TABLET: Learning From Instructions For Tabular Data

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Abstract

Acquiring high-quality data is often a significant challenge in training machine learning (ML) models for tabular prediction, particularly in privacy-sensitive and costly domains like medicine and finance. Providing natural language instructions to large language models (LLMs) offers an alternative solution. However, it is unclear how effectively instructions leverage the knowledge in LLMs for solving tabular prediction problems. To address this gap, we introduce TABLET, a benchmark of 20 diverse tabular datasets annotated with instructions that vary in their phrasing, granularity, and technicality. Additionally, TABLET includes the instructions' logic and structured modifications to the instructions. We find incontext instructions increase zero-shot F1 performance for Flan-T5 11b by 44% on average and 13% for ChatGPT on TABLET. Also, we explore the limitations of using LLMs for tabular prediction in our benchmark by evaluating instruction faithfulness. We find LLMs often ignore instructions and fail to predict specific instances correctly, even with examples. Our analysis on TABLET shows that, while instructions help LLM performance, learning from instructions for tabular data requires new capabilities.1

1 Introduction

Machine learning with tabular data is crucial across critical domains like health care and finance. However, acquiring labeled data to train supervised learning models is often challenging. For example, privacy restrictions in finance and medicine prevent data sharing (Hulsen, 2020). Moreover, collecting data is very costly, imposing a significant financial barrier. These concerns make gathering training data challenging and sometimes impossible (Murdoch, 2021; Moorthy and Ghosh, 2015; Crawford and Schultz, 2014; Cath, 2018).

Large language models (LLMs) have the potential to considerably lighten the burden of collecting data for tabular prediction. Trained on web-scale data, LLMs have extensive world knowledge that is useful for downstream tasks (Brown et al., 2020). Instead of gathering large datasets, practitioners could create models for tabular prediction by interactively providing natural language instructions to LLMs. For instance, a doctor knowledgeable about a rare disease could instruct an LLM to identify its symptoms. The model could then help identify the disease without sharing private training data or requiring data collection. Since using instructions for tabular prediction with LLMs has considerable potential, we need to characterize both the benefits and limitations of such an approach.

To evaluate the performance of LLMs at learning from instructions for tabular prediction, we introduce *TAbular Benchmark for LEarning from Task instructions* (TABLET). This benchmark consists of 20 diverse tabular prediction tasks. These include 10 datasets from the UCI ML repository, such as credit risk and churn prediction (Dua and Graff, 2017). The additional 10 tasks are differential diagnosis (DDX) datasets for diseases. To robustly measure how effectively LLMs utilize instructions, we annotate the tasks with several generated and naturally occurring instructions categorized by their origin, structure, and level of technicality.

Using the instructions in TABLET, researchers can evaluate how well models perform at tabular prediction by learning *only* from in-context instructions (the *zero-shot* setting) or in the *few-shot* setting, where there are some labeled instances. Moreover, they can contrast performance between collection sources, e.g., consumer versus technical professional references, or evaluate how to best structure the prompts. We provide an example of evaluating with TABLET in Figure 1. When we only provide LLMs with the original data points serialized as text and a task description, LLMs fail to predict

¹Please find the TABLET demo and code at https://dylanslacks.website/Tablet.

Original Prompt

Determine if Whooping cough should be included in a differential diagnosis for the patient. Answer with one of the following: no \mid yes. Here are the patient's responses to questions about their symptoms.

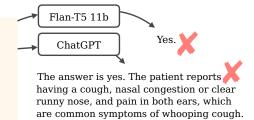
- Characterize your pain: sensitive and sharp
- Do you feel pain somewhere?: left ear and right ear
- Do you have a cough?: yes
- Do you have nasal congestion or a clear runny nose?: yes
- Where is the affected region located?: left iliac fossa

+ Naturally Occuring Instructions

....Answer with one of the following: no | yes.

B. pertussis (whooping cough) invades respiratory mucosa, increasing the secretion of mucus... After 10 to 14 days, the paroxysmal stage begins with an increase in the severity and frequency of the cough. Repeated bouts of ≥ 5 rapidly consecutive forceful coughs occur during a single expiration and are followed by the whoop... Paroxysmal coughing may recur for months. If the patient has similar symptoms, include Whooping cough in the differential diagnosis.

Here are the patient's response to questions about their symptoms....





There is no indication that Whooping cough should be included in the differential diagnosis. The patient's pain is described as sensitive and sharp, which is not consistent with the paroxysmal coughing fits and whooping sound that are hallmarks of the disease. The answer is no.

Figure 1: **Evaluation with TABLET.** We serialize a short task description and a data point from the Whooping Cough dataset into a prompt (top). Flan-T5 11b and ChatGPT predict this instance incorrectly based on clues related to a cough and nasal congestion. However, by adding the instructions (bottom), the model identifies that the patient's pain is inconsistent with typical symptoms of Whooping Cough and correctly predicts the instance.

correctly. However, when we provide explicit instructions for identifying symptoms of Whooping Cough in TABLET, models consider more important features, such as paroxysmal coughing, and predict correctly. Our analysis on TABLET reveals zero-shot Flan-T5 11b improves F1 score by 20% on average over the same model without instructions, and ChatGPT F1 performance improves 10%. The performance gains increase in the few-shot setting; Flan-T5 11b improves on average 44% over the baseline with 4 in-context training examples, demonstrating instructions significantly improve LLM performance on tabular prediction.

