Exploring Extractive and Abstractive Approaches for Multi-Document Summarization: An End-to-End System with Benchmarking and Error Analysis

Anna Batra, Sam Briggs, Junyin Chen, Hilly Steinmetz

Department of Linguistics, University of Washington {batraa, briggs3, junyinc, hsteinm}@uw.edu

Abstract

As the number of online publications continues to grow at a rapid pace, there is a pressing need for a valuable tool that can automatically generate summaries from multiple articles. Our paper explores multiple approaches to multidocument summarization. These approaches include both extractive and abstractive methods. In this paper, we choose to explore Integer Linear Programming, LexRank, and Pegasus summarization methods. We build end-to-end systems using these selected methods. Finally, we will benchmark selected methods and perform an error analysis to evaluate their effectiveness.

1 Introduction

Text summarization is a process of generating summaries that are both accurate and concise from one or more input documents. It is an important task in Natural Language Processing and its applications are growing due to the increasing demand for concise and easily-understood content. There are currently extractive and abstractive approaches to summarization. Extractive summarization pulls key phrases from the source document to combine them to make a summary. Abstractive summarization generates new sentences that capture the main ideas of the source documents. A well-written abstractive summary includes the main information from the source and is expressed in fluent language.

Creating a well-organized summary that comprehensively covers a news event while avoiding repetition is a challenge when summarizing from multiple documents. The input documents may have varying focuses and viewpoints on the event.

In the past, two common algorithms for summarization were tackled by using non-neural methods, such as framing the task as a binary integer linear programming problem (ILP), or by employing the LexRank algorithm to rank sentences automatically based on internal relations between sentences.

Neural methods for text summarization have recently advanced and have mostly been used for single-document summarization (SDS) and headline generation. Fabbri et al. (2019) created the Multi-News dataset, the first large-scale Multi-document summarization (MDS) news dataset, as previous MDS datasets such as TAC 2011 (Owczarzak and Dang, 2011) contain less than 100 document clusters. However, current popular language models for summarization, such as BART (Lewis et al., 2019), T5 (Raffel et al., 2019), PEGASUS (Zhang et al., 2019), have optimized for single document summarization.

In our paper, we have made the following contributions: We evaluated the performance of LexRank and Integer Linear Programming as content selection methods and evaluated a topic clustering algorithm for information ordering using different sentence vectors. We implemented an content realization algorithm (and redundancy filter) to improve summary readability. We also evaluated the performance of PEGASUS when dealing with the MDS dataset. We built end-to-end systems to incorporate various methods and benchmark our systems' performance, as well as perform error analyses on our selected methods.

2 Related Works

2.1 Content Selection

Before the advent of neural networks, researchers often took an extractive approach to summarization. Many extractive approaches attempt to assign sentences in a document set an importance value. Some approaches look to words to determine the importance of a sentence. For instance, MEAD (Radev et al., 2000) sums the termfrequency inverse-document-frequency (TF-IDF) scores in a sentence to obtain a centroid score for each sentence. RegSumm also determines importance based on words: it runs a regression model

using a number of features, the key feature being the likelihood of a word appearing in a summary (Hong and Nenkova, 2014). Others, attempt to look to relationships between sentences to determine their relative importance, an approach taken by the CLASSY system (Conroy et al., 2005), which trains a Hidden Markov model to calculate the probability that a sentence will be emitted given previous sentence emissions.

Our system employs two unsupervised methods that calculate sentence importance using both word-based and sentence-based techniques. Both techniques make use of TF-IDF to determine the relative importance of a sentence or topic in a document set. Integer Linear Programming (ILP) optimizes the output summary by calculating the weights afforded to different concepts (with ngrams being a proxy for concepts). Previous content selection methods that used ILP include (Gillick et al., 2008) and (Luo et al., 2018), on which we based our ILP content selection method. LexRank is an adaption of the PageRank algorithm (Page et al., 1999), and was proposed as an alternative to centroid-based approaches like MEAD. LexRank leverages relationships between documents by creating a weighted graph that connects sentences. Relating the sentences to one another has the advantage of (1) dampening the effect of high IDF scores of rare words (when using TF-IDF vectors) and (2) formalizing a preference for more informative (or more connected) sentences.

In recent years, neural methods have emerged as a promising alternative for text summarization, with both extractive (Nallapati et al., 2016b; Narayan et al., 2018) or abstractive approaches (Chopra et al., 2016; Nallapati et al., 2016a; Celikyilmaz et al., 2018). Additionally, the advent of large language models (LLMs) and the pretraining-finetuning paradigm, has resulted in a boost in performance for summarization tasks. Our system also implements a pretrained deep-learning model to generate summaries using the document sets as inputs.

2.2 Content Ordering

Previous approaches to summarization also included information ordering, or reordering the sentences in a given summary to increase comprehensibility, cohesion and coherence. Previous information ordering approaches included (Barzilay et al., 2002), on which we loosely based our information

ordering algorithm.

2.3 Content Realization

Communication often relies on a common ground of knowledge between the person communicating a message and the receiver of that message. Because an extractive approach can take sentences from any point in an article, corrections need to be made to enhance a summary's readability. Siddharthan et al. (2011) discuss the features of summaries that most impact its readability finding that unseen nouns should be explained clearly, while seen nouns can be compressed to pronouns or short phrases. Several papers attempt to improve summaries by replacing noun phrases (NPs) with coreferring noun phrases. Nenkova et al. (2011) calculates weights for NPs in a document using word frequencies and replaces coreferring NPs in summaries with the NP with the highest weight. Siddharthan et al. (2011) replaces NPs in summaries with the longest premodified (or just longest if no premodified NP exists) coreferring NP in the original document.

3 System Overview

After pre-processing steps, including raw text collection and tokenization of paragraphs, sentences, and words, we build off of four content selection methods. One is our baseline, Lead-k, which simply takes the first k sentences in a document. Two use a extractive approach and build off of a shared TF-IDF class: Integer Linear Programming (ILP) & LexRank. The fourth content selection model uses an abstractive approach, using gap sentence generation on a large language model. It has a direct connection with the ROUGE score as it uses it to figure out the importance of sentences during training.

Lead-k, ILP, and LexRank all use clustering and coreference resolution as information ordering and content realization methods respectively. The large language model uses a sequence to sequence model to improve upon information ordering and content realization together.

Figure 1 provides an illustration of our system architecture.

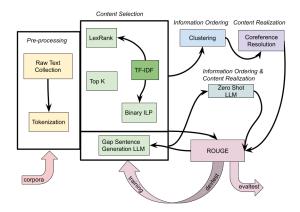


Figure 1: The base system architecture from preprocessing the data to content realization

4 Approach

4.1 Data Pre-processing

4.1.1 Accessing Input Data

We used the data from the TAC 2009 (Owczarzak and Dang, 2009), 2010 (Owczarzak and Dang, 2010), 2011 (Owczarzak and Dang, 2011) Shared Task data. TAC 2009 was used for training, TAC 2010 was use for testing, and TAC 2011 was used for validation. To process the given XML files to retrieve the set of document names in docSetA, we used xml.etree.ElementTree. We then figured out which corpus data path matched each document in docSetA.

In order to read in these AQUAINT and AQUIANT2 files that are organized differently, we used lxml.etree as this can parse non-XML compliant files. We found there are three different organization methods that were used, and we made sure to process each kind uniquely. From these files, we parsed the headline, time, and raw text paragraphs.

4.1.2 Tokenization

After getting the raw text, we used NLTK (Bird et al., 2009) for text tokenization. Specifically, we used the English model tokenizer (tokenizers/punkt/english.pickle). We first tokenize the document on sentence level, and then for each tokenized sentence, we ran a word tokenizer. This gave us a list of sentences, where each sentence contains tokenized words.

4.1.3 Sentence Embeddings

We wanted to investigate whether semantic information can improve the performance of various algorithms used to generate summaries. We compared the performance of the LexRank and

topic clustering algorithms by utilizing TF-IDF, Word2Vec (Mikolov et al., 2013), and DistilBERT (Sanh et al., 2019) to generate document vectors. For the pretrained word2vec model, we used the continuous bag of words (CBOW) model trained on the Google News corpus.

Creating vectors from each document involve different pooling methods. The TF-IDF vector was constructed by using either calculating TF-IDF for each document, with IDF values obtain either from the document set or data set. IDF values can also be derived from the training set in order to upweight uncommon words and downweight common ones. Word2vec vectors were created by averaging each word vector (obtained from the pretrained model). DistilBERT vectors were created by obtaining the final hidden states of the pretrained model, and averaging these final states.

4.2 Content Selection

4.2.1 Baseline: Lead K

For our baseline we implemented taking the first k sentences of the first document in the docset. If the first sentence is too long (over 100 words), we keep skipping the first few sentences until we find one sentence less than 100 words. Then, we continue adding more sentences one by one until the next sentence makes the summary over 100 words. This means possibly we could end up with a one sentence summary if the proceeding sentence already makes it over 100 words.

