Robust Subgraph Generation Improves Abstract Meaning Representation Parsing

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Abstract

The Abstract Meaning Representation (AMR) is a representation for open-domain rich semantics, with potential use in fields like semantic parsing and machine translation. Node generation, typically done using a simple dictionary lookup, is currently an important limiting factor in AMR parsing. We propose a small set of actions that derive AMR sub-graphs by transformations on spans of text, which allows for more robust learning of this stage. Our set of construction actions generalize better than the previous approach, and can be learned with a simple classifier. We improve on the previous state-of-the-art result for AMR parsing, boosting end-to-end performance by 3 F_1 on both the LDC2013E117 and LDC2014T12 datasets.

1 Introduction

The Abstract Meaning Representation (AMR) (Banarescu et al., 2013) is a rich, graph-based language for expressing semantics over a broad domain. The formalism is backed by a large data-labeling effort, and it holds promise for enabling a new breed of natural language applications ranging from semantically aware MT to rich broad-domain QA over text-based knowledge bases. Figure 1 shows an example AMR for "he gleefully ran to his dog Rover," and we give a brief tutorial on AMR in Section 2. This paper focuses on AMR parsing, the task of mapping a natural language sentence into an AMR graph.

We follow previous work (Flanigan et al., 2014) in dividing AMR parsing into two steps. The first step is *concept identification*, which generates AMR nodes from text, and which we'll refer to as *NER++* (Section 3.1). The second step is *relation identification*, which adds arcs to link these nodes into a fully connected AMR graph, which we'll call *SRL++* (Section 3.2).

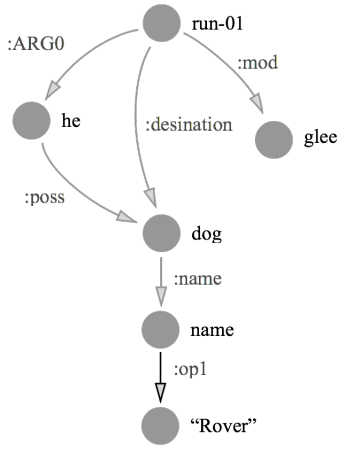

Figure 1: The AMR graph for *He gleefully ran to his dog Rover*. We show that improving the generation of low level subgraphs (e.g., *Rover* generating *name* $\xrightarrow{:op1}$ *"Rover"*) significantly improves end-to-end performance.

We observe that SRL++ is not the hard part of AMR parsing; rather, much of the difficulty in AMR is generating high accuracy concept subgraphs from the NER++ component. For example, when JAMR (Flanigan et al., 2014) is given a gold NER++ output, and must only perform SRL++ over given subgraphs it scores 80 F_1 – nearly the inter-annotator agreement of 83 F_1, and far higher than the end to end accuracy of 59 F_1.

SRL++ within AMR is *relatively* easy given a perfect NER++ output, because so much pressure is put on the NER++ to carry meaningful information. For example, there's a strong type-check feature for the existence and type of any arc just by looking at its end-points, and syntactic dependency features are very informative for removing any remaining ambiguity. If a system is considering how to link the node *run-01* in Figure 1, the

