KnowDA: All-in-One Knowledge Mixture Model for Data Augmentation in Low-Resource NLP tasks

ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the data augmentation for low-resource NLP tasks where the training set is limited. The existing solutions either leverage task-independent heuristic rules (e.g., Synonym Replacement) or fine-tune general-purpose pre-trained language models (e.g., GPT2) using the limited training instances to produce new synthetic data. Consequently, they have trivial *task-specific knowledge* and are limited to yielding *low-quality* synthetic data. To combat this issue, we propose **Know**ledge Mixture **D**ata **A**ugmentation Model (**KnowDA**) which is an Seq2Seq language model pretrained on a mixture of diverse NLP tasks under a novel framework of **K**nowledge **M**ixture **T**raining (KoMT). The goal of KoMT is to condense diverse NLP task-specific knowledge into the single **KnowDA** model (i.e., all-in-one) such that **KnowDA** could utilize these knowledge to quickly grasp the inherent synthesis law of the target task through limited training instances. Specifically, KoMT reformulates input examples from various heterogeneous NLP tasks into a unified text-to-text format, and employs denoising training objectives in different granularity to learn to reconstruct partial or complete samples. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first attempt to apply 100+ NLP multi-task training for data augmentation. Extensive experiments show that *i)* the synthetic data produced by **KnowDA** successfully improves performance of the strong pre-trained language models (i.e., Bert, ALBert and Deberta) by a large margin on the low-resource NLP benchmark FewGLUE, CoNLL'03 and WikiAnn; *ii)* **KnowDA** successfully transfer the task knowledge to NLP tasks whose types are seen and unseen in KoMT.

1 INTRODUCTION

Neural NLP models require extensive supervised training data to achieve superior performance (Bowman et al., 2015). However, due to the enormous cost of annotating data, developers could only use limited labeled data for training in common real-world uses of neural NLP models. This problem has attracted considerable attention recently. Many researchers (Kumar et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2021) resort to data augmentation techniques to generate more synthetic samples to boost the performance of low-resource NLP tasks.

The existing text data augmentation algorithms either leverage task-independent heuristic rules, such as Synonym Replacement (Zhang et al., 2015) and Random Swap (Wei & Zou, 2019a), or fine-tune general-purpose pre-trained language models by using the handful training examples of target tasks, such as GPT2 (Radford et al., 2019) in LAMBADA (Anaby-Tavor et al., 2020) and T5 (Raffel et al., 2020) in PromDA (Wang et al., 2022), to produce new synthetic data. Consequently, these data augmentation algorithms have trivial *target task knowledge* and are limited to yielding low-quality synthetic data (e.g., either irrelevant or extremely similar to the training data). In addition, these data augmentation algorithms are often applied to *simple* NLP tasks where the inputs only include single and short sentences. Recently, Zhou et al. (2021) also demonstrate that these data augmentation methods perform even worse on tasks with complicated structures (e.g., tasks in SuperGLUE). These issues prevent the existing data augmentation algorithms from practical usage for various low-resource NLP tasks.

Motivated by this, in this paper, we propose **Know**ledge Mixture **D**ata **A**ugmentation Model (**KnowDA**) to tackle these two issues. To enrich the task knowledge for **KnowDA**, we propose *Knowledge Mixture Training* (KoMT) to represent various heterogeneous NLP tasks in a unified and scalable manner. Specifically, in KoMT, arbitrary NLP task instances are represented as the key-value list format where the key is typically a short phrase indicating the feature function and the value is a string representation of the feature content. We further employ the denoising training objectives in different granularity of the NLP task instances. That is, during KoMT, we randomly mask a subset of values (e.g., an input document or a question) and train **KnowDA** to reconstruct those masked ones. With the dynamic multi-granularity masking mechanism and the unified format, we successfully scale *Knowledge Mixture Training* (KoMT) of LM to about 100 NLP tasks without much human effort. Compared with previous attempts in unified multi-task learning works (e.g., T0 (Wei et al., 2022) and FLAN (Wei et al., 2022)), KoMT is more scalable and comprehensive because those works heavily rely on the human-crafted prompts and are only trained to improve the NLP task solving performance (i.e., only generating correct output labels). Furthermore, previous data augmentation methods only focus on *simple* NLP tasks, such as single-sentence classification. However, modern NLP tasks, such as NLI and QA, have much more complicated structures (i.e., multiple input text and long documents). To enable **KnowDA** to generate *brand new* samples *from scratch* for various NLP tasks, we propose to make the synthetic data generation procedure of **KnowDA** an auto-regressive framework. At each step, we either fine-tune or directly use (i.e., zero-shot) a separate copy of **KnowDA** (i.e., after KoMT) to generate the text for a single value in an NLP instance. The feature generation order is based on *task-specific feature dependency*. As we train **KnowDA** to generate arbitrary input text features, including very long documents, in KoMT, **KnowDA** is capable of directly generating high-quality long text without further training. We find it beneficial to generate long text (e.g., documents in RTE) in a zero-shot manner directly using the **KnowDA** checkpoint. Under this scenario, we control the outputs of **KnowDA** using relevant feature keys and full example demonstrations from the target tasks.

For evaluation, we conduct experiments on the challenging FewGLUE benchmark (Schick & Schütze, 2020) with 32 training examples. We also verify the effectiveness of **KnowDA** on two Sequence Labeling tasks, CoNLL'03 (Sang & De Meulder, 2003) and WikiAnn (Pan et al., 2017), whose task types are held-out during KoMT. **KnowDA** successfully outperforms recently proposed state-of-the-art data augmentation algorithms such as FlipDA and PromDA (Wang et al., 2022). We further compare the quality of generated synthetic data from **KnowDA** and FlipDA, confirming that **KnowDA** produces synthetic data with a higher level of diversity and better quality verified by humans.

The contributions of this paper are the following:(1) To the best of our knowledge, we are the first work to scale the number of tasks to 100+ in multitask pretraining for data augmentation; (2) We propose a novel multitask pre-training approach KoMT for data augmentation, resulting in a new pre-trained model, **KnowDA**; and (3) **KnowDA** outperforms state-of-the-art data augmentation methods on the low-resource setting of popular benchmarks FewGLUE, CoNLL'03, and WikiAnn.

2 METHOD

In this section, our setting is introduced in Sec. 2.1. The details of **KnowDA**, including the design of KoMT and the auto-regressive data augmentation procedure, are discussed in Sections 2.3 and 2.4.

2.1 DATA AUGMENTATION FOR LOW-RESOURCE NLP

In the low-resource NLP tasks, only a handful of labeled training data $\mathcal{T} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ are available. *Data Augmentation* generates synthetic data $\mathcal{T}_{Syn} = \{(\hat{x}_i, \hat{y}_i)\}_{i=1}^m$ from the original labeled training data $\mathcal{T}$ using language models, where m is allowed to be much larger than n. The goal is that NLP models trained using $\mathcal{T} \cup \mathcal{T}_{Syn}$ outperform the ones only trained using $\mathcal{T}$.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF **KnowDA**

KnowDA is an encoder-decoder generative language model that generates task-relevant and diverse synthetic data *from scratch*. It is initialized from an existing pre-trained encoder-decoder language model. We further apply *Knowledge Mixture Training* (Sec. 2.3) to inject diverse NLP task-specific knowledge into **KnowDA**. To apply **KnowDA** to specific low-resource NLP tasks, we fine-tune or

directly use **KnowDA** to produce synthetic data to boost up the performance of strong NLP baseline models (Sec. 2.4).

2.3 KNOWLEDGE MIXTURE TRAINING

To recap, previous data augmentation methods lack *task-specific knowledge*. Currently, the research community has accumulated a large amount of various human-generated datasets. The main motivation of **KnowDA** is to transfer the task knowledge in the existing large amount of NLP supervisions to the generated synthetic data for other NLP tasks. The resulting models should learn to generate task-related data examples merely from a handful training samples of the target task. However, existing artificially generated NLP tasks have a variety of complex structures (e.g., sentence pairs classification, multiple-choice QA) that makes learning a unified data generator quite challenging. We convert the generation of data examples from various heterogeneous NLP tasks into a unified text-to-text format and employ denoising objectives in different granularity to simulate the reconstruction of partial or whole instances. We call this training paradigm *Knowledge Mixture Training* (KoMT). We will elaborate on KoMT in detail from following aspects: task collection, unified text-to-text format, demonstration examples and the denoising objectives.

Task Collection The success of KoMT is built upon a resource with a sufficient number of tasks, covering a diverse range of NLP applications. Similar to Ye et al. (2021), we select English monolingual datasets with open access in the Huggingface Datasets (Lhoest et al., 2021). The tasks in KoMT broadly belong to the following task families: Text Classification, Natural Language Inference, Reading comprehension, Question Answering, Summarization, and other NLP applications. Training examples from each task are sampled proportionate to the size of individual NLP dataset. Each NLP dataset contribute at most 300k instances during KoMT.

Figure 1: A running example of the masked training instances in the *Knowledge Mixture Training*. Keywords within the brackets are the task key.

Unified Text-to-Text Format Although there are many NLP tasks with various structures, all of these tasks include one or more input features and an output result. For example, we have an input sentence/paragraph/document and an output label in the sentence classification tasks. Each feature, including the output result, could be described as a key-value pair. The key is typically a short phrase indicating the feature function, and the value is a string representation of the feature content. That is, given an instance (x_i, y_i) from arbitrary NLP tasks, we could always represent it as a unified key-value list format (length n): $(x_i, y_i) = [(k_i^1, v_i^1), \cdots, (k_i^n, v_i^n)]$ where each (k_i^j, v_i^j) either corresponds to an input feature or the output result y_i. Unlike previous works (Wei et al., 2022; Sanh et al., 2022) requiring exhausting human-crafted prompts to perform multi-task scaling, our

key-value design only needs the feature name in the original NLP dataset. Therefore, our proposed unified format could quickly extend KoMT to arbitrary tasks without much human effort.

Denoising Objectives   Based on the unified key-value list format, our denoising objective is defined as follows: given a training instance, we randomly mask K values in the key-value list, where number K is sampled from range $[1$ to $n]$ with equal probability and n is the total number of key-value pairs. Then, **KnowDA** is trained with the objective to reconstruct those masked values using the remaining information. In addition, we will prepend L examples as demonstrations in the front of the input to **KnowDA** during KoMT, where L is sampled from the range $[0$ to $m]$ with equal probability and m is the hyperparameter of how many demonstrations to put at most. Figure 1 shows two masked training instances from the CB task (De Marneffe et al., 2019) where Premise and Hypothesis are input features and Tag is the output result. This unified format only requires simple cross-entropy loss, avoiding extra task-specific effort for loss design, loss scaling, or explicit gradient accumulation (Aghajanyan et al., 2021). This strategy trains **KnowDA** to reconstruct NLP task instances from multiple granularities, potentially satisfying different needs in the data augmentation tasks. Our dynamic random masking mechanism also encourages **KnowDA** to fully use the task-specific keys and demonstration examples. When most of the values are masked for prediction, they are the only reliable information for **KnowDA** to generate meaningful synthetic data. For example, in Figure 1, when both "Premise" and "Hypothesis" are masked, **KnowDA** could only obtain task-relevant information from keys and demonstrations.

