# Collaborative LLMs in Academic Assessments

Abstract— This study introduces the application of collaborative Large Language Model (LLM) agents in solving academic assessments to evaluate agent reasoning, debate, and negotiation. The work applies generative AI techniques to enhance LLM responses and reduce AI hallucinations. While prior research has focused on individual LLMs in educational contexts, the potential for multi-agent LLM collaboration remains understudied, particularly in improving performance and accuracy in academic testing. This research investigates the impact of LLM collaboration on answering standardized test questions across various subjects, including U.S. history, government, environmental science, human geography, and physics. More accurate LLMs can serve as learning aids, enhancing student interactions with instructors and traditional materials. The study employs three LLM models-OpenAI's GPT-4, Google's Gemini 1.0 Pro, and Anthropic's Claude 3 Opus—in different agent teaming configurations. The hypothesis is that collaborative agents improve test answer accuracy and reduce incorrect responses (hallucinations) compared to singleagent LLMs.

Keywords—Large Language Models, Multi-agent Systems, Generative AI, Automated Assessments.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Large Language Models (LLMs) combine natural language processing (NLP) and vast amounts of training data that produce generative artificial intelligence (AI) capable of producing output in natural language. These systems, often referred to as chatbots or agents, exemplify how humans and AI can collaborate effectively. For instance, OpenAI's ChatGPT and Google's Gemini assist users by providing information, answering questions, and enhancing productivity through their language understanding and generation capabilities. These LLMs support human decision-making and creativity by leveraging their ability to process and generate human-like text. [1]. As the collaboration of humans and AI is explored, one focus is the measurements of accuracy of one to multiple LLM agents (i.e., ChatGPT, Bard, Meta's LLaMA) in different contexts and domains to assess the comparability of an LLM to other LLMs and to human professionals [2], [3]. Existing research has largely focused on evaluating individual LLM applications in open-ended questions and higher-level assessments in medical and legal professions [4], [5]. However, given the varied performances of different LLMs, exploring their collaborative use in objective, standardized testing environments could unveil significant potential benefits. This collaborative approach may leverage the diverse strengths of each LLM, enhancing overall text generation correctness and reducing the production of incorrect responses (hallucinations). This gap exists despite a growing recognition of LLMs' ability to process and synthesize vast amounts of information, suggesting that a collaborative approach could enhance test performance [6]. Understanding the collaborative abilities of LLMs in academic testing is an important growing interest due

to the increasing integration of AI into education. AI is being integrated through personalized learning platforms, automated grading systems, and intelligent tutoring systems that adapt to individual student needs. These applications enhance learning experiences by providing tailored support, immediate feedback, and efficient assessment methods.

This paper explores the extent to which the number of collaborative LLMs influences performance on college-level preparatory exams across various academic subjects. Here, the application of collaborative LLMs aims to produce more accurate models that can serve students as a teaching aid that can augment student interactions with instructors. With these models, students can ask the AI model questions on-demand in their studying efforts and test preparation. Additionally, the approach seeks to identify the optimal number of LLM agents that should work together to achieve the most accurate responses while balancing computational effort.

By exploring how multiple LLMs can work together on standardized tests, AI-focused educational research can work to establish a level of confidence in AI tools for academic settings, which has been demonstrated in the case of teacher-student LLM interactions [8]. Furthermore, by evaluating cutting-edge LLMs, this study promotes the continuation of the development of better AI tutors and thus, better students.

#### II. BACKGROUND

Generative AI is being integrated into education applications as teaching aids to augment traditional learning methods. As this research area is maturing, innovations in LLM applications are growing. For instance, several approaches are deploying multiagent LLMs to simulate student-teacher interactions for training and scenario development [7-9]. The avenue of LLM-to-LLM interactions can open new prospectives in the field of AI and can potentially further enhance the accuracy of LLMs by covering the weaknesses of individual LLMs.

The LLM literature reveals common themes involving validating the accuracies of LLMs against one another or against other model/human evaluation frameworks [1], [2], [3], [5-6], [10-16], and utilizing LLM's to enrich other model frameworks and datasets, improving their accuracies to higher levels than without LLM support [17], [18]. Additionally, the concept of utilizing LLMs to work together in test-taking is lacking in the current literature. Current works in the LLM-to-LLM collaboration focused specifically on performance enhancement and collaborative works outside of test taking. For example, [8] looked at performance accuracies in a "teacherstudent" LLM interaction, with larger LLM's primarily playing the teacher role and smaller LLM's the student role. This approach found that teacher LLMs can improve the performance of student LLMs in chain-of-thought reasoning, as well as decrease the performance if the teacher LLM is purposefully feeding misinformation. [9] highlighted a more argumentative approach on LLM-to-LLM interaction via several formats of debates, focusing on a simplistic form of argumentative reasoning. The work provided several examples of the type of prompts that were used for the different LLMs, as well as an established debate framework. This debate framework allowed for LLMs to collaborate and come to a consensus with each other, which served as a basis for our research problem for issues concerning consensus on multiple choice questions.