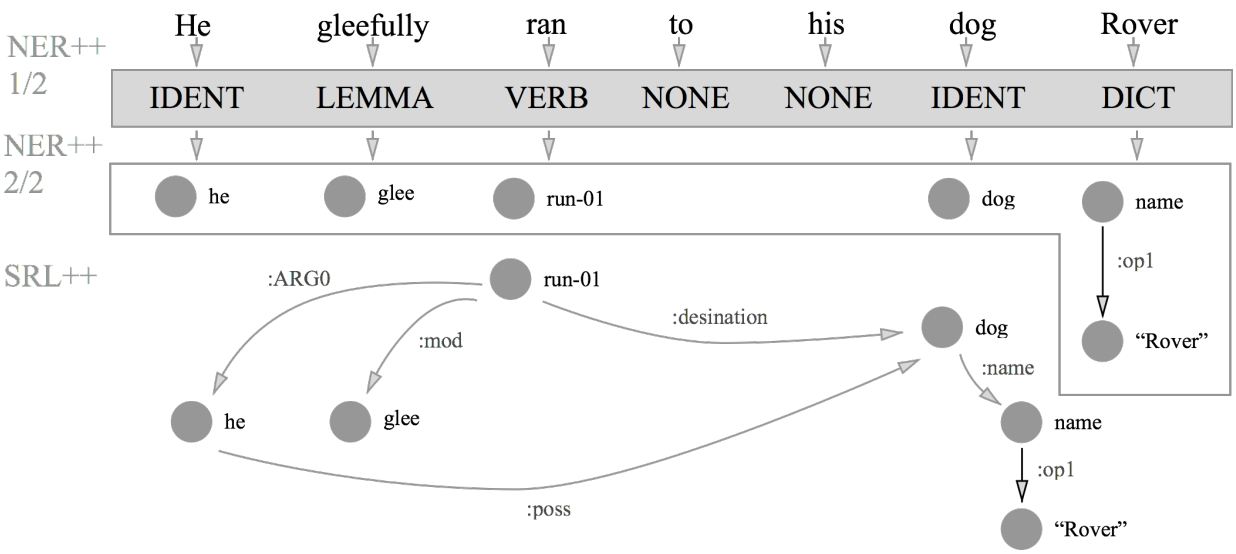

Figure 2: A graphical explanation of our method. We represent the derivation process for *He gleefully ran to his dog Rover*. First the tokens in the sentence are labeled with derivation actions, then these actions are used to generate AMR sub-graphs, which are then stitched together to form a coherent whole.

verb-sense frame for "run-01" leaves very little entropy in terms of what we could assign as an *ARG0* arc. It must be a noun, which leaves either *he* or *dog*, and this is easily decided in favor of *he* by looking for an nsubj arc in the dependency parse.

The primary contribution of this paper is a novel approach to the NER++ task, illustrated in Figure 2. We notice that the subgraphs aligned to lexical items can often be generated from a small set of *generative actions* which generalize across tokens. For example, most verbs generate an AMR node corresponding to the verb sense of the appropriate PropBank frame – e.g., *run* generates *run-01* in Figure 1. This allows us to frame the NER++ task as the task of classifying one of a small number of *actions* for each token, rather than choosing a specific AMR subgraph for every token in the sentence.

Our approach to the end-to-end AMR parsing task is therefore as follows: we define an action space for generating AMR concepts, and create a classifier for classifying lexical items into one of these actions (Section 4). This classifier is trained from automatically generated alignments between the gold AMR trees and their associated sentences (Section 5), using an objective which favors alignment mistakes which are least harmful to the NER++ component. Finally, the concept subgraphs are combined into a coherent AMR parse using the maximum spanning connected subgraph algorithm of Flanigan et al. (2014).

We show that our approach provides a large boost to recall over previous approaches, and that end to end performance is improved from 59 to 62 *smatch* (an F_1 measure of correct AMR arcs; see Cai and Knight (2013)) when incorporated into the SRL++ parser of Flanigan et al. (2014). When evaluating the performance of our action classifier in isolation, we obtain an action classification accuracy of 84.1%.

2 The AMR Formalism

AMR is a language for expressing semantics as a rooted, directed, and potentially cyclic graph, where nodes represent concepts and arcs are relationships between concepts. AMR is based on neo-Davidsonian semantics, (Davidson, 1967; Parsons, 1990). The nodes (concepts) in an AMR graph do not have to be explicitly grounded in the source sentence, and while such an alignment can often be generated it is not provided in the training corpora. The semantics of nodes can represent lexical items (e.g., *dog*), sense tagged lexical items (e.g., *run-01*), type markers (e.g., *date-entity*), and a host of other phenomena.

The edges (relationships) in AMR describe one of a number of semantic relationships between concepts. The most salient of these is semantic role labels, such as the *ARG0* and *destination* arcs in Figure 2. However, often these arcs define a semantics more akin to syntactic dependencies

Figure 3: AMR representation of the word *sailor*, which is notable for breaking the word up into a self-contained multi-node unit unpacking the derivational morphology of the word.

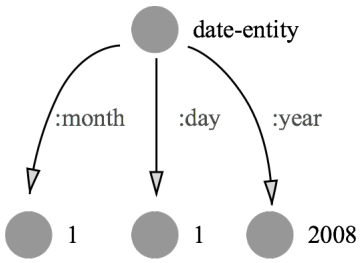

Figure 4: AMR representation of the span *January 1, 2008*, an example of how AMR can represent structured data by creating additional nodes such as *date-entity* to signify the presence of special structure.

(e.g., *mod* standing in for adjective and adverbial modification), or take on domain-specific meaning (e.g., the month, day, and year arcs of a *date-entity*).