We also evaluate the limitations and failure modes of learning from instructions for tabular prediction when using large language models. We include additional artifacts in TABLET, such as representations of the instruction's logic and *flipped* instructions (i.e., instructions that, if followed, should lead to different answers than the originals). In this setting, researchers can measure if models are faithful to instructions and use instructions for generalization benefits beyond just following the information in the instructions. While instructions improve LLM performance in general, we find LLMs are highly-biased against classifying certain instances correctly. Similarly, LLMs do not always follow instructions provided in-context. Overall,

our analysis on TABLET demonstrates instructions are promising for improving LLM performance on tabular prediction tasks, but current models have several key limitations. In the future, we hope the release of TABLET enables researchers to develop models capable of solving tabular prediction tasks from instructions alone.

2 Tabular Instruction Learning

In this section, we introduce the problem of learning from instructions for tabular prediction.

2.1 Problem Formulation

This subsection formalizes our problem setting.

Tasks Each tabular prediction task t has dataset $D_t = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_i^n$, where data points x_i have d features, the dataset D_t has n rows, and labels y_i belong to w classes $y_i \in C_t$. Additionally, the features and classes have names $F_t = \{f_1, ..., f_d\}$ and $C_t = \{c_1, ..., c_w\}$, respectively. We expect the feature names to be semantically meaningful, e.g., education or marital status, and the feature values to be in their normal range. Last, each task has a title E_t describing the goal (example in Table 1). We can often extract the feature names, class names, and titles from the metadata (Dua and Graff, 2017).

Also, the dataset D_t splits into training and testing sets, $D_t^{\rm train}$ and $D_t^{\rm test}$ respectively. While the

- E_t Predict if income exceeds \$50K/yr.
- I_t Individuals who earn more than \$50K/yr tend to have higher education levels (e.g., Bachelors or Prof-school).
- $C_t > 50 \text{K} \mid \le 50 \text{K}$
- F_t hours/week: 40 | sex: Female | age: 24 occupation: Sales | education: college

Table 1: **Example Adult instance** (abbreviated), with title E_t , instructions I_t , classes C_t , and features F_t .

focus of TABLET is learning from instructions when there are few or no training examples in the training data $D_t^{\rm train}$, we provide the full training sets in TABLET to compare against fully supervised models and perform few-shot evaluations.

Instructions Each task t has natural language instructions I_t that describe the relationship between the data D_t and labels C_t . The instructions may vary across many factors, such as style, granularity, and phrasing. The goal is to use the instructions to solve the task with few or no training examples.

2.2 Prompting Schema

We follow a consistent schema for collating tabular instruction learning problems into prompts, inspired by instruction learning for NLP (Mishra et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022). For a task t, the prompts consist of five parts:

- **Title:** The description of the task E_t .
- Instructions: The instructions I_t .
- Classes: The classes C_t (e.g., "yes" or "no").
- Examples: In-context examples D_t^{train} , if any.
- Test Data Point: Test example, $x_i \in D_t^{\text{test}}$.

To convert tabular data points into strings for the *Examples* and *Test Data Point* components, we follow Hegselmann et al. (2022). We format feature names and values into strings: " $\{f_1\}: \{x_1\}\setminus n...\setminus n\{f_d\}: \{x_d\}$ ". We format the labels C_t into a string: "Answer with one of the following: $\{c_1\}\mid ...\mid \{c_w\}$ ".

3 TABLET

In this section, we introduce TABLET. The benchmark contains 20 tasks annotated with the components of the prompting schema (Subsection 2.2).

3.1 Tasks

Here, we describe the tasks in TABLET.

Differential Diagnosis We include 10 differential diagnosis (DDX) tasks derived from DDXPlus, a dataset for differential diagnosis carefully validated by doctors (Tchango et al., 2022). These tasks aim to predict if a disease, such as Ebola or Myocarditis, could cause a patient's symptoms (example in Fig. 1). While the DDX problem is highly important, model development is limited by data privacy, making it an ideal task for instruction learning (Murdoch, 2021; Peng et al., 2018). These tasks have sparse binary features, indicating whether a patient has a specific symptom. Because there are many features, we use only the positive features that indicate symptom presence in the prompts.

UCI We add 10 diverse tasks from the UCI ML Repository, such as Customer Churn and Credit (Dua and Graff, 2017). These tasks represent many application areas and differ along dataset characteristics. For instance, this set includes datasets with numeric, categorical, and mixed features and different class sizes (binary to 16-way).

Splits We split the datasets with an 80/20 train/test split. While we include the full training data in TABLET, critically, our evaluation with LLMs takes place in the *zero* and *few-shot* settings. We include the full training set to permit comparison against fully supervised models and different few-shot samples. Because the DDX tasks have many records (>1M), we down-sample to 10,000 instances. The DDX data is highly imbalanced, so we rebalance the data before splitting and sample the test set in proportion to the original distribution.

