Controlled Text Reduction

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Abstract

Producing a reduced version of a source text, as in generic or focused summarization, inherently involves two distinct subtasks: deciding on targeted content and generating a coherent text conveying it. While some popular approaches address summarization as a single end-to-end task, prominent works support decomposed modeling for individual subtasks. Further, semi-automated text reduction is also very appealing, where users may identify targeted content while models would generate a corresponding coherent summary.

In this paper, we focus on the second subtask, of generating coherent text given pre-selected content. Concretely, we formalize Controlled Text Reduction as a standalone task, whose input is a source text with marked spans of targeted content ("highlighting"). A model then needs to generate a coherent text that includes all and only the target information. We advocate the potential of such models, both for modular fully-automatic summarization, as well as for semi-automated human-in-the-loop use cases. Facilitating proper research, we crowdsource high-quality dev and test datasets for the task. Further, we automatically generate a larger "silver" training dataset from available summarization benchmarks, leveraging a pre-trained summary-source alignment model. Finally, employing these datasets, we present a supervised baseline model, showing promising results and insightful analyses.

1 Introduction

Abstractive text summarization takes one or more documents as input and aims at generating an accurate and coherent summary from it. It requires both locating salient information in the input and then generating a concise text covering it. While some modern state-of-the-art abstractive summarization models treat the task as a single end-to-end task, it has been common practice for summarization models to separate the salience detection phase from the text generation phase (Barzilay and McKeown, 2005; Oya et al., 2014; Banerjee et al., 2016; Vilca and Cabezudo, 2017), with renewed popularity in recent years (Lebanoff et al., 2019, 2020a,b; Xiao et al., 2022; Ernst et al., 2021a; Gehrmann et al., 2018a; Chen and Bansal, 2018; Cho et al., 2019). But, though those proposed techniques comprised distinguishable subtasks, evaluation was performed on the whole summarization pipeline, rather than optimizing each step separately.

In this paper, we focus on the text generation step, while addressing it as a standalone task at the sub-sentence level. To that end, we introduce a new task which we denote Controlled Text Reduction. The task takes as input a document with pre-chosen salient spans in it, which we will henceforth call highlights. A model is then expected to reduce the document to a smaller coherent text which covers all and only the highlighted content, i.e., consolidating the highlighted spans into a fluent and coherent passage, as exemplified in Figure 1. This task poses a challenge, as it requires generating fluent and grammatical text from non-consecutive spans while keeping it faithful to the source document. Hence, to balance the coherency and faithfulness constraints, models will be expected to use the context document to fill in implied details and to properly connect the different spans.

Focusing on this task can facilitate greater control over the generated text. It could lead to a modular summarization pipeline, where text-generation models can be trained once, and then used with different content selections to accommodate different needs. For example, we may envision a user (e.g., a student) pre-selecting the desirable textual content (either manually or via a designated model) while
focusing on personal needs, possibly interactively (Hirsch et al., 2021; Shapira et al., 2021). Then, an available controlled text reduction module would transform the pre-selected fragments into a concise summary. Also, separating the content selection and generation stages can lead to developing data-efficient systems, one to model salient content and another to generate the text. It could also lead to a more efficient characterization and research of each step separately without the need for probing, which is the prevailing approach in end-to-end models (Conneau et al., 2018; Tenney et al., 2019a,b; Slobodkin et al., 2021; Pandit and Hou, 2021).

To promote research on the advocated text reduction task, we first develop a suitable controlled crowdsourcing methodology, following Roit et al. (2020), and apply it to produce high-quality dev and test datasets (§4). Next, we automatically generate a larger training dataset, by aligning propositional units of information (Ernst et al., 2021b), extracted with OpenIE (Stanovsky et al., 2018), between source documents and their summaries (§5). We use this data to train an abstractive supervised model, and evaluate its performance against our testset while comparing it to an extractive reference baseline, which simply concatenates the highlights. We also perform analyses where we manipulate the highlights and show that the addition of highlights to a supervised model is helpful in steering the model toward the pre-selected content, in addition to improving overall faithfulness and fluency (§8).

Hence, the contribution of this paper is manifold:
1. Proposing the “Controlled Text Reduction” task as a standalone module in automated or semi-automated use cases.
2. Defining an intuitive and easy-to-reproduce crowd-sourcing method for the task.
3. Constructing the first data suite for the task, including crowd-sourced dev and test sets and an automatically-generated train set.
4. Developing a supervised baseline model for future work.

2 Background

In this section, we briefly review related work and discuss the limitations of their framing.

