

Multilingual Lexical Simplification via Paraphrase Generation

Kang Liu^a, Jipeng Qiang^{a,*}, Yun Li^a, Yunhao Yuan^a, Yi Zhu^a and Kaixun Hua^b

^aSchool of Information Engineering, Yangzhou University, Yangzhou, China

^bDepartment of Industrial and Management Systems Engineering, University of South Florida, Tampa, United States

Abstract. Lexical simplification (LS) methods based on pretrained language models have made remarkable progress, generating potential substitutes for a complex word through analysis of its contextual surroundings. However, these methods require separate pretrained models for different languages and disregard the preservation of sentence meaning. In this paper, we propose a novel multilingual LS method via paraphrase generation, as paraphrases provide diversity in word selection while preserving the sentence's meaning. We regard paraphrasing as a zero-shot translation task within multilingual neural machine translation that supports hundreds of languages. After feeding the input sentence into the encoder of paraphrase modeling, we generate the substitutes based on a novel decoding strategy that concentrates solely on the lexical variations of the complex word. Experimental results demonstrate that our approach surpasses BERT-based methods and zero-shot GPT3-based method significantly on English, Spanish, and Portuguese.

1 Introduction

Lexical Simplification (LS) [22] aims to replace complex words in sentence with simple alternatives while keeping the original sentence meaning, which is a key task to facilitate reading comprehension for different target readerships such as non-native speaker[21], people with cognitive disabilities[30]. Earlier LS methods are primarily rule-based[3, 2] or relied on word embedding models[9, 21]. However, such approaches only account for individual complex word, resulting in many candidate substitutes that do not fit for the context. In recent years, LS methods based on pretrained language models including BERT and its variations [25, 17, 20, 38] generate substitutes by predicting the probability distribution of the vocabulary from the representation of the complex word based on its context, and have emerged as the predominant technique compared with previous LS methods. But, there remains two limitations for them:

(1) Poor multilingual scalability. Considering the available pretrained language models, such efforts have coalesced around a small subset of languages, leaving behind the vast majority of mostly low-resource languages. Additionally, for LS tasks in different languages, it is necessary to use pretrained language models in different languages, which greatly limits the effectiveness and applicability of this type of method in a multilingual environment.

(2) Disregarding the preservation of sentence meaning. The generated substitutions are both semantically coherent with the complex word and contextually appropriate. But, there is no guarantee that the

generated substitutions could still preserve the original sentence's meaning [18, 37]. For example, given one sentence "Tom is a bad guy", the substitutes for word "bad" using BERT are "good, rough, big, dangerous".

To address those limitations mentioned above, we study how to generate simpler substitutes for complex word via paraphrase modeling. (1) Inspired by one work [34], we use a paraphraser via multilingual Neural Machine Translation (NMT) system (NLLB) based on encoder-decoder framework[4], enabling high-quality zero-shot translations in 200 languages. By configuring the output language to correspond with the input language, multilingual NMT can generate paraphrases directly, overcoming the first limitation. (2) Paraphrases generated from the paraphraser provide diversity in word selection while preserving the sentence's meaning[12, 11]. The meaning-preserving properties of paraphrase models can aid in addressing the second limitation. But, no studies have been conducted to utilize paraphraser to generate the substitutes. Because the output paraphrases using the existing decoding strategy concern the lexical variations of the whole sentence rather than the complex word, it becomes challenging to extract substitutes from them. Therefore, the big challenge we face is how to generate the paraphrases that only concerns the lexical variations of the complex word, rather than the whole sentence.

In this paper, we propose a multilingual LS method via multilingual NMT, which adopts one novel decoding strategy that focuses on lexical variations of the complex word. We first force the decoder begin with the complex word's prefix, to subsequently generate the probability distribution of the complex word's position. Then, we adopt a re-scoring approach that incorporates an estimate of the complex word's suffix to make a more knowledgeable choice. By following this methodology, the generated paraphrases only concern the lexical variations of the complex word.

Our primary contributions in this paper are as follows:

(1) We are the first to introduce the idea of utilizing a multilingual NMT to tackle the challenge of LS. Our method guarantees that the generated substitutions can surely better preserve the original sentence meaning. Moreover, our approach relies on a single model and accommodates various languages.

(2) We propose a simple but effective decoding strategy for substitution generation. Our decoding strategy can effectively identify the lexical variations of complex word and select candidate words that are most suitable for the given context.

(3) Experimental results on the TSAR-2022 multilingual LS benchmark (English, Spanish and Portuguese), our zero-shot method

* Corresponding Author. Email: jpqiang@yzu.edu.cn

outperforms previous BERT-based methods and zero-shot GPT3-based method by a significant margin, and shows marginal improvements over the ensemble GPT3-based method. We release our code and the results at github¹.

