

Revisiting knowledge-based Semantic Role Labeling

Quentin Pradet, Gaël de Chalendar and Guilhem Pujol

CEA, LIST, Laboratoire Vision et Ingénierie des Contenus,
Gif-sur-Yvette, F-91191, France
{quentin.pradet,gael.de-chalendar}@cea.fr

Abstract

Semantic role labeling has seen tremendous progress in the last years, both for supervised and unsupervised approaches. The knowledge-based approaches have been neglected while they have shown to bring the best results to the related word sense disambiguation task. We contribute a simple knowledge-based system with an easy to reproduce specification. We also present a novel approach to handle the passive voice in the context of semantic role labeling that reduces the error rate in F1 by 15.7%, showing that significant improvements can be brought while retaining the key advantages of the approach: a simple approach which facilitates analysis of individual errors, does not need any hand-annotated corpora and which is not domain-specific.

Keywords: Semantic Role Labeling, VerbNet, knowledge-based approach

1. Introduction

Computing automatically a semantic representation of a given text has been defined as the single greatest limitation on the general application of natural language processing techniques (Dang et al. 1998). Semantic role labeling provides such a representation where chunks of a sentence are annotated with semantic roles that denote the sense of those chunks related to the verb. In this work we use VerbNet (Kipper et al. 2006) and give some details about it later. Figure 1 shows an example highlighting the difficulty of the task which can not rely exclusively on syntactic clues but also needs semantic knowledge.

Carol	crushed	the ice
Agent	V	Patient
The ice	crushes	easily
Patient	V	

Figure 1: Two annotated sentences for the carve-21.2 VerbNet class. All words are not necessarily annotated, and the position of the arguments does not directly determine the roles: the sense and voice of *crush* are consistent between the two sentences but the semantic annotation differs.

Semantic role labeling has tremendously helped to compute semantic representations and has been shown to improve multiple tasks such as information extraction (Surdeanu et al. 2003), question-answering (Shen and Lapata 2007), event extraction (Exner and Nugues 2011), plagiarism detection (Osman et al. 2012), machine translation (Bazrafshan and Gildea 2013) or even stock price prediction (Xie et al. 2013).

Existing approaches to semantic role labeling are divided into two main branches. The first one, supervised semantic role labeling, uses a manually-annotated corpus and manually engineered features to train supervised models on the task. The most used frame-semantics resource and associated annotated corpus in

this domain is FrameNet (Baker et al. 1998). While this approach yields the best performance (Das et al. 2013), the cost is high: the corpus used are annotated over several years and it would be in general too long and costly to annotate a new corpus for each new considered domain. To address those issues, the second mainstream approach, named semantic role induction, uses fully unsupervised methods: given a corpus, the goal is to cluster all verbs sharing the same behavior. While this is completely general, the results are noisier and the semantic roles are only induced and cannot always be mapped to human-understandable labels such as *Agent* or *Topic*.

A third approach, knowledge-based semantic role labeling (Swier and Stevenson 2004, 2005), has not received much attention lately. The goal is to use external lexical-semantic resources for each new considered language and to use those resources to annotate text. The quality of annotation suffers, but bringing semantic role labeling to new domains and languages becomes easier: no corpus has to be hand-annotated.

Existing work on the knowledge-based semantic role labeling task is now dated but the resources have much improved since then: (Swier and Stevenson 2005) could only use VerbNet 1.5, but VerbNet 3.2 is now available. They also had to use a custom mapping to FrameNet for the evaluation of their method while the SemLink project has provided us an “official” FrameNet-VerbNet mapping. FrameNet has been also vastly improved and extended since 2005: new training data is available, many corrections have been made, and a full-text corpus can now be used to evaluate semantic role labeling in a more realistic way.

While the present work¹ is similar to (Swier and Stevenson 2005), we do believe that there is an opportunity to reevaluate knowledge-based semantic role labeling, precisely because the last work we are aware of dates from 2005 and is difficult to reproduce. We indeed show that

¹This work was partially funded by the ANR ASFALDA ANR-12-CORD-0023 project.

incorporating passive voice detection to the task improve results by 15.7%: improvements are still possible.

2. Knowledge-based semantic role labeling

Knowledge-based semantic role labeling refers to algorithms that don't use a priori training data which would be biased and hamper performance on new domains. The "knowledge" is contained in VerbNet-like databases which encode syntactic and semantic information about verbs in a way that allows one to map syntactic structure to semantic roles. Previous work on this task used the word "unsupervised" instead of "knowledge-based", but unsupervised semantic role labeling now refers to truly unsupervised work where no semantic knowledge is needed at all.

