Exploring Story Generation with Multi-task Objectives in Variational Autoencoders

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Abstract
GPT-2 has been frequently adapted in story generation models as it provides powerful generative capability. However, it still fails to generate consistent stories and lacks diversity. Current story generation models leverage additional information such as plots or commonsense into GPT-2 to guide the generation process. These approaches focus on improving generation quality of stories while our work look at both quality and diversity. We explore combining BERT and GPT-2 to build a variational autoencoder (VAE), and extend it by adding additional objectives to learn global features such as story topic and discourse relations. Our evaluations show our enhanced VAE can provide better quality and diversity trade off, generate less repetitive story content and learn a more informative latent variable.

1 Introduction
Autoregressive pretrained models such as GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) have been frequently applied to story generation. While GPT-2 can generate coherent single sentences, it suffers from inconsistencies in the storylines and lacks generation diversity, i.e. the storylines tend to use “bland” language and multiple generation produces similar plot lines (Guan et al., 2021). Current story generation models add more controllability into language models for story generation, such as story plan (Yao et al., 2019) or commonsense (Guan et al., 2020). These approaches focus on improving generation quality but does not address the diversity issue.

Variational autoencoder (VAE) is an extension of autoencoder (AE) (Rumelhart et al., 1986). It defines a prior distribution and the encoder learns an approximate posterior distribution that is optimised close to the prior distribution. In doing so, the VAE is able to learn a more tractable latent space than AE and it is easier to sample meaningful latent variables to guide the generation process to generate diverse meaningful sequences.

In order to leverage pretrained models for VAE, Li et al. (2020) propose OPTIMUS, a large-scale VAE that combines BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) and GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) and further pre-train it on large corpus to create an off-the-shelf pretrained VAE. We follow a similar approach to build our VAE in this paper, but our aim is to develop a VAE for domain-specific story generation (rather than creating a domain-general large-scale pretrained VAE) and as such our evaluation focuses on assessing generation capability.

Our core innovation in this paper is the introduction of multi-task learning objectives to the VAE to enhance the latent variables, as Bosc and Vincent (2020) found that they tend to learn local features such as the first few words or the length of input sequences. Our first auxiliary objective uses the latent variable to learn story topics, and our second objective seeks to distinguish between original stories and “negative samples”, created by altering the stories to simulate common machine generation errors. We conduct experiments on several datasets to show our proposed VAE has better quality-diversity trade off than GPT-2 and learn better latent representations than vanilla VAE.

To summarise: (1) we combine BERT and GPT-2 to build domain-specific VAE for story generation; (2) we propose an alternative approach to incorporate the latent variable into the VAE’s decoder; (3) we introduce two auxiliary objectives to encourage the latent variable to capture topic information and discourse relations; and (4) we experiment with several story datasets and show that our enhanced VAE produces higher quality latent variables and generates stories with better quality-diversity trade off compared to GPT-2.
2 Related Work

Conventional approaches of automatic story generation typically contain two parts: (1) learn a language model from the training dataset with the objective of minimising KL divergence between probability distribution of training dataset and language model; and (2) find the most suitable way to decode the story from a given starting point (usually a title or the leading context) with the trained language model. Autoregressive transformers such as GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) and its scaled-up GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020) mask the attention heads after the current word during training so that they can serve as language models to predict the next token. However, even large pretrained language models suffer from issues such as self-repetition, conflicting logic and incoherence (Guan and Huang, 2020).

Therefore, recent approaches resort to two main strategies to alleviate above issues, by adding more controllability into the story generation model and incorporating commonsense knowledge. One of the most influential strategies of controllability is “plan and write” (Yao et al., 2019) where they first use a RAKE algorithm to extract the most important word from each sentence and train a storyline planner based on such dataset. The language model is trained conditional on both the previous context and the keywords. During generation, the keywords are generated from the given title and can be used to guide generation of each sentence. Commonsense contains shared knowledge about the world (Alabdulkarim et al., 2021). Guan et al. (2020) fine-tune a pretrained GPT-2 with knowledge triples from commonsense datasets. They first use pre-defined rules to turn triples into sentences (e.g. (eiffel tower, AtLocation, paris) $\rightarrow$ “eiffel tower is at paris”) and train on the knowledge sentences with conventional maximum likelihood estimation objective. Xu et al. (2020) combine these two approaches by first training a keyword planner with GPT-2 and use the keywords to search a knowledgebase to retrieve the top ranked sentences to guide the generation process.