Exploring LLM-to-LLM interactions within a synergistic collaboration framework [19] presents a novel avenue for leveraging LLMs' computational potential. As described in [20], AI agents embody human-like autonomous entities with specific objectives, offering a foundation for our methodology. By maximizing the collaborative framework, this work aimed to refine the process of subject mastery, enhancing LLMs' ability to communicate with one another and self-improve their reasoning on standardized testing [21]. By simulating human judgment, these agents facilitated a dynamic collaborative environment where LLMs not only self-improve their subject mastery and decision-making but also provide insights to other LLMs that guide further exploration and synergy [18],[22]. This approach underscored the potential of AI models as educators who guide decision-making through informed recommendations for the future of education [23].

Existing research has primarily focused on the direct interaction within the same LLM without considering the integration of multi-agent collaboration. However, these studies demonstrate the feasibility of LLM-to-LLM collaboration for task resolution and consensus generation through debate [22]. Yet, they overlook the critical aspect of subject mastery and the dynamic inclusion of role differentiation for a synergetic non-linear system.

The presented work seeks to bridge this gap by introducing multiple AI agents within the same environment with distinct roles, yet with the same task completion — standardized test taking. The presented methodology extends beyond the scope of current literature by offering a comprehensive solution that incorporates the strengths of LLM-to-LLM interaction and the flexibility of role differentiation for real-time refinement and domain knowledge judgment and mastery. This approach promises a significant advancement in applying LLMs for educational purposes, providing a pathway not only for users to engage with AI in a more meaningful and personalized manner but for LLMs to improve to the next echelon of collaborative behaviors and yield more correct responses.

[24] discussed how LLMs have been used to support academic writing and code generation while investigating the use of LLMs to support advanced modeling and simulation. The study specifically explained model structures, summarized outputs, enhanced accessibility, and explained errors to non-experts. The study highlighted that researchers continue to use LLM's natural language processing to complete tasks previously

supported by other technologies (such as internet-based search engines to retrieve information).

Additionally, [25] investigated how *Theory of Mind (ToM)*, which is the understanding that others possess distinct knowledge and perspectives, plays a role in understanding the efficacy of LLM-to-LLM interactions. By incorporating the concept of ToM into LLM collaboration, researchers enable the ability to simulate self-awareness and perspective-taking to make more informed interventions, significantly improving the learning outcomes of their counterparts [8], [9]. Furthermore, [14] demonstrated that LLM-to-LLM collaboration implies ToM capabilities through teaming to complete a scenario with the authors' predefined rules. These studies demonstrated different applications of LLM-to-LLM collaboration. However, while they helped broaden the emerging field of LLM collaboration, a literature review shows no papers discussing utilizing multiple LLMs to gauge improvements in test-taking accuracy compared to a single LLM. Given this gap in the literature, our study sought to determine the impact of multiagent collaboration on test-taking performance and accuracy and to provide a path for researchers to develop future research.

#### III. METHODOLOGY

The presented work investigates the application and impact of collaborative LLM agents on the accuracy and efficiency of responses in academic assessments, specifically within the context of college preparation examinations across the following subjects: US history, US government and politics, environmental science, human geography, and physics. These subjects were chosen based on examining the five lowest averages from high school students taking college-level preparation exams [26]. These LLMs were chosen based on a variety of criteria. GPT-4 was selected as it has been proven to perform better than other LLMs, specifically its predecessor GPT-3.5 and Bard, while evaluating reasoning abilities through question-and-answer tasks [27], [28]. Gemini and Claude were chosen as the alternative comparative models due to their recent emergence as competitive agents to GPT-4 in the closed-source technology space. This hypothesis is supported by previous research indicating that collaboration between different agents leads to improved problem-solving [7], [18].

Unlike previous studies that have primarily focused on assessing the capabilities and limitations of single LLM agents for higher education and vocational exams [4],[5], this project proposed an applied approach that evaluates the combined strengths of different agents. This approach not only expands on the current understanding of AI's role in education [8], [9], but also presents opportunities to explore applications of agent-assisted instruction such as AI intelligent tutoring.

## A. Approach

This study used a quantitative research approach to evaluate the efficacy of collaborative LLMs in accurately answering test questions via their APIs within an integrated development environment. Each exam was digitally formatted to meet the input requirements of each LLM's API. The experiment focused

on aggregate accuracy and specific academic and analytical skills, including causation, contextualization, continuity and change over time, analyzing evidence, and comparison (see Table 1 for details). LLMs were scored based on their answers compared to the provided answer keys, allowing for a nuanced assessment of their effectiveness across different question types.

