

A Multi-stage Pipeline for Discovering Rationales in Financial Reports

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Abstract

We address the task of discovering rationales between two narrative financial reports in consecutive years. This task requires modeling the complicated content of long financial documents, reasoning different relationships between the documents, and discovering relevant rationales for the relationships. Effective solutions benefit the efficiency of financial practitioners on comprehending financial reports. In this paper, we leverage the intrinsic characteristic of the *year-to-year* structure of reports by defining a novel signal-highlighting task, for which we propose a multistage pipeline to discover relevant rationales regarding the insightful signals in newly-published reports. We also build and publish a dataset for our task. Experiments on our dataset validate the effectiveness of the proposed pipeline. Detailed analyses and ablation studies are also provided.

1 Introduction

With the rapid growth of information, many tasks involve streamlining information comprehension, especially in the field of natural language processing (NLP). Summarization, for example, selects a subset of sentences or generates new content that best represents the given document (Hermann et al., 2015; See et al., 2017; Cohan et al., 2018); passage retrieval selects the most relevant passages from a collection of passages for a given query; reading comprehension answers questions about long documents or large document collections (Rajpurkar et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019). These tasks all mine important signals and thus help humans save time and effort when comprehending the contents of textual resources.

In the context of finance, comprehending regulatory financial narrative reports is a classic example of efficiently mining important signals from a large amount of text. Financial reports contain rich information concerning specific financial entities;

mining information from such reports provides insightful signals to users. For instance, Badertscher et al. (2018); Ertugrul et al. (2017); You and Zhang (2009) indicate that textual features from financial reports contain valuable financial signals about future firm performance and market reactions. While these signals exist in newly-published reports, authorities such as SEC require that companies provide comprehensive and detailed information about their current status, such that these reports often contain much unimportant and already-known information. For example, for each company, annual Form 10-K reports between adjacent years often exhibit high token overlap ratios, say 0.888 on average (the *overlapping characteristic*),¹ making the acquisition of important signals in new reports a lengthy, tedious process.

Recent advances in NLP technology have included attempts to alleviate the problem caused by recurring information in finance documents. This problem can be addressed from a summarization perspective (e.g., Zmandar et al., 2021b; Orzhenovskii, 2021; Gokhan et al., 2021), but this type of approach requires high-quality human-labeled ground truth to ensure high-accuracy models. Other approaches leverage numerical information, such as financial measures and historical prices—to locate important financial signals in financial reports (e.g., Kogan et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2021; Tsai and Wang, 2017; Agrawal et al., 2021). Nevertheless, signals discovered via such approaches depend greatly on the financial measures adopted as the ground truth, making it difficult to use them in more general scenarios.

Here, we approach financial report comprehension from a novel perspective. Given the year-to-year overlap of financial reports, we propose a new signal-highlighting task together with a multistage pipeline. Specifically, for a certain company, we

¹Calculated from Item 7 of the reports of the 3,849 companies from 2011 to 2018 (see FINAL dataset in Section 4).

treat the document published in the previous year as an information anchor (i.e., the reference) with which to construct a year-to-year structure to locate important financial signals in the report of the subsequent year (i.e., the target). First, we break down the document-to-document relationship into enumerated segment-to-segment relationships and filter out irrelevant or nearly identical segment pairs. We then leverage e-SNLI (Camburu et al., 2018), an external human-annotated dataset, for out-of-domain fine-tuning on BERT (Devlin et al., 2019); moreover, we propose a novel pseudo-labeling method together with a novel soft labeling loss for in-domain fine-tuning for the highlighting task. For experiments, we present a synthetic dataset consisting of 34,000 reference-to-target segment pairs for financial signal highlighting.² Experimental results validate the effectiveness of the proposed pipeline; detailed analyses and ablation studies are also provided.

2 Problem Definition

The year-to-year nature of financial reports enables us to leverage differences between company documents in consecutive years. As these differences sometimes reveal complex but insightful relationships within a pair of documents, we investigate such differences to further discover relationships through rationales, which are viewed as important signals in financial reports.

2.1 Reference-to-target Structure

Formally, for each company, \mathcal{D}_ℓ is a set containing all segments in its financial report at year ℓ , where each element $d \in \mathcal{D}_\ell$ refers to a single segment. While we regard a focal company’s financial report at year ℓ , \mathcal{D}_ℓ , as the *target* document, we view the same company’s report at year $\ell - 1$, $\mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}$, as the *reference* document. Given this annual nature (i.e., the reference-to-target structure) of financial reports, we further break down the document-to-document relationship between \mathcal{D}_ℓ and $\mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}$ into enumerated segment-to-segment relationships. We denote the set of enumerated segment pairs as $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$.³

However, as $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$ includes all pairs of segments enumerated from \mathcal{D}_ℓ , and $\mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}$ (i.e., $|\mathcal{D}_\ell||\mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}|$ pairs), intuitively, most segment pairs in $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$ have

²The dataset is available at https://anonymous.4open.science/r/fin_signal_highlighting/.