4.2.2 TF-IDF

To obtain the importance of an n-gram in a given document set, we used the term-frequency, inverse document frequency ($\mathbf{tf} \cdot \mathbf{idf}$) metric. To calculate, we used a few different formulas with different parameters. The parameters were as follows:

- N-gram: Whether to treat each term as a unigram, bigram, or trigram. Padding was incorporated here for both start of sentence and end of sentence tokens, using nltk.util.ngrams.
- Eliminate_punctuation: Whether to include punctuation or not.
- Casing: Whether to lowercase all letters, or maintain original capitalization
- log: Whether to use logged equations or not (see equations in section 4.2.2)

- log_base: If logged equations are used, what base to use
- smoothing: Whether or not to smooth TF and IDF by adding a small value to word counts
 - tf_delta: Add a small value δ_1 to word counts when calculating TF (if smoothing)
 - idf_delta: Add a small value δ_2 to word counts when calculating IDF (if smoothing)

One difference than normal tf-idf is that we used tf at a different level of document than idf. For LexRank we used a sentence level document, while allowing the idf to span over the entire data set. For ILP, we used a docset level document, while allowing the idf to span over the entire data set. This will help to make frequent words insignificant and help located the more important words for the sentence or document set.

Using the logarithmically scaled, add δ_1 smoothed tf, and we used an add δ_2 smoothed idf to weight each term in the document set (Seki, 2003).

Given all the training data D with N documents, an n-gram t, and a document set $d \subseteq D$, we calculated the logged term-frequency, inverse document frequency as follows:

First, we let:

$$f_{t,d} = \text{count}(t) \text{ for } t \in d$$
 (1)

$$n_t = |\{d \mid t \in d, d \in D\}|$$
 (2)

If logged, we calculate as follows:

$$tf \cdot idf(t, d, D) = tf(t, d) \cdot idf(t, d, D)$$
 (3)

$$tf(t,d) = \log(\delta_1 + f_{t,d}) \tag{4}$$

$$idf(t, D) = \delta_2 + \log\left(\frac{N}{\delta_2 + n_t}\right)$$
 (5)

If not logged, we calculate as follows:

$$tf \cdot idf(t, d, D) = tf(t, d) \cdot idf(t, d, D)$$
 (6)

$$tf(t,d) = \delta_1 + f_{t,d} \tag{7}$$

$$idf(t,D) = \delta_2 + \frac{N}{\delta_2 + n_t}$$
 (8)

If not smoothed, δ_1 and δ_2 effectively become 0.

4.2.3 Binary Linear Programming

Previous studies such as Gillick et al. (2008) and Luo et al. (2018) have treated content selection as an integer linear programming (ILP) task. For this method of content selection, we also treat it as such. As with Gillick et al. (2008) and Luo et al. (2018), we also used n-grams for "concepts", specifically unigrams, bigrams, and trigrams (exclusively). Unlike Luo et al. (2018) who used *term-frequency* for their concept weights, and Gillick et al. (2008) who used *document frequency* for their concept weights, we combined the two weighting methods and used the *tf-idf* of n-grams as calculated in section 4.2.2. For the formulation of the ILP, we used the objective function, constraints, and binary variables as proposed in Gillick et al. (2008).

For notation, we take a bag of sentences and bag of concepts approach. We call the given set of sentences Y which constitute the given document set, and the set of concepts Z which also constitute the given document set. We let the decision variable y_j correspond to sentence $s_j \in Y$ and we use the decision variable z_i correspond to concept $c_i \in Z$. We also let y_j and z_i be indicator functions, indicating whether to include or exclude a sentence s_j and concept c_i respectively from the summary, and thus y_j and z_i can only take on values of 0 or 1.

We use $A_{i,j}$ to denote the indicator function $\mathbb{1}_{z_i \subseteq y_j}$, i.e. $A_{i,j} = 1$. If concept z_i appears in sentence y_j , we give a value of 0. Otherwise. We use the weight $w_i \in \mathbb{R}$ where weight w_i is the corresponding weight for "concept" z_i . We also have a maximum term summary length L. If we have N sentences in the optimal summary, and M sentences total in the document set, we can then formulate the optimization problem as follows:

$$\text{maxmimize}_{y,z} \sum_{c_i \in Z} w_i z_i \tag{9}$$

Subject to
$$\sum_{j=1}^{M} A_{i,j} y_j \ge z_i, \ \forall c_i \in Z$$
 (10)

$$A_{i,j}y_j \le z_i, \ \forall c_i, s_j \in Z \times Y$$

$$\tag{11}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} l_j y_j \ge L \tag{12}$$

$$y_j \in \{0, 1\}, \ z_i \in \{0, 1\}$$
 (13)

We see that Eq. (9) is the objective function where we are trying to maximize the total weight

of the concepts chosen for the summary in an attempt to extract the most important concepts in a document set. Eq. (10) ensures that a concept is included in the optimal summary if and only if there is a sentence that is selected for the optimal summary that contains said concept. Eq. (11) ensures that all concepts in sentence y_i are included if y_i is included in the optimal summary. Eq. (12) ensures that the given summary remains under the maximum sentence length L. Eq. (13) ensures that the decision variables for sentences y_i and concepts z_i act as indicator functions. For each "concept" z_i , we tested unigrams, bigrams, and trigrams. For the corresponding weight w_i for each concept, we used the tf-idf score of the unigram, bigram, or trigram z_i (exclusive) as calculated in section 4.2.2.

Although there is no explicit redundancy checker, we see that implicitly, redundancy is kept to a minimum because of the formulation of the ILP problem—each concept weight will be included in objective function only once.

4.2.4 LexRank

The LexRank algorithm treats each sentence as a document. It compares sentence vectors to construct a weighted graph of the relationships between sentences in a document set. Erkan and Radev (2004) obtains sentence vectors using TF-IDF (without smoothing); however, sentence vectors can be obtained using a number of methods (see 4.1.3). We found the best performing vectors to be TF-IDF vectors with the IDF values taken from the evaluation dataset and training dataset, +1 smoothing for unseen terms for IDF, and ignoring punctuation tokens.

Sentences that are compared to one another are related to one another using the cosine similarity measure of their vector representations. For vector representation of sentences $\vec{s_i}$ and $\vec{s_j}$:

$$sim(\vec{s_i}, \vec{s_j}) = \frac{\vec{s_i} \cdot \vec{s_j}}{||\vec{s_i}||_2 \times ||\vec{s_j}||_2}$$
 (14)

A similarity matrix can then be constructed by calculating similarity scores across all sentences in the document. Unlike Erkan and Radev (2004), we do not calculate the similarity between instances of the same sentence, since we found 1 to be a relatively similarity high score. We believe the decline in performance might pertain to lowering other similarity scores to other sentences after the adjacency matrix's rows are normalized.

Using this similarity measure, we created a similarity matrix between sentences in the document, which also functioned as a weighted graph. Per Erkan and Radev (2004), values with low similarities scores and self-connections are set to zero. The matrix satisfies the properties of a stochastic matrix, allowing us to use the power method to estimate the eigenvalue of the matrix. We initialize the centrality vector as $\mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{N}\mathbf{p}$, where N is the number of documents. We then apply the following update to \mathbf{p} :

$$\boldsymbol{p} = [d\boldsymbol{U} + (1-d)\boldsymbol{B}]^T \boldsymbol{p} \tag{15}$$

where U is a square matrix of size $[N \times N]$ with values equal to 1/N and B is the adjacency matrix of the graph.

Experiments were conducted to investigate whether LexRank performed best with TF-IDF, Word2vec, or DistilBERT vectors. A comparison table can be found in Appendix C.

4.2.5 Gap sentence generation

We used the gap sentence generation method introduced in Zhang et al. (2019). Based on the finding when Zhang et al. were training the Pegasus based model, we will selecting the top m sentences as gap sentences without replacement from a document based on importance score. The importance score is calculated based on the ROUGE score one sentence gets comparing to the remaining sentences in one document as in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Independent sentence selection

- 1: $D := \{x_i\}_n \leftarrow \text{sentences in whole docset}$
- 2: $S := \emptyset$
- 3: $I \leftarrow$ list contains index from 0 to n
- 4: **for** $j \leftarrow 1$ to n **do**
- 5: $s_i := ROUGE(x_i, D \setminus \{x_i\})$
- 6: $S := S \cup \{s_i\}$
- 7: I := sort(I) Based on the value in S

To improve the system, when we are processing the training data, we calculate the ROUGE score based on the average ROUGE score when comparing the selected sentence with each of the gold summary. We only calculate the ROUGE score based on the rest of the documents when we are processing the test and validation data.

We only mask the top thirty percent of the sentences as Zhang et al. finds out achieves relatively

high performance without sacrifice training efficiency.