2 Related work

Lexical Simplification: LS generally consists of three or four steps: complex word identification, substitution generation, substitution selection (optional), and substitution ranking[22]. Complex word identification is usually treated as an independent task, which is not addressed in this paper. Earlier LS methods were rule-based[3, 2] or relied on word embedding models[9, 21]. These methods typically seek to find synonyms or words similar with the complex word. However, as these methods only take into account individual complex words, they often generate many potential substitutions that are not fit for the context.

Some work [23, 16] utilize large-scale paraphrase rule database, e.g., PPDB [8] or its variations [24, 23, 28], to find substitute candidates for complex words, where the paraphrase rule database consists of large-scale lexical paraphrase rules (e.g., "berries → strawberries") that are extracted from large-scale paraphrase sentence pairs, such as ParaNMT [40] or ParaBank [13]. These works do not take into account the context as rule-based LS methods do.

LS methods based on the pretrained model BERT have recently attracted much attention [25, 17, 20, 38]. Such methods involve masking the complex word and predicting potential substitutions based on the context. BERT-based methods have demonstrated significant performance enhancements compared to previous methods, and have now become the dominant approach for LS.

While previous research primarily focused on English, recent advancements in multilingual and cross-lingual NLP models have facilitated studies in other languages[7, 32, 27]. This trend is reflected in the Text Simplification, Accessibility, and Readability (TSAR-2022) shared task[31], which provides participants with multilingual LS datasets in three language tracks: English, Spanish, and Portuguese. The shared task garnered significant interest, with a total of 60 systems submitted across different languages. During the study, participants introduced a range of language-specific BERT-based methods[17, 20, 38]. Additionally, Aumiller and Gertz[1] submitted two systems based on GPT3, demonstrating the potential of large language models in multilingual LS. However, this method solely relies on paid inference for research purposes. In contrast to the aforementioned methods, we employ a multilingual NMT to tackle the challenge of multilingual LS.

Multilingual NMT: Multilingual NMT has emerged as a rapidly growing field in recent years[5]. Google's multilingual NMT system[15] has demonstrated the ability to translate between languages without direct parallel data, which is called zero-shot translation. Multilingual NMT system NLLB [4] can support translation in over two hundred languages. To enhance the performance of multilingual NMT, researchers have explored various approaches, such as language clustering[33] and multilingual pretraining[6].

The potential of multilingual NMT has been explored in several studies, including text similarity measure[35] and paraphrase generation[34]. These investigations provide valuable insights into the efficacy of multilingual NMT for diverse applications. However, to our knowledge, our study is the first to examine the utilization of multilingual models for multilingual LS.

Decoding method: In recent years, autoregressive modeling has emerged as a popular approach for text generation tasks such as machine translation[5] and paraphrase generation[41, 29]. During inference, beam search is commonly used as the decoding strategy, which involves keeping a fixed number of the most probable partial sequences at each decoding step. Although the basic beam search algorithm is effective, several modifications have been proposed to further enhance its performance for specific objectives. For instance, diverse beam search[36] aims to improve both diversity and quality of generated sequences. Additionally, for constrained text generation, Lu[19] employs lookahead heuristics to steer the generations towards sequences that satisfy the given constraints. In contrast to these decoding strategies, our approach focuses on identifying substitutions for single complex word.

3 Method

Given one sentence $\mathbf{x} = \{x_0, \dots, x_c, \dots, x_n\}$ and the complex word x_c , we will introduce how to utilize multilingual machine translation system for generating suitable substitutions for x_c in many languages.

During decoding, we propose an effective decoding strategy to generate substitutes of the complex word. Then, we rank the generated substitutions via three features to select the most appropriate simpler one.

Paraphraser: By aligning the output language with the input language (e.g., "translation" from English to English), multilingual NMT could be treated as a paraphraser that supports the paraphrasing of multiple languages. In our method, we use the multilingual NMT system NLLB [4] that enables high-quality zero-shot translations in 200 languages. NLLB is a standard left to right autoregressive model: $p_\theta(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{c=0}^{|\mathbf{y}|} p_\theta(y_c|\mathbf{y}_{<c}, \mathbf{x})$, trained on different language directions.

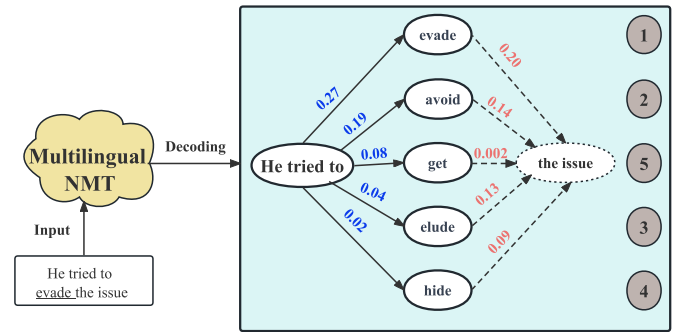


Figure 1. Substitute generation of our method. Let us consider the example of a sentence "He attempted to evade the issue" containing the complex word "evade". By inputting the sentence into the Multilingual NMT encoder, we derive the top five possible candidates, along with their respective probability scores, by directing the decoder to initiate with the prefix phrase "He attempted to" of the complex word. Subsequently, we re-score these candidates by computing the likelihood of generating suffix words for these candidates. Finally, the top three substitutes, "avoid, elude, and hide", are obtained by eliminating the original word.

