Han, Keiran Paster, Silviu Pitis, Harris Chan, and Jimmy Ba. 2023. [Large Language Models are Human-Level Prompt Engineers](#). In *ICLR*.
- Brian D Ziebart. 2010. [Modeling Purposeful Adaptive Behavior with the Principle of Maximum Causal Entropy](#). Ph.D. thesis, Carnegie Mellon University.

A Table of Notations

For clarity, we summarize all symbols used in our actor-critic framework in Table 6.

B Experimental Details

B.1 Hyperparameters

Across the diverse tasks, in the main paper, the same hyperparameters were used, which shows that the algorithm generalizes well across the 30 tasks without specifically tuning hyperparameters in each task. A summary of the key parameters can be found in the following Table.

Furthermore, like previous works, we use their default (tuned) hyperparameters for the results in the main paper, including the intrinsic dimension $d' = 10$ and the number of soft tokens $N_z = 5$. For fairness, we refrain from fine-tuning these parameters for our method and use the same values as in prior works. This ensures that our ACING algorithm searches in the same space, $[0, 1]^{10}$, and uses the same total number of queries to the black-box LLM as APE, InstructZero, and INSTINCT for a fair comparison. For each algorithm, after identifying the best instruction using the validation set \mathcal{V} , we evaluate the discovered instruction on a separate test set \mathcal{T} and report the test score.

B.2 Actor-Critic Details

Across all the tasks, we used three fully-connected layers for both the actor ($1 - 1024 - 256 - 10$) and the critics ($10 - 128 - 128 - 1$) networks, with learning rates fixed at $3 \cdot 10^{-4}$ for each. We learn the entropy parameter α using a learning rate of $9 \cdot 10^{-4}$. We adopt two independently trained critics and take the minimum of their outputs to mitigate overestimation bias. This conservative approach helps regularize training and improves robustness, particularly in tasks with noisy or sparse rewards. We further validate this choice in our ablation studies with one critic, two critics, and without critics.

B.3 Metrics

Table 8 outlines the evaluation metrics used across various task types. Depending on the nature of the task, we adopt different scoring schemes to ensure fair and meaningful evaluation. For most classification and generation tasks, we employ exact match (EM) scoring, which requires the prediction to match the ground truth exactly, making it a stringent yet interpretable metric.

B.4 Licenses and Terms of Use for Artifacts

Black-box APIs. We use the OpenAI API to access ChatGPT (OpenAI, 2023a), GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023c), and GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024) for black-box evaluation. These models are proprietary and accessed via paid API under OpenAI’s terms of service. We do not redistribute or modify these models.

White-box Models. Our framework uses Vicuna-13B (Chiang et al., 2023) (and WizardLM (Xu et al., 2024) for ablations) as a frozen decoder to generate discrete prompts. Both models are publicly available for research use under a non-commercial license. We follow all usage restrictions and do not modify or redistribute these models.

Datasets. We use publicly available datasets including:

- Instruction induction datasets from Honovich et al. (2023).
- SAMSum (Gliwa et al., 2019) for summarization.
- GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) and AQUA-RAT (Ling et al., 2017) for reasoning.

All datasets are used under their original licenses and are cited appropriately.

Our Code and Models. We will publicly release our implementation, including the actor-critic training framework and prompt optimization pipeline, under an open-source license (MIT license) upon publication.

B.5 Data Usage, Privacy, and Safety Considerations

All datasets for the studied tasks are publicly released and widely used in NLP research. We used them under their respective licenses for academic use, and we cite the original sources in all cases.

Privacy and Anonymization. None of the datasets we used contain personally identifiable information (PII) to the best of our knowledge. The datasets are either synthetic, anonymized, or derived from public sources with appropriate pre-processing. We did not augment or modify these datasets in ways that would introduce identifying information.

Symbol	Meaning
f	Black-box LLM (only accessible via API)
h	White-box LLM (frozen, used as decoder)
D	Task distribution over input–output pairs (x, y)
V	Validation set $\{(x_j, y_j)\}_{j=1}^m$
T	Test set $\{(x'_j, y'_j)\}_{j=1}^{m'}$
$q(\cdot, \cdot)$	Scoring function measuring output quality
τ	Discrete prompt
$\tau(z)$	Prompt generated from soft prompt z
$\tau(Pa)$	Prompt from projected action vector a
τ^*	Optimal prompt
$z \in \mathbb{R}^d$	Soft prompt vector (continuous)
$a \in [0, 1]^{d'}$	Action (latent prompt representation)
$P \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d'}$	Random projection matrix
$\pi(\cdot; \theta)$	Policy network (actor) with parameters θ
$Q_{w_1}(a), Q_{w_2}(a)$	Twin critic networks with parameters w_1, w_2
$Q(a)$	Value estimate: $Q(a) = \min\{Q_{w_1}(a), Q_{w_2}(a)\}$
$J_Q(w)$	Critic loss: $\mathbb{E}_{a \sim D} [\frac{1}{2}(Q_w(a) - r(a))^2]$
$J_\pi(\theta)$	Actor loss (entropy-regularized policy objective)
$r(a)$	Reward obtained from the environment
α	Temperature coefficient for entropy regularization
H_{target}	Target entropy for adaptive α

Table 6: Summary of notations used in the ACING actor-critic framework.

Human Evaluation and Safety. For our human evaluation of ACING-generated prompts, we used only automatically generated instructions and task templates. Prior to annotation, we reviewed the generated prompts and outputs to ensure that they did not contain any offensive or inappropriate content. The tasks involved abstract or anonymized content (e.g., generic input strings or public task descriptions), and no human names, images, or personal data were included.

Ethical Use. We ensured that all experiments involving human subjects were conducted ethically and responsibly. Participation in the annotation study was fully voluntary. Annotators were informed about the nature and purpose of the task and could withdraw at any time. The study was limited to rating task-level clarity and alignment, involved no sensitive content, and did not collect any personal or identifiable information. All responses were anonymized, and only aggregate statistics were analyzed. As the study posed no foreseeable risk to participants and did not involve identifiable data, it did not require formal ethics review under our institution’s guidelines.

B.6 Artifact Documentation

Task Coverage. We evaluate ACING on a diverse set of NLP tasks, categorized as follows:

- **Instruction Induction:** A wide range of classification and transformation tasks drawn from Honovich et al. (2023), covering syntax, semantics, phonetics, word manipulation, and reasoning.
- **Reasoning:** Zero-shot chain-of-thought reasoning tasks using GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) and AQUA-RAT (Ling et al., 2017), which involve multi-step symbolic and arithmetic problem solving.
- **Summarization:** Dialogue-based abstractive summarization using the SAMSum dataset (Gliwa et al., 2019).
- **Translation:** Lexical-level English-to-German, English-to-Spanish, and English-to-French tasks to assess multilingual instruction learning.

Language Coverage. Our experiments involve four languages: *English* (the primary language for most tasks), and *German*, *Spanish*, and *French* in translation tasks.

Hyperparameter	Choice
White-box h	Vicuna-13B and WizardLM
Actor-network	(1 – 1024 – 256 – 10)
Critic-network	(10 – 128 – 128 – 1)
Budget T	165
Intrinsic (action) dimension d'	10
Number of soft tokens N_z	5
Soft prompt dimension d	5120 * N_z
Number of exemplars $ \mathcal{E} $	5
Number of tokens generated by Wb	64

Table 7: Key hyperparameters and their values.