3.2 Instructions

This section describes the instruction annotations.

3.2.1 Naturally Occurring Instructions

We collect 3 naturally occuring instruction annotations for each DDX dataset. Two of these instructions are from consumer friendly sources, while one is from a more technical professional reference. The consumer instructions are from government health websites and non-profits. To ensure quality, we use articles in an index of consumer medical information maintained by the National Library of Medicine (alled MedlinePlus (National Library of Medicine (US)). We collect the more technical instruction from a professional reference called the

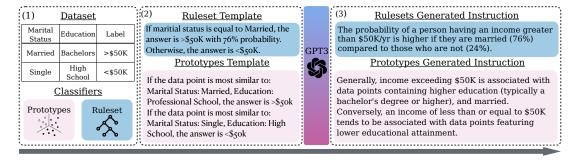


Figure 2: **Instruction generation pipeline.** (1) We fit a prototypes and rulesets classifier on the dataset; here Adult (2) We serialize the classifier's logic into a template (3) We sample revisions of the template with GPT-3.

Merck Manual (Bullers, 2016). To collect the instructions, first, we search for the disease using its ICD-10 code in either MedlinePlus or Merck. ICD-10 is a standardized disease classification system that helps us ensure we find the correct information (World Health Organization, 1993). Next, we find the symptoms section on the webpage. We create the final instruction by combining the symptoms with a piece of text stating the disease should be in the differential diagnosis of patients with these symptoms (Fig. 1).

3.2.2 Generated Instructions

While we collect instructions from trustworthy sources for the DDX datasets, we introduce scalable and controllable techniques to generate instructions that vary in their phrasing, granularity and style for evaluating model robustness to different sorts of instructions on the UCI datasets.

Method To generate instructions (overview in Fig. 2), we initially fit a simple model, such as a shallow rule set, on the task's full training data (1). Next, we serialize the model's logic into text using a *template* (2). While the templates capture useful logic for solving the task, they are highly structured. We use GPT-3 (3) to revise the templates into natural language by prompting it to convert the templates into a concise paragraph (Brown et al., 2020). We carefully review the generated instructions to ensure they are faithful to the template. Next, we discuss two models, *rule sets* and *prototypes classifiers*, we use to generate instructions.

Rule Sets Humans often express their understanding through logical rules (von Rueden et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2016). Motivated by these findings, we use a rule sets classifier to create instruction templates. Rule sets consist of independent decision rules for predicting a class

(Figure 2). Each decision rule contains an independent if-then statement followed by a prediction and confidence value (Singh et al., 2021).

Prototypes Humans also represent knowledge using conceptual prototypes, representing the "best" examples of concepts (Osherson and Smith, 1981; Chen et al., 2019). We use a *prototypes* classifier as an instruction template. The prototypes classifier computes centroids for each class and uses the nearest centroid's class as the prediction (Figure 2).

Instructions We generate 10 prototypes and rulesets natural language instructions for the datasets in TABLET. To make the instructions more intelligible, we limit their complexity. We set the depth of the rulesets to 1. We select the 10 most important features for the prototypes classifier by computing their average information gain from XGBoost.

4 Experimental Setup

In this section, we describe our experiment setup.

Models We use pre-trained LLMs in our experiments (Brown et al., 2020). We employ two seq2seq models, Tk-Instruct 11b and Flan-T5 11b (Wang et al., 2022; Chung et al., 2022). These 11b T5 models received instruction fine-tuning, making them better at following instructions (Raffel et al., 2020). Also, we use GPT-J 6b, a causal language model, to compare a non-instruction tuned LLM (Wang and Komatsuzaki, 2021). Last, we use ChatGPT, an LLM released by OpenAI trained with instruction tuning and reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF), a method that aligns LLMs with human preferences (Schulman et al., 2022). Because OpenAI provides Chat-GPT access through a costly API, we use this model in select experiments.

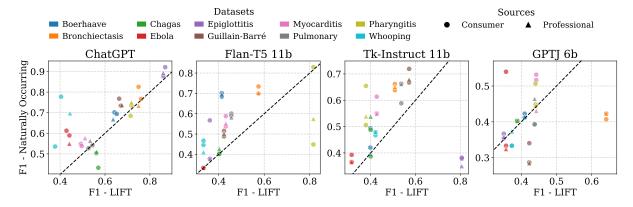


Figure 3: **Results on DDX tasks with Naturally Occurring Instructions.** Instructions greatly improve LLM generalization of ChatGPT, Flan-T5 11b, and Tk-Instruct 11b over the baseline without instructions (LIFT).

Prompts To construct prompts, we use the templates provided by Tk-Instruct and Flan-T5. For example, Tk-Instruct prefers instructions to begin with "Definition:". Because GPT-J and Chat-GPT do not have templates, we create prompts by joining the annotations from the TABLET schema (subsection 2.2) with line breaks. For GPT-J, we append "The answer is" so the next token will be the class. For ChatGPT, we append "Please answer with c_1, \ldots , or c_w ." because it is less amenable to direct completion.