Substitution generation: The process of substitution generation is employed to produce the candidates of x_c . Following the input of \mathbf{x} into the Paraphraser, we can generate a multitude of paraphrases through beam searching. However, it proves to be arduous to extract

¹ <https://github.com/KpKqwq/LSPG>

substitutes from them, as the paraphrases pertain to the lexical variations of the entire sentence instead of the intricate word.

Here, we propose a novel decoding strategy that is exclusively designed to leverage lexical variations of the complex word, as shows in Figure 1. After feeding the sentence \mathbf{x} into the encoder of Multilingual NMT, we force the decoder to begin with prefix $\mathbf{x}_{<c}$ of complex word, and decode succeeding token distribution $p_\theta(y_c|\mathbf{y}_{<c} = \mathbf{x}_{<c}, \mathbf{x})$. We select the top K tokens Y_c with the highest probability in the distribution as the results of decoding.

$$Y_c = \arg \max_{y_c} \text{top}K \{ \log p_\theta(y_c|\mathbf{y}_{<c}, \mathbf{x}) \} \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{y}_{<c} = \mathbf{x}_{<c}$

Based on Equation (1), if we directly select the top K tokens Y_c with highest probability in token distribution at complex word’s position, we could not ensure that the selected candidates are also suitable for the original suffix of the complex word. As Figure 1 shows, the candidate ‘get’ owning a higher probability is clearly not the variation of ‘evade’, even though it is semantically coherent with the complex word and contextually appropriate.

Inspired by Lu[19], we incorporate an extended estimate for the original suffix into our scoring function, replacing Equation (1) with:

$$Y_c = \arg \max_{y_c} \text{top}K \{ \log p_\theta(y_c|\mathbf{y}_{<c}, \mathbf{x}) + \log p_\theta(\mathbf{y}_{>c}|\mathbf{y}_{<c}, y_c, \mathbf{x}) \} \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{y}_{<c} = \mathbf{x}_{<c}$, $\mathbf{y}_{>c} = \mathbf{x}_{>c}$.

The primary enhancement involves the incorporation of a lookahead heuristic that modifies the score of a candidate ($y_{<c}, y_c$) based on the probability of satisfying additional suffix constraints $y_{>c}$. In practice, it is not necessary to analyze the entire suffix, examining just two or three words is sufficient. As illustrated in Figure 1, the top substitutes generated by our decoding strategy effectively align with the context and successfully retain the intended meaning of the sentence.

Substitution ranking: The step of substitute ranking aims to rank the generated substitutes by their simplicity, which is a necessary step in LS task. Word frequency feature calculated by large corpus is often used to measure the complexity of the substitutes [22, 26, 31]. Considering that the higher the word frequency, the more simple the word is, this phenomenon could be beneficial to lexical simplification.

We give one simple ranking method that uses three features with different weights to rank the generated substitutes: (1) prediction feature using Equation (2) (the probability of the candidate extracted during the substitute generation), (2) Word Frequency, and (3) semantic similarity (cosine similarity between the word embedding vector of the complex word and the candidate). To support a wide range of languages, we utilize fastText² to obtain word embedding vectors supporting 157 languages, and the wordfreq package³ to calculate frequency scores for 44 languages. The final score for each substitute is calculated as a weighted sum of the three features.

However, it is imperative to emphasize that with our methodology, the generated substitutes can be utilized directly without the need for substitute ranking. This is because NMT models usually tend to generate more high-frequency tokens and less low-frequency tokens [10, 14]. In our experiments, it verifies that our method without substitution ranking has also yielded excellent results.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experiment Setup

Evaluation Datasets: For reliable comparison of methods’ performances across the different languages, we use the newest multilingual LS evaluation datasets from TSAR-2022 shared task[31], which are composed of three language tracks: English, Spanish and Portuguese. Table 1 presents the dataset statistics, and each dataset is further divided into separate test and validation sets.

dataset	instances	Substitution per target		
		Min	Max	Avg
EN	386	2	22	10.55
ES	381	2	19	10.28
PT	386	1	16	8.10

Table 1. Statistics on the TSAR-2022 share task multilingual LS dataset.

Metrics: We use the same metrics with TSAR2022 shared task to evaluate the performance of LS methods for the three languages: ACC@1, MAP@ k , Potential@ k , Accuracy@ n @top1 where $k \in \{3, 5, 10\}$ and $n \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. Potential@ k is defined at least one of the k top-ranked substitutes is also present in the gold data. Accuracy@ k @top1 evaluates whether most frequent suggested synonym in the gold data is also still in the generated candidates. MAP@ k additionally takes into account the position of the relevant substitutes among the first k generated candidates. ACC@1 is same as Potential@1 and MAP@1. The above metrics account for various aspects of methods’ performances, allowing fair comparisons for different languages.

