Paraphrase Generation: A Survey of the State of the Art

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Abstract
This paper focuses on paraphrase generation, which is a widely studied natural language generation task in NLP. With the development of neural models, paraphrase generation research has exhibited a gradual shift to neural methods in the recent years. This has provided architectures for contextualized representation of an input text and generating fluent, diverse and human-like paraphrases. This paper surveys various approaches to paraphrase generation with a main focus on neural methods.

1 Introduction
Paraphrases are texts that convey the same meaning while using different words or sentence structures. The generation of paraphrases is a longstanding problem for natural language learning. For example, the question How do I improve my English could be equivalently phrased as What is the best way to learn English. Paraphrasing can be play an important role in language understanding tasks, such as question answering (Dong et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2017), machine translation (Seraj et al., 2015; Thompson and Post, 2020a), and semantic parsing (Berant and Liang, 2014; Cao et al., 2020). And it is also a good way for data augmentation (Kumar et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2020). Given a sentence, paraphrase generation aims to create its paraphrases that can have a different wording or different structure from the original sentence, while preserving the original meaning.

The focus of paraphrase generation has exhibited a gradual shift from classical approaches to more advanced neural approaches in the recent years with the rapid development of various neural models. Neural models have changed the traditional way paraphrase generation is performed and also provided new directions and architectures for the NLP community.

While several surveys on the traditional methods and limited neural methods for paraphrase generation have been published (Metzler et al., 2011; Gupta and Krzyżak, 2020), there is no thorough and comprehensive survey on neural methods for paraphrase generation. To our best knowledge, this is the first survey on neural methods for paraphrase generation. Therefore, our goal in this paper is to provide a timely survey on paraphrase generation, with a main focus on neural methods.

In the following section, we will first introduce the most frequently used datasets for paraphrase generation (Section 2). Then we list the traditional evaluation metrics in Section 3. In Section 4, we present some of the traditional approaches that were used before the neural methods. Neural models, the main focus of this paper, will be discussed in Section 5. After introducing all the methods, we compare the performance of the different models for paraphrase generation in Section 6. Finally, we identify some research gaps in paraphrase generation.

2 Datasets
In this section, we describe several datasets that have been extensively used for paraphrase generation.

- **PPDB** The paraphrase database (Ganitkevitch et al., 2013) contains over 220 million paraphrase pairs, consisting of 73 million phrasal and 8 million lexical paraphrases, as well as 140 million paraphrases.
Table 2: Highlights of primarily used paraphrase generation datasets. Gold Size represents the size of the subset used for paraphrase generation when the original dataset was not used for generation. Length is the the average number of words per sentence and Char Len is the average number of characters per sentence.

| Dataset     | Parallel | Genre       | Size       | Gold Size    | Length | Char Len |
|-------------|----------|-------------|------------|--------------|--------|----------|
| PPDB        | ✓        | Phrase, words | 220,000,000 | 220,000,000 | 2.85   | 16.25    |
| WikiAnswer  | ✓        | Question    | 18,000,000  | 18,000,000   | 11.43  | 54.33    |
| MSCOCO      | ✓        | Description | 493,186     | 493,186      | 10.48  | 51.56    |
| Quora       | ✓        | Question    | 404,289     | 149,263      | 11.14  | 52.89    |
| Twitter URL | ✓        | Twitter     | 2,869,657   | 116,000      | 14.80  | -        |
| ParaNMT     | ✓        | Novels, laws | 51,409,585  | 51,409,585   | 12.94  | 59.18    |

Phrase patterns that capture meaning-preserving syntactic transformations. Each paraphrase pair in PPDB contains a set of associated scores including paraphrase probabilities and monolingual distributional similarity scores. Despite its size and variety, because this dataset only contains phrasal and lexical paraphrases without any sentence paraphrases, it has recently fallen out of use.

WikiAnswer This dataset (Fader et al., 2013) contains approximately 18 million word-aligned question pairs that are paraphrases. The word alignments provided by this dataset also relate the synonyms in the paraphrase sentences. However, all the sentences provided in this dataset are questions, which restricts the paraphrases to only questions.

MSCOCO MSCOCO (Lin et al., 2014) was originally described as a large-scale object detection dataset. It contains human-annotated captions of over 120K images, and each image is associated with five captions from five different annotators. There are about 500K pairs of paraphrases in this dataset. In most cases, annotators describe the most prominent object/action in an image, which makes this dataset suitable for paraphrase-related tasks.