Inference For all models except ChatGPT, we set the temperature to 0 and take the generation from the prompted LLM as the predicted class. However, ChatGPT often generates a paragraph of text instead of a label. So, we use nucleus sampling fixing p=0.1. We take the label that occurs in the generation to be the prediction. However, label text may appear in other words, causing false positives (e.g., "yes" appears in "eyes"). So, we modified the class labels for ChatGPT to "The answer is c_i ", which did not occur by chance in our evaluation.

Additional Baselines & Metrics To benchmark against an approach without instructions on TABLET, we reproduce LIFT (Dinh et al., 2022). LIFT combines feature names, values, and a short description of the task into a prompt for in-context learning without instructions. We create prompts for LIFT from TABLET by omitting the instructions from the prompt. When we compare LLMs with instructions against LIFT, we use the *same* LLM, so the difference is the *presence of instructions*. Last, we evaluate using macro averaged F1 score for comparing across unbalanced labels.

5 Experiments

TABLET presents several new directions for evaluating how well instructions help LLMs use their knowledge for tabular prediction. First, we evaluate in the *zero-shot* setting and see whether LLMs perform well on tabular prediction with just instructions. Next, we consider the *few-shot* setting and assess LLM performance with both instructions and few-shot examples in-context. Throughout, we use TABLET to dissect the key limitations of current LLMs on tabular prediction tasks.

5.1 Zero-Shot Performance

Ideally, users could provide instructions to LLMs and achieve strong performance on tabular datasets without any data collection. Therefore, we initially explore the zero-shot setting.

Performance We compare the zero-shot F1 performance of LLMs using naturally occurring instructions with LIFT (no instructions) in Fig-We use a Wilcoxon signed rank test to evaluate if instructions lead to significantly better performance and correct p-values using Holm-Bonferroni to account for multiple comparisons on the datasets (Holm, 1979). The naturally occurring instructions significantly improve performance for ChatGPT, Flan-T5 11b, and Tk-Instruct 11b (p<0.01), while they are not helpful for GPT-J (p>0.05). ChatGPT performs the best overall and scores quite highly for tasks such as Epiglottitis, reaching upwards of 0.9 F1. In Figure 4, we compare LLM performance using generated instructions with LIFT. We omit ChatGPT from these experiments due to costs. Generated instructions significantly increase performance for all models (p<1e-4). The improved GPT-J 6b performance

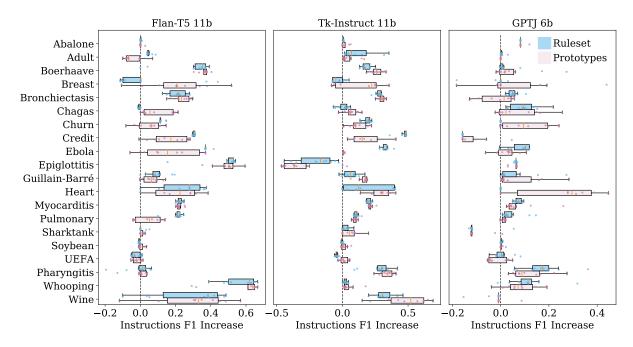


Figure 4: **Model results on all tasks with generated instructions.** Both prototypes and rulesets generated instructions lead to improved performance on most tasks for Flan-T5, Tk-Instruct, and GPT-J.

with generated instructions is likely because the instructions include exact terms from the dataset, like the feature names, making them easier to follow. Overall, instructions consistently benefit LLM performance on tabular prediction.

Differences Across Collection Sources We assess differences in performance on the consumer and professional references. For both Tk-Instruct 11b and Flan T5 11b, the instructions from the professional medical reference only performed best on 1/10 data sets (Fig. 3). However, the professional instructions performed best on 4/10 datasets for ChatGPT. These results could be explained by ChatGPT being a larger model capable of memorizing technical language during pre-training.

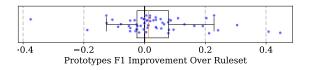


Figure 5: Prototypes instructions perform better.

Differences Across Generation Methods We contrast performance on the rule sets and prototypes generated instructions using GPT-J 6b, Tk-Instruct 11b, and Flan-T5 11b. Because the datasets have 10 annotations for both types of instructions, we take the max performance on the instruction type to compare the upper bound performance. The

results provided in Figure 5 show that the prototypes instruction type perform better (p=0.03). This result indicates LLMs have an easier time interpreting conceptual prototypes than logical rules.

Generalization Beyond Instruction Logic Recall we derived the generated instructions from supervised models (Subsection 3.2.2). We evaluate whether LLMs with these instructions generalize better than the original supervised models. Flan-T5 11b outperforms the prototypes classifiers by 33% on average across all the datasets and the rulesets classifiers by 91% (detailed results in Appendix Figure 9). This result shows that LLMs leverage the instructions for generalization benefits beyond simply repeating the logic in the instruction.

