

# Story Cloze Task — UW System

Roy Schwartz<sup>1,2</sup> Maarten Sap<sup>1</sup> Ioannis Konstas<sup>1</sup> Leila Zilles<sup>1</sup> Yejin Choi<sup>1</sup> Noah A. Smith<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Computer Science & Engineering, University of Washington, WA 98195, USA

<sup>2</sup>Allen Institute for Artificial Intelligence, WA 98103, USA

{roysch, msap, ikonstas, lzilles, yejin, nasmith}@cs.washington.edu

## Abstract

This paper describes the university of Washington NLP group submission for the Linking Models of Lexical, Sentential and Discourse-level Semantics (LSDSem 2017) shared task—the *Story Cloze Task*. Our system feeds a linear classifier with a variety of features, including both the output of a neural language model and style features. We report 75.2% accuracy on the task. A further discussion of our results can be found in (Schwartz et al., 2017).

## 1 Introduction

As an effort to advance commonsense understanding, Mostafazadeh et al. (2016) developed the *story cloze task*, which is the focus of the LSDSem 2017 shared task. In this task, systems are given two short, self-contained stories, which differ only in their last sentence: one has a *right* (coherent) ending, and the other has a *wrong* (incoherent) ending. The task is to tell which is the *right* story. In addition to the task, the authors also introduced the *ROC story corpus*—a training corpus of five-sentence (coherent) stories. Table 1 shows an example of a *coherent* story and an *incoherent* story from the story cloze task.

In this paper, we describe the university of Washington NLP group submission for the shared task. Our system explores several types of features for the task. First, we train a neural language model (Mikolov et al., 2010) on the ROC story corpus. We use the probabilities assigned by the model to each of the endings (*right* and *wrong*) as classification features.

Second, we attempt to distinguish between *right* and *wrong* endings using style features, such as sentence length, character n-grams and word n-grams. Our intuition is that the *right* endings

Story Prefix	Ending
Kathy went shopping. She found a pair of great shoes. The shoes were \$300. She bought the shoes.	She felt buyer’s remorse after the purchase.
	Kathy hated buying shoes.

Table 1: Examples of stories from the story cloze task (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016). The left column shows that first four sentences of a story. The right column shows two contrastive endings for the story: a *coherent* ending (upper row) and a *incoherent* one (bottom row).

use a different style compared to the *wrong* endings. The features we use were shown useful for style detection in tasks such as age (Schler et al., 2006), gender (Argamon et al., 2003), and authorship profiling (Stamatatos, 2009).

We feed our features to a logistic regression classifier, and evaluate our system on the shared task. Our system obtains 75.2% accuracy on the test set. Our findings hint that the different writing tasks used to create the story cloze task—writing *right* and *wrong* endings—impose different writing styles on authors. This is further discussed in (Schwartz et al., 2017).

## 2 System Description

We design a system that predicts, given a pair of story endings, which is the *right* one and which is the *wrong* one. Our system applies a linear classifier guided by several types of features to solve the task. We describe the system in detail below.

### 2.1 Model

We train a binary logistic regression classifier to distinguish between *right* and *wrong* stories. We

use the set of *right* stories as positive samples and the set of *wrong* stories as negative samples. At test time, for a given pair, we consider the classification results of both candidates. If our classifier assigns different labels to each candidate, we keep them. If not, the label whose posterior probability is lower is reversed. We describe the classification features below.

## 2.2 Features

We use two types of features, designed to capture different aspects of the problem. We use *neural language model* features to leverage corpus level word distributions, specifically longer term sequence probabilities. We use *stylistic* features to capture differences in writing between *coherent* story endings and *incoherent* ones.

**Language Model Features.** We experiment with state-of-the-art text comprehension models, specifically an LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) recurrent neural network language model (RNNLM; Mikolov et al. (2010)). Our RNNLM is used to generate two different probabilities:  $p_\theta(\text{ending})$ , which is the language model probability of the fifth sentence alone and  $p_\theta(\text{ending} \mid \text{story})$ , which is the RNNLM probability of the fifth sentence given the first four sentences. We use both of these probabilities as classification features.