Demonstration Exemplars   The unified task representations and denoising objectives allow **KnowDA** to encode various task knowledge in the model parameters, *implicitly*. When handling the low-resource target tasks that are dissimilar to the existing training tasks in KoMT, such implicit task knowledge transfer could become less effective. To better represent the semantics of the low-resource target tasks, we add a demonstration section in our text-to-text format like GPT-3. As shown in Figure 1, during KoMT, we randomly select a few instances for the demonstration section from the identical tasks and never take any value masking. To allow **KnowDA** to cope with a different number of demonstration exemplars, the number of selected instances is a random number between 0 and 16. We also discover that demonstration exemplars play an important role when **KnowDA** generates long text in a zero-shot fusion (Details See Sec. 2.4).

2.4   GENERATING SYNTHETIC DATA USING **KnowDA**

After KoMT, **KnowDA** has already captured various NLP task knowledge. It could be further adapted to generate synthetic data for low-resource NLP tasks. As discussed in Sec. 2.3, a NLP training instance could be represented as a list of key-value pairs $[(k^1, v^1), \cdots, (k^n, v^n)]$ where the key k^i is the feature name and v^i is the textual content. To generate NLP training instances with arbitrary complicated structures from scratch, we propose an *auto-regressive* data augmentation framework. We first analyze the *task-specific feature dependency*, then generate each feature value sequentially.

Task-specific Feature Dependency   Different NLP tasks have their own dependencies for input features. These dependencies are mostly based on the annotation procedure of the target task. For example, as shown in Figure 2, in the task of Adversarial QA (Bartolo et al., 2020a), given a passage (i.e., context), a human annotator first produces a question, and then creates the corresponding answer span for that question. Given this annotation procedure, we generate context, question, and answer auto-regressively. To maintain a high diversity of the generated synthetic data in the low-resource setting, we train a different copy of **KnowDA** for generation at each stage. This is conceptually similar to the *Prompt ensemble* used in Wang et al. (2022). Note that the fine-tuning cost (i.e., training time) of **KnowDA** at each stage is relatively low. Practically, we only need to store the generated synthetic data and safely discard the fine-tuned **KnowDA** parameters. The detailed data augmentation process used in this paper can be found in Appendix A.5.

Generating Text For Features   For short v^j (e.g., less than 250 tokens), directly fine-tuning **KnowDA** with the low-resource training data is a straightforward solution. However, it is tremendously difficult to handle long v^j. In our preliminary experiments, we find that fine-tuned **KnowDA** memorizes some textual spans from the training examples and injects these memorized textual spans into the generated text. As a result, the generated text is inconsistent across different sentences and of

Figure 2: Feature Dependency in the task of Adversarial QA.

low quality. To avoid this fine-tuning issue, we directly use **KnowDA**, without further fine-tuning, to produce long text because **KnowDA** is pre-trained to generate many long texts. However, this could result in irrelevant outputs compared to the given handful of training examples in the target task. To combat this issue, we transfer task knowledge from the pre-training tasks in KoMT and the target task. Specifically, we select relevant feature keys based on the similarity (e.g., length and topic) between the target task and the pre-training tasks. To fully use the small set of training data in the target task, we randomly select a few of them and use them as full demonstration examples at the inputs. Both strategies could effectively control the contents of generated text, achieving satisfying data augmentation performance. We show the importance of these strategies in Sections 3.3.1 and 3.3.2.

3 EXPERIMENTS

In this paper, to show the effectiveness of **KnowDA**, we compare **KnowDA** with recently proposed state-of-the-art data augmentation algorithm FlipDA (Zhou et al., 2022) and PromDA (Wang et al., 2022) in Sections 3.1 and 3.2. We also present an in-depth analysis of **KnowDA** in Sec 3.3.

Evaluation Benchmark   Following PromDA and FlipDA, we conduct low-source experiments on the FewGLUE (Schick & Schütze, 2020), CoNLL'03 (Sang & De Meulder, 2003), and WikiAnn (Pan et al., 2017) benchmarks. For each benchmark, we run our experiments multiple times with different random seeds, templates and data splits and report the averaged results with the corresponding standard deviation. We write the standard deviation as the subscript of mean results (e.g., $80.0_{1.0}$ means the averaged performance is 80.0 with standard deviation 1.0). To avoid any form of data leakage, we exclude all above evaluation tasks from KoMT. We further filter out any training instances containing evaluation task input features (e.g., input sentences) from KoMT. Finally, 114 diverse NLP tasks (See Appendix A.3 for details) are selected for KoMT.

KnowDA Details   **KnowDA** is initialized from the T5-1.1-Large model (Raffel et al., 2020). We train **KnowDA** for 100k steps with a maximum sequence length of 512 and batch size 2048 in a Linux environment with $16 \times$ A100 GPU (40G). Fine-tuning **KnowDA** is carried out only using a single A100 GPU (40G). We use Adam as the optimizer to train **KnowDA**. More details see Appendix A.1.

3.1 DATA AUGMENTATION ON FEWGLUE

We use FewGLUE to evaluate **KnowDA**'s ability on low-resource data augmentation. Each challenging FewGLUE task only has 32 labeled instances.

Setting In this experiment, we largely follow the settings in FlipDA (Zhou et al., 2021), including the baseline models, the input templates and the random seeds. We compare **KnowDA** with **SR** (Zhang et al., 2015), **EDA** (Wei & Zou, 2019b), **T5-MLM** (Zhou et al., 2021), and **FlipDA** (Zhou et al., 2021). The PET templates and random seeds are identical to FlipDA. Tables 1 and 2 show the experiment results of FewGLUE. As FlipDA outperforms other baseline models by a large margin, we rerun the official code of FlipDA to compare its mean and standard deviation results with **KnowDA**. Results of baseline, **SR**, **EDA** and **T5-MLM** are taken from Zhou et al. (2021). More details see Appendix A.2.

Result Adding **KnowDA**'s synthetic data improves the baseline models in 7 out of 8 FewGLUE tasks, with an average improvement of 5.2 and 4.1 in the ALBERT and DeBERTa baseline models, respectively. On average, **KnowDA** outperforms previous state-of-the-art FlipDA by 1.6 and 2.2 on the ALBERT and DeBERTa models, respectively. **KnowDA** consistently exceeds FlipDA on 5 out

of 8 tasks, which include QA (BoolQ, MultiRC), NLI (RTE, CB), and Word Sense Disambiguation (WiC). This shows that KoMT is capable of transferring prior task-specific knowledge to *similar tasks* (i.e., QA, NLI), as well as *novel tasks* (i.e., Word Sense Disambiguation). Finally, **KnowDA** performs worse than FlipDA in the task of COPA and ReCoRD. This could be because **KnowDA** is unable to produce sufficient correct output labels for these two tasks.

Table 1: Performance of Baseline and **KnowDA** on FewGLUE with ALBERT-xxlarge-v2 model.

Method	BOOLQ Acc.	RTE Acc.	CB. Acc./F1	WiC Acc.	WSC Acc.	MultiRC EM/F1a	COPA Acc.	ReCoRD Acc./F1	avg
Baseline	72.5	61.4	82.7/74.8	51.3	77.0	33.0/74.6	88.3	86.2/86.8	71.2
SR	75.0	59.2	83.3/78.1	51.3	78.7	34.1/75.6	87.5	85.6/86.1	71.6
EDA	72.7	58.3	81.1/73.6	51.8	75.9	28.7/73.1	84.5	85.4/86.0	69.6
T5-MLM	73.9	62.3	83.5/75.0	51.1	**79.2**	33.8/74.1	87.3	85.2/85.7	71.5
FlipDA	$77.0_{1.3}$	$70.7_{2.6}$	$86.3_{3.5}/82.5_{5.8}$	$53.4_{1.0}$	$78.7_{4.3}$	$36.4_{2.1}/76.2_{1.1}$	$\mathbf{89.2_{1.2}}$	$\mathbf{86.0_{0.2}}/\mathbf{86.6_{0.2}}$	74.8
KnowDA	$\mathbf{78.2_{0.8}}$	$\mathbf{78.7_{0.9}}$	$\mathbf{89.6_{1.9}}/\mathbf{85.4_{2.9}}$	$\mathbf{55.9_{1.5}}$	$77.9_{3.6}$	$\mathbf{36.8_{1.1}}/\mathbf{76.2_{0.7}}$	$89.0_{2.1}$	$85.9_{0.2}/\mathbf{86.6_{0.2}}$	**76.4**

Table 2: Performance of Baseline and **KnowDA** on FewGLUE with DeBERTa-v2-xxlarge model.

Method	BOOLQ Acc.	RTE Acc.	CB. Acc./F1	WiC Acc.	WSC Acc.	MultiRC EM/F1a	COPA Acc.	ReCoRD Acc./F1	avg
Baseline	78.3	82.0	85.4/79.3	58.7	80.1	40.4/78.1	87.7	90.2/90.8	77.4
SR	77.4	76.3	87.2/80.3	58.9	80.9	35.7/76.3	87.0	89.1/89.6	76.2
EDA	74.4	77.4	83.6/76.2	59.3	78.7	37.0/77.1	85.8	88.1/88.6	75.1
T5-MLM	77.4	81.2	83.0/73.7	60.7	82.4	35.0/75.0	88.2	89.7/90.3	76.7
FlipDA	$81.6_{1.1}$	$83.0_{1.3}$	$88.1_{2.2}/86.1_{3.5}$	$64.2_{1.4}$	$77.6_{3.0}$	$43.6_{1.5}/79.8_{0.8}$	$\mathbf{86.5_{6.5}}$	$\mathbf{90.7_{0.2}}/\mathbf{91.3_{0.2}}$	79.3
KnowDA	$\mathbf{83.9_{1.5}}$	$\mathbf{86.8_{1.9}}$	$\mathbf{92.1_{1.5}}/\mathbf{89.2_{1.3}}$	$\mathbf{66.5_{3.4}}$	$79.5_{2.8}$	$\mathbf{46.8_{2.5}}/\mathbf{81.3_{0.7}}$	$90.7_{5.0}$	$89.7_{0.3}/90.3_{0.3}$	**81.5**

3.2 DATA AUGMENTATION FOR SEQUENCE LABELING TASKS

In Sec. 3.1, **KnowDA** shows success in handling NLP tasks with complicated structures from Super-GLUE. In this section, we further verify the effectiveness of **KnowDA** in the *Sequence labeling Tasks* which are excluded from KoMT.