As mentioned above, much of the related previous work focused primarily on end-to-end summarization (Carbonell and Goldstein, 1998; Haghhighi and Vanderwende, 2009; Nallapati et al., 2016c,b; Paulus et al., 2017; Gehrmann et al., 2018b), with the vast majority of related datasets aimed at end-to-end summarization (Fabbri et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2019; Ghalandari et al., 2020), with only a source document as input. On the other hand, research on leveraging control through the injection of pre-chosen (rather than learned) signals in the seq-to-seq scenario focused mostly on semantic and syntactic signals, and also almost exclusively targeted Machine Translation models (Bugliarello and Okazaki, 2020; Akoury et al., 2019; Sundararaman et al., 2019; Choshen and Abend, 2021; Slobodkin et al., 2022).

Attempts to leverage some control over the generation step in summarization received attention in recent years in the form of query-focused summarization (Baumel et al., 2018; Xu and Lapata, 2020, 2021; Wei and Zhizhuo, 2017) and keywords-focused summarization (Keskar et al., 2019; He et al., 2020), with a few recently published corresponding datasets (Pasunuru et al., 2021; Kulkarni et al., 2020; Baumel et al., 2016). A similar trend tried to leverage control through the addition of a planning step (Zhao et al., 2020; Narayan et al., 2021). Although these lines of research allowed for some control over salience, this control was limited and mostly focused on biasing the summary’s topic, style, or structure.

The prevailing way to treat summarization in earlier works was to separate the salience detection phase from the text generation phase (Barzilay and McKeown, 2005; Oya et al., 2014; Banerjee et al., 2016; Vilca and Cabezudo, 2017), yet the evaluation was performed on the whole pipeline.
Some recent work focused on salience detection (Ernst et al., 2021a,b; Gehrmann et al., 2018a; Chen and Bansal, 2018; Cho et al., 2019), whereas the generation step has mostly been explored in a full-sentence-fusion setting (Geva et al., 2019; Lebanoff et al., 2019, 2020b; Xiao et al., 2022), rather than in a sub-sentence level. Lebanoff et al. (2020a) took it one step further, leveraging sentence fusion through a fine-grained content selection algorithm. But, though they did perform some analysis of this additional step by comparing different salience detection strategies, his evaluation focused on the full pipeline, similarly to his predecessors.

There has also been some work on extracting salient information in source documents in the form of highlights (Cho et al., 2020; Arumae et al., 2019). Yet, though acknowledging the full potential of using highlights to mark salient information in the source document, it mainly focused on the process of obtaining these highlights, overlooking its actual usage in subsequent generation tasks, and in summarization in particular. Moreover, these lines of work focused solely on automatic highlight detection, lacking any crowdsourced annotation scheme. There has also been work that pre-identified salient parts as input to the generation phase (Chen and Bansal, 2018; Xu et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Deutsch and Roth, 2021) But, contrary to our work, the salience detection and generation tasks were addressed and evaluated jointly, without assessing the quality of each individual task.

All those research directions recognized the potential of separating the summarization task into subtasks and performing each subtask explicitly. However, they all evaluated the subtasks jointly, and in doing so overlooked the potential laying in the optimization and characterization of each task individually, and specifically the generation task given content-selection. In this work, we propose to isolate the generation task given pre-selected content, treating it as a stand-alone task, thus promoting focused evaluation and model designing.

### 3 Task Definition

We define the controlled Text Reduction task as follows. Given a document and a set of marked spans within that document, denoted as highlights, produce a coherent output text encompassing only the information provided within those highlights (see Figure 1). The desirable output should adhere to two requirements beyond coherency: (1) Its content has to be derived from the highlights alone, keeping any additional document premises to the minimum required for coherency; (2) The output has to retain all of the details covered by the highlighted spans.

Such requirements give rise to many interesting challenges, such as recognizing the connecting thread between disparate spans and faithfully representing the information contained within them. We forgo a strict definition for a highlighted span and allow possibly marking sub-sentence elements: an entity or a clause, even discontinuous descriptions of these (e.g., the last two highlights in Figure 1). Hence, the input highlights may be disconnected in both their surface realization (i.e. grammatically
unsuitable), and semantic fluency.

Figure 1 features an input-output example. The output covers exclusively and completely the highlighted information while using the source document’s context to connect the disparate spans.

4 Gold Dataset for Evaluation

We leverage different summarization datasets to annotate a high-quality dataset for the evaluation of controlled-reduction systems. In summarization, every summary arises from a set of salient document spans. Exploiting this in our annotation process, we wish to "reverse-engineer" each summary and locate the spans in the document that led to its construction. This significantly reduces the annotation complexity and load, instead of compiling a new text given a set of highlighted spans, an annotator has to highlight document spans given the output text (i.e. the summary).

To create our development and test partitions we sample 121 and 108 unique documents from DUC 2001 and 2002 Single-Document-Summarization (SDS) datasets respectively. Each document is accompanied by up to 4 different reference summaries (with an average of 2.14 summaries per document), resulting in a total of 488 unique document-summary pairs (see Table 1 for full statistics and §A for preprocessing details).

