A Dynamic, Interpreted CheckList for Meaning-oriented NLG Metric Evaluation – through the Lens of Semantic Similarity Rating

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Abstract

Evaluating the quality of generated text is difficult, since traditional NLG evaluation metrics, focusing more on surface form than meaning, often fail to assign appropriate scores. This is especially problematic for AMR-to-text evaluation, given the abstract nature of AMR. Our work aims to support the development and improvement of NLG evaluation metrics that focus on meaning, by developing a dynamic CheckList for NLG metrics that is interpreted by being organized around meaning-relevant linguistic phenomena. Each test instance consists of a pair of sentences with their AMR graphs and a human-produced textual semantic similarity or relatedness score. Our CheckList facilitates comparative evaluation of metrics and reveals strengths and weaknesses of novel and traditional metrics. We demonstrate the usefulness of CheckList by designing a new metric GRACO that computes lexical cohesion graphs over AMR concepts. Our analysis suggests that GRACO presents an interesting NLG metric worth future investigation and that meaning-oriented NLG metrics can profit from graph-based metric components using AMR.

1 Introduction

Abstract Meaning Representation (AMR, Banarescu et al. (2013)) has become popular in NLP, one of the reasons being that AMR captures the essence of a sentence’s meaning, while abstracting away from syntactic idiosyncrasies. Especially AMR-to-text generation (Konstas et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020; Biloshmi et al., 2021) has received much attention for applications that require text generation from structured content. However, the evaluation of text generated from AMR has been argued to be unsatisfactory (Manning et al., 2020). Also, Opitz and Frank (2021) show that the syntactic diversity of sentences generated from AMR is challenging for traditional NLG metrics, especially when candidates differ from the reference in surface properties.

Several metrics have been proposed that aim to rate the similarity of the meaning of sentences or phrases (Zhang et al. (2020); Opitz and Frank (2021); Zhao et al. (2019)). However, it is difficult to judge where exactly such a metric fails, making it hard for developers to further improve it. To address similar problems, Ribeiro et al. (2020) recently proposed a “task-agnostic methodology for testing NLP models” called CheckList. They argue that such a method should be used for testing NLP systems instead of solely relying on automatic metrics, which can overestimate a model’s performance. Similar processes have been applied in early NLP research, e.g. with the TSNLP testsuite (Lehmann et al., 1996). Inspired by CheckList, in this work we aim to build a testsuite to enable systematic study and development of NLG evaluation metrics, with a focus on meaning.

Given the high variability of surface realizations that can be mapped into a single AMR graph, building reliable AMR-to-text NLG evaluation metrics is hard. Hence, it can be useful to construct a systematic CheckList, organized around diverse linguistic properties, to measure the performance of different metrics in an interpretable way. We frame our proposed CHECKLIST\(^1\) and analyses derived

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\(^1\)The term CheckList, coined by Ribeiro et al. (2020), refers to their proposed methodology as well as concrete instantiations of such testsuites. We thus use the term CheckList (in
from it in an AMR-to-Text NLG setting, and focus especially on a metric’s capability to assess how well a specific meaning component of an AMR is reflected in its textual realization. We measure this using sentence pairs that differ in single linguistic aspects and measure how well various NLG metrics are able to rate such meaning differences. We compare the metric scores to human judgments from semantic textual similarity (STS) and relatedness datasets and analyze the metrics using our interpreted CheckList (an outline is shown in Fig. 1). Our contributions in this work are as follows:

i) We empirically identify properties relevant for rating the quality of generated sentences based on their meaning.

ii) We design an extensible, interpreted CheckList for evaluating NLG metrics, which offers 939 paired sentences with human judgements, covering 11 core linguistic phenomena.

iii) We propose a new metric GRACo to assess the semantic similarity of sentence pairs through the lens of AMR graphs.

iv) To showcase the potential of our approach, we provide an extensive comparative analysis of different types of NLG metrics, measuring their capacity of rating sentence similarity and relatedness according to linguistic differences.

2 Related Work

AMR-to-text evaluation Systems generating text from AMR graphs are typically evaluated using NLG metrics that were originally designed for other NLG tasks. BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002) or the CHRF(++) (Stanojević et al., 2015; Popović, 2015, 2016; Popov, 2017) metrics, e.g., are extensively used in MT. But May and Priyadarshi (2017) have shown that BLEU does not correspond well to human ratings of generations from AMR. Confirming this result, Manning et al. (2020) argue that existing automatic metrics fail to provide nuanced views on AMR-to-text generation quality. In an attempt to mitigate such issues, Opitz and Frank (2021) introduced a metric that combines meaning (M) and form (F) assessment in a weighted MF score, finding that system performances differ considerably in these two key quality aspects.