³Note that each $(\mathcal{D}_\ell, \mathcal{D}_{\ell-1})$ pair corresponds to a set of segment pairs $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$; to simplify the notation, we do not use the subscript for $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$ to characterize the different sets.

(a) Segment pairs in \mathcal{T}^β	
2016 (ref.)	<i>Our most critical accounting policies relate to revenue recognition, inventory, pension and other post-retirement benefit costs, goodwill, ...</i>
2017 (target)	<i>Our most critical accounting policies relate to revenue recognition, inventory, pension and other post-retirement benefit costs, goodwill, ...</i>
(b) Segment pairs in \mathcal{T}^α	
2017 (ref.)	<i>Net sales in the Americas increased 5%, or \$201.8 million, to \$4,302.9 million.</i>
2018 (target)	<i>Net sales in the Americas decreased 1%, or \$58.5 million, to \$4,513.8 million.</i>

Table 1: Segment pair classification

no interesting relationship. Hence, we reduce the set $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$ to \mathcal{T} by removing irrelevant segment pairs based on their syntactical similarities. Specifically, for each target segment $t \in \mathcal{D}_\ell$, we calculate the ROUGE-2 scores between the target segment t and all reference segments $r \in \mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}$ and sort the reference segments according to their scores in descending order as $\bar{S}(t) = (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}|})$,⁴ where r_k denotes the reference segment with the k -th highest ROUGE-2 score for the target segment t . With $\bar{S}(t)$, we then discard reference segments that fall behind the largest ROUGE-2 difference out of all possible ROUGE-2 differences, resulting in a truncated set $S(t)$.⁵ Note that the difference is calculated between the two ROUGE-2 scores from (r_k, r_{k-1}) . Finally, with S_t , the reduced segment pair set is $\mathcal{T} = \{(r, t) | (r, t) \in \bar{\mathcal{T}} \wedge r \in S(t)\}$.

To locate meaningful financial signals revealed by segment pair differences, we further classify each pair (r, t) in \mathcal{T} into the following two sets:

1. \mathcal{T}^β contains reference-to-target segment pairs with largely similar meanings (see Table 1(a)). Generally, there is no additionally noteworthy content in target segment t compared to reference segment r .
2. $\mathcal{T}^\alpha = \mathcal{T} \setminus \mathcal{T}^\beta$ contains segment pairs with dissimilar meanings (see Table 1(b)). Pairs in \mathcal{T}^α are further classified into two types based on their syntactic and semantic similarity, as discussed in Section 3.2.

⁴The round parentheses represent the ordered set.

⁵Empirically, there are often one to five remaining reference segments in the truncated set for a target segment t .

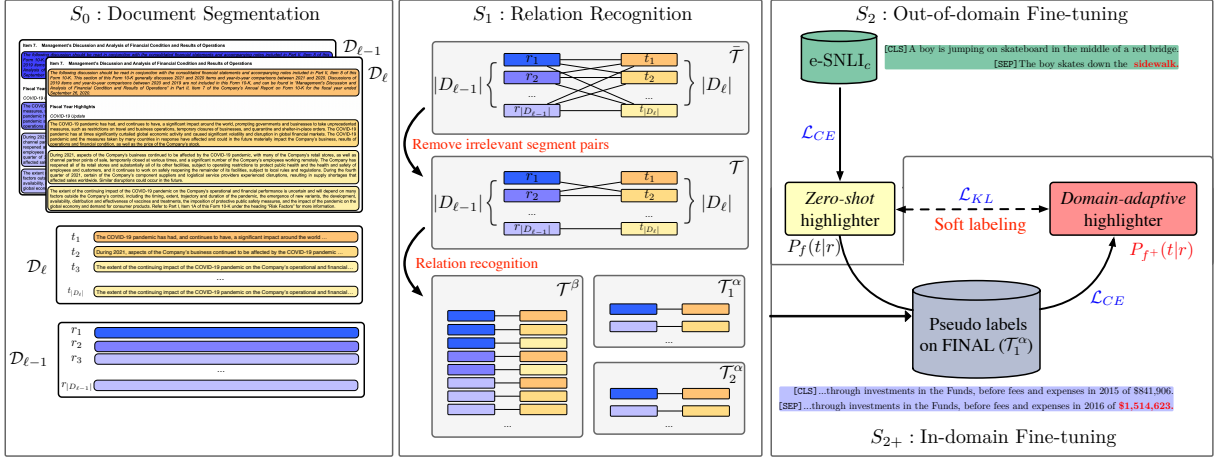


Figure 1: Proposed rationale discovery pipeline

2.2 Highlighting Task

We consider pairs in \mathcal{T}^α as the pairs of interest and provide rationales of underlying pairwise relationships by predicting the word importance for each segment pair $(r, t) \in \mathcal{T}^\alpha$ as

$$\mathbf{R} \triangleq P_f(t|r), \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{R} indicates the word importance of a target segment t conditioned on reference segment r , and the highlighting model is denoted as f (detailed in Sections 3.3 and 3.4).