Instruction Faithfulness We measure whether LLMs behave faithfully to instruction modifications. We create a *flipped* set of instructions by permuting the labels for the prototype class centroids and regenerating the instructions. LLM predictions should be different following the flipped instructions because each centroid has a different class label. We generate 10 flipped instructions for the Boerhaave, Breast Cancer, Epiglottis, Heart Disease, Wine, and Bronchiectasis datasets. We evaluate how often models predict the same class with the flipped instruction as the originals using Flan-T5 11b and Tk-Instruct 11b. We present the results in Figure 6. Surprisingly, the median number of

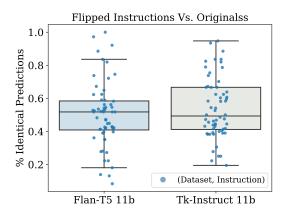


Figure 6: **LLMs predict many instances identically using instructions with** *flipped logic*, indicating they are overly biased.

identical predictions is 52% for Flan and 49% for Tk-Instruct. This result demonstrates that LLMs may overly rely on their biases from pre-training instead of adapting to the in-context instructions.

5.2 Few-Shot Performance

Ideally, instructions alone would be sufficient to achieve good performance. However, few-shot examples could significantly help models solve tasks, while still alleviating the challenge of gathering a large training set. Therefore, this subsection studies using both instruction and few-shot examples for in-context learning. For these experiments, we evaluate few-shot performance on the DDX tasks for [0, 2, 4] shots due to Flan's context window, using both LIFT and the naturally occurring instructions. We perform this evaluation with ChatGPT and Flan-T5 11b. To compare against state-of-the-art supervised models in this setting, we also evaluate fewshot XGBoost. Additionally, because of the cost of ChatGPT, we evaluate a single seed. Though, we perform few-shot sampling for 10 datasets, which reduces any bias. We present the results in Figure 7.

Performance Gap While zero-shot Flan-T5 with naturally occurring instructions outperforms LIFT by 20%, this gap increases to 44% with 4 in-context examples. Similarly, ChatGPT's performance gap increases from 10% to 13% with 4 examples. XGBoost scores only 0.38 F1 with 4-shot examples—much lower than the LLMs with instructions. These results show that few-shot examples have compounding benefits for models with instructions, and LLMs significantly outperform supervised models in the few-shot setting.

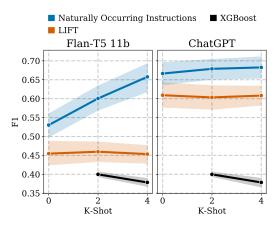


Figure 7: Few-shot examples provide larger benefits to LLMs with instructions than without instructions.

Instance Learnability Though the knowledge LLMs learn during pre-training helps performance, these models are overly biased and often fail to learn from few-shot examples. We compute the percent of the time Flan-T5 11b, with naturally occurring instructions and 4-shot examples, predicts each test datapoint correctly, over 30 random seeds. Also, we compare against logistic regression resampling the dataset with replacement 30 times and perform this evaluation on the Ebola, Whooping cough, Bronchiectasis, and Epiglottitis datasets. The results in Figure 8 show Flan always mispredicts specific data points, indicating it is highly biased towards the opposite class label, and few-shot examples do little to help. Also, the logistic regression model struggles to learn fewer data points, indicating LLM biases is the leading cause of this result and not mislabeled or hard-tolearn examples. Overall, the knowledge in LLMs is quite helpful for performance, but these models are often inflexible and overly biased.

Comparison to Fully Supervised To evaluate how close LLMs are to outperforming fully supervised models, we compare Flan-T5 11b and Chat-GPT with 4-shot examples, against XGBoost fit on the entire training data. XGBoost with all the data scores 0.94 F1 on average on the DDX tasks, while ChatGPT 4-shot scores on average 0.68 and Flan-T5 11b scores 0.66 F1. Thus, there is still considerable room for improvement on TABLET.

Few-Shot Selection We evaluate whether LLMs match fully supervised performance by selecting better few-shot examples instead of randomly sampling. Though this experiment assume access to the complete training set, which is not our intended use

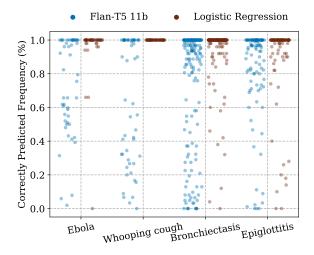


Figure 8: **LLMs + Instructions are highly biased against specific examples.** Each dot is a single data point. Over 30 seeds, LLMs + Instructions with 4-shot examples consistently misclassify specific data points.

case, it provides insight into whether approximate upper bound LLM performance matches fully supervised. For each test point in the DDX tasks, we select 4 few-shot examples using feature-weighted K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) on the original data. We compute feature weights using the average information gain of each feature from XGBoost fit on the training set. This KNN model scores 0.93 F1 on average on the tasks. However, Flan T5 11b scores 0.77 F1 using the same examples and naturally occurring instructions. Even in this ideal setting, Flan-T5 still underperforms fully supervised.

6 Related Work

In this section, we discuss related works.

