COD3s: Diverse Generation with Discrete Semantic Signatures

Nathaniel Weir¹, João Sedoc² and Benjamin Van Durme¹

¹Department of Computer Science, Johns Hopkins University
²Department of Technology, Operations, and Statistics, New York University
{nweir, vandurme}@jhu.edu, jsedoc@stern.nyu.edu

Abstract

We present COD3s, a novel method for generating semantically diverse sentences using neural sequence-to-sequence (seq2seq) models. Conditioned on an input, seq2seq models typically produce semantically and syntactically homogeneous sets of sentences and thus perform poorly on one-to-many sequence generation tasks. Our two-stage approach improves output diversity by conditioning generation on locality-sensitive hash (LSH)-based semantic sentence codes whose Hamming distances highly correlate with human judgments of semantic textual similarity. Though it is generally applicable, we apply COD3s to causal generation, the task of predicting a proposition's plausible causes or effects. We demonstrate through automatic and human evaluation that responses produced using our method exhibit improved diversity without degrading task performance.

1 Introduction

Open-ended sequence generation problems such as dialog, story generation, image captioning, or causal generation pose a practical challenge to neural sequence-to-sequence (seq2seq) models, as they necessitate a diverse set of predicted outputs. The typical sampling method for seq2seq decoding is beam search, which produces a set of candidate sequences that generally have high syntactic, lexical, and semantic overlap.

Recent methods for improved diversity generation make slight modifications to the neural architecture or beam search algorithm (Xu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016b), or impose lexical constraints during decoding (Post and Vilar, 2018; Hu et al., 2019a). Shu et al. (2019) propose the use of *sentence codes*, a technique in which generation is conditioned on a discrete code that aims to induce diversity in syntax or semantics. While their approach is effective for syntactic codes, it is less so for semantics.

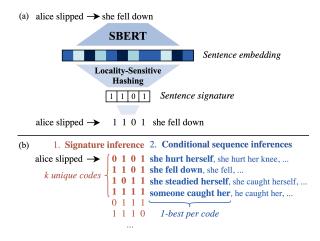


Figure 1: Overview of the COD3s method. In training (a), the target side is prefixed with a discrete signature computed using locality-sensitive hashing (LSH) of the target's SBERT embedding. At inference (b), a beam search is conditioned on each of k decoded signatures.

In this work, we introduce an improved method for diverse generation conditioned on inferred sentence codes that explicitly capture meaningful semantic differences. We use the contextual sentence embeddings from Sentence-BERT (SBERT; Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), the cosine distances between which correlate highly with human scalar judgments of semantic textual similarity (STS). We construct discrete codes from these embeddings using *locality-sensitive hashing* (Indyk and Motwani, 1998; Charikar, 2002), producing short binary signatures whose Hamming distances well-preserves the cosine distances between inputs.

Our method induces a bitwise hierarchy of semantic bins whose similarities in signature imply similarities in semantics. Conditioning generation on a signature as a target-side prefix indicates the bin into which the generated sequence falls. We implement a two-stage decoding process that (1) infers the most relevant signatures and (2) decodes sequences via separate prefix-conditioned beams. We term our method COD3s: **CO**nstrained **D**ecoding with **S**emantic **S**entence **S**ignatures.

We demonstrate the effectiveness of COD3s in the context of causal sequence generation (Li et al., 2020) through BLEU- and cosine-based diversity measures as well as human evaluation.

2 Related Work

We draw inspiration from recent work in multilingual machine translation (MT) (Ha et al., 2016) and domain adaptation (Chu and Dabre, 2019) in which a language code (e.g. en, de) is prepended to the target to guide generation. Our method for encoding sentence diversity is closely related to MT work by Shu et al. (2019), who condition generation on prefixed sentence codes. They improve the syntactic diversity of sampled translations using codes produced from improved semantic hashing (Kaiser and Bengio, 2018) with a TreeLSTMbased autoencoder. Their experiments with semantic coding via clustering of BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) and FastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017) embeddings lead to negligible or negative effects. Outside of MT, Keskar et al. (2019) in a similar vein condition on manually categorized "control codes" that specify style and content, and Mallinson and Lapata (2019) condition on annotated syntactic or lexical change markers that can be learnt from data. We refer readers to Ippolito et al. (2019) for an overview of diverse decoding methods. Few to our knowledge explicitly and effectively encode open-domain semantic diversity.

Text-based causal knowledge acquisition is a well-studied challenge in NLP (Radinsky et al., 2012). Recent efforts have investigated *open ended* causal generation using neural models (Bosselut et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). The latter train a conditional generation model to propose cause or effect statements for a given proposition. The model is trained on the co-released corpus CausalBank, which comprises causal statements harvested from English Common Crawl (Buck et al., 2014).

Applications of LSH (Indyk and Motwani, 1998; Charikar, 2002) in NLP began with Ravichandran et al. (2005) who demonstrated its use in fast lexical similarity comparison; later, Van Durme and Lall (2010) showed such hashing could be performed online. More similar to our use case, Petrović et al. (2010) binned tweets via LSH to enable fast *first story detection*. Most related to ours is work by Guu et al. (2018), who describe a generative sentence model that edits a 'prototype' sentence using lexically similar ones retrieved via LSH.

3 COD3s Approach

Our signature construction method, depicted in Figure 1(a), produces a sequence of bits that collectively imply a highly specific bin of sentences with similar semantic meaning. This is accomplished by encoding sentences into high-dimensional vectors that encode degrees of semantic difference and then discretizing the vectors in a way that approximately preserves the difference.

