

# An Autoregressive Text-to-Graph Framework for Joint Entity and Relation Extraction

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## Abstract

In this paper, we propose a novel method for joint entity and relation extraction from unstructured text by framing it as a conditional sequence generation problem. In contrast to conventional generative information extraction models that are left-to-right token-level generators, our approach is *span-based*. It generates a linearized graph where nodes represent text spans and edges represent relation triplets. Our method employs a transformer encoder-decoder architecture with pointing mechanism on a dynamic vocabulary of spans and relation types. Our model can capture the structural characteristics and boundaries of entities and relations through span representations while simultaneously grounding the generated output in the original text thanks to the pointing mechanism. Evaluation on benchmark datasets validates the effectiveness of our approach, demonstrating competitive results. Code is available at <https://github.com/urchade/ATG>.

## Introduction

Joint entity and relation extraction is a fundamental task in Natural Language Processing (NLP), serving as the basis for various high-level applications such as Knowledge Graph construction (Ye et al. 2022b) and question answering (Chen et al. 2017). Traditionally, this task was tackled via pipeline models that independently trained and implemented entity recognition and relation extraction, often leading to error propagation (Brin 1999; Nadeau and Sekine 2007). Deep learning has led to the creation of end-to-end models, allowing for the use of shared representations and joint optimization of loss functions for both tasks (Wadden et al. 2019; Wang and Lu 2020; Zhao et al. 2021; Zhong and Chen 2021; Yan et al.). Despite this advancement, these models essentially remain pipeline-based, with entity and relation predictions executed by separate classification heads, thereby ignoring potential interactions between these tasks.

Recent advancements have seen a shift towards “real” end-to-end solutions, where the prediction of entities and relations is intertwined, accomplished through autoregressive models. These models treat the joint entity-relation task as a process of generating plain text, employing *augmented languages* to encode and decode structural information (Paolini et al. 2021; Lu et al. 2022; Liu et al. 2022; Fei et al. 2022).

While these models have achieved remarkable performance, we argue that they also expose room for improvement, especially in terms of grounding the output in the input text.

In this paper, we present an autoregressive transformer encoder-decoder model that generates a linearized graph instead of generating plain text. Our model makes use of a pointing mechanism (Vinyals, Fortunato, and Jaitly 2015) on a dynamic vocabulary of spans and relations, providing explicit grounding in the original text. In fact, without grounding, models can generate output that are semantically coherent but contextually detached from the input. Our pointing mechanism mitigates this issue by ensuring that the decoder’s outputs, specifically the entity spans, are directly tied to the input text. Furthermore, by generating spans and relations directly from the text, rather than producing standalone plain text, our model encode the structural characteristics and boundaries of entities/spans more accurately, which can be missed by previous generative information extraction models. The cornerstone of our solution is the explicit enumeration of all spans<sup>1</sup> at the encoder’s output, making them readily available to the decoder. Although the number of spans can be extensive, we note that when bounding the span size, our model’s vocabulary is typically smaller than that of traditional language models (Devlin et al. 2019; Raffel et al. 2019), as discussed in subsequent sections.

Moreover, as previous generative IE models operate at the token level, they scatter the information regarding an entity’s span and its boundaries over multiple decoding steps. In contrast, generating an entity and its type in our approach is accomplished in a single decoding step. Additionally, our method naturally ensures the well-formedness of the output while some generative IE models that produce text, often require non-regular constraints. As an example, in TANL (Paolini et al. 2021), if a portion of the generated sentence has an invalid format, that segment is discarded. Such issues are readily addressed in our model since the vocabulary can be fully controlled.

We evaluated our model on three benchmark datasets for joint entity and relation extraction: CoNLL 2004, SciERC, and ACE 05. Our model demonstrated competitive performance on all datasets. Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

<sup>1</sup>Up to a certain length in practice.

