A Review of Human Evaluation for Style Transfer

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Abstract

This paper reviews and summarizes human evaluation practices described in 97 style transfer papers with respect to three main evaluation aspects: style transfer, meaning preservation, and fluency. In principle, evaluations by human raters should be the most reliable. However, in style transfer papers, we find that protocols for human evaluations are often underspecified and not standardized, which hampers the reproducibility of research in this field and progress toward better human and automatic evaluation methods.

1 Introduction

Style Transfer (ST) in NLP refers to a broad spectrum of text generation tasks that aim to rewrite a sentence to change a specific attribute of language use in context while preserving others (e.g., make an informal request formal, Table 1). With the success of deep sequence-to-sequence models and the relative ease of collecting data covering various stylistic attributes, neural ST is a popular generation task with more than 100 papers published in this area over the last 10 years.

Despite the growing interest that ST receives from the NLP community, progress is hampered by the lack of standardized evaluation practices. One practical aspect that contributes to this problem is the conceptualization and formalization of styles in natural language. According to a survey of neural style transfer by Jin et al. (2021), in the context of NLP, ST is used to refer to tasks where styles follow a linguistically motivated dimension of language variation (e.g., formality), and also to tasks where the distinction between style and content is implicitly defined by data (e.g., positive or negative sentiment). Across these tasks, ST quality is usually evaluated across three dimensions: style transfer (has the desired attributed been changed as intended?), meaning preservation (are the other attributes preserved?), and fluency (is the output well-formed?) (Pang and Gimpel, 2019; Mir et al., 2019). Given the large spectrum of stylistic attributes studied and the lack of naturally occurring references for the associated ST tasks, prior work emphasizes the limitations of automatic evaluation. As a result, progress in this growing field relies heavily on human evaluations to quantify progress among the three evaluation aspects.

Table 1: Examples of three ST attributes: formality, sentiment and Shakespearean transfer.

| Attribute   | Example                          |
|-------------|----------------------------------|
| FORMALITY   | Gotta see both sides of the story. (informal) |
|             | You have to consider both sides of the story. (formal) |
| SENTIMENT   | The screen is just the right size. (positive) |
|             | The screen is too small. (negative) |
| AUTHOR IMITATION | Bring her out to me. (modern) |
|             | Call her forth to me. (shakespearean) |

Figure 1: Number of papers employing human evaluations for style transfer (S), meaning preservation (M), fluency (F), all of them (SUM∪F), at least one of them (S∩M∩F), or another aspect (OTHER).
Inspired by recent critiques of human evaluation of Natural Language Generation (NLG) systems (Howcroft et al., 2020; Lee, 2020; Belz et al., 2020, 2021; Shimorina and Belz, 2021), we conduct a structured review of human evaluation for neural style transfer systems as their evaluation is primarily based on human judgments. Concretely, out of the 97 papers we reviewed, 69 of them resort to human evaluation (Figure 1), where it is treated either as a substitute for automatic metrics or as a more reliable evaluation.

This paper summarizes the findings of the review and raises the following concerns on current human evaluation practices:

1. **Underspecification** We find that many attributes of the human annotation design (e.g., annotation framework, annotators’ details) are underspecified in paper descriptions, which hampers reproducibility and replicability;

2. **Availability & Reliability** The vast majority of papers do not release the human ratings and do not give details that can help assess their quality (e.g., agreement statistics, quality control), which hampers research on evaluation;

3. **Lack of standardization** The annotation protocols are inconsistent across papers which hampers comparisons across systems (e.g., due to possible bias in annotation frameworks).

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we describe our procedure for analyzing the 97 papers and summarizing their evaluations. In Section 3, we present and analyze our findings. Finally, in Section 4, we conclude with a discussion of where the field of style transfer fares with respect to human evaluation today and outline improvements for future work in this area.

