

# Cost-Efficient Subjective Task Annotation and Modeling through Few-Shot Annotator Adaptation

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## Abstract

In subjective NLP tasks, where a single ground truth does not exist, the inclusion of diverse annotators becomes crucial as their unique perspectives significantly influence the annotations. In realistic scenarios, the annotation budget often becomes the main determinant of the number of perspectives (i.e., annotators) included in the data and subsequent modeling. We introduce a novel framework for annotation collection and modeling in subjective tasks that aims to minimize the annotation budget while maximizing the predictive performance for each annotator. Our framework has a two-stage design: first, we rely on a small set of annotators to build a multitask model, and second, we augment the model for a new perspective by strategically annotating a few samples per annotator. To test our framework at scale, we introduce and release a unique dataset, Moral Foundations Subjective Corpus, of 2000 Reddit posts annotated by 24 annotators for moral sentiment. We demonstrate that our framework surpasses the previous SOTA in capturing the annotators' individual perspectives with as little as 25% of the original annotation budget on two datasets. Furthermore, our framework results in more equitable models, reducing the performance disparity among annotators.

## 1 Introduction

The common pipeline for supervised learning in Natural Language Processing (NLP) starts by collecting annotations from multiple annotators. These annotations are often aggregated through majority voting (Talat and Hovy, 2016) to construct a *ground truth* or *gold standard* on which the subsequent modeling is performed. In recent years, researchers have advocated for a transition from single ground-truth labels to annotator-level modeling, aiming to capture diverse perspectives, enhance contextual understanding, and incorporate cultural nuances (Uma et al., 2021), and have proposed different frameworks that take into account

unique perspectives of the annotators by modeling them as separate subtasks (Davani et al., 2022; Kanclerz et al., 2022).

The impact of individual annotators' backgrounds and life experiences on annotations in subjective tasks signifies the importance of incorporating a diverse set of annotators. Nevertheless, the primary constraint on achieving this diversity is often the annotation budget, limiting the number and, consequently, the diversity of perspectives considered. In this paper, we introduce a novel framework for annotation collection and modeling in subjective tasks. Our framework is designed to minimize the annotation budget required to model a fixed number of annotators, while maximizing the predictive performance for each annotator.

Our framework operates in two stages. In the first stage, data is collected from a small pool of annotators. This data serves as a foundation for building a multitask model that captures the general patterns for the task and provides a signal of differences among individual annotators. Informed by the first stage annotations, the second stage involves collecting a few samples from each new annotator that best capture their differences from the general patterns. We use this data to augment the model from the first stage to learn the new annotators' perspective from a few examples (Figure 1).

We introduce a unique dataset that enables the study of detecting moral content, an understudied subjective task, at a scale that was not possible before<sup>1</sup>. The Moral Foundations Subjective Corpus (MFSC) is a collection of 2000 Reddit posts, each annotated by 24 annotators for moral content along with annotators' responses to a range of psychological questionnaires (§4.1). We use the MFSC dataset in conjunction with the Brexit Hate Dataset (Akhtar et al., 2021) to extensively study each component of our proposed framework. We evaluate our framework on three models: RoBERTa-Base,

<sup>1</sup>The dataset will be released as part of the accepted paper

083 RoBERTa-Large, and Llama-3. In section 5.1, we  
084 demonstrate the efficacy of our framework in cap-  
085 turing diverse annotator perspectives under budget  
086 constraints. Our framework achieves a 4% increase  
087 in  $F_1$  score with access to just 50% of the anno-  
088 tation budget in hate speech detection, and a 2%  
089 gain in moral sentiment detection with as little as  
090 25% of the original annotation budget. Further-  
091 more, we evaluate the efficiency of our framework  
092 in scaling to more annotators, i.e., incorporating a  
093 new annotator into an already existing annotated  
094 dataset and model through our second-stage few-  
095 shot adaptation. Our results show an  $F_1$  score gain  
096 of 9% and 4% in the Brexit and MFSC datasets,  
097 respectively, demonstrating the scalability of our  
098 framework. Next, in section 5.2, we show that  
099 our proposed framework yields a more equitable  
100 model by minimizing performance disparity across  
101 annotators. Specifically, in the lowest budget sce-  
102 narios, our approach reduces the standard deviation  
103 of the performance across annotators by 7% in hate  
104 speech detection and by 1% in moral sentiment  
105 classification. Finally, in section 5.3, we extend  
106 our analysis to investigate whether the selection of  
107 the initial set of annotators in the first stage of our  
108 framework affects the model’s performance.

109 Our experiments on two subjective datasets re-  
110 vealed that our framework consistently surpasses  
111 previous state-of-the-art models with access to as  
112 little as 25% of the original annotation budget.  
113 In addition, our framework produced more equi-  
114 table models with reduced performance disparities  
115 among the annotators. By minimizing data require-  
116 ments, our cost-efficient framework for subjective  
117 tasks enables us to scale the number of included  
118 annotators and, hence, improve the diversity of  
119 captured perspectives. Furthermore, the two-stage  
120 design of our framework facilitates the integration  
121 of new annotators into pre-existing datasets.

## 122 2 Related Work

123 **Subjective Tasks in NLP:** In recent years, the vari-  
124 ety of tasks for which NLP is used has significantly  
125 expanded. In many of these tasks, a single ground  
126 truth does not exist, making them inherently *sub-*  
127 *jective* in nature. In subjective tasks, researchers  
128 have argued that disagreements in particular labels  
129 should not be treated as statistical noise (Larimore  
130 et al., 2021; Pavlick and Kwiatkowski, 2019; Plank,  
131 2022), as they are often indicative of individual dif-  
132 ferences which are driven by different backgrounds

133 and lived experiences of the annotators (Akhtar  
134 et al., 2019; Plank et al., 2014; Prabhakaran et al.,  
135 2021; Díaz et al., 2018; Garten et al., 2019; Ferracane  
136 et al., 2021). For example, Davani et al. (2023)  
137 revealed how the stereotypes of annotators influ-  
138 ence their behavior when annotating hate speech.  
139 In a similar context, Sap et al. (2021) demonstrate  
140 that annotators’ identity and beliefs impact their  
141 ratings of toxicity. Sang and Stanton (2022) con-  
142 ducted a study showing that differences in age and  
143 personality among annotators result in variations  
144 in their annotations. Larimore et al. (2021) ex-  
145 plored how annotators’ perceptions of racism differ  
146 based on their own racial identity. Basile (2020)  
147 calls for a paradigm shift away from majority ag-  
148 gregated ground truths, and towards representative  
149 frameworks preserving unique perspectives of the  
150 annotators. In their later work, Basile et al. (2021)  
151 define the phenomena of *Data Perspectivism*, and  
152 share recommendations and outlines to advance the  
153 perspectivist stance in machine learning.

154 **Capturing the Perspectives:** One method for  
155 learning directly from crowd annotations is using  
156 soft loss, where the probability distributions of item  
157 labels are used as soft targets in a loss function (Pe-  
158 terson et al., 2019). However, this approach does  
159 not provide individual predictions for annotators,  
160 making it unsuitable for subjective tasks that re-  
161 quire such specificity. To capture annotator-level  
162 labels, Akhtar et al. (2020) proposed dividing anno-  
163 tators into groups based on similar personal char-  
164 acteristics and creating different sets of gold stan-  
165 dards for each group. Kanclerz et al. (2022) and  
166 Deng et al. (2023) incorporated knowledge about  
167 annotators into their models to make them person-  
168 alized. Davani et al. (2022) propose a multitask  
169 approach, modeling each annotators’ perspective  
170 as a subtask, while having a shared encoder across  
171 the subtasks. Baumler et al. (2023) and Wang and  
172 Plank (2023) propose active learning methods for  
173 reducing the budget of data collection by propos-  
174 ing methods for collecting samples based on model  
175 confidence and annotators’ disagreement. Casola  
176 et al. (2023) also proposes ensembling perspective-  
177 aware models based on their confidence.