But to date, little is known about how different metrics measure meaning differences of generated sentences with regard to specific meaning alterations that may occur between a source and a reference. Our work provides a method and resources that can be used for performing such a detailed assessment for AMR-to-text generation metrics, and NLG evaluation metrics in general.

Checklist The current practice for evaluating NLP models is to assess their performance on unseen test data. Yet, summarizing performance in a single numerical score makes it difficult to assess where a model fails and how to fix remaining errors (Wu et al., 2019). Ribeiro et al. (2020) therefore proposed CHECKLIST, a methodology and tool for evaluating NLP systems based on the idea of **behavioural testing**, often used in software engineering. It aims at assessing specific capabilities of a system by testing whether inputs that feature specific properties will produce the expected output, without requiring knowledge of system’s inner workings. This procedure is well-known in NLP, where before the rise of large-scale evaluation datasets, systems were tested and evaluated on so-called test suites (Lehmann et al., 1996) that focused on specific linguistic capabilities. Ribeiro et al. (2020) adopted this approach to make their methodology applicable to many different NLP tasks. They evaluate multiple models on Sentiment Analysis, QA or Machine Reading Comprehension, showing that their method is beneficial in NLP: complementary to broad-scale evaluations, it can reveal specific points of failure, hence giving more detailed insight into a model’s performance.

Semantic Textual Similarity (STS) Judging the similarity of texts is essential in tasks such as IR, text summarization or QA. But capturing semantic ambiguity, syntactic variance and paraphrasing is difficult. Hence, research started to investigate Semantic Textual Similarity (STS)², by tasking systems to judge the semantic similarity of sentences. Besides knowledge-based and distributional methods, neural methods have recently been proposed for STS estimation (Chandrasekaran and Mago, 2021). For example, S(entence)-BERT (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) leverages pre-trained language models to predict STS scores, building on the insight of models that compute general sentence representations using paired sentence encoders (Conneau et al., 2017). These models outperform most traditional STS metrics, but lack interpretability.

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²STS is a main component of SentEval and follow-up challenges, initiated by Conneau and Kiela (2018).
An Interpreted Testsuite for Meaning-oriented NLG Evaluation Metrics

3.1 Aims and Method

The challenge of AMR-to-text NLG evaluation lies in the wide variability of sentences that can verbalize an abstract meaning representation. In our CheckList, we will consider human judgements of semantic textual similarity as a criterion for evaluating the adequacy of different NLG metrics for the AMR-to-text NLG evaluation task.

Specifically, we employ sentence pairs with human scores from the SICK and STS benchmarks as test instances for our CheckList (cf. Fig. 2). We select pairs that differ by specific phenomena that can affect their semantic similarity, such as additional modifiers of a noun or verb, negation, or changes in the semantic roles of verb arguments. We parse such sentence pairs $S_{A,B}$ into pairs of AMR graphs $AMR_{A,B}$ that we manually validate.

Given such instances, we consider sentences $S_A$ and $S_B$ as a reference and candidate generation, and a pair of $AMR$ and $S$ as a sentence generated from an input AMR. For $AMR_A$ we can take $S_A$ as gold reference and $S_B$ as a candidate generation; conversely, $S_B$ can serve as a reference for $AMR_B$, and $S_A$ as a candidate. We then interpret the human score for $S_{A,B}$ as a gold standard for a metric score that rates the appropriateness of $S_B$ for $AMR_A$, given $S_A$ as a reference, or $S_A$ for $AMR_B$, given $S_B$ as reference (see Fig. 1).

Following this rationale, our CheckList will offer curated input AMR graphs, their underlying sentences as references, and paired sentences from STS or SICK data points as candidate generations. The human scores serve as an objective to assess and compare various NLG evaluation metrics for their suitability in (A)MR-to-text evaluation tasks.

Aims  Our CheckList is intended as a tool for researchers to build new or assess existing NLG metrics, regarding their ability to assess specific meaning aspects by comparing them to human judgements, thereby helping users to improve metrics, or better understand differences between metrics in meaning-oriented NLG evaluation in general and AMR-to-text generation in particular.

The suite is interpreted in two ways: by structuring the instances according to linguistic phenomena, and by pairing each sentence with its AMR graph, so that sentences can be compared at the textual and at the meaning representation level. Finally, the CheckList is conceived to be dynamic, by inviting developers to add new linguistic phenomena, test cases, and metrics.

