Splitting Complex English Sentences

John Lee
Department of Linguistics and Translation
City University of Hong Kong
jsylee@cityu.edu.hk

J. Buddhika K. Pathirage Don*
Hong Kong Applied Science and Technology Research Institute
bpathiragedon@astri.org

Abstract

This paper applies parsing technology to the task of syntactic simplification of English sentences, focusing on the identification of text spans that can be removed from a complex sentence. We report the most comprehensive evaluation to-date on this task, using a dataset of sentences that exhibit simplification based on coordination, subordination, punctuation/parataxis, adjectival clauses, participial phrases, and appositive phrases. We train a decision tree with features derived from text span length, POS tags and dependency relations, and show that it significantly outperforms a parser-only baseline.

1 Introduction

The task of text simplification aims to rewrite a sentence so as to reduce its complexity, while preserving its meaning and grammaticality. The rewriting may involve various aspects, including lexical simplification, syntactic simplification, content deletion, and content insertion for clarification. This paper focuses on syntactic simplification and, specifically, on splitting a complex sentence into two simpler sentences.\(^1\) Consider the input sentence \(S\) in Table 1, a complex sentence containing a participial phrase, “carrying numerous books”. After removing this phrase from \(S\), the system generates \(S_2\) from the phrase by turning the participle “carrying” into the finite form “was carrying”, and by generating the pronoun “he” as the subject.

A number of systems can already perform this task (Chandrasekar et al., 1996; Siddharthan, 2002a; Inui et al., 2003; Belder and Moens, 2010; Bott et al., 2012; Siddharthan and Angrosh, 2014; Saggion et al., 2015). While some systems have undergone task-based evaluations, such as reading comprehension (Angrosh et al., 2014), most have adopted holistic assessment, which commonly includes human ratings on the grammaticality, fluency, meaning preservation, and simplicity of the system output (Štajner et al., 2016). These ratings are indeed helpful in indicating the overall quality of a system; however, the need for human intervention restricts the scale of the evaluations, and makes direct comparisons difficult. Other systems have been evaluated with automatic metrics, such as BLEU and readability metrics (Aluisio et al., 2010; Narayan and Gardent, 2014), which overcome the limitations of human ratings, but do not reveal what aspects of the simplification process caused the most difficulties.

The contribution of this paper is two-fold. First, it presents the first publicly available dataset that facilitates detailed, automatic evaluation on syntactic simplification. Second, we report the results of a decision tree approach that incorporates parse features, giving a detailed analysis on its performance for various constructs.

2 Previous Work

The phrase-based and syntax-based machine translation approaches have been used in many text simplification systems (Vickrey and Koller,
| Construct          | Complex sentence example                                      | Freq. |
|-------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|-------|
| Coordination       | I ate fish and he drank wine.                               | 463   |
| Adjectival clause  | Peter ate an apple, which was green.                        | 119   |
| Participial phrase | Peter, running fast, arrived.                               | 90    |
| Appositive phrase  | Peter, my friend, ate the apple.                            | 69    |
| Subordination      | After Peter came, I left.                                  | 158   |
| Punctuation/Parataxis | I ate fish; he drank wine.                                | 155   |
| Prepositional phrase | The final was played at Manchester on 14 May 2008.       | 16    |

Table 2: Distribution of syntactic constructs in the test set (Section 3). The complex sentence can be split into two simpler sentences by (i) removing the text span (italicized); and (ii) transforming the text span into a new sentence with the referent (underlined). This paper focuses on step (i).

2008; Zhu et al., 2010; Coster and Kauchak, 2011; Wubben et al., 2012). While these approaches are effective for lexical substitution and deletion, they are less so for sentence splitting, sentence reordering, and morphological changes (Bott et al., 2012; Siddharthan, 2014).

Most syntactic simplification systems start by analyzing the input sentence via a parse tree, or a deep semantic representation (Narayan and Gardent, 2014). For identifying the referent NP (clause attachment), accuracy can reach 95%; for identifying clause boundary, accuracy is at 97% when there is punctuation, and 80% in general (Siddharthan, 2002b). Noun post-modifiers can be extracted at an F-measure of 92% (Doroscu et al., 2014; Stanovsky and Dagan, 2016).

