ALP: Data Augmentation using Lexicalized PCFGs for Few-Shot Text Classification

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Abstract

Data augmentation has been an important ingredient for boosting performances of learned models. Prior data augmentation methods for few-shot text classification have led to great performance boosts. However, they have not been designed to capture the intricate compositional structure of natural language. As a result, they fail to generate samples with plausible and diverse sentence structures. Motivated by this, we present the data Augmentation using Lexicalized Probabilistic context-free grammars (ALP) that generates augmented samples with diverse syntactic structures with plausible grammar. The lexicalized PCFG parse trees consider both the constituents and dependencies to produce a syntactic frame that maximizes a variety of word choices in a syntactically preservable manner without specific domain experts. Experiments on few-shot text classification tasks demonstrate that ALP enhances many state-of-the-art classification methods. As a second contribution, we delve into the train-val splitting methodologies when a data augmentation method comes into play. We argue empirically that the traditional splitting of training and validation sets is sub-optimal compared to our novel augmentation-based splitting strategies that further expand the training split with the same number of labeled data. Taken together, our contributions on the data augmentation strategies yield a strong training recipe for few-shot text classification tasks.

Introduction

Labeled data are an essential ingredient in training deep models. A major challenge in practice is the cost for collecting them. Data augmentation has provided a means to enlarge the training data without resorting to additional labeling cost (Shorten and Khoshgoftaar 2019). Training a text classifier is not an exception. Researchers have proposed different ways to augment text data to expand the labeled text data. These methods focus on diversifying the word choices while preserving the labels for the classification task. For example, Wei and Zou (2019) arbitrarily select target areas of examples for synonym swap and random insertion. Yu et al. (2018), Kumar, Choudhary, and Cho (2020) leverage pre-trained language models for model-based augmentation. Zhang, Yu, and Zhang (2020) create synthetic examples by softly combining input and output sequences.

The prior augmentation methods have successfully diversified the samples and improved classification performances with a small number of labeled data. However, we point out a crucial shortcoming shared by those methods: they do not take into account the intricate compositional structure in natural language. Replacing words and modifying structures of a sentence without linguistic rules and guidance are likely to alter the syntax and semantics. It can be seen in Table 1 that those methods (EDA, BT, and SSMBA) fail to generate samples with plausible and diverse sentence structures.

These limitations motivate us to design a grammar-based augmentation method, which generates more plausible augmented data that better respects the syntax. We present ALP: data Augmentation using Lexicalized Probabilistic context-free grammars for few-shot text classification. We use lexicalized PCFG (or L-PCFG) parse trees to consider both constituents and dependencies to capture two very different views of syntax in text data and produce a syntactic frame that maximizes a variety of word choices in a syntactically preservable manner without specific domain experts.

Our approach aims to reach theoretical guarantees of increasing both the amount and the diversity of a given dataset in a pretty label-preserving manner. As such, ALP is designed to produce augmented samples with diverse sentence structures, each still respecting the linguistic rules and preserving the corresponding class label. The ALP samples in Table 1 exemplify such augmented data. We demonstrate the empirical superiority of ALP augmentation in the few-shot text classification benchmarks.

Recognizing the importance of the amount of data for...
few-shot learning tasks, we further contribute novel train-val splitting methods that are relevant when data augmentation methods come into play. The train-val split is often regarded as a fixed constraint for a learning problem. However, we argue that the train-val split itself could be regarded as part of the model development pipeline. This viewpoint is echoed by researchers in meta-learning (Setlur, Li, and Smith 2020; Saunshi, Gupta, and Hu 2021; Bai et al. 2021), where they even suggest unconventional splitting methods like “train-train” that trains and validates the models on the identical data split. We note that, when data augmentation step is part of the game, there are even further creative possibilities to split the training and validation sets. For example, under the same number of labeled data $S$ and a fixed augmentation budget, we show that training on the entire augmented labeled data $\text{aug}(S)$ and validating on the original data $S$ brings about further gains in performance across the board.

In summary, we contribute (1) a grammar-based data augmentation method that diversifies sentence structures and (2) novel train-val splitting strategies that can be combined with general data augmentation methods.

Background

In this section, we explain background research work on topics related to our core contributions: semi-supervised learning, data augmentation, and the train-val split.

