

# Controllable Data Augmentation for Few-Shot Text Mining with Chain-of-Thought Attribute Manipulation

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## Abstract

Prompting large language models (LLMs) for data augmentation has recently become a common practice in few-shot NLP tasks. In this paper, we propose Chain-of-Thought Attribute Manipulation (CoTAM), a novel approach that generates new data from existing examples by only tweaking in the user-provided, task-specific attribute, e.g., sentiment polarity or topic in movie reviews. Instead of conventional latent representation controlling, we leverage the chain-of-thought prompting to directly edit the text in three steps, (1) attribute decomposition, (2) manipulation proposal, and (3) sentence reconstruction. Extensive results on various tasks, such as text (pair) classification and aspect-based sentiment analysis, verify the superiority of CoTAM over other LLM-based augmentation methods with the same number of training examples for both fine-tuning and in-context learning. Remarkably, the 2D visualization of the augmented dataset using principle component analysis revealed a human-recognizable decision boundary that is likely hinted by the attribute manipulation, demonstrating the potential of our proposed approach.

## 1 Introduction

Prompting large language models (LLMs) for data augmentation has recently become a common practice in few-shot natural language processing (NLP) tasks. Existing methods (Yoo et al., 2021; Sahu et al., 2022b; Dai et al., 2023; Lin et al., 2023) typically first generate new task-specific data with LLMs hinted by few-shot demonstrations, and then fine-tune a (small) pre-trained language model with the augmented dataset for better performance. The same augmented data can be also incorporated into in-context learning (ICL) (Li et al., 2023; Dong et al., 2023). However, these augmentation methods usually prompt LLMs to generate new examples *wildly* without proper control, which hinders the informativeness of generated data and might induce spurious correlation. As shown Figure 1(left),

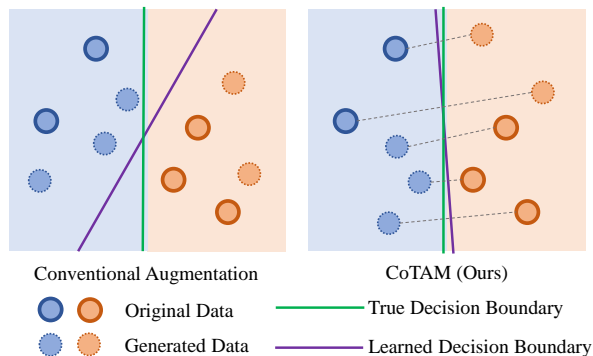


Figure 1: An illustrative comparison in case of binary classification. Conventional data augmentation generates uncontrolled data, while CoTAM directly reflects decision boundaries through task instructions. We present a real example in Figure 4.

the generated data without control has no clear pattern and could even possibly mislead the fine-tuning or ICL under few-shot learning scenarios.

In this paper, we propose a controllable data augmentation for few-shot text mining. The general idea is to generate new data from existing examples by only tweaking in the user-provided, task-specific attribute, e.g., sentiment polarity or topic in movie reviews. Intuitively, as shown in Figure 1, one can expect that this approach can efficiently find the decision boundary because we (1) directly manipulate along the direction of task-specific attributes and (2) maintain the rest of the attributes as before.

Different from the existing controllable generation works in computer vision (Shen et al., 2020; Shen and Zhou, 2021) and natural language processing (Kruengkrai, 2019a; Zhou et al., 2022), where attributes are manipulated in the latent space of the encoder before reconstructing new instances, we leverage the chain-of-thought (CoT) prompting (Wei et al., 2022c) to directly edit the text using LLMs in three steps, (1) attribute decomposition, (2) manipulation proposal, and (3) sentence reconstruction. Specifically, we start with the user-provided, task-specific attributes, and then prompt

LLMs to decompose each individual text example into other orthogonal attributes. Compared with a pre-defined attribute set per dataset, we believe that such dynamically constructed, per-example sets of attributes can better capture the uniqueness of every piece of text. Second, we instruct LLMs to propose a plan to manipulate the values of the task-specific attributes while maintaining the other attribute values the same. Finally, we prompt the LLMs to reconstruct the sentence based on the manipulation proposal. All these steps are written in a single prompt and fed to the LLM at once. Furthermore, using LLMs benefits the interpretability of our framework where attributes are completely transparent to users.

We conduct extensive experiments to evaluate CoTAM and baselines using a series of few-shot classification tasks with very different classification targets and aspect-based sentiment analysis for more complex attribute manipulation. For fair comparison, all compared methods utilize the same LLMs and generate the same amount of data. We assess the quality of generated data by looking at (1) the performance of trained small language models via fine-tuning or tuning-free methods on the augmented data and (2) the ICL performance of LLMs using the augmented data as demonstrations. Extensive experimental results including label-scarce and out-of-domain scenarios demonstrate the advantage of proposed controllable data augmentation over conventional methods. The ablation study further reveals the necessity of attribute manipulation comparing to directly flipping the labels. Finally, we present PCA analysis on the embeddings of generated augmentations that visually illustrates the effectiveness of method.

Our contributions are three-fold:

- We propose a novel controllable data augmentation approach CoTAM based on chain-of-thoughts prompting using LLMs, which directly edits the text examples in an interpretable way instead of tweak latent representation vectors.
- We conduct experiments on a wide spectrum of tasks and datasets, demonstrating the effectiveness of the augmented data by CoTAM in both fine-tuning and in-context learning.
- Our detailed analyses, especially the human-recognizable decision boundaries revealed by the 2D visualization of the augmented dataset using principle component analysis, demonstrate the significant potential of our proposed attribute

manipulation approach.