4.3 Information Ordering

4.3.1 Topic Clustering

This algorithm tries to order topics in the order that they are most likely to appear in a document. The intuition being that similar sentences form topics, and topics must be ordered in the original documents in a cohesive manner. This algorithm tries to recreate this cohesive topic order. This algorithm is heavily modified from the 'Augmented Ordering Algorithm' presented in Barzilay et al. (2002). Barzilay groups similar themes from different documents into blocks, and then orders the blocks by timestamp. However, in our algorithm, we instead put all of the documents together and consider it one document, clustering similar sentences/topics of information into themes. There are no senses of block here as discussed in Barzilay et al. (2002).

Similarity between sentences is determined by the similarity of sentence embeddings. To group topics, we group similar sentences over a whole document set. We calculate sentence as calculated in section 4.1.3 using TFIDF embeddings for each word in a sentence. We have chosen between TFIDF, Word2Vec, and DistilBERT as a hyperparemeter for sentence embeddings. Please see Tables 8 and 9 for an error analysis between them.

We then use sentence embeddings to create topic clusters to group similar sentences. To group sentences, we used K-means clustering using sklearn.cluster.KMeans.

To order topic clusters, we used the 'fractional ordering' of the sentences, namely, let d be a document with length n, then the fractional ordering f of sentence s_i at position i in d is:

$$f(s_i, d) = \frac{i}{n} \tag{16}$$

For example, the first sentence in the given document is always $\frac{1}{n}$, the second $\frac{2}{n}$, etc. We divide by the number of sentences in the document to try to normalize both short and long documents.

We then ordered each topic cluster t_k with m sentences by their respective median fractional ordering, namely, for each sentence j in the given topic, the median fractional ordering f_{med} is found by sorting all the fractional orderings for each sentence, and using the one in the middle.

Using average (see below) versus median fractional ordering was another hyperparameter we chose from¹

The average fractional ordering f_{avg} is:

$$f_{avg}(t_k) = \frac{\sum_j f(s_j, d)}{m}$$
 (17)

We then order the sentences in the given summary based on which topic cluster they appear in and the fractional ordering of that topic. In other words, if $f_{med}(t_k) < f_{med}(t_k')$, then any sentence that appeared in the summary and in topic cluster t_k would appear before all the sentences that appeared in the summary and in topic cluster t_k' .

It is possible that multiple sentences appear in the given summary and the same topic cluster. In this case, we order the sentences by their own fractional ordering. In other words, for sentence i and sentence j in documents d and d' respectively, if f(i,d) < f(j,d') we put sentence i before sentence j in the ordered summary.

4.3.2 Seq2Seq language model

We fin-tuned a sequance to sequance language model based on the implementation of Reorder-BART (RE-BART) by Chowdhury et al.. RE-BART is a fine-tuned model based on BART by to identify a coherent order for a given set of shuffled sentences. We shuffle the sentences of each input document set based on the Gap sentence generation content selection method without masking. We mark the index of the sentences at the beginning of each sentences. The model takes the sets of shuffled sentences with sentence-specific markers as input and generates a sequence of position markers of the sentences in the ordered text. We trained the model using Huggingface transformer library Wolf et al. (2020). We trained the model using the PyTorch framework with a NVIDIA A100 GPU. We trained the model with batch size of 4 and epoch of 24.

4.3.3 ROUGE score ranking

Due to the input size limitation for the majority of the language model, we have to truncate the input text to 1024 tokens. After we mask the important sentence, we then use the ROUGE score ranking calculated for the gap sentence generation to discard sentences that are ranked in the low thirty percent. We keep the ordering of the remainder of

¹Please see Table 8 and Table 9 in for an error analysis between them.

the sentences. Discarding unimportant sentences based on ROUGE score helps including more important sentences from multiple documents. When discarding, we calculate the token length for each added sentences and stop when adding additional sentence will cause the token size to exceed 1024 tokens. This make sure we have full sentences for the input sequence.

To improve the system, we experiment on multiple parameters, such as what the percentage of the sentences should we discard. We also calculate the ROUGE score ranking based on either the average score based on the gold summary or based on all of the remaining sentences in all provided documents.

4.4 Content Realization

4.4.1 NP Rewrite

We developed an entity replacement method inspired by the noun phrase rewriting method for multi-document summarization method described in Siddharthan et al. (2011). We take each document set being analyzed and cluster spans into categories denoting the same entity. We accomplish this task using an experimental module spaCy (Honnibal et al., 2020). The module obtains token embeddings from RoBERTa and then obtains a score for embedding pairs before passing the score to a linear classifier (along with other features) to determine whether the spans refer to the same entity (Kádár et al., 2022). Because the number of spans is $O(n^2)$, calculating each potential coreference is computationally expensive, so the spaCy implementation prunes the number of spans to compare before obtain the results from the linear classifier, adapting an algorithm described in (Dobrovolskii, 2021).

We adapted our NP replacement algorithm from Siddharthan et al. (2011). We use our ILP and LexRank methods to extract the sentences with the highest weights. We also obtain coreference clusters for the entire document set (concatenating the documents) using spaCy's module described above. We apply the model to the concatenated document to minimize the number of clusters with the same or similar spans. Then, using, spaCy base module (Honnibal et al., 2020), we obtain the noun phrases contained in the highest-ranked sentence. For each NP in the highest-ranked sentence, we examine its coreferring NPs in the document set and replace it with the longest pre-modifidying NP. We use a

rough heuristic to extract the longest pre-modified by discard all text followed by appositives, since those formed the bulk of the post-modifiers described in Siddharthan et al. (2011). If the longest pre-modifidying NP is the same length as the NP itself, we look for the longest post-modifying phrase. The cluster containing the longest pre-modifying NP is indexed. For all future NPs and sentences, if $NP_i \in s_i$ is contained in a seen cluster c_k , then the shortest non-pronominal NP is chosen to replace it. If the $NP_i \in s_i$ is not contained in a seen cluster c_k , it is replaced with the longest modifying phrase. This intuition was drawn from the observations of Siddharthan et al. (2011), about keeping NPs of previously seen referents terse and expanding upon unseen referents.

In addition, added a few small rules to ensure a readable summary. We did not replace the pronoun "I" in the context of quotes. We also did not replace proper nouns with noun phrases that did not have word overlaps with the original expression. We also made sure that, if both the replacement and the original NPs contained pronouns, those pronouns must agree in grammatical case (to avoid "we" being replaced with "our").

4.4.2 Redundancy Removal

After obtaining a ranked order of extracted sentences, we experimented with removing redundant sentences using the Jaccard similarity measure. Sentences with the top-k values in ranking are extracted and added to the summary text until the summary reaches the maximum length. To avoid repeated information, we use the Jaccard similarity measure (provided by NLTK) to calculate each sentence's similarity to sentences already included in the bibliography (Bird and Loper, 2004). To calculate Jaccard similarity for sentences, let J denote the similarity function, w denote a word and s_i, s_j denote two sentences.

$$J(s_i, s_j) = \frac{|\{w|w \in s_j\} \cap \{w|w \in s_i\}|}{|\{w|w \in s_i\} \cup \{w|w \in s_j\}|}$$
(18)

Additionally, sentences that are too long are discarded. We discard long sentences because we believe these sentences are likely to be too information-dense to be useful for constructing a summary. We also discard sentences that were a part of a quotation that was cut off by the tokenizer since we currently have no way of evaluating the importance of the sentence combine with its reconstructed context. The redundancy removal method

was employed by the LexRank algorithm, but not by others. The algorithm is described in pseudocode in algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 Redundancy removal algorithm

```
Input: top_k, max_w, min\_jaccard
    Output: Summary string
 1: Array S \leftarrow \text{LexRank}(doc)
2: Array SeenSentences
3: String Results
4: Int Length \leftarrow 0
5: Int i \leftarrow 0
6: while i < top_k or i < Len(S) do
7:
        Bool CheckJaccard \leftarrow True
8:
        for j \leftarrow 1 to len(SeenSentences) do
9:
             if D_j(S[i], S[j]) \ge min\_jaccard then
10:
                 CheckJaccard \leftarrow False
11:
        if CheckJaccard is False then
12:
             i \leftarrow i + 1
         else if len(S[i]) + Length > max_w then
13:
14:
             i \leftarrow i + 1
15:
16:
             w \leftarrow w + \operatorname{len}(S[i])
17:
             Results \leftarrow Results \oplus S[i]
18:
             SeenSentences \oplus S[i]
19:
             Length \leftarrow len(S[i]) + Length
20:
             i \leftarrow i + 1
```

4.4.3 Sequence to Sequence language model

We fin-tuned "google/pegasus-large" and "google/pegasus-cnn_dailymail" to generate the summary based on preprocessed input data discussed in Section 1. We utilized the Huggingface's transformers library for the experiment. The experiments are conducted in PyTorch framework using NVIDIA Tesla A100 GPU. We trained on the training data and use the devtest data to select the best model based on the ROUGE 1 score of output summary based on devtest data.

