Structure-to-Text Generation with Self-Training, Acceptability Classifiers and Context-Conditioning for the GEM Shared Task

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Abstract

We explore the use of self-training and acceptability classifiers with pre-trained models for natural language generation in structure-to-text settings using three GEM datasets (E2E, WebNLG-en, Schema-Guided Dialog). With the Schema-Guided Dialog dataset, we also experiment with including multiple turns of context in the input. We find that self-training with reconstruction matching along with acceptability classifier filtering can improve semantic correctness, though gains are limited in the full-data setting. With context-conditioning, we find that including multiple turns in the context encourages the model to align with the user’s word and phrasing choices as well as to generate more self-consistent responses. In future versions of the GEM challenge, we encourage the inclusion of few-shot tracks to encourage research on data efficiency.

1 Introduction

Natural Language Generation (NLG) plays a crucial role in task-oriented dialog systems, which have become increasingly commonplace in voice-controlled assistants, customer service agents, and similar systems. In the research community, generative models (Wen et al., 2015; Dušek and Jurčícek, 2016; Rao et al., 2019) have become popular for their data-driven scaling story and superior naturalness over typical template-based systems (Gatt and Krahmer, 2018; Dale, 2020). However, training reliable and low-latency generative models has typically required tens of thousands of training samples (Balakrishnan et al., 2019; Novikova et al., 2017). From a practical perspective, model maintenance with such a large dataset has proven to be challenging, as it is resource-intensive to debug and fix responses, make stylistic changes, and add new capabilities. As such, it is of paramount importance to investigate ways of bringing up new domains and languages with as few examples as possible while maintaining quality.

Pre-trained models like GPT2 (Radford et al., 2019) have shown great potential to address this challenge (Peng et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020), and combining pre-trained models with self-training has been shown to improve data efficiency even further (Arun et al., 2020). Additionally, semantic fidelity classifiers (Harkous et al., 2020) can be helpful in addressing issues with semantic correctness that are exacerbated in low-data settings (Anonymous, 2021). Indeed, Heidari et al. (2021) have recently shown that using pre-trained models together with self-training and acceptability classifiers — i.e., classifiers to predict semantic correctness and grammaticality — can play a crucial role in developing a production-quality model with just a few hundred training samples.

In this paper, we apply these techniques to 3 of the datasets from the GEM Shared Task (Gehrmann et al., 2021): the Schema-Guided Dialog (SGD) dataset (Rastogi et al., 2019), the End-to-End (E2E) dataset (Novikova et al., 2017) and the WebNLG-en dataset (Gardent et al., 2017). We focus on these 3 datasets specifically because they mostly closely resemble natural language generation (NLG) in a task-oriented dialog setting, as in Heidari et al.’s work. Although we did not expect substantial gains using these methods in high-data settings, we wanted to try them out on additional datasets in order to better understand their behavior, as well as to encourage research in low-data settings for future editions of the GEM shared task.

With the SGD dataset, we were also particularly interested in the effect of including multiple turns of dialog context in the input, and how this effects the behavior of our NLG system. In early work, Brockmann et al. (2005) showed that cache-based language models can be used to adapt NLG systems...
to align with user’s language, while subsequent work investigated structural priming more specifically (Reitter et al., 2006) and the impact of such adaptation in deployed dialog systems (Stoyanchev and Stent, 2009). Dušek and Jurčíček (2016) investigated ways of adapting to the user’s way of speaking with neural models using the previous user turn; more recently, Kale and Rastogi (2020) demonstrated with the SGD dataset that including multiple turns of context in the input to a pretrained model yields large gains in BLEU scores. However, Kale & Rastogi did not analyze the reasons underlying these gains; here we show that context-conditioning does indeed enable the model to better align with the user’s word and phrasing choices, though self-consistency with previous system turns is an even stronger factor.

