

# CATS: Customizable Abstractive Topic-based Summarization

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Neural sequence-to-sequence models are the state-of-the-art approach used in abstractive summarization of textual documents, useful for producing condensed versions of source text narratives without being restricted to using only words from the original text. Despite the advances in abstractive summarization, custom generation of summaries (*e.g.* towards a user's preference) remains unexplored. In this paper, we present CATS, an abstractive neural summarization model that summarizes content in a sequence-to-sequence fashion while also introducing a new mechanism to control the underlying latent topic distribution of the produced summaries. We empirically illustrate the efficacy of our model in producing customized summaries and present findings that facilitate the design of such systems. We use the well-known CNN/DailyMail dataset to evaluate our model. Furthermore, we present a transfer-learning method and demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach in a low resource setting, *i.e.* abstractive summarization of meetings minutes, where combining the main available meetings' transcripts datasets, AMI and ICSI, results in merely a few hundred training documents.

CCS Concepts: • **Computing methodologies** → **Neural networks**; *Latent Dirichlet allocation*; **Natural language generation**.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: sequence-to-sequence neural models, abstractive summarization, topical customization <sup>1</sup>

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Automatic document summarization is defined as producing a shorter, yet semantically highly related version of a source document. Solutions to this task are typically classified into two categories: extractive summarization and abstractive summarization.

Extractive summarization *selects* sentences of a source text based on a scoring scheme, and combines those exact sentences in order to produce a summary. Conversely, abstractive summarization aims at producing shortened versions of a source document by *generating* sentences that do not necessarily appear in the original text. The majority of traditional research on text summarization has focused on extractive summarization [5, 27] due to its simplicity

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<sup>1</sup>This article has some textual overlap with the PhD thesis of the first author [3].

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53 compared to abstractive methods. Recent advances in neural sequence-to-sequence modeling, however, have sparked  
54 interest in abstractive summarization due to its flexibility and broad range of applications.

55 Summarization is extensively used in domains such as news articles [33, 37], minute-taking in corporate meetings [35]  
56 or electronic health records [14], to name a few. Aside from providing generic summaries of passages of text, there  
57 are applications to Information Retrieval (IR) scenarios in which the retrieval system summarizes results rather than  
58 merely retrieve them. For instance, search engines are increasingly presenting summaries, mash-ups and digests of  
59 relevant documents in the form of natural language answers to user queries. Automatic summarization lends itself for  
60 key use cases in mobile search [1] and scenarios involving communication with search engines via voice. Previous  
61 research on voice-based search shows that merely reading out the textual output of a search engine result page is an  
62 insufficient interaction paradigm [32] for a user. Furthermore, the underlying components of a spoken conversational  
63 search system (where communication between user and system is mediated verbally through voice) will need to operate  
64 differently from a traditional IR system [12, 36]. A recent user study [38] on conversational search has observed the  
65 importance of document summarization when presenting results of users' spoken search queries. In fact, the ideal  
66 voice-based assistant would summarize the key points of particular relevance for a certain searcher. This paper presents  
67 a novel abstractive summarization framework as a first step towards this vision.

68 In this paper, we introduce CATS, a Customizable Abstractive Topic-based sequence-to-sequence Summarization  
69 model, which is not only capable of summarizing text documents with high quality, but also allows to selectively focus  
70 on a range of desired topics of interest when generating summaries. Our experiments corroborate that our model  
71 can selectively add or remove specific topics from the summary. Furthermore, our experimental results on a publicly  
72 available dataset indicate that the proposed neural sequence-to-sequence model can be effectively fine-tuned to perform  
73 abstractive summarization in a low-resource setting. Moreover, we discuss a number of findings in the process of  
74 developing an abstractive summarization model with the ability to customize summaries. The main contributions of  
75 this article are:

- 76 (1) We introduce a novel neural sequence-to-sequence model based on an encoder-decoder architecture which  
77 leverages topic modeling to perform customizable abstractive summarization.
- 78 (2) We introduce a novel attention mechanism [2] named *topical attention* that may be used for simultaneously  
79 identifying important topics as well as recognizing those parts of the encoder output that are vital to be focused  
80 on.
- 81 (3) We extensively evaluate our model in customizing summaries, general abstractive summarization, as well as  
82 summarization in low-resource settings.

83 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 discusses related work on abstractive neural  
84 summarization. In Section 3, we introduce the CATS summarization model. In Section 4, we discuss our experimental  
85 setup and results showing the efficacy of CATS in custom generation of summaries. Furthermore, we present a transfer-  
86 learning approach to summarization of small size datasets and we conduct a ROUGE-based evaluation. In Section 5, we  
87 present a discussion on the potential use cases of CATS, other potential means of custom summary generation, and  
88 how the topical attention can be adapted to other sequence-to-sequence problems. Finally, in Section 6, we conclude  
89 with a discussion on future directions of inquiry.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Prior to the rise of neural sequence-to-sequence models there had been limited interest in the area of abstractive summarization. TOPIARY was an abstractive model proposed in 2004 by Zajic et al. [48] which showed superior results in the DUC-2004 task. This model used a combination of linguistically motivated compression techniques and an unsupervised topic detection algorithm that inserts keywords extracted from the article into the compressed output. Some other notable work in the task of abstractive summarization includes using traditional phrase table-based machine translation approaches [7] and compression using weighted tree transformation rules [11].

Recent work approaches abstractive summarization as a sequence-to-sequence problem. In this section, we first briefly review some of the most important research in this domain. In order to do so we divide the literature into two categories of models that are mostly trained from scratch while requiring lower computational resources for training and those models which are based on fine-tuning already existing models that exhibit high computational demand both for training the base models as well as fine-tuning. Then we focus on the use of topic models in previous abstractive summarization research.

### 2.1 Seq2seq Abstractive Summarization Models Trained from Scratch

One of the early deep learning architectures that was shown to be effective in the task of abstractive summarization was the Attention-based Encoder-Decoder [28] proposed by Bahdanau et al. [2]. This model had originally been designed for machine translation, where it defined the state of the art.

Attention mechanisms are shown to enhance the basic encoder-decoder model [2]. The main bottleneck of the basic encoder-decoder architecture is its fixed-sized representation ("thought vector"), which is unable to capture all the relevant information of the input sequence as the model or input scaled up. However, the attention mechanism relies on the notion that at each generation step, only parts of the input are relevant. In this paper, we build on the same notion to force our proposed model to attend to parts of the input which together represent a semantic topic.

Based on the Attention-based encoder-decoder architecture, several models were introduced. The Pointer Generator Network (PGN) [41] was applied by See et al. [33] to the task of abstractive summarization. This model aims at solving the challenge of out-of-vocabulary words and factual errors. The main idea behind this model is to choose between either generating a word from the fixed vocabulary or copying one from the source document at each step of the generation process. It incorporates the power of extractive methods by "pointing" [41]. At each step, a generation probability is computed, which is used as a switch to choose words from the target vocabulary or the source document. Our model differs from the PGN firstly in the use of a different attention mechanism which forces the model to focus on certain topics when generating an output summary. Secondly, our model enables the selective inclusion or exclusion of certain topics in a generated summary, which can have several potential applications. This is done by incorporating information from an unsupervised topic model. By definition, topic models are hierarchical Bayesian models of discrete data, where each topic is a set of words, drawn from a fixed vocabulary, which together represent a high-level concept [42]. According to this definition, Blei et al. introduced the Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) [8] topic model. We further elaborate on the connection between this and our model in Section 3.

The work of [29] is another approach which utilizes reinforcement learning to optimize ROUGE L, such that subsequences similar to a reference summary are generated. Similar to [33] they also use the pointer generator mechanism to switch between generating a token or extracting it from the source.