In this work, we use the English VerbNet (Kipper et al. 2006), a freely available hierarchical verb lexicon based on Levin classes (Levin 1993) which encodes into *frames* the mapping between diathesis alternations and semantic roles assigned to syntactic chunks. For a given frame, VerbNet can map between NP V NP and Agent V Theme: this means that in this situation the first noun phrase should be mapped to the Agent role while the second one should be mapped the Theme role. Our goal is to use this mapping information to transform syntactically-analyzed sentences into semantically-analyzed sentences. The mapping can be unambiguous when only one VerbNet frame matches a given dependency graph. In other cases, different options are possible. This occurs when:

- a predicate is present in multiple VerbNet classes which share the same diathesis alternations but do not map to the same roles.
- syntax-semantics mappings are ambiguous and do not fully determine the semantic role that should be used.

Without annotated data, those ambiguities cannot be resolved. However, once an initial mapping is done, it becomes possible to use those in-domain mapping to learn simple probabilistic models which will allow to label new verbs and their roles with high precision.

Our error analysis in the evaluation section shows that important error reductions can be achieved while staying in the framework of knowledge-based semantic role labeling, reaffirming this approach as useful and promising again. We now describe in details the various steps of our algorithm.

2.1. Argument identification

This first step identifies syntactic chunks that will bear semantic roles in the two future stages. This standard step in semantic role labeling analyses a sentence syntactically or splits it into chunks and chooses syntactic trees as arguments. We use (Lang and Lapata 2011) eight rules to select nodes that are likely to have semantic roles. This step selects too much candidates, but they are filtered out by the subsequent steps.

2.2. Frame matching

This step matches role fillers to roles when it is possible to do so in an unambiguous way. It merges in one step what is traditionally done in two steps: frame identification and actual role labeling. We first map our arguments to a VerbNet-style construction where the arguments are ordered and the first one appears before the verb. Those positions determine the "grammatical function" (or slot): the first argument is a syntactic subject, the second one is an object, the third one is an indirect object, and chunks whose head word is a preposition are "prepositional objects".

Once the grammatical functions have been assigned, we match all possible VerbNet frames given the predicate. For example, the *classify* predicate exists in two VerbNet frames: *characterize-29.2* and *classify-29.10*. The possible frames are:

- NP.Agent V NP.Theme (as) S_ING.Attribute
- NP.Agent V NP.Theme to be ADJ.Attribute
- NP.Agent V NP.Theme as PP.Attribute
- NP.Agent V NP.Theme
- NP.Agent V NP.Theme as PP.Goal
- NP.Agent V NP.Theme in PP.Location

Given the sentence *The company also classifies short and wide radius ruts according to their severity* which is of the form NP V NP according PP, we only know how to match the first two noun phrases (Agent, then Theme). There is no possible matching for the third argument: there cannot be one, VerbNet doesn't encode that *according* is a possible preposition contrary as *in* and *as*. VerbNet authors are currently working on the issue of adding new information based on syntactic and collocational information drawn from very large corpora (Bonial et al. 2013).

2.3. Probability models

Now that a part of the corpus has been annotated, we can use this information to annotate new ambiguous role fillers. This is still unsupervised as we only use data extracted by our own system for the text we need to annotate. Role fillers are ambiguous when two or more roles are possible. Several probability models are considered which assign probabilities: the best role filler is then chosen.

predicate-slot The predicate-slot model uses two informations to determine the role of a given role filler: the predicate used, and the detected grammatical function. For example, the Direct Object of the verb "neglect" will always be "Theme" based on existing data. While the precision is high, it only assigns roles to 40% of arguments: for the other 60%, we don't have any information on this specific (predicate, grammatical function) pair.

slot The slot model does not use the predicate information which is sometimes too sparse. It simply assigns roles based on grammatical functions. In addition to the grammatical functions, the preposition can also be used to assign roles to role fillers. For example, the preposition *of* maps to Attribute, Theme and Topic (in this order) in our FrameNet corpus. When faced with an ambiguous mapping, this means this probability model will choose the first role that matches with the possible semantic roles.

Those two simple probabilistic models are complementary: one has a high precision but does not cover unseen verbs, while the other one helps to assign roles to every verb. However, we chose to not use the second one in its current form due to its low precision.