During the collaboration phase, the LLMs were grouped into 2 or 3-agent combinations and followed a 3-round system to ensure answer agreement, displayed in Fig. 1. In round 1, each LLM answered individual questions, provided a confidence level (0-100%), and a one-sentence explanation for its choice. This process mirrors the voting approach commonly used in Bagging and Random Forest predictions, where multiple models vote on the best answer to enhance accuracy and reliability.

By systematically analyzing the performance of different LLM configurations—individual agents versus collaborative groups comprising of GPT, Gemini, and Claude - this study sought to quantify the impact of model collaboration on educational assessment. The integration and utilization of the various LLMs' APIs enabled real-time interaction with each model to simulate the exam-taking process under controlled conditions. A conceptual model of our LLM collaboration accounting for one vs. two vs. three "students" is also illustrated in Fig. 1. In the collaboration scheme, LLMs were grouped into various configurations: singular agents, pairs, and a trio. Each configuration aimed to leverage the unique strengths of each LLM to enhance overall performance.

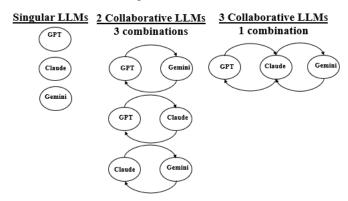


Figure 1: High-level model depicting unique agent grouping.

# B. Conditions/Scenario

The LLMs interacted through their APIs to answer test questions in the experimental setup. Single LLMs attempted questions individually, pairs collaborated by combining responses, and the trio pooled their knowledge to generate the best possible answers. Each group's performance was then evaluated against the provided answer keys to determine accuracy and effectiveness. The simulation was structured to replicate the conditions of an actual exam, with the objective of evaluating the LLMs' abilities across five key categorically defined skills: contextualization, analyzing evidence, continuity and change over time, and comparison. The simulation presented each LLM combination with the same set of questions, administered through LLMs' respective APIs, as a baseline to determine the accuracy of single-LLM testing and

evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of each respective agent. Once that is determined, the next step is the collaboration phase, as defined in Fig. 2.

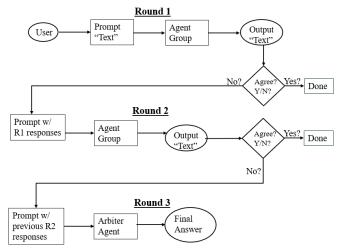


Figure 2: 3-Round Multi-agent collaboration process with arbitration.

The letter choice outputs were then compared to determine agreement. If the LLMs disagreed with an answer, they underwent a second round. In this round, they were given the question again, along with each LLM's first-round outputs comprising letter choice, confidence level, and explanation—as input, thus creating a feedback loop. If the group disagreed after the second round, a final round was made with an arbiter (judge) agent. For two-LLM groups, the judge agent was the LLM not part of the 2-LLM group and thus not present in the first 2 rounds. For the case of all three LLMs, the judge was determined by the greatest overall strength among all five subjects. In both cases, the judge LLM took each agent's round 2 outputs and a report on each agent's skill strengths and weaknesses including its own to decide on the final outcome for that question. The simulation ultimately measured how these collaborative interactions influenced the correctness of the LLMs' group responses compared to their individual outputs using an answer key with correct letter choices and skilled assessed. By mimicking a real-world collaborative learning environment, the study evaluated the potential of multi-agent models versus individual agent models and to what extent their performance could be affected.

Table 1: Skill Distribution of Questions

Skill Assessed	Number of Questions
Contextualization	106
Causation	121
Analyzing Evidence	140
Continuity and Change Over Time	56
Comparison	65
Total	488

# C. Experimental Setup

The experimentation involved first setting up each LLM via their API. All code was generated using the Python programming language. The answer keys were generated and used only for comparing the LLM's choice answer to the true and correct answer for each question. Several questions contained images as part of the question or answer choices, with environmental science having the least number of image-based questions and physics having the most, making up approximately 25% of the question dataset. These images were converted into text descriptions using GPT-4 Vision and replaced by the images during the test preparation.

For individual agent testing, agents were prompted to provide just the question number and alphabetical answer choice. The prompt was then updated so that the agents could include a confidence level and an explanation during multi-agent collaboration. Each run included the completion of a full test subject by one combination group. Following each exam run, the agents' test answers were compared against the answer key to obtain the test accuracy for that run of code. The accuracy count was output into a comma-separated values (CSV) file for each unique LLM group, with multi-agent groups outputting how many rounds it took to arrive at the agreed upon answer. Each round's answers were auto-graded to see if the agreement resulted in a correct answer. Disputed answers were marked as incorrect, even if at least one agent was correct.

