Can Pretrained Language Models Generate Persuasive, Faithful, and Informative Ad Text for Product Descriptions?

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Abstract

For any e-commerce service, persuasive, faithful, and informative product descriptions can attract shoppers and improve sales. While not all sellers are capable of providing such interesting descriptions, a language generation system can be a source of such descriptions at scale, and potentially assist sellers to improve their product descriptions. Most previous work has addressed this task based on statistical approaches (Wang et al., 2017), limited attributes such as titles (Chen et al., 2019; Chan et al., 2020), and focused on only one product type (Wang et al., 2017; Munigala et al., 2018; Hong et al., 2021). In this paper, we jointly train image features and 10 text attributes across 23 diverse product types, with two different target text types with different writing styles: bullet points and paragraph descriptions. Our findings suggest that multimodal training with modern pretrained language models can generate fluent and persuasive advertisements, but are less faithful and informative, especially out of domain.

1 Introduction

Generative pretrained language models such as GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019), T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), and BART (Lewis et al., 2020a) have led to impressive gains in language generation applications beyond machine translation, such as story generation (Fan et al., 2018; Goldfarb-Tarrant et al., 2020), summarization (Zhang et al., 2020; Qi et al., 2020), and dialogue systems (Ham et al., 2020). Although such transformer-based language models (Vaswani et al., 2017) are capable of generating fluent texts through a sequence-to-sequence framework, they still suffer from unfaithfulness and factuality issues (Maynez et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020; Moradi et al., 2021).

In this paper, we comprehensively discuss the utility of modern pretrained language models over an ad text generation task for product descriptions, with a focus on faithfulness, persuasiveness, and informativeness. While previous work has been limited to short ad generation tasks conditioned on titles (Chen et al., 2019; Chan et al., 2020), and used traditional neural models (Munigala et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019a) or statistical approaches (Wang et al., 2017), we focus on a data-to-text generation approach to product description generation for an English e-commerce service. Specifically, we explore various textual attributes and images as the input, and generate two types of product descriptions: (1) bullet points, and (2) paragraph descriptions (see Figure 1). Bullet points provide a list of key information regarding a product, while paragraph descriptions are made up of sentences structured into a coherent narrative.

We argue there are two underlying motivations for the ad text generation task, especially for product descriptions. Application-wise, the utility is to improve the seller experience for e-commerce services when registering a new product. The generated descriptions can reduce the need for manual data entry, and potentially improve sales due to better descriptions (in terms of attractiveness, structure, and persuasiveness). Research-wise, ad
text generation is an under-studied task, and arguably a good proxy for persuasive text generation (Wei et al., 2016; Rehbein, 2019; Luu et al., 2019; El Baff et al., 2020).

While previous work has discussed ad text generation of e-commerce service for a few product types such as fashion (Munigala et al., 2018), computers (Wang et al., 2017), and house decor (Hong et al., 2021), in this work, we use twenty diverse product types and an additional three product types for out-of-domain prediction. With this setting, we aim to study model generalization and robustness over in-domain and out-of-domain test sets.

To summarize our contributions: (1) we study the application of modern pretrained language models based on data-to-text generation for product description in an e-commerce service; (2) we explore multimodal training by incorporating image features for ad generation and perform automatic and manual evaluation; (3) we study model robustness for out-of-domain prediction; and (4) we conduct analysis of attributes that significantly contribute to ad text generation.

2 Related Work

Data-to-text generation is the task of translating a semi-structured table to natural text, and has been applied in different real-world scenarios, such as weather forecasting reports (Liang et al., 2009), sport (Puduppully et al., 2019), health-care descriptions (Hasan and Farri, 2019), and biographies (Wang et al., 2020). While the goal of most previous tasks is to generate descriptive text, there are few studies (Wang et al., 2017) on data-to-text generation for the advertisement domain, and the work that has been done has tended to focus exclusively on the product type of computer and be based on pre-neural statistical approaches and template-based techniques.