The aforementioned approaches add complementary information in training the language model, but does not address the diversity issue in language generation. VAE can generate content with more diversity (Kingma and Welling, 2019; Yu et al., 2020), and has been variously explored in story generation. For example, Jhamtani and Berg-Kirkpatrick (2020) treat the latent variables as story plots to guide story generation and Yu et al. (2020) build a hierarchichal conditional VAE draft and edit stories.

To incorporate pretrained models for building VAEs, Li et al. (2020) propose OPTIMUS, a VAE that uses BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) as the encoder and GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) as the decoder. They further pretrain OPTIMUS on English Wikipedia using standard VAE objectives to create an off-the-shelf pretrained VAE, and demonstrate its benefits as a pretrained model for downstream tasks. We follow their approach of using BERT and GPT-2 for building a VAE, although with a different goal: here we are interested in developing domain-specific story generators, and as such our evaluation metrics focus on assessing story generation capabilities.

Story evaluation is a challenging problem, BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002) and ROUGE (Lin, 2004) are commonly used to assess the quality of generated stories. Diversity of generated stories is another important evaluation aspect and Caccia et al. (2020) propose temperature sweep to evaluate the trade off between quality and diversity for story generation models.

3 Framework

Denoting the text sequence as $x$ and the latent variable as $z$, a VAE uses the inference model (i.e. the stochastic encoder) $q_\phi(z|x)$ to approximate the posterior distribution, $p_\theta(z|x)$, since the true posterior density $p_\theta(z|x) = p_\theta(x|z)p_\theta(z)/p_\theta(x)$ is intractable (Kingma and Welling, 2014). The prior over $z$ is set as a multivariate Gaussian $p_\theta(z) = N(z; 0, I)$. VAE is trained with the evidence lower bound (ELBO) loss:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)}[\log p_\theta(x|z)] - D_{KL}(q_\phi(z|x)||p(z))$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

The left part of equation can be interpreted as the reconstruction loss ($L^R$) and the right part as the KL loss ($L^{KL}$) that pushes the latent space close to the pre-defined prior so as to obtain a regular latent space.

We use BERT as the encoder and GPT-2 as the decoder to build a VAE language model. BERT naturally handles multiple sentences (delimited by [SEP]) and we use the [CLS] token to represent the whole story and add two linear layers on top to compute the mean ($\mu$) and standard deviation.
Figure 1: Illustration of three approaches of interacting the latent variable with decoder input. Both [BOS] and [EOS] are the `<endoftext>` token in GPT-2. “A” denotes the first sentence of the story, x1 and x2 represent tokens of the first sentence. For the “memory” approach, different colors indicate different layers in GPT-2.

(σ) of the latent variable z. To incorporate the latent variable z into the GPT-2 decoder, we explore two approaches: (1) “prepend”, where we append the latent variable as prefix token at the beginning of input sequence. (2) “memory”, where we apply an MLP to the latent variable to generate key and values in each layer (proposed by Li et al. (2020)); and Figure 1 presents an illustration of these two approaches.

3.1 Global Feature Learning

To encourage the VAE to learn global features, we propose a multi-task learning framework. Figure 2 presents an overall architecture of our model. The first objective is the reconstruction objective (LR, the left part of Equation 1). The two additional objectives train latent variable to: (1) predict the story topic; and (2) distinguish between original and negative samples. These auxiliary objectives are designed to encourage the latent variable to capture topic and discourse information.

