# The Effect of Pretraining on Extractive Summarization for Scientific Documents

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### Abstract

Large pretrained models have seen enormous success in extractive summarization tasks. We investigate, here, the influence of pretraining on a BERT-based extractive summarization system for scientific documents. We derive performance improvements using an intermediate pretraining step that leverages existing summarization datasets and report state-of-theart results on a recently released scientific summarization dataset, SCITLDR. We systematically analyze the intermediate pretraining step by varying the size and domain of the pretraining corpus, changing the length of the input sequence in the target task and varying target tasks. We also investigate how intermediate pretraining interacts with contextualized word embeddings trained on different domains.

## 1 Introduction

Text summarization is a quintessential NLP task that involves generating a coherent and succinct summary of an article containing the most salient information from the original article. Summarization systems are particularly useful for scientific articles that tend to be long and rich in technical content. Summarization can arguably reduce information overload on researchers and facilitate the quick retrieval of relevant papers from vast amounts of scientific literature. Broadly, summarization techniques can be categorized as extractive or abstractive. While abstractive systems treat the summarization problem as a natural language generation task and produce new phrases and sentences directly in the summary, extractive techniques select salient phrases or sentences verbatim from the original document to create a summary. Maynez

et al. (2020), Kryscinski et al. (2020), Huang et al. (2020) report factual hallucinations in abstractive summarization. Durmus et al. (2020) highlight the trade-off between faithfulness and abstractiveness. Since for the scientific summarization task, it is critical to be factually-accurate and be faithful to the source document, we focus on extractive summarization of scientific articles.

Large pretrained language models (e.g. BERT (Devlin et al., 2019)) have been successfully used for many NLP tasks including summarization (Liu and Lapata, 2019), using the following, now widely-adopted, two-step approach:

- **Pretraining.** Start with a pretrained model like BERT and suitably adapt its architecture to fit the target task.
- **Finetuning.** Finetune the model using a labeled dataset for the target task.

Recent work shows the benefits of interspersing the pretraining and finetuning steps with an intermediate pretraining step (Phang et al., 2018),(Vu et al., 2020). This intermediate step often involves supervised pretraining using labeled datasets from different domains for a task that is related to or is the same as the target task. While the efficacy of such pretraining approaches have been studied in prior work for natural language understanding tasks (like entailment, question answering, etc. (Vu et al., 2020)), the effect of pretraining on summarization has been far less explored.

In this work, we explore the benefits of intermediate pretraining using existing summarization datasets for a target task involving the summarization of scientific articles. We obtain improvements in performance over state-of-the-art extractive summarization baseline systems on a new sci-

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entific summarization benchmark, SCITLDR (Cachola et al., 2020). We also make the following key observations:

- Intermediate pretraining using labeled summarization datasets (even when containing articles that are very different in domain from scientific articles) is very beneficial to lowresource target tasks like SCITLDR. We also derive additional benefits by filtering the intermediate pretraining data to only retain a subset of articles (based on a similarity metric) that best matches the target task.
- While starting with a BERT-based model pretrained on scientific articles (e.g., SCIB-ERT(Beltagy et al., 2019)) offers a small advantage compared to the standard BERT-based model as an initialization, this advantage is eclipsed by the effect of intermediate pretraining which is much more significant.
- The benefits from intermediate pretraining diminish with access to sufficiently large amounts of finetuning data in the target task. We also observe a trend of diminishing returns with the intermediate pretraining, as we increase the amount of pretraining data.

### 2 Related Work

**Transfer Learning** Pretrained language models like BERT(Devlin et al., 2019) are trained on selfsupervised training objectives over large amount of unlabelled text corpus. As shown in (Phang et al., 2018), (Zhang and Bowman, 2018), (Phang et al., 2020), the pretrained knowledge in these models can be leveraged by domain and task adaptive pretraining before finetuning the model to the desired target task. Gururangan et al. (2020), Chakrabarty et al. (2019), Beltagy et al. (2019) finetune language models on the domains of interest and show improvements on the respective in-domain tasks.