Semantic Embedding Model We embed a sentence using the contextual encoder Sentence-BERT (SBERT; Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), a siamese network trained to produce embeddings whose cosine similarity approximates the semantic textual similarity (STS) of the underlying sentences. We select this *single sentence* encoder over other popular encoders, e.g. BERT, which best encode concatenations of pairs of sentences and therefore do not produce individual embeddings that encode semantic difference retrievable under vector similarity metrics (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019; Shu et al., 2019). The cosine similarity of embeddings from SRoBERTa-L, the instance of SBERT that we use as our COD3s encoder, has a Spearman p correlation of .863 with human STS judgements from STSbenchmark (Cer et al., 2017). We provide a list of cosine/STS correlations using other models in Appendix E.²

Discretization via LSH Locality-sensitive hashing (LSH; Indyk and Motwani, 1998) maps high-dimensional vectors into low-dimensional sketches for quick and accurate similarity comparison under measures such as cosine or Euclidean distance. We use the popular variant by Charikar (2002), which computes a discrete b-bit signature LSH(\vec{v}) = [LSH₁(\vec{v}),...LSH_b(\vec{v})]. Appendix A provides an overview of this approach. The Hamming distance between two LSH signatures approximates the cosine distance of the underlying vectors:

$$\cos(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{|\vec{u}||\vec{v}|} \approx \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{b} \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{1} \left\{ \text{LSH}_i(\vec{u}) \neq \text{LSH}_i(\vec{v}) \right\} \right)$$

This approximation degrades with coarser-grained signatures, as shown by the drop in STS correlation in Table 1 (right columns) for LSH with fewer bits.

¹We use the released SRoBERTa instance that was fine-tuned on natural language inference (NLI) and then STS.

²We refer readers to Reimers and Gurevych (2019) (Sec.4) for a comprehensive overview using other STS datasets.

	Cosine	b-Bi	t LSH F	Iammir	ng Dista	nce
	1024D	256b	128b	32b	16b	8b
STS p	.863	.845	.828	.742	.652	.549

Table 1: Correlation of SRoBERTa-L embedding cosine distance and LSH Hamming distance with STS judgements from STSBenchmark.

A Hierarchy of Signatures Using LSH on SBERT embeddings whose cosine similarity correlates highly with STS induces a hierarchy of semantic bins; the i+1th bit partitions each of a set of *i*-bit bins in two. Bins whose signatures differ by few bits have higher semantic overlap, and as the bitwise distance between two signatures increases, so does the difference in meaning of the underlying sentences. Sentences that hash to the same bin—particularly for longer signatures—have very high SBERT cosine similarity and are thus likely semantically homogeneous.

Diverse Decoding Using Signatures Given source and target sentences x, y, we compute the b-bit signature $s^y = LSH(SBERT(y))$. We then train a model to decode the concatenated sequence $[s^y y]$, with the sy treated as a b-length sequence of individual 0/1 tokens. At inference time, we decompose the typical conditional decision problem $\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_{y} \{ \log p(y \mid x) \}$ into two steps:

$$\hat{s} = \underset{s}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{ \log p(s \mid x) \}; \ \hat{y} = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{ \log p(y \mid x, \hat{s}) \}$$

As previous work associates the strength of a causal relationship with pointwise mutual information (PMI) (Gordon et al., 2012), we modify our objective to maximize the MI between x and each of s and y; we adapt the **MMI-bidi** objective from Li et al. (2016a):

$$\hat{s} = argmax\{\log p(s \mid x) + \lambda_s \log p(x \mid s)\}$$
 (1)

$$\hat{s} = \underset{s}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{ \log p(s \mid x) + \lambda_s \log p(x \mid s) \}$$
 (1)

$$\hat{y} = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{ \log p(y \mid x, \hat{s}) + \lambda_y \log p(x \mid y) \}$$
 (2)

As shown in Figure 1(b), we first decode the k-best distinct sentence codes $\hat{s}_1, \dots \hat{s}_k$ as in Eq. 1. We then perform k conditional inferences in Eq. 2; we take the 1-best sentence from each to produce $\hat{y}_1, \dots \hat{y}_k$. For both signature and sentence decoding, we follow Li et al. and sample an *n*-best list from the forward score $\log p(s \mid x)$ (resp. $\log p(y \mid x, \hat{s})$) before re-ranking with the added λ -weighted backward score.³ We approximate the forward scores using length-normalized beam search with beam size 100 for signatures and 40 for sentences. While $\log p(s \mid x)$ and $\log p(y \mid x, s)$ can be scored using a single forward model, we find it beneficial to train two, so that the first only learns to score signatures.

Hamming Distance Threshold As sentences whose signatures differ by few bits show to have highly similar semantics, we impose a threshold heuristic for decoded signatures $\hat{s}_1, \dots, \hat{s}_k$: $\min_{i \neq j} D(\hat{s}_i, \hat{s}_j) > t$, where $D(\cdot)$ is Hamming distance.⁴ We enforce this using a greedy algorithm that considers higher-scoring signatures first, keeping those that satisfy the threshold given the currently kept set and removing those that violate it.

Taken as a whole, our decoding approach aims to generate the single highest-scoring applicable response that falls in each of the N-best inferred sufficiently different semantic bins. The threshold parameter thus provides a way to effectively tune the model to a desired level of semantic diversity.

Experiments

We apply COD3s to the task of open-ended causal generation for free-form textual inputs as considered by Li et al. (2020). Given an input statement, the model must suggest a diverse set of possible causes or effects. We train models on sentence pairs from Li et al.'s released dataset, CausalBank, which is scraped from Common Crawl using templatic causal patterns. Following their work, we use 10 million sentence pairs that match the patterns "X, so Y" to train cause-to-effect models and "X because Y" for effect-to-cause models.

We experiment with 16-bit LSH signatures of SBERT embeddings.⁵ After prepending targetside bit signatures, pairs are encoded with bytepair encoding (BPE; Sennrich et al., 2016) using a vocabulary size of 10K. We train Transformer models (Vaswani et al., 2017) using the FAIRSEQ library (Ott et al., 2019). Appendix B provides details for reproducibility.⁶

Evaluation We show that COD3s induces sensible inference of diverse but relevant semantic bins and causal statements. Examples of generation are shown in Table 3 and additionally Appendix C. We quantitatively compare COD3s against the out-

³We find effective values $\lambda_s = 1000, \lambda_v = 0.3$ for 16-bit COD3s using qualitative examination of predictions.

⁴We find the threshold t = 2 best for 16-bit COD3s.

⁵Statistics describing the distribution of the 10M training targets into signature bins are given in Appendix E.