Story Topic Learning We add additional MLP layers to learn the topic distribution of the story and calculate the topic loss with the ground truth topic distribution of the document based on KL divergence. While this is straightforward for topic-annotated dataset which contains ground truth topic labels, most story datasets do not have such label. To this end, we train a latent Dirichlet allocation topic model (Blei et al., 2003) to extract the topics. We use the topic model-inferred topic distribution Q(T) of each document as ground truth and compute KL divergence as the loss. Note that we use the full topic distribution instead of selecting one topic with the highest probability as the representative topic as the full distribution is more informative and that most documents have multiple topics.

Given z, we predict the topic distribution P(T) as follows:

$$P(T) = \text{softmax}(W_t z + b_t) \quad (2)$$

We calculate the topic loss $L_T$ with KL divergence over the predicted and topic model-inferred topic distribution as follows:

$$L_T = \sum_{t \in T} P(t) \log \left( \frac{P(t)}{Q(t)} \right) \quad (3)$$

Story Discourse Learning For discourse relation learning, we first construct negative samples
We use four datasets in our experiments: ROCStories, Reuters, APNEWS, WritingPrompts. ROCStories is a collection of Associated Press news from 2009 to 2016. Reuters is the Reuters-21578 “ApteMod” corpus for text categorization from the Reuters financial newswire service. ROCStories (ROC) contains commonsense stories of five sentences (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016). To obtain more generalization as all sentences are rather short in the dataset, we follow the delexicalization approach from prior studies (Guan et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2020) where male/female/unknown names are replaced by tokens [MALE]/[FEMALE]/[NEUTRAL]. The WritingPrompts (WP) dataset consists of 303,358 human generated long stories from Reddit’s Writing Prompts forum. Fan et al. (2018) collect them by scraping three years of prompts and their associated stories. We use 10% of the stories in our experiments. Table 2 presents some statistics of the four datasets.

In terms of preprocessing, we add [SEP] token at the end of each sentence and use WordPiece tokenizer for BERT and Byte-Pair-Encoding (BPE) for GPT-2. We set the maximum length of a story as 100 subwords for short story datasets (ROC and Reuters) and 200 for long story datasets (APNEWS and WritingPrompts).

5 Experiments

We use implementations of BERT and GPT-2 from HuggingFace (Wolf et al., 2019). We set learning rate at $10^{-4}$ and use Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2014) as optimiser. The dimension of latent variable is set as 256. All models are trained using 20 epochs on single NVIDIA V100 GPU node per model.

5.1 Topic Extraction

We use MALLET LDA to extract the topics. We filter out tokens that appear more than half of the dataset and keep the most frequent 50K tokens as the vocabulary for the LDA models. We select the best topic number based on topic coherence (Röder et al., 2015).

5.2 Evaluation Metrics

We evaluate our system using intrinsic metrics where we compute perplexity, number of active units of language model training and the extent to which the latent variable captures topic and discourse information. To evaluate story generation capability, we look at self-repetition metrics and measure the quality-diversity trade off using Corpus-BLEU.

Perplexity (PPL) Perplexity of test data is widely used to evaluate language models. However, exact PPL is unavailable so ELBO is often

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1https://www.kaggle.com/mltkdata/reuters

2https://www.reddit.com/r/WritingPrompts/

3http://mallet.cs.umass.edu

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We then compute the discourse loss $L^D$ using standard binary cross entropy:

$$L^D = -y_n \log \hat{y}_n - (1 - y_n) \log (1 - \hat{y}_n)$$

(5)

For each original story, we create one negative sample.

Given the topic and discourse losses, we add them with weights to the original reconstruction loss and KL loss function to train the VAE and perform grid search to find the suitable weights. During training, to alleviate posterior collapse — the issue where both the variational posterior distribution obtained from the encoder and the true posterior for the real dataset collapse to the prior, resulting in zero KL loss (He et al., 2019) — we use β-VAE (Burgess et al., 2018) that sets an additional target $C$ to the KL loss (by computing an absolute difference between KL loss and $C$) to optimise it close to $C$. The full objective our model is thus given as follows:

$$L = L^R + \beta \left| L^{KL} - C \right| + \alpha L^T + \gamma L^D$$

(6)

where $\beta$, $\alpha$, and $\gamma$ are hyper-parameters to control the weights of different objectives.
repeat, substitution and negation alteration

[NEUTRAL] knew the solution to a problem. He told people the solution. The people thought [NEUTRAL] was smart. [NEUTRAL] agreed with them. [NEUTRAL] went on to achieve.

reordering and substitution

[FEMALE] really loved the sun. She would play in it all day. One day the dark clouds came and shooed the sun away. [FEMALE] was very sad to see it go. She was happy though when she saw it back the next morning!