Setting Following (Wang et al., 2022), we take **BERT-base** (Devlin et al., 2019) as the baseline model. We compare with several strong data augmentation models, including **SDANER** (Dai & Adel, 2020), **LAMBADA** (Anaby-Tavor et al., 2020), **MetaST** (Wang et al., 2021) and **PromDA** (Wang et al., 2022). We conduct the shot-10 setting with 40 samples for CoNLL'03 and 30 samples for WikiAnn. There are two stages in generating synthetic data for sequence labeling tasks: **1)** generating synthetic input sentences; **2)** labeling entities on the synthetic input sentences. We use low-resource training data to fine-tune **KnowDA** for both stages. We find that feeding the generated synthetic data back to **KnowDA** can improve its entity labeling performance and produce better synthetic data. We, thus, iterate this process times to four times. Following (Wang et al., 2022), we repeat the experiment five times with different random seeds and data splits and report the averaged results in Table 3. We also show the entity labeling performance of **KnowDA** and and the performance of BERT fine-tuned with the corresponding synthetic data in each iteration in Table 4. More details see Appendix A.4.

Result Table 3 illustrates BERT labeling performance on the CoNLL'03 and WikiAnn Benchmark after using synthetic data from various DA methods. Compared to the BERT baseline models, BERT with **KnowDA**'s synthetic data achieves 12.9 and 16.1 F1 score improvements. Compared to the state-of-the-art PromDA method, **KnowDA**'s synthetic data gains an improvements of 7.8 points and 8 points on CoNLL'03 and WikiAnn, respectively. Both PromDA and **KnowDA** are based on the T5-Large checkpoints. The major difference is that PromDA only receives task-agnostic pre-training on a sub-set of C4 corpus (Raffel et al., 2020), while **KnowDA** receives KoMT. This implies the effectiveness of using NLP prior task knowledge for data augmentation. As shown in Table 4, adding **KnowDA**'s synthetic data substantially improves the entity labeling performance of **KnowDA** and BERT (i.e., T_0 vs. T_1). Both models are further improved as the iteration continues. Although **KnowDA** could be directly used to perform sequence labeling tasks, the BERT model trained with generated synthetic data consistently outperforms **KnowDA** (i.e., in CoNLL'03, 85.0 vs. 85.4; in

WikiAnn, 64.9 vs. 66.3). This shows that the BERT model successfully learns the knowledge embedded in the synthetic data from **KnowDA**.

Table 3: Performance of DA on the sequence labeling benchmarks.

Method	CoNLL'03	Wikiann
BERT-base	$72.5_{4.6}$	$50.8_{2.8}$
SDANER	$73.9_{4.3}$	$51.7_{3.3}$
LAMBADA	$74.9_{3.7}$	$52.9_{1.9}$
MetaST	$76.7_{1.2}$	$56.6_{2.3}$
PromDA	$77.5_{3.5}$	$59.0_{2.9}$
KnowDA	$\mathbf{85.4_{0.8}}$	$\mathbf{66.3_{2.9}}$

Table 4: The entity labeling performance for **KnowDA** and BERT after each iteration (from T_0 to T_4).

Iter.	CoNLL'03		WikiAnn	
	KnowDA	BERT	**KnowDA**	BERT
T_0	$80.1_{1.9}$	$72.5_{5.1}$	$62.5_{2.8}$	$50.2_{3.6}$
T_1	$83.0_{1.3}$	$84.0_{0.9}$	$64.2_{3.1}$	$65.4_{2.6}$
T_2	$84.9_{1.2}$	$84.8_{0.5}$	$65.4_{2.9}$	$65.9_{2.8}$
T_3	$84.9_{0.8}$	$85.1_{0.6}$	$65.3_{2.9}$	$66.0_{3.0}$
T_4	$85.0_{1.1}$	$\mathbf{85.4_{0.8}}$	$64.9_{3.0}$	$\mathbf{66.3_{2.9}}$

3.3 DISCUSSION

In this section, we conduct an in-depth analysis of **KnowDA**. We investigate the impact of key choices and demonstrations for **KnowDA** in Sec. 3.3.1. We present a performance comparison of **KnowDA**'s fine-tune and zero-shot versions for generating long context in section Sec 3.3.2. We also compare **KnowDA** with other multi-task pre-training generative models (e.g., T0 and T5) on data augmentation in Sec 3.3.3. We further compare the synthetic data generated by **KnowDA** with the one from FlipDA in Sec 3.3.4.

Figure 3: The impact of different choices of key and demonstrations. In *w/o Demonstration*, no demonstration examples are used. In *Replace Templates*, we use different keys to generate synthetic data. We report accuracy for the RTE task, and both accuracy and F1-score for the CB task.

3.3.1 TASK KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER

KoMT has two important components to transfer task knowledge: **1)** Task-specific key list; **2)** Full demonstration examples. To show the importance of key choices and demonstrations, we choose the challenging RTE and CB tasks, which involve unsupervised long document generation steps. The best template for RTE and CB long document generation is "Premise [MASK]" and "Text [MASK]", respectively. In the **Replace Template**, we replace the key *Premise* with *Context* in RTE and replace the key *Text* with *Document* in CB. We generate separated sets of synthetic data under three settings (Replace Template, w/o Demonstrations, and both). We follow the settings in Table 1 and feed these sets of synthetic data into the PET ALBERT model separately. Figure 3 shows that both key and demonstrations have a considerable impact on the generated synthetic data: RTE drops up to 6.1% accuracy, and CB F1 score drops up to 8.7%. Notably, the impact of the key is larger than the demonstrations in the RTE task, while this is opposite in the CB task. We hypothesize that this could be because keys and demonstrations activate different knowledge from **KnowDA**, which have different impacts on the downstream tasks. This is further confirmed by the fact that applying both changes would further negatively impact the PET ALBERT model performance. In summary, keys and demonstrations have similar and positive impacts to **KnowDA** in data augmentation. They effectively transfer appropriate and different prior task-specific knowledge to the ongoing task. More analysis can be found in Appendix A.7.

3.3.2 LONG TEXT GENERATION

As discussed in Sec. 2.4, zero-shot learning is applied when **KnowDA** generates long text for the task BoolQ, RTE, and CB. These three tasks include long text in their labelled instances (e.g., the passage in BoolQ). We conduct an ablation study and show the importance of this design choice by directly fine-tuning **KnowDA** to generate the long text. The experiment is based on the ALBERT model. As shown in Table 5, fine-tuning negatively affects the quality of synthetic data and the corresponding PET performance becomes worse than using the zero-shot version.

Table 5: Ablation Study of zero-shot generation for long text on the ALBERT-xxlarge-v2 model.

Method	BOOLQ (Acc.)	RTE (Acc.)	CB. (Acc./F1)	avg
KnowDA (Fine-Tuning)	$73.3_{0.7}$	$68.5_{1.8}$	$86.3_{2.8}$ / $80.8_{6.6}$	77.2
KnowDA (Original)	$78.2_{0.8}$	$78.7_{0.9}$	$89.6_{1.9}$ / $85.6_{2.9}$	83.0

3.3.3 COMPARISON WITH T0 AND RAW T5

In this section, we compare **KnowDA** with Raw T5-Large model (i.e., **KnowDA** w/o KoMT) and T0, a T5-3B model trained with a large and diverse set of human-annotated prompts to solve different NLP tasks. We select the task of WiC, WSC, and COPA for comparison because none of **KnowDA**, Raw T5 and T0 have seen these three tasks during pre-training. The experiment is based on the ALBERT model. As shown in Table 6, both raw T5 and T0 perform worse than **KnowDA**. Although T0 achieves good performance in solving those NLP tasks, T0 is never trained to produce synthetic data. When applying T0 to generate synthetic data (e.g., generating a full sentence given a class label), its data augmentation performance is sub-optimal.

Table 6: Comparison with Raw T5 and T0 model on the ALBERT-xxlarge-v2 model.

Method	WiC	WSC	COPA	avg
T0	$52.1_{2.9}$	$71.1_{3.8}$	$88.0_{2.8}$	70.4
Raw T5	$51.3_{1.1}$	$70.2_{4.7}$	$87.7_{2.0}$	69.8
KnowDA	$55.9_{1.5}$	$77.9_{3.6}$	$89.0_{2.1}$	74.2

3.3.4 SYNTHETIC DATA QUALITY ANALYSIS

Table 1 and 2 have confirmed that the synthetic data from **KnowDA** can effectively improve low-resource performance in FewGLUE. We further examine the quality of generated synthetic data from **KnowDA** and compare that with FlipDA, including diversity analysis and human evaluation.

Table 7: Diversity analysis on Synthetic Data.

Model	Self-BLEU↓	Novel Entity ↑
FlipDA	67.9	758.5
KnowDA	**44.0**	**1048.3**

Figure 4: Human Evaluation Results.

Diversity Analysis We compare the diversity of the generated synthetic data from **KnowDA** and FlipDA. We sample 200 synthetic data from each FewGLUE task. Following Wang et al. (2022), we calculate **Novel Entity** (i.e., number of entity mentions or keywords not appearing in the training data) and Self-BLEU score (Zhu et al., 2018) for each FewBLUE task separately. We report the averaged score across all tasks to quantify the overall synthetic data diversity. As shown in Table 7, synthetic data from FlipDA is less diverse than the one from **KnowDA**. Its Self-BLEU score increases from 44.0 to 67.9, and Novel Entity score decreases from 1048.3 to 758.5. This explains the advantages of **KnowDA** because it provides more new training signals in the generated synthetic data.

Human Evaluation   We further conduct human evaluation to analyze the quality of the synthetic data. We sample 50 instances from ground-truth training data (GT), **KnowDA**'s synthetic data (**KnowDA**), and FlipDA's synthetic data (FlipDA) in each FewGLUE task, resulting in 1200 samples in total. We mask the data source of these samples and assign them to three annotators who are only told that there are slightly more machine-generated samples than human-generated ones. They are asked to judge whether each sample is generated by humans. Figure 4 shows the human evaluation results. 85% of GT are correctly classified, which shows that it is relatively easy to identify the human-generated samples. 67.1% of **KnowDA**'s synthetic data are identified as human-generated samples, while this number decreases to 42.1% for FlipDA's synthetic data. This clearly exhibits that, compared to FlipDA, the synthetic data from **KnowDA** are more similar to the human-crafted data.

4   RELATED WORK

Data Augmentation for Low-resource NLP   We divided data augmentation methods for low-resource NLP into two categories according to the complexity of the tasks that need to be augmented. The works of the first category focus on simple tasks, e.g., single-sentence classification and sequence labeling task that only has one sentence as input, and one sequence as output. Early, researchers propose word substitution based methods such as KNN replacement (Vijayaraghavan et al., 2016; Wang & Yang, 2015), Synonym Replacement (Zhang et al., 2015), TF-IDF replacement (Xie et al., 2020) and EDA (Wei & Zou, 2019b) integrated with multiple base replacements. Later, large generative models have been used for data augmentation, such as back translation (Fadaee et al., 2017; Sennrich et al., 2015) utilizes machine translation models to synthesize new data samples, LAMBADA (Anaby-Tavor et al., 2020) finetunes a GPT-2 model to generate augmented data, GPT3Mix (Yoo et al., 2021) uses GPT-3 along with hard prompting to yield augmented examples, PromDA (Wang et al., 2022) leverages soft prompting to perform efficient learning from few shots. The previous work (Zhou et al., 2021) demonstrates that these methods are hard to generate proper synthetic data for tasks with more complicated structures (e.g., SuperGLUE). Another line of low-resource data augmentation is exploring augmentating tasks with complicated structures (i.e., long sequences or multiple sentences). FlipDA (Zhou et al., 2021) has conducted preliminary attempts on these tasks by applying local phrase-level edits over the original training data. Our method also make efforts on this setting. The main difference between **KnowDA** and FlipDA lies in that our **KnowDA** could generate the whole augmented examples *from scratch*.

