# Understanding Faithfulness and Reasoning of Large Language Models on Plain Biomedical Summaries

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#### Abstract

Generating plain biomedical summaries with Large Language Models (LLMs) can enhance the accessibility of biomedical knowledge to the public. However, how faithful the generated summaries are remains an open yet critical question. To address this, we propose FAREBIO, a benchmark dataset with expertannotated Faithfulness and Reasoning on plain Biomedical Summaries. This dataset consists of 175 plain summaries (1, 445 sentences) generated by seven different LLMs, paired with source articles. Using our dataset, we identify the performance gap of LLMs in generating faithful plain biomedical summaries and observe a negative correlation between abstractiveness and faithfulness. We also show that current faithfulness evaluation metrics do not work well in the biomedical domain and confirm the over-confident tendency of LLMs as faithfulness evaluators. To better understand the faithfulness judgements, we further benchmark LLMs in retrieving supporting evidence and show the gap of LLMs in reasoning faithfulness evaluation at different abstractiveness levels. Going beyond the binary faithfulness labels, coupled with the annotation of supporting sentences, our dataset could further contribute to the understanding of faithfulness evaluation and reasoning.<sup>[1](#page-0-0)</sup>

## <span id="page-0-2"></span>1 Introduction

Generating plain text summaries—summarising technical articles in plain language—helps facilitate public access to biomedical knowledge and has been an important topic in the biomedical domain [\(Goldsack et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022,](#page-11-0) [2023;](#page-11-1) [Guo et al.,](#page-11-2) [2021\)](#page-11-2). Despite the overall performance achieved by LLMs [\(Jahan et al.,](#page-11-3) [2024;](#page-11-3) [Guo et al.,](#page-11-4) [2024;](#page-11-4) [Sim et al.,](#page-13-0) [2023\)](#page-13-0), the *faithfulness*, which is to what extent the generated text is consistent with the source articles, and *factuality*, that is to what extent the generated

<span id="page-0-1"></span>

Figure 1: Faithfulness and reasoning annotations on plain biomedical summaries generated from 7 LLMs.

text is consistent with the external knowledge, have been known problems of LLMs [\(Pagnoni et al.,](#page-12-0) [2021;](#page-12-0) [Ji et al.,](#page-11-5) [2023\)](#page-11-5) and have not been well-studied in the biomedical domain [\(Joseph et al.,](#page-11-6) [2024\)](#page-11-6).

Apart from labor-intensive and costly manual examination, prior work [\(Scialom et al.,](#page-13-1) [2021;](#page-13-1) [Laban](#page-11-7) [et al.,](#page-11-7) [2022;](#page-11-7) [Zha et al.,](#page-14-0) [2023\)](#page-14-0) has proposed various metrics to automatically evaluate the faithfulness of the generated text. However, these metrics are mainly designed to measure faithfulness in the general domain, such as news. To what extent it can be used in domain-specific areas, such as the biomedical domain, remains an open question [\(Ramprasad](#page-13-2) [et al.,](#page-13-2) [2024\)](#page-13-2).

Additionally, current research [\(Chiang and Lee,](#page-10-0) [2023b\)](#page-10-0) has shown that, although LLM-based evaluators achieve promising alignments with human judgment, they do not always provide correct reasoning for their decisions, e.g., correct rationales or supporting sentences from text. Examining to what extent LLMs can provide correct reasoning for their decisions could help better understand the reasoning behind LLMs, especially in the biomedi-

<span id="page-0-0"></span><sup>1</sup>Dataset available at <https://data.csiro.au/>.

cal domain where accurate evidence is paramount.

To address these problems, we propose a benchmark dataset, FAREBIO, on evaluating Faithfulness and Reasoning of LLMs on plain Biomedical summaries in Section [3.](#page-2-0) Specifically, as shown in Figure [1,](#page-0-1) we enlist medical doctors to manually evaluate the faithfulness of plain summaries from seven representative LLM-based summarisation systems and highlight the corresponding supporting sentences from source articles.

In Section [4,](#page-3-0) we answer the four major research questions on the faithfulness evaluation of LLMs on plain biomedical summaries: (1) How faithful are generated summaries across current LLMs? (2) How abstractive and readable are plain biomedical summaries, and how do they correlate with faithfulness? (3) How do current automatic faithfulness evaluators align with human judgment? (4) Do LLMs consider their own generation more faithful than other LLMs in zero-shot evaluation?

We further evaluate capability of LLMs in providing correct reasoning for their judgment in Section [5.](#page-6-0) Specifically, we focus on the reasoning as extracting the supporting sentences and address three major research questions: (5) Can LLMs identify the supporting sentences from the source article when they are instructed to evaluate the faithfulness of generate summaries? (6) How does the abstractiveness of the summary impact the identification of supporting sentences? (7) Do LLMs perform better when identifying supporting sentences for their own generated summaries?

To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first publicly available benchmark dataset investigating faithfulness with the identification of supporting sentences for plain biomedical summaries. We find that generated summaries demonstrate a high degree of non-faithful hallucination and the level of abstractiveness shows a negative correlation with the faithfulness of plain summaries. Current faithfulness evaluators tailored for the general domain do not directly transfer well to the biomedical domain. We also observe a tendency where LLMs, as evaluators, favour their generation when evaluating faithfulness. However, the construction of the prompt could also impact such a tendency. Additionally, we identify the performance gap of LLMs in retrieving supporting sentences from source articles, either for high or low abstractiveness summaries. We hope our dataset would enable further studies on understanding the faithfulness evaluation of LLMs as well as its reasoning.

#### 2 Related Work

Faithfulness, where the generated summary is consistent with the source [\(Maynez et al.,](#page-12-1) [2020\)](#page-12-1), has been a known challenge in text generation [\(Ji et al.,](#page-11-5) [2023;](#page-11-5) [Huang et al.,](#page-11-8) [2023\)](#page-11-8). Current faithfulness research on LLMs mostly focuses on the general domain, with a particular interest in news articles [\(Pagnoni et al.,](#page-12-0) [2021;](#page-12-0) [Fabbri et al.,](#page-11-9) [2021;](#page-11-9) [Tang](#page-13-3) [et al.,](#page-13-3) [2023;](#page-13-3) [Cao and Wang,](#page-10-1) [2021\)](#page-10-1). Some studies evaluated faithfulness and factuality—factual consistency with the source and external knowledge, respectively—in the biomedical domain. For instance, [Ramprasad et al.](#page-13-2) [\(2024\)](#page-13-2) measured the factuality of zero-shot summaries from GPT-3.5 [\(Brown](#page-10-2) [et al.,](#page-10-2) [2020\)](#page-10-2) and Flan-T5-XL [\(Chung et al.,](#page-10-3) [2024\)](#page-10-3). FACTPICO [\(Joseph et al.,](#page-11-6) [2024\)](#page-11-6) was proposed to measure the factuality of GPT-4 [\(Achiam et al.,](#page-10-4) [2023\)](#page-10-4), Llama-2-Chat [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-13-4) [2023\)](#page-13-4), and Alpaca [\(Taori et al.,](#page-13-5) [2023\)](#page-13-5) under the PICO framework [\(Lehman et al.,](#page-12-2) [2019\)](#page-12-2). [Guo et al.](#page-11-10) [\(2023\)](#page-11-10) proposed an evaluation framework for plain language summarisation and measured the faithfulness of GPT-based text simplification on biomedical abstracts.