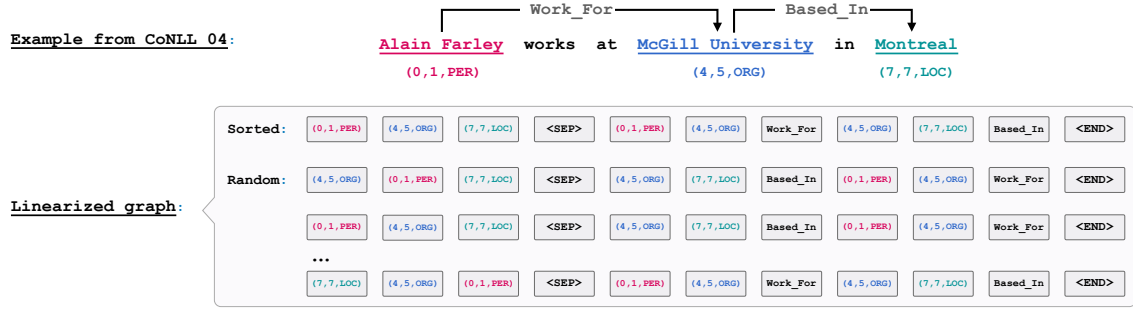


Figure 1: **Linearization for Information Graph Generation.** The input text is mapped into an information extraction graph. The graph consists of entities and relation triplets, which are generated sequentially by first producing entity spans (represented by start word, end word, and entity type) followed by relation triplets (head entity, tail entity, and relation type). Two different ordering approaches are compared: Sorted and Random. The Sorted approach sorts respectively nodes and edges by the first endpoint of the span and by tail entities. The Random approach randomly orders nodes and edges during training.

- We propose a novel method for joint entity and relation extraction by framing it as a conditional sequence generation problem. Our approach generates a linearized graph representation, where nodes represent entity spans and edges represent relation triplets.
- Our model employs a transformer encoder-decoder architecture with a pointing mechanism on a dynamic vocabulary of spans and relation types. This allows to capture the structural characteristics and boundaries of entities and relations while grounding the generated output in the original text.
- We demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach through extensive evaluations on benchmark datasets, including CoNLL 2004, SciERC, and ACE 05. Our model achieves state-of-the-art results on CoNLL 2004 and SciERC, surpassing previous comparable models in terms of Entity F1 scores and Relation F1 scores.

### Task definition

We address the task of joint entity and relation extraction from text as a graph generation approach. Our proposed model generates nodes and edges as a single sequence, effectively integrating both entity and relation extraction into a unified framework. Formally, the task can be defined as follows: Given an input text sequence  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_L\}$ , where  $x_i$  represents the  $i$ -th token in the sequence, our objective is to generate a linearized graph representation  $\mathbf{y} = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_M\}$ , where  $y_j$  represents a token in the generated sequence. As shown in Figure 1, in Each token  $y_j$  can take one of three forms:

- **Entity Span:** The token  $y_j$  represents an entity span, defined as  $y_j = (s_j, e_j, t_j)$ , where  $s_j$  and  $e_j$  denote the starting and ending positions of the entity span, and  $t_j$  denotes the type of the entity.
- **Relation Type:** The token  $y_j$  represents a relation type between two entities, such as `Work_For` relation.
- **Special Token:** The token  $y_j$  represents special tokens used in the generation process, such as `<SEP>` to sepa-

rate entities and relations or the `<END>` to stop the generation.

The template employed in our model, we refer to **ATG** (Autoregressive Text-to-Graph), is depicted in Figure 1. It starts by generating the entities, followed by a `<SEP>` token, and ends with the relation triplets, each consisting of head node, tail node and edge/relation type. During training, we try two distinct orderings for the graph linearization: *sorted* and *random*. As shown in the Figure 1, the *sorted* linearization organizes entities and relations based on their positions in the original text, while the *random* linearization randomly shuffles entities and relations order.

### Model Architecture

Our model, ATG, employed an encoder-decoder architecture, which processes the input text sequence and produces a linearized graph as illustrated in the Figure 2.

#### Encoder

The encoder in ATG utilizes a transformer layer that takes an input text sequence  $\mathbf{x}$  and outputs token representations  $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times D}$ , where  $D$  is the model dimension.

#### Vocabulary Construction

**Dynamic Vocabulary** To enable the pointing mechanism in our decoder, we construct a dynamic vocabulary matrix  $\mathbf{E}$  that includes embeddings for spans, special tokens, and relation types. While special tokens and relation type embeddings are randomly initialized and updated during training, the span embeddings are dynamically computed, *i.e.* their representations depend on the input sequence. More specifically, the embedding of a span (start, end, type) is computed as follows:

$$\mathbf{S}_{[\text{start}, \text{end}, \text{type}]} = \mathbf{W}_{\text{type}}^T [\mathbf{h}_{\text{start}} \odot \mathbf{h}_{\text{end}}] \quad (1)$$