Method  To achieve this, we proceed as follows:

i) Empirical investigation We investigated sentences generated from the 'Little Prince Corpus' using the AMR-to-text system of Song et al. (2018). We studied differences between the original and the generated sentences, to determine core phenomena that may influence the semantic similarity judgement of sentences generated from AMR towards their references. We distilled a list of phenomena shown in Table 1 that we further extended with phenomena observed in the STS and SICK datasets.

ii) Selection from STS and SICK Next, we select instances from the STS and Semantic Relatedness datasets (§5.1) that exhibit the phenomena identified in i), and establish a suite of sentence

Table 1: (Modified) sentence pairs from AMR-to-text on the Little Prince AMR corpus

| Pheno-menon       | Reference                                                                 | AMR-to-text Generation |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Antonymy          | Flowers are so inconsistent !                                             | flowers are so consistent. |
| Negation          | My Drawing Number One                                                    | not my picture number one. |
| Omission          | the prince laughed, puzzled.                                             | the prince laughed. |
| Passive           | The wind blows them away                                                 | they were blown away by wind. |
| Role Switch       | The planet was inhabited by a conceited man                              | the conceit man is inhabited by the planet. |
| more phenomena    | hyponymy, co-hyponymy, partial synonymy, articles, subordinate clause types |                         |
pairs with their assigned human scores and respective AMRs. The data is structured into subsets exhibiting single phenomena, and is organized as an extensible CheckList.

iii) NLG metric scores & evaluation We implement scorers for various NLG metrics, and provide code to evaluate them via multiple measures to assess their strengths and weaknesses in view of phenomena captured in the CheckList. In addition, we propose a novel metric GRACo (§3.2) that constructs lexical cohesion graphs over tokens represented in the sentence’s AMR, and compare it to existing metrics. The full range of functionalities to investigate NLG metrics is embedded into a CheckList design (Ribeiro et al., 2020) (cf. A.1).

iv) Analysis and Interpretation We analyze the results and show how our CheckList enables systematic assessment of strengths and weaknesses of NLG metrics when applied to outputs of AMR-to-text systems, taking into account the nature of different metrics in view of different phenomena.

3.2 Textual and AMR-based metrics
With our CheckList we aim at the evaluation of diverse metrics used in NLG and in semantic parsing, which we structure along two dimensions (cf. Table 2): metrics that evaluate candidate generations based on a) their textual (tM) vs. graph (gM) representations or both (hybrid, hyM), and b) whether the metric is based on symbolic as opposed to embedding representations. We don’t include trained metrics, since their interpretation is difficult and would go beyond the current scope, but they can be evaluated on our CheckList, too. Table 6 provides an overview of characterizing traits of these metric types, which we will refer to in our analyses in §5.

Word/Char Ngram Matching Metrics Originally developed for MT evaluation, the BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), Meteor (Lavie and Agarwal, 2007) and chrF++ (Popović, 2015) metrics have been increasingly used for evaluating NLG systems by comparing generated text to a reference on textual symbols. BLEU and Meteor compute overlap in word ngrams, while chrF++ extends the character ngram metric chrF by adding word ngrams.

Embedding-based Metrics BERTSCORE, proposed by Zhang et al. (2020), allows for reference-based evaluation using dense representations. Reference and candidate sentences are embedded with BERT to obtain contextualized representations for each token. A mapping between candidate and reference tokens is computed by greedy matching, based on cosine similarity of the encoding vectors. BERTSCORE shows a high correlation with human judgements for MT and Image Captioning tasks (Zhang et al., 2020). But while the metric is clearly meaning-based, it is focused on lexical meaning, and is not well equipped to capture word order and compositional meaning.

AMR Parse Evaluation Metrics While the previous metrics evaluate candidates against a reference at the textual level (tM), in our CheckList, we complement them by assessing similarity of meaning structurally, at the level of AMR graphs constructed from candidate and reference (gM).

We distinguish three potential setups: i) the metric is computed on manually rectified gold graphs (gM in Table 2); ii) an integrated parser component constructs an automatic candidate AMR candAMR from the candidate sentence cndSnt to alleviate the requirement for a golden candAMR (gM in Table 2); iii.) the parser constructs both srcAMR and candAMR from the reference and candidate sentence, i.e., we trade the dependency on a golden srcAMR against the dependency on a golden reference sentence (gM in Table 2). Variants ii) and iii) have also been used in the M (‘Meaning’) component of MF-score (Opitz and Frank, 2021). For simplicity, in this paper, we assume access to gold graphs and only consider gM, tM, and hyM metrics.

As AMR graph metrics, we use the canonical SMATCH (Cai and Knight, 2013), the recent S²MATCH metric proposed by Opitz et al. (2020), and Weisfeiler-Leman based AMR graph similarity proposed by Opitz et al. (2021) that match contextualized AMR graphs.

