

Prompt Tuning for Few-shot Relation Extraction via Modeling Global and Local Graphs

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Abstract

Recently, prompt-tuning has achieved very significant results for few-shot tasks. The core idea of prompt-tuning is to insert prompt templates into the input, thus converting the classification task into a masked language modeling problem. However, for few-shot relation extraction tasks, how to mine more information from limited resources becomes particularly important. In this paper, we first construct a global relation graph based on label consistency to optimize the feature representation of samples between different relations. Then the global relation graph is further divided to form a local relation subgraph for each relation type to optimize the feature representation of samples within the same relation. This fully uses the limited supervised information and improves the tuning efficiency. In addition, the existence of rich semantic knowledge in relation labels cannot be ignored. For this reason, this paper incorporates the knowledge in relation labels into prompt-tuning. Specifically, the potential knowledge implicit in relation labels is injected into constructing learnable prompt templates. In this paper, we conduct extensive experiments on four datasets under low-resource settings, showing that this method achieves significant results.

Keywords: Relation Extraction, Knowledge Graph, Few-shot, Prompt Tuning, Relation Graph

1. Introduction

Relation Extraction (RE) is a fundamental task in Natural Language Processing (NLP) to detect relations between entities in a sentence. With the rise of a series of pre-trained language models (PLMs) (Devlin et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2019; Raffel et al., 2020), fine-tuning PLMs has become the primary approach for relation extraction (Joshi et al., 2020; Xue et al., 2021; Zhou and Chen, 2021). The core idea of standard fine-tuning is shown in Fig. 1(a). However, fine-tuning requires adding additional classifiers on top of PLM and further training the model under the classification objective. Therefore their performance relies heavily on time-consuming and labor-intensive annotated data with poor generalization performance. In addition, the capabilities of PLMs may not be fully utilized as the training objectives of PLMs are different from the downstream tasks.

Prompt-tuning (Brown et al., 2020; Schick and Schütze, 2020a,b; Liu et al., 2023) has been proposed and proven effective, especially in low-resource scenarios (Gao et al., 2020; Scao and Rush, 2021). The core idea of prompt-tuning, as shown in Fig. 1(b), is to transform the goal of a downstream task into one closer to that of a pre-trained task. This is done by designing a template to reformulate the input examples into perfect-form phrases and linguistics to map labels to candidate words. The labels of the input examples can be determined by predicting mask tokens.

Despite the success of prompt-tuning on low-

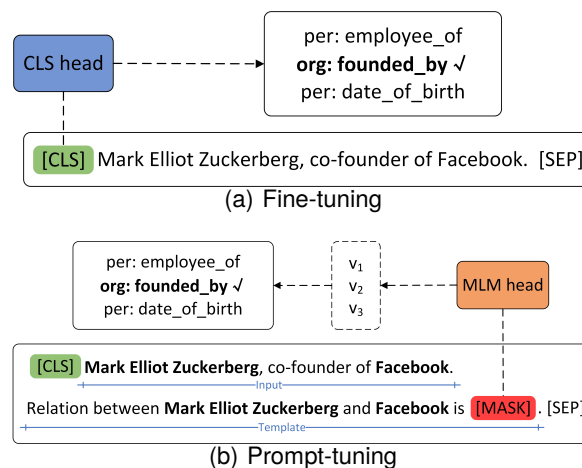


Figure 1: Examples of fine-tuning and prompt-tuning core ideas

resource relation extraction tasks, they have paid little attention to exploiting the relations between a limited number of labeled samples. In addition, there is rich semantic knowledge in relation labels and rich structural knowledge between relation triples that cannot be ignored. The KnowPrompt (Chen et al., 2022) inspires this work, and in addition to injecting knowledge into the templates, this paper pays more attention to the relations between the samples. Specifically, in this paper, we first optimize the features of samples between different relations by constructing a global relation graph. Each node represents a labeled sample, and the edges between nodes represent the similarity between

the two samples. The boundaries are optimized in the global relation graph by determining whether two samples are from the same relation and regularising the similarity of the representations learned through PLM between every two samples. Secondly, this paper further optimizes the features of samples within the same relation by constructing a local relation subgraph. Specifically, this paper divides the global relation graph into multiple local relation subgraphs and translates this task into learning the similarity between the subgraphs and the target instances. The operation procedure is to represent the subgraph as a feature through an aggregation function and then calculate the similarity with the target instance. For example, sum pooling on the representation of all nodes in the subgraph is a practical and popular aggregation scheme. This method can improve the performance of prompt-based tuning strategy in low-resource relation extraction tasks.