3 Proposed Pipeline

Here we describe the proposed multistage pipeline for discovering the rationale behind the reference-to-target structure in financial reports (see Figure 1).

3.1 S_0 : Document Segmentation

Financial reports are multimodal, often covering multiple aspects and topics; each aspect or topic usually uses one to three consecutive sentences to convey its meaning. Therefore, instead of considering sentences as the basic unit of text, we here regard *uni-modal segments* as the smallest unit for financial documents. We utilize the fine-tuned cross-segment BERT (Lukasik et al., 2020) to obtain coherent uni-modal segments. Note that some studies show that breaking a document into uni-modal segments benefits downstream applications (Shtekh et al., 2018; Qiu et al., 2022).

3.2 S_1 : Relation Recognition

In this stage, a systematic procedure manages relation types \mathcal{T}^β and \mathcal{T}^α with semantic and syn-

tactic similarity. Specifically, we use two functions, ROUGE-2 and Sentence-BERT (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) cosine similarity,⁶ to assess the syntactic and semantic similarity between each reference-to-target pair $(r, t) \in \mathcal{T}$.⁷ The scores for the syntactic and semantic similarity are denoted as $\phi_{\text{syn}}(r, t)$ and $\phi_{\text{sem}}(r, t)$, respectively.⁸ We empirically design a rule-based procedure and classify each segment pair into three types; the procedure is also summarized in Figure 4 in Appendix B.

1. *Insignificant* relations (\mathcal{T}^β) correspond to uninformative segment pairs with highly similar syntactic and semantic meanings between target and reference segment (i.e., $\phi_{\text{syn}} > \epsilon_{\text{syn}}$ and $\phi_{\text{sem}} > \epsilon_{\text{sem}}$).
2. *Revised* relations (\mathcal{T}_1^α) correspond to segment pairs that differ in some words only but disclose quite different meanings, resulting in a high $\phi_{\text{syn}}(r, t)$ but a relatively low $\phi_{\text{sem}}(r, t)$ (i.e., $\phi_{\text{syn}} > \epsilon_{\text{syn}}$ and $\phi_{\text{sem}} < \epsilon_{\text{sem}}$).
3. *Mismatched* relations (\mathcal{T}_2^α) correspond to segment pair meanings that are to some extent mutually exclusive, resulting in a low $\phi_{\text{syn}}(r, t)$ (i.e., $\phi_{\text{syn}} < \epsilon_{\text{syn}}$).

Note that we discuss the settings of thresholds ϵ_{syn} and ϵ_{sem} in Appendix B.

⁶We derive segment embeddings using average pooling.

⁷Note that before the following procedure, we first reduce the set $\tilde{\mathcal{T}}$ to \mathcal{T} by removing irrelevant segment pairs (see Section 2.1).

⁸Note that the scoring functions are not limited to these two but can be replaced with other suitable functions.

3.3 S_2 : Out-of-domain Fine-tuning

Here we pinpoint financial signals for segment pairs in $\mathcal{T}^\alpha = \mathcal{T}_1^\alpha \cup \mathcal{T}_2^\alpha$. Specifically, for each segment pair $(r, t) \in \mathcal{T}^\alpha$, we discover alignment rationales as important words in target segment t , where the rationales are inferred conditioned on reference segment r (see Eq. (1)).

Binary token classification To accomplish this, we cast the word importance prediction as supervised binary token classification. First, we leverage the pre-trained BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) model to construct contextualized reference-to-target pair representations, where each pair of interest constitutes an input with special tokens as

$$\mathbf{h}_{(r,t)} = \text{BERT}([\text{CLS}]r[\text{SEP}]t),$$

where $\mathbf{h}_{(r,t)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ is the contextualized token representation of the pair, d is the dimension of each token representation, and n is the number of tokens in segment pair (r, t) . Second, on top of the token representation $\mathbf{h}_{(r,t)}$, we add a highlighting model $f(\cdot)$ (an MLP layer) with softmax activations. The resultant conditional word importance $P_f^j(t|r)$ for the j -th word in target segment t is

$$P_f^j(t|r) = \frac{\exp\left(\left(f\left(\mathbf{h}_{(r,t)}^j\right)[1]\right)/\tau\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^2 \exp\left(\left(f\left(\mathbf{h}_{(r,t)}^j\right)[i]\right)/\tau\right)}, \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{h}_{(r,t)}^j$ denotes the token representation of the j -th word in target segment t (i.e., the j -th row vector of $\mathbf{h}_{(r,t)}$), $f(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, and τ is a hyperparameter that controls the probability distribution.