Summarization Recent works in summarization MatchSum (Zhong et al., 2020), BERTSUM (Liu and Lapata, 2019), STEPwise ETCSum (Narayan et al., 2020) use pretrained language models. BART (Lewis et al., 2020), PEGASUS (Zhang et al., 2020) use variants of self-supervised training objectives on massive amounts of text corpora and compute to achieve stellar performance on summarization tasks. While most of the recent works focus on improving state-of-the-art results on news datasets like CNN/DailyMail and XSum, improving summarization on scientific documents is an overlooked area.

**Intermediate Pretraining** Howard and Ruder (2018) first introduced the idea of intermediate pretraining in NLP and its benefits on the 6 tasks of classification. The benefits of this in summarization has been shown by Yu et al. (2021) where in they finetune BART (Lewis et al., 2020) on XSUM (Narayan et al., 2018) and show its results on low resource domain adaptation benchmark for summarization . We show the effects of intermediate pretraining in the context of scientific document summarization.

Scientific Summarization Cachola et al. (2020) introduce the SCITLDR task and benchmark a variety of summarization models such as MatchSum and BERTSUM on the task. Impressive results were reported by Pilault et al. (2020), Zaheer et al. (2020) on scientific datasets like Pubmed, arXiv using compute-intensive transformer based models. We report results on Pubmed and SCITLDR where our models use significantly less compute and achieve superior results on SCITLDR over BERTSUM and MatchSum.

**Cross task learning** Lebanoff et al. (2018), Mao et al. (2020) use methods that adapt single document summarization task to multi document summarization setup, namely using the CNN/Daily Mail (CNN/DM) dataset. While it is similar to the idea of the intermediate finetuning used in this paper, the end task is different and are tested over a different set of metrics. Zhong et al. (2019) conducts some experiments with supervised pretrained knowledge transfer, we do extensive experiments in the context of scientific summarization.

#### **3** Base Model

In this paper, we base our experiments on the BERT-SUM (Liu and Lapata, 2019) architecture that uses BERT embeddings and formulates extractive summarization as a sentence classification problem. The intermediate pretraining step uses data from a summarization task that is different from the target task and could also be from a different domain. We also experiment with replacing pretrained BERT embeddings with SCIBERT embeddings (Beltagy et al., 2019).

**BERTSUM Model** We use the extractive model proposed by Liu and Lapata (2019) as our base model. It uses a BERT-based encoder (Devlin et al.,

2019) to obtain sentence level representations of a document using the [CLS] token at the beginning of each sentence. Several transformer layers are stacked to represent the discourse. These transformer layers are jointly fine-tuned with BERT on a sentence classification task with a sigmoid layer as the final output predicting whether or not each sentence in the input document should be in the summary. The loss of the model is a cross-entropy loss for binary classification.

**Using SCIBERT Embeddings** Beltagy et al. (2019) finetune BERT-Base on scientific documents from the biomedical and computer science domains. To leverage the stylistic variation and adapt to domain knowledge specific to scientific articles, we examine the effects of replacing BERT embeddings in the BERTSUM model with SCIB-ERT embeddings.

## 4 Experimental Setup

### 4.1 Summarization Datasets

We evaluate the models on two scientific summarization benchmark datasets— Pubmed (Cohan et al., 2018) and SCITLDR (Cachola et al., 2020). We use the CNN/DM (Hermann et al., 2015) dataset for intermediate pretraining.

**SCITLDR.** SCITLDR is a curated corpus containing computer science articles, with each article having one or more reference TLDR's or one-sentence summaries. The inputs could either be abstractonly (SCITLDR-A) or the abstract, introduction and conclusion sections of the article (SCITLDR-AIC). We present results for both settings and use the splits specified in (Cachola et al., 2020).

**Pubmed.** The Pubmed dataset consists of scientific articles from PubMed.org. We used the splits and preprocessing steps from (Zhong et al., 2020), wherein the introduction is used as the article and the abstract is used as the summary.