⁶Our code and pretrained models are available at https:// github.com/nweir127/COD3S

COPA 3-Sets	C – BL-1 / B	. —	B BL	$ extbf{E} ightarrow extbf{F}$ -1 / BL	C -2 / SB
Baselines					
S2S	50.9 / 61	.2 / .397	58.	1/71.4	1 / .464
S2S + Sigs	46.7 / 58	.5 / .323	50.	7 / 65.3	3 / .326
Other Decoding M	ethods				
DPC (Li et al.)	49.2 / 58	.1 / .389	57.	4 / 67.0) / .425
S2S-RS (Li et al.)	78.2 / 90	.3 / .635	75.	4 / 89.7	/ .632
S2S-RS	83.6 / 95	.7 / .735	78.	5 / 91.3	3 / .639
Two-Step COD3s In	nferences				
Sig Sent					
Beam Beam	79.1 / 93	.2 / .618	70.	6 / 84.8	3 / .625
Beam MMI	77.0 / 91	.9 / .634	- 72.	2 / 85.0	613.
MMI MMI	73.6 / 87	.9 / .608	72.	0 / 85.3	3 / .586
MMI MMI-RS	84.2 / 97	.1 / .657	76.	6 / 89.4	.617
– Ham Heur	81.1 / 93	.9 / .620	70.	4 / 84.2	2 / .508
Cos Threshol	d: 0	.1	.25	.5	.75
S2S	10.0	6.40	4.52	2.85	1.70
S2S + RS	10.0	9.99	9.86	7.93	3.47
COD3s +MMI +F	RS 10.0	9.89	9.44	6.55	2.54

Table 2: (Upper) Diversity metrics (BLEU-1 / BLEU-2 / SBERT) over 3-best decoded outputs. (Lower) Count of semantically distinct effect outputs out of 10, with duplicates ruled out using SBERT cosine.

puts of regular seq2seq beam search, as well as of lexically constrained decoding with disjunctive positive constraints (DPC) and random sample decoding (S2S-RS) provided by Li et al.⁷ We included in the comparison instances of COD3s with and without MMI reranking, as well as with random sampling in place of beam search.

Automatic Diversity Metrics We use the formula of Shu et al. (2019), which takes the pairwise average of dissimilarity score Δ over output set Y.

Diversity(Y) =
$$\frac{1}{|Y|(|Y|-1)} \sum_{y,y' \in Y: \ y \neq y'} \Delta(y,y')$$

To measure *lexical* diversity, we set $\Delta(y, y')$ to be the sentences' inverse (100 minus) BLEU-1 and -2 scores.⁸ To measure *semantic* diversity, we set Δ to be the cosine distance between their SBERT embeddings. Higher scores imply greater diversity. Following Li et al., we evaluate on 100 examples from an out-of-distribution dev split of the Choice of Plausible Alternatives dataset (COPA; Gordon et al., 2012), with results shown in Table 2.⁹ In both cases, COD3s outperforms all other methods except

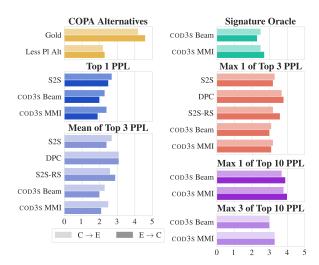


Figure 2: Results of human evaluation of plausibility. Ratings are shown in comparison to the gold answer and less plausible alternative from COPA. Mean/max ratings per input are presented for 1,3-best outputs ranked by forward score (PPL). To demonstrate that COD3s produces plausible response from many semantic bins, we also show max ratings from top-10 outputs.

random sampling, the addition of which also improves the diversity of COD3s itself. We also use the SBERT diversity score to *count* semantically diverse outputs by marking as duplicates those for which the embedding of the completed phrase ("X ... Y") falls below some distance threshold from that of an earlier candidate. Table 2 (lower) shows that both the best COD3s model as well as random sampling produce far more semantically distinct statements than the beam search baseline.

Human Evaluation Our automatic metrics quantify diversity without tracking task effectiveness, which we evaluate by collecing judgments on Amazon Mechanical Turk. We ask workers to judge the plausibility of responses as causal completions (on a 0-5 Likert scale). For all methods except COD3S, we use the exact outputs evaluated in Li et al. (2020) and provided to us by the authors. The response sets for these models contain the top 3 decoded sentences under perplexity (PPL). We compare these to the top 3 as well as the top 10 sentences decoded by COD3s with and without MMI re-ranking (signature and sentence, no random sampling) ordered by PPL of the signature tokens. This discrepancy in per-model outputs reflects that we seek to evaluate COD3s, which is specifically crafted to produce a large set of distinct viable candidates, as directly

⁷We also compare against our own S2S-RS using the same FAIRSEQ model as the COD3s methods.

⁸Implemented using the SacreBLEU toolkit (Post, 2018).

⁹Results over 10 outputs and over a within-distribution train split from CausalBank are shown in Appendix Table 4.

¹⁰We verified the significance of numerical results using Wilcoxon two-sided signed-rank tests implemented via SciPy with p=.05.

Cause Input: my fa	vorite song came on the radio	
Bin Medoid	I will try this version for sure	I was quite excited to finally experience it
Ranked Predictions	I decided to listen to it I decided to hear it I figured I'd try it	I was excited to hear it again I was pleasantly surprised to hear it I'm glad to see it here
Effect Input: the ex	ecutive decided not to hire the app	licant
Bin Medoid	I knew that they expected it	they are what earn you cash
Ranked Predictions	they knew she was not qualified they knew it would be a mistake she knew she had to	they could not afford the payments it would cost them money she was paid

Table 3: Examples of generation conditioned on semantic bins. Predictions are ranked according to maximum mutual information (MMI) and shown aside the given bin's representative medoid.

as possible against the Li et al. (2020) responses from models that are not necessarily crafted with the identical aim. Naturally occurring propositions have far more than 10 plausible and distinct causes and effects, and so we would hope that the 10th output of our one-to-many model would have similar quality to the 1st of the other models.