SMATCH is a binary triple overlap metric that assesses the structural similarity of candidate and reference AMRs, where a triple is a pair of AMR nodes connected by a labeled edge. S²MATCH, by
contrast, computes a graded triple overlap score using the embedding similarity between the concept nodes of a triple pair, to reflect concept similarity in the overall AMR similarity score. Given a reference AMR for 'a kitten meows', S^2MATCH will assign a relatively high score for a candidate AMR for 'a cat meows' that reflects high lexical similarity of kitten and cat in the overall score, while SMATCH will assign it a much lower score.

The Weisfeiler-Leman AMR metric comes in two variants: W(eisfeiler)K(ernel) (WLK) compares contextualized AMR graphs structurally, while W(asserstein)WLK (WWLK) compares the contextualized AMR graphs in latent space, using an alignment-based Wasserstein distance. WWLK extends S^2MATCH beyond the lexical level, to capture compositional meaning similarity at the phrasal level, as between 'a young cat meows' vs. 'a kitten meows'.

Hybrid Metrics The above metrics take as input sentence pairs or AMR pairs. But a meaning-oriented NLG metric may profit from considering both explicit meaning structure as captured in AMR, and the textual level, to leverage knowledge from pretrained language models trained on text. We thus propose a hybrid similarity metric GRACO, which is based on Lexical Cohesion Graphs proposed by Sporleder and Li (2009). They construct an undirected graph from a text sequence where each node represents a content word, and compute edge weights between the lexical nodes using Normalized Google Distance (Cilibrasi and Vitanyi, 2007). By averaging the weights they derive a connectivity score for the graph. In their work they use the lexical cohesion graph of a given token sequence to predict whether it has an idiomatic as opposed to a literal meaning, depending on whether the presence of its subgraph in the overall graph raises or lowers the overall connectivity score.

We adapt Sporleder and Li (2009)'s approach to define a hybrid metric that measures the similarity of sentence pairs via their AMR graphs. We do this by building a lexical cohesion graph from the concept nodes present in a sentence's AMR. To do so, we align words from the sentence with concepts in the AMR graph using the JAMR (Flanigan et al., 2014a) alignment tool. The concepts are either represented using contextualized BERT embeddings or pretrained GloVe word embeddings. To compute edge weights, we follow Haagsma et al. (2018) and compute cosine similarity between nodes. We pursue two strategies. i) We follow Sporleder and Li (2009) and compute cosine similarity between all possible pairs of nodes of a single graph, creating a fully connected graph. Alternatively, ii) we compute a reduced graph that only takes into account edges connecting nodes that differ between the two sentences and their respective graphs (see Fig. 3). In case graph \( g_A \) differs from graph \( g_B \) in a single concept which is only present in \( g_A \), the reduced graph \( g_B \) is empty, and we assign a connectivity score of 1 (consistent with anything).

By applying this method to a pair of sentences \( S_A \) and \( S_B \), we obtain their connectivity scores \( cs_A \) and \( cs_B \), the average of their respective graphs' edge weights. From these we compute the GRACO Score (1) that rates the similarity of \( S_A \) and \( S_B \) by taking the difference between \( cs_A \) and \( cs_B \) to model their semantic difference – which we convert to a similarity score by subtracting it from 1.

\[
\text{GRACO Score} = 1 - |cs_A - cs_B| 
\] (1)

The resulting metric is hybrid by relying on the sentence’s AMR to select text tokens for the connectivity graph – and represents nodes with contextualized embeddings in the BERT variant.

4 Semantic Phenomena

We consider structural and lexical phenomena that are likely to affect a sentence’s meaning. Details and example AMRs are given in Appendix A.4.5

4.1 Structural Phenomena

Aspect Given its abstract nature, AMR does not represent aspect, hence present perfect and simple present are not distinguished in an AMR graph.6

5 AMR specifications follow Banarescu et al. (2019).
6 This phenomenon was only found in the STS data.

Figure 3: Two lexical cohesion graphs: fully connected (left) and reduced (right) for sentences \( S_A \): The woman is walking the dog down the street – \( S_B \): The woman is walking the cat down the street.
Negation AMR represents negation with the feature :polarity -. Fig. 10 (A.4.1) shows sentence negation, with polarity attached to the matrix verb. Fig. 11 (A.4.1) shows an AMR that negates a constituent in a sentence. Both verb- and constituent negation are represented in the testsuite.

Omission or Hallucination of words or phrases is a recurring problem in NLG (Xiao and Wang, 2021) especially for AMR-to-text (Manning et al., 2020). We sampled three types involving adjectives, adverbs, PPs. In AMR, omission/hallucination is captured by (non-)existence of the corresponding structure (see Fig. 13, A.4.2).