6.1 LLMs For Tabular Data

Several prior works use LLMs for tabular datarelated tasks. Multiple works demonstrate LLMs are highly effective for tabular data augmentation tasks, such as generating new data or cleaning data (Narayan et al., 2022; Borisov et al., 2023; Harari and Katz, 2022). In addition, prior research show that similar architectures, such as transformer blocks, are effective for fine-tuning tabular data from scratch (Huang et al., 2020; Gorishniy et al., 2021). We focus on tabular prediction in sample efficient settings, leveraging the knowledge in pretrained LLMs to improve performance.

Closer to our techniques, a few works show LLMs improve sample efficiency in the few-shot setting by serializing feature names and values into the prompt (Dinh et al., 2022; Hegselmann et al., 2022). These works consider fine-tuning and incontext learning approaches and achieve effective results. Still, these works do not consider using instructions to improve sample efficiency nor introduce datasets with instruction annotations.

6.2 Learning From Instructions

Our work extends related research that shows instructions help increase the performance of LLMs on downstream NLP tasks (Sanh et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022; Min et al., 2022; Zhong et al., 2021). For instance, several works show that including task instructions during fine-tuning improves performance learning from instructions for different NLP tasks, such as summarization, sentiment analysis, and question answering (Wei et al., 2022; Mishra et al., 2022; Ye et al., 2023). Others extend these findings to text embedding tasks and find instructions lead to improved downstream performance (Su et al., 2022). While prior works consider improving performance on NLP or text-embedding tasks using LLMs tuned with instructions, we focus on answering whether instructions help LLMs utilize their world knowledge to improve performance on tabular data tasks.

7 Discussion & Conclusion

In this work, we introduced TABLET, a new benchmark of tabular datasets annotated with instructions, where the goal is to use the instructions to solve the prediction problem. To support a wide range of possible use cases, we annotated the tasks in TABLET with instructions that vary along several factors, including their collection source, granularity, and phrasing. We presented results using several pre-trained LLMs, such as Flan-T5 11b and ChatGPT and found that instructions significantly increased task performance.

Improved methods for learning from the instructions for tabular prediction will significantly impact many domains. Indeed, tabular data is the most common data format for many fields that rely on relational databases, such as medicine, finance, manufacturing, and climate science (Shwartz-Ziv and Armon, 2021). Thus, learning from instructions has the potential to reduce the need for costly and time-consuming data collection procedures in many areas, offering widespread benefits.

The TABLET benchmark provides the basis for future research into solving tabular prediction prob-

lems with instructions. So far, we have shown that instructions lead to improved performance overall and quite strong performance on specific tasks in the benchmark. Still, several limitations of current LLMs hinder their performance, such as biases against certain instances and failures following instructions. Accordingly, a promising direction for future research is developing models that strike a better balance between utilizing knowledge from pre-training when it is helpful to the task and faithfully adapting to new information. Finally, because different application areas require domain-specific knowledge that LLMs may not have seen in their pre-training, another promising direction for future research is additional self-supervised training on domain-specific texts, e.g., medical references or manufacturing manuals.

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A Appendix

A.1 Tasks

In this appendix, we provide the tasks in TABLET. There are 20 tasks. 10 tasks are differential diagnosis tasks (DDX) (Tchango et al., 2022). The rest are from the UCI repository (Dua and Graff, 2017).

Table 2: UCI and DDX Datasets

DDX	UCI
Whooping Cough (A37)	Adult
Ebola (a98.4)	Abalone
Chagas (B57)	Breast Cancer
Guillain-Barre (G61.0)	Churn
Pulmonary embolism (i26)	Heart Disease
Myocarditis (I51.4)	Sharktank
Viral pharyngitis (J02.9)	Soybean
Epiglottitis (J05.1)	Credit
Bronchiectasis (J47)	UEFA
Boerhaave (K22.3)	Wine

A.2 Comparison To Template Models

In the main text, we show that LLMs with generated instructions outperform the ML models used to create the instruction templates. In this appendix, we provide further details. We show the performance of GPTJ 6b, Flan-T5 11b, and Tk Instruct 11b compared to the prototypes and rulesets classifiers in Figure 9. We observe that both the Flan and Tk-Instruct models lead to considerable improvements over the models used to create the instruction templates except in the case of the prototypes classifier on the UCI dataset, where they perform about the same on average. These results indicate that LLMs use the instructions to generalize beyond the simple models used to create the templates.

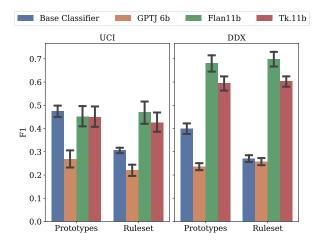


Figure 9: **LLMs with generated instructions outperform models used to create templates.** This result indicates generated instructions help align LLMs with task beyond the logic from the model.