Multi-task Pre-training   Recent research efforts have emerged in unifying multiple NLP tasks as a unified Sequence-to-Sequence text generation task. Paolini et al. (2021) proposes to tackle various structured prediction language tasks using a single text-to-text generation model. Wei et al. (2021), Sanh et al. (2022), Aribandi et al. (2022), and Xu et al. (2022) further demonstrate that adding these unified Sequence-to-Sequence NLP training instances to pre-trained language models can further improve the model performance. Our model is broadly inspired by this long line of previous works with following major differences. First, we focus on utilizing more human-annotated NLP task datasets to learn how to generate synthetic samples of a given task rather than just learning how to complete the task. Second, most of previous works rely on the human-crafted task-specific hard prompt as the unified format to do a multi-task pre-training. Our unified key-value format does not require extra human efforts and allows KoMT to easily scale to many NLP tasks.

5   CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This paper explores multi-task learning paradigms at a massive scale for data augmentation in low-resource NLP tasks for the first time. We demonstrate that the proposed Knowledge Mixture training enables pre-trained language models the capability of generating proper synthetic instances *from scratch* for complicated tasks (i.e., the data sample has long sequences or multiple sentences). Experiments verified the effectiveness of our **KnowDA**, and **KnowDA** outperforms state-of-the-art data augmentation approaches on the popular benchmarks FewGLUE, CoNLL'03, and WikiAnn. We also perform ablation studies indicating the importance of including demonstrations and the impact of different keys. Moreover, increasing the size of multi-task scaling and investigating more advanced training objectives for data augmentation is still a promising direction worthy of long-term exploration.

REFERENCES

Armen Aghajanyan, Anchit Gupta, Akshat Shrivastava, Xilun Chen, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Sonal Gupta. Muppet: Massive multi-task representations with pre-finetuning. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 5799–5811, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, November 2021. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2021.emnlp-main.468. URL https://aclanthology.org/2021.emnlp-main.468.

Tiago A Almeida, José María G Hidalgo, and Akebo Yamakami. Contributions to the study of sms spam filtering: new collection and results. In *Proceedings of the 11th ACM symposium on Document engineering*, pp. 259–262, 2011.

Aida Amini, Saadia Gabriel, Peter Lin, Rik Koncel-Kedziorski, Yejin Choi, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. Mathqa: Towards interpretable math word problem solving with operation-based formalisms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1905.13319*, 2019.

Ateret Anaby-Tavor, Boaz Carmeli, Esther Goldbraich, Amir Kantor, George Kour, Segev Shlomov, Naama Tepper, and Naama Zwerdling. Do not have enough data? deep learning to the rescue! *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 34(05):7383–7390, Apr. 2020. doi: 10.1609/aaai.v34i05.6233. URL https://ojs.aaai.org/index.php/AAAI/article/view/6233.

Vamsi Aribandi, Yi Tay, Tal Schuster, Jinfeng Rao, Huaixiu Steven Zheng, Sanket Vaibhav Mehta, Honglei Zhuang, Vinh Q. Tran, Dara Bahri, Jianmo Ni, Jai Gupta, Kai Hui, Sebastian Ruder, and Donald Metzler. Ext5: Towards extreme multi-task scaling for transfer learning. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2022. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=Vzh1BFUCiIX.

Max Bartolo, Alastair Roberts, Johannes Welbl, Sebastian Riedel, and Pontus Stenetorp. Beat the AI: Investigating adversarial human annotation for reading comprehension. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 8:662–678, 2020a. doi: 10.1162/tacl_a_00338. URL https://aclanthology.org/2020.tacl-1.43.

Max Bartolo, Alastair Roberts, Johannes Welbl, Sebastian Riedel, and Pontus Stenetorp. Beat the ai: Investigating adversarial human annotation for reading comprehension. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 8:662–678, 2020b.

Jonathan Berant, Andrew Chou, Roy Frostig, and Percy Liang. Semantic parsing on Freebase from question-answer pairs. In *Proceedings of the 2013 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 1533–1544, Seattle, Washington, USA, October 2013. Association for Computational Linguistics. URL https://aclanthology.org/D13-1160.

Chandra Bhagavatula, Ronan Le Bras, Chaitanya Malaviya, Keisuke Sakaguchi, Ari Holtzman, Hannah Rashkin, Doug Downey, Scott Wen-tau Yih, and Yejin Choi. Abductive commonsense reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1908.05739*, 2019.

Yonatan Bisk, Rowan Zellers, Jianfeng Gao, Yejin Choi, et al. Piqa: Reasoning about physical commonsense in natural language. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, pp. 7432–7439, 2020.

Jan A Botha, Manaal Faruqui, John Alex, Jason Baldridge, and Dipanjan Das. Learning to split and rephrase from wikipedia edit history. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1808.09468*, 2018.

Samuel R. Bowman, Gabor Angeli, Christopher Potts, and Christopher D. Manning. A large annotated corpus for learning natural language inference. In *Proceedings of the 2015 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 632–642, Lisbon, Portugal, September 2015. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D15-1075. URL https://aclanthology.org/D15-1075.

Ankush Chatterjee, Kedhar Nath Narahari, Meghana Joshi, and Puneet Agrawal. SemEval-2019 task 3: EmoContext contextual emotion detection in text. In *Proceedings of the 13th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation*, pp. 39–48, Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA,

June 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/S19-2005. URL `https://aclanthology.org/S19-2005`.

Anthony Chen, Gabriel Stanovsky, Sameer Singh, and Matt Gardner. Mocha: A dataset for training and evaluating generative reading comprehension metrics. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.03636*, 2020.

Wenhu Chen, Hongmin Wang, Jianshu Chen, Yunkai Zhang, Hong Wang, Shiyang Li, Xiyou Zhou, and William Yang Wang. Tabfact: A large-scale dataset for table-based fact verification. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.02164*, 2019.

Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and Oyvind Tafjord. Think you have solved question answering? try arc, the ai2 reasoning challenge. *arXiv:1803.05457v1*, 2018.

Arman Cohan, Waleed Ammar, Madeleine Van Zuylen, and Field Cady. Structural scaffolds for citation intent classification in scientific publications. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1904.01608*, 2019.

Xiang Dai and Heike Adel. An analysis of simple data augmentation for named entity recognition. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.11683*, 2020.

Pradeep Dasigi, Nelson F Liu, Ana Marasović, Noah A Smith, and Matt Gardner. Quoref: A reading comprehension dataset with questions requiring coreferential reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1908.05803*, 2019.

Thomas Davidson, Dana Warmsley, Michael Macy, and Ingmar Weber. Automated hate speech detection and the problem of offensive language. In *Proceedings of the 11th International AAAI Conference on Web and Social Media*, ICWSM '17, pp. 512–515, 2017.

Ona De Gibert, Naiara Perez, Aitor García-Pablos, and Montse Cuadros. Hate speech dataset from a white supremacy forum. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.04444*, 2018.

Marie-Catherine De Marneffe, Mandy Simons, and Judith Tonhauser. The commitmentbank: Investigating projection in naturally occurring discourse. In *proceedings of Sinn und Bedeutung*, volume 23, pp. 107–124, 2019.

Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)*, pp. 4171–4186, Minneapolis, Minnesota, June 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/N19-1423. URL `https://aclanthology.org/N19-1423`.

Thomas Diggelmann, Jordan Boyd-Graber, Jannis Bulian, Massimiliano Ciaramita, and Markus Leippold. Climate-fever: A dataset for verification of real-world climate claims, 2020.

Matthew Dunn, Levent Sagun, Mike Higgins, V Ugur Guney, Volkan Cirik, and Kyunghyun Cho. Searchqa: A new q&a dataset augmented with context from a search engine. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1704.05179*, 2017.

Ondřej Dušek, Jekaterina Novikova, and Verena Rieser. Evaluating the state-of-the-art of end-to-end natural language generation: The e2e nlg challenge. *Computer Speech & Language*, 59:123–156, 2020.

Alexander Fabbri, Irene Li, Tianwei She, Suyi Li, and Dragomir Radev. Multi-news: A large-scale multi-document summarization dataset and abstractive hierarchical model. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 1074–1084, Florence, Italy, July 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/P19-1102. URL `https://aclanthology.org/P19-1102`.

Marzieh Fadaee, Arianna Bisazza, and Christof Monz. Data augmentation for low-resource neural machine translation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1705.00440*, 2017.

Angela Fan, Yacine Jernite, Ethan Perez, David Grangier, Jason Weston, and Michael Auli. Eli5: Long form question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.09190*, 2019.

Manaal Faruqui and Dipanjan Das. Identifying Well-formed Natural Language Questions. In *Proc. of EMNLP*, 2018.

Bogdan Gliwa, Iwona Mochol, Maciej Biesek, and Aleksander Wawer. SAMSum corpus: A human-annotated dialogue dataset for abstractive summarization. In *Proceedings of the 2nd Workshop on New Frontiers in Summarization*, pp. 70–79, Hong Kong, China, November 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D19-5409. URL https://aclanthology.org/D19-5409.

Alec Go, Richa Bhayani, and Lei Huang. Twitter sentiment classification using distant supervision. *CS224N project report, Stanford*, 1(12):2009, 2009.

Giovanni Grano, Andrea Di Sorbo, Francesco Mercaldo, Corrado A Visaggio, Gerardo Canfora, and Sebastiano Panichella. Android apps and user feedback: a dataset for software evolution and quality improvement. In *Proceedings of the 2nd ACM SIGSOFT international workshop on app market analytics*, pp. 8–11, 2017.

Harsha Gurulingappa, Abdul Mateen Rajput, Angus Roberts, Juliane Fluck, Martin Hofmann-Apitius, and Luca Toldo. Development of a benchmark corpus to support the automatic extraction of drug-related adverse effects from medical case reports. *Journal of biomedical informatics*, 45(5): 885–892, 2012.

Luheng He, Mike Lewis, and Luke Zettlemoyer. Question-answer driven semantic role labeling: Using natural language to annotate natural language. In *Proceedings of the 2015 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*, pp. 643–653, 2015.

Lifu Huang, Ronan Le Bras, Chandra Bhagavatula, and Yejin Choi. Cosmos qa: Machine reading comprehension with contextual commonsense reasoning. In *arXiv:1909.00277v2*, 2019.