## 178 3 Method

179 **Problem Formulation:** To formalize the task, sup-  
180 pose we have a set of annotators  $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$   
181 and input texts  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$  and their cor-  
182 responding annotations  $Y = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m\}$ . Let

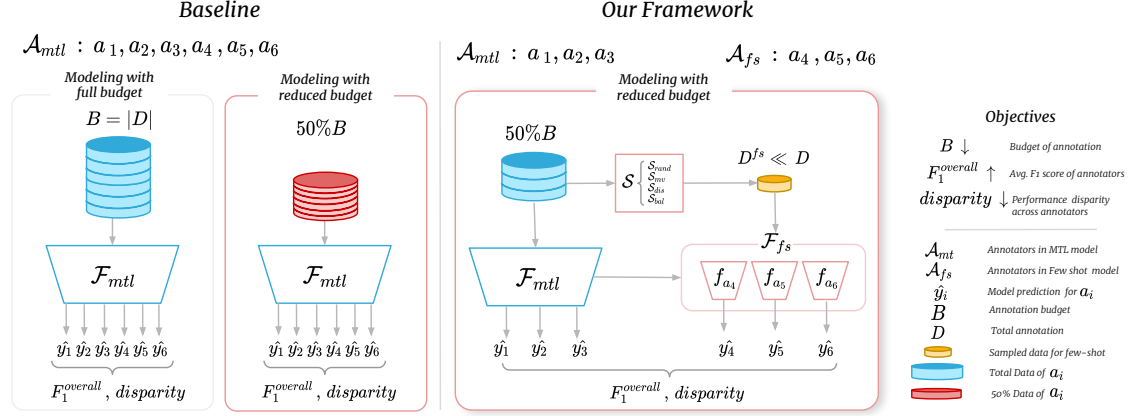


Figure 1: **Left:** The baseline approach for annotator-level modeling, in full and reduced budget scenarios. **Right:** Our two-stage proposed framework, designed to achieve the outlined objectives

$D = \{D_{a_i} | a_i \in \mathcal{A}\}$  be the entire annotations and  $D_{a_i} = \{X_{a_i}, Y_{a_i}\}$  denote data collected from annotator  $a_i$ . Then the budget  $B = |D|$  is defined as the total number of annotations collected. Let  $\mathcal{F} = \{f_{a_i} | a_i \in \mathcal{A}\}$  and  $f_{a_i}$  denote the model capturing labels assigned by annotator  $a_i$ .

**Proposed Framework:** We design our framework with two objectives: first, maximizing the average performance over all annotators. Second, minimizing the budget ( $B$ ) required to achieve the first goal. The second objective allows us to increase the number of annotators’ perspectives ( $|\mathcal{A}|$ ) captured with a given budget. Our framework design is based on two key intuitions. Firstly, as shown in Figure 3, multitask learning (the orange line), which has often been treated as the upper bound by previous work, does not always improve in performance as the number of annotators grows. Secondly, even in subjective tasks, there exists a substantial number of texts on which annotators mostly agree, particularly when these texts are randomly drawn from a source. Therefore, obtaining many annotations on such instances is not beneficial in learning a new perspective. In line with these intuitions, our framework consists of two stages (Figure 1). In the first stage, we learn the commonalities between annotators through a multitask model  $\mathcal{F}_{mtl}$ . A crucial difference of our approach in comparison to previous multitask methods is that we only collect annotations from a small subset of annotators  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl} \subset \mathcal{A}$ . In the second stage, we learn the perspectives of new annotators  $\mathcal{A}_{fs} = \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  with only a few shots. Specifically, we collect annotations for  $k$  input texts  $\mathcal{S}(X) \subset X$ , where  $\mathcal{S}$  is a sampling function that ideally helps in capturing

patterns specific to individual annotators’ perspectives. Let  $D_{a_i}^{fs} = \{(x, y_{a_i}) | x \in \mathcal{S}(X)\}$  and  $|\mathcal{D}_{a_i}^{fs}| = k \ll |D_{a_i}|$ . We initialize  $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}_{fs}}$  with  $\mathcal{F}_{mtl}$  and train it on  $D_{a_i}^{fs}$ .

**Sampling Function ( $\mathcal{S}$ ):** We explore four different sampling functions: 1)  $\mathcal{S}_{rand}$ : selects a random sample for each annotator 2)  $\mathcal{S}_{mv}$ : selects a balanced sample determined by the majority vote of the annotators. For a set of annotators  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$ , we calculate the majority vote among these annotators and select  $k$  samples that have an equal number of each label based on that majority vote. 3)  $\mathcal{S}_{dis}$  selects the samples from  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  with highest disagreement score, and 4)  $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$  acts as an oracle, selecting a balanced sample based on a specific annotator’s label, not the majority vote. Therefore, if we have a new annotator,  $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$  would select a balanced sample based on the annotations of that specific annotator. One frequent challenge in some subjective tasks is the heavy imbalance in class frequencies. Hence, we chose  $\mathcal{S}_{mv}$  and  $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$  to provide a more balanced sample to the few-shot model for each annotator. We added  $\mathcal{S}_{dis}$  with the goal of providing samples that differentiate the individual annotator perspectives to the model. We use the “item disagreement” and “annotator disagreement” measures from Davani et al. (2023) to select samples in  $\mathcal{S}_{dis}$ .

## 4 Experiments

### 4.1 Datasets

We run experiments on two datasets annotated for subjective tasks: Brexit Hate dataset (Akhtar et al., 2021) and the Moral Foundations Subjective Corpus (MFSC), which we created as part of this work

to explore this less-studied subjective task. Both datasets contain per-annotator labels for instances, with every instance being annotated by all annotators. This ensures that any observed performance gains are attributed to our method, rather than the specific samples annotated by each annotator. Additionally, we evaluate our framework on the Gab Hate Corpus (GHC; Kennedy et al., 2018), where the number of annotations by different annotators varies. Detailed experiments and results for this dataset are presented in Appendix C.2.

**Moral Foundations Subjective Corpus (MFSC):** We introduce the Moral Foundations Subjective Corpus (MFSC), a new dataset consisting of 2000 Reddit posts annotated by 24 annotators for moral sentiment based on the Moral Foundations Theory (MFT; Graham et al., 2013; Atari et al., 2023). Morality, being a subjective concept heavily influenced by cultural backgrounds (Graham et al., 2016), has not been extensively explored in the NLP community.

Each sample in the MFSC is annotated with a binary label indicating moral sentiment:  $1$  if the sentence pertains to morality and  $0$  if it does not. We utilize this binary moral/non-moral label in our experiments. Additionally, we have collected more fine-grained labels of morality, which are detailed in the Appendix A. Examples of the dataset and their annotations for moral sentiment are presented in Table 1. The demographics of the annotators are provided in Appendix A.1.

MFSC examples	$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$	$a_4$	$a_5$	$a_6$
You're a horrible person, and deserve the same thing to happen to you.	1	1	1	1	1	1
As an expat Brit, I was moved: What a brilliant unifying speech. Here's fingers crossed for you USA.	1	0	0	1	1	1
That meal is insane compared to what we got. Don't think we ever had fresh veg/fruit.	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 1: Examples from the MFSC dataset with binary labels for moral sentiment. The examples show the labels provided by 6 out of 24 annotators.

**Brexit Hate dataset:** Hate speech detection has become one of the primary subjective tasks studied in the NLP community (Akhtar et al., 2019; Sang and Stanton, 2022; Sap et al., 2021). The Brexit Hate dataset (Brexit) introduced by Akhtar et al. (2021), consists of 1,120 English tweets collected with keywords related to immigration and Brexit. The dataset was annotated with hate speech (in particular xenophobia and islamophobia), aggressiveness, offensiveness, and stereotype, by six annotators belonging to two distinct groups: a tar-

get group of three Muslim immigrants in the UK, and a control group who were researchers with Western background. For our experiments, we use the overall hate label.

Table 2 provides the datasets' statistics, including Fleiss's kappa (Fleiss, 1971), which measures the inter-annotator agreement. The low agreement values highlight the subjective nature of these tasks. Furthermore, the '%Pos.' column in Table 2 shows the class imbalance in these datasets and the scarcity of positive class annotations. For example, in the Brexit dataset, only 12% of samples, on average, were labeled as "Hate".

Dataset	Size	$ \mathcal{A} $	Kappa	%Pos.
Brexit	1120	6	0.34	12.86
MFSC (Moral)	2000	24	0.26	63.69

Table 2: Statistics of the datasets used in our experiments.  $|\mathcal{A}|$  denotes the number of annotators, Kappa represents Fleiss's kappa inter-annotator agreement, and %Pos. indicates the average percentage of positive class annotations across annotators.

## 4.2 Experiment Setup

We designed our experiments to study the impact of each component of the framework towards our two objectives: maximizing average performance and minimizing annotation budget.