**CNN/DM.** The CNN/DM dataset consists of news articles and highlights from *CNN* and *Daily Mail* news articles, on diverse topics including sports, health, business, etc. The standard splits are used for training, validation and testing without anonymizing the entities. Appendix A contains more detailed statistics about all the three datasets used in this work.

For intermediate pretraining, we also experiment with a subset of articles from Pubmed and CNN/DM together (henceforth referred to as MIXED) that are most similar to our target tasks, SCITLDR-A and SCITLDR-AIC (Guo et al., 2020). We derive BERT-base embeddings for each Pubmed and CNN/DM article via [CLS] tokens. Then, we select 83K articles (roughly 35K and 48K articles from Pubmed and CNN/DM, respectively) with the smallest averaged L2 distance between embeddings of the Pubmed/CNN/DM articles and the SCITLDR target tasks.<sup>1</sup>

#### 4.2 Models and Implementation Details

Our extractive summarization system uses the BERT-based architecture by (Liu and Lapata, 2019) described in Section 3. For intermediate pretraining, we use one of CNN/DM, Pubmed or MIXED. The finetuning step involves data from one of three target tasks, SCITLDR-A, SCITLDR-AIC and Pubmed. For all training steps, we set the dropout rate to 0.1 and learning rate to 2e-3, which are the reported parameters in (Liu and Lapata, 2019) for CNN/DM. We use a batch size of 3000 for all experiments involving CNN/DM during pretraining. The best model is selected on the basis of validation ROUGE scores for one-line summaries on the validation set. This is done to select the model with the best "extreme" summarization capability. When evaluating on Pubmed, the number of sentences extracted is set to 6, as reported in (Zhong et al., 2020). For fine-tuning on SCITLDR-A as well as SCITLDR-AIC, the batch size is set to 100 and the number of extracted sentences to form the final summary is 1.

**Evaluation Metrics.** The SCITLDR tasks have multiple reference summaries for each test article. We compute ROUGE scores between the summary generated by our system and each of the reference summaries. We consider the reference with the maximum ROUGE-1 score as the main gold summary used in further evaluations. We choose ROUGE-1 (R1), ROUGE-2 (R2) and ROUGE-L (RL) as our main evaluation metrics, as is typically done for summarization tasks. To determine the best possible performance from an extractive summarization system, we also compute oracle scores by choosing a sentence from each test article with the highest R1 score across all reference summaries and averaging these scores across the test articles.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>We select 83K articles in MIXED, which is the size of Pubmed, to examine the effect of varying pretraining corpora of a fixed size.

	SCITLDR-A		SCI	SCITLDR-AIC		
	R1	R2	RL	R1	R2	RL
ORACLE	49.2	26.0	39.9	53.7	29.9	43.9
MatchSum <sup>†</sup> (BERT-base)	42.7	20.0	34.0	38.6	16.4	30.1
		0	ur Mode	els		
Pretraining Datasets		U	sing BEH	RT		
-	39.71	18.91	32.63	36.99	16.14	29.64
Pubmed (83K)	41.49	19.57	33.40	40.82	18.98	32.84
CNN/DM (83K)	41.69	19.55	33.44	41.93	20.10	33.95
MIXED (83K)	42.32	20.50	34.30	42.78	21.06	34.83
CNN/DM (Full)	42.26	20.32	34.09	42.21	20.24	34.19
		Usir	ng SCIBI	ERT		
-	39.93	18.50	32.32	37.16	15.94	29.65
CNN/DM (83K)	40.60	19.04	32.93	40.74	19.09	32.95
Pubmed (83K)	41.10	19.33	32.87	40.61	18.69	32.68
CNN/DM (Full)	40.66	19.08	32.59	41.25	19.40	33.37

Table 1: Max ROUGE scores for SCITLDR on test sets. <sup>†</sup> Results from (Cachola et al., 2020)