Baselines: We mainly compared our method LSPG with the following baselines.

(1) BERT-based LS methods. LSBERT[25], MANTIS[17], PresiUniv[39] and GMW-WLV[20] are the most competitive BERT-based method in English, Spanish and Portuguese from TSAR-2022, respectively.

(2) GPT3-based LS methods [1]. GPT3(Single) is a zero-shot prompted GPT-3 with a prompt asking for simplified synonyms given a particular context. GPT3(Ensemble) is an ensemble over six different GPT3 prompts/configurations with average rank aggregation. The version of GPT-3 used is text-davinci-002.

Implementation details: We employed Transformers⁴ for the implementation of our decoding method. The multilingual NMT we used is released with NLLB with 3.3B parameters which supports more than 200 languages[4]. For English, the weights for prediction, frequency, word similarity are 0.04, 0.04, 0.1, respectively. For Spanish, the weights are 0.04, 0.02, 0.4. For Portuguese, the weights are 0.04, 0.04, 0.4. We finetune these hyper-parameters on the valid set separately. The number of output paraphrases K is set to 50. The estimated suffix length during decoding is 3. We select up to 10 candidates for final evaluation.

4.2 Experiment Results

The results of our methods as well as the state-of-the-art methods are displayed in Table 2. Because BERT-based LS methods are based on open source pre-trained language models, and GPT3-based methods

² <https://fasttext.cc/docs/en/crawl-vectors.html>

³ <https://pypi.org/project/wordfreq/>

⁴ <https://github.com/huggingface/transformers>

Language	Method	ACC@1	Acc@k@Top1			MAP@k			Potential@k		
			k=1	k=2	k=3	k=3	k=5	k=10	k=3	k=5	k=10
English	GPT3(Ensemble)	0.8096	0.4289	0.6112	0.6863	0.5834	0.4491	0.2812	0.9624	0.9812	0.9946
	GPT3(Single)	0.7721	0.4262	0.5335	0.5710	0.5096	0.3653	0.2092	0.8900	0.9302	0.9436
	LSBERT	0.5978	0.3029	0.4450	0.5308	0.4079	0.2957	0.1755	0.8230	0.8766	0.9463
	MANTIS	0.6568	0.3029	0.4450	0.5388	0.4730	0.3599	0.2193	0.8766	0.9463	0.9785
	LSPG(w/o ranking)	0.7640	0.4021	0.5656	0.6514	0.5655	0.4351	0.2829	0.9436	0.9839	0.9973
	LSPG	0.8176	0.4557	0.6166	0.6890	0.5881	0.4632	0.2994	0.9624	0.9839	0.9973
Spanish	GPT3(Ensemble)	0.6521	0.3505	0.5108	0.5788	0.4281	0.3239	0.1967	0.8206	0.8885	0.9402
	GPT3(Single)	0.5706	0.3070	0.3967	0.4510	0.3526	0.2449	0.1376	0.6902	0.7146	0.7445
	LSBERT	0.2880	0.0951	0.1440	0.1820	0.1868	0.1346	0.0795	0.4945	0.6114	0.7472
	PresiUniv	0.3695	0.2038	0.2771	0.3288	0.2145	0.1499	0.0832	0.5842	0.6467	0.7255
	LSPG(w/o ranking)	0.6385	0.3206	0.4619	0.5461	0.4382	0.3330	0.1996	0.8260	0.8858	0.9239
	LSPG	0.7119	0.3722	0.5123	0.5951	0.4983	0.3840	0.2275	0.8831	0.9184	0.9402
Portuguese	GPT3(Ensemble)	0.7700	0.4358	0.5347	0.6229	0.5014	0.3620	0.2167	0.9171	0.9491	0.9786
	GPT3(Single)	0.6363	0.3716	0.4615	0.5160	0.4105	0.2889	0.1615	0.7860	0.8181	0.8422
	LSBERT	0.3262	0.1577	0.2326	0.2860	0.1904	0.1313	0.0775	0.4946	0.5802	0.6737
	GMU-WLV	0.4812	0.2540	0.3716	0.3957	0.2816	0.1966	0.1153	0.6871	0.7566	0.8395
	LSPG(w/o ranking)	0.6176	0.3582	0.4839	0.5962	0.4135	0.3100	0.1899	0.8877	0.9278	0.9545
	LSPG	0.7433	0.4598	0.5989	0.6524	0.5023	0.3739	0.2250	0.9197	0.9491	0.9625

Table 2. Evaluation Results on English, Spanish and Portuguese languages. Only GPT3(Ensemble) over six different GPT3 prompts/configuration is few-shot method, and other methods are unsupervised or zero-shot methods. LSPG is our proposed method, and LSPG(w/o ranking) indicates that LSPG without the step of substitution ranking. Best values are bolded.

are based on commercial APIs, we will discuss and analyze them separately.

