PrefScore: Pairwise Preference Learning for Reference-free Summarization Quality Assessment

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Abstract
Evaluating machine-generated summaries without a human-written reference summary has been a need for a long time. Inspired by preference labeling in existing work of summarization evaluation, we propose to judge summary quality by learning the preference rank of summaries using the Bradley-Terry power ranking model from inferior summaries generated by corrupting base summaries. Extensive experiments on several datasets show that our weakly supervised scheme can produce scores highly correlated with human ratings.

1 Introduction
Summarization is a task in natural language processing in which automatic systems generate summaries from documents. To judge the quality of system-generated summaries, human evaluation is the best option, but it is non-trivial and laborious. Hence, many automatic metrics have been developed. They can be categorized as reference-based ones and reference-free ones, depending on whether reference summaries are needed in the evaluation stage.

Reference-based metrics include ROUGE (Lin, 2004), BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), CIDEr (Vedantam et al., 2015), METEOR (Banerjee and Lavie, 2005), S3 (Peyrard et al., 2017), MoverScore (Zhao et al., 2019), BertScore (Zhang et al., 2020), etc. Calculating the lexical overlap or the embedding similarity between a system-generated summary and its corresponding human-written reference summary, they reportedly have high correlations with human assessments.

Because creating human-written reference summaries is laborious and expensive, recent works are shifting to reference-free metrics. SummaQA (Scialom et al., 2019) and BLANC (Vasilyev et al., 2020) leverage pretrained language models to carry out text understanding tasks to evaluate the helpfulness of a summary for understanding its source document. SUPERT (Gao et al., 2020b) measures the semantic similarity against a pseudo reference summary in a multi-document summarization setting. However, reference-free metrics may show a lower correlation (Fabbri et al., 2021) with human evaluation scores than some of the reference-based metrics.

To trade off between the human effort needed and the quality of the evaluation, some work pursues a pairwise preference approach which collects preference labels over sentences in documents or over summaries from a human assessor as it requires less cognitive effort than writing a reference summary or manually scoring a machine-generated summary. Zopf (2018) proposes a reference-free evaluation approach by estimating sentence-level preferences on source documents rather than directly on the generated summaries. Gao et al. (2020a) train a linear model to estimate a summary preference utility function via active preference learning to guide a reinforcement learning based summarization system. But they do not examine the learned preference model as a metric for summarization evaluation.

Inspired by human-involved pairwise preference in summarization evaluation (Zopf, 2018; Gao et al., 2020b) and simple NLP data augmentation methods like EDA (Wei and Zou, 2019), in this work, we explore reference-free summary quality assessment via pairwise preference learning using negative sampling. A pre-trained text embedding model is used in a siamese network to learn the preference utility in an end-to-end, weakly supervised fashion. The closest work to ours is LS_Score (Wu et al., 2020). We achieve improved performance by using a better-attended model, a loss function based on preference learning, and introducing a mixed transitive negative sampling strategy. In addition, we promote our work to cross-domain and multi-document settings.

We show that the learned models are competitive
The goal of a reference-free evaluation system is to learn a regressor $f$ which takes a document $d$ and its summary $s$ as the input to produce a score $f(d, s)$ which represents the quality of the summary $s$. Learning such a regressor via supervised learning is very difficult because existing human-rated summarization datasets (NIST, 2010; Grusky et al., 2018; Bhandari et al., 2020) contain too few samples, around 100 samples each, to train a generalizable model.

Therefore, we use pairwise preference learning as a weakly supervised workaround. By corrupting a summary into an inferior one, existing summarization datasets containing no human ratings as training labels but only gold, reference summaries can be transformed into massive training data for preference learning.

The training label is designed based on the Bradley-Terry (BT) model (Bradley and Terry, 1952). Given a reference summary $s$ and a perturbed summary $s'$ of the document $d$, the BT model estimates $f(d, s)$ and $f(d, s')$ such that the probability of $s$ being superior than $s'$ is:

$$p(s \succ s'|d) = \frac{\exp(f(d, s))}{\exp(f(d, s)) + \exp(f(d, s'))}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

This leads to our model design (Figure 1) using a siamese network. Leveraging the recent work of BERT-like (Devlin et al., 2019) contextualized embedding, a document $d$ and a summary $s$ are viewed as two sequence of tokens $T_d$ and $T_s$. The input sequence are constructed as $([CLS], T_d, [SEP], T_s, [SEP])$, then the output of the [CLS] token containing both information from document and summary are sent to a linear layer to produce the final score $f(d, s)$. During the training, a pair of summaries will be sent to the siamese network. It can be seen as training a classifier to determine which summary is better. The loss is therefore:

$$\mathcal{L}^{BT} = - \sum_d \sum_{s' \in S'} \log(p(s \succ s'|d))$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $S'$ is a set of inferior summaries deviated from $s$ in methods to be discussed below in § 2.2. The learned ranking utility $f$ is used as our summary evaluator and does not require a reference summary in the test/evaluation stage.