Linguistic Phenomena. The tasks cover a broad range of linguistic phenomena, including:

- **Morphosyntax:** e.g., negation, word reordering.
- **Lexical Semantics:** e.g., antonyms, synonyms, word similarity.
- **Discourse and Pragmatics:** e.g., summarization, cause-effect reasoning.
- **Symbolic and Numerical Reasoning:** e.g., math problem solving, program induction.

Demographics and Bias. All datasets used are publicly available academic benchmarks. None were collected or annotated by the authors. To the best of our knowledge, these datasets do not contain personally identifiable information (PII) or explicit demographic attributes. No demographic inference, fairness evaluation, or bias analysis was performed, as our work focuses on instruction optimization and not on social or identity-based NLP tasks.

Human Annotation. We conducted a human evaluation study to assess the clarity and semantic alignment of instructions generated by ACING. Annotators were presented with anonymized task prompts and model-generated instructions, and asked to rate clarity and alignment on a 5-point Likert scale. The annotation involved 26 in-house participants, all of whom were informed of the task goals and free to opt out at any time. No demographic data was collected. All instructions shown were manually reviewed to ensure that they contained no PII or offensive content. Collected responses were fully anonymized, and no free-form sensitive text was stored. Results are summarized in Section 4.3 and Appendix I. The full set of instructions used in the study is from Table 2.

Artifact Availability. We will release our full codebase under an open-source license (MIT license) upon publication. This includes the reinforcement learning framework, prompt decoding pipeline, and evaluation scripts. All third-party datasets and models used are cited and publicly available under their respective research licenses.

B.7 Implementation and Compute Details

Model Sizes. Our actor and critic networks are lightweight MLPs with three layers each. The white-box decoder is Vicuna-13B, and the black-box models queried include GPT-3.5 (ChatGPT), GPT-4, and GPT-4o, whose sizes are not publicly disclosed.

Compute Infrastructure. We use an internal SLURM cluster for running our experiments. The experiments were done on an ASUS ESC N4A-E11 server. The node has 4 A100 GPUs, an AMD EPYC 7003 series 64 core @ 3.5GHz CPU and 512GB of RAM. We used one A100, with 2 cores, and required at most 50GB of memory for the experiments. All black-box LLM queries were performed via API.

Compute Budget. Each ACING run used a fixed query budget of 165 black-box API calls. Across 33 tasks and 3 random seeds, this corresponds to a total of approximately 16,000 black-box LLM queries. Training time per task was approximately 10–20 minutes on a single GPU.

C ACING vs. Other Optimization Methods

We compare our method against recent baselines on the 30 instruction-induction datasets. The results in Table 9 show the average test accuracy (along with the standard deviation) over three indepen-

Task	Score Type
Common_concept, Informal_to_formal	F1 score = $(2 \times \text{precision} \times \text{recall}) / (\text{precision} + \text{recall})$
Orthography_starts_with, Taxonomy_animal	Set match: prediction set must match ground truth set
Synonyms	In-list match: prediction is correct if it falls within the list of ground truth words
All other datasets (e.g., Antonyms, Translation, Cause_and_effect, Diff)	EM score: 1 if exact match, 0 otherwise (letter-by-letter for words)

Table 8: Scoring metrics for different tasks.

dent runs, using three different seeds. For each seed, we selected the best instruction achieved by each method and evaluated it on the testing dataset. The table demonstrates that our method, ACING, outperforms others by achieving the highest accuracy in 14 out of 30 tasks, compared to INSTINCT, InstructZERO, EvoPrompt, and APE which succeeded in 8 tasks or less each. Additionally, ACING achieves the highest median accuracy across tasks, with a value of 0.71, which is 22 percentage points higher than APE. Table 22 shows the best prompt achieved for each task and corresponding test scores.

D ACING vs InstructZero on GPT-4

We extend our experiments to include GPT-4 as the black-box LLM and Vicuna as the white-box model. Given the high cost associated with querying GPT-4, we restrict our comparison to InstructZero, the strongest baseline after ACING based on prior results with GPT-3.5 (Table 9). To ensure a fair and cost-efficient comparison, both methods are allocated an equal budget of 100 API calls. Additionally, we focus this analysis on the most challenging subset—cognitive tasks—to concentrate the evaluation on settings where prompt optimization is most demanding.

Table 10 presents the results of this experiment. Consistent with our earlier findings (Table 9), ACING continues to excel in cognitive tasks, solving 6 out of 8 tasks compared to only 3 solved by InstructZero, and achieving a 13-point higher median score. These results further highlight ACING’s robustness and effectiveness under tighter budgets and more difficult evaluation scenarios.

E Extended Results on GPT-4o

We extend a subset of our evaluation to include results on GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024), as shown in Table 11. These results are based on 3 repetitions, and we report the average accuracy along with standard deviation in parentheses. We observe that ACING continues to perform competitively, often outperforming human-written instructions on tasks such as *Antonyms*, *Rhyme*, and *Sentence Similarity*.

F Extended Results on GPT-o3

To further examine ACING’s effectiveness on stronger black-box LLMs, we conducted additional experiments using GPT-o3. Table 12 compares ACING-generated prompts with human-crafted prompts on representative tasks. Despite GPT-o3’s overall strength, it remains sensitive to prompt design: ACING often outperforms or matches human-designed prompts, with particularly notable gains on tasks involving reasoning and rephrasing. These results show that even strong models like GPT-o3 remain sensitive to prompt phrasing. For example, ACING improves Antonyms performance by about 5% over human prompts (ACING: “Provide a word that is the opposite of the provided word.” vs. Human: “Write a word that means the opposite of the input word.”). Interestingly, in the *Cause and Effect* task, the human prompt drops to 0.06 while ACING achieves 0.64, underscoring GPT-o3’s sensitivity to prompt phrasing. Conversely, for *Rhymes*, GPT-o3 exhibits smaller differences, aligning with the observation that stronger models can sometimes be less sensitive to prompt variation. Overall, these additional experiments provide a more comprehensive picture of ACING’s effectiveness across models with varying sensitivities to prompt design, further underscoring its robustness and broad applicability.

G Ablation Studies

We perform ablation studies to understand the role of key design choices in ACING’s performance. These include critic usage, action dimensionality, exemplar count, budget allocation, and white-box model selection.

G.1 On the use of Critics

While the policy in our setting produces only a single-step action, the reward is stochastic due to the non-deterministic behavior of black-box LLMs: repeated evaluations of the same instruction-action pair can yield different rewards. Consequently, the immediate reward is only a noisy sample of the true expected reward (i.e., the value). The critic