157 Gehrman et al. [15] propose using a content selector to select phrases in a source document that should be part of a  
158 generated summary. Likewise, [25] introduce an information selection layer to explicitly model the information selection  
159 process in abstractive document summarization. They perform information filtering and local sentence selection in  
160 order to generate summaries. The two latter approaches report best performances on the CNN/DailyMail benchmark.  
161 Our proposed model relies on information selection in the form of topics.  
162  
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## 164 2.2 Seq2seq Abstractive Summarization Models developed by Fine-tuning Pre-trained Models

165 The introduction of Transformer architectures and their proven efficacy in various natural language sequence-to-  
166 sequence problems is the latest major shift in the automatic document summarization field. Here we briefly review  
167 some of the latest developments in the space.  
168

169 One of the top Transformer-based models is UniLM (Unified Pretrained Language Model)[13] from Microsoft. “The  
170 model architecture of UNILM follows that of BERTLARGE” [13]. The GELU [20] activation is used as in the GPT [30]  
171 model. They use a 24-layer Transformer with 1,024-dimensional hidden layers, and 16 attention heads, containing  
172 about 340M parameters. “UNILM is initialized by BERTLARGE, and then pre-trained using English Wikipedia and the  
173 BookCorpus” [13]. Subsequently, this model is fine-tuned using summarization training data.  
174  
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176 Another important model in this category is the T5 (Text-to-Text Transfer Transformer) model from Google [31] that  
177 uses transfer-learning on the Transformer architecture introduced by Vaswani et al. [40]. The authors study a number  
178 of variants of the Transformer architecture and finally fine-tune them on different natural language processing tasks.  
179

180 The next model that is noteworthy in this domain is BART [24] by Facebook. BART is a denoising autoencoder for  
181 pretraining sequence-to-sequence natural language processing models. BART is trained by “corrupting text with an  
182 arbitrary noising function, and learning a model to reconstruct the original text” [24]. Similar to the T5 model, BART too  
183 is based on the Transformer architecture proposed by Vaswani et al. [40] while using a number of noising approaches,  
184 such as token masking, token deletion, randomly shuffling the order of the original sentences and a novel in-filling  
185 scheme, where spans of text are replaced with a single mask token. The only major difference to the Transformer  
186 architecture is that, following GPT, the authors replace ReLU activation functions by GeLUs [20]. They also state that  
187 their proposed architecture “is closely related to that used in BERT, with the following differences: (1) each layer of  
188 the decoder additionally performs cross-attention over the final hidden layer of the encoder (as in the transformer  
189 sequence-to-sequence model); and (2) BERT uses an additional feed-forward network before word prediction, which  
190 BART does not” [24]. For text generation tasks such as abstractive summarization, BART is then fine-tuned on in-domain  
191 data.  
192  
193

194 The final model in this category that we review is ProphetNet [47], which currently represents the state-of-the-  
195 art in abstractive summarization. This model also utilizes the Transformer architecture [40]. The main difference of  
196 ProphetNet is changing the original sequence-to-sequence optimization problem of predicting the next single token into  
197 predicting the  $n$  next token simultaneously. They show that this approach outperforms all other baselines in abstractive  
198 summarization in terms of ROUGE scores.  
199  
200

## 201 2.3 Use of Topic Models in Summarization

202 There has also been previous work utilizing topic information in sequence-to-sequence problems such as neural response  
203 generation [45]. The work of Xing et al. uses a topic model named Twitter LDA which is used in responding to messages.  
204 Aside from the different objective, this work is different from ours in that firstly, Twitter LDA assumes the existence of  
205 only a single topic per document. This assumption may be true for tweet-length texts but will not hold in summarization  
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209 of longer news articles. Secondly, the topic embeddings are derived from the source document and aggregated in a very  
210 different way than ours.

211 The use of LDA topic information in neural abstractive summarization has been considered by Wang et al. [43].  
212 Our work fundamentally differs from theirs not only in that they use a reinforcement learning approach along with  
213 convolutional neural networks optimizing directly on ROUGE, but also that our proposed model learns topic embedding  
214 weights at training time and does not use any topic information at test time. Moreover, they use topic embeddings of a  
215 source document while we use the topics of a target summary. Additionally, previous research [22] shows that while  
216 optimizing on ROUGE naturally results in a high ROUGE score, the readability of summaries produced by such systems  
217 can be poor compared with that of methods optimizing summarization losses like the one proposed in this work.  
218

219 In summary, topic information has been used in previous neural models as an input, and Wang et al. [43] argue that  
220 it results in the diversification of words appearing in summaries. However, the novelty of our approach lies in using  
221 topic information to systematically influence the output summary and steer the generation mechanism to focus on  
222 certain topics only, allowing us to remove or downweight unwanted topics from an output summary. The experimental  
223 section empirically demonstrates the merit of this approach, not only for customizing summaries, but also for achieving  
224 a high performance in terms of ROUGE scores. More importantly, we demonstrate via a user study that CATS can  
225 effectively control the topics present in a generated summary.  
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### 229 3 PROPOSED MODEL: CATS

#### 230 3.1 Model Overview

231 Our abstractive summarization method CATS is a neural sequence-to-sequence model based on the attention encoder-  
232 decoder architecture [28]. Additionally, we incorporate the concept of pointer networks [41] into our model, which  
233 enables copying words from the source side while also being able to generate words from a fixed vocabulary. Furthermore,  
234 we introduce a novel attention mechanism controlled by an unsupervised topic model. This ameliorates attention by  
235 way of focusing not only on those words which it learns as important for producing a summary (as in the standard  
236 attention mechanism), but also by learning the topically important words in a certain context. We refer to this novel  
237 mechanism as *topical attention*. Over the encoder-decoder training steps, the model parameters adapt in a way to  
238 learn the topics of each document. During testing, when the model decoder generates summaries of test documents, it  
239 therefore no longer requires the input information from the topic model, as it learns a generalized pattern of the word  
240 weights under each topic.  
241

242 We depict our model in Figure 1. In the following we describe the various components of our model.  
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#### 246 3.2 Encoder & Decoder

247 Prior to encoding, all documents are pre-processed in the same way as [33] where the Stanford CoreNLP package is  
248 used to tokenize sentences.  
249

250 The tokens of a document (i.e. extracted by a document tokenizer) are given one-by-one as input to the encoder layer.  
251 Our encoder is a single-layer Bi-directional Long Short Term Memory (BiLSTM) network [16]. The network outputs a  
252 sequence of encoder hidden states  $h_i$ , each state being a concatenation of forward and backward hidden states, as in [2].  
253

254 At each decoding time step  $t$ , the decoder receives as input  $x_t$  the word embedding of the previous word (while  
255 training, this is the previous word of the reference summary and at test time it is the previous word output by the  
256 decoder) and computes a decoder state  $s_t$ . Our decoder is a single-layer Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) network [17].  
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258  
259

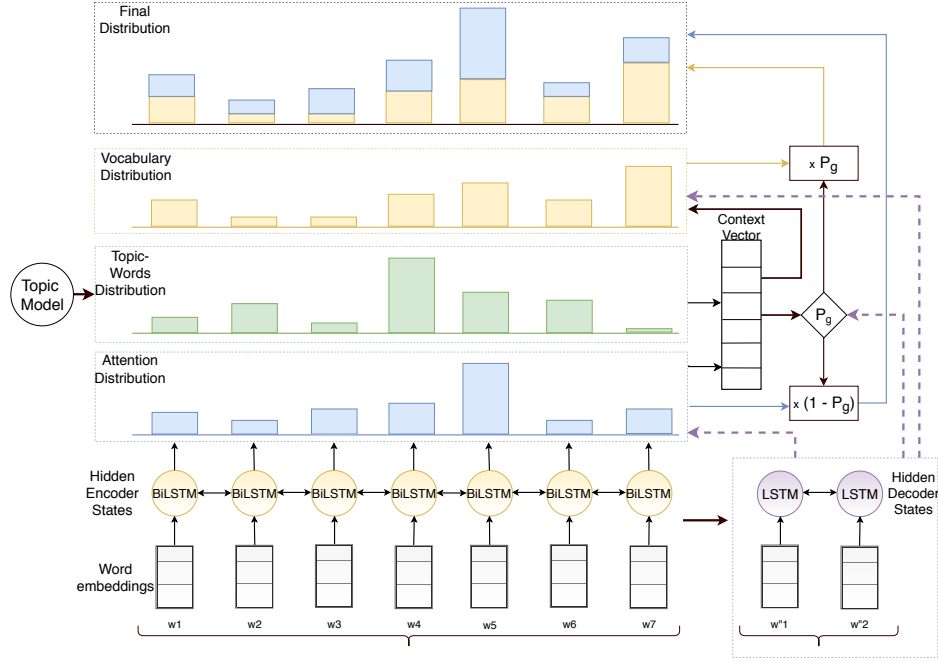


Fig. 1. The architecture of our proposed model.

