Abstract

Unconscious biases continue to be prevalent in modern text and media, calling for algorithms that can assist writers with bias correction. For example, a female character in a story is often portrayed as passive and powerless (“She daydreams about being a doctor”) while a man is portrayed as more proactive and powerful (“He pursues his dream of being a doctor”).

We formulate Controllable Debiasing, a new revision task that aims to rewrite a given text to correct the implicit and potentially undesirable bias in character portrayals. We then introduce PowerTransformer as an approach that debiases text through the lens of connotation frames (Sap et al., 2017), which encode pragmatic knowledge of implied power dynamics with respect to verb predicates. One key challenge of our task is the lack of parallel corpora. To address this challenge, we adopt an unsupervised approach using auxiliary supervision with related tasks such as paraphrasing and self-supervision based on a reconstruction loss, building on pretrained language models.

Through comprehensive experiments based on automatic and human evaluations, we demonstrate that our approach outperforms ablations and existing methods from related tasks. Furthermore, we demonstrate the use of PowerTransformer as a step toward mitigating the well-documented gender bias in character portrayal in movie scripts.

1 Introduction

Narratives and news texts often reflect societal biases and stereotypes, such as the traditional gender role that women are passive and submissive (Lakoff, 1973; Fiske, 1993; Fast et al., 2016). The task of controllable text revision, i.e., rephrasing text to a targeted style or framing, can help correct for these biases by altering and equalizing the way people are described. For example, automatically rewriting “Mey daydreamed about being a doctor” as “Mey pursued her dream to be a doctor” portrays Mey with more authority and decisiveness (Figure 1). Such controllable revision methods could be used to help reshape how gender roles are portrayed in media (e.g., through machine-in-the-loop writing systems; Clark et al., 2018).

To edit such biases out of text, a controllable rewriting model faces three key challenges. First, a model should be able to make edits beyond surface-level paraphrasing, as simple paraphrasing will often not adequately debias the underlying events described. For example, Mey’s portrayal in Figure 1 carries both overt bias (the choice of action) and subtle bias (the framing of the action), both of which require rewriting to be adequately debiased. Second, a model’s debiasing revisions should

Figure 1: Examples of using connotation frames (Sap et al., 2017) for controllable revisions to portray characters with more agency and power. In the second example, “Ana strutted” implies that she is more active and decisive, compared to “Ana wandered” which portrays her as aimless and passive.

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be purposeful and precise and should not make unnecessary changes to the underlying meaning of the original text. Lastly, since parallel data does not exist, models must learn to revise and debias text without supervised data, thereby preventing straightforward machine translation-style modelling.

We formulate *Controllable Debiasing* as a new controllable text revision task that aims to correct the implicit and possibly unwanted bias against or towards a specific character portrayed in text (§2). As shown in Figure 1 (top), we study the portrayal biases through the lens of connotation frames of *power and agency* (Sap et al., 2017), which provide pragmatic knowledge about implied power and agency levels projected onto characters by a predicate.

We create **POWER**TRANSFORMER, an encoder-decoder model that rewrites sentences with a desired portrayal using agency connotation frames (§3). We combine a reconstruction and paraphrase objective into our model to overcome the lack of parallel supervised data, building off of the denoising autoencoder setup from Li et al. (2018a). To steer the revisions, we endow the model with connotation frame knowledge both at training time using control tokens, and at generation time using agency-based vocab boosting.

Our findings show that **POWER**TRANSFORMER is effective at rewriting sentences with desired agency connotations while only making minimal changes to their meaning, as measured through both human and automatic evaluations (§4). We also show that **POWER**TRANSFORMER significantly outperforms existing stylistic rewriting methods (Prabhumoye et al., 2018; Sap et al., 2017) on those metrics. Additionally, through ablations studies, we establish the usefulness of each component of the model, finding benefits from both the joint objective (47% gain in accuracy) and the agency scaling (12% gain in accuracy).

Finally, in §5, we apply Controllable Debiasing to a corpus of modern English movies (Gorin¬ski and Lapata, 2015) as a step towards removing gender bias in character portrayal established by prior work (Sap et al., 2017). Using **POWER**TRANSFORMER, we revise the movie scripts and significantly increase the agency levels of female characters, thereby reducing the gender bias. Our findings show promise for using modern NLP tools to help mitigate societal biases in text. We release our preprocessed data and code at [http://maartensap.com/controllable-debiasing](http://maartensap.com/controllable-debiasing).