To introduce AMR and its notation in more detail, we'll unpack the translation of the sentence "he gleefully ran to his dog Rover". We show in Figure 1 the interpretation of this sentence as an AMR graph.

The root node of the graph is labeled *run-01*, corresponding to the PropBank (Palmer et al., 2005) definition of the verb *ran*. *run-01* has an outgoing *ARG0* arc to a node *he*, with the usual PropBank semantics. The outgoing *mod* edge from *run-01* to *glee* takes a general purpose semantics corresponding to adjective, adverbial, or other modification of the governor by the dependent. We note that *run-01* has a *destination* arc to *dog*. The label for *destination* is taken from a finite set of special arc sense tags similar to the preposition senses found in (Srikumar, 2013). The last portion of the figure parses *dog* to a node which will eventually serve as a type marker, and *Rover* into the larger subgraph indicating a concept with name "Rover."

2.1 AMR Subgraphs

The mapping from tokens of a sentence to AMR nodes is not one-to-one. A single token or span of tokens can generate a *subgraph* of AMR consisting of multiple nodes. These subgraphs can logically be considered the expression of a single concept, and are useful to treat as such (e.g., see Section 3.1).

Many of these multi-node subgraphs capture structured data such as time expressions, as in Figure 4. In this example, a *date-entity* node is created to signify that this cluster of nodes is part of a structured sub-component representing a date, where the nodes and arcs within the component have specific semantics. This illustrates a broader recurring pattern in AMR: an artificial node may, based on its title, have expected children with special semantics. A particularly salient example of this pattern is the *name* node (see *"Rover"* in Figure 1) which signifies that all outgoing arcs with label *op* comprise the tokens of a name object.

The ability to decouple the meaning representation of a lexical item from its surface form allows for rich semantic interpretations of certain concepts in a sentence. For example, the token *sailor* is represented in Figure 3 by a concept graph representing a person who performs the action *sail-01*. Whereas often the AMR node aligned to a span of text is a straightforward function of the text, these cases remain difficult to capture in a more principled way than simply memorizing mappings between tokens and sub-graphs.

3 Task Decomposition

To the best of our knowledge, the JAMR parser is the only published end-to-end AMR parser. An important insight in JAMR is that AMR parsing can be broken into two distinct tasks: (1) **NER++**: the task of interpreting what entities are being referred to in the text, realized by generating the best AMR sub-graphs for a given set of tokens, and (2) **SRL++**: the task of discovering what relationships exist between entities, realized by taking the disjoint subgraphs generated by NER++ and creating a fully-connected graph. We describe both tasks in more detail below.

3.1 NER++

Much of the difficulty of parsing to AMR lies in generating local sub-graphs representing the meaning of token spans. For instance, the formalism implicitly demands rich notions of NER, lemmatization, word sense disambiguation, number normalization, and temporal parsing; among others. To illustrate, a correct parse of the sentence in Figure 2 requires lemmatization (*gleefully* → *glee*), word sense tagging (*run* → *run-01*), and open domain NER (i.e., *Rover*), Furthermore, many of the generated subgraphs (e.g., *sailor* in Figure 3) have rich semantics beyond those produced by standard NLP systems.

Formally, NER++ is the task of generating a disjoint set of subgraphs representing the meanings of localized spans of words in the sentence. For NER++, JAMR uses a simple Viterbi sequence model to directly generate AMR-subgraphs from memorized mappings of text spans to subgraphs. This paper's main contribution explores delexicalizing NER++ instead, see Section 4.

3.2 SRL++

The second stage of the AMR decomposition consists of generating a coherent graph from the set of disjoint sub-graphs produced by NER++. Unlike the domain-specific arcs within a single sub-graph produced by NER++, the arcs in SRL++ tend to have generally applicable semantics. For example, the SRL arcs (e.g., *ARG0* and *destination* in Figure 2), or the syntactic dependency arcs (e.g., *mod* and *poss* in Figure 2). For SRL++, JAMR uses a variation of the maximum spanning connected graph algorithm augmented by dual decomposition to impose linguistically motivated constraints on a maximum likelihood objective.

