

CRL-Prompt: Contrastive and Reinforcement Learning for Soft Prompt Tuning of Language Models

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Prompt choice is crucial in adapting language models to downstream tasks, particularly under low-resource conditions. Manual prompt engineering is time-consuming, non-scalable, and brittle, while current auto-prompting techniques are still far from maturity. This paper presents a two-stage method for prompt learning, CRL-Prompt, based on soft prompt initialization followed by contrastive and reinforcement-based refinement. Our method operates entirely over frozen models and is compatible with standard classification tasks. Experimental study demonstrates that our approach achieves consistent improvements in accuracy over baseline prompt tuning strategies, with gains of up to 2.2% while training fewer than 0.25% of model parameters.

1 Introduction

Language models (LMs) have become a cornerstone of modern natural language processing, achieving state-of-the-art results on tasks ranging from sentiment classification (Edwards and Camacho-Collados, 2024; Stigall et al., 2024) to open-ended generation (Maity et al., 2024). A key factor in their adaptability is using *prompts*, input sequences that condition the model’s behavior and outputs. It is known that prompt choice can significantly influence performance in few-shot and zero-shot settings, where labeled data is scarce or unavailable (Brown et al., 2020). As a result, prompt engineering has emerged as a critical mechanism for controlling and adapting LMs in parameter-efficient ways (Chen et al., 2024; Marvin et al., 2023; Peng et al., 2024).

Despite this importance, most prompt engineering today remains manual and heuristic in practice (Sahoo et al., 2024). Indeed, effective prompts often require domain knowledge, iterative experimentation, and extensive trial-and-error. The known practices do not scale and yield fragile so-

lutions that generalize poorly across tasks. This has led to growing interest in automated methods for prompt learning (Chang et al., 2024; Spiess et al., 2025; Xiao et al., 2025). Existing research has approached this problem from three major angles (Shin et al., 2020; Li et al., 2023; Zhuge et al., 2024). The first is *discrete prompt search*, where token-level prompt candidates are generated and scored using surrogate metrics, as seen in methods like TextGrad (Yuksekgonul et al., 2024) and Automatic Prompt Engineer (APE) (Zhou et al., 2022). Second, *continuous soft prompt tuning* directly learns embeddings, virtual prompt vectors, that are optimized via gradient descent on a frozen language model; notable examples include P-Tuning v1 (Liu et al., 2021a) and v2 (Liu et al., 2021b) and MixtureSoft (Qin and Eisner, 2021). Finally, *Reinforcement Learning (RL)-based refinement* methods, such as ConsPrompt (Weng et al., 2024), adapt prompts by optimizing for task-specific rewards. While these techniques have demonstrated promise, they also exhibit limitations: discrete methods can be computationally expensive and brittle; continuous tuning may overfit in low-resource regimes due to proxy losses; and RL often requires complex reward shaping and unstable training dynamics.

This work addresses these shortcomings by introducing a two-stage CRL-Prompt framework for automated soft prompt learning. In the first stage, we leverage P-Tuning v2 (Liu et al., 2021b) to initialize trainable key/value vectors injected into all transformer layers. In the second stage, we refine the prompts using a combination of contrastive regularization (Chen et al., 2020; Weng et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2020) and reinforcement feedback-based policy optimization guided by task-level accuracy (Li et al., 2023; Zhuge et al., 2024). The former term is designed to enhance the robustness of learned prompts by improving representation geometry. The latter term aligns optimization more closely with downstream task goals. Our method is fully

Algorithm 1 Proposed CRL-Prompt approach

Require: Frozen LM f_θ , initial prompt P_0 , labeled data \mathcal{D} , reward subset \mathcal{D}_{RL} , number of steps T , reward-update interval N , coefficients β, γ , noise variance σ^2