This paper conducts extensive experiments on four widely used relation extraction datasets in a low-resource scenario setting. The method's effectiveness is demonstrated by achieving better performance compared with a range of recent baseline models. The contributions of this paper can be summarised as follows:

(i) In order to make full use of the limited sample resources, the features of the samples between different relations are optimized by constructing a global relation graph.

(ii) To further constrain the feature representation of the samples, the features of the samples within the same relation are optimized by constructing local relation subgraphs.

(iii) Extensive experiments on four widely used public datasets demonstrate the effectiveness of the present method in low-resource settings.

2. Related work

Relation extraction refers to extracting the relation between two entities given their related contexts. It plays an essential role in information extraction and knowledge base construction. Early approaches include pattern-based approaches(Huffman, 1995), CNN/RNN-based approaches(Zhou et al., 2016) and graph-based approaches(Guo et al., 2021). A prototypical network(Snell et al., 2017) is the more widely used metric-based meta-learning framework for few-shot relation extraction. It learns prototype vectors for each relation through several examples and then compares the similarity between query instances and prototype vectors of candidate relations for prediction. For example, Gao et al.(Gao et al., 2019) proposed an attention-based hybrid prototype network for noisy training samples in few-shot learning. Ye et al.(Ye and Ling, 2019) further

proposed a multilevel matching and aggregation network for few-shot relation extraction. Peng et al.(Peng et al., 2020) demonstrated the effectiveness of applying metrics-based approaches to pre-trained models. Recent studies have used PLM for relation extraction tasks(Li et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2021). However, this paradigm remains sub-optimal due to the gap between pre-training and downstream tasks.

With the introduction of the GPT series, language model prompting emerged. By further exploring many prompt-tuning methods for relation extraction, a series of studies(Ben-David et al., 2021; Lester et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2021; Reynolds and McDonnell, 2021) have been proposed and demonstrated the effectiveness of prompts. PET(Schick and Schütze, 2020a) reformulates input samples as perfect-form phrases to help language model runs understand a given task. ADAPET(Tam et al., 2021) modifies the goal of PET to provide more intensive supervision. PTR(Han et al., 2022) uses logic rules with multiple sub-prompts to encode prior knowledge in prompt-tuning. KnowPrompt(Chen et al., 2022) integrates knowledge between relation labels into prompt-tuning for relation extraction and provides co-optimization for better performance. In this paper, we would like to highlight the difference between KnowPrompt and the present method: while KnowPrompt only considers the introduction of knowledge, the present method pays more attention to the relations between a limited number of labeled samples along with the introduction of knowledge. This allows the present method to achieve better performance in low-resource scenarios.

3. Background

The relation extraction task T with label space R consists of three datasets: (i) The training dataset $D_{train} = \{(x_i, r_i)\}$ contains several labeled examples. x_i is the sequence of samples and r_i is the corresponding relation labels. (ii) The validation dataset D_{dev} . (iii) The test dataset D_{test} contains unlabeled samples to be predicted.

For each sample instance x , the template maps x to the prompt input $x_{prompt} = T(\cdot)$. Specifically, the template $T(\cdot)$ includes the location and number of additional words to add. In addition to preserving the original *token* in x , one or more $[MASK]$ are placed in the x_{prompt} prompt for the language model to populate with tagged words. For example, a sentence in a binary sentiment classification task:

$$x_i = [CLS] s [SEP]$$

Setting the template $T(\cdot) = "It is [MASK]"$ maps x to:

$$x_{prompt} = [CLS] s. It is [MASK]. [SEP]$$

$[CLS]$ and $[SEP]$ are special start and end tokens. The hidden vector of $[MASK]$ is ob-

