

The Power of Prompt Tuning for Low-Resource Semantic Parsing

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Abstract

Prompt tuning has recently emerged as an effective method for adapting pre-trained language models to a number of language understanding and generation tasks. In this paper, we investigate prompt tuning for semantic parsing—the task of mapping natural language utterances onto formal meaning representations. On the low-resource splits of Overnight and TOPv2, we find that a prompt tuned T5-xl significantly outperforms its fine-tuned counterpart, as well as strong GPT-3 and BART baselines. We also conduct ablation studies across different model scales and target representations, finding that, with increasing model scale, prompt tuned T5 models improve at generating target representations that are far from the pre-training distribution.

1 Introduction

With the widespread success of pre-trained language models (LMs; Devlin et al. 2019; Raffel et al. 2020; Bommasani et al. 2021), it becomes increasingly important to explore how such models can be adapted to downstream tasks. One adaptation method which has recently attracted much attention is prompt design (Brown et al., 2020; Shin et al., 2020), which modulates the behaviour of a LM through a task description and a few input-output examples. Brown et al. (2020) show that this adaptation strategy is increasingly effective for larger LMs. However, prompt design is sensitive to the exact phrasing of the prompt, and, more importantly, performs worse than fine-tuning models on task-specific examples (Lester et al., 2021).

Prompt tuning has recently arisen as a strong performing alternative adaption method (Lester et al., 2021). Rather than hand-designing discrete prompts, prompt tuning optimizes the embeddings of a number of task-specific prompt tokens. In contrast to fine-tuning, this method keeps almost all LM parameters frozen. On a set of language

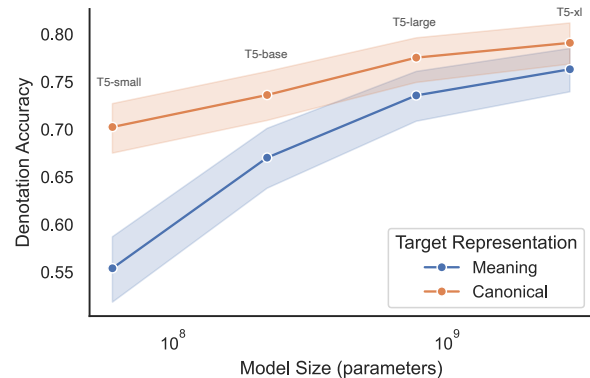


Figure 1: We show that the T5 prompt tuning performance difference between target representations shrinks as the number of parameters increase, with constrained decoded T5-xl achieving close to performance parity.

understanding tasks, Lester et al. (2021) show that prompt tuning becomes competitive with fine-tuning for the largest pre-trained T5 models (Raffel et al., 2020). Li and Liang (2021) also explore a related parameter-efficient adaptation method called prefix-tuning, finding that it outperforms fine-tuning on low-resource natural language generation tasks.

In this paper, we investigate prompt tuning for semantic parsing. This task is fundamentally different from the aforementioned language understanding and generation tasks, as it requires that models output formal meaning representations which do not resemble the natural language distribution seen during pre-training. In particular, we focus on the low-resource setup because examples for semantic parsing are difficult and expensive to collect (Wang et al., 2015; Marzoev et al., 2020). We therefore evaluate prompt tuning on two datasets: the 200-shot version of Overnight (Wang et al., 2015; Shin et al., 2021) and the low-resource splits TOPv2 (Chen et al., 2020). On both datasets, we compare prompt tuning T5 against fine-tuning and investigate the effect of canonicalizing the meaning

representation, i.e. to what extent naturalizing the logical forms influences performance. In addition, we study the effect of T5 model scale on Overnight as well as varying data regimes on TOPv2. Our main findings can be summarized as follows:

- For large T5 models, prompt tuning significantly outperforms fine-tuning in the low-data regime, resulting in an absolute improvement of 6% and 15% on Overnight and TOPv2, respectively. This performance gap decreases when more training data becomes available.
- With growing model size, prompt tuned T5 models are increasingly capable of outputting diverse target representations (see Figure 1). On Overnight, we find that the disparity between canonical and meaning representations shrinks from 17% to 4% for T5-small and T5-xl, respectively. On TOPv2, prompt tuned T5-large models are much better at generating out-of-vocabulary tokens than T5-small.