- 1: **Phase 1: Prompt tuning via cross-entropy**
- 2: **for** each batch (x_i, y_i) from \mathcal{D} **do**
- 3: Compute $L_{\text{CE}}(P, x_i, y_i)$
- 4: Update P using gradient of L_{CE}
- 5: **end for**
- 6: **Phase 2: Mixed optimization loop**
- 7: **for** $t = 1$ **to** T **do**
- 8: **for** each batch (x_i, y_i) from \mathcal{D} **do**
- 9: Compute $L_{\text{CE}}(P, x_i, y_i)$
- 10: Compute $L_{\text{contrast}}(P, x_i, y_i)$
- 11: **if** $t \bmod N = 0$ **then**
- 12: Sample perturbed prompt: $P' \sim \mathcal{N}(P, \sigma^2 I)$
- 13: Evaluate $f_\theta(P', x)$ on \mathcal{D}_{RL} to obtain accuracy r
- 14: $L_{\text{RL}} \leftarrow -r \log \pi(P'; \theta)$
- 15: **else**
- 16: $L_{\text{RL}} \leftarrow 0$
- 17: **end if**
- 18: $L_{\text{total}} \leftarrow L_{\text{CE}} + \beta L_{\text{contrast}} + \gamma L_{\text{RL}}$
- 19: Update P using gradient of L_{total}
- 20: **end for**
- 21: **end for**
- 22: **return** final prompt P

083 compatible with frozen LMs and operates without
084 modifying their parameters. The experimental re-
085 sults demonstrate that our framework consistently
086 outperforms state-of-the-art baselines (Shin et al.,
087 2020; Yuksekgonul et al., 2024; Qin and Eisner,
088 2021), achieving gains of up to 2.2% in accuracy
089 while training less than 0.25% of model parameters.
090 The source code will be publicly released¹.

091 2 Proposed Approach

092 Let f_θ be a frozen LM with parameters θ , and let
093 $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ be a text labeled dataset for a
094 classification task, i.e., $y_i \in \{1, \dots, C\}$, where C
095 is the number of classes. We aim to find prompt
096 parameters P (e.g., soft embeddings or prefix vec-
097 tors) that guide the LM toward accurate predictions,
098 while keeping its weights θ fixed. In particular, we
099 optimize P to maximize classification accuracy on

¹<https://anonymous.4open.science/r/CRL-prompt-4FBA>

a held-out validation set \mathcal{D}_{val} :

$$\max_P \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_{\text{val}}|} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{val}}} \mathbf{1}[f_\theta(P, x) = y], \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{1}[\cdot]$ is the indicator function, and $f_\theta(P, x)$ is the predicted class label for input text x under prompt P .

To solve this problem, we propose a two-stage automated prompt optimization framework (Algorithm 1). The first phase applies an arbitrary technique, e.g., P-Tuning v2 (Liu et al., 2021b), to initialize trainable soft prompts. They consist of virtual key/value vectors injected at each transformer layer of a frozen LM. Only these prompt embeddings are updated during training, keeping the model weights unchanged. The training objective in this phase is standard cross-entropy loss on a small labeled dataset:

$$L_{\text{CE}}(P, x_i, y_i) = -\log \left[\text{softmax}(f_\theta(P, x_i))_{y_i} \right], \quad (2)$$

where $f_\theta(P, x) \in \mathbb{R}^C$ are the logits produced by the frozen LM under prompt P for input x_i .

Once a stable initialization is learned, we move to the second phase and use contrastive regularization and RL-based optimization to enhance the soft prompts. While standard soft prompt tuning minimizes a cross-entropy loss over labeled examples, it does not explicitly encourage the prompt to separate semantically similar inputs from different classes. This can lead to overfitting or instability in few-shot settings, particularly when initialization is noisy or training data is limited. To address this, we introduce a contrastive loss term that improves the representational geometry of the learned prompt space. Given a batch of examples $\{(x_i, y_i)\}$, negative prompt variants are generated for each batch by applying dropout or noise to the current prompt parameters. The InfoNCE-style loss (Chen et al., 2020) is used to encourage embeddings of correct predictions to cluster together, while pushing apart those of incorrect ones:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{contrast}}(P, x_i, y_i) &= \\ &= -\log \frac{e^{\frac{\text{sim}(h_i, h_i^+)}{\tau}}}{e^{\frac{\text{sim}(h_i, h_i^+)}{\tau}} + \sum_{j=1}^k e^{\frac{\text{sim}(h_i, h_j^-)}{\tau}}}, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where h_i is the CLS embedding of input x_i with prompt P , h_i^+ is a positive example (original or clean version), h_j^- are negative examples obtained

via dropout or permutation, sim is a similarity measure, and τ is a temperature hyperparameter. This regularization makes the prompt more robust to small perturbations and improves generalization in low-data regimes.