Current research has proposed various metrics based on different frameworks to evaluate the faithfulness of generated text for the general domain: (1) QA-based metrics [\(Scialom et al.,](#page-13-1) [2021;](#page-13-1) [Fab](#page-10-5)[bri et al.,](#page-10-5) [2022;](#page-10-5) [Durmus et al.,](#page-10-6) [2020\)](#page-10-6), utilising QA systems to measure the correctness of answering the questions based on the source and summaries, as a proxy of faithfulness; (2) NLI-based metrics [\(Laban et al.,](#page-11-7) [2022;](#page-11-7) [Falke et al.,](#page-11-11) [2019\)](#page-11-11), measuring the entailment of the summary (hypothesis) from the source (premise) by employing models that are trained on NLI datasets [\(Kryscinski et al.,](#page-11-12) [2020;](#page-11-12) [Nie et al.,](#page-12-3) [2020\)](#page-12-3); (3) Learning-based faithfulness evaluation [\(Zha et al.,](#page-14-0) [2023;](#page-14-0) [Zhou et al.,](#page-14-1) [2021\)](#page-14-1), training evaluators to directly predict faithfulness; and (4) LLM-based metrics [\(Min et al.,](#page-12-4) [2023;](#page-12-4) [Sottana et al.,](#page-13-6) [2023;](#page-13-6) [Chiang and Lee,](#page-10-0) [2023b\)](#page-10-0), prompting LLMs as faithfulness evaluators.

Apart from solely evaluating the binary faithfulness label of the generated summary, a natural extension is to provide the reasoning for the judgment, e.g., supporting sentences from the source. For faithfulness reasoning, the FEVER dataset [\(Thorne et al.,](#page-13-7) [2018\)](#page-13-7) annotated the factuality of claims based on Wikipedia articles and provided extracted facts from corresponding sources. [Wad](#page-14-2)[den et al.](#page-14-2) [\(2020\)](#page-14-2) created SciFact, a dataset of 1.4K expert-written scientific claims paired with the abstracts from S2ORC [\(Lo et al.,](#page-12-5) [2020\)](#page-12-5), annotating with labels and rationales. Similarly, FACTPICO [\(Joseph et al.,](#page-11-6) [2024\)](#page-11-6) contains expert-written rationales for factuality annotations. [Ghosal et al.](#page-11-13) [\(2024\)](#page-11-13) proposed a shared task in identifying all grounding context from the scholarly paper discussing methodological details in the claim.[2](#page-2-1)

## <span id="page-2-0"></span>3 Dataset Creation

## <span id="page-2-7"></span>3.1 Model Selection

To investigate how faithful current LLMs are in generating plain biomedical summaries, we evaluate the following representative summarisation systems across various settings: (1) open-source vs., closed-source and (2) pretrained vs., finetuned.

GPT-4 [\(Achiam et al.,](#page-10-4) [2023\)](#page-10-4), a large closedsource model developed by Open AI. The GPT family is adopted in various NLP tasks including summarisation [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-14-3) [2023;](#page-14-3) [Adams et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023a;](#page-10-7) [Shaib et al.,](#page-13-8) [2023\)](#page-13-8). We use gpt-4-turbo to generate plain biomedical summaries.

Claude-3 [\(Anthropic,](#page-10-8) [2024\)](#page-10-8), a closed-source model developed by Anthropic. It has been seen to outperform the GPT family in certain tasks, e.g., open-domain conversations [\(Lin and Chen,](#page-12-6) [2023\)](#page-12-6) and reading comprehension tests [\(Kuo et al.,](#page-11-14) [2024\)](#page-11-14). We use claude-3-sonnet in our experiments.

Gemini-1.5 [\(Reid et al.,](#page-13-9) [2024\)](#page-13-9), a closed-source model developed by Google DeepMind. It claims a strong capability of understanding complex medical context [\(Saab et al.,](#page-13-10) [2024\)](#page-13-10). We include Gemini-1.5-Flash as a closed-source model.

Llama-3 [\(Meta,](#page-12-7) [2024\)](#page-12-7), an open-source model released by Meta. Compared to the previous models, one major difference is that this model is open-sourced and available for both research and commercialization purposes. We consider the newly-released version, Llama-3-8B-Instruction, for our experiment.

Flan-T5 [\(Chung et al.,](#page-10-3) [2024;](#page-10-3) [Longpre et al.,](#page-12-8) [2023\)](#page-12-8), one other popular open-source model released by Google. It is an enhanced version of T5 models [\(Raffel et al.,](#page-13-11) [2020\)](#page-13-11) and has been used for various summarisation tasks [\(Sim et al.,](#page-13-0) [2023;](#page-13-0) [Alqahtani et al.,](#page-10-9) [2023\)](#page-10-9). we investigate Flan-T5- XL for our plain biomedical summarisation task.

Finetuned-Llama-3 To investigate the impact of customising the plain summary for a specific type, we further finetune Llama-3-8B-Instruction on the PLOS dataset [\(Goldsack](#page-11-0) [et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022\)](#page-11-0), a corpus for generating layman summaries based on science and medicinal peerreviewed journals.[3](#page-2-2)

Finetuned-Flan-T5 Similarly, we finetune Flan-T5-XL on the PLOS dataset and investigate the faithfulness of the generated summaries from this finetuned model.

For the selected models, we use them to generate the plain summary based on the source article, detailed in Section [3.2.](#page-2-3) Specifically, we follow the previous work [\(Goldsack et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022;](#page-11-0) [Carde](#page-10-10)[nas et al.,](#page-10-10) [2023\)](#page-10-10) on generating plain summaries for scientific literature, considering the title, authors, abstract, and the first section of the content as the input. $4$ 

## <span id="page-2-3"></span>3.2 Annotation Data

To generate plain biomedical summaries, we obtained English articles from S2ORC [\(Lo et al.,](#page-12-5) [2020\)](#page-12-5),<sup>[5](#page-2-5)</sup> an open-source scholarly dataset based on Semantic Scholar containing more than 205M publications across various resources. We randomly selected 25 articles<sup>[6](#page-2-6)</sup> that  $(1)$  were published in PubMed; (2) were published no later than 2010, ensuring more recent PubMed articles are included; and (3) contained metadata of title, authors, abstract, and full content. For each selected article, as shown in Figure [1,](#page-0-1) we then generate 7 different plain summaries using various types of LLMs (Section [3.1\)](#page-2-7), resulting in 175 summaries.