Results are shown in Figure 2.¹¹ We observe that top 1 and 3 COD3s responses according to PPL (blue) are comparable albeit slightly lower on average than those of the other models.¹² This may partially be attributed to the difficulty of the signature inference step, in which the differences in the top 100 predicted binary sequence PPLs are typically small. A COD3s 'oracle' that conditions generation on the gold answer's signature (which often has low predicted likelihood) performs more competitively (green).

We find that at least 1 of the top 3 signatures predicted by COD3s yields a competitively plausible sentence; when we take the highest plausibility score from the top 3 of each model under their respective PPL orderings (red), COD3s and baseline S2S to be interchangeable. If we expand to the larger set of 10 outputs for COD3s models, we find that the mean of the 3 highest plausibility scores (faded purple) for the MMI model is comparable to the 1 best of the base seg2seg (red) and better than the mean of the top 3 PPL (faded blue) for any model. This indicates that the 10 output set, which shows under automatic metrics to contain higher numbers of semantically diverse statements, also contains at worst a set of 3 outputs that are better than the 3 from models not designed for one-tomany diverse prediction.

Qualitative Analysis Table 3 shows examples of models predicting and re-ranking sentences within inferred signature bins. Candidate predictions listed in order of MMI score reflect the ability of MMI-based reranking to select the candidates within a bin that are most relevant to the input. Outputs are shown beneath a representative bin *medoid*, i.e. the sentence with minimized embedding cosine distance from all other training sentences that fall in the bin. The two-step inference process depicted here allows for a level of interpretability on the signature level, as sampling training sentences from the inferred semantic bin gives a snapshot of an inferred semantic space that can be more informative than individual sentences alone.

Future work might explore alternative methods for signature inference. The bit sequence likelihoods predicted by COD3s are often clumped together and/or biased towards signatures that intuitively do not apply to an input but are overrepresented in the training set. We also observe that although MMI decoding discourages bland context insensitive statements, there is still a model tendency towards a small set of generic predicates, e.g. 'having,' 'knowing,' or 'being able to.'

5 Conclusion

We have outlined COD3s, a method for producing semantically diverse statements in open-ended generation tasks. We design sentence LSH signatures that encode bitwise the semantic similarity of underlying statements; conditioning generation on different signatures yields outputs that are semantically heterogeneous. COD3s leads to more diverse outputs in a multi-target generation task in a controllable and interpretable manner, suggesting the potential of semantically guided diverse decoding for a variety of text generation tasks in the future.

¹¹A tabular form of the results is given in Appendix Table 5. ¹²DPC and S2S-RS output PPLs were not provided by Li

et al., so they are omitted from top-1 comparison.

6 Acknowledgments

We thank the reviewers for their insightful comments. We additionally thank Elizabeth Salesky, Huda Khayrallah, Rachel Wicks and Patrick Xia for their discussions, feedback and compute. This work was supported in part by DARPA KAIROS (FA8750-19-2-0034). The views and conclusions contained in this work are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as representing official policies or endorsements by DARPA or the U.S. Government.

References

- Piotr Bojanowski, Edouard Grave, Armand Joulin, and Tomas Mikolov. 2017. Enriching word vectors with subword information. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 5:135–146.
- Antoine Bosselut, Hannah Rashkin, Maarten Sap, Chaitanya Malaviya, Asli Celikyilmaz, and Yejin Choi. 2019. COMET: Commonsense transformers for automatic knowledge graph construction. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 4762–4779, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Christian Buck, Kenneth Heafield, and Bas van Ooyen. 2014. N-gram counts and language models from the common crawl. In *Proceedings of the Ninth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC-2014)*, pages 3579–3584, Reykjavik, Iceland. European Languages Resources Association (ELRA).
- Daniel Cer, Mona Diab, Eneko Agirre, Iñigo Lopez-Gazpio, and Lucia Specia. 2017. SemEval-2017 task 1: Semantic textual similarity multilingual and crosslingual focused evaluation. In *Proceedings of the 11th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval-2017)*, pages 1–14, Vancouver, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Moses S Charikar. 2002. Similarity estimation techniques from rounding algorithms. In *Proceedings of the thiry-fourth annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing*, pages 380–388.
- Chenhui Chu and Raj Dabre. 2019. Multilingual multidomain adaptation approaches for neural machine translation. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:1906.07978.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pages 4171–4186, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Michel X. Goemans and David P. Williamson. 1995. Improved approximation algorithms for maximum cut and satisfiability problems using semidefinite programming. *J. ACM*, 42(6):1115–1145.
- Andrew Gordon, Zornitsa Kozareva, and Melissa Roemmele. 2012. SemEval-2012 task 7: Choice of plausible alternatives: An evaluation of commonsense causal reasoning. In *SEM 2012: The First Joint Conference on Lexical and Computational Semantics Volume 1: Proceedings of the main conference and the shared task, and Volume 2: Proceedings of the Sixth International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval 2012), pages 394–398, Montréal, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Kelvin Guu, Tatsunori B. Hashimoto, Yonatan Oren, and Percy Liang. 2018. Generating sentences by editing prototypes. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 6:437–450.
- Thanh-Le Ha, Jan Niehues, and Alexander Waibel. 2016. Toward multilingual neural machine translation with universal encoder and decoder. *International Conference on Spoken Language Translation*.
- J. Edward Hu, Huda Khayrallah, Ryan Culkin, Patrick Xia, Tongfei Chen, Matt Post, and Benjamin Van Durme. 2019a. Improved lexically constrained decoding for translation and monolingual rewriting. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pages 839–850, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- J Edward Hu, Abhinav Singh, Nils Holzenberger, Matt Post, and Benjamin Van Durme. 2019b. Large-scale, diverse, paraphrastic bitexts via sampling and clustering. In *Proceedings of the 23rd Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning (CoNLL)*, pages 44–54.
- Piotr Indyk and Rajeev Motwani. 1998. Approximate nearest neighbors: Towards removing the curse of dimensionality. In *Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*, STOC '98, page 604–613, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Daphne Ippolito, Reno Kriz, Joao Sedoc, Maria Kustikova, and Chris Callison-Burch. 2019. Comparison of diverse decoding methods from conditional language models. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 3752–3762, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Łukasz Kaiser and Samy Bengio. 2018. Discrete autoencoders for sequence models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1801.09797*.