2 **Controllable Debiasing**

Controllable Debiasing is a novel formalization of stylistic rewriting that aims to debias the portrayal of characters through controllable revision. To achieve the desired character portrayal, a system must be able to change the underlying meaning of events, unlike certain formalizations (e.g., politeness transfer; Rao and Tetreault, 2018) where full meaning preservation is required. Without this, systems run the risk of merely paraphrasing the biases in text. However, revisions must be precise and avoid unnecessary meaning changes, which can often occur in stylistic rewriting (e.g., reversing the sentiment of a review drastically changes its underlying meaning).

For our new rewriting task of changing portrayal bias, we focus on connotation frames that measure the *power* and *agency* ascribed to characters through the actions they take. Connotation frames (Rashkin et al., 2016; Sap et al., 2017) distill implicit relations between a verb, its agent, and its theme. In this work, we use the positive, neutral, and negative agency dimensions, where agency is defined as the capacity to intentionally make changes or act upon one’s environment (Dennett, 1989). For example, illustrated in Figure 1, “X pursued Y” implies that X has positive agency.1 Using machine-in-the-loop writing systems (e.g., Ghazvininejad et al., 2016, 2017; Clark et al., 2018, Textio2), models trained on this task could help authors write news, stories, or movies that portray characters in less biased ways, and thereby help mitigate the negative effects of stereotypical portrayals in media (Behm-Morawitz and Mastro, 2008; Field et al., 2019).

3 **POWER**TRANSFORMER

We present a new approach for Controllable Debiasing called **POWER**TRANSFORMER, which addresses two key challenges: the paucity of parallel supervised data for training and the difficulty of incorporating fine-grained control for steering the agency of the output. Our approach (Figure 2) jointly learns to reconstruct partially masked story

1Future work could explore using the power dimension instead of agency, or alternative operationalizations of biases, e.g., Social Bias Frames (Sap et al., 2020) or regard towards minorities as introduced by Sheng et al. (2019).

2[https://textio.com/](https://textio.com/)
Joint reconstruction + paraphrase objective
at training time

Transformer
inputs

Issa enjoyed football growing up.

Vocab boosting
at decoding time

Joint reconstruction + paraphrase objective
at training time

Transformer
inputs

Issa played football growing up.

Figure 2: Overview of the full POWERTRANSFORMER model. An input sentence is masked for verb tokens indicative of agency. Masked inputs and target agency are used as GPT inputs. We use a joint objective using both paraphrase data and masked input sentences for training. At decoding time, we employ a vocab boosting technique to steer generations towards the target agency.

3.1 Model Overview

POWERTRANSFORMER is an encoder-decoder style model with an OpenAI-GPT transformer model (Radford et al., 2018) as the base. The input sentence $x$ is converted to a sequence of byte pair encodings (BPE) $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$, and given to the encoder after being scrubbed of its agency markers as described below. To steer the model, we also give the encoder the target agency $t$, which we represent as one of three special tokens $\{<\text{Pos}>, <\text{Equal}>, <\text{Neg}>\}$. Then, we mask out all verbs indicative of the agency level, replacing them with a special $<\text{VERB}>$ token. In this setup, the target output is the original sentence $x = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$, with the masked sentence $\hat{x}$ and the target agency level $t$ as inputs. During training, we minimize the cross entropy of the target output sentence given the inputs:

$$L_{\text{recon}} = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x_i|x_{<i}, \hat{x}, t)$$

3.2 Joint Objective

We train our model on both a reconstruction and a paraphrasing task, for which inputs are masked and paraphrased versions of the output, respectively.

$$L_{\text{joint}} = L_{\text{recon}} + L_{\text{para}}$$

3.3 Controlled Decoding with Vocab Boosting

We employ a vocab-boosting technique during generation to encourage models towards generating with the desired agency, inspired by Ghosh et al. (2017).