Passive AMR does not distinguish active from passive voice: AMR graphs for active vs. passive sentences do not differ and do not reflect voice.

Semantic Role Switch describes cases where two verb arguments switch semantic roles. Fig. 15 (A.4.4) shows that the switch changes the :ARG roles of both arguments, involving two triples.

Subordinate Clauses In AMR, relative clauses can involve inverse roles if the relativizer is dependent on a verb. The AMR for A boy who believes, e.g., contains an inverse ARG0 role. Other types of relative clauses, Noun Compound Expansions, reveal a semantic relation between compound nouns. Such expansions can be expressed in various ways:

1. a. A man is playing a flute made of bamboo
   b. A man is playing a bamboo flute

2. a. A child is running in and out of the waves of the ocean
   b. A child is running in and out of the ocean waves

While the expansions in (1a, 2a) differ (made of vs. of), the two compound nouns in (1b) and (2b) are connected with same AMR relation :part-of, which reveals their semantic relation. The expansion in (1a), by contrast, emphasizes the process of the flute being made, which is reflected in its AMR (see Fig. 12, A.4.5). Hence, whenever we compare sentences that make use of a noun compound or an expansion of it, they may differ in their textual and their AMR representations, which can have implications for different types of metrics.

4.2 Lexical Phenomena

Articles AMR does not specify articles, so the sentence variants {A|The} child is playing. yield identical AMRs. i.e., it cannot distinguish sentences differing in definiteness of an article. Our CheckList includes pairs exhibiting such differences.

Antonymy denotes a relation of contrast that can apply to adjectives, adverbs, nouns, prepositions or verbs. In AMR, antonymy is either implicit for concept pairs or represented by negating a concept with :polarity - (Fig. 17 in A.4.7).

Note that human ratings in STS and SICK differ for antonymy and negation. While in STS, antonymy and negation are penalized with low similarity scores, this is different for SICK, which rates semantic relatedness of sentences. Pairs including a single opposing concept may yield higher scores than comparison to a random sentence. This must be observed when interpreting CheckList results.

Hypernymy and Hyponymy, and the derived Co-Hyponymy relation, while known from WordNet, are not explicitly expressed between AMR concepts. They form the basis for inferential relations between sentences and play an important role in judging NLG quality from a semantic view. Often, a candidate may differ from its reference sentence by resorting to a superordinate, less specific concept, but may combine it with a differentiating modifier, yielding an equivalent meaning. Equivalence of compositional meaning is difficult to capture for word-based and lexical NLG metrics, and is even more challenging for metrics based on structured meaning representations. Co-Hyponymy, however, involves contrast and interferes with Antonymy and Negation.

(Partial) Synonymy We distinguish total and partial synonymy. In the former, linguistic expressions are interchangeable without restriction, while in the latter this may hold in a context given their denotative meaning, may not hold when considering their connotative meaning (Edmonds and Hirst, 2002). Examples are lie – untruth, or task – job. While the former type is unproblematic for meaning-oriented, lexical NLG metrics, the latter is not, as it requires judging contextual conditions. Since AMR specifies abstract concepts, choosing contextually adequate synonyms is a challenge, and contextualized metrics may have an advantage.

5 Interpreted Evaluation of NLG Metrics

5.1 Datasets and Statistics

We sampled 939 sentence pairs, each differing in a single phenomenon from SICK (877) and STS (62)\(^3\), parsed them into AMRs using the parser of Raffel et al. (2019) and manually corrected them.\(^8\)

\(^3\)Distributions of phenomena and human scores in A.3.2.

\(^8\)Manual correction was performed by two of the authors.
STS (Semantic Textual Similarity). Since the first SemEval STS task (Agirre et al., 2012), a total of 15,459 sentence pairs were created in follow-up challenges. Each sentence pair is annotated for semantic similarity on a Likert scale from 5: "completely equivalent" to 0: "on different topics".

SICK: Sentences Involving Compositional Knowledge by Marelli et al. (2014) contains 10,000 English sentence pairs, annotated for semantic relatedness and entailment. Pairs were normalized, expanded using specific linguistic phenomena, and finally paired with one another. Due to this process, pairs often differ by single linguistic phenomena, making them well suited for our aims. The sentence pairs were rated for semantic relatedness on a five-point Likert scale, from 1: "completely unrelated" to 5: "very related".

Since the annotations on SICK and STS are not equivalent, they will be analyzed separately.