In addition, we also apply a third feature:

$$\frac{p_\theta(\text{ending} \mid \text{story})}{p_\theta(\text{ending})} \quad (1)$$

The intuition is that a *correct* ending should be unsurprising (to the model) given the four preceding sentences of the story (the numerator), controlling for the inherent surprise of the words in that ending (the denominator).<sup>1</sup>

**Stylistic Features.** We hypothesize that *right* and *wrong* endings might be distinguishable using style features. We adopt features that have been shown useful in the past in tasks such as detection of age (Schler et al., 2006; Rosenthal and McKeeown, 2011; Nguyen et al., 2011), gender (Argamon et al., 2003; Schler et al., 2006; Bamman et al., 2014), and native language (Koppel et al., 2005; Tsur and Rappoport, 2007; Bergsma et al., 2012).

<sup>1</sup>Note that taking the logarithm of the expression in Equation 1 gives the pointwise mutual information between the story and the ending, under the language model.

We add the following classification features to capture style differences between the two endings. These features are computed on the story endings alone (*right* or *wrong*), and do not consider, neither at train nor at test time, the first four (shared) sentences of each story.

- **Length.** The number of words in the sentence.
- **Word *n*-grams.** We use sequences of 1-5 words. Following (Tsur et al., 2010; Schwartz et al., 2013), we distinguish between high frequency and low frequency words. Specifically, we replace content words, which are often low frequency, with their part-of-speech tags (Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs).
- **Character *n*-grams.** Character *n*-grams are useful features in the detection of author style (Stamatatos, 2009) or language identification (Lui and Baldwin, 2011). We use character 4-grams.

## 2.3 Experimental Setup

We use Python’s sklearn logistic regression implementation with  $L_2$  regularization, performing grid search on the development set to tune a single hyperparameter—the regularization parameter.

We start by tokenizing the text using the nltk tokenizer.<sup>2</sup> We then use TensorFlow<sup>3</sup> to train the RNNLM using a single-layer LSTM of hidden dimension 512. We use the ROC Stories for training, setting aside 10% for validation of the language model.<sup>4</sup> We replace all words occurring less than 3 times by a special out-of-vocabulary character, yielding a vocabulary size of 21,582. Only during training, we apply a dropout rate of 60% while running the LSTM over all 5 sentences of the stories. Using Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2015) and a learning rate of  $\eta = .001$ , we train to minimize cross-entropy.

For computing the style features, the story cloze task doesn’t have a training corpus for the *right* and *wrong* endings. Therefore, we use the development set as our training set, holding out 10% for development (3,366 training endings, 374 for development). We keep the story cloze test set as

<sup>2</sup>[www.nltk.org/api/nltk.tokenize.html](http://www.nltk.org/api/nltk.tokenize.html)

<sup>3</sup>[www.tensorflow.org](http://www.tensorflow.org)

<sup>4</sup>We train on both the Spring 2016 and the Winter 2017 datasets, a total of roughly 100K stories

Model	Acc.
DSSM (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016)	0.585
LexVec (Salle et al., 2016)	0.599
RNNLM Features	0.677
Stylistic features	0.724
<b>Combined (Style + RNNLM)</b>	<b>0.752</b>
Human judgment	1.000

Table 2: Results on the test set of the story cloze task. The first block are published results, the second block are our results. LexVec results are taken from (Speer et al., 2016). Human judgement scores are taken from (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016).

is (3,742 endings). We add a START symbol at the beginning of each sentence.<sup>5</sup> We keep n-gram (character or word) features that occur at least five times in the training set. All stylistic feature values are normalized to [0-1]. For the POS features, we tag all endings with the Spacy POS tagger.<sup>6</sup> The total number of features used by our system is 7,651.

### 3 Results

The performance of our system is described in Table 2. With 75.2% accuracy, our system achieves 15.3% better than the published state of the art (Salle et al., 2016). The table also shows an analysis of the different features types used by our system. While our RNNLM features alone reach 67.7%, the style features perform better—72.4%. This suggests that while this task is about story understanding, there is some information contained in stylistic features, which are slightly less sensitive to content. As expected, the RNNLM features complement the stylistic ones, boosting performance by 7.5% (over the RNNLM) and 2.8% (over the style features).