5 Results

Table 1 and 2 show the performance of the selected summarization methods on the TAC 2010 (devtest) and TAC 2011 (evaltest) datasets.² The best ROUGE 1 numbers of each dataset are bolded. Our experiments show that the Binary ILP achieves the highest ROUGE 1 score based on the evaltest dataset.

The Binary ILP scores use a system that included Binary ILP, topic clustering, and NP-replace. The LexRank scores reflect a system that included

LexRank, topic clustering, and redundancy removal.

Table 1: ROUGE recall scores on devtest files

	ROUGE1	ROUGE2
Best of TAC 2011	-	9.574
Binary ILP	23.616	5.919
LexRank	24.959	6.936
GSG LLM	19.162	5.129
Baseline Lead K	17.122	4.936

Table 2: ROUGE recall scores on evaltest files

	ROUGE1	ROUGE2
Best of TAC 2011	-	13.440
Binary ILP	27.700	7.972
LexRank	29.328	9.217
GSG LLM	21.396	5.723
Baseline Lead K	23.030	7.585

5.1 Integer Linear Programming

To find the best combination of hyperparameters, we ran a manual coordinate descent on our hyper-parameters. For each set of experiments, we changed one hyper-parameter at a time declaring the best value for each hyper-parameter only after the conclusion of each set of experiments. We then would keep this best value for the subsequent experiments until we had run experiments for every hyper-parameter.

With the above method, we found that the best combination of hyper-parameters to pass in to our calculation of tf-idf was to use calculate tf-idf for unigrams, using a logged tf-idf with δ_1 close to 0 (in our case $\delta_1=0.01$), a δ_2 close to 1 (our best case uses $\delta_2=0.7$). We also found that eliminating punctuation and lowercasing all tokens yielded the best results. We also found that removing sentences with less than around 25 tokens³ yielded the best ROUGE scores.

5.2 Large Language Model

For our experiment for finetuning the PEGASUS model, we tested different combinations of the training arguments, such as different epoch and difference batch sizes. Table 3 listed all parameter changes we make for out experiment. ROUGE-on stands for calculating the ROUGE score of a

²The scores in these tables used the official ROUGE Perl script which, from our observations, tends to have lower scores than the Python modules. We believe this is due to the fact that the Perl script performs bootstrap oversampling as opposed to the Python module.

³We count tokens after begin tokenized by nltk.word_tokenize

selected sentence from a document, either with the other sentences in that document (single) or with the other sentences in all the documents in a docset (multi). We also experiment on different epoch. Discard stands for the percentage of sentences we selected to discard when generating the input. For example, if we change the ROUGE-on parameters to multi, then choosing 50% discard rate means that we will discard the bottom 50% of the sentences in all of the documents in a docset based on how high the ROUGE score is. Combine masking stands for whether or not we concatenate the gap-sentences into a single mask token. The result shows that when we calculate the ROUGE score of the selected sentence with the rest of the sentences in all documents in one docset, discard bottom 50% of the sentences, and combine multiple masked sentences into a single mask token achieve the highest ROUGE 1 and ROUGE 2 score for the devtest data. We also experiments with both "google/pegasuslarge" "google/pegasus-cnn_dailymail" checkpoints for the PEGASUS model. find out that the news-summarzation focused "google/pegasus-cnn_dailymail" performs better than "google/pegasus-large", which trained on more datasets than "google/pegasus-cnn_dailymail.

We also experiment on the zero-shot learning method for information ordering using the BART model. The result, however, is disappointing. The model we trained for our experiment failed to generate a sequence of position makers as output. Instead, the model directly generates the ordered text as the output where each sentences are compressed and no longer contain the same level of information compare to the original sentences. We tried to investigate the cause of the issue by reducing input sizes, and increase training data coverage by including all of the sentences from training, testing, and validation data into groups of six sentences. We tried to tweak other parameters such as increasing the training epoch from 8 to 24. However, none of the above methods leads to having the generated output from the fine-tuned model produces sentence indexes, and we choose not to move forward with this information ordering method.

5.3 Topic Clustering

To run K-means clustering, we used 8 clusters, and the following parameters for

sklearn.clusters.KMeans⁴:

```
kmeans = KMeans(
    n_clusters=8, init='k-means++',
    n_init=10, max_iter=300,
    tol=0.0001, verbose=0,
    random_state=None, copy_x=True,
    algorithm='lloyd')
```

We also chose to use the median fractional ordering (rather than the mean fractional ordering) and *tf-idf* vector embeddings (as opposed to Distil-Bert or Word2Vec vector embeddings) to order the sentences in the summary.

5.4 Content Realization

The addition of the NP-replace algorithm did not significantly alter the results of the ROUGE scores (see Section 5.5 below). Upon visually examining the data, the algorithm does not seem to make a significant impact on the quality of the summaries. It's successes are certainly diminished by the frequency of its failures. Additionally, we suspect that because the unsupervised methods seem to favor longer, more descriptive sentences, replacing NPs is should not be considered to be a priority.

On the other hand, detecting redundant sentences and excluding them from the final summary does seem to be more impactful on the resulting ROUGE score. We performed an ablation study to better understand its impact which is described in more detail below.

5.5 Ablation Studies on LexRank

An ablation study was performed on the LexRank algorithm in combination with the redundancy removal algorithm (see 4.4.2). We compared the systems that naively chose the top ranked sentences until the maximum number of summary tokens is reached, a system that checks for similarity with existing sentences in the summary to eliminate redundancy, and a system that both checks for redundancy and performs NP-replacement. A list of ROUGE scores for these systems are found in table 4. This finding is also surprising given LexRank's reliance on similarity scores to generate the graph representation of a document.

⁴These are the default parameters provided by sklearn.cluster.KMeans, and we did not test our topic clustering algorithm on other hyper-parameters.

model	ROUGE-on	epoch	Discard	Combine	ROUGE1	ROUGE2
				Masking		
pegasus-large	single	6	50%	True	0.21037	0.06214
pegasus-large	multi	12	50%	True	0.26419	0.05367
pegasus-large	multi	24	50%	True	0.28415	0.06464
pegasus-cnn_dailymail	multi	24	50%	True	0.31355	0.08191
pegasus-large	multi	12	30%	True	0.24330	0.04773
pegasus-large	multi	12	30%	False	0.24263	0.05343

Table 3: Large langauge model ROUGE Recall Scores with different parameters

System	R-1	R-2
LexRank	24.215	7.201
LexRank + Redundancy	24.959	7.437
LexRank + Redundancy	24.552	7.211
+ NP-Replace		

Table 4: LexRank Ablation ROUGE Scores (Recall)

Interestingly, the neither the redundancy removal algorithm nor NP-replace significantly impact the performance of the algorithm (as measured by ROUGE scores). Visual examination indicates that between 3-6 sentences are selected for a typical summary and that it is uncommon for sentences to be similar. We speculate that either the summaries are too short for redundancy removal to have an effect on ROUGE scores or the minimum Jaccard distance chosen for the experiment (0.7) is too low (however, visual examination did not reveal redundancy to be a pervasive issue).

5.6 Error analyses

5.6.1 Error Analysis of devtest data

We perform a casual error analysis for the summaries based on **devtest** docset D1006, which are shown in Table 6.

The improved Binary ILP method makes leaps in achieving a better summary from D3. The old summary seemed to give important facts concerning the FDA and withdrawing Vioxx, but seemed to have a lot of more "unimportant facts" that didn't help the reader get a clear idea of what the article is about. An example of this is mentioning about rewriting abstract conclusions, and the amount of teleconferences that were gone to. The improved summary gives a clear picture of the latest update on Vioxx and the new findings of effects its gives. Comparing the output of D4 and D5, there does not seem to be a difference. This may be because the new hyperparameters from clustering did not effect

the sentence ordering here, and content realization did not find anything to use co-reference resolution on.

The improved LexRank method no longer produce unnessary information such as website address. The improved method successfully mention Vioxx, where the old method did not. However, the improved method still failed to catch one of the core story point, that Vioxx is recalled by the company. The improved method does capture that Vioxx has potential cardiovascular risks. Interestingly, the using TF-IDF vectors resulted in better performance than using word2vec or DistilBERT sentence vectors. A comparison is shown in Table 11 in Appendix B.