Periodically (every N steps), we run the RL optimization. The soft prompt is periodically perturbed with Gaussian noise, and a sampled prompt $P' \sim \mathcal{N}(P, \sigma^2 I)$ is used to evaluate reward, downstream Accuracy of the model on a held-out subset \mathcal{D}_{RL} :

$$r = \text{Acc}\{\arg \max f_{\theta}(P', x) \mid (x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{RL}}\}. \quad (4)$$

The RL gradient is used to fine-tune the prompt to maximize this reward:

$$L_{\text{RL}}(P; P', \mathcal{D}_{\text{RL}}) = -r \log[\pi(P'; \theta)], \quad (5)$$

$$\text{where } \pi(P'; \theta) \propto e^{-\frac{\|P' - P\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}.$$

The final loss at the second step combines cross-entropy, contrastive, and policy-gradient terms with scalar weights:

$$L_{\text{total}} = L_{\text{CE}} + \beta L_{\text{contrast}} + \gamma L_{\text{RL}}. \quad (6)$$

Our Algorithm 1 draws on prior work in prompt tuning, contrastive learning, and reinforcement feedback to form a unified and efficient framework. Unlike frameworks that rely on prompt embeddings or classifier-based scoring, we work entirely within the training loop of a frozen LM. This makes our method efficient and deployable in real-world few-shot scenarios with limited data and compute. Unlike discrete methods, our CRL-Prompt operates over continuous prompts; unlike pure soft tuning, it optimizes prompts directly for the downstream task metric; and unlike full RL pipelines, it maintains low compute cost by combining contrastive loss with lightweight REINFORCE (Williams, 1992) updates. For example, compared to ConsPrompt (Weng et al., 2024), our framework does not require batch-level sampling or re-ranking and is compatible with standard PEFT libraries.

Speaking of limitations, our algorithm requires a validation split for reward estimation and introduces additional training costs due to periodic REINFORCE updates. It is also sensitive to hyperparameter tuning (e.g., reward weights, contrastive temperature). Currently, the framework is limited to classification tasks and assumes the availability of labeled data.

3 Experimental Results

To validate the proposed hybrid prompt engineering framework (Section 2), we conduct experiments on three standard text classification benchmarks for English language: 1) **AG News** (Zhang et al., 2015) – 4-way news topic classification, 120K training and 7.6K testing examples; 2) **TREC** (Li and Roth, 2002) – 6-way question type classification, 5.5K training and 500 testing examples; and 3) **SST-2** (Stanford Sentiment Treebank) (Socher et al., 2013) – binary sentiment classification, 67K training and 1.8K testing examples. In addition, we consider a more complicated **EmpatheticDialogues** dataset (Rashkin et al., 2019), which contains 25000 empathetic dialogues labeled by 32 emotion classes. For all datasets, we use conventional train/test splits provided by their authors. Appendix B contains additional details about baselines and hyperparameters.

Table 1 summarizes mean accuracy on test sets after 10 runs. We ran all experiments on a single Nvidia A100 GPU. The total training time for each method was restricted by 2 hours.

On the AG News dataset, our method reaches 94.0% accuracy with RoBERTa-base and 94.6% with Falcon-RW-1B. These results improve upon the best-performing baseline (Prompt v2) by 0.8 and 1.4 percentage points, respectively. The gains are significant given Prompt v2’s strong performance.

On the TREC question classification task, our method achieves 96.0% with RoBERTa and 96.2% with Falcon, significantly outperforming Prompt v2 by 2.2% and 3.4%. This gap is the largest among the datasets, which we attribute to TREC’s small size and fine-grained nature. In low-resource settings, the robustness introduced by contrastive regularization and alignment with end-task rewards proves especially beneficial.

For SST-2, a binary sentiment task, our approach yields 94.0% with RoBERTa and 94.3% with Falcon. Although absolute gains over Prompt v2 and MixtureSoft are slightly smaller (1.8–2.0%), they are consistent across architectures. The results also show that MixtureSoft, while effective for RoBERTa, does not generalize to larger models like Falcon, highlighting a strength of our approach.