In earlier experiments, we also provided the original agency as an input to the model during training and decoding, but found that it made little difference in performance.
et al. (2017). At each decoding timestep $i$, we re-scale the unnormalized token probabilities (logits $l_i \in \mathbb{R}^V$, where $V$ is the vocabulary size) to boost the likelihood of predicting words with the target agency. The next token probabilities are then computed using the “boosted” logits:

$$P(y_i | y_{<i}, x, t) \propto \text{softmax}(l_i + \beta \cdot A w)$$ (4)

where $A$ is a $\mathbb{R}^{V \times 3}$ matrix that represents a 3-dimensional {positive, equal, and negative} agency embedding for each token in the vocabulary, $w$ is a $\mathbb{R}^3$ one-hot vector denoting the target agency for the output, and $\beta$ is a scalar hyperparameter representing the boosting strength. We create $A$ manually using the verbs in the agency lexicon (Sap et al., 2017).\footnote{Since our model operates on BPE tokens, we manually set the first BPE token of every tense of every verb to the desired agency. We also experimented with learning $A$ from data, but found no improvement over manually setting it.} Used only at decoding time, this method effectively increases the likelihood of using a word with the target agency level.

4.1 Datasets

In our experiments, we use a dataset of short stories for the reconstruction task and a parallel corpus of paraphrases for both paraphrase and reconstruction tasks. We show data statistics in Table 1, with additional preprocessing details in Appendix A.

**PARA.** story corpus

The main focus of our study is controllable revision of story sentences; therefore, we select sentences from the ROC story corpus (ROC Mostafazadeh et al., 2016). After extracting agency levels for all sentences from the training stories, we sample roughly equal amounts of all three agency levels, and randomly split sentences into training, development, and test sets.\footnote{We use a 80:13:7 train, development, test ratio.}

**Paraphrase corpus**

As additional training data, we use the corpus of automatically aligned paraphrases of TV subtitles (Creutz, 2018, Para.). As with the ROC story corpus, we extract agency levels for each sentence and its paraphrase, then sample roughly equal amounts of pairs with all different sentence-paraphrase agency combinations (further details in §A.2). We randomly split the data into 45k train and 10k dev. instances (Table 1).\footnote{Since this is just additional training data, we do not test our models on this corpus, but do use the dev. set for selecting some hyperparameters.}

4.2 Metrics

In addition to human evaluations, we also use a variety of automated evaluation metrics to characterize different aspects of performance. We measure the accuracy of the change in agency by comparing the target agency level with that of the output (extracted using the connotation frames lexicon). As a measure of meaning preservation, we use BERT-score F1 metrics (Zhang et al., 2020) to compare the semantic similarity of the input sentence with the machine output.

As additional metrics, we measure the fluency, the repetitiveness, and diversity of the output. Following previous work (Dai et al., 2019), we measure fluency as perplexity ($PPL$) of the output sentence using a pre-trained GPT model that has not been fine-tuned for this task. As an additional metric of potential text degeneration, we compute the fraction of output sentences that have a bigram that is repeated two or more times ($w/\text{rep}$). Finally, we compute the fraction of generations that are unique with respect to the rest of the output, to ensure diverse, input-specific generations ($\text{unique}$).
Ablations using the Development Set

| POWERTRANSFORMER variants          | Main Metrics | Additional Metrics |
|------------------------------------|--------------|--------------------|
|                                    | Agency Acc  (↑) | Meaning BertScore (↑) | Fluency PPL (↓) | Repetition w/ Rep (↓) | Diversity Unique (↑) |
| (ParaOnly+noBoost)                 | .30          | .95                | 58.76           | .002                  | .54                  |
| (ParaOnly+Boost)                   | .42          | .90                | 76.25           | .001                  | .59                  |
| (Joint+noBoost)                    | .77          | .96                | 70.61           | .007                  | .87                  |
| (Joint+noBoost)+SupplyVerb         | .77          | .96                | 94.54           | .004                  | .92                  |
| **FULL = (Joint+Boost)**           | **.89**      | **.96**            | 76.78           | .015                  | **.99**              |

Table 2: Ablation study results on the development set. We present separate metrics for evaluating the change in agency, the meaning preservation, fluency, repetitiveness and diversity of the output (bolding the best performance). (↑) indicates that higher is better and (↓) indicates that lower is better.

4.3 Experimental Setup

We randomize ROC story and paraphrase data, and use OpenAI GPT LM as our pretrained model. For decoding, we use top-\(p=0.4\) nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020), and a boosting strength of \(\beta=5\) (hyperparameters and details in §B.1).