To provide a more fine-grained level of faithfulness analysis, we segment the generated summaries into sentences and ask annotators to annotate the faithfulness of generated summaries at the sentence level (Section [3.3\)](#page-3-1). Note that due to the imperfection of the off-the-shelf segmentation tool, $7$  segmented text could result in only a partial segment

<span id="page-2-1"></span><sup>2</sup> <https://github.com/oasisresearchlab/context24>

<span id="page-2-2"></span><sup>3</sup>Details of finetuning Llama-3-8B-Instruction and Flan-T5-XL on the PLOS dataset are in Appendix [A.](#page-14-4) The choice of PLOS over the eLife dataset is provided in Appendix [B.](#page-14-5)

<span id="page-2-4"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Detailed prompt constructions are in Appendix [C.](#page-14-6)

<span id="page-2-6"></span><span id="page-2-5"></span><sup>5</sup> <https://api.semanticscholar.org/api-docs/graph>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>The MeSH classifications of the selected articles are provided in Appendix [K.](#page-16-0)

<span id="page-2-8"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>We used Spacy sentencizer with "en\_core\_web\_sm". <https://spacy.io/api/sentencizer>

<span id="page-3-2"></span>

	<b>Number</b>
Source Articles	25
Avg. Sentences per Source Article	26.08
<b>Generated Summaries</b>	175
<b>Total Sentences in Generated Summaries</b>	1445
Avg. Sentences per Generated Summary	
$GPT-4$	8.92
Claude-3	8.32
Gemini-1.5	11.88
Llama-3	7.64
Flan-T5	5.80
Finetuned-Llama-3	7.24
Finetuned-Flan-T5	8.00

Table 1: Statistics of our annotated dataset.

of a sentence. To address this, we filter out the segmented sentences that are less than 5 characters, resulting in 1445 sentences. The statistics of our dataset are shown in Table [1.](#page-3-2)

#### <span id="page-3-1"></span>3.3 Annotation Collection

As discussed in Section [3.2,](#page-2-3) we annotate the faithfulness at the sentence level. Aligned with the summary generation in Section [3.1,](#page-2-7) we provide annotators with the article title, author, abstract, and the first section of the content. The annotation process includes four parts: (1) annotate whether the summary sentence is faithful given the source article; (2) provide a brief rationale of the annotation choice; (3) if it is faithful, highlight the supporting evidence from the source article; and (4) if it is not faithful, highlight the part that is not consistent in the summary sentence.<sup>[8](#page-3-3)</sup>

Additionally, in line with the previous literature [\(Maynez et al.,](#page-12-1) [2020;](#page-12-1) [Ramprasad et al.,](#page-13-2) [2024\)](#page-13-2), we also ask annotators to flag the sentences that are factually hallucinated. That is, the generated sentence is supported by external knowledge but not by the source article. This helps better understand to what extent external knowledge is utilised to generate plain summaries as the task requires plain explanations of technical terms.

We recruit two medical doctors via Upwork.<sup>[9](#page-3-4)</sup> Specifically, before the annotators started the annotation separately, we started with the annotation training by giving the two annotators 6 summaries (34 sentences) generated from different LLMs based on different source articles. We calculate the inter-annotator agreement (IAA) at the sentence level, i.e., binary faithfulness labels, and

at the summary level, considering the summary as faithful if all sentences are annotated as faithful. We achieve a percentage agreement of 0.94 and 0.83 and Cohen's Kappa [\(McHugh,](#page-12-9) [2012\)](#page-12-9) of 0.48 and 0.57 at the sentence and summary level, respectively. Similar to the observations from previous work [\(Ramprasad et al.,](#page-13-2) [2024;](#page-13-2) [Joseph et al.,](#page-11-6) [2024\)](#page-11-6), faithfulness annotation is imbalanced, e.g., on average 2 out of 34 sentences in those 6 summaries are hallucinated, resulting in an expected higher percentage agreement and lower Cohen's kappa score.

We further calculate the IAA on annotated supporting sentences based on the subset that both annotators consider the generated sentence to be faithful. Specifically, we consider the agreement where both annotators highlight the same supporting sentences, resulting in Cohen's Kappa of 0.49 and Precision, Recall, and F1 of 0.47, 0.56, and 0.51, respectively. Despite the challenge of understanding and finding supporting sentences in biomedical literature [\(Van Auken et al.,](#page-14-7) [2014\)](#page-14-7), one possible reason for such agreement is that we did not ask annotators to highlight all related supporting sentences. Multiple sentences from the source article could solely support the summary sentence. Annotators might overlook other supporting sen-tences once they find one.<sup>[10](#page-3-5)</sup>

## <span id="page-3-0"></span>4 Faithfulness Evaluation and Analysis on Plain Biomedical Summaries

RQ1. How faithful are generated summaries across different LLMs? Figure [2](#page-4-0) shows the nonfaithful hallucination across selected LLMs. As we use summarisers to generate plain summaries, external domain knowledge might be required to explain technical concepts in simple terms. We label the information where it is correct but cannot be attributed to the source article as factual hallucination [\(Cao et al.,](#page-10-11) [2022;](#page-10-11) [Li et al.,](#page-12-10) [2024\)](#page-12-10). Specifically, we break down the non-faithful hallucination into two categories: (1) non-factual and (2) factual hallucinations.

Overall, across different LLMs, we observe the non-faithful hallucination rate (blue and forwardslashed bars  $+$  red and backward-slashed bars) ranging from 3% to 17% and from 16% to 72% at the sentence and summary level, respectively, indicating the performance variances of LLMs in

<span id="page-3-3"></span><sup>8</sup>Annotation details are provided in Appendix [G.](#page-15-0)

<span id="page-3-4"></span><sup>9</sup> <https://www.upwork.com/>

<span id="page-3-5"></span> $10$ More detailed analysis of the annotation of supporting sentences are provided in Appendix [I.](#page-16-1)

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

Figure 2: Non-faithful hallucination across models at sentence and summary levels. We break down the non-faithful hallucination into Non-Factual (blue and forward-slashed bars) and Factual (red and backwardslashed bars) hallucinations. The overlap of non-factual and factual at the summary level indicates the percentage of summaries that have both non-factual and factual hallucinated sentences.

generating faithful plain biomedical summaries.