### 3.3 Topical Attention

We propose the *topical attention* distribution  $a^t$  to be calculated as a combination of the usual attention weights as in [2] and a "topical word vector" derived from a topic model. We use LDA [8] as the topic model of choice. We chose LDA because: (1) it performs well as a component of CATS for yielding competitive summarization performance, (2) it is convenient to implement and use as its available in a few efficient topic modeling libraries, (3) and finally LDA assigns words, probabilities between 0 and 1 while the probability scores of all words in each topic sums up to 1. This facilitates the fusion of these scores with attention weights, which are then fed to a softmax function without the need for additional normalization steps.

In order to compute the *topical attention* weights, after training an LDA model using the training data, we map the target summary corresponding to each document to its LDA space. This gives us the strength of each topic in each target summary. Furthermore, since for each topic we also have the probability scores of each word in a fixed vocabulary  $\mathcal{V}$ , for a given document  $d$  we could calculate a *topical word vector*  $\tau^d$  of dimension  $|\mathcal{V}|$  considering all the words in that document, such that:

$$\tau^d = \sum_i P(\text{topic}_i|d) \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{w}}_i \quad (1)$$

where  $P(\text{topic}_i|d)$  is the probability of each LDA topic being present in the target summary, and  $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_i$  is the  $|\mathcal{V}|$ -dimensional vector consisting of the probabilities  $\tilde{w}_{i,j} = P(\text{word}_j|\text{topic}_i)$  of all words in vocabulary  $\mathcal{V}$  under topic  $i$ .

Then, for an input sequence of length  $K$ , we compute the final attention vector  $a^t \in \mathbb{R}^K$  at decoding step  $t$  as:

$$e_k^t = v^T \tanh(W_h h_k + W_s s_t + b_{\text{attn}}) \quad (2)$$

$$a^t = f(e^t, \tau^d) \quad (3)$$

where  $e^t \in \mathbb{R}^K$  is a precursor attention vector,  $h_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  represents the  $k$ -th encoder hidden state and  $s_t \in \mathbb{R}^l$  the decoder state at decoding step  $t$ , while  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $W_h \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $W_s \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times l}$ ,  $b_{\text{attn}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  are learnable parameters. Function  $f$  combines the topical word vector with the precursor attention vector. In order to combine the two, we define  $f$  as the following distribution over the input sequence:

$$a^t = \frac{\text{softmax}(e^t) + \text{softmax}(\tilde{\tau}^d)}{2} \quad (4)$$

where  $\tilde{\tau}^d \in \mathbb{R}^K$  denotes the "reduced" topical word vector which is formed by selecting the  $K$  components of  $\tau^d \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{V}|}$  corresponding to the  $K$  words of the input sequence.

The attention distribution can be viewed as a probability distribution over the words from the source document, which tells the decoder where to look to produce the next word. Subsequently, the attention distribution is used to produce a weighted sum of the encoder hidden states, known as the context vector  $h_t^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , as follows:

$$h_t^* = \sum_k a_k^t \cdot h_k \quad (5)$$

The context vector, which is a fixed-sized representation of what has been read by the encoder at this step, is concatenated with the decoder state  $s_t$  and the result is linearly transformed and passed through a softmax function to produce the output distribution  $P_{\mathcal{V}}(w)$  over all words  $w$  in vocabulary  $\mathcal{V}$ :

$$P_{\mathcal{V}} = \text{softmax}(V[s_t, h_t^*] + b) \quad (6)$$

where  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{V}| \times (n+l)}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{V}|}$  are learnable parameters.

### 3.4 Pointer Generator

Another component of our proposed model is a copy mechanism [19]. The idea behind the pointer generator is to circumvent the limitations of pure abstraction when it comes to factual content such as names, dates of events, statistics and other content that requires copying from the source document to produce a correct summary. The basic encoder-decoder architecture often makes mistakes with people's names or other factual content while generating a summary. As a remedy, pointer networks [41] were introduced in the machine translation domain. We utilize the concept of pointer generators in our model, in order to give our model the flexibility of choosing between generating a word from a fixed vocabulary or copying it directly from source when needed.

We define  $p_g$  as a generation probability such that  $p_g \in [0, 1]$ . We calculate  $p_g$  for time step  $t$  from the context vector  $h_t^*$ , the decoder state  $s_t$  and the decoder input  $x_t$  as:

$$p_g = \sigma(w_{h^*}^T h_t^* + w_s^T s_t + w_x^T x_t + b_{pt}) \quad (7)$$

where vectors  $w_{h^*}$ ,  $w_s$ ,  $w_x$ , and scalar value  $b_{pt}$  are learnable parameters and  $\sigma$  is a sigmoid function.

Subsequently,  $p_g$  is used to linearly interpolate between copying a word from the source (specifically, to copy from the source document we sample over the input words using the attention distribution) and generating it from the fixed vocabulary using  $P_{\mathcal{V}}$  of Eq. (6).

For each document, we define the union of the fixed vocabulary  $\mathcal{V}$  and all words appearing in the source document as the "extended vocabulary". Using the linear interpolation described above, the final probability distribution over the extended vocabulary is:

$$P(w) = p_g P_{\mathcal{V}}(w) + (1 - p_g) \sum_{\forall i: w_i=w} a_i^t \quad (8)$$

In Equation (8), we note that if a word  $w$  would be out-of-vocabulary, then  $P_{\mathcal{V}}(w)$  would be equal to zero. Analogously, if  $w$  does not appear in the source document, then  $\sum_{\forall i: w_i=w} a_i^t$  would be equal to zero. In expectation, the most likely words under this new distribution are the ones that both receive a high likelihood under the output distribution of the decoder, as well as much attention by the attention module. Words with a high likelihood under the initial output distribution, which however receive little to no attention, will be generated with a reduced probability, while words receiving much attention, even if they receive a low likelihood by the decoder or do not even exist in the vocabulary  $\mathcal{V}$ , will be generated with an increased probability.

Therefore, by being able to switch between out-of-vocabulary words and the words from the vocabulary, the pointer generator model mitigates the problem of factual errors or the lack of sufficient vocabulary in the output summary.

### 3.5 Coverage Mechanism

The coverage mechanism [39] is a method for keeping track of the level of attention given to each word at all time steps. In other words, by summing the attention at all previous steps, the model keeps track of how much coverage each encoding has already received. This mechanism alleviates the repetition problem, which is a very common issue in recurrent neural networks with attention.

We follow [46] and define the *coverage vector*  $c^t \in \mathbb{R}^K$  simply as the sum of attention vectors at all previous decoding steps:

$$c^t = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} a^i \quad (9)$$

First, the coverage vector is taken into account when calculating the attention vector by adding an extra term and modifying Equation (2) as follows:

$$e_k^t = v^T \tanh(W_h h_k + W_s s_t + c_k^t \cdot w_c + b_{\text{attn}}) \quad (10)$$

where  $w_c \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is a learnable parameter vector of the same length as  $v$ .

Second, following [33], we use the coverage vector to introduce an additional loss term, which is added to the original negative log-likelihood loss after being weighted by hyperparameter  $\lambda$ , to produce the following total loss at decoding step  $t$ :

$$\mathcal{L}_t = -\log P(w_t | w_{<t}) + \lambda \sum_{i=0}^k \min(a_i^t, c_i^t) \quad (11)$$

This additional loss term encourages the attention module to redistribute attention weights by placing low weights to input words which have already received much attention throughout previous decoding steps. The overall loss for the entire output sequence of length  $T$  is the average loss over all  $T$  decoding steps.



Table 1. Statistics of our meeting datasets.

	minutes	ave. #tokens per doc.	ave. #tokens per summary	minimum #tokens	median #tokens	maximum #tokens	#meetings
AMI	4868	5843	283	892	5998	11552	142
ICSI	3513	13080	449	2785	12605	22573	61
ADSC	NA	446	118	152	482	1383	45

### 3.6 Decoding

In order to generate the output summaries we use beam search. During evaluation of the model using the test data, contrary to training, we do not provide the model with any topical information from our trained LDA topic model. As a result, at this stage the right side of Equation 4 turns into the  $\text{softmax}(e^t)$  only. We believe that during training, the model parameters are optimized to best take advantage of the provided *topical attention* distribution, implicitly learning patterns of topic-words weights.

## 4 EVALUATION

In this section, we introduce our experimental setting, including details of our datasets, baseline models, and evaluation metrics. Finally, we present the experimental results.

