

PAIR: Planning and Iterative Refinement in Pre-trained Transformers for Long Text Generation

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Abstract

Pre-trained Transformers have enabled impressive breakthroughs in generating long and fluent text, yet their outputs are often “rambling” without coherently arranged content. In this work, we present a novel content-controlled text generation framework, PAIR, with planning and iterative refinement, which is built upon a large model, BART. We first adapt the BERT model to automatically construct the content plans, consisting of keyphrase assignments and their corresponding sentence-level positions. The BART model is employed for generation without modifying its structure. We then propose a refinement algorithm to gradually enhance the generation quality within the sequence-to-sequence framework. Evaluation with automatic metrics shows that adding planning consistently improves the generation quality on three distinct domains, with an average of 20 BLEU points and 12 METEOR points improvements. In addition, human judges rate our system outputs to be more relevant and coherent than comparisons without planning.

1 Introduction

Large pre-trained language models are the cornerstone of many state-of-the-art models in various natural language understanding and generation tasks (Devlin et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2020), yet they are far from perfect. In generation tasks, although models like GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) are able to produce plausible text, their spontaneous nature limits their utility in actual applications, e.g., users cannot specify what contents to include, and in what order.

To make large models more useful in practice, and to improve their generation quality, we believe it is critical to inform them of *when to say what*, which is addressed as *content planning* in traditional generation systems (Duboue and McKeown,

Prompt: CMV. Donald Trump is a communist.

Content Plan (output by planning model):
(1) **a communist**₃ ▷ **begin with**₈ ▷ **coherent ideology**₁₅ ▷ [SEN]₂₁
(2) [SEN]₄
(3) **no evidence**₂ ▷ **any coherent**₈ ▷ **held beliefs**₁₂ ▷ **any topic**₁₅ ▷ [SEN]₁₈

I: Template construction

Template:
(1) ___0 ___1 ___2 **a communist** ___5 ___6 ___7 **begin with** ___10 ___11 ___12 ___13 ___14 **coherent ideology** ___17 ___18 ___19 ___20
(2) ___0 ___1 ___2 ___3
(3) ___0 ___1 **no evidence** ___4 ___5 ___6 ___7 **any coherent** ___10 ___11 **held beliefs** ___14 **any topic** ___17

Draft (initial generation):

- (1) We'll call him **a communist**, you must **begin with** that Donald Trump has some kind of **coherent ideology** to begin with.
- (2) Which is unlikely.
- (3) There is **no evidence** to suggest Donald Trump has **any coherent** or commonly **held beliefs** on **any topic**.

Refined (final generation):

- (1) *To call him **a communist**, you must **begin with** that he has some kind of **coherent ideology** in the first place.*
- (2) *He does not.*
- (3) *There is **no evidence whatsoever** that Trump has **any coherent**, commonly **held beliefs** on **any topic**.*

Figure 1: An argument generation example using Reddit ChangeMyView. [Top] Partial output by our planner with keyphrase assignment and positions (in subscripts) for each sentence, segmented by special token [SEN], from which a template is constructed. [Bottom] A draft is first produced and then refined, with updated words highlighted in *italics*.

2001; Stent et al., 2004). Specially designed control codes and auxiliary planning modules have been integrated into neural models (Keskar et al., 2019; Moryossef et al., 2019; Hua and Wang, 2019), yet those solutions require model architecture modification or retraining, making text generation with large models a very costly endeavor.

To this end, this work aims to bring new insights into *how to effectively incorporate content plans into large models to generate more rele-*

vant and coherent text. We first study a *planning model trained from BERT* (Devlin et al., 2019) to produce the initial content plan, which assigns keyphrases to different sentences and predicts their positions. Next, we propose a *content-controlled text generation framework*, built upon the pre-trained sequence-to-sequence (seq2seq) Transformer model BART (Lewis et al., 2020). As shown in Figure 1, our generation model takes in a content plan consisting of *keyphrase assignments* and their corresponding *positions* for each sentence. The plan is encoded as a template, with [MASK] tokens added at positions where no content is specified. Our model then outputs a fluent and coherent multi-sentence text (draft) to reflect the plan. This is done by fine-tuning BART without modifying its architecture.

Furthermore, we present an *iterative refinement algorithm* to improve the generation in multiple passes, within the seq2seq framework. At each iteration, tokens with low generation confidence are replaced with [MASK] to compose a new template, from which a new output is produced. Unlike prior refinement algorithms that only permit editing in place, our solution offers more flexibility. Figure 1 exemplifies the refinement outcome.

We call our system **PAIR** (Planning And Iterative Refinement).¹ It is experimented on three distinct domains: counter-argument generation with Reddit ChangeMyView data, opinion article writing with the New York Times (NYT) corpus² (Sandhaus, 2008), and news report production on NYT. Automatic evaluation with BLEU, ROUGE, and METEOR shows that, by informing the generation model with sentence-level content plans, our model significantly outperforms a BART model fine-tuned with the same set of keyphrases as input (§ 5.1). Human judges also rate our system outputs as more relevant and coherent (§ 5.2). Additionally, our iterative refinement strategy consistently improves the generation quality according to both automatic scores and human evaluation. Finally, our model achieves better content control by reflecting the specified keyphrases in the content plan, whose outputs are preferred by human to another version with weaker control.