3. Passive voice handling

Error analysis revealed that passive voice was a common source of errors in our corpus. Indeed, VerbNet does not encode the passive voice since it is a syntactic phenomenon: it is up to the syntactic analyser to recognize that the real subject is not where we expect it to be. Most syntactic analysers do not handle deep structure. Handling such structures can be seen as an intermediate step between syntactic analysis and semantic role labeling (Bonfante et al. 2011; Ribeyre 2013).

We handled passive voice in the context of VerbNet by transforming VerbNet syntactic frames temporarily whenever a passive voice is detected, that is verbs in the past participle form which are governed by a form of the verb “to be”. Given a VerbNet frame such as *NP.Agent V NP.Recipient NP.Theme*, we produce two transformations:

- NP.Recipient V NP.Theme
- NP.Recipient V NP.Theme by NP.Agent

Now that the transformation is done, when faced with passive uses of verbs, we simply use the new frames instead of the original ones to perform the mapping. This gives better result as passive voices were always wrongly identified (Table 2).

4. Evaluation

Evaluation is currently performed against FrameNet which is one of the standard resource for semantic role labeling. The full-text corpus is balanced, featuring texts from multiple sources: the Wall Street Journal, the AQUAINT and MASC corpora, and other miscellaneous texts.

4.1. Corpora and tools

In this experiment, we are using the full-text corpus of FrameNet 1.5, VerbNet 3.2, the VerbNet-FrameNet role mapping version 1.2.2c². Only core arguments are considered since VerbNet often ignores the non-core FrameNet arguments.

²<http://verbs.colorado.edu/semlink/1.2.2c/vn-fn/>

When working on the full semantic-parsing task, we use MST parser 0.5.0 (McDonald et al. 2006). The parser is trained on a modified Wall Street Journal corpus modified using NP bracketing³ and the LTH conversion tool for CONLL conversion⁴. Since FrameNet uses parts of the Wall Street Journal corpus, we removed six files before training: 0558, 0089, 0456, 1778, 1286 and 1695. This ensures the MST parser never has to parse sentences from the training set and avoids bias. The FrameNet part-of-speech tags were converted from the BNC tagset to the WSJ tagset using manually-defined rules (Table 1). On the six files mentioned earlier, this reduces the number of part-of-speech tags differences from 23% to 3%.

JJ	→	ADJ	JJR	→	NP
JJS	→	NP	MD	→	S
NN	→	NP	NNP	→	NP
NNPS	→	NP	NNS	→	NP
NP	→	NP	NPS	→	NP
PP	→	PP	PRP	→	NP
RB	→	ADV	TO	→	to S
VB	→	S	VBD	→	S
VBG	→	S_ING	VBN	→	ADJ
VBP	→	S	VBZ	→	S
WDT	→	NP	\$	→	NP
CD	→	NP	DT	→	NP

Table 1: BNC to WSJ conversion rules

4.2. Evaluation procedure

We feed each FrameNet sentence in the corpus to our system which performs semantic role labeling (section 2.). For each role filler annotated in the FrameNet corpus with a verbal predicate, we use the mapping to know what is the set of possible VerbNet roles given the FrameNet frame. This is possibly ambiguous, mostly because a FrameNet frame can refer to multiple VerbNet classes: we don’t evaluate against those roles.

Another difficulty is that the mapping isn’t complete: some VerbNet classes cannot be mapped from FrameNet to VerbNet. Indeed, only 4605 out of 10052 roles are mapped: we only evaluate against those frames.

We measure precision, recall, and accuracy of correct role/role filler associations out of the FrameNet ones that have been converted to VerbNet-style roles. 10% of the corpus was used as a test set, while the other 90% were manually scanned to check for issues in our algorithm.

Table 2 shows results on different tasks. The first three tasks are evaluated on gold arguments: argument identification was not needed, which definitely helps the models. The following two tasks are evaluated on the full frame-semantic parsing task: arguments are identified automatically based on automatic parses. The

³<http://sydney.edu.au/engineering/it/~dvadas1/>

⁴http://nlp.cs.lth.se/software/treebank_converter/

Task	F1	Accuracy
FM	70.48%	53.09%
FM + predicate-slot (gold args)	72.02%	58.28%
FM + passive + predicate-slot (gold args)	76.40%	62.72%
Identification + FM	46.75%	29.12%
Identification + FM + predicate-slot	46.78%	33.49%

Table 2: Results on different tasks. FM is frame matching. Lines with *passive* include the passive voice detection. Identification is argument identification.