Signal highlighting warm-up As we view signal highlighting as binary token classification, we first fine-tune the model $f(\cdot)$ on e-SNLI (Camburu et al., 2018), an external human-annotated dataset, to obtain a zero-shot model. Note that e-SNLI was compiled for explanation generation with human-annotated rationale words to distinguish relations of aligned sentence pairs (r', t') (i.e., premise and hypothesis) in natural language inference. We then treat the annotated words as the ground truth for the premise-to-hypothesis relation,⁹ which is similar to our defined reference-to-target structure. Formally, we adopt the binary cross-entropy objective for each token in hypothesis t' to fine-tune the BERT

⁹Here, we specifically select *contradiction* pairs in e-SNLI as this relationship is closer to our goal than the other two.

token representations and the highlighting model $f(\cdot)$ as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} = \sum_j - \left(Y_{t'}^j \log P_f^j(t'|r') \right) + \left(1 - Y_{t'}^j \right) \log \left(1 - P_f^j(t'|r') \right),$$

where $Y_{t'}$ is a vector in which each element $Y_{t'}^j$ indicates the binary label of word importance for the j -th word in hypothesis t' . We thus construct the out-of-domain zero-shot highlighting model by fine-tuning on e-SNLI, which is regarded as a baseline to proceed with the following financial domain adaptation.

3.4 S_{2+} : In-domain Fine-tuning

Generally, for applications, particularly in niche domains like finance, models with a zero-shot setting may not be effective enough. Also, several studies show that language models exhibit poor performance under domain shift scenarios (Ben-David et al., 2006; Han and Eisenstein, 2019; Gururangan et al., 2020; Li et al., 2022). We account for this by equipping the proposed pipeline with an extra in-domain fine-tuning stage to enable our highlighting model to properly adapt to the financial domain. Specifically, we construct a domain-adaptive financial signal highlighting model $f_+(\cdot)$ with the following learning strategies: (1) pseudo-labeling with revised segment pairs in \mathcal{T}_1^α , and (2) further fine-tuning with soft labels.

Pseudo-labeling with revised segment pairs

We introduce a simple yet effective pseudo-labeling approach that uses revised segment pairs (i.e., \mathcal{T}_1^α) collected from stage S_1 (see Section 3.2). Recall that these segment pairs differ in some words only but have quite different meanings. Given such a property, we establish a heuristic labeling approach for pseudo-labels of financial signals. Intuitively, we treat all revised words in target segment t as important words and mark them as positive, and randomly sample other words as negative ones.¹⁰

Further fine-tuning with soft labels

To compensate for deficiencies in such assertive binary pseudo-labels, we use soft labeling to make the token representations more generalized. Initially, as illustrated in Figure 1, we leverage the zero-shot highlighting model $f(\cdot)$ learned at stage S_2

¹⁰We set the number of negative labels to three times that of the positive ones.

to calculate the approximate word importance of the revised segment pairs, the results of which are regarded as soft labels compared to the assertive pseudo-binary labels. We then construct the soft-labeling objective \mathcal{L}_{SL} as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SL}} = \gamma \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} + (1 - \gamma) \mathcal{L}_{\text{KL}}, \quad (3)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{KL}} = \sum_j -\text{KL} \left(P_f^j(t|r) \parallel P_{f_+}^j(t|r) \right) \quad (4)$$

and γ is a hyperparameter that controls the impact of soft labeling. In Eqs. (3) and (4), $\text{KL}(\cdot)$ denotes Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence, and $P_f(t|r)$ and $P_{f_+}(t|r)$ indicate the (fixed) posterior probability and estimated probability distributions predicted by $f(\cdot)$ and $f_+(\cdot)$, respectively. Finally, we fine-tune the highlighting model $f_+(\cdot)$ with the pseudo-labels annotated on segments in \mathcal{T}_1^α by optimizing \mathcal{L}_{SL} in Eq. (3). Note that we not only utilize probabilities $P_f(t|r)$ as our training targets (i.e., soft labels) for \mathcal{L}_{KL} but we also adopt the warm-start token representations and highlighting layer $f(\cdot)$ as the initial checkpoint for fine-tuning $f_+(\cdot)$. In addition, we discover that hyperparameters τ and γ affect the performance significantly. We discuss the hyperparameter search in Appendix A.

4 The FINAL Dataset

We constructed FINAL (**FIN**ancial-**AL**pha), a financial signal highlighting dataset. FINAL consists of 30,400 reference-to-target segment pairs $(r, t) \in \mathcal{T}^\alpha$.

4.1 Financial 10-K Corpus Preprocessing

We used Form 10-K filings collected from the Software Repository for Accounting and Finance,¹¹ where a Form 10-K is an annual report required by the U.S. SEC. Specifically, we used 10-K filings from 2011 to 2018, which comprise 63,336 filings from 12,960 public companies. To make the best use of the year-to-year information, we discarded companies for which the reports in some years were missing during the period; 3,849 companies ($3,849 \times 8 = 30,792$ reports total) remained after this filtering. We then sampled 200 companies from the 3,849 companies with their annual reports to construct the dataset. In addition, while every 10-K annual report contains 15 schedules (e.g., Items 1,

¹¹<https://sraf.nd.edu/sec-edgar-data/>

(a) FINAL dataset

	Pairs	Avg. $ t $	Avg. $ r $	Avg. $\#w_+$	Avg. $\#w_-$
Train (\mathcal{T}_1^α)	30,000	31.3	33.2	3.7	60.8
Eval (\mathcal{T}_1^α)	200	33.2	31.3	5.5	25.9
Eval (\mathcal{T}_2^α)	200	29.6	29.0	11.0	18.0