	Pubmed			
	R1	R2	RL	
ORACLE	45.12	20.33	40.19	
MatchSum <sup>†</sup> (BERT-base)	41.21	14.91	36.75	
	Our Models			
Pretraining Datasets	Using			
-	40.65	14.85	36.18	
CNN/DM (Full)	40.77	14.92	36.29	
	Using SCIBERT			
-	41.08	15.16	36.59	
CNN/DM (Full)	40.59	14.76	36.12	

Table 2: Mean ROUGE scores for Pubmed test sets.<sup>†</sup> Results from (Zhong et al., 2020)

Dataset Size	R1	R2	RL
83K ARTICLES	41.93	20.10	33.95
176k articles	42.27	20.37	34.32
286k articles	42.21	20.24	34.19

Table 3: Results by varying the size of the pretraining dataset CNN/DM while finetuning on SCITLDR-AIC.

### 5 Results and Discussion

Table 1 and Table 2 show our main results. In the first two rows, we present results from the state-of-the-art MatchSum system (Zhong et al., 2020) and oracle scores. The remaining rows show pretraining results using BERT and SCIBERT embeddings in the BERTSUM model. Without any intermediate pretraining, SCIBERT offers a small advantage over BERT on Pubmed and is statistically comparable to BERT on both SCITLDR tasks. With pre-training and using BERT, we observe significant improvements in performance regardless of the pre-training corpora used. (We significantly outperform MatchSum on SCITLDR-AIC.) With keeping the size of the pretraining corpus fixed at 83K arti-

	SCITLDR-AIC		]			
Input						
Length	R1	R2	RL	R1	R2	RL
512	42.21	20.24	34.19	40.65	14.85	36.18
1024	42.21	20.34	34.35	42.44	16.39	37.86
1500	42.23	20.65	34.41	42.65	16.59	38.03

Table 4: Results by varying the input sequence length while finetuning. The pretraining dataset is CNN/DM for SciTldr-AIC and none for Pubmed.

cles, pretraining with MIXED gives the best results showing that it is beneficial to selectively choose articles in the pretraining corpus that best match the target tasks. Unlike for the low-resource SCITLDR target tasks, intermediate pretraining does not benefit Pubmed showing that its effect diminishes when sufficient amounts of finetuning data are available for the target task.

With pretraining and replacing BERT with SCIB-ERT, we observe a deterioration in performance indicated by the drop in ROUGE scores (especially with CNN/DM). The SCIBERT initialization appears to be counterproductive when using CNN/DM during intermediate pretraining. It is more beneficial to start with BERT, rather than SCIBERT, and pretrain on CNN/DM before the final finetuning step.

Additionally, we undertake two ablation experiments. 1) We investigate the effect of varying amounts of pretraining data. We vary the size of CNN/DM to 83K, 176K and 286K articles and analyse the finetuning results on SCITLDR-AIC with BERT embeddings. As shown in Table 3, R1, R2 and RL scores increase on moving from 83K to 176K articles but performance stagnates with a further increase in the size of the pretraining corpus. 2) During finetuning, we experiment with truncating the input sequence lengths of SCITLDR-AIC and Pubmed at 512, 1024 and 1500 tokens, as shown in Table 4. We initialize the model with BERT embeddings for the first 512 tokens and repeat the last set of weights for the remaining input tokens. We observe that the ROUGE scores improve with longer input lengths, with a sizeable boost for Pubmed.

#### 6 Conclusions and Future Work

In this paper, we present a systematic investigation of the benefits of transfer learning via pretraining for extractive summarization of scientific articles. We show improvements in ROUGE scores for the SCITLDR benchmark using an intermediate pretraining that uses existing summarization datasets. We obtain additional benefits by filtering these existing datasets to construct a pretraining corpus that best matches the target task. This suggests the need for further explorations in future work on different criteria to be used for selective pretraining and how it could benefit both extractive and abstractive summarization.