- Nitish Shirish Keskar, Bryan McCann, Lav R Varshney, Caiming Xiong, and Richard Socher. 2019. CTRL: A conditional transformer language model for controllable generation. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:1909.05858.
- Diederik P. Kingma and Jimmy Ba. 2015. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In 3rd International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2015, San Diego, CA, USA, May 7-9, 2015, Conference Track Proceedings.
- Jiwei Li, Michel Galley, Chris Brockett, Jianfeng Gao, and Bill Dolan. 2016a. A diversity-promoting objective function for neural conversation models. In Proceedings of the 2016 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 110–119, San Diego, California. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jiwei Li, Will Monroe, and Dan Jurafsky. 2016b. A simple, fast diverse decoding algorithm for neural generation. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:1611.08562.
- Ping Li, Michael Mitzenmacher, and Anshumali Shrivastava. 2013. Coding for random projections. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 676–684.
- Zhongyang Li, Xiao Ding, Ting Liu, J. Edward Hu, and Benjamin Van Durme. 2020. Guided generation of cause and effect. *IJCAI*.
- Jonathan Mallinson and Mirella Lapata. 2019. Controllable sentence simplification: Employing syntactic and lexical constraints. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1910.04387*.
- Myle Ott, Sergey Edunov, Alexei Baevski, Angela Fan, Sam Gross, Nathan Ng, David Grangier, and Michael Auli. 2019. fairseq: A fast, extensible toolkit for sequence modeling. In *Proceedings of NAACL-HLT 2019: Demonstrations*.
- Saša Petrović, Miles Osborne, and Victor Lavrenko. 2010. Streaming first story detection with application to twitter. In *Human Language Technologies:* The 2010 Annual Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 181–189, Los Angeles, California. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Matt Post. 2018. A call for clarity in reporting BLEU scores. In *Proceedings of the Third Conference on Machine Translation: Research Papers*, pages 186–191, Belgium, Brussels. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Matt Post and David Vilar. 2018. Fast lexically constrained decoding with dynamic beam allocation for neural machine translation. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long Papers)*, pages 1314–1324, New Orleans, Louisiana. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Kira Radinsky, Sagie Davidovich, and Shaul Markovitch. 2012. Learning causality for news events prediction. In *Proceedings of the 21st international conference on World Wide Web*, pages 909–918.
- Deepak Ravichandran, Patrick Pantel, and Eduard Hovy. 2005. Randomized algorithms and NLP: Using locality sensitive hash functions for high speed noun clustering. In *Proceedings of the 43rd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL'05)*, pages 622–629, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Nils Reimers and Iryna Gurevych. 2019. Sentencebert: Sentence embeddings using siamese bertnetworks. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Rico Sennrich, Barry Haddow, and Alexandra Birch. 2016. Neural machine translation of rare words with subword units. In *Proceedings of the 54th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1715–1725, Berlin, Germany. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Raphael Shu, Hideki Nakayama, and Kyunghyun Cho. 2019. Generating diverse translations with sentence codes. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 1823–1827, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Benjamin Van Durme and Ashwin Lall. 2010. Online generation of locality sensitive hash signatures. In *Proceedings of the ACL 2010 Conference Short Papers*, pages 231–235, Uppsala, Sweden. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. 2017. Attention is all you need. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 5998–6008.
- Qiongkai Xu, Juyan Zhang, Lizhen Qu, Lexing Xie, and Richard Nock. 2018. D-page: Diverse paraphrase generation. *ArXiv*, abs/1808.04364.

A Random Hyperplane LSH Details

The popular LSH variant introduced by Charikar (2002) leverages $random\ hyperplane\ projections$ to compute discrete b-length bit signatures. Each individual bit is determined from the sign of the dot product between a given embedding and one of a set of b pre-computed random normal vectors. One geometric intuition is that the hyperplane implied by each random normal vector partitions the full embedding space in half, and the sign of the dot product designates the partition into which the input embedding falls. This is illustrated in Figure 3 using a simplified case with a 2-D vector v and three random vectors r_1, r_2, r_3 indicating partitions of the Cartesian plane. ¹³

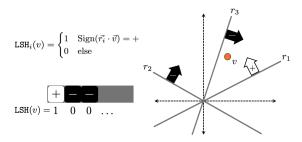


Figure 3: Computation of a 2D vector v's LSH bit signature as the signs of the dot products with d random normal vectors r_1, \ldots, r_b .

Formally, given a set of high-dimensional vectors in \mathbb{R}^D , we randomly sample $b \ll D$ random vectors $\vec{r}_1, \dots \vec{r}_d$ from the D-dimensional Gaussian distribution. Then, given a high-dimensional embedding \vec{v} , we construct the b-bit signature $\text{LSH}(v) = [\text{LSH}_1(v), \dots \text{LSH}_d(v)]$ using the hash functions

$$\mathrm{LSH}_i(v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \vec{r}_i \cdot \vec{v} \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \vec{r}_i \cdot \vec{v} < 0 \end{cases}$$

The number of matching bits in the signatures of two vectors u, v provides an estimate of their hash collision probability, i.e. the likelihood that they fall in the same partition of any random hyperplane. This probability is provably ¹⁴ monotonically increasing with the vectors' inner product. Goemans and Williamson (1995) similarly prove that the Hamming distance between signatures is proportional to the angle between the vectors, which correlates highly with cosine distance barring high discrepancies in vector norms.

B Training Details

```
fairseq-train
  --adam-betas "(0.9, 0.98)"
  --arch transformer_iwslt_de_en
  --criterion
   label_smoothed_cross_entropy
  --label-smoothing 0.1
  --dropout 0.1 --weight-decay 0
  --bpe sentencepiece
  --optimizer adam --clip-norm 0.1
  --lr 5e-4 --lr-scheduler inverse_sqrt
  --warmup-updates 4000
  --max-epoch 10
  --share-all-embeddings
```

We train models with FAIRSEQ using the transformer_iwslt_de_en architecture. We use 6 encoder and decoder layers with 512-dimensional hidden states and shared embedding layers (a total of 36.6M trainable parameters). Signature tokens are assigned special tokens during BPE encoding. We train models for 10 epochs with an early stopping patience of 2 validations. We use the Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2015) with 0.1-smoothed cross entropy loss, a 5e-4 learning rate with inverser square root scheduling, 0.1 dropout and 0.1 norm clipping. All other training parameters were the FAIRSEQ defaults at the time of submission. We observe performance drops when 1) norm clipping threshold is not sufficiently low, 2) BPE vocabulary size is 32K instead of 10K, and 3) weight decay is set to .001. Training takes roughly 12 hours on two Titan 24GB RTX GPUs for each of four models (two forward, two backward for MMI reranking).