Category	Task	APE	EvoPrompt	InstructZero	INSTINCT	ACING
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	0.59 (0.02)	0.97 (0.03)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	First_word_letter	0.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	0.00 (0.00)	0.63 (0.17)	0.35 (0.09)	0.39 (0.28)	0.70 (0.15)
<i>Morpho-Syntax</i>	Singular_to_plural	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	0.95 (0.03)	0.95 (0.03)
	Active_to_passive	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.00)	0.98 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Negation	0.79 (0.00)	0.84 (0.02)	0.65 (0.10)	0.58 (0.22)	0.71 (0.06)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	0.79 (0.02)	0.70 (0.01)	0.76 (0.00)	0.84 (0.01)	0.74 (0.01)
	Synonyms	0.14 (0.01)	0.19 (0.07)	0.22 (0.11)	0.19 (0.08)	0.13 (0.02)
	Word_unscrambling	0.54 (0.00)	0.44 (0.06)	0.59 (0.06)	0.54 (0.02)	0.50 (0.07)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.59 (0.01)	0.52 (0.05)	0.99 (0.01)	0.36 (0.04)	0.57 (0.31)
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	0.87 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	0.70 (0.21)	1.00 (0.00)
	Diff	0.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	0.93 (0.09)	1.00 (0.00)
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.72 (0.02)	0.58 (0.06)	0.63 (0.07)	0.81 (0.09)	0.84 (0.07)
	Periodic_elements	0.99 (0.01)	0.92 (0.00)	0.96 (0.03)	1.00 (0.00)	0.98 (0.00)
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.44 (0.09)	0.48 (0.10)	0.52 (0.09)	0.55 (0.11)	0.69 (0.15)
	Common_concept	0.03 (0.02)	0.17 (0.00)	0.14 (0.04)	0.09 (0.04)	0.19 (0.05)
	Object_counting	0.30 (0.02)	0.50 (0.06)	0.38 (0.06)	0.40 (0.12)	0.41 (0.03)
	Odd_one_out	0.32 (0.02)	0.64 (0.04)	0.57 (0.02)	0.25 (0.18)	0.64 (0.00)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.23 (0.01)	0.47 (0.02)	0.41 (0.09)	0.54 (0.06)	0.60 (0.12)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.02 (0.02)	0.38 (0.15)	0.67 (0.14)	0.85 (0.06)	0.71 (0.02)
	Auto_categorization	0.31 (0.01)	0.20 (0.03)	0.29 (0.02)	0.07 (0.07)	0.29 (0.04)
	Word_sorting	0.58 (0.01)	0.01 (0.00)	0.64 (0.05)	0.23 (0.20)	0.70 (0.03)
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.00 (0.00)	0.05 (0.00)	0.10 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.13 (0.07)
	Sentiment	0.90 (0.00)	0.63 (0.17)	0.88 (0.03)	0.88 (0.02)	0.89 (0.01)
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	0.13 (0.02)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)
	Translation_en-de	0.83 (0.01)	0.80 (0.02)	0.82 (0.01)	0.77 (0.02)	0.82 (0.01)
	Translation_en-es	0.86 (0.01)	0.76 (0.00)	0.67 (0.24)	0.89 (0.00)	0.87 (0.02)
	Translation_en-fr	0.88 (0.01)	0.86 (0.00)	0.77 (0.06)	0.85 (0.02)	0.83 (0.01)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.57 (0.01)	0.50 (0.02)	0.48 (0.02)	0.54 (0.09)	0.44 (0.05)
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)	0.07 (0.07)	0.25 (0.00)
	median score	0.49	0.63	0.66	0.64	0.71
	# best-performing tasks	8	8	8	7	14

Table 9: Average test performance (and standard deviations) across 3 random seeds comparing ACING versus APE (Zhou et al., 2023), EvoPrompt (Guo et al., 2024), InstructZero (Chen et al., 2024), and INSTINCT (Lin et al., 2024b). The bottom rows report the median score and total number of best-performing tasks for each method.

is trained to approximate this expected reward, thereby reducing the variance of the gradient estimates and improving sample efficiency. Relying directly on raw rewards would yield high-variance updates, especially under tight evaluation budgets, whereas a learned critic acts as a baseline that stabilizes training and accelerates convergence. From a theoretical perspective, this aligns with critic-based methods in contextual bandit settings (e.g., NeuralUCB), where the goal is also to learn a value function despite the absence of temporal credit assignment.

To empirically assess the contribution of the critic(s), we evaluate three variants of our method:

- **ACING (two critics):** Full method using dual critics.
- **ACING (one critic):** Ablation using a single critic.
- **Policy Gradient (no critic):** Baseline using pure policy gradients without any critic.

We report results averaged across 30 diverse tasks (3 trials per task). Due to space constraints,

we summarize performance using per-category averages and global statistics.

In Table 13, ACING achieves a slightly higher median score (0.71 vs. 0.70) and clearly dominates in terms of robustness, outperforming policy gradient on 21 of 33 tasks. This suggests that the critic plays a crucial role in stabilizing learning and guiding exploration, especially in noisy or sparse reward settings (e.g., Rhymes, Auto_categorization, Word_sorting).

Table 14 further underscores the benefit of using two critics: while both ACING variants reach the same median score (0.71), the two-critic version leads on more tasks (22 vs. 16) and shows stronger performance on several cognitively demanding or unstable tasks (e.g., Cause_and_effect, Sentence_similarity, Taxonomy_animal). This highlights the importance of ensemble value estimation in improving reliability across diverse tasks.

Remark G.1. We note that both critics are optimized using the same objective (minimizing squared error between predicted and observed rewards), but are initialized independently and trained with separate updates.

Category	Task	InstructZero	ACING
<i>Cognitive Tasks on GPT-4</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.43 (0.10)	0.53 (0.10)
	Common_concept	0.27 (0.00)	0.04 (0.01)
	Object_counting	0.54 (0.03)	0.62 (0.03)
	Odd_one_out	0.77 (0.01)	0.77 (0.01)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.40 (0.12)	0.60 (0.03)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.97 (0.02)	0.98 (0.00)
	Auto_categorization	0.35 (0.01)	0.31 (0.02)
	Word_sorting	0.72 (0.03)	0.74 (0.01)
	median score	0.48	0.61
	# best-performing tasks	3	6

Table 10: Average test performance (with standard deviations) across 3 random seeds comparing ACING and InstructZero (Chen et al., 2024) on 8 cognitively demanding tasks using GPT-4 (black-box) and Vicuna (white-box), under a budget of 100 calls. The bottom rows report the median score and the total number of tasks where each method achieves the highest performance.

Task with GPT-4o	Human	ACING
Antonyms	0.73 (0.01)	0.80 (0.01)
Rhyme	0.61 (0.01)	0.80 (0.15)
Sentence Similarity	0.00 (0.02)	0.15 (0.00)
Informal to Formal	0.58 (0.00)	0.48 (0.02)
Synonyms	0.14 (0.00)	0.20 (0.05)
Cause and Effect	0.92 (0.03)	0.85 (0.13)

Table 11: Comparison of human-written (from Table 20 vs. ACING-generated instructions on a subset of tasks evaluated using GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024). Results are averaged over 3 repetitions; standard deviations are shown in parentheses.

Task with GPT-o3	ACING	Human
Antonyms	0.83	0.79
Synonyms	0.23	0.20
Rhymes	0.42	0.63
Cause and Effect	0.64	0.06
Informal to Formal	0.70	0.63

Table 12: Comparison of ACING vs. human-crafted prompts on GPT-o3.

G.2 On Direct Parameterization of the Actor

To assess the impact of using a feed-forward network (FFN) versus direct parameterization for the actor, we compare the following two variants:

- **ACING:** Our standard approach, where the actor is parameterized using a feed-forward neural network that receives a constant one-dimensional input (set to 1).
- **ACING (direct parameterization):** A variant using the same critics, but with the actor represented directly by learnable mean and variance vectors, completely removing the

FFN.

We report results averaged across 30 diverse tasks (3 trials per task), summarizing performance by task category and global statistics.

Summary: As shown in Table 15, the FFN-based ACING achieves a substantially higher median score (0.69 vs. 0.44) and outperforms the direct parameterization variant on many more tasks (19 vs. 8). While direct parameterization occasionally matches or surpasses FFN performance on simpler tasks (e.g., Negation, Antonyms, Num_to_verbal, Informal_to_formal), it generally struggles on tasks requiring more compositional or fine-grained control (e.g., Word_sorting, Odd_one_out, Auto_categorization).