Semi-Supervised Learning (SSL)

SSL leverages both labeled and unlabeled data for learning a discriminative task. Early work has embraced the viewpoint that SSL is most useful when a large amount of noisy, unlabeled data source is accessible on top of a small number of clean, labeled samples (Chen et al. 2019, Li, Socher, and Hoi 2020). As such, under the SSL setup, prior studies have focused on applying data augmentation on the unlabeled data, rather than on the labeled ones. Xie et al. (2020) and Chen, Yang, and Yang (2020) achieve state-of-the-art model performance from noisy unlabeled data using advanced data augmentation methods in text classification with limited data. Contrary to the common wisdom, we find that data augmentation on the clean, labeled data also aids the generalization. Under the setup with extremely limited data ($k$-shot learning), the benefits of the increased amount of data outweighs the additional noise introduced by the augmentation algorithm.

Data Augmentation

Data augmentation refers to a general training technique for machine learning where the original training data are expanded to a larger set, without resorting to external sources of further data (Shorten and Khoshgoftaar 2019). Data augmentation has proven highly effective especially for deep learning and bigger models, as they generally benefit from greater amounts of data. Data augmentation has proved useful both for labeled and unlabeled samples. For unlabeled samples, as typically done in SSL, data augmentation is applied in the form of consistency regularization (Xie et al. 2020; Chen, Yang, and Yang 2020; Chen et al. 2021).

As mentioned above, this work focuses on the data augmentation on labeled samples. For labeled samples, the augmentation algorithm aims to preserve the semantics of the samples, while enhancing their diversity. Prior approaches on data augmentation for labeled text samples are limited in that they fail to observe linguistic rules and syntax. For example, they randomly select target areas for synonym swap and random insertion (Wei and Zou 2019) or leverage pre-trained language models for model-based augmentation (Yu et al. 2018; Kumar, Choudhary, and Cho 2020). (Zhang, Yu, and Zhang 2020) create synthetic examples by softly combining input and output sequences. While they improve the model generalization, replacing words in a sentence without linguistic rules and guidance is likely to generate samples that are less realistic and plausible. These limitations have motivated us to design our grammar-based augmentation method. We demonstrate the enhanced preservation of both the semantic and syntactic information in samples.

Train-Val Split

Machine learning focuses on the generalization beyond the particular training samples. Thus, a suitable segregation of data according to their dedicated uses is crucial in developing models and evaluating their generalization capabilities (Hastie, Tibshirani, and Friedman 2001). Practitioners typically introduce a three-way split: train, validation, and test. Train split is used for fitting model parameters, for example via gradient descent for deep models. The validation split is used for the outer optimization problem, where hyperparameters controlling the generalization performance are fitted through black-box optimization algorithms (Feurer and Hutter 2019) or heuristics (Gencoglu et al. 2019). The test split is the ultimate test ground for the model; the discussion of the test set is out of the scope.

The train-val split is often considered a given condition in machine learning dataset and literature. However, from a practical point of view, the ultimate crude material for building a model is the set of labeled data, which comes before the protocol for splitting it into the train and validation splits. In other words, the very protocol for the train-val split shall also be part of the overall pipeline for model building and be subject to scientific studies and solution-seeking. This view is shared by researchers in meta-learning (Setlur, Li, and Smith 2020; Saunshi, Gupta, and Hu 2021; Bai et al. 2021) have even questioned the need for the train-val split and have proposed to use the entire labeled data for both training the parameters and validating the hyperparameters (the “train-train” method). In this work, we inherit this viewpoint, and consider various strategies for the train-val split. The space of possible splitting strategies is greatly expanded by the inclusion of the data augmentation stage.

Data Augmentation using L-PCFGs

Our data augmentation using lexicalized PCFGs (ALP) maximizes a variety of word choices within grammatical rules. This section introduces the ALP algorithm.
**Input sentence:** The characters didn’t seem to fit very well with the book.

**Stage 1. Parse**

Two plausible trees that are above the pre-set probabilistic threshold.

**Stage 2. Get More Trees from Other Intra-Class Samples**

Crawl additional plausible parse trees from other sentences in the same class.

**Stage 3. Extract Subtrees with Lexical Heads**

A collection of subtrees with lexical heads of the input sentence. The lexical heads are positions that can be syntactically augmented.

**Stage 4. Augment Syntactic Trees**

A combination of subtrees with similar lexical heads in terms of phrase structure.