Previous work has mostly used titles of e-commerce products to generate short ads in Chinese (Chen et al., 2019; Chan et al., 2020) and English (Munigala et al., 2018; Kanungo et al., 2021). Similarly, Zhang et al. (2019a) generate a product description for Chinese e-commerce, conditioned on the title and a small number of attributes (with an average length of six words).1 In this work, we comprehensively study product description generation in English based on ten diverse attributes (à la a data-to-text scheme, with the average number of

| Attributes          | Coverage (%) | #words | | | Vocab |
|---------------------|--------------|--------|---|---|------|
| TITLE               | 100          | 95     | 15.7 | 6.22 | 193,649 |
| PRODUCT TYPE        | 100          | 1      | 1    | 0    | 20   |
| CLASSIFICATION      | 100          | 1      | 1    | 0    | 3    |
| BRAND               | 99.49        | 17     | 1.58 | 0.88 | 46,552 |
| KEYWORD             | 92.17        | 958    | 32.32| 55.72| 292,372 |
| COLOR               | 80.19        | 32     | 1.44 | 1.01 | 18,839 |
| SIZE                | 69.96        | 16     | 1.82 | 1.44 | 15,187 |
| MODEL NUMBER        | 33.75        | 9      | 1.15 | 0.52 | 67,215 |
| PART NUMBER         | 47.64        | 12     | 1.08 | 0.41 | 91,084 |
| WEIGHT              | 20.76        | 1      | 1    | 0    | 1,786 |
| BULLET POINTS       | 100          | 766    | 86.8 | 67.9 | 225,784 |
| PARAGRAPH DESC.     | 100          | 516    | 90.9 | 72.9 | 472,711 |

Table 1: Statistics of attributes. For BULLET POINTS, the average number of bullets in the overall dataset is 5.

| Component | % of novel n-grams |
|-----------|---------------------|
|          | A | B | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10 attr. | BP | 86.7 | 96.3 | 98.1 | 98.7 |
| 10 attr. | PD | 85.1 | 93.7 | 95.2 | 95.9 |
| BP       | PD | 66.2 | 86.9 | 90.9 | 92.7 |

Table 2: Abstractiveness of BULLET POINTS (BP) and PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS (DP) based on novel n-gram overlap. “10 attr.” means the concatenation of all attributes, and values in the table are calculated relative to component B.

concatenated attributes being 64 words in Table 1) that incorporates joint training over images of the product.

3 Data Construction

We use 200,000 e-commerce products spanning 20 different product types as described in Figure 2. For copyright reasons we are not able to release this data to the public. This dataset is randomly split into 180K/10K/10K training, development and test instances, respectively. We also create an Xtreme test set (4,266 samples) in which we filter out test samples that have overlapping descriptions with the training data. Lastly, we additionally use three different product types as an out-of-domain test set, comprising 1,000 products of each of the three produce types: SAREE, COMPUTER, and CELLULAR_PHONE. In total, there are three different test sets: (1) main; (2) Xtreme; and (3) out-of-domain.

In Table 1, we show the overall statistics of ten product attributes and two target texts: BULLET POINTS and PARAGRAPH

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1These attributes are not clearly described in the paper.
DESCRIPTIONS. The selection of product attributes is based on a minimum coverage of 20% in the dataset. Overall, the five attributes with the highest coverage are TITLE, PRODUCT TYPE, CLASSIFICATION, BRAND, and KEYWORD. The average length of BULLET POINTS and PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS is 87 and 91, respectively, significantly longer than most previous work except Wang et al. (2017) who focused on the product type of computer and tested only pre-neural statistical approaches (see Table 3).

To understand the abstractiveness of our dataset, in Table 2 we show the percentage of novel n-grams in BULLET POINTS and PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS. Overall, we observe that the two target texts are highly abstractive, with more than 85% of novel n-grams, computed relative to the concatenated attributes. We also found that there is a high proportion of novel n-grams between the two target texts. We suspect, though, that the low lexical overlap between the two text types in this task might not be attributed to paraphrasing or lexical choice, but rather to content selection.