Quora Quora released a dataset in 2017, which consists of over 400K lines of potential question duplicate pairs. Among these potential question duplicate pairs, there are 150K question pairs annotated as paraphrases. For the paraphrase generation task only use these valid paraphrase question pairs are used for training and testing. Like WikiAnswer, this dataset is restricted to questions.

Twitter URL Twitter URL (Lan et al., 2017) is constructed by collecting large-scale sentential paraphrases from Twitter by linking tweets through shared URLs. This dataset consists of two subsets, each of which contains both paraphrases and non-paraphrases. One subset is labeled by human annotators, and the other is labeled automatically. Only the paraphrase sentence pairs are used for paraphrase generation. Because this dataset includes sentence pairs that are labeled automatically (as paraphrase or not), the annotation is noisy.

ParaNMT ParaNMT (Wieting and Gimpel, 2018) is a dataset of more than 50 million English-English sentential paraphrase pairs. The pairs were generated automatically by using back-translation to translate the non-English side of a large Czech-English parallel corpus. Owing to its recency, it has not been used widely.

3 Evaluation Methods

Two general types of evaluation metrics are commonly used to evaluate paraphrase generation: automatic evaluation and human evaluation.

Automatic Evaluation Several automatic evaluation metrics are used for the evaluation of paraphrase generation. The widely-used metrics include (1) BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), which was originally developed to evaluate machine translation systems; (2) METEOR (Denkowski and Lavie, 2014), which aims to address BLEU’s weakness of being unable to measure semantic equivalents when applied to low-resource languages and has a better correlation with human judgment at the sentence/segment level than BLEU; (3) ROUGE (Lin, 2004), a recall-based evaluation metric originally developed for text summarization, has also been used to evaluate paraphrase generation. Its versions, ROUGE-N (computing the n-gram recall) and ROUGE-L (focusing on the longest common subsequence) are mostly used. (4) TER (Snover 1https://www.kaggle.com/c/quora-question-pairs
et al., 2006), which was also developed to evaluate machine translation. It measures the number of edits that a human translator would have to perform to change a translation so it exactly matches a reference translation. A TER score is a value in the range of 0-1, but is frequently presented as a percentage, where lower is better.

**Human Evaluation** Due to the fact that automatic evaluation metrics mainly focus on the n-gram overlaps instead of meaning, human evaluation is used to provide a more accurate and qualitative evaluation of the generated output. In human evaluation, human annotators are asked to score generated paraphrases along multiple dimensions of quality such as similarity, clarity, and fluency. Owing to the manual annotation efforts, human evaluation is naturally more costly compared to automatic evaluation, but more representative of the quality of the generated output.

**4 Traditional Approaches**

In this section, some traditional approaches without neural models will be introduced.

**Rule-Based Approaches**

Rule-based paraphrase generation approaches build on hand-crafted or automatically collected paraphrase rules. In the early works, these rules were mainly hand-crafted (McKeown, 1983). Due to the significant manual efforts, some researchers have sought to collect paraphrase rules automatically (Lin and Pantel, 2001; Barzilay and Lee, 2003). However, the limitation of the extracting methods has led to the generation of long and complex paraphrase patterns, in turn impacting performance.

**Thesaurus-Based Approaches**

This approach usually generates paraphrases by substituting some words in the source sentences with their synonyms extracted from a thesaurus (Bolshakov and Gelbukh, 2004; Kauchak and Barzilay, 2006). Thesaurus-based approaches proceed by first extracting all synonyms from a thesaurus for the words to be replaced. Then the optimal candidate is selected according to the context in the source sentence. Although simple and effective, this approach is severely limited by the diversity of the generated paraphrases.

**SMT-Based Approach**

This approach is based on statistical machine translation (SMT) and is motivated by the fact that paraphrase generation can be seen as a special case of machine translation (i.e., monolingual machine translation). A machine translation model normally finds a best translation $\hat{e}$ of a text in language $f$ to a text in language $e$ by utilizing a statistical translation model $p(f|e)$ and a language model $p(e)$:

$$\hat{e} = \arg\max_{e \in E} p(f|e)p(e)$$

Applying this idea to paraphrase generation, such a model will find a best paraphrase $\hat{t}$ of a text in the source side $s$ to a text in the target side $t$ obtained as,

$$\hat{t} = \arg\max_{t \in T} p(s|t)p(t)$$

For instance, (Wubben et al., 2010) constructed a large-scale parallel corpus containing paraphrases collected from the headlines that appeared in Google News. Then they trained a Phrase-Based Machine Translation model (PBMT) (Koehn et al., 2007) on their parallel corpus using the MOSES package. The trained PBMT is finally used to generate paraphrases.