Backwards scoring models for MMI-bidi are trained with the opposite dataset as their corresponding forward models; we find training most effective when the data's syntactic direction ("X ... Y") matches the direction of inference $(X \to Y)$. In other words, all $C \rightarrow E$ models are trained on "X, so Y" data regardless of their use as forward or backward scoring models. We used the "X because Y" training split from Li et al. (2020). We constructed the 10M "X so Y" examples ourselves: we took a 20M random sample of all such examples in the dataset, filtered to remove sentences a) containing numerical and special characters or b) containing either a source or target with greater than 12 tokens, and then downsampled the remaining set to a 10M/4K/4K train/dev/test split.

¹³Figure adapted from slides of Van Durme and Lall (2010) with permission of the authors.

¹⁴Charikar (2002); Li et al. (2013)

Causalbank 3-Sets	$\begin{array}{c} C \rightarrow E \\ BL\text{-}1 / BL\text{-}2 / SB \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} E \rightarrow C \\ BL\text{-}1/BL\text{-}2/SB \end{array}$
Baselines		
S2S	54.2 / 62.9 / .348	59.8 / 71.4 / .428
S2S + Sigs	47.5 / 56.6 / .248	56.2 / 70.3 / .302
Other Decoding M	ethods	
DPC (Li et al.)	41.8 / 49.4 / .293	47.4 / 55.3 / .319
S2S-RS (Li et al.)	77.5 / 89.3 / .567	82.6 / 94.1 / .622
S2S-RS	87.0 / 96.8 / .676	82.1 / 92.1 / .626
Two-Step COD3s In	nferences	
Sig Sent		
Beam Beam	84.0 / 94.2 / .603	77.1 / 89.6 / .558
Beam MMI	80.0 / 90.9 / .571	74.0 / 86.3 / .542
MMI MMI	75.1 / 86.6 / .554	70.7 / 83.9 / .543
MMI MMI-RS	85.9 / 95.4 / .620	78.1 / 90.9 / .563
— Ham Heur	80.4 / 90.8 / .521	74.0 / 87.8 / .501
— Ham Heur COPA	$80.4 / 90.8 / .521$ $C \rightarrow E$	$74.0 / 87.8 / .501$ $E \rightarrow C$
COPA	$\mathbf{C} o \mathbf{E}$	$\mathbf{E} o \mathbf{C}$
COPA 10-Sets	$\mathbf{C} o \mathbf{E}$	$\mathbf{E} o \mathbf{C}$
COPA 10-Sets Baselines S2S S2S + Sigs	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{C} \rightarrow \textbf{E} \\ \textbf{BL-1} / \textbf{BL-2} / \textbf{SB} \end{array}$	$E \rightarrow C$ BL-1 / BL-2 / SB
COPA 10-Sets Baselines S2S	$C \rightarrow E$ BL-1/BL-2/SB 59.9/71.5/.466	$E \to C BL-1 / BL-2 / SB$ $62.5 / 76.7 / .509$
COPA 10-Sets Baselines S2S S2S + Sigs	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{C} \rightarrow \textbf{E} \\ \textbf{BL-1/BL-2/SB} \\ \\ 59.9 / 71.5 / .466 \\ 52.4 / 64.8 / .360 \\ \textbf{84.7 / 96.9 / .746} \\ \end{array}$	$E \rightarrow C$ BL-1/BL-2/SB $62.5 / 76.7 / .509$ $55.3 / 70.0 / .397$
COPA 10-Sets	$C \rightarrow E$ BL-1/BL-2/SB 59.9/71.5/.466 52.4/64.8/.360 84.7/96.9/.746 inferences	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{E} \rightarrow \textbf{C} \\ \textbf{BL-1/BL-2/SB} \\ \\ 62.5 / 76.7 / .509 \\ 55.3 / 70.0 / .397 \\ \textbf{83.8 / 95.1 / .693} \end{array}$
COPA 10-Sets Baselines \$2S \$2S + Sigs \$2S-RS Two-Step COD3s In Sig Sent Beam Beam	$C \rightarrow E$ BL-1/BL-2/SB 59.9/71.5/.466 52.4/64.8/.360 84.7/96.9/.746 inferences 81.7/95.5/.658	$E \rightarrow C$ BL-1/BL-2/SB $62.5/76.7/.509$ $55.3/70.0/.397$ 83.8/95.1/.693 $75.8/89.6/.660$
COPA 10-Sets Baselines S2S S2S + Sigs S2S-RS Two-Step COD3S Isig Sent Beam Beam Beam MMI	C → E BL-1/BL-2/SB 59.9/71.5/.466 52.4/64.8/.360 84.7/96.9/.746 inferences 81.7/95.5/.658 78.5/93.1/.653	$E \rightarrow C$ BL-1/BL-2/SB $62.5/76.7/.509$ $55.3/70.0/.397$ 83.8/95.1/.693 $75.8/89.6/.660$ $75.1/89.2/.639$
COPA 10-Sets Baselines S2S S2S + Sigs S2S-RS Two-Step COD3s In Sig Sent Beam Beam Beam MMI MMI MMI	C → E BL-1/BL-2/SB 59.9/71.5/.466 52.4/64.8/.360 84.7/96.9/.746 inferences 81.7/95.5/.658 78.5/93.1/.653 75.8/90.6/.633	$E \rightarrow C$ BL-1/BL-2/SB $62.5/76.7/.509$ $55.3/70.0/.397$ 83.8/95.1/.693 $75.8/89.6/.660$ $75.1/89.2/.639$ $74.3/88.2/.612$
COPA 10-Sets Baselines S2S S2S + Sigs S2S-RS Two-Step COD3S Isig Sent Beam Beam Beam MMI	C → E BL-1/BL-2/SB 59.9/71.5/.466 52.4/64.8/.360 84.7/96.9/.746 inferences 81.7/95.5/.658 78.5/93.1/.653	$E \rightarrow C$ BL-1/BL-2/SB $62.5/76.7/.509$ $55.3/70.0/.397$ 83.8/95.1/.693 $75.8/89.6/.660$ $75.1/89.2/.639$