The summary produced by the improved GSG LLM method provides more specific details than the previous system iteration. For example, it mentions that Vioxx was used by 20 million Americans, was Merck's top-selling product, and that Merck had spent \$195 million to promote it. It also mentions that the FDA had been concerned about the drug's cardiovascular risks since at least 2000 but did not issue a warning until 2004. These details provide more context and a better understanding of the situation. Another improvement is that it provides a clearer timeline of events. It mentions that Vioxx was approved in 1999, that the FDA had been concerned about its cardiovascular risks since at least 2000, and that the drug was recalled in 2004. This helps the reader understand the sequence of events and the time frame in which they occurred. Compared to the gold summary, however, the improved system still lacks certian information. For example, the improved GSG LLM method generated summary lacks information about the specific clinical trial that led to the recall of Vioxx. The gold summary mentions that the clinical trial was for the use of Vioxx in colon cancer and that it showed unacceptable rates

of stroke and heart attack. The generated summary also does not mention that Vioxx was a COX inhibitor, which was safer for the digestive tracts of arthritis patients. Additionally, the gold summary mentions concerns about drug manufacturers' advertising and the FDA's role in ensuring the safety of drugs on the market, which is not mentioned in the generated summary.

The summary produced by the baseline mentions a small amount of important details such withdraw the specific drug and how many people used it. But fails to mention many other important details mentioned in the gold standard and by the other methods.

5.6.2 Error Analysis of evaltest data

We perform a casual error analysis for the summaries based on **evaltest** docset D1105, which are shown in Table 7.

For the ILP method, it mentions most of the details in the gold standard summary. It does miss the exact date of the crash, and how many killed/possible survivors. It also missed the detail on the unknown cause of the crash, but does mention about the stormy weather.

For the GSG LLM method, the generated summary correctly states that an Adam Air Boeing 737-400 plane with 102 people on board crashed in a mountainous area near the town of Polewali, on its way from Surabaya to Manado. It also correctly states the casualty count of the crash. These are some of the main points of the gold text that the generated summary accurately captures. However, the generated summary lacks additional details such as the weather condition might be a factor of the crash, and there were three Americans on board. Lastly, the generated summary introduces new information about the Indonesian Navy sending planes to carry the bodies of its members, which is not mentioned in the gold text. Overall, the generated summary captures some of the main points of the gold text, but also contains errors and omissions.

The baseline seems to mention mostly about a different event, but mentions the main event the gold standard summary is concerned about in the last sentence. This may be because the first article in the docset mentions about both the events in the first few lines.

5.6.3 Error analysis of Information Ordering

Although the correct ordering of a summary is most definitely subjective, we feel that ordering by median fractional ordering, as well as using *tf-idf* vector embeddings produced the best, most cohesive summaries.

In both table 8 and 9, we see that the summary of D1002-A using *td-idf* embeddings follows a rough chronological order, namely there is a shooting (sentence 1), an accusation (sentence 2), a trial (sentence 3), and an elaboration of the trial (sentence 4). This is unlike the Word2Vec and Distil-Bert embeddings, which follows a timeline which is not as intuitive or cohesive, namely there is an accusation (sentence 1), an elaboration of the trial (sentence 2), etc.

The summary order produced for D1001-A using *td-idf* is less convincing in both tables 8 and 9, but it still follows a rough cohesive manner, namely there is grieving (sentence 1), then uniting and healing (sentence 2), then some moving on (sentence 3). In our opinion, sentence 4 "The school wanted..." feels out of place, it possibly be ordered between sentence 2 and 3, but it also just feels like it doesn't quite belong in this summary in general, which would be a problem with our content selection method rather than our information ordering method.

Looking at tables 8 and 9, we can also see that looking at mean versus median, only one summary changed, namely the summary of document set D1001-A contained in the top row using *tf-idf* embeddings. We therefore concluded that whether we use median or mean fractional ordering matters little.

5.6.4 Error analysis of Content Realization

Examples of errors in the NP-replace algorithm can be found in table 5. The NP-replace algorithm is highly dependent on the performance of spaCy's experimental coreference resolution model (Honnibal et al., 2020). Oftentimes, it clusters unrelated entities together. For instance, in the document set D1042, it associates the noun phrase "a court martial" with the noun phrase "a deal" (a bug is likely responsible for clipping the sentence). Additionally, the longest pre-modified NP isn't always the most complete description, sometimes making a sentence less readable. For instance, for document set D1010.B, the algorithm correctly marks the NP "Suspected variant Crutzfeld-Jakob Disease" a coreferring to the same entity as in the expression "The fatal brain-wasting disease". However, here the longer replacement is less descriptive than the longer one, since few readers know about CrutzfeldJakob Disease. Additionally, there were issues with the way spaCy parses noun phrases. In D1024, it parsed "El-Shifa" as two separate noun phrases, resulting in an awkward replacement. There were also some issues with ensuring that the grammar and punctuation matched the sentence.

6 Discussion

6.1 ILP Hyper-parameters

We chose the ILP model with hyperparameters as follows as the top model:

Min Sent Length = 25 n-gram = Unigram delta tf = 0.01 delta idf = 0.7 Eliminate Punctuation = No Lower Casing = Yes log = Yes

In table 10, we performed an hyper-parameter ablation test⁵ on this top model, to see which hyper-parameter causes the greatest increase in ROUGE score. We found that *delta idf* for smoothing is the most important hyper-parameter for this system.

Exp-ID J0 contains the best hyper-parameters, and has a ROUGE1 score of 0.33320. As we see in Exp-ID J5, we see that decreasing the *delta idf* for smoothing to around 0, causes the greatest decrease in ROUGE1 score, (-0.10728). It also appears in Exp-ID J0, J2, and J3, that our choice of n-gram has an impact on the system with unigrams performing the best (-0.0), and trigrams performing the worst (-0.05638). Interestingly by Exp-ID J1, we found that discarding sentences under a certain sentence length has very little effect on the performance (-0.0812).

Likewise as we see in Exp-ID J4, whether choose a *delta tf* that is close to 0 we get a decrease of (-0.0206) in ROUGE1 score, and thus conclude that *delta tf* carries very little weight. In Exp-ID J6 through J7, whether we choose to eliminate all punctuation (-0.0), to log the *tf-idf* values, or choose to lowercase all terms we see that these keep the ROUGE1 score the same (-0.0), and thus conclude that these hyper-parameters also had little to no effect on the performance of the system.

6.1.1 Long Minimum Sentence Length

In the exploration of hyper-parameters for our Integer Linear Programming content selection method, we found that the larger the minimum sentence length, the better the ROUGE1 and ROUGE2 score, finally settling on minimum sentence length equal to 25. Interestingly, our ablation test found that sentence length matters little for the ROUGE score. This discrepancy between our initial exploration and our ablation test could rely on a couple of factors: the method with which we picked our best combination of hyper-parameters, as well as the fact that we are using nltk.word_tokenize before counting the length of a sentence.

Because we found the best combination of hyper-parameters using a manual coordinate descent, the order in which hyper-parameters are tested as well as which default hyper-parameters are chosen matters. We tested minimum sentence length first in our manual coordinate descent, and during these experiments found that increasing the minimum sentences length increased the ROUGE score. This correlation between increasing minimum sentence length and increasing ROUGE score makes sense, as longer sentences generally are more informative than shorter.

Also the minimum sentence length also is not what one would think of as an intuitive sentence length because nltk.word_tokenize tends to inflate the length of a sentence. For example, "Columbine!" would have sentence length of 4 because it would be tokenized into [", Columbine, !, "]. Thus this large minimum sentence length might be shorter than intuitive.

6.1.2 δ_{idf} Creates ROUGE Score Jump

For ILP, we observed that δ_{idf} creates the largest difference in ROUGE1 and ROUGE2 score. From this, we conclude that *inverse document frequency* (*idf*) must have a greater impact on the importance of an n-gram than *term frequency* (*tf*). This result feels counter intuitive, namely that terms that appear more frequently must carry more weight.

We do not know why δ_{idf} creates such a large jump in ROUGE score, but we suspect it might have to do with our choice not to remove stop words, and the way that idf minimizes the importance of frequent words that appear in many documents.

⁵The ILP hyper-parameter ablation test was performed using the Python rouge-score package, which has inflated scores when compared to the Perl rouge script. Because we are looking at which hyper-parameter made the largest decrease, this is unimportant for the results of the test.

Doc. Set	Sentence	Replacement	Description
D1042	Lynndie England on Monday pled	Lynndie England on Monday pled	Coreference
	guilty to charges of abusing Iraqi	guilty to charges of abusing Iraqi	error + bug
	prisoners at the Abu Ghraib prison	prisoners at the Abu Ghraib prison	
	but told a court martial she did not	but told the deal she did not believe	
	believe she was doing wrong when		
	photographed holding a leash on a		
	naked inmate.		
D1002	Through their lawyers, the officers	Through their lawyers, the officers	Wrong refer-
	have said they thought Diallo had a	have said the couple thought Diallo	ent
	gun.	had a gun.	
D1010	The fatal brain-wasting disease is	Suspected variant Crutzfeld-	Longer refer-
	believed to come from eating beef	Jakob Disease is believed to come	ent is less
	products from cows struck with mad	from eating beef products from	easy to read
	cow disease.	cows struck with mad cow disease.	
D1024	[] Sudan maintains it's a pharma-	[] Sudan maintains El-'s a pharma-	Parser error
	ceutical plant.	ceutical plant.	