We build an intuitive and convenient annotation tool for extracting highlights from document-summary pairs, designed to be embedded into crowdsourcing platforms (see §4.1 and Figure 2). A worker is presented with a document and its reference summary side-by-side and is instructed to highlight all of the phrases in the document whose content corresponds to the summary (see yellow background in Figure 2). To facilitate accurate and systematic processing of each instance, workers are asked to align spans from the summary that comprise a single fact to minimal spans in the document which cover them. Thus, annotators create a series of alignments that cover every piece of information in the summary (see Figure 3 for illustration of the annotation flow).

We observed that processing summary text one fact at a time substantially focuses the annotators’ attention and expedites the search for relevant spans in the document. This is exemplified when a single sentence in the summary is comprised of details that are mentioned in different locations spread out across the source document (e.g., the first summary sentence in Figure 1). Further, to streamline the process, we segment the document into paragraphs and bolden content words in the document that share the same lemma with words in the current summary sentence (see document side in Figure 2 and also §A for details). This method helps the human annotator to skim quickly through the document and is relatively bias-free. It is our assumption that a trained worker will not predominantly use same-lemma words for highlighting, as it is discouraged

4.1 Annotation Process

To annotate document spans, whose content corresponds to the summary content, we build a web-based user interface that is published on Amazon Mechanical Turk and used by crowd-workers (see Figure 2). An annotator is presented with a document and its reference summary side-by-side and is instructed to highlight all of the phrases in the document whose content corresponds to the summary (see yellow background in Figure 2). To facilitate accurate and systematic processing of each instance, workers are asked to align spans from the summary that comprise a single fact to minimal spans in the document which cover them. Thus, annotators create a series of alignments that cover every piece of information in the summary (see Figure 3 for illustration of the annotation flow).

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4www.mturk.com
We consider only content words.

Table 1: Statistics of our dataset, including the number of unique documents, the average number of summaries per document, the number of summary-document pairs (a unique document creates a pair with each of its summaries), the mean input/output size (in tokens and in sentences), the maximum input/output size (in tokens) and the percentage of sentences whose alignments span across more than one document sentence.

|                | #unique docs | #summaries/doc (average) | #summary-doc pairs | mean input/output size (tkns) | max input/output size (tkns) | mean input/output size (sentences) | summary sentences aligning to multiple doc sentences |
|----------------|--------------|--------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| Train (DUC)    | 893          | 2.14                     | 1911               | 849/13/115.34                 | 8311/153                     | 35.73/4.60                        | 41.87 %                                         |
| Dev (DUC)      | 57           | 2.36                     | 129                | 781/92/121.55                 | 703/9164                     | 27.08/2.44                        | 40.62 %                                         |
| Test (DUC)     | 172          | 2.09                     | 359                | 876/35/120.59                 | 3384/161                     | 30.84/4.34                        | 40.71 %                                         |
| Overall (DUC)  | 1122         | 2.14                     | 2399               | 850/40/116.44                 | 3384/161                     | 34.58/4.56                        | 41.63 %                                         |
| Train (CNN-DM) | 285073       | 1                        | 285073             | 810/77/56.91                  | 2934/2100                    | 40.07/2.72                        | 71.29 %                                         |

in our guidelines (see §4.2).

After carefully assembling our trained worker pool, (see later §4.3), each document-summary instance is annotated by a single worker. To supervise the resulting quality, we randomly sample submissions, supplying additional feedback if needed.

4.2 Guidelines

We instruct our workers to process the text systematically and align facts from each summary sentence to the corresponding phrases in the document.

Summary-related Guidelines We provide guidelines for the annotator to break up the summary sentence into the facts that it is comprised of. We target facts encoded in main or embedded clauses, appositions, copular phrases, conjunctions, and more. §B.1 covers the full summary-related guidelines provided to the annotator.

Document-related Guidelines Once a summary fact was identified and highlighted, the crowd-workers are instructed to find its corresponding spans in the document. We define those spans as the minimal set of phrases that fully describe the current highlighted fact in the summary and nothing else. We define minimal in the sense that removing a content word from the document span would necessarily render some detail as not covered. For example, omitting anything from the first summary sentence in Figure 1, e.g., “in 1969”, would result in an overlooked highlighted fact. Notably, the annotators may highlight multiple document spans portraying the same fact (redundantly in the document). Finally, we elaborate on the guidelines to touch down on issues such as paraphrasing, in-consecutive highlights, and highlighting in context. A more comprehensive overview of the guidelines and examples appears in §C.