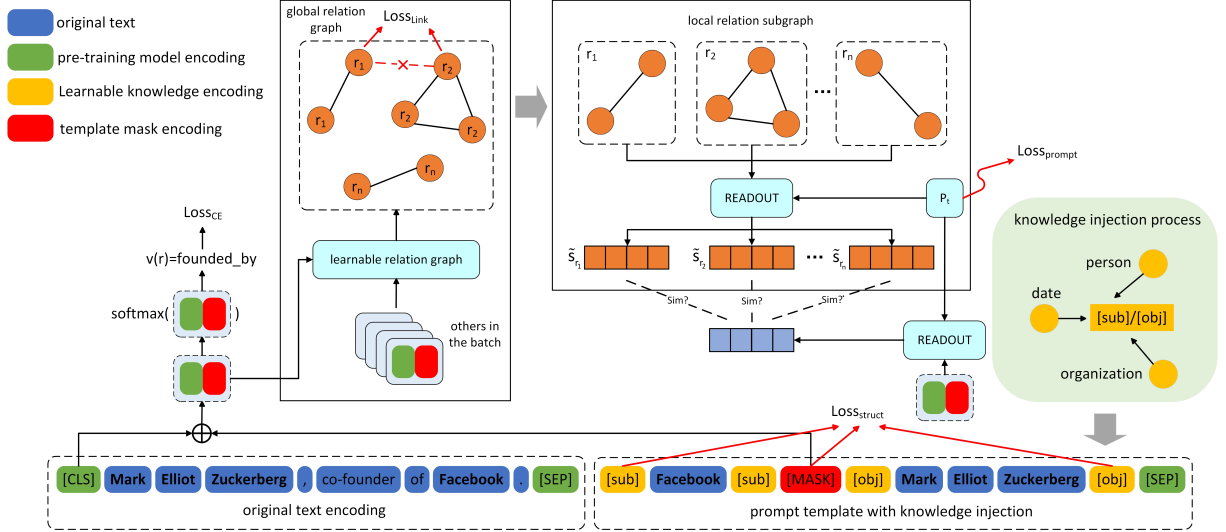


Figure 2: Model Architecture. This model consists of three main parts: the knowledge injection module, the global relation graph module and the local relation subgraph module, respectively.

tained by mapping x to x_{prompt} prompts via language model encoding. A probability distribution $p([MASK]|x_{prompt})$ describes which tokens are suitable for replacing $[MASK]$ words. The linguist $v(\cdot)$ maps r_i to symbols representing the semantics of r_i . For example, "positive/negative" can be mapped to "great/terrible". Depending on whether the language model predicts "great" or "terrible", the labels of the sample instance x can be identified as "positive" or "negative".

Because the language model predicts the correct labeling of the mask position, it is possible to formalize the mask position as $p(r|x)$, that is:

$$p(r|x) = p([MASK] = v(r)|x_{prompt}) \quad (1)$$

Given the probability distribution $p(r|x)$ on the masked location, the loss function is computed by the cross-entropy between r and $p(r|x)$. The computation of \mathcal{L}_{CE} is shown below:

$$\mathcal{L}_{CE} = -\frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} r \log p(r|x) \quad (2)$$

where $|\mathcal{X}|$ denotes the number of training data.

4. Methodology

This section presents the general framework of prompt tuning for few-shot relation extraction via modeling global and local graphs. The specific model architecture is shown in Fig. 2, and this section details how to construct and optimize this model.

4.1. Knowledge Injection Module

Traditional prompts are composed of two parts: a template and a set of labeled words, while the rich

semantic knowledge in relation labels should not be ignored. Inspired by the KnowPrompt approach, this paper injects entity-related knowledge into constructing prompt templates.

4.1.1. Prompt Template Build with Knowledge Injection

The direct introduction of type information for entities requires additional annotation, which is not always available in datasets. Therefore, this paper obtains the scope of potential entity types through the a priori knowledge contained in the relation rather than annotations. For example, given the relation "per : country_of_birth", it is clear that the subject entity matching this relation belongs to "person", while the object entity matching this relation belongs to "country". Intuitively, prior distributions ϕ_{sub} and ϕ_{obj} can be estimated based on the relation classes on the sets of potential entity type candidates C_{sub} and C_{obj} , respectively. Frequency statistics estimate the prior distributions. Some of the relations taken for C_{sub} and C_{obj} are shown in the labels listed in Table 1. For example, the prior distribution C_{sub} is computed as follows: $\phi_{sub} = \{"organization" : 3/6, "person" : 3/6\}$. Thus, assigning type words around entities can be initialized with potential entity types to aggregate embeddings. Since the initialized type words are not the exact type of a particular entity, the learnable type words can be dynamically adjusted according to the context. The specific initialization method is shown below:

$$\hat{e}_{[sub]} = \sum \phi_{sub} \cdot e(I(C_{sub})) \quad (3)$$

$$\hat{e}_{[obj]} = \sum \phi_{obj} \cdot e(I(C_{obj})) \quad (4)$$

where $\hat{e}_{[sub]}$ and $\hat{e}_{[obj]}$ denote the embedding of

Table 1: Some examples of relations in the TACREV dataset

Relation Labels	C_{sub}	C_{obj}	C_r
per:country_of_birth	person	country	{"country", "of", "birth" }
per:date_of_death	person	date	{"date", "of", "death" }
per:schools_attended	person	organization	{"school", "attended" }
org:alternate_names	organization	organization	{"alternate", "names" }
org:city_of_headquarters	organization	city	{"city", "of", "headquarters" }
org:number_of_employees/members	organization	number	{"number", "of", "employees", "members" }

type words around subject and object entities. $I(\cdot)$ is a deletion operation on set duplicates. e is the word embedding encoded by the language model. Type words provide an initial sense of the range of entity types and express semantic information close to the actual entity types.

4.1.2. Loss of Knowledge Injection Module

This paper employs additional structured constraints to optimize the prompts, integrating structured knowledge into the model. Specifically, we use the triple (s, r, o) to describe relation facts. Here s and o denote the types of subject and object entities, respectively. r is the relation label. In this model, the computation is involved by using the output embedding of the language model on the entity type words. In this paper, we define the loss of implicit structured constraints \mathcal{L}_{struct} as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{struct} = -\log \sigma(\gamma - d_r(s, o)) - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \log \sigma(d_r(s'_i, o'_i) - \gamma) \quad (5)$$

$$d_r(s, o) = \|s + r - o\|_2 \quad (6)$$

where (s'_i, r, o'_i) is the negative sample and γ is the margin. σ is the *sigmoid* function and d_r is the scoring function. This paper assigns the correct type of relation for negative sampling at the *[MASK]* position. Negative samples are constructed by randomly sampling subject or object entities to form unrelated triples, where entities are impossible types for the current relation.

4.2. Global Relation Graph Module

In this section, this paper proposes to construct a global relation graph to optimize the feature representation of samples between different relations. More supervised signals are mined from the training samples by constructing a global relation graph, which can improve the effectiveness of prompt-based tuning.

4.2.1. Construction of Global Relation Graph

Consider a batch $S = \{(x_i, r_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ containing N randomly sampled pairs of labels. Its index is kept at $I = \{1, \dots, N\}$. More information is developed by building a global relation graph of the sample information. Let $G = \{V, E\}$ denote the relation graph between N training samples in S , where V is the set of nodes. Each node $v_i \in V$ corresponds to a training sample x_i , and $E = \{e_{ij}\}$ is the set of edges between the N training samples. If a node v_i and another node v_j belong to the same relation class, an edge e_{ij} is created between them. Specifically, e_{ij} is set as:

$$e_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & r_j = r_i \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

4.2.2. Loss of Global Relation Graph Module

On a global relation graph G of a batch S , this paper converts this task into a link prediction problem. That is, connecting nodes with the same relation and disconnecting nodes with different relations. In this paper, we obtain the relation prediction \hat{r}_i for v_i (corresponding to x_i) by using equation 1.

In this paper, \hat{r}_i and \hat{r}_j are established between v_i and v_j based on the correlation of \hat{e}_{ij} :

$$\hat{e}_{ij} = g(\hat{r}_i, \hat{r}_j) \quad (8)$$

where \hat{r}_i and \hat{r}_j are calculated from equation 1. $g(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the computed cosine similarity. In order to measure the loss of link prediction, the loss of \mathcal{L}_{Link} is designed in this paper as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{Link} = -\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{A}(i)} e_{ij} \log(\hat{e}_{ij}) + (1 - e_{ij}) \log(1 - \hat{e}_{ij}) \quad (9)$$

where

$$\mathcal{A}(i) = \{j \in \mathcal{I} \text{ and } i \neq j\} \quad (10)$$

4.3. Local Relation Subgraph Module

Based on constructing a global relation graph, this paper further optimizes the features of samples within the same relation by constructing a local relation subgraph.