### 4.1 Datasets

**4.1.1 The CNN/DailyMail dataset.** We use the CNN/DailyMail dataset [21, 28], which contains news articles from the CNN and Daily Mail websites. The experiments reported in this paper are based on the non-anonymized version of the dataset, containing 287,226 pairs of training articles and reference summaries, 13,368 validation pairs, and 11,490 test pairs. On average, each document in the dataset contains 781 tokens paired with multi-sentence summaries (56 tokens spread over 3.75 sentences). The non-anonymized version of the dataset was chosen as it presents a more realistic news wire summarization scenario.

Similar to [28, 33], we use a range of pre-processing scripts to prepare the data. This includes the use of the *Stanford CoreNLP* tokenizer to break down documents into tokens. For greater transparency and reproducibility of our results, we make all pre-processing scripts available together with our code base.

**4.1.2 The meetings dataset.** For our empirical investigation, we compile the available datasets that have been used in previous work on meeting summarization.

For this purpose, we gathered data from the well-known AMI dataset<sup>2</sup> as well as the ICSI dataset<sup>3</sup> which are the only publicly available datasets of real-world meetings. AMI contains two categories of meetings between 2 to 4 participants. The first collection consists of freestyle meetings where the participants can decide on the topics of discussions, and targeted ones about designing technology products (e.g., a remote control).

The ICSI dataset, on the other hand, contains weekly group meetings of academic groups of 3 to 10 participants. Both AMI and ICSI are face-to-face meetings that were initially audio recorded and then later transcribed. The reference summary of each meeting is then given by the manually created minutes that were taken by the original meeting participants.

We randomly divide the AMI and ICSI datasets in a 50-50 split to construct a training set as well as a test set. As a result, we end up with 101 real-world meetings as our test set and the remaining ones as the training set.

<sup>2</sup><http://groups.inf.ed.ac.uk/ami/download/>

<sup>3</sup><http://groups.inf.ed.ac.uk/ami/icsi/download/>

469 In order to increase the size of our training set we also add the Argumentative Dialogue Summary Corpus (ADSC)  
470 dataset<sup>4</sup> to our training set. The ADSC is composed of online conversations on topics of societal and political relevance  
471 such as gun control, gay marriage, the death penalty and abortion. Table 1 presents detailed statistics on all three  
472 datasets.  
473

474 **Challenges of Meeting Summarization:** Most summarization research has focused on news documents for reasons  
475 of data availability. However, in addition to the small size of the existing meeting datasets, there are other aspects  
476 that make meeting summarization more challenging: (1) Most news articles are first-person narratives about a single  
477 event. Meetings, on the other hand, have a very different structure involving a dialogue between two or more parties.  
478 (2) Meetings are composed of spoken utterances between people, whereas their summaries and minutes are usually  
479 formulated from a third-person point of view by the human scribe. Therefore, meeting summarization also requires a  
480 change of structure from dialogue to a third-person narrative summarizing events. (3) Meetings can touch on multiple  
481 topics and are not restricted in terms of topical coherence. (4) Meeting transcripts include broken sentences, colloquial  
482 expressions, false starts and flawed grammar, all of which virtually never occur in carefully curated news articles. As an  
483 example, here is an excerpt from a meeting in one of the meeting datasets used in this paper which contains most of  
484 these flaws:  
485

486 *"mm-hmm . so sh . i 'm a bit confused about uh what 's the difference between the functional design and conceptual design*  
487 *? uh i is it just uh more detail , uh as i understand it ? right . how how it will be done . so whe where do we identify the*  
488 *components of our uh product ? "*  
489

490  
491 These issues are a common challenge of meeting transcripts and are noticeable in every meeting in the meeting  
492 datasets used in this article. Therefore, we also include the meetings dataset to also tackle a very different summarization  
493 problem as a low-resource example and show how to achieve reasonable results using our proposed model.  
494  
495

## 496 4.2 Baseline Models

497 In this section We empirically compare CATS with several abstractive baselines as follows:

- 499 • *Attention-based encoder-decoder* [28]: this abstractive model was one of the early encoder-decoder models which  
500 showed strong performance on summarization tasks.
- 502 • *PGN and PGN+Coverage* [33]: this model has been shown to effectively overcome the problem of OOV words.
- 503 • *RL with Intra-Attention* [29]: this model implements reinforcement learning to optimize summaries directly based  
504 on the evaluation metric ROUGE L. As a result, it is expected that this model would achieve a high ROUGE L  
505 performance.
- 506 • *BottomUpSum* [15]: this method uses a two-step process to generate a summary. First, it uses a content selector to  
507 identify phrases in a source document that should be part of the summary. Second, it generates a summary of the  
508 pre-selected phrases.
- 509 • *InformationSelection* [25]: this paper proposes to extend the basic attention-based encoder-decoder architecture with  
510 an information selection layer to explicitly model and optimize the information selection process. The proposed  
511 information selection layer consists of global information filtering and local sentence selection. After this step, a  
512 summary is generated using the selected sentences.
- 513 • *ML+RL ROUGE+Novel, with LM* [23]: this model aims at improving the level of abstraction of generated summaries,  
514 by generating novel sentences. In order to do so, they decompose the decoder into a contextual network that retrieves  
515  
516  
517

518  
519 <sup>4</sup><https://nlds.soe.ucsc.edu/node/30>

relevant parts of the source document, and use a pre-trained language model that incorporates prior knowledge about language generation.

- *UnifiedAbsExt* [22]: this model combines extractive and abstractive summarization in an end-to-end learnable framework. Sentence-level attention is used to modulate the word-level attention such that words in less attended sentences are less likely to be generated.
- *RNN-EXT + ABS + RL + Rerank* [10]: in this model, first salient sentences are selected. Then the selected sentences are rewritten abstractively. These two steps are done using two separate neural networks. Furthermore, a sentence-level policy gradient method is used to bridge the non-differentiable computation between the two neural networks in a hierarchical way.
- *UniLM* [13]: As described in Section 2.2 UniLM is a language model whose architecture follows that of BERTLARGE and is also initialized by this model, but slightly modified its activation function and further fine-tuned for abstractive summarization.
- *T5* [31]: This work is also explained in Section 2.2. This model is also based on the Transformer architecture introduced by Vaswani et al. [40].
- *BART* [24]: BART is another top performing summarization model based on the Transformer architecture. The main contribution is the use of various noising technique for corrupting input text. For further details we refer to Section 2.2.
- *ProphetNet* [47]: The ProphetNet is yet another model based on the Transformer architecture explained in Section 2.2. The idea behind the ProphetNet is changing the original sequence-to-sequence optimization problem of predicting the next single token into predicting the  $n$  next token simultaneously.

### 4.3 Evaluation Metrics

Following standard practice, we evaluate our proposed model against the baseline methods in terms of  $F_1$  ROUGE 1,  $F_1$  ROUGE 2, and  $F_1$  ROUGE L scores using the official Perl-based implementation of ROUGE [26]. Furthermore, by means of human evaluation, we assess the readability and informativeness of summaries generated by CATS, as well as CATS's capability to customize summaries given a set of topics.

### 4.4 Experimental Results

We specify our model parameters as follows: the hidden state dimension of RNNs is set to 256, the embedding dimension of the word embeddings is set to 128, and the mini-batch size is set to 16. Furthermore, the truncated source lengths is set to 400 and the truncated target summary lengths is set to 100. In decoding mode (i.e. generating summaries on the test data) the beam size is 4 and the minimum target length which determines the minimum length of a generated summary is set to 35. Finally, the size of the vocabulary that CATS uses is set to 50,000 tokens.

To train a topic model we run LDA over the training data. LDA returns  $M$  lists of keywords representing the latent topics discussed in the collection. Since the actual number of underlying topics ( $M^*$ ) is an unknown parameter in the LDA model, it is important to estimate it. For this purpose, similar to the method proposed in [4, 6, 18], we went through a model selection process. It involves keeping the LDA parameters (commonly known as  $\alpha$  and  $\eta$ ) fixed, while assigning several values to  $M$  and running the LDA model for each value. We picked the model that minimizes the negative  $\log P(W|M)$ , where  $W$  contains all the words in the vocabulary of all the documents in the training data. This process is repeated until we have an optimal number of topics. The training of each LDA model takes nearly a day, so we could

only repeat it for a limited number of  $M$  values. In particular, we trained the LDA model with values  $M$  ranging from 50 up to 500 with an increment of 50, and the optimal value on the CNN/Dailymail dataset was found to be 100.