We use multitask learning (MTL) on all the annotators as our baseline and assess the efficacy of our framework compared to this baseline in capturing individual annotators' perspectives under a range of budget constraints. Specifically, for our approach, we vary the budget  $B$  by changing the size of  $|\mathcal{A}_{mtl}|$ . Recall that  $B = |D| = \sum |D_{a_i}|$  and  $|D_{a_i}^{fs}| = k \ll |D_{a_i}|$ . Also, recall that under our proposed framework the annotators  $\mathcal{A}$  are divided into two sets  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  and  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$ . Since the cost of annotating a few samples per new annotator is negligible ( $\frac{|D_{a_i}^{fs}|}{|D_{a_i}|}$  is close to 0) the budget under our proposed framework can be reduced to

$$\begin{aligned}
 B_{ours} &\approx \sum_{a_i \in \mathcal{A}_{mtl}} |D_{a_i}| \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{a_i \in \mathcal{A}_{mtl}} |D_{a_i}|}{\sum_{a_i \in \mathcal{A}} |D_{a_i}|} \times B = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_{mtl}|}{|\mathcal{A}|} \times B
 \end{aligned}$$

For example, the MFSC dataset has  $|\mathcal{A}| = 24$  annotators. Hence,  $25\%B$  shows the scenarios where  $|\mathcal{A}_{mtl}| = 6$ . Whereas, for the baseline, we vary

the budget  $B$  by changing the size of  $D_{a_i}$  for all annotators. In the given example, a 25% $B$  for the baseline means using only 25% of  $D_{a_i}$  for each  $a_i$ .

To ensure that our results are not driven by the specific choices of  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$ , we run our experiments for each budget on multiple samples of  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl} \subset \mathcal{A}$ . Specifically, we run our models with all possible choices of  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  for Brexit dataset and 20 different samples of  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  for the MFSC dataset.

For each annotator  $a_i$ ,  $F_1^{a_i}$  denotes the performance on predicting  $a_i$ 's labels. We use  $F_1^{fs}$  and  $F_1^{mtl}$  to denote the average of  $F_1^{a_i}$  scores when  $a_i \in \mathcal{A}_{fs}$  and  $a_i \in \mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  respectively. For our framework, we also calculate the overall performance for all annotators  $F_1^{\text{overall}}$  as the weighted average of  $F_1^{fs}$  and  $F_1^{mtl}$ .

### 4.3 Implementation Details

We evaluate our framework using three base models: RoBERTa (both base and large versions) (Liu et al., 2019), and Llama-3 (Touvron et al., 2023).

**Roberta Models:** All multitask models undergo hyperparameter tuning for learning rate and weight decay (see Appendix D.1) and are trained for 5 epochs. The best model is selected based on the validation  $F_1$  score, and its optimal hyperparameters are also applied in the few-shot stage. All models converge within 5 epochs for MTL and 50 epochs for few-shot learning. To ensure robustness, experiments are repeated with three random seeds. **Llama-3:** We use Llama-3-8b and employ LoRA (Low-Rank Adaptation; Hu et al., 2021) for fine-tuning. We conduct hyperparameter tuning for LoRA parameters, in addition to learning rate and weight decay. In the second stage of our framework, we use the same set of hyperparameters determined in the first stage for few-shot adaptation. The hyperparameters used in our MTL training, along with other variables, are shown in Table 7.

For all models, we use the *AdamW* optimizer. For the Brexit dataset, we utilize predefined train, validation, and test splits provided within the dataset<sup>2</sup>, and we employ a weighted random sampler to account for the imbalance in the labels of each annotator. For the MFSC dataset, we allocate 80% for training, 10% for validation, and the remaining 10% for testing.

In the few-shot stage, we experiment with four different values of  $k$  (16, 32, 64, and 128). We report the results for  $k = 128$  in the next section,

<sup>2</sup><https://le-wi-di.github.io/>

while the experiments for other values of  $k$  are provided in Appendix D.

## 5 Results and Analysis

### 5.1 Towards Better Performance with Less Annotation Budget

Figure 2 shows the overall  $F_1$  scores of our framework for two datasets across varying budgets, evaluated using three different base models. We observe that our framework consistently outperforms the baseline, particularly at lower budget levels. More importantly, our method surpasses the baseline trained with 100% of the budget using as little as 25% of the original budget across all three base models, demonstrating its model-agnostic efficacy.

Specifically, at the lowest budget level in the Brexit dataset, our framework with balanced sampling ( $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$ ) achieves performance gains of 5%, 14%, and 5% compared to the baseline when trained with RoBERTa-Base, RoBERTa-Large, and Llama-3, respectively. Compared to the full budget, our method shows a gain of 3.8% with RoBERTa-Large and 3.38% with Llama-3 using only 50% of the original budget, and a gain of 4.34% with RoBERTa-Base using 66% of the budget.

For the MFSC dataset, our framework, regardless of the sampling method, outperforms the baseline across all budget levels with the RoBERTa-Base and RoBERTa-Large models. Additionally, with the Llama-3 model at 25% of the budget, our method has 4% gain compared to baseline.

These findings demonstrate the success of our framework in achieving its dual objectives: enhancing performance across all annotators while reducing annotation budget requirements. We also conduct an ablation study by omitting the first MTL stage and employing random few-shot sampling for each annotator. Additionally, we compare our framework with more baselines (see Appendix B).

**Incorporating a New Annotator:** The second stage of our framework suggests that few-shot adaptation not only allows us to integrate a new annotator into an already existing model with minimal budget, but also maintains the annotator's performance. To validate this ability, in Figure 3 we compare the performance of the second stage of our framework ( $F_1^{fs}$ ) with the baseline.

For the Brexit dataset,  $F_1^{fs}$  scores exceed the baseline across all base models by 9.28%, 8.47%, and 5.07%, respectively. The balanced sampling ( $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$ ) method consistently performs well across

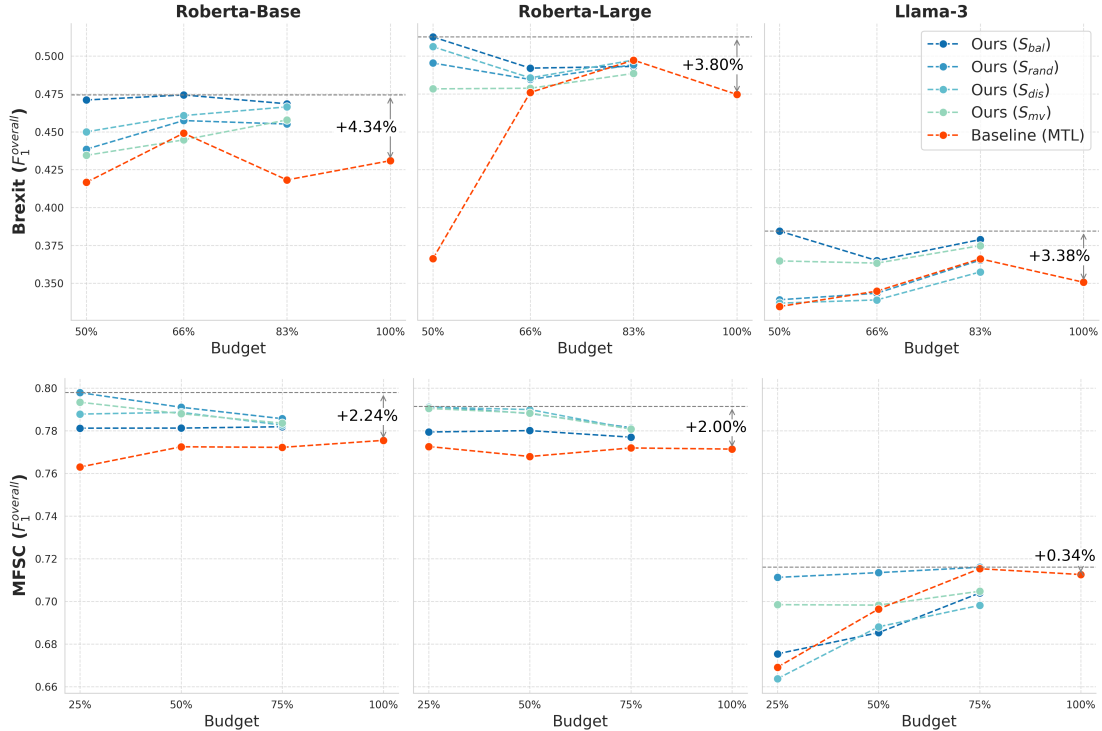


Figure 2: Overall  $F_1$  score ( $F_1^{overall}$ ) of our framework compared to the baseline across all three base models on both datasets. We observe a **3.8%** performance gain with only 50% of the annotation budget on Brexit dataset, and **2.24%** gain with 25% of the annotation budget on MFSC dataset, on the best performing base models.

all models. Similarly, for the MFSC dataset, our framework achieves higher  $F_1^{fs}$  scores regardless of sampling method, except with Llama-3 model.