Table 4: Automatic diversity metrics (1-BLEU / 2-BLEU / SBERT) evaluated over the outputs of 16-bit COD3s and other decoding methods. Results are shown for 3-best outputs over 100 in-distribution CausalBank examples and 10-best over out-of-distribution COPA. Following Li et al. (2020), the same 100 "X because Y" pairs were used to evaluate models of both inference directions.

C Decoding According to Semantic Bins

We experimented with bit lengths of 8, 16, and 32, and found the middle value to best balance specificity with accuracy. We also explored a variant that merged signatures into a single token rather than treating them as token-per-bit, but found the model to perform qualitatively worse. We experimented with Hamming distance heuristic thresholds of 0 through 6 and found the best value (2) for 16-bit COD3s using qualitative analysis of side-byside predictions. The MMI-bidi λ_s, λ_v values were found using simple grid search, comparison of automatic metrics, and side-by-side analysis. The nature of the output set is sensitive to only large changes (orders of magnitude) in λ_s values, as the likelihoods of signature sequences are rather close in value; however, smaller, 0.1-increment changes

$\mathbf{C} ightarrow \mathbf{E} / \mathbf{E} ightarrow$	C Gold:	4.2 / 4.6	Pl Alt:	2.2 / 2.3
	Тор	PPL	Max	Score
Method	T1	Т3	T1	T3 (/ 10)
S2S	2.7 / 2.5	2.7 / 2.4	3.3 / 3.2	
DPC	_	3.1 / 3.1	3.7 / 3.8	
S2S-RS	_	2.6 / 2.9	3.2 / 3.6	
COD3s				
Beam	2.3 / 2.0	2.3 / 2.0	3.1 / 3.0	
(Oracle)	2.5 / 2.3			
(10 Outputs)			3.7 / 3.9	3.0 / 3.0
MMI	2.4 / 1.9	2.5 / 2.1	3.2 / 3.1	
(Oracle)	2.5/2.7			
(10 Outputs)			3.8 / 4.0	3.3 / 3.3

Table 5: Tabular form of human evaluation results displayed in Figure 2.

to the sentence weight λ_y showed to have a greater effect on the relevance and specificity of output causes/effects. This comports with results from previous applications of MMI-bidi decoding for sentences (Li et al., 2016a).

Table 7 shows side-by-side outputs of models with and without MMI re-ranking conditioned on the same n-best inferred signatures. Table 4 shows results of automatic diversity evaluation on the indistribution training sample from CausalBank following Li et al. (2020). Table 5 provides a tabular version of the human plausibility scores depicted in Figure 2.

D Counting Semantically Distinct Outputs using SBERT

We construct a method for automatically counting the number of semantically diverse sentences in a candidate cause/effect set. We encode each prediction with the context of the input by taking the SBERT embedding of the completed sentence "X {because, so} Y." We then rule out all sentences whose embedding cosine distance from that of a higher-ranked candidate is lower than some threshold. We use a simple grid search over various threshold values and find that a value of .1 yields a sensitivity to paraphrastic cause/effect predictions similar to that of a human reader. As other tasks might merit different such thresholds, we provide multiple such counts in Table 2. Table 6 shows example cases of duplicate detection among generated candidate sets.

1	he couldn't leave the house		1	he didn't want to eat it	
2	he couldn't get out of the house	Dupl. of 1 (.01)	2	he didn't like it	
3	he had to get a new one		3	he didn't like the taste	Dupl. of 2 (.05)
4	he had to go back to the hotel		4	it was too much for him to handle	
5	he had to find a new one	Dupl. of 3 (.02)	5	he didn't want to cook it	Dupl. of 1 (.07)
6	he couldn't get into the house	Dupl. of 1 (.06)	6	he didn't know how to cook it	
7	he had to go back to the house		7	it wasn't good for him	Dupl. of 1 (.07)
8	he couldn't leave the building	Dupl. of 1 (.02)	8	he didn't like how it tasted	Dupl. of 2 (.05)
9	he had to go to the police station		9	he couldn't eat it	Dupl. of 1 (.06)
10	he had to go back to his apartment	Dupl. of 7 (.07)	10	it was overcooked	

Table 6: Detection of duplicate causes and effects using a threshold SBERT embedding cosine distance of 0.1. We embed the full "X ... Y" statements so as to provide context to the paraphrase detection. Model outputs are those of a regular seq2seq.

E Cosine/LSH Hamming Correlations with STS and Bin Statistics

Table 8 shows the Spearman ρ coefficient with STSbenchmark judgments for cosine and approximate LSH Hamming distances of embeddings for BERT, SBERT (and larger variant SRoBERTa), and pBERT (Hu et al., 2019b), a BERT model fine-tuned to predict paraphrastic similarity, albiet not via angular similarity of embeddings. Table 9 provides details regarding the distributions of sentences into LSH bins of differing levels of granularity using SRoBERTa-L embeddings.

F Human Evaluation of Plausibility

We showed 200 COPA input statements (100 each for cause-to-effect and effect-to-cause) to Amazon Mechanical Turk workers and asked them to judge the plausibility of model predictions, specifically as completions of a causal statement of the form "X because Y" or "Y, so X." The order of the examples were randomized. Four annotators rated each input/prediction pair. We required annotators to have at least a 97% approval rating, be located in the US, and have completed at least 500 HITs. Annotators were given an hour to complete each HIT. The median completion time for the task was 5 minutes, and workers were paid \$0.50 per HIT. We included at least two attention checks.