Table 5: Examples of content realization errors (devtest data)

6.2 NP-Replace

The successes of the NP-replace algorithm are certainly diminished by the frequency of its failures. We suspect that because the unsupervised methods seem to favor longer, more descriptive sentences, the impact of replacing NPs is marginal to begin with. We also believe that many of the algorithm's failures can be attributed to its over-application—applying the algorithm to all NPs raises the likelihood of poor replacements. Perhaps the addition of an algorithm that can detect unseen references would improve its performance

6.3 Ablation study

The ablation study revealed that content realization algorithms have only marginal effects on the ROUGE scores (and quality upon visual examination) of the LexRank outputs.

6.4 Performance of Different Sentence Vectors

For D4, we compared performance of LexRank using TF-IDF, DistilBERT, and Word2Vec vectors. Interestingly, the sentence vectors derived from neural network models performed worse than sparse vectors derived from TF-IDF values. This finding is surprising since neural networks have the potential to encode semantic information to some degree (Mikolov et al., 2013).

We are unsure of why vectors derived from word or sentence embeddings perform worse. We speculate that, in the case of Word2Vec, calculating a centroid value from "overwrites" some of the semantic information in a sentence—especially if we weight each word equivalently. In the case of DistilBERT, we speculate that the dimensions of sentence embeddings can be arbitrary—they don't correspond to particular linguistic information—for out-of-the-box models. Perhaps the model would need to be finetuned using a contrastive loss function to better characterize sentence similarity. However, we are still largely unsure of why we observed these outcomes.

6.5 Challenges

We encountered a few hiccups while finalizing the system. For one, we experienced some difficulties combining the different information extraction, ordering, and realization methods results.

6.6 Future Work

For future work, we could continue to improve our content selection methods. For Integer Linear Programming, we could try a different concept weighting scheme. We can run more tests in search of better hyper-parameters, for example, we could run manual coordinate descent with a different default hyper-parameters in a different order. We could also try other ways to create concepts, such as skip-grams to try to capture similar concepts such as "the pandas" and "the giant pandas".

We could also improve our information ordering methods as well. For topic clustering, explo-

ration is necessary on a different number of clusters other than 8. Too little clusters and one risks cramming the summary into the same space, too many clusters and one risks creating sparsity. Error analysis would then be necessary on the resulting summaries to find better topic clusters.

Lastly, we could explore ways to overcome the input limits of the language model by using recursive summarization introduced by Wu et al. (2021), such as generate a summary for each of the document in a docset, and use those summaries to generate a final summary.

7 Conclusion

In conclusion, our paper explores multiple approaches to multi-document summarization, including both extractive and abstractive methods. We have built end-to-end systems using the selected methods and benchmarked them to evaluate their effectiveness. Our error analysis provides insights into the strengths and weaknesses of the selected methods, paving the way for future research on improving existing summarization methods and developing new summarization systems.

8 Appendices

A Workload distribution

A.1 D1 Workload

- Anna Batra set up the Github repository, turned in D1
- Junyin Chen got the team together and set up a communication channel
- Sam Briggs set up the Overleaf file and sent out a when-to-meet to schedule weekly meetings
- Hilly Steinmetz edited the Overleaf file to prepare it for D1.

A.2 D2 Workload

- Anna Batra and Sam Briggs wrote test code to test the file structure of the output docSets, created the outline for the presentation, and updated the report.
- Junyin Chen wrote code for tokenizing documents in the docSets using spaCy, PR reviewed the code to merge with Hilly's, cleaned up the code, and created slides for the pre-processing section.

 Hilly Steinmetz wrote the code for the preprocessing steps before tokenization, such as locating paths for AQUAINT and AQUAINT2 files. Hilly also wrote code for tokenizing documents using NLTK.

A.3 D3 Workload

- Anna Batra and Sam Briggs wrote the code to create a json file to easily access our data for the rest of the project. They also wrote the code for the TF-IDF and Linear Programming content selection methods. The Linear Programming information ordering and content realization was also written by them. They also drew the system architecture.
- Junyin Chen wrote the code to create JSON file writer which contains doc_id, text for summarization, the gold standard summarization based on doc_id for both docsetA and docsetB. The writer help cache the JSON file for easier access. He also wrote the code for Gap sentences generation content selection method, truncate the input text based on ROUGE score for information ordering, and write the code for training a large language model for content realization. He also performs quick error analysis.
- Hilly Steinmetz wrote the code for the LexRank method and debugged issues with the original XML document parser.

Everyone worked on the paper and presentation slides for the parts we explicitly worked on.

A.4 D4 Workload

- Anna Batra and Sam Briggs incorporated ngrams into TF-IDF and helped test the IDF to work over the entire data. They also worked on improving ILP and wrote the clustering information ordering method. They updated the system architecture.
- Junyin Chen wrote and trained zero shot information ordering language model. He also improved pre-processing scripts for data parsing, such as using different ROUGE score and comparing with different documents. He done multiple experiments with information ordering model and summarizing model with multiple parameter combination.

Hilly Steinmetz created an interface to generate vectors using TF-IDF, Word2vec, or DistilBERT. He also worked on creating a new TF-IDF class that takes various inputs to modify its behavior (e.g., smoothing). Lastly, he implemented the improvements to LexRank.

Everyone worked on the paper and presentation slides for the parts we explicitly worked on.

A.5 D5 Workload

- Anna Batra tested the clustering information ordering method on different hyperparameters using an error analysis and ran ablation on the top model. She also wrote the baseline top K and redrew the system architecture. She updated this all into the slides.
- Sam Briggs fixed the paper based on the feedback by Fei, incorporated what Anna did into the paper, and overall worked to improve the quality of the paper.
- Junyin Chen experimented on zero-shot information ordering methods. He wrote the abstract, introduction, and related work section of the paper. He also updated the correspondent section in the paper about LLM.
- Hilly Steinmetz implemented the entitydriven rewrite and experimented with LexRank to improve its results (with marginal improvements).

Table 11: LexRank Experiments (ROUGE F-Scores)

Vector	R-1	R-2
TF-IDF	0.231	0.060
Word2Vec	0.175	0.036
DistilBERT	0.178	0.042

B Code repository and additional software

B.1 Source Code

The repository for our project can be found on Github at github.com/LING-575-Summarization/Summarization.

B.2 Packages

We used the following packages for our system:

B.2.1 Pre-processing

- lxml.etree (for processing AQUAINT, AQUAINT2, TAC files)
- xml.etree.ElementTree (for processing doc-SetA file lists)
- spaCy 2.0 (for word tokenization on paragraphs)
 - English model "en_core_web_sm"
- NLTK
 - English model 'tokenizers/punkt/english.pickle' (for sentence and word tokenization)
 - nltk.util.ngrams (for TF-IDF ngrams)

B.2.2 Content Selection

- PuLP (for binary ILP)
- rouge-score
- Datasets
- Evaluate
- Pytorch
- Transformers
- Anaconda (for virtual environment)

B.2.3 Information Ordering

• sci-kit learn (for Topic Clustering)

C Figures and Tables

- C.1 ILP Hyper-parameter Ablation Test
- **C.2** LexRank Experiments
- **C.3** ROUGE score from previous deliverables

Table 12: ROUGE Recall Scores

	ROUGE1	ROUGE2
Binary ILP (D4)	0.33697	0.07437
Binary ILP (D3)	0.12085	0.01533
LexRank (D4)	0.21925	0.05966
LexRank (D3)	0.13720	0.02341
GSG LLM (D4)	0.26419	0.05367
GSG LLM (D3)	0.21037	0.06214

References

R. Barzilay, N. Elhadad, and K. McKeown. 2002. Inferring strategies for sentence ordering in multidocument news summarization. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 17(17):35–55.