Kelvin Jiang, Dekun Wu, and Hui Jiang. Freebaseqa: A new factoid qa data set matching trivia-style question-answer pairs with freebase. In *NAACL-HLT (1)*, pp. 318–323, 2019.

Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, and Peter Clark. Scitail: A textual entailment dataset from science question answering. In *Thirty-Second AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2018.

Tushar Khot, Peter Clark, Michal Guerquin, Peter Jansen, and Ashish Sabharwal. Qasc: A dataset for question answering via sentence composition. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, pp. 8082–8090, 2020.

Byeongchang Kim, Hyunwoo Kim, and Gunhee Kim. Abstractive summarization of reddit posts with multi-level memory networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1811.00783*, 2018.

Neema Kotonya and Francesca Toni. Explainable automated fact-checking for public health claims. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.09926*, 2020.

Varun Kumar, Ashutosh Choudhary, and Eunah Cho. Data augmentation using pre-trained transformer models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2003.02245*, 2020.

Guokun Lai, Qizhe Xie, Hanxiao Liu, Yiming Yang, and Eduard Hovy. RACE: Large-scale ReAding comprehension dataset from examinations. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 785–794, Copenhagen, Denmark, September 2017. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D17-1082. URL https://aclanthology.org/D17-1082.

Rémi Lebret, David Grangier, and Michael Auli. Generating text from structured data with application to the biography domain. *CoRR*, abs/1603.07771, 2016. URL http://arxiv.org/abs/1603.07771.

Jens Lehmann, Robert Isele, Max Jakob, Anja Jentzsch, Dimitris Kontokostas, Pablo N Mendes, Sebastian Hellmann, Mohamed Morsey, Patrick Van Kleef, Sören Auer, et al. Dbpedia–a large-scale, multilingual knowledge base extracted from wikipedia. *Semantic web*, 6(2):167–195, 2015.

Quentin Lhoest, Albert Villanova del Moral, Yacine Jernite, Abhishek Thakur, Patrick von Platen, Suraj Patil, Julien Chaumond, Mariama Drame, Julien Plu, Lewis Tunstall, Joe Davison, Mario Šaško, Gunjan Chhablani, Bhavitvya Malik, Simon Brandeis, Teven Le Scao, Victor Sanh, Canwen Xu, Nicolas Patry, Angelina McMillan-Major, Philipp Schmid, Sylvain Gugger, Clément Delangue, Théo Matussière, Lysandre Debut, Stas Bekman, Pierric Cistac, Thibault Goehringer, Victor Mustar, François Lagunas, Alexander Rush, and Thomas Wolf. Datasets: A community library for natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pp. 175–184, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, November 2021. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2021.emnlp-demo.21. URL https://aclanthology.org/2021.emnlp-demo.21.

Xin Li and Dan Roth. Learning question classifiers. In *COLING 2002: The 19th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, 2002.

Bill Yuchen Lin, Wangchunshu Zhou, Ming Shen, Pei Zhou, Chandra Bhagavatula, Yejin Choi, and Xiang Ren. Commongen: A constrained text generation challenge for generative commonsense reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1911.03705*, 2019a.

Bill Yuchen Lin, Seyeon Lee, Rahul Khanna, and Xiang Ren. Birds have four legs?! numersense: Probing numerical commonsense knowledge of pre-trained language models. In *Proceedings of EMNLP*, 2020. to appear.

Kevin Lin, Oyvind Tafjord, Peter Clark, and Matt Gardner. Reasoning over paragraph effects in situations. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1908.05852*, 2019b.

Wang Ling, Dani Yogatama, Chris Dyer, and Phil Blunsom. Program induction by rationale generation: Learning to solve and explain algebraic word problems. *ACL*, 2017.

Annie Louis, Dan Roth, and Filip Radlinski. " i'd rather just go to bed": Understanding indirect answers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.03450*, 2020.

Andrew L. Maas, Raymond E. Daly, Peter T. Pham, Dan Huang, Andrew Y. Ng, and Christopher Potts. Learning word vectors for sentiment analysis. In *Proceedings of the 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 142–150, Portland, Oregon, USA, June 2011. Association for Computational Linguistics. URL http://www.aclweb.org/anthology/P11-1015.

P. Malo, A. Sinha, P. Korhonen, J. Wallenius, and P. Takala. Good debt or bad debt: Detecting semantic orientations in economic texts. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology*, 65, 2014.

Irene Manotas, Ngoc Phuoc An Vo, and Vadim Sheinin. Limit: The literal motion in text dataset. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020*, pp. 991–1000, 2020.

Marco Marelli, Stefano Menini, Marco Baroni, Luisa Bentivogli, Raffaella Bernardi, and Roberto Zamparelli. A sick cure for the evaluation of compositional distributional semantic models. In *Proceedings of the Ninth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'14)*, pp. 216–223, 2014.

Binny Mathew, Punyajoy Saha, Seid Muhie Yimam, Chris Biemann, Pawan Goyal, and Animesh Mukherjee. Hatexplain: A benchmark dataset for explainable hate speech detection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2012.10289*, 2020.

Clara H McCreery, Namit Katariya, Anitha Kannan, Manish Chablani, and Xavier Amatriain. Effective transfer learning for identifying similar questions: matching user questions to covid-19 faqs. In *Proceedings of the 26th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery & Data Mining*, pp. 3458–3465, 2020.

Todor Mihaylov, Peter Clark, Tushar Khot, and Ashish Sabharwal. Can a suit of armor conduct electricity? a new dataset for open book question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.02789*, 2018.

Saif Mohammad, Svetlana Kiritchenko, Parinaz Sobhani, Xiaodan Zhu, and Colin Cherry. Semeval-2016 task 6: Detecting stance in tweets. In *Proceedings of the 10th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval-2016)*, pp. 31–41, 2016.

Shashi Narayan, Shay B. Cohen, and Mirella Lapata. Don't give me the details, just the summary! topic-aware convolutional neural networks for extreme summarization. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 1797–1807, Brussels, Belgium, October-November 2018. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/ D18-1206. URL `https://aclanthology.org/D18-1206`.

Yixin Nie, Adina Williams, Emily Dinan, Mohit Bansal, Jason Weston, and Douwe Kiela. Adversarial NLI: A new benchmark for natural language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 4885–4901, Online, July 2020. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2020.acl-main.441. URL `https://aclanthology.org/2020.acl-main.441`.

Achraf Othman and Mohamed Jemni. English-asl gloss parallel corpus 2012: Aslg-pc12. In *5th Workshop on the Representation and Processing of Sign Languages: Interactions between Corpus and Lexicon LREC*, 2012.

Xiaoman Pan, Boliang Zhang, Jonathan May, Joel Nothman, Kevin Knight, and Heng Ji. Cross-lingual name tagging and linking for 282 languages. In *Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 1946–1958, 2017.

Bo Pang and Lillian Lee. Seeing stars: Exploiting class relationships for sentiment categorization with respect to rating scales. *arXiv preprint cs/0506075*, 2005.

Giovanni Paolini, Ben Athiwaratkun, Jason Krone, Jie Ma, Alessandro Achille, Rishita Anubhai, Cicero Nogueira dos Santos, Bing Xiang, and Stefano Soatto. Structured prediction as translation between augmented natural languages. In *9th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2021*, 2021.

Dimitris Pappas, Petros Stavropoulos, Ion Androutsopoulos, and Ryan McDonald. Biomrc: A dataset for biomedical machine reading comprehension. In *Proceedings of the 19th SIGBioMed Workshop on Biomedical Language Processing*, pp. 140–149, 2020.

Fabio Petroni, Aleksandra Piktus, Angela Fan, Patrick Lewis, Majid Yazdani, Nicola De Cao, James Thorne, Yacine Jernite, Vladimir Karpukhin, Jean Maillard, Vassilis Plachouras, Tim Rocktäschel, and Sebastian Riedel. KILT: a benchmark for knowledge intensive language tasks. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 2523–2544, Online, June 2021. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2021.naacl-main.200. URL `https://aclanthology.org/2021.naacl-main.200`.

Alec Radford, Jeffrey Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, Ilya Sutskever, et al. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners. *OpenAI blog*, 1(8):9, 2019.

Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J. Liu. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 21(140):1–67, 2020. URL `http://jmlr.org/papers/v21/20-074.html`.

Altaf Rahman and Vincent Ng. Resolving complex cases of definite pronouns: the winograd schema challenge. In *Proceedings of the 2012 Joint Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and Computational Natural Language Learning*, pp. 777–789. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2012.

Nazneen Fatema Rajani, Bryan McCann, Caiming Xiong, and Richard Socher. Explain yourself! leveraging language models for commonsense reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1906.02361*, 2019.

Pranav Rajpurkar, Jian Zhang, Konstantin Lopyrev, and Percy Liang. SQuAD: 100,000+ questions for machine comprehension of text. In *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 2383–2392, Austin, Texas, November 2016. Association

for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D16-1264. URL `https://aclanthology.org/D16-1264`.

Hannah Rashkin, Eric Michael Smith, Margaret Li, and Y-Lan Boureau. Towards empathetic open-domain conversation models: a new benchmark and dataset. In *ACL*, 2019.

Anna Rogers, Olga Kovaleva, Matthew Downey, and Anna Rumshisky. Getting closer to ai complete question answering: A set of prerequisite real tasks. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, pp. 8722–8731, 2020.

Alexander M. Rush, Sumit Chopra, and Jason Weston. A neural attention model for abstractive sentence summarization. *Proceedings of the 2015 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, 2015. doi: 10.18653/v1/d15-1044. URL `http://dx.doi.org/10.18653/v1/D15-1044`.

Amrita Saha, Rahul Aralikatte, Mitesh M. Khapra, and Karthik Sankaranarayanan. DuoRC: Towards Complex Language Understanding with Paraphrased Reading Comprehension. In *Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL)*, 2018.

Erik F Sang and Fien De Meulder. Introduction to the conll-2003 shared task: Language-independent named entity recognition. *arXiv preprint cs/0306050*, 2003.

Victor Sanh, Albert Webson, Colin Raffel, Stephen Bach, Lintang Sutawika, Zaid Alyafeai, Antoine Chaffin, Arnaud Stiegler, Arun Raja, Manan Dey, M Saiful Bari, Canwen Xu, Urmish Thakker, Shanya Sharma Sharma, Eliza Szczechla, Taewoon Kim, Gunjan Chhablani, Nihal Nayak, Debajyoti Datta, Jonathan Chang, Mike Tian-Jian Jiang, Han Wang, Matteo Manica, Sheng Shen, Zheng Xin Yong, Harshit Pandey, Rachel Bawden, Thomas Wang, Trishala Neeraj, Jos Rozen, Abheesht Sharma, Andrea Santilli, Thibault Fevry, Jason Alan Fries, Ryan Teehan, Teven Le Scao, Stella Biderman, Leo Gao, Thomas Wolf, and Alexander M Rush. Multitask prompted training enables zero-shot task generalization. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2022. URL `https://openreview.net/forum?id=9Vrb9D0WI4`.