**Reproducibility.** We will open-source the code. <sup>1</sup>

## 2 Problem Formulation

We aim to generate more efficient training data using controllable augmentation on a few-shot dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  focusing on a **target attribute**  $Y$  (e.g., the classification objective) with  $N$  possible values  $\{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N\}$  (i.e.,  $N$ -way). For each possible attribute value  $y_i$ , the dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  provides  $K$  examples (i.e.,  $K$ -shot) of texts with the value. We here showcase two mainstream few-shot learning schemes as the basis to discuss the augmentation:

- **In-context Learning** (ICL) is a scheme for LLMs, which takes a few examples of sentences with their target attribute values (i.e., a series of  $(X, y_i)$ ) as the context to handle new inputs. With these demonstrations, the LLM is expected to understand the underlying mapping and then predict the label of new inputs.
- **Fine-tuning** generally trains smaller models with the (limited) labeled data. The model has a text embedder  $\mathbf{E}$  and a classifier  $\mathbf{C}$ . A text  $x$  from the dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  will be represented as a dense vector  $\mathbf{E}(x)$ , which is learned to encode the attributes of  $x$ , including the target attribute  $Y$  and other attributes. The classifier  $\mathbf{C}$  further processes the vector  $\mathbf{E}(x)$  and outputs a distribution over  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N$ , indicating the probability of each  $Y$  value in  $x$ .

Ideally, our controllable augmentation shall supply efficient demonstrations and training data under the ICL and fine-tuning settings, respectively.

## 3 Our CoTAM Framework

To boost the performance of few-shot methods, we suppose a scenario, shown in Figure 2, to augment examples that well improve the task awareness of the inference models. For a given sample  $x$  with target attribute value  $y$  from  $\mathcal{D}$ , we will manipulate its attribute value to  $y'$  that  $y \neq y'$  to form a build a new sentence  $x'$ . We set two requirements for the manipulation: 1) Significant Manipulation on the target attribute  $Y$ , which means the manipulated result  $x'$  should be viewed with  $y_j$  by oracle like humans. 2) Minor Manipulation on all other attributes  $\mathcal{Z}$ , which indicates  $x$  and  $x'$  to share a similar value  $z_k$  for all  $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$ . To meet the two requirements above will ensure  $x$  and  $x'$  only differ in attribute  $Y$ , making them an efficient pair

<sup>1</sup>Code: [https://github.com/anonymous\\_repo](https://github.com/anonymous_repo)

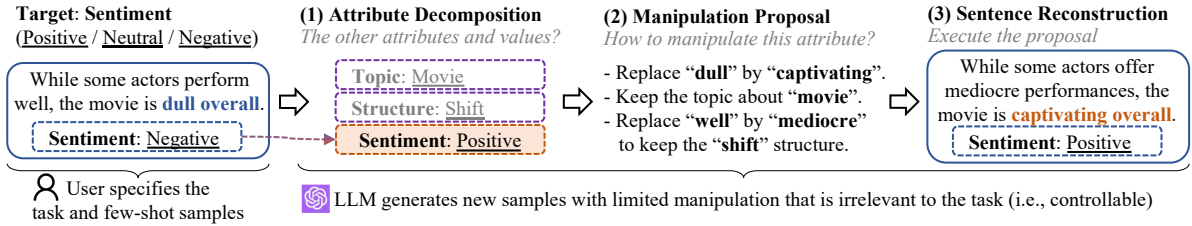


Figure 2: An overview of the goal and implementation of our CoTAM.

for learning on the dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ . Take fine-tuning as an example, the loss  $\mathcal{L}(X, y_i) + \mathcal{L}(X', y_j)$  will be attributed to the only different attribute  $Y$ , thus let each annotation by humans efficiently reflect the target attribute with its augmentations.

Based on our desiderata above, we propose CoTAM that benefits from the strong text manipulation capability of LLMs (OpenAI, 2023) with its workflow demonstrated in Figure 2. To be more specific, we first create chain-of-thought (CoT) queries to decompose the input texts into many attributes, which approximates the latent space. We aim to get rid of human labor to propose other possible attributes for efficiency. Moreover, in some cases, even human experts cannot give you a complete list of other attributes among all the possible texts. Finding a shared and fixed set of attributes for various kinds of texts is hard since different sentences rarely share a common set of applicable attributes. Encouraged by Wang et al. (2023), we instruct LLMs to propose a dynamic attribute set for each input text, which are customized among inputs dependent on which attributes are applicable. The CoT then switches the value of the target attribute to other possible values in the task and prompts the LLM to reconstruct the manipulated sentence. Finally, the LLM is guided to compose such a sentence to finalize the attribute manipulation.

Different from the existing controllable generation works in computer vision (Shen et al., 2020; Shen and Zhou, 2021) and natural language processing (Kruengkrai, 2019a; Zhou et al., 2022), where attributes are manipulated in the latent space of the encoder before reconstructing new instances, our CoTAM is proposed to directly edit the text using LLMs.

### 3.1 Step 1: Attribute Decomposition

Following the macro-level design of CoTAM, the first step in the CoT is to decompose the sentence into various attributes. The LLM takes the sentence

and a human-annotated attribute-value pair as the input and then propose other attributes and their values.