4.3 Annotator Training

We follow the Controlled Crowdsourcing Methodology (Roit et al., 2020) to detect a group of qualified annotators, using two open qualification rounds for an initial selection, and proceeding with closed qualification rounds (for selected annotators) for further training and refining. In each round, the annotator is instructed to read a short description of the task and annotate a trial instance. The closed qualification rounds proceeded with a 20-minute video explaining the different features of our annotation tool (see §4.1). Each round is followed by a thorough review of the authors for further feedback. The qualification rounds are fully paid, take up to 30 minutes to complete, and consist of 3 summary-document pairs and reading relevant feedback. Upon completion, we remained with 11 annotators who successfully completed the training session, out of 15 who began the training round.

Cost We price every annotation instance, that takes on average 10 minutes to complete, at $28. We also compensate the workers for the time spent watching the 20-minute video during training with a $4 bonus upon completion of the video. The total dataset cost amounted to approximately 1400$.

4.4 Dataset Quality

To assess the quality of the resulting dataset we calculate different agreement scores between crowd-workers and experts. Given the same summary-document pair annotated separately by two annotators, we calculate Intersection-over-Union (IOU) of the tokens’ indices between the highlighted document spans that are aligned to the same summary sentence, similarly to Ernst et al. (2021b). We collect the sentence-wise IOU scores across 3 summary-document pairs, annotated by 11 workers to calculate the Inter-Annotator-Agreement and

5For the open rounds, the instance is simplified with a single summary sentence to focus on.

6We consider only content words.
find that our workers exhibit a high agreement of 82.09, suggesting that our annotation protocol is well-defined and stable. Likewise, we calculate the agreement between the annotators to references made by two of the authors and find it to be also high (78.23), indicating a good quality of our annotated data.

From analyzing all disagreements ($\text{IoU} < 90\%$), we find that the main factor for disagreement stems from two separate spans in the document entailing the same event, resulting in each of the annotators highlighting a different mention of it or in one of them highlighting both mentions. This does not harm the quality of our data, as both options are fitting for the task. Another prevalent reason for disagreement arises from one of the annotators highlighting extra phrases that overall add only insignificant details on top of the summary. For examples, see §D. Finally, an interesting characteristic of our dataset is that for $> 40\%$ our annotated data, a summary sentence is aligned with non-consecutive phrases originating in different document sentences (see Table 1), representing the challenges faced by a text reduction model in a realistic setting.

5 Train Dataset

To acquire a larger dataset for training supervised models, we opt for an automatic approach to extract highlights. For that, we employ the superPAL model (Ernst et al., 2021b), a proposition-based summary-source alignment model trained on a sentence alignment dataset (Copeck and Szpakowicz, 2005; Copeck et al., 2006, 2007, 2008) based on the Pyramid evaluation method (Nenkova and Passonneau, 2004b). The model extracts propositions from the document and the summary, and then uses a RoBERTa encoder fine-tuned on MNLI and augmented with a binary classification layer to determine which propositions are aligned.

We run the pre-trained superPAL model on the SDS DUC 2001 and 2002 document-summary pairs that were not already manually annotated (see §4), consisting of 1911 such pairs (see Table 1), and the pairs of the CNN-DM train split (Nallapati et al., 2016a), consisting of 285073 such pairs (see Table 1). For each pair, we collect only document highlights with an alignment probability of 0.5 or more, similarly to Ernst et al. (2021b). This way, we perform automatically the task that was manually performed in §4.

| P    | R    | F1   |
|------|------|------|
| 66.17| 68.35| 65.24|

Table 2: Token-wise macro-averaged precision, recall, and F1 scores when comparing the manually and automatically annotated document-summary pairs (dev&test).

5.1 Evaluation of Automatic Annotation

Next, we wish to assess the quality of the automatically-generated data, and especially its correlation to the manually annotated dataset. For that, we first use SuperPal to extract potential highlights in the document-summary pairs annotated by our annotators (see §4). Next, for every data point, we compare all its automatically-extracted highlights with their crowd-sourced counterparts.

Table 2 presents the tokenwise macro-averaged precision, recall, and F1 values, with the crowd-sourced highlights as the gold data (the micro-averaged values show similar trends - see §E). These results suggest that our automatically-generated highlights cover a substantial portion of the highlights, with reasonable precision, making them useful for large-scale training. However, these figures also stress the necessity of our manual annotation for the dev and test sets.

6 Baseline Models

We experiment with two methods for the controlled text reduction task: a supervised model, whose input is the full document, supplemented with indications of the highlighted spans (§6.1) and another supervised model that receives as input only a concatenation of the highlights, without the surrounding context (§6.2). Both models are trained on our automatically-generated train dataset (§5).