A.3 Additional Few Shot Results Analysis

In the main text, we presented aggregate results for the few shot performance of Flan-T5 11b and ChatGPT using the naturally occurring instructions in TABLET. In this appendix, we provide per dataset few-shot results. We plot the pareto frontier of F1 score across each datasest and shot, to help understand the performance of the best performing instructions. We provide the results for ChatGPT in Figure 10 and

the results for Flan-T5 11b in Figure 11. For datasets like Epiglottitis, Boerhaave, and Guillain-Barre syndrome, the best performing models get quite close to fully supervised performance.

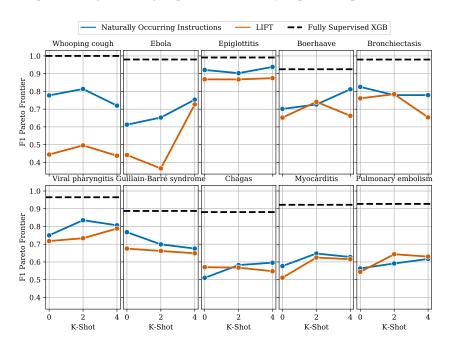


Figure 10: Pareto frontier across instructions for ChatGPT 0 - 4 shot

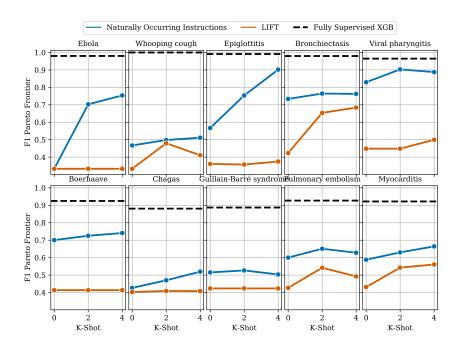


Figure 11: Pareto frontier across instructions for Flan 11b 0 - 4 shot

A.4 Additional Zero Shot Results Analysis

In the main paper, we presented the zero shot performance of several models on datasets in TABLET with the naturally occuring and generated instructions. In this appendix, we provide these results broken out further by dataset. The zero shot results for the naturally occurring instructions are provided in Figure 12. The results for the generated instructions are given in Figure 13 and Figure 14 for the DDX and UCI tasks respectively. We additionally provide performance of a fully supervised XGB model for comparison. We observe instructions lead to consistenly improved performance across the tasks.

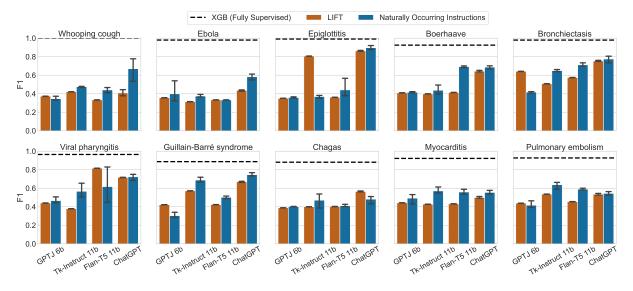


Figure 12: Overall results on ddx naturally occurring instructions.

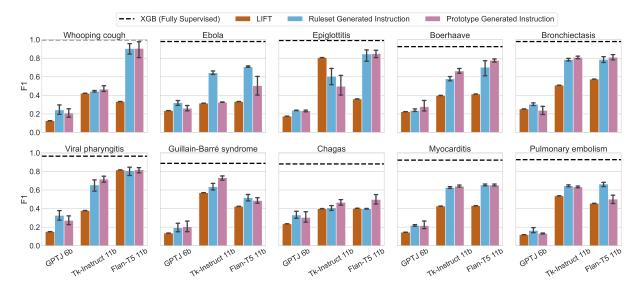


Figure 13: Overall results on ddx generated instructions.

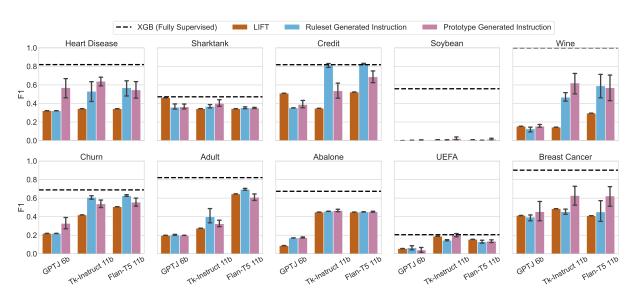


Figure 14: Overall results on uci generated instructions, including templates.

A.5 Instruction & Prompt Examples

In this appendix, we provide examples for the instructions and prompts in Tablet. In Table 3, we provide examples of the prototype generated instructions. In Table 4, we give examples of the rulesets generated instructions. In Table 5, we include examples of the naturally occurring instructions. In Table 6, we provide an example from the Viral pharyngitis dataset. This prompt includes a naturally occurring instruction collected from the NHS. We can observe the patient exhibits many of the symptoms present in the instruction, such as a cough and throat pain.