(b) e-SNLI_c dataset

	Pairs	Avg. $ t $	Avg. $ r $	Avg. $\#w_+$	Avg. $\#w_-$
Train	183,160	8.2	14.1	2.0	6.2
Test	3237	8.1	15.3	2.1	6.0

Table 2: Dataset statistics

1A, 1B, 2, 3, ..., 7, 7A, ..., 15),¹² we extracted only Item 7 (Management’s Discussion and Analysis of Financial Conditions and Results of Operations (“MD&A”)) to form the FINAL dataset.¹³ Finally, we aligned each document \mathcal{D}_ℓ with its corresponding last-year document $\mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}$, resulting in 1,400 reference-to-target document pairs (i.e., 200 companies \times 7 year-to-year pairs).

4.2 Year-to-year Segment Pair Generation

After preprocessing, we followed the proposed multi-stage pipeline by first passing each document pair through stage S_0 to obtain an enumerated set of segment pairs $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$; we then reduced $\bar{\mathcal{T}}$ to \mathcal{T} by removing irrelevant segment pairs (see Section 2.1). Next, we followed the relation recognition stage S_1 in Section 3.2 to obtain the two groups of segment pairs: \mathcal{T}_1^α and \mathcal{T}_2^α . From each of these two groups, we randomly sampled 200 pairs for human annotation as our evaluation sets. Likewise, we randomly sampled 30,000 pairs from the rest of the revised segment pairs (i.e., \mathcal{T}_1^α) as the training set for the pseudo-labeling approach in Section 3.4.

4.3 Human Annotation

To evaluate the empirical effectiveness of the proposed pipeline, we manually annotated the sampled 400 segment pairs. For each segment pair (r, t) , we collected important words (i.e., financial signals) from three annotators. Specifically, the annotators were to distinguish which words in each target segment t to regard as important financial signals according to the context of the corresponding reference segment r . That is, the annotated words were to characterize the reference-to-target relationship or disclose extra information of interest,¹⁴ whereas

¹²https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Form_10-K

¹³This setting follows most of the literature regarding textual analysis of financial reports.

¹⁴The annotation guidelines are provided in Appendix C.

the rest of the words in t were labeled as negative. We further assessed the inter-rater reliability of the three annotations with Fleiss’ κ (Fleiss, 1971). For simplicity, we treated each word in the target segment as an independent classification task (containing roughly 12K words in the 400 evaluation pairs): for evaluation pairs from \mathcal{T}_1^α , $\kappa = 0.71$; for those from \mathcal{T}_2^α , $\kappa = 0.60$. The training and evaluation sets are described in Table 2(a), where Avg. $|t|$ and Avg. $|r|$ are the average lengths of target and reference segments, respectively, and Avg. $\#w_+$ and Avg. $\#w_-$ are the average numbers of words annotated as positive and negative, respectively.

5 Experiments

5.1 Evaluation Datasets

FINAL We evaluated the highlighting performance on the two evaluation sets with the human-annotated ground truth (see Table 2(a)).

e-SNLI_c We additionally evaluated the performance on e-SNLI. Particularly, in this paper, we used only the premise-to-hypothesis sentence pairs labeled as *contradiction* (denoted as e-SNLI_c) in the test set of the e-SNLI dataset for evaluation (see Table 2(b)).

5.2 Evaluation Metrics

Recall-sensitive metric In practice, financial practitioners are usually concerned more about the recall of the discovered signals than their precision due to the high cost of missing signals. Accordingly, we borrow the idea of R -precision (Buckley and Voorhees, 2000), a metric from the information retrieval field. In our case, R -precision (R -Prec) is the precision at R , where R is the number of annotated words in each target segment: if there are r annotated words among the top- R predicted words, then the R -precision is r/R .

Sequence agreement of word importance In addition, we measure the agreement between the predicted importance of words for each target segment (considered as a consecutive number sequence) and its corresponding ground-truth sequence. Specifically, we utilize the Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) for evaluation.

Note that for R -Prec, we use majority voting to derive single ground-truth labels from the three annotators, whereas for PCC, we take the mean agreement of the three annotations as the ground

#	W.U.	Labeling		FINAL		e-SNLI _c	
		P	S	<i>R</i> -Prec	PCC	<i>R</i> -Prec	PCC
Zero-Shot							
1	✓	✗	✗	0.7469	0.6067	0.8565	0.7555
Pseudo few-shot							
2	✗	✓	✗	0.6968	0.6368	0.6302	0.5752
Domain-adaptive							
3	✓	✓	✗	0.7160	0.6555	0.8475	0.7305
4	✓	✓	✓	0.7865*	0.7290*	0.8605	0.7566

Table 3: Highlighting performance

truth. Note also that neither of the above two metrics requires a hard threshold to determine the important words for evaluation. Whereas R -Prec considers the words with the top- R highest predicted probabilities, PCC directly leverages the predicted probabilities of words as the importance of words for calculation.