**Stage 5. Augment Synonyms**

Words with the same POS tags go to the same category. Words are augmented using WordNet.

**Augmented sentences:**

The roles didn’t agree to suit very easily with the film.
The scripts didn’t get together very comfortably with the outlook.
The anticipations didn’t match very intimately.
The records didn’t look very good.

The pictures didn’t appear very considerably.
The outlooks didn’t correspond very substantially.
The prospects didn’t satisfy very advantageously.

... (and more)

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**Lexicalized PCFGs**

To explain the Lexicalized PCFGs, we first introduce the context-free grammar (CFG). CFG is a list of rules that define well-structured sentences in a language. Each rule has a left-hand side $\alpha$ that identifies a syntactic category, and a right-hand side $\beta$ that defines its alternative component parts. Syntactic categories include NP for noun phrase and VP for verb phrase.

Probabilistic context-free grammars (PCFGs) have been an important probabilistic approach to syntactic analysis [Lari and Young 1990; Jelinek, Lafferty, and Mercer 1992]. It assigns a probability $q(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$ to each parse tree $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ allowed by the underlying CFGs. The parameter $q(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$ is the conditional probability of choosing rule $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, given that the $\alpha$ is on the left-hand-side of the rule (Collins 2013). Under a particular type of ambiguity such as a prepositional-phrase (PP) attachment ambiguity, the PCFG model chooses a single parse tree between the two that have identical rules, depending on the value of $q(\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{VP PP})$ and $q(\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{NP PP})$. The probabilistic parser chooses a tree with $\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{VP PP}$ if $q(\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{VP PP}) > q(\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{NP PP})$. The probabilistic component is crucial in our application because we aim to generate a diverse set of perturbations of a sentence based on multiple plausible hypotheses.

Lexicalized PCFGs (L-PCFGs) extends PCFGs by in-
Data Augmentation using L-PCFGs

We propose to use the rule probabilities and lexical information to diversify the grammatical choices from the limited resources. We extract many plausible subtrees using probabilistic threshold and consider lexical heads as the position information to swap and augment the syntactic structure. We substitute synonymous words within the syntactic frame.

Stages 1–2. Parse with probabilistic threshold to select more trees

We first extract all the valid parse trees using probabilistic threshold \( \tau \), instead of picking a single tree with the maximum probability. As shown in Figure 1, the input sentence generates two valid trees that include a PP attachment ambiguity. Unlike how regular PCFGs behave, ALP picks both trees with \( \text{VP} \rightarrow \text{NP} \text{ VP} \) and \( \text{NP} \rightarrow \text{NP} \text{ PP} \) if \( q(\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{NP} \text{ PP}) > \tau \) and \( q(\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{NP} \text{ PP}) > \tau \). We use all the plausible trees generated from sentences in the same class if they are available. We expect to maximize the candidate trees to use them in the syntactic augmentation stage.

Stage 3. Extract subtrees with lexical heads

After collecting all the plausible tree rules to use, we extract subtrees using lexical heads as the position information to swap. Figure 1 shows an example of \( \text{VP} \) as the lexical head. ALP swaps sub-subtrees with other types of lexical heads such as \( \text{NP} \) or \( \text{PP} \) within the subtrees if available.

Stages 4–5. Augment and Generate

While ALP extracts grammar rules from a starting input sentence to terminal rules, its augmentation procedure starts from bottom to top. We gather words with the same POS tags such as NN or VB into one pool as shown in Stage 5 of Figure 1. We combine all the available words from different sentences in the same class to augment as many samples as possible, using the WordNet synonyms. The collected words have the freedom to be replaced with other words in the same POS-tagged pool. We then fill in augmented syntactic trees generated from Stage 4. The augmented syntactic phrases now replace subtrees extracted with the lexical information within the original sentence. This way, ALP preserves the label compatibility while augmenting data in the greatest number of ways.

Train-Val Split with Augmented Data

As explained in the Background section, the train-val split is crucial for ensuring good generalization performance of machine learning models. While the training and validation splits are often considered the given protocols for the sake of fair comparison among methods, the splitting of training and validation sets itself can be regarded as part of the model development framework (Hastie, Tibshirani, and Friedman 2001; Saunshi, Gupta, and Hu 2021). Our second contribution is based on this perspective.