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# A Appendix

# A.1 Dataset Details

Comus (C)		IC I	Source of C	# of Tokens		
Corpus $(\mathcal{C})$	Train	Val	Test	Source of C	Doc.	Sum.
SciTldr-A	1992 papers (1992 TLDRs)	619 papers (1452 TLDRs)	618 papers (1967 TLDRs)	OpenReview API	159	21
SciTLDR-AIC	1992 papers (1992 TLDRs)	619 papers (1452 TLDRs)	618 papers (1967 TLDRs)	OpenReview API	993	21
CNN/DM (Full) CNN/DM (83k)	287k 83k	-	-	News Articles	685	53
Pubmed	83233	4946	5025	Biomedical Literature	444	209

Table 5: Dataset details of summarization datasets. Unlike the other datasets, SCITLDR consists of multiple reference summaries for each article. SCITLDR-AIC has the highest compression ratio when compared to the other datasets.

# A.1.1 SCITLDR

This dataset is built from a combination of TLDRs written by human experts and author-written TLDRs of computer science papers from OpenReview. OpenReview (https://openreview.net/) is one such example where authors are asked to submit TLDRs of their papers, which communicates to both reviewers and users of OpenReview the main content of the paper. SCITLDR has multiple reference summaries for each of the test and validation articles. The additional reference summaries (apart from the author written one) were obtained from human annotators. This is an "extreme" summarisation task as the compression ratio is very high compared to the other datasets i.e. around 47 for the AIC task. While the dataset is inherently abstractive in nature, the extractive oracle scores listed in Table **??** are quite high (in fact, they are much higher than existing abstractive and extractive SoTA scores), which implies there is a lot of scope for extractive summarisation.

## A.1.2 CNN/DM

This dataset contains online news articles paired with multi-sentence summaries (which are highlights of the news articles). The dataset is fairly large and also has a high extractive oracle (with ROUGE-1 / ROUGE-2 / ROUGE-L scores of 52.59 / 31.24 / 48.87 ), although the summaries are not inherently extractive. The compression ratio is much lower compared to SCITLDR i.e. around 13.

## A.1.3 Pubmed

This dataset is collected from scientific papers. It has a very low compression ratio i.e. around 2 (which is a direct consequence of using the introduction section as the document and the abstract as the corresponding summary). The summaries are relatively long, compared to SCITLDR and CNN/DM, with around 6 sentences per summary.

## A.2 Qualitative Analysis

We present examples of SCITLDR articles and generated summaries to illustrate the effects of pretraining and other design choices (such as varying input lengths and BERT/SCIBERT initializations).