Overall, our results on both datasets show that the few-shot stage of our framework results in models that outperform the multitask learning baseline. **Base Model Comparison:** Generally, the RoBERTa models perform better than the Llama-3 model in MTL setting. Llama-3 model, despite undergoing the most hyperparameter search and utilizing the most GPU hours to find optimal parameters, still performs significantly poorer than the other two models, especially when fine-tuned in a few-shot setting. A potential reason for this disparity is that larger models like Llama-3, while generally more capable, require extensive hyperparameter tuning to optimize their performance. Additionally, they have stronger biases, making it more challenging to adapt them to different perspectives (Naveed et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023).

## 5.2 Reduced Performance Disparities across Annotators

Ensuring a comprehensive representation of annotators' viewpoints is crucial in modeling subjective tasks. To achieve this goal, a critical criterion is

to create models that not only improve the aggregated performance but also demonstrate fair and equitable performance across all annotators. For example, if the  $F_1$  scores of one model for two annotators are 0.6 and 0.8, respectively, while the second model scores 0.7 for both annotators, the latter is considered a better model. Although the average performance is the same for both models, the first model has a disparate negative impact on the first annotator. This is important because performance disparities among social groups (in our case annotators) can lead to biased models, limiting the system's ability to accurately reflect diverse perspectives and potentially perpetuating inequalities in the outputs of subjective tasks (Buolamwini and Gebru, 2018). Merely relying on aggregated performance measures, such as the average across all annotators, fails to provide a comprehensive understanding of how well the model captures the varying perspectives of different annotators. For instance, it remains unclear whether the average performance improves because the approach better captures the perspectives of all the annotators or only a subset of them. Hence, we look into the standard deviation of performance across all annotators as a measure of performance disparity:

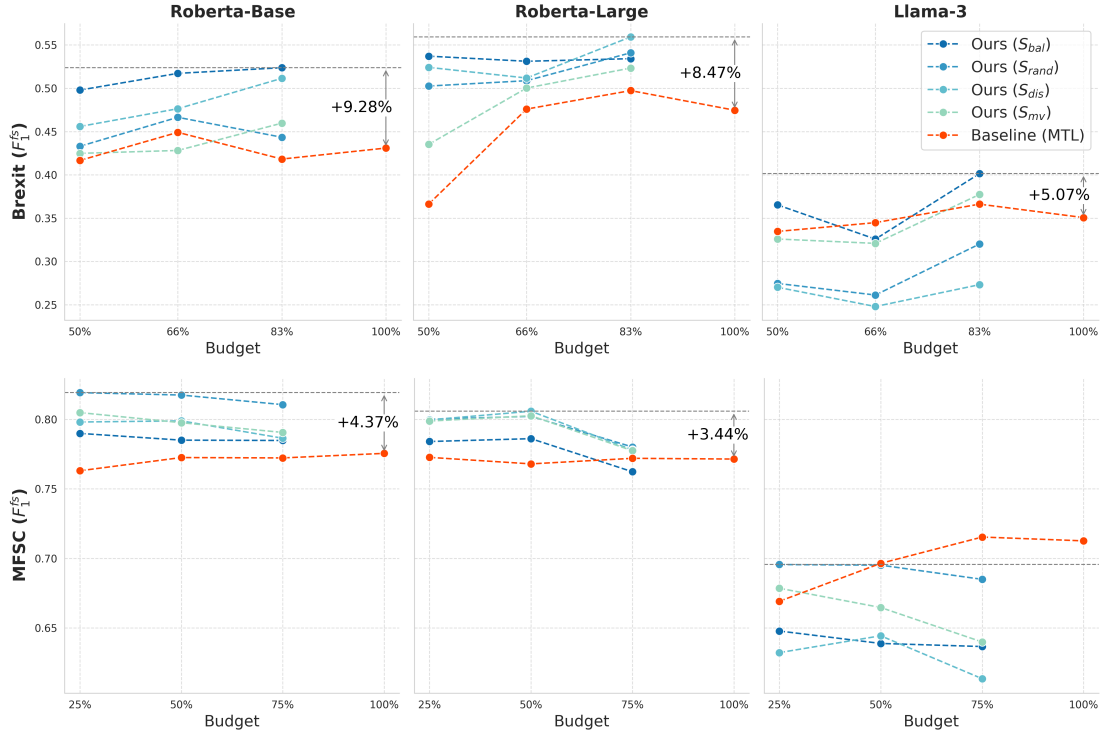


Figure 3: Few-shot  $F_1$  score ( $F_1^{fs}$ ) of our framework compared to the baseline across all three base models on both datasets. We observe a **8.47%** performance gain with 83% of the annotation budget on Brexit dataset, and **4.37%** gain with 25% of the annotation budget on MFSC dataset, on the best performing base models.

$d = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (F_1^{a_i} - \overline{F_1^{overall}})^2}$ . Lower standard deviations indicate more equitable models.

As shown in Table 3, our approach results in lower performance disparities ( $d$ ) compared to the MTL baseline regardless of the base model, across all budgets for the MFSC dataset. For the Brexit dataset, this improvement is observed at lower budgets (50% and 66%). Among the various sampling strategies, the balanced sampling strategy ( $S_{bal}$ ) consistently results in lower  $d$  for MFSC dataset. When comparing different base models, the lowest  $d$  is achieved using RoBERTa-Base model. Specifically, for the MFSC dataset, there is a 1.1% reduction in  $d$  at 25% of the budget compared to the baseline, and for the Brexit dataset, there is a 7.5% reduction in  $d$  at 50% of the budget. Figure 4 visualizes this model’s performance in comparison to the MTL baseline for each annotator. Notably, our framework improves performance for annotators in the non-Western control group (i.e., the first three annotators) while maintaining the performance of the remaining annotators.

Overall, these findings suggest that our proposed framework not only improves the overall performance of all annotators but also yields models that are more fair and equitable.

$d \downarrow$	Brexit				MFSC				
	50%	66%	83%	100%	25%	50%	75%	100%	
Roberta-Base	MTL	.168	.139	.131	.130	.128	.136	.127	.130
	$S_{bal}$	<b>.093</b>	<b>.108</b>	<b>.117</b>		<b>.117</b>	<b>.122</b>	<b>.121</b>	
	$S_{dis}$	.111	.120	.124		.130	.129	.127	
	$S_{mv}$	.137	.142	.132		.126	.128	.127	
	$S_{rand}$	.131	.127	.136		.134	.133	.128	
Roberta-Large	MTL	.170	.136	<b>.117</b>	.155	.152	.143	.146	.149
	$S_{bal}$	<b>.102</b>	<b>.127</b>	.148		<b>.117</b>	<b>.121</b>	<b>.127</b>	
	$S_{dis}$	.112	.134	.140		.132	.128	.133	
	$S_{mv}$	.134	.141	.149		.130	.128	.131	
	$S_{rand}$	.120	.131	.146		.127	.129	.130	
Llama-3	MTL	.172	.122	<b>.112</b>	.130	.189	.171	.167	.158
	$S_{bal}$	.117	.113	.120		<b>.137</b>	<b>.147</b>	<b>.158</b>	
	$S_{dis}$	<b>.114</b>	.113	.120		.198	.187	.176	
	$S_{mv}$	.127	<b>.103</b>	.124		.170	.174	.170	
	$S_{rand}$	.150	.128	.119		.176	.173	.166	

Table 3: Performance disparities across annotators ( $d \downarrow$ ). The best values are shown in bold.  $S_{bal}$ ,  $S_{dis}$ ,  $S_{mv}$ , and  $S_{rand}$  refer to the sampling functions used in the second stage of our framework (§3). We generally observe lower performance disparities with our framework compared to the MTL baseline.

