Zero-Shot Keyphrase Generation: Investigating Specialized Instructions and Multi-Sample Aggregation on Large Language Models

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Abstract

Keyphrases are the essential topical phrases that summarize a document. Keyphrase generation is a long-standing NLP task for automatically generating keyphrases for a given document. While the task has been comprehensively explored in the past via various models, only a few works perform some preliminary analysis of Large Language Models (LLMs) for the task. Given the impact of LLMs in the field of NLP, it is important to conduct a more thorough examination of their potential for keyphrase generation. In this paper, we attempt to meet this demand with our research agenda. Specifically, we focus on the zero-shot capabilities of opensource instruction-tuned LLMs (Phi-3, Llama-3) and the closed-source GPT-40 for this task. We systematically investigate the effect of providing task-relevant specialized instructions in the prompt. Moreover, we design task-specific counterparts to self-consistency-style strategies for LLMs and show significant benefits from our proposals over the baselines.

1 Introduction

Keyphrases are concise, representative phrases that encapsulate the most essential and relevant topical information in a document (Hasan and Ng, 2014). They serve as a high-level summary, providing quick insight into the text. Keyphrases can be "present" if they appear verbatim in the text, or "absent" if they are semantically implied and do not occur explicitly in the text. While keyphrase extraction focuses on identifying present keyphrases (Park and Caragea, 2023; Patel and Caragea, 2021; Al-Zaidy et al., 2019; Bennani-Smires et al., 2018; Yu and Ng, 2018; Florescu and Caragea, 2017; Sterckx et al., 2016; Gollapalli and Caragea, 2014), keyphrase generation (KPG) extends the task to include both present and absent keyphrases (Garg

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et al., 2023; Chowdhury et al., 2022; Garg et al., 2022; Meng et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2020; Chan et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020). Recent advancements in keyphrase research, including this work, focus primarily on KPG, as it provides a more comprehensive summary of the document's information. Keyphrases are vital in various information retrieval and NLP applications, such as document indexing and retrieval (Jones and Staveley, 1999; Boudin et al., 2020), summarization (Wang and Cardie, 2013; Abu-Jbara and Radev, 2011), content recommendation (Augenstein et al., 2017), and search engine optimization (Song et al., 2006).

Various previous approaches have attempted to tackle KPG. Most of them are sequence-tosequence approaches that are trained from scratch specifically for KPG (Meng et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2020; Chan et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2021b; Thomas and Vajjala, 2024). More recently, some approaches explore finetuning of pre-trained language models such as BART or T5 for KPG (Wu et al., 2021; Kulkarni et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2023, 2024a; Choi et al., 2023). However, the field of Natural Language Processing (NLP), on the other hand, is moving away from such approaches and towards the utilization of Large Language Models (LLMs) (Iyer et al., 2022; Touvron et al., 2023) that typically have much higher parameters and are pre-trained on larger scale datasets. As such, naturally, there is a question as to how well such models can be operated towards KPG. A few prior works conduct some studies to answer this question, primarily investigating ChatGPT as a zero-shot generator. However, they are only preliminary studies that investigate a few variants of prompts (Song et al., 2023b,a; Martínez-Cruz et al., 2023). Our work aims to extend such studies further. Specifically, in this paper, we aim to answer three research questions (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3) as defined below.

RQ1: Can LLMs be guided to focus specifically on

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present or absent keyphrases via prompts?

As discussed before, KPG typically involves the generation of two distinct types of keyphrases present and absent which may require distinct strategies. In Song et al. (2023b), we also find that the same prompt is not necessarily good at both present and absent generation simultaneously. Thus, the question arises if we can create separate "specialist" prompts - one specializing in present keyphrase generation. If this succeeds, we can come up with a way to combine the specialists' results to improve both present and absent keyphrase generation performance. We describe our designed specialist prompts in §2.2 and show their corresponding evaluation in §3.2.

RQ2: Do more specific instructions about controlling the number of keyphrases and/or the order of generation help LLMs?

In our baselines, we provide basic instructions regarding formatting to enable parsing of keyphrases through downstream post-processing methods. However, there is a potential to explore the application of more detailed instructions to the models. For example, we might want to specify how we want the keyphrases to be ordered - such as most relevant keyphrases being generated before less relevant ones. Metrics such as $(F_1@5)$ used in keyphrase generation, focus on some first kkeyphrases, so it is important for the LLMs to generate the best keyphrases first. We might also want to instruct the model more specifically to not overgenerate. We find that LLMs tend to generate more keyphrases on average compared to other smaller models, which can lower precision. We design specific instructions corresponding to these points in $\S2.3$ and experimentally investigate them in $\S3.3$.

RQ3: Can multiple samplings of an LLM from the same input prompt be leveraged to improve performance in keyphrase generation?

Often in KPG, beam search is used to create multiple sequences of keyphrases to improve the recall of keyphrases (Chowdhury et al., 2022; Thomas and Vajjala, 2024; Yuan et al., 2020). On the other hand, the use of multiple samplings has been successful with LLMs in general NLP tasks as well. For instance, the self-consistency strategy leverages majority voting (or other aggregation techniques) across multiple sampled results for a question to boost the performance of LLMs (Wang et al., 2023). Given the success of self-consistency (on



Figure 1: Baseline template used for Llama-3 and Phi-3.

general NLP tasks) and beam search (for KPG), we raise the question if we can similarly leverage multiple sampling from LLMs for KPG specifically. To answer this question, we devise various multi-sampling aggregation strategies for KPG in $\S2.4$ and demonstrate their corresponding results experimentally in $\S3.4$.

We focus primarily on open-source, instructiontuned models, specifically LLama-3 and Phi-3, in a zero-shot setting. Additionally, we include experiments with GPT-40 to benchmark against a bigger closed-source model. In our experiments, we find that specialist prompts for our models do not help (answering RQ1 negatively) and that additional detailed instructions do not help consistently (answering RQ2 negatively). However, we find that multi-sampling can be successfully leveraged to substantially boost the performance of LLMs for KPG (answering RQ3 affirmatively).

2 Method

We explore the performance of two open-source instruction-tuned LLMs - Llama-3.0 8B Instruct (Dubey et al., 2024) and Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini 128K Instruct (Abdin et al., 2024) and one closed-source LLM - GPT-40 (version: gpt-4o-2024-11-20) (Achiam et al., 2023) on KPG for five different datasets in a zero-shot setting. We explain our main approaches in the following subsections.

2.1 Baseline

Here, we explain the construction of baseline prompts for Llama-3, Phi-3 and GPT-40. First, we keep their prompt templates consistent with their corresponding chat templates as shown in Figure 1. Note that at the end of the prompt, we leave an open parenthesis "[" so that the models can directly start generating the keyphrases without any in-between irrelevant text. As can be seen in the chat templates, there are five variables: 1) the system_prompt, 2) the user_prompt, 3) the instruction, 4) the title, and 5) the abstract. The last two are inputs from the dataset, whereas the first three are manually defined. We define them the same way for Llama-3 and Phi-3. For GPT-40, we use the chat completion API for sending the system prompt and user prompt. We skipped the open parenthesis for the assistant role in GPT-40 because the provided chat completion API does not support partial conversational turns. Our definitions for system_prompt, user_prompt, and instruction variables are also shown in Figure 1. When evaluating the models on KP-Times, we changed any occurrence of "scientific document" with "news article". The user prompt is roughly inspired from the TP4 prompt template in Song et al. $(2023b)^1$. We use TP4 because it presents a reasonable balance in their paper. In the baseline, the instruction merely provides some formatting specifications to make parsing of the keyphrases lists easier.

2.2 Specialist Prompts (RQ1)

As discussed before, the same prompt may not be the best for both present and absent keyphrase generation. As such, we consider if we can improve present performance and absent performance separately with "specialist" prompts - one dedicated to present keyphrase extraction and another to absent keyphrase generation. We design the present specialist prompt by simply changing the baseline user_prompt to "Extract present keyphrases from the following title and abstract of a scientific document." Similarly, we design the absent specialist prompt by simply changing the baseline user_prompt to "Generate absent keyphrases from the following title and abstract of a scientific document." This results in the creation of two separate prompts which we test separately.