For example, The sentence “While some actors perform well, the movie is dull overall” with be processed with its known attribute-value  $y_i$ , here is “Sentiment: Negative”. The LLM then proposes a set of other applicable attribute-values  $\hat{\mathcal{Z}} = \text{LLM}_{\text{AD}}(X, y_i) \subset \mathcal{Z}$  like “Topic: Movie”, “Structure: Shift” as in Figure 2, which is a subset of  $\mathcal{Z}$  but is generally detailed enough to approximate the irrelevant attributes. The value of the known attribute is then flipped to another one given by the user like “Sentiment: Positive”, which is then combined with other LLM-proposed attribute-values for the next step.

### 3.2 Step 2: Manipulation Proposal

In the second step, we will instruct the LLM to propose the methodology to reconstruct a sentence with the switched attribute and others from the decomposition step. This step is incorporated as understanding how to achieve the goal, which is important to the CoT inference (Wei et al., 2022c). In this step, the LLM takes all elements in the manipulation as the input and proposes an instruction  $I = \text{LLM}_{\text{MP}}(X, y_i, y_j, \hat{\mathcal{Z}})$  for LLM to execute in the next step. A proposed manipulation is shown as in Figure 2, the LLM suggest several instructions to complete the manipulation.

### 3.3 Step 3: Sentence Reconstruction

This step simply asks the LLM to follow its proposed manipulation instruction  $I$  to reconstruct the sentence and output a label-flipped one as  $X' = \text{LLM}_{\text{SR}}(X, I)$ . As in Figure 2, the LLM follows the self-generated instructions to edit the input sentence to generate our desired  $X'$  that has significant different in  $Y$  (sentiment polarity) and minor difference in  $\hat{\mathcal{Z}}$  (proposed other attributes).

Dataset	Target Attribute	Possible Value
SST-2	Sentiment	Positive
TweetEmo	Sentiment	Anger
AG-News	Topic	World News
MNLI	Natural Language Inference	Contradiction
MRPC	Semantics	Equivalent to Sentence 1
CSQA	Best choice	<Answer Name>
ABSA	Sentiment on <Aspect>	Positive

Table 1: Target attributes and possible values in datasets of our experiments and more details can be found in Appendix B.

## 4 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate different LLM-based augmentation methods on a series of classification tasks, with different target attributes. We incorporate comprehensive ways of utilizing augmentations with different classification techniques, such as fine-tuning, in-context learning and inference with sentence embedding. We further evaluate the augmentation ability of methods on more complex tasks like aspect-based sentiment analysis.

### 4.1 Datasets

We verify the advantage of CoTAM on text classification and other tasks using 6 classification datasets, including **SST-2** (sentiment polarity) (Socher et al., 2013), **TweetEmo** (fine-grained sentiment) (Barbieri et al., 2020), **AG-NEWS** (topic) (Zhang et al., 2015), **MNLI** (natural language inference) (Williams et al., 2018), **MRPC** (semantic textual similarity) (Dolan and Brockett, 2005), and **CSQA** (multiple choice question answering) (Talmor et al., 2019). MNLI includes matched ( $MNLI_m$ ) and mismatched ( $MNLI_{mm}$ ) datasets for evaluation. To further test the ability of CoTAM on attributes other than classification targets, we include a manipulation on aspect-based sentiment analysis (ABSA) datasets, **Restaurant** and **Laptop** from SemEval2014 (Pontiki et al., 2014). For ICL, we report the results on 1000 samples from the mixture of validation and test dataset due to cost issue. For other setups, we report results on the validation dataset when the test dataset is not publicly available considering the efficiency to get multi-run results. The statistics of datasets are presented in Appendix A. We present some examples of attribute names in Table 1.

### 4.2 Compared Methods

**CoT Data Augmentation (CoTDA)** is a augmentation variant of our method which applies a similar

CoT for conventional augmentation. Instead of directly asking for augmentation, we let the LLM follow our proposed CoT and propose a methodology to write a sentence with the **same** attributes as the input sentence. CoTDA is the main baseline for comparison to explore the importance of attribute switching in our CoTAM. For each seed data, we augment it for N-1 times with 0.1 temperature, where N refers to the number of classes in the dataset. Thus, CoTDA generates the same number of new data as CoTAM to achieve a fair comparison.

**FlipDA** (Zhou et al., 2022) is a traditional label-switched augmentation method based on conditional generation by a fully-tuned T5 (Raffel et al., 2020). Specifically, the sentence is combined with the switched label as the input to T5. Then, some spans in the sentence are randomly masked and recovered by T5 conditioning on the new label to switch the semantics of the sentence. As the original FlipDA requires a large supervised dataset that is inapplicable to few-shot learning, we build an LLM-based FlipDA (**FlipDA++**) baseline by sending span replacement instructions to LLMs.

**Human/LLM Annotation** directly using the texts labeled by humans or LLMs. For human annotation, we include the K-shot (**Base**) and NK-shot (**Extra Annotation**) setups. K-shot represents the baseline before integrating the data generated from LLMs. NK-shot has the number of training data after augmentation with human annotation, thus we expect it to be an upper bound of augmentation methods. Whereas, we will see CoTAM able to outperform this upper bound, which can be attributed to higher data quality resulting from attribute manipulation. NK-shot LLM annotation<sup>2</sup> (**Pseudo Label**) represents a simple baseline that is generally applied when much unlabeled in-domain data is available.