5.3 Compared Methods

Zero-shot We fine-tuned the BERT-base model on the e-SNLI_c training set (see Table 2(b)) with the binary token classification cross-entropy objective (See Section 3.3 for details) and used this as a zero-shot approach for financial signal highlighting.

Pseudo few-shot Instead of using e-SNLI_c, we fine-tuned the BERT-base model on the 30,000 revised segment pairs in \mathcal{T}_1^α (see the “Train” data in Table 2(a)) with the pseudo-label tokens (see pseudo-labeling introduced in Section 3.4) and use this as a pseudo few-shot approach.

Domain-adaptive Using the zero-shot highlighting model as the initialization, we further performed in-domain fine-tuning (see stage S_2^+ in Section 3.4) for domain adaptation.

5.4 Empirical Results

5.4.1 Main Results for Signal Highlighting

Performance on FINAL Table 3 tabulates the highlighting performance under four conditions (i.e., #1–#4), where W.U. denotes that e-SNLI_c is used for warm-up fine-tuning (i.e., the zero-shot highlighting model), **P** and **S** denote pseudo and soft labeling, respectively.

We first focus on the results of the main task on FINAL, where the listed results are those evaluated on the union of the two evaluation sets (including 400 segment pairs in total). As shown in the table, the proposed domain-adaptive approach using both pseudo and soft labeling techniques (i.e., condi-

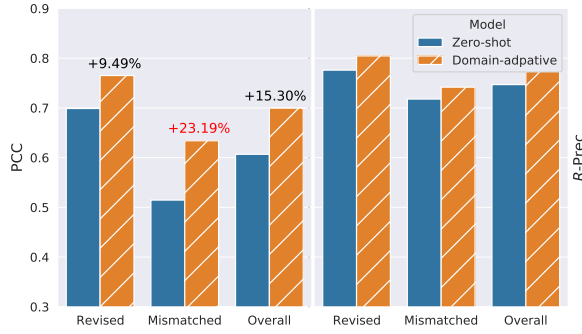


Figure 2: Highlighting effectiveness for different relations, including \mathcal{T}_1^α and \mathcal{T}_2^α with two evaluation metrics.

tion #4) achieves the best R -Prec of 0.7865 and PCC of 0.7290. In addition, from the performance increase from condition #2 to #3, we observe that warm-up fine-tuning (W.U.) plays an essential role in financial signal highlighting. Similarly, soft labeling is also beneficial for our task, bringing a 10% performance improvement in both evaluation metrics (by comparing the results of conditions #3 and #4). However, from the results of conditions #1 and #3, we observe that adopting pseudo-labeling alone might not be helpful for this task, perhaps because the pseudo-labels constructed by the proposed heuristic approach (see Section 3.3) are too aggressive for unimportant tokens, resulting in a biased highlighting model. In sum, we offer two main observations from Table 3.

- The proposed domain-adaptive fine-tuning with pseudo and soft labeling is effective for signal highlighting in financial reports.
- Warm-up fine-tuning and soft labeling are two crucial components to constructing an effective domain-adaptive highlighting model.

Generalization ability between domains Table 3 also lists the results on the e-SNLI_c testing data: only the model with condition #4 performs on par with or even outperforms that with condition #1 (i.e., zero-shot), showing that the highlighting model fine-tuned by the propose domain-adaptive approach exhibits good generalizability.

5.4.2 Analyses on Different Types of Target-reference Segment Pairs

To better understand the empirical advantages of the domain-adaptive approach, we further investigate the highlighting performance for different kinds of reference-to-target relations, \mathcal{T}_1^α (*revised*) and \mathcal{T}_2^α (*mismatched*). Figure 2 compares the results of the zero-shot (#1) and domain-adaptive (#4)

Reference settings		FINAL		e-SNLI _c	
		R -Prec	PCC	R -Prec	PCC
Empty	[PAD]	0.4834	0.4033	0.6553	0.5687
Same	t	0.5108	0.3850	0.5697	0.4994
Random	\tilde{r}	0.5345	0.4582	0.5658	0.4628
Original	r	0.7865	0.7290	0.8605	0.7566

Table 4: Impact of referenced knowledge sources

methods in terms of two metrics. We here focus on PCC, as R -precision considers only the set of important words (i.e., positive words) instead of all the words in each target segment. In the figure, we see that despite the significant PCC improvements on both *revised* and *mismatched* pairs, the benefit of domain adaptation on mismatched pairs is markedly greater than that on revised pairs, yielding a PCC improvement of approximately 23%. Perhaps the important words in the mismatched pairs are more uncertain, necessitating intensive domain adaptation more than the words in the revised pairs. Note that we fine-tuned the model on only 30,000 revised segment pairs in \mathcal{T}_1^α for domain adaptation; however, the highlighting results of mismatched pairs \mathcal{T}_2^α exhibit more significant improvement. This suggests that the proposed domain-adaptive approach addresses domain shift and yields a superior ability to infer word importance even for unfamiliar (unseen) relationships.