In this equation,  $[\odot]$  represents a concatenation operation;  $\mathbf{h}_{\text{start}}$  and  $\mathbf{h}_{\text{end}}$  denote the representations of tokens at the start and end positions, respectively.  $\mathbf{W}_{\text{type}} \in \mathbb{R}^{2D \times D}$  is a weight matrix associated with the entity type (*i.e.*, there is a

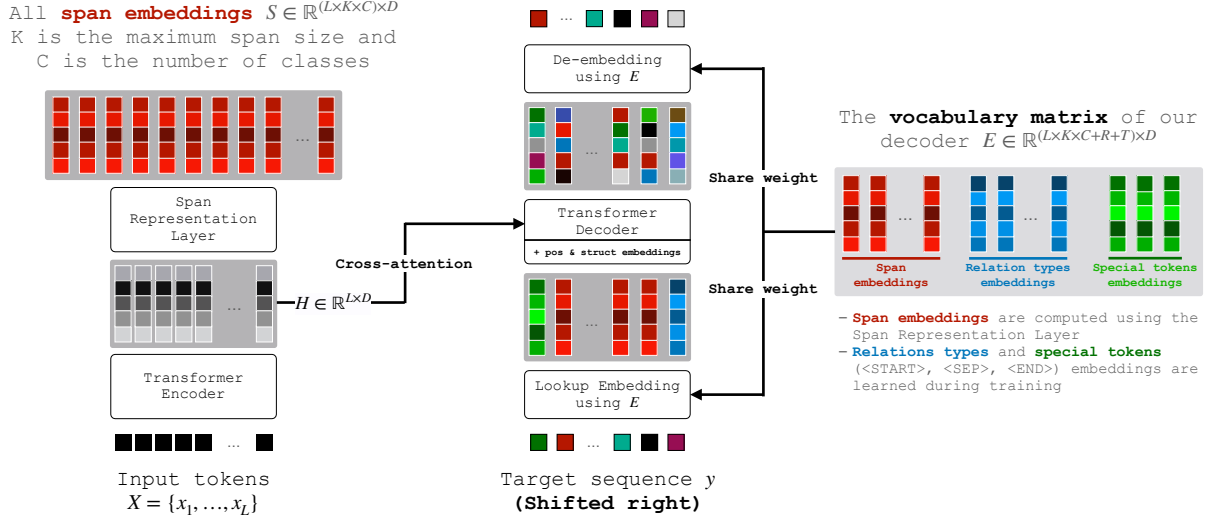


Figure 2: **Illustration of the architecture of our model, ATG.** (left) The Encoder takes in the input sequence  $X$  and generates representations of the tokens  $H$  and spans  $S$ . (middle) The Decoder then generates the next token conditioned on the previous tokens and the input representation  $H$ . (right) The vocabulary matrix used for decoding consists of the concatenation of span embeddings  $S$ , learned relation type embeddings, and special token embeddings.

$W_{\text{type}}$  for each entity types in a datasets). Finally, the vocabulary embedding matrix  $E$  is formed by stacking all the span embeddings  $S$ , special token embeddings  $T$ , and relation type embeddings  $R$ .

**Vocabulary Size** The size of the vocabulary matrix  $E \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times D}$  is  $V = L \times K \times C + R + T$ , where  $L$  represents the sequence length,  $K$  the maximum span size,  $C$  the number of entity types,  $R$  the number of relations, and  $T$  the number of special tokens (<START>, <END>, and <SEP>). Let's take the CoNLL 2004 dataset as an example to illustrate this. This dataset has the following characteristics:  $K = 12$ ,  $C = 4$ ,  $R = 5$ , and  $T = 3$ . Considering a sentence of length 114 (which is the maximum length in the training set), the resulting vocabulary size would be 5480. This size is considerably smaller when compared with the vocabulary size of a typical language model, which usually hovers around 30,000 distinct tokens.

## Decoder

The decoder is a causal transformer trained to predict the next token in the sequence, akin to traditional language modeling. However, it is important to note that the vocabulary of our decoder consists of entity spans, relation types, and special tokens, rather than plain text. The decoder conditions its predictions on the previously generated tokens  $y_{<j}$  using self-attention and on the input token representations  $H$  using cross-attention. This enables the decoder to attend to relevant information from both the previously generated tokens and the input text. Through attention visualizations, as depicted in Figure 9 and 10, we observed that the model effectively harnesses both sources of information. Finally, The training objective aims to maximize the following con-

ditional probability:

$$p(y|x) = \prod_{j=1}^M p(y_j | y_{<j}, H) \quad (2)$$

This is achieved during the training by minimizing the negative log-likelihood of a reference sequence obtained by linearizing the reference IE graph. Details about the decoder input and output are given in the subsequent paragraphs.