**Comparison Fairness** We select GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023) as the LLM to construct the dataset. The temperature of GPT-4 is set to 0 towards high quality and reproducibility. We apply each augmentation method to a fixed subset of each dataset to create a small subset from which we sample training data. For fair comparison, this subset is also used in other baselines for data generation. By default, we set K to 10 for fine-tuning and 3 to ICL. All reported results are the average over 10 runs

<sup>2</sup>K-shot data are used for in-context inference.



Method		SST-2	TweetEmo	AG-NEWS	MNLI <sub>m</sub>	MNLI <sub>mm</sub>	MRPC	CSQA
Fine-tuning	Base	60.54	44.38	81.05	35.88	38.75	51.96	34.54
	Extra Annotation <sup>†</sup>	62.17	69.51	88.66	43.33	44.03	57.50	47.36
	LLM Pseudo Label	61.14	69.11	85.64	41.71	42.92	55.88	45.12
	FlipDA++	74.28	70.87	84.72	51.52	53.56	60.15	50.52
	CoTDA	70.83	67.76	85.19	36.06	36.28	55.54	48.79
	CoTAM	<b>79.12</b>	<b>72.76</b>	<b>85.80</b>	<b>54.07</b>	<b>56.16</b>	<b>65.83</b>	<b>53.22</b>
ICL	No Example	90.50	69.80	81.30	67.50	<b>69.70</b>	69.80	73.50
	Base	94.00	74.50	85.50	68.10	68.10	70.60	76.30
	Extra Annotation <sup>†</sup>	94.70	79.00	88.70	68.70	68.60	71.40	76.80
	LLM Pseudo Label	94.20	75.80	85.80	66.90	69.00	67.90	76.50
	FlipDA++	94.30	76.70	85.20	68.80	68.90	70.70	77.00
	CoTDA	94.00	76.50	86.00	68.20	68.50	70.00	76.70
	CoTAM	<b>94.50</b>	<b>77.10</b>	<b>86.40</b>	<b>69.70</b>	69.20	<b>70.90</b>	<b>77.30</b>

Table 2: Few-shot learning results based on data annotated by humans and LLMs. †: Extra Annotation increases the number (NK) of human-annotated samples to the same number as LLM-annotated to compare the annotation ability between LLMs and humans. **Bold**: The best result with the base number (K) of human annotation, thus excluding “Extra Annotation”.

Method	SST-2		TweetEmo		AG-NEWS	
	NC	KNN	NC	KNN	NC	KNN
Base	82.00	78.20	66.01	59.92	77.72	73.57
Extra <sup>†</sup>	87.55	83.45	71.23	67.56	84.70	82.33
LLM SL	86.78	80.26	69.34	64.90	<b>81.19</b>	<b>79.34</b>
FlipDA++	88.13	86.76	66.53	65.05	79.82	75.11
CoTDA	86.38	83.00	68.63	61.58	78.87	76.56
CoTAM	<b>88.43</b>	<b>87.52</b>	<b>70.02</b>	<b>65.37</b>	80.60	75.48

Table 3: Utilization of sentence embeddings for classification tasks based on different augmented few-shot examples.

(except for ICL due to expense) to eliminate the bias.

All the prompts in our experiments are presented in Appendix C for better reproducibility.

### 4.3 Classification Result

**Fine-tuning** A simple way to evaluate the data quality is to tune a model on it and then check its performance. We select RoBERTa-Large (Liu et al., 2019) as the learner on different datasets. With the validation dataset unavailable, we train the model for 32 epochs<sup>3</sup> and then evaluate it.

As presented in Table 2, our CoTAM achieves the best fine-tuning results on all 7 tasks in comparison with other LLM-based data generation methods. On most tasks, the two label-switching methods (FlipDA and CoTAM) outperform other methods, which indicates using the LLM to switch labels creates more efficient data. On label switching, attribute manipulation shows superiority over simple span replacement as our CoTAM performs

<sup>3</sup>Except 8 epochs for MRPC, on which the model is more likely to overfit.

better than FlipDA on all tasks. The prominent performance of CoTAM also verifies the capability of LLMs to manipulate complex attributes which might refer to premises or questions.

On 6 out of 7 tasks, our CoTAM breaks the supposed upper boundary of (N-way) NK-shot with extra human annotations. This indicates that carefully crafted data from LLMs have the potential to train better models than ones trained on the same number of human annotations. Also, our CoTAM is verified to be such a method that improves the data efficiency by attribute manipulation.

**In-context Learning** The performances of ICL-based inference with different augmentation methods are demonstrated in Table 2. Our CoTAM show superior ability on providing LLMs with few-shot examples for inference, thus broadening the application of our method. The only fail case for CoTAM is the out-of-domain MNLI, where few-shot examples do not benefit the inference. Still, among all augmentation scenarios, our CoTAM performs the best for this evaluation.

**Inference w/ Sentence Embedding** In the field of few-shot text classification, text embedding has proven to be a powerful tool for improving performance and efficiency (Muennighoff et al., 2023). This section is dedicated to exploring instance-based techniques designed explicitly for text classification with text embedding models.