Compared with BERT-based LS methods (LSBERT, MANTIS, PresiUniv, GMU-WLV), we can draw these conclusions.

(1) Our method significantly outperforms BERT-based methods in all three languages. Even without the step of substitute ranking, our method LSPG(w/o ranking) is superior to the best BERT-based methods.

(2) We see that BERT-based methods achieve better results in English than in Spanish and Portuguese languages. Unlike BERT-based methods which show significant performance gap between languages when utilizing separate pretrained models, our method exhibits stable performance across diverse languages using a solitary multilingual NMT.

Compared with GPT3-based methods, our method improve the performance on all metrics, except ACC@1 and Potential@10 in Portuguese. Excluding performance advantages, our approach has the following advantages.

(1) GPT3-based methods are only accessible through a paid interface and the best ensemble version even requires more than six visits to simplify a single complex word. They incur high costs in terms of both time and money to achieve satisfactory performance. In contrast, our method is built on a freely available multilingual NMT, offering a more accessible and efficient solution.

(2) GPT3(Ensemble) is a few-shot method, and LSPG is completely zero-shot. The performance of GPT3(Ensemble) is influenced by the provided demonstrations. For instance, on Spanish, our method significantly enhances the ACC@1 score from 0.6521 to 0.7119.

(3) The experimental results of GPT3 are arduous to replicate, hence unfavorably impacting their potential as comparative results in the future. We will open source all of our codes and data results, in order to foster advancement in this domain.

Overall, our method has achieved a new state-of-the-art performance in multilingual LS, surpassing previous benchmarks in this

field. It is clear that the success of our method can be attributed to our method of extracting substitutions during paraphrase decoding, which ensures that the original sentence’s meaning is kept.

4.3 Ablation Study

To further analyze the factors affecting our method, we do more experiments in this subsection.

Feature	ACC@1	Acc@k@Top1			MAP@k		
		k=1	k=2	k=3	k=3	k=5	k=10
-	0.76	0.40	0.57	0.65	0.56	0.44	0.28
+freq	0.80	0.46	0.62	0.69	0.57	0.45	0.29
+embed	0.75	0.40	0.55	0.66	0.57	0.44	0.29
+both	0.82	0.46	0.62	0.69	0.59	0.46	0.30

Table 3. Ablation study of ranking features for LSPG on English dataset. "+freq" indicates the results of adding only the frequency feature, "+embed" indicates the results of adding only the embedding similarity feature, and "+both" is the proposed LSPG. Due to space limitation, we omit the results of little-varied Potential@k.

Influence of ranking feature We add two new features (Frequency and Similarity) to rank the generated substitutions in our experiments. To further evaluate the effect of each feature on the final performance, we conduct an ablation study. Table 3 shows the results on the English dataset. It indicates that both frequency and embedding similarity features are beneficial to improve the performance of our method in various metrics, especially the frequency feature. This is because incorporating frequency score into the ranking step enables us to select simpler candidates.

Influence of model size: The multilingual neural machine translation model we employ offers four variants with varying parameter scales (0.6B, 1.3B, 3.3B, and 55.3B), of which the default version in our experiments is 3.3B. To examine the impact of model size,

Inst. 1	Google says authorities in China have approved its acquisition of Motorola Mobility.
Labels	possession;purchase;buying;takeover;purchasing;gain;possession;investment
GPT3(Ensemble)	purchase;takeover;merger ;obtaining;sale;procuring; buyout ;consolidation;securing;picking up
GPT3(Single)	purchase;takeover ;merger;consolidation; buyout ;procurement;obtainment;receipt;accession
LSPG	purchase;takeover ;acquiring;sale;buy; buying ;procurement;capture; gain ;merger
Inst. 2	Nine people were reportedly killed in the bombardment .
Labels	attack;strafe;shelling;burst;assault;bombing;incident;missile attack
GPT3(Ensemble)	shelling ;barrage; bombing;attack ;air strike;cannonade;fusillade;aerial bombardment;volleys;missile strike
GPT3(Single)	air strike;missile strike;artillery strike;aerial bombardment; bombing;shelling ;mortar fire;howitzer fire;cannon fire
LSPG	bombing;shelling;attack ;strike;fire;raid;shooting;blast; assault ;attacks
Inst. 3	The shootings are the worst homicides to take place in Brevard County since 1987.
Labels	killings;murders;deaths
GPT3(Ensemble)	murders;killings ;executions;assassinations; slayings ;shootings;stabblings;bloodbaths;massacres;rapes
GPT3(Single)	murders;killings ;shootings;stabblings;assaults;rapes;robberies;kidnappings;child abuse;domestic violence
LSPG	murders;killings ;murder; crimes ;killing;cases; deaths ;shootings;crime;assassinations
Inst. 4	Six of the ringleaders have been captured and sent to other facilities.
Labels	leaders;masterminds;bosses;instigators;troublemakers;captains;agitators
GPT3(Ensemble)	leaders ;organizers;directors; instigators ;coordinators; masterminds;chiefs ;pioneers;executives;head honchos
GPT3(Single)	leaders ;head honchos;bigwigs;top brass;heavyweights;power players;a-listers;big cheeses;big shots;big guns
LSPG	leaders ;leader;leadership; captains;heads ;bandits;leads;conspirators; chiefs ;members
Inst. 5	The lowest estimate from Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) is of 50 dead.
Labels	estimation;assessment;figure;evaluation;reckon;guess;rough calculation
GPT3(Ensemble)	prediction;forecast;calculation; guess;estimation;guesstimate ;projection;inference;opinion;surmise
GPT3(Single)	guess ;approximation;forecast;prediction;inference;conjecture; estimation ;supposition;surmise;postulation
LSPG	figure;guess;assessment ;report;number;one;value;count; evaluation;calculation