Table 3: Dataset comparison between our work and previous work

| Work             | Lang. | Product Types | #words of source (µ) | #words of target (µ) |
|------------------|-------|---------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Zhang et al. (2019a) | ZH    | N/A           | 18                   | 25                   |
| Chan et al. (2020)   | ZH    | N/A           | 18                   | 22                   |
| Hong et al. (2021)    | ZH    | 1             | N/A                  | 76                   |
| Wang et al. (2017)    | EN    | 1             | N/A                  | 117                  |
| Munigala et al. (2018) | EN    | 1             | 6                    | 18                   |
| Kanungo et al. (2021)| EN    | 1             | 19                   | 6                    |
| This work            | EN    | 23            | 64                   | 87 & 91              |

4 Model

Problem Formulation. As discussed in Section 3, a product in our dataset consists of up to ten attributes \( \{a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_{10} \} \), one image \( I \), and two target texts \( \{t_1, t_2\} \). The goal of this work is to learn a function that estimates the probabilities \( P(t_1|a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_{10}, I) \) and \( P(t_2|a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_{10}, I) \).

Architecture. This work relies on pretrained language models such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), and BART (Lewis et al., 2020a). To perform data-to-text generation, we formulate a structured input based on special tokens that are randomly initialized before the fine-tuning. The textual input is the concatenation of each attribute preceded by each corresponding special token (see Figure 3).

To accommodate multimodal training, we fol-
low Xing et al. (2021) in extracting n Regions of Interest (RoIs) (i.e. bounding boxes) of the image using detectron2, a pretrained masked R-CNN (He et al., 2017). Formally, an Image $I$ is chunked by detectron2 into $\{\text{RoI}_1, \text{RoI}_2, \ldots, \text{RoI}_n\}$. We obtained a fixed-size latent representation of each RoI based on intermediate features of detectron2 (ResNet-101 (He et al., 2016)). To align the embedding size with pretrained language models we use a linear layer. Similar to the textual input, we also introduce a special token [IMAGE] that is concatenated at the beginning of the input.

For the target texts, we introduce special tokens [BULLET POINTS] and [DESCRIPTION] as the start token. Specifically, for bullet points, we concatenate all points with token $\langle q \rangle$ as the separator. Finally, for the encoder-decoder, we use BERT-base with raw decoder following (Liu and Lapata, 2019), BART-base, and T5-base, and train the model with standard cross-entropy loss.

5 Experiments

5.1 Set-Up
We experiment in three settings: (1) training with the text input only; (2) training with the image features only; and (3) multimodal training incorporating both text and image features, as depicted in Figure 3. For the text features, we encode the text using the three pretrained LMs of BERT, BART, and T5, while for the other two we only experimented with BART because of its higher performance in the first experiment. For image feature extraction, we experimented with $\{10, 20, 30, 40, 50\}$ RoIs, and tuned based on the development set. We report results of 50 and 20 RoIs for the second and third experiment, respectively.

For TITLE, KEYWORD, and other attributes, we set the maximum token length to 30, 100, and 10 based on the statistics in Table 1. This results in a maximum token length of 220 for the source text (including the special tokens). For the two target texts, we set the maximum token length to 250, and train them separately. Our preliminary experiments show that performing multi-task training (i.e. using both target texts at the same time) performs worse than single-task training.

We use the huggingface PyTorch framework (Wolf et al., 2020) for our experiments with three pretrained language models: BERT-base$^5$ (Devlin et al., 2019), T5-base$^6$ (Raffel et al., 2020), and BART-base$^7$ (Lewis et al., 2020a). All experiments are run on $4 \times V100$ 16GB GPUs.

For the BERT model, we follow Liu and Lapata (2019) in adding a randomly-initialized transformer decoder (layers = 6, hidden size = 768, feed-forward = 2,048, and heads = 8) on top of BERT, and train it for 200K steps. We use the Adam optimizer and learning rate $lr = 2e^{-3} \times \min(\text{step}^{-0.5}, \text{step} \times 20,000^{-1.5})$ and $0.1 \times \min(\text{step}^{-0.5}, \text{step} \times 10,000^{-1.5})$ for BERT and the transformer decoder, respectively. We use a warmup of 20,000, a dropout of 0.2, a batch size total of 200 ($10 \times 4$ GPUs $\times$ gradient accumulation of 5), and save checkpoints every 10,000 steps.