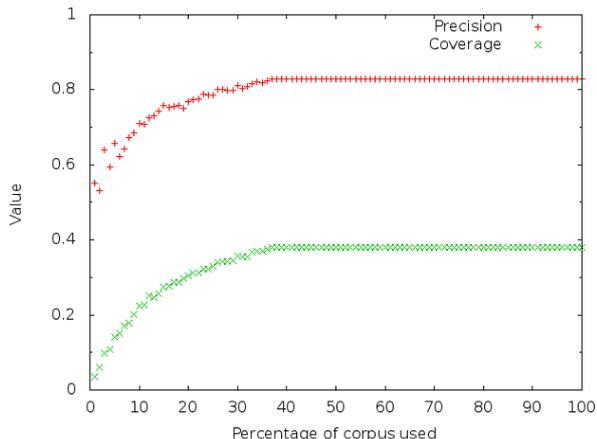


Figure 2: slot-predicate model performance when training over a part of the training corpus: from 0 to 100%.

full model is "Identification + FM + predicate-slot": it associates argument identification, frame matching and the predicate-slot probabilistic model.

The main takeaway is that argument identification needs to be improved significantly to help our model reach acceptable levels of performance. The first issue is that only around 76% of arguments are present in our dependency parses. The second issue is the heuristics we used for argument identification: they need to be analysed more thoroughly or replaced with alternatives approaches (Abend et al. 2009).

Model	Precision	Coverage
slot	52.45%	100%
predicate-slot	68.33%	38.33%

Table 3: Results for probabilistic models

Table 3 highlights the complementary nature of our models: the predicate slot model has better precision but lower coverage than the slot model.

Figure 2 highlights that we don't need the whole corpus to attain this level of performance. This is interesting because our methods can operate efficiently on a small domain-specific corpus and because the full potential of this corpus is not fully realized.

4.3. SEMAFOR comparison

SEMAFOR (Das et al. 2013) is currently the state-of-the-art supervised frame-semantic parser on the SemEval test sets and FrameNet full-text corpus. It annotates all FrameNet parts-of-speech while we only concentrate on verbs. It achieves 46.49% F1 score on the full task, which should be compared with the 25% F1 score of our system. SEMAFOR uses three stages for semantic parsing:

- target identification
- frame identification
- argument identification

As such, it cannot be compared directly with our system which does not solve the task using the same structure. However, it is interesting to note how important is the training data: for frame identification with gold targets⁵, the same models grows from 74.21% to 90.51% in F1-score for frame identification when switching from the SemEval 2007 dataset to the FrameNet 1.5 dataset. Likewise, for argument identification and gold frames⁵, the results grow from 48.09% to 68.93%. The size of the training data is extremely important, while our approach is better suited to domain adaptation where large annotated corpora are seldom available.

5. Future work

Future includes evaluating our approach on domain-specific corpora such as the Kicktionary (Schmidt 2009), the Robocup dataset (Chen and Mooney 2008) or the Situated Language dataset (Bordes et al. 2010) and compare our method with existing domain-specific semantic role labeling work (Wyner and Peters 2010; Hadouche 2011; Goldwasser and Roth 2013).

We also plan to incorporate more domain-specific information such as semantic similarity between existing role fillers to detect roles that are placed in an unusual way.

Finally, in the same way that handling the passive voice produced better results, we plan to integrate deep structure handling to our system. A common case of errors is coordination. When two verbs share the same subject, the syntactic analysis should properly link from each verb to the subject. Here are two examples: first

⁵Results for automatic targets were only given for the SemEval 2007 dataset

with the verbs blunder and, then with the verbs steal and share:

- You are not fair when you belittle Sheik Bin Baz 's blunder and exaggerate the one by Sheik Maqdasi ...
- Hostile and even friendly nations routinely steal information from U.S. companies and share it with their own companies

More specifically, we currently plan to integrate the system from (Ribeyre 2013) as it handles complex deep structure situations by adding simple rules to the system to take into account new syntactic constructions, and will allow to handle all considered deep structure links in a cohesive way.

6. Conclusion

We have implemented a knowledge-based semantic role labeling system. We used publicly available versions of data and tools which make our work easily reproducible, now and in the future. We have started to improve the basic algorithm with enhancements that improve its results. The current results are probably still insufficient to improve the results of natural language processing applications such as information retrieval or text summarization, but the foreseeable improvements make the approach promising. The independence of the approach with respect to annotated corpus makes it interesting even if raw performance is as expected lower than the one of supervised approaches. Besides the future work above, our forthcoming introduction of corpus-based syntactico-semantic selectional restrictions is a next step.