4.3.1. Construction of Local Relation Subgraph

In a global relation graph $G = (V, E)$ containing a set of relation classes R and a set of labeled nodes $D = \{(v_1, l_1), (v_2, l_2), \dots\}$, where $v_i \in V$ and the corresponding labels of v_i are l_i . When the k -shot setting is used in this paper, for each relation $r \in R$, there are exactly k pairs $(v_i, l_i = r) \in D$. A local relation subgraph is further formed for each relation $r \in R$. The local relation subgraph is then converted to an average representation of the current relation class. The current relation is represented by the vector $\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_r$, which is computed as shown below:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_r = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{(v_i, l_i) \in D, l_i=r} \mathbf{p}_{t_i} \odot \mathbf{h}_{v_i} \quad (11)$$

where \mathbf{h}_{v_i} denotes the feature vector of node v_i and \mathbf{p}_t denotes the learnable prompt vector. More recently, this paper abstracts this step into a *READOUT* operation to aggregate node representations in subgraphs, and a prompt-assisted *READOUT* operation on a local relation subgraph is shown below:

$$\mathbf{S}_x = \text{READOUT}(\{\mathbf{p}_t \odot \mathbf{h}_v : v \in V_x\}) \quad (12)$$

where \mathbf{S}_x is the feature representation of the local relation subgraph x . \odot denotes the element multiplication and V_x denotes the set of nodes in the subgraph x . Specifically, in this paper, the node representations in the subgraph are feature-weighted and summed, where the prompt vector \mathbf{p}_t is dimensionally re-weighted in order to extract the most relevant a priori knowledge for the relation extraction task.

There are two points to be made about this part of the paper. First, the choice of *READOUT* aggregation scheme is flexible, including sum pooling and more advanced techniques. In the implementation of this paper, sum pooling is used. Second, this paper uses learnable prompt vectors \mathbf{p}_t instead of language-based prompts. The main reason is that the present prompts are designed for graph structures. Thus, they are more abstract and cannot be language-based instructions. Instead, they should be topology-related and aligned with the core of graph learning. In particular, the critical properties may differ for different relation classes in the task.

After obtaining the average representation $\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_r$ of the local relation subgraphs, given a node v_j that is not in the labeled set D , its class label l_j can be represented as:

$$l_j = \arg \max_{r \in R} \text{sim}(\mathbf{S}_{v_j}, \tilde{\mathbf{S}}_r) \quad (13)$$

Intuitively, a node should belong to the relation class most similar to the local relation subgraph.

4.3.2. Loss of Local Relation Subgraph Modules

This paper formulates the loss based on subgraph similarity to optimize the learnable prompt \mathbf{p}_t . In the labeled training set for the relation extraction task $T = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_i, y_i), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$. x_i is the training sample (i.e., node representation), and $y_i \in R$ is the labeling of x_i in the set of relation classes R . The loss of prompt tuning \mathcal{L}_{prompt} is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{prompt}(\mathbf{p}_t) = - \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in T} \ln \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{S}_{x_i}, \tilde{\mathbf{S}}_{y_i})/k)}{\sum_{r \in R} \exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{S}_{x_i}, \tilde{\mathbf{S}}_r)/k)} \quad (14)$$

where the local relation subgraph aggregation feature for relation r is represented by $\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_r$, which is also generated by the prompting aid *READOUT*. The prompt tuning loss is only generated by the learnable prompt vector \mathbf{p}_t . Since no fine-tuning is required, this greatly reduces the number of parameters that need to be updated. Not only does it improve the computational efficiency of learning and inference, but it also reduces the dependence on labeled data.

4.4. Joint Training

In this paper, a total of four types of losses are defined in the joint training: the cross-entropy loss \mathcal{L}_{CE} in relation type prediction, the structuring loss \mathcal{L}_{struct} in the knowledge injection module, the link prediction loss \mathcal{L}_{Link} in the global relation graph module, and the learnable prompts loss \mathcal{L}_{prompt} in the local relation subgraphs. For \mathcal{L}_{CE} is obtained using equation 2. For \mathcal{L}_{struct} calculated using equation 5. For \mathcal{L}_{Link} calculated using equation 9. For \mathcal{L}_{prompt} is calculated using equation 14. The total loss of the joint training is equal to the sum of the four types of losses. The overall loss $Loss$ is calculated as follows:

$$Loss = \mathcal{L}_{CE} + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{struct} + \beta \mathcal{L}_{Link} + \gamma \mathcal{L}_{prompt} \quad (15)$$

where α , β and γ are the weight parameters between losses. This model is jointly trained by minimizing $Loss$.