Maarten Sap, Hannah Rashkin, Derek Chen, Ronan LeBras, and Yejin Choi. Socialiqa: Commonsense reasoning about social interactions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1904.09728*, 2019.

Elvis Saravia, Hsien-Chi Toby Liu, Yen-Hao Huang, Junlin Wu, and Yi-Shin Chen. Carer: Contextualized affect representations for emotion recognition. In *Proceedings of the 2018 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*, pp. 3687–3697, 2018.

Timo Schick and Hinrich Schütze. It's not just size that matters: Small language models are also few-shot learners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2009.07118*, 2020.

Rico Sennrich, Barry Haddow, and Alexandra Birch. Improving neural machine translation models with monolingual data. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.06709*, 2015.

Emily Sheng and David Uthus. Investigating societal biases in a poetry composition system. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2011.02686*, 2020.

Damien Sileo, Tim Van-De-Cruys, Camille Pradel, and Philippe Muller. Mining discourse markers for unsupervised sentence representation learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.11850*, 2019.

Oyvind Tafjord, Peter Clark, Matt Gardner, Wen-tau Yih, and Ashish Sabharwal. Quarel: A dataset and models for answering questions about qualitative relationships. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, pp. 7063–7071, 2019a.

Oyvind Tafjord, Matt Gardner, Kevin Lin, and Peter Clark. Quartz: An open-domain dataset of qualitative relationship questions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.03553*, 2019b.

Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. Commonsenseqa: A question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1811.00937*, 2018.

Niket Tandon, Bhavana Dalvi Mishra, Keisuke Sakaguchi, Antoine Bosselut, and Peter Clark. Wiqa: A dataset for" what if..." reasoning over procedural text. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.04739*, 2019.

Sowmya Vajjala and Ivana Lučić. Onestopenglish corpus: A new corpus for automatic readability assessment and text simplification. In *Proceedings of the thirteenth workshop on innovative use of NLP for building educational applications*, pp. 297–304, 2018.

Prashanth Vijayaraghavan, Ivan Sysoev, Soroush Vosoughi, and Deb Roy. Deepstance at semeval-2016 task 6: Detecting stance in tweets using character and word-level cnns. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.05694*, 2016.

Alex Wang, Amanpreet Singh, Julian Michael, Felix Hill, Omer Levy, and Samuel R Bowman. Glue: A multi-task benchmark and analysis platform for natural language understanding. In *7th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2019*, 2019.

William Yang Wang. ” liar, liar pants on fire”: A new benchmark dataset for fake news detection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1705.00648*, 2017.

William Yang Wang and Diyi Yang. That’s so annoying!!!: A lexical and frame-semantic embedding based data augmentation approach to automatic categorization of annoying behaviors using# petpeeve tweets. In *Proceedings of the 2015 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*, pp. 2557–2563, 2015.

Yaqing Wang, Subhabrata Mukherjee, Haoda Chu, Yuancheng Tu, Ming Wu, Jing Gao, and Ahmed Hassan Awadallah. Meta self-training for few-shot neural sequence labeling. In *Proceedings of the 27th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery & Data Mining*, pp. 1737–1747, 2021.

Yufei Wang, Can Xu, Qingfeng Sun, Huang Hu, Chongyang Tao, Xiubo Geng, and Daxin Jiang. PromDA: Prompt-based data augmentation for low-resource NLU tasks. In *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 4242–4255, Dublin, Ireland, May 2022. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2022.acl-long.292. URL https://aclanthology.org/2022.acl-long.292.

Jason Wei and Kai Zou. EDA: Easy data augmentation techniques for boosting performance on text classification tasks. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP)*, pp. 6382–6388, Hong Kong, China, November 2019a. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D19-1670. URL https://aclanthology.org/D19-1670.

Jason Wei and Kai Zou. Eda: Easy data augmentation techniques for boosting performance on text classification tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1901.11196*, 2019b.

Jason Wei, Maarten Bosma, Vincent Y Zhao, Kelvin Guu, Adams Wei Yu, Brian Lester, Nan Du, Andrew M Dai, and Quoc V Le. Finetuned language models are zero-shot learners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.01652*, 2021.

Jason Wei, Maarten Bosma, Vincent Zhao, Kelvin Guu, Adams Wei Yu, Brian Lester, Nan Du, Andrew M. Dai, and Quoc V Le. Finetuned language models are zero-shot learners. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2022. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=gEZrGCozdqR.

Johannes Welbl, Nelson F Liu, and Matt Gardner. Crowdsourcing multiple choice science questions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.06209*, 2017.

Tomer Wolfson, Mor Geva, Ankit Gupta, Matt Gardner, Yoav Goldberg, Daniel Deutch, and Jonathan Berant. Break it down: A question understanding benchmark. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 2020.

Qizhe Xie, Zihang Dai, Eduard Hovy, Thang Luong, and Quoc Le. Unsupervised data augmentation for consistency training. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:6256–6268, 2020.

Wenhan Xiong, Jiawei Wu, Hong Wang, Vivek Kulkarni, Mo Yu, Xiaoxiao Guo, Shiyu Chang, and William Yang Wang. Tweetqa: A social media focused question answering dataset. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 2019.

Hanwei Xu, Yujun Chen, Yulun Du, Nan Shao, Yanggang Wang, Haiyu Li, and Zhilin Yang. Zeroprompt: Scaling prompt-based pretraining to 1,000 tasks improves zero-shot generalization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.06910*, 2022.

Yi Yang, Wen-tau Yih, and Christopher Meek. Wikiqa: A challenge dataset for open-domain question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2015 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*, pp. 2013–2018, 2015.

Zhilin Yang, Peng Qi, Saizheng Zhang, Yoshua Bengio, William W. Cohen, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, and Christopher D. Manning. HotpotQA: A dataset for diverse, explainable multi-hop question answering. In *Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, 2018.

Qinyuan Ye, Bill Yuchen Lin, and Xiang Ren. CrossFit: A few-shot learning challenge for cross-task generalization in NLP. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 7163–7189, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, November 2021. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2021.emnlp-main.572. URL `https://aclanthology.org/2021.emnlp-main.572`.

Kang Min Yoo, Dongju Park, Jaewook Kang, Sang-Woo Lee, and Woomyeong Park. Gpt3mix: Leveraging large-scale language models for text augmentation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.08826*, 2021.

Tao Yu, Rui Zhang, Kai Yang, Michihiro Yasunaga, Dongxu Wang, Zifan Li, James Ma, Irene Li, Qingning Yao, Shanelle Roman, et al. Spider: A large-scale human-labeled dataset for complex and cross-domain semantic parsing and text-to-sql task. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.08887*, 2018.

Rowan Zellers, Yonatan Bisk, Roy Schwartz, and Yejin Choi. Swag: A large-scale adversarial dataset for grounded commonsense inference. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1808.05326*, 2018.

Rowan Zellers, Ari Holtzman, Yonatan Bisk, Ali Farhadi, and Yejin Choi. Hellaswag: Can a machine really finish your sentence? In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 2019.

Rui Zhang and Joel Tetreault. This email could save your life: Introducing the task of email subject line generation, 2019.

Xiang Zhang, Junbo Zhao, and Yann LeCun. Character-level convolutional networks for text classification. In C. Cortes, N. Lawrence, D. Lee, M. Sugiyama, and R. Garnett (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 28. Curran Associates, Inc., 2015. URL `https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper/2015/file/250cf8b51c773f3f8dc8b4be867a9a02-Paper.pdf`.

Yuan Zhang, Jason Baldridge, and Luheng He. Paws: Paraphrase adversaries from word scrambling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1904.01130*, 2019.

Victor Zhong, Caiming Xiong, and Richard Socher. Seq2sql: Generating structured queries from natural language using reinforcement learning. *CoRR*, abs/1709.00103, 2017.

Ben Zhou, Daniel Khashabi, Qiang Ning, and Dan Roth. " going on a vacation" takes longer than" going for a walk": A study of temporal commonsense understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.03065*, 2019.

Jing Zhou, Yanan Zheng, Jie Tang, Jian Li, and Zhilin Yang. Flipda: Effective and robust data augmentation for few-shot learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2108.06332*, 2021.

Jing Zhou, Yanan Zheng, Jie Tang, Li Jian, and Zhilin Yang. FlipDA: Effective and robust data augmentation for few-shot learning. In *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 8646–8665, Dublin, Ireland, May 2022. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2022.acl-long.592. URL `https://aclanthology.org/2022.acl-long.592`.

Yaoming Zhu, Sidi Lu, Lei Zheng, Jiaxian Guo, Weinan Zhang, Jun Wang, and Yong Yu. Texygen: A benchmarking platform for text generation models. In *The 41st International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research & Development in Information Retrieval*, pp. 1097–1100, 2018.

A   APPENDIX

In this Appendix, we provide more experiment details about **KnowDA** in Sec. A.1. We introduce the diverse NLP tasks used in KoMT in Sec. A.3. We add additional experiment description about our data augmentation experiments in Sec. A.2 and A.4. We present the detailed data augmentation procedure in Sec. A.5. Finally, in Sec. A.6, we showcase representative FewGLUE examples generated by **KnowDA**.

A.1   EXPERIMENT DETAILS

Demonstration Selection in KoMT   As we discussed above, we use demonstration in KoMT to allow **KnowDA** to transfer task-specific knowledge. Given the training NLP instance T, we first conduct random masking to it and treat the resulting string as initial input string. We then select 16 instances from the same NLP task and check to see the maximum number of instances (i.e., m) can be inserted into the input string within the maximum input length. Lastly, we will randomly select k instances as demonstration where k is also a random number between 0 and m, which avoids **KnowDA** from relying on the demonstration too much. The only requirement for the demonstrations is that they should come from the same NLP task as the masked NLP task instance. In addition, even in KoMT, long NLP instance (i.e., input length close to maximum input length) may never be accompanied by any full demonstration examples.

Soft Prompt for Data Augmentation   We observe that, when **KnowDA** is trained to generate input text features, **KnowDA** generates relatively long text (e.g., a document for QA); when **KnowDA** is trained to generate output labels, it normally generates relatively short text (e.g., label phrases). To *disentangle* the different skills required for different roles, during KoMT, we prepend two sets of *Soft Prompt* (i.e, randomly-initialized trainable vectors) at the beginning of each layer. One for input text generation and another one for output text generation. Different from the standard prompt tuning, we train the parameters of **KnowDA** and these *Soft Prompt* together. We add 5 vectors per layer, resulting 5 * 24 * 1024 * 2 = 245,760 additional parameters (only 0.003% of the original T5-Large model). When applying **KnowDA** to downstream tasks, we should use the appropriate *Soft Prompt* for unsupervised generation or fine-tuning. Our preliminary experiments show that using different *Soft Prompt* has an significant impact on the overall performance.