2 Reviewing ST Human Evaluation

**Paper Selection** We select papers for this study from the list compiled by Jin et al. (2021) who conduct a comprehensive review of ST that covers the task formulation; evaluation metrics; opinion papers and deep-learning based textual ST methods. The paper list contains more than 100 papers and is publicly available (https://github.com/fuzhenxin/Style-Transfer-in-Text). We reviewed all papers in this list to determine whether they conduct either human or automatic evaluation on system outputs for ST, and therefore should be included in our structured review. We did not review papers for text simplification, as it has been studied separately (Alva-Manchego et al., 2020; Sikka et al., 2020) and metrics for automatic evaluation have been widely adopted (Xu et al., 2016). Our final list consists of 97 papers: 86 of them are from top-tier NLP and AI venues: ACL, EACL, EMNLP, NAACL, TACL, IEEE, AAAI, NeurIPS, ICML, and ICLR, and the remaining 11 are pre-prints which have not been peer-reviewed.

**Review Structure** We review each paper based on a predefined set of criteria (Table 2). The rationale behind their choice is to collect information on the evaluation aspects that are underspecified in NLP in general as well as those specific to the ST task. For this work, we call the former global criteria. The latter is called dimension-specific criteria and is meant to illustrate issues with how each dimension (i.e., style transfer, meaning preservation, and fluency) is evaluated.

*Global criteria* can be split into three categories which describe: (1) the ST stylistic attribute, (2) four details about the annotators and their compensation, and (3) four general design choices of the human evaluation that are not tied to a specific evaluation dimension.

For the *dimension-specific criteria* we repurpose the following operationalisation attributes introduced by Howcroft et al. (2020): form of response elicitation (direct vs. relative), details on type of collected responses, size/scale of rating instrument, and statistics computed on response values. Finally, we also collect information on the quality criterion for each dimension (i.e., the wording used in the paper to refer to the specific evaluation dimension).

**Process** The review was conducted by the authors of this survey. We first went through each of the 97 papers and highlighted the sections which included mentions of human evaluation. Next, we developed our criteria by creating a draft based on prior work and issues we had observed in the first step. We then discussed and refined the criteria after testing it on a subset of the papers. Once the criteria were finalized, we split the papers evenly between all the authors. Annotations were spot-checked to resolve uncertainties or concerns that were found in reviewing dimension-specific criteria (e.g., scale of rating instrument is not explicitly
defined but inferred from the results discussion) and global criteria (e.g., number of systems not specified but inferred from tables). We release the spreadsheet used to conduct the review along with the reviewed PDFs that come with highlights on the human evaluation sections of each paper at https://github.com/Elbria/ST-human-review.

3 Findings

Based on our review, we first discuss trends of stylistic attributes as discussed in ST research through the years (§3.1), followed by global criteria of human evaluation (§3.2), and then turn to domain-specific criteria (§3.3).

3.1 Evolution of Stylistic Attributes

Table 3 presents statistics on the different style attributes considered in ST papers since 2011. First, we observe a significant increase in the number of ST papers starting in 2018 (in 2017 there were 8 ST papers; the following year there were 28). We believe this can be attributed to the creation of standardized training and evaluation datasets for various ST tasks. One example is the Yelp dataset, which consists of positive and negative reviews, and is used for unsupervised sentiment transfer (Shen et al., 2017). Another example is the GYAFC parallel corpus, consisting of informal-formal pairs that are generated using crowdsourced human rewrites (Rao and Tetreault, 2018). Second, we notice that new stylistic attributes are studied through time (21 over the last ten years), with sentiment and formality transfer being the most frequently studied.