### 2.2 Mixed Transitive Negative Sampling

Given a reference summary $s$, we can obtain the set $S' = \{s'_1, s'_2, \ldots, s'_n\}$ of inferior summaries by mutating the reference summary $s$ iteratively: $s'_1$ is mutated from $s$, $s'_2$ from $s'_1$, and so on. We can obtain a preference sequence of summaries $s \succ s'_1 \succ \cdots \succ s'_n$. The process is illustrated in Figure 2. In each iteration, unmodified tokens in $s'_i$ is randomly selected and mutated to generate summary $s'_{i+1}$. The process continues until all tokens are mutated.

![Figure 2: An example of the mixed transitive negative sampling process. The original part is in white, while the modified part is indicated as grey blocks.](https://example.com/figure2.png)
sampling that mutates samples in only one way or in only one iteration, our mixed transitive negative sampling accumulates the effects of different mutations into samples, enabling a model trained upon to learn different aspects of summaries.

3 Experiments

3.1 Test Sets

There are not many datasets with human evaluations to machine-generated summaries. Unfortunately, they are almost all in the news article domains. We use three established ones:

**TAC2010** (NIST, 2010) is a multi-document summarization dataset which reports three scores: content, fluency and overall. It consists of 46 topics, each of which is associated with a set of 10 documents. We evaluate the metrics over summaries generated by 43 systems. For a summary, we calculate the mean score for all documents paired with the summary as an extension for our metric in the multi-document scenario. Only Set A for the regular summarization task is used here.

**Newsroom** (Grusky et al., 2018) is a single-document summarization dataset reporting four scores: INFormativeness, RELevance, COHerence and FLUence. It contains human-rated summaries generated by 7 systems for 60 documents. Each document-summary pair is rated by three human annotators. We use their mean score as the groundtruth score.

**RealSumm** (Bhandari et al., 2020), a recent single-document dataset reporting the LitePyramid (Shapira et al., 2019) score which is also content-focused. It sampled 100 documents from the CNN/DailyMail (See et al., 2017) test set, and collected human ratings for summaries generated by 11 extractive systems and 14 abstractive systems.

3.2 Training Sets (documents and reference summaries only, no human evaluations)

Because the test sets are all in the news domain, we select one training set from the news domain for in-domain analysis: **CNN/DailyMail** (CNNDM) (See et al., 2017). For cross-domain analysis, three training sets from different non-news domains are selected: **Billsum** (Kornilova and Eidelman, 2019) from legislative bills, **Scientific papers-ArXiv** (Cohan et al., 2018) from papers on arXiv, and **BigPatent** (Sharma et al., 2019) from patent applications.

The train splits of the four datasets are used separately to train our model. For Billsum, we used all 18,949 samples in the train split. For the other three datasets, the first 40,000 samples in the train split are used for training. For every original reference summary in the training sets, 3 negative samples (inferior summaries) are generated.

3.3 Baselines and Upperbounds

We compare our work with both reference-free and reference-based metrics. The recently developed SummaQA (Scialom et al., 2019), BLANC (Vasilyev et al., 2020), SUPERT (Gao et al., 2020b) and LS_Score (Wu et al., 2020) are our baselines because they are reference-free.  

Reference-based metrics serve as soft upper bounds because they are provided with extra human guides which are reference summaries. ROUGE (Lin, 2004), BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), METEOR (Banerjee and Lavie, 2005), $S^3$ (Peyrard et al., 2017), MoverScore (Zhao et al., 2019), BertScore (recall) (Zhang et al., 2020) are included in this study.

Results for LS_Score (Wu et al., 2020) are only reported for Newsroom, which is copied from their paper, as we have not succeeded in reproducing their model using their code to test on other datasets. Despite the difficulty, we implemented our own version of LS_Score.

3.4 Settings

For a fair comparison, we use the same pre-trained language model BERT used by the baselines. Specifically, we use the bert-base-uncased variant of the BERT model in HuggingFace Transformer’s Pytorch implementation. An input sequence is padded to 512 tokens with [PAD] or truncated to 512 tokens using longer input truncate first strategy and then round robin trimmer. We fine tune the model on NVIDIA RTX 3090 for fixed 16,000 steps using the Adam optimizer with the learning rate of 1e-5 and the batch size of 7.

