Complementary Auxiliary Classifiers for Label-Conditional Text Generation

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Abstract

Learning to generate text with a given label is a challenging task because natural language sentences are highly variable and ambiguous. It renders difficulties in trade-off between sentence quality and label fidelity. In this paper, we present CARA to alleviate the issue, where two auxiliary classifiers work simultaneously to ensure that (1) the encoder learns disentangled features and (2) the generator produces label-related sentences. Two practical techniques are further proposed to improve the performance, including annealing the learning signal from the auxiliary classifier, and enhancing the encoder with pre-trained language models. To establish a comprehensive benchmark fostering future research, we consider a suite of four datasets, and systematically reproduce three representative methods. CARA shows consistent improvement over the previous methods on the task of label-conditional text generation, and achieves state-of-the-art on the task of attribute transfer.

Introduction

Text generation is an important challenge in natural language processing (NLP). Most previous research in this area has focused on unsupervised text generation (Bengio et al. 2003; Mikolov et al. 2010), and success has been achieved recently, such as pre-trained generative training (Radford et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2019). However, these setups measure the ability of models to generate the coherent content of a sentence, but do not address more natural human communication in a given context. For example, generating more engaging conversations requires conditioning on personality in image captioning and dialogue systems. Synthesis of coherent sentences requires conditioning on a given topic/sentiment. These setups can be formulated as label-conditional text generation.

Several attempts have been made to solve this problem. Most are based on deep latent variable models (LVMs), such as variational autoencoders (VAE) (Kingma and Welling 2013) and their conditional variants (Hu et al. 2017). One attractive property of these models is that they map sentences to global language features in a latent space, and allow manipulation of generated sentences with a specific tense, sentiment or topic.

One prominent challenge for LVMs is to learn smooth and disentangled latent representations, such that generation from this space results in realistic sentences and can be effectively controlled in the category it belongs to during conditional decoding. Hu et al. (Hu et al. 2017) proposed Ctrl-Gen, which uses a VAE to represent sentences as smooth Gaussian distributions, regularized towards a standard normal prior distribution in the latent space. However, VAE-based methods (Kingma and Welling 2013) are difficult to train due to the notorious posterior collapse and KL vanishing (Bowman et al. 2015). To solve this problem, ARAE (Zhao et al. 2017) uses adversarial learning to construct a flexible prior distribution. It further proposes an auxiliary classifier in the latent space to disentangle the learned latent feature from the conditional labels.

In this paper we re-examine the relationship between disentangled feature learning and label-conditional generation, and show that the former does not necessarily lead to the latter. We term this issue as a non-identifiability issue. This is manifested when the generator is able to resemble training samples perfectly but degenerates to ignoring conditional label and solely relying on the latent code, even though the encoder learns label-agnostic representations.

To solve this issue, we propose Complementary Auxiliary classifier Regularized Auto-encoder (CARA), where there are two classifiers to predict labels: a classifier in the latent space is used for disentangling feature learning as in ARAE, and a complementary classifier in the observation space is proposed to encourage the generator to contain the conditional label. We prove that the proposed complementary auxiliary classifiers introduce a cycle-consistency loss for conditional labels, leading to maximizing the mutual information between generated sentences and their corresponding labels. Further, we explore the trade-off between generation quality and label-conditional accuracy, and propose two practical techniques for improving overall performance: (i) an annealing training schedule for the proposed complementary auxiliary classifier to gradually incorporate...
Preliminaries
Consider a training set $S = \{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^{N}$ of pairwise data, where $x_n = [x_{n,1}, x_{n,2}, ..., x_{n,T_n}]$ is a text sequence of length $T_n$, and $y_n \in \mathcal{Y}$ is its corresponding label/attribute/class. The goal of conditional text generation is to generate a new $x$ for a given $y$. Due to the diversity of natural language, a latent code $z$ is introduced to characterize diverse information associated with $y$, required to generate faithful and variable $x$. Typically, $z$ is drawn from an easily-sampled prior distribution $p(z)$, such as Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(0, I)$.

Given $z$ and $y$, the sampling procedure for the conditional $p_G(x|z, y) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} p_G(x_t|x_{<t}, z, y)$ is performed in a sequential manner, and an auto-regressive generator model $G$ is used to generate $x_t$ at every time step:

$$x_t = G(x_{<t}, z, y), \quad (1)$$

where $x_{<t}$ indicates all tokens before $t$. The synthesis of a given sentence continues until the end-of-sentence symbol is manifested.