**5 Neural Approaches**

Early works on paraphrasing mainly focused on template-based or statistical machine translation approaches. However, the matching of templates and modeling of a statistical translation model are both challenging tasks. With the recent advances of neural networks, especially the sequence-to-sequence framework, Seq2Seq models were first use for paraphrase generation by (Prakash et al., 2016). Their work inspired the wide use of neural models for paraphrase generation. Below we introduce the main approaches based on neural models that are used for paraphrase generation.

**5.1 Encoder-Decoder Architecture**

Currently, most of the existing paraphrase generation models are based on sequence-to-sequence models consisting of an encoder and a decoder. The encoder will encode the source texts into a contextualized vector representation along with a list of vector representations capturing the semantics of each word and context. Then, the decoder will generate paraphrases based on the vectors given by the encoder.
**Encoding Side**

The main purpose of encoding is to extract the semantic information for the decoder to generate paraphrases. With the development of various neural models, researchers also have multiple choices for the encoder.

**Encoder**

With a consistent goal of learning better abstract contextualized representation of the input text, several architectures have been explored by researchers. (Prakash et al., 2016) first utilized a seq2seq model implemented as recurrent neural networks—long short term memory networks (LSTMs) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997)—to process long sequences. A nonvolutional neural network (CNN) has also been used to construct seq2seq models as a CNN has fewer parameters and thus is faster to train (Vizcarra and Ochoa-Luna, 2020). The Transformer model (Vaswani et al., 2017) has shown state-of-the-art performance on multiple text generation tasks. Due to the Transformer’s improved ability to capture long-range dependencies in sentences, (Wang et al., 2019) utilized a Transformer to construct their seq2seq model. More recently, large language models using transformer architectures have achieved state-of-the-art results for many NLP tasks while using less supervised data than before. Therefore, some researchers also utilized large pretrained language models such as GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) and BART (Lewis et al., 2020) as their encoder-decoder framework (Witteveen and Andrews, 2019; Hegde and Patil, 2020; Garg et al., 2021).

**Decoding Side**

At the decoding side, the contextualized representation is used at each decoding step with the vector representation of previously generated words. Finally, a distribution over the vocabulary is obtained and the word with highest probability will be generated. This method is greedy decoding. Besides, a more commonly used method called beam search (Wiseman and Rush, 2016) is used, which identifies the k-best paths up to current timestep during decoding.

However, greedy decoding and beam search methods are both generic approaches for all text generation tasks without a specific focus on paraphrase generation. Therefore, with the goal of generating paraphrases and avoiding the words existing in the source sentences, a few blocking mechanisms have been proposed to prevent the decoder from generating the same words in the source sentences. This is also a way to guarantee the diversity of the generated paraphrases and prevent the models from directly copying the input into the output paraphrases (Niu et al., 2020; Thompson and Post, 2020b).

5.2 Improvements Based on Encoder-Decoder Architecture

The numerous attempts that have been made to improve the Encoder-Decoder architecture for paraphrase generation can be broadly categorized into two types based on their focus: A. Model-focused; and B. Attribute-focused. Next we introduce them respectively with more fine-grained divisions.

A. Model-focused

Model-focused improvements only aim to utilize various mechanisms to enhance the encoder or the decoder without paying special attention to the attributes of the generated paraphrases (e.g., granularity level such as word-level, phrase-level and sentence-level).

**Attention**

The Attention mechanism (Bahdanau et al., 2015) enables the decoder to focus on some words/phrases that are of high relevance when generating a word. First, a weight for each token in the source sequence in each timestep is computed to indicate the importance, emphasizing the important information from the input and de-emphasizing the unimportant information. Given the weight distribution over all the tokens in the source sequence, this extra input vector, the context vector, is provided to the decoder.