In instance-based inference, a text embedding model converts the input sentence into a representation. The label of this representation is then determined based on its proximity to annotated sen-

Method	Restaurant			Laptop		
	P.	R.	F.	P.	R.	F.
Base	30.61	40.38	34.82	23.73	28.57	25.93
Extra <sup>†</sup>	54.70	66.67	60.09	59.18	44.62	50.88
LLM SL	44.26	56.25	49.54	18.56	22.73	14.09
FlipDA++	45.90	58.33	51.38	26.58	42.86	32.81
CoTDA	44.55	51.04	47.57	26.09	36.74	30.51
CoTAM	50.00	64.58	56.36	33.33	44.90	38.26

Table 4: The performance of span manipulation on aspect-based sentiment analysis datasets.

tence representations. We utilized two tuning-free algorithms in our experiments—Nearest Centroid (NC) (Manning et al., 2008) and K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)—and applied them to three different text classification datasets. NC assigns a label to an input sentence depending on how close it is to centroids, defined as the average representation of sentences sharing the same label. In contrast, KNN labels the input sentence according to the most common label amongst its nearest K neighbors. We set K to 5 in our experiments. We harness the Simple Contrastive Sentence Embedding (SimCSE) model (Gao et al., 2021), with RoBERTa-Large as the backbone model<sup>4</sup>, to encode the texts.

Table 3 showcases the performance of different data generation methods when used with instance-based algorithms. In contrast to methods that generate new texts (such as FlipDA and CoTDA), our proposed method, referred to as CoTAM hereafter, exhibits superior performance in most configurations. This implies that data created by CoTAM also benefits from improved distributions in the latent space of text embedding models. On the AG-NEWS dataset, instance-based algorithms show a preference for in-domain annotations, whether made by humans or Large Language Models (LLMs). This highlights the importance of using in-domain texts when employing these algorithms for certain tasks.

#### 4.4 Aspect-based Sentiment Analysis

Here we further expand the utility of CoTAM to a more complex scenario to manipulate multiple span representations. We experiment on aspect-based sentiment analysis (ABSA), which aims to extract spans targeted by sentiment (aspects) in a statement and corresponding polarities. For instance, the aspect extracted from “The food is good.” will be “positive aspect: food”.

For attribute manipulation on ABSA, we view

<sup>4</sup>[huggingface.co/princeton-nlp/sup-simcse-roberta-large](https://huggingface.co/princeton-nlp/sup-simcse-roberta-large)

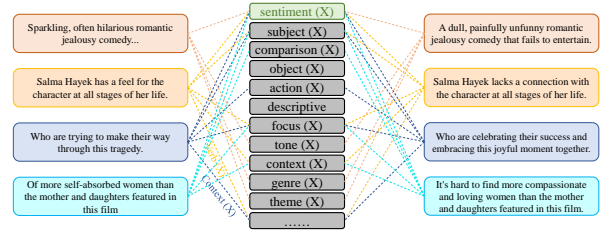


Figure 3: The workflows of CoTAM for different inputs.

the aspects as the ABSA attributes like “positive aspect: food”. We query the LLMs to decompose texts into ABSA and other attributes. The polarities of ABSA attributes are then randomly switched and used for the reconstruction. The reconstructed data are merged into the initial dataset as the augmentation.

We use the SemEval2014 ABSA dataset which has two subsets: restaurant and laptop and three sentiment polarities: positive, negative, and neutral<sup>5</sup>. We set the shot number ( $K$ ) to 10 and generate 2 times for each instance ( $N = 3$ ), which is the maximal manipulation time for an instance with only one aspect. The results on ABSA are presented in Table 4, our CoTAM successfully outperforms other LLM-based augmentation methods, which confirms that CoTAM is applicable to more complex scenarios than single sentence attribute manipulation.

## 5 Further Analysis

### 5.1 Workflow Demonstration

In Figure 3, we demonstrate the workflow of the dynamic attribute decomposition mechanism. In the workflow, our CoTAM decomposes sentences into applicable attributes and reconstructs while maintaining these attributes. For instance, *tone (X)* is more applicable to the first sentence due to its subjectivity and *comparison (X)* is more applicable to the last sentence since only it involves comparison. These attributes comprehend the unchanged parts of texts to guide the reconstruction during the manipulation. Subsequently, the reconstruction switch the targeted label (*sentiment (X)* in the case) with minor change to other attributes.

### 5.2 Ablation Study

We launch an ablation study to verify the importance of each thought in the CoT. We also explore

<sup>5</sup>We remove the conflict polarity because of its sparsity in the dataset.

Data	SST-2			MNLI
	T	NC	KNN	T
CoTAM	<b>79.12</b>	<b>88.43</b>	<b>87.52</b>	<b>54.07</b>
w/o What	75.69	88.03	86.78	45.61
w/o How	77.94	88.15	87.01	48.98
w/o CoT	71.82	87.94	86.24	39.34
w/ V3.5	72.93	87.59	84.31	41.32
w/ FAP	76.38	87.79	85.13	47.91

Table 5: The ablation study on our CoTAM. Matched MNLI results are presented for analysis.

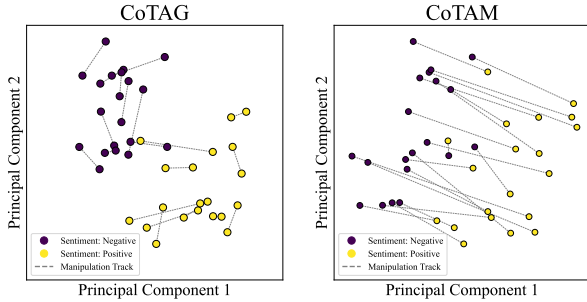


Figure 4: Principal component analysis of text pairs generated by our CoTAG and CoTAM on the SST-2 dataset.

the effect of different LLMs. We thus change the LLM in our experiments to GPT-3.5-turbo. The experiments show that the GPT-4 leads to significantly better fine-tuning results. Also, this gap can be narrowed down by text embedding models on text classification.