The experiments reported in this paper were conducted using a Tesla V100 GPU with 18GB of RAM per node.

Based on the setup described above, in the following we present our experiments evaluating our proposed model against baselines.

*4.4.1 Automatic Evaluation of Topic Customization.* We first evaluate CATS in generating summaries on pre-defined topics. In order to do that we remove two topics from the output of the topic model, fine-tune the trained summarization model for a few additional training steps and compute the presence/absence of the two topics in the generated summaries.

The first topic is related to *health care* and its top five keywords are “dr”, “medical”, “patients”, “health”, and “care”. The second topic is related to *police arrests and charges* with its top five words being “charges”, “court”, “arrested”, “allegedly”, and “jailed”. Using the LDA model described in Section 4.4, we determine the topics of all human written summaries from the CNN/DailyMail test set. Our investigation shows that there are 752 human written summaries with the *health care* topic and 1,326 documents with the *police arrests and charges* topic. After we remove these two topics as explained above and generate summaries, we find out that the number of generated summaries of the same documents with the *health care* topic drops down to 64 and the number of generated summaries with *police arrests and charges* drops down to 255. This shows a significant decrease in the presence of the two topics in the generated summaries. Furthermore, as a reference point we examine the summaries produced by CATS without any topics removed. Our findings reveal that summaries produced by CATS have topic distributions very similar to those of human written summaries. Specifically, the number of documents containing the *health care* topic is 752 while the corresponding number for the *police arrests and charges* is 1317. These near-identical numbers were expected as CATS is trained to learn topics from target summaries.

Although, this automatic evaluation shows a clear effectiveness in removing topics from summaries, it does come with a certain limitation. For example, since different topics can share the same words among them, it might happen that certain shared words that belong to more than one topic cause an error in our evaluation. Moreover, the copy mechanism that is adopted in our model, may copy certain names from the source document that can contain words that form a topic to be removed, e.g. World Health Organization. This is the reason why the numbers of topic presences in the generated summaries although significantly lower, but cannot reach 0. Therefore, in the following subsection we also conduct a human evaluation of the customized summaries.

This experiment clearly showed the effectiveness of CATS in removing topics from summaries, when compared with both the human written summaries and the output summaries of the standard CATS.

*4.4.2 Human Evaluation of Customizing Summaries.* In this section, we describe the human evaluation results of CATS’s capability to include only certain topics in a summary and exclude others. As mentioned earlier, CATS is the first neural abstractive summarization model that allows to selectively include or exclude latent topics from the output summaries. In order to demonstrate this feature, we remove a few topics from the output of the topic model, fine-tune the trained summarization model for a number of additional training steps and analyze the effect. Our expectation is that the focus of certain output summaries which usually contain those topics will change, while naturally the raw ROUGE values are expected to decrease.

For this experiment, we chose the same two topics of the automatic evaluation and removed them from the summaries one at a time. The first topic is related to *health care* and its top five keywords are “dr”, “medical”, “patients”, “health”, and “care”. The second topic is related to *police arrests and charges* with its top five words being “charges”, “court”, “arrested”,

625 “allegedly”, and “jailed”. Using the topic rankings of source documents, which are provided by the LDA model described  
626 in Section 4.4, we randomly chose 100 documents from the dataset that contained either one of the aforementioned  
627 topics, given that those topics were not their sole or primary focus, but in the second rank. The reasoning is that, for  
628 example, if a news article would only cover a crime-related topic and the summarization system tries to exclude that  
629 topic from a summary, there are very few words left to form a meaningful summary. Thus, in order to systematically  
630 exploit the customization mechanism, our model also examines the topics of a given input article and determines  
631 whether excluding certain topics from its summary is feasible.  
632

633  
634 Five human judges evaluated whether the summaries generated by CATS with restricted topics showed exclusion or  
635 reduction of those topics or whether there was no major difference. In other words, for each given system-generated  
636 summary, its corresponding human-written summary and the original news article, human judges could select either  
637 full exclusion of a target topic, reduction of a target topic, or no meaningful change. They were instructed to look  
638 for existence of the top 20 words of each topic in particular, except for cases that one of these words is a part of a  
639 name (e.g. American Health Center). For each document, we take the majority vote of the human assessors as the  
640 final decision. The results of this experiment show that, out of the 100 documents, the majority of the human judges  
641 find a full exclusion of a target topic in 87 documents, a reduction of the target topic in ten documents, and no major  
642 difference in only three documents. The Kappa agreement between the five human judges is 0.704.  
643

644  
645 Based on this experiment, we conclude that CATS can in most cases reliably customize summaries by controlling the  
646 topics that appear in them, and we attribute this capability to the *topical attention* mechanism. Our model is the first to  
647 bring customization of abstractive summaries in sequence-to-sequence architectures. Such feature, can be beneficial for  
648 editorial boards of publishers, e.g. news channels who would like to enforce policies regarding the topics of the content  
649 they publish. This can also be used at hospitals where doctors need to quickly obtain information from long electronic  
650 health-care records of patients regarding a certain illness. For example, a doctor attending a heart condition of a patient  
651 might not need information about a previously broken arm and therefore may would like to filter-out such irrelevant  
652 information.  
653

654  
655 Table 2 shows an example summary produced by CATS that was restricted not to include the *health care* topic,  
656 alongside a summary produced by CATS restricting the *crime* topic and CATS with no topic restriction, as well as the  
657 corresponding human-written reference summary. We observe that in the first two columns the focus of the summary  
658 is altered such that it focuses on the crime-related thematic rather than health care and vice versa in order to avoid  
659 using words such as “hospital”, “patients” and “medicine” in the first column and words such as “murdering”, “guilty”,  
660 “charges”, “denies” in the second column.  
661

662  
663 Table 3 shows another similar example where CATS is restricted not to include the *health care* topic and separately  
664 the *crime* topic.

665  
666 We observe from the two examples that CATS generates summaries that read fluently in both topic-restriction and  
667 no-restriction modes.

668  
669 **4.4.3 The impact of topic model.** In this section, we analyze the impact of the topic model in achieving summarization  
670 performance in terms of ROUGE. We already discussed how we train the LDA model in Section 4.4 using the training  
671 data. However, since the LDA model is unsupervised and can be trained in an online training process using new  
672 documents, we could also train it using both training as well as testing datasets. In this section we compare the  
673 performance of CATS in terms of ROUGE metrics in the situation where the unsupervised LDA topic model is trained  
674 only on training data compared with when it is trained on both training and testing datasets.  
675

Table 2. Comparison of a CATS generated summary next to a summary with restricted topics and the human-written reference summary<sup>5</sup>. The words related to the crime topic are colored in red, while words related to health-care are in green.

<i>CATS restricting health-care</i>	<i>CATS restricting crime</i>	<i>CATS</i>	<i>Reference</i>
victorino chua , 49 , <b>denies murdering</b> tracey arden , 44 , arnold lancaster , 71 and derek weaver , 83 , and deliberately poisoning 18 others between 2011 and 2012 . chua has <b>pleaded not guilty</b> to 36 <b>charges</b> in all , including three <b>alleged murders</b> , one count of <b>grievous bodily harm</b> with intent , 23 counts of attempted <b>grievous bodily harm</b> with intent , eight counts of attempting to cause a poison to be administered and one count of administering a poison .	victorino chua , 49 , has given evidence for the first time he didn 't poison <b>patients</b> at stepping hill hospital in stockport . a <b>nurse</b> today told he did not poison <b>hospital patients</b> on his ward by contaminating their <b>medicine</b> with <b>insulin</b> .	victorino chua , 49 , has given evidence for the first time and <b>denied</b> he tampered with <b>saline bags</b> and <b>ampoules</b> at stepping hill <b>hospital</b> in stockport . a <b>nurse</b> today told a jury he did not <b>murder</b> three <b>hospital patients</b> and poison almost 20 more at stepping hill <b>hospital</b> in stockport in order to <b>kill</b> and injure people he was caring for . chua <b>denies murdering patients</b> tracey arden , 44 , arnold lancaster , 71 and derek weaver , 83 , and deliberately poisoning 18 others between 2011 and 2012 .	victorino chua , 49 , <b>denies murdering patients</b> at stockport hospital in 2011 . filipino <b>nurse</b> also <b>accused</b> of poisoning 18 more at stepping hill <b>hospital</b> . <b>denies</b> injecting <b>insulin</b> and other poisons into bags of <b>medicine</b> on ward .