W/O MMI Reranking	W/ MMI Reranking	Conditioned Bin Medoid
Cause: I was confused by the p Gold Effect: I asked the profes		
I asked him about it I decided to try it I thought I'd ask here I decided to open it up I did my own research	I asked a few questions I decided to look it up I decided to ask the teacher I opened it up and started reading I did a quick math lesson	I need some feedback from you (Gold bin) I will try this version I might change them at some point you can check it out it is easy to get everything aligned
Cause: several witnesses of the Gold Effect: the suspect was co	crime testified against the suspect onvicted	
he's got that going for him he knew what to do the jury is still out they didn't have to deal with it it was easy to follow Cause: the papers were disorga Gold Effect: I put them into al		we did it this way (Gold bin) this is a simple solution that makes sense everyone will know what it is I guess I won't have to think about this this recipe is ready to go
I had to enter them that's out of the question I decided to skip it I got a new one we had to start all over again	I had to print them out I gave up on it I decided not to publish them I had to edit them I had to start all over again	the opening sequence was there (Gold bin) I won't use it in anything anymore I opted not to do any we came at a good time it should be open by then
Effect: the woman hired a lawy Gold Cause: she decided to sue		
she wanted to she thought she could win she had a plan she trusted him she wanted to be a mother	she wanted a lawyer she wanted to be in charge of her case she felt she had enough evidence she wanted to help people she wanted to protect her family	they want to crack down on it (Gold bin) it can be an ideal method for you to succeed it was what we had and it turned out fine I did trust and respect the person all ages enjoy them
Effect: I avoided giving a straig Gold Cause: the question made		
I didn't want to offend anyone I didn't understand it there was no one to talk to the answer was obvious I was so embarrassed	I didn't want to offend anyone I didnt know what I was talking about I didn't want to talk about it I thought the answer would be obvious I thought I was stupid	I didn't like to speak (Gold bin) I didn't understand them I'm not allowed to talk to them about anything everyone's familiar with it it looked ridiculously saturated
Effect: I learned how to play the Gold Cause: my friend explain		
I learned a lot about the game i felt like it it was so easy it worked I love to play online	I wanted to learn to play the game i felt i had to it was easy to play i knew i was going to play it I wanted to play online	it offers some good information (Gold bin) I feel it to be so it is done nicely and realistically they have now got it right the online wants anyone spreading the phrase

Table 7: Example COD3s output responses with and without MMI-bidi sentence re-ranking. Predictions are shown alongside their conditioned bin's representative medoid sentence. "Bin oracle" predictions conditioned on the signature of gold sequence (**Gold bin**) are shown for comparison.

bits	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	full
BERT-B	0.01	0.08	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.14	0.15	0.13
pBERT-B	0.05	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.13	0.14	0.15	0.14
SBERT-B	0.41	0.51	0.61	0.69	0.76	0.80	0.82	0.85
SBERT-L	0.42	0.51	0.64	0.72	0.77	0.80	0.82	0.85
SRoBERTa-B	0.38	0.51	0.61	0.71	0.77	0.81	0.83	0.85
SRoBERTa-L	0.42	0.55	0.65	0.74	0.80	0.83	0.85	0.86

Table 8: Spearman ρ correlation of LSH Hamming-based cosine approximations with human STS judgements on STSBenchmark (as well as cosine similarity of the full 768/1024-dimension embeddings)

LSH Bits	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32
Distinct Sentences /	5.55e5	3.47e4	2166.97	135.85	10.75	2.47	1.33	1.10
Populated Bin	$\pm 1.91e5$	$\pm 2.37e4$	± 2671.91	± 225.40	\pm 22.32	± 4.62	± 1.51	± 0.72
Distinct Unigrams /	1.28e5	2.15e4	3191.00	415.27	54.42	15.71	9.24	7.87
Populated Bin	$\pm 2.24e4$	± 8446.11	± 2378.42	± 430.38	± 73.41	± 19.10	± 6.63	± 3.64
% Buckets Populated	100	100	100	99.69	78.73	21.45	2.49	0.19
STS p	0.42	0.55	0.61	0.65	0.69	0.71	0.73	0.74

Table 9: Analysis of bin clusters using the effects of 10 million CausalBank "X because Y" pairs.

Please Note

- You have to be an English Native Speaker
- You have to complete judgments for all sentences. All fields are required.

Instructions

In this task you will read and judge a series of program-generated causal statements of the form "X because Y." The program receives the X statement and attempts to produce Y responses that logically complete the full statement.

For each X statement, you will read a series of possible Y responses, and make the following judgment:

Plausibility: The extent to which Y could have been a cause of X, creating a natural statement "X because Y" and/or "Y so X."

0 is completely implausible, while 5 is completely plausible.

Examples

X because Y	How plausible?
The woman went to the bank because pigs fly.	0
The woman went to the bank because she is.	0
The woman went to the bank because the bank was closed.	1
The woman went to the bank because she had enough cash on hand.	1
The woman went to the bank because she ate a bagel.	1
The woman went to the bank because it was a good day.	2
The woman went to the bank because it was raining.	2
The woman went to the bank because she was happy.	2
The woman went to the bank because she told her to.	3
The woman went to the bank because he needed help.	3
The woman went to the bank because it was her only chance .	3
The woman went to the bank because she felt the need to.	4
The woman went to the bank because money is important.	4
The woman went to the bank because she wanted to deposit a check.	5
The woman went to the bank because she was out of cash.	5
The woman went to the bank because she needed to open a new account	. 5
The woman went to the bank because she had to make a big purchase.	5

Causes and Effects

	completely	highly	not very	somewhat	highly	completely
Plausible Response?	implausible	implausible	plausible	plausible	plausible	plausible
	0	1	2	3	4	5
	0	0	0	0	0	0
System 2: my bod	•		Ü			
	completely	highly	not very	somewhat	highly	completely
Plausible Response?	implausible	implausible	plausible	plausible	plausible	plausible
	•	1	2	2	4	-
Transfer Response:	0	1	2	3	4	5
System 3: my bod	0	0	0	0	0	0
	y cast a sha	adow over th	ne grass be	ecause I was	as so smal	completely

Figure 4: Interface shown to Amazon Mechanical Turk workers during collection of plausibility judgments.