5.5 Ablation Studies

5.5.1 Impact of Referenced Sources

We first determined the impact of the reference segment, which is viewed as the context of a given target segment in terms of discovering the financial signals in the target segment. To this end, for each reference-to-target pair (r, t) , we substituted the original reference segment r (i.e., the most syntactically similar segment in the previous years' document $\mathcal{D}_{\ell-1}$) for other text and constructed a few variants of variant-to-target segment pairs for inference using the highlighting model. Specifically, we fixed the target segment but recast the BERT contextualized representation of variant pairs as

- **Empty:** A single [PAD] token is used as the reference segment (implying *none* in BERT);
- **Same:** The target segment is used as the reference segment;
- **Random:** A randomly selected segment is used as the reference segment.

In Table 4, the original setup significantly out-

Pseudo-labeling	FINAL		e-SNLI _c	
	<i>R</i> -Prec	PCC	<i>R</i> -Prec	PCC
Lexicon-based Labeling	0.6457	0.5774	0.6419	0.5847
+ Soft Label	0.6806	0.5932	0.8468	0.7261
Heuristic Labeling (#2)	0.6968	0.6368	0.6302	0.5752
+ Soft Label (#4)	0.7865	0.7290	0.8605	0.7566

Table 5: Different pseudo-labeling approaches

performs the other three settings in both FINAL and e-SNLI_c. We conclude that the knowledge provided by the reference segments is critical for capturing important financial signals in the corresponding target segment.

5.5.2 Effect of Lexicon-based labeling

Recall that in Section 3.4, we introduced a heuristic pseudo-labeling approach that views all revised words in target segment t as important words and marks them as positive while we randomly sample other words as negative words. We here test the effect of additionally incorporating an external financial lexicon for pseudo-labeling. Specifically, we adopt the most representative financial sentiment lexicon—the *Loughran–McDonald Master Dictionary* (Loughran and McDonald, 2011)—and assume that in addition to the revised words in the heuristic approach, the 3,872 sentiment words in the dictionary also reveal important financial signals (i.e., are labeled as positive). Additionally, we treat the 20K most frequently-occurring words as well as the standard stopwords as negative words. Note that we term this pseudo-labeling approach *lexicon-based labeling*.

Table 5 compares the results of lexicon-based labeling and heuristic labeling. Surprisingly, adding the lexicon for pseudo-labeling does not improve performance but instead worsens the highlighting results. Although these financial sentiment words convey important financial signals, they are globally important among all financial reports. However, this characteristic precludes the use of the lexicon for company-specific reference-to-target highlighting, which is focused more on local relationships between a pair of segments.

6 Related Work

There are two main approaches for fast comprehension in the context of financial applications. The first approach proceeds from the perspective of summarization, a conventional NLP task. Zmandar et al. (2021a) proposed the Financial Narrative

Summarisation shared task (FNS 2020) for summarizing annual UK reports. FNS collected annual reports from the London Stock Exchange and asked authors to choose sections in the report that could be considered a summary of the whole document as the ground truth. Although some methods for this task (Zmandar et al., 2021b; Orzhenovskii, 2021; Gokhan et al., 2021) yield efficient pipelines with strong ROUGE performance, these are not comprehensive enough to identify all signals under a recall-sensitive scenario. Specifically, users may miss important signals when leveraging model outputs under a ROUGE-guided policy; for example, identical sentences that differ only in one term (e.g., different sales numbers or antonyms) can convey huge dissimilarities in terms of meaning. Moreover, for such approaches, high-quality human-labeled ground truth information is necessary to ensure accurate models.

For most scenarios, however, such manual ground truth labels are unavailable. Therefore, many attempts have been made to discover rationales sensitive to particular numerical information, such as stock return volatility and excess returns. For instance, Kogan et al. (2009); Lin et al. (2021); Tsai and Wang (2017) leverage machine learning models to discover signals through the correlation of tokens and quantitative indicators from the financial market, Huang and Li (2011); Lin et al. (2011) adapt clustering methods to distill information from financial reports and automatically classify risk factors or stock price movements, and Agrawal et al. (2021) leverage attention scores learned from a hierarchical model to identify representative sentences in financial reports. Nevertheless, signals discovered via such approaches depend heavily on ground-truth financial measures, making it difficult to apply them in general scenarios.

7 Conclusion

This paper addresses the task of discovering insightful financial signals between two narrative financial reports in consecutive years. Using the *reference-to-target* textual structure of financial reports, we develop a multi-stage pipeline mainly consisting of relation recognition and signal highlighting stages. Particularly, we propose a few learning strategies for domain-adaptive signal highlighting, including out-of-domain warming-up and in-domain fine-tuning. Empirical results confirm the effectiveness of the proposed domain-adaptation approaches. We

also release the newly constructed FINAL dataset for further research.

Our future works include topics regarding 1) higher efficiency: integrating dense retrieval methods into our pipeline; 2) better effectiveness: developing multi-task learning on large financial corpus as financial pre-trained representations; 3) analyzing cross-company relationships: further company analysis beyond year-to-year relationships.