For our most complex dataset, EmpatheticDialogues, the proposed CRL-Prompt is again the most accurate technique with accuracy of more than 47% and 40% with RoBERTa and Falcon, re-

Method	AG News		TREC		SST-2		Emphatic Dialogues	
	RoBERTa-base	falcon-rw-1b	RoBERTa-base	falcon-rw-1b	RoBERTa-base	falcon-rw-1b	RoBERTa-base	falcon-rw-1b
HandCraft	0.470±0.00	0.450±0.000	0.500±0.000	0.390±0.000	0.730±0.000	0.790±0.000	0.272±0.000	0.203±0.000
TextGrad	0.700 ±0.004	0.880±0.003	0.550±0.003	0.395±0.002	0.734 ±0.005	0.810±0.004	0.363±0.006	0.306±0.005
APE	0.550±0.003	0.520±0.003	0.546 ±0.003	0.410±0.004	0.845±0.002	0.827±0.002	0.372±0.005	0.318±0.004
MixtureSoft	0.888±0.004	–	0.656±0.005	–	0.922±0.001	–	–	–
ConsPrompt	0.839±0.005	–	0.691±0.003	–	0.892±0.002	–	–	–
Prompt v1	0.927±0.003	0.929±0.002	0.922±0.004	0.672±0.007	0.898±0.001	0.948±0.001	0.437±0.005	0.385±0.007
Prompt v2	0.932±0.001	0.932±0.001	0.938±0.002	0.928±0.001	0.922±0.002	0.903±0.003	0.454±0.004	0.391±0.006
Our CRL-Prompt	0.940±0.002	0.946±0.003	0.960 ±0.002	0.962±0.001	0.940 ±0.003	0.943 ±0.001	0.474±0.007	0.402±0.005

Table 1: Main results: accuracy on the test set.

Method Variant	AG News	TREC	SST-2
P-Tuning v2 only ($\beta = 0, \gamma = 0$)	0.932	0.938	0.922
+ Contrastive only ($\beta > 0, \gamma = 0$)	0.936	0.953	0.931
+ RL only ($\beta = 0, \gamma > 0$)	0.935	0.948	0.927
Full: Contrastive + RL ($\beta > 0, \gamma > 0$)	0.940	0.960	0.940

Table 2: Ablation results: test accuracy for different loss variants (RoBERTa-base).

241
242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252
253
254
255
256
257
258
259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284
285
286
287
288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311
312
313
314

spectively. It is worth noting that the former metric is higher than the results of specialized techniques on this dataset: 36.57% of KEMP (Li et al., 2022) and 36.84% of CEM (Sabour et al., 2022). Moreover, we achieve state-of-the-art results compared with handcrafted prompts for GPT-4 (44.2%) and its application in the multi-agent InsideOut framework (Mozikov et al., 2024) (45.1%).

Thus, across all datasets, our approach proves effective and stable. It consistently outperforms discrete search (APE, TextGrad), pure soft tuning (Prompt v1/v2), and reinforcement-only methods (ConsPrompt).

Moreover, the proposed approach achieves high parameter efficiency by updating only the soft prompt parameters while keeping the backbone LM frozen throughout training. Following standard practice, we use 20 learnable virtual tokens per transformer layer. For instance, RoBERTa-base consists of 12 layers with a hidden size of 768, which results in $20 \times 12 \times 768 = 184,320$ trainable parameters. Given the full model size of approximately 125 million parameters, this accounts for less than 0.15% of the total parameters. Similarly, for Falcon-RW-1B, the number of updated parameters $32 \times 20 \times 4544 = 2,908,160$ remains approximately equal to 0.25% out of the total number (1 billion) of weights in the model. This lightweight design makes our method well-suited for settings with limited computational resources or constraints on model modification.

To better understand the contribution of each component in our hybrid framework, we perform ablation experiments by selectively disabling parts of the loss function. Table 2 summarizes the impact

of each component for the RoBERTa model. These results confirm that combining gradient-based soft prompt tuning with contrastive and reinforcement refinements leads to consistent and significant accuracy improvements across tasks and model architectures. The two-stage design is practical: the initial P-Tuning phase provides a strong starting point for optimization, while contrastive regularization enhances generalization by improving the representational geometry of the learned prompts. Although applied infrequently, reinforcement-based updates align the optimization process with the true end-task objective (classification accuracy), yielding additional performance gains.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduced a novel Algorithm 1 for soft prompt learning. Our approach operates in a parameter-efficient regime without modifying the backbone LM, making it suitable for resource-constrained few-shot scenarios. It is experimentally shown (Table 1) that the proposed strategy consistently outperformed discrete and soft prompt baselines, yielding accuracy gains of up to 2.2%. While robustness to input perturbations is a promising direction, it was not evaluated in this work and remains a subject of future research. Our ablation studies (Table 2) confirm these components’ individual and joint benefits. Our method’s simplicity, modularity, and effectiveness across datasets and models may make it a practical foundation for scalable LM adaptation in various settings.