6.1 Highlights in Context

Considering the length requirements of our data (see Table 1), we opt for a model designated for long inputs. We employ the Longformer Encoder-Decoder base model (LEDbase; Beltagy et al., 2020), with the standard configurations. The Longformer is an adaption of BART (Lewis et al., 2020) for longer inputs, replacing BART’s encoder with a combination of a local and a (optional) global attention mechanism. The local attention, which comes in the form of a sliding window, is mostly used to build contextual representations, by

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Footnotes:

7 We consider only content words.

8 For details, see this colab notebook.
enabling each token to attend to its neighbors. Alternatively, a global attention, which is given to a few pre-selected input tokens, enables those tokens to attend to all the tokens in the input (and not only its neighbors), and also allows all input tokens to attend to the global ones. LED has demonstrated state-of-the-art results when evaluated on the arXiv long document summarization dataset (Cohan et al., 2018), making it a suitable choice for our experiments. We denote this model LED\textsubscript{H}.

6.2 Only Highlights

To demonstrate the necessity of the document context, we also train a variant of the LED model where the input consists of a concatenation of the supplied document spans, without the surrounding context.\textsuperscript{9} We denote it LED\textsubscript{only-H}. We use the same configurations as in §6.1 while omitting the global attention (given it is not needed in this setting).

7 Experimental Setup

Baseline Models We use our training dataset (§5) to finetune our two LED variants (§6). We employ the CNN-DM dataset together with our DUC trainset for initial fine-tuning, which is then followed by further finetuning on the DUC trainset alone. We avoid using the CNN-DM dataset in the latter finetuning phase since its quality is notably lower compared to the DUC dataset. Specifically, CNN-DM was generated automatically, in comparison to the expert-written summaries in DUC, and it consists of standalone bullet points, lacking the desired discourse properties and flow of natural text. To avoid overfitting on the CNN-DM dataset, which is much larger than DUC, we experimented with using only fractions of the CNN-DM data. Optimal performance was achieved when using the full CNN-DM data for the initial finetuning of the LED\textsubscript{H} model (§6.1), while for the LED\textsubscript{only-H} model it was best to finetune only on the DUC data, avoiding the CNN-DM data altogether.

In the LED\textsubscript{only-H}, we preprocess our input, extracting the highlights and then using a dot (followed by a space) to separate spans originating in different sentences, and a white space otherwise. To model the highlights in the LED\textsubscript{H} setting, we follow Deutsch and Roth (2021) and add to the vocabulary two special tokens, <highlight\_start> and <highlight\_end>, which are inserted as vec-

\textsuperscript{9}Given this input is short, we also experimented with Pegasus, which showed comparable results on the dev set.
Table 3: The (averaged) human ratings of fluency of the summaries generated by our two baseline models and the extractive reference model (Concat.).

| Method       | Fluency Rating |
|--------------|----------------|
| Concat.      | 2.76           |
| LED\textsubscript{only-H} | 3.12           |
| LED\textsubscript{H}     | 4.58           |

document-summary pairs in our test set for this experiment. We then evaluate the finetuned LED\textsubscript{H} (see §6.1) on this setting, evaluating the generated summary for each highlighted document with the summary that may have different salient content than the highlights, denoting it LED\textsubscript{H-mix}.

**Manual Fluency Evaluation** To test our assumption that simply concatenating the highlights, or excluding the document context, results in less coherent text, we ask crowd-workers to rate the fluency of the generated texts for the suggested baseline models. Our group of crowd-workers consists of reliable workers that have shown a good grasp of different semantic tasks including summarization in past experiments. To evaluate, we randomly choose 100 documents from our test set, each is assigned a single set of highlights corresponding to some summary. We design a simple Amazon Mechanical Turk interface, where we present all three generated summaries of the same input (see §F). Inspired by Fabbri et al. (2021)’s judgment guidelines to crowd-workers, we use a 5-point Likert scale to evaluate the consistency and fluency of the generated summaries and add criteria explaining each score, to reduce ambiguity and enforce more consistent rating (see §F).

8 Analysis and Results

First, we present the fluency results to validate the necessity of our task setting. As expected, it arises from Table 3 that the Concat. approach generates highly incoherent summaries, as opposed to the supervised model. This shows that just copying from the highlights directly leads to incoherent text. We also see that removing the context from the input is also detrimental to the model’s ability to generate a coherent text (LED\textsubscript{H} vs. LED\textsubscript{only-H}), demonstrating the importance of context (see §G for example generated texts). To obtain further insight into context importance, we manually inspect the crowd-sourced datasets and find that for 74% of the document-summary pairs, context is indeed required to properly connect the disparate highlighted spans.