2 Related work

Our work is related to recent work on semantic parsing and prompt tuning, which we briefly describe below.

2.1 Semantic Parsing

Semantic parsing is the task of converting a natural language utterance $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_N)$ to a formal meaning representation $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_M)$. These meaning representations, also referred to as logical forms, can be interpreted by machines and executed in a real environment. For example, ThingTalk (Campagna et al., 2019) and TOP (Gupta et al., 2018) are meaning representations for executing commands of virtual assistants, while SQL is a representation for interacting with relational databases. In recent years, neural sequence-to-sequence models have become the dominant approach for semantic parsing tasks (Dong and Lapata, 2016).

Canonicalization A common simplification step in semantic parsing is to canonicalize the meaning representations. That is, the meaning representation \mathbf{z} is naturalized to a canonical form \mathbf{c} through a grammar or set of rules. Examples of the meaning and canonical representation for Overnight and TOPv2 (Wang et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2020) can be found in Fig. 2.

When canonical representations are available, Berant and Liang (2014) argue that semantic parsing can be seen as a paraphrase task. They propose to use a paraphrase model—using e.g. word vectors trained on Wikipedia—to find the best paraphrase of utterance \mathbf{u} among a set of canonical utterances. They show this paraphrase model improves results over directly generating logical forms on two question-answering datasets. Marzoev et al. (2020) extends this work by showing that pre-trained language models like BERT can be effective paraphraser. While Berant and Liang (2014); Marzoev et al. (2020) use models to score canonical utterances, Shin et al. (2021) propose to constrain the generation process of autoregressive models like BART and GPT-3. On a number of few-shot semantic parsing tasks, they demonstrate the benefit of generating canonical representations over meaning representations.

2.2 Prompt-tuning

Lester et al. (2021) evaluates prompt tuning on SuperGLUE, a benchmark consisting of eight language understanding tasks. They find that prompt tuning becomes competitive with fine-tuning for the largest T5 model. Li and Liang (2021) propose prefix-tuning to adapt BART and GPT-2 for natural language generation tasks. This method differs from Lester et al. (2021) in that it prepends trainable embeddings for each layer of the language model rather than introducing token embeddings at the input layer. They demonstrate that pre-fix outperforms fine-tuning baselines. Similarly, Liu et al. (2021) also show encouraging results for prompt tuning on natural language understand and generation tasks. Qin and Eisner (2021) also explores prompt tuning but for a knowledge extraction task. Inserting general adapter layers into pre-trained language models is also proposed in Houlsby et al. (2019); Mahabadi et al. (2021). Related to our work are also other few-shot adaptation techniques like PET (Schick and Schütze, 2021). Moreover, adapter layers have also been explored in the computer vision domain (Rebuffi et al., 2017; de Vries et al., 2017).

3 Experiments

To evaluate low-resource prompt tuning, we compare against fine-tuned variants of the same model on two semantic parsing datasets with canonical representations available. We compare both large