#### D. Metrics

The primary metrics collected during this research were overall test accuracy and question skill accuracy of individual and collaborative LLM groups. Overall test accuracy is defined as the ratio of total correct responses over the total exam questions. Question skill accuracy is defined as the ratio of total correct responses over the total exam questions for a skill field. Overall accuracy has been the statistical metric used to evaluate LLMs against each other or human subjects, assessing the accuracy of an LLM [1], [3]. Question skill accuracy is considered to understand the potential strengths and weaknesses of each LLM. It is understood that LLMs can be better performers in particular domain fields compared to others [1], [3]. By analyzing the skill sets from the respective examinations, we to gain insights into the categories that the selected LLMs consistently excel at and whether multi-LLM collaboration provided performance impacts for LLMs with smaller training data.

# E. Procedures

The detailed procedure steps of our experimentation can be defined as follows:

- 1. Initialize the code environment and insert question and answer key files.
- 2. Insert APIs for each agent.
- 3. Run the code program for each unique LLM group; group experimentation is as follows:

- a. GPT-4, Claude 3 Opus, and Gemini as individual groups.
- b. Three Two-LLM unique groups (GPT4 and Gemini, GPT4 and Claude 3 Opus, Claude 3 Opus and Gemini)
- c. One Three-LLM unique group
- 4. Collect multiple-choice answers from each LLM group.
- 5. Compare the overall test accuracy and question skill accuracy for each LLM group to the answer keys generated per subject.
- 6. For multi-agent groups, gather the number of rounds it took to reach concurrence.

#### IV. RESULTS

#### A. Count

A total count across all subjects from each agent group was captured to assess overall question count accuracy. The total correct answer count across all agent groups is in Table 2.

Table 2: Correct Answer Count by Subject

Agent	Subject					
Group	US His.	US Gov.	Phys.	Hum. Geogr.	Environ. Sci.	Total
GPT	54	81	36	83	145	399
CL	54	81	46	86	148	415
GEM	49	70	24	73	133	349
GPT – CL	52	86	42	85	147	412
GPT – GEM	50	87	36	81	146	400
CL – GEM	51	84	35	78	145	393
ALL	54	86	43	80	146	409

Table 2 shows that Gemini had the fewest correct answers among single-agent groups, while Claude had the most correct answers overall. In the multi-agent groups, the GPT and Claude groups had the second-highest number of correct answers among all groups, with all three agents highlighting the third-highest number of correct answers. Figure 3 presents a visual representation of the total correct answers by agent group across all subjects. After determining the correct answer count for each subject, the average and standard deviation were obtained for each agent group. The results for each statistic are displayed in Table 3 and 4, respectively.

The range of averages among the groups is as follows:

US History: 90.9% – 98.2%

• US Government: 72.9% – 90.6%

• Physics: 32.0% - 61.3%

Human Geography: 69.5% - 94.3%

• Environmental Science: 84.7% - 94.3%

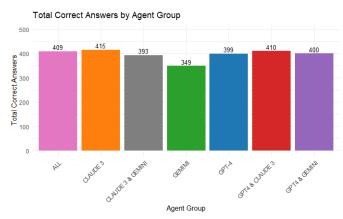


Figure 3: The number of correct responses for each agent group.

Table 3: Agent Group Averages

Agent	Subject					
Group	US His.	US Gov.	Phys.	Hum. Geogr.	Environ. Sci.	Overall Avg.
GPT	98.2%	84.4%	48.0%	79.0%	92.4%	80.4%
CL	98.2%	84.4%	61.3%	81.9%	94.3%	84.0%
GEM	89.1%	72.9%	32.0%	69.5%	84.7%	69.6%
GPT – CL	94.5%	89.6%	56.0%	81.0%	93.6%	82.9%
GPT – GEM	90.9%	90.6%	48.0%	77.1%	93.0%	79.9%
CL – GEM	92.7%	87.5%	46.7%	74.3%	92.4%	78.7%
ALL	98.2%	89.6%	57.3%	76.2%	93.0%	82.9%

From the average range, physics had the largest spread among the agent groups at 29.3%, followed closely by human geography with a spread of 24.8%. US History had the least spread among the agent groups at 7.3%.

The highest and lowest averages among the subject topics by agent group are as follows:

- US History: Highest GPT-4 (individual), Claude (individual), & all three agents; Lowest Gemini
- US Government: Highest GPT-4 & Gemini grouping; Lowest Gemini
- Physics: Highest Claude; Lowest Gemini
- Human Geography: Highest Claude; Lowest Gemini
- Environmental Science: Highest Claude; Lowest Gemini

Figure 3 depicts the average clusters for each subject among the agent groups. Fig. 5 provides a visual representation of the individual agents across the skills. The figure shows that Claude overall had the highest accuracies for the five assessed skills while Gemini had the least overall accuracy.