2.3 Additional Instructions (RQ2)

We consider here whether LLMs can benefit from more specific instructions as to how to order



Figure 2: Instructions used for Order Control and Length Control. Note that the main values for the instruction variable are in the blue bordered box. The differences of box sizes and colours are for visualization only and do not play any role in the actual prompt.

keyphrases and how many keyphrases to generate. We consider two types of instructions:

1. Order Control Instruction: As we discussed before, the order of the keyphrases can be relevant, especially for metrics like $F_1@5$ where only the first 5 keyphrases are kept, and we are interested in keeping the best keyphrases within the first few. So we experiment with an additional instruction that explicitly specifies the model to order the keyphrases in the descending order of relevance and importance. Concretely, we do this by changing the value of the instruction variable from the baseline into a numbered list having both the formatting instruction and the order control instruction as shown in Figure 2.

2. Length Control Instruction: Here we focus on reducing overgeneration, which can negatively impact metrics like precision. For this, we instruct the model to generate only the most relevant keyphrases, avoiding unnecessary additions. Concretely, we do this, similar to above, by changing the instruction variable from the baseline as shown in Figure 2.

3. Combined Control: Here we integrate both the Order Control and Length Control instructions to prime the model to generate a concise list of keyphrases ordered by relevance. We do this by adding both the Order Control and Length Control instructions into the numbered list of instructions similar to before. In our implementation, the Length Control instruction is the first instruction (number 1), the Order Control instruction is the second one (number 2), and the formatting instruction from the baseline is the third one (number 3).

2.4 Multi-Sampling (RQ3)

To investigate RQ3, we stochastically generate multiple samples from LLMs with the baseline prompt using different temperatures for diversity. We take independent samples similar to self-consistency

¹Similar to Song et al. (2023b), we also verified that LLama-3 and Phi-3 can distinguish the meaning of present and absent keyphrases by themselves. Thus, we did not present any further overt definition of them in the prompts.



Figure 3: Visualization of Union Interleaf aggregation over multiple samples.

strategies (Wang et al., 2023). In addition, in Appendix B, we show that beam search, which is often used in KPG, does not improve performance on KPG, and at the same time can become expensive with large LLMs and tends to have worse diversity.

In our multi-sampling context, for a specific input, we initially end up having a list of samples as an answer: $S = (S_1, S_2, S_3, \ldots, S_n)$. Here *n* is the number of samples. Each sample S_i is a sequence of keyphrases: $S_i = (k_1^i, k_2^i, k_3^i, \ldots, k_m^i)$. Each keyphrase (k_j^i) is a string. We describe our pipeline for processing such samples below.

Ranking Samples: We first sort the generated samples before applying any aggregation strategy in the ascending order of their perplexity. We do this because some of our aggregation techniques (e.g., Union Concatenation that we discuss below) is biased towards putting the keyphrases of the earlier samples in S earlier. As we discussed before, the order of the keyphrases can be relevant for metrics like F₁@5. Thus, we sort them to keep the "best" samples according to perplexity at the forefront for any downstream aggregation.

Keyphrase Normalization: Before aggregation, we also normalize the keyphrases using standard techniques - such as lower-casing and stemming. These are standard normalization strategies also used for evaluation to determine which keyphrases are identical. We also deduplicate each sample while preserving the order.

Keyphrase Aggregation Strategies: After ranking and normalization is done, the question is how to aggregate the results. We devise several strategies for aggregating the results from different samples that we discuss below.

1. Union: This is a simple strategy, where we treat all the generated lists of keyphrases (S_i) as sets and apply union operation. The result is $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} S_i$. All

order information is destroyed in this process.

2. Union Concatenation: In the context of KPG, a typical method used during beam-search to aggregate the results from multiple beams is to concatenate each of the beam sequences together (starting from the highest-ranked beam to the lowest). We simulate the same strategy here with Union Concatenation. In this approach, we concatenate all the samples: $||_{i=1}^{n}S_i$ (here || denotes concatenation operator). After that, we deduplicate the concatenated sequence in an order-preserving manner (the first occurrence of a duplicate is the one that remains).

3. Union Interleaf: In this strategy, we initially combine the samples in an interleaving pattern. That is, first we take all the first keyphrases from each sample, then all the second keyphrases from each sample, and so on. We add them to a combined list in that order. The combined list will look like: $(k_1^1, k_1^2, \ldots, k_1^n, k_2^1, k_2^2, \ldots, k_2^n, k_m^1, \ldots, k_m^n)$. After this, we perform an order-preserving deduplication as in Union Concatenation. The visualization of this process is provided in Figure 3.

4. *Frequency Order:* Frequency Order is the closest counterpart to majority voting as applicable for KPG. In this method, we consider the frequency of occurrence for each normalized keyphrase across all the samples. Then we sort the keyphrases in descending order of their frequency of occurrence. Thus, the highest "voted" (most frequent) keyphrase gets to be at the forefront of the aggregated list getting the maximum preference. In case of ties, we follow the order in Union Interleaf. That is, if there is a tie in terms of frequency between k_1 and k_2 , then k_1 should come ahead of k_2 if and only if it occurs before k_2 in the union interleaf result for the same samples.

Dynamic Keyphrase Number Selection: Once the aggregation is done, there is a separate ques-

	Ins	pec	Krap	oivin	Sem	Eval	KP2	20K	КРТ	imes
Models	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5
			Prese	ent Keyph	rase Genera	ation				
Llama-3.0 8B Inst	ruct									
Baseline	48.3	40.5	30.9	32.4	35.5	36.2	27.7	30.7	27.0	31.3
Present Specialist	46.9	40.2	30.6	31.5	34.8	33.6	29.0	30.4	24.0	29.3
Absent Specialist	47.9	40.5	31.6	32.8	35.4	36.0	28.2	30.7	22.6	29.5
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini	128K Instr	uct								
Baseline	48.2	42.2	22.2	22.5	28.4	28.6	17.6	19.1	9.3	11.2
Present Specialist	48.4	42.6	22.6	22.6	26.3	26.0	17.6	19.0	8.7	10.5
Absent Specialist	46.6	41.2	23.5	22.9	27.8	28.5	18.2	19.1	8.1	9.0
GPT-40										
Baseline	56.8	49.7	26.0	28.0	33.2	34.1	20.1	24.7	11.4	14.7
Present Specialist	57.5	50.1	27.1	28.0	33.6	34.3	20.6	24.3	11.9	15.7
Absent Specialist	37.6	33.8	23.3	22.9	24.8	24.9	15.9	17.0	7.5	7.9
			Abse	nt Keyphı	ase Genera	ation			1	
Llama-3.0 8B Inst	ruct									
Baseline	6.8	5.5	4.6	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.8	3.0	4.6	3.6
Present Specialist	5.6	4.5	3.4	2.6	2.5	2.1	3.4	2.7	4.1	3.3
Absent Specialist	6.4	5.0	4.2	3.8	3.1	3.0	4.0	3.2	4.2	3.6
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini	128K Instr	uct			1				1	
Baseline	7.3	6.3	1.3	1.1	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.4
Present Specialist	7.0	5.6	1.2	1.2	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.4
Absent Specialist	6.6	5.5	1.3	1.2	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.2	0.3	0.4
GPT-40			1				1			
Baseline	10.6	10.6	4.0	4.0	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.5	0.4	0.5
Present Specialist	12.4	12.4	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.5	2.5	0.8	0.8
Absent Specialist	6.5	6.5	3.5	3.5	5.0	4.4	3.2	3.4	0.5	0.6

Table 1: Comparison of baseline prompts and specialist prompts for present and absent keyphrase generation.

tion as to how to dynamically select an appropriate number of keyphrases for each input. Normally, in the baseline single sample setting, we can simply use all the keyphrases predicted by the model until the end of sequence marker. However, with increasing number of samples being aggregated, the total keyphrases can become arbitrarily high. This can lead to the overgeneration of noisy keyphrases - leading to degraded precision and F₁, especially for @M metrics (which considers all keyphrases by the model not just some top k). To resolve this, we devise an automatic protocol to dynamically select a variable number of present keyphrases and a variable number of absent keyphrases from the total generation. Concretely, we first calculate the average number of present keyphrases (say M_{pre}) and average number of absent keyphrases (say M_{abs}) per sample for a specific input.² Then from the aggregated list, we take the first M_{pre} present keyphrases and the first M_{abs} absent keyphrases. We treat this as the final model prediction for $F_1@M$ metric calculation. **Discussion:** A problem with Union Concatenation

is that it can lead to ignoring later samples altogether due to truncating the concatenation based on either top-5 selections (for $F_1@5$) or top M_{pre} and M_{abs} selections (for F₁@M). It can be still a reasonable strategy if the concatenation is ordered such that the first few samples are of higher quality, but even with our perplexity-based ranking, it is unlikely to have that much of a difference in quality among the samples given that they are each sampled independently based on the same process. Moreover, it can be the case, that earlier keyphrases from later samples are of higher quality than later keyphrases of earlier samples. This can happen if LLMs generate the most relevant keyphrases first. Union Concat would not respect this factor. Union Interleaf or Frequency Order based aggregations, on the other hand, can address some of these points much better in theory - resulting in a better intermingling of different samples in the final list.