Table 3. Comparison of a CATS generated summary next to a summary with restricted topics and the human-written reference summary<sup>6</sup>. The words related to the crime topic are colored in red, while words related to health-care are in green.

<i>CATS restricting health-care</i>	<i>CATS restricting crime</i>	<i>CATS</i>	<i>Reference</i>
darwin man is <b>accused</b> of using someone else 's employee registration number to pose as a fake employee at the aurukun primary health centre . he was <b>charged</b> on saturday with one count of fraud after cairns <b>detectives</b> made contact with him in the northern territory .	a 30-year-old darwin man posed as a <b>nurse</b> at the aurukun primary health centre on cape york during february and march . <b>health</b> authorities are searching through <b>patient</b> records after it was revealed man did not have the correct qualifications .	a 30-year-old darwin man is <b>accused</b> of using a female <b>nurse 's</b> registration number at the aurukun primary health centre on cape york during february and march . he was <b>charged</b> on saturday with one count of <b>fraud</b> after cairns <b>detectives</b> made contact with him in the northern territory . he was receiving a \$ 100,000 annual salary and accommodation from queensland health in the six weeks he was at the <b>hospital</b> .	man , 30 , is <b>accused</b> of using a female <b>nurse 's</b> employee number to work . he worked for six weeks at aurukun primary health centre on cape york . man was <b>charged</b> with <b>fraud</b> after payroll raised the alarm with <b>hospital</b> . authorities are checking <b>patient</b> records to see who he interacted with .

In the results presented in Table 4, we observe that when the topic model is fine-tuned using the test data, the performance significantly improves in terms of ROUGE 1 and ROUGE L while showing slight improvement in terms of ROUGE 2. Therefore, we conclude that the training of the topic model is an essential factor in summarization performance.

4.4.4 *Comparison in terms of ROUGE.* In this section we compare our proposed model against all baselines in terms of the  $F_1$  ROUGE metrics presented in Section 4.3. The results of this comparison are given in Table 5.

Table 4. Comparison between our model trained using LDA trained on training data against our model trained using LDA trained on both training and test data in terms of  $F_1$  ROUGE metrics on the CNN/Dailymail dataset. Statistical significance test was done with a confidence of 95% and confirmed significance.

Models	ROUGE 1 (%)	ROUGE 2 (%)	ROUGE L (%)
CATS (LDA:training data)	41.76	18.69	38.21
CATS (LDA:training+testing data)	42.13	18.85	38.63

Table 5. Comparison between our proposed model against the baselines in terms of  $F_1$  ROUGE metrics on the CNN/Dailymail dataset. ‘\*\*’ means that results are based on the anonymized version of the dataset and not strictly comparable to our results. The bottom four models utilize pre-trained Transformer-based architectures.

Models	ROUGE 1 (%)	ROUGE 2 (%)	ROUGE L (%)
CATS (Ours)	42.13	18.85	38.63
LEAD-3 Baseline	40.34	17.70	36.57
Attn. Enc-Dec (Nallapati et al. [28])	35.46	13.30	32.65
PGN (See et al. [33])	36.44	15.66	33.42
PGN+coverage (See et al. [33])	39.53	17.28	36.38
RL with Intra-Attention (Paulus et al. [29]) **	41.16	15.75	39.08
BottomUpSum (Gehrmann et al. [15])	41.22	18.68	38.34
InformationSelection (Li et al. [25])	41.54	18.18	36.47
ML+RL ROUGE+Novel, with LM (Kryscinski et al. [23])	40.19	17.38	37.52
UnifiedAbsExt (Hsu et al. [22])	40.68	17.97	37.13
RNN-EXT + ABS + RL + Rerank (Chen and Bansal [10])	40.88	17.80	38.54
UniLM (Dong et al. [13])	43.33	20.21	40.51
T5-small (Raffel et al. [31])	41.12	19.56	38.35
T5-largest (Raffel et al. [31])	43.52	21.55	40.69
BART (Lewis et al. [24])	44.16	21.28	40.90
ProphetNet (Yan et al. [47])	44.20	21.17	41.30

We can observe that our model outperforms all other non-Transformer-based models in terms of ROUGE 1 and ROUGE 2 while being behind the Transformer-based models (the bottom four models in the table). In order to verify the robustness of findings, we conduct a statistical significance test based on the bootstrap re-sampling technique using the official ROUGE package [26]. In the case of ROUGE L, [29] reports the highest performance among the non-Transformer-based models; however, this is due to their model loss function optimizing directly for the evaluation metric ROUGE L instead of the summarization loss. In fact, [22] reports an experiment that shows summaries generated by the [29] method achieve the poorest readability scores compared with a number of models including PGN and their own UnifiedAbsExt model, a finding which we also confirmed by comparing the output summaries with the output of our model (see Section 4.4.7). This indicates that optimizing on ROUGE L instead of the summarization loss adversely impacts the quality of the produced summaries. We discuss this point further in Section 4.4.7 where we qualitatively compare our generated summaries against that of [29].

We note that we did not include the method of [9] in our comparison, due to the fact that unlike most papers that use preprocessing scripts of [33] for the non-anonymized version of the dataset, they use different scripts. The effect

781 of this difference on their LEAD-3<sup>7</sup> baseline remains unclear as they do not report it. Thus, their results may not be  
782 comparable with ours.

783 In this experiment, we conclude that among non-Transformer-based baselines our model achieves superior perfor-  
784 mance as compared with other baselines. However, the Transformer-based models outperform CATS in terms of ROUGE  
785 metrics. This is while the training time, computational resources, and the training dataset size used for preparing our  
786 model is only a small fraction of that of the Transformer-based models. Let us take ProphetNet [47], the best performing  
787 model in terms of ROUGE, as an example. The authors explicitly mention that their model has been trained with a  
788 160GB dataset, then with another 16GB dataset, and finally fine-tuned using the CNN /Dailymail dataset. However, our  
789 model has been only trained using the CNN/Dailymail dataset.

792 For the smaller versions of the Transformer models which, similar to our model, are also trainable from scratch, we  
793 report the results of the small T5 model as a point of reference. The reason for reporting only the T5 is that it is the only  
794 model for which the size-performance trade-off is explored by the original authors [31]. As we observe in Table 5, our  
795 proposed model outperforms the T5-small in terms of ROUGE 1 and ROUGE L but it lags behind in terms of ROUGE 2.

796 Besides the data efficiency of CATS, the design goal behind our model is the capability of customizing summaries  
797 based on given topic requirements. This is something that no other model discussed in this article has been shown to  
798 be capable of.

801 *4.4.5 Comparing variations of CATS in terms of ROUGE.* This section performs an ablation study, measuring the impact  
802 of individual CATS components on ROUGE scores. We first present the setup of CATS used in all experiments throughout  
803 this article followed by other variations to determine the effect of each component on the model’s summarization  
804 performance:

- 807 (1) CATS: The standard setup of CATS using topical attention, as explained in Section 3. It focuses on topics of the  
808 target summaries at training time without using any topic information at test time. Additionally, CATS uses a  
809 coverage component as explained in the same section.
- 811 (2) CATS-Source-Topics: This variation uses topical attention focusing on topics *of source articles* at training time  
812 without using any topic information at test time.
- 813 (3) CATS-Source-Topics-TrainTest: This variation uses topical attention which focuses on topics of source articles  
814 during training, but differently from the above variations, also uses topic information of source articles at test  
815 time.
- 816 (4) CATS-No-Coverage: This variation of standard CATS omits the coverage mechanism.
- 817 (5) CATS-No-Topical-No-Coverage: We fully remove the topical attention of CATS and also remove the coverage  
818 mechanism. Under such settings CATS is reduced to a basic pointer generator network.

821 Table 6 presents the results of the ablation study. We observe that having a topical attention focusing on topics  
822 derived from target summaries during training time outperforms other variations of topical attention. We believe that  
823 focusing on topics of target summaries enables CATS to generate summaries precisely to the point as presented in the  
824 target summary. The fact that this variation outperforms all other variations may be caused by the model learning  
825 attention weights as a complement to the topic-words weights so precisely that providing this information at test time  
826 does not improve the summarization performance any further. As we remove the coverage mechanism or even the  
827 entire topical attention scheme, performance noticeably deteriorates.