To summarize, our major contributions include:

- We propose a novel content planner built upon

¹Code and data are available at: <http://xinyuhua.github.io/Resources/emnlp20/>

²<https://catalog.ldc.upenn.edu/LDC2008T19>

BERT to facilitate long-form text generation.

- We present a novel template mask-and-fill method to incorporate content planning into generation models based on BART.
- We devise an iterative refinement algorithm that works within the seq2seq framework to flexibly improve the generation quality.

2 Related Work

Content Planning as a Generation Component.

Despite the impressive progress made in many generation tasks, neural systems are known to produce low-quality content (Wiseman et al., 2017; Rohrbach et al., 2018), often with low relevance (Li et al., 2016) and poor discourse structure (Zhao et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2020). Consequently, planning modules are designed and added into neural systems to enhance content relevance (Wiseman et al., 2018; Moryossef et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2019; Hua and Wang, 2019). However, it is still an open question to include content plans in large models, given the additional and expensive model retraining required. This work innovates by adding content plans as masked templates and designing refinement strategy to further boost generation performance, without architectural change.

Controlled Text Generation. Our work is also in line with the study of controllability of neural text generation models. This includes manipulating the syntax (Dušek and Jurčiček, 2016; Goyal and Durrett, 2020) and semantics (Wen et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2019) of the output. Specific applications encourage the model to cover a given topic (Wang et al., 2017; See et al., 2019), mention specified entities (Fan et al., 2018), or display a certain attribute (Hu et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2019; Balakrishnan et al., 2019). However, most existing work relies on model engineering, limiting the generalizability to new domains and adaptability to large pre-trained Transformers. One exception is the Plug and Play model (Dathathri et al., 2020), which directly modifies the key and value states of GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019). However, since the signal is derived from the whole generated text, it is too coarse to provide precise sentence-level content control. Here, we instead gain fine-grained controllability through keyphrase assignment and positioning per sentence, which can be adapted to any off-the-shelf pre-trained Transformer generators.

Iterative Refinement has been studied in machine translation (Lee et al., 2018; Freitag et al., 2019;

Mansimov et al., 2019; Kasai et al., 2020) to gradually improve translation quality. Refinement is also used with masked language models to improve fluency of non-autoregressive generation outputs (Ghazvininejad et al., 2019; Lawrence et al., 2019). Our work uses BART (Lewis et al., 2020), a state-of-the-art seq2seq model that offers better generalizability and stronger capacity for long text generation. Our proposed strategy substantially differs from prior solutions that rely on in-place word substitutions (Novak et al., 2016; Xia et al., 2017; Weston et al., 2018), as we leverage the seq2seq architecture to offer more flexible edits.

3 Content-controlled Text Generation with PAIR

Task Description. Our input consists of (1) a sentence-level prompt x , such as a news headline, or a proposition in an argument, and (2) a set of keyphrases m that are relevant to the prompt. The system aims to generate y that contains multiple sentences, as in a news report or an argument, by reflecting the keyphrases in a coherent way.

In this section, we first introduce content planning built upon BERT, that assigns keyphrases into sentences and predicts their positions (§ 3.1). Then we propose a seq2seq generation framework with BART fine-tuning that includes a given content plan derived from keyphrases m (§ 3.2). Finally, § 3.3 discusses improving generation quality by iteratively masking the less confident predictions and regenerating within our framework.

3.1 Content Planning with BERT

Our content planner is trained from BERT to assign keyphrases to different sentences and predict their corresponding positions. As shown in Figure 2, the concatenation of prompt x and unordered keyphrases m is encoded with bidirectional self-attentions. Keyphrase assignments are produced autoregressively as a sequence of tokens $m' = \{w_j\}$, with their positions in the sentence $s = \{s_j\}$ predicted as a sequence tagging task.

We choose BERT because it has been shown to be effective at both language modeling and sequence tagging. Moreover, we leverage its segment embedding to distinguish the input and output sequences. Specifically, we reuse its pre-trained language model output layer for keyphrase assignment. We further design a separate keyphrase positioning layer to predict token position s_j as the relative

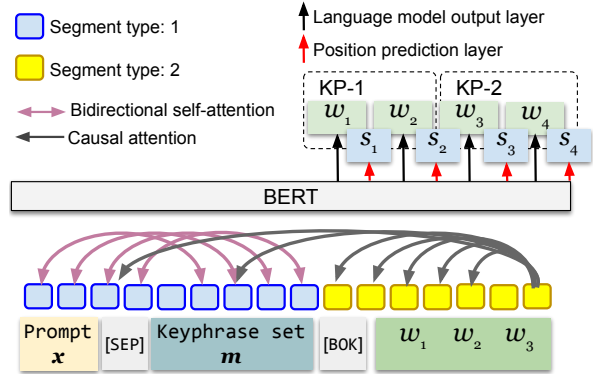


Figure 2: Content planning with BERT. We use bidirectional self-attentions for input encoding, and apply causal self-attentions for keyphrase assignment and position prediction. The input (x, m) and output keyphrase assignments (m') are distinguished by different segment embeddings.

distance from each sentence’s beginning:

$$p(s_j | w_{\leq j}) = \text{softmax}(H^L W_s) \quad (1)$$

where H^L is the last layer hidden states of the Transformer, and W_s are the newly added keyphrase positioning parameters learned during BERT fine-tuning. The range of allowed positions is from 0 to 127.