Table 4. The top 10 substitutes of five instances in English track of TSAR2022 shared task. The complex word is bolded, the substitutes in labels are marked in red and the suitable substitutions not in labels are in blue.

Size	ACC@1	Acc@k@Top1			MAP@k		
		k=1	k=2	k=3	k=3	k=5	k=10
0.6B	0.73	0.39	0.55	0.62	0.54	0.41	0.26
1.3B	0.76	0.42	0.55	0.62	0.56	0.44	0.27
3.3B	0.76	0.40	0.57	0.65	0.57	0.44	0.28

Table 5. Effect of varying different model size for LSPG on English dataset. We omit the results of little-varied Potential@k

we compare the performance of the first three models, as hardware limitations prevent us from assessing the 55.3B model. In Table 5, we report solely the model’s predictive score to eliminate the influence of other ranking features. As anticipated, the 3.3B model yields the best performance, albeit with a marginal difference. To a certain extent, the increase in model parameters leads to improved simplification performance.

Influence of length of estimated suffix: Within our decoding process, we introduce a suffix estimate into the scoring function of our substitutions. This study examines the effect of the estimated suffix length, with Figure 2 displaying the results. Ranging from 0 to 5, we manipulate the length and only record the predictive score to negate other factors’ influence. Our findings indicate that estimating two or three suffix words produces optimal results, with no necessity to include further computations.

4.4 Case Study

In this case study, we compare our output substitutions against those generated by GPT3-based methods[1]. Table 4 show five examples

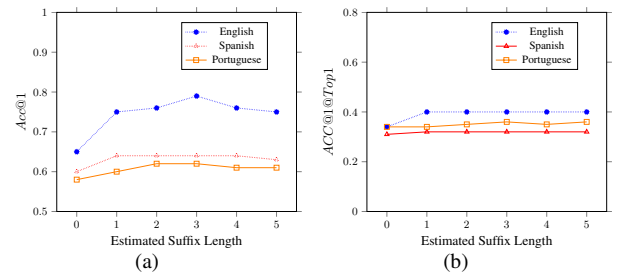


Figure 2. Effect of varying estimated suffix length for LSPG. (a) the results on metric ACC@1, and (b) the results on metric Acc@1@Top1.

on the English track. Upon manual inspection, we found that both GPT3-based methods and our method generate suitable substitutions that are not included in labels. In general, Our method’s actual performance is competitive with GPT(Ensemble) and outperforms GPT(Single). Notably, GPT3(Ensemble) requires combining the results of over six different GPT-3 prompts, including few-shot prompts, which is a time-consuming and costly process. In contrast, our method is completely zero-shot, utilizing a freely available multilingual NMT.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we present a novel multilingual LS via paraphrase generation for generating meaning-preserved substitutions across multiple languages. We adopt a multilingual NMT system as the para-

phraser that supports hundreds of languages. To address the challenges of identifying substitutions, we introduced a new decoding method that focuses on the lexical variations of the complex word. Our experiments demonstrate that our method achieves state-of-the-art results on the latest multilingual LS benchmarks, outperforming previous BERT-based approaches and showing competitive performance compared to ensemble GPT3-based method. We believe that our approach holds promise for a variety of natural language processing tasks, including but not limited to writing assistance and synonym extraction. Furthermore, our method is especially advantageous for low-resource languages.

Acknowledgement

This research is partially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under grants 62076217 and 61906060, and the Blue Project of Yangzhou University.