3.2 Global Criteria

Annotators Table 4 summarizes statistics about how papers describe the background of their human judges. The majority of works (38%) rely on crowd workers mostly recruited using the Amazon Mechanical Turk crowdsourcing platform. Interestingly, for a substantial number of evaluations (45%), it is unclear who the annotators are and what their background is. In addition, we find that information about how much participants were compensated is missing from all but two papers. Finally, many papers collect 3 independent annotations, although this information is not specified in a significant percentage of evaluations (42%). In short, the ability to replicate a human evaluation from the bulk of current research is extremely challenging, and in many cases impossible, as so much is underspecified.
Table 3: Number of ST papers per stylistic attribute across years. Some papers evaluate multiple style attributes.

| STYLE                  | 2011 | 2012 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 | TOTAL |
|------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| anonymization          | 1    |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1     |
| attractiveness         |      | 1    |      | 1    |      |      |      |      | 2     |
| author imitation       | 1    | 2    | 2    | 1    | 5    |      |      |      | 11    |
| debiasing              |      |      |      |      |      | 2    |      |      | 2     |
| social register        |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    |      | 1     |
| expertise              |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    |      | 1     |
| formality              | 1    | 1    | 9    | 10   | 3    | 24   |      |      |       |
| gender                 |      |      |      | 2    | 3    |      |      |      | 6     |
| political slant        |      |      |      | 2    | 1    | 1    |      |      | 4     |
| sentiment              | 4    | 14   | 14   | 18   | 3    | 53   |      |      |       |
| romantic/humorous      |      | 2    | 1    | 1    |      |      |      |      | 4     |
| simile                 |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    | 1     |
| excitement             |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1     |
| profanity              |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1     |
| prose                  |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    |      | 1     |
| offensive language     |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    | 2     |
| multiple               |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    | 2     |
| persona                |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    |      | 3     |
| poeticness             |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    | 1     |
| politeness             |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1    | 2     |
| emotion                |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 1     |
| **TOTAL**              | 1    | 1    | 2    | 8    | 28   | 31   | 48   | 6    | 125   |

Table 4: Annotators’ background for human evaluation as described in ST papers.

| CROWD-SOURCING | PAPER’S DESCRIPTION OF ANNOTATORS | COUNT |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|-------|
| YES            | “qualification test”              | 6     |
|                | “number of approved HITs”         | 2     |
|                | “hire Amazon Mechanical Turk workers” | 18   |
| NO             | “bachelor or higher degree; independent of the authors’ research group”, “annotators with linguistic background” | 12   |
|                | “well-educated volunteers”, “graduate students in computational linguistics” “major in linguistics” “linguistic background”, “authors” | |
| UNCLEAR        | “individuals”, “human judges”, “human annotators” “unbiased human judges”, “independent annotators” | 31   |

Annotations’ Reliability Only 31% of evaluation methods that rely on crowd-sourcing employ quality control (QC) methods. The most common QC strategies are to require workers to pass a qualification test (Jin et al., 2019; Li et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2020; Pryzant et al., 2020) to hire the top-ranked workers based on pre-computed scores that reflect the number of their past approved tasks (Krishna et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019), to use location restrictions (Krishna et al., 2020), or to perform manual checks on the collected annotations (Rao and Tetreault, 2018; Briakou et al., 2021). Furthermore, only 20% of the papers report inter-annotator agreement statistics, and only 4 papers release the actual annotations to facilitate the reproducibility and further analysis of their results. Without this information, it is difficult to replicate the evaluation and compare different evaluation approaches.
Data Selection Human evaluation is typically performed on a sample of the test set used for automatic evaluation. Most works (62%) sample instances randomly from the entire set, with a few exceptions that employ stratified sampling according to the number of stylistic categories considered (e.g., random sampling from positive and negative classes for a binary definition of style). For 25% of ST papers information on the sampling method is not available. Furthermore, the sample size of instances evaluated per system varies from 50 to 1000, with most of them concentrated around 100.

3.3 Dimension-specific Criteria

Quality Criterion Names Table 5 summarizes the terms used to refer to the three main dimensions of style transfer, meaning preservation, and fluency. As Howcroft et al. (2020) found in the context of NLG evaluation, we see that the names of these dimensions are not standardized for the three ST evaluation dimensions. Each dimension has at least six different ways that past literature has referred to them. We should note that even with the same name, the nature of the evaluation is not necessarily the same across ST tasks: for instance, what constitutes content preservation differs in formality transfer and in sentiment transfer, since the latter arguably changes the semantics of the original text. While fluency is the aspect of evaluation that might be most generalizable across ST tasks, it is referred to in inconsistent ways across papers which could lead to different interpretations by annotators. For instance, the same text could be rated as natural but not grammatical. Overall, the variability in terminology makes it harder to understand exactly what is being evaluated and to compare evaluation methods across papers.

