CWIG3G2 – Complex Word Identification Task across Three Text Genres and Two User Groups

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Abstract
Complex word identification (CWI) is an important task in text accessibility. However, due to the scarcity of CWI datasets, previous studies have only addressed this problem on Wikipedia sentences and have solely taken into account the needs of non-native English speakers. We collect a new CWI dataset (CWIG3G2) covering three text genres (NEWS, WIKINews, and WIKIPEDIA) annotated by both native and non-native English speakers. Unlike previous datasets, we cover single words, as well as complex phrases, and present them for judgment in a paragraph context. We present the first study on cross-genre and cross-group CWI, showing measurable influences in native language and genre types.

1 Introduction
Complex word identification (CWI) is a sub-task of lexical simplification (LS), which identifies difficult words or phrases in a text. Lexically and semantically complex words and phrases can pose difficulties to text understanding for many people, e.g. non-native speakers (Petersen and Ostendorf, 2007; Aluísio et al., 2008), children (De Belder and Moens, 2010), and people with various cognitive or reading impairments (Feng et al., 2009; Rello et al., 2013; Saggion et al., 2015). It has been shown that people with dyslexia read faster and understand texts better when short and frequent words are used (Rello et al., 2013), whilst the non-native English speakers need to be familiar with about 95% of text vocabulary for basic text comprehension (Nation, 2001), and even 98% of text vocabulary for enjoying (un simplified) leisure texts (Hirsh and Nation, 1992).

Many published guidelines cover recommendations of how to write texts which are easy to understand for various target populations, e.g. (Mencap, 2002; PlainLanguage, 2011; Freyhoff et al., 1998). However, manual production of texts from scratch for each target population separately cannot keep up with the amount of information which should be accessible for everyone. Therefore, many systems for automatic lexical simplification (LS) of texts have been proposed. LS systems take as input a text of a certain level of difficulty and output a text in a simplified form without changing its meaning. Most LS systems have the functionality of replacing potentially complex words with synonyms or related words that are easier to understand and yet still fit into context. Some of these systems treat all content words in a text as potentially difficult words, e.g. (Horn et al., 2014; Glavaš and Štajner, 2015). Other systems try to detect complex words first and then perform the replacement with simpler words, e.g. (Paetzold and Specia, 2016b), which seems to significantly improve the results (Paetzold and Specia, 2015).

Most LS systems focus on simplifying news articles (Aluísio et al., 2008; Carroll et al., 1999; Saggion et al., 2015; Glavaš and Štajner, 2015). However, only small amounts of newswire texts are available that contain annotations for manual simplifications. Most LS systems rely on sentence alignments between English Wikipedia and English Simple Wikipedia (Coster and Kauchak, 2011). Thus, existing CWI datasets cover mostly the Wikipedia Genre (Shardlow, 2013; Horn et al., 2014; Paetzold and Specia, 2016a).

We collect a new CWI dataset (CWIG3G2) covering three genres: professionally written news articles, amateurishly written news articles (WikiNews), and Wikipedia articles. Then, we test whether or not the complex word (CW) annotations collected on one genre can be used for
predicting CWs on another genre and also explore if the native and non-native user groups share the same lexical-semantic simplification needs.

2 Related Work

Previous datasets relied on Simple Wikipedia and edit histories as a ‘gold standard’ annotation of CWs, despite the fact that the use of Simple Wikipedia as a ‘gold standard’ for text simplification has been disputed (Amancio and Specia, 2014; Xu et al., 2015). Currently, the largest CWI dataset is the SemEval-2016 (Task 11) dataset (Paetzold and Specia, 2016a). It consists of 9,200 sentences collected from previous datasets (Shardlow, 2013; Horn et al., 2014; Kauchak, 2013). For the creation of the SemEval-2016 CWI dataset, annotators were asked to annotate (only) one word within a given sentence as complex or not. In the training set (200 sentences), each target word was annotated by 20 people, whilst in the test set (9,000 sentences) each target word was annotated by a single annotator from a pool of 400 annotators. The goal of the shared task was to predict the complexity of a word for a non-native speaker based on the annotations of a larger group of non-native speakers. This introduced strong biases and inconsistencies in the test set, resulting in very low F-scores across all systems (Paetzold and Specia, 2016a; Wróbel, 2016).