Next, we proceed to evaluate content preservation using ROUGE (Lin and Hovy, 2003), a lexical overlap metric (see Table 4). To measure content preservation we apply the metric between the generated text and the highlighted content aimed to be preserved (technically, the highlights are concatenated to apply the ROUGE measure). As may expected, it arises from Table 4 that passing only the highlights through a supervised model results in the best ROUGE scores (see LED\textsubscript{only-H}), suggesting that, in the absence of additional content, the LED\textsubscript{only-H} model tends to preserve the original lexical content within its input highlights. Yet, as was seen in Table 3, avoiding the context yields unacceptably incoherent text, making this model irrelevant to the task. Adding context to the input (LED\textsubscript{H}) downgrades the ROUGE score, which may be attributed to either desired or undesired behaviors of the LED\textsubscript{H} model. In some cases, the generated text does preserve the highlighted content, but deviates from it lexically in order to generate fluent text, possibly incorporating certain lexical elements from the context while preserving meaning. In other cases, however, the generated text does deviate from the highlighted content by erroneously adding to the output non-highlighted content from the surrounding context. Unfortunately, the ROUGE measure, being based solely on lexical matches, does not distinguish between these two cases. To that end, we add a manual faithfulness analysis in §8.1 (Table 5), which evaluates content preservation more precisely, with respect to both precision (faithfulness) and recall (coverage).

Finally, we observe an approximately 8 points decrease in all ROUGE metrics when removing the highlights (LED\textsubscript{NH}), indicating that highlights do in fact play a major role in directing the model to focus on specific targeted content. We see a similar trend in LED\textsubscript{H-mix}, suggesting that each set of highlights steers the model toward the specific content it focuses on. This further confirms the highlights’ role in the model’s content-related decisions.

In conclusion, to evaluate future progress on the text reduction task, we firstly propose combining manual evaluation of fluency, requiring sufficient fluency to make models acceptable, along with automatic evaluation of content preservation via common measures for this purpose such as ROUGE. While we also inspected less standard automatic evaluation measures, for both fluency

\footnote{It is worth mentioning that we observed similar trends when comparing the generated texts to the original summaries - see §H for further details.}
To determine the amount of system summary spans that are entailed by the source, we compare each summary span to the source. We conducted two manual experiments, one with respect to the full document, and one with respect to the highlighted spans only. To that end, we randomly select 10 unique documents from our test set, with one of their set of highlights. Then, following the notion of Summary Content Unit (SCU) in the Pyramid method for summarization evaluation (Nenkova and Passonneau, 2004a), we extract such units from both the summary and the source text using the Summary Evaluation Environment (SEE) described in that paper. Then, for each summary unit, we manually search for a matched document unit conveying the same information, to determine whether the summary unit is mentioned in the document (TP) or not (FP). Lastly, we calculate the micro-precision, which represents the faithfulness of both models’ outputs. Table 5 shows an almost 5% improvement in faithfulness to the source document when adding highlights. This implies that the highlights not only steer the model towards specific content but also help it keep focused on the source. Interestingly, we find that one-third of the faithfulness errors (FP) stem from disparate highlights that were incorrectly combined, which is typical for summarization hallucinations.

Table 5: Fact-wise faithfulness (P) and coverage (R) of the highlighted content preservation results, comparing model output to the (concatenated) highlights in the input. We evaluate our baseline models (LEDH and LEDonly-H), along with the alternative compared configurations (LEDNH and LEDH-mix).

|          | R-1  | R-2  | R-L  |
|----------|------|------|------|
| LEDonly-H| 79.37| 66.71| 69.74|
| LEDH     | 70.15| 53.14| 57.87|
| LEDNH    | 49.98| 28.89| 36.55|
| LEDH-mix | 67.17| 49.40| 55.62|

Table 5: Fact-wise faithfulness (P) and coverage (R) scores for LEDNH and LEDH, once between generated summaries and the full source document and once between the generated summaries and the highlight.

(Mutton et al., 2007) and semantic-oriented content matching (Honovich et al., 2021; Laban et al., 2022), we found them to be not sufficiently reliable for our setting. That said, future progress in the quality of automatic evaluation of summary fluency and content matching would be highly applicable, and desired, for our text reduction task as well, particularly given the known deficiencies of the lexical-matching-based ROUGE measure. Further, reliable crowdsourcing methods for human evaluation of content matching may be considered as well (Shapira et al., 2019), as we illustrate in our limited-scale analysis in the next subsection.

8.1 Performance Analysis

To further evaluate the highlights’ effect, we manually assess LEDH and LEDNH on two levels: (1) faithfulness of the generated text and (2) coverage of the highlighted spans in the system summary.

To determine the amount of system summary spans that are entailed by the source, we compare each summary span to the source. We conducted two manual experiments, one with respect to the full document, and one with respect to the highlighted spans only. To that end, we randomly select 10 unique documents from our test set, with one of their set of highlights. Then, following the notion of Summary Content Unit (SCU) in the Pyramid method for summarization evaluation (Nenkova and Passonneau, 2004a), we extract such units from both the summary and the source text using the Summary Evaluation Environment (SEE) described in that paper. Then, for each summary unit, we manually search for a matched document unit conveying the same information, to determine whether the summary unit is mentioned in the document (TP) or not (FP). Lastly, we calculate the micro-precision, which represents the faithfulness of both models’ outputs. Table 5 shows an almost 5% improvement in faithfulness to the source document when adding highlights. This implies that the highlights not only steer the model towards specific content but also help it keep focused on the source. Interestingly, we find that one-third of the faithfulness errors (FP) stem from disparate highlights that were incorrectly combined, which is typical for summarization hallucinations.