3 Experiments and Results

For our experiments, we choose a temperature of 0.8 which we use consistently³ across all models

 $^{^2 \}mathrm{In}$ case the average is not a whole number, we take the ceiling.

 $^{^{3}}$ We chose 0.8 because it is in the standard range of temperature typically used for self-consistency for diverse multi-

	Ins	pec	Krap	oivin	Sem	Eval	KP2	20K	KPT	imes
Models	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5
			Prese	nt Keyphı	ase Genera	tion				
Llama-3.0 8B Instr	uct									
Baseline	48.3	40.5	30.9	32.4	35.5	36.2	27.7	30.7	27.0	31.3
Order Control	46.0	38.8	31.1	33.2	35.8	36.6	29.0	32.1	24.9	31.5
Length Control	45.1	39.4	33.4	32.4	39.0	37.6	31.1	31.1	26.8	29.9
Combined Control	44.4	38.8	33.5	33.5	36.8	36.7	30.9	31.5	27.1	30.9
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini 1	28K Instru	ct								
Baseline	48.2	42.2	22.2	22.5	28.4	28.6	17.6	19.1	9.3	11.2
Order Control	45.0	39.5	21.6	20.8	25.7	23.6	16.4	17.7	7.4	8.0
Length Control	47.8	42.5	22.8	22.5	27.5	26.8	18.2	19.2	9.0	10.5
Combined Control	44.5	38.8	21.5	20.8	26.5	25.3	17.0	18.0	7.9	8.7
GPT-40							1			
Baseline	56.8	49.7	26.0	28.0	33.2	34.1	20.1	24.7	11.4	14.7
Order Control	54.5	48.3	24.2	26.5	30.0	31.8	18.5	23.4	9.6	11.9
Length Control	55.2	49.5	28.6	29.3	31.6	32.6	22.4	25.4	11.6	13.1
Combined Control	53.3	47.7	25.8	27.1	32.7	33.5	20.7	23.9	9.8	10.8
			Abse	nt Keyphr	ase Genera	tion				
Llama-3.0 8B Instr	uct									
Baseline	6.8	5.5	4.6	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.8	3.0	4.6	3.6
Order Control	5.4	4.4	4.0	3.3	3.0	2.7	3.9	3.2	4.5	3.8
Length Control	5.3	4.1	4.2	3.4	2.4	2.2	3.9	3.0	4.4	3.6
Combined Control	4.7	3.6	4.7	3.8	2.7	2.4	4.0	3.1	4.4	3.6
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini 1	28K Instru	ct								
Baseline	7.3	6.3	1.3	1.1	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.4
Order Control	6.2	5.2	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.3	0.3
Length Control	6.8	5.6	1.5	1.1	1.9	1.8	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.4
Combined Control	6.4	5.4	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.3	0.3
GPT-40			1						1	
Baseline	10.6	10.6	4.0	4.0	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.5	0.4	0.5
Order Control	9.8	9.5	2.6	2.6	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.1	0.4	0.5
Length Control	9.9	9.8	2.2	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.5	0.6	0.6
Combined Control	11.0	11.0	2.5	2.5	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	0.3	0.3

Table 2: Comparison of baseline prompts and prompts with additional instructions for present and absent keyphrase generation.

and datasets. We explain our evaluation in Appendix A.

3.1 Datasets

In our experiments we explored a number of datasets that focus on the domain of scientific publications (SemEval (Kim et al., 2010), Krapivin (Krapivin et al., 2009), KP20K (Liu et al., 2020), Inspec (Joshi et al., 2023)), and also a dataset focusing on the news domain (KPTimes (Gallina et al., 2019)). These datasets are commonly used as benchmarks KPG. All experiments were performed in a zero-shot setting solely on the test subsets of the datasets. For SemEval, Krapivin, and Inspec, we utilized the full datasets across all our models: Llama-3, Phi-3, and GPT-40. For KP20K and KPTimes, we employed the full datasets for Llama-3 and Phi-3, as they are open-source models. However, for the closed-source model GPT-40, we used a subset of 2,000 samples from each dataset to make the experiments cost-effective. We also show the comparison between LLama-3, Phi-3, and

GPT-40 on the same 2,000 samples for KPTimes and KP20K in the Appendix Table 8 and observe similar patterns as in the main paper.

3.2 Specialist Prompts Results (RQ1)

In Table 1, we present the results of our baseline and specialist (present and absent) prompts. Interestingly, we find that the specialist present and absent prompt do not consistently outperform the baseline; rather in many cases underperform compared to the baseline both in present and absent keyphrase generation. Interestingly, GPT-40 despite being estimatedly a much larger model still shows no consistent benefit from the specialized prompts; moreover, it also seems to perform worse than LLama-3 for KPG on most datasets. Thus, at least for the explored LLM-based models and the considered prompts, the answer to RQ1 seems to be negative.⁴

sampling. We also did not find substantial differences from different temperatures in a subset of the KP20K validation set.

⁴As would be expected given that the specialists individually do not outperform the baseline, in our experiments, the ensembling of the two specialist models also failed to outperform the ensembling of two baseline prompt-based models.

	Ins	pec	Kraj	pivin	Sem	Eval	KP	20K	КРТ	imes
Models	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5
			Pres	ent Keyph	rase Gener	ation				
Llama-3.0 8B Inst	ruct									
Baseline	_ 48.3 _	_ 40.5		32.4	35.5		_ 27.7 _		_ 27.0	
Multi-sampling (n=	=10)									
Union	36.5	30.1	22.2	18.0	26.6	21.7	18.9	16.0	13.0	9.5
Union Concat	50.0	42.6	30.6	32.2	37.6	35.1	27.3	31.0	23.4	31.4
Union Interleaf	42.4	36.4	30.5	32.3	38.3	36.3	29.1	31.5	25.9	32.3
Frequency Order	49.9	45.6	31.8	33.6	38.0	38.1	28.7	32.1	24.7	31.5
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini	128K Instr	uct								
Baseline	48.2	42.2	22.2	22.5	28.4	28.6	17.6	19.1	9.3	11.2
Multi-sampling (n=	=10)									
Union	33.8	29.8	16.9	15.6	18.7	14.5	12.9	11.1	6.7	5.6
Union Concat	50.2	45.5	23.1	22.7	30.4	30.3	18.0	19.8	10.9	12.2
Union Interleaf	45.2	41.0	24.9	25.3	33.2	31.4	21.6	22.5	15.1	14.9
Frequency Order	54.7	50.9	25.1	24.7	32.9	30.5	19.7	20.4	12.0	11.9
GPT-40										
Baseline	56.8	49.7	26.0	28.0	33.2	34.1	20.1	24.7	11.4	14.7
Multi-sampling (n=	=10)						'		'	
Union	46.0	36.4	21.7	18.0	24.3	17.8	15.7	13.2	8.8	7.4
Union Concat	57.6	50.4	25.9	28.1	33.7	34.4	20.1	24.6	12.9	15.5
Union Interleaf	54.2	47.0	27.7	29.4	33.2	34.5	21.9	26.3	16.0	18.2
Frequency Order	58.2	52.8	25.9	25.6	32.7	31.4	20.0	21.7	12.1	12.4
			Abs	ent Keyph	rase Gener	ation				
Llama-3.0 8B Inst	ruct									
Baseline	6.8	5.5	4.6	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.8	3.0	4.6	3.6
Multi-sampling (n=	=10)									
Union	3.7	4.9	3.9	3.8	1.7	1.2	2.8	3.2	2.1	2.3
Union Concat	8.9	8.2	5.4	4.7	3.6	3.6	4.6	4.5	4.6	4.4
Union Interleaf	6.8	6.3	5.2	4.9	3.0	2.7	5.0	4.7	4.9	4.7
Frequency Order	8.5	7.6	5.9	5.1	3.9	3.6	5.4	4.9	5.3	5.0
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini	128K Instr	uct								
Baseline	7.3	6.3	1.3	1.1	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.4
Multi-sampling (n=	=10)									
Union	2.7	2.7	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.2	0.2
Union Concat	8.2	7.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.5	0.4	0.5
Union Interleaf	6.2	6.0	1.7	1.8	1.3	0.9	1.6	1.6	0.4	0.4
Frequency Order	9.3	9.0	2.1	2.1	2.5	2.7	2.0	2.0	0.6	0.7
GPT-40										
Baseline	10.6	10.6	4.0	4.0	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.5	0.4	0.5
Multi-sampling (n=	=10)									
Union	5.6	- 6.8 -	1.8	1.9	1.6	2.1	1.3	1.5	0.3	- 0.2
Union Concat	10.2	9.7	3.9	3.7	2.9	3.3	2.5	2.3	0.4	0.5
Union Interleaf	10.9	10.1	3.3	3.0	1.9	2.4	2.8	2.8	0.6	0.7
Frequency Order	11.7	10.8	3.5	3.1	3.7	3.6	2.6	2.6	0.6	0.6

Table 3: Comparison of baseline models and multisample models with different aggregation strategies for both present and absent keyphrase generation.