Table 2: Statistical results of dataset information

Dataset	Train	Val	Test	Rel
SemEval	6,507	1,493	2,717	19
TACRED	68,124	22,631	15,509	42
TACREV	68,124	22,631	15,509	42
Re-TACRED	58,465	19,584	13,418	40

Table 3: Comparative results of models

	Model	TACRED			TACREV			Re-TACRED			SemEval		
		K=8	K=16	K=32	K=8	K=16	K=32	K=8	K=16	K=32	K=8	K=16	K=32
Fine-tuning	SpanBERT (Joshi et al., 2020)	8.4	17.5	17.9	5.2	5.7	18.6	14.2	29.3	43.9	-	-	-
	LUKE (Yamada et al., 2020)	9.5	21.5	28.7	9.8	22.0	29.3	14.1	37.5	52.3	-	-	-
	GDPNet (Xue et al., 2021)	11.8	22.5	28.8	8.3	20.8	28.1	18.8	48.0	54.8	42.0	67.5	81.2
	TANL (Paolini et al., 2021)	18.1	27.6	32.1	18.6	28.8	32.2	26.7	50.4	59.2	-	-	-
Prompt-tuning	TYP Marker (Zhou and Chen, 2021)	28.9	32.0	32.4	27.6	31.2	32.0	44.8	54.1	60.0	-	-	-
	PTR (Han et al., 2022)	28.1	30.7	32.1	28.7	31.4	32.4	51.5	56.2	62.1	70.5	81.3	84.2
	KnowPrompt (Chen et al., 2022)	32.0	35.4	36.5	32.1	33.1	34.7	55.3	63.3	65.0	74.3	82.9	84.8
	ours	32.7	36.5	39.2	33.9	36.3	38.1	58.8	64.4	66.3	79.0	83.0	84.6

Table 4: Ablation study results

Model	TACRED			TACREV		
	K=8	K=16	K=32	K=8	K=16	K=32
ours	32.7	36.5	39.2	33.9	36.3	38.1
-global relation graph	31.9	36.0	36.2	32.8	35.1	36.6
-local relation subgraph	32.2	36.1	36.4	32.2	35.4	36.7
-knowledge injection	32.4	35.8	35.3	32.4	35.5	37.9

5. Experiment

This paper evaluates the validity of the methodology on four datasets. The method is compared with state-of-the-art baseline models, and further experiments and analyses are conducted on the essential components of the model.

5.1. Dataset

In this paper, experiments are conducted on four widely used public datasets, SemEval 2010 Task 8 (SemEval)(Hendrickx et al., 2019), TACRED(Zhang et al., 2017), TACREV(Alt et al., 2020) and Re-TACRED(Stoica et al., 2021). Table 2 lists the details of each dataset.

5.2. Baseline Comparison

Table 3 reports the experimental results of the different models on the four datasets. In this paper, all models are classified into two categories: one is fine-tuning-based, and the other is prompt-based. This paper sets each dataset up as three different low-resource scenarios for separate experiments. Specifically, it includes the scenario with sample size K=8, the scenario with sample size K=16 and

the scenario with sample size K=32. The results show that the proposed method performs well on all four datasets, which indicates that the proposed method is effective.

This paper finds that the present model performs better by comparing it with recent work. Specifically, the present model outperforms the baseline model in both the fine-tuning-based and prompt-based approaches. Furthermore, the present model performs well in very low-resource scenarios with four datasets.

5.3. Ablation Study

In order to validate the effectiveness of the main components in the model, this paper conducts ablation studies on two publicly available datasets. The effects of different components on the model performance are compared by removing one component at a time, and the results of the ablation studies are shown in Table 4.