Noticeably, as our prediction is done autoregressively, attentions should only consider the generated tokens, but not the future tokens. However, BERT relies on bidirectional self-attentions to attend to both left and right. To resolve this discrepancy, we apply causal attention masks (Dong et al., 2019) over m' to disallow attending to the future (grey arrows in Figure 2).

Training the Planner. We extract keyphrases and acquire their ground-truth positions from human-written references, and fine-tune BERT with cross-entropy losses for both assignment and positioning, with a scaling factor 0.1 over the positioning loss.

Inference. A [BOK] token signals the beginning of keyphrase assignment generation. We employ a greedy decoding algorithm, and limit the output vocabulary to tokens in m and ensure each keyphrase is generated at most once. To allow sentence-level content planning, a special [SEN] token is generated to represent the sentence boundary, with its predicted position indicating the length. The planning process terminates when [EOS] is produced.

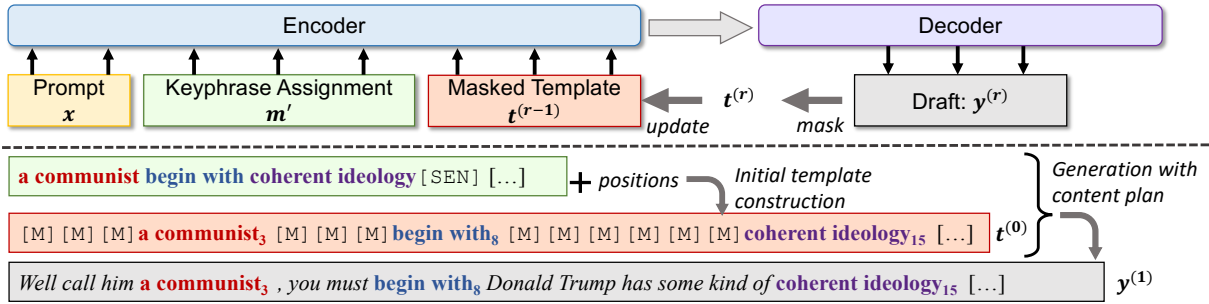


Figure 3: Our content-controlled text generation framework, PAIR, which is built on BART. Decoding is executed iteratively. At each iteration, the encoder consumes the input prompt x , the keyphrase assignments m' , as well as a partially masked template ($t^{(r-1)}$ for the r -th iteration, [M] for masks). The autoregressive decoder produces a complete sequence $y^{(r)}$, a subset of which is further masked, to serve as the next iteration’s template $t^{(r)}$.

3.2 Adding Content Plan with a Template Mask-and-Fill Procedure

Given a content planning model, we invoke it to output keyphrase assignments to different sentences (m'), their corresponding positions s , along with each sentence’s length (based on the prediction of [SEN]). We first employ a post-processing step to convert between different tokenizers, and correct erroneous position predictions that violate the assignment ordering or break the consecutivity of the phrase (Appendix A). We then convert the plan into a **template** $t^{(0)}$ as follows: For each sentence, the assigned keyphrases are placed at their predicted positions, and empty slots are filled with [MASK] symbols. Figure 3 illustrates the template construction process and our seq2seq generation model. In Appendix B, we show statistics on the constructed templates.

The input prompt x , keyphrase assignments m' , and template $t^{(0)}$ are concatenated as the input to the encoder. The decoder then generates an output $y^{(1)}$ according to the model’s estimation of $p(y^{(1)}|x, m', t^{(0)})$. $y^{(1)}$ is treated as a draft, to be further refined as described in the next section.

Our method is substantially different from prior work that uses constrained decoding to enforce words to appear at specific positions (Hokamp and Liu, 2017; Post and Vilar, 2018; Hu et al., 2019), which is highly biased by the surrounding few words and suffers from disfluency. Since BART is trained to denoise the masked input with contextual understanding, it naturally benefits our method.

Decoding. We employ the nucleus sampling strategy (Holtzman et al., 2019), which is shown to yield superior output quality in long text generation. In addition to the standard top- k sampling from tokens with the highest probabilities, nucleus sam-

pling further limits possible choices based on a cumulative probability threshold (set to 0.9 in all experiments below). We also require the *keyphrases to be generated at or nearby their predicted positions*. Concretely, for positions that match any keyphrase token, we force the decoder to copy the keyphrase unless it has already been generated in the previous five tokens. We sample three times to choose the one with the lowest perplexity, as estimated by GPT-2_{base} (Radford et al., 2019).