3.3 Additional Instruction Results (RQ2)

In Table 2, we present the results of including additional instructions to the baseline prompt for order control and length control as discussed before. Here, we find that Length Control can sometimes help in the performance of present keyphrase extraction in some datasets. However, the overall result is mixed, and none of the strategies of additional instructions consistently improve the baseline across both present and absent keyphrase generation. As such, the answer to RQ2 also seems to lead towards a negative outcome.

3.4 Multi-Sampling Results (RQ3)

In Table 3, we present the results of multi-sampling with various aggregation strategies. As we would

expect, simple union does not help much, and often harms the performance because it removes all order information (which is relevant). Because of our dynamic keyphrase number selection strategy, the order is relevant even for @M metrics. Union Concat, Union Interleaf, and Frequency Order are the three best contenders for multi-sampling aggregation. Among the three, Frequence Order-based aggregation consistently shows the best performance; particularly, on absent keyphrase generation for the open-source models. Overall, we find that the best aggregation methods with multi-sampling significantly improve the performance of LLMs over the baseline. As such, the answer to RQ3 leans towards an affirmation. In Appendix Table 5, we also show how well absent keyphrases are recalled for the

	Ins	pec	Kra	pivin	Sem	Eval	KP	20K	KPT	imes
Models	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5
		Pres	ent Keyphr	ase Genera	tion					
catSeqTG (Chan et al., 2019)	27.0	22.9	36.6	28.2	29.0	24.6	36.6	29.2	_	_
catSeqTG-2RF1 (Chan et al., 2019)	30.1	25.3	36.9	30.0	32.9	28.7	38.6	32.1	—	_
ExHiRD-h (Chen et al., 2020)	29.1_3	25.3_{4}	34.7_4	28.64	33.5_{17}	28.4_{15}	37.4_{0}	31.1_{1}	_	_
Transformer (Ye et al., 2021b)	32.5_{6}	28.1_{5}	36.5_{5}	31.5_{8}	32.5_{15}	28.7_{14}	37.7_{1}	33.2_{1}	—	
SetTrans (Ye et al., 2021b) *	32.4_3	28.5_{3}	36.4_{12}	32.6_{12}	35.7_{13}	33.1_{20}	39.24	35.8_{5}	54.8	_
KPD-A (Chowdhury et al., 2022) *	30.63	25.7_{3}	35.3_{6}	29.5_{7}	34.4_{5}	30.3_{7}	39.6_{2}	33.9_{3}	55.5	_
Diversity Heads (Thomas and Vajjala, 2024)	32.1	_	37.4	_	39.6	_	41.7	_	56.3	_
UniKeyphrase (Wu et al., 2021) *	31.1	29.0	_	_	40.9	41.6	42.8	40.8	34.5	_
PromptKP (Wu et al., 2022c)	29.4	26.0	_	_	35.6	32.9	35.5	35.1	_	_
SciBART-large (Wu et al., 2023)	40.2	_	35.2	_	34.1	_	43.1	_	_	_
SimCKP (Choi et al., 2023)	35.88	35.6_{6}	40.5_{8}	40.5_{8}	38.6_{4}	38.7_{2}	42.7_{1}	42.6_{1}	_	_
ChatGPT TP4 (Song et al., 2023b)	39.3	32.2	16.3	17.0	21.2	23.3	13.6	16.0	_	_
Ours			1							
Llama-3 Multi-sampling	49.9	45.6	31.8	33.6	38.0	38.1	28.7	32.1	24.7	31.5
Phi-3 Multi-sampling	54.7	50.9	25.1	24.7	32.9	30.5	19.7	20.4	12.0	11.9
GPT-40	58.2	52.8	25.9	25.6	32.7	31.4	20.0	21.7	12.1	12.4
		Abse	ent Keyphra	ase Generat	ion					
catSeqTG (Chan et al., 2019)	1.1	0.5	3.4	1.8	2.7	1.9	3.2	1.5	_	_
catSeqTG-2RF1 (Chan et al., 2019)	2.1	1.2	5.3	3.0	3.0	2.1	5.0	2.7	_	_
ExHiRD-h (Chen et al., 2020)	2.23	1.1_{1}	4.3_{6}	2.2_{3}	2.5_{6}	1.74	3.2_{0}	1.6_{0}	_	_
Transformer (Ye et al., 2021b)	1.9_4	1.0_{2}	6.0_{4}	3.2_{1}	2.3_{3}	2.0_{5}	4.6_{1}	2.3_{1}	_	_
SetTrans (Ye et al., 2021b) *	3.43	2.1_{1}	7.3_{11}	4.7_{7}	3.4_{5}	2.6_{3}	5.8_{3}	3.6_{2}	41.2	
KPD-A (Chowdhury et al., 2022) *	3.22	2.1_{1}	7.27	4.6_{4}	4.7_{1}	3.6_{1}	6.6_{1}	4.2_{1}	42.6	_
Diversity Heads (Thomas and Vajjala, 2024)	1.2	_	7.6	_	4.2	_	7.8	_	44.1	_
UniKeyphrase (Wu et al., 2021) *	2.9	2.9	_	_	3.2	3.0	4.7	4.7	20.8	_
PromptKP (Wu et al., 2022c)	2.2	1.7	_	_	3.2	2.8	4.2	3.2	_	_
SciBART-large (Wu et al., 2023)	3.6	_	8.6	_	4.0	_	7.6	_	_	_
SimCKP (Choi et al., 2023)	3.5_{3}	3.3_{2}	8.9 ₀	7.8_{1}	4.7_{6}	4.0_{2}	8.01	7.3_{2}	_	_
ChatGPT TP4 (Song et al., 2023b)	4.1	3.0	1.5	1.1	0.5	0.4	3.9	3.8	_	_
Ours	1		1		1		1		1	
Llama-3 Multi-sampling	8.5	7.6	5.9	5.1	3.9	3.6	5.4	4.9	5.3	5.0
Phi-3 Multi-sampling	9.3	9.0	2.1	2.1	2.5	2.7	2.0	2.0	0.6	0.7
GPT-40	11.7	10.8	3.5	3.1	3.7	3.6	2.6	2.6	0.6	0.6

Table 4: We compare the performance of our models with various prior works (results from prior works are copied from the corresponding citations; the citations here indicate the source of the results and not necessarily the original work presenting the relevant methods). * Indicates that the kptimes result are taken from (Thomas and Vajjala, 2024) rather than the corresponding citation. Llama3/Phi3/GPT 40 Multisample denotes Llama3/Phi3/GPT 40 multisample (n=10) results with frequency-based ordering and aggregation. KPD-A denotes SetTrans with Greedy Search + KPDrop-A. For brevity, we only present the greedy search results of Diversity Heads (Thomas and Vajjala, 2024) and TP4 prompt style for ChatGPT. SciBART-large indicates the result of (SciBART-large+TAPT+DESEL in Wu et al. (2023)). 91₁ denotes 91 \pm 0.1.

multi-sampling-based approaches compared to the baseline.