References

- Abend, Omri, Roi Reichart, and Ari Rappoport (2009). “Unsupervised argument identification for semantic role labeling”. In: *ACL 2009*.
- Baker, C.F., C.J. Fillmore, and J.B. Lowe (1998). “The Berkeley FrameNet project”. In: *ACL-COLING 98*.
- Bazrafshan, Marzieh and Daniel Gildea (Aug. 2013). “Semantic Roles for String to Tree Machine Translation”. In: *ACL 2013*.
- Bonfante, Guillaume, Bruno Guillaume, Mathieu Morey, and Guy Perrier (2011). “Modular graph rewriting to compute semantics”. In: *IWCS 2011*.
- Bonial, Claire, Orin Hargraves, and Martha Palmer (2013). “Expanding VerbNet with Sketch Engine”. In: *Conference on Generative Approaches to the Lexicon (GL2013)*.
- Bordes, Antoine, Nicolas Usunier, Ronan Collobert, and Jason Weston (2010). “Towards understanding situated natural language”. In: *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*.
- Chen, David L and Raymond J Mooney (2008). “Learning to sportscast: a test of grounded language acquisition”. In: *Proceedings of the 25th international conference on Machine learning*. ACM, pp. 128–135.
- Dang, Hoa Trang, Karin Kipper, Martha Palmer, and Joseph Rosenzweig (1998). “Investigating regular sense extensions based on intersective Levin classes”. In: *ACL-COLING 98*.
- Das, Dipanjan, Desai Chen, André FT Martins, Nathan Schneider, and Noah A Smith (2013). “Frame-Semantic Parsing”. In: *Computational Linguistics*.
- Exner, Peter and Pierre Nugues (2011). “Using semantic role labeling to extract events from Wikipedia”. In: *DeRiVE 2011*.
- Goldwasser, Dan and Dan Roth (2013). “Leveraging Domain-Independent Information in Semantic Parsing”. In: *ACL 2013*.
- Hadouche, Fadila (2011). “Annotation syntactico-sémantique des actants en corpus spécialisé”. PhD thesis.
- Kipper, Karin, Anna Korhonen, Neville Ryant, and Martha Palmer (2006). “Extending VerbNet with novel verb classes”. In: *Proceedings of LREC*. Vol. 2006. 2.2, p. 1.
- Lang, Joel and Mirella Lapata (2011). “Unsupervised semantic role induction via split-merge clustering”. In: *ACL 2011*.
- Levin, B. (1993). *English verb classes and alternations: a preliminary investigation*. University Of Chicago Press.
- McDonald, Ryan, Kevin Lerman, and Fernando Pereira (2006). “Multilingual dependency analysis with a two-stage discriminative parser”. In: *CONLL 2006*.
- Osman, Ahmed Hamza, Naomie Salim, Mohammed Salem Binwahlan, Rihab Alteeb, and Albaraa Abuobieda (2012). “An improved plagiarism detection scheme based on semantic role labeling”. In: *Applied Soft Computing* 12.5, pp. 1493–1502.
- Ribeyre, Corentin (2013). “Vers un système générique de réécriture de graphes pour l’enrichissement de structures syntaxiques.” Français. In: *RECITAL 2013*.
- Schmidt, Thomas (2009). “The Kicktionary—A multilingual lexical resource of football language”. In: *Multilingual Framenets in Computational Lexicography*.
- Shen, Dan and Mirella Lapata (June 2007). “Using Semantic Roles to Improve Question Answering”. In: *EMNLP-CoNLL 2007*.
- Surdeanu, Mihai, Sanda Harabagiu, Johns Williams, and Paul Aarseth (2003). “Using predicate-argument structures for information extraction”. In: *Annual Meeting of the ACL 2003*, pp. 8–15.
- Swier, Robert and Suzanne Stevenson (2004). “Unsupervised semantic role labelling”. In: *EMNLP 2004*, pp. 95–102.
- (2005). “Exploiting a Verb Lexicon in Automatic Semantic Role Labelling”. In: *HLT-EMNLP 2005*.
- Wyner, Adam and Wim Peters (2010). “Lexical Semantics and Expert Legal Knowledge towards the Identification of Legal Case Factors.” In: *JURIX*, pp. 127–136.
- Xie, Boyi, Rebecca J. Passonneau, Leon Wu, and Germán G. Creamer (2013). “Semantic Frames to Predict Stock Price Movement”. In: *ACL 2013*.