Given a syntactic analysis of the input sentence, the system then applies manually written transformation rules (Siddharthan, 2002a; Belder and Moens, 2010; Bott et al., 2012; Siddharthan and Angrosh, 2014; Saggion et al., 2015). These rules identify specific constructs in a parse tree, such as the participial phrase in $S$ in Table 1; they then determine whether the construct should be split, and if so, generate an independent sentence from it. For example, Aluísio et al. (2008) used a set of transformation rules to treat 22 syntactic constructs. Siddharthan (2011) used 63 rules, which handle coordination of both verb phrases and full clauses, subordination, apposition and relative clauses, as well as conversion of passive voice to active voice. Siddharthan and Angorsh (2014) used 26 hand-crafted rules for apposition, relative clauses and combinations of the two; as well as 85 rules handle subordination and coordination.

3 Data

Many evaluation datasets are available for lexical simplification (Paetzold and Specia, 2016), but there is not yet any that enables automatic evaluation on syntactic simplification systems. We created an annotated dataset for this purpose, based on the 167,689 pairs of “normal” and simplified sentences from Wikipedia and Simple Wikipedia aligned by Kauchak (2013). While a majority of these pairs are one-to-one alignments, 23,715 of them are one-to-two alignments. These aligned sentences, in their raw form, can serve as triplets of $S$, $S_1$ and $S_2$ (Table 1).

However, as pointed out by Xu et al. (2015), Wikipedia and Simple Wikipedia contain rather noisy data; indeed, upon manual inspection, not all triplets are good examples for syntactic simplification. These fall into two cases. In the first case, significant content from $S$ is deleted and appear neither in $S_1$ nor $S_2$; these triplets provide examples of content deletion rather than splitting. In the second case, $S_2$ (or $S_1$) consists mostly of new content. In some instances, $S_1$ (or $S_2$) is so similar to $S$ that no real splitting occurs. In others, the new content put into doubt whether the splitting of $S$ was motivated by syntactic complexity alone, or were influenced by the new content. To reduce the noise, we employed human annotation to create the test set, and an automatic procedure to clean up the training set.

There is no one-to-$n$ alignments for $n > 2$. 

51
The man, carrying numerous books, entered the room.

Table 3: Each triplet in our corpus contains a complex sentence \(S\) and the two shorter sentences \(S_1, S_2\) into which it was re-written.

### 3.1 Test set
An annotator marked up 1,070 triplets of \((S, S_1, S_2)\) in the format shown in Table 3, with the following items:

- **Removed text span** The \(<split>\) element encloses the text span that is removed from \(S\). This text span usually, though not necessarily, appears in \(S_1\) or \(S_2\).

- **Construct Type** The \(<split>\) element indicates the construct type of the removed text span. Table 2 gives a list of the construct types and their distribution.

- **Re-ordering** If the removed text span forms the basis of \(S_1 (S_2)\), the \(<split>\) element takes the value \(S_1 (S_2)\). This attribute indicates whether sentence re-ordering has occurred.

- **Referent** There are often referring expressions in \(S_1\) and \(S_2\) for an entity in \(S\). For example, in Table 1, the words “the man” and “he” in \(S_1\) and \(S_2\) refer to “the man” in \(S\). These referring expressions are marked as \(<ref1>\) and \(<ref2>\), and the entity in \(S\) is marked as \(<ref>\).

### 3.2 Training set
The rest of the triplets form our training instances. To filter out instances that are not genuine splits (see above) and to determine the value of \(<split>\), we require at least 75% of the words in either \(S_1\) or \(S_2\) to appear in \(S\). To determine the value of \(<split>\), we ran the baseline system (Section 4), which is unsupervised and has relatively high recall, on \(S\). Thus, the training set has all the annotations in Table 3, except for \(<ref>\), \(<ref1>\) and \(<ref2>\).