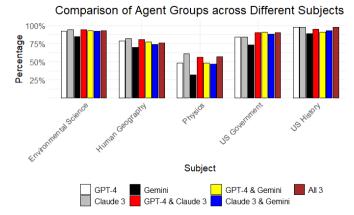


Figure 4: Graph displaying the average spread per subject.

Table 4: Agent Group Standard Deviation

Agent	Subject				
Group	US His.	US Gov.	Phys	Hum. Geogr.	Environ. Sci.
GPT	13.5%	36.5%	50.3%	40.9%	26.7%
CL	13.5%	36.5%	49.0%	38.7%	23.3%
GEM	31.5%	44.7%	47.0%	46.3%	36.1%
GPT – CL	22.9%	30.7%	50.0%	39.5%	24.5%
GPT – GEM	29.0%	29.3%	50.3%	42.2%	25.6%
CL – GEM	26.2%	33.2%	50.2%	43.9%	26.7%
ALL	13.5%	30.7%	49.8%	42.8%	25.6%

# B. Statistical Analysis

Table 5 displays the Kruskal-Wallis H test statistic among the five subjects. The Kruskal-Wallis test was chosen due to the singular run of each subject question dataset for each agent group. There were no statistical differences among the groups for US history and US geography while physics, environmental science, and US government had statistical significance for group differences. Environmental science and physics were significant at the alpha level of 0.05 and U.S. government was significant at the alpha level of 0.01.

Table 6 depicts those groups that have statistically significant differences at the alpha level of 0.05 after calculating the p-valve from Dunn's test. Environmental science and U.S. Government had six p-values, while physics had three p-values that met the alpha-level criteria. Table 6 also shows that all the significant differences from Dunn's test were associated with Gemini. For environmental science, the comparison between Claude and Gemini generated the smallest p-valve. For U.S. government, the comparison between Gemini and the multi-agent group consisting of GPT and Gemini generated the smallest p-value. For physics, the comparison between Claude and Gemini generated the smallest p-value.

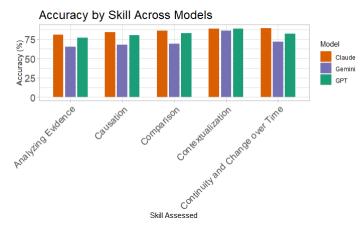


Figure 5: Breakdown of test skills assessed by individual agents.

Table 5: Kruskal-Wallis Test Results

Cubicat	Kruskal-Wallis Test Results		
Subject	H Test Statistic		
US His.	9.14		
US Gov.	17.42**		
Phys.	16.81*		
Hum. Geogr.	6.38		
Environ. Sci.	13.29*		

 $<sup>**\</sup>alpha=0.01; *\alpha=0.05$ 

Table 6: Dunn's Test P-Value Results

	P-Values by Subject			
Group Cf.	Environ . Sci	US Gov.	Phys.	
GPT/ GEM	0.0132	0.0242	< 0.0001	
CL/ GEM	0.0020	0.0242	0.0003	
GEM/ GPT – CL	0.0038	0.0010	0.0033	
GEM/ GPT – GEM	0.0073	0.0005	< 0.0001	
GEM/ CL – GEM	0.0132	0.0041	< 0.0001	
GEM/ALL	0.0073	0.0010	0.0019	

## V. DISCUSSION

There were mixed results based on the subject, from positive improvements in the US Government to neutral and negative improvements. However, the results were similar to those obtained from the companies' technical reports [28 – 30].

When generating responses for the physics exam, for example, the Claude agent team reports an accuracy of 60.1% for a zero-shot result on the MATH dataset, a dataset consisting of 12,500 problems from seven different mathematical topics [31]. Google-based LLM reports an accuracy of 32.6% for Gemini

1.0 Pro on a four-shot assessment through MATH [29]. While OpenAI configuration did not utilize assessment on the MATH dataset, they report a variety of college-level topics, one of which was physics 2 [28]. While this study focused on Physics 1, the results showed that GPT received a lower accuracy than reported in a previous study [28] but within the performance band of improvement compared to GPT-3.5. This decrease in performance is attributed to the potential inaccuracies from GPT-4Vision when converting the numerous images in the physics dataset to text, possibly showing hallucinatory responses as addressed in GPT-4's technical report [28]

When addressing multi-agent groups, one trend was apparent among the five subjects: all four multi-agent groups answering US government test questions performed better than their individual counterparts. However, statistical differences were primary tied to Gemini's results compared to other group results. GPT-4 and Claude did not have statistical differences between each other or the multi-agent groups. When Gemini was removed from the observations, none of the two-agent groups performed better than the individual assessments in Human Geography and US History. These lower performances were not statistically significant when comparing the differences in the averages among groups.