We also evaluate the highlights’ coverage by the summaries. For that, we calculate the number of False Negative (FN) summary facts, compared to the facts in the highlights, and compute the micro-recall value, representing the summaries’ coverage of the highlights. Table 5 shows a clear advantage to including highlights, with almost twice as big faithfulness (P) and coverage (R) of the highlighted facts. With that said, we note that the highlight-related faithfulness is still only a little over 50%, indicating that the model included non-highlighted facts, which further exhibits the challenge to devise models that better focus only on the highlights.

9 Conclusion

In this paper, we promote the separation of the summarization task into the salience-detection and text-generation steps. We foresee applications where salient phrases will be highlighted by an avid reader, or selected by a model specialized in some domain, while a more general-purpose model would reformulate the disparate pieces into a coherent text. Thus, we argue that Controlled Text Reduction, the second step of summarization, is an interesting and useful research goal in its own right. To bolster the task, we release a high-quality evaluation dataset and a heuristically-generated training data, evaluation protocol, and the first baseline model. The latter clearly shows how the generated summary text benefits from the added salient span signals. Future works may expand this to include multi-document settings in order to accommodate the task to a broader range of applications, and also focus on designing better evaluation metrics for the task.
10 Limitations

In this work, we construct the first-of-its-kind Controlled Text Reduction dataset, by aligning text spans in existing summaries to their correlated document spans. This poses a limitation on the highlights chosen, whereas in a more general setting users are free to highlight whatever they find interesting. On the contrary, in our setting, the highlights contain general salient information (that was extracted by the former human summarizer) rather than specific details.

Also, our train dataset was derived automatically using the SuperPAL model. Hence, it is likely that some of the highlights in the training dataset are not perfectly aligned with the summary.

Finally, the dataset is based on a news corpus, which might limit its applicability to other applications that have different structures, such as medical or legal documents, or meeting summaries.

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A Preprocessing

In preprocessing, we begin by removing meaningless characters from the input. Then, we use spaCy (Honnibal and Montani, 2017) to parse the input and the reference summaries to get their token segmentation, sentence separation, and lemmatization. Next, we construct a matrix $M_{ij}$ for each document-summary pair:

$$M_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{Similarity}_\text{Lemma}(t^s_i, t^d_j) \geq 0.86 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$ \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $t^s_i$ and $t^d_j$ are summary token $i$ and document token $j$, respectively, and the $\text{Similarity}_\text{Lemma}(t^s_i, t^d_j)$ is computed using the SequenceMatcher\textsuperscript{11} module on $t^s_i$’s and $t^d_j$’s lemmas.

In addition, given that most of our dataset was not segmented into paragraphs, we devise a naive algorithm to divide the source documents of each data point in the dev and test datasets, in order to make them more presentable for our annotators and easier to read through. For that, we first apply the neuralcoref model\textsuperscript{12} on the documents to get coreference clusters, which we used together with the spaCy sentence segmentation to determine when paragraph-breaks should occur.

B Annotation Full Guidelines

In this section, we provide the full annotation guidelines, presented to our workers.

B.1 Summary-related Guidelines

As mentioned in 4.2, we provide guidelines for the annotator to summarize the sentence into the facts that it is composed of. We target facts encoded in different grammatical structures, but to present them to the annotator in a simplified manner we show the following three variants:

- **NO EXPLICIT VERB**: An event is expressed without an explicit verb (e.g., "John Doe, my good friend, has arrived", whose first fact, "John Doe (is) my good friend", lacks an implicit verb).

C Document-related Guidelines

In this section, we present a more in-depth overview of the document-related guidelines presented to our annotators during their training.\textsuperscript{13}:

- Paraphrasing: We instruct our workers to not solely rely on phrases with shared words, as often the most suiting document phrase is a paraphrasing of its summary counterpart (for example, in Figure 2, "a well-qualified panel of judges" is a paraphrasing of its document counterpart).

- Consecutiveness: We guide our workers to avoid highlighting unnecessary details, i.e., that did not appear in the summary span, and keep the highlights inconsecutive if necessary: (e.g., in Figure 2, the nature of the committee’s members was excluded from the highlight, to adjust to the summary span, resulting in a non-consecutive highlight).

- Missing Details: When the corresponding document phrase is missing some details, the annotators are instructed to highlight some other mention of the absent information. For example, in Figure 1, the equivalent document span of the summary fact "The Booker Prize, which was first awarded in 1969" is "The prize was first awarded in 1969". But, as the prize’s "identity" is absent from this span, some mention of it should be highlighted as well (e.g., at the beginning of the document).