3.3 Iterative Refinement

Outputs generated in a single pass may suffer from incorrectness and incoherence (see Figure 1), therefore we propose an iterative refinement procedure to improve the quality. In each pass, tokens with low generation confidence are masked (Algorithm 1). This is inspired by iterative decoding designed for inference acceleration in *non-autoregressive* generation (Lee et al., 2018; Lawrence et al., 2019), though their refinement mostly focuses on word substitution and lacks the flexibility for other operations. Moreover, our goal is to improve fluency while ensuring the generation of given keyphrases.

At each iteration, the n least confident tokens are replaced with [MASK]. Similar as the mask-predict algorithm (Ghazvininejad et al., 2019), we gradually reduce the number of masks. In our experiments, each sample is refined for 5 iterations, with n decaying linearly from 80% of $|y^{(r)}|$ to 0.

Training the Generator. Our training scheme is similar to masked language model pre-training. Given the training corpus $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, m'_i, y_i)\}$, we consider two approaches that add noise to the target y_i by randomly masking a subset of (1) any tokens, or (2) tokens that are not within the span

Algorithm 1: Iteratively refinement via template mask-and-fill. The sample with the lowest perplexity (thus with better fluency) is selected for each iteration.

Data: prompt x , keyphrase assignments m' , keyphrase positions s , R refinement iterations, ρ nucleus sampling runs

Result: final output $y^{(R)}$

Construct template $t^{(0)}$ based on m' and s ;

for $r = 1$ **to** R **do**

Run encoder over $x \oplus m' \oplus t^{(r-1)}$;

$\mathcal{Y} \leftarrow \emptyset$;

for $i = 1$ **to** ρ **do**

Run nucleus sampling to generate y_i with keyphrase position enforcement;

Append y_i to \mathcal{Y} ;

$y^{(r)} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{y_i \in \mathcal{Y}} \text{GPT2-PPL}(y_i)$;

$n \leftarrow |y^{(r)}| \times (1 - r/R)$;

Mask n tokens with the lowest probabilities to create new template $t^{(r)}$;

of any keyphrase. The latter is better aligned with our decoding objective, since keyphrases are never masked. We concatenate x_i , m'_i , and the corrupted target \tilde{y}_i as input, and fine-tune BART to reconstruct the original y_i with a cross-entropy loss.

4 Experiment Setups

4.1 Tasks and Datasets

We evaluate our generation and planning models on datasets from three distinct domains for multi-paragraph-level text generation: (1) argument generation (**ARGGEN**) (Hua et al., 2019), to produce a counter-argument to refute a given proposition; (2) writing opinionated articles (**OPINION**), e.g., editorials and op-eds, to show idea exchange on a given subject; and (3) composing news reports (**NEWS**) to describe events. The three domains are selected with diverse levels of subjectivity and various communicative goals (persuading vs. informing), with statistics shown in Table 1.

Task 1: Argument Generation. We first evaluate our models on persuasive argument generation, based on a dataset collected from Reddit `r/ChangeMyView` (CMV) in our prior work (Hua et al., 2019). This dataset contains pairs of original post (OP) statement on a contro-

	# Sample	Prompt	Target	# KP	KP Cov.
ARGGEN	56,504	19.4	116.6	20.6	30.5%
OPINION	104,610	6.1	205.6	19.0	26.0%
NEWS	239,959	7.0	282.7	30.3	32.6%

Table 1: Statistics of the three datasets. We report average lengths of the prompt and the target generation, number of unique keyphrases (# KP) used in the input, and the percentage of content words in target covered by the keyphrases (KP Cov.).

versial issue about politics and filtered high-quality counter-arguments, covering 14, 833 threads from 2013 to 2018. We use the OP title, which contains a proposition (e.g. *the minimum wage should be abolished*), to form the input prompt x . In our prior work, only the first paragraphs of high-quality counter-arguments are used for generation. Here we consider generating the full post, which is significantly longer. Keyphrases are identified as noun phrases and verb phrases that contain at least one topic signature word (Lin and Hovy, 2000), which is determined by a log-likelihood ratio test that indicates word salience. Following our prior work, we expand the set of topic signatures with their synonyms, hyponyms, hypernyms, and antonyms according to WordNet (Miller, 1994). The keyphrases longer than 10 tokens are further discarded.

Task 2: Opinion Article Generation. We collect opinion articles from the New York Times (NYT) corpus (Sandhaus, 2008). An article is selected if its `taxonomies` label has a prefix of *Top/Opinion*. We eliminate articles with an empty headline or less than three sentences. Keyphrases are extracted in a similar manner as done in argument generation. Samples without any keyphrase are removed. The article headline is treated as the input, and our target is to construct the full article. Table 1 shows that opinion samples have shorter input than arguments, and the keyphrase set also covers fewer content words in the target outputs, requiring the model to generalize well to capture the unseen tokens.