# A.2.1 Effect of Input Sequence Length on SciTLDR-AIC

Article 1
Good representations facilitate transfer learning and few-shot learning. Motivated by theories of language and communication
that explain why communities with large number of speakers have, on average, simpler languages with more regularity, we
cast the representation learning problem in terms of learning to communicate. Our starting point sees traditional autoencoders
as a single encoder with a fixed decoder partner that must learn to communicate. Generalizing from there, we introduce
community-based autoencoders in which multiple encoders and decoders collectively learn representations by being randomly
paired up on successive training iterations. Our experiments show that increasing community sizes reduce idiosyncrasies in
the learned codes, resulting in more invariant representations with increased reusability and structure. The importance of
representation learning lies in two dimensions. First and foremost, representation learning is a crucial building block of a neural
model being trained to perform well on a particular task, i.e., representation learning that induces the "right" manifold structure
can lead to models that generalize better, and even extrapolate. Another property of representation learning, and arguably the
most important one, is that it can facilitate transfer of knowledge across different tasks, essential for transfer learning and
few-shot learning among others BID0. With this second point in mind, we can define good representations as the ones that are
reusable, induce the abstractions that capture the "right" type of invariances and can allow for generalizing very quickly to a
new task. Significant efforts have been made to learn representations with these properties; one frequently explored direction
involves trying to learn disentangled representations BID12 BID6 BID5 BID17 ), while others focus on general regularization
methods BID15 BID18. In this work, we take a different approach to representation learning, inspired by successful abstraction
mechanisms found in nature, to wit human language and communication. Human languages and their properties are greatly
affected by the size of their linguistic community BID11 BID19 BID16 BID9
Ground Truth Summaries
Motivated by theories of language and communication, we introduce community-based autoencoders, in which multiple encoders
and decoders collectively learn structured and reusable representations.
The authors tackle the problem of representation learning, aim to build reusable and structured representation, argue co-adaptation
between encoder and decoder in traditional AE yields poor representation, and introduce community based auto-encoders.
The paper presents a community based autoencoder framework to address co-adaptation of encoders and decoders and aims at
constructing better representations.
Input Length 512 (ROUGE-1: 18.18, ROUGE-2: 0.00, ROUGE-L: 12.12)
Good representations facilitate transfer learning and few-shot learning .
Input Length 1024 (ROUGE-1: 28.57, ROUGE-2: 0.00, ROUGE-L: 14.29)
Our starting point sees traditional autoencoders as a single encoder with a fixed decoder partner that must learn to communicate.
Input Length 1500 (ROUGE-1: 60.0, ROUGE-2: 49.99, ROUGE-L: 55.99)
Generalizing from there, we introduce community-based autoencoders in which multiple encoders and decoders collectively
learn representations by being randomly paired up on successive training iterations.
Article 2
Generative models are important tools to capture and investigate the properties of complex empirical data. Recent developments
such as Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) and Variational Auto-Encoders (VAEs) use two very similar, but reverse,
deep convolutional architectures, one to generate and one to extract information from data. Does learning the parameters of
both architectures obey the same rules? We exploit the causality principle of independence of mechanisms to quantify how the
weights of successive layers adapt to each other. Using the recently introduced Spectral Independence Criterion, we quantify the
dependencies between the kernels of successive convolutional layers and show that those are more independent for the generative
process than for information extraction, in line with results from the field of causal inference. In addition, our experiments
on generation of human faces suggest that more independence between successive layers of generators results in improved
performance of these architectures. Deep generative models have proven powerful in learning to design realistic images in a variety of complex domains (handwritten digits, human foces, interior scenes). In particular, two approaches have recently
variety of complex domains (handwritten digits, human faces, interior scenes). In particular, two approaches have recently emerged: Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) BID8, which train an image generator by having it fool a discriminator that
should tell apart real from artificially generated images; and Variational Autoencoders (VAEs) BID15 BID21 ) that learn both
a mapping from latent variables to the data (the decoder) and the converse mapping from the data to the latent variables (the
encoder), such that correspondences between latent variables and data features can be easily investigated
Ground Truth Summaries
We use causal inference to characterise the architecture of generative models .
This paper examines the nature of convolutional filters in the encoder and a decoder of a VAE, and a generator and a discriminator
of a GAN.
This work exploits the causality principle to quantify how the weights of successive layers adapt to each other.
Input Length 512 (ROUGE-1: 25.92, ROUGE-2: 3.84, ROUGE-L: 14.81)
Using the recently introduced Spectral Independence Criterion, we quantify the dependencies between the kernels of successive
convolutional layers and show that those are more independent for the generative process than for information extraction, in line
with results from the field of causal inference.
Input Length 1024 (ROUGE-1: 38.46, ROUGE-2: 8.33, ROUGE-L: 23.08)
Generative models are important tools to capture and investigate the properties of complex empirical data.
<b>Input Length 1500</b> (ROUGE-1: 82.05, ROUGE-2: 75.68, ROUGE-L: 82.05)
We exploit the causality principle of independence of mechanisms to quantify how the weights of successive layers adapt to each
other.

Table 6: Articles 1 and 2 have 1068 and 1265 tokens, respectively. We see that increasing the length of the input sequence significantly improves the ROUGE scores.