3.5 Results

We use the summary-level (Peyrard et al., 2017) meta evaluation strategy to report an approach’s

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1 By “reference-free”, we mean that a reference summary is not needed to judge a machine-generated summary.

2 Several other researchers reported the same issue https://github.com/whl97/LS-Score/issues. We never heard back from the authors in Email and GitHub.
average correlation with human ratings over summaries. Since our method is based on preference ranking, we report the Spearman’s correlation (Tables 1, 2 and 3). The best scores in the reference-free class are bold while top 2 and 3 are underlined. Due to the page limit, we put the extra results of significance tests in the Appendix.

On TAC2010 (Table 1), our models beat all baselines on all aspects with only one exception. In particular, our model trained with CNNDM beats all baselines on all aspects. It even further outperforms ROUGE-1 and ROUGE-L.

On Newsroom (Table 2), our models beat all baselines on all aspects with only one exception. All reference-free approaches, including ours and baselines, outperform reference-based upper bounds. This counter-intuitive result is probably due to that a reference summary mostly has only one sentence in Newsroom.

On RealSumm (Table 3), results are reported separately for abstractive and extractive systems. Our models beat all baselines on abstractive systems. All approaches perform better for abstractive summarizers than for extractive ones. **Bhandari et al. (2020)** ascribe this to the low inter-agreement among human annotators for the extractive group.

### Discussion: Domain Impact

Because our approach is training based, in-domain models which are trained with CNNDM have advantages over cross-domain models. But the advantages are only for fact-based aspects (Content for TAC2010, INF and REL for Newsroom, the whole RealSumm), not for linguistic aspects.

Among cross-domain models, which are trained with Billsum, ArXiv, and BigPatent, no one is always the best on all test sets and on all aspects. Despite the domain difference, these models still beat the baselines in nearly all cases. Such cross-domain performances suggest that our approach is domain robust.

One potential use of our approach is to train a summary quality evaluation model for a domain with no or limited summarization data.
### 3.7 Bi-Encoder vs. Cross-Encoder

We further conduct experiments to analyze the impact of the model architecture on performance. LS_Score (Wu et al., 2020) uses cosine similarity of the embeddings between a document and its summary as the semantic score ($S_Score$) which forms a Bi-Encoder architecture. And it computes a perplexity-like score based on the summary’s embedding as linguistic score ($L_Score$), resulting in the final score as $0.01 \times L_Score + S_Score$. In contrast, we jointly attend a document and a summary and produce the score after a linear layer which forms a Cross-Encoder architecture.

We implement the $S_Score$ and $L+S_Score$ of our own version. The reason for our reimplementation is not only the reproducibility issues mentioned earlier but also that we want to do an apple-to-apple comparison by using the same loss function and the negative sampling strategy.

The results of the study are shown in Table 4. PrefScore outperforms both $S_Score$ and $L+S_Score$ on nearly all test sets and all aspects. It is common to use the cosine similarity in the embedding space as an indicator of semantic similarity. However, it fails to fully utilize the self-attention mechanism of the transformers. By jointly attending the document and the summary, our approach (Fig. 1) can better match information in the summary to that in the document. This could be one of the reasons that PrefScore outperforms $S_Score$ and $L+S_Score$ under the same setting.

### 4 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we propose to evaluate summarization quality via preference learning and transitive negative sampling. The learned models outperform other reference-free based methods in in-domain experiments and are still competitive in cross-domain experiments.

There are some possible future study directions. The negative sampling methods used in this study are rough and simple. More careful inspection can be done to observe what kind of mistakes are likely made by summarizer models and design mutation methods accordingly. Moreover, our framework uses mean scores as a workaround for the multi-document scenario; it remains an open research problem to promote our work to optimize directly for multi-document summarization evaluation. Finally, we would like to extend our method for the evaluation of other NLG tasks.

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3 We denote our version as $L+S_Score$ to discriminate from the original $LS_Score$. 