Task 3: News Report Generation. Similarly, we collect and process news reports from NYT, filtering by taxonomy labels starting with *Top/News*, removing articles that have no content word overlap with the headline, and ones with `material-types` labeled as one of *“statistics”*, *“list”*, *“correction”*, *“biography”*, or *“review.”* News reports describe events and facts, and in this domain we aim to study and emphasize the impor-

	ARGGEN				OPINION				NEWS			
	B-4	R-L	MTR	Len.	B-4	R-L	MTR	Len.	B-4	R-L	MTR	Len.
SEQ2SEQ	0.76	13.80	9.36	97	1.42	15.97	10.97	156	1.11	15.60	10.10	242
KPSEQ2SEQ	6.78	19.43	15.98	97	11.38	22.75	18.38	164	11.61	21.05	18.61	286
PAIR _{light}	26.38	47.97	31.64	119	16.27	33.30	24.32	210	28.03	43.39	27.70	272
PAIR _{light} w/o refine	25.17	46.84	31.31	120	15.45	32.35	24.11	214	27.32	43.08	27.35	278
PAIR _{full}	36.09	56.86	33.30	102	23.12	40.53	24.73	167	34.37	51.10	29.50	259
PAIR _{full} w/o refine	34.09	55.42	32.74	101	22.17	39.71	24.65	169	33.48	50.27	29.26	260

Table 2: Key results on argument generation, opinion article writing, and news report generation. BLEU-4 (B-4), ROUGE-L (R-L), METEOR (MTR), and average output lengths are reported (for references, the lengths are 100, 166, and 250, respectively). PAIR_{light}, using keyphrase assignments only, consistently outperforms baselines; adding keyphrase positions, PAIR_{full} further boosts scores. Improvements by our models over baselines are all significant ($p < 0.0001$, approximate randomization test). Iterative refinement helps on both setups.

tance of faithfully reflecting content plans during generation and refinement.

Data Split and Preprocessing. For argument generation, we split the data into 75%, 12.5%, and 12.5% for training, validation, and test sets. To avoid test set contamination, the split is conducted on thread level. For opinion and news generation, we reserve the most recent 5k articles for testing, another 5k for validation, and the rest (23k for news and 10k for opinion) are used for training. We apply the BPE tokenization (Sennrich et al., 2016) for the generation model as BART does, and use WordPiece (Wu et al., 2016) for BERT-based planner. To fit the data into our GPUs, we truncate the target size to 140 tokens for argument, sizes of 243 and 335 are applied for opinion and news, for both training and inference.

4.2 Implementation Details

Our code is written in PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019). For fine-tuning, we adopt the standard linear warmup and inverse square root decaying scheme for learning rates, with a maximum value of 5×10^{-5} . Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2014) is used as the optimizer, with a batch size of 10 for refinement and 20 for content planning, and a maximum gradient clipped at 1.0. All hyperparameters are tuned on validation set, with early stopping used to avoid overfitting. More details are in Appendix A.

4.3 Baselines and Comparisons

We consider two baselines, both are fine-tuned from BART as in our models: (1) **SEQ2SEQ** directly generates the target from the prompt; (2) **KPSEQ2SEQ** encodes the concatenation of the prompt and the *unordered* keyphrase set. To study if using only sentence-level keyphrase assignments

helps, we include a model variant (**PAIR_{light}**) by removing keyphrase position information (*s*) from the input of our generator and using an initial template with all [MASK] symbols. Our model with full plans is denoted as **PAIR_{full}**. We first report generation results using *ground-truth content plans* constructed from human-written text, and also show the end-to-end results with *predicted content plans* by our planner.

5 Results

5.1 Automatic Evaluation

We report scores with BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), which is based on n-gram precision (up to 4-grams); ROUGE-L (Lin, 2004), measuring recall of the longest common subsequences; and METEOR (Lavie and Agarwal, 2007), which accounts for paraphrase. For our models PAIR_{full} and PAIR_{light}, we evaluate both the first draft and the final output after refinement. Table 2 lists the results when ground-truth content plans are applied.

First, *our content-controlled generation model with planning consistently outperforms comparisons and other model variants on all datasets*, with or without iterative refinement. Among our model variants, PAIR_{full} that has access to full content plans obtains significantly better scores than PAIR_{light} that only includes keyphrase assignments but not their positions. Lengths of PAIR_{full}’s outputs are also closer to those of human references. Both imply the benefit of keyphrase positioning.

Table 2 also shows that *the iterative refinement strategy can steadily boost performance* on both of our setups. By inspecting the performance of refinement in different iterations (Figure 4), we observe that both BLEU and ROUGE-L scores gradually increase while perplexity lowers as the

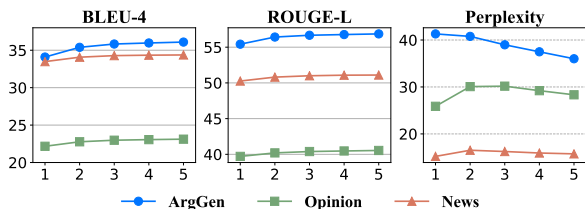


Figure 4: Results on iterative refinement with five iterations. Both BLEU and ROUGE-L scores steadily increase, with perplexity lowers in later iterations.