4.4 Investigating Effectiveness of Approach

We first establish our model’s effectiveness at Controllable Debiasing on our dev. set, and investigate the importance of various components in our approach through ablation analyses. For qualitative analyses, we also show example revisions in Table 4 (and Table 6 in the appendix).

4.4.1 Ablated Baselines

We first investigate the importance of the reconstruction objective, by comparing our joint objective model (Joint) with a model trained with just the paraphrasing objective (without masking, ParaOnly). Then, to quantify the effect of boosting, we compare models with (Boost) and without (noBoost) agency-specific vocab boosting. Note that ParaOnly+noBoost is equivalent to a GPT-based encoder-decoder model, similar to seq2seq frameworks commonly used in paraphrasing tasks (Cao et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018b; Prakash et al., 2016).

As a final comparison, we implement a model variant that more closely mirrors the delete-retrieve-generate paradigm (Li et al., 2018a) by adding a “retrieve” step in which we concatenate transformer input with a verb retrieved from the verb agency lexicon that is most similar to the masked out verb (SupplyVerb).8

4.4.2 Results

In Table 2, our results show that the full model (Joint+Boost) yields text revisions with the most accurate target agency and the most meaning preservation. In general, we find that both the joint objective and vocab boosting (Boost) substantially increase the target agency accuracy, as also illustrated in examples (d) and (e) in Table 4. However, unsurprisingly, vocab boosting also slightly lowers fluency, yielding higher perplexities than models’ non-boosted counterparts. Our results also show that using the joint objective with boosting increases the diversity of output, but causes marginally more repetition of bigrams.

Counterintuitively, our ablations show that supplying a verb to the model as an explicit retrieval step (SupplyVerb) does not improve the agency or meaning metrics and actually hurts the fluency of the output (as measured by higher perplexities). Upon qualitative investigation (Table 6 in the appendix), the retrieved verb is often related to a different word sense of the masked verb, breaking the grammaticality of the sentence.

4.5 Comparison with External Approaches

To further validate our approach, we compare against two baselines from related style transfer and stylistic generation tasks. As these models were designed for binary style transfer, we only report our baseline and model results on the positive and negative agency portions of our data.

verb, where similarity is defined as cosine distance between word embeddings using GloVe 300-d embeddings (Pennington et al., 2014).

8We retrieve a verb from the Sap et al. (2017) lexicon that has the target agency and is most similar to the masked out
Test Set Comparisons (pos-to-neg and neg-to-pos set)

|                  | Main Metrics | Additional Metrics |
|------------------|--------------|--------------------|
|                  | Agency | Meaning | Fluency | Repetition | Diversity |
| PPLM (Dathathri et al., 2020) | .13 | .95 | 106.12 | .053 | 1.00 |
| BST (Prabhumoye et al., 2018) | .88 | .83 | **91.22** | .053 | 0.79 |
| POWERTRANSFORMER | .86 | .96 | 95.19 | **.015** | 1.00 |

Table 3: Performance of different re-writing methods on the neg-to-pos and pos-to-neg subsets of the test set (bolding the best performance). We evaluate the change in agency and the meaning preservation. As secondary metrics, we include fluency, repetitiveness, and diversity of the output.

4.5.1 Baselines

**BST** We compare to the backtranslation style transfer model from Prabhumoye et al. (2018). This model first translates input sentences to a pivot language (preserving the meaning but losing language-specific style), then relies on style-specific decoder-translators for generating the output sentence. We include set-up details in §B.3.

**PPLM** Recent work in controllable generation has introduced PPLM, a new plug-and-play technique with promising results for decoding stylistic text (Dathathri et al., 2020). This method operates on an underlying neural language model at decoding time. It uses backpropagation from a stylistic discriminator to update the past and present hidden representations to be more consistent with the targeted style or domain. We adapt the approach to controllable revision by replacing the base language model with an autoencoder trained on a reconstruction objective, described in detail in §B.2.