We compute ROUGE scores (R1) to pick the best checkpoint based on the development set.

For T5 and BART, we train them for 30 epochs (around 20K steps) with an initial learning rate of $1e^{-4}$ (Adam optimizer). We use a total batch size of 300 ($15 \times 4$ GPUs $\times$ gradient accumulation of 5), a warmup of 10% of total steps, and save checkpoints for every 1,000 steps. We also compute ROUGE scores (R1) to pick the best checkpoint based on the development set.

5.2 Evaluation
As discussed in Section 3, we use three different test sets: main, Xtreme, and out-of-domain. For automatic evaluation, we use ROUGE-1/2/L (Lin, 2004), BLEU-4 (Papineni et al., 2002), METEOR (Banerjee and Lavie, 2005), and BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2019b). For BERTScore we compute the F1 score using roberta-large (layer 17) as recommended by Zhang et al. (2019b).

For manual evaluation, we first obtain 50 random samples for each of the three test sets, ensuring there is no overlap between the main and Xtreme test sets. We hire four expert workers with Master degree qualifications to annotate four descriptions for each product: (1) gold; (2) BART; (3) BART+image; and (4) image only. The total number of annotations is 2 workers $\times$ 4 models $\times$ 150 samples $\times$ 2 descriptions $= 2,400$ annotations. One worker was asked to work on either bullet points or paragraph descriptions, and was paid $50.

There are five aspects that are manually evaluated by our workers: (1) Fluency: the description is fluent and grammatically correct; (2) At-
tractiveness: the description is interesting and eye-catching; (3) Persuasive words: the description uses persuasive words or phrases; (4) Faithfulness: information in the description is captured by the image and the attributes; and (5) Informativeness: the description is informative and complete relative to the available attributes. Except for the third aspect which is binary (yes/no), we use a slider scale with values between 0–100 for all aspects.

In manual evaluation, workers were presented the product image and list of text attributes with four different descriptions. The four descriptions are shuffled, so the model information of each description is not apparent to the worker. Workers were asked to carefully read each description, and then asked to put the evaluation scores in the available field.

### 5.3 Results

Table 4 shows the experimental results based on the automatic metrics. Overall, we observe similar trends for both **BULLET POINTS** and **PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS**, namely that BART is substantially better than T5 and BERT across the three test sets. Using only image features for generating both ad text types yields a comparable score to T5, but tends to be lower for almost all test sets and metrics. The multimodal training (i.e. “BART+image”) slightly improves BART performance for the main test set, but achieves mixed results for the Xtreme and out-of-domain test sets with both **BULLET POINTS** and **PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS**. We also observe that Xtreme and the out-of-domain test sets are harder, with high performance gaps, relative to the main test set.
## Table 5: The primary experimental results for manual evaluation. Flu., Att., Per., Fa., and Inf. denote Fluency, Attractiveness, Persuasiveness, Faithfulness, and Informativeness, respectively. The presented scores are the average of two annotations. Entries in bold refer to the best overall score (excluding Gold texts).

| Aspects          | BULLET POINTS | DESCRIPTION |
|------------------|---------------|-------------|
| Fluency          | 0.51          | 0.50        |
| Attractiveness   | 0.50          | 0.42        |
| Persuasiveness   | 0.39          | 0.32        |
| Faithfulness     | 0.51          | 0.41        |
| Informativeness  | 0.34          | 0.45        |

For example, in **BULLET POINTS**, ROUGE-1 of BART drops substantially by $-19.1$ and $-41.4$ in the Xtreme and out-of-domain test sets, resp., implying that the model does not generalize well to different test sets.

In Table 6 we show the inter-annotator agreement of manual evaluation in the form of Pearson correlation for fluency, attractiveness, faithfulness, and informativeness; and the Kappa score for persuasiveness. Overall, we found that annotators have moderate correlation and agreement. In Table 5, scores of the Gold text can be interpreted as the upper bound of the manual evaluation. Note that for faithfulness and informativeness, these aspects are only evaluated based on the ten selected attributes.