In this section, we delve into different possibilities of assigning the training and validation splits of a labeled source dataset, in particular in the presence of a data augmentation procedure. The motivation for searching over multiple splitting strategies is the same as that for applying data augmentation: enlarging the labeled training data for the model.

We provide conceptual diagrams for possible train-val splitting strategies based on the common labeled source dataset in Figure 2. Experiments on those strategies will be presented in the Experiments section.

1–3. Existing splitting strategies

The upper row in Figure 2 corresponds to existing train-val splitting. One may
split the source into disjoint train and validation splits (1. Train-Val) or may additionally apply a data augmentation algorithm on the training split (2. AugTrain-Val). In the meta-learning field, it has been argued that using the source dataset both for parameter tuning and model selection may enhance the final performance (3. Train-Train) [Bai et al. 2021]. The intuition is that, for low-data regime like few-shot learning, the importance of enlarging the training split outweighs the importance of segregating the validation data.

4. Augment-and-Split The data augmentation step opens up new search spaces for the splitting strategy. For example, one may first augment the source dataset and then split the augmented data according to the ratio that ensures the maximal size of the training split while allowing for a “just-right” amount of validation samples. One may control the ratio between the training and validation splits (e.g. 80:20) to find the right balance.

5. AugTrain-Train To ensure the purity and representativeness of the validation split, one may opt for keeping the source data for validating models, while using the augmented version of the entire dataset as the training split. This ensures a large number of training data as well as minimal noise for the validation split. The cost to pay here is the overlap between the training and test splits, which may hinder the model selection based on the generalizability. However, again, under the low-data regime, the enlarged training split may bring greater gain than the loss incurred by the lack of ability to select models that generalize well.

6. AugTrain-AugTrain In the extreme case, one may apply the “Train-Train” strategy on the augmented source data. Both the training and validation splits are the augmented source data. This setup additionally enlarges the validation split to perfectly overlap with the training split. This setup is meant as a sanity check that introducing noise on the validation split via data augmentation may hinder the optimal model selection and degrade the overall performance.

Experiments

In this section, we present experimental results on our contributions. We first show the superiority of ALP among recent data augmentation baselines utilized in semi-supervised learning (SSL) for few-shot text classification. We then present various train-val splitting strategies and propose an optimal strategy that appropriately combines data augmentation with the train-val splitting.

Experimental Setup

Our experiments investigate three different data augmentation methods other than ALP. We measure their performances on top of three state-of-the-art SSL methods on four benchmark text classification tasks. We explain the details of those experiments here.

Few-Shot Text Classification Usual few-shot learning refers to the setup where \(k\) samples per class are available for training and other disjoint \(k\) samples per class are available for validation, where \(k\) is usually small (\(k\)-shot learning). This means, in total, there are \(2k\) labeled samples are available for each class. We train models under the SSL fashion, by additionally utilizing the remaining data as the unlabeled source. In our experiments, we consider applying data augmentation methods on the \(2k\) labeled samples. For more strategic ways to combine data augmentation with the splitting strategies for the \(2k\) labeled samples, see the Section “Train-Val Split with Augmented Data” and Figure 2. Unless specified otherwise, we use the “Train-Val” and “AugTrain-Val” schemes for vanilla training and the data-augmented versions, respectively. We have conducted experiments with 5 random samplings of the labeled data, shuffling of data being presented to the models, and the weight initialization. We report the mean and standard deviation.

Datasets We conduct experiments on four benchmark text classification tasks as summarized in Table 2. SST-2 (Socher et al. 2013) and IMDB (Maas et al. 2011) are used for sentiment classification for movie reviews but with different sequence lengths per sample. AG News (Zhang, Zhao, and Le-Cun 2015) and Yahoo (Chang et al. 2008) are used for topic classification in regards to news articles and question and answer pairs from the Yahoo! Answers website, respectively.

Baseline Augmentation Methods We consider three data augmentation methods as our baselines. Easy Data Augmentation (EDA) (Wei and Zou 2019) is a heuristic method that randomly replaces, inserts, swaps, and deletes words. We use the official code with the recommended insertion, deletion, and swap ratios the authors provided. Unsupervised Data Augmentation (Xie et al. 2020), or back-translation (BT), is another common method that translates data to and from a pivot language to generate paraphrases. We select German as intermediate languages for back-translation using FairSeq and set 0.9 as the random sampling temperature. Self-Supervised Manifold Based Data Augmentation (SSMBA) (Ng, Cho, and Ghassemi 2020) generates pseudo-labels by using pre-trained masked language models as a denoising auto-encoder. SSMBA uses the corruption and reconstruction function to fill in the masked portion and thus augment the data. We use the default masked proportion and the pre-trained weights provided by the authors. Throughout the experiments we generate 200 samples for all augmentation methods, unless specified differently.