In an attempt to provide explanation to the strong performance of the stylistic feature, we hypothesize that the different writing tasks—writing a *right* and a *wrong* ending—impose a different style on the authors, which is expressed in the different style adopted in each of the cases. The reader is referred to (Schwartz et al., 2017) for more details and discussion.

<sup>5</sup>Virtually all sentences end with a period or an exclamation mark, so we do not add a STOP symbol.

<sup>6</sup>[spacy.io/](https://spacy.io/)

## 4 Conclusion

This paper described the university of Washington NLP group submission to the LSDSem 2017 Shared Task. Our system leveraged both neural language model features and stylistic features, achieving 75.2% accuracy on the classification task.

## References

- Shlomo Argamon, Moshe Koppel, Jonathan Fine, and Anat Rachel Shimoni. 2003. Gender, genre, and writing style in formal written texts. *Text*, 23(3):321–346.
- David Bamman, Jacob Eisenstein, and Tyler Schnoebelen. 2014. Gender identity and lexical variation in social media. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 18(2):135–160.
- Shane Bergsma, Matt Post, and David Yarowsky. 2012. Stylometric analysis of scientific articles. In *Proc. of NAACL*.
- Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. 1997. Long short-term memory. *Neural Computation*, 9(8):1735–1780.
- Diederik Kingma and Jimmy Ba. 2015. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In *Proc. of ICLR*.
- Moshe Koppel, Jonathan Schler, and Kfir Zigdon. 2005. Determining an author’s native language by mining a text for errors. In *Proc. of KDD*.
- Marco Lui and Timothy Baldwin. 2011. Cross-domain feature selection for language identification. In *Proc. of IJCNLP*.
- Tomáš Mikolov, Martin Karafiát, Lukáš Burget, Jan Černocký, and Sanjeev Khudanpur. 2010. Recurrent neural network based language model. In *Proc. of Interspeech*.
- Nasrin Mostafazadeh, Nathanael Chambers, Xiaodong He, Devi Parikh, Dhruv Batra, Lucy Vanderwende, Pushmeet Kohli, and James Allen. 2016. A corpus and cloze evaluation for deeper understanding of commonsense stories. In *Proc. of NAACL*, June.
- Dong Nguyen, Noah A. Smith, and Carolyn P. Rosé. 2011. Author age prediction from text using linear regression. In *Proc. of LaTeCH*.
- Sara Rosenthal and Kathleen McKeown. 2011. Age prediction in blogs: A study of style, content, and online behavior in pre- and post-social media generations. In *Proc. of ACL*. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Alexandre Salle, Marco Idiart, and Aline Villavicencio. 2016. Enhancing the lexvec distributed word representation model using positional contexts and external memory. arXiv:1606.01283.
- Jonathan Schler, Moshe Koppel, Shlomo Argamon, and James Pennebaker. 2006. Effects of age and gender on blogging. In *AAAI spring symposium: Computational approaches to analyzing weblogs*.
- Roy Schwartz, Oren Tsur, Ari Rappoport, and Moshe Koppel. 2013. Authorship attribution of micro-messages. In *Proc. of EMNLP*.
- Roy Schwartz, Maarten Sap, Ioannis Konstas, Leila Zilles, Yejin Choi, and Noah A. Smith. 2017. The effect of different writing tasks on linguistic style: A case study of the ROC story cloze task. arXiv:1702.01841.
- Robert Speer, Joshua Chin, and Catherine Havasi. 2016. Conceptnet 5.5: An open multilingual graph of general knowledge. arXiv:1612.03975.
- Efstathios Stamatatos. 2009. A survey of modern authorship attribution methods. *Journal of the American Society for information Science and Technology*, 60(3):538–556.
- Oren Tsur and Ari Rappoport. 2007. Using classifier features for studying the effect of native language on the choice of written second language words. In *Proc. of CACLA*, June.
- Oren Tsur, Dmitry Davidov, and Ari Rappoport. 2010. Icwsm-a great catchy name: Semi-supervised recognition of sarcastic sentences in online product reviews. In *Proc. of ICWSM*.