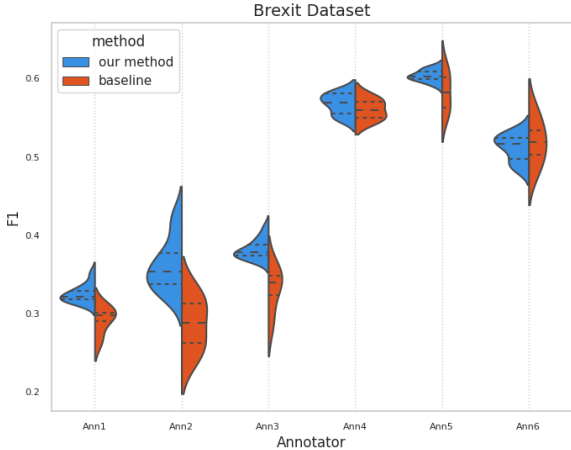


Figure 4: Comparison of Annotator level  $F_1$  scores ( $F_1^{a_i}$ ) on the Brexit dataset between MTL model and our framework, leveraging the  $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$  sampling method for all budgets and shots on RoBERTa-base model

### 5.3 Annotator-level Analysis

Here, we delve into the relationship between annotator-level variables. Recall that our framework is trained on  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  in the initial stage, followed by fine-tuning for each  $a \in \mathcal{A}_{fs}$ . Hence, a practical question arises: does the choice of the set  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  matter? In other words, would the similarity or divergence in perspectives among annotators in this set impact the performance on  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$ ? Investigating this is crucial, as identifying such an effect would necessitate a thoughtful selection of  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$ . To examine this, we conduct the following analysis: Disagreement within  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  and performance on  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$ : The aim of this analysis is to investigate whether there is a relationship between the disagreement within annotators in  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  and the performance of the newly adopted annotators in  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$ .

To test this relationship, we employ a mixed-effects model to predict the performance of  $a \in \mathcal{A}_{fs}$  by the *agreement within  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$*  denoted as  $d^1$  (Fleiss, 1971). The model controls for  $k$ , budget  $B$ , and *agreement between  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$  and  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$* , denoted using  $d^2$ , incorporating random effects for  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  and  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$ . The formula for this model is as follows:

$$f_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d_j^1 + \beta_2 k_{ij} + \beta_3 B_j + \beta_4 d_{ij}^2 + u_{0i} + v_{1j} + e_{ij} \quad (1)$$

where  $f_{ij}$  denotes the performance of  $i^{\text{th}}$  annotator in  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$  on the model trained on a  $j^{\text{th}}$  sample of  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$ . The fixed effects coefficients are represented by  $\beta_0$  to  $\beta_4$ , and the random effects for  $i$  and  $j$  are represented by  $u_{0i}$ ,  $v_{1j}$  respectively.  $e_{ij}$  denotes

the residual error term. To see the impact of sampling strategies, we run a total of four models, each corresponding to the performance results obtained from one of the strategies ( $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}_{dis}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}_{mv}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}_{rand}$ ).

The findings regarding Brexit indicate no statistically significant effect of agreement within  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  ( $d^1$ ) on the performance. For the MFSC dataset, a significant effect was observed only for results obtained from  $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$  ( $\beta_1 = -0.052$ ,  $SE = 0.012$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This implies that a unit decrease in  $d^1$ , corresponding to moving from full agreement to full disagreement, is associated with a 0.052 increase in the  $F_1$  score. This finding suggests that selecting a diverse  $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  with high disagreement can potentially be advantageous.

## 6 Conclusion

We introduced a framework for annotation collection and annotator modeling in subjective tasks. Our framework aims to minimize the annotation budget required to model a fixed number of annotators while maximizing the predictive performance for each annotator. Our approach involves collecting annotations from an initial set of annotators and building a multitask model that captures general task patterns while signaling differences among individual annotators. Subsequently, we utilize the annotations from the first stage to select a small set of samples from new annotators that best highlight their deviations from the general patterns. Finally, we use this samples to augment the initial model in a few-shot setting to learn the new annotator’s perspective. We evaluated our framework using three base models, and explored four distinct methods for few-shot sample selection and found that the most effective approach involves balanced and random sample selections. We introduced a new subjective task dataset Moral Foundations Subjective Corpus (MFSC), of 2000 Reddit posts annotated by 24 annotators for moral sentiment which enabled us to test our framework in scale. Our experiments on MFSC and a hate speech dataset revealed that our framework consistently surpasses previous SOTA with access to as little as 25% of the original annotation budget. In addition, we showed that our framework yields more equitable models that reduce performance disparities among annotators. Our cost-efficient framework for subjective tasks allows enhancing the diversity of the captured perspectives, and facilitates the integration of new annotators into pre-existing datasets and models.



## 7 Limitations and Ethical Statement

We acknowledge that the datasets employed in our experiments are not representative of all annotator populations. While in MFSC we recruited a substantial number of annotators and efforts were made to diversify this pool, it is important to note that our sample is limited to undergraduate students at a private university in the US. Consequently, we advocate for the replication and extension of our work with non-student, non-US-based samples. Furthermore, we exclusively operate with English data and focus on datasets related to moral sentiment prediction and hate speech detection tasks. This may restrict the generalizability of our findings to a broader linguistic and thematic landscape. Despite these constraints, our research lays the groundwork for future research to extend and validate our approach across diverse languages and subjective NLP tasks. In our experiments, we do not consider the cost of collecting few-shot samples, as discussed in Section 4.2. We recognize that in certain cases, depending on the budget and the nature of the task, this assumption can be challenged. Even with the additional expense of annotating a few samples per new annotator, it is crucial to highlight that our proposed framework substantially reduces annotation cost, especially as the number of included perspectives grows.

In the MFSC dataset the annotators underwent four sessions of training, including guidance on avoiding potential adverse consequences of annotations, and were compensated at a rate of \$17 per hour. The study protocol received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), and all annotators consented to both the terms outlined in an information sheet provided by the IRB about the study and the sharing of their responses to the psychological questionnaires along with their annotations. We emphasize that MFSC is created with the intention of exploring subjectivity and different perspectives in this context and it should not be used for any other purposes.

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## A Dataset Details

Each sample in the MFSC dataset is annotated with a binary label indicating moral sentiment: 1 if the sentence pertains to morality and 0 if it does not. Additionally, we have collected more fine-grained labels of morality (i.e., Purity, Harm, Loyalty, Authority, Proportionality, or Equality) following the procedure outlined by Trager et al. (2022). Specifically, if a sample is labeled as moral, the annotator can select any of the applicable moral categories for that text. The distribution of these labels across annotators is demonstrated in Figure 6. The dataset also includes additional metadata information, such as confidence levels for each instance using a 3-level measure (*confident*, *somewhat confident*, and *not confident*). Furthermore, we collected annotator responses for the “Big Five Inventory-2-Short” questionnaire (Soto and John, 2017). The MFSC dataset provides an opportunity to explore the subjective nature of morality. The substantial number of annotators, along with their questionnaire responses, enables future researchers to investigate the modeling of subjective tasks on a larger scale. See Table 1 and Table 4 for sample annotations for MFSC and Brexit datasets.

### A.1 Demographics of MFSC Annotators

We aimed to diversify the annotators for MFSC dataset across gender, sexual orientation, religion, and race. Even though our dataset is not balanced across these dimensions, we strived to include representative annotators from a cross-section of the aforementioned demographics. The distribution of the annotators across the mentioned demographics is presented in Figure 5.

Brexit examples	a <sub>1</sub>	a <sub>2</sub>	a <sub>3</sub>	a <sub>4</sub>	a <sub>5</sub>	a <sub>6</sub>
THE MAJORITY WILL NEVER allow the Mentally Ill Globalists to turn the world into a SJW and Radical Islam SAFE SPACE #brexit #Trump2016	0	0	1	1	0	1
A muslim Mayor of London? What!?! This PC Sickness has become a pandemic. England turning into Little Asia.	0	0	0	1	1	1
Not all foreign people who wants to go to the uk have bad intentions. Improve your law. The #Brexit isn't gonna help your economy.	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 4: Examples from Brexit dataset with binary Hate labels from all 6 annotators.

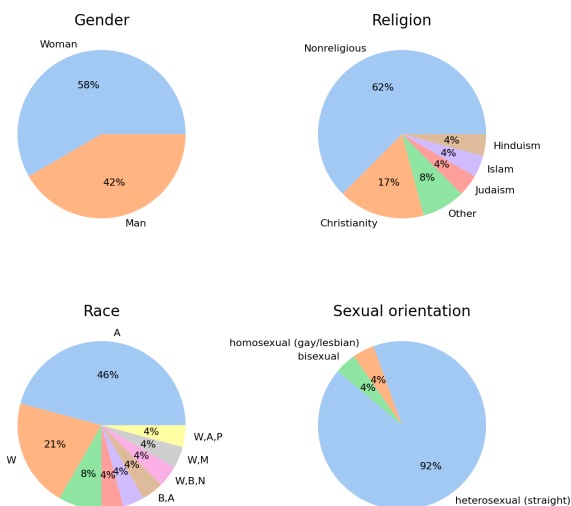


Figure 5: The abbreviations in the pie chart for race *W* stands for White or European American, *B* stands for Black or African American, *H* stands for Hispanic or Latino/Latinx, *P* stands for Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, *A* stands for Asian or Asian American, *M* stands for Middle Eastern or North African.