The outcomes of our ablation study are detailed in Table 5. In this study, we found that eliminating each “thought” from our CoT resulted in a decline in performance. Interestingly, the “what” (decomposition) thought proved more critical than the “how” (methodology) thought, accentuating the predominance of attribute proposal over auxiliary methodology proposal. The CoT is necessary for label switching as the removal of it leads to significant performance degradation. In comparison between LLMs, GPT-4 outperforms GPT-3.5-turbo, indicating that CoTAM favors larger LLM with better language capability, especially on more complex tasks like MNLI. Finally, we compare the performance of between CoTAM with a fixed attribute pool (FAP) and with a dynamic attribute pool in our experiments. The result shows the advantage to remove the type limitation of attribute the LLM decomposes into.

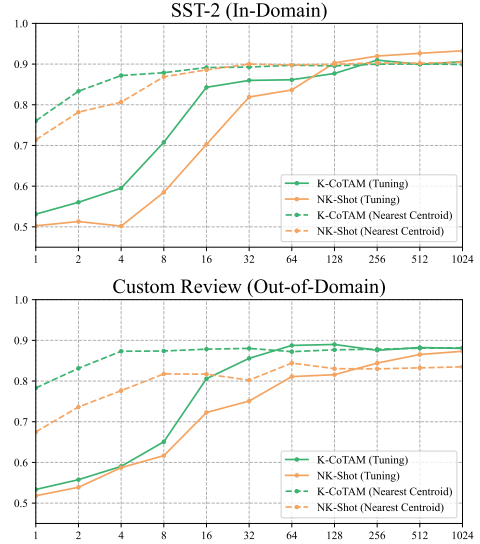


Figure 5: Comparison between K-shot CoTAM and NK-shot on in-domain and out-of-domain test datasets.

### 5.3 Visualization of Attribute Manipulation

In an attempt to confirm our hypothesis that LLM is adjusting a single feature while keeping other attributes constant, we illustrate data pair representations from CoTAM in Figure 4. We use principal component analysis (PCA) (F.R.S., 1901) to take the high-dimensional (1024-dimensional) text representations from SimCSE and simplify them into a 2-dimensional space for ease of visualization.

The diagram distinctly demarcates between positive and negative representations, which underscores the value of our method in fine-tuning and instance-based inference. Additionally, the direction of representation switching is largely consistent, providing further evidence that LLMs have the ability to tweak one attribute while keeping others stable. This consistency in the direction of the switch hints at the predictability and control we have exercised over LLM behavior for targeted feature manipulation. In comparison to CoTAG, our CoTAM depicts a clearer boundary, thus enabling more efficient data learning than traditional data augmentation.

### 5.4 Data Scale Analysis

In this section, we analyze how the number of initial data affects the performance of our CoTAM. Thus, we sample 3000 more instances from SST-2 to scale up the sampling pool. As presented in Figure 5, CoTAM is able to break the NK-Shot boundary with few examples ( $K \leq 64$ ) for fine-tuning. With text representation models, CoTAM

518 shows a significant advantage on very few exam- 568  
519 ples ( $K \leq 4$ ) and converges to a similar perfor- 569  
520 mance with human annotation. Though fine-tuning 570  
521 on more human annotation leads to higher perfor- 571  
522 mance than CoTAM, the in-domain performance 572  
523 improvement might be a result of overfitting to 573  
524 the domain. Thus, we further evaluate CoTAM 574  
525 and NK-Shot on custom review, an out-of-domain 575  
526 dataset with the same labels as SST-2. On custom 576  
527 review, CoTAM shows a consistent advantage with 577  
528 different data numbers. Thus, we conclude our Co- 578  
529 TAM is more robust to domain mismatching than 579  
530 direct tuning. 580

## 531 6 Related Work 581

532 **Attribute Manipulation** aims to control certain 582  
533 attributes of the data. A general application of 583  
534 attribute manipulation is to change the visual at- 584  
535 tributes in facial images (Shen et al., 2020; Shen 585  
536 and Zhou, 2021). Image manipulation generally 586  
537 involves the transformation of image representa- 587  
538 tions (Perarnau et al., 2016; Xiao et al., 2018; Shen 588  
539 et al., 2020) in the latent space. In natural language 589  
540 processing, the closest topic to attribute manipu- 590  
541 lation is data flipping (Kruengkrai, 2019b; Zhou 591  
542 et al., 2022), which replaces key spans in the text 592  
543 to switch its label. Obviously, many textual at- 593  
544 tributes like topics cannot be manipulated by span 594  
545 replacement. Thus, we choose to adapt the LLM to 595  
546 manipulate a latent space approximated by a series 596  
547 of attributes proposed by the LLM. 597

548 **Controllable Generation** is another close topic 598  
549 to our CoTAM. These methods typically gener- 599  
550 ate texts from a continuous latent space discretely 600  
551 by controlling certain dimensions (Bowman et al., 601  
552 2016; Hu et al., 2017; Yang and Klein, 2021). The 602  
553 controllable generator is trained by maximizing a 603  
554 variational lower bound on the data log-likelihood 604  
555 under the generative model with a KL divergence 605  
556 loss (Hu et al., 2017). The limitation of the cur- 606  
557 rent controllable generation is no explicit control 607  
558 of other dimensions to maintain them the same. 608  
559 Our method addresses this issue by completely de- 609  
560 composing the input text into multiple labels with 610  
561 LLMs and then reconstructing it with switched at- 611  
562 tributes. 612