TOPv2	<p>Natural Language Utterance Driving directions to the Eagles game</p> <p>Meaning Representation [IN:GET_DIRECTIONS Driving directions to [SL:DESTINATION [IN:GET_EVENT the [SL:NAME_EVENT Eagles] [SL:CAT_EVENT game]]]]</p> <p>Canonicalized Representation simplify meaning representation by removing utterance tokens [IN:GET_DIRECTIONS Driving directions to [SL:DESTINATION [IN:GET_EVENT the [SL:NAME_EVENT Eagles] [SL:CAT_EVENT game]]]]</p> <p>replace ontology labels with short label of existing In-Vocab tokens [T1 [T2 [T3 [T4 Eagles] [T5 game]]]]</p> <p>add ontology labels to tokenizer as single Out-of-Vocab token [<+1> [<+2> [<+3> [<+4> Eagles] [<+5> game]]]]</p>	Overnight	<p>Natural Language Utterance which players are not point guards</p> <p>Meaning Representation (call listValue (call getProperty (lambda s (call filter (var s) (string position) (string !=) en.position.point_guard)) (call domain (string player))) (string player)))</p> <p>Canonicalized Representation corresponding grammar-generated canonicalized form player whose position is not point guard</p>
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Figure 2: Examples from the TOPv2 and Overnight datasets with the corresponding canonicalization schemes.

and small variants of the T5 architecture on these datasets and experiment with various canonicalized representations.

3.1 Datasets

Overnight The Overnight semantic parsing dataset (Wang et al., 2015) consists of 13,682 natural utterance, canonical form, meaning representation triples split across eight domains. To simulate low-resource splits of this dataset, we follow Shin et al. and create randomly subsampled splits of 200 training examples for each domain, using 20% of the remaining data for validation. We measure and report denotation accuracy by evaluating all predicted queries using the SEMPRES toolkit (Berant et al., 2013). We repeat each experiment on Overnight with five different random splits.

TOPv2 Chen et al. (2020) introduce the TOPv2 dataset, a task-oriented semantic parsing dataset with eight domains, two of which come with pre-defined low-resource splits. The authors propose a principled way of constructing low-resource training sets, *samples per intent and slot* (SPIS), intended to ensure equal exposure to ontology labels across domains of varying complexity. We experiment with the *weather* and *reminder* domains at the 10, 25, and 500 SPIS resource splits, performing five runs on each model varying the random seed. The *reminder* domain is the most challenging with 19 intent labels, 32 slot labels, and with 21% of the programs having a depth greater than 2. *Weather* in comparison has 7 intent labels, 11 slot labels, and no programs with depth greater than 2.

3.2 Canonicalized Representations

3.2.1 Overnight

Overnight uses a context-free synchronous grammar to generate canonical representations for the logical forms. As can be seen in Fig. 2, these canonical representations resemble natural language.

3.2.2 TOPv2

Chen et al. apply a set of simple modifications to the TOPv2 meaning representations to arrive at a canonical form used in all their experiments. Unlike Overnight, these pre-processing steps are largely small encoding differences and do not change the syntactic structure of the logical forms. We adopt all of these canonicalization steps (except for lexicographic sorting of the semantic parse tree) and add an ontology label shortening step. Examples of these transformations can be seen in Fig. 2 and are briefly described below.

Simplify removes redundant utterance tokens unnecessary for interpreting the meaning representation.

Out-of-Vocab adds the entire intent or slot label to the tokenizer as a new single tokens with a corresponding randomly initialized embedding.

In-Vocab replaces the intent and slot labels with a short unique identifier representable by the pre-trained tokenizer.

We perform an ablation over these canonicalization choices, repeating each experiment three times with varying random seed.