G.3 ACING Rewards over the (Calls) Steps

In the main paper, we report the final test score after a fixed budget of 165 black-box LLM calls. In this section, we provide reward plots for the ACING approach, showing the best-achieved reward within the conducted calls. As shown in various plots in Figure 4, the ACING approach found the optimal prompt (achieving a reward of 1) within just a few black-box calls. Some tasks required fewer than 10 API calls to find the optimal instruction, such as for ‘active to passive’ and ‘letters list’, and fewer than 20 for tasks like ‘translation’ and ‘diff’. It can be seen that the vast majority of tasks achieved their best reward value within the first 60 to 80 calls, demonstrating that ACING can even be used for much more constrained budgets. The choice of 165 calls was mainly based on previous work (Lin et al., 2024b; Chen et al., 2024), avoiding any potential advantage that could come from optimizing this number.

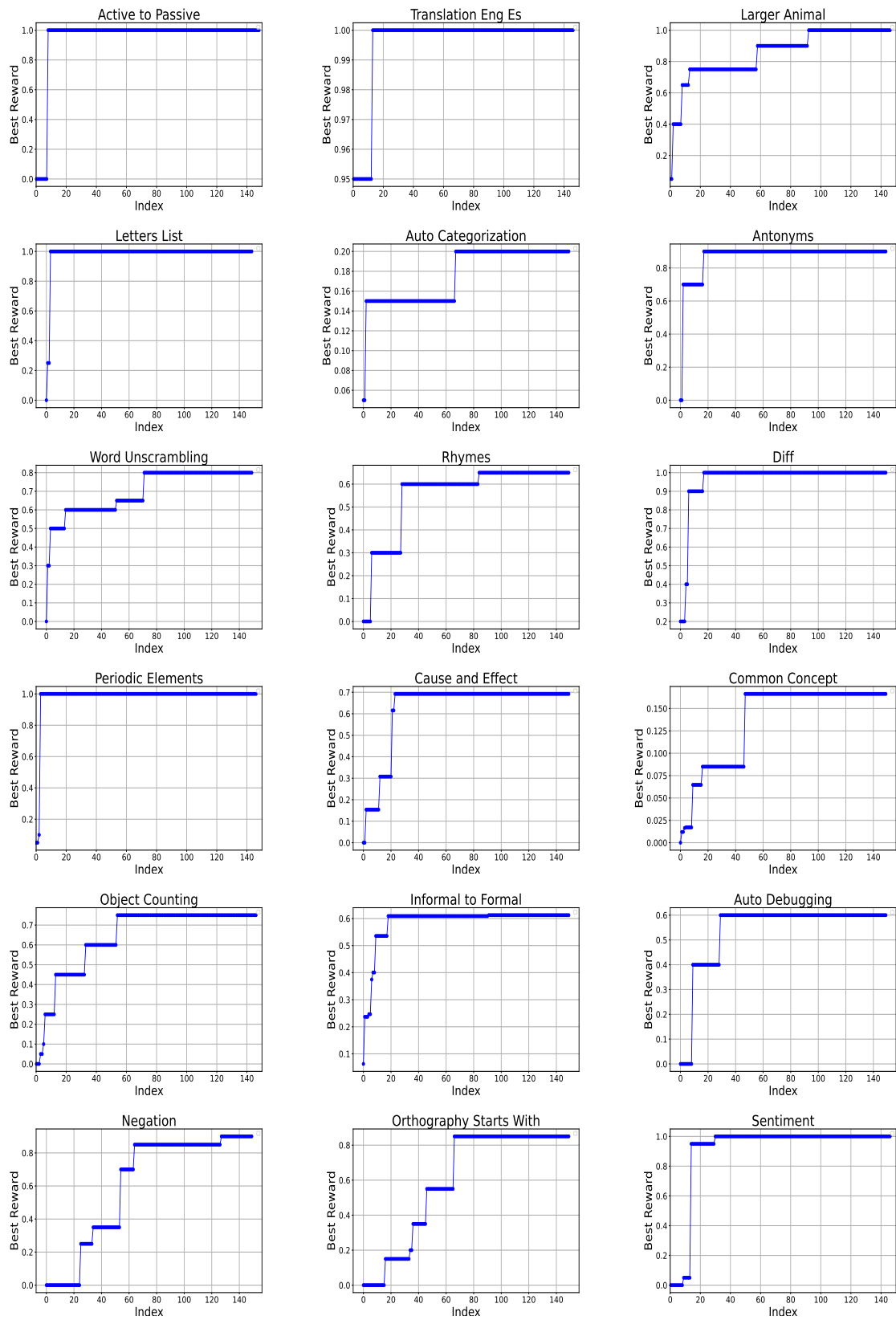


Figure 4: Reward plots for running ACING on various selected tasks, showing the highest achieved reward on the y-axis until each API call (step), with the x-axis representing the number of API calls.

Category	Task	ACING	Policy Gradient (no critic)
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	1.00 (0.00)	0.93 (0.05)
	First_word_letter	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	0.70 (0.15)	0.55 (0.30)
<i>Morpho-Syntax</i>	Singular_to_plural	0.95 (0.03)	1.00 (0.00)
	Active_to_passive	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Negation	0.71 (0.06)	0.71 (0.00)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	0.74 (0.01)	0.69 (0.15)
	Synonyms	0.13 (0.02)	0.19 (0.10)
	Word_unscrambling	0.50 (0.07)	0.54 (0.02)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.57 (0.31)	0.36 (0.14)
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	1.00 (0.00)	0.98 (0.03)
	Diff	1.00 (0.00)	0.93 (0.05)
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.84 (0.07)	0.68 (0.18)
	Periodic_elements	0.98 (0.00)	0.93 (0.04)
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.69 (0.15)	0.71 (0.19)
	Common_concept	0.19 (0.05)	0.12 (0.02)
	Object_counting	0.41 (0.03)	0.44 (0.08)
	Odd_one_out	0.64 (0.00)	0.53 (0.08)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.60 (0.12)	0.52 (0.14)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.71 (0.02)	0.77 (0.10)
	Auto_categorization	0.29 (0.04)	0.17 (0.12)
	Word_sorting	0.70 (0.03)	0.23 (0.30)
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.13 (0.07)	0.00 (0.00)
	Sentiment	0.89 (0.01)	0.89 (0.00)
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	Translation_en-de	0.82 (0.01)	0.80 (0.00)
	Translation_en-es	0.87 (0.02)	0.87 (0.01)
	Translation_en-fr	0.83 (0.01)	0.87 (0.00)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.44 (0.05)	0.50 (0.03)
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)
	median score	0.71	0.70
	# best-performing tasks	21	14

Table 13: Performance comparison between ACING and Reinforce different task categories.

G.4 ACING with Budget Splitting

Due to the stochastic nature of the black-box LLM, the same instruction may yield different rewards when evaluated by the LLM. To address this, we add a mechanism for more robust decision-making. The budget T is split into two parts: an exploration phase where steps 1 to 4 are repeated, and an exploitation phase where the best p prompts are evaluated multiple times, k times each, using the black-box LLM. The exploration phase uses $T - p \cdot k$ API calls, with the remaining calls used for exploitation. Finally, the prompt with the highest average reward across repetitions is used at test time. In Table 16, we demonstrate that ACING, with an exploration budget of $T = 150$ and the remaining 15 calls allocated to uniform exploration of the top $p = 5$ prompts (evaluated $k = 3$ times each), achieves improved median scores across tasks and higher

test accuracy on 13 tasks compared to previous work. Furthermore, it achieves a higher median score compared to ACING without splitting.