Limitations

In this paper, we focus on text classification tasks to simplify the computation of a reward as a validation accuracy (4). In future research, we plan to extend the proposed framework beyond classification to include generative (Zhou et al., 2022) and multi-task settings, where prompt adaptation becomes even more challenging.

315 Second, due to focus on classification problems,
316 we chose relatively small models (RoBERTa-base,
317 Falcon-1B) that are widely used in practice for
318 such tasks. Moreover, as shown in our experiment
319 with the EmphaticDialogues dataset, our results
320 with the RoBERTa model are even better than hand-
321 crafted prompt design for GPT-4 (Mozikov et al.,
322 2024). Nevertheless, in the case of text genera-
323 tion and similar tasks, it is worth considering more
324 complicated LMs in the future.

325 Finally, the online computation of accuracy in
326 RL loss (4) may be time-consuming if the valida-
327 tion set is large. One of the promising directions is
328 using off-policy or bandit-based RL algorithms (Li
329 et al., 2023) to reduce the overhead introduced by
330 online reward computation.

331 Ethical Considerations

332 It is recognized that the development of language
333 models is accompanied by inherent risks, which
334 require a deliberate examination of the ethical im-
335 plications. The experimental framework has in-
336 incorporated pretrained models, such as RoBERTa-
337 base and falcon-rw-1b, and public datasets, includ-
338 ing AG News, TREC, SST-2, and EmphaticDi-
339 logues. Their respective publishers have carefully
340 processed these models and datasets, addressing
341 potential ethical concerns. Moreover, using text
342 classification algorithms may have potential soci-
343 etal risks, none of which we feel must be specifi-
344 cally highlighted here. However, ethical risks from
345 deployment should be carefully analyzed: over-
346 confidence in CRL-Prompt’s high accuracy could
347 lead to unchecked outputs of text classification in
348 high-stakes scenarios (e.g., healthcare).

349 References

- 350 Younes Belkada, Sylvain Gugger, Omar Sanseviero,
351 and 1 others. 2023. Peft: Parameter-efficient fine-
352 tuning. <https://github.com/huggingface/peft>.
353 Hugging Face.
- 354 Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie
355 Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind
356 Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda
357 Askell, and 1 others. 2020. Language models are
358 few-shot learners. *Advances in neural information
359 processing systems*, 33:1877–1901.
- 360 Kaiyan Chang, Songcheng Xu, Chenglong Wang,
361 Yingfeng Luo, Xiaoqian Liu, Tong Xiao, and
362 Jingbo Zhu. 2024. Efficient prompting methods for
363 large language models: A survey. *arXiv preprint
364 arXiv:2404.01077*.
- 365 Ting Chen, Simon Kornblith, Mohammad Norouzi, and
366 Geoffrey Hinton. 2020. A simple framework for
367 contrastive learning of visual representations. *arXiv
368 preprint arXiv:2002.05709*.
- 369 Xiaojun Chen, Ting Liu, Philippe Fournier-Viger,
370 Bowen Zhang, Guodong Long, and Qin Zhang.
371 2024. A fine-grained self-adapting prompt learn-
372 ing approach for few-shot learning with pre-trained
373 language models. *Knowledge-Based Systems*,
374 299:111968.
- 375 Aleksandra Edwards and Jose Camacho-Collados. 2024.
376 Language models for text classification: Is in-context
377 learning enough? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.17661*.
- 378 Qintong Li, Piji Li, Zhaochun Ren, Pengjie Ren, and
379 Zhumin Chen. 2022. Knowledge bridging for em-
380 pathetic dialogue generation. In *Proceedings of
381 the AAAI conference on Artificial Intelligence*, vol-
382 ume 36, pages 10993–11001.
- 383 Xiang Lisa Li, Ping Yu, Chunting Zhou, and Timo Shen.
384 2023. Dialogue for prompting: Policy-gradient-
385 based discrete prompt generation (dp2o). *arXiv
386 preprint arXiv:2308.07272*.
- 387 Xin Li and Dan Roth. 2002. Learning question classi-
388 fiers. In *Proceedings of the 19th International Con-
389 ference on Computational Linguistics (COLING)*.
- 390 Xiao Liu, Kaixuan Ji, Yicheng Fu, and Weng Lam.
391 2021a. P-tuning: Prompt tuning can be compa-
392 rable to fine-tuning universally across scales and tasks.
393 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2103.10385*.
- 394 Xiao Liu, Kaixuan Ji, Yicheng Fu, and Weng Lam.
395 2021b. P-tuning v2: Prompt tuning can be com-
396 parable to fine-tuning universally across scales and
397 tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.07602*.
- 398 Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Man-
399 dar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis,
400 Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2019.
401 Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining ap-
402 proach. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.11692*.
- 403 Subhankar Maity, Aniket Deroy, and Sudeshna Sarkar.
404 2024. Investigating large language models for
405 prompt-based open-ended question generation in the
406 technical domain. *SN Computer Science*, 5(8):1–32.
- 407 Ggaliwango Marvin, Nakayiza Hellen, Daudi Jjinga,
408 and Joyce Nakatumba-Nabende. 2023. Prompt engi-
409 neering in large language models. In *International
410 conference on data intelligence and cognitive infor-
411 matics*, pages 387–402. Springer.
- 412 Mikhail Mozikov, Nikita Severin, Maria Glushanina,
413 Mikhail Baklashkin, Andrey Savchenko, and Ilya
414 Makarov. 2024. InsideOut: Unifying emotional llms
415 to foster empathy. In *ECAI 2024*, pages 4499–4502.
416 IOS Press.