## B Additional Baseline and Ablation Study

In the following sections, we conduct the experiments using the Roberta-base model due to its superior performance among the base models in our experiments, as well as its resource efficiency.

First, we conduct an ablation study by omitting the first stage of MTL, effectively reducing the model to few-shot adaptation for each annotator from a pre-trained model. The resulting  $F_1$  scores are shown in Figure 7. When comparing these scores to our complete framework in Table 8, we observe that our framework consistently outperforms the second stage alone in all few-shot scenarios. For instance, in random few-shot sampling for  $k = 16$ , our model achieves a 23% gain in Brexit and a 12% gain in MFSC compared to this ablation model. This highlights the critical role of the first stage of MTL in the success of our framework.



Figure 6: Distribution of the labels across annotators in MFSC dataset

In the second ablation study, we omit the second stage, few-shot sample selection, from our framework. In other words, in the second stage, we use all annotated samples for each annotator instead of selecting only a few samples. Note that this is equivalent to using 100% of the budget and serves as an upper bound to the performance achieved with an ideal sampling function.

Additionally, we present a new baseline where a separate model is trained for each annotator using 100% of their respective data. Following the naming convention used by Davani et al. (2022), we refer to this baseline as “Ensemble” to ensure consistency with previous work in this field. The Ensemble baseline involves fine-tuning the model directly for each annotator, calculating individual annotator  $F_1$  scores, and reporting the average  $F_1$  score across annotators. Hyperparameters and epoch numbers for training are consistent with those mentioned for the MTL model in Section 4.3. Figure 7 presents a comparison of 3 different strategies, using 100% of the budget (MTL, Ensemble, and ours). On the Brexit Dataset (top) our framework has as much as 7.4% performance gain compared to the Ensemble baseline (when using  $\frac{4}{6}$  annotators in MTL), and for the MFSC dataset our framework has as large as 5% gain compared to Ensemble baseline (when using  $\frac{12}{24}$  of annotators in MTL). These results show that even considering the 100% budget, our framework outperforms both baselines, demonstrating the benefit of our two-stage design. Interestingly, the Ensemble model

outperforms MTL for these datasets, contrary to previous research findings comparing these two methods.

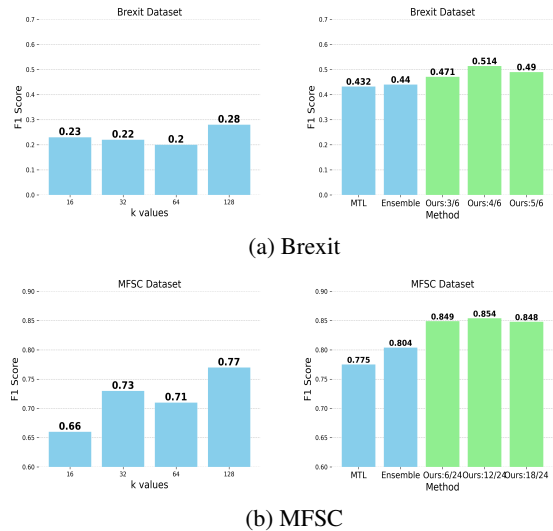


Figure 7: Baseline results in Blue compared to our framework results in green

## C Additional Tasks

### C.1 MFSC (Care label)

We evaluate our framework on an additional binary label of *Care* moral concern from our MFSC dataset. This moral concern is defined as “*Care/Harm: Intuitions about avoiding emotional and physical damage or harm to another individual. It underlies virtues of kindness, gentleness,*

and nurturing, and vices of meanness, violence, and abuse." (Trager et al., 2022). Table 5 presents the results for this task. Our framework outperforms the baseline MTL approach with 25% and 50% of the annotation budget. Notably, with only 25% of the budget, our framework has a 1.4% gain in  $F_1$  score compared to MTL with 100% budget. The experiments were conducted with the same hyper-parameter tuning described in Section 4.3.

$metric = F_1^{Overall} \uparrow$		MFSC (Care)			
		25%	50%	75%	100%
$X\% \times  D_{a_i} $		25% $ D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	75% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $
MTL		0.474	0.476	0.49	0.469
$X\% \times  A $		50% $ A $	66% $ A $	83% $ A $	
$k = 16$	$S_{bal}$	0.462	0.471	0.485	
	$S_{dis}$	0.46	0.467	0.485	
	$S_{mv}$	0.476	0.473	<b>0.49</b>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.469	0.468	0.482	
$k = 32$	$S_{bal}$	0.467	0.477	0.487	
	$S_{dis}$	0.463	0.463	0.483	
	$S_{mv}$	0.475	0.475	0.488	
	$S_{rand}$	0.47	0.468	0.484	
$k = 64$	$S_{bal}$	0.47	0.475	0.486	
	$S_{dis}$	0.467	0.471	0.478	
	$S_{mv}$	0.479	0.48	0.487	
	$S_{rand}$	0.472	0.477	<b>0.49</b>	
$k = 128$	$S_{bal}$	0.473	0.477	0.488	
	$S_{dis}$	0.474	0.474	0.481	
	$S_{mv}$	0.477	<b>0.482</b>	0.488	
	$S_{rand}$	<b>0.483</b>	0.481	0.487	

Table 5: Overall  $F_1$  scores on MFSC dataset, *Care* label, with varying annotation budgets (% $B$ ).

## C.2 GHC (Hate label)

To ensure the generalizability of our framework, we evaluate it on a larger dataset with an imbalanced number of annotations among annotators. We conducted the experiments using the RoBERTa-Base model due to its superior performance among the base models in our experiments, as well as its resource efficiency.

**Gab Hate Corpus (GHC)** consists of 27,665 posts from the social network service gab.ai, each annotated by a minimum of three trained annotators, and 18 total annotators. It is coded for hate-based rhetoric and has labels of ‘‘assaults on human dignity’’ or ‘‘calls for violence’’. The annotators with less than 1000 annotations were filtered out resulting in 16 annotators. Figure 8 shows the number of annotated instances by each annotator.

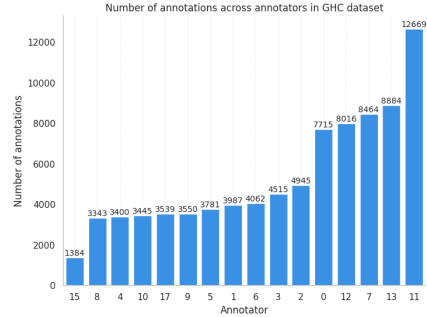


Figure 8: The number of annotated instances by each annotator in GHC dataset

**Experiments:** We replicate the experiment described in Section 4.2 with the same implementation details outlined in Section 4.3. We employ varying budgets of 25%, 50%, and 75%, using the two best-performing sampling methods identified in our experiments ( $S_{bal}$  and  $S_{rand}$ ), and compare the results to the MTL baseline. The overall results are presented in Table 6. It is evident that our framework consistently outperforms MTL across all numbers of shots, sampling methods, and budget variations. Specifically, with 25% of the budget, our model achieves a gain of 1.6% with  $k = 64$  and  $S_{rand}$ , and with 75% of the budget, our model performs the best, achieving a gain of 2%.