## A.2.2 Effect of Pretraining on SciTLDR-AIC

#### Article 1

Recent advances in neural Sequence-to-Sequence (Seq2Seq) models reveal a purely data-driven approach to the response generation task. Despite its diverse variants and applications, the existing Seq2Seq models are prone to producing short and generic replies, which blocks such neural network architectures from being utilized in practical open-domain response generation tasks. In this research, we analyze this critical issue from the perspective of the optimization goal of models and the specific characteristics of human-to-human conversational corpora. Our analysis is conducted by decomposing the goal of Neural Response Generation (NRG) into the optimizations of word selection and ordering. It can be derived from the decomposing that Seq2Seq based NRG models naturally tend to select common words to compose responses, and ignore the semantic of queries in word ordering. On the basis of the analysis, we propose a max-marginal ranking regularization term to avoid Seq2Seq models from producing the generic and uninformative responses. The empirical experiments on benchmarks with several metrics have validated our analysis and proposed methodology. Past years have witnessed the dramatic progress on the application of generative sequential models (also noted as seq2seq learning (Sutskever et Despite these promising results, current Sequence-to-Sequence (Seq2Seq) architectures for response generation are still far from steadily generating relevant and coherent replies. The essential issue identified by many studies is the Universal Replies: the model tends to generate short and general replies which contain limited information, such as "That's great!", "I don't know", etc. Nevertheless, most previous analysis over the issue are empirical and lack of statistical evidence. Therefore, in this paper, we conduct an in-depth investigation on the performance of seq2seq models on the NRG task .... **Ground Truth Summaries** Analyze the reason for neural response generative models preferring universal replies; Propose a method to avoid it. Investigates the problem of universal replies plaguing the Seq2Seq neural generation models. The paper looks into improving the neural response generation task by deemphasizing the common responses using modification of the loss function and presentation the common/universal responses during the training phase. Pubmed (ROUGE-1: 20.51, ROUGE-2: 0.00, ROUGE-L: 20.51) In this research, we analyze this critical issue from the perspective of the optimization goal of models and the specific characteristics of human-to-human conversational corpora. CNN/DM (ROUGE-1: 34.62, ROUGE-2: 8.00, ROUGE-L: 26.92) Our analysis is conducted by decomposing the goal of Neural Response Generation (NRG) into the optimizations of word selection and ordering CNN/DM+Pubmed (ROUGE-1: 37.50, ROUGE-2: 0.0, ROUGE-L: 31.25) Therefore, in this paper, we conduct an in-depth investigation on the performance of seq2seq models on the NRG task. Article 2 Graph convolutional networks (GCNs) have been widely used for classifying graph nodes in the semi-supervised setting. Previous works have shown that GCNs are vulnerable to the perturbation on adjacency and feature matrices of existing nodes. However, it is unrealistic to change the connections of existing nodes in many applications, such as existing users in social networks. In this paper, we investigate methods attacking GCNs by adding fake nodes. A greedy algorithm is proposed to generate adjacency and feature matrices of fake nodes, aiming to minimize the classification accuracy on the existing ones. In additional, we introduce a discriminator to classify fake nodes from real nodes, and propose a Greedy-GAN algorithm to simultaneously update the discriminator and the attacker, to make fake nodes indistinguishable to the real ones.... **Ground Truth Summaries** non-targeted and targeted attack on GCN by adding fake nodes The authors propose a new adversarial technique to add "fake" nodes to fool a GCN-based classifier Pubmed (ROUGE-1: 23.53, ROUGE-2: 0.0, ROUGE-L: 11.76) Graph convolutional networks (GCNs) have been widely used for classifying graph nodes in the semi-supervised setting. CNN/DM (ROUGE-1: 34.15, ROUGE-2: 5.13, ROUGE-L: 24.39) A greedy algorithm is proposed to generate adjacency and feature matrices of fake nodes, aiming to minimize the classification accuracy on the existing ones.

CNN/DM+Pubmed (ROUGE-1: 52.17, ROUGE-2: 38.09, ROUGE-L: 52.17)

In this paper, we investigate methods attacking GCNs by adding fake nodes.

Table 7: For both the articles, we note an increasing trend in the ROUGE scores with pretraining on Pubmed, CNN/DM and MIXED (i.e., CNN/DM+Pubmed).