417	Guilherme Penedo, Quentin Malartic, Daniel Hesslow, Ruxandra Cojocaru, Hamza Alobeidli, Alessandro Cappelli, Baptiste Pannier, Ebtesam Almazrouei, and Julien Launay. 2023. The RefinedWeb dataset for Falcon LLM: Outperforming curated corpora with web data only. <i>Advances in Neural Information Pro- cessing Systems</i> , 36:79155–79172.	473
418		474
419		475
420		
421		
422		
423		
424	Cheng Peng, XI Yang, Kaleb E Smith, Zehao Yu, Aokun Chen, Jiang Bian, and Yonghui Wu. 2024. Model tuning or prompt tuning? a study of large language models for clinical concept and relation extraction. <i>Journal of Biomedical Informatics</i> , 153:104630.	481
425		482
426		483
427		484
428		485
429	Guanghui Qin and Jason Eisner. 2021. Learning how to ask: Querying lms with mixtures of soft prompts. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.06599</i> .	486
430		487
431		488
432	Hannah Rashkin, Eric Michael Smith, Margaret Li, and Y-Lan Boureau. 2019. Towards empathetic open- domain conversation models: A new benchmark and dataset. In <i>Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meet- ing of the Association for Computational Linguistics</i> , pages 5370–5381.	489
433		
434		
435		
436		
437		
438	Sahand Sabour, Chujie Zheng, and Minlie Huang. 2022. CEM: Commonsense-aware empathetic response generation. In <i>Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence</i> , volume 36, pages 11229– 11237.	490
439		491
440		492
441		493
442		
443	Pranab Sahoo, Ayush Kumar Singh, Sriparna Saha, Vinija Jain, Samrat Mondal, and Aman Chadha. 2024. A systematic survey of prompt engineering in large language models: Techniques and applications. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.07927</i> .	494
444		495
445		496
446		497
447		
448	Taylor Shin, Yasaman Razeghi, Robert L. Logan IV, Eric Wallace, and Sameer Singh. 2020. Autoprompt: Eliciting knowledge from language models with au- tomatically generated prompts. In <i>Proceedings of EMNLP</i> .	503
449		
450		
451		
452		
453	Richard Socher, Alex Perelygin, Jean Wu, Jason Chuang, Christopher D Manning, Andrew Y Ng, and Christopher Potts. 2013. Recursive deep mod- els for semantic compositionality over a sentiment TreeBank. In <i>Proceedings of the Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)</i> , pages 1631–1642.	504
454		505
455		506
456		507
457		508
458		509
459		510
460	Claudio Spiess, Mandana Vaziri, Louis Mandel, and Martin Hirzel. 2025. AutoPDL: Automatic prompt optimization for llm agents. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.04365</i> .	511
461		512
462		513
463		
464	William Stigall, Md Abdullah Al Hafiz Khan, Dinesh Attota, Francis Nweke, and Yong Pei. 2024. Large language models performance comparison of emo- tion and sentiment classification. In <i>Proceedings of the 2024 ACM Southeast Conference</i> , pages 60–68.	514
465		515
466		516
467		517
468		518
469	Jinta Weng, Yifan Deng, Donghao Li, Hao You, Yue Hu, and Heyan Huang. 2024. Consprompt: Exploiting contrastive samples for few-shot prompt learning. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.04118</i> .	519
470		520
471		521
472		522
473	Ronald J Williams. 1992. Simple statistical gradient- following algorithms for connectionist reinforcement learning. <i>Machine learning</i> , 8:229–256.	523
474		524
475		
476	Zehao Xiao, Shilin Yan, Jack Hong, Jiayin Cai, Xiaolong Jiang, Yao Hu, Jiayi Shen, Qi Wang, and Cees GM Snoek. 2025. DynaPrompt: Dy- namic test-time prompt tuning. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.16404</i> .	
477		
478		
479		
480		
481	Yue Yu, Simiao Zuo, Haoming Jiang, Wendi Ren, Tuo Zhao, and Chao Zhang. 2020. Fine-tuning pre- trained language model with weak supervision: A contrastive-regularized self-training approach. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.07835</i> .	
482		
483		
484		
485		
486	Mert Yuksekgonul, Federico Bianchi, Joseph Boen, Sheng Liu, Zhi Huang, Carlos Guestrin, and James Zou. 2024. Textgrad: Automatic “differentiation” via text. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.07496</i> .	
487		
488		
489		
490	Xiang Zhang, Junbo Zhao, and Yann LeCun. 2015. Character-level convolutional networks for text classi- fication. <i>Advances in neural information processing systems</i> , 28.	
491		
492		
493		
494	Yongchao Zhou, Andrei Ioan Muresanu, Ziwen Han, Keiran Paster, Silviu Pitis, Harris Chan, and Jimmy Ba. 2022. Large language models are human-level prompt engineers. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.01910</i> .	
495		
496		
497		
498	Mingchen Zhuge, Wenyi Wang, Louis Kirsch, Francesco Faccio, Dmitrii Khizbulin, and Jür- gen Schmidhuber. 2024. Gptswarm: Language agents as optimizable graphs. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.16823</i> .	
499		
500		
501		
502		