Model	Representation	Method	Bask.	Blo.	Cal.	Hou.	Pub.	Rec.	Res.	Soc.	Avg
T5-small	Meaning	FT	0.767	0.454	0.685	0.608	0.640	0.698	0.691	0.581	0.641
		PT	0.621	0.312	0.470	0.352	0.478	0.506	0.608	0.352	0.463
	Canonical	FT	0.775	0.466	0.721	0.616	0.665	0.673	0.636	0.568	0.640
		PT	0.764	0.440	0.680	0.601	0.648	0.699	0.697	0.578	0.638
T5-base	Meaning	FT	0.769	0.455	0.717	0.612	0.670	0.713	0.714	0.587	0.655
		PT	0.717	0.429	0.677	0.510	0.596	0.639	0.705	0.492	0.596
	Canonical	FT	0.800	0.466	0.736	0.642	0.711	0.694	0.696	0.597	0.668
		PT	0.786	0.452	0.682	0.636	0.675	0.705	0.733	0.614	0.660
BART	Meaning	FT	0.734	0.370	0.514	0.540	0.514	0.477	0.417	0.424	0.499
	Canonical	FT	0.591	0.331	0.740	0.309	0.668	0.598	0.582	0.532	0.544
T5-large	Meaning	FT	0.777	0.432	0.690	0.639	0.709	0.729	0.723	0.590	0.661
		PT	0.792	0.469	0.739	0.676	0.696	0.734	0.778	0.600	0.685
	Canonical	FT	0.793	0.458	0.760	0.658	0.678	0.727	0.715	0.581	0.671
		PT	0.819	0.525	0.768	0.712	0.744	0.789	0.769	0.655	0.723
T5-xl	Meaning	FT	0.774	0.413	0.702	0.630	0.682	0.691	0.705	0.580	0.647
		PT	0.819	0.532	0.767	0.693	0.694	0.758	0.778	0.632	0.709
	Canonical	FT	0.799	0.486	0.781	0.647	0.724	0.732	0.725	0.619	0.689
		PT	0.839	0.544	0.777	0.729	0.770	0.791	0.789	0.702	0.743

Table 1: Unconstrained denotation accuracy for all models (with unconstrained decoding) on the Overnight dataset. For each domain, we report the average over 5 runs trained on randomly sampled splits of 200 examples for fine-tuned (FT) and prompt tuned (PT) models.

3.3 Models

We provide training details and hyperparameters for all models in Appendix A. Below, we briefly explain the prompt-tuning methodology.

3.3.1 Prompt Tuning

Prompt tuning, as proposed by Lester et al. (2021), prepends a sequence of continuous embeddings $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_K)$ to the sequence input embeddings $e(\mathbf{u}) = (e(u_1), \dots, e(u_N))$ before feeding it to a language model with parameters θ . During prompt tuning we optimize the prompt embeddings (p_1, \dots, p_K) exclusively, keeping the language model parameters θ and the pretrained vocabulary embeddings fixed. Note that this process still requires backpropagating gradients through the full language model. Like fine-tuning models, we maximize the likelihood of generating the output sequence \mathbf{z} .

4 Results

In Table 1, we report Overnight results across four T5 model scales and two target representations. In Table 2, we add constrained decoding (see Appendix A) to our best performing T5 model and compare against previously reported Overnight results. In Table 3, we display the results of T5-large on the three different SPIS-splits of TOPv2, and include the BART-CopyPtr results from Chen et al. (2020). In Table 4, we summarize the results of the canonicalization ablation study for TOPv2.

4.1 Prompt tuning vs fine tuning

We find that prompt tuning improves over fine-tuning for all large model configurations and target representations. On Overnight, prompt tuned denotation accuracy exceeds fine-tuned counterparts by up to 5 points with T5-large and T5-xl. For T5-small and T5-base, prompt tuning remains competitive (within 1% average accuracy) with fine-tuning when predicting canonical forms. On TOPv2, prompt tuning achieves an absolute improvement of 15% mean accuracy over fine-tuning on the lowest SPIS split. This performance disparity lessens when training data increases; however, prompt tuned T5-large continues to beat its fine-tuned counterpart by 5 points at 500 SPIS and the BART-CopyPtr model by 1.4 points.

Our prompt tuning models outperform previously reported results on these datasets. On Overnight, our best model—T5-xl PT with canonical representations and constrained decoding—outperforms the BART FT model of Shin et al. (2021) by 5 accuracy points, and GPT-3 by more than 2 points. On the 25 SPIS split of TOPv2, we see an average improvement of more than 5 points compared to the BART-CopyPTR of Chen et al. (2020).