2 Methods

2.1 Context-Conditioning and Templatizing Inputs

For the Schema-Guided Dialog Dataset, we included the service in the input (Table 1) after our initial experiments indicated that the service was crucial to generating accurate responses for some dialog acts (e.g., Notify_Failure). We notified the organizers of this issue, and they released an enhanced version of the dataset including this information. We also experimented with sorting the inputs and conditioning on 1–5 turns of context. Following Kale and Rastogi (2020), we also tried converting the inputs into semi-natural text (Table 2) using their templates. These templates aim to provide minimal coverage of the input dialog acts rather than actually producing natural outputs, as that task is left to the pre-trained model to learn (for that reason, we call them templatized inputs rather than template-based inputs).

To use the Kale & Rastogi templates, we found that it was additionally necessary to augment the dialog acts with the service call method in some cases. Consequently, we retrieved this information from the original Schema-Guided Dialog dataset, sharing a script for doing so with the organizers.

2.2 Tree-Structured Ordering

For the WebNLG dataset, we followed Yang et al. (2020) in ordering the input triples using their implicit tree structure. Yang et al. found that traversing the tree in depth-first search order yielded substantial improvements in their experiments that were competitive with using a learned input ordering. Given the tendency to put heavier constituents towards the end of a sentence in English (Hawkins, 1994; Gibson, 2000; Temperley, 2007; Rajkumar et al., 2016), we additionally sorted siblings by increasing subtree depth, breaking ties by sorting alphabetically on predicate names.

To format the input data, we followed Li et al. (2020) in separating subjects, predicates and objects with separators while replacing underscores with spaces and removing quotes; we also prepended the category with a separator. An example input appears in Table 3.

Algorithm 1: Self-Training via Reconstruction

1. Start with labeled data \( L \) and unlabeled data \( U \), with inputs \( X \) and outputs/labels \( Y \);
2. Set current pseudo-labeled data \( L' := L \);
3. repeat
4. \( G \) from \( X \rightarrow Y \);
5. \( R \) from \( Y \rightarrow X \);
6. \( \hat{Y} \) from \( U \) to get pseudo-labels \( \hat{Y}' \);
7. \( \hat{X}' \) from \( \hat{Y}' \) to get recon. inputs \( X' \);
8. \( \hat{L}' := \{ \text{rows where } X = X' \} \);
9. until convergence or maximum iteration;

2.3 Self-Training

Annotating large quantities of high-quality data is time and resource consuming. However, it is often possible to automatically generate a lot of unlabeled data using a synthetic framework. Semi-supervised techniques can then be applied based on this mix of labeled and unlabeled data, to improve model performance.

Since the datasets do not come with unpaired inputs, we create such inputs for self-training via automatic deletion of all combinations of parts of the (structured) input query, to generate larger sets of unlabeled data for self-training. For each original input, we randomly select up to 20 unpaired inputs created via deletion. Note that with WebNLG, deletion is constrained to yield connected subtrees.
Unsorted

Buses_2._sep_. OFFER departure_time 8:30 am, OFFER price $23, OFFER fare_type Economy

Sorted

Buses_2._sep_. OFFER departure_time 8:30 am, OFFER fare_type Economy, OFFER price $23

Prompt Sorted

Buses_2._sep_. OFFER departure_time 8:30 am, OFFER fare_type Economy, OFFER price $23 _sep_. user: Do you have any other buses available?

Context 5 Sorted

Buses_2._sep_. user: I am traveling from Sacramento, CA to SFO on March 7th.
user: What are the stations of arrival and departure?
user: Do you have any other buses available?

Table 1: Context-Conditioned and Sorted Inputs for the SGD Dataset (with the service name)

Template

Buses_2._sep_. How about a bus leaving at 8:30 am and the price of the ticket is $23. It is Economy ticket.

Template Prompt

Buses_2._sep_. How about a bus leaving at 8:30 am and the price of the ticket is $23. It is Economy ticket. _sep_. user: Do you have any other buses available?

Template Context 5

Buses_2._sep_. user: I am traveling from Sacramento, CA to SFO on March 7th.
user: What are the stations of arrival and departure?
user: Do you have any other buses available?