G.5 ACING with Different Intrinsic (Action) Dimensions

In the main paper, we present results using actions with a dimension of $d' = 10$, following the setup of prior work. To evaluate the performance of ACING across different dimensionalities, we conducted experiments with $d' \in \{5, 10, 20, 40\}$, keeping other parameters fixed, for a budget of 165. We report the test results over different tasks and dimensionalities for a fixed seed. The results, shown in Table 17, indicate that while the smallest dimension, $d' = 5$, recovered the best scores for some tasks, it generally has the lowest performance across most tasks. Furthermore, both $d' = 10$ and $d' = 20$ yield similar performance in terms of the number of

Category	Task	ACING (two critics)	ACING (one critic)
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	First_word_letter	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	0.70 (0.15)	0.58 (0.31)
<i>Morpho-Syntax</i>	Singular_to_plural	0.95 (0.03)	0.99 (0.00)
	Active_to_passive	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Negation	0.71 (0.06)	0.78 (0.01)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	0.74 (0.01)	0.72 (0.05)
	Synonyms	0.13 (0.02)	0.13 (0.00)
	Word_unscrambling	0.50 (0.07)	0.52 (0.04)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.57 (0.31)	0.63 (0.23)
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	1.00 (0.00)	0.98 (0.01)
	Diff	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.02)
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.84 (0.07)	0.80 (0.12)
	Periodic_elements	0.98 (0.00)	0.97 (0.02)
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.69 (0.15)	0.56 (0.00)
	Common_concept	0.19 (0.05)	0.16 (0.09)
	Object_counting	0.41 (0.03)	0.44 (0.09)
	Odd_one_out	0.64 (0.00)	0.59 (0.05)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.60 (0.12)	0.63 (0.12)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.71 (0.02)	0.59 (0.40)
	Auto_categorization	0.29 (0.04)	0.29 (0.06)
	Word_sorting	0.70 (0.03)	0.70 (0.01)
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.13 (0.07)	0.05 (0.05)
	Sentiment	0.89 (0.01)	0.88 (0.02)
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	Translation_en-de	0.82 (0.01)	0.81 (0.01)
	Translation_en-es	0.87 (0.02)	0.87 (0.02)
	Translation_en-fr	0.83 (0.01)	0.82 (0.02)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.44 (0.05)	0.49 (0.05)
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)
	median score	0.71	0.71
	# best-performing tasks	22	16

Table 14: Performance comparison between ACING, and ACING_one_critic across different task categories.

best-performing tasks (9-10 tasks), indicating low sensitivity to this parameter. For the much larger dimension, $d' = 40$, the method achieved the highest number of best-performing tasks (15 tasks), demonstrating improved performance with increased dimensionality. Further increasing the dimensionality to $d' = 100$ can still yield high results, outperforming $d' \in \{5, 10, 20\}$. However, while it remarkably outperformed $d' = 40$ in some tasks, such as the second word letter task, synonyms, and antonyms, it only achieved 14 best-performing tasks overall, indicating similar but slightly lower performance than $d' = 40$.

G.6 ACING with Different Number of Exemplars

In this section, we test ACING with a single exemplar, in contrast to the main results in the paper, which use five exemplars for ACING and all other

benchmarks. For these experiments, we fix all hyperparameters as in the main paper and run tests with a budget of 165. Intuitively, providing more exemplars to the language model should facilitate prompt learning, so five exemplars are expected to yield better prompts than a single exemplar. Our experiments, summarized in Table 18, support this intuition. The results show that using five exemplars leads to higher test scores, as reflected in a greater number of best-performing tasks and an increase in median test scores across tasks. However, it is notable that performance did not decrease drastically with only one exemplar, suggesting that a single exemplar is sufficient to achieve decent results. In fact, across several tasks and categories (e.g., phonetics, summation, morpho-syntax, and translation), a single exemplar achieves the same performance of using five exemplars, and even outperforms the use of five exemplars in certain tasks.

Category	Task	ACING	ACING (w/o FFN)
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.00)
	First_word_letter	1.00 (0.00)	0.97 (0.03)
	Second_word_letter	0.70 (0.15)	0.21 (0.51)
	Negation	0.71 (0.06)	0.81 (0.03)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	0.74 (0.01)	0.75 (0.06)
	Synonyms	0.13 (0.02)	0.25 (0.09)
	Word_unscrambling	0.50 (0.07)	0.41 (0.06)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.57 (0.31)	0.38 (0.14)
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	1.00 (0.00)	0.79 (0.15)
	Diff	1.00 (0.00)	0.86 (0.12)
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.84 (0.07)	0.76 (0.05)
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.69 (0.15)	0.53 (0.07)
	Common_concept	0.19 (0.05)	0.11 (0.01)
	Object_counting	0.41 (0.03)	0.33 (0.08)
	Odd_one_out	0.64 (0.00)	0.37 (0.20)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.60 (0.12)	0.39 (0.17)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.71 (0.02)	0.67 (0.06)
	Auto_categorization	0.29 (0.04)	0.11 (0.15)
	Word_sorting	0.70 (0.03)	0.19 (0.26)
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.13 (0.07)	0.00 (0.00)
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	Translation_en-es	0.87 (0.02)	0.87 (0.01)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.44 (0.05)	0.48 (0.03)
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)
	median score	0.69	0.44
	# best-performing tasks	19	7

Table 15: Performance comparison between ACING and a variant using the same critics but with direct parameterization of the actor (learnable mean and variance vectors) instead of a feed-forward network.

Nevertheless, using a single exemplar resulted in lower performance mainly in more cognitively challenging tasks, which is understandable, as more complex tasks are likely to benefit from additional exemplars.

G.7 ACING with Different White-box models

In this section, we evaluate the impact of the choice of white-box model on the ACING method. Specifically, we applied ACING for instruction learning with a GPT-3.5-turbo as the black-box LLM (as in the main paper), but using different white-box models. In the main paper, we reported ACING with Vicuna-13B-v1.3; in Table 19, we further test it with WizardLM-13B-v1.2. As shown in the table, changing the white-box model results in slight variations in performance. WizardLM achieved a higher median test score across all tasks and excelled in a greater number of top-performing tasks.

H Demonstrations with Human Instructions

To contextualize the performance of ACING, we compare its best-learned instructions against human-written instructions curated by Honovich et al. (2023). Table 20 presents a representative subset of tasks, categorized by linguistic and semantic attributes, along with input–output demonstrations, human instructions, and corresponding performance scores. While human instructions often perform strongly, ACING matches or exceeds them in the majority of cases, particularly on tasks like Antonyms, Rhymes, and Sentence Similarity, where learned instructions yield notable improvements. The comparison underscores ACING’s capacity not only to automate instruction crafting but also to outperform carefully designed human-written prompts across diverse task types. Summary statistics at the bottom of the table show that ACING achieves a higher average and me-