830 <sup>7</sup>The LEAD-3 baseline is taking the first three sentences of an article as its summary. This baseline is commonly used in automatic summarization as a  
831 reference to evaluate a dataset.



Table 6. Ablation study between the full CATS model and a number of reduced/alterd variants in terms of  $F_1$  ROUGE metrics on the CNN/Dailymail dataset.

Models	ROUGE 1 (%)	ROUGE 2 (%)	ROUGE L (%)
CATS	42.13	18.85	38.63
CATS-Source-Topics	41.22	17.98	37.39
CATS-Source-Topics-TrainTest	40.88	17.73	37.12
CATS-No-Coverage	38.13	16.52	35.03
CATS-No-Topical-No-Coverage	36.44	15.66	33.42

Table 7.  $F_1$  ROUGE scores on AMI/ICSI test sets.

	ROUGE 1	ROUGE 2	ROUGE L
CATS No-TL	12.13	1.54	11.15
CATS	<b>30.85</b>	<b>8.89</b>	<b>28.50</b>

#### 4.4.6 Low-resource Abstractive Summarization using Transfer Learning with CATS.

In this section, we introduce a transfer-learning approach for abstractive summarization of a very small dataset of meetings transcripts. We first train CATS on the CNN/ DailyMail news dataset. Our transfer-learning approach is based on fine-tuning and adapting model parameters to the new task of meeting summarization.

As a result, after we pre-train CATS on the news dataset, we fine-tune it as follows: We feed our model with the meeting training dataset described in Section 4.1.2. We use a small learning rate to tune all parameters from their original settings to minimize the loss on the new task. Moreover, we increase the minimum number of tokens generated from 35 to 65 to account for the greater length of meeting transcripts and corresponding summaries.

Fine-tuning adapts the model’s parameters to make it more discriminative for the new task, and the low learning rate is an indirect mechanism to preserve some of the representational structure learned in the news summarization task. Moreover, we expose CATS to the meeting training data for 50 epochs on the meeting training set with a batch size of 16.

Since our model utilizes LDA we need to add the training examples to the LDA model as well. That also changes the derived topics given to the topical attention mechanism.

We begin evaluating this approach by comparing our model in terms of the  $F_1$  ROUGE metrics against our model when the transfer-learning approach described above is applied. Table 7 illustrates the results of this experiment.

As we can observe in the table, our model with transfer-learning significantly outperforms the model without transfer-learning in terms of ROUGE 1 and ROUGE L. Our statistical significance test is based on bootstrap re-sampling using the official ROUGE package [26] and confirms that the observed improvement over the baselines in terms of ROUGE metrics is significant with a confidence of 95%.

The most important finding of this experiment is the comparison of our model against its equivalent version without transfer-learning. The considerable improvement in performance corroborates that our transfer-learning approach is very effective in building a meeting abstractive summarization system, while producing summaries which are in a third-person-view and contain no colloquial expressions.

4.4.7 Human Evaluation of Summaries. We conduct a manual evaluation in order to assess the quality of summaries produced by CATS compared to the summaries of PGN+coverage [33] and RL with Intra-Attention [29], which were

provided by the authors of these methods. We chose the RL with Intra-Attention since it was the only method optimizing on ROUGE L and thus had a higher ROUGE L. We examine informativeness and readability of 50 randomly sampled summaries. When comparing the output produced by the three models, the three human assessors<sup>8</sup> assigned scores ranging from 1 to 5 to each summary, while blinded to the identity of the models. The average overall scores of each model are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Human evaluation comparing quality of summaries on a 1-5 scale using three evaluators.

	Readability	Informativeness
CATS	<b>4.1</b>	<b>3.9</b>
PGN+Coverage	3.5	3.3
RL+Intra-Attention	2.6	2.9

We observe that the summaries generated by our model are judged to be more readable and more informative.

**4.4.8 Analysis of Repetition in Output Summaries.** In this experiment we analyze the quality of the output summaries produced by CATS and those produced by PGN and PGN+coverage in terms of repetition of text. A common issue with attention-based encoder-decoder architectures is the tendency to repeat an already generated sequence. In text summarization, this results in summaries containing repeated sentences or phrases. As described in Section 2, the coverage mechanism has been introduced to mitigate this undesirable effect, and we show that our model can reduce it even further.

We compare CATS to PGN and PGN+coverage in terms of n-grams repetition with  $n$  ranging from 1 to 6. For this purpose, and to exclude possible influence of better hyperparameter tuning, we train all three models using the optimal hyperparameters found for PGN+coverage, whenever applicable. The upshot of this experiment is reported in Figure 2. The scores reported in the figure are normalized average repetition scores over all output summary documents in the test set of the CNN/Dailymail dataset. We compute the scores by calculating the average of the per-document n-gram repetition score,  $S_{\text{rep},\text{doc}}$ , over all test output documents, where we define:

$$S_{\text{rep},\text{doc}} = \frac{\text{\#duplicate n-grams}}{\text{\#all n-grams}} \quad (12)$$

We observe that our model exhibits drastically lower repetition of text in its output summaries compared with both PGN and PGN+coverage, which is confirmed by manual inspection of the output. This trend is consistent on all the tested n-grams. Although PGN+coverage was originally designed to overcome the repetition problem, the results of this experiment indicate that our proposed topical attention mechanism reduces repetition significantly.

We believe that the reason behind this phenomenon is that our model tends to focus not only on the few words in the input sequence which are assigned high attention weights, but also on other words which are topically connected with these words in a certain context. Firstly, this acts as an attention diversification and redistribution mechanism (an effect similar to coverage). Secondly, these topically connected words receive a higher generation probability (through Equations (6) and (8)) and the model is more inclined to paraphrase the input.

The result of this experiment indicates that our *topical attention* mechanism is a very effective solution to the repetition problem in sequence generation based on encoder-decoder architectures.

<sup>8</sup>None of the assessors are affiliated with this paper.

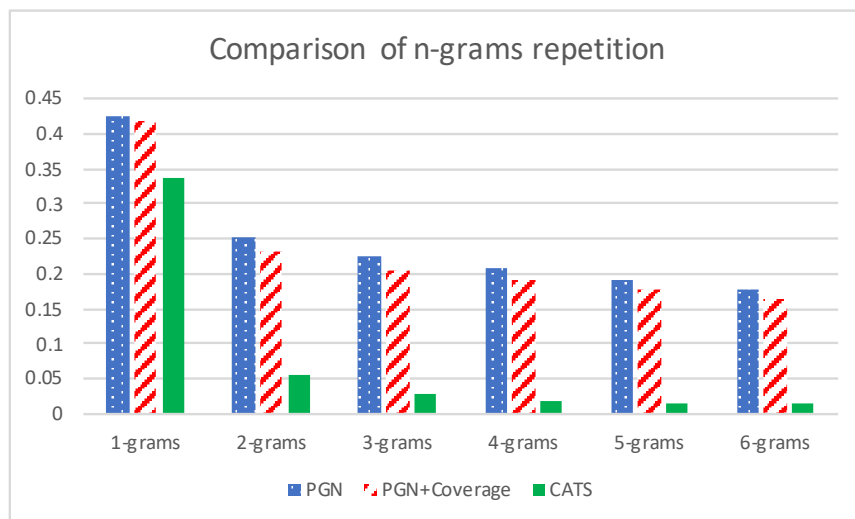


Fig. 2. Experiment comparing the degree of n-grams repetition in our model versus that of the PGN and PGN+coverage baselines on the CNN/Dailymail test set. Lower numbers show less repetition in the generated summaries.

**4.4.9 Readability experiment:** This experiment is designed to measure the readability of the output summaries generated by the various models. For this purpose we use the Automated Readability Index (ARI) [34]. ARI is a measure for gauging how understandable a piece of text is. The results of the experiment, reported in Table 9, show that CATS yields superior readability compared to other models and variations. It is worth noting that CATS with topics removed performs very close to CATS in terms of automatic readability scores, suggesting high overall text generation quality. The table additionally presents basic statistics on average number of tokens per sentence as well as average number of characters per token.