- Steven Bird, Ewan Klein, and Edward Loper. 2009. *Natural language processing with Python: analyzing text with the natural language toolkit.* "O'Reilly Media, Inc.".
- Steven Bird and Edward Loper. 2004. NLTK: The natural language toolkit. In *Proceedings of the ACL Interactive Poster and Demonstration Sessions*, pages 214–217, Barcelona, Spain. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Asli Celikyilmaz, Antoine Bosselut, Xiaodong He, and Yejin Choi. 2018. Deep communicating agents for abstractive summarization. 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 1662–1675, New Orleans, Louisiana. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Sumit Chopra, Michael Auli, and Alexander M. Rush. 2016. Abstractive sentence summarization with attentive recurrent neural networks. In *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 93–98, San Diego, California. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Somnath Basu Roy Chowdhury, Faeze Brahman, and Snigdha Chaturvedi. 2021. Is everything in order? a simple way to order sentences.
- John M Conroy, Judith D Schlesinger, and Jade Goldstein Stewart. 2005. Classy query-based multi-document summarization. In *Proceedings of the 2005 Document Understanding Workshop, Boston*. Citeseer.
- Vladimir Dobrovolskii. 2021. Word-level coreference resolution. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 7670–7675, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Günes Erkan and Dragomir R Radev. 2004. Lexrank: Graph-based lexical centrality as salience in text summarization. *Journal of artificial intelligence research*, 22:457–479.
- Alexander Fabbri, Irene Li, Tianwei She, Suyi Li, and Dragomir Radev. 2019. Multi-news: A large-scale multi-document summarization dataset and abstractive hierarchical model. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 1074–1084, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Dan Gillick, Benoit Favre, and Dilek Hakkani-Tur. 2008. The icsi summarization system at tac 2008. *Theory and Applications of Categories*.
- Kai Hong and Ani Nenkova. 2014. Improving the estimation of word importance for news multi-document

- summarization. In *Proceedings of the 14th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 712–721, Gothenburg, Sweden. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Matthew Honnibal, Ines Montani, Sofie Van Landeghem, and Adriane Boyd. 2020. spaCy: Industrial-strength Natural Language Processing in Python.
- Dan Jurafsky and James H. Martin. 2022. *Speech and Language Processing*, 3rd edition (draft) edition. Online.
- Ákos Kádár, Paul O'Leary McCann, Edward Schmuhl, Sofie Van Landeghem, Adriane Boyd, Madeesh Kannan, and Victoria Slocum. 2022. End-to-end Neural Coreference Resolution in spaCy.
- Mike Lewis, Yinhan Liu, Naman Goyal, Marjan Ghazvininejad, Abdelrahman Mohamed, Omer Levy, Ves Stoyanov, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2019. Bart: Denoising sequence-to-sequence pre-training for natural language generation, translation, and comprehension.
- Wencan Luo, Fei Liu, Zitao Liu, and Diane Litman. 2018. A novel ilp framework for summarizing content with high lexical variety. *Natural Language Engineering*, 24(6):887–920.
- Tomas Mikolov, Kai Chen, Greg Corrado, and Jeffrey Dean. 2013. Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space. arXiv preprint arXiv:1301.3781.
- Ramesh Nallapati, Bowen Zhou, Cicero dos Santos, Caglar Gulcehre, and Bing Xiang. 2016a. Abstractive text summarization using sequence-to-sequence RNNs and beyond. In *Proceedings of the 20th SIGNLL Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning*, pages 280–290, Berlin, Germany. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ramesh Nallapati, Bowen Zhou, and Mingbo Ma. 2016b. Classify or select: Neural architectures for extractive document summarization.
- Shashi Narayan, Shay B. Cohen, and Mirella Lapata. 2018. Ranking sentences for extractive summarization with reinforcement learning. 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 1747–1759, New Orleans, Louisiana. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ani Nenkova, Kathleen McKeown, et al. 2011. Automatic summarization. *Foundations and Trends® in Information Retrieval*, 5(2–3):103–233.
- Karolina Owczarzak and Hoa Trang Dang. 2009. Overview of the tac 2009 summarization track. In *Proceedings of the Text Analysis Conference (TAC)*.
- Karolina Owczarzak and Hoa Trang Dang. 2010. Overview of the tac 2010 summarization track. In *Proceedings of the Text Analysis Conference (TAC)*.

- Karolina Owczarzak and Hoa Trang Dang. 2011. Overview of the tac 2011 summarization track: Guided task and aesop task. In *Proceedings of the Text Analysis Conference (TAC 2011), Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA, November.*
- Lawrence Page, Sergey Brin, Rajeev Motwani, and Terry Winograd. 1999. The pagerank citation ranking: Bringing order to the web.
- Dragomir R. Radev, Hongyan Jing, and Malgorzata Budzikowska. 2000. Centroid-based summarization of multiple documents: sentence extraction, utility-based evaluation, and user studies. In *NAACL-ANLP* 2000 Workshop: Automatic Summarization.
- Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J. Liu. 2019. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer.
- Victor Sanh, Lysandre Debut, Julien Chaumond, and Thomas Wolf. 2019. Distilbert, a distilled version of bert: smaller, faster, cheaper and lighter. *ArXiv*, abs/1910.01108.
- Yohei Seki. 2003. Sentence extraction by tf/idf and position weighting from newspaper articles. *National Institute of Informatics: Proceedings of the Third NTCIR Workshop*.
- Advaith Siddharthan, Ani Nenkova, and Kathleen McKeown. 2011. Information status distinctions and referring expressions: An empirical study of references to people in news summaries. *Computational Linguistics*, 37(4):811–842.
- Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pierric Cistac, Tim Rault, Remi Louf, Morgan Funtowicz, Joe Davison, Sam Shleifer, Patrick von Platen, Clara Ma, Yacine Jernite, Julien Plu, Canwen Xu, Teven Le Scao, Sylvain Gugger, Mariama Drame, Quentin Lhoest, and Alexander Rush. 2020. Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations, pages 38–45, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jeff Wu, Long Ouyang, Daniel M. Ziegler, Nisan Stiennon, Ryan Lowe, Jan Leike, and Paul Christiano. 2021. Recursively summarizing books with human feedback.
- Jingqing Zhang, Yao Zhao, Mohammad Saleh, and Peter J. Liu. 2019. PEGASUS: pre-training with extracted gap-sentences for abstractive summarization. *CoRR*, abs/1912.08777.

Table 6: Generated summaries based on devtest docset D1006

gold ILP D5	On Sept 30, Merck voluntarily recalled the pain killer Vioxx, used by almost 2 million, after clinical trials for its use in colon cancer showed unacceptable rates of stroke/heart attack. Results corroborated earlier warnings that had not resulted in recalls by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA). As a COX inhibitor, Vioxx was safer for digestive tracts, important for arthritis patients. Merck's advertising campaigns did not clearly warn about side effects. The case highlighted concerns about drug manufacturers' advertising and FDAs role in insuring safety of drugs on the market. Safety of other COX inhibitors is now a concern." Merck officials said last week its latest research showed an increased risk of heart attack and other cardiovascular complications in patients who took Vioxx for at least 18 months. Heavily advertised as an arthritis drug, Vioxx was pulled from the market last week after its maker said a study showed it doubled the risk of heart attack and stroke. But some doctors say this group of drugs may work in a way that increases the risk of heart problems for some patients, and they point to this latest information as
ILP D4	additional reason for concern. Merck officials said last week its latest research showed an increased risk of heart attack and other cardiovascular complications in patients who took Vioxx for at least 18 months. Heavily advertised as an arthritis drug, Vioxx was pulled from the market last week after its maker said a study showed it doubled the risk of heart attack and stroke. But some doctors say this group of drugs may work in a way that increases the risk of heart problems for some patients, and they point to this latest information as additional reason for concern.
LexRank (D4)	
LexRank (D3)	
GSG LLM (D5)	In September 2004, Merck & Co. recalled its arthritis drug Vioxx after a clinical trial showed it doubled the risk of heart attacks and strokes. The drug had been used by 20 million Americans since its approval in 1999 and was the company's top-selling product. Merck had spent \$195 million to promote Vioxx as a wonder drug for the aging baby boomers. The FDA, which approved Vioxx for use, had been concerned about the drug's cardiovascular risks since at least 2000 but did not issue a warning until 2004.
GSG LLM (D4)	Merck recalled Vioxx in September 2004 after a study showed that it doubled the risk of heart attacks and strokes in older people taking it for at least three years. The drug had been approved by the FDA in 1999 for arthritis. Merck had promoted Vioxx as a way to lower blood pressure and cholesterol, but the study showed that it increased the risk of heart attacks and strokes. Merck's decision to withdraw Vioxx from the market raised questions about aggressive marketing of the drug before its long-term safety had been proven.
Baseline Top K (D5)	Merck Co. said its surprise decision Thursday to withdraw the arthritis drug Vioxx—used by about 2 million people worldwide—was driven by recent evidence that the drug's adverse side effects outweighed any potential benefits. But that wasn't really news.