8 Limitations

This paper aims to provide crucial financial signals in reports which can help financial practitioners to efficiently digest long financial documents. However, many factors, such as macroeconomics, stock prices, and public policies, may affect how a financial practitioner views financial reports in practice. Some confidential intelligence or social media may affect analyzed results even greatly. Therefore, we limit our task to the scenario that only content in reports are available information for users. Accordingly, we acquire the annotations from annotators under similar scenarios (graduate students majoring in accounting or other related fields) rather than financial professionals to avoid biased annotations.

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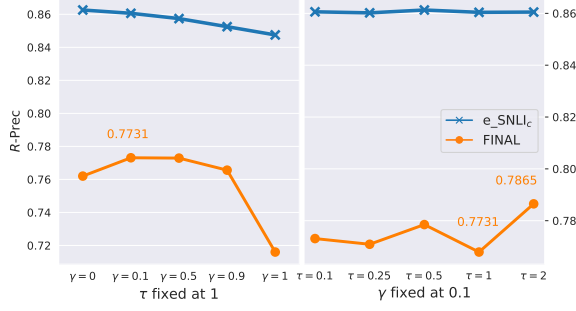


Figure 3: Domain-adaptive labeling

A Hyperparameter Search

Recall that while the hyperparameter τ in Eq. (2) controls the probability distribution of the word importance, γ in Eq. (3) controls the impact of soft labeling. Figure 3 shows the performance in terms of R -Prec with different hyperparameter settings, where the left panel shows the results of τ fixed at 1 with γ ranging from 0 to 1, and the right panel shows that of γ fixed at 0.1 with τ ranging from 0.1 to 2. In the left panel of the figure, on FINAL, we see that solely adopting cross-entropy loss \mathcal{L}_{CE} ($\gamma = 1$) is not effective for fine-tuning the signal highlighting model, nor is adopting KL loss \mathcal{L}_{KL} ($\gamma = 0$) (see Eq. (3)); $\gamma = 0.1$ achieves the best R -Prec. These empirical results again attest the effectiveness of the proposed soft labeling for our highlighting task. In addition, we froze γ at 0.1 and experimented with the temperature parameter τ , the results of which are shown in the right panel of Figure 3, showing that $\tau = 2$ is the most effective setting. We thus set our final hyperparameters to $\tau = 2$ and $\gamma = 0.1$ to yield the best performance.

B Empirical Thresholds

For the relation recognition procedure in S_1 (see Section 3.2 and Figure 4), we empirically set the thresholds ϵ_{syn} and ϵ_{sem} based on our observations on the FINAL dataset. As we observe the average overlapping token ratio given pairs of financial reports (i.e., $(\mathcal{D}_\ell, \mathcal{D}_{\ell-1})$) is roughly 0.9, we thereby set the ϵ_{syn} to X—the 90% percentile of all ROUGE-2 scores $\phi_{syn}(r, t)$. As for the ϵ_{sem} , we see the polarized distributions in terms of Sentence-BERT cosine similarity $\phi_{sem}(r, t)$ after excluding *mismatched* segment pairs, as illustrated in Figure ?? . We then empirically set ϵ_{sem} to Y as the boundary of *insignificant* relations and *revised* relations (\mathcal{T}^β and \mathcal{T}_1^α , respectively). Note that, in this work, we adopt a heuristic rule-based method for

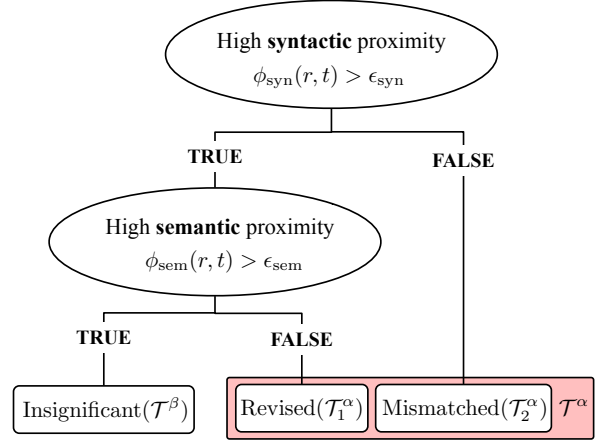


Figure 4: Relation recognition

recognizing the relations using similarity functions with hard thresholds. We leave the explorations of other similarity functions, thresholds, and/or approaches as our future work.

C Annotation Guidelines

For each segment pair, we ask the annotators to focus on the semantic difference regarding the *reference-to-target* relationship and annotate words in the target segment as positive when the words are considered important financial signals. The following guidelines are given for the annotators' reference.

- **Changes:** Changing numbers or objects are important signals in financial reports (e.g., sales, cost, partnership, products, etc.).
- **Opposition:** Descriptive phrases that indicate distant semantic meanings (e.g., increased/decreased, effective/ineffective, etc.).
- **Precise:** Labeling words with high confidence as positive only (i.e., leaving ambiguous words as negative).
- **Extra information:** Identifying new information according to the context, for which the annotators need to consider the reference segment as the context (e.g. new policy, canceled deals, published new products, etc.).