Table 1: Examples of negative story samples generated from a combination of heuristic rules of repeat, substitution, reordering and negation alteration.

| Collection     | Average Length | Training |       | Development |       | Test |
|----------------|----------------|----------|-------|-------------|-------|------|
|                | #Docs #Tokens   | #Docs #Tokens |      | #Docs #Tokens |      | #Docs #Tokens |
| APNEWS         | 138 46.4K 4.68M | 1.9K 187K 1.8K | 187K |
| Reuters        | 88 7.8K 695K | 2K 180K 1K | 93.6K |
| ROC            | 60 88K 5.28M | 5K 0.3M 2K | 0.12M |
| WritingPrompts | 110 26.8K 2.95M | 2K 0.22M 2K | 0.22M |

Table 2: Statistics of APNEWS, Reuters, ROC and WritingPrompts Dataset.

used to approximate the probability. But as Li et al. (2019) found, such approximation is not appropriate since the gap between ELBO and log marginal likelihood might be large when the true posterior did not converge with the approximate posterior. Burda et al. (2016) propose using k-sample importance weighting estimate, which provides a tighter lower bound for the log marginal likelihood with Jensen's inequality. Our results therefore use this approach for computing PPL.

**Number of Active Units (AU)** Burda et al. (2016) propose a way to evaluate if each dimension of the latent variable is active over the posterior distribution as follows:

\[
A_u = \text{Cov}_x(\mathbb{E}_{u \sim q(u|x)}[u])
\]

and set the bar that the dimension \( u \) of the latent variable is active if \( A_u > 0.01 \). Intuitively, more active units means a more informative latent variable is learned from the input.

**Sequence Repetition** As neural generation models are prone to generate repetitive content with high probabilities (Yao et al., 2018), we evaluate sequence-level repetition evaluation by computing the portion of duplicate n-grams for a continuation \( x_{k+1:k+N} \):

\[
1.0 - \frac{|\text{unique n-grams}(x_{k+1:k+N})|}{|\text{n-grams}|}
\]

**Corpus-BLEU and Self-BLEU** Corpus-BLEU uses the test dataset as reference and compute BLEU score for each generated story and use average result as a measurement of quality. Zhu et al. (2018) propose Self-BLEU, that regards one generated story as the hypothesis and all other generated stories as the references and calculates the BLEU score for each story and use the average score to measure diversity. A lower Self-BLEU score means the story is less similar to the other generated stories, and thus, higher diversity.

5.3 Evaluation Results

5.3.1 Intrinsic Results

We first show evaluation results where we explore two methods (“memory” and “prepend”) of injecting \( z \) to the decoder on ROC in Table 3. Here the models are vanilla VAE models without the auxiliary losses (as our objective here is to evaluate the
Table 3: Intrinsic results of training with different $C$ in beta-VAE (Equation 6) and with “prepend” and “memory” (Section 3) for incorporating the latent variable to the decoder on the ROC dataset. PPL is computed by 500 samples of importance weighting estimate.

| Method | $C$ | Recon. loss | KL loss | AU  | PPL  |
|--------|-----|-------------|---------|-----|------|
| prepend | 6.0 | 123.89      | 5.96    | 209 | 9.53 |
| prepend | 8.0 | 122.61      | 7.99    | 206 | 9.58 |
| prepend | 10.0 | 121.64      | 9.96    | 197 | 9.61 |
| memory  | 6.0 | 127.67      | 5.94    | 0   | 9.69 |
| memory  | 8.0 | 127.49      | 7.93    | 0   | 9.80 |
| memory  | 10.0 | 127.46      | 9.84    | 0   | 9.96 |