4.2 Canonical vs meaning representations

Our main finding is that prompt tuned T5 models become better at generating meaning representations with increased model size. On Overnight, we see the absolute difference between canonical and meaning representations shrink from 17.5 points

Model	Representation	Method	Decoding	Bask.	Blo.	Cal.	Hou.	Pub.	Rec.	Res.	Soc.	Avg
T5-xl	Meaning	PT	Constrained	0.841	0.592	0.802	0.765	0.776	0.814	0.789	0.725	0.763
T5-xl	Canonical	PT	Constrained	0.856	0.619	0.806	0.779	0.824	0.830	0.822	0.793	0.791
BART [†]	Meaning	FT	Constrained	0.834	0.499	0.750	0.619	0.739	0.796	0.774	0.620	0.704
BART [†]	Canonical	FT	Constrained	0.864	0.554	0.780	0.672	0.758	0.801	0.801	0.666	0.737
GPT-2 [†]	Meaning	FT	Constrained	0.760	0.479	0.736	0.571	0.645	0.699	0.660	0.606	0.644
GPT-2 [†]	Canonical	FT	Constrained	0.836	0.540	0.766	0.666	0.715	0.764	0.768	0.623	0.710
GPT-3 [†]	Canonical	Context	Constrained	0.859	0.634	0.792	0.741	0.776	0.792	0.840	0.687	0.765
GPT-3 ^{†*}	Meaning	Context	Constrained	0.680	0.530	0.680	0.580	0.630	0.750	0.780	0.630	0.657
GPT-3 ^{†*}	Canonical	Context	Constrained	0.800	0.620	0.820	0.710	0.790	0.840	0.890	0.720	0.774

Table 2: Constrained denotation accuracy for all models on the Overnight dataset. For each domain, we report the average over 5 runs trained on randomly sampled splits of 200 examples. [†] denotes results reported by Shin et al. (2021). * indicates performance on subsampled test set.

SPIS	Model	Method	Reminder	Weather	Average	None		Simplified		In-Vocab		Out-of-Vocab	
						Sm.	Lg.	Sm.	Lg.	Sm.	Lg.	Sm.	Lg.
10	T5-large	FT	0.392	0.579	0.486								
		PT	0.567	0.700	0.634								
25	BART-CopyPtr	FT	0.557	0.716	0.637								
	T5-large	FT	0.502	0.683	0.593								
		PT	0.642	0.739	0.691								
500	BART-CopyPtr	FT	0.719	0.849	0.784								
	T5-large	FT	0.649	0.846	0.748								
		PT	0.749	0.847	0.798								

Table 3: Average exact match accuracies (5 runs) for different low-resource splits of the TOPv2 dataset. BART-CopyPtr results from Chen et al. (2020).

for T5-small to 3.4 points for T5-xl (Table 1). This gap shrinks another 18% to 2.8 points when we apply constrained decoding to T5-xl (Table 2). By contrast, Shin et al. (2021) reports an 11.7 point difference when prompting GPT-3. For our fine-tuning baselines, we observe a small performance gap of 4 points across target representations for BART and T5-xl, while we observe no gap for T5-small, T5-base, and T5-large models.

In our TOPv2 experiments we find similar evidence of large T5 model flexibility for generating sequences far from the training distribution. In particular, for our most intrusive canonicalization scheme `Out-of-Vocab`, which adds novel tokens to the vocabulary and leaves these embeddings un-trained, we find no significant reduction in performance for T5-large across all data resource levels. T5-small, in comparison, sees almost a 50% drop in performance relative to no canonicalization (`None`) at the 10 SPIS level and continues to underperform by 33 % at the 500 SPIS level.