A Related Work

Discrete Prompt Search. Early work in prompt engineering explored discrete search over token templates to elicit knowledge from frozen LMs. AutoPrompt (Shin et al., 2020) uses gradient signals to select informative trigger tokens. APE (Zhou et al., 2022) employs a language model to generate and rank natural language instructions. While fully automatic, these methods are limited to template-level search and do not learn prompts to optimize the downstream metrics.

Soft Prompt Tuning. Continuous prompt tuning approaches replace discrete templates with learnable embeddings. P-Tuning (Liu et al., 2021a) and its extension P-Tuning v2 (Liu et al., 2021b) inject virtual key/value vectors into frozen transformer layers, achieving strong performance with fewer parameters. MixtureSoft (Qin and Eisner, 2021) learns multiple prompt variants and averages their outputs. However, such methods rely on cross-entropy as a proxy loss, which does not always align with end-task accuracy.

525 **Reinforcement and Contrastive Methods.** Recent work incorporates RL to refine prompt parameters using task-level rewards. DP2O (Li et al.,
526 2023) and GPTSwarm (Zhuge et al., 2024) generate prompt policies or agent graphs via policy
527 gradients. ConsPrompt (Weng et al., 2024) introduces contrastive loss to improve few-shot generalization.
528 These approaches improve robustness but often involve complex architectures or require substantial
529 reward engineering.