For the main and Xtreme test sets in Table 5, most models generate fluent, attractive, persuasive, faithful, and informative texts for **BULLET POINTS** and **PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS**, relative to the performance of the gold texts. When using only image features (the “image only” model), the model’s faithfulness and informativeness decrease markedly, indicating the importance of textual attributes for this task. BART and BART+image models yield comparable results with the gold texts, with slightly better faithfulness and informativeness.\(^8\)

For the out-of-domain test set, we observe that the human evaluation performance over the three models (Image only, BART, and BART+image) is generally lower than the gold text. Interestingly, we find that the “image only” model generates fluent and persuasive texts, but with substantially low faithfulness and informativeness. It is also worth mentioning that the BART model’s performance is not as good as for the main test set, which indicates the out-of-domain challenge in applying models in real-world scenarios.

In addition, we calculated the average performance of the manual evaluation, and found that the BART+image model performs best for both target texts. These results are in line with the averaged automatic evaluation scores in Table 4. Based on the manual evaluation results in Table 5, the relatively low faithfulness scores for the gold texts (around 0.5–0.6) suggests that they contain new information that is not found in the input attributes. Although this means the gold texts are not faithful, they are likely to be still factually correct, as they are written by the product sellers (Maynez et al., 2020). Taking the faithfulness scores of the gold texts as the upper bound, we could conclude that the BART models are performing as well as they could (seeing that they are trained on not very faithful target texts in the first place). Ultimately, our results in this task high-

\(^8\)These results are to be expected in the manual evaluation, since both aspects are only examined based on the ten selected attributes.
lighted the fact that our current human faithful-
ness evaluation does not always capture factuality,  
prompting further questions on how we can assess  
this dimension, which we leave for future work.  

Figure 4 depicts some example outputs of  
the BART models for BULLET POINTS and  
PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS. The first exam-
ple shows that the prediction of the BART+image  
model contains better content than the BART text-
only model, with a description of the LCD screen  
and usage examples. Similarly in the second ex-
ample, the BART+image model generates more  
specific content for the t-shirt product by mention-
ing Flag Oklahoma National.

6 Analysis

Which attributes contribute to ad generation?  
To answer this question, we performed an abla-
tion study using the BART models. We de-
code both BULLET POINTS and PARAGRAPH  
DESCRIPTIONS using different numbers of at-
tributes as context, and report the average auto-
matic performance in Table 7.

We observe there are three prominent attri-
tutes for this task — TITLE, BRAND, and  
KEYWORD — for both BULLET POINTS and  
PARAGRAPH DESCRIPTIONS. Interestingly, us-
ing only TITLE can produce 32.98 and 29.93  
average performance, and adding KEYWORD to  
the input boosts performance by 11.05 and  
10.57, for BULLET POINTS and PARAGRAPH  
DESCRIPTIONS, respectively.

7 Discussion and Conclusion

In this work, we described the first attempt at mul-
timodal training for ad generation by incorporating  
image representations and text embeddings as in-
put. We found that multimodal training yields the  
best performance in terms of overall scores in the  
both automatic and manual evaluation. We observe  
that modern pretrained language models can gen-
erate fluent advertisements, but are less faithful and
Can pretrained language models generate persuasive, faithful, and informative ad text for product descriptions? The answer to this question is yes to a certain extent, particularly for in-domain scenarios. And although the BART models have similar human faithfulness performance to the gold texts, we believe that it does not necessarily imply that they are factually correct and further validation is necessary. One way forward may be to allow human judges to have access to some external knowledge (e.g., search engines or product catalogues), which will help them assess the factuality of the generated texts.

Furthermore, since the product descriptions in our e-commerce dataset might introduce new information, retrieval augmented generation (Lewis et al., 2020b; Kim et al., 2020; Shuster et al., 2021) is one potential direction for future work. This is because information on some products is likely to be available on the Internet, and incorporating it into the generation model could potentially improve the resulting ad text.

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