Auto-encoder for Conditional Text Generation
The generator $G$ is typically learned by maximizing the marginal log likelihood $\log p_G(x) = \log \int p_G(x|z, y)p(z)p(y)dzdy$, where $p(y)$ is the label distribution. However, the marginalizing integral wrt $z$ is intractable to compute for many generator choices. Thus, variational inference is considered, and the true posterior $p_G(z|x) \propto p_G(z|x)p(z)$ is approximated via the variational distribution $q_E(z|x)$, implemented via an encoder:

$$z = E(x, \varsigma), \quad \varsigma \sim q_0(\varsigma) \quad (2)$$

where $q_0(\varsigma)$ is a noise distribution. The observed sentence $x$ can be represented using $\tilde{z} \sim q_E(z|x)$, and reconstructed as $\hat{x} \sim p_G(x|\tilde{z}, y)$, where $y$ is the corresponding label of $x$. A reconstruction loss is applied to the generated sentence and observation:

$$\min_{E,G} \mathcal{L}_{rec} = -\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{z} \sim q_E(z|x), y \sim p(y)}[\log p_G(x|\tilde{z}, y)]. \quad (3)$$

There are challenges in optimizing the auto-encoder objective in (3) for conditional text generation.

- **Smoothness**: The learned latent code $z$ should be a smooth distribution such that samples or interposition of samples from it can lead to plausible sentence generation. This problem is inherited from using an auto-encoder for generic sentence generation.

- **Disentanglement**: For better control of attributes, $z$ and $y$ are desired to be disentangled, where the features encoded in each variable are exclusive of each other. Independence constraints are applied on these two variables in prior work, such as reconstruction of $z$ through an encoder (Hu et al. 2017) and using a latent space discriminator to enforce $z$ to be independent from $y$ (Zhao et al. 2017).

Adversarily Regularized Auto-Encoders
Various techniques have been proposed to learn smooth and disentangled latent representations (Higgins et al. 2017; Alemi et al. 2017; Fu et al. 2019). In the context of conditional text generation, adversarially regularized auto-encoders (ARAEs) (Zhao, Zhao, and Eskenazi 2017) have been introduced. Learning ARAEs can be viewed as proceeding in two alternating steps, including disentangled feature learning and adversarial feature generation.

In the first step, in addition to the reconstruction objective in (3), the inferred $z$ is trained to only contain information exclusive of $y$. This disentanglement objective is achieved using an auxiliary classifier $C(z)$:

$$\min_{E} \max_{C} \mathcal{L}_{\text{disentangle}} = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q_E(z|x)}[\log p_C(y|z)], \quad (4)$$

where the classifier $C$ is learned to categorize $z$ into its corresponding labels, while $E$ is forced to infer $z$ to fake the classifier $C$. Ideally, at convergence, one cannot predict $y$ using $z$, and thus $(y, z)$ are disentangled.

In the second step, we learn a prior using a neural sampler $z = S(\epsilon)$ to replace the fixed prior, where $\epsilon \sim p_0(\epsilon)$ is an auxiliary distribution that one may easily draw samples from. The neural sampler is trained to generate features, to match the distribution $q(z)$ learned in the first step.

A discriminator $D(z)$ is introduced to distinguish the domain of $z$, with $d = 1$ indicating $z$ comes from $E(x)$ and $d = 0$ indicating $z$ comes from $S(\epsilon)$. The min-max objective in the latent space can be written as:

$$\min_{E,S} \max_{D} \mathcal{L}_{\text{adversarial}} = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[\log p_D(d = 1|E(x))] + \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon \sim p_0(\epsilon)}[\log p_D(d = 0|S(\epsilon))]. \quad (5)$$

where $p(x)$ is data distribution. When the optimum is achieved, the generated feature distribution $\pi(z)$ induced by $z = S(\epsilon)$ can match the disentangled distribution $q_E(z) = \int q_E(z|x)q(x)dx$.

The two steps are updated iteratively. Since (4) in the first step ensures the disentangled representation of $q(z)$ wrt to $p(y)$, and (5) in the second step ensures the marginal distribution matches $\pi(z) = q(z)$, the two steps together can guarantee that the generated features $\pi(z)$ from the neural sampler $S$ can characterize the disentangled representation wrt to $p(y)$ at its optimum.