535 B Experimental Setup

536 B.1 Baselines

537 All experiments use the following LMs: RoBERTa-
538 base (Liu et al., 2019) with 125M parameters and
539 falcon-rw-1b (Penedo et al., 2023) with 1B parameters.
540 We compare our method to both “soft” and
541 “discrete” prompt-engineering baselines using accu-
542 racy as the primary evaluation metric: APE (Zhou
543 et al., 2022), ConsPrompt (Weng et al., 2024), Mix-
544 tureSoft (Qin and Eisner, 2021), Prompt v1 (Liu
545 et al., 2021a), Prompt v2 (Liu et al., 2021b) and
546 TextGrad (Yuksekgonul et al., 2024). ConsPrompt
547 and MixtureSoft are only available for RoBERTa,
548 because they use maskedLM mode unsupported by
549 falcon.

550 In addition, we use the following *HandCraft*
551 (manual) prompts, where {text} is replaced by the
552 input example, and the model’s top-scoring output
553 token was mapped to the corresponding label:

- 554 • **AG News:** “Read the following news:
555 {text}. What is the category of news
556 (World, Sport, Business, or Science)?
557 Answer:”
- 558 • **TREC:** “Question: {text}. Class of
559 question (Entity, Abbreviation,
560 Description, Human, Location,
561 Number):”
- 562 • **SST-2:** “Review: {text}.
563 Sentiment of review (positive or
564 negative):”

565 B.2 Hyperparameters and Implementation 566 Details

567 All methods were implemented using the Hugging-
568 Face Transformers and PEFT libraries (Belkada
569 et al., 2023). For our approach, we extended the
570 standard training pipeline with a custom Trainer

571 to support the two-phase optimization scheme de-
572 scribed in Algorithm 1. In the first phase, we ini-
573 tialize the soft prompt with 20 virtual tokens per
574 layer, following standard practice in prompt tuning
575 literature. We optimize this prompt using cross-
576 entropy loss with a fixed learning rate of 1×10^{-3}
577 and a batch size 32. This setup proved sufficient
578 to yield stable convergence in the initial prompt
579 embedding.

580 In the second phase, the model is refined via con-
581 trastive regularization and RL-style updates. We
582 perform a small-scale grid search over learning
583 rates $\{1 \times 10^{-3}, 2 \times 10^{-3}, 5 \times 10^{-4}, 1 \times 10^{-4}\}$
584 to ensure stable performance during joint optimiza-
585 tion. In all experiments, we use contrastive dropout
586 at a rate of 10% and set the temperature parameter
587 in the InfoNCE loss to $\tau = 0.1$.

588 To reduce computational overhead, we compute
589 RL-based reward signals every $N = 100$ steps us-
590 ing a 10% hold-out subset of the training data. Al-
591 though this introduces additional cost, it helps align
592 prompt updates with the true downstream metric
593 (classification accuracy). The loss components (6)
594 are weighted as follows: $\beta = 0.3$ for contrastive
595 loss, and $\gamma = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ for reinforcement loss.
596 We found that performance was sensitive to the
597 choice of γ : overly large values destabilized train-
598 ing, while too-small values rendered the reward
599 signal ineffective. Overall, these settings represent
600 a trade-off between stability, efficiency, and expres-
601 siveness, and they generalize well across datasets
602 and model architectures in our experiments.

603 C Use of scientific artifacts and AI 604 assistants

605 AG News dataset (<https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/amandanandrai/ag-news-classification-dataset>) was
606 provided by the academic community for
607 research purposes. TREC dataset (<https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/the-devastator/the-trec-question-classification-dataset-a-long>)
608 is available under CC0: Public Domain
609 license. SST-2 (<https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/atulanandjha/stanford-sentiment-treebank-v2-sst2>)
610 was also released under CC0: Public Domain
611 license. Finally, EmpatheticDialogues (<https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/atharvajairath/empathetic-dialogues-facebook-ai>) was
612 provided under a CC BY-NC-SA 4.0 license.

621 RoBERTa-base (<https://huggingface.co/>
622 FacebookAI/roberta-base) is available under
623 the MIT License, while falcon-rw-1b (<https://huggingface.co/tiiuae/falcon-rw-1b>) is
624 distributed under the Apache License 2.0. We
625 used all the artifacts as intended by their creators.
626 No personal information or offensive content is
627 contained in the considered datasets.

628
629 The original text of this paper was spell- and
630 grammar-checked and slightly smoothed out using
631 Grammarly.