Base Semi-Supervised Learning (SSL) Approaches We introduce three state-of-the-art SSL approaches to explore their compatibility with data augmentation techniques. Self-
### Data Augmentation Methods

| Labeled data | #Train | #Val | No augmentation | +EDA | +BT | +SSMBA | +ALP |
|--------------|--------|------|----------------|------|-----|--------|------|
| AG News      | 5      | 5    | 77.73 ± 4.91   | 78.89 ± 2.64 | 78.66 ± 4.47 | 78.65 ± 1.90 | **82.30 ± 3.34** |
|              | 10     | 10   | 82.13 ± 3.99   | 80.72 ± 1.61 | 83.80 ± 1.48 | 84.68 ± 1.07 | **86.18 ± 1.27** |
| SST-2        | 5      | 5    | 54.38 ± 3.79   | 56.22 ± 2.56 | 55.77 ± 4.64 | 56.34 ± 5.42 | **63.40 ± 2.33** |
|              | 10     | 10   | 61.82 ± 5.85   | 53.96 ± 1.40 | 62.05 ± 5.03 | 59.05 ± 5.70 | **69.72 ± 2.56** |
| IMDB         | 5      | 5    | 54.75 ± 3.01   | 60.32 ± 8.38 | 65.33 ± 6.54 | 66.43 ± 9.10 | **67.05 ± 10.29** |
|              | 10     | 10   | 68.49 ± 7.42   | 69.80 ± 5.75 | 70.41 ± 8.96 | 63.36 ± 6.07 | **71.29 ± 6.08** |
| Yahoo!       | 5      | 5    | 47.77 ± 0.77   | **55.49 ± 3.82** | 54.59 ± 3.68 | 53.17 ± 7.15 | 55.19 ± 3.64 |
|              | 10     | 10   | 58.81 ± 3.02   | 63.12 ± 2.61 | 59.35 ± 3.24 | 61.50 ± 0.48 | **64.16 ± 1.40** |

Table 3: Comparison of data augmentation methods. We use the Self-Training (ST) semi-supervised learning setup with k-shot samples for both training and validation, where \( k \in \{5, 10\} \). The Train-Val and AugTrain-Val splits in Figure 2 have been used for No-augmentation and augmented variants, respectively.

### Table 4: ALP with the state-of-the-art SSL methods. k-shot samples have been used for both training and validation, where \( k \in \{5, 10\} \).

| Methods   | AG News | SST-2 | IMDB | Yahoo! |
|-----------|---------|-------|------|--------|
|           | 5 10    | 5 10  | 5 10 | 5 10   |
| UST       | 79.65 83.85 | 57.13 62.71 | 63.60 73.63 | 55.49 63.54 |
| + BT      | 81.61 83.43 | 57.22 67.76 | 67.14 83.21 | 61.78 63.91 |
| + SSMBA   | 83.05 86.32 | 48.76 57.00 | 61.05 66.82 | 62.81 63.65 |
| + ALP     | **84.72 87.41** | **73.22 78.01** | **71.32 76.33** | **61.20 66.89** |
| MixText   | 81.14 87.11 | 51.46 50.91 | 68.09 72.87 | 66.60 67.40 |
| + BT      | 82.04 70.18 | 51.29 51.78 | 62.44 74.12 | 66.19 66.00 |
| + SSMBA   | 83.47 69.03 | 51.95 52.39 | 54.11 61.36 | 65.32 67.14 |
| + ALP     | **83.50 87.72** | **52.44 57.06** | **84.35 84.16** | **67.31 67.81** |

### Table 5: Comparison of train-val splitting strategies. See Figure 2 for the description of each method. We match the resources used by the six splitting methods: the number of labeled source data (10 samples per class) and the number of augmented samples (200 samples per class) if there is any. We use ALP for the data augmentation. “A-and-S” refers to the Augment-and-Split scheme.