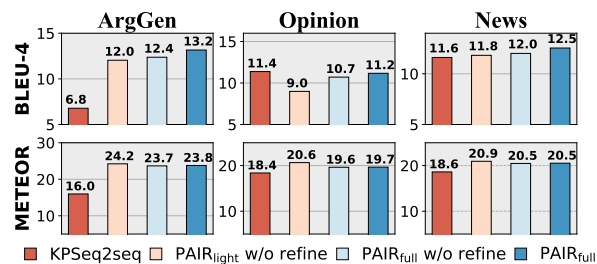


Figure 5: End-to-end generation results with automatically predicted content plans. Our models outperform KPSEQ2SEQ in both metrics, except for BLEU-4 on opinion articles where results are comparable.

refinement progresses. This indicates that iterative post-editing improves both content and fluency.

Results with Predicted Content Plans. We further report results by using content plans predicted by our BERT-based planner. Figure 5 compares PAIR_{full} and PAIR_{light} with KPSEQ2SEQ. Our models yield better METEOR scores on all three domains. That said, the improvement from predicted plans is not as pronounced as that from ground-truth plans. Upon inspection, we find that our planner often falls short of accurately positioning the given keyphrases, leading to degraded generation performance. This points to a potential direction for future work where better positioning model should be developed.

5.2 Human Evaluation

We hire four proficient English speakers³ to rate three aspects of the generated arguments on a scale of 1 (worst) to 5 (best): **fluency**, **coherence**—if the information organization is natural and logical, and **relevance**—if the topic is related to the prompt and whether the stance is correct. 50 samples are randomly selected, with system outputs by KPSEQ2SEQ, PAIR_{full} and PAIR_{light} shown to human judges in random order. The evaluation

³They are all US-based college students. Each of them is paid \$15 hourly for the task.

ARGGEN	Fluency	Coherence	Relevance
KPSEQ2SEQ	4.63	3.28	2.79
PAIR _{light}	4.75	3.97*	3.85*
PAIR _{full}	4.46	3.76*	3.79*

Table 3: Human evaluation for argument generation on fluency, coherence, and relevance, with 5 as the best. The Krippendorff’s α are 0.28, 0.30, and 0.37, respectively. Our model outputs are significantly more coherent and relevant than KPSEQ2SEQ (*: $p < 0.0001$), with comparable fluency.

Prompt (News): *4 Arrested in Theft of Baby Jesus Figurines*

PAIR_{full}: **Four New Jersey teenagers arrested yesterday** were accused of stealing more than **25 plastic baby Jesus figurines** from a church before they **burn in a bonfire**, the **police** said. **The police** in **Sayreville, N.J.**, **arrested Michael Payne, 18**, and T.J. Jones, 18, of Union City; **Nicholas M. Hess, 18**, of **Matawan**; and Jason L. O’Neill, 18, of Port New York, N.J., and charged them with burglary. Their vandals removed more than 100 figurines of Jesus from **a cemetery** outside **St. Stanislaus Kostka Church** in Sayreville, the police said. Detectives said the four had taken their **flashlights to the cemetery** and **jotted down the license plates** of several cars in **the vicinity** [...]

Prompt (Opinion): *Drowning in a Sea of College Debt*

PAIR_{full}: Once again, the appalling problem of **increasing debt in financing higher education** that has taken place is more **intolerable**, particularly because of the arrogance of our colleges and universities. The burden of **saddling college** students with debt in the middle of their **teenage years**, when they were in debt, is essential for **a good education**. Our educational system is designed to allow kids to develop the skills necessary, but it does not **create optimal conditions** for mature students who know they will not be able [...]

Table 4: Sample outputs in the news and opinion domain. Keyphrases assigned to different sentences are in boldface and color-coded.

guideline is in the supplementary material.

Table 3 shows that both of our models are rated with better coherence and relevance than KPSEQ2SEQ which uses the same but unordered keyphrases as input. Interestingly, outputs by PAIR_{light} are regarded as more fluent and coherent, though the difference is not significant. However, discourse analysis in § 6 reveals that clauses produced by PAIR_{light} are more locally related, compared to PAIR_{full}, which can be perceived as easier to read. In addition to the sample argument in Figure 1, Table 4 shows PAIR_{full}’s output in the news and opinion domains. More samples by different systems are in the supplementary material.

Effect of Refinement and Keyphrase Enforce-

ment. We further ask *whether human judges prefer the refined text and whether enforcing keyphrases to be generated yields noticeable content improvement*. In a second study, we present the same 50 prompts from the previous evaluation on argument generation, and an additional 50 samples for opinion article writing to the same group of human judge. For each sample, PAIR_{full}'s outputs with and without refinement are shown in random order. Judges indicate their preference based on the overall quality. The same procedure is conducted to compare with a version where we do not enforce keyphrases to be copied at their predicted positions during decoding. Table 5 demonstrates that the refined text is preferred in more than half of the cases, for both domains. Enforcing keyphrase generation based on their positions is also more favorable than not enforcing such constraint.