Table 2: Templatized and Context-Conditioned Inputs for the SGD Dataset

Original

Politician, [ Poland | language | Polish_language, Adam_Koc | nationality | Poland, Poland | ethnicGroup | Kashubians ]

Tree-Structured (DFS)

Politician._sep_.
_subj_. Adam_Koc._pred_. nationality _obj_. Poland
_subj_. Poland._pred_. ethnic_group _obj_. Kashubians
_subj_. Poland._pred_. language _obj_. Polish_language

Table 3: Tree-Structured Ordering Inputs for the WebNLG Dataset
Most approaches to self-training for NLG—including earlier work on automatic data cleaning—make use of cycle consistency between parsing and generation models (Chisholm et al., 2017; Nie et al., 2019; Kedzie and McKeown, 2019; Qader et al., 2019). More recently, Chang et al. (2021) have developed a method for randomly generating new text samples with GPT-2 then automatically pairing them with data samples. Our approach, following Heidari et al. (2021), likewise takes advantage of pre-trained models; by comparison though, we take a much more direct approach to generating new text samples from unpaired inputs in self-training. As described formally in Algorithm 1, self-training here consists of multiple cycles of generation and reconstruction. Note that unlike work in MT that employs back-translation, including unsupervised MT (Lample et al., 2018), we do not assume access to large amounts of target text. Additionally, unlike He et al.’s (2020) self-training approach to MT, we make use of reconstruction matching to filter the pseudo-annotated data (line 14) in each self-training iteration.

We fine-tune BART (Lewis et al., 2020), a pre-trained seq2seq language model, for both steps. For generation, we train a BART large model to produce the responses given the scenario. In parallel, the same generation data is used to fine-tune a reconstruction BART large model to obtain the generation input, given the responses. After generation in each cycle, we use the reconstruction model to select samples with exact reconstruction match. Finally, the selected samples are added to the training pool for the next self-training cycle.

We noted that for the case of SGD, the self-trained model was susceptible to stuttering, i.e., repeating the same phrase over and over again (this occurred in < 1% of the validation samples). This was not observed in the BART-Large generation model. Hence, to control for stuttering, for each response generated by the self-trained model, we used the heuristic that if any word (excluding stop words such as articles, conjunctions, etc.) was repeated in the generated response more than 5 times, we substituted the response generated by the BART-Large model instead.

2.4 Filtering via Acceptability Classifiers

Based on work by (Anonymous, 2021), we trained acceptability classifiers for each dataset using the training data available for its generation model. A response is considered (minimally) acceptable if it is both semantically accurate and grammatical.

As per Anonymous (2021)’s recommendation, since we don’t have any representative validation set of labelled acceptable/unacceptable samples, we took a BART-Large model and finetuned it on the training set. Next, we used MaskFilling strategy to generate synthetic acceptable/unacceptable samples wherein we inserted 3 to 7 random masks to the seed data (i.e. training data for generation model) and used the fine-tuned BART model to fill in the masks. This helped capture similar patterns in the seed data and masked words in the response are replaced by tokens most similar to that in seed data, thereby generating more realistic unacceptable samples.

We then passed each of the generated synthetic samples to a RoBERTa-based entailment model and partitioned samples that had a 2-way entailment with respect to the original seed sample as acceptable and the rest unacceptable. In addition, we ensured that that the BLEU score between synthetic sample and original seed sample was between 0.5-0.9 for unacceptable class and above 0.9 for acceptable class. Since the BART masking method will only generate paraphrases with similar sentence structure due to masks insertion in the original seed responses thereby maintaining the original sub-sequences order, these paraphrases tend to differ only slightly compared to the original responses. Hence, a BLEU score >0.9 allows us to capture most of them while a BLEU score >0.5 ensures that we are only selecting unacceptable samples with nuanced errors.

Finally, we trained a RoBERTa-base classifier over the acceptable and unacceptable classes. At inference time, we passed the n-best responses obtained by the self-trained generation model through the trained acceptability classifier. We filtered out the responses that had a high unacceptability score (threshold determined over validation set for each dataset). Of the remaining responses, we selected the top response. In case all responses were filtered out, we selected the top response from the original n-best list.