The full objective of ARAEs for the encoder $E$ and generator $G$ is:

$$\min_{E,G} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ARA}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{rec}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{disentangle}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{adversarial}} \quad (6)$$

We see that ARAE can be viewed as regularizing the basic auto-encoder objective in (3) with a disentanglement term and an adversarial term.
This means that can be perfectly reconstructed; and trained to satisfy two objectives: in the tangled feature learning stage of ARAE, the encoder latent code is unique in the latent space, so that the original can be perfectly reconstructed, and the disentanglement encourages disentanglement of latent features and attributes during encoding, and thus improving control and manipulation of attributes during conditional generation performed by generator \( G \).

Advantages of ARAEs ARAE has the following characteristics: (i) it provides a smooth latent space for discrete sequences, with a flexible learned prior. Compared to variational auto-encoder (VAE)-based methods (Kingma and Welling 2013), ARAE does not suffer from KL vanishing or posterior collapse (Bowman et al. 2015; Kingma and Welling 2013; Chen et al. 2016) caused by using KL-divergence with a fixed prior as regularization in the latent space. (ii) the classifier \( C \) applied in the latent space explicitly constrains the encoder \( E \) to only record attribute-independent features, encouraging disentanglement of latent features and attributes during encoding, and thus improving control and manipulation of attributes during conditional generation performed by generator \( G \).

Complementary Auxiliary Classifiers

Pitfalls of ARAEs In ARAE the generator \( G \) learns to generate text \( x \) from a joint distribution constructed by the latent code \( z \) and the label condition \( y \). During the disentangled feature learning stage of ARAE, the encoder \( E \) is trained to satisfy two objectives:

\[
\min_E \mathcal{L}_{\text{rec}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{disentangle}} \tag{7}
\]

This means that (i) the reconstruction \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{rec}} \) in (3) encourages \( z \) to be unique in the latent space, so that the original \( x \) can be perfectly reconstructed; and (ii) the disentanglement \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{disentangle}} \) in (4) encourages \( z \) to be disentangled from \( y \), thus \( z \) becomes the only source to control the label of the generated sentences. However, we argue that it is challenging for the encoder \( E \) to produce \( z \) that simultaneously satisfies both objectives, and generator \( G \) to only rely on \( z \) (ignore the dependence of \( y \)) during generation.

Issues on Disentanglement vs Controllable Generation The above implies that disentanglement does not necessarily lead to controllable generation. We call this phenomenon the non-identifiability issue in disentangled feature learning. This problem occurs only under the assumption that training samples are non-parallel, where there is no sentence pair that has the same content but the opposite labels. This is common in many cases, such as text style transfer and conditional generation with non-parallel data.

We construct an example in Figure 1 to explain this further, where the dataset only contains two sentence samples \( S_1 = \{(x_1, y=1), (x_2, y=0)\} \). Here the conditioning information \( y \) is the sentiment, and the auxiliary classifier \( C \) learns to categorize “good” into \( y=1 \) and “bad” into \( y=0 \). We show three possible solution candidates. First, the disentanglement objective encourages the encoder to learn to summarize label-agnostic information, such as “The pizza tasted” and “The sushi tasted” into \( z \), which is independent from the label-related information such as “good” and “bad”. Therefore, Solutions A and B are valid, and Solution C is invalid to the disentanglement objective. Further, it can be shown that both Solutions A and B satisfy the reconstruction objective, as the the joint \( \{z, y\} \) is unique enough to identify its corresponding \( x \). If Solution A is chosen, the model can perfectly generate \( S_1 \) using \( p_G(x|z) \), rather than \( p_G(x|z, y) \).

Ideally, the generator is expected to synthesize sentences successfully conditioned on any combination of label-agnostic and label-related information, by training with the objectives in (6). However, as the dataset is non-parallel, the model only sees a limited combination of label-agnostic and label-related information. For example, in the illustrative dataset, the model is only able to see pairs of “pizza, good” and “sushi, bad”, instead of a full set of pairs (e.g., “pizza, good”, “pizza, bad”, “sushi, good” and “sushi, bad”). Thus, by only relying on one source such as “pizza/ sushi” or “good/bad”, the generator is able to perfectly reconstruct all training sentences. In this case, the generator may learn a degenerated distribution \( p_G(x|z) \) or \( p_G(x|y) \) instead of \( p_G(x|z, y) \), depending on which source is dominant in the dataset.