**Decoder Input Embedding** The embedding step feeds the previous decoder outputs  $y_1, \dots, y_{i-1}$  into the model using the vocabulary matrix  $E$ , along with *positional* and *structural* embeddings as shown in Figure 3. This process can be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} z_1, \dots, z_{i-1} = & E[y_1, \dots, y_{i-1}] \\ & + E_{\text{pos}}[1, \dots, i-1] \\ & + E_{\text{struct}}[y_1, \dots, y_{i-1}] \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Here,  $E[y_1, \dots, y_{i-1}]$  corresponds to the token embeddings, which may corresponds to spans, relation types, or special tokens embeddings depending on the nature of  $y_{<i}$ . The matrix  $E_{\text{pos}}$  represents absolute positional embedding. It allows to capture the positional information of the decoder outputs from  $y_1$  to  $y_{i-1}$ . Additionally, the structural embedding  $E_{\text{struct}}$  serve as indicators to guide the model in generating specific elements. In particular, they provide information about whether the model should generate a Node (before <SEP> tokens), Tail, Head nodes, or Relation types (as illustrated in Figure 3). Both the absolute position encoding and the structural embedding are randomly initialized and updated during training. In summary, by combining these embeddings, ATG can capture the semantic, positional and structural information about the linearized graph.

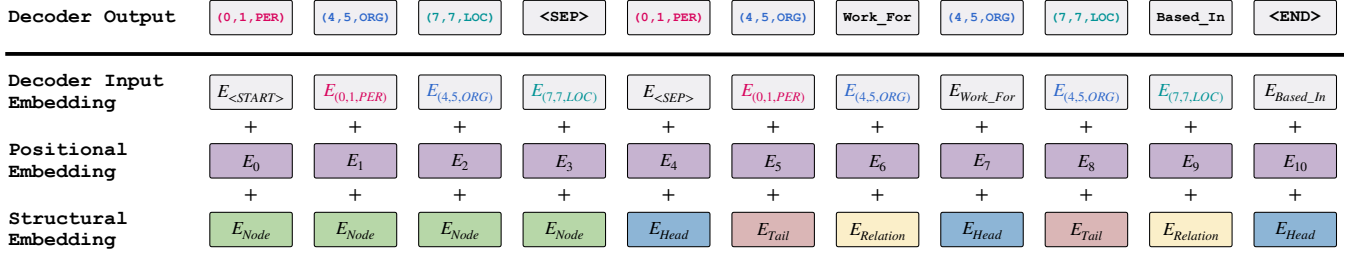


Figure 3: **Input/output of the decoder.** The process starts with the special token **<START>** and continues until the **<END>** token is generated. To separate the generation of nodes and edges, a special token **<SEP>** is used. At each position, the decoder takes in the sum of the embedding of the current token, an absolute position embedding, and a structure embedding.

**Decoder Output** We define  $\tilde{z}_i$  as the hidden state at the last position of the decoder output sequence obtained by feeding the previous output embedding and the encoder outputs  $\mathbf{H}$  (for cross-attention) to the decoder, *i.e.*,

$$\tilde{z}_i = \text{Decoder}(z_1, \dots, z_{i-1}; \mathbf{H})[-1] \quad (4)$$

Then, to compute the probability distribution over the dynamic vocabulary for generating the next token,  $y_i$ , our model employs the softmax function on the dot product between the dynamic vocabulary embedding matrix  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $\tilde{z}_i$ :

$$p(y_i | \mathbf{y}_{<i}, \mathbf{H}) = \frac{\exp \mathbf{E}^T \tilde{z}_i}{\sum_{k=1}^V (\exp \mathbf{E}^T \tilde{z}_i)_k} \quad (5)$$

The probabilities generated by this formulation allow the model to select the appropriate token from the vocabulary for generating a span, special token, or relation type.

**Constrained Decoding** During inference, we sample from the model by enforcing constraints that preserve the well-formedness of the output graph. Unlike prevalent generative IE models that may demand non-regular constraints, in ATG, adherence to the constraints is achieved by simply masking invalid tokens in the vocabulary based on the decoding step.