The systems of the SemEval-2016 shared task were ranked based on their F-scores (the standard $F_1$-measure) and the newly introduced G-scores (the harmonic mean between accuracy and recall). When performing a Spearman correlation between F-score and G-scores considering all systems of the SemEval-2016 task, we obtain a reasonable correlation value of 0.69. However, considering the correlation between the 10 best G-scoring systems a negative correlation of -0.34 is achieved. A similar trend is obtained for the 10 best F-scoring systems resulting in a correlation score of -0.74. The best system with respect to the G-score (77.4%), but at the cost of F-score being as low as 24.60%, uses a combination of threshold-based, lexicon-based and machine learning approaches with minimalistic voting techniques (Paetzold and Specia, 2016a). The highest scoring system with respect to the F-score (35.30%), which obtained a G-score of 60.80%, uses threshold-based document frequencies on Simple Wikipedia (Wróbel, 2016). Focusing on the standard $F_1$-score as the main evaluation measure in our experiments, we replicate this system on a recent Simple Wikipedia dump, and consider it as our baseline system.

There are very few works on non-English CWI; the only dataset we are aware of, containing annotations for English, German and Spanish, is described in our previous paper (Yimam et al., 2017).

3 Collection of the New CWI Dataset

We collect complex word and phrase annotations (sequences of words, up to maximum 50 characters), using the Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) crowdsourcing platform, from native and non-native English speakers. We ask participants if they are native or non-native English speakers, and collect proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate, advanced) for non-native speakers.

Data Selection: CWIG3G2 comprises of texts from three different genres: professionally written news, WikiNews (news written by amateurs), and Wikipedia articles. For the News dataset, we used 100 news stories from the EMM News-Brief compiled by Glavaš and Štajner (2013) for their event-centered simplification task. For the WikiNews, we collected 42 articles from the Wikipedia news. To resemble the existing CW resources (Shardlow, 2013; Paetzold and Specia, 2016a; Kauchak, 2013), we collected 500 sentences from Wikipedia.

Annotation Procedure: Using MTurk, we create paragraph-level HIT (Human Intelligence Task). In order to control the annotation process, we do not allow users to select words like determiners, numbers and phrases of more than 50 characters in length. To encourage annotators to carefully read the text and to only highlight complex words, we offer a bonus that doubles the original reward if at least half of their selections match selections from other workers. To discourage arbitrarily larger annotations, we limit the maximum number of selections that annotators can highlight to 10. If an annotator cannot find any complex word, we ask them to provide a comment. The collection is being conducted until we find at least 10 native and 10 non-native annotators per HIT. Figure 1 shows the instruction given to the workers with example sentences where possible complex phrases are highlighted in yellow.

Differences to Previous CWI Datasets: Our annotation procedure differs from others in several ways. First, we did not limit our task on collecting
complex words in isolation, but we also allowed marking multi-word expressions and sequences of words as complex. This allowed for collecting a richer dataset (of complex words and phrases). Secondly, to make the process closer to a real-world application, we showed longer text passages (5–10 sentences) and asked the annotators to mark 10 complex words or phrases at the most. The former allows to take into account larger contexts both during the annotation and later during feature extraction in classification experiments, while the latter shaped our task slightly different than in previous CWI datasets. By not preselecting the target words (as it was the case in collection of the previous CWI datasets), we did not bias and limit selections of the human annotators. Finally, we have created balanced annotations from 10 native and 10 non-native speakers.

### 4 Analysis of Collected Annotations

A total of 183 workers (134 native and 49 non-native) participated in the annotation task and a total of 76,785 complex phrase (CP) annotations have been collected from all genres, out of which 10,006 are unique CPs. In total, 30 workers have been participated on each HIT where on average 15 assignments are completed by native and non-native speakers. We have selected only the top 10 assignments per HIT for each group (native and non-native), after sorting them based on the workers inter-annotator agreement scores, to build the balanced datasets used in this study. The balanced datasets comprise a total of 62,991 CPs.