3.5 Comparison with Prior Works

As can be seen in Table 4, our best approaches are competitive against many of the earlier works. Our LLM-based models tend to generate high number of keyphrases which is well suited for Inspec (which also has a high number of keyphrases in the ground truth). As such, our model excels and achieves state of the art in Inspec. In other cases, the overgeneration can become a detriment leading to lower precision when ground truth keyphrases are of fewer numbers. Regardless, our models still remain competitive against many of the prior models in scientific documents. This is especially impressive because this performance is completely zero-shot without any fine-tuning, unlike most prior works. Interestingly, the LLM-based models seem to perform quite poorly in the news domain (KP-Times) compared to others. The gap is particularly high in absent keyphrase generation for KP-Times. Thus, it appears that the LLM-based models, in a zero-shot context, are better biased towards scientific keyphrase extraction, rather than KP-Timesstyle news domain.

4 Additional Analyses

In Appendix Table 5 we show the recall of absent keyphrases at higher top-ks. In Appendix B, we present result of using multi-sampling aggregations on beam search generations as opposed to independent random sampling. As can be seen independent-sampling based multi-sampling generally outperforms beam search while being more cost-efficient. In Appendix C, we provide qualitative analyses of generated keyphrases. In brief, we find that, under zero-shot prompts, models are biased towards producing high number of longer (multi-word) keyphrases. Inspec best fits this pattern, and thus we find LLMs to ace on Inspec. Whereas KPTimes tend to have short keyphrases and in fewer numbers - potentially a reason for the struggle of zero-shot LLMs in KPTimes.

5 Related Work

Identifying keyphrase from a document is a longstanding task and has been well studied in the literature using both supervised, semi-supervised, and unsupervised approaches (Patel and Caragea, 2021; Patel et al., 2020; Park and Caragea, 2020; Chowdhury et al., 2019; Patel and Caragea, 2019; Ye and Wang, 2018; Florescu and Caragea, 2017; Hasan and Ng, 2014; Gollapalli and Caragea, 2014; Bougouin et al., 2013; Mihalcea and Tarau, 2004). However, with the surge of deep learning models, the attention has shifted towards generative models particularly because of their capability to generate absent keyphrases (Wu et al., 2024a; Garg et al., 2023, 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2022; Meng et al., 2017). Many recent works for keyphrase generation have also explored the seq2seq models with no pre-training (Meng et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018; Ye and Wang, 2018; Chan et al., 2019; Swaminathan et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2021b,a; Huang et al., 2021; Choi et al., 2023; Thomas and Vajjala, 2024) or pre-trained seq2seq models (e.g., BART) for generating both absent and present keyphrases (Liu et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021; Kulkarni et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022b,a; Garg et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2022; Madaan et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2023, 2024a).

More recently, a few works have started to explore decoder-only LLMs for keyphrase generation and extraction (Wang et al., 2024; Maragheh et al., 2023; Song et al., 2023a,b; Martínez-Cruz et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2024b). In our paper, we explore LLMs using novel strategies such as "specialist prompts", task-specific instructions, and multi-sampling, and contrast them with many of the above works.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we addressed three core research questions for keyphrase generation: the effectiveness of specialist prompting for present and absent

keyphrases (RQ1), the impact of additional instructions for length and order control (RQ2), and the benefits of multi-sampling for improving keyphrase generation (RQ3). For RQ1, we found that the specialist prompts for present and absent keyphrases did not consistently outperform a simple baseline prompt. In terms of RQ2, introducing additional instructions for order and length control yielded mixed results. While length control showed some promise in improving present keyphrase extraction for specific datasets, the overall performance gains were inconsistent across both present and absent keyphrase generation. The most promising findings of our paper came from our exploration of RQ3 — the impact of multi-sampling and aggregation. Simple union proved insufficient due to its inability to preserve keyphrase order, which is crucial for certain evaluation metrics like $F_1@5$. However, more sophisticated aggregation techniques, such as Union Concatenation, Union Interleaf, and especially Frequency Order, showed significant improvements in keyphrase generation, particularly for absent keyphrases. Frequency Order, in particular, provided the most consistent results and outperformed the baseline across various settings.

Our multi-sampling aggregation strategies are also model-agnostic and can work with earlier established KPG models. We leave potential to augment earlier model strategies with multi-sampling aggregation for future work.

7 Limitations

This work focuses on zero-shot prompting; however, the effectiveness of few-shot prompting, and parameter-efficient fine-tuning for KPG are also relevant questions that are yet unanswered in this paper. Moreover, alternative evaluation schemes to better judge LLM's capacities such as KPEval (Wu et al., 2024b) are yet to be explored. Despite these limitations, we believe our LLM-based methods show promise and offer a strong foundation for future work in LLM-based keyphrase generation.

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A Evaluation

We consider the following standard evaluations for KPG:

- 1. F_1 @M: This evaluation metric calculates the F_1 between all the predicted keyphrases by the model and the ground truth keyphrases. In the case of multi-sampling models, the term "all the predicted keyphrases" stands for all the keyphrases that remain after selection of the top- M_{pre} present keyphrases and top- M_{abs} absent keyphrases based on the dynamic keyphrase number selection that we discussed before.
- 2. $F_1@5$: This evaluation metric calculates the F_1 between the top-5 predicted keyphrases by the model and the ground truth keyphrases. Similar to (Chan et al., 2019) and others, in case there are less than 5 predicted keyphrases, we add dummy ones until there are 5 keyphrases.
- 3. R@10: This evaluation metric calculates the recall between the top-10 predicted keyphrases by the model and the ground truth keyphrases.
- 4. R@Inf: This evaluation metric calculates the recall between all the predicted keyphrases (with no truncation) by the model and the ground truth keyphrases. The difference between @Inf and @M is that in the context of multi-sampling models, for @Inf, we do not truncate the keyphrases based on dynamically determined M_{pre} and M_{abs} values. Otherwise, for any other case, @M and @Inf are equivalent. R@Inf shows the upperbound performance that we can get if we have a perfect selector to select from the raw list of predictions from all samples of a model for any specific input.

For all cases, we calculate the macro-average as is the standard. Following convention, we distinguish between absent and present keyphrases based on whether the lower-cased stemmed (using Porter-Stemmer) version of keyphrases match with the lowercased stemmed version of the input text.

B Beam Search

Beam search is a search algorithm used in sequence generation tasks, aiming to balance between exploration and exploitation. It maintains a set of the k most probable hypotheses at each step, where k is the beam width. The model computes a probability distribution over the next token, and at each step, the k most probable sequences are kept and expanded. Mathematically, given the sequence $\mathbf{X}_{t-1} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{t-1})$, the probability of the next token is computed as:

$$P(x_t|\mathbf{X}_{t-1})$$

Beam search proceeds by maintaining and expanding the top k sequences, based on their cumulative probability:

$$P(\mathbf{x}_t) = \prod_{i=1}^t P(x_i | \mathbf{X}_{i-1})$$

After expanding all sequences, the top k sequences are retained, and this process repeats until a stopping criterion (e.g., reaching the end token) is met. Following the multi-sampling experiments detailed in Section 3.4, we applied the same aggregation strategies to evaluate the performance of the beam search strategy. Table 7 summarizes the results of beam search conducted on the open-source models Llama-3.0 and Phi-3.0, using a beam width of 10. Consistent with our previous experiments, the generation length was constrained to 500 tokens, with all other parameters held constant. The results indicate that the multi-sampling strategy with various aggregation techniques, consistently outperforms the standard beam search approach across all datasets.

C Qualitative Analysis of Keyphrase Generation

In the results presented in the main paper, we find that the LLMs perform quite well in Inspec, quite poorly in KPTimes, and moderately competitively in the other datasets. Our analyses, here, provide some insights about why this happens. As the anecdotal examples in Table 9 and Table 10 show, the LLMs (particularly GPT-40) are biased towards generating high number of keyphrases (~ 10) and more of multi-word keyphrases. Moreover, they are biased towards generating more present keyphrases than absent. This pattern of generation matches very well with the pattern of annotated keyphrases in Inspec (larger number of keyphrases and bigger multi-word keyphrases). On the other hand, the annotated keyphrases in KPTimes are on the opposite side of the spectrum. They have fewer keyphrases

	Ins	spec	Kra	pivin	Sem	Eval	KP	20K	KPTimes	
Models	R@10	R@Inf	R@10	R@Inf	R@10	R@Inf	R@10	R@Inf	R@10	R@Inf
Llama-3.0 8B Ins	truct									
Baseline	7.6	7.6	5.5	5.5	2.5	2.5	4.2	4.2	4.9	4.9
Multi-sampling (n	=10)									
Union	12.2	17.1	7.6	11.8	3.1	5.0	8.8	11.6	7.0	14.0
Union Concat	15.6	17.1	9.6	11.8	3.5	5.0	9.8	11.6	10.0	14.0
Union Interleaf	14.5	17.1	9.8	11.8	3.6	5.0	10.1	11.6	10.8	14.0
Frequency Order	15.2	17.1	9.6	11.8	3.5	5.0	10.2	11.6	10.9	14.0
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini	i 128K Ins	struct								
Baseline	9.4	9.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	0.7	0.8
Multi-sampling (n	=10)									
Union	7.5	23.8	1.8	6.9	1.7	4.6	2.5	7.5	0.7	5.2
Union Concat	16.2	23.8	3.4	6.9	2.8	4.6	3.8	7.5	1.2	5.2
Union Interleaf	15.4	23.8	3.4	6.9	1.6	4.6	4.2	7.5	1.3	5.2
Frequency Order	19.7	23.8	3.8	6.9	3.0	4.6	4.6	7.5	1.8	5.2

Table 5: Recall performance of our multi-sample models for absent keyphrase generation. R indicates recall. @Inf indicates that all keyphrases from all samples for an input is considered without any dynamic @M selection.