A.2   FEWGLUE

In this section, we add more implementation details for the FewGLUE data augmentation experiments in Sec. 3.1. Appendix A.5 shows the details of data augmentation procedure for each FewGLUE task. In all FewGLUE tasks, when we need to update the parameters of **KnowDA**, we simply fine-tune **KnowDA** (i.e., updating all parameters) with batch size 12 with learning rate of $5e^{-6}$ for 500 steps. For fair comparison with FlipDA, we directly produce synthetic data and feed into the ALBERT and DeBERTa model for further training. Unlike FlipDA which creates synthetic instances from the few-shot instances, **KnowDA** produces synthetic instances *from scratch*. Consequently, there is no explicit linkage between the synthetic instances and the few-shot instances. We therefore use the ALBERT and DeBERTa model for *Consistency filtering*, which only keeps synthetic instances that have the consistent output results from **KnowDA** and the ALBERT and DeBERTa model. We find such filtering policy works as well as the complicated label-based filtering strategies proposed in FlipDA Zhou et al. (2021).

In this experiment, we use PET (either based on the ALBERT or DeBERTa model) as the base model. PET is a semi-supervised training algorithm that uses language-based patterns to convert the input training instances into cloze-style. For example, to predict whether "Mia likes pie" and "Mia hates pie" are entailed or not, PET covert them into "Mia likes pie __ Mia hates pie". The training objective is to train the PET model to fill "Yes" or "No". Note that given a target task, there could be multiple patterns. PET works as follows: 1) we train a separate PET model for each pattern on the same small training data; 2) The ensemble of all the above models is then combined to annotate a large unlabeled dataset; 3) the labeled dataset above is finally used to train a final classifier.

A.3 KoMT Task Details

Table 8 and 9 list all supervision NLP tasks in KoMT. They are all available from Huggingface Dataset Lhoest et al. (2021). Popular task types include QA, Multiple Choices, Text Classification, Text Summarization and Generation and Machine Reading comprehensive.

Table 8: All of the training NLP task datasets used in KoMT.

Dataset(s)	Description	No. Train Datasets	$|\mathcal{D}|$	Citation
ADECorpusV2	Text Classification	3	23,516	Gurulingappa et al. (2012)
Adversarial-QA	Natural Language QA	1	30,000	Bartolo et al. (2020b)
AESLC	Email Summarization	1	14,436	Zhang & Tetreault (2019)
AG-News	Text Classification	1	120,000	Zhang et al. (2015)
AI2-ARC	Multiple Choice	1	1,119	Clark et al. (2018)
ANLI	Adverserial NLI	1	162,865	Nie et al. (2020)
AppReviews	Text Scoring	1	288,065	Grano et al. (2017)
Aqua-RAT	Multiple Choice	1	97,467	Ling et al. (2017)
ART	NLI	1	169,654	Bhagavatula et al. (2019)
ASLG-PC12	Text Generation	1	87,710	Othman & Jemni (2012)
BioMRC	Machine Reading Comprehension	1	700,000	Pappas et al. (2020)
Break-Data	Question Decomposition Meaning Representations	2	61,824	Wolfson et al. (2020)
Circa	Text Classification	1	34,268	Louis et al. (2020)
Climate-Fever	Text Scoring	1	1,535	Diggelmann et al. (2020)
Codah	Multiple Choice	1	1,665	
Common-Gen	Text Generation	1	67,389	Lin et al. (2019a)
Commonsense-QA	Open Domain QA	1	9,741	Talmor et al. (2018)
COS-E	Text Generation	1	9,741	Rajani et al. (2019)
Cosmos-QA	Multiple Choice	1	25,262	Huang et al. (2019)
DBpedia14	Text Classification	1	560,000	Lehmann et al. (2015)
Definite-Pronoun-Resolution	Pronoun resolution	1	1,322	Rahman & Ng (2012)
Discovery	Text Classification	1	1,566,000	Sileo et al. (2019)
Dream	Multiple Choice	1	6,116	
DuoRC	Abstractive QA	1	60,721	Saha et al. (2018)
E2E-NLG-Cleaned	Text Generation	1	33,525	Dušek et al. (2020)
ELI5	Abstractive QA	1	502,937	Fan et al. (2019)
EMO	Text Classification	1	30,160	Chatterjee et al. (2019)
Emotion	Text Classification	1	16,000	Saravia et al. (2018)
Empathetic-Dialogues	Open Domain QA	1	76,673	Rashkin et al. (2019)
Financial-Phrasebank	Text Classification	1	2264	Malo et al. (2014)
FreebaseQA	Open Domain QA	1	20,358	Jiang et al. (2019)
Gigaword	Text Summarization	1	3,803,957	Rush et al. (2015)
GLUE	General Language Understanding	7	949,101	Wang et al. (2019)
GoogleWellformedQuery	Text Scoring	1	17,500	Faruqui & Das (2018)
HateSpeech18	Text Classification	1	10,944	De Gibert et al. (2018)
HateSpeechOffensive	Text Classification	1	24,783	Davidson et al. (2017)
Hatexplain	Text Classification	1	15,383	Mathew et al. (2020)
HealthFact	Text Classification	1	9,832	Kotonya & Toni (2020)
Hellaswag	Text Generation	1	39,905	Zellers et al. (2019)
HotpotQA	QA	1	90,447	Yang et al. (2018)
IMDb Reviews	Text Classification	1	25,000	Maas et al. (2011)
Jeopardy	Natural language QA	1	216,930	
KILT	Knowledge-Intensive Language Tasks	6	2,731,679	Petroni et al. (2021)
Liar	Fake News Detection, Text Classification	1	10,269	Wang (2017)
Limit	Text classification	1	23,559	Manotas et al. (2020)
MathQA	QA	1	29,837	Amini et al. (2019)
MC-Taco	Multiple Choice	1	9,442	Zhou et al. (2019)
Medical-Questions-Pairs	Text Classification	1	3048	McCreery et al. (2020)
Mocha	QA	1	31,069	Chen et al. (2020)
Multi-News	Text Summarization	1	44,972	Fabbri et al. (2019)
NumerSense	Numerical commonsense reasoning probing	1	10,444	Lin et al. (2020)
Onestop-English	Text Classification	1	567	Vajjala & Lučić (2018)
OpenBookQA	Open Domain QA	1	4,957	Mihaylov et al. (2018)
PAWS	Text Classification	1	49,401	Zhang et al. (2019)
PIQA	Multiple Choice	1	16,000	Bisk et al. (2020)
Poem-Sentiment	Text Classification	1	892	Sheng & Uthus (2020)
QA-SRL	Multiple Choice	1	6,414	He et al. (2015)
QASC	Multiple Choice	1	8,134	Khot et al. (2020)
QUAIL	Multiple Choice	1	10,246	Rogers et al. (2020)
QUAREL	Multiple Choice	1	1,941	Tafjord et al. (2019a)
QUARTZ	Multiple Choice	1	2,696	Tafjord et al. (2019b)
QUOREF	QA	1	19,399	Dasigi et al. (2019)
RACE	School QA (MCQ)	2	87,866	Lai et al. (2017)
Reddit-Tifu	Text Summarization	1	42,139	Kim et al. (2018)
Ropes	Extractive-QA	1	10,924	Lin et al. (2019b)
Rotten-Tomatoes	Text Classification	1	8,530	Pang & Lee (2005)
SamSum	Text Summarization	1	14,372	Gliwa et al. (2019)
Sentiment140	Text Classification	1	1,600,000	Go et al. (2009)
SCICite	Text Classification	1	8,194	Cohan et al. (2019)
SCIQ	Multiple Choice	1	11,679	Welbl et al. (2017)
SCITail	NLI	1	23,596	Khot et al. (2018)
Search-QA	QA	1	151,295	Dunn et al. (2017)
Sick	Text Classification	1	4,439	Marelli et al. (2014)

Table 9: All of the training datasets used in KoMT Part II.

Dataset(s)	Description	No. Train Datasets	$|\mathcal{D}|$	Citation
SMS-Spam	Text Classification	1	5,574	Almeida et al. (2011)
Social-I-QA	QA	1	33,410	Sap et al. (2019)
Spider	Text Generation	1	7,000	Yu et al. (2018)
SQuAD	QA (context)	1	87,599	Rajpurkar et al. (2016)
Swag	Text Classification	1	73,546	Zellers et al. (2018)
Tab-Fact	Text Classification	1	92,283	Chen et al. (2019)
TREC	Text Classification	1	5,452	Li & Roth (2002)
TweetEval	Text Classification	9	120,104	Mohammad et al. (2016)
TweetQA	Natural Language QA	1	10,692	Xiong et al. (2019)
WebQuestions	QA (open)	1	3,778	Berant et al. (2013)
WIQA	QA	1	29,808	Tandon et al. (2019)
Wiki-Bio	Text Generation	1	582,659	Lebret et al. (2016)
Wiki-QA	QA	1	20,360	Yang et al. (2015)
Wiki-Split	Text Split	1	989,944	Botha et al. (2018)
WikiSQL	NLI	1	56,355	Zhong et al. (2017)
XSum	Text Summarization	1	203,577	Narayan et al. (2018)
Yelp-Polarity	Text Classification	1	560,000	Zhang et al. (2015)
YelpReviewFull	Text Classification	1	650,000	Zhang et al. (2015)
Total		114		-

A.4 SEQUENCE LABELING TASKS

In this section, we add more implementation details for the sequence labeling data augmentation experiments in Sec. 3.3, including data augmentation procedure, training technologies and iteration-based training.

Data Augmentation Procedure `KnowDA` produces synthetic data via two steps:

1. Generating input sentences (without any entity annotations) via the sequence of named entity tags. This is similar to the *Output View* described in Wang et al. (2022).

2. Use `KnowDA` to label named entities for the generated input sentences.

For example, given a training sequence labeling data instance:

[*Org* **All Fishermen 's Association**] secretary [*Per* **N.J. Bose**] said the strike would continue indefinitely.

where ***Org*** corresponds to the entity label ***Organization*** and ***Per*** corresponds to the entity label ***Person***. In the **Stage 1**, the format of a training instances is:

Input: [Output Tags]: Organization and Person [Sentence]: ⟨MASK⟩
Target: All Fishermen 's Association secretary N.J. Bose said the strike would continue indefinitely.

As sequence labeling tasks mostly involves with short sentences, we train a copy of `KnowDA` to complete this step. In the **Stage 2**, following Aribandi et al. (2022), the format of a training instances is:

Input: [Output Tags]: ⟨MASK⟩ [Sentence]: All Fishermen 's Association secretary N.J. Bose said the strike would continue indefinitely.
Target: Organization All Fishermen 's Association; Person N.J. Bose.

Given the target outputs, we can easily map the entity strings back to the input sentences and obtain word-level BIO tags. Although this approach may fail when entity appears multiple times in the input sentence, we find such case rarely impact on the final labeling performance. We train a separated copy of `KnowDA` to complete this step.