4.5.2 Results

We present results in Table 3. Our experiments show that POWERTRANSFORMER performs better than the baselines overall. Specifically, while the BST revisions obtain slightly higher accuracy on the output agency levels, these revisions have the both the lowest diversity and meaning preservation, suggesting the model ignores the input (Table 4). PPLM shows opposite trends, yielding the lowest accuracy with high meaning preservation and high diversity of generations. Illustrated in Table 4, this model often makes less purposeful and less concise alterations.

4.6 Evaluating with Human Judgements

To validate our automatic evaluations, we collect human judgments of the controllable revisions from several baselines and POWERTRANSFORMER (Joint+Boost).

4.6.1 Human Evaluation Task

We design a head-to-head crowdsourcing task on Amazon Mechanical Turk where we ask raters to compare two outputs from different models given the same input sentence and target agency (see Figure 5 in the appendix). We first ask them to judge whether either output is gibberish, then, in two questions, choose which revision has better targeted agency and which better preserves the meaning of the original sentence. For consistency, each pair is rated by three judges. To ensure the quality of our evaluations, we selected workers who could reliably distinguish high from low agency sentences in a qualification task (see Figure 6 in §B.2).

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We use head-to-head evaluations as those have been shown to be more reliable than scale-rating evaluations (Kiritchenko and Mohammad, 2017).
the appendix).

For this evaluation, we generate three revisions—one for each target agency level—for a random subset of 100 test examples. We compare the output of our full POWERTRANSFORMER model with two external baselines (PPLM and BST). For further comparison, we also include the most competitive ablated baseline from Table 2 (i.e., Joint+noBoost).

### 4.6.2 Results

In Figure 3, we show the percentages of times in which POWERTRANSFORMER was preferred over the three baseline models. Percentages >50% indicate a preference towards POWERTRANSFORMER.

Overall, the sentence revisions by POWERTRANSFORMER are preferred over all of the baselines in obtaining the desired agency level. For meaning preservation, our model is always selected over BST, mirroring BertScores in Table 3. The difference is less stark when comparing to PPLM which sometimes makes no changes or irrelevant changes to the input sentence, and reversed when comparing to the ablated noBoost.

Additionally, BST revisions were marked as gibberish substantially more than those by other models (63% vs. 3-7%). While this seemingly contradicts BST’s low perplexity scores, this is in line with previous work showing automatic fluency metrics can favor degenerate, bland, or repetitive language (Holtzman et al., 2020).

### 5 Gender Bias in Movies

As a proof-of-concept of Controllable Debiasing, we investigate whether gender biases in portrayals of movie characters can be mitigated using POWERTRANSFORMER.


5.1 Movie Scripts Corpus

We draw our data from the 767 modern English movie scripts by Gorinski and Lapata (2015), focusing on the narrations which describe characters and their actions (as opposed to the character’s dialogue utterances). Described in further detail in §C in the appendix, we automatically extract characters and assign them a binary\footnote{Note that gender is a social construct that goes beyond the man-woman binary (Lorber et al., 1991), however more inclusive analyses (e.g., with non-binary genders) are not possible given the limited information about the individuals mentioned in our data.} gender (man, woman) using a list of highly gendered names (e.g., “Sarah”, “William”) and a list of gendered words (e.g., “waiter,” “waitress”). Following previous work (Ramakrishna et al., 2017; Sap et al., 2017), we assign narration sentences to characters if their name appears in them.

Our corpus contains 16,763 characters from 767 different English movies. Of those characters, 68% are inferred to be men and only 32% to be women,\footnote{There were 2597 characters for which the gender could not be inferred.} consistent with known gender skews in movie characters (Google, 2017). This bias in representation is also present at the narrative level. Specifically, female characters are only mentioned in \( n_{narr,f} = 27 \) narrations on average, compared to \( n_{narr,m} = 34 \) narrations for male characters (Cohen’s \(|d| = 0.13, p < 0.001\)). Similarly, compared to their male counterparts, female characters are described in significantly fewer words (\( n_{\text{words},f} = 329, n_{\text{words},m} = 435, |d| = 0.14, p < 0.001\)) and with fewer verbs (\( n_{\text{verbs},f} = 41, n_{\text{verbs},m} = 54, |d| = 0.13, p < 0.001\)).