Dataset	Statistics Names	Original Data	Statistics of	Model Ge	enerations
		(Ground Truth)			
			Llama-3	Gpt-4o	Phi-3
	Average words in Title + Abstract	121.82			
	Average words per present keyphrase	2.27	2.00	2.36	2.43
Inspec	Average words per absent keyphrase	2.52	2.14	2.69	3.07
	Average no. of present keyphrases per input	7.70	7.91	8.33	7.33
	Average no. of absent keyphrases per input	2.15	2.43	3.7	5.26
	Average Words in Title + Abstract	180.65			
	Average words per present keyphrase	2.15	2.10	2.46	2.49
Krapivin	Average words per absent keyphrase	2.29	2.14	2.62	2.91
	Average no. of present keyphrases per input	3.28	8.75	9.63	8.29
	Average no. of absent keyphrases per input	2.57	2.75	3.46	5.57
	Average words in Title + Abstract	183.48			
	Average words per present keyphrase	1.91	2.02	2.29	2.34
Semeval	Average words per absent keyphrase	2.22	2.08	2.54	3.42
	Average no. of present keyphrases per input	6.01	9.83	8.44	7.94
	Average no. of absent keyphrases per input	8.53	3.71	3.05	5.96
	Average words in Title + Abstract	157.94			
	Average words per present keyphrase	1.76	2.07	2.37	2.46
KP20K	Average words per absent keyphrase	2.24	2.18	2.64	3.27
	Average no. of present keyphrases per input	3.28	9.03	10.11	8.76
	Average no. of absent keyphrases per input	2.01	2.41	3.54	5.79
	Average words in Title + Abstract	643.24			
	Average words per present keyphrase	1.48	1.75	2.44	2.23
KPTimes	Average words per absent keyphrase	2.36	2.05	3.01	2.83
	Average no. of present keyphrases per input	3.18	9.84	9.95	9.82
	Average no. of absent keyphrases per input	1.92	2.27	8.4	6.74

Table 6: Statistics of datasets and the model generations.

compared to other datasets, and short (typically single word) keyphrases. The statistics of other datasets are in the middle of the spectrum. These trends that we observe in a few anecdotal examples, are also backed quantitatively in Table 6. The table shows several statistics like average number of words per present or absent keyphrases and average number of present and absent keyphrases per input both in model generations and the dataset ground truths. As can be seen, the statistics of model generations correspond most closely to Inspec and least closely to KPTimes. Moreover, the higher average input size of KPTimes may also make things harder for the LLMs. SemEval also has ground truths with higher number of keyphrases comparable to Inspec, but it has much higher ratios of absent keyphrases which conflicts with the pattern of model generations.

All these points can provide a few insights as to why the LLMs perform best in Inspec, worst in KPTimes and neither very good nor very bad in the other datasets.

	Ins	pec	Krap	oivin	Sem	Eval	KP2	20K	KPT	imes
Models	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5
			Pres	ent Keyph	rase Gener	ation				
Llama-3.0 8B Inst	truct									
Baseline	48.3	40.5	30.9	32.4	35.5	36.2	27.7	30.7	27.0	31.3
Beam Search (Bea	m width=10)								
Union	38.1	46.7	24.2	27.3	27.3	33.1	20.3	23.5	14.9	18.8
Union Concat	44.4	52.0	32.5	30.7	36.4	37.0	30.7	27.2	31.2	22.9
Union Interleaf	41.5	49.4	32.5	31.1	36.4	37.2	31.1	28.0	31.7	23.6
Frequency Order	46.3	52.2	31.7	31.1	34.8	37.0	29.5	27.4	25.0	22.9
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini	128K Instr	uct								
Baseline	48.2	42.2	22.2	22.5	28.4	28.6	17.6	19.1	9.3	11.2
Beam Search (Bea	m width=10)								
Union	36.5	46.4	16.7	20.4	17.3	24.9	12.5	14.8	4.8	6.4
Union Concat	45.1	52.1	22.1	22.2	28.9	28.9	19.0	16.7	10.3	7.3
Union Interleaf	44.4	51.0	22.5	22.6	29.8	29.7	19.7	17.5	10.4	7.5
Frequency Order	45.0	52.4	21.7	22.1	25.2	28.7	16.6	16.7	5.8	7.2
			Abse	ent Keyph	rase Gener	ation				
Llama-3.0 8B Inst	truct									
Baseline	6.8	5.5	4.6	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.8	3.0	4.6	3.6
Beam Search (Bea	m width=10)								
Union	7.9	6.2	4.3	3.9	2.7	2.9	4.4	3.8	4.4	3.9
Union Concat	8.1	8.0	4.8	4.5	2.8	3.2	4.5	4.3	4.7	4.7
Union Interleaf	8.1	6.9	4.7	4.3	2.6	2.2	4.5	4.4	4.7	4.8
Frequency Order	8.2	7.7	4.9	4.6	2.8	3.2	4.5	4.3	4.7	4.8
Phi-3.0 3.8B Mini	128K Instr	ruct								
Baseline	7.3	6.3	1.3	1.1	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.4
Beam Search (Bea	m width=10)								
Union	8.3	7.8	1.6	1.3	0.8	0.7	1.4	1.2	0.4	0.3
Union Concat	9.0	9.5	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	0.4	0.4
Union Interleaf	9.0	8.5	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	0.4	0.4
Frequency Order	9.3	9.5	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.5	0.5	0.5

Table 7: Comparison of baseline models and beam search models with different aggregation strategies for both present and absent keyphrase generation.

	Prese	nt Keyphi	rase Gener	ation	Absent Keyphrase Generation				
Models	KP2	20K	КРТ	imes	KP2	20K	КРТ	imes	
	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	F1@M	F1@5	
			Llama-3.0	8B Instruc	t				
Baseline	26.8	30.0	28.3	33.0	3.2	3.0	3.9	3.8	
Union	18.0	15.1	13.2	9.4	2.7	3.3	1.3	1.6	
Union Concat	26.8	30.3	26.1	33.2	4.8	4.5	3.1	3.0	
Union Interleaf	28.1	30.4	28.2	33.4	5.0	4.7	3.1	3.0	
Frequency Order	27.4	30.6	26.3	31.9	5.5	4.9	3.5	3.2	
		Phi-,	3.0 3.8B M	ini 128K In	struct				
Baseline	17.2	19.2	9.7	11.6	1.2	1.2	0.4	0.4	
Union	12.3	10.6	6.2	4.8	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.2	
Union Concat	18.8	20.6	11.7	12.5	1.6	1.7	0.3	0.4	
Union Interleaf	21.0	22.0	15.8	14.9	1.6	1.5	0.3	0.4	
Frequency Order	19.2	19.6	11.0	10.5	1.9	2.1	0.4	0.4	
			GP	PT-40			•		
Baseline	20.1	24.7	11.4	14.7	2.4	2.5	0.4	0.5	
Union	15.7		8.8	7.4	1.3	1.5	- 0.3	0.2	
Union Concat	20.1	24.6	12.9	15.5	2.5	2.3	0.4	0.5	
Union Interleaf	21.9	26.3	16.0	18.2	2.8	2.8	0.6	0.7	
Frequency Order	20.0	21.7	12.1	12.4	2.6	2.6	0.6	0.6	

Table 8: Comparison of baseline models and multi-sampling models on a subsample of 2,000, using different aggregation strategies for both present and absent keyphrase generation.