563 **Large Language Models** are large-scale mod- 613  
564 els trained on a massive number of texts (Brown 614  
565 et al., 2020; Chowdhery et al., 2022; Hoffmann 615  
566 et al., 2022) that have been shown to have emerg- 616  
567 ing capabilities (Wei et al., 2022b). One of these 617

capabilities is learning from few-shot demonstra- 568  
569 tions, which is often referred to as in-context learn- 569  
570 ing (Dong et al., 2022). However, these demon- 570  
571 strations must be concatenated into contexts dur- 571  
572 ing inference time, increasing the computational 572  
573 costs and carbon footprints. Another important 573  
574 capability is to follow instructions for zero-shot 574  
575 task transferrability (Wei et al., 2022a). Following 575  
576 this idea, ChatGPT (Ouyang et al., 2022; OpenAI, 576  
577 2023) was trained with human feedback and rein- 577  
578 forcement learning. Our work benefits from these 578  
579 instruction-tuned models to generate attributes and 579  
580 reconstruct sentences. 580

581 **Data Augmentation** is widely employed in low- 581  
582 resource scenarios to mitigate model overfitting. 582  
583 It is usually conducted in a label-preserving man- 583  
584 ner where only minor perturbations are added (Wei 584  
585 and Zou, 2019; Fadaee et al., 2017). Recently, a 585  
586 line of research propose to use LLMs for data aug- 586  
587 mentation. Specifically, they use few-shot data as 587  
588 demonstrations and prompt LLMs to generate new 588  
589 data (Yoo et al., 2021; Sahu et al., 2022a). They 589  
590 claim that the LLM is able to mix few-shot data 590  
591 and synthesize similar ones. Lin et al., 2023 further 591  
592 propose to use Pointwise V-information to filter 592  
593 unhelpful data from generations. Most recently 593  
594 Dai et al., 2023; Whitehouse et al., 2023 propose 594  
595 to generate data using ChatGPT and GPT-4 and 595  
596 observe performance improvement. Finally Cheng 596  
597 et al., 2023 use GPT-3 generated data to improve 597  
598 sentence embedding via contrastive learning. Our 598  
599 work aims at improving LLM-based data augmen- 599  
600 tation via attribute manipulation. 600

## 601 7 Conclusion 601

602 The study introduces a novel method, Chain-of- 602  
603 Thought Attribute Manipulation (CoTAM), which 603  
604 uses manipulated data from Large Language Mod- 604  
605 els (LLMs) for few-shot learning. Our CoTAM cre- 605  
606 ates label-switched data by modifying task-specific 606  
607 attributes and reconstructing new sentences. Our 607  
608 testing validated the effectiveness of CoTAM over 608  
609 other LLM-based text generation techniques. The 609  
610 results also showcase the potential for LLM-guided 610  
611 learning with less supervision. 611

612 Future work will aim to adapt the attribute ma- 612  
613 nipulation technique for smaller language models, 613  
614 increasing its scalability and accessibility. This 614  
615 would reduce reliance on the resource-intensive 615  
616 processes inherent to large language models, im- 616  
617 proving efficiency. 617



## 618 Limitation

619 Despite the significant advancements in few-shot  
620 learning and attribute manipulation reported in this  
621 paper, our proposed CoTAM does come with cer-  
622 tain limitations. Firstly, our approach leverages a  
623 chain-of-thoughts decomposition and reconstruc-  
624 tion procedure which, while yielding improved data  
625 efficiency and model performance, tends to result  
626 in a decrease in the overall generation efficiency  
627 compared to traditional methods. This may affect  
628 the method’s scalability, particularly in scenarios  
629 requiring rapid data generation. Secondly, the cur-  
630 rent implementation of CoTAM is primarily con-  
631 fined to attribute-related tasks, limiting its scope of  
632 application. While this constraint is a direct result  
633 of our method’s design focused on manipulating  
634 task-specific attributes, we acknowledge that ex-  
635 tending CoTAM’s applicability to a broader set of  
636 tasks could significantly increase its utility. Our  
637 future work will thus aim to address this limitation.  
638 Lastly, it should be noted that the effectiveness of  
639 CoTAM is fundamentally dependent on the abili-  
640 ties of the underlying Large Language Models. As  
641 a consequence, the limitations inherent in these  
642 LLMs, such as biases in their training data or limi-  
643 tations in their understanding of nuanced contexts,  
644 could potentially impact the performance of Co-  
645 TAM. It is thus crucial to continually improve and  
646 refine the LLMs used in our method to ensure the  
647 accuracy and robustness of the generated data.

## 648 Ethical Consideration

649 Our work instructs large language models to gen-  
650 erate efficient training data, which generally does  
651 not raise ethical concerns.

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## A Dataset Statistics

	Dataset	SST-2	TweetEmo	AG-News
TC	Domain	Sentiment	Sentiment	Topic
	#Test	1.8K	1.4K	7.6K
	#Label	2	4	4
Others	Dataset	MNLI	MRPC	CSQA
	Task	NLI	STS	MCQA
	#Test	9.8K	1.7K	1.1K
	#Label	3	2	5

Table 6: The statistics of datasets in our experiments.