5.2 Experimental Setup

Metrics All metrics except GraCo use existing implementations. To enhance comparability between metrics, we standardize and normalize the scores of every metric and the annotated human scores (see A.3.3 for details on both).

Evaluation metrics for metric performance
We compute i) Correlations of the metric scores with the human scores using Spearman’s rho. ii) Pairwise Ranking scores for all metrics, where for each phenomenon we consider all possible combinations of pairs \((x, y)\) and \((x', y')\). A metric \(m\) scores one point if the relation between the predicted scores \(m(x, y)\) and \(m(x', y')\) for the given pairs corresponds to the relation between their human scores \(h(x, y)\) and \(h(x', y')\). If for instance \(h(x, y) < h(x', y')\), metric \(m\) earns one point if
\[
m(x, y) < m(x', y') \land |m(x, y) - m(x', y')| > \tau
\]
where \(\tau\) is a threshold we define as the fifth percentile of all scores. We define \(m(x, y) = m(x', y')\) if \(|m(x, y) - m(x', y')| \leq \tau\). iii) Mean Average score and its Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD) from the human score over test cases.

5.3 Hypotheses

We state hypotheses on how various metrics are expected to perform for selected phenomena.9

H1: \(gM\) vs. \(tM\) AMR metrics are less sensitive to surface variation than textual metrics. This can be beneficial when variations have a mild impact on human judgements of similarity (Passive, Articles), but may have adverse effects when the impact is high. This may happen with Antonymy, if the metric cannot capture relevant differences in lexical meaning, as in SMATCH.

We expect BERTScore to compete with \(gM\) metrics, due to its contextualized representations. In general we expect all AMR metrics to have an advantage over textual metrics, except for BERTSCORE, in detecting Switched Roles, since they explicitly represent argument roles.

H2: Impact of small substrings or subgraphs
Irrespective of differences in human judgement for Antonymy, Co-hyponymy and Negation between SICK vs. STS (cf. §4), metrics can differ in how strongly a contrast at token or concept level affects a pair’s overall rating. In such cases only few triples may differ between sentence pairs, so we don’t expect \(S^2\)MATCH to reflect strong drops in human score. \(W(W)\)LK may fare better, as its kernel can capture a wider context of a given node. BERTScore faces similar problems when small text portions cause a strong contrast, but its contextualization may reflect the impact of neighboring words, an effect that could be shared with \(W(W)\)LK.

While all prior metrics compute scores over the entire sentences, GRACO\(^{red}\) only considers local subgraphs restricted to differing nodes. We expect this to be beneficial for phenomena like Negation.

H3: Capturing (dis)similarity
We expect \(S^2\)MATCH and \(W(W)\)LK to perform closer to human judgement than SMATCH for sentences that differ by semantically similar or closely related words, e.g., with Partial Synonymy or Hyponymy. The same should hold true for Meteor as opposed to BLEU and chrF++, since it accounts for synonyms and paraphrases. \(W(W)\)LK is expected to capture compositional similarity (young cat – kitten) better than \(S^2\)MATCH, which is purely lexical. But \(S^2\)MATCH and \(WW\)LK could perform worse for Antonymy, since antonyms tend to be close to each other in latent space (Samenko et al., 2020).

5.4 Results and Analyses

Results are displayed in Tables 3 and 4 for SICK.10 Fig. 4 displays an aggregated view of correlations between the metric scores and human scores for

9Due to space restrictions, we only discuss a selection, which we mark with \(\checkmark Hx\) vs. \(\times Hx\) if (un)supported by results.

10STS results are seen in Tables 7, 8 and Fig. 5, in A.2.
individual phenomena. Finally, Table 5 presents a summary for all metrics and the phenomena they perform best or 2nd best on, according to our three evaluation metrics: ranking score, MAD and correlation to human judgement scores.

The gM metrics W(W)LK show best overall performance, sharing 1st place with S(2)MATCH in SICK and obtaining first place in pairwise ranking, and we see top places being achieved for 4-5 phenomena (✓ H1, ✓ H3). But S(2)MATCH produce very similar scores across the board (✓ H3).

Among symbolic tM metrics, Meteor performs best in ranking score, and chrF++ for MAD. BERTSCORE performs better than symbolic tM metrics overall, except for ranking score for STS, where it only fails on Aspect (✓ H1). But it falls behind gM and most hvM metrics in overall scores. GRACo performance varies across phenomena and its variants. It occupies 1st and 2nd places in ranking score for Neg in SICK in the reduced variant, where the drop in avg score and MAD is striking (✓ H2). For other phenomena, the performance aligns with the other gM metrics. This suggests that the connectivity score captures most lexical phenomena well – while for SRL this is evidently not sufficient (✓ H1).