Dataset	Inspec	Krapivin	SemEval	KP20K	KPTimes
Title	Loudspeaker Voice-Coil Inductance Losses:	computation in networks of	Computing the Banzhaf Power Index	A Graph Coloring Based TDMA	Auto sales slide 7.6% in May on
The		. ,	in Network Flow Games		minicar tax.
Title	Circuit Models, Parameter Estimation, and Effect on Frequency Response When the series resistance is separated and treated as a separate element, it is shown that losses in an inductor require the ratio of the flux to MMF in the core to be frequency dependent. For small-signal operation, this dependence leads to a circuit model composed of a lossless inductor and a resistor in parallel, both of which are frequency dependent. Mathematical expressions for these elements are derived under the assumption that the ratio of core flux to MMF varies as ω^{n-1} , where n is a constant. A linear regression technique is described for extracting the model parameters from measured data. Experimental data are presented to justify the model for the lossy inductance of a loudspeaker voice-coil. A SPICE example is presented to illustrate the effects of voice-coil inductor losses on the frequency response of a typical driver	passively mobile finite state sensors we explore the computational power of networks of small resource limited mobile agents . we define two new models of computation based on pairwise interactions of finite state agents in populations of finite state agents in populations of finite state agents in populations of finite state agents in and give protocols that stably compute functions in a class including boolean combinations of threshold k, parity , majority , and simple arithmetic . we prove that all stably computable predicates are in al. with uniform random sampling of pairs to interact, we define the model of conjugating automata and show that any counter machine with o (n) counters of capacity o (n) can be simulated with high probability by a protocol in a population of size n		Scheduling Algorithm for Wireless Sensor Networks. Wireless sensor networks should provide with valuable service, which is called service-oriented requirement. To meet this need, a novel distributed graph coloring based time division multiple access scheduling algorithm (GCA), considering real-time performance for clustering-based sensor network, is proposed in this paper, to determine the smallest length of conflict-free assignment of timeslots for intra-cluster transmissions. GCSA involves two phases. In colusing graph theory, and a distributed vertex coloring algorithm and can get colors near to $\delta + 1$, is proposed to assign a color to each node in the network. Then, in scheduling phase, each independent act is mapped to a unique timeslot accoding to the sets priority which is obtained by considering network structure	
Ground Truth Keyphrases	["loudspeaker voice-coil inductance losses", "circuit models", "parameter estimation", "frequency response", "series resistance", "small-signal operation", "lossless inductor", "linear regression", "lossy inductance",	["mobile agent", "finite state agent", "stable computation", "sensor net", "diffuse computation",	["banzhaf power index", "power index", "network flow game", "prefer aggreg", "multiag applic", "vote theori", "vote", "comput complex", "algorithm and problem complex analysi",	["graph coloring", "(dma", "distributed", "real-time",	will raise it to 10 percent. ["autos", "minicars", "car sales"]
	"SPICE", "loudspeaker driver", "core flux to MMF ratio"]	"intermittent communication"]	"social choic theori", "autom agent vote", "probabilist model", "connect game"]	"clustering"]	
Llama-3	['Lossy inductor", 'Loudspeaker voice-coil", 'Inductance losses", 'Circuit modeling", 'Frequency response", 'SPICE", 'Magnetic core", 'MMF', 'Flux", 'Linear regression", 'Parameter estimation"]	['finite state sensors", 'passive mobile agents", 'computational power", 'networks", 'pairwise interactions", 'stable computation", 'boolean combinations", 'threshold K", 'parity", 'majoriy", arithmetic", 'NL", 'uniform random sampling", 'conjugating automata", 'conuter machine", 'PRALT, 'open problems", 'future directions"]	['Computing the Banzhaf Power Index", 'Network Flow Games", 'Multiagent System", 'Power Indices", 'Preference Aggregation", 'Voting Theory", 'Simple Coalitional Games", 'Graph', 'Network Flow", 'Coalition", 'Resource Allocation", 'Computational Complexity", '#P-completeness", 'Polynomial Algorithm"]	["Graph Coloring", "TDMA Scheduling", "Wireless Sensor Networks", "Service-Oriented", "Distributed Algorithm", "Real-Time Performance", "Conflic-Free Assignment", "Time Division Multiple Access", "Clustering-Based Sensor Network", "Graph Theory", "Distributed Vertex Coloring Algorithm", "Distributed Vertex Coloring Algorithm", "Distributed Vertex Coloring Algorithm", "Distributed Vertex Coloring Algorithm", "Distributed Vertex Coloring Algorithm", "Intra-Cluster Delay", "Intra-Cluster Throughput", "Communication Reliability"]	["Auto sales", "minicar tax", "Japan", "April tax hike", "minivehicles", "car sales", "consumption tax"]
Phi-3	["Lossy loudspeaker voice-coil", "Inductor inductance losses", "Frequency dependent losses", "Lossless inductor model", "Resistor model", "Small-signal operation", " Mathematical expressions derivation", "Core flux to MMF ratio", "Linear regression technique", "Loudspeaker frequency response", "SPICE example"]	["small resource limited mobile agents", "computation in networks", "finite state agents", "stable computation", "boolean combinations", "conjugating automata", "counter machine simulation", "high probability", "promising future directions"]	["Banzhaf power index", "network flow game", "computational complexity", "#P-complete", "polynomial algorithm", "coalitional game", "voting theory", "resource allocation", "real-world networks", "graph edge significance"]	['Graph Coloring", "Time Division Multiple Access - (TDMA) Scheduling", "Service-Oriented Requirement", "Ulustering-Based Sensor Network", "Distributed Vertex Coloring Algorithm", "Intra-Cluster Transmissions", "Intra-Cluster Throughput", "Real-Time Performance", "Communication Reliability", "Experimental Results"]	["auto sales decline", "minicar tax impact", "minicar sales drop", "consumption tax hike", "car demand slump", "Japan"s recession", "tax policy change"]
GPT-40	["loudspeaker voice-coil inductance", "circuit models", "parameter estimation", "frequency response", "inductor losses", "series resistance", "small-signal operation", "lossless inductor", "resistor in parallel", "frequency dependent elements", "core flux to MMF ratio", "mathematical expressions", "linear regression technique", "lossy inductance", "SPICE example", "loudspeaker driver"]	["passively mobile finite state sensors", "computational power of networks", "small resource limited mobile agents", "stable computations", "boolean combinations", "theshold functions", "partiy", "anajority", "simple arithmetic", "stably complexity class", "uniform random sampling", "conjugating automata", "conjugating automata", "counter machine simulation", "high probability computational model", "PRL complexity class", "open problems", "future directions"]	["Banzhaf power index", "network flow games", "oumputational complexity", "power indices", "weighted voting system", "coalitional game", "network flow", "IP-complete", "polynomial algorithm", "preference aggregation", "voting theories", "resource allocation", "multiagent domain", "graph edges control"]	["graph coloring", "TDMA scheduling", "tribud algorithm", "distributed algorithm", "time division access", "intra-cluster transmissions", "clustering-based sensor network", "real-time performance", "conflict-free assignment", "vertex coloring algorithm", "intra-cluster throughput", "intra-cluster throughput", "communication reliability"]	["auto sales decline", "minicar tax impact", "Japan auto market", "minivehicle sales", "consumption tax hike", "Japan recession", "minicar sales decrease", "tax impact on demand", "car sales increase", "Iapan Light Motor Vehicle and Motorcycle Association", "Japan Automobile Dealers Association", "fiscal year car sales", "tax hike effects"]

Table 9: An example of input document from each dataset, along with the corresponding keyphrase generations by various models, where blue represents present keyphrases and black represents absent keyphrases.