	PAIR _{full} w/o refine	PAIR _{full} w/o enforce
ARGGEN	52.7%	45.3%
OPINION	52.7%	50.0%

Table 5: Percentages of samples preferred by human judges before and after refinement [Left]; with and without enforcing keyphrases to appear at the predicted positions [Right]. Ties are omitted.

What is updated during iterative refinement?

Since refinement yields better text, we compare generations before and after the refinement. First, we find that masks are regularly put on “functional” words and phrases. For example, stopwords and punctuation along with their bigrams are often swapped out, with new words filled in to improve fluency. Moreover, about 85% of the refinement operations result in new content being generated. This includes changing prepositions and paraphrasing, e.g., replacing “*a research fellow*” with “*a graduate student*.” On both news and opinion domains, numerical and temporal expressions are often incorrectly substituted, suggesting that better fact control needs to be designed to maintain factuality.

6 Further Discussions on Discourse

Prior work’s evaluation mainly focuses on fluency and content relevance, and largely ignores the discourse structure exposed by the generated text. However, unnatural discourse and lack of focus are indeed perceived as major problems of long-form neural generations, as identified by human ex-

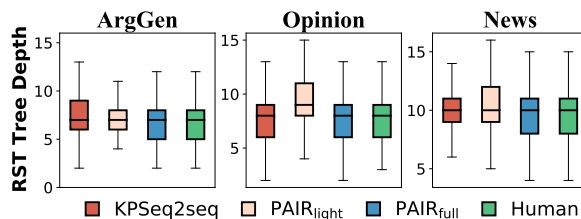


Figure 6: Distributions of RST tree depth. PAIR_{full} better resembles the patterns in human-written texts.

perts.⁴ Here, we aim to investigate whether content-controlled generation with ground-truth content plans resembles human-written text by studying discourse phenomena.

Are PAIR generations similar to human-written text in discourse structure?

We utilize DPLP (Ji and Eisenstein, 2014), an off-the-shelf Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) discourse parser. DPLP converts a given text into a binary tree, with elementary discourse units (EDUs, usually clauses) as nucleus and satellite nodes. For instance, a relation NS-elaboration indicates the second node as a satellite (S) elaborating on the first nucleus (N) node. DPLP achieves F1 scores of 81.6 for EDU detection and 71.0 for relation prediction on news articles from the annotated RST Discourse Treebank (Carlson et al., 2001). We run this trained model on our data for both human references and model generations.

First, we analyze the *depth of RST parse trees*, which exhibits whether the text is more locally or globally connected. For all trees, we truncate at a maximum number of EDUs based on the 90 percentile of EDU count for human references. Distributions of tree depth are displayed in Figure 6. As can be seen, generations by PAIR_{full} show similar patterns to human-written arguments and articles. We also find that trees by PAIR_{light} tend to have a more “linear” structure, highlighting the dominance of local relations between adjacent EDUs, compared with PAIR_{full} which uses knowledge of keyphrases positions. This implies that content positioning helps with structure at a more global level. We further look into the *ratios of NS, NN, SN relations*, and observe that most model outputs have similar trends as human-written texts, except for KPSEQ2SEQ which has more SN relations, e.g., it produces twice as many SNs than others on arguments.

⁴<https://www.economist.com/open-future/2019/10/01/how-to-respond-to-climate-change-if-you-are-an-algorithm>

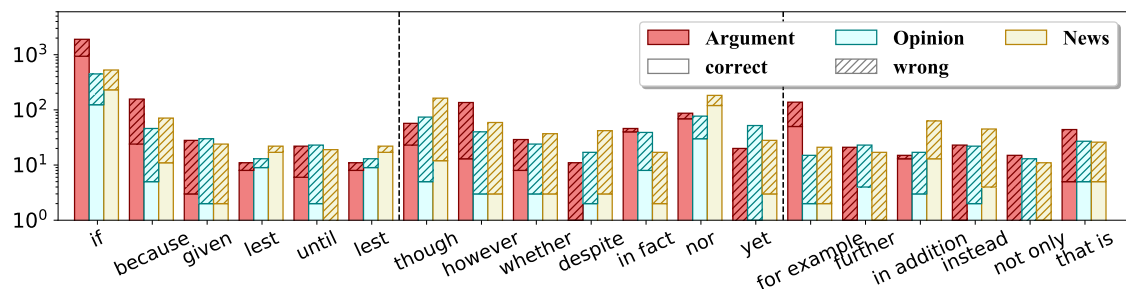


Figure 7: Discourse markers that are correctly and incorrectly (shaded) generated by PAIR_{full}, compared to aligned sentences in human references. Discourse markers are grouped (from left to right) into senses of CONTINGENCY (higher marker generation accuracy observed), COMPARISON, and EXPANSION. y -axis: # of generated sentences with the corresponding marker.