References

- [1] Dennis Aumiller and Michael Gertz, ‘UniHD at TSAR-2022 shared task: Is compute all we need for lexical simplification?’, in *TSAR*, pp. 251–258, (2022).
- [2] Or Biran, Samuel Brody, and Noémie Elhadad, ‘Putting it simply: a context-aware approach to lexical simplification’, in *ACL*, pp. 496–501, (2011).
- [3] John Carroll, Guido Minnen, Yvonne Canning, Siobhan Devlin, and John Tait, ‘Practical simplification of english newspaper text to assist aphasic readers’, in *AAAI Workshop*, pp. 7–10, (1998).
- [4] Marta R Costa-jussà, James Cross, Onur Çelebi, Maha Elbayad, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin Heffernan, Elahe Kalbassi, Janice Lam, Daniel Licht, Jean Maillard, et al., ‘No language left behind: Scaling human-centered machine translation’, *arXiv preprint arXiv:2207.04672*, (2022).
- [5] Raj Dabre, Chenhui Chu, and Anoop Kunchukuttan, ‘A survey of multilingual neural machine translation’, *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*, **53**(5), 1–38, (2020).
- [6] Angela Fan, Shruti Bhosale, Holger Schwenk, Zhiyi Ma, Ahmed El-Kishky, Siddharth Goyal, Mandeep Baines, Onur Çelebi, Guillaume Wenzek, Vishrav Chaudhary, et al., ‘Beyond english-centric multilingual machine translation’, *The Journal of Machine Learning Research*, **22**(1), 4839–4886, (2021).
- [7] Pierre Finamore, Elisabeth Fritzsche, Daniel King, Alison Sneyd, Aneeq Ur Rehman, Fernando Alva-Manchego, and Andreas Vlachos, ‘Strong baselines for complex word identification across multiple languages’, in *NAACL*, pp. 970–977, (2019).
- [8] Juri Ganitkevitch, Benjamin Van Durme, and Chris Callison-Burch, ‘Ppdb: The paraphrase database’, in *NAACL-HLT*, pp. 758–764, (2013).
- [9] Goran Glavaš and Sanja Štajner, ‘Simplifying lexical simplification: Do we need simplified corpora?’, in *ACL*, pp. 63–68, (2015).
- [10] Shuhao Gu, Jinchao Zhang, Fandong Meng, Yang Feng, Wanying Xie, Jie Zhou, and Dong Yu, ‘Token-level adaptive training for neural machine translation’, in *EMNLP*, pp. 1035–1046, (2020).
- [11] Wenjie Hao, Hongfei Xu, Deyi Xiong, Hongying Zan, and Lingling Mu, ‘Parazh-22m: A large-scale chinese parabank via machine translation’, in *Proceedings of the 29th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, pp. 3885–3897, (2022).
- [12] J Edward Hu, Rachel Rudinger, Matt Post, and Benjamin Van Durme, ‘Parabank: Monolingual bitext generation and sentential paraphrasing via lexically-constrained neural machine translation’, in *AAAI*, volume 33, pp. 6521–6528, (2019).
- [13] J. Edward Hu, Abhinav Singh, Nils Holzenberger, Matt Post, and Benjamin Van Durme, ‘Large-scale, diverse, paraphrastic bitexts via sampling and clustering’, in *CoNLL*, pp. 44–54, (2019).
- [14] Shaojie Jiang, Pengjie Ren, Christof Monz, and Maarten de Rijke, ‘Improving neural response diversity with frequency-aware cross-entropy loss’, in *The World Wide Web Conference*, pp. 2879–2885, (2019).
- [15] Melvin Johnson, Mike Schuster, Quoc V Le, Maxim Krikun, Yonghui Wu, Zhifeng Chen, Nikhil Thorat, Fernanda Viégas, Martin Wattenberg, Greg Corrado, et al., ‘Google’s multilingual neural machine translation system: Enabling zero-shot translation’, *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, **5**, 339–351, (2017).
- [16] Reno Kriz, Eleni Miltsakaki, Marianna Apidianaki, and Chris Callison-Burch, ‘Simplification using paraphrases and context-based lexical substitution’, in *NAACL*, pp. 207–217, (2018).
- [17] Xiaofei Li, Daniel Wiechmann, Yu Qiao, and Elma Kerz, ‘MANTIS at TSAR-2022 shared task: Improved unsupervised lexical simplification with pretrained encoders’, in *TSAR*, pp. 243–250, (2022).
- [18] Yu Lin, Zhecheng An, Peihao Wu, and Zejun Ma, ‘Improving contextual representation with gloss regularized pre-training’, in *NAACL*, pp. 907–920, (2022).
- [19] Ximing Lu, Sean Welleck, Peter West, Liwei Jiang, Jungo Kasai, Daniel Khoshabi, Ronan Le Bras, Lianhui Qin, Youngjae Yu, Rowan Zellers, Noah A. Smith, and Yejin Choi, ‘NeuroLogic a*esque decoding: Constrained text generation with lookahead heuristics’, in *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 780–799, Seattle, United States, (July 2022). Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [20] Kai North, Alphaeus Dmonte, Tharindu Ranasinghe, and Marcos Zampieri, ‘GMU-WLV at TSAR-2022 shared task: Evaluating lexical simplification models’, in *Proceedings of the Workshop on Text Simplification, Accessibility, and Readability (TSAR-2022)*, pp. 264–270, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates (Virtual), (December 2022). Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [21] Gustavo Paetzold and Lucia Specia, ‘Unsupervised lexical simplification for non-native speakers’, in *AAAI*, volume 30, (2016).
- [22] Gustavo H Paetzold and Lucia Specia, ‘A survey on lexical simplification’, *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, **60**, 549–593, (2017).
- [23] Ellie Pavlick and Chris Callison-Burch, ‘Simple ppdb: A paraphrase database for simplification’, in *ACL*, pp. 143–148, (2016).
- [24] Ellie Pavlick, Pushpendre Rastogi, Juri Ganitkevitch, Benjamin Van Durme, and Chris Callison-Burch, ‘Ppdb 2.0: Better paraphrase ranking, fine-grained entailment relations, word embeddings, and style classification’, in *ACL*, pp. 425–430, (2015).
- [25] Jipeng Qiang, Yun Li, Yi Zhu, Yunhao Yuan, Yang Shi, and Xindong Wu, ‘Lsbet: Lexical simplification based on bert’, *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, **29**, 3064–3076, (2021).
- [26] Jipeng Qiang, Yun Li, Yi Zhu, Yunhao Yuan, and Xindong Wu, ‘Lexical simplification with pretrained encoders’, *Thirty-Fourth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 8649–8656, (2020).
- [27] Jipeng Qiang, Xinyu Lu, Yun Li, Yunhao Yuan, and Xindong Wu, ‘Chinese lexical simplification’, *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, **29**, 1819–1828, (2021).
- [28] Jipeng Qiang and Xindong Wu, ‘Unsupervised statistical text simplification’, *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, **33**(4), 1802–1806, (2021).
- [29] Jipeng Qiang, Shiyu Zhu, Yun Li, Yi Zhu, Yunhao Yuan, and Xindong Wu, ‘Natural language watermarking via paraphraser-based lexical substitution’, *Artificial Intelligence*, 103859, (2023).
- [30] Horacio Saggion, ‘Automatic text simplification’, *Synthesis Lectures on Human Language Technologies*, **10**(1), 1–137, (2017).
- [31] Horacio Saggion, Sanja Štajner, Daniel Ferrés, Kim Cheng Sheang, Matthew Shardlow, Kai North, and Marcos Zampieri, ‘Findings of the tsar-2022 shared task on multilingual lexical simplification’, *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.02888*, (2023).
- [32] Sanja Štajner, Daniel Ferrés, Matthew Shardlow, Kai North, Marcos Zampieri, and Horacio Saggion, ‘Lexical simplification benchmarks for english, portuguese, and spanish’, *Frontiers in artificial intelligence*, **5**, 991242, (2022).
- [33] Xu Tan, Jiale Chen, Di He, Yingce Xia, Tao Qin, and Tie-Yan Liu, ‘Multilingual neural machine translation with language clustering’, in *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP)*, pp. 963–973, Hong Kong, China, (November 2019). Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [34] Brian Thompson and Matt Post, ‘Paraphrase generation as zero-shot multilingual translation: Disentangling semantic similarity from lexical and syntactic diversity’, in *Proceedings of the Fifth Conference on Machine Translation*, pp. 561–570, (2020).
- [35] Jannis Vamvas and Rico Sennrich, ‘NMTScore: A multilingual analysis of translation-based text similarity measures’, in *Findings of the As-*