Interestingly, we find that `In-Vocab` drastically reduces performance for T5-small at the 10 SPIS level—30.9% vs. 43.4% for `None`—but slightly outperforms it at 500 SPIS. We speculate that `In-Vocab` effectively anonymizes the ontol-

SPIS	None		Simplified		In-Vocab		Out-of-Vocab	
	Sm.	Lg.	Sm.	Lg.	Sm.	Lg.	Sm.	Lg.
10	0.43	0.70	0.31	0.66	0.45	0.64	0.23	0.69
25	0.56	0.74	0.51	0.73	0.55	0.71	0.27	0.70
500	0.72	0.85	0.72	0.85	0.72	0.85	0.48	0.83

Table 4: Exact match accuracies (3 runs) on TOPv2 Weather domain for different meaning representation canonicalization choices (**bold** indicates best exact match accuracy at that resource level), Sm. and Lg. refer to T5-small and T5-large, respectively.

ogy tokens, obscuring information that is useful for prediction. In low-data regimes there is not enough training data to learn the semantics of these anonymized tokens, whereas with enough data this problem vanishes.

5 Conclusion

We find that prompt tuning is an effective method for adapting language models to the semantic parsing task. Prompt tuning significantly outperforms fine-tuning in low-data regimes, and remains competitive in the fully supervised setting. We furthermore find that while canonicalizing meaning representations can slightly improve performance, the disparity between target representations decreases when prompt tuning larger T5 models. This result differs from previous work (Shin et al., 2021) which suggested that pre-trained LMs are much better equipped to output canonical than meaning representations. However, a significant limitation of prompt tuning is that it takes more time to converge than fine-tuning. We believe one fruitful direction for future research is to find ways to reduce the compute required to prompt tune.

6 Ethical Considerations and Limitations

There are two main limitations of this work. The first is the limited analysis of the learned prompts. While concurrent work has shown that interpreting prompts is a difficult task, it is still an important consideration and left for future work (Khashabi et al., 2021). Secondly, training prompts on meaning representations requires substantially more compute than fine-tuning. This may exacerbate inequalities in regions where access to data and compute are similarly limited (Ahia et al., 2021).

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A Models

Here we provide all model details and hyperparameters to reproduce our results. We experiment with BART and T5 (Lewis et al., 2020; Raffel et al., 2020), two large pre-trained encoder-decoder language models. BART is trained on the same 160GB text dataset used to train RoBERTa (Lewis et al., 2020) with a denoising objective. There are two size configurations (BART-base, BART-large) and we experiment only with the 406M parameter BART-large on the Overnight dataset. T5 is trained on the 750GB C4 dataset (Raffel et al., 2020) with a de-noising objective. We use the T5-v1.1 checkpoints from Lester et al. (2021) that were trained for an additional 100K steps with the Prefix-LM objective. T5-v1.1 has five configurations at various scales: small, base, large, xl, xxl which have 60M, 220M, 770M, 3B, and 11B parameters, respectively. Here, we experiment with models up to T5-xl. All experiments were run with PyTorch (v. 1.8.1) and the Huggingface Transformers (v. 4.8.2) library (Paszke et al., 2019; Wolf et al., 2020).

Fine-tuning baseline We compare against baselines that fine-tune all parameters of BART and T5. We train the T5 models with AdaFactor (Shazeer and Stern, 2018) and BART with Adam (Lewis et al., 2020; Kingma and Ba, 2015). On TOPv2, we use a learning rate of 10^{-4} and batch size of 128. On Overnight, we use a learning rate of 10^{-3} and a batch size of 64 across all sizes of T5. On both datasets, we train for 5000 epochs and perform model selection by early stopping on the validation set.

Prompt tuning We follow the prompt tuning procedure proposed by Lester et al. for T5. We use 150 prompt tokens for all model sizes with a learning rate of 0.3 optimized with AdaFactor. We train for 5000 epochs on most domains, although it sometimes took as many as 20000 epochs to converge on the low-resource splits. Like the fine-tuned baseline, we perform model selection with best exact match accuracy on the validation set. We apply the same method to BART and found that it did not converge under a number of hyperparameter configurations. We therefore exclude prompt tuned BART models from our results¹.

¹Li and Liang also find that prompt tuning with BART is unstable and parameterize the prefix with an MLP; we did not attempt this setup.