Comparing the non-factual and factual hallucinations (blue and forward-slashed bars vs., red and backward-slashed bars), most LLMs show a high rate of non-faithful but factual hallucination at both sentence and summary levels. Flan-T5 and its finetuned version, on the contrary, show a low factual hallucination rate. One possible reason is due to the different levels of abstractiveness in generated summaries. That is, the generated summary is inherently more factual if only extracting sentences from the source article instead of providing plain summaries [\(Ladhak et al.,](#page-12-11) [2022\)](#page-12-11). We further investigate this in the following research question.

For non-faithful and non-factual hallucinations (blue and forward-slashed bars), i.e., the generated text is neither faithful nor factual, we observe a small hallucination rate across all models at the sentence level, with less than 5% of sentences that are hallucinated. However, we observe a higher rate at the summary level, with at least 8% of summaries containing hallucination (i.e., at least 2 out of 25 summaries), indicating the performance gap in generating faithful and factual plain biomedical summaries.

RQ2. How abstractive and readable are the plain biomedical summaries, and how do they relate to faithfulness? As discussed in Section [1,](#page-0-2) plain summaries from biomedical articles might incorporate external knowledge, e.g., explaining jargon, to make it more readable for general audiences [\(Goldsack et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022\)](#page-11-0). This could affect the summary's abstractiveness and potentially introduce more hallucinations. To measure the abstractiveness of the summary, we com-

<span id="page-4-1"></span>

Figure 3: Abstractiveness and readability on generated plain biomedical summaries across different LLMs.

pare the *n*-gram novelty [\(See et al.,](#page-13-12) [2017;](#page-13-12) [Sharma](#page-13-13) [et al.,](#page-13-13) [2019\)](#page-13-13) between the summary and corresponding source article, i.e., the percentage of nonoverlapping *n*-grams.

As shown in Figure [3a,](#page-4-1) summaries from closedsource models, i.e., GPT-4, Claude-3, and Gemeini-1.5, and the open-source model Llama-3 demonstrate high abstractiveness. Interestingly, although plain summaries from the PLOS dataset have shown to be abstractive [\(Goldsack et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022\)](#page-11-0), models finetuned on this dataset, i.e., Finetuned-Llama-3 and Finetuned-Flan-T5, show a decrease in abstractiveness, compared to the off-the-shelf models.

We further calculate the Spearman *r* correlation between *n*-grams novelty and the ratio of nonfaithful hallucination in summary, i.e., the percentage of non-faithful sentences in summary. We separate the correlation based on two groups: (1) non-factual and  $(2)$  factual hallucinations.<sup>[11](#page-4-2)</sup> We observe Spearman *r* correlations ranging from 0.2 to  $0.24$  ( $p<0.05$ ) between abstractiveness and nonfactual hallucination, indicating that the level of abstractiveness could be one of the factors impacting non-factual hallucination. Also, weak to moderate correlations with factual hallucination, ranging from 0.37 to 0.43 ( $p<0.05$ ), echo our hypothesis where the generation of plain summaries could introduce external knowledge, i.e., the level of abstractiveness as a proxy, and in turn will impact the faithfulness of summaries.

To evaluate the readability of the summary, we use the standard metrics: Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (FKGL; [Kincaid et al.](#page-11-15) [\(1975\)](#page-11-15)), Coleman-Liau Index (CLI; [Coleman and Liau](#page-10-12) [\(1975\)](#page-10-12)), Dale-Chall Readability Score (DCRS; [Dale and Chall](#page-10-13) [\(1948\)](#page-10-13)). These metrics measure the approximate (US) grade level of education required to read a

<span id="page-4-2"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>Detailed correlations between abstractiveness and readability with faithfulness are shown in Appendix [E.](#page-15-1)

<span id="page-5-1"></span>

Table 2: Performance of automatic faithfulness evaluators at the sentence level. We report the annotation correlation between human experts and automatic evaluators. "P. Agreement (%)" represents the percentage agreement. "Pred. Non-faithful (%)" represents the percentage of non-faithful instances predicted by automatic evaluators.

given text, by employing experimental formulas on the number of characters, words, and sentences.

As shown in Figure [3b,](#page-4-1) We observe that Gemini-1.5 and Llama-3 show a lower readability score, that is, generate more readable summaries across the three metrics. We investigate the correlation between abstractiveness and readability and observe a Spearman  $r$  correlation of at least  $-0.31$  ( $p<0.05$ ) (Appendix [E\)](#page-15-1) among the score of *n*-gram novelty and readability, indicating a negative correlation in these two dimensions. We also observe a negative correlation between readability and faithfulness, where the factual hallucination ratio has a higher negative correlation, with minimum -0.21 (p<0.05) correlation scores. This again indicates that generating more readable plain summaries in the biomedical domain could introduce more factual hallucinations.

RQ3. To what extent do current automatic faithfulness evaluators align with human judgment in plain biomedical summarisation? We compare the human annotations with different types of automatic faithfulness evaluators. We consider two QA-based faithfulness metrics, Questeval [\(Scialom](#page-13-1) [et al.,](#page-13-1) [2021\)](#page-13-1) and QAFactEval [\(Fabbri et al.,](#page-10-5) [2022\)](#page-10-5) which utilise T5-based models to generate questions and answers based on summaries and source articles. We also compare with Summac [\(Laban](#page-11-7) [et al.,](#page-11-7) [2022\)](#page-11-7), an entailment-based metric trained on the NLI dataset (FactCC; [Kryscinski et al.](#page-11-12) [\(2020\)](#page-11-12)), and AlignScore [\(Zha et al.,](#page-14-0) [2023\)](#page-14-0), an alignment metric measuring the information alignment between two arbitrary text pieces.

Furthermore, following past studies [\(Wang et al.,](#page-14-8) [2023;](#page-14-8) [Chiang and Lee,](#page-10-14) [2023a;](#page-10-14) [Liu et al.,](#page-12-12) [2023\)](#page-12-12), we investigate the capability of LLMs as zero-shot faithfulness evaluators in the biomedical text. Prior work [\(Chiang and Lee,](#page-10-0) [2023b\)](#page-10-0) has also shown that prompting LLMs for additional reasoning can boost the faithfulness evaluation. To study this, we construct two types of prompts: (1) *only label*, prompting LLMs to provide only faithfulness labels; and (2) *label* & *sentences*, prompting LLMs to provide faithfulness labels and supporting sen-tences from the source (Section [5\)](#page-6-0).<sup>[12](#page-5-0)</sup> We exclude using Flan-T5 as an evaluator because it cannot produce meaningful results from our prompt.

In Table [2,](#page-5-1) we measure the faithfulness evaluation agreement between automatic evaluation metrics and human judgment at the sentence level, considering non-faithful hallucination from factual and non-factual hallucinations (Figure [2\)](#page-4-0).