Proposed Method: CARA

To solve this issue, we propose Complementary Auxiliary classifier Regularized Auto-encoder (CARA). It enhances ARAE with an additional auxiliary classifier for the generated sentences. Specifically, during training, the generator synthesizes a sentence \( \hat{x} \) conditioned on a latent code \( z \) and a sampled conditional label \( y \), which is then fed to a classifier. The generator is optimized to minimize the classification loss of the classifier corresponding to the conditioned label. Let \( C_{\text{MI}} \) denote the classifier in the output space. The formulation can be written as:

\[
\max_{E,G,C_{\text{MI}}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{MI}} = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q_E(z|x), y \sim p(y), x \sim p_G(z, y)} \log p_{C_{\text{MI}}}(y|x) \tag{8}
\]

The full model architecture of CARA is illustrated in Figure 2. Since the output of the generator is discrete, this complicates loss back-propagation from the classifier in the output space. We therefore follow (Hu et al. 2017), adopting the Gumbel Softmax distribution for continuous approximation of discrete output. Note that the idea of introducing the additional auxiliary classifier has been studied in TAC-GAN (Gong et al. 2019). The motivations are different: the
Note that the proposed CARA model has two classifiers, \( C \) and \( C_{\text{MI}} \), to predict labels. Classifier \( C \) operates in the latent space, and the encoder is trained to maximize the classification loss so that disentangled features can be learned. The other classifier \( C_{\text{MI}} \) is in the observation space, and the generator is trained to minimize the classification loss so that the generated sentences can be controlled. As such, the two auxiliary classifiers are complementary: \( C_{\text{MI}} \) helps reduce the non-identifiability issue that \( C \) causes, and \( C \) disentangles \( z \) and \( y \) so that \( C_{\text{MI}} \) can effectively constitute a cycle-consistency term to maximize the mutual information.

**Trade-off Between Generation Quality and Conditional Accuracy**

Though CARA can generate more controllable sentences, due to the proposed auxiliary classifier \( C_{\text{MI}} \), it introduces an additional issue on how to tune \( \lambda \) to balance sentence quality (e.g., coherence and faithful linguistic meaning) and label-conditional accuracy (e.g., reflecting the category it belongs), as discussed by (Pang and Gimpel 2018; Li et al. 2019). When \( \lambda \) is small, the label-agnostic information may dominate, as \( p_C(x|z, y) \) tends to degenerate to \( p_C(x|z) \). Example scenarios include text style transfer where only few sentiment-connected words (e.g., “like”, “hate”, “good” and “bad”) in a sentence can indicate sentiment, or topic transfer where the number of topical words (e.g., “philosophy”, “finance” and “sports”) in a sentence (e.g., “I just watched a video about how to play tennis this morning.”) can be few. The result is that the model can perfectly resemble the training sentences, but fail to change the conditional category when given different conditional labels. When \( \lambda \) is large, the label information can dominate, and \( p_C(x|z, y) \) tends to degenerate to \( p_C(x|y) \). The model learns to output label-related sentences but sacrifices sentence quality (e.g., “I like like like” and “It is bad, bad, bad”). We propose two practical techniques to alleviate this issue.

**Annealing Training Schedule**

We first consider an annealing training schedule on \( \lambda \) to gradually incorporate \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{MI}} \) into training without greatly changing the learning from \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{rec}} \). Formally, \( \lambda \) has the form:

\[
\lambda_t = \begin{cases} 
    f(t/T), & \text{if } 
    t/T \leq R \\
    \lambda_{\text{max}}, & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases}
\]

(12)

where \( t \) is the iteration step, \( T \) is the total number of iterations, and \( f \) is a monotonically increasing function. There are two hyper-parameters:

- \( R \): the proportion of total iterations used for increasing \( \lambda \) to a plateau.
- \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \): the maximum value \( \lambda \) can reach.

\( f \) monotonically increases \( \lambda \) from 0 to \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) using \( R \) portion of \( T \) iterations.

**BERT as a Strong Encoder**

We consider to improve the encoder for stronger sentence representation \( z \). Recently, models that are pre-trained with large-scale text data have been shown to provide superior generalization capability when fine-tuned for various language-understanding
tasks (Devlin et al. 2018; Radford et al. 2018; 2019). It has been shown in (Subramanian et al. 2018) that general purpose encoders help text generation. In this paper, we consider BERT (Devlin et al. 2018) as our encoder to provide more generalizable sentence representations, so as to balance model learning from different losses and make training more stable.