Constrained Decoding We implement grammar-constrained decoding by building a prefix tree containing all canonical or meaning representations in the dataset as in Shin et al. (2021). When doing constrained decoding we perform a beam search with 10 beams and use the prefix tree to look up valid single token continuations of the decoded sequence.

B Results

For completeness, we provide all Overnight results in Table 5.

B.1 Training Times

Prompt tuned parameter efficiency comes at a cost: we find that prompt tuning takes significantly longer to train with early stopping than does fine-tuning. On the Overnight dataset, fine-tuned models typically took 250 epochs before validation performance plateaued. Our prompt tuned models frequently took more than 1000 epochs when predicting canonical representations, and up to 5,000 when predicting meaning representations. In Figure 3, we show example training curves for prompt tuning and fine-tuning.

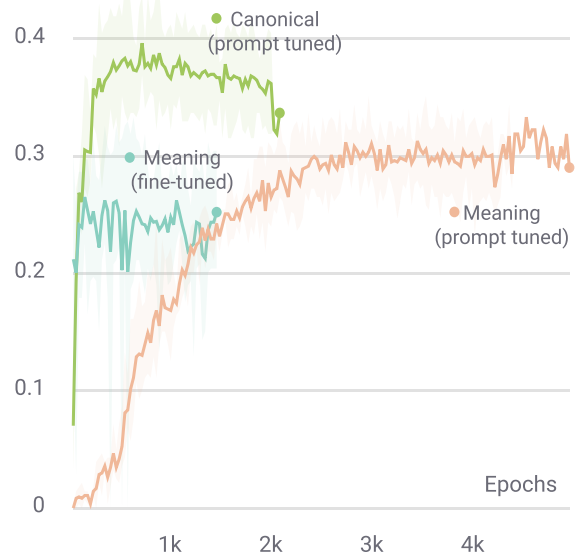


Figure 3: Prompt and fine-tuned exact match validation accuracy on the Overnight *blocks* domain. Fine-tuned models can quickly reach peak validation accuracy regardless of target representation. Prompt tuned models can take thousands of epochs to converge when predicting meaning representations.