4 A Novel NER++ Method

38% of the words in the LDC2014E113 dev set are unseen during training time. With training sets this small, memorization-based approaches are extremely brittle. We de-lexicalize by partitioning the AMR sub-graph search space in terms of the actions needed to derive a node from its aligned token. At test time we do a sequence labeling of input tokens with these actions, and then deterministically derive the AMR sub-graphs from spans of tokens by applying the transformation decreed by their actions. We explain in Section 4.1 how exactly we manage this partition, and in Section 4.3 how we create training data from existing resources to setup and train an action-type classifier.

4.1 Derivation actions

We partition the AMR sub-graph space into a set of 9 actions, each corresponding to an action that will be taken by the NER++ system if a token receives this classification.

IDENTITY This action handles the common case that the title of the node corresponding to a token is identical to the source token. To execute the action, we take the lowercased version of the token to be the title of the corresponding node.

NONE This action corresponds to ignoring this token, in the case that the node should not align to any corresponding AMR fragment.

VERB This action captures the verb-sense disambiguation feature of AMR. To execute on a token, we find the most similar verb in PropBank based on Jaro Winkler distance, and adopt its most frequent sense. This serves as a reasonable baseline for word sense disambiguation, although of course accuracy would be expected to improve if a sophisticated system were incorporated.

VALUE This action interprets a token by its integer value. The AMR representation is sensitive to the difference between a node with a title of *5* (the integer value) and "5" or "five" – the string value. This is a rare action, but is nonetheless distinct from any of the other classes. We execute this action by extracting an integer value with a regex based number normalizer, and using the result as the title of the generated node.

LEMMA AMR often performs stemming and part-of-speech transformations on the source token in generating a node. For example, we get *glee* from *gleefully*. We capture this by a **LEMMA** action, which is executed by using the lemma of the source token as the generated node title. Note that this does not capture all lemmatizations, as there are often discrepancies between the lemma generated by the lemmatizer and the correct AMR lemma.

NAME AMR often references names with a special structured data type: the *name* construction. For example, *Rover* in Figure 1. We can capture this phenomenon on unseen names by attaching a created *name* node to the top of a span.

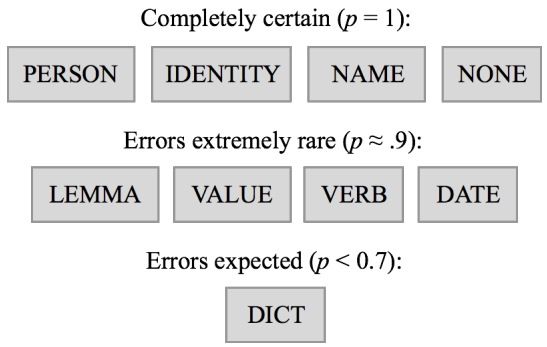

Figure 5: Reliability of each action. The top row are actions which are deterministic; the second row occasionally produce errors. DICT is the least preferred action, with a relatively high error rate.

Action	# Tokens	% Total
NONE	41538	36.2
DICT	30027	26.1
IDENTITY	19034	16.6
VERB	11739	10.2
LEMMA	5029	4.5
NAME	4537	3.9
DATE	1418	1.1
PERSON	1336	1.1
VALUE	122	0.1

Table 1: Distribution of action types in the proxy section of the newswire section of the LDC2014T12 dataset, generated from automatically aligned data.

PERSON A variant of the NAME action, this action produces a subgraph identical to the NAME action, but adds a node *person* as a parent. This is, in effect, a *name* node with an implicit entity type of person. Due to discrepancies between the output of our named entity tagger and the richer AMR named entity ontology, we only apply this tag to the person named entity tag.

DATE The most frequent of the structured data type in the data, after *name*, is the *date-entity* construction (for an example see Figure 4). We deterministically take the output of SUTime (Chang and Manning, 2012) and convert it into the *date-entity* AMR representation.

DICT This class serves as a back-off for the other classes, implementing an approach similar to Flanigan et al. (2014). In particular, we memorize a simple mapping from spans of text (such as *sailor*) to their corresponding most frequently aligned AMR sub-graphs in the training data (i.e., the graph in Figure 3). See Section 5 for details on the alignment process. At test time we can do a lookup in this dictionary for any element that gets labeled with a **DICT** action. If an entry is not found in the mapping, we back off to the second most probable class proposed by the classifier.

4.2 Action Reliability

In this section we introduce a method for resolving ambiguity based on comparing the reliability with which actions generate the correct sub-graph, and discuss implications.