Category	Task	APE	EvoPrompt	InstructZero	INSTINCT	ACING ₁₅₀₊₁₅ (budget splitting)	ACING ₁₆₅ (main paper)
Spelling	Letters_list	0.59 (0.02)	0.97 (0.03)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	First_word_letter	0.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	0.00 (0.00)	0.63 (0.17)	0.35 (0.09)	0.39 (0.28)	0.40 (0.17)	0.70 (0.15)
Morpho-Syntax	Singular_to_plural	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	0.95 (0.03)	0.99 (0.01)	0.95 (0.03)
	Active_to_passive	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.00)	0.98 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Negation	0.79 (0.00)	0.84 (0.02)	0.65 (0.10)	0.58 (0.22)	0.82 (0.00)	0.71 (0.06)
Lexical Semantics	Antonyms	0.79 (0.02)	0.70 (0.01)	0.76 (0.00)	0.84 (0.01)	0.76 (0.06)	0.74 (0.01)
	Synonyms	0.14 (0.01)	0.19 (0.07)	0.22 (0.11)	0.19 (0.08)	0.12 (0.02)	0.13 (0.02)
	Word_unscrambling	0.54 (0.00)	0.44 (0.06)	0.59 (0.06)	0.54 (0.02)	0.59 (0.05)	0.50 (0.07)
Phonetics	Rhymes	0.59 (0.01)	0.52 (0.05)	0.99 (0.01)	0.36 (0.04)	0.60 (0.38)	0.57 (0.31)
Numerical	Sum	0.87 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	0.70 (0.21)	0.98 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	Diff	0.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	0.93 (0.09)	0.97 (0.04)	1.00 (0.00)
Knowledge	Larger_animal	0.72 (0.02)	0.58 (0.06)	0.63 (0.07)	0.81 (0.09)	0.86 (0.06)	0.84 (0.07)
	Periodic_elements	0.99 (0.01)	0.92 (0.00)	0.96 (0.03)	1.00 (0.00)	0.98 (0.03)	0.98 (0.00)
Cognitive Tasks	Cause_and_effect	0.44 (0.09)	0.48 (0.10)	0.52 (0.09)	0.55 (0.11)	0.76 (0.18)	0.69 (0.15)
	Common_concept	0.03 (0.02)	0.17 (0.00)	0.14 (0.04)	0.09 (0.04)	0.10 (0.01)	0.19 (0.05)
	Object_counting	0.30 (0.02)	0.50 (0.06)	0.38 (0.06)	0.40 (0.12)	0.48 (0.11)	0.41 (0.03)
	Odd_one_out	0.32 (0.02)	0.64 (0.04)	0.57 (0.02)	0.25 (0.18)	0.59 (0.05)	0.64 (0.00)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.23 (0.01)	0.47 (0.02)	0.41 (0.09)	0.54 (0.06)	0.54 (0.15)	0.60 (0.12)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.02 (0.02)	0.38 (0.06)	0.67 (0.14)	0.85 (0.06)	0.53 (0.34)	0.71 (0.02)
	Auto_categorization	0.31 (0.01)	0.20 (0.03)	0.29 (0.02)	0.07 (0.07)	0.27 (0.06)	0.29 (0.04)
	Word_sorting	0.58 (0.01)	0.01 (0.00)	0.64 (0.05)	0.23 (0.20)	0.72 (0.02)	0.70 (0.03)
CLUE	Sentence_similarity	0.00 (0.00)	0.05 (0.00)	0.10 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.13 (0.08)	0.13 (0.07)
	Sentiment	0.90 (0.00)	0.63 (0.17)	0.88 (0.03)	0.88 (0.02)	0.88 (0.03)	0.89 (0.01)
Translation	Num_to_verbal	0.13 (0.02)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)
	Translation_en-de	0.83 (0.01)	0.80 (0.02)	0.82 (0.01)	0.77 (0.02)	0.82 (0.01)	0.82 (0.01)
	Translation_en-es	0.86 (0.01)	0.76 (0.00)	0.67 (0.24)	0.89 (0.00)	0.86 (0.02)	0.87 (0.02)
	Translation_en-fr	0.88 (0.01)	0.86 (0.00)	0.77 (0.06)	0.85 (0.02)	0.85 (0.02)	0.83 (0.01)
Style	Informal_to_formal	0.57 (0.01)	0.50 (0.02)	0.48 (0.02)	0.54 (0.09)	0.44 (0.05)	0.44 (0.05)
Coding	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)	0.07 (0.07)	0.29 (0.07)	0.25 (0.00)
	median score	0.49	0.63	0.66	0.64	0.76	0.71
	# best-performing tasks	7	7	7	8	13	13

Table 16: Average test performance (and standard deviations) across 3 random seeds comparing ACING versus APE, InstructZero, EvoPrompt, and INSTINCT. The bottom rows report the median score and total number of best-performing tasks for each method.

dian score, and wins on a greater number of tasks overall.

I Assessing Instruction Clarity: Human and Readability Analyses

To assess the interpretability and accessibility of the instructions generated by ACING, we conduct both a human evaluation and an automated readability analysis.

I.1 Human Evaluation

We conducted a human annotation study across all instruction-induction tasks reported in Table 2.

A total of 26 participants (none of whom are paper co-authors) volunteered to independently rate the clarity, coherence, and task faithfulness of instructions produced by ACING using a 5-point Likert scale. The following question was used to guide ratings:

*Does the instruction clearly describe what is happening in the demonstration?
Could a language model complete the task correctly by following this instruction alone?*

Each instruction was presented alongside:

- The task name and category
- An input–output demonstration pair
- The corresponding ACING-generated instruction

Results. The results of the human evaluation are summarized below:

- **Maximum score:** 4.92
- **Third quartile (Q3):** 4.50
- **Median (Q2):** 3.90
- **First quartile (Q1):** 2.83
- **Mean score:** 3.66 ($SD = 1.02$)

These results indicate that the majority of instructions are perceived as clear and well-aligned with the task by human annotators.

Category	Task	$d' = 5$	$d' = 10$	$d' = 20$	$d' = 40$	$d' = 100$
(main paper)						
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	1.00	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00
	First_word_letter	1.00	1.00	0.97	1.00	1.00
	Second_word_letter	0.23	0.91	0.30	0.29	0.92
<i>Morpho-Syntax</i>	Singular_to_plural	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Active_to_passive	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Negation	0.82	0.80	0.84	0.81	0.70
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	0.73	0.76	0.76	0.82	0.84
	Synonyms	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.14	0.34
	Word_unscrambling	0.53	0.54	0.49	0.55	0.43
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.95	0.36	0.94	1.00	1.00
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
	Diff	0.89	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.79	0.94	0.93	0.65	0.68
	Periodic_elements	1.00	0.98	0.94	0.98	0.98
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.64	0.52	0.92	0.56	0.56
	Common_concept	0.12	0.23	0.11	0.12	0.02
	Object_counting	0.51	0.39	0.48	0.59	0.44
	Odd_one_out	0.60	0.64	0.64	0.68	0.26
	Orthography_starts_with	0.11	0.65	0.59	0.61	0.71
	Taxonomy_animal	0.79	0.68	0.59	0.85	0.97
	Auto_categorization	0.30	0.28	0.13	0.33	0.32
	Word_sorting	0.55	0.69	0.74	0.69	0.48
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.00	0.21	0.00	0.14	0.07
	Sentiment	0.91	0.88	0.86	0.91	0.80
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Translation_en-de	0.83	0.81	0.81	0.80	0.81
	Translation_en-es	0.89	0.90	0.91	0.91	0.86
	Translation_en-fr	0.84	0.84	0.86	0.88	0.73
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.54	0.40	0.51	0.49	0.50
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25
	# best-performing tasks	8	10	10	15	14

Table 17: Average ACING test performance for a fixed random seed (0) with different soft prompt dimensions d' . The bottom row report the total number of best-performing tasks.

I.2 Automated Readability Analysis

To complement the human study, we applied three established readability formulas to quantify the linguistic accessibility of the 30 generated instructions in Table 22:

- **Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) (Flesch, 1948)**: Scores range from 0 to 100, with higher scores indicating greater ease of reading.
- **Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (FKG) (Kincaid et al., 1975)**: Maps readability to U.S. school grade levels, with lower scores indicating simpler text.
- **Coleman-Liau Index (CLI) (Coleman and Liau, 1975)**: A character-based grade-level readability metric.