### Training with Sentence Augmentation

In our work, we observed oversmoothing (Kulikov, Ereemeev, and Cho 2022), where the model prematurely generates the **<EOS>**, *i.e.* a bias towards short sequences (Murray and Chiang 2018; Xuwen et al. 2021). We found this bias to harm the recall of the tasks as the generation terminates before predicting all the entities/relations. To counteract this, we propose sentence augmentation, drawing inspiration from Pix2seq (Chen et al. 2022), who encounter a similar problem for their generative object detection model. This approach forms an augmented training sample  $s_{\text{aug}}$  by randomly concatenating sentences from the training set  $\mathcal{D} = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N\}$ :

$$s_{\text{aug}} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^n s_{i_k}, \quad i_k \sim \mathcal{U}(1, N), n \sim \mathcal{U}(1, B) \quad (6)$$

Here,  $\mathcal{U}$  denotes the uniform distribution, and  $B$  is a hyperparameter indicating the maximum number of sentences

that can be concatenated. By applying this sentence augmentation technique during training, the model is exposed to diverse input/output sequence lengths, reducing the risk of premature generation of the **<EOS>** token.

## Experiments setup

**Datasets** We evaluated ATG on three benchmark English datasets for joint entity-relation extraction, namely SciERC (Luan et al. 2018), CoNLL 2004 (Carreras and Màrquez 2004), and ACE 05 (Walker et al. 2006).

**Evaluation Metrics** For the NER task, we adopt a span-level evaluation requiring precise entity boundaries and type predictions. To evaluate relations, we use two metrics: (1) Boundaries evaluation (**REL**) necessitates the correct prediction of entity boundaries and relation types; (2) Strict evaluation (**REL+**) additionally require accurate entity type prediction. We report the micro-averaged F1 score.

**Hyperparameters** Our model, ATG, employs a transformer encoder-decoder (Vaswani et al. 2017) architecture. We train it for a maximum of 70k steps using AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter 2017) optimizer. We use learning rate warmup for the first 10% of training and then decay to 0. The base learning rates are  $3e-5$  for the encoder,  $7e-5$  for the decoder, and  $1e-4$  for other projection layers. Unlike other generative IE models that utilize pretrained encoder-decoder architectures, often relying on large models such as T5 (Raffel et al. 2019), we initialize ATG’s encoder with pretrained transformer encoders, while the decoder is randomly initialized. In our preliminary experiments, we observed that initializing ATG with a pretrained encoder-decoder led to suboptimal performance. We hypothesize that this is due to our decoder’s utilization of a dynamic vocabulary, whereas existing pretrained encoder-decoder models have a fixed token vocabulary, which creates a large discrepancy. We use DeBERTa (He, Gao, and Chen 2021) for CoNLL-04 and ACE 05 and SciBERT (Beltagy, Lo, and Cohan 2019) for SciERC dataset. Across all configurations, the number of decoder layers is set to 6, though we noted that even a single layer can be enough in certain cases. The sentence augmentation hyperparameter  $B$  is set to 5. We did our experiments on a server equipped with A100 GPUs.

Models	SciERC			ACE 05			CoNLL 2004		
	ENT	REL	REL+	ENT	REL	REL+	ENT	REL	REL+
DYGIE++ (Wadden et al. 2019)	67.5	<u>48.4</u>	—	88.6	63.4	—	—	—	—
Tab-Seq (Wang and Lu 2020)	—	—	—	89.5	—	64.3	90.1	73.8	73.6
PURE (Zhong and Chen 2021)	66.6	48.2	35.6	88.7	66.7	63.9	—	—	—
PFN (Yan et al.)	66.8	—	<u>38.4</u>	89.0	—	<b>66.8</b>	—	—	—
UniRE (Wang et al. 2021)	<u>68.4</u>	—	<u>36.9</u>	89.9	—	66.0	—	—	—
TabLERT (Ma, Hiraoka, and Okazaki 2022)	—	—	—	87.8	65.0	61.8	<b>90.5</b>	73.2	72.2
GENERATIVE									
HySPA (Ren et al. 2021)	—	—	—	88.9	68.2	—	—	—	—
TANL (Paolini et al. 2021)	—	—	—	89.0	—	63.7	90.3	—	70.0
ASP (Liu et al. 2022) <sup>†</sup>	—	—	—	<b>91.3</b>	72.7	<u>70.5</u> <sup>†</sup>	<u>90.3</u>	—	<u>76.3</u>
UIE (Lu et al. 2022)	—	—	36.5	—	—	<u>66.6</u>	—	75.0	—
LasUIE (Fei et al. 2022)	—	—	—	—	—	66.4	—	75.3	—
ATG ( <i>Our model</i> )	<b>69.7</b>	<b>51.1</b>	<b>38.6</b>	<u>90.1</u>	<b>68.7</b>	66.2	<b>90.5</b>	<b>78.5</b>	<b>78.5</b>