**Related Work**

**Difference with Attribute Transfer**

This paper focuses on label-conditional text generation, where \( z \) is drawn from a latent distribution, allowing generation of diverse sentences. This task is different from attribute transfer, where \( z \) is extracted from a given sentence and fixed during sentence generation. Therefore, label-conditional text generation requires learning a smooth latent space such that sampling from this space leads to faithful linguistic sentences. Many methods for attribute transfer treat the problem as sequence-to-sequence translation, and source sentences must be provided in order to transfer labels in target sentences (Li et al. 2018; Xu et al. 2018; Zhang, Ding, and Soricut 2018). Such methods are not able to conduct label-conditional generation due to the lack of a smooth space to draw samples from. In contrast, the proposed CARA can be used for both label-conditional generation and style transfer tasks.

**Differences from Prior Work**

The most related work with ours is Ctrl-Gen (Hu et al. 2017), ARAE (Zhao et al. 2017) and NN-Outlines (Subramanian et al. 2018). In Ctrl-Gen, a label classifier is also incorporated in the observation space. However, our model learns a smoother latent space, via adversarial learning, and a more effective disentanglement constraint is enforced by the auxiliary classifier in the latent space. It is noted that ARAE adopts separate generators for each conditional label, and train them only with samples within the corresponding category. This aims to implicitly alleviate the non-identifiability issue, but sacrifices performance as each generator is trained with less samples. It is also inherently impractical when the number of labels increases. On the contrary, CARA does not suffer from either performance degrading due to less samples or excessive parameters. NN-Outlines used a pre-trained general purpose sentence encoder for providing black-box high-level “outlines”, and an generative adversarial network in the latent space to match the distribution of the latent representations induced by the encoder. Compared to CARA, NN-Outlines does not have any disentanglement constraints, or additional label control supervision signals.

**Experiments**

Code and experiment setup is available at Github \(^1\).

**Experimental Setting**

**Datasets** Since label-conditional text generation is less comprehensively studied, we consider a suite of four datasets to study this problem, as summarized in Table 1.

- **Personality captioning** (Shuster et al. 2019) was proposed for engaging image captioning via personality. Each image contains captions with one designated personality. We choose captions from 3 distinctive personalities: happy, angry and malicious.

- **Style captioning** We adapt the style-based image captioning dataset in (Gan et al. 2017) to construct the style-based caption generation task. Three different styles are considered: humorous, romantic and factual.

- **Topic-based question generation** We choose three categories from the Yahoo dataset (Zhang, Zhao, and LeCun 2015): Society & Culture, Business & Finance, and Family & Relationships. We follow (Zhao et al. 2017) to only generate questions.

**Evaluation** We consider three metrics: (1) **BLEU** for sentence quality, (2) **Accuracy** for conditional generation capability. The accuracy is assessed by an oracle classifier to correctly predict the attributes that generated sentences are conditioned on. (3) **G-score** is reported as the geometric mean of Accuracy and BLEU (Xu et al. 2018). This is the most important metric, as it evaluates the overall performance.

We consider two settings: (i) **Conditional generation.** \( z \) is generated by the neural sampler \( S \) and \( y \) is uniformly sampled, \( (z, y) \) is used for generation. BLEU of each generated sentence is computed by comparing with all sentences in the test set, as there are no source sentences. We further report Self-BLEU (Zhu et al. 2018) to evaluate the diversity of generated sentences. (ii) **Attribute transfer.** \( z \) of a sentence is extracted by encoder \( E \). It is combined with a different label for transfer generation. In this setting, we follow common practice to incorporate the generator an attention mechanism to attend encoded features of source sentences. BLEU of each transferred sentence is computed by comparing with its source sentence.

**Baselines** We compare with three baselines: (1) **Ctrl-Gen** (Hu et al. 2017); (2) **ARAE** (Zhao et al. 2017), and a version without using separate generators (ARAE-); and (3) **NN-Outlines** (Subramanian et al. 2018) proposes the use of pre-trained general purpose sentence encoder for providing labels conditioned on. (3) **Yelp Questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Train</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personality Captioning</td>
<td>Happy</td>
<td>864</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Angry</td>
<td>868</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malicious</td>
<td>872</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Style Captioning</td>
<td>Humorous</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Romantic</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factual</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo Questions</td>
<td>Science &amp; Math</td>
<td>126K</td>
<td>14K</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entertainment &amp; Music</td>
<td>126K</td>
<td>14K</td>
<td>600</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Politics &amp; Government</td>
<td>126K</td>
<td>14K</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yelp</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>270K</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>180K</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Dataset statistics

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\(^1\)https://github.com/s1155026040/CARA
of a general purpose encoder for text generation, and we implement it using BERT.

We consider three variants of CARA:

- **CARA**: the basic model;
- **CARA\_A**: CARA with annealing training scheme;
- **CARA\_AB**: CARA with annealing and BERT encoder.