Dataset	Instruction
Churn	Customers are more likely to churn if they have a month-to-month contract, fiber optic internet service, and phone service. Additionally, customers with shorter tenure (less than 8 months) and no additional services such as streaming movies, multiple lines, streaming tv, online backup, or tech support are also more likely to churn. Customers who have two year contracts, fiber optic internet service, and phone service, but do not have any of the additional services mentioned above, are less likely to churn.
Ebola Adult	The answer to whether Ebola should be included in the differential diagnosis for a patient depends on their travel history. If the patient has not traveled out of the country in the past four weeks, then yes, it should be included in their differential diagnosis. Conversely, if the patient has recently traveled outside the country, then no, it does not need to be included as part of the diagnosis. Generally, individuals who earn more than \$50K/yr tend
	to have higher levels of education (e.g., Bachelors or Prof-school), work in managerial or specialty occupations, and are married with a spouse. They also typically work longer hours per week (45+). On the other hand, those earning less than or equal to \$50K/yr usually have lower educational attainment (e.g., HS-grad) and work in clerical or craft-repair positions. Additionally, they tend to be unmarried or not in a family relationship and work fewer hours per week (less than 45).

Table 3: Prototypes generated instruction examples.

Dataset	Instruction	
Churn	When predicting customer churn, if the contract type is	
	month-to-month then the customer is likely to churn (74%	
	probability). For any other contract types, the customer is	
	unlikely to churn (26% probability).	
Ebola	If a patient has not traveled outside of their country in	
	the last four weeks, there is a 50% probability that Ebola	
	should be included in the differential diagnosis. However,	
	if they have travelled outside of the country, then it	
	should definitely be included in the diagnosis with 100%	
	certainty.	
Adult	The likelihood of a person having an income over \$50,000 per	
	year significantly increases when they are married with a	
	civil spouse, with a 76% probability. Conversely, those who	
	are not married with a civil spouse are likely to have an	
	income of less than or equal to \$50,000 per year, with a 24%	
	probability.	

Table 4: Ruleset generated instruction examples.

Dataset	Instruction
Ebola	Patients that have Ebola have symptoms that usually include: - Fever - Headache - Joint and muscle aches - Weakness and fatigue - Sore throat - Gastrointestinal symptoms including abdominal (belly) pain, diarrhea, and vomiting - Loss of appetite - Unexplained bleeding or bruising - Other symptoms may include a rash, red eyes, and hiccups. Overall, if the patient has conditions similar to those described above, the answer is yes, Ebola should be in the differential diagnosis. Otherwise, the answer is no.
Bronchiectasis	Patient's that have bronchiectasis have symptoms such as: - A daily cough that occurs over months or years - Daily production of large amounts of sputum (spit), which you cough up and which may have mucus, trapped particles, and pus - Shortness of breath and wheezing (a whistling sound when you breathe) - Chest pain - Clubbing (the flesh under your fingernails and toenails gets thicker, causing the nails to curve downward) Chronic (long-term) pulmonary aspiration, which can inflame
Viral pharyngitis	the airways - Connective tissue diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, Sjögren's syndromeexternal link, and Crohn's diseaseexternal link Overall, if the patient has large amounts of sputum, cough, and have conditions that damage their lungs the answer is yes, bronchiectasis should be in the differential diagnosis. Otherwise, the answer is no. Viral pharyngitis has the following symptoms: - a painful throat, especially when swallowing - a dry, scratchy throat - redness in the back of your mouth - bad breath - a mild cough - swollen neck glands The symptoms are similar for children, but children can also get a temperature and appear less active. If the patient has similar symptoms, then the answer is yes, Viral pharyngitis should be included in the differential diagnosis. Otherwise, the answer is no.

Table 5: Naturally Occurring instruction examples.

Viral pharyngitis dataset

Prompt: Use the instructions to determine if Viral pharyngitis should be included in a differential diagnosis for the patient. Since there are a lot of different conditions that often share similar symptoms, a differential diagnosis lists the possible conditions that could cause the symptoms. Here are instructions for the differential diagnosis of Viral pharyngitis:

Viral pharyngitis has the following symptoms:

- -a painful throat, especially when swallowing
- -a dry, scratchy throat
- -redness in the back of your mouth
- -bad breath
- -a mild cough
- -swollen neck glands

The symptoms are similar for children, but children can also get a temperature and appear less active. If the patient has similar symptoms, then the answer is yes, Viral pharyngitis should be included in the differential diagnosis. Otherwise, the answer is no. Answer with one of the following: no | yes.

Here are the patient's responses to questions about their symptoms.

Are you immunosuppressed?: yes

Characterize your pain: burning

Do you attend or work in a daycare?: yes

Do you feel pain somewhere?: palace, thyroid cartilage, right

tonsil, and under the jaw

Do you have a cough?: yes

Do you have nasal congestion or a clear runny nose?: yes

Does the pain radiate to another location?: nowhere

Have you been in contact with a person with similar symptoms in the

past 2 weeks?: yes

Have you traveled out of the country in the last 4 weeks?: no

How fast did the pain appear?: 5/10

How intense is the pain?: 7/10

How precisely is the pain located?: 10/10

Answer:

Label: yes

Table 6: An example of an entire prompt for an instances labeled yes from the Viral pharyngitis dataset. This prompt uses a naturally occurring instruction sourced from the NHS and is formatted in the Flan prompt template.