We observe a performance gap in improving faithfulness evaluation agreements with human annotation across all automatic metrics. Specifically, current metrics trained on the general domain (i.e., Questeval, QAFactEval, Summac, and AlignScore), do not achieve strong agreement with human annotations, indicating the difficulty of directly transferring those metrics to the biomedical domain. One possible reason is the lack of domain knowledge. For instance, QA-based metrics rely on the extracted named entities to generate ques-

<span id="page-5-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup>Prompt constructions are provided in Appendix [D.](#page-15-2)

<span id="page-6-1"></span>

Figure 4: Heatmaps of predicted faithfulness percentage across selected LLM. "only label" and "label&sentences" represent the prompt setting where only responding with the label and with additional supporting sentences, respectively.

tions and answers, where the extraction framework mostly focuses on general named entities (e.g., person and location), instead of domain-specific categories (e.g., disease and species) [\(Lee et al.,](#page-12-13) [2020\)](#page-12-13). LLM-based evaluators achieve better results compared to traditional metrics. Interestingly, prompting LLMs to additionally provide supporting sentences improves the performance of Gemini-1.5 and Llama-3, but it does not show further improvement for GPT-4 and Claude-3.

We further investigate the capability of evaluators in identifying all non-faithfulness sentences annotated by the annotators [\(Adams et al.,](#page-10-15) [2023b\)](#page-10-15), i.e., Recall. Although QAFactEval, Questeval, and Summac achieved high recall (Table [2,](#page-5-1) Column 4), they predicted more than 60% of sentences as nonfaithful, making it impractical considering overall only 11% of sentences are labeled as non-faithful. Among other metrics, we observe a low recall in identifying non-faithful sentences, indicating the gap in this direction.

We also aggregate annotations at the sentence level to the summary level and evaluate the Pearson and Spearman *r* correlations (Appendix [F\)](#page-15-3). We observe a similar performance gap in the alignment between current automatic faithfulness evaluators and human judgment.

RQ4. Do LLMs consider their generation more faithful than other LLMs in zero-shot evaluation? Inspired by previous work [\(Tam et al.,](#page-13-14) [2023;](#page-13-14) [Panickssery et al.,](#page-12-14) [2024\)](#page-12-14), which shows LLMs tend to be over-confident in evaluating their own generated text in the general domain, we investigate where this holds in our faithfulness evaluation of plain biomedical summaries. Specifically, we consider a subset of the annotations, only focusing on

<span id="page-6-2"></span>

	<b>Number</b>
<b>Instances</b>	1,305
<b>Support Sentences</b> Avg. Support Sentences per Instance	1,713 1.31
Avg. Support Sentences per Summary	2.10
$GPT-4$ Claude-3 Gemini-1.5 Llama-3	2.34 2.24 1.87 1.94

Table 3: Statistics of the experiment dataset on supporting sentence identification.

the summaries from GPT-4, Claude-3, Gemini-1.5, and Llama-3.

Figure [4](#page-6-1) shows the heatmap of predicted faithfulness percentage across selected LLMs. We find that although LLMs rate most of their generations as faithful, there is no strong evidence showing they tend to favour their generation over those generated by other models. In addition, we find that the different construction of prompts would also impact the model tendency regarding their faithfulness evaluation. For example, when evaluating summaries generated by Gemini-1.5 and Llama-3, using the prompts of returning *label&sentences* tends to rate higher than returning *only label*.

## <span id="page-6-0"></span>5 Supporting Sentence Identification

In Section [4,](#page-3-0) we investigate the capability of LLMs in predicting faithful sentences. One following question is whether the models have correct reasoning to support their judgment. In our annotation, we ask the annotators to highlight the supporting evidence from the source article. This enables us to understand if the LLMs can identify the evidence from scientific literature. Specifically, we consider a subset of our dataset where sentences are labeled as faithful and supporting evidence is provided. The statistic of this subset is shown in Table [3.](#page-6-2)

For the baseline, we consider Okapi BM25 [\(Robertson et al.,](#page-13-15) [1995;](#page-13-15) [Trotman et al.,](#page-13-16) [2014\)](#page-13-16), a ranking model based on the term and document frequency. We select the most relevant sentence from the document as the supporting evidence.<sup>[13](#page-6-3)</sup>

It is worth mentioning that, as discussed in Section [3.3,](#page-3-1) annotators might overlook the supporting evidence. Although we provide Precision, Recall, and F1 on extracted sentence matching, we focus

<span id="page-6-3"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>Additional experiment on Okapi BM25 Top  $k$ , where  $k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ , is provided in Appendix [J.](#page-16-2)

on Recall, i.e., the coverage of the annotated sentence, for our analysis, to understand if models can retrieve comprehensive evidence from the source.

RQ5. Can LLMs identify the supporting sentences from the source article? Table [4](#page-7-0) (Overall) shows the results of LLMs in identifying supporting sentences.[14](#page-7-1) We observe that Okapi BM25 achieves strong performance, i.e., the highest Precision and F1. The low recall might be due to the selection of only one relevant sentence. Across LLMs, GPT-4 achieves the best performance in Recall, i.e., 0.76, indicating the capability of LLMs in identifying supporting evidence from source articles. Additionally, we observe that models have higher Recall compared to Precision. This might be due to the incomprehensive annotation of the supporting evidence from annotators (Section [3.3\)](#page-3-1).

We further perform an error analysis on the extracted supporting evidence from LLMs. We randomly sample 50 summaries from our dataset. As shown in Table [5,](#page-8-0) we found that errors mostly exist in (1) Annotator Overlooks, (2) Usage of Abbreviation, (3) Copy from Summary Sentence, and (4) Irrelevant Sentences. These errors could contribute to the low precision in the supporting evidence extraction from LLMs.

RQ6. Does abstractiveness impact the identification of supporting evidence? As shown in Figure [3a,](#page-4-1) summaries from different LLMs demonstrate different levels of abstractiveness. High abstractive sentences might require a deeper understanding of the text in order to identify the supporting sentences. To study the impact, we further separate the generated summaries into two groups: (1) High abstractiveness, i.e., GPT-4, Claude-3, Gemini-1.5, and Llama-3; and (2) Low abstractiveness, i.e., Flan-T5, Finetuned-LLama-3, and Finetuned-Flan-T5.