As addressed above, the US government question averages improved from those of its individual counterparts, but these results are statistically significant only for Gemini and not for GPT-4 and Claude 3. Gemini benefitted from multi-agent collaboration compared to the other individual agents, having a 20-25% improvement in the average while working together with GPT-4 and Claude 3. This is highlighted by the lowest p-value when conducting Dunn's Test, which compares Gemini and the multi-agent group consisting of GPT-4 and Gemini.

It is important to note that LLMs generate results based on their training data. Although different LLMs are trained on different content and size of data, the consistency of higher performances on U.S. government by collaborative groups is significant. Consistency can be explained by two main reasons: 1) the LLMs are trained by text corpora including historical and official documents and laws that are presented as highly structured "LLM friendly" information [32], and 2) The datasets on which they are trained are US-specific, where English is the primary training language and American demographics are primarily represented [33].

The other subjects yielded an overall different outcome for multi-agent collaboration. In US history, GPT-4 and Claude 3 performed better than the multi-agent groups, but there is no statistical significance among any of the groups. Similarly, with physics, Claude 3 performed better individually, and GPT-4 had no change in performance when paired with Gemini; these results did not depict statistical significance. Gemini shows a statistical difference compared to Claude 3 and the multi-agent group consisting of GPT-4 and Claude 3, but not with the groups Gemini collaborated with to answer physics questions.

Human Geography repeats the pattern of physics, with Claude 3 performing the best individually but not by a significant margin to the next best group. This leaves Environmental Science, for which all statistical differences point to the accuracy discrepancy between Gemini and the other agent groups. While not as significant as the ones in U.S. government, Gemini still meets an alpha level of 0.05 when placed in a collaborative group with Gemini and Claude 3. With US government, this suggests Gemini benefitted from working together with the agents used for this study.

It is also noteworthy to consider that as the rounds increase in multi-agent collaboration, so does LLM agreement and accuracy. This means that iterative processes of collaboration yield favorable results in the context of other LLM tasks where the social aspect of collaboration and decision-making is essential. This synergy may not have been leveraged for standardized testing and the potential is significant.

When looking at whether collaborative agents make a difference, our results indicate that overall, with the subjects that were chosen to conduct this experimentation, there is little to no significance, particularly for GPT-4 and Claude 3. For Gemini, the overall lower performance is explained by the fact that Gemini 1.0 Pro was the only model at the time of this research that was available to the public from the Gemini family of models. Based on Google's technical report [29], Gemini 1.0 Ultra could have proven to be comparative to Claude 3 and GPT-4 in this study and may have boosted the performance accuracies of the groups that Gemini was a part of.

Based on the average observations and statistical analysis, there is little to no difference overall between GPT-4 and Claude 3 and the multi-agent groups with which they were working. Claude 3's individual performances gave the highest averages and overall correct answer count. This agent is best used individually across the subjects that were analyzed.

For the case of GPT-4, the agent performed at an equivalent or higher average on US history and human geography compared to multi-agent group that contained GPT in them; for the other subjects, multi-agent groups added up to 8% to GPT's performance, but more often the performance addition was about 1-3%. Considering the minuscule performance effects in multi-group settings, GPT-4 should be ideally used by itself to conduct performance assessments. Furthermore, GPT-4's collaborative weakness can be highlighted by its report [28] where it may be hindered by not learning from its experience due to its pre-trained nature.

Gemini 1.0 Pro benefitted the most from multi-agent collaboration in physics, environmental science, and US government. The agent added an additional 25.3% performance boost when working together with GPT-4 and Claude-3 on the physics questions, 17.7% when working with GPT on US government questions, and 8.3% when working with GPT in a two-agent group or with both GPT and Claude 3 in a three-

agent group. Therefore, Gemini ideally could achieve optimal results in these subjects when performing in the two and three agent groups but at the expense of other agents.

Regarding the overall assessment of the ideal number of agents, based on the explanations, one agent is the ideal number to perform question-answering for the five topics. Furthermore, individual LLMs should be assessed when completing simple tasks to leverage their strengths best.

Lastly, our hypothesis for the positive improvement of multiagent collaboration compared to individual agents can be addressed. The results for US government are in favor of the hypothesis, but only for Gemini based on the statistical analysis. For all other subjects, the hypothesis cannot be accepted based on the results obtained. For an overall assessment, the hypothesis is rejected that multi-agent collaboration leads to better averages than individual agents.

# VI. CONCLUSION

This study examined the application of multi-agent LLMs in generating accurate responses on various standardized, subjectspecific exams and compared their results against individual, single-agent LLMs. Overall, individual agents outperformed the multi-agents in conducting question-answering assessments and similar one-shot, simple tasks. The high accuracies obtained by the individual agents for 4 of the 5 subjects highlight significant improvements in generative AI development. The lower performance in the multi-agent LLMs is attributed to the poorer performing LLMs having an equal vote in answer correctness, incorrect responses creating "doubt" in the agent team during dialog, and hallucinations providing more confidence in agent responses than actual answer validity. Positively, this work presented a multi-agent framework that can be enhanced in future iterations and approaches. The presented multi-agent results were similar to the individual agent scores and updates to the voting scheme, agent infrastructure, and dialog format, which will be improved and explored in future work.