Findings. Readability scores across instructions show the following trends:

- Most instructions fall within the **FRE range of 60–95**, with a median 70.8, indicating that they are accessible to a general audience.

- **FKG scores** mostly range between 3 and 9, with a median 7.0, consistent with middle school to early high school reading levels.
- **CLI scores** mostly range between 2–10, with a median of 7.3. This aligns with the FKG analysis, indicating that instructions are generally suitable for readers with middle school to early high school reading levels.

Overall, these results confirm that ACING generates instructions that are not only effective—according to human judgment—but also accessible, as measured by standardized readability metrics. The full set of readability scores is included in Table 21.

J Our Best Learned Instructions

In this section, we present the best-learned instructions discovered by ACING for each of the 30 instruction induction tasks. These instructions were generated using Vicuna-13B as the white-box model and optimized to maximize performance

Category	Task	ACING ($ \mathcal{E} = 1$)	ACING ($ \mathcal{E} = 5$) (main paper)
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	First_word_letter	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	0.19 (0.09)	0.70 (0.15)
<i>Morpho-Syntax</i>	Singular_to_plural	1.00 (0.00)	0.95 (0.03)
	Active_to_passive	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Negation	0.76 (0.08)	0.71 (0.06)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	0.78 (0.05)	0.74 (0.01)
	Synonyms	0.09 (0.03)	0.13 (0.02)
	Word_unscrambling	0.41 (0.09)	0.50 (0.07)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.89 (0.08)	0.57 (0.31)
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	Diff	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.63 (0.17)	0.84 (0.07)
	Periodic_elements	0.91 (0.08)	0.98 (0.00)
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.51 (0.08)	0.69 (0.15)
	Common_concept	0.16 (0.11)	0.19 (0.05)
	Object_counting	0.26 (0.06)	0.41 (0.03)
	Odd_one_out	0.64 (0.02)	0.64 (0.00)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.06 (0.05)	0.60 (0.12)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.63 (0.06)	0.71 (0.02)
	Auto_categorization	0.01 (0.01)	0.29 (0.04)
	Word_sorting	0.70 (0.02)	0.70 (0.03)
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.07 (0.05)	0.13 (0.07)
	Sentiment	0.70 (0.12)	0.89 (0.01)
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	1.00 (0.00)	0.99 (0.01)
	Translation_en-de	0.72 (0.11)	0.82 (0.01)
	Translation_en-es	0.88 (0.00)	0.87 (0.02)
	Translation_en-fr	0.16 (0.04)	0.83 (0.01)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.42 (0.05)	0.44 (0.05)
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.25 (0.00)
	median score	0.67	0.71
	# best-performing tasks	11	24

Table 18: Average ACING test performance (and standard deviations) across 3 random seeds comparing 1 exemplar versus 5 exemplars. The bottom rows report the median score and total number of best-performing tasks.

on the corresponding black-box evaluation. Table 22 showcases the resulting instructions alongside their test scores, which reflect the accuracy or task-specific metric obtained on held-out examples. The diversity and clarity of the instructions demonstrate ACING’s ability to synthesize task-relevant, semantically grounded prompts that elicit strong responses from black-box LLMs. Notably, several tasks achieve perfect scores, while others expose task-specific challenges (e.g., `common_concept` and `synonyms`), highlighting the varying difficulty across the instruction spectrum.

K Use of AI Assistance.

We used AI assistants (e.g., ChatGPT) in a limited and supporting role during the preparation of this paper. Specifically, we used AI tools to assist with editing text for clarity and code debugging. All core ideas, algorithms, experiments, results, analyses, and technical writing were fully developed and executed by the authors. No AI system con-

tributed to scientific decisions, modeling choices, or interpretation of findings.

Category	Task	ACING (Vicuna) (main paper)	ACING (WizardLM)
<i>Spelling</i>	Letters_list	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	First_word_letter	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	0.70 (0.15)	0.36 (0.18)
<i>Morpho-Syntax</i>	Singular_to_plural	0.95 (0.03)	0.99 (0.00)
	Active_to_passive	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Negation	0.71 (0.06)	0.83 (0.00)
<i>Lexical Semantics</i>	Antonyms	0.74 (0.01)	0.81 (0.02)
	Synonyms	0.13 (0.02)	0.12 (0.03)
	Word_unscrambling	0.50 (0.07)	0.57 (0.05)
<i>Phonetics</i>	Rhymes	0.57 (0.31)	0.97 (0.04)
<i>Numerical</i>	Sum	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Diff	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
<i>Knowledge</i>	Larger_animal	0.84 (0.07)	0.94 (0.01)
	Periodic_elements	0.98 (0.00)	0.97 (0.02)
<i>Cognitive Tasks</i>	Cause_and_effect	0.69 (0.15)	0.76 (0.20)
	Common_concept	0.19 (0.05)	0.21 (0.05)
	Object_counting	0.41 (0.03)	0.46 (0.07)
	Odd_one_out	0.64 (0.00)	0.56 (0.11)
	Orthography_starts_with	0.60 (0.12)	0.62 (0.03)
	Taxonomy_animal	0.71 (0.02)	0.60 (0.32)
	Auto_categorization	0.29 (0.04)	0.35 (0.03)
	Word_sorting	0.70 (0.03)	0.61 (0.02)
<i>CLUE</i>	Sentence_similarity	0.13 (0.07)	0.22 (0.04)
	Sentiment	0.89 (0.01)	0.90 (0.02)
<i>Translation</i>	Num_to_verbal	0.99 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
	Translation_en-de	0.82 (0.01)	0.81 (0.01)
	Translation_en-es	0.87 (0.02)	0.61 (0.38)
	Translation_en-fr	0.83 (0.01)	0.83 (0.05)
<i>Style</i>	Informal_to_formal	0.44 (0.05)	0.32 (0.19)
<i>Coding</i>	Auto_debugging	0.25 (0.00)	0.38 (0.10)
	median score	0.71	0.79
	# best-performing tasks	15	21

Table 19: Average ACING test performance (and standard deviations) across 3 random seeds using Vicuna and WizardLM as white-box models. The bottom rows report the median score and total number of best-performing tasks.