Even given a perfect action classification for a token, certain action executions can introduce errors. Some of our actions are entirely deterministic in their conversion from the word to the AMR sub-graph (e.g., IDENTITY), but others are prone to making mistakes in this conversion (e.g., VERB, DICT). We define the notion of *action reliability* as the probability of deriving the correct node from a span of tokens.

To provide a concrete example, our dictionary lookup classifier predicts the correct AMR subgraph 67% of the time on the dev set. We therefore define the reliability of the **DICT** action as 0.67. In contrast to **DICT**, correctly labeling a node as **IDENTITY**, **NAME**, **PERSON**, and **NONE** have action reliability of 1.0, since there is no ambiguity in the node generation once one of those actions have been selected, and we are guaranteed to generate the correct node given the correct action.

We can therefore construct a hierarchy of reliability (Figure 5) – all else being equal, we prefer to generate actions from higher in the hierarchy, as they are more likely to produce the correct subgraph. This hierarchy is useful in resolving ambiguity throughout our system. During data generation for training (Section 4.3), when two actions could both generate the aligned AMR node, we prefer the more reliable one. In our aligner, we bias alignments towards generating more reliable action sequences (see Section 5).

The primary benefit of the de-lexicalized NER++ approach is that we can reduce the usage of low reliability actions, like **DICT**. A fully-lexicalized NER++ system is equivalent to using **DICT** for everything.

We analyze the empirical distribution of actions in our automatically aligned corpus in Table 1.

Input token; word embedding
Left+right token / bigram
Token length indicator
Token starts with "non"
POS; Left+right POS / bigram
Dependency parent token / POS
Incoming dependency arc
Bag of outgoing dependency arcs
Number of outgoing dependency arcs
Max JaroWinkler to any lemma in PropBank
Output tag of the **VERB** action if applied
Output tag of the **DICT** action if applied
NER; Left+right NER / bigram
Capitalization
Incoming prep_* or appos + parent has NER
Token is pronoun
Token is part of a coref chain
Token pronoun and part of a coref chain

Table 2: The features for the NER++ maxent classifier.

The cumulative frequency of the non-**DICT** actions is striking: we can generate 74% of the tokens with high reliability ($p \geq 0.90$) actions. In this light, it is unsurprising that our results demonstrate a large gain in recall on the test set.

4.3 Training the Action Classifier

Given a set of AMR training data, in the form of *(graph, sentence)* pairs, we first induce alignments from the graph nodes to the sentence (see Section 5). Formally, for every node n_i in the AMR graph, alignment gives us some token s_j (at the jth index in the sentence) that we believe generated the node n_i.

Then, for each action type, we can ask whether or not that action type is able to take token s_j and correctly generate n_i. For concreteness, imagine the token s_j is *running*, and the node n_i has the title *run-01*. The two action types we find that are able to correctly generate this node are DICT and VERB. We choose the most reliable action type of those available (see Figure 5) to generate the observed node – in this case, VERB.

In cases where an AMR subgraph is generated from multiple tokens, we assign the action label to each token which generates the subgraph. Each of these tokens are added to the training set; at test time, we collapse sequences of adjacent identical action labels, and apply the action once to the resulting token span.

Inducing the most reliable action (according to the alignments) for every token in the training corpus provides a supervised training set for our action classifier, with some noise introduced by the automatically generated alignments. We then train a simple maxent classifier to make action decisions at each node. At test time, the classifier takes as input a pair $\langle i, S \rangle$, where i is the index of the token in the input sentence, and S is a sequence tokens representing the source sentence. It then uses the features in Table 2 to predict the actions to take at that node.

5 Automatic Alignment of Training Data

AMR training data is in the form of bi-text, where we are given a set of (sentence,graph) pairs, with no explicit alignments between them. We want a mapping from each node to the token it represents. It is perfectly possible for multiple nodes to align to the same token.

It is not possible, within our framework, to represent a single node being sourced from multiple tokens. Note that a subgraph can consist of many individual nodes; in cases where a subgraph should align to multiple tokens, we generate an alignment from the subgraph's nodes to the associated tokens in the sentence. It is empirically very rare for a subgraph to have more nodes than the token span it should align to.

There have been two previous attempts at producing automatic AMR alignments. The first was published as a necessary component of JAMR, and used a rule-based approach to perform alignments. This was shown to work well on the sample of 100 hand-labeled sentences used to develop the system. Pourdamghani et al. (2014) approached the alignment problem in the framework of the IBM alignment models. They rendered AMR graphs as text, and then used traditional machine translation alignment techniques to generate an alignment.