Beyond tendencies in overall results, we now focus on observations for single phenomena.

While gM generally outperform tM metrics, this doesn’t necessarily hold for Meteor: it outperforms gM for phenomena reflecting lexical-semantic relations for SICK (Table 4, Fig. 4). The spike in correlation for Part. Syn. is expected, as Meteor accounts for synonyms and paraphrases (✓ H3). This may also explain its superior performance for (Co-)Hyponymy. But its high performance for Antonymy is surprising (✓ H3).

S2MATCH performing very similar to SMATCH is most likely due to a high threshold for allowing a soft match. GRACo was designed to better represent semantic contrast between sentences and their AMR graphs. We can see this reflected in a large drop of MAD for GRACo:red in Negation. In comparison, for Antonymy we only see a relatively small drop in MAD. This is because, for Negation, GRACo:red produces a bigger contrast between the connectivity scores as one of them is 1 for the empty graph. For Antonymy the scores are closer, since both graphs have neighbors. Another factor could be the proximity of antonyms in embedding space, which suggests that a threshold, similar to S2MATCH, could be beneficial.

We also observe that GRACo using BERT outperforms GRACo:glob in Part.Syn, SRL, SubCl (Table 4, Fig. 4). This is unexpected since neither of them uses AMR relations. This could be explained by the contextualized node embeddings that see context at textual level–combined with connectivity graphs
Table 5: Best & 2nd Best Metric Performances in Ranking Score, MAD, Corr. with Human Scores for SICK dataset.

| Metric | Type | words | chars/pieces | lexicon | dense | contextual | concepts | sem. edges | sim. edges | dense | contextual |
|--------|------|-------|--------------|---------|-------|------------|----------|------------|------------|-------|------------|
| BLEU   | tM  | +     | -            | -       | -     | +          |          |            |            |       |            |
| BERTSCE |      |       |              |         |       |            |          |            |            |       |            |
| METEOR | SMATCH | +     | +            | -       | -     | +          |          |            |            |       |            |
| WLLK   | gM  | +     | -            | -       | -     | -          | -        |            |            |       |            |
|       | S'MATCH | +     | +            | -       | -     | -          |          |            |            |       |            |
|       | WLLK | +     | -            | -       | -     | -          | -        |            |            |       |            |
|       |       | +     | -            | -       | -     | -          |          |            |            |       |            |

Table 6: Characterization of the used textual (tM), graph-based (gM) and hybrid (hyM) metrics in terms of textual and graph-level properties. textural level: word/char/lexicon-based; graph-level: semantic vs. similarity edges; both levels: dense = embedding-based representation; contextual = contextualized representation.

that look at the sentence only via AMR nodes. Overall we see surprising effects with GRACo: i) by restricting connectivity to local subgraphs for contrasting elements, it yields strong performance for Negation; ii) it only focuses on AMR nodes, but the contrast with GRACO_{glo} suggests that the contextualization helps to assess surface differences underlying SRL and SubCl. The insights from GRACo could trigger ideas for improving a tM metric like BERTSCORE, by computing it under a similar AMR lens, and handling Negation in similar ways. It also suggests studying the use of BERT embeddings in WLLK, and seeking ways of integrating a comparable mechanism for Negation. As for tM metrics, it came as a surprise to find Meteor keep 1st rank for lexical relations ((Co-)Hyp; (Partial)Syn, Antonymy), beyond BERTSCORE.

6 Conclusion

We introduced an extensible CheckList for meaning-oriented NLG metrics that allows for comparison of a wide range of NLG metrics. It is interpreted by way of offering test cases grouped by linguistic phenomena. Our analyses showcase how CheckList can be used to compare metrics, to reveal their strengths and weaknesses. They align with a number of hypotheses, but also show surprising effects, opening avenues to further improve NLG evaluation metrics. We propose a novel, hybrid similarity metric GRACo that builds cohesion graphs over contextualized AMR concept nodes. The metric can focus on contrastive subgraphs, which yields strong correlation with human judgements for negation. With regard to current practice in AMR-to-text evaluation, we find evidence that meaning-oriented graph-based metrics present advantages over typical text-based metrics, confirming the findings of Opitz and Frank (2021); Manning et al. (2020). Therefore we recommend to include graph metrics or hybrid graph- and textual metrics into AMR-to-text evaluation protocols. Our data and code will be publicly available.\textsuperscript{11} We welcome contributions to grow it.