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1He et al. find it useful to fine-tune the model on just the labeled data at the end of each iteration; we leave experimenting with this additional step in our setting to future work.
### 3 Results

3.1 Context-Conditioning and Templatizing Inputs

The BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002) scores for various BART models on the Schema-Guided Dialog validation set appear in Table 4. As the Table shows, sorting the standard inputs appears to yield a small improvement. Templatizing the inputs yields a larger gain, over 1 BLEU point in some cases. Using BART Large yields a somewhat smaller gain over using BART Base, but the gains are around another BLEU point when used with templatized inputs and context. By comparison, using the dialog context yields very large gains, with including the prompt in the input adding over 3 BLEU points, and adding another four turns of context to the input improving another 5 BLEU points or so. These gains corroborate the ones reported by Kale and Rastogi (2020) using T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), while also putting them in the context of improvements based on model size and type of input. We plan to make our additional baseline results above publicly available in the near future.

3.2 Self-Training

We ran self-training as described in Algorithm 1 on all 3 datasets, with multiple variations for each including few-shot, low data and full data settings. The BLEU scores with self-training do not improve significantly over the regular training paradigm. However, we observe sharp increase in the exact reconstruction match rate on the validation set when using self-training, especially in the lower data regimes, as shown in Table 5. This metric is calculated by training a reconstruction model on the full labeled data once in the beginning, and then using this model to perform reconstructions at different stages during self-training – observing its performance on 100% of the validation set each time, for automatic evaluation purposes. Note that with the SGD dataset, we used reconstruction accuracy on the sorted input for this evaluation, as we observed some issues with reconstructing the textualized input; these are discussed further in the next section.

3.3 Filtering via Acceptability Classifiers

We ran n-best response filtering using Acceptability Classifiers on the outputs of the BART-Large generation model as described in 2.4. The BLEU scores and reconstruction exact match rate only slightly changed (increased or decreased) at different unacceptability confidence thresholds.

We also ran a RoBERTa-based entailment model on the small number of responses that were changed by the acceptability classifier with respect to the target reference, as well as on the corresponding 1-best response from the generation model. We estimated number of paraphrases by checking for 2-way entailment between the pairs. We observed a slight increase in the total number of paraphrases identified using this model when filtering via Acceptability Classifier, as shown in Table 6. Examples of positive changes appear in Table 7.
| Dataset    | Input                                           | Response chosen by acc | 1-best Response |
|------------|------------------------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| WebNLG     | Food _sep_ _subj_ Arem-arem _pred_ country _obj_ Indonesia _subj_ Indonesia _pred_ leader _obj_ Joko Widodo _subj_ Indonesia _pred_ leader _obj_ Jusuf Kalla | Arem arem originates from Indonesia where Joko Widodo and Jusuf Kalla are leaders. | Joko Widodo and Jusuf Kalla are leaders in Indonesia where Arem-arem is a traditional dish. |
| E2E        | name[The Wrestlers], customer rating[5 out of 5], familyFriendly[yes] | The Wrestlers is a 5 out of 5 rated family friendly venue. | The Wrestlers is a five star, family friendly sushi bar. |
| SGD        | Services4 _sep_ REQUEST type Psychologist Psychiatrist | Do you need a Psychiatrist or a Psychologist? | Do you need a Psychiatrist or a Psychiatrist? |

Table 7: Sample Responses chosen by Acceptability Classifier (acc) filtering over 1-best response

3.4 Combined Methods

Results from the GEM metrics on the validation set when using the Acceptability Classifier with the self-trained BART-Large models appear in Table 8.3

4 Analysis

4.1 Context-Conditioning and Templatizing Inputs

Here we analyze the effects of including multiple turns of context in the input. Table 9 shows examples of how the model that takes five previous turns of context as input (Context 5) aligns with aspects of the context more strongly than the model that takes just one turn of context as input (Prompt). Examples (a) and (b) show how the Context 5 models generates wordier or more concise outputs depending on the user’s previous word and phrase choices, while Example (c) shows how the Context 5 model instead picks up on its own previous phrasings to yield a more consistent way presenting similar weather information across responses.