# A.2.3 Bert vs SCIBERT without pretraining on SciTLDR-AIC

Article 1	
theorem proving in the Coq proof as proofs in a step-by-step manner. He use GamePad to synthesize proofs	n called GamePad that can be used to explore the application of machine learning methods to ssistant. Interactive theorem provers such as Coq enable users to construct machine-checkable ence, they provide an opportunity to explore theorem proving with human supervision. We for a simple algebraic rewrite problem and train baseline models for a formalization of the ss position evaluation (i.e., predict the number of proof steps left) and tactic prediction (i.e.
	which arise naturally in tactic-based theorem proving. Theorem proving is a challenging A ing (e.g., SMT solvers BID2 ) and intuition guided search. Recent work BID7 Loos et a
2017; has shown the promise of an theorem provers (e.g., premise selec to learning on proofs constructed w proof is systematically derived in a to proofs for correctness	pplying deep learning techniques in this domain, primarily on tasks useful for automate ction) which operate with little to no human supervision. In this work, we aim to move close with human supervision. We look at theorem proving in the realm of formal proofs. A format formal system, which makes it possible to algorithmically (i.e., with a computer) check the
Ground Truth Summaries	
We introduce a system called Game proof assistant.	ePad to explore the application of machine learning methods to theorem proving in the Co
This paper describes a system for ap and position evaluation, and shows	pplying machine learning to interactive theorem proving, focuses on tasks of tactic prediction that a neural model outperforms an SVM on both tasks. hniques be used to help build proof in the theorem prover Coq.
Bert Output (ROUGE-1: 34.78, RC	
	ofs for a simple algebraic rewrite problem and train baseline models for a formalization of the
	.27, Rouge-2: 81.63, Rouge-L: 86.27)
In this paper, we introduce a system theorem proving in the Coq proof a	a called GamePad that can be used to explore the application of machine learning methods to assistant
Article 2	
	nakes use of deep neural networks and gradient decent to perform automated design of
optimization task and then, using th We demonstrate this methods effect lift drag ratio under steady state flo design approaches. First, evaluating the system of interest. Second, usin gradient free methods. These two s Automated Design is the process by This is typically performed by mode whether that be an automotive car s historic example of this is the 2000 radiation pattern (Hornby et al.) . M to split electromagnetic waves with the dream of true automated is still accurately modeling the physical sy negatively complement each other works to solve the current problems the physical system on a neural netw orders of magnitude faster. Second space when performing optimization	ks. Our approach works by training a neural network to mimic the fitness function of a designed differential nature of the neural network, perform gradient decent to maximize the fitnest tiveness by designing an optimized heat sink and both 2D and 3D airfoils that maximize the work conditions. We highlight that our method has two distinct benefits over other automated get the neural networks prediction of fitness can be orders of magnitude faster then simulating gradient decent allows the design space to be searched much more efficiently then oth strengths work together to overcome some of the current shortcomings of automated design which an object is designed by a computer to meet or maximize some measurable objectiveling the system and then exploring the space of designs to maximize some desired proper styling with low drag or power and cost efficient magnetic bearings BID1 BID4 . A notab 6 NASA ST5 spacecraft antenna designed by an evolutionary algorithm to create the before recently, an extremely compact broadband on-chip wavelength demultiplexer was design different frequencies BID17 . While there have been some significant successes in this fiel far from realized. The main challenges present are heavy computational requirements for system under investigation and often exponentially large search spaces. These two problem making the computation requirements intractable for even simple problems. Our approace of automated design in two ways. First, we learn a computationally efficient representation work. This allows significantly more efficient optimization requiring far fewer iterations the senetic of the trained network to get a gradient on the parameter on. This allows significantly more efficient optimization requiring far fewer iterations the senetic algorithms or simulated annealing
	d design on real world objects such as heat sinks and wing airfoils that makes use of neur
-	nd prediction) and gradient descent (back propogation) to automatically design for engineerir
devices by optimizing this network	<u> </u>
Bert Output (ROUGE-1: 16.67, RC	
genetic algorithms or simulated ann	
SCIBERT Output (ROUGE-1: 62.	.75, Rouge-2: 40.82, Rouge-L: 39.22)

Table 8: For both the articles, we observe clear improvements in ROUGE scores with using SCIBERT as opposed to BERT.