Table 4: Topic classification accuracy using mean of the posterior distribution $\mu$ and the latent variable $z$ on Reuters.

| Model | $\mu$ | $z$  |
|-------|-------|------|
| AE    | 0.702 | 0.699|
| VAE   | 0.446 | 0.436|
| VAE+t | 0.691 | 0.583|

The best way to incorporate the latent variable to the VAE’s decoder. Note that perplexity is estimated using 500 samples with importance weighting and it captures both reconstruction and KL loss. We found that “prepend” generally outperforms “memory”, as it can keep more dimensions of the latent variable active while “memory” has no active dimensions. It also has a KL divergence marginally closer to the target ($C$ in Equation 6), and has better reconstruction and overall better perplexity. “prepend” is in a way similar to memory where all tokens in the GPT-2 input have the extra vector to attend to, but instead of transforming it using extra MLP layers, “prepend” relies on the inherent self-attention mechanism to produce a more natural key/value representations in each layer, which might explain the improved performance.

By increasing $C$ for the KL target, more information is encoded into the latent variable, and so the model achieves a better performance in terms of reconstruction loss. But this also means it becomes harder to sample a latent variable from the prior, as the posterior no longer matches the prior, and as such we see an increase of perplexity. Our results highlight the importance of controlling $C$ to find a reasonable trade off between reconstruction and KL loss.

Given these results, we next train the VAE with the topic and discourse objectives (Section 3.1), using $C = 6.0$ and the “prepend” method. We now assess the extent to which the encoder can identify the topics or distinguish between the original stories and stories with flaws (negative samples).

### Topic Learning Evaluation

We evaluate the extent to which the BERT encoder can learn story topics in the latent space and how much the GPT-2 decoder can make use of it. We use the Reuters dataset here since the documents/stories are annotated with ground truth topics.

We follow Bosc and Vincent (2020) and freeze the parameters of BERT and add one MLP layer on top of the mean of the posterior distribution $\mu$ and the latent variable $z$ and train a classifier to predict the ground truth topics and report test accuracy results in Table 4. The baseline “AE” is a VAE model without using the KL loss ($L_{KL}$ in Equation 1), and so functions like an autoencoder (since the posterior is no longer constrained to be close to the prior).

Looking at the results, we see that using $\mu$ as input for the classifier yields much better results compared to using the latent variable $z$. But as pointed out in Bosc and Vincent (2020), $z$ is ultimately the latent variable that goes into the decoder, and so the performance using $z$ is the more important number. There is no surprise that AE achieves better test accuracy scores with both $\mu$ and $z$ than vanilla VAE since the VAE’s encoder is forced to discard some information in the posterior distribution so as to match the prior distribution. Encouragingly, we see that our topic-enhanced VAE is indeed able to capture much of the topic information, producing a better topic classification accuracy compared to vanilla VAE.

### Discourse Learning Evaluation

One advantage of our discourse-enhanced VAE is that after training we can obtain a discourse score using the output of the additional layer (Equation 4), which tells us the quality of a story. Table 5 presents the predicted discourse scores on a set of generated stories. Note that all stories are generated from randomly sampled latent variables. Looking at the generated stories, we found that stories with high discourse scores are generally coherent, while stories with low scores often have logical or repetition problems. To quantify this, we compute the average discourse score on test stories and their negative samples, and the average scores are 0.75 and 0.25.
| Score | Story | Issue |
|-------|-------|-------|
| 0.83  | [MALE] went fishing. He was excited about the trip. He saw a big fish. He was excited to get it. He caught a huge fish. |
| 0.81  | [FEMALE] was nervous for her first day of school. She was nervous because she was so new to school. [FEMALE] was scared to be in the classroom. The teacher introduced her to other students. [FEMALE] was very excited to learn about her new class. |
| 0.56  | [FEMALE] was hungry for some cookies. She decided to make some chocolate chip cookies. She mixed the ingredients together. then she mixed them together. [FEMALE] was happy to have some cookies. |
| 0.48  | [FEMALE] was a lesbian. She was in love with [MALE]. [MALE] was jealous of her. [FEMALE]’s boyfriend cheated on her. [FEMALE] was dumped. |
| 0.40  | [MALE] received a call from his boss. He had a promotion. he took it. he took it anyway. he got it. |
| 0.32  | [MALE] grew up on a farm. [MALE] wanted to grow vegetables. he was tired of them. [MALE] bought carrots. He then grew vegetables. |