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\textsuperscript{11}https://github.com/Heidelberg-NLP/NLG-CHECKLIST
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Output. The CheckList can be run from the command line, printing an overview of the data used, accompanied by statistics concerning human judgement for each phenomenon. These statistics include the mean, median, standard deviation and standard error of the human scores. Finally, it will output tables displaying the overall results of the CheckList (hereby, we use the evaluation measures that were also applied in the paper). If a metric were to be tested, it would furthermore print the correlation of that metric with the others in decreasing order.

The results for the phenomena are summarized in individual text files. These files once more list the statistics about the human score and then display the average scores of all metrics for that very phenomenon. Finally, each test case is listed, including the sentences as well as their AMR structures and the scores assigned to it by the metrics and the annotator.

A.2 STS Results

Table 7 and 8 and Fig. 5 demonstrate the results on the test cases selected from the STS data set. Table 9 shows a summary of metrics yielding Best and 2nd Best Results.

Table 7: Avg. normalized score & mean abs. deviation (most indicative, lower is better) from human score for STS

|  | Article | Aspect | Co-Hyponymy | Hyponymy | Omission | Overall |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BLEU | 0.508 ± 0.17 | 0.521 ± 0.24 | 0.515 ± 0.25 | 0.730 ± 0.31 | 0.721 ± 0.31 | 0.407 ± 0.14 |
| chrF++ | 0.661 ± 0.15 | 0.656 ± 0.18 | 0.656 ± 0.18 | 0.707 ± 0.14 | 0.707 ± 0.14 | 0.694 ± 0.20 |
| Meteor | 0.385 ± 0.39 | 0.577 ± 0.44 | 0.535 ± 0.42 | 0.462 ± 0.37 | 0.462 ± 0.37 | 0.408 ± 0.35 |
| BERTScore | 0.815 ± 0.51 | 0.704 ± 0.45 | 0.575 ± 0.42 | 0.631 ± 0.41 | 0.631 ± 0.41 | 0.61 ± 0.26 |
| SMATCH | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.779 ± 0.0 | 0.737 ± 0.0 | 0.737 ± 0.0 | 0.83 ± 0.21 |
| SMATCH-Reduced | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.779 ± 0.0 | 0.737 ± 0.0 | 0.737 ± 0.0 | 0.83 ± 0.21 |
| WLLK | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.499 ± 0.24 | 0.426 ± 0.23 | 0.426 ± 0.23 | 0.733 ± 0.73 |
| WWLKL | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.669 ± 0.77 | 0.587 ± 0.54 | 0.587 ± 0.54 | 0.732 ± 0.62 |
| CheckList | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.599 ± 0.14 | 0.599 ± 0.14 | 0.599 ± 0.14 | 0.88 ± 0.24 |
| CheckList-Reduced | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.599 ± 0.14 | 0.599 ± 0.14 | 0.599 ± 0.14 | 0.88 ± 0.24 |
| CheckList-ReducedGlue | 0.976 ± 0.05 | 0.976 ± 0.05 | 0.976 ± 0.05 | 0.949 ± 0.35 | 0.949 ± 0.35 | 0.949 ± 0.35 |
| CheckList-ReducedGlue | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.999 ± 0.0 | 0.999 ± 0.0 | 0.999 ± 0.0 | 0.984 ± 0.35 |

Table 8: Pairwise ranking scores for the STS test cases
Table 9: Overview over Best and 2nd Best Metric Performances in Ranking Score, MAD and Corr. to Human Scores for the STS dataset.

Table 10: Number of SICK and STS test cases grouped by linguistic phenomena

A.3 Experimental Settings

A.3.1 Generating sentences from the Little Prince AMR corpus.

We investigated sentences generated from AMRs from the 'Little Prince Corpus'\[^{12}\] using the AMR-to-text system of Song et al. (2018). We used their pretrained G2S\_silver\_2m model and validated it on test data from Song et al. (2018), with a difference of -0.35 points BLEU score. For the 'Little Prince', consisting of 1,562 sentences, we obtained a BLEU score of 13.5.

A.3.2 Data Statistics

The following figures show the distribution of the human human scores in the CheckList for the individual linguistic phenomena. SICK and STS are displayed separately.

Fig. 7 further displays the sentence length distribution for SICK and STS.

A.3.3 Implementation details of metrics

Here, we list the hyperparameters and libraries employed for the metrics used in the CheckList.

For the text-based metrics, we employ NLTK’s implementation for BLEU, where we add the method4 smoothing function (Bird et al., 2009)\[^{13}\]; for chrF++ use the sentence-level implementation by Popović (2015), and for Meteor the Version 1.5 implementation by Denkowski and Lavie (2014).

For Zhang et al. (2020)’s embedding-based metric BERTSCORE, we employ the implementation provided by Huggingface\[^{14}\].

As for graph-based metrics, we made use of the implementations of SMATCH