Table 1: **Comparison of our proposed model with state-of-the-art methods.** Results are reported in terms of Entity (ENT) F1, Relation (REL) F1, and Strict Relation (REL+) F1 scores. The best scores are shown in bold, and the second-best scores are underlined. <sup>†</sup> *Italic scores use undirected evaluation for relation extraction and thus are not strictly comparable to our results.*

## Main results

Table 1 presents the main results of our experiments, along with comparable approaches from the literature. ATG demonstrates strong performance across all datasets. On the SciERC dataset, ATG achieves the highest scores across all metrics. It outperforms the second-best result by 0.2 in **REL+** and surpasses the best generative approach, UIE (Lu et al. 2022), by 2.1 points. On ACE 05, ATG provide a competitive performance, securing the second-highest scores. The reported top-performing model, ASP (Liu et al. 2022), operates under a relaxed, undirected relation evaluation, thereby limiting a fair comparison of results (Taillé et al. 2021). On the CoNLL 2004 dataset, ATG exhibits its superiority by outperforming the second-best result by 2.2 in terms of **REL+**. Overall, across all three datasets, our proposed model either holds the top position or showcases strong competitive performance, proving its effectiveness.

## Ablation studies

Here, we present a series of ablations to examine the impact of modelling choices on the performance of ATG, on **REL+**.

**Number of Decoder Layers** The number of decoder layers impact is illustrate on the Figure 4. It has a varying impact on performance across the datasets. In SciERC, increasing the number of decoder layers leads to a gradual improvement in the performance, reaching a peak of 38.6 at 6 layer. For ACE 05, the score shows a slight improvement from 65.3 to 66.2 as the number of decoder layers increases from 1 to 6. For the CoNLL 2004 dataset, the score fluctuates with different numbers of decoder layers, achieving already strong performance with only a single layer. Overall, the choice of the number of decoder layers can have a noticeable impact on **REL+** performance but the effect may vary across datasets.

**Sentence Augmentation** The effect of sentence augmentation size on **REL+** performance is illustrated in Figure 5. The results reveal that increasing the number of sentence augmentations always improves performance across all datasets, except for CoNLL, where achieving state-of-the-art (SOTA) results is possible with just a size of 2. However, the absence of sentence augmentation leads to a significant decrease in **REL+**, proving its importance.

**Nucleus Sampling** The impact of different top p values in nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al. 2019) on the performance (REL+) is shown in Figure 6. The scores across all datasets demonstrate a relatively stable trend, with minor variations observed as the top p value changes. This can be attributed to the application of constrained decoding, which ensures that the output remains well-formed. However, the lowest values of top p, corresponding to greedy decoding, consistently deliver the best performance.

	SciERC	ACE 05	CoNLL 2004
Full	<b>38.6</b>	<b>66.2</b>	<b>78.5</b>
- <i>Pos</i>	<u>36.4</u>	<u>66.0</u>	78.3
- <i>Struct</i>	36.1	65.8	<u>78.4</u>
- <i>Both</i>	35.4	65.4	78.0

Table 2: **Effect of positional and structural embedding.**

**Positional and Structural Embeddings** Table 2 illustrates the importance of positional and structural encoding on the Relation F1 score. When employing both encoding, **ATG** achieves the best performance across all datasets (38.6 for SciERC, 66.2 for ACE 05, and 78.5 for CoNLL 2004). Excluding positional encoding causes only slight performance drops, since the span representations may contain