- Hallucination: For the rare instances where the reference summary has hallucinations, we instruct our workers to leave these details unhighlighted in the summary.

- Context: We guide our workers to verify that the document highlights are used in the same context as the summary spans. For example, if in Figure 1 there was a mention of another prize that was awarded in 1969, highlighting it would be erroneous.

D IAA disagreement Examples

Figure 4 exemplifies two disagreements between our annotators, which demonstrate the two main causes for disagreement (§4.4). In Figure 4a, we can see that one of the annotators highlighted an extra mention of the necessity to discuss business

\textsuperscript{11}https://github.com/python/cpython/blob/main/Lib/difflib.py

\textsuperscript{12}https://github.com/huggingface/neuralcoref

\textsuperscript{13}The full guidelines presented during training upon publication.
Table 6: Tokenwise micro-averaged precision, recall, and F1 scores when comparing the manually annotated document-summary pairs with the automatically-annotated pairs.

|         | P    | R    | F1   |
|---------|------|------|------|
| Concat. | 63.85| 67.22| 65.49|

Table 7: ROUGE-1, -2 and -L content preservation results, comparing model output to the gold summaries. We evaluate our baseline models (LED_H and LED_only-H), along with the alternative compared configurations (LED_NH and LED_H-mix).

|         | R-1   | R-2   | R-L  |
|---------|-------|-------|------|
| Concat. | 71.53 | 47.11 | 52.53|
| LED_only-H | 65.49 | 40.33 | 45.83|
| LED_H   | 59.48 | 33.30 | 40.39|
| LED_NH  | 45.94 | 19.68 | 28.86|
| LED_H-mix | 46.86 | 20.26 | 29.60|

(dashed blue), which is allowed in our setup. In Figure 4b, we can see that one of the annotators included "a euphemism for" in the highlight (dashed blue), which has no effect on the overall meaning of the highlight.

E Train Data Micro-Averaged Evaluation

Table 6 shows the micro-averaged precision, recall, and F1 scores of the comparisons discussed in subsection 5.1.

F Fluency Human Evaluation API

Figure 5 present an example of our API designated for the human evaluation of the generated summaries’ fluency and coherence.

G Generation Examples

Fig. 6 shows two examples of a highlighted source document and the text generated by the Concat. approach (Naive concatenation) and our two baseline models.

H ROUGE results When Compared to the Gold Summaries

Table 7 features the ROUGE results of all our models (and also the Concat. extractive approach) when compared to the gold summaries.
Figure 4: Two examples of disagreement between annotators. For each example, the bottom part is the summary (with the summary sentence over which there was disagreement in bold and underlined) and the top part is a single paragraph from the source document with both the annotators' highlights (marked with a red solid line and a blue dashed line to indicate each highlight).

Figure 5: Example of the data collection API used by crowd-source workers.
US and international experts are being sent to southern Africa to assess the impact on food supplies of what in some areas is the worst drought of the century. Among the hardest hit of the 10 drought-stricken countries are Zimbabwe and South Africa, traditional food exporters which this year will have to import substantial quantities of grain. The north-east Africa, encompassing Sudan, Ethiopia, Somalia and Djibouti. The lives of 15m people are thought to be at risk. Considerable donor assistance will be needed to avert a major humanitarian crisis in the region, the US State Department said.

The shortlist of six finalists for the Booker Prize has prompted the question 'Who is the winner of the Booker?' according to some on the list are B-team writers at best. The six include Alan Hollinghurst's The Folding Star (published by Chatto and Windus), a melancholy study of homosexual obsession which was tipped as a likely candidate from the initial 'long list' of 15, The Reef (Granta) by young Sri Lankan writer Romesh Gunesekera and How Late It Was, How Late (Secker and Warburg) by gritty Glasgow realist James Kelman, which was almost universally well-reviewed. As for the other three - Knowledge of Angels (Green Bay) a philosophical fable by children's author Jill Paton Walsh, Paradise (Hamish Hamilton) by Zanzibar-born writer Abdulrazak Gurnah and Beside the Ocean of Time (John Murray) by 72-year-old Orcadian poet George Mackay Brown - 'frankly, they don't make the grade'. The shortlist for the Booker, the UK's most hyped literary prize and one of the most lucrative, is all the more surprising in a bumper year for new fiction fulfilling the criteria - English language and non-American - for consideration for the award. Margaret Atwood's The Robber Bride seems an astonishing omission, as do new novels by Peter Ackroyd, Peter Carey, Candia McWilliam, William Trevor and Jim Crace. But if the shortlist of the final six candidates for the prize may be disappointing, the traditional controversy surrounding the award is as rife as ever. One unsurprising omission from the final selection was When The World Was Steady, a Wall Street Journal editorial. The winner will be announced on October 11.