Our decomposition of the AMR node generation process into a set of actions provides a novel objective for the aligner to optimize, in addition to the accuracy of the alignment itself. We would like to produce the most *reliable* sequence of actions for the NER++ model to train from, where reliable is taken in the sense defined in Section 4.2. To give an example, a sequence of all **DICT** actions could generate any AMR graph, but is very low reliability. A sequence of all **IDENTITY** actions could only generate one set of nodes, but does it with absolute certainty.

We formulate this objective as a Boolean LP problem. Let $\mathbf{Q}$ be a matrix in $\{0,1\}^{|\mathbf{N}|\times|\mathbf{S}|}$ of Boolean variables, where $\mathbf{N}$ are the nodes in an

AMR graph, and $\mathbf{S}$ are the tokens in the sentence. The meaning of $\mathbf{Q}_{i,j} = \mathbb{1}$ can be interpreted as node n_i having being aligned to token s_j. Furthermore, let $\mathbf{V}$ be a matrix $\mathcal{T}^{|\mathbf{N}|\times|\mathbf{S}|}$, where $\mathcal{T}$ is the set of NER++ actions from Section 4. Each matrix element $\mathbf{V}_{i,j}$ is assigned the most reliable action which would generate node n_i from token s_j. We would like to maximize the probability of the actions collectively generating a perfect set of nodes. This can be formulated linearly by maximizing the log-likelihood of the actions. Let the function $\text{REL}(l)$ be the reliability of action l (probability of generating intended node). Our objective can then be formulated as follows:

$$\max_{\mathbf{Q}} \quad \sum_{i,j} \mathbf{Q}_{i,j} \left[\ln(\text{REL}(\mathbf{V}_{i,j})) + \alpha \mathcal{E}_{i,j}\right] \tag{1}$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{j} \mathbf{Q}_{i,j} = 1 \quad \forall i \tag{2}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}_{k,j} + \mathbf{Q}_{l,j} \leq 1 \quad \forall k, l, j;\ n_k \nleftrightarrow n_l \tag{3}$$

where $\mathcal{E}$ is the Jaro Winkler similarity between the title of the node i and the token j, α is a hyperparameter (set to 0.8 in our experiments), and the operator $\nleftrightarrow$ denotes that two nodes in the AMR graph are both not adjacent and do not have the same title.

The objective value penalizes alignments which map to the unreliable DICT tag, while rewarding alignments with high overlap between the title of the node and the token. Note that most incorrect alignments fall into the DICT class by default, as no other action could generate the correct AMR sub-graph. Therefore, if there exists an alignment that would consume the token using another action, the optimization prefers that alignment. The Jaro Winkler similarity term, in turn, serves as a tie-breaker between equally (un)reliable alignments. The constraint (2) ensures that every node in the graph is aligned to exactly one token in the source sentence. The constraint (3) ensures that two non-adjacent nodes which do not share a title do not refer to the same token.

There are many packages which can solve this Boolean LP efficiently. We used Gurobi (Gurobi Optimization, 2015). Given a matrix $\mathbf{Q}$ that maximizes our objective, we can decode our solved alignment as follows: for each i, align n_i to the j s.t. $\mathbf{Q}_{i,j} = 1$. By our constraints, exactly one such j must exist.

6 Related Work

Beyond the connection of our work with Flanigan et al. (2014), we note that the NER++ component of AMR encapsulates a number of lexical NLP tasks. These include named entity recognition (Nadeau and Sekine, 2007; Finkel et al., 2005), word sense disambiguation (Yarowsky, 1995; Banerjee and Pedersen, 2002), lemmatization, and a number of more domain specific tasks. For example, a full understanding of AMR requires normalizing temporal expressions (Verhagen et al., 2010; Strötgen and Gertz, 2010; Chang and Manning, 2012).

In turn, the SRL++ facet of AMR takes many insights from semantic role labeling (Gildea and Jurafsky, 2002; Punyakanok et al., 2004; Srikumar, 2013) to capture the relations between verbs and their arguments. In addition, many of the arcs in AMR have nearly syntactic interpretations (e.g., *mod* for adjective/adverb modification, *op* for compound noun expressions). These are similar to representations used in syntactic dependency parsing (de Marneffe and Manning, 2008; McDonald et al., 2005; Buchholz and Marsi, 2006).