Figure 4: Number of decoder layers

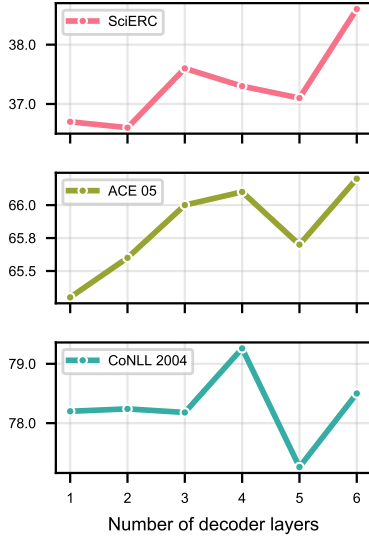


Figure 5: Sentence augmentation

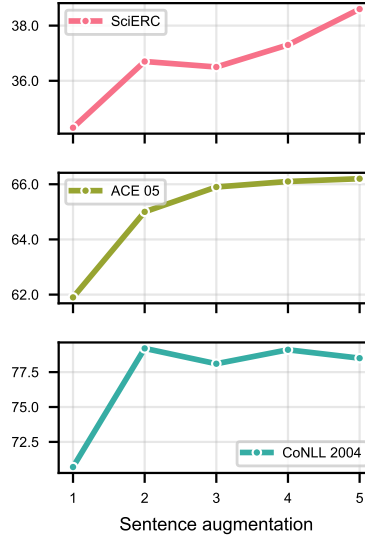
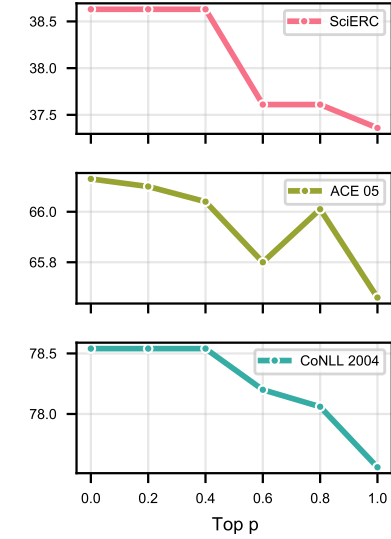


Figure 6: Nucleus Sampling Top-p



some positional information. Omitting structural encoding leads to similar, but slightly larger drops. Finally, when both are removed, the scores decrease the most, indicating their importance for the task.

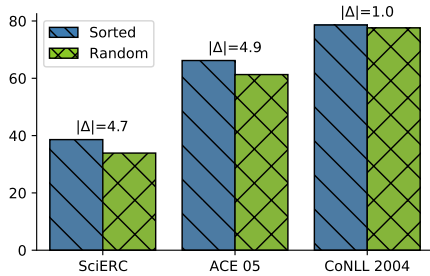


Figure 7: Impact of sequence ordering on REL+.

**Sequence Ordering** Figure 7 compares the effects of sorted and random sequence ordering across different datasets. The results clearly show that the sorted ordering approach consistently outperforms the random one. The difference in performance is particularly significant on SciERC and ACE 05, with improvements of 4.7 and 4.9, respectively. On the CoNLL 04 dataset, although the sorted approach still leads, the difference narrows to 1. Interestingly, we initially hypothesized that random ordering would deliver better performance, given that any generation errors in a sorted order could be difficult to rectify.

## Interpretability Analysis

### Learned Structure Embedding

To investigate the impact of the learned structure embedding on model performance, we analyze the similarity be-

tween the structure embeddings learned during training, depicted in Figure 8. Notably, we observe a consistent pattern across datasets: the embedding for the Head and Tail exhibit a high negative correlation. This finding may suggest that the model learns to differentiate between the Head and Tail entities effectively, capturing their distinct characteristics. However, we do not have clear interpretation of this phenomena.

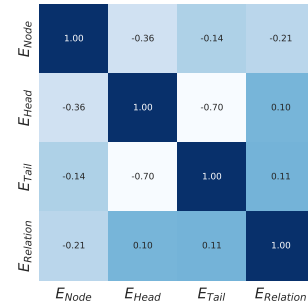


Figure 8: Structure embedding similarity. This map shows the cosine similarity between pairs of structure embedding.

### Attention Analysis

Here we analyze the attention of the model during the decoding step, which allow us to explain some of the model’s decision. We investigate both the self-attention (Fig. 9) and cross-attention (Fig. 10).