Dataset	Ins	pec	KP	Times
Title	WEXTOR: a Web-based tool for generating and visualizing experimental designs and procedures	A framework for evaluating the data-hiding capacity of image sources	Chinese tourists step up for Abe as Japanese tighten belts	Manafort family business defends name as cousin sits in jail
Abstract	WEXTOR is a Javascript-based experiment generator and teaching tool on the World Wide Web that can be used to design laboratory and Web experiments in a guided step-by-step process. It dynamically creates the customized Web pages and Javascripts needed for the experimentary procedure and provides experimentary with a print-ready visual display of their experimental design. WEXTOR flexibly supports complete and incomplete factorial designs with between-subjects, within-subjects, and quasi-experimental factors, as well as mixed designs. The software implements client-side response time measurement and contains a content wizard for creating interactive materials, as well as dependent measures (graphical scales, multiple-choice items, etc.), on the experiment pages	An information-theoretic model for image watermarking and data hiding is presented in this paper. Previous theoretical results are used to characterize the fundamental capacity limits of image watermarking and data-hiding systems. Capacity is determined by the statistical model used for the host image, by the distortion constraints on the data hider and the attacker, and by the information available to the data hider, to the attacker, and to the decoder. We consider autoregressive, block-DCT, and wavelet statistical models for images and compute data-hiding capacity for compressed and uncompressed host-image sources.	When Jingyan Hou made her first trip to Japan in 1997, the office worker from Beijing spent ¥200,000 during a wecklong stay on accommodations, meals, transport and souvenirs. On her second visit this year, she spent that much on just one Louis Vuitton handbag in Tokyo's Ginza shopping district. The increasing wealth of travelers like Hou, 45, underscores the opportunity for Japan to expand its tourism industry as China's burgeoning middle class goes on vacations abroad. The yen's slump to a seven-year low against the dollar is also broadening the country's appeal globally and bolstering the Abe administration's effort to double visitors by the 2020 Tokyo Olympics. "There's a lot of room to boost the number of foreign tourists coming to Japan with these growing economies in our neighborhood," sid Daiki Takahashi, an economist at the Dai-ichi Life Research Institute in Tokyo	What do you do if you share a name with one of the most prominent defendants in the special counsel's investigation into Russia? Paul Manafort's daughter decided to change her name. Leaders of New Britain, Connecticut, considered renaming Paul Manafort Drive, a street named after his father. At Manafort Brothers Inc., a family-owned New England construction firm, they are defending the Manafort name and legacy while distancing themselves from their cousin, Trump's former campaign chairman who was recently blasted by prosecutors for years of lies and lawbreaking. The Manafort name has been a familiar one in New England politics and basiness for decades, creating a predicament for the family as the 69-year-old former attorney is scheduled to be sentenced Thursday, Manafort Brothers is one of New England's best known construction companies
Ground Truth Keyphrases	['WEXTOR', 'Web-based tool', 'Javascript-based experiment generator', 'teaching tool', 'World Wide Web', 'customized Web pages', 'print-ready visual display', 'factorial designs', 'client-side response time measurement', 'content wizard', 'HTML', 'Web server', 'logfiles', 'database', 'experimental design visualization', 'free software']	['data-hiding capacity', 'image sources', 'information-theoretic model', 'watermarking', 'capacity limits', 'statistical model', 'distortion constraints', 'wavelet statistical models', 'uncompressed host-image sources', 'closed-form expressions', sparse-model approximations', 'geometric attacks', 'distortion measures', 'autoregressive statistical models', 'block-DCT statistical models', 'compressed host-image sources'	['tourism', 'china', 'tokyo 2020', '2020 olympics', 'inbound tourism']	['paul manafort', 'manafort brothers', 'new england', 'robert mueller', 'donald trump', 'russia probe']
Llama-3	['Web-based experiment generator', 'experimental design', 'factorial design', 'response time measurement', 'client-side', 'HTML editor', 'Web experimental design', 'educational purposes', 'noncommercial purposes', 'psycholinguistics']	['Image watermarking', 'data hiding', 'information-theoretic model', 'capacity limits', 'image sources', 'statistical models', 'autoregressive', 'block-DCT', 'wavelet', 'compressed', 'uncompressed host-image', 'sparse-model', 'geometric attacks', 'distortion measures']	['China', 'Japan', 'Abe', 'tourism', 'economy', 'Tokyo Olympics', 'travel', 'shopping', 'Louis Vuitton', 'Ginza', 'Beijing', 'accommodation', 'consumption tax', 'recession', 'World Tourism Organization', 'South Korea', 'Taiwan', 'Tokyo', 'Mount Fuji', 'Kyoto', 'Sakaiminato', 'Tottori', 'cruise ship', 'visa', 'Okinawa', 'Indonesia', 'Philippines', 'Vietnam', 'customer service', 'transport', 'cultural attraction', 'hostel', 'love hotel', 'Asakusa']	['Paul Manafort', 'Manafort Brothers', 'construction company', 'family business', 'Russia', 'politics', 'business', 'Connecitcut', 'New England', 'Trump', 'campaign chairman', 'lawyer', 'jail', 'conviction', 'sentencing', 'fraud', 'politics', 'family name', 'legacy', 'reputation', 'morals', 'ethics', 'philanthropy']
Phi-3	'Experimental design generator', 'Web-based experiment tool', 'Guided procedure design', 'Dynamic content creation', 'Flexible factorial design', 'Client-side response measurement', 'Content wizard, 'Interactive materials design', 'Methodological features', 'Web server compatibility', 'Educational resource', 'Freely available', 'World Wide Web', 'GenPSYLab', 'Login link']	['Information-theoretic model', 'Image watermarking', 'Fundamental capacity limits', 'Statistical model', 'Distortion constraints', 'Data hider vs. attacker', 'Compressed vs. uncompressed images', 'Sparse model approximations', 'Gemetric attacks', 'Distortion measures', 'Invariant attacks']	['Chinese tourists growth', 'Japanese tourism industry expansion', "Abe administration's doubling tourists", "yen's slump", 'Japanese economy's recession", 'foreign visitors spending', 'duty-free sales increase', 'bilingual sales assistants', 'tourism in less-visited areas', "Tottori's tourist infrastructure", 'visa policy changes', 'inexpensive accommodations', 'Manryo hostels', 'foreign tourist increase']	'Manafort family business', 'defend name', 'Paul Manafort', 'criminal issues', 'Manafort Brothers Inc.', 'strong moral and business ethics', 'family legacy', 'Paul Manafort's arrest", 'Paul Manafort Drive', "Paul Sr.'s political scandals", "Paul Jr.'s fight to dissociate", 'minority subcontractor scandal', 'Manafort family foundation', "dissociation from name by Manafort's daughter "]
GPT-40	['WEXTOR', 'web-based tool', 'experimental designs', 'Javascript-based experiment generator', 'laboratory experiments', 'web experiments', 'factorial designs', 'between-subjects factors', 'within-subjects factors', 'quasi-experimental factors', 'mixed designs', 'client-side response time measurement', 'content wizard', 'interactive materials', 'dependent measures', 'graphical scales', 'multiple-choice items', 'web experimental design', 'platform independent', 'educational purposes', 'noncommercial purposes', 'visualization of experimental design', 'experiment procedures', 'customized web pages']	['data-hiding capacity', 'image watermarking', 'information-theoretic model', 'image sources', 'statistical model', 'host image', 'distortion constraints', 'data hider', 'attacker', 'decoder', 'autoregressive model', 'block-DCT model', 'wavelet model', 'compressed host-image sources', 'uncompressed host-image sources', 'sparse-model approximations', 'geometric attacks', 'distortion measures', 'capacity limits', 'closed-form expressions']	['Chinese tourists', 'Japan tourism industry', "Shinzo Abe's growth strategy", "yen's slump", 'Tokyo Olympics 2020', 'consumption tax increase', 'foreign tourist spending', 'Morld Tourism Organization', 'duty-free sales', 'multiple-entry visas', 'foreign tourists in Japan', 'Manryo Inc. hostels', 'Japanese economy', 'dutural attractions', 'Chinese middle class', 'luxury shopping in Japan', 'Sakaiminato tourism', 'travel visas for Chinese tourists']	['Paul Manafort', 'Manafort Brothers Inc.', 'construction firm', 'New England politics', 'New Britain Connecticut', 'special counsel's investigation', 'Trump's former campaign chairman', 'tax and bank fraud charges', 'Ukrainian political intersts', 'Washington lobbying firm', 'Black Manafort and Stone', 'federal criminal and civil investigations', 'minority subcontractor allegations', 'perjury charges', 'family legacy', 'community foundation', 'Jessica Manafort', 'Iess Bond', 'Rosy film']

Table 10: Two example input documents from Inspec (Reips and Neuhaus, 2002), (Moulin and Mihcak, 2002) and two from KPTimes (Times, 2014), (News, 2019), along with the corresponding keyphrase generations by various models, where blue represents present keyphrases and black represents absent keyphrases. These examples were chosen specifically to highlight the performance extremes across datasets: one demonstrating strong model performance and the other showcasing its limitations.