More generally, parsing to a semantic representation is has been explored in depth for when the representation is a logical form (Kate et al., 2005; Zettlemoyer and Collins, 2005; Liang et al., 2011). Recent work has applied semantic parsing techniques to representations beyond lambda calculus expressions. For example, work by Berant et al. (2014) parses text into a formal representation of a biological process. Hosseini et al. (2014) solves algebraic word problems by parsing them into a structured meaning representation. In contrast to these approaches, AMR attempts to capture open domain semantics over arbitrary text.

Interlingua (Mitamura et al., 1991; Carbonell et al., 1999; Levin et al., 1998) are an important inspiration for decoupling the semantics of the AMR language from the surface form of the text being parsed; although, AMR has a self-admitted English bias.

7 Results

We present improvements in end-to-end AMR parsing on two datasets by using our NER++ component. Action type classifier accuracy on an automatically aligned corpus and alignment accuracy on a small hand-labeled corpus are also reported.

Dataset	System	P	R	F_1
2014T12	JAMR	**67.1**	53.2	59.3
	Our System	66.6	**58.3**	**62.2**
2013E117	JAMR	**66.9**	52.9	59.1
	Our System	65.9	**59.0**	**62.3**

Table 3: Results on two AMR datasets for JAMR and our NER++ embedded in the JAMR SRL++ component. Note that recall is consistently higher across both datasets, with only a small loss in precision.

7.1 End-to-end AMR Parsing

We evaluate our NER++ component in the context of end-to-end AMR parsing on two corpora: the newswire section of LDC2014T12 and the split given in (Flanigan et al., 2014) of LDC2013E117, both consisting primarily of newswire. We compare two systems: the JAMR parser (Flanigan et al., 2014), [1] and the JAMR SRL++ component with our NER++ approach.

AMR parsing accuracy is measured with a metric called *smatch* (Cai and Knight, 2013), which stands for "s(emantic) match." The metric is the F_1 of a best-match between triples implied by the target graph, and triples in the parsed graph – that is, the set of (parent, edge, child) triples in the graph.

Our results are given in Table 3. We report much higher recall numbers on both datasets, with only small ($\leq$ 1 point) loss in precision. This is natural considering our approach. A better NER++ system allows for more correct AMR subgraphs to be generated – improving recall – but does not in itself improve the accuracy of the SRL++ system it is integrated in.

7.2 Component Accuracy

We evaluate our aligner on a small set of 100 hand-labeled alignments, and evaluate our NER++ classifier on automatically generated alignments over the whole corpus,

On a hand-annotated dataset of 100 AMR parses from the LDC2014T12 corpus,[2] our aligner achieves an accuracy of **83.2**. This is a measurement of the percentage of AMR nodes that are aligned to the correct token in their source sentence. Note that this is a different metric than the precision/recall of prior work, and is based on both a different corpus and subtly different annotation scheme.[3] In particular, we require that every AMR node aligns to some token in the sentence, and force the system to always align nodes, even when unsure.

On the automatic alignments over the LDC2014T12 corpus, our action classifier achieved a test accuracy of **0.841**. The classifier's most common class of mistakes are incorrect **DICT** classifications. It is reassuring that some of these errors can be recovered by the naive dictionary lookup.

The **DICT** action lookup table achieved an accuracy of **0.67**. This is particularly impressive given that our model moves many of the difficult semantic tasks onto the **DICT** tag, and that this lookup does not make use of any learning beyond a simple count of observed span to sub-graph mappings.

8 Conclusion

We address a key challenge in AMR parsing: the task of generating subgraphs from lexical items in the sentence. We show that a simple classifier over *actions* which generate these subgraphs improves end-to-end recall for AMR parsing with only a small drop in precision, leading to an overall gain in F_1. A clear direction of future work is improving the coverage of the defined actions. For example, a richer lemmatizer could shift the burden of lemmatizing unknown words into the AMR lemma semantics and away from the dictionary lookup component. We hope our decomposition provides a useful framework to guide future work in NER++ and AMR in general.

References

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Satanjeev Banerjee and Ted Pedersen. 2002. An adapted lesk algorithm for word sense disambiguation using wordnet. In *Computational linguistics and intelligent text processing*.

[1] Available at `https://github.com/jflanigan/jamr`.

[2] Our dataset would be publicly released upon acceptance

[3] A standard semantics and annotation guideline for AMR alignment is left for future work; our accuracy should be considered only an informal metric.

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