- sociation for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2022, pp. 198–213, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, (December 2022). Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [36] Ashwin Vijayakumar, Michael Cogswell, Ramprasaath Selvaraju, Qing Sun, Stefan Lee, David Crandall, and Dhruv Batra, ‘Diverse beam search for improved description of complex scenes’, in *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 32, (2018).
 - [37] Takashi Wada, Timothy Baldwin, Yuji Matsumoto, and Jey Han Lau, ‘Unsupervised lexical substitution with decontextualised embeddings’, in *Proceedings of the 29th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, pp. 4172–4185, (2022).
 - [38] Peniel Whistely, Sandeep Mathias, and Galiveeti Poornima, ‘PresiUniv at TSAR-2022 shared task: Generation and ranking of simplification substitutes of complex words in multiple languages’, in *Proceedings of the Workshop on Text Simplification, Accessibility, and Readability (TSAR-2022)*, pp. 213–217, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates (Virtual), (December 2022). Association for Computational Linguistics.
 - [39] Peniel Whistely, Sandeep Mathias, and Galiveeti Poornima, ‘Presiuniv at tsar-2022 shared task: Generation and ranking of simplification substitutes of complex words in multiple languages’, in *TSAR*, pp. 213–217, (2022).
 - [40] John Wieting and Kevin Gimpel, ‘Paranmt-50m: Pushing the limits of paraphrastic sentence embeddings with millions of machine translations’, *arXiv preprint arXiv:1711.05732*, (2017).
 - [41] Jianing Zhou and Suma Bhat, ‘Paraphrase generation: A survey of the state of the art’, in *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 5075–5086, (2021).