In this paper, a total of three types of ablation studies are conducted on two public datasets, namely: removing the global relation graph module (-global relation graph), removing the local relation subgraph module (-local relation subgraph) and removing the knowledge injection module (-

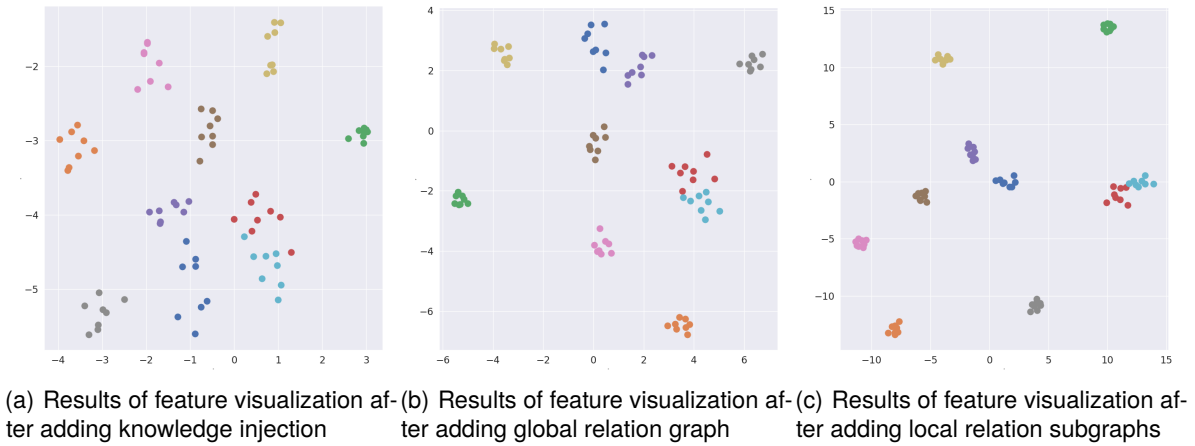


Figure 3: Results of the visualization of the features at each stage

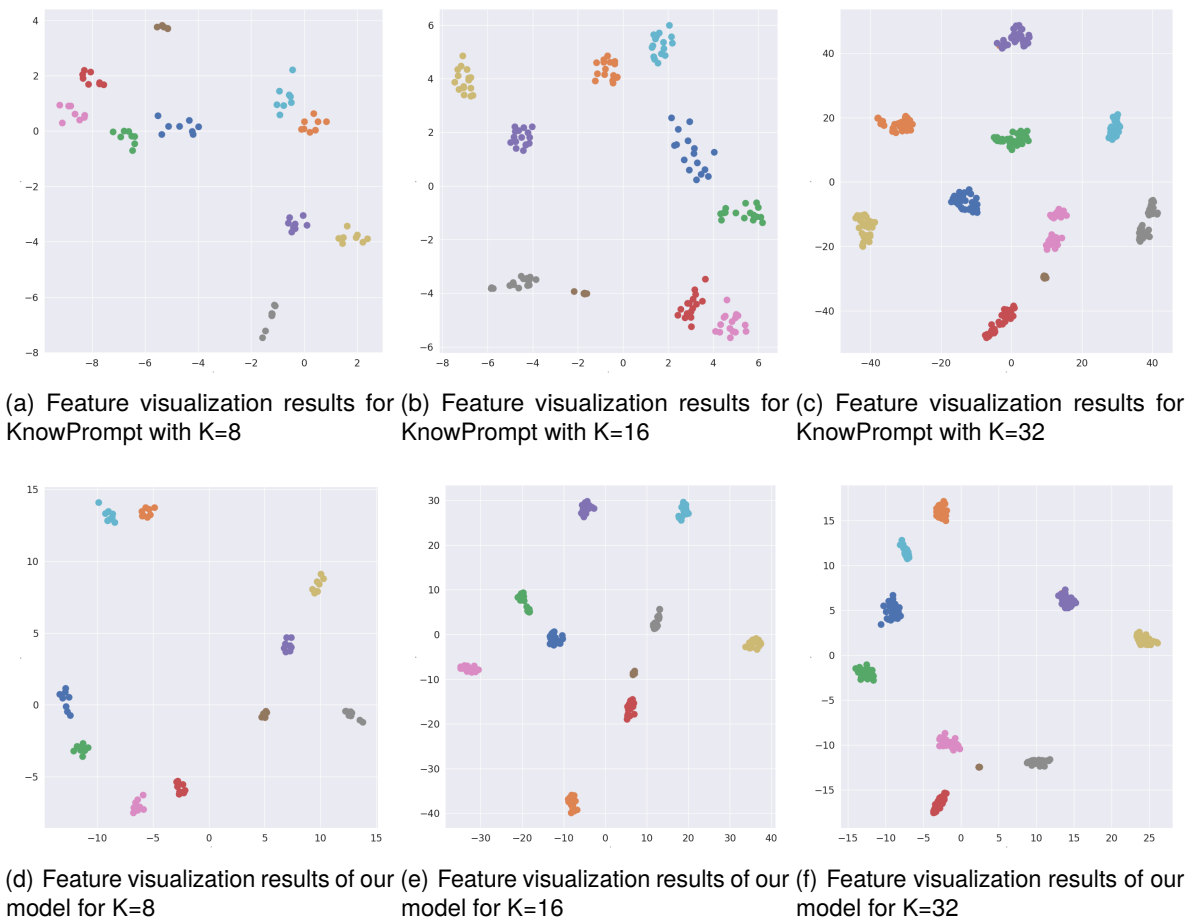


Figure 4: Results of feature visualization comparison between our model and KnowPrompt

knowledge injection). The experimental results show that the model's performance is degraded to varying degrees when the essential components are removed. This shows that the critical components in this paper are effective.

5.4. Feature Visualization and Analysis

In order to visualize the changes in feature distribution more intuitively, this paper uses t-SNE on the Re-TACRED dataset to map the feature distribution in two-dimensional space. Firstly, this paper performs feature visualization at various stages of the model to verify the validity of the components.

Second, this paper compares with a similar method, KnowPrompt.

5.4.1. Visualization of Features at Each Stage of the Model

In order to verify the validity of each component in the model, this paper visualizes the features at each stage of the model. The distribution of features at each stage is shown in Fig. 3. Among them, Fig. 3(a) represents the feature visualization results after adding knowledge injection, Fig. 3(b) represents the feature visualization results after adding a global relation graph based on knowledge injection, and Fig. 3(c) represents the feature visualization results after adding local relation subgraph based on global relation graph.

As shown in Fig. 3(a), the features have produced a more obvious aggregation phenomenon after introducing knowledge injection based on prompt-tuning. However, the distance between different relations is close, and the distribution of features within the same relation is loose. This may lead to misclassification when the relations are finally judged. From Fig. 3(b), which introduces the global relation graph, it can be seen that the distance between different relations becomes farther. As can be seen in