Model	Representation	Method	Decoding	Bask.	Blo.	Cal.	Hou.	Pub.	Rec.	Res.	Soc.	Avg
T5-small	Meaning	FT	Unconstrained	0.767	0.454	0.685	0.608	0.640	0.698	0.691	0.581	0.641
			Constrained	0.787	0.519	0.725	0.624	0.753	0.752	0.705	0.664	0.691
		PT	Unconstrained	0.621	0.312	0.470	0.352	0.478	0.506	0.608	0.352	0.463
	Canonical	FT	Unconstrained	0.656	0.392	0.615	0.475	0.593	0.588	0.663	0.450	0.554
			Constrained	0.775	0.466	0.721	0.616	0.665	0.673	0.636	0.568	0.640
		PT	Unconstrained	0.811	0.519	0.744	0.663	0.729	0.723	0.692	0.671	0.694
			Constrained	0.764	0.440	0.680	0.601	0.648	0.699	0.697	0.578	0.638
		Constrained	0.787	0.521	0.730	0.679	0.735	0.748	0.746	0.674	0.703	
T5-base	Meaning	FT	Unconstrained	0.769	0.455	0.717	0.612	0.670	0.713	0.714	0.587	0.655
			Constrained	0.790	0.496	0.738	0.639	0.743	0.745	0.737	0.644	0.692
		PT	Unconstrained	0.717	0.429	0.677	0.510	0.596	0.639	0.705	0.492	0.596
	Canonical	FT	Unconstrained	0.754	0.494	0.760	0.593	0.725	0.699	0.752	0.586	0.670
			Constrained	0.800	0.466	0.736	0.642	0.711	0.694	0.696	0.597	0.668
		PT	Unconstrained	0.840	0.525	0.745	0.676	0.773	0.736	0.734	0.696	0.716
			Constrained	0.786	0.452	0.682	0.636	0.675	0.705	0.733	0.614	0.660
		Constrained	0.826	0.550	0.774	0.717	0.780	0.764	0.770	0.708	0.736	
BART	Meaning	FT	Unconstrained	0.734	0.370	0.514	0.540	0.514	0.477	0.417	0.424	0.499
	Canonical	FT	Unconstrained	0.591	0.331	0.740	0.309	0.668	0.598	0.582	0.532	0.544
T5-large	Meaning	FT	Unconstrained	0.777	0.432	0.690	0.639	0.709	0.729	0.723	0.590	0.661
			Constrained	0.789	0.475	0.713	0.662	0.743	0.754	0.717	0.641	0.687
		PT	Unconstrained	0.792	0.469	0.739	0.676	0.696	0.734	0.778	0.600	0.685
	Canonical	FT	Unconstrained	0.816	0.533	0.774	0.742	0.760	0.787	0.793	0.680	0.736
			Constrained	0.793	0.458	0.760	0.658	0.678	0.727	0.715	0.581	0.671
		PT	Unconstrained	0.819	0.509	0.751	0.703	0.718	0.742	0.728	0.664	0.704
			Constrained	0.819	0.525	0.768	0.712	0.744	0.789	0.769	0.655	0.723
		Constrained	0.841	0.597	0.805	0.770	0.794	0.823	0.823	0.750	0.775	
T5-xl	Meaning	FT	Unconstrained	0.774	0.413	0.702	0.630	0.682	0.691	0.705	0.580	0.647
			Constrained	0.799	0.453	0.731	0.658	0.749	0.724	0.728	0.647	0.686
		PT	Unconstrained	0.819	0.532	0.767	0.693	0.694	0.758	0.778	0.632	0.709
	Canonical	FT	Unconstrained	0.841	0.592	0.802	0.765	0.776	0.814	0.789	0.725	0.763
			Constrained	0.799	0.486	0.781	0.647	0.724	0.732	0.725	0.619	0.689
		PT	Unconstrained	0.818	0.555	0.783	0.705	0.763	0.770	0.752	0.703	0.731
			Constrained	0.839	0.544	0.777	0.729	0.770	0.791	0.789	0.702	0.743
		Constrained	0.856	0.619	0.806	0.779	0.824	0.830	0.822	0.793	0.791	
BART	Meaning	FT	Unconstrained	0.813	0.476	0.732	0.566	0.696	0.778	0.720	0.536	0.665
			Constrained	0.834	0.499	0.750	0.619	0.739	0.796	0.774	0.620	0.704
	Canonical	FT	Unconstrained	0.852	0.539	0.726	0.656	0.714	0.773	0.756	0.585	0.700
Constrained	0.864	0.554	0.780	0.672	0.758	0.801	0.801	0.666	0.737			
GPT-2	Meaning	FT	Constrained	0.760	0.479	0.736	0.571	0.645	0.699	0.660	0.606	0.644
	Canonical	FT	Constrained	0.836	0.540	0.766	0.666	0.715	0.764	0.768	0.623	0.710
GPT-3	Canonical	Context	Constrained	0.859	0.634	0.792	0.741	0.776	0.792	0.840	0.687	0.765
GPT-3*	Meaning	Context	Unconstrained	0.560	0.390	0.500	0.420	0.460	0.660	0.580	0.480	0.506
			Constrained	0.680	0.530	0.680	0.580	0.630	0.750	0.780	0.630	0.657
	Canonical	Context	Unconstrained	0.760	0.460	0.680	0.560	0.580	0.740	0.740	0.550	0.634
			Constrained	0.800	0.620	0.820	0.710	0.790	0.840	0.890	0.720	0.774

Table 5: Results across all model size, target representation, tuning method, and decoding method for Overnight dataset. BART, GPT-2, and GPT-3 results results are included from [Shin et al. \(2021\)](#)