**Copy**

To counter the effect of rare and out-of-vocabulary words in neural sequence models, (Vinyals et al., 2015) proposed a pointer network. A pointer network copies an element from the input sequence directly into the output. Similarly, copy mechanism copies a span of elements from the input sequence decided by attention mechanism directly into the output. With copy mechanism, the decoder is able to determine whether a generate mode or a copy mode should be used at each timestep. First introduced by Gu et al. (2016) for abstractive summarization, Cao et al. (2017) have also applied the copy mechanism to paraphrase generation. Despite the advantage of generating well-formed paraphrases by using the copy mechanism, it leads to the undesirable consequence of making a paraphrase contain many of the phrases...
Variational autoencoder (VAE) The VAE (Kingma et al., 2014) is able to learn rich, non-linear representations for high-dimensional inputs. Provided a latent representation $z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ with the distribution learned from inputs by the encoder, the VAE decoder is equipped with the ability of producing realistic outputs conditioned on the latent representation and the learned distribution. The learning is achieved by reconstructing the original input from the latent code $z$. Therefore, with the help of VAE, the paraphrase patterns are encoded into the latent representation $z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, which provides the model with control over the capacity of the learned distribution. Multiple paraphrase patterns and related words/phrases are grouped under the same latent assignment. Every time we sample a latent code $z$ from the distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, we get a new paraphrase pattern. Researchers have explored VAEs with different encoders and decoders. For examples, Gupta et al. (2017) implemented the encoder and decoder with LSTMs, whereas the transformer is used by Roy and Grangier (2019).

Reinforcement Learning As pointed out by (Ranzato et al., 2015), a well-known problem of the encoder-decoder architecture is exposure bias: the decoding of current word is conditioned on the gold references during training but on the generated output from the last timestep during testing. Therefore, the error might be accumulated and propagated when testing. Another problem lies in the mismatch between the training goal and the evaluation metrics. While the generated paraphrases are finally evaluated automatically using the previously mentioned metrics, the network is trained to maximize the probability of generating the reference paraphrases. Therefore, minimizing the training loss might not correspond to optimizing the evaluation metric. To address this limitation, reinforcement learning (RL) is leveraged. RL aims to train an agent to interact with the environment with the goal of maximizing its reward. Toward finding an optimal policy, RL can be used to maximize the reward indicated as a desired evaluation metric or a combination of multiple desired metrics. Rather than minimizing loss (the conventional approach), Li et al. (2018) first utilized RL to maximize the reward given by an evaluator which outputs a real value to represent the matching degree between two sentences as paraphrases of each other. Other reward functions have been explored by researchers, including ROUGE score, perplexity score and language fluency (Siddique et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020).

Generative adversarial networks (GAN) Proposed by Goodfellow et al. (2014), GANs consist of generators and discriminators, where generators try to generate realistic outputs that match the real distribution and discriminators try to distinguish between the samples generated by generators and the samples that are real. GAN is originally trained by minimax optimization proposed in (Goodfellow et al., 2014). However, when GAN is applied in text generation, the traditional training method cannot be used because generating discrete words is non-differentiable. Therefore, the idea of policy gradient (Sutton et al., 1999) is leveraged to solve this problem (Yu et al., 2017). With policy gradient applied, discriminators act like the reward function in RL. Moreover, different discriminators can provide different desired rewards and thus equip the model with the capacity to generating text with different conditions. Here, a model is usually trained in an adversarial way: generators and discriminators are first pretrained, then generators are trained to maximize the loss of the fixed discriminators, then generators are fixed and discriminators are again trained to minimize the loss by provided the real samples and the samples generated by the fixed generators. For the task of paraphrase generation, different discriminators are designed to distinguish between generated samples and real samples, paraphrases and non-paraphrases (Yang et al., 2019; Vizcarra and Ochoa-Luna, 2020).

B. Attribute-focused

For attribute-focused improvements, their purpose is to improve the quality of generated paraphrases in some specific aspects such as diversity and also provide control over some attributes of generated paraphrases such as syntax and granularity level. These attribute-focused works usually use the previously mentioned models as their backbone models. Based on the backbone models, different mechanisms are applied for different focuses.

Diversity Attempts focusing on diversity aim to generate multiple diverse paraphrases for a given sentence. Some works control diversity by provid-
Table 3: State-of-the-art performance on Quora dataset and MSCOCO dataset.