Category	Task	Demonstration	Human Instruction (Honovich et al., 2023)	Human Score	Our Score
Spelling	First_word_letter	cat → c	Extract the first letter of the input word.	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Second_word_letter	cat → a	Extract the second letter of the input word.	0.96 (0.00)	0.92 (0.00)
	Letters_list	cat → c a t	Break the input word into letters, separated by spaces.	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
Morpho-syntax	Singular_to_plural	cat → cats	Convert the input word to its plural form.	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Active_to_passive	The artist introduced the scientist. → The scientist was introduced by the artist.	Write the input sentence in passive form.	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
Syntax	Negation	Time is finite → Time is not finite.	Negate the input sentence.	0.81 (0.00)	0.82 (0.00)
Lexical Semantics	Antonyms	won → lost	Write a word that means the opposite of the input word.	0.70 (0.00)	0.83 (0.00)
	Synonyms	alleged → supposed	Write a word with a similar meaning to the input word.	0.14 (0.01)	0.13 (0.00)
Phonetics	Rhymes	sing → ring	Write a word that rhymes with the input word.	0.61 (0.01)	1.00 (0.00)
Knowledge	Larger_animal	koala, snail → koala	Write the larger of the two given animals.	0.94 (0.00)	0.94 (0.00)
Semantics	Cause_and_effect	Sentence 1: The soda went flat. Sentence 2: The bottle was left open. → The bottle was left open.	Find which of the two given cause and effect sentences is the cause.	0.97 (0.02)	0.90 (0.02)
	Common_concept	guitars, pendulums, neutrinos → involve oscillations.	Find a common characteristic for the given objects.	0.11 (0.01)	0.11 (0.00)
Style	Informal_to_formal	Please call once you get there → Please call upon your arrival.	Rephrase the sentence in formal language.	0.63 (0.00)	0.50 (0.00)
Numerical	Sum	22 10 → 32	Sum the two given numbers.	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Diff	32 22 → 10	Subtract the second number from the first.	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
	Num_to_Verbal	26 → twenty-six	Write the number in English words.	1.00 (0.00)	1.00 (0.00)
Multi-lingual	Translation_en-de	game → Spiel	Translate the word into German.	0.81 (0.00)	0.84 (0.00)
	Translation_en-es	game → juego	Translate the word into Spanish.	0.89 (0.00)	0.88 (0.00)
	Translation_en-fr	game → jeu	Translate the word into French.	0.86 (0.00)	0.87 (0.00)
GLUE	Sentiment	The film is small in scope, yet perfectly formed. → positive	Determine whether a movie review is positive or negative.	0.89 (0.01)	0.91 (0.00)
	Sentence_similarity	Sentence 1: A man is smoking. Sentence 2: A man is skating. → 0 - definitely not	Rate the semantic similarity of two input sentences on a scale of 0 - definitely not to 5 - perfectly.	0.00 (0.00)	0.21 (0.00)
				<i>median score</i>	0.89
				<i>average score</i>	0.78
				<i># best-performing tasks</i>	14

Table 20: Classified tasks into categories from the instruction-induction datasets. For each task, we provide a corresponding demonstration, with → separating the input from the output, along with its respective human instruction as proposed in (Honovich et al., 2023). We tested these instructions, report their test scores (mean over 3 runs, standard deviation in parentheses), and compare them to our best test scores using ACING with Vicuna-13B as the white-box model.

Instruction	FRE ↑	FKG ↓	CLI ↓
Change the input to match the output, but the output is already in the passive voice	74.3	6.9	7.00
Take a word and change it to its opposite	94.3	2.3	2.18
Match the input to the output, and the answer is:\$Input\$: Nature Nanotechnology, Annual Review of Biochemistry, and The Lancet Neurology \$Output\$: top journals \$Input\$: Jeans, Tops, and Suits \$Output\$: Apparel	15.6	18.5	14.53
Input the code into a Python interpreter and observe the output	49.5	9.1	9.45
Find the sentence that is the cause of the effect in the pair of sentences	84.5	5.2	5.43
Make a connection between the input and output, but the connection is not clear	65.7	7.6	9.01
Find the difference between the two numbers	66.8	5.7	10.63
Create a function that takes a string as input and returns the first letter of the first word in the string	80.8	7.2	6.82
Convert the input into output using the same word order and with the same meaning	67.5	7.6	8.13
Create a program that takes two animals as input and outputs the animal that is bigger	58.4	9.1	8.09
Input the word “year” and the output was “y e a r”	96.0	2.9	-1.35
Flip the truth value of the statements in the input	86.7	3.7	5.60
Convert numbers to words	75.9	3.7	7.25
Provide a number that represents how many items are in the input	60.7	7.8	7.35
Find the word that does not belong in each group based on the given words	95.7	3.6	5.04
Find a word in the text that starts with the letter provided and to output that word	85.1	5.6	5.66
Find the name of the element based on its atomic number	72.6	5.9	5.24
Input the word that the program thought I was inputting and then output the word that program thought I was inputting	76.7	7.8	9.58
Input a word and output the letter that corresponds to the second letter in that word	69.0	7.6	7.72
Find a sentence pair that is probably not similar, and the output is 3 - probably	61.9	8.4	6.97
Classify each input as positive or negative based on the assessment of the corresponding movie	33.7	12.3	13.16
Add the suffix -s to the end of the word to make it plural	95.9	3.4	0.31
Find the sum of the two numbers	103.0	0.6	0.69
Input a word that is a synonym for the word that was output	83.0	4.9	2.89
Make the AI generate a sequence of animals based on the input provided	57.0	8.5	7.80
Provide a translation for each word in the English text into German	67.8	6.8	8.80
Translate the words from English to Spanish, but I noticed that some of the translations are not accurate	66.4	8.5	10.59
Create a program that would take an English word as input and output its French equivalent	63.7	8.4	9.54
Output the words in alphabetical order, but the output is not in alphabetical order	35.5	11.8	10.67
Convert the input to a word that is a common English word	81.9	4.8	3.97
<i>Median</i>	70.8	7.0	7.3

Table 21: Readability analysis of the best instructions generated by ACING, measured using Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) (Flesch, 1948), Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (FKG) (Kincaid et al., 1975), and Coleman-Liau Index (CLI) (Coleman and Liau, 1975). Higher FRE and lower FKG/CLI indicate easier-to-understand instructions.

Task	Best instruction	Test Score
active_to_passive	Change the input to match the output, but the output is already in the passive voice	1.00
antonyms	Take a word and change it to its opposite	0.82
auto_categorization	Match the input to the output, and the answer is: <i>Input: Nature Nanotechnology, Annual Review of Biochemistry, and The Lancet Neurology Output: top journals Input: Jeans, Tops, and Suits Output: Apparel</i>	0.34
auto_debugging	Input the code into a Python interpreter and observe the output	0.375
cause_and_effect	Find the sentence that is the cause of the effect in the pair of sentences	0.92
common_concept	Make a connection between the input and output, but the connection is not clear	0.11
diff	Find the difference between the two numbers	1.00
first_word_letter	Create a function that takes a string as input and returns the first letter of the first word in the string	1.00
informal_to_formal	Convert the input into output using the same word order and with the same meaning	0.50
larger_animal	Create a program that takes two animals as input and outputs the animal that is bigger	0.94
letters_list	Input the word "year" and the output was "y e a r"	1.00
negation	Flip the truth value of the statements in the input	0.82
num_to_verbal	Convert numbers to words	1.00
object_counting	Provide a number that represents how many items are in the input	0.55
odd_one_out	Find the word that does not belong in each group based on the given words	0.64
orthography_starts_with	Find a word in the text that starts with the letter provided and to output that word	0.71
periodic_elements	Find the name of the element based on its atomic number	1.00
rhymes	Input the word that the program thought I was inputting and then output the word that program thought I was inputting	1.00
second_word_letter	Input a word and output the letter that corresponds to the second letter in that word	0.91
sentence_similarity	Find a sentence pair that is probably not similar, and the output is 3 - probably	0.21
sentiment	Classify each input as positive or negative based on the assessment of the corresponding movie	0.90
singular_to_plural	Add the suffix -s to the end of the word to make it plural	1.00
sum	Find the sum of the two numbers	1.00
synonyms	Input a word that is a synonym for the word that was output	0.13
taxonomy_animal	Make the AI generate a sequence of animals based on the input provided	0.75
translation_en-de	Provide a translation for each word in the English text into German	0.84
translation_en-es	Translate the words from English to Spanish, but I noticed that some of the translations are not accurate	0.88
translation_en-fr	Create a program that would take an English word as input and output its French equivalent	0.87
word_sorting	Output the words in alphabetical order, but the output is not in alphabetical order	0.73
word_unscrambling	Convert the input to a word that is a common English word	0.63

Table 22: The best instruction discovered by ACING for all the 30 instruction-induction tasks using with Vicuna-13B as the white-box model.