We provide training details in the Appendix.

### Results & Analysis

Results of the four datasets are shown in Tables 2, 3, 4 and 5, respectively. We aim to answer the following questions.

**Effectiveness of C\(^{\text{MI}}\) schedule** Figure 3 compares the constant and annealing schedules for \(\lambda\). The two schedules with various configurations are performed, and each dot represents the result for each configuration. The constant schedule has difficulties balancing BLEU and Accuracy, while the annealing schedule can help balance the two metrics, as demonstrated by the a large number of dots positioned closer to the diagonal line.

**Effectiveness of BERT** The incorporation of BERT yields consistent improvement for both conditional generation and attribute transfer. Note that the intra-class diversity of Personality and Style captioning datasets are quite high. Most models without BERT show low diversity on these two challenging datasets. By incorporating BERT as a strong encoder, the collapse is not observed in CARA\_AB, demonstrating that a strong universal encoder provides more meaningful latent codes for the generator to rely on in decoding.

**Attribute Transfer** As CARA can be applied to the attribute transfer task, we further compare it with models specifically designed for this task. On the Yelp dataset, we compare with additional previous methods, including CrossAlign (Shen et al. 2017), MultiDecoder (Fu et al. 2018), DeleteAndRetrieve (Li et al. 2018), StyleTransformer (Dai et al. 2019), Back-Translation (Prabhumoye et al. 2018), and iVAEMI (Le Fang 2019). Due to limited space, we provide a comparison with more methods in the Appendix.

**Conditional Text Generation** The proposed CARA\_AB consistently achieves the best G-score for all datasets, except Personality captioning. It indicates that CARA is a strong competitor for controllable sentence generation. Meanwhile, the lower Self-BLEU scores of CARA shows that the generated sentence samples of CARA are diverse. On two large-scale datasets, Yahoo and Yelp, CARA provides consistent improvement. ARAE achieves similar overall performance as ARAE\_-, while CARA improves ARAE\_-. This verifies our
Table 4: Topic-based question generation results on Yahoo dataset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Conditional Generation</th>
<th>Attribute Transfer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACC↑</td>
<td>BLEU↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl-Gen</td>
<td>60.47</td>
<td>21.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARAE</td>
<td>50.05</td>
<td>22.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARAE-</td>
<td>46.79</td>
<td>23.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NN-Outlines</td>
<td>38.81</td>
<td>19.90</td>
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<tr>
<td>CARA</td>
<td>63.67</td>
<td>25.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARA_A</td>
<td>67.55</td>
<td>25.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARA_AB</td>
<td>69.67</td>
<td>30.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Sentiment transfer results on Yelp dataset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business &amp; Finance</th>
<th>Conditional Generation</th>
<th>Attribute Transfer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARAE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where was the most emst adie place you apply as?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you need a flat right now?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the law was a parent’s length at their child’s pepmed?</td>
<td>96.72</td>
<td>20.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARA_AB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing what the effect of ads are on people , why do we allow ads showing beautiful people.</td>
<td>60.07</td>
<td>27.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where is the best place to look for a grant for a nonprofit soccer club?</td>
<td>55.31</td>
<td>19.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family &amp; Relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARAE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the conversion of irish money to american money?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARA_AB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing what the effect of ads are on people , why do we allow ads showing beautiful people.</td>
<td>91.45</td>
<td>30.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where is the best place to look for a grant for a nonprofit soccer club?</td>
<td>91.49</td>
<td>32.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARA_AB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why does a cheating man act like he is not cheating if he isn’t interested in his</td>
<td>94.90</td>
<td>37.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Qualitative results of conditional generation in topic-based question generation. Sentences in Italic form indicate their demonstrated categories do not match with their conditioned labels.

Assumption that ARAE’s solution for alleviating the non-identifiability is less effective than CARA, and sacrifices sentence quality due to less training samples for each generator.

Generated Samples In Table 6, we show the samples for conditional generation. The sentences generated by ARAE may lose its label information, while CARA shows strong dependence on the labels. Please see more results on label-conditional generation and attribute transfer in Appendix.

Conclusions

We have described CARA for label-conditional text generation. CARA utilizes one auxiliary classifier for disentangled feature learning in the latent space, and the other auxiliary classifier for more accurate label-conditioning on the generated sentences. An annealing training schedule and adopting BERT as a strong encoder further improve CARA’s performance. Experiments on four datasets consistently show that CARA achieves both improved natural sentences generation and accurate label transfer.
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