Table [4](#page-7-0) shows the performance on different levels of abstractiveness. Compared to low abstractiveness, we observe a consistent performance drop in the high abstractiveness subset across all models, indicating the impact of abstractiveness and the difficulty in identifying supporting evidence from high abstractive summaries. Okapi BM25 achieves the best performance in low abstractiveness summaries but it suffers when the abstractiveness of summaries increases. LLMs achieve high

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

	<b>Precision</b>	Recall	F1	
Overall				
Okapi BM25	0.73	0.56	0.63	
GPT-4	0.43	0.76	0.55	
Claude-3	0.41	0.70	0.51	
Gemini-1.5	0.48	0.69	0.57	
Llama-3	0.38	0.56	0.45	
	<b>High Abstractiveness</b>			
Okapi BM25	0.61	0.41	0.49	
GPT-4	0.41	0.72	0.52	
Claude-3	0.41	0.69	0.51	
Gemini-1.5	0.46	0.65	0.54	
Llama-3	0.37	0.51	0.43	
Low Abstractiveness				
Okapi BM25	0.94	0.90	0.92	
GPT-4	0.47	0.85	0.60	
Claude-3	0.41	0.72	0.52	
Gemini-1.5	0.53	0.76	0.63	
Llama-3	0.40	0.69	0.50	

Table 4: Performance on supporting sentence identification across different models. Overall is separated into two subsets of high and low abstractiveness.

recall in identifying supporting sentences, with either high or low abstractiveness. Specifically, GPT-4 achieves a Recall of 0.72 and 0.85 in the high and low abstractiveness, respectively, indicating its potential in identifying supporting evidence.

RQ7. Do LLMs perform better when extracting evidence for their generated summaries? That is, assuming LLMs generate summaries based on their reasoning, would LLMs be able to retrieve evidence for their generation, as they might follow a similar reasoning process?

We plot the heatmap of LLMs' retrieval performance across different subsets of summaries generated by different LLMs in Figure [5.](#page-8-1) Overall, Gemini-1.5 archives higher precision across all summary subsets (Figure [5a,](#page-8-1) Third Column). GPT-4 consistently achieves the highest recall among the generated summaries (Figure [5b,](#page-8-1) First Column). Among the generated text, LLMs achieve higher precision based on the summaries from GPT-4 (Figure [5a,](#page-8-1) First Row) and higher recall from Claude-3 (Figure [5b,](#page-8-1) Second Row). However, we do not observe that the model outperforms the others when identifying the supporting evidence from its generation, i.e., LLMs do not necessarily outperform other models when reasoning its generation over others. The retrieval performance might be affected by other factors, e.g., abstractiveness.

<span id="page-7-1"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>The post-processing of the identified sentences from LLMs are shown in Appendix [H.](#page-16-3)

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

Table 5: Error examples of extracted supporting sentences from LLMs. Expert annotations are highlighted (blue) in the source article. Note that the illustrated example does not contain all four types of errors for supporting sentence extraction. For illustration purposes, we adapt the errors from other predictions.

<span id="page-8-1"></span>



## 6 Conclusions

We create a benchmark dataset, FAREBIO, with expert-annotated faithfulness evaluation and reasoning for plain biomedical summaries, consisting of 175 summaries and 1445 sentences from 7 different LLMs. We use this dataset to evaluate the faithfulness of prevalent LLMs and measure the transferability of current faithfulness metrics to the biomedical domain. We observe a positive correlation between abstractiveness and nonfaithful hallucination and find that the construction of prompts could also affect faithfulness prediction preferences. We further benchmark the capability of LLMs in retrieving supporting sentences for the plain summaries at different levels of abstractiveness.

By going beyond the binary faithfulness labels, equipped with annotations of faithfulness and reasoning, our dataset could further deepen the study

of faithfulness in better understanding the reasoning behind LLMs for their faithfulness judgment. We expect our research would enable further studies on understanding the faithfulness evaluation of LLMs in its reasoning.

## 7 Limitations

Our dataset provides the faithfulness annotation at the sentence level, with 1445 sentences from 175 generated summaries (25 documents  $\times$  7 different LLMs). Having a larger size of annotation would further enhance our analysis. However, one of the main challenges in benchmarking the faithfulness of plain biomedical summaries is the cost involved in hiring highly skilled domain experts. For our annotation, we hire two medical doctors at \$50 USD/hr. Although we facilitated the annotation by grouping summaries that are generated based on the same source article, minimising the time in understanding the source article, the total annotation of 1445 sentences still required approximately 110 human hours, i.e., \$5,500 USD, making the scalability of annotations challenging.

Another challenge of the faithfulness annotation in the biomedical domain is to understand the generated hallucination. Our IAA of faithfulness evaluation aligns with the previous work [\(Ramprasad](#page-13-2) [et al.,](#page-13-2) [2024\)](#page-13-2). We also ask the annotators to highlight the inconsistent part from the summary and provide a brief rationale for their judgement. These could be used for further categorising and analysing the errors of LLMs in generating plain biomedical

summaries. Combining the analysis on faithful and non-faithful sentences could further provide a complementary understanding of summary generation in the biomedical domain.

We follow the previous work [\(Goldsack et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022;](#page-11-0) [Cardenas et al.,](#page-10-10) [2023\)](#page-10-10), considering the title, authors, abstract, and the first section of the literature as the input to generate plain summaries for scientific literature. To cover comprehensive information from the literature and improve the generalization ability of the faithfulness study, utilising the full article as the input would be an important direction to explore.

For our supporting sentence identification task, we used exact matching for sentence evaluation. As discussed in Section [3.3,](#page-3-1) this can not capture semantically similar sentences, e.g., paraphrased sentences or omitted sentences due to the overlook from annotators. Other evaluation metrics, e.g., ROUGE [\(Lin,](#page-12-15) [2004\)](#page-12-15) and BERTScore [\(Zhang\\*](#page-14-9) [et al.,](#page-14-9) [2020\)](#page-14-9), would be worth investigating in complementing the evaluation on supporting sentence identification. Additionally, IR-based metrics [\(Manning,](#page-12-16) [2008\)](#page-12-16) such as precision at *k* or mean average precision can be employed to further understand the reasoning capability of LLMs.

Our work aims to benchmark the faithfulness analysis of current LLMs, investigate the faithfulness alignment of off-the-shelf evaluators with human judgment, and the capability of LLMs in identifying supporting evidence. We select a subset of the representative LLMs. We do not cover all available LLMs across different variances (e.g., GPT-3.5, Llama-2-70B, and Llama-3-70B), nor it is possible to do so. Further analysis can be enhanced by including other types and variances of LLMs.

Additionally, our work proposes a benchmark faithfulness dataset in the biomedical domain and our models serve as baselines for investigating the capability of LLMs. Throughout our experiment, we follow the general prompt from prior studies. One promising direction for improving model performance in the generation of plain biomedical summaries and the utilization as a faithfulness evaluator and identifier of the supporting evidence is customising different prompts for different LLMs and employing more advanced prompt engineering methods, e.g., automatic prompt generation [\(Ha et al.,](#page-11-16) [2023;](#page-11-16) [Zhou et al.,](#page-14-10) [2023;](#page-14-10) [Li and Liang,](#page-12-17) [2021\)](#page-12-17) and Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompts [\(Ko](#page-11-17)[jima et al.,](#page-11-17) [2022;](#page-11-17) [Yu et al.,](#page-14-11) [2023\)](#page-14-11).