Table 5: Predicted discourse scores using the discourse-enhanced VAE.

respectively, showing that our discourse-enhanced VAE is able to distinguish between original stories and negative samples.

5.3.2 Extrinsic Results

Quality and Diversity Trade-off. Quality and diversity of generated stories from a model can be affected by decoding strategies. Therefore, it is difficult to determine which model is superior based on a single performance since models that achieve high quality score tend to lack diversity (Caccia et al., 2020). Temperature sweep uses a set of quality and diversity results generated by altering values of temperature in temperature sampling, and the best model is one that produces the best trade off between these two aspects (Caccia et al., 2020; Hashimoto et al., 2019; Alihosseini et al., 2019). We follow this evaluation approach and use top-p sampling with varying p values as Holtzman et al. (2019) demonstrate that top-p sampling has a better control over sampling and produce sequences that have a more similar nature with human text than temperature sampling.

We use a range of different p values from 0.4 to 1.0 with an increment of 0.02, creating stories for 31 different p values to assess the quality and diversity trade off. For each p value, we sample 500 latent variables from the prior distribution to generate 500 stories. The results are shown in Figure 3. Note that we use negative Corpus-BLEU here (by flipping the sign), so that a lower score indicates better performance for both scores. The best model is one that produces a trade off curve closest to the axes. The figure shows that the VAEs generally achieve a better trade off than fine-tuned GPT-2 in all domains. Encouragingly, our enhanced VAEs (“VAE+t”, “VAE+d” and “VAE+td”) also perform generally better than the vanilla VAE (with the exception of the WP dataset). Curiously, AE is not able to generate high quality stories under our tested p values and it produces a short curve near the bottom right corner.

Sequence Repetition. Self-BLEU measures the diversity of a set of generated stories, revealing whether they tend to use similar plots or share similar words. Here we assess the extent of self repetition within a story. We compute 4-grams repetition (“seq-rep-4”; Equation 8) and present the results in Table 6 for the ROC dataset. Note that a lower score means less repetition (better performance).

We can see that higher p values produce less repetitive texts (lower scores) since at each timestep more word types are included in the sampling process. For comparison, we also compute the “human” repetition score using the test data and its result is 0.021. At lower p values, the VAE models tend to have much lower repetition than the fine-tuned GPT-2. However, if we do not constrain much on the token probabilities and use a higher p values, most models produce similar repetition scores. At the extreme when we set p = 1.0, all models are able to generate stories with little self-repetition like the human-written stories. AE seems to be able to repeat less, however the generated stories tend to be incoherent (recall in Figure 4).

Other domains produce similar trends and for brevity we present only the ROC results.
Figure 3: Quality and diversity trade-offs of generated sentences on three datasets. For both quality and diversity metrics, lower score means better performance and the curve that is closest to the axes have the best overall performance.

Table 6: Sequence repetition of 4-grams of generated stories under different $p$ values with top-$p$ sampling on ROC.

### Conclusion

We explore using pretrained models such as BERT and GPT-2 to build a VAE for story generation. We additionally propose enhancing the VAE by introducing two auxiliary objectives to encourage it to learn topical and discourse information in the stories. Our experiments show that the latent variable of our enhanced VAE is more informative, in that it captures the story topics and good vs. poor quality stories. In terms of story generation, we also demonstrate that our enhanced VAE produce generally a better quality-diversity trade-off compared to vanilla VAE and GPT-2.

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