Additionally, there are several ways to enhance the methodologies of this study, which could lead to substantial improvements in research outcomes. This study looked at only proprietary agent models; a comparison to open-source models, such as Meta's LLaMa-3 and the ever-growing number of agents from the Hugging Face community, could highlight performance differences between open-source and proprietary models. Moreover, this study focused on exam subjects which happened to be social sciences and mathematics focused; seeing LLM collaboration for question-answering on subjects such as humanities and languages could expand the use cases of multiagent systems. Multiple trials of the questions would help to reduce potential bias in agent assessments due to chance. Lastly, the round-base system for agent negotiation can be improved through a more robust voting schema, such as rank choice or response-weighting. These points will be studied in upcoming work.

# VII. REFERENCES

- [1] M.Z. Naser et. al., "Evaluating the Performance of Artificial Intelligence Chatbots and Large Language Models in the FE and PE Structural Exams," *Pract. Periodical Structural Des. Construction*, Volume 29, Issue 2.
- [2] Z. Elyoseph, I. Levkovich, and S. Shinan-Altman, "Assessing prognosis in depression: comparing perspectives of AI models, mental health professionals and the general public", *Family Med. Community Health*, Volume 12, Suppl 1, Jan. 2024.
- [3] A. Suάrez et al., "Beyond the Scalpel: Assessing ChatGPT's potential as an auxiliary intelligent virtual assistant in oral surgery," *Comput. Struct. Biotechnol.*, vol. 24, pp. 46-52, Dec. 05, 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.csbj.2023.11.058.
- [4] G. Pinto, I. Cardoso-Pereira, D. Monteiro, D. Lucena, K. Gama, "Large Language Models for Education: Grading Open Ended Questions Using ChatGPT," in Proc. Of the XXXVII Brazilian Symposium on Software Engineering (SBES '23), Sep. 2023, pp.293-302.
- [5] M. C. Schubert, W. Wick, V. Venkataramani, "Performance of Large Language Models on a Neurology Board–Style Examination," JAMA Network Open, vol. 6, no. 12, e2346721, Dec. 2023.
- [6] F. Kamalov, D. Santandreu Calonge, and I. Gurrib, "New era of artificial intelligence in education: Towards a sustainable multifaceted revolution," *Sustainability*, vol. 15, no. 16, p. 12451, 2023.
- [7] K. Xiong, X. Ding, Y. Cao, T. Liu, and B. Qin, "Examining Inter-Consistency of Large Language Models Collaboration: An In-depth Analysis via Debate," in Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2023, Singapore, Dec. 2023, pp. 7572–7590, doi: 10.18653/v1/2023.findings-emnlp.508.
- [8] S. Saha, P. Hase, and M. Bansal, "Can Language Models Teach Weaker Agents? Teacher Explanations Improve Students via Personalization," presented at the 37th Annu. Conf. Neural Inf. Process. Syst., New Orleans, LA, Dec. 10-16, 2023.
- [9] Z. Abbasiantaeb, Y. Yuan, E. Kanoulas, and M. Aliannejadi, "Let the LLMs Talk: Simulating Human-to-Human Conversational QA via Zero-Shot LLM-to-LLM Interactions," arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.02913.
- [10] Z. He *et al.*, "Large Language Models as Zero-Shot Conversational Recommenders," in *Proc. 32nd ACM Int. Conf. Inf. Knowl. Manage.*, 2023, pp. 720-730, doi: 10.1145/3583780.3614949.
- [11] H. Fan, X. Liu, J. Y. H. Fuh, W. F. Lu, and B. Li, "Embodied intelligence in manufacturing: leveraging large language models for autonomous industrial robotics," *J. Intell. Manuf.*, 2024.
- [12] L. Zheng et. al., "Judging LLM-as-a-Judge with MT-Bench and Chatbot Arena," presented at the 37th Annu. Conf. Neural Inf. Process. Syst., New Orleans, LA, Dec. 10-16, 2023.
- [13] J. de Curtò et al., "LLM-Informed Multi-Armed Bandit Strategies for Non-Stationary Environments.", *Electron. (Basel).*, vol. 12, issue 13, Jun. 2023, Accessed February 02, 2024, doi: 10.3390/electronics12132814.
- [14] H. Li et al., "Theory of Mind for Multi-Agent Collaboration via Large Language Models," in *Proc. 2023 Conf. Empirical Methods Natural Lang. Process.*, 2023, pages 180–192.
- [15] S. Arulmohan, M-J. Meurs, and S. Mosser, "Extracting Domain Models from Textual Requirements in the Era of Large Language Models", in 2023 ACM/IEEE Int. Conf. Model Driven Eng. Syst. Companion, Västerås, Sweden, 01-06 Oct., doi: 10.1109/MODELS-C59198.2023.00096.
- [16] X. He, H. Gao, J. He, and C. Sun, "Evaluation of Large Scale Language Models on Solving Math Word Problems with Difficulty Grading," in 2023 Int.