Based on our annotated dataset, we show the poor transformability of current faithfulness metrics to the biomedical domain. Developing a reliable faithfulness evaluator is critical in generating faithful summaries for the biomedical domain. Approaches of how to transfer general faithfulness evaluators to biomedical domains, such as finetuning the off-the-shelf evaluators on our annotations, would be worth exploring.

There are also other approaches to improve the performance of LLMs as evaluators. For instance, FactScore [\(Min et al.,](#page-12-4) [2023\)](#page-12-4) extracts atomic facts from the text from LLMs and compares the consistency of the extracted facts; [Lattimer et al.](#page-12-18) [\(2023\)](#page-12-18) directly use the prediction probability "yes" and "no" from open-source models, i.e., T5, to infer the faithfulness. How to use LLMs as faithfulness evaluators in the biomedical domain would be a promising direction.

#### 8 Ethical Discussion

Our study was reviewed and approved by the Health and Medical Human Research Ethics Committee at CSIRO, under the category of low risk (2024\_029\_LR).

For our annotation, we hired two native Englishspeaking annotators via Upwork and we recruited the annotators based on their expertise. We did not record any personal information of the annotators. We paid the annotator at an hourly rate of \$50 USD, which far exceeds the local minimum pay rate in their residence.

For copyright, we obtained the PubMed article from S2ORC [\(Lo et al.,](#page-12-5) [2020\)](#page-12-5), which is under the licence ODC-By  $1.0^{15}$  $1.0^{15}$  $1.0^{15}$  OpenAI provides Terms of Use<sup>[16](#page-9-1)</sup> for the usage of GPT-4. Anthropic provides the Consumer Terms of Service for Claude-3.[17](#page-9-2) Gemini-1.5 follows the Google Generative AI terms [18](#page-9-3) Llama-3 is under licence "META LLAMA 3 COMMUNITY LICENSE AGREEMENT".[19](#page-9-4) Flan-T5 is under licence "Apache License 2.0".[20](#page-9-5)

For the choice of LLMs, we surveyed the current available LLMs and selected the representative and prevalent LLMs from different categories for our study. We aim to explore the faithfulness and rea-

<span id="page-9-0"></span><sup>15</sup><https://opendatacommons.org/licenses/by/1-0/>

<span id="page-9-1"></span><sup>16</sup><https://openai.com/policies/terms-of-use/>

<span id="page-9-3"></span><span id="page-9-2"></span><sup>17</sup><https://www.anthropic.com/legal/consumer-terms>

<sup>18</sup>[https://policies.google.com/terms/generative-ai/use](https://policies.google.com/terms/generative-ai/use-policy)[policy](https://policies.google.com/terms/generative-ai/use-policy)

<span id="page-9-4"></span><sup>19</sup><https://llama.meta.com/llama3/license/>

<span id="page-9-5"></span><sup>20</sup><https://choosealicense.com/licenses/apache-2.0/>

soning of current LLMs and we make no attempt to target any particular LLMs.

We randomly select the PubMed articles from the publicly available scholarly dataset. Our dataset, along with the generated content, should be only for research purposes and not commercial usage. Additionally, The PubMed articles might contain authors' information and associated affiliations. We discourage the use of this information to target individuals.

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#### <span id="page-14-4"></span>A Finetuing on the PLOS Dataset

We follow the instructions on Appendix [C](#page-14-6) to fintune Llama-3 and Flan-T5 on the PLOS training dataset [\(Goldsack et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022\)](#page-11-0).

For Llama-3, we follow the hyper-parameters from *llama-recipes*<sup>[21](#page-14-12)</sup> and finetune  $Llama-3-8B-$ Instruction on the PLOS training set for 10 epochs. The model is finetuned on 3 H100 GPUs for 5 hours. We select the checkpoint that has the best perplexity performance on the PLOS dev set.

For Flan-T5, we follow the approach in [Sim](#page-13-0) [et al.](#page-13-0) [\(2023\)](#page-13-0) to finetune the model. We finetune the Flan-T5-xl (3B) model on the PLOS training set for 5 epochs and use a beam search decoder during inference—a beam width of four—to generate up to 386 tokens.

Table [6](#page-15-4) shows the effectiveness of finetuned models on the PLOS test set.

## <span id="page-14-5"></span>B Comparison of the PLOS and eLife Datasets

[Goldsack et al.](#page-11-0) [\(2022\)](#page-11-0) collected plain summaries from two sources, i.e., PLOS and eLife. For our model finetuning (Appendix [A\)](#page-14-4), we consider PLOS over eLife due to the following reasons: (1) Dataset size. Compared to the eLife dataset with 4,828 documents, the PLOS dataset contains a larger training set of 27,525 documents; (2) Diversity of plain summaries. The plain summaries from eLife and PLOS were written by editors and authors, respectively. Being written by various authors might potentially lead to more diverse styles of plain summaries; (3) Domain. eLife has a specific focus on biomedical and life sciences, whereas PLOS includes other areas of science and medicine, covering a wider range of topics; and, (4) Abstractiveness. Although plain summaries from eLife are more abstractive compared to PLOS, summaries from PLOS are also considered to be abstractive, with nearly 80% novelty in 3-grams.

## <span id="page-14-6"></span>C Prompt Construction for Plain Summary Generation

We adopt a general prompt similar to prior work [\(Sottana et al.,](#page-13-6) [2023\)](#page-13-6) for generating plain biomedical summaries across different models. Specifically, we construct the prompt where the instruction is provided first and followed by the text. using the template as follows for all models:

<span id="page-14-12"></span><sup>21</sup>[https://github.com/meta-llama/llama](https://github.com/meta-llama/llama-recipes/tree/main/recipes/finetuning)[recipes/tree/main/recipes/finetuning](https://github.com/meta-llama/llama-recipes/tree/main/recipes/finetuning)

Model		R-1 R-2 R-L FKGL DCRS	
Finetuned-Llama-3 0.46 0.16 0.25 13.81 Finetuned-Flan-T5 $0.45$ 0.17 0.26		14.67	- 11.01 11.29

<span id="page-15-4"></span>Table 6: Effectiveness of finetuned models on the PLOS test set  $(R = average \text{ ROUGE } F1\text{-score})$ .



where *[Title]*, *[Authors]*, and *[Abstract]* represent the content of the title, authors, and abstract, respectively. *[First section Name]* and *[First section context]* denote the name of the first section of the source article (e.g., *Introduction*) and the corresponding content, respectively.