Around 90% of CPs have been selected by at least two annotators (see Table 1). However, when we separate the selections made by native and non-native speakers, we see that: (1) the percentage of multiple selected CPs by native speakers and non-native speakers decreases; (2) the percentage of multiply selected CPs by non-native speakers is always lower (83%–85%) than the percentage of multiply selected CPs by native speakers (84%–86%), regardless of the text genre; and (3) the percentage of CPs selected by at least one native and one non-native annotator is lower for the NEWS genre (70%) than for the WIKINEWS and WIKIPEDIA genres (77%).

From these results, we can see that there is a quantifiable difference in the annotation agreements by the native and non-native speakers. The low IAA between native and non-native speakers (column Both) indicates that the lexical simplification needs might be different for those two groups.

### 5 Classification Experiments

We developed a binary classification CWI system, with performances comparable to the state-of-the-art results of the SemEval-2016 shared task.
5.1 Features

We use four different categories of features.

**Frequency and length features:** Due to the common use of these features in selecting the most simple lexical substitution candidate (Bott et al., 2012; Glavaš and Stajner, 2015), we use three length features: the number of vowels (\textit{vow}), syllables (\textit{syl}), and characters (\textit{len}) and three frequency features: the frequency of the word in Simple Wikipedia (\textit{sim}), the frequency of the word in the paragraph (\textit{wfp}), and the frequency of the word in the Google Web 1T 5-Grams (\textit{wbt}).

**Syntactic features:** Based on the work of Davoodi and Kosseim (2016), the part of speech (POS) tag influences the complexity of the word. We used POS tags (\textit{pos}) predicted by the Stanford POS tagger (Toutanova et al., 2003).

**Word embeddings features:** Following the work of Glavaš and Stajner (2015), as well as Paetzold and Specia (2016b), we train a word2vec model (Mikolov et al., 2013) using English Wikipedia and the AQUAINT corpus of English news texts (Graff, 2002). We train 200-dimensional embeddings using skip-gram training and a window size of 5. We use the word2vec representations of CPs as a feature (\textit{emb}), and also compute the cosine similarities between the vector representations of CP and the paragraph (\textit{cosP}) and the sentence which contains it (\textit{cosS}). The paragraph and sentence representations are computed by averaging the vector representations of the content words.

**Topic Features:** We use topic features that are extracted based on an LDA (Blei et al., 2003) model that was trained on English Wikipedia using 100 topics. The first feature is the topic distribution of the word (\textit{lda}). The second feature captures the topic-relatedness for a word within its context. For this we compute the cosine similarity between the word-topic vector and the sentence (\textit{ldcS}) and paragraph (\textit{ldcP}) vector.

5.2 Experimental setups

We use different machine learning algorithms from the scikit-learn machine learning framework. In this paper, we report only the results of the best classifiers based on NearestCentroid (NC).

We produce six new datasets (three different genres times two different groups of annotators) using the balanced datasets. We first partition the balanced datasets of each genre into training, development and test (80:10:10) sets, while ensuring that we do not having the same sentences in training, development and test sets. The best performing feature set, consisting of pos, len, sim, wfp, vow, and cos, is used to build our CWI systems. We discuss the results of different experimental setups using these best features in Section 6. We have combined the training and development sets for the final experiments. The baseline is based on frequency thresholds using the Simple English Wikipedia as a corpus (Wróbel, 2016).

### Table 2: Results on the SemEval-2016 shared task.

| System                  | G-score | F-score |
|-------------------------|---------|---------|
| Our system              | 75.51   | 35.44   |
| Best (G-score) system   | 77.40   | 24.60   |
| Best (F-score) system   | 60.80   | 35.50   |

(a) Native datasets

| Dataset     | F-score | G-score |
|-------------|---------|---------|
| NEWS        | 70.86   | 80.16   |
| WIKINews    | 66.67   | 73.16   |
| WIKIPEDIA   | 71.14   | 71.85   |

(b) Non-native datasets

| Dataset     | F-score | G-score |
|-------------|---------|---------|
| NEWS        | 66.30   | 74.78   |
| WIKINews    | 68.13   | 75.96   |
| WIKIPEDIA   | 70.34   | 74.49   |

Table 3: Results of our CWI system (\textit{Our}) and the baseline system (BL) on our six new datasets.