Training KnowDA for Data Augmentation   Interestingly, similar to Wang et al. (2022), we find it beneficial to add *Soft Prompt* (i.e., trainable vectors prepended to each layer of PLM) when training **KnowDA** to label entities. In this paper, we directly use randomly-initialized *Soft Prompt* (rather than the pre-trained *Soft Prompt* in PromDA). When we train **KnowDA** to label entities in Stage 2, we frozen all parameters of **KnowDA** and only train the newly added *Soft Prompt* parameters with a learning rate of $1e^{-3}$. When we train **KnowDA** to generate input sentences, we simply fine-tune all **KnowDA** parameters with a learning rate of $5e^{-6}$.

Iteration-based Training   Given the low-resource training data, we first train **KnowDA** to generate synthetic input sentences without entity annotations, then train another copy of **KnowDA** to label entities over the synthetic input sentences. Interestingly, feeding these complete synthetic data, combined with few-shot training data, back to **KnowDA** can improve its entity labeling performance. **KnowDA** with stronger entity labeling performance can be used to annotate the synthetic input sentences again and produce better synthetic data. We thus iterate this process four times. In every iteration, the synthetic input sentences are fixed and we only update the entity annotations on these sentences. The iteration results, including **KnowDA**'s entity labeling performance and the performance of the BERT model trained with the corresponding synthetic data are shown in Table 4. These results are all averaged across five different random seeds and data splits.

A.5   FEWGLUE DATA AUGMENTATION PROCEDURE

In the task of BoolQ, RTE, CB, MultiRC and ReCoRD, we use **KnowDA** to generate long text without any further fine-tuning (i.e., zero-shot). All of these zero-shot components are in Blue with the **snow** mark. All components with fine-tuning are in Orange with the **fire** mark.

BoolQ   As shown in Figure 5, the data augmentation procedure for the task of BoolQ has three steps: i) generating article; ii) generating question and iii) generating the final answer (i.e., True or False). As **article** in BoolQ are often relatively long, we generate it directly from **KnowDA** without any fine-tuning (e.g., zero-shot). We further separately fine-tune **KnowDA** for the rest two steps.

Figure 5: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of BoolQ.

RTE   As shown in Figure 6, the data augmentation procedure for the task of RTE has three steps: i) generating premise; ii) generating hypothesis and iii) generating the final relation label (i.e., whether premise and hypothesis are entailment). As **premise** in RTE are often relatively long, we generate it directly from **KnowDA** without any fine-tuning (e.g., zero-shot). We further separately fine-tune **KnowDA** for the rest two steps.

Figure 6: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of RTE.

CB As shown in Figure 7, the data augmentation procedure for the task of CB has three steps: i) generating premise; ii) generating hypothesis and iii) generating the final relation label (i.e., whether premise and hypothesis are entailment). As **premise** in CB are often relatively long, we generate it directly from **KnowDA** without any fine-tuning (e.g., zero-shot). The premise text in CB are often dialogue-based, which is different from commonly seen premise in other NLI tasks. We therefore use the key "text" and full demonstrations to generate synthetic data for CB premise. We further separately fine-tune **KnowDA** for the rest two steps.

Figure 7: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of CB.

MultiRC As shown in Figure 8, the data augmentation procedure for the task of MultiRC has four steps: i) generating document; ii) generating question; iii) generating answer and iv) generating label (i.e., whether the article, question and answer are correct). As **document** in MultiRC are often relatively long, we generate it directly from **KnowDA** without any fine-tuning (e.g., zero-shot). We further separately fine-tune **KnowDA** for the rest three steps.

Figure 8: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of MultiRC.

WiC As shown in Figure 9, the data augmentation procedure for the task of WiC has two steps: i) generating the disambiguation word as well as the sentence pair containing the above word for selection; ii) generating final result (i.e., whether the words in the sentence pair have the same meaning). We fine-tune **KnowDA** for both steps.

Figure 9: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of WiC.

WSC As shown in Figure 10, the data augmentation procedure for the task of WSC has two steps: i) generating the sentences that include the noun (e.g., person name) and pronoun which refers to the previous noun; ii) generating final result (i.e., whether the noun and pronoun refer to the same entity, such as specific person). We fine-tune **KnowDA** for both steps.

Figure 10: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of WSC.

COPA   As shown in Figure 11, the data augmentation procedure for the task of COPA has two steps: i) generating new premise text given the options and questions. This is because given the premise and question, there could be many possible options to be generated. We find those generated synthetic data contributes little to the ALBERT and DeBERTa model performance in our preliminary experiments; ii) generating final answer (i.e., which option is correct given the premise and question). We fine-tune **KnowDA** for both steps.

Figure 11: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of COPA.

ReCoRD   As shown in Figure 12, the data augmentation procedure for the task of ReCoRD has four steps: i) generating document; ii) generating entity list; iii) generating query text and iv) verifying the answer by generating the entity. As **document** in ReCoRD are often relatively long, we generate it directly from **KnowDA** without any fine-tuning (e.g., zero-shot). We further separately fine-tune **KnowDA** for the rest three steps. When generating query, we generating full sentences without any placeholder. We will create placeholder for the query text if there is an entity appearing in the query text and the entity list.

Figure 12: The Data Augmentation Procedure for the task of ReCoRD.

A.6   CASE STUDY

In this section, we select eight representative examples from **KnowDA** in the FewGLUE benchmark (i.e., one example for each task). In the task of BoolQ, RTE, CB, MultiRC and ReCoRD, we use **KnowDA** to generate long text without any further fine-tuning (i.e., zero-shot). We show that **KnowDA** could produce high-quality text with similar styles in this challenging setting. In the task of COPA, WSC and WiC, we find that after task-specfic fine-tuning, **KnowDA** could also generate appropriate text.

BoolQ   In the original BoolQ training data, there are some instances about biography of famous athletes. **KnowDA** successfully produce another detailed, coherent and long athlete biography from the keys and demonstration examples, showing the success of KoMT.

> **Article**: Selena Grace Anderson (born December 9, 1987) is an American football wide receiver for the University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB). She was drafted by the New Orleans Saints in the third round of the 2011 NFL Draft. She played college football at Syracuse. **Questions**: Is Selena Grace a basketball player? **Answer**: False

RTE   Similar to the BoolQ task, many instances in the RTE task have long value in **Premise**. **KnowDA** successfully produce long and high-quality text for Premise only using key and demonstrations.

> **Hypothesis**: Fort Lauderdale is part of the United States. **Premise**: The Millennium State Highway (the New Millennium) is a west-bound U.S. highway that runs for 183 miles (195 km) between the cities of Fort Lauderdale and Fort Lauderdale-Davis, Florida. Developed by the Federal Highway Administration in 1956, it is one of the major arterial roads in the U.S. **Answer**: entailment

CB   In the CB task, unlike above Wikipedia-style text, some instances are drawn from special domains, such as fiction (i.e., from British National Corpus) and spoken dialogue (i.e., from Switchboard). **KnowDA** still generate long text following these special styles.

> **Hypothesis**: Jools Holland was the director of the movies. **Premise**: And who is the director of the movies in England? said Jools Holland who said he hoped we'd get some film or television. **Answer**: contradiction

COPA   In this example, the original premise in the training is "The customer filed a complaint with the store manager.". Given options and question, **KnowDA** could generate different but coherent premise text.

> **Premise**: The customer was upset. **Solution1**: The sales associate undercharged the customer. **Solution2**: The sales associate acted rude to the customer. **Question**: What is the cause for this? **Answer**: 2

WSC   In the WSC task, **KnowDA** directly generates the whole Premise text with the noun and pronoun work marked with "*". The generated text are coherent: the pronoun "he" clearly refers to "Toby". This shows that **KnowDA** has strong few-shot ability because it could quickly learn this pattern from only 32 examples.

> **Premise**: Stan's son *Toby* was playing football with his friends when *he* was injured . **Answer**: True

WiC   In the WiC task, **KnowDA** directly generates word and the two sentences. The generated results follow the WiC data format: the sentence pair needs to include the word *hand*. This shows that **KnowDA** has strong few-shot ability because it could quickly learn this pattern from only 32 examples.

> **sentence1**: You look like someone hand you a book. **sentence2**: I pushed a hand against a table. **word**: hand **Answer**: False

MultiRC   **KnowDA** further demonstrate its ability in generating long text. The style of the article is similar to the training data in MultiRC. **KnowDA** also generates high-quality questions given the long article. This shows that **KnowDA** could make use the same skills for different tasks (e.g., in BoolQ, **KnowDA** also generates good questions).

> **Article**: The women and two men were abducted on Thursday by students on their way to class in the Cambridge St Andrews Catholic Primary School. The child had been released in April after getting school clothes, but police believe there was too much blood on her

leg. The condition of the pupils is not known. The Catholic school, which opened in 1962, has a special focus on education. Sisters and brothers from the school remain trapped in the school, a service which has been called a miracle. It is the first such ever celebration of modern education. **Question**: What school opened in 1962? **Answer**: Cambridge St Andrews Catholic Primary School **Label**: True

ReCoRD   In the ReCoRD task, there are a few instances talk about Ukraine. Interestingly, through the demonstration, `KnowDA` successfully generates another high quality piece of text regarding this topic.

Passage Ukraine's prime minister has said it is not encouraging tense talks between President Vladimir Putin and the opposition in order to expel the dissident republican leader. Ukraine's chief prosecutor accused Mr Putin of refusing to cooperate with the independent opposition, alleging that he had been building a grudge against the republican group. He was confronted in Chechnya on Sunday, but was not allowed to hold talks with the opposition. Ukraine was moved to emergency status as a result of its violations of the ceasefire with Russia after protests in Kiev and Shenyang over the halt to other steps. President Vladimir Putin denies intelligence evidence that Kiev has been preparing a terror campaign to combat the rebel group. Ukraine said in the statement on Monday that it was preparing a prosecution, though there is no evidence linking the attacks to what is known as a parallel deal between the two main parties in the region. The two sides' treatment of each other in Kiev is said to have been a hostile act, with officers accusing Putin of triggering a war, while the opposition, which is not a ally of the Russians, denies any involvement. **Query** Mr Putin is not allowed to hold talks with the opposition in @placeholder because it would violate the ceasefire, Yuriy Yatsenyuk said. **Answer** Chechnya

A.7 MORE ANALYSIS

The impact of the number of demonstration exemplars   In this experiment, we expand the analysis in Section 3.3.1 to investigate the impact of the number of demonstration exemplars. Table 10 shows the PET ALBERT model performance in the task of RTE and CB when using k demonstration exemplars where $k = 0,1,2,3$. The performance gap between the `KnowDA` model without exemplars and the one with exemplars is much larger than the `KnowDA` models using a different number of exemplars. Thus, it is important to use exemplars in the `KnowDA` model, but its data augmentation performance is relatively robust to the choices of the number of exemplars.

Table 10: The impact of the number of demonstration exemplars in the PET ALBERT model.

Method	RTE (Acc.)	CB. (Acc./F1)
0 exemplar	74.9	85.0 / 77.3
1 exemplar	78.1	87.7 / 83.9
2 exemplars	78.7	89.6 / 85.4
3 exemplars	78.9	89.1 / 85.0