5.2 Debiasing Portrayal in Movies

Given the known bias that female characters are portrayed with less agency (Sap et al., 2017), our goal is to re-balance their agency levels to be more on par with those of male characters. Therefore, we revise only the sentences describing female characters to have higher agency, using POWERTRANSFORMER. Then we extract connotation frames of agency for revised script sentences, and aggregate per character. Shown in Figure 4, revisions successfully increase the instances of positive agency of female characters, and decrease their negative agency or passiveness.

We further examine the change in gender association of positive and negative agency, to verify the effectiveness of Controllable Debiasing. We first count all the positive and negative agency verbs used to describe characters (in original or rewritten sentences). Following Sap et al. (2017), we then fit a logistic regression model to quantify the association between character’s gender with their agency levels, controlling for their number of words, verbs, and narrations. For better interpretation of the \( \beta \) coefficients, we \( z \)-score all the continuous variables.

We confirm that indeed, Controllable Debiasing using POWERTRANSFORMER can reverse the bias in portrayal in movies. In original scripts, male characters were portrayed with significantly higher positive agency (\( \beta_{\text{pos}} = 1.2, p < 0.001 \)) and lower negative agency (\( \beta_{\text{neg}} = -0.3, p < 0.001 \)) than female characters. However, our model successfully reverses this gender bias, portraying women with significantly more positive agency (\( \beta'_{\text{pos}} = -62.6, p < 0.001 \)) and significantly less negative agency (\( \beta'_{\text{neg}} = 8.7, p < 0.001 \)).

Our findings on movie scripts show the promise of using Controllable Debiasing to successfully mitigate gender biases in portrayal of characters, which could be extended to other domains (e.g., news or fiction, Field and Tsvetkov, 2019; Fast et al., 2016). Additionally, future work could consider alternative views of portrayal biases (e.g., “regard” or bias directed at different demographic groups; Sheng et al., 2019; Sap et al., 2020), or use more holistic views of gender roles (e.g., “masculine default” cultures; Cheryan and Markus, 2020).

6 Related Work

Controllable Debiasing is a new formalization of the unsupervised stylistic rewriting task, contrasting with supervised approaches which benefit from
parallel corpora (e.g., Xu et al., 2012, 2015; Rao and Tetreault, 2018; Pryzant et al., 2020). In unsupervised settings, a majority of work has dealt with the dearth of parallel data by using encoder-decoder setups paired with discriminators to disentangle style from content and steer generations (e.g., Shen et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Fu et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018; Niu and Bansal, 2018; Romanov et al., 2019; Dai et al., 2019; John et al., 2019) or backtranslation setups (Prabhumoye et al., 2018; Lample et al., 2018). In contrast, Li et al. (2018a) introduce a modular approach (later adapted to transformer models by Sudhakar et al., 2019) that relies on drop-in replacement of attribute markers followed by language correction. POWER-TRANSFORMER improves on this approach with an additional out-of-domain paraphrasing objective.

While a majority of related existing stylistic rewriting work defines style as sentiment (e.g., on reviews), a notable exception is Nogueira dos Santos et al. (2018), who use stylistic rewriting to make text less hateful or offensive. Similar in spirit, Controllable Debiasing is a novel formalization that aims to address and revise social biases expressed in text, but using the nuanced implications distilled in connotation frames of power and agency instead of binary offensiveness.

Our work also draws inspiration from controllable generation methods (e.g., Koncel-Kedziorski et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2017; Ficler and Goldberg, 2017). While those methods steer the generation output to contain desired attributes, controllable revision is constrained to revise an input sentence in addition to generating with desired attributes.

7 Conclusion

We introduce a new text revision task of Controllable Debiasing, to help debias the portrayal of characters through the lens of connotation frames of power and agency. To this end, we create POWER-TRANSFORMER, a transformer-based encoder-decoder trained on a joint reconstruction and paraphrasing objective. Our approach demonstrates promising results to revise sentences with targeted power and agency, and outperforms ablations and baselines on both automatic and human evaluations. Finally, as a case study, we show the feasibility for Controllable Debiasing at debiasing the portrayal of characters in movie scripts. Our findings highlight the potential of neural models as a tool for editing out social biases in text.

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A Additional data description

A.1 ROC story corpus
This English corpus originally contains 100,000 five-sentence stories written by crowdworkers about realistic everyday scenarios. We select the data for our task by first extracting agency levels for each sentence, filtering out those with indeterminable agency. Additionally, we filter out sentences with four or more verbs, to prevent the sentence masking from deleting too many content words.