| Models                      | ROUGE-1 | ROUGE-2 | BLEU-2 | BLEU-4 | ROUGE-1 | ROUGE-2 | BLEU-2 | BLEU-4 |
|-----------------------------|---------|---------|--------|--------|---------|---------|--------|--------|
| Seq2Seq (Prakash et al., 2016) | 57.27   | 33.04   | 40.41  | 24.97  | 40.11   | 14.31   | 47.14  | 21.65  |
| Seq2Seq-attn (Prakash et al., 2016) | 57.10   | 32.86   | 40.49  | 24.89  | 41.07   | 15.26   | 49.65  | 23.66  |
| Seq2Seq-attn-copy (Gu et al., 2016) | 61.96   | 36.07   | -      | -      | -       | -       | -      | -      |
| Seq2Seq-VAE (Gupta et al., 2017) | 56.44   | 30.12   | 36.89  | 23.06  | 40.10   | 15.18   | 52.42  | 25.99  |
| Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) | 61.25   | 34.23   | 42.91  | 30.38  | -       | -       | -      | -      |
| Seq2Seq-LBOW (Fu et al., 2019) | 58.79   | 34.57   | 42.03  | 26.17  | 42.08   | 16.13   | 51.14  | 25.27  |
| RbM (Li et al., 2018) | 64.39   | 38.11   | 43.54  | -      | -       | -       | -      | -      |
| DB (Niu et al., 2020) | 67.49   | 42.33   | -      | -      | -       | -       | -      | -      |
| DNPG (Li et al., 2019) | 63.73   | 37.75   | -      | 25.03  | -       | -       | -      | -      |
| FSET (Kazemnejad et al., 2020) | 66.17   | 39.55   | 51.03  | 33.46  | -       | -       | -      | -      |
| SCSVED (Chen et al., 2020) | 60.28   | 35.26   | 41.56  | 27.37  | 40.90   | 15.70   | 54.35  | 28.24  |
| SGCP (Kumar et al., 2020) | 66.9    | 45.0    | -      | -      | -       | -       | -      | -      |

Word-Level  Works on word-level paraphrasing mainly focus on generating paraphrases by replacing original words in the source texts with synonyms. Some works leveraged external linguistic knowledge (Cao et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2020). (Cao et al., 2017) utilized an alignment table capturing many synonym mappings based on the IBM Model (Chahuneau et al., 2013). (Lin et al., 2020) utilized WordNet (Miller, 1995) to retrieve synonyms. Other works instead proposed special mechanisms to learn a mapping of synonyms (Ma et al., 2018; Fu et al., 2019). For example, (Ma et al., 2018) utilized retrieved-based method to learn such a mapping. (Fu et al., 2019) incorporates a novel latent bag-of-word mechanism into seq2seq model for content planning, which mainly provides candidate synonyms for words in the source texts. However, generating paraphrases only on a word-level makes the quality and diversity of generated paraphrases limited. Therefore, paraphrasing has also been studied on other granularity level, e.g. syntax level.

Syntax  Works in this category explore methods to provide control over the syntax of generated paraphrases. Basically, all the methods used by previous works can be split into two classes: 1. Explicit Control and 2. Implicit Control. Methods in the first class first encode the syntax tree of an exemplar sentence into a list of vector representations and then feed them into decoder at each timestep when decoding (Iyyer et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Goyal and Durrett, 2020; Kumar et al., 2020). These methods can provide explicit control over the syntax of generated paraphrases and thus has better interpretability. The second class of methods will first learn a distribution over syntax information by VAE. Then a latent syntax variable sampled from the learned distribution will be fed into decoder at each decoding step (Chen et al., 2020). Although the control provided by this method is implicit, it does not require exemplar sentences and also can group multiple related syntax under the same latent assignment.

Multi-Level  Focusing on a single granularity level of paraphrasing still makes generated paraphrases limited. Therefore, researchers also explore methods to combine multiple granularity levels together. Such attempts equip their model with the capacity of generating synonyms, substituting phrases and also rearrange sentential structures (Li et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019; Kazemnejad et al., 2020).
2020). By using multiple encoders, (Li et al., 2019) and (Kazemnejad et al., 2020) both enable their models to capture paraphrasing patterns on different granularity levels. (Huang et al., 2019) instead utilized the help of external linguistic knowledge from the paraphrase database (Ganitkevitch et al., 2013) to retrieve and learn word-level and phrase-level paraphrases. With different methods, both of them successfully combine multiple granularity levels together when generating paraphrases.

### 6 State-of-the-Art Performance

Table 3 shows the ROUGE and BLEU scores of state-of-the-art performance on some most frequently used evaluation corpus in recent years: MSCOCO and Quora. Due to the facts that different metrics are used in different works, different datasets are used in different works and many of them did not release their codes, Table 3 is not fully filled. However, with most of the table filled, we can still have some observations worth mentioning.