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| Training Set | Model Arch. | Modified | TAC 2010 | COH | Newsroom | RealSumm |
|--------------|-------------|----------|----------|-----|----------|----------|
|              |             | Linguistic | Overall  | INF | FLU | REL | Abstractive | Extractive |
| TAC 2010     | PrefScore   | 0.5865   | 0.4311  | 0.5531 | 0.6507 | 0.7509 | 0.6079 | 0.6645 | 0.3842 | 0.1143 |
|              | S_Score     | 0.4077   | 0.3436  | 0.3784 | 0.6338 | 0.7234 | 0.6058 | 0.6374 | 0.3085 | 0.1070 |
|              | L+S_Score   | 0.4184   | 0.3605  | 0.4007 | 0.6729 | 0.7309 | 0.6498 | 0.6356 | 0.3163 | 0.1152 |
| Newsroom     | PrefScore   | 0.3499   | 0.2180  | 0.3155 | 0.5578 | 0.5992 | 0.5326 | 0.5374 | 0.2042 | 0.0958 |
|              | S_Score     | 0.3663   | 0.2984  | 0.3305 | 0.6605 | 0.7020 | 0.6138 | 0.6081 | 0.2589 | 0.1074 |
|              | L+S_Score   | 0.4586   | 0.4324  | 0.4518 | 0.6665 | 0.7169 | 0.6557 | 0.6469 | 0.3083 | 0.0857 |
| RealSumm     | PrefScore   | 0.3518   | 0.3475  | 0.3256 | 0.6199 | 0.6956 | 0.5844 | 0.5979 | 0.2790 | 0.1052 |
|              | S_Score     | 0.3689   | 0.3368  | 0.3483 | 0.4652 | 0.4280 | 0.4577 | 0.3996 | 0.2157 | 0.0568 |
|              | L+S_Score   | 0.3791   | 0.3511  | 0.3405 | 0.5972 | 0.5918 | 0.5804 | 0.5078 | 0.2331 | 0.0890 |
| BigPatent    | PrefScore   | 0.3792   | 0.2591  | 0.3405 | 0.6613 | 0.7330 | 0.5963 | 0.6382 | 0.3050 | 0.1109 |
|              | S_Score     | 0.3791   | 0.2511  | 0.3511 | 0.5972 | 0.5918 | 0.5804 | 0.5078 | 0.2331 | 0.0890 |
|              | L+S_Score   | 0.3792   | 0.2591  | 0.3405 | 0.6613 | 0.7330 | 0.5963 | 0.6382 | 0.3050 | 0.1109 |

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**Table 4: Experiments on Model Architectures. Spearman’s correlation.**
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A Appendix

A.1 Evaluation Settings
We utilize the SummEval (Fabbri et al., 2021) evaluation toolkit to calculate scores for metrics whose scores are not reported by a test dataset. For all metrics, we use the batch evaluation API with default parameters provided by the package. The results of the SummEval dataset are not included in this study as SummEval and RealSumm are similar datasets whose documents are both sampled from CNN/DailyMail (See et al., 2017).

A.2 Significance Tests
We perform significance tests to see if the improvement of our method over the reference-free baselines is significant. Because applying a direct test on the summary-level evaluation results is difficult, we use a bootstrap-based method to sample the documents in the test sets 1000 times to compute the p-values.

Tables 5, 6 and 7 show the p-values of the hypothesis test that "Is the PrefScore trained using the training sets in the leftmost column significantly better than the baselines at the bottom?" Numbers smaller than the significant level of 0.05 are bold.

Our in-domain models trained using CNNDM are significantly better than the baselines. Meanwhile, the three cross-domain models, trained with Billsum, ArXiv, and BigPatent, are significantly better than SummaQA. They are also nearly significantly better than SUPERT. No significant results are observed on extractive systems from RealSumm. We believe this is due to the low inter agreement in the extractive group as described earlier (Bhandari et al., 2020).
Table 5: p-value of Significance Test on TAC2010 Dataset.

| Training Set | Content | Fluency | Overall |
|--------------|---------|---------|---------|
| CNNDM        | 0.00    | 0.00    | 0.00    |
| BillSum      | 0.17    | -       | 0.00    |
| BigPatent    | -       | 0.00    | -       |
| ArXiv        | 0.09    | -       | 0.00    |

Table 6: p-value of Significance Test on Newsroom Dataset.

| Training Set | COH | INF | FLU | REL |
|--------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| CNNDM        | 0.02| 0.01| 0.00| 0.00|
| BillSum      | 0.01| 0.00| 0.00| 0.00|
| BigPatent    | 0.01| 0.00| 0.00| 0.00|
| ArXiv        | 0.00| 0.00| 0.00| 0.00|

Table 7: p-value of Significance Test on RealSumm Dataset.

| Training Set | Abstractive | Extractive |
|--------------|-------------|------------|
| CNNDM        | 0.00        | 0.49       |
| BigPatent    | 0.38        | 0.51       |
| BillSum      | 0.47        | 0.37       |
| ArXiv        | 0.31        | 0.29       |

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