A.2 Paraphrase corpus
This corpus contains paraphrases of spoken dialogue extracted from movie and TV subtitles.\textsuperscript{13} OpusParcus was created by automatically aligning the subtitles sentences using several probabilistic metrics, including likelihood under a round-trip translation paraphrasing model (Bannard and Callison-Burch, 2005) and pointwise mutual information. For our paraphrasing dataset, we apply the same filtering as with the ROC story corpus to the English portion of the OpusParcus training corpus and select the top 10% highest scoring paraphrases using the PMI scoring from the original paper. We extract agency levels for each pair of paraphrases, and select pairs to obtain roughly equal number of agency-level pairs (i.e., 1/9th positive-neutral, 1/9th positive-negative, etc.) We preprocess the text by stripping any leading periods and commas.

B Experimental details
We use the Hugging Face (Wolf et al., 2019) implementation of OpenAI’s GPT model (117M parameters; Radford et al., 2018). our final setup uses AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019) as our optimizer with a learning weight of 1e-5, batch size of 4 and maximum sequence length of 64. In preliminary results, we find that $\beta=5$ aptly steers the generation while avoiding repetition issues.

B.1 POWERTRANSFORMER details
All the experiments are performed on NVIDIA TITAN card and use the model hyperparameters listed in Table 5.

B.1.1 POWER ParaOnly+None
We train this model for 10 epochs with each epoch taking approximately an hour. The learning rate is 1e-5 with AdamW optimizer, which is tuned manually in the [1e-6, 1e-3] range for 7 times. We use $p = 0.4$ for nucleus sampling and $p$ is tuned manually in the [0.4, 0.9] range for 5 values.

B.1.2 POWER ParaOnly+Static
The POWER ParaOnly+Static loads the trained model from POWER ParaOnly+None and add re-scaling to the logits. The re-scaling factor, $\beta$ was tuned manually tuned in the [0, 10] range. We try 8 $\beta$'s and use 5 in the final model. We use the same $p$ as POWER ParaOnly+None

B.1.3 POWER Joint+None
Similar to POWER ParaOnly+None, we train this model for 10 epochs with each epoch taking approximately an hour. The learning rate is 1e-5 with AdamW optimizer, which is tuned manually in the [1e-6, 1e-3] range for 7 times. We use the same $p$ as POWER ParaOnly+None

B.1.4 POWER Joint+Static
The POWER Joint+Static loads the trained model from POWER Joint+None and add re-scaling to the logits. The re-scaling factor, $\beta$ was tuned manually tuned in the [0, 10] range. We try 8 $\beta$'s and use 5 in the final model. We use the same $p$ as POWER ParaOnly+None

B.2 PPLM details
The PPLM decoding method can be used on top of any model, but their original codebase is for use with a pre-trained language model rather than a model for paraphrasing or style transfer. We augment their techniques for this task by replacing the base model in their code with a denoising autoencoder that was trained to reconstruct the input sentence. The denoising autoencoder was implemented using the base GPT2 model (to fit with their code library and be similar size to our model). It was trained on our ROC only training data with a

| Hyperparameter       | Value |
|----------------------|-------|
| **Vocabulary Size**  | 40486 |
| **Maximum Sequence Length** | 64    |
| **Training Batch Size**  | 4      |
| **Embedding Size**    | 768   |
| **# Attention Heads** | 12    |
| **# Attention Layers** | 12    |

Table 5: POWERTRANSFORMER hyperparameters.

\textsuperscript{13}From http://www.opensubtitles.org
reconstruction objective. In order to denoise the autoencoder, we randomly “dropout” about 50% of the tokens from the context by replacing them with mask tokens. This autoencoder is trained to reconstruct input sentences, but when used with the PPLM decoding method, the input gets dynamically updated to decode a sentence that is similar in meaning but more likely to have a positive/negative agency according to a discriminator that is trained on top of the autoencoder. The PPLM decoding method also has hyperparameters that control the strength of the target label. If set too high, then the output could be degenerate. We manually set the hyperparameters to be as strong possible without producing degenerate text, using a subset of the dev. set as a guide.