Can PAIR correctly generate discourse markers?

Since discourse markers are crucial for coherence (Grote and Stede, 1998; Callaway, 2003) and have received dedicated research efforts in rule-based systems (Reed et al., 2018; Balakrishnan et al., 2019), we examine if PAIR_{full} can properly generate them. For each sample, we construct sentence pairs based on content word overlaps between system generation and human reference. We manually select a set of unambiguous discourse markers from Appendix A of the Penn Discourse Treebank manual (Prasad et al., 2008). When a marker is present in the first three words in a reference sentence, we check if the corresponding system output does the same.

Figure 7 displays the numbers of generated sentences with markers produced as the same in human references (correct) or not (wrong). The markers are grouped into three senses: CONTINGENCY, COMPARISON, and EXPANSION. The charts indicate that PAIR_{full} does better at reproducing markers for CONTINGENCY, followed by COMPARISON and EXPANSION. Manual inspections show that certain missed cases are in fact plausible replacements, such as using `at the same time` for `in addition`, or also for `further`, while in other cases the markers tend to be omitted. Overall, we believe that content control alone is still insufficient to capture discourse relations, motivating future work on discourse planning.

7 Ethics Statement

We recognize that the proposed system can generate fabricated and inaccurate information due to the systematic biases introduced during model pre-training based on web corpora. We urge the users to cautiously examine the ethical implications of

the generated output in real world applications.

8 Conclusion

We present a novel content-controlled generation framework that adds content planning to large pre-trained Transformers without modifying model architecture. A BERT-based planning model is first designed to assign and position keyphrases into different sentences. We then investigate an iterative refinement algorithm that works with the sequence-to-sequence models to improve generation quality with flexible editing. Both automatic evaluation and human judgments show that our model with planning and refinement enhances the relevance and coherence of the generated content.

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A Reproducibility

Computing Infrastructure. Our model is built upon the PyTorch `transformers-2.6.0` library by Wolf et al. (2019), with `Pytorch-Lightning-0.7.3` (Falcon, 2019) for training routines. To improve training efficiency, we adopt mixed-precision floating point (FP16) computation using the `O2` option of NVIDIA `apex`⁵. For both training and decoding, we utilize the Titan RTX GPU card with 24 GB memory.

Model Sizes. Our generation model has the same architecture as BART (Lewis et al., 2020) with 406M parameters. The content planner is built on top of BERT_{base}, which has 110M parameters.

Running Time. Training the generation model takes 2.5 hours for argument, 5 hours for opinion, and 24 hours for news. The content planning model converges in 2.5-4 hours for three domains.

Decoding Settings. At inference time, we set $k = 50$, temperature=1.0, and $p = 0.9$ for nucleus sampling. The relatively large k value is determined based on a pilot study, where we find that the refinement lacks diversity if k is set to small values. Moreover, since the Transformer states need to be cached during autoregressive decoding and we perform three complete nucleus sampling runs in each refinement iteration, the GPU memory consumption is substantially increased. We therefore limit the maximum generation steps to 140 for argument, 243 and 335 for opinion and news.

Auto-Correction for Content Plan. When the content plan is predicted by the planner, the following post-processing steps are employed prior to the

⁵<https://github.com/NVIDIA/apex>

	ARGGEN		OPINION		NEWS	
	<i>sys</i>	<i>ref</i>	<i>sys</i>	<i>ref</i>	<i>sys</i>	<i>ref</i>
# tokens	133.3	130.2	228.5	246.3	424.5	435.5
# sentences	8.6	5.6	11.1	8.2	19.2	13.5
# KP per sent.	2.96	3.77	2.22	2.49	3.40	3.24
KP distance	2.61	2.95	5.70	6.02	3.76	5.08

Table 6: Statistics on generated templates by our content planner. Tokens are measured in units of Word-Piece (Sennrich et al., 2016). KP distance denotes the average number of tokens between two keyphrases that are in the same sentence. Both system output (*sys*) and human reference (*ref*) are reported.

masked template construction: (1) For a predicted keyphrase, its token positions are adjusted to a consecutive segment, so that the phrase is kept intact in the template. (2) If the predicted positions are not monotonic to the assignment ordering, they will be rearranged. For instance, if the assignment contains $KP_1 \triangleright KP_2$, but position of KP_2 is not strictly larger than that of KP_1 , we instead place KP_2 immediately after KP_1 in the template. (3) Finally, since the planner and generator have different subword vocabularies, it is necessary to detokenize the predicted keyphrase assignment, and re-tokenize with the BPE vocabulary of the generator.

B Template Construction Statistics

We characterize the content planning results in Table 6. Specifically, we show the statistics on the automatically created templates based on the planner’s output. As we can see, our system predicted templates approach human reference in terms of length, per sentence keyphrase count, and the average keyphrase spacing. Sentence segmentation occurs more often in our templates than the reference text, likely due to the frequent generation of [SEN] tokens.