- Conf. Intell. Educ. Intell. Res., Wuhan, China, 05-07 Nov., doi: 10.1109/IEIR59294.2023.10391224.
- [17] I. de Zarzà et al., "LLM Multimodal Traffic Accident Forecasting", Sensors, vol. 23, issue 22, pp. 9225, Nov. 2023.
- [18] N. Nascimento, P. Alencar and D. Cowan, "Self-Adaptive Large Language Model (LLM)-Based Multiagent Systems," in 2023 IEEE Int. Conf. Autonomic Comput. Self-Organizing Syst. Companion, Toronto, ON, Canada, pp. 104-109, doi: 10.1109/ACSOS-C58168.2023.00048.
- [19] P. Panzarasa, N. R. Jennings, and T. J. Norman, "Formalizing collaborative decision-making and practical reasoning in multi-agent systems," *J. Logic Comput.*, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 55-117, 2002.
- [20] J. Insa-Cabrera, D. L. Dowe, S. Espana-Cubillo, M. V. Hernández-Lloreda, and J. Hernández-Orallo, "Comparing humans and AI agents," in Proc. 4th Int. Conf. Artif. General Intell. (AGI), Mountain View, CA, USA, 2011, pp. 122-132.
- [21] Scheurer, J., Campos, J. A., Chan, J. S., Chen, A., Cho, K., & Perez, E. (2022). Training Language Models with Language Feedback. arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.14146.
- [22] G. Dong et al., "Revisit Input Perturbation Problems for LLMs: A Unified Robustness Evaluation Framework for Noisy Slot Filling Task," in *CCF Int. Conf. Natural Lang. Process. Chinese Comput.*, in Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence, in Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 14302, Oct. 2023, pp. 682-694.
- [23] T. Wu *et al.*, "A brief overview of ChatGPT: The history, status quo and potential future development," in *IEEE/CAA J. Autom. Sinica*, vol. 10, no. 5, pp. 1122-1136, May 2023.
- [24] P. J. Giabbanelli, "GPT-Based Models Meet Simulation: How to Efficiently use Large-Scale Pre-Trained Language Models Across Simulation Tasks," 2023 Winter Simulation Conference (WSC), San Antonio, TX, USA, 2023, pp. 2920-2931, doi: 10.1109/WSC60868.2023.10408017.
- [25] A. Liu, H. Zhu, E. Liu, Y. Bisk, and G. Neubig, "Computational Language Acquisition with Theory of Mind," presented at the 11<sup>th</sup> Int. Conf. Learn. Representations (ICLR), Kigali, Rwanda, May 01-05,2023.
- [26] College Board®. 2023. "Student Score Distributions." Accessed 11 March 2024. https://apcentral.collegeboard.org/media/pdf/ap-score-distributions-by-subject-2023.pdf
- [27] J. L. Espejel, E. H. Ettifouri, M. S. Y. Alassan, E. M. Chouham, and W. Dahhane, "GPT-3.5, GPT-4, or BARD? Evaluating LLMs reasoning ability in zero-shot setting and performance boosting through prompts," *Natural Language Processing Journal*, vol. 5, p. 100032, 2023.
- [28] OpenAI, "GPT-4 Technical Report," 2023, arxiv:2023.08774v6
- [29] Gemini Team, Google, "Gemini: A Family of Highly Capable Multimodal Models," 2024, arxiv:2312.11805v2
- [30] Anthropic, "The Claude 3 Model Family: Opus, Sonnet, Haiku," 2024, [Online]. Available: <a href="https://www-cdn.anthropic.com/de8ba9b01c9ab7cbabf5c33b80b7bbc618857627/Model\_Card\_Claude\_3.pdf">https://www-cdn.anthropic.com/de8ba9b01c9ab7cbabf5c33b80b7bbc618857627/Model\_Card\_Claude\_3.pdf</a>
- [31] D. Hendrycks *et al.*, "Measuring Mathematical Problem Solving With the MATH Dataset," presented at the 35th Annu. Conf. Neural Inf. Process. Syst. Track Dataset Benchmarks, 2021.
- [32] M. Domingo and F. Casacuberta, "Modernizing historical documents: A user study," *Pattern Recognition Letters*, vol. 133, pp. 151-157, 2020.
- [33] Buttrick, N. (2024). Studying large language models as compression algorithms for human culture. *Trends in Cognitive Science*.