Table 7: Generated summaries based on evaltest docset D1105

gold	Boeing 737-400 plane with 102 people on board crashed into a mountain in the
	West Sulawesi province of Indonesia, on Monday, January 01, 2007, killing at least
	90 passengers, with 12 possible survivors. The plane was Adam Air flight KI-574,
	departing at 12:59 pm from Surabaya on Java bound for Manado in northeast Sulawesi.
	The plane crashed in a mountainous region in Polewali, west Sulawesi province. There
	were three Americans on board, it is not know if they survived. The cause of the crash
	is not known at this time but it is possible bad weather was a factor.
ILP	An Indonesian lawmaker Tuesday criticised what he said was the slow deployment
	of search and rescue teams to a mountainous area of Sulawesi island where a plane
	carrying 102 people crashed. An Indonesian passenger plane carrying 102 people
	disappeared in stormy weather on Monday, and rescue teams were sent to search an
	area where military aviation officials feared the Boeing 737-400 aircraft may have
	crashed. An Adam Air Boeing 737-400 plane with 102 people on board crashed in a
	mountainous area near the town of Polewali late Monday on its way from Surabaya to
	Manado.
LexRank	
GSG LLM	The Indonesian Navy (TNI AL) has sent two Cassa planes to carry the bodies of five
	of its members who were killed in a plane crash in Sulawesi late Monday. An Adam
	Air Boeing 737-400 plane with 102 people on board crashed in a mountainous area
	near the town of Polewali late Monday on its way from Surabaya to Manado. At least
	90 people, including five TNI AL members, were killed in the crash.
Baseline	Indonesian President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono said Tuesday he was deeply con-
	cerned with the crash of a passenger plane and the sinking of a ferry in the last few
	days that might have killed hundreds of people. Earlier on Friday, a ferry carrying 628
	people sank off the Java coast with some 400 passengers reported missing. A Boeing
	737-400 plane with 102 people onboard crashed into a mountain in the West Sulawesi
	province Monday, killing at least 90 people. JAKARTA, Jan. 2 (Xinhua)

Docset	TF-IDF	Word2Vec	DistilBert	
D1001-A	Graham praised the	So many forms of commu-	Graham praised the	
	Columbine community for	nity, rippling outward from	Columbine community for	
	uniting under the pain of a	Columbine High and across	uniting under the pain of a	
	tragedy that could have torn	the planet, have come to-	tragedy that could have torn	
	it apart.	gether since last week's vi-	it apart.	
	But Wells said he is more in-	olence that it was difficult to	But Wells said he is more in-	
	terested in simply trying to	tell.	terested in simply trying to	
	have fun and move beyond	Graham praised the	have fun and move beyond	
	the tragedy that put his life	Columbine community for	the tragedy that put his life	
	on hold.	uniting under the pain of a	on hold.	
	So many forms of commu-	tragedy that could have torn	So many forms of commu-	
	nity, rippling outward from	it apart.	nity, rippling outward from	
	Columbine High and across	The school wanted to make	Columbine High and across	
	the planet, have come to-	sure there was enough to eat	the planet, have come to-	
	gether since last week's vi-	since students couldn't leave	gether since last week's vi-	
	olence that it was difficult to	campus for lunch and get	olence that it was difficult to	
	tell.	back in.	tell.	
	The school wanted to make	But Wells said he is more in-	The school wanted to make	
	sure there was enough to eat	terested in simply trying to	sure there was enough to eat	
	since students couldn't leave	have fun and move beyond	since students couldn't leave	
	campus for lunch and get	the tragedy that put his life	campus for lunch and get	
	back in.	on hold.	back in.	
D1002-A	Several of the officers are	They are accused of firing	They are accused of firing	
	said to have told associates	41 times at Amadou Diallo	41 times at Amadou Diallo	
	that they continued firing	while searching for a rape	while searching for a rape	
	because Diallo did not fall	suspect on Feb. 4.	suspect on Feb. 4.	
	even after they had un-	Police officers in criminal	Police officers in criminal	
	leashed the fusillade.	trials have often asked for	trials have often asked for	
	They are accused of firing 41 times at Amadou Diallo	a judge to decide their case,	a judge to decide their case,	
	while searching for a rape	fearing that juries would be unsympathetic.	fearing that juries would be unsympathetic.	
		Several of the officers are	While the trial date would	
	suspect on Feb. 4. While the trial date would	said to have told associates	come nearly a year after Di-	
	come nearly a year after Di-	that they continued firing	allo's death on the night of	
	allo's death on the night of	because Diallo did not fall	Feb. 4, it is not unusual in	
	Feb. 4, it is not unusual in	even after they had un-	such high-publicity cases.	
	such high-publicity cases.	leashed the fusillade.	Several of the officers are	
	Police officers in criminal	While the trial date would	said to have told associates	
	trials have often asked for	come nearly a year after Di-	that they continued firing	
	a judge to decide their case,	allo's death on the night of	because Diallo did not fall	
	fearing that juries would be	Feb. 4, it is not unusual in	even after they had un-	
	unsympathetic.	such high-publicity cases.	leashed the fusillade.	
	and impunione.	sach mgn paonony cases.	reasiled the rasilitude.	

Table 8: Error Analysis for summary ordering using Topic Clustering using mean Fractional Ordering

Docset	TF-IDF	Word2Vec	DistilBert
D1001-A	So many forms of commu-	So many forms of commu-	Graham praised the
	nity, rippling outward from	nity, rippling outward from	Columbine community for
	Columbine High and across	Columbine High and across	uniting under the pain of a
	the planet, have come to-	the planet, have come to-	tragedy that could have torn
	gether since last week's vi-	gether since last week's vi-	it apart.
	olence that it was difficult to	olence that it was difficult to	But Wells said he is more in-
	tell.	tell.	terested in simply trying to
	Graham praised the	Graham praised the	have fun and move beyond
	Columbine community for	Columbine community for	the tragedy that put his life
	uniting under the pain of a	uniting under the pain of a	on hold.
	tragedy that could have torn	tragedy that could have torn	So many forms of commu-
	it apart.	it apart.	nity, rippling outward from
	But Wells said he is more in-	The school wanted to make	Columbine High and across
	terested in simply trying to have fun and move beyond	sure there was enough to eat since students couldn't leave	the planet, have come to-
	the tragedy that put his life	campus for lunch and get	gether since last week's violence that it was difficult to
	on hold.	back in.	tell.
	The school wanted to make	But Wells said he is more in-	The school wanted to make
	sure there was enough to eat	terested in simply trying to	sure there was enough to eat
	since students couldn't leave	have fun and move beyond	since students couldn't leave
	campus for lunch and get	the tragedy that put his life	campus for lunch and get
	back in.	on hold.	back in.
D1002-A	Several of the officers are	They are accused of firing	They are accused of firing
	said to have told associates	41 times at Amadou Diallo	41 times at Amadou Diallo
	that they continued firing	while searching for a rape	while searching for a rape
	because Diallo did not fall	suspect on Feb. 4.	suspect on Feb. 4.
	even after they had un-	Police officers in criminal	Police officers in criminal
	leashed the fusillade.	trials have often asked for	trials have often asked for
	They are accused of firing	a judge to decide their case,	a judge to decide their case,
	41 times at Amadou Diallo	fearing that juries would be	fearing that juries would be
	while searching for a rape	unsympathetic.	unsympathetic.
	suspect on Feb. 4.	Several of the officers are	While the trial date would
	While the trial date would	said to have told associates	come nearly a year after Di-
	come nearly a year after Di-	that they continued firing	allo's death on the night of
	allo's death on the night of	because Diallo did not fall	Feb. 4, it is not unusual in
	Feb. 4, it is not unusual in	even after they had un-	such high-publicity cases.
	such high-publicity cases.	leashed the fusillade.	Several of the officers are
	Police officers in criminal	While the trial date would	said to have told associates
	trials have often asked for	come nearly a year after Di-	that they continued firing
	a judge to decide their case, fearing that juries would be	allo's death on the night of	because Diallo did not fall
	unsympathetic.	Feb. 4, it is not unusual in such high-publicity cases.	even after they had unleashed the fusillade.
	unsympanicue.	such ingh-publicity cases.	icashed the fushidue.

Table 9: Error Analysis for summary ordering using Topic Clustering using median Fractional Ordering

Exp-	Min	n-gram	delta	delta	Elim	Lower-	log	ROUGE1	ROUGE2
ID	Sent		tf	idf	Punc	casing			
	Length								
J0	25	Unigram	0.01	0.7	No	Yes	Yes	0.33320	0.07410
J1	None	Unigram	0.01	0.7	No	Yes	Yes	0.32508	0.06849
J2	25	Bigram	0.01	0.7	No	Yes	Yes	0.30059	0.07016
J3	25	Trigram	0.01	0.7	No	Yes	Yes	0.27682	0.06078
J4	26	Unigram	0.001	0.7	No	Yes	Yes	0.33114	0.07349
J5	25	Unigram	0.01	0.001	No	Yes	Yes	0.22592	0.03107
J6	25	Unigram	0.01	0.7	Yes	Yes	Yes	0.33320	0.07405
J7	25	Unigram	0.01	0.7	No	No	Yes	0.33320	0.07405
J8	25	Unigram	0.01	0.7	No	Yes	No	0.33320	0.07415

Table 10: The results of the experiments that we ran for our hyper-parameter ablation test on ILP. The top row is the top-model with the best combination of hyper-parameters that gets us the our very best ROUGE1 score.