Table 9. Comparing the performance of our model vs. PGN, with respect to readability of output summaries

	Ground-truth	CATS-without-coverage	CATS	CATS-with-topics-removed	PGN	PGN+coverage
ARI	28.40	23.43	34.14	23.86	22.59	23.66
Ave. # tokens per sentence	14.30	23.12	23.82	23.43	20.90	23.92
Ave. # chars per token	4.70	4.64	4.56	4.66	4.61	4.62

**4.4.10 Summary coherence experiment:** This experiment is designed to measure the coherence of the output summaries generated by the various models. For this purpose we use the Normalized Pointwise Mutual Information (NPMI) which is an established measure for quantifying coherence between words. We compute the coherence of a summary by computing NPMI between all word pairs of every two consecutive sentences normalized by the number of sentences in the summary. Each sentence is identified by punctuation marks such as ",", "?" and "!". We formally define coherence of a summary  $s$  consisting of sentences  $sent_1, \dots, sent_n$  as:

$$coherence_s = (NPMI(sent_1, sent_2) + NPMI(sent_2, sent_3) + \dots + NPMI(sent_{n-1}, sent_n)) / n$$

This metric quantifies the relatedness of sentences of a document. In order to compute the coherence of summaries we remove stop words, punctuation marks as well as all non alphabetic tokens such as numbers. Then we compute the coherence produced by the different methods.

In this experiment we compare CATS against CATS with the crime topic removed. Table 10 shows the results of this experiment.

Table 10. Comparing the performance of CATS vs. CATS-with-topics-removed, with respect to coherence of output summaries

	CATS	CATS-with-topics-removed
Coherence	0.00754	0.00823

As we observe from the table CATS-with-topics-removed achieves a higher coherence score compared with CATS. This outcome was expected, since CATS aims for covering all topics present in a source article. Subsequently, since the NPMI score between words which come from different topics are lower, the overall coherence score is also lower. In the case of CATS-with-topics-removed, however, we observe that the summaries are more focused and therefore yield a higher coherence score.

In this experiment, we showed that when we remove a certain topic in summaries produced by CATS, we observe a higher coherence score.

## 5 DISCUSSION

In the previous sections we have presented and extensively evaluated CATS. In this section, we discuss the use cases of CATS in its current form, potentially significant improvements and modifications for future work, and, finally, the potential use of topical attention in other sequence-to-sequence neural architectures.

**Prospective use cases of CATS:** As previously mentioned, compared to transformer-based models that typically require large scale pre-training, CATS has the advantage of being trained on a relatively small dataset, while outperforming all baselines on the standard abstractive summarization task, except for the large-size variants of the transformer-based models. In addition to standard summarization, we also introduced and tackled the problem of topic-based summarization. We have qualitatively demonstrated the effectiveness of a fine-tuning method for custom-generation of summaries by focusing on a few topics and discarding others. In order to use this topic-based summarization feature of CATS in practice, it is currently necessary to fine-tune multiple instances of CATS beforehand, each including/excluding certain topics. These thematically customized models can be deployed on cloud infrastructure and be accessed through an API on demand, so as to serve specific information needs (e.g. a journalist covering only US - China relations as a part of international relations, or only trade as a part of US - China relations). Although deploying multiple specialized model instances in parallel is a paradigm widely used in industry (e.g. for machine translation between numerous language pairs), it comes with practical limitations with respect to infrastructure, maintenance and development time. In the following, we will discuss possible alternatives to fine-tuning for topic control, which is a topic of active, ongoing research.

**Alternative topic control mechanisms for custom generation:** A first solution to obviate the need for fine-tuning multiple instances, each focusing on a different set of topics, is to prepare a dataset with topic-specific summaries.

1041 Such a dataset will contain articles and two or more summaries corresponding to each article, such that each summary  
1042 focuses on only one (or a subset) of the few topics present in the document. In this way, during training, CATS or  
1043 other similar sequence-to-sequence models will learn how to generate a summary focused on a topic (or subset of  
1044 topics) indicated as input. To elaborate, each topic will be specified with a unique token which will be fed along with  
1045 the input document tokens to the encoder, and the expected output of the decoder will be a summary with a focus on  
1046 the corresponding topic(s). We are currently developing such a dataset and will soon release it as the first dataset on  
1047 customized topic-based summarization to be used by the community for building advanced summarization systems.  
1048 Interestingly, the existing fine-tuned CATS models can be used to generate the topic-specific summaries of this dataset.  
1049

1050  
1051 A second, promising solution for controlling generation is to add a regularization term to the model's loss function  
1052 in order to explicitly drive the attention mechanism to learn the distribution over input words as induced by the  
1053 topic model. Specifically, during training we can use the KL divergence, Wasserstein distance or similar metrics which  
1054 measure differences between distributions, to penalize the deviation between the precursor attention weights  $e^t$  (Eq.  
1055 (2)) and the topical word distribution  $r^d$  induced by a topic model (Eq. (1)). This method can potentially direct the  
1056 model to attend to a source document in the same way as suggested by a distribution over words coming from a topic  
1057 model. Moreover, certain topics can be turned off or on in the distribution.  
1058

1059  
1060 The third possible solution that also relies on the dedicated dataset explained above (as the first solution) is to  
1061 extract the topic-words distribution from the model's output summaries, and penalize its distance from the intended  
1062 topic-words distribution specified by a user through a regularization term in the loss function.  
1063

1064 Finally, a fourth solution is to train a CATS model as usual, but modify the beam-search text generation algorithm  
1065 such that during inference it would assign higher probabilities for generating words that are indicated by a topic-words  
1066 distribution. That is, a penalty term would be added to words that are likely to be generated by the normal beam-search  
1067 but are not in line with a topic-words distribution indicated by a user.  
1068

1069 In summary, we discussed a number of solutions that can be used to enhance the practicality and effectiveness of our  
1070 topic-based, customizable summarization model. We believe that combining two or more of the above solutions can  
1071 potentially result in a robust topic-based summarization. The above ideas are directions of our current research and  
1072 future work.  
1073

1074  
1075 **Integrating the topical attention into other neural architectures:** In the standard summarization experiments  
1076 reported in the previous section, the concept of topical attention was shown to improve the quality of summaries  
1077 compared to the same architecture without topical attention.  
1078

1079 The recent advancements in abstractive summarization research has been mostly due to the advent of the transformer  
1080 model. As discussed in Section 2, all recent top-performing summarization models are variants of the original Transformer  
1081 model [40]. While in very recent work [44] the incorporation of topic models in transformer-based summarization  
1082 systems is emerging as a beneficial component, we believe that our idea of topical attention can be directly used in  
1083 transformer-based models even in its current form as presented in Equation (4) to mediate between the encoder and  
1084 decoder as cross-attention. That is, the topic-words weights are integrated into the cross-attention weights. Adapting  
1085 the topical attention mechanism to other transformer-based models, also taking into account the ideas presented in the  
1086 previous paragraph, is the focus of our ongoing research.  
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## 6 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we present CATS, an abstractive summarization model that makes use of latent topic information in a source document and is thereby capable of controlling the topics appearing in an output summary of a source document. This can enable customization of generated texts based on user profiles or explicitly given topics, in order to present content tailored to a user's information needs.

Our experimental results show that CATS achieves performance superior to all non-transformer-based models in terms of standard evaluation metrics for summarization (*i.e.* ROUGE) on a standard benchmark dataset, while drastically reducing sequence repetition, and, crucially, enabling customization of produced summaries.

Moreover, we showed a transfer-learning approach for applying CATS to small datasets and low-resource cases.

CATS can serve as a foundation for future work in the domain of automatic summarization. Based on the results of this paper, we are optimistic about the potential of future summarization systems to generate summaries which are customized to users' needs. We envision three ways of controlling the focus of output summaries using CATS: First, as demonstrated in the experiment in Section 4.4.2, certain topics could be disabled in the output of the topic model and be consequently discarded from output summaries. Second, a reference document could be provided to the topic model, its topics could be extracted and subsequently direct the focus of generated summaries. This is useful when a user wants to see summaries/updates primarily or only regarding issues discussed in an existing reference document or collection of documents. Third, content extracted from user profiles (*e.g.* history of web pages of interest) could be provided to the topic model, their salient themes extracted by the model and then taken into account whenever presenting users with summaries.

Finally, we are interested in exploring the use of dedicated, fully neural topic modeling modules, whose parameters are learned either using unsupervised pre-training or from scratch during end-to-end training of the sequence-to-sequence model.

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