### 4 Approach

**Baseline system.** We manually developed tree patterns, in the form of dependency relations and POS tags, to identify text spans that should be removed from a complex sentence (Table 4). These patterns are designed to yield high recall but lower precision. The system parses the input sentence with the Stanford parser (Manning et al., 2014), and then performs breadth-first search on the dependency tree for these patterns, returning the first match it finds. This algorithm removes at most one text span from each complex sentence; this assumption is consistent with the material in our dataset, which was derived from one-to-two sentence alignments.

**Proposed system.** Even if one of the constructs in Table 2 is present in a complex sentence, it may not be appropriate or worthwhile to remove it. To refine the tree patterns developed for the baseline system, we trained a decision tree with the scikit-learn package. For each word in the sentence, the decision tree considers the features listed in Table 5. If the decision tree predicts a split, the text span headed by the word is removed from the sentence.

### 5 Evaluation
We evaluate our system’s performance at identifying a text span, if any, in a complex sentence that should be removed to form an independent sentence.

As expected, the baseline system achieved relatively high recall (0.88) but low precision (0.34), since it always tries to split a text span that matches any of the tree patterns in Table 4. The decision tree was able to substantially increase the precision (0.63) by learning some useful rules, at the expense of lower recall (0.72).

Some rules that substantially contributed to the performance gain are as follows. Consider the rule that a comma should separate the word from its parent when the dependency relation is \(xcomp\). It was able to block the system from mistakenly tak-
Table 4: Manually crafted tree patterns, written in Stanford dependencies (Manning et al., 2014), that are used in the baseline system. If the pattern exists in $S$, the text span headed by the child word (e.g., VBN/VBG for participial phrases) is to be removed from $S$.

| Feature       | Description                                                                 |
|---------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| POS           | Tag is JJ, N*, VBN, VBG, or V*?                                             |
| Parent POS    | Tag of parent word is JJ, N*, VBN, VBG, or V*?                              |
| Root          | Parent word is root?                                                        |
| Sibling POS   | Tag of a sibling word is IN, TO, WP, WRB, WPS, or WDT?                      |
| Child POS     | Tag of child word is IN, TO, WP, WRB, WPS, or WDT?                          |
| Comma         | There is a comma between the word and its parent word?                      |
| Det           | Subject of $S$ is tagged DT?                                                 |
| Length        | Number of words in text span                                                |

Table 5: Features used by the decision tree.

| System $\rightarrow$ Construct | Baseline P/R/F | Proposed P/R/F |
|---------------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| Coordination                    | 0.31/0.84/0.45 | 0.61/0.80/0.69 |
| Adjectival clause               | 0.29/0.97/0.45 | 0.59/0.79/0.68 |
| Participial phrase              | 0.33/0.90/0.48 | 0.56/0.58/0.57 |
| Appositive phrase               | 0.21/0.91/0.34 | 0.36/0.56/0.44 |
| Subordination                   | 0.39/0.84/0.53 | 0.70/0.74/0.72 |
| Punctuation/Parataxis           | 0.78/0.99/0.87 | 0.92/0.95/0.93 |
| Overall                         | 0.34/0.88/0.49 | 0.63/0.72/0.67 |

Table 6: Precision, recall and F-measure for identifying the text span to be removed from $S$.

6 Conclusions and Future Work

We have presented a study on syntactic simplification, focusing on the identification of text spans that should be removed from a complex sentence.
We trained a decision tree to learn to recognize these text spans, using dependencies, POS tags and text span length as features. Experimental results showed that it outperformed a parser-only baseline.

We have reported the most detailed evaluation to-date on this task. This evaluation was made possible with a new dataset, derived from Wikipedia and Simple Wikipedia, that covers coordinated clauses, subordinated clauses, punctuation/parataxis, adjectival clauses, participial clauses, appositive phrases, and prepositional phrases.

In future work, we plan to investigate the next steps in syntactic simplification, i.e., sentence reordering and the generation of referring expressions. Our dataset, which traces sentence order and annotates referring expressions, is well suited for automatic evaluation for these tasks.

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