| Splitting schemes   | #Samples | Dataset       | Average |
|---------------------|----------|---------------|---------|
|                      | train | val | AGNews | SST-2 | IMDB | Yahoo! |       |
| 1. Train-Val       | 5     | 5   | 77.73   | 54.38 | 54.75 | 47.77 | 58.66 |
| 2. AugTrain-Val    | 200   | 5   | 82.30   | 63.40 | 64.89 | 55.19 | 66.45 |
| 3. Train-Train      | 10    | 10  | 80.41   | 57.45 | 60.48 | 50.76 | 62.28 |
| 4. A-and-S (50:50)  | 100   | 100 | 80.51   | 72.33 | 57.70 | 54.59 | 66.28 |
| 4. A-and-S (80:20)  | 160   | 40  | 83.23   | 71.14 | 71.03 | 59.44 | 72.13 |
| 5. A-and-S (90:10)  | 180   | 20  | 78.59   | 56.01 | 66.27 | 60.28 | 65.29 |
| 5. AugTrain-Train   | 200   | 100 | 83.45   | 63.64 | 80.41 | **62.82** | 72.40 |
| 6. AugTrain-AugTrain| 200   | 200 | 82.53   | 64.14 | 62.53 | 59.64 | 67.21 |

### Evaluating ALP

We evaluate the performance of ALP augmentation against existing methods. We then explain the performance boost in terms of the exceptionally high degrees of diversity for ALP-augmented samples.

### Comparison against Other Augmentation Methods

Table 3 shows the comparison among data augmentation methods when applied to the ST semi-supervision method. We observe that the prior data augmentation methods tend to enhance the performances, with a few critical exceptions. For example, for SST-2 dataset with \( k = 10 \), EDA drops the performance from 61.82% to 53.96%. Such aberrations occur at least once for EDA, BT, and SSMBA among the benchmarks considered. On the other hand, ALP uniformly improves the performance on augmented data across the board. Moreover, ALP outperforms all previous data augmentation methods by quite a margin in general. For example, on SST-2 with \( k = 10 \), ALP achieves 69.72%, compared to the second-best method BT with 62.05%.

### Compatibility with Various SSL Approaches

We verify that ALP is applicable to any deep learning model by showing its performance with other semi-supervised learning (SSL) approaches, such as UST and MixText. See Table 4 for the results. We observe that ALP generally improves the classification accuracy for both UST and MixText. We note that BT and SSMBA often fails to improved the performance for MixText; for IMDB \( k = 5 \), they drop the accuracy by 5.44%p and 6.73%p, respectively.
We investigate methods for splitting training and validation sets while exploring ways of taking full advantage of available labels to optimize data augmentation performance on labeled data. To make a fair comparison, we fix the labeled source data with $2k = 10$ samples. We further fix the computational overhead due to data augmentation by fixing the number of augmented samples to 200. Figure 2 describes the setups and Table 5 shows the corresponding model performances. The Train-Val split is the standard setup for $5$-shot text classification. The baseline result is 58.66% on average across the benchmark datasets. Adding our ALP augmentation boosts the score to 66.45% (AugTrain-Val split). As an additional baseline, we test the Train-Train split, introduced by Bai et al. 2021. As argued in the paper, we observe a mild improvement in performance (62.28%).

We now consider more creative splitting schemes. The Augment-and-Split scheme yields the average accuracy of 72.13% for the splitting ratio 8:2, greatly outperforming the previously considered splits like AugTrain-Val and Train-Train. The best average performance is reported by the AugTrain-Train split (72.40%), which uses the augmented source data for training and the original source data for validation. The other advantage of AugTrain-Train is that there is no additional hyperparameter attached, unlike the Augment-and-Split scheme.

We identify two lessons from the experiments here. First, few-shot classification generally benefits from an increased size of training data. This is so important that it even outweighs the importance of information segregation between training and validation. Second, for the validation set, the cleanliness often matters more than its bulk. For example, blindly increasing its size through augmentation drops the performance (5.19%p drop from AugTrain-Train to AugTrain-AugTrain).

We now turn to the question: does our best splitting strategy, AugTrain-Train, also yield the best results for data augmentation methods other than ALP? Table 7 shows the results. We observe that our novel split, AugTrain-Train, uniformly improves the performance for EDA, BT, and SSMB for $k \in \{5, 10\}$. This validates the effectiveness of AugTrain-Train beyond ALP. We further confirm that under this new split, ALP is still the best-performing augmentation method.