Rating Type Table 6 presents statistics on the rating type (direct vs. relative) per dimension over time. Direct rating refers to evaluations where each system output is assessed in isolation for that dimension. Relative rating refers to evaluations where two or more system outputs are compared against each other. Rating types were more inconsistently used before 2020, with recent convergences toward direct assessment. Among papers that report rating type, direct assessment is the most frequent approach for all evaluation aspects over the years 2018 to 2021.

Possible Responses Tables 7, 8, and 9 summarize the range of responses elicited for direct and relative ratings. They cover diverse definitions of scales within each rating type. Across evaluation aspects, the dominant evaluation framework is direct ratings on a 5-point scale. However, while that configuration is what the field tends to focus on, there is clearly a wide array of choices that the field also considers which, once again, makes comparing human evaluations head to head very difficult.

|        | 2011 | 2012 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 | Total |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| **STYLE** |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |       |
| DIRECT | 1    | 1    | 8    | 10   | 12   | 4    | 40   |      |       |
| RELATIVE | 1    | 4    | 7    | 12   |      |      |      |      |       |
| NONE   | 2    | 6    | 11   | 11   | 15   | 45   |      |      |       |
| **MEANING** |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |       |
| DIRECT |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 45    |
| RELATIVE | 1    | 12   | 18   | 4    | 45   |      |      |      |       |
| NONE   | 1    | 2    | 7    | 8    | 11   | 14   | 43   |      |       |
| **FLUENCY** |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |       |
| DIRECT |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 45    |
| RELATIVE |      |      |      |      |      |      |      | 4    | 6      |
| NONE   | 1    | 2    | 8    | 6    | 7    | 46   |      |      |       |

Table 5: Quality criterion names used in ST human evaluation descriptions for the three evaluation dimensions.

Table 6: Number of papers using each rating type for the three evaluation dimensions across years.
Table 7: **Style** results. Numbers in parentheses denote paper counts per category. The most popular rating type across each dimension is highlighted.

![Rating Scale](1) [-2,-1,0,1.2]
(3) [-3,-2, -1.0, 1, 2, 3]
(1) [polite, slightly polite, neutral, slightly rude, rude]
(4) [positive, negative, neutral]
(1) [positive, negative, relaxed, annoyed]
(1) [more formal, more informal, neither]
(2) [0,1.2]
(2) [1,2,3]
(1) [0,1,2,3,4,5]

Not available (2)

**DIRECT** (40)

Best selection (5)
Pairwise (7)

Table 8: **Meaning Preservation** results. Numbers in parentheses denote paper counts per category. The most popular rating type across each dimension is highlighted.

![Rating Scale](1) [-2,-1,0,1.2]
(6) [0,1.2]
(1) [1,2,3]
(1) [1,2,3,4]

Not available (3)

**DIRECT** (45)

Best selection (3)
Pairwise (3)
Ranking (3)

Table 9: **Fluency** results. Numbers in parentheses denote paper counts per category. The most popular rating type across each dimension is highlighted.

![Rating Scale](1) ["easy to understand", "some grammar errors", "impossible to understand"]
(1) ["incorrect", "partly correct", "correct"]
(1) [0,1]
(3) [0,1,2]
(2) [1,2,3]
(4) [1,2,3,4]

Not available (2)

**DIRECT** (45)

Best selection (1)
Pairwise (4)
Ranking (1)
Figure 2 shows how often the human evaluation setup used in each reviewed paper is based on cited prior work, for each dimension over time. Only 19% of papers repurpose or reuse some prior work for the evaluation of style. Most of these papers target ST for formality or sentiment. Even when evaluating fluency or meaning preservation, more than 50% of the papers do not refer to any prior work. This is striking because it suggests that there is currently not a strong effort to replicate prior human evaluations.