First, the use of attention mechanism achieves a close performance on Quora but has a better performance on MSCOCO (row 1 and 2). Similarly, the simple application of VAE also achieves a close performance on Quora but further improves the performance on MSCOCO (row 4). With the copy mechanism, the Seq2Seq model is able to retain some words and thus yields a much better results (row 3). Transformer (row 5) outperforms all the Seq2Seq-based models without copy mechanism (row 1,2,4,6), which shows the advantages of Transformer and meanwhile also proves the effectiveness of copy mechanism.

Second, a model that employs RL (row 7) has a great advantage for generating better paraphrases because of the reward provided. Therefore, a well designed optimization goal plays an important role in the task of paraphrase generation.

Third, a novel decoding algorithm based on large pretrained language models helps to generate better paraphrases at the word level (row 8) because of the strength of large pretrained language models and the synonyms learned by decoding algorithm.

Fourth, the attempts to improve paraphrase generation with a special focus on combining multiple granularity levels also yield good performance (row 9,10). When learning to generate paraphrase in word level, phrase level and sentence level at the same time, their models improve the performance on multiple metrics compared with their backbone Transformer model (row 5).

Finally, incorporating syntax control into paraphrase generation will also yield better results at word level and sentence level (row 11,12). Compared with implicit control (row 11), explicit control has a much better performance (row 12) based on Quora.

It should be noted that most of the works utilize two datasets for experiments (as shown in Table 4) with one of them focusing on question paraphrases and the other focusing on general sentence paraphrases. Quora is the most popular dataset for question paraphrases. However, for corpus focusing on general sentence paraphrases, different works have different choices among MSCOCO, Twitter URL and ParaNMT. MSCOCO is more preferred for less noise compared with Twitter URL and ParaNMT. Therefore, a combination of MSCOCO and Quora is more reasonable.

For evaluation metrics, BLEU is the most frequently used one. However, as proposed by (Niu et al., 2020), current automatic evaluation metrics are limited for evaluating paraphrase generation
| BLEU | Quality | Target | Generated Paraphrase |
|------|---------|--------|----------------------|
| High | High    | a picture of someone taking a picture of herself | a woman taking a picture with a cell phone. |
| High | Low     | a batter swinging a bat at a baseball | a batter swinging a baseball at a bat |
| Low  | High    | a man in sunglasses laying on a green kayak. | the man lying on a boat in the water. |
| Low  | Low     | people on a gold course enjoy a few games | a group of people walking |

Table 5: Samples of generated paraphrases and their quality. Selected from (Niu et al., 2020).

because of “curse of BLEU on paraphrase evaluation”. As shown in Table 5, examples with low BLEU scores might include both relatively good and bad paraphrasing because BLEU scores only measure the overlap between outputs and references. However, a generated paraphrase might still be a good paraphrase even it is not same with the reference. Therefore, for evaluation, it is better to combine automatic evaluation metrics and human evaluation together for a more comprehensive evaluation.

7 Conclusion

Although recent neural models have shown great advances, state-of-the-art results are still not satisfactory enough. Therefore, more advanced paraphrasing models still need to be explored. Below we discuss several potential directions of research that we believe are worth studying.

Pretrained language models Virtually all recent work related to the application of pretrained language models on paraphrase generation is quite naive. Therefore, we could combine the large pretrained language models with other mechanisms, for example reinforcement learning, VAE and GAN.

Multi-level controllable paraphrase generation Most recent works on multi-level paraphrase generation only focus on word-level paraphrasing and phrase-level paraphrasing. However, more granularity levels can be incorporated. We believe it is worthwhile to study the combination of various levels, including word-level, phrase-level, syntax-level and sentence-level.

Transfer learning With the goal of generating different surfaces of given sentences while preserving the meaning, text summarization, text simplification and paraphrase generation are essentially similar. Therefore, one could utilize transfer learning of these three tasks to improve the performance.

Stylistic paraphrase generation Currently, word- and phrase-substitution in paraphrase generation cannot be carefully controlled. Therefore, it is hard to control the style of generated paraphrases. We believe it is worthwhile to explore methods of incorporating specific styles into generated paraphrases. For instance, by controlling the types of words and phrases, we can incorporate metaphor and idiomatic expressions into paraphrases (Zhou et al., 2021b,a), which could also help to enhance creativity and diversity of generated paraphrases.

Evaluation metrics As stated in Section 6, BLEU scores and other automatic evaluation metrics based on similar principle are not good enough to evaluate paraphrase generation. Thus there is a need for better automatic evaluation methods. One possible method is to utilize paraphrase identification in the automatic evaluation metrics to explicitly provide an evaluation of if the generated sentence and input sentence are paraphrases.

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