$F_1^{Overall} \uparrow$		GHC			
		25%	50%	75%	100%
$X\% \times  D_{a_i} $		25% $ D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	75% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $
MTL		.417 <sub>(.004)</sub>	.433 <sub>(.007)</sub>	.442 <sub>(.013)</sub>	.451 <sub>(.006)</sub>
$X\% \times  A $		50% $ A $	66% $ A $	83% $ A $	
$k = 16$	$S_{bal}$	.45 <sub>(.004)</sub>	.46 <sub>(.002)</sub>	.464 <sub>(.003)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	.455 <sub>(.008)</sub>	.469 <sub>(.005)</sub>	.468 <sub>(.003)</sub>	
$k = 32$	$S_{bal}$	.456 <sub>(.002)</sub>	.459 <sub>(.001)</sub>	.464 <sub>(.003)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	.461 <sub>(.003)</sub>	.472 <sub>(.001)</sub>	.468 <sub>(.001)</sub>	
$k = 64$	$S_{bal}$	.458 <sub>(.004)</sub>	.461 <sub>(.002)</sub>	.466 <sub>(.003)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	<b>.467</b> <sub>(.003)</sub>	.474 <sub>(.002)</sub>	.468 <sub>(.002)</sub>	
$k = 128$	$S_{bal}$	.466 <sub>(.001)</sub>	.466 <sub>(.0)</sub>	.466 <sub>(.003)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	.463 <sub>(.007)</sub>	<b>.475</b> <sub>(.003)</sub>	<b>.47</b> <sub>(.001)</sub>	

Table 6: Overall  $F_1$  scores on GHC dataset, *Hate* label, with varying annotation budgets (% $B$ ).

**Impact of the Imbalanced Number of Annotations on Performance** Results on the GHC dataset indicate a consistent and significant advantage of our framework, even when applied to larger datasets with imbalanced numbers of an-

notations across annotators. To further investigate the impact of varying numbers of annotations across annotators on the performance of our framework, we conducted a correlation analysis between each annotator’s performance and their number of annotations. The results revealed no statistically significant correlation between the number of annotations and the overall  $F_1$  score of an annotator, as indicated by the correlation coefficients for  $\mathcal{S}_{rand}$  ( $r = -0.17, p = 0.25$ ) and  $\mathcal{S}_{bal}$  ( $r = -0.14, p = 0.32$ ). The plots in Figure 9 illustrate the annotator-level  $F_1$  scores as the number of annotations of the annotators increases.

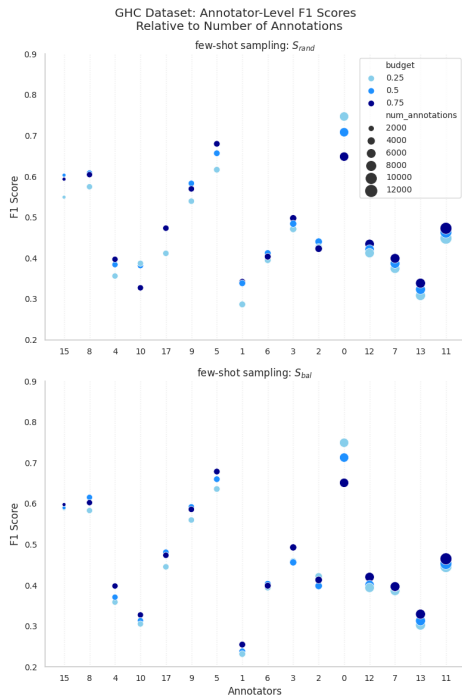


Figure 9:  $F_1$  scores of annotators as the number of annotations increases

## D Additional Details and Results

Here, we present the results of our framework for all values of  $k$ , with the mean and standard deviations reported for three seeds for the RoBERTa models. Tables 8, 9, and 10 show the results for RoBERTa-Base, RoBERTa-Large, and Llama-3, respectively. The best values are highlighted in **bold**. As evident, our framework outperforms the baseline across all three models.

### D.1 Implementation Details

For the RoBERTa models, hyperparameter tuning was conducted for each MTL model with learning

rates of  $[3e-06, 5e-05, 1e-06, 2e-05]$  and weight decays of  $[0, 0.01]$ . For the Llama model, hyperparameter tuning included learning rate, weight decay, LoRA alpha, LoRA rank, and LoRA dropout for one MTL model, and these parameters were used across all models. The best configuration and other parameters for training Llama-3 with LoRA are shown in Table 7.

Hyperparameter	Brexit	MFSC
Train Batch Size	16	4
Eval Steps	50	100
Max Length	512	512
Learning Rate	1.2e-04	5e-05
Epochs	10	2
Weight Decay	0.01	0.01
LoRA r	8	4
LoRA Alpha	32	16
LoRA Dropout	0.003	0.1

Table 7: Hyperparameters of the Lora Llama-3 model trained for Brexit and MFSC Datasets

## D.2 Hardware Configuration

The experiments were conducted using four NVIDIA RTX A6000 GPUs, each equipped with 48GB of RAM. The total computation time amounted to approximately 2500 GPU hours. The breakdown of GPU hours for different models is as follows:

Roberta-base experiments: 300 GPU hours  
 Roberta-large experiments: 600 GPU hours  
 Llama-3-8B experiments: 1600 GPU hours

## D.3 Impact of the Annotators’ Disagreement on Performance

In Figure 10 we demonstrate the impact of agreement (as a measure of similarity) between the first and second-stage annotators ( $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$  and  $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$ ) on the performance of the model for the second stage annotators. Importantly, we do not observe performance degradation as the agreement between the two sets decreases.

## E Mathematical Symbols

Table 11 provides a directory of mathematical symbols used in our paper, along with their respective meanings, to facilitate ease of understanding for the reader.

metric = $F_1^{overall} \uparrow$	Brexit				MFSC			
	50%	66%	83%	100%	25%	50%	75%	100%
$X\% \times  D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	66% $ D_{a_i} $	83% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $	25% $ D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	75% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $
MTL	0.417 <sub>(0.049)</sub>	0.449 <sub>(0.027)</sub>	0.418 <sub>(0.018)</sub>	0.431 <sub>(0.014)</sub>	0.763 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.773 <sub>(0.011)</sub>	0.772 <sub>(0.015)</sub>	0.776 <sub>(0.004)</sub>
$X\% \times  \mathcal{A} $	50% $ \mathcal{A} $	66% $ \mathcal{A} $	83% $ \mathcal{A} $		25% $ \mathcal{A} $	50% $ \mathcal{A} $	75% $ \mathcal{A} $	
$k = 16$	$S_{bal}$	0.443 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.454 <sub>(0.015)</sub>	0.457 <sub>(0.015)</sub>	0.777 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.0)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.421 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.44 <sub>(0.011)</sub>	0.457 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.784 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.782 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.426 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.441 <sub>(0.019)</sub>	0.455 <sub>(0.019)</sub>	0.789 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.786 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.783 <sub>(0.006)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.422 <sub>(0.012)</sub>	0.44 <sub>(0.025)</sub>	0.455 <sub>(0.007)</sub>	0.795 <sub>(0.009)</sub>	0.79 <sub>(0.006)</sub>	0.785 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	
$k = 32$	$S_{bal}$	0.449 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.458 <sub>(0.009)</sub>	0.458 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.423 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.44 <sub>(0.015)</sub>	0.457 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.786 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.783 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.424 <sub>(0.017)</sub>	0.444 <sub>(0.02)</sub>	0.458 <sub>(0.011)</sub>	0.791 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.783 <sub>(0.007)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.428 <sub>(0.006)</sub>	0.447 <sub>(0.019)</sub>	0.452 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.795 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	<b>0.791</b> <sub>(0.006)</sub>	0.785 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	
$k = 64$	$S_{bal}$	0.453 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.458 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.459 <sub>(0.011)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.781 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.781 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.436 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.455 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.468 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.789 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.783 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.427 <sub>(0.007)</sub>	0.439 <sub>(0.026)</sub>	0.459 <sub>(0.013)</sub>	0.791 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.784 <sub>(0.007)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.433 <sub>(0.012)</sub>	0.451 <sub>(0.015)</sub>	0.456 <sub>(0.013)</sub>	0.797 <sub>(0.009)</sub>	0.791 <sub>(0.006)</sub>	0.785 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	
$k = 128$	$S_{bal}$	<b>0.471</b> <sub>(0.002)</sub>	<b>0.474</b> <sub>(0.018)</sub>	<b>0.468</b> <sub>(0.014)</sub>	0.781 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.781 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.782 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.45 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.461 <sub>(0.019)</sub>	0.466 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.009)</sub>	0.789 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.783 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.434 <sub>(0.015)</sub>	0.445 <sub>(0.022)</sub>	0.458 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.793 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.784 <sub>(0.007)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.439 <sub>(0.015)</sub>	0.457 <sub>(0.012)</sub>	0.455 <sub>(0.011)</sub>	<b>0.798</b> <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.791 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	<b>0.786</b> <sub>(0.004)</sub>	

Table 8: **RoBERTa-Base** Overall  $F_1$  results on Brexit and MFSC datasets for different budgets of annotation ( $B$ ), with various few shot sampling strategies; mean and standard deviation calculated over repeated runs.