These effects can be verified quantitatively as well. Table 10 shows how the Context 5 model’s responses correlate more strongly in length with both previous user and system turns, and Table 11 similarly shows that BLEU-2 scores against the context are more similar for the Context 5 model than the Prompt model. Finally, Table 12 shows that these contextual BLEU-2 scores are positively correlated with BLEU scores against the reference. (All correlations are statistically significant, albeit weak.)

4.2 Self-Training

Since we did not observe an increase in BLEU scores with self-training in the full-data setting, we manually examined a sample of validation set outputs for the initial, supervised BART-Large model in comparison to the self-trained BART-Large model where these outputs differed in reconstruction accuracy. Across all 3 datasets, we found that both outputs were usually good, reflecting issues with the reconstruction model or our way of determining a reconstruction match, rather than real differences in the semantic correctness of the outputs. However, in the cases where real semantic differences were found, we observed that the changes were generally in the direction of improved semantic correctness with the self-trained model.

In calculating reconstruction accuracy, we noticed many issues that can be considered cases of inadequate normalization. For example, with the E2E dataset, the customer rating and price range slots use mostly interchangeable values in the input such as “5 out of 5” and “high” as values for top-rated venues; this means that the reconstruction
| Content | Reference | Prompt | Context 5 |
|---------|-----------|--------|-----------|
| (a) How many tickets would you like? user: Okay. Can you find me a hotel in that area, so that I will have a place to stay in? sys: … user: Can you give me their phone number? How much will it cost me per night? sys: … user: That is nice. Now I want to buy tickets for the event you found earlier. | Can you tell me the number of tickets you want to buy? | How many tickets do you want to buy? | Can you tell me the number of tickets you want to buy? |
| (b) Your reservation is successful. They do not have outdoor seating. user: Sounds good to me. sys: … user: Sure, book it for 11:00 sys: … user: Perfect. do they have outdoor seating? | Booking confirmed. They don’t have outdoor seating. Your reservation has been made. They do not have outdoor seating. | Booking confirmed. They don’t have outdoor seating. |
| (c) The average temperature for the day should be 87 degrees Fahrenheit. There is a 3 percent chance of rain. user: Duncans Mills sys: It will be 93 degrees with a 20 percent chance of rain. user: How about on the 5th of this month? sys: It will be about 90 degrees with a 1 percent chance of rain. user: How about in Mexico city? | It will be 87 degrees with a 3 percent chance of rain. Average temperature: 87 degrees Fahrenheit. Chance of rain: 3 percent. | It will be about 87 degrees with a 3 percent chance of rain. |

Table 9: Examples illustrating model adaptation to the dialog context when using 5 previous turns of context (Context 5) vs. just one previous turn (Prompt). Example (a) shows how the Context 5 model picks up on the user’s wordier phrasing, leading to an exact match with the reference. Example (b) indicates how the Context 5 model instead uses a more concise phrasing, picking up on the user’s terseness. Example (c) shows how the Context 5 model instead picks up on its own previous phrasings to yield a self-consistent way of presenting similar weather information for different locales and dates.

| User | System |
|------|--------|
| Reference | 0.337 0.095 |
| Prompt | 0.275 0.025 |
| Context 5 | 0.320 0.085 |

Table 10: Correlations in model turn length using 5 previous turns of context (Context 5) vs. just one previous turn (Prompt) with user and system turns in the preceding context (5 turns), in comparison to reference.

| User | System |
|------|--------|
| Reference | 15.24 15.68 |
| Prompt | 8.80 13.11 |
| Context 5 | 15.88 17.29 |

Table 11: Mean model BLEU-2 scores (with no length penalty) using 5 previous turns of context (Context 5) vs. just one previous turn (Prompt) against user and system turns in the preceding context (5 turns), in comparison to reference.
Table 12: Correlations between contextual BLEU-2 scores (with no length penalty) for model using 5 previous turns of context (Context 5) vs. just one previous turn (Prompt) against user and system turns with BLEU scores (against reference).

|          | User  | System |
|----------|-------|--------|
| Prompt   | 0.088 | 0.131  |
| Context 5| 0.083 | 0.204  |

reconstruction model would be helpful in many cases, since many responses employing elliptical constructions were difficult for the reconstruction model (despite being clear and natural in context).