The statistics of the dataset used in the experiments are presented in Table 6. The numbers of test instances in matched and mismatched are both 9.8K.

## B Attribute Names

Dataset	Attributes
SST-2	sentiment: positive sentiment: negative
TweetEmo	sentiment: anger sentiment: joy sentiment: optimism sentiment: sadness
AG-News	topic: world news topic: sports news topic: business news topic: sci/tech news
MNLI	natural language inference: contradiction natural language inference: neutral natural language inference: entailment
MRPC	semantics: equivalent to sentence 1 semantics: inequivalent to sentence 1
CSQA	best choice: <answer name>

Table 7: The attribute names in datasets of our experiments.

The attribute names of the dataset used in the experiments are presented in Table 7.

## C Prompts

Target	Prompt
CoTAM	“<sentence>” Please think step by step: 1. What are some other attributes of the above sentence except “<attr>”? 2. How to write a similar sentence with these attributes and “<new attr>”? 3. Write such a sentence without any other explanation.
CoTDA	“<sentence>” Please think step by step: 1. What are some other attributes of the above sentence except “<attr>”? 2. How to write a similar sentence with these attributes and “<attr>”? 3. Write such a sentence without any other explanation.
FlipDA	“<sentence>” Please think step by step: 1. How to switch the above sentence to “<new attr>” by changing some spans? 2. Write the switched sentence without any other explanation.

Table 8: The prompts used in our experiments.

The prompts used in the experiments are presented in Table 8.

## D Case Study

Figure 6 specifies the real attribute manipulation process in our experiments. For better depiction, we simplify the response by only presenting the attributes proposed by the LLMs.

In the SST-2 example, other attributes include labels in a different categorization (Topic: Movie Review), actor entities (Actor: Ford, Neeson), and overall style (Opinion: Overall). These attributes are well preserved in the reconstruction, which contributes to a strong contrast in the task target and consequently improves the data efficiency.

Moving on to the MNLI example, the sentence primarily breaks down into different semantic el-



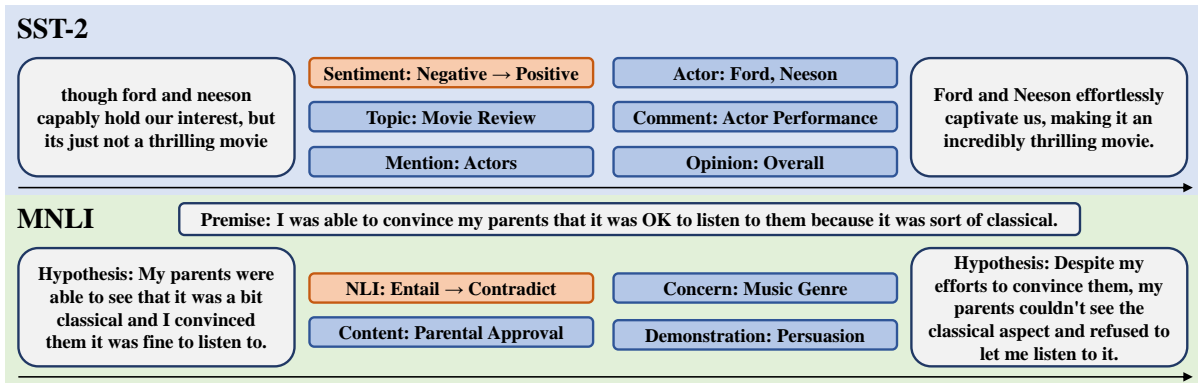


Figure 6: Case study of the real workflow in CoTAM.

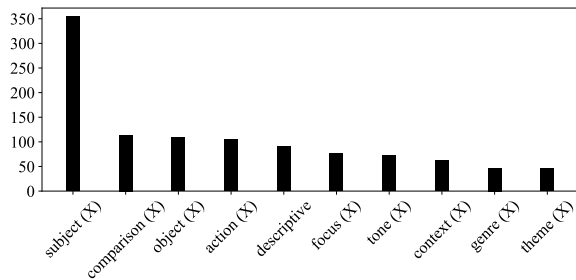


Figure 7: The statistics the most frequent 10 attributes in the decomposition step of CoTAM.

946 elements. When these elements are reconstructed,  
 947 they follow a logical sequence that differs from the  
 948 original sentence. Thus data from CoTAM rein-  
 949 forces the learner’s comprehension of textual logic  
 950 which is crucial for tackling MNLI.

## 951 E Attribute Statistics

952 In this section, we further explore the dynamic at-  
 953 tribute decomposition mechanism in CoTAM. For  
 954 1315 instances from SST-2, there are 4513 decom-  
 955 posed attributes (3.43 per instance) and 2409 differ-  
 956 ent ones. The distribution is in a long-tail pattern  
 957 with 2124 attributes only appearing once. We show  
 958 the statistics the most frequent 10 attributes from  
 959 the decomposition in Table 7. We can observe a  
 960 semantic diversity among the attributes, which ver-  
 961 ifies the ability of LLMs to comprehend the features  
 962 of different inputs. As the most popular attribute  
 963 *subject (X)* only appear in about 20%, there is no  
 964 dominant attribute in the decomposition, which  
 965 shows the flexibility of LLM-driven feature anal-  
 966 ysis. We also provide a quantitative comparison  
 967 with a fixed feature pool in the ablation study.