**Self-Attention** The self-attention map, shown in Figure 9, depicts the distribution of attention across preceding tokens during generation. One notable observation is the model’s tendency to focus on the head and tail entities that comprise



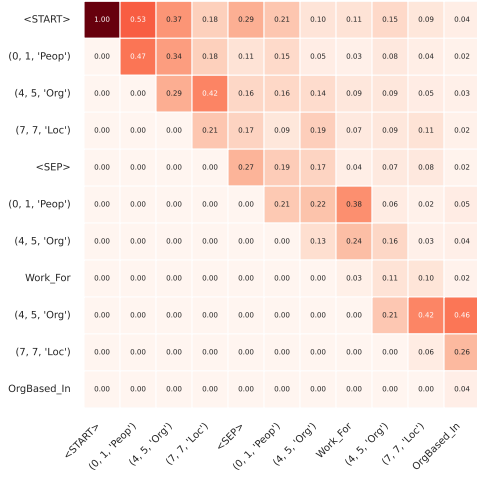


Figure 9: Decoder self-attention map.

the relation when predicting relation types. For example, when predicting the `Work_For` relation, the model allocates most of its attention weight to the tokens `(0, 1, Peop)` and `(4, 5, Org)`.

**Cross-Attention** The cross-attention map in Figure 10 indicates the specific areas in the input sequence that the decoded tokens attend to during generation. For entity labels in the output sequence such as `(0, 1, Peop)`, `(4, 5, Org)`, and `(7, 7, Loc)`, we can observe higher attention scores for the words `Alain`, `McGill`, and `Montreal`, respectively, in the input sequence. This indicates that the model tends to focus on the beginning of each entity span when generating these entities in the output sequence. Furthermore, when predicting tail entities for relations, significant attention is directed toward the prepositions `'at'` and `'in'` in the input sequence. This suggests that the model has learned to associate these prepositions with specific relations between entities.

## Related Works

**Non-Generative IE** In the field of information extraction (IE), traditional pipeline models have been used, consisting of separate stages for entity recognition and relation extraction (Roth and Yih 2004). Entity recognition is performed to identify mentioned entities (Chiu and Nichols 2015; Lample et al. 2016), followed by relation extraction to determine the relationships between these entities (Zelenko, Aone, and Richardella 2002; Bach and Badaskar 2007; Lin et al. 2016; Wu, Bamman, and Russell 2017). However, this approach suffers from error propagation, where mistakes in entity recognition can negatively impact the accuracy of relation extraction (Brin 1999; Nadeau and Sekine 2007). To address these challenges, there has been a shift towards end-to-end models that jointly optimize both entity recognition and relation extraction. This joint optimization aims to harness the interplay between the two tasks, thereby enhancing overall performance (Sun et al. 2021; Zhao et al. 2021; Ye



Figure 10: Decoder cross-attention map.

et al. 2022a). Noteworthy directions in this domain include table-filling methods (Wang and Lu 2020; Ma, Hiraoka, and Okazaki 2022), span pair classification (Eberts and Ulges 2019; Wadden et al. 2019), set prediction (Sui et al. 2020), augmented sequence tagging mechanisms (Ji et al. 2020), fine-grained triplet classification (Shang, Huang, and Mao 2022), and the use of unified labels for tasks (Wang et al. 2021).

**Generative IE** Recent advancements in generative Information Extraction (IE) emphasize the use of language models to produce entities and relations, either as text or as a sequence of actions (Cao and Ananiadou 2021; Paolini et al. 2021; Lu et al. 2022; Nayak and Ng 2020; Liu et al. 2022; Fei et al. 2022). Typically, these models employ pre-trained encoder-decoder architectures, such as T5 (Raffel et al. 2019) or BART (Lewis et al. 2020), to encode an input text and subsequently decode it into a structured output. Their primary advantage over non-generative methods is their ability to seamlessly integrate tasks by treating them as a unified generation process. A comprehensive review of this approach is available in (Ye et al. 2022b). Beyond entity and relation extraction, generative models have also found applications in other IE tasks, including entity linking (Cao et al. 2021), event extraction (Li, Ji, and Han 2021), and document-level relation extraction (Giorgi, Bader, and Wang 2022).

## Conclusion

In conclusion, our autoregressive text-to-graph framework for joint entity and relation extraction has demonstrated its effectiveness in achieving state-of-the-art or competitive results on multiple benchmark datasets. By directly generating a linearized graph representation instead of plain text, ATG successfully captures the structural characteristics, boundaries, and interactions of entities and relations. Moreover, the pointing mechanism on dynamic vocabulary provide robust grounding in the original text.

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