For papers that mention lineage, the most common set-up for evaluating meaning preservation (24%) and fluency (28%) is Li et al. (2018). 43% of ST papers that work on sentiment also refer to Li et al. (2018). Some papers follow Agirre et al. (2016) for measuring textual similarity, Heilman et al. (2014) for grammaticality and Pavlick and Tetreault (2016) for formality.

4 Discussion & Recommendations

4.1 Describing Evaluation Protocols

Our structured review shows that human evaluation protocols for ST are mostly underspecified and lack standardization, which fundamentally hinders progress, as it is for other NLG tasks (Howcroft et al., 2020). The following attributes are commonly underspecified:

1. details on the procedures followed for recruiting annotators (i.e., linguistic background of expert annotators or quality control method employed when recruiting crowd-workers)

2. annotator’s compensation to better understand their motivation for participating in the task,

3. inter-annotator agreement statistics,

4. number of annotations per instance (3-5 is the most popular choice of prior work),

5. number of systems evaluated,

6. number of instances annotated (minimum of 100 based on prior works),

7. selection method of the annotated instances (suggestion is same random sampled for all annotated systems),

8. detailed description of evaluated frameworks per evaluation aspect (e.g., rating type, response of elicitation).

Furthermore, we observe that annotated judgments are hardly ever made publicly available and that, when specified, evaluation frameworks are not standardized.

As a result, our first recommendation is simply to include all these details when describing a protocol for human evaluation of ST. We discuss further recommendations next.
4.2 Releasing Annotations

Making human-annotated judgments available would enable the development of better automatic metrics for ST. If all annotations had been released with the papers reviewed, we estimate that more than 10K human judgments per evaluation aspect would be available. Today this would suffice to train and evaluate dedicated evaluation models.

In addition, raw annotations can shed light on the difficulty of the task and nature of the data: they can be aggregated in multiple ways (Oortwijn et al., 2021), or used to account for annotator bias in model training (Beigman and Beigman Klebanov, 2009). Finally, releasing annotated judgments makes it possible to replicate and further analyze the evaluation outcome (Belz et al., 2021).

4.3 Standardizing Evaluation Protocols

Standardizing evaluation protocols is key to establishing fair comparisons across systems (Belz et al., 2020) and to improving evaluation itself.

Our survey sheds light on the most frequently used ST frameworks in prior work. Yet more research is needed to clarify how to evaluate, compare and replicate the protocols. For instance, Mir et al. (2019) point to evidence that relative judgments can be more reliable than absolute judgments (Stewart et al., 2005), as part of their work on designing automatic metrics for ST evaluation. However, research on human evaluation of machine translation shows that this can change depending on the specifics of the annotation task: relative judgments were replaced by direct assessment when Graham et al. (2013) showed that both intra and inter-annotator agreement could be improved by using a continuous rating scale instead of the previously common five or seven-point interval scale (Callison-Burch et al., 2007).

For ST, the lack of detail and clarity in describing evaluation protocols makes it difficult to improve them, as has been pointed out for other NLG tasks by Shimorina and Belz (2021) who propose evaluation datasheets for clear documentation of human evaluations, Lee (2020) and van der Lee et al. (2020) who propose best practices guidelines, and Belz et al. (2020, 2021) who raise concerns regarding reproducibility. This issue is particularly salient for ST tasks where stylistic changes are defined implicitly by data (Jin et al., 2021) and where the instructions given to human judges for style transfer might be the only explicit characterization of the style dimension targeted. Furthermore, since ST includes rewriting text according to pragmatic aspects of language use, who the human judgments are matters since differences in communication norms and expectations might result in different judgments for the same text.

Standardizing and describing protocols is also key to assessing the alignment of the evaluation with the models and task proposed (Hämäläinen and Alnajjar, 2021), and to understand potential biases and ethical issues that might arise from, e.g., compensation mechanisms (Vaughan, 2018; Schoch et al., 2020; Shmueli et al., 2021).

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