Fig. 3(c), which introduces the local relation subgraph, the distribution of features within the same relation also becomes more clustered. However, when the relations are more similar (e.g., blue relation and red relation), the model still cannot distinguish them well. t-SNE visualization also indirectly proves the validity of the present model.

5.4.2. Comparison of Model Visualizations Under Different Conditions

Since the KnowPrompt method is more similar to the one in this paper, a detailed comparison is made. In this paper, the feature visualization results of the two methods are set for $K=8$, $K=16$ and $K=32$, respectively. The visualization results of the two methods under different settings are shown in Fig. 4. Among them, Fig. 4(a), Fig. 4(b) and Fig. 4(c) represent the feature visualization results of the KnowPrompt method under three settings. Fig. 4(d), Fig. 4(e) and Fig. 4(f) represent the feature visualization results of our method under three settings.

The results show that this method exhibits better aggregation than the KnowPrompt method for $K=8$ and $K=16$. This is due to the constraints of the global relation graph and local relation subgraph optimizing the representation of features. Whereas at $K=32$, both methods show better performance with little difference in results. This is because the number of samples for each type of relation

has reached 32, and both methods have enough sample size to learn a better feature representation.

6. Conclusion

This paper proposes prompt tuning for few-shot relation extraction via modeling global and local graphs. The method constructs a global relation graph based on the labeling consistency between samples, thus optimizing the feature representation of samples between different relations. The global relation graph is then further divided to form local relation subgraphs, thus optimizing the feature representations of samples within the same relation. This fully uses the limited supervised information and improves the tuning efficiency. This paper validates the method's effectiveness on four publicly available datasets. The results show that the proposed model performs better in low-resource scenarios than existing methods.

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