metric = $F_1^{overall} \uparrow$	Brexit				MFSC			
	50%	66%	83%	100%	25%	50%	75%	100%
$X\% \times  D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	66% $ D_{a_i} $	83% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $	25% $ D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	75% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $
MTL	0.366 <sub>(0.123)</sub>	0.476 <sub>(0.026)</sub>	0.497 <sub>(0.012)</sub>	0.475 <sub>(0.012)</sub>	0.773 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.768 <sub>(0.007)</sub>	0.772 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.771 <sub>(0.004)</sub>
$X\% \times  \mathcal{A} $	50% $ \mathcal{A} $	66% $ \mathcal{A} $	83% $ \mathcal{A} $		25% $ \mathcal{A} $	50% $ \mathcal{A} $	75% $ \mathcal{A} $	
$k = 16$	$S_{bal}$	0.48 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.476 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.484 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.778 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.776 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.475 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.471 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.487 <sub>(0.012)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.463 <sub>(0.027)</sub>	0.47 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.486 <sub>(0.018)</sub>	0.786 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.786 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.477 <sub>(0.019)</sub>	0.474 <sub>(0.006)</sub>	0.486 <sub>(0.02)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.0)</sub>	0.786 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	
$k = 32$	$S_{bal}$	0.486 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.479 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.486 <sub>(0.011)</sub>	0.777 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.778 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.776 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.475 <sub>(0.006)</sub>	0.477 <sub>(0.009)</sub>	0.484 <sub>(0.014)</sub>	0.789 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.475 <sub>(0.026)</sub>	0.471 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.487 <sub>(0.013)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.786 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.485 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.473 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.485 <sub>(0.016)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.0)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	
$k = 64$	$S_{bal}$	0.492 <sub>(0.006)</sub>	0.48 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.487 <sub>(0.009)</sub>	0.775 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.777 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.501 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.479 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	<b>0.499</b> <sub>(0.011)</sub>	0.79 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.479 <sub>(0.025)</sub>	0.474 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.487 <sub>(0.013)</sub>	0.79 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.49 <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.479 <sub>(0.007)</sub>	0.486 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.79 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.787 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	
$k = 128$	$S_{bal}$	<b>0.513</b> <sub>(0.006)</sub>	<b>0.492</b> <sub>(0.008)</sub>	0.493 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.779 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.78 <sub>(0.003)</sub>	0.777 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	
	$S_{dis}$	0.506 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.486 <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.497 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	<b>0.791</b> <sub>(0.001)</sub>	<b>0.79</b> <sub>(0.0)</sub>	<b>0.781</b> <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{mv}$	0.478 <sub>(0.031)</sub>	0.479 <sub>(0.005)</sub>	0.489 <sub>(0.014)</sub>	<b>0.791</b> <sub>(0.001)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.0)</sub>	<b>0.781</b> <sub>(0.002)</sub>	
	$S_{rand}$	0.495 <sub>(0.004)</sub>	0.485 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	0.494 <sub>(0.01)</sub>	<b>0.791</b> <sub>(0.002)</sub>	0.788 <sub>(0.001)</sub>	<b>0.781</b> <sub>(0.003)</sub>	

Table 9: **RoBERTa-Large** overall Aggregated  $F_1$  results on BREXIT and MFRC dataset for different  $\%B_f$ s of annotation, mean and std over 3 runs

$metric = F_1^{overall} \uparrow$	Brexit				MFSC			
	50%	66%	83%	100%	25%	50%	75%	100%
$X\% \times  D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	66% $ D_{a_i} $	83% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $	25% $ D_{a_i} $	50% $ D_{a_i} $	75% $ D_{a_i} $	$ D_{a_i} $
MTL	0.335	0.345	0.366	0.351	0.669	0.696	0.715	0.713
$X\% \times  \mathcal{A} $	50% $ \mathcal{A} $	66% $ \mathcal{A} $	83% $ \mathcal{A} $		25% $ \mathcal{A} $	50% $ \mathcal{A} $	75% $ \mathcal{A} $	
$k = 16$	$S_{bal}$	0.316	0.326	0.355		0.637	0.648	0.692
	dis	0.314	0.312	0.353		0.628	0.678	0.683
	$S_{mv}$	0.318	0.32	0.353		0.66	0.683	0.698
	$S_{rand}$	0.294	0.32	0.35		0.679	0.693	0.701
$k = 32$	$S_{bal}$	0.337	0.338	0.363		0.634	0.666	0.696
	dis	0.318	0.323	0.353		0.655	0.675	0.699
	$S_{mv}$	0.329	0.322	0.357		0.681	0.691	0.7
	$S_{rand}$	0.32	0.329	0.345		0.69	0.693	0.703
$k = 64$	$S_{bal}$	0.348	0.355	0.373		0.644	0.666	0.69
	dis	0.327	0.326	0.351		0.656	0.673	0.691
	$S_{mv}$	0.359	0.339	0.365		0.685	0.691	0.703
	$S_{rand}$	0.338	0.332	0.361		0.703	0.706	0.705
$k = 128$	$S_{bal}$	<b>0.384</b>	<b>0.365</b>	<b>0.379</b>		0.675	0.685	0.704
	dis	0.337	0.339	0.357		0.664	0.688	0.698
	$S_{mv}$	0.365	0.363	0.375		0.698	0.698	0.705
	$S_{rand}$	0.339	0.343	0.365		<b>0.711</b>	<b>0.713</b>	<b>0.716</b>

Table 10: **Llama-3** overall Aggregated  $F_1$  results on BREXIT and MFSC dataset for different  $\%B_f$ s of annotation

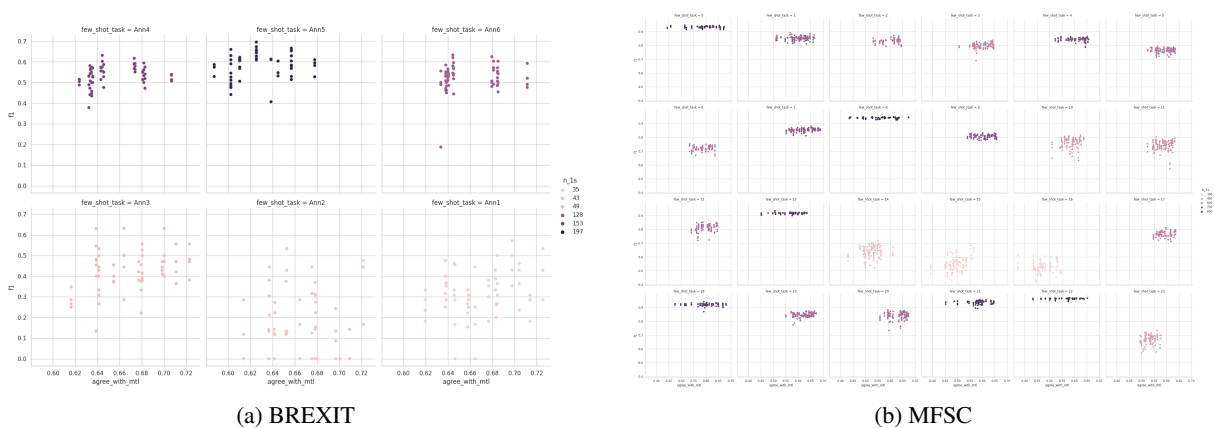


Figure 10: Each plot demonstrates the effect of a single annotator’s agreement with the initial set of annotators used for MTL training ( $A_{mtl}$ ), on its  $F_1$  score performance, when adopted as a few-shot task. The x-axis represents the agreement measure, and the y-axis represents the  $F_1$  score. The darker color of the scatter plot corresponds to a higher number of positive labels provided by the respective annotator.



Symbol	Meaning
$\mathcal{A}_{fs}$	Annotators in MTL model
$\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$	Annotators adopted as few shot task
$\mathcal{S}_{mv}$	Sampling based on majority vote
$\mathcal{S}_{bal}$	Sampling based on balanced samples across classes
$\mathcal{S}_{dis}$	Sampling based on high disagreement of annotations
$\mathcal{S}_{rand}$	Random sampling
$B$	Budget
$D$	All annotations for a dataset
$F_1^{fs}$	Avg. $F_1$ scores of the few-shot model for $\mathcal{A}_{fs}$
$F_1^{mtl}$	Avg. $F_1$ scores of the multi-task model for $\mathcal{A}_{mtl}$

Table 11: Mathematical notations used throughout the paper with their explanations