B.3 Backtranslation details

We use the code provided by Prabhumoye et al. (2018) for running this baseline. After lowercasing all the negative and positive agency examples in our training data (ROC and OpusParcus), we translate to French using the machine translation model provided in the code base. This baseline requires training a style classifier (agency) and two decoders (one for each agency level). Since the classifier essentially re-learns the agency lexicon, we do not search for hyperparameters, and simply set a learning rate of 5, and 6 epochs. For training the decoders, we perform grid search to find the best hyperparameters. We experiment with a learning rates of $\{0.5, 1, 2, 5\}$, $\{2, 3, 5\}$ epochs, a classification-loss weight of $\{0.5, 1, 2\}$, and a word-loss weight of $\{0.5, 1, 2\}$, and select the configuration with the best word-level accuracy on the dev. set. We use SGD with a batch size of 64 for all experiments, and refer the reader to the code base for other default parameters.

C Gender Bias in Movies

C.1 Extracting gender from characters

The movie scripts mention characters in all caps, making it easy to identify and extract them. We then cross reference the name (or, description for unnamed characters, e.g., “the doorman”) with a list of gendered names\footnote{\url{http://www.cs.cmu.edu/Groups/AI/util/areas/nlp/corpora/names/0.html}} and gendered words (e.g., “waitress,” “policeman,” “police woman”). To allow for better rewriting using our model, we split

the narratives into sentences (using NLTK’s sentence tokenizer Bird et al., 2009), and assign each sentence to a character if their name appears in the sentence.
Task

**Original Sentence:**
Alex loves football.

**Revisions:**

**Revision A:**
Alex loves watching football.

**Revision B:**
Alex loves to play football.

Q1: Which of these portrays the main person so they have the **highest agency** (regardless of meaning preservation)?
If there are multiple characters in the sentence, usually the ones referred to by pronouns (he, she, etc.) are the main characters.

- Revision A  Alex loves watching football.
- Revision B  Alex loves to play football.

Q2: Which do you think is **closer in meaning** to the original sentence (regardless of agency change)?
Pick the sentence that has the general events and meaning closest to the original.

- Revision A  Alex loves watching football.
- Revision B  Alex loves to play football.

Figure 5: Screenshot of the human evaluation annotation task.
Instructions
Thanks for participating in this qual task! Your job is to:
- Read a pair of sentences
- Select which ones portray the main character with the highest agency vs. the lowest agency.

What is agency
**Agency**: The agency level is how active, decisive, or powerful the main person in the sentence is. For example, someone with high agency is:
- actively participating in events
- has a lot of power or ability to shape their own future
- pro-active in making their own decisions

Background
We are trying to test out a few automatic systems for automatically generating sentences, and want to see how they portray characters / people in sentences. Machines are not as good at understanding nuanced concepts like agency, so your help is crucial and very much appreciated!

Examples

| Sentence | Agency Level | Explanation |
|----------|--------------|-------------|
| Alex answered a phone call. | low agency | Alex picked up the phone but did not actively initiate the conversation. |
| Alex waited around all day while the TV played. | low agency | Alex was not actively participating in actions. |
| Alex received a book from their friend. | low agency | Alex is portrayed passively receiving things not actively asking for the book. |
| Alex calls their friend. | high agency | Alex initiated a conversation. |
| Alex did most of the work by themselves. | high agency | Alex is taking charge of the situation. |
| Alex took a book from the friend. | high agency | Alex is actively participating in borrowing the book. |

Task

Pair 1

**Sentence A**: Yolanda hates roller coasters.
**Sentence B**: she decided to go and the la and the de

1) First, let’s rate how understandable each of these sentences are:
Q1: Which of these sentences are too ungrammatical/difficult to understand?
- □ **Sentence A** Yolanda hates roller coasters.
- □ **Sentence B** she decided to go and the la and the de

2) Now, let’s rank them in terms of agency level:
Q2: Which of these portrays the main person so they have the highest agency?
- □ **Sentence A** Yolanda hates roller coasters.
- □ **Sentence B** she decided to go and the la and the de

Submit
Table 6: Full version of Table 4. Example revisions from various models for sentences from the dev. set. Columns are: the target change in agency from the original to the target agency, the input sentence, the model, generated output, and the actual agency level of the output measured by the connotation frame lexicon.