We have introduced a novel text augmentation method, ALP, that considers the syntactic structure of the augmented samples. Using grammar-based mechanisms ALP increases the diversity of the sentence structures and the word choices in sentences, while preserving the semantic content. With the exceptionally high level of diversity, ALP outperforms existing text augmentation methods on the few-shot text classification tasks on four real-world benchmarks. Given the importance of securing a large amount of labeled training data, we also explore novel train-val splitting schemes for few-shot classification task. We show that the usual disjoint training and validation splits are in fact sub-optimal and propose a novel scheme that uses the augmented source data as the training split and the un-augmented original source as validation. The two contributions are orthogonal. Together, they comprise a powerful recipe for greatly enhancing the few-shot classification scores across the board.

We pro-
We inves-
Which splitting scheme will yield the best gain?

**Comparison of Train-Val Splitting Strategies**

| $k$   | Method       | No-aug | EDA  | BT    | SSMB | ALP    |
|------|--------------|--------|------|-------|------|--------|
| 5    | AugTrain-Val | 58.66  | 62.73| 63.59 | 63.65| 66.45  |
|      | AugTrain-Train| 62.28  | 64.42| 67.40 | 68.09| 72.40  |
| 10   | AugTrain-Val | 67.81  | 66.90| 68.90 | 67.15| 72.83  |
|      | AugTrain-Train| 70.97  | 67.31| 73.15 | 68.91| 74.89  |

Table 7: Data augmentation with the best train-val split. See Figure 2 for an overview of splitting methods.

**Semantic Fidelity and Text Diversity of ALP**

We provide an explanation for the superiority of ALP against baseline methods in terms of the semantic fidelity and text diversity in augmented samples. ALP generates sentences with decent semantic fidelity, as shown in Table 6. We use a BERT-Base classifier fine-tuned on all available labeled samples to measure classification accuracies on generated data (Kumar, Choudhary, and Cho 2020). Higher scores indicate the preservation of class labels in generated data. ALP has average fidelity scores (81.8%) closest to the original (85.2%) across four different benchmarks. We evaluate text diversity for augmentation methods by measuring Self-BLEU scores (Zhu et al. 2018) that assess how an augmented sentence resembles the original one. Table 6 shows that ALP has the lowest Self-BLEU scores, which imply high diversity of the text. The diversity of sentence structure and word choices while preserving the label compatibility has an instrumental role in boosting the model performances; ALP is designed for that.

Table 6: Semantic fidelity and text diversity. We measure semantic fidelity using BERT classifier and text diversity using SelfBLEU-$n$ where $n \in \{2, 5\}$.

| & Alp | Bt   | Ssmb | Eda  | No-aug |
|----|------|------|------|------|--------|
| Fidelity & 79.3±4.8 & 77.6±4.8 & 81.8±4.6 & 85.2±3.8 |
| SelfBLEU-2/5 & 0.75 / 0.49 & 0.54 / 0.32 & 0.33 / 0.08 & 0.00 / 0.00 |

**Train-Val Split with Data Augmentation**

We empirically test the strategies for splitting training and validation sets from a labeled source data. As mentioned earlier, the introduction of data augmentation into the pipeline results in a multiplicity of splitting strategies in Figure 2. Overhead due to data augmentation by fixing the number of augmented samples to 200. Figure 2 describes the setups and Table 5 shows the corresponding model performances. The Train-Val split is the standard setup for 5-shot text classification. The baseline result is 58.66% on average across the

**Conclusions**

We have introduced a novel text augmentation method, ALP, that considers the syntactic structure of the augmented samples. Using grammar-based mechanisms ALP increases the diversity of the sentence structures and the word choices in sentences, while preserving the semantic content. With the exceptionally high level of diversity, ALP outperforms existing text augmentation methods on the few-shot text classification tasks on four real-world benchmarks. Given the importance of securing a large amount of labeled training data, we also explore novel train-val splitting schemes for few-shot classification task. We show that the usual disjoint training and validation splits are in fact sub-optimal and propose a novel scheme that uses the augmented source data as the training split and the un-augmented original source as validation. The two contributions are orthogonal. Together, they comprise a powerful recipe for greatly enhancing the few-shot classification scores across the board.

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