## <span id="page-15-2"></span>D Prompt Construction for Faithfulness Evaluation

To utilise LLMs as faithfulness evaluators, we adopt the evaluation prompt from prior work [\(Gekhman et al.,](#page-11-18) [2023\)](#page-11-18). Specifically, we use the following template for GPT-4, Claude-3, Gemini-1.5, and Llama-3:

*Source:*

*Title: [Title]*

*Authors: [Authors]*

*Abstract: [Abstract]*

*[First section Name]: [First section context]*

*Summary: [Summary sentence]*

*[Evaluation prompt]*

where *[Title]*, *[Authors]*, *[Abstract]*, *[First section Name]*, and *[First section context]* are denoted as in Appendix [C.](#page-14-6) *[Summary sentence]* represents the sentence from the generated summary. For cases where only prompting LLMs to return the faithfulness label, *[Evaluation prompt]* represent *Is the Summary supported by the Source? Answer using "Yes" or "No" only.*; For cases where prompting LLMs to return the faithfulness label and supporting sentences from the source, *[Evaluation prompt]* represent *Is the Summary supported by the Source? Answer using "Yes" or "No" and extract the supporting sentences from the Source.*.

<span id="page-15-5"></span>Table 7: The Spearman *r* correlation between abstractiveness (novel *n*-grams, i.e., " $n = k$ " where  $k \in$  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ ) and Readability (i.e., FKGL, CLI, and DCRS) with the ratio of hallucination (i.e., non-factual and factual hallucinations) in summary.

<span id="page-15-6"></span>

	FKGL.	CLI.	<b>DCRS</b>
$n=1$	$-0.44$ (p=0.0)	$-0.34$ (p=0.0)	$-0.54$ (p=0.0)
$n=2$	$-0.41$ (p=0.0)	$-0.33$ (p=0.0)	$-0.51$ (p=0.0)
$n=3$	$-0.40$ (p=0.0)	$-0.31$ (p=0.0)	$-0.49$ (p=0.0)

Table 8: Spearman *r* correlations between abstractiveness (novel *n*-grams, i.e, " $n = k$ " where  $k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ) and readability.

## <span id="page-15-1"></span>E Correlations between Abstractiveness and Readability with Faithfulness

The Spearman *r* correlations between *n*-gram novelty and readability scores with faithfulness in shown in Table [7.](#page-15-5)

Table [8](#page-15-6) shows the Spearman *r* correlations between *n*-gram novelty and readability.

## <span id="page-15-3"></span>F Performance of Faithfulness Evaluators at the Summary Level

Table [9](#page-16-4) shows the performance of faithfulness evaluators aligning with human judgments at the summary level.

## <span id="page-15-0"></span>G Annotation Guidelines

#### G.1 Annotators

We recruited two experienced medical doctors by advertising our task on the Upwork platform, a global platform connecting various experts for different tasks. Specifically, we hired the annotators

<span id="page-16-4"></span>

<b>Evaluator</b>	<b>Pearson</b>	Spearman
GPT-4 (only label)	0.41	0.33
GPT-4 (label&sentences)	0.46	0.30
Claude-3 (only label)	0.36	0.36
Claude-3 (label&sentences)	0.43	0.42
Gemini-1.5 (only label)	0.31	0.33
Gemini-1.5 (label&sentences)	0.40	0.34
Llama-3 (only label)	0.16	0.04
Llama-3 (label&sentences)	0.34	0.27
<b>OAFactEval</b>	0.32	0.36
OuestEval	0.13	0.22
<b>SummaCZS</b>	0.29	0.28
<b>SummaCConv</b>	0.36	0.39
AlignScore	0.54	0.37

Table 9: Effectiveness of faithfulness evaluators at the summary level. "Pearson" and "Spearman" represent Pearson correlation and Spearman *r* correlation with human judgments.

based on their profiles, where both had indicated that they are native English speakers and have many years of experience in writing medical articles. We only considered expertise as a factor and do not explicitly limit the recruitment to location or other factors. One annotator was based in the United States and the other was based in Germany. One was a board-certified physician and surgeon and the other was a medical doctor with a background in Epidemiology and Biostatistics.

We recorded the hours spent and managed the payment via the Upwork platform.

#### G.2 Annotation Interface

We use Label Studio as our annotation platform.<sup>[22](#page-16-5)</sup> We include screenshots of the annotation interface of our task in Figure [6,](#page-17-0) Figure [7,](#page-17-1) and Figure [8.](#page-21-0)

#### <span id="page-16-3"></span>H Post-processing of Extracted Sentences

We use the prompt from Appendix [D](#page-15-2) to evaluate the capability of LLMs in extracting supporting sentences. As shown in the examples in Table [11,](#page-18-0) based on our observation, we find that almost all supporting evidence is in parenthesis. We obtained the supporting evidence from the generated text by extracting the content in parentheses.

One thing worth mentioning is that the content might include ellipsis, i.e., "...", indicating that there is an omission in the generated text. We expanded such omission back to its original content by explicitly matching the beginning and the end of the given response.

<span id="page-16-6"></span>

Table 10: Supporting sentence identification using information retrieval and LLM-based methods.

## <span id="page-16-1"></span>I Analysis of Annotated Supporting Sentences

Table [12](#page-19-0) shows the examples of the annotation of supporting sentences where multiple sentences can solely support the summary sentence and annotators overlook the others.

## <span id="page-16-2"></span>J Additional Experiment on Support Sentence Identification

Table [10](#page-16-6) shows the additional experiment results on the support sentence identification task. We consider the maximum number of *k* to be 3 based on the statistic that the average support sentences per instance are 1.31 (Table [3\)](#page-6-2).

## <span id="page-16-0"></span>K MeSH Classifications of the Dataset

Table [13](#page-21-1) shows the MeSH classifications of the dataset from PubMed.

<span id="page-16-5"></span><sup>22</sup><https://labelstud.io/>

<span id="page-17-0"></span>



#### <span id="page-17-1"></span>Target of the summary:

This summary is for the non-expert audience. It is supposed to deliver the important information of the source document, using simple words and explaining technical jargon if any (e.g.,<br>of the source document, using simple words and explaining technical jargon if any (e.g.,<br>metaphors or analogies). Additionally, the s as it is for the general purpose.

#### **Annotation task:**



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Figure 7: An example of the faithful annotation.

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<span id="page-18-0"></span>

Table 11: Different types of responses for extracting supporting evidence.

<span id="page-19-0"></span>

Table 12: Examples of supporting sentences annotated by the two annotators. Different colours represent different annotations. Multiple sentences can solely support the summary sentence and the annotators annotated different supporting sentences.



<span id="page-21-0"></span>

Figure 8: An example of the hallucinated annotation.

<span id="page-21-1"></span>

Table 13: The corresponding MeSH terms for the selected 25 PubMed articles. "N/A" denotes that the MeSH terms are unavailable from PubMed.