4.3 Acceptability Classifier Filtering

Looking more closely at a random sample of the responses that were changed by the acceptability classifier, we noted that the acceptability classifier filtering indeed usually chooses a better response than the default in high confidence unacceptability regions. This also makes intuitive sense as we expect the generation model to be correct and fluent most of the time and acceptability classifier filtering helping in a small number of cases. We expect this impact to be higher on cases which are not represented in the training distribution.

5 Discussion

It is fascinating that simply including multiple turns of preceding dialog in the input to a pre-trained model has such a large impact on generated responses, and in particular that doing so increases alignment with the user’s language as well as consistency with the system’s own previous responses. Both factors can be expected to enhance naturalness, though this will need verification via human evaluation. More compellingly, it is likely that these effects will enhance user perceptions of the system in an extrinsic evaluation of how NLG affects perceived dialog quality. To verify such effects, it will be important to study context-enhanced NLG in the context of actual dialogs with users, rather than in a simpler overhearer paradigm.

Turning to self-training, it is clear from our experiments that gains in semantic correctness can be quite large in low-data settings. Moreover, the pay-off from acceptability classifier filtering can be expected to be larger there. Nevertheless, gains in low-data settings have generally not brought systems fully in line with those trained in high-data settings. As such, there remains considerable room for improvement in such low-data settings, even when using pre-trained models. To promote work along these lines, future editions of the GEM shared task could have few-shot tracks where the number of samples for supervised training is quite limited. Moreover, it would be extremely helpful to make unpaired inputs available for these tracks. While creating unpaired inputs via deletion is somewhat helpful, this technique cannot help with unseen or few-shot test items in the final test set. As such, providing unpaired inputs corresponding to these few-shot test items would provide a way to experiment in a standardized fashion with methods for generalizing in these cases. Note that in the case of datasets created via simulation, as with the SGD dataset and its dialog simulator, creating new unpaired inputs would only require running the simulator for the few-shot domains. Doing so for a shared task should be much easier than releasing all the code used during dataset creation, so we urge the organizers to consider this option in future.

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A Appendix

A.1 Model Hyperparameters

Model hyperparameters appear in Tables 13–15. In addition, the best performing model on the validation set had the unacceptability confidence thresholds for filtering listed in Table 16. The bounds used to calculate the thresholds were [0.1–0.9] with 0.1 step size.

| Tokenizer | BPE |
|-----------|-----|
| Tokenizer Max Length | 256 |
| Dropout | 0.3 |
| Encoder/Decoder Embedding Dim | 1024 |
| Optimizer | Adam |
| LR | 0.000005 |
| Weight Decay | 0.00001 |
| # Model Params | 514484225 |

Table 13: BART-Large Generation/Reconstruction Hyperparameters

| Tokenizer | BPE |
|-----------|-----|
| Tokenizer Max Length | 1024 |
| Encoder output dropout | 0.1 |
| Encoder embedding dim | 768 |
| # encoder layers | 12 |
| # encoder attention heads | 12 |
| Decoder dropout | 0 |
| Decoder activation | relu |
| Optimizer | Adam |
| LR | 0.000001 |
| Adam betas | 0.9, 0.999 |
| Weight Decay | 0 |
| # Model Params | 124055810 |

Table 14: Acceptability Classifier RoBERTa-Base Hyperparameters

| Beam Size | 5 |
| topk | 3 |
| Mask normal | 0.5 |
| Mask insert | 0.3 |

Table 15: Acceptability Classifier Data Generation Hyperparameters

| Dataset | Unacceptability Threshold |
|---------|---------------------------|
| E2E | 0.6 |
| WebNLG-en | 0.7 |
| SGD | 0.6 |

Table 16: Acceptability Classifier Thresholds