6 Results and Discussion

Results for different combinations of datasets, including baselines, cross-genre, cross-group and cross-group-genre, are shown in Tables 2–6.

**Shared Task Results (Table 2):** On the shared task dataset, our system reaches almost the same F-score (35.44) as the best F-scored system (35.30), but at the same time achieves a significantly better G-score (75.51) than the same system (60.80). On CWIG3G2 datasets, the F-scores are significantly higher than on the shared task dataset both for the baseline and NC-classifier (Table 3). This is probably due to the unbalanced distribution of complex words in the shared task training and test sets or the fact that their test set instances were annotated by a single annotator only.

**Within-group-genre Results (Table 3):** Our system outperforms the baseline for all datasets. Even if non-native annotators have marked more complex phrases than the native annotators, the CWI
Table 4: Results of the cross-genre experiments.

| Test       | Training on native | Training on non-native |
|------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| NEWS       | 70.86              | 67.10                  |
| WIKINEWS   | 66.07              | 66.13                  |
| WIKIPEDIA  | 71.14              | 64.85                  |

(b) Non-native datasets

Table 5: Results of the cross-group experiments.

| Training on | Testing on |
|-------------|------------|
| NEWS        | 70.86      | 66.48 | 71.43 |
| WIKINEWS    | 67.41      | 66.67 | 68.35 |
| WIKIPEDIA   | 64.24      | 64.18 | 71.14 |

(a) Native datasets

(b) Using native training sets and non-native test sets

| Training on | Testing on |
|-------------|------------|
| NEWS        | 67.10      | 68.53 | 68.22 |
| WIKINEWS    | 63.74      | 64.51 | 64.03 |
| WIKIPEDIA   | 61.72      | 63.17 | 64.85 |

(a) Using native training sets and non-native test sets

Table 6: Cross-genre and cross-group results.

Cross-genre Results (Table 4): When applying the CWI system on the NEWS test set and training it with the other genres, we observe performance drops for the native group and performance improvements for the non-native group. For the WIKINEWS test set, there is a slight decrease in performance when the CWI systems are trained with NEWS and WIKIPEDIA datasets of the native groups while there is an increase in performance when the CWI system is trained on the non-native groups. For the WIKIPEDIA genre test set, there is a drop in performance when the CWI system is trained on both NEWS and WIKINEWS genres of the non-native groups while there is an increase in performance when the CWI system is trained on the NEWS training set and decrease for the WIKINEWS training set of the native groups.

Cross-group Results (Table 5): When training our CWI systems on the datasets annotated by the native speakers, we obtain significantly higher F-scores when testing on the datasets annotated by the same group (native speakers), as it was expected. In the case of training on the datasets annotated by the non-native speakers, however, the results are the opposite of what we expected; we obtain significantly higher F-scores when testing on the datasets annotated by the other group (non-native speakers). These results imply that the inter-annotator agreement (IAA) on the test set might impact the results more than the type of the annotator group does (Table 1 shows much higher IAA among native than non-native English speakers, which holds both for the training and test datasets).

Cross-genre-genre Results (Table 6): Similar to the cross-group experiments, the best results are achieved when tested on the datasets annotated by native speakers, indicating once again that the F-score is highly influenced by the inter-annotator agreement on the test set.

7 Conclusions

To enable building of generalisable and more reliable CWI systems, we collected new complex phrase identification datasets (CWI3G2) across three text genres, annotated both by native and non-native English speakers. The analysis of our crowdsourced data showed that native speakers have higher inter-annotator agreement than the non-native speakers regardless of the text genre.

We built CWI systems comparable to the state of the art and showed that predicting the CWs for native speakers is an easier task than predicting the CWs for non-native speakers. Furthermore, we showed that within-genre CWI indeed leads to better classification performances, albeit with a small margin over cross-genre CWI. Finally, we showed that CWI systems trained on native datasets can be used to predict CWs for non-native speakers and vice versa. For future CWI tasks, we recommend to take language proficiency levels into account.

1Datasets available at: https://lt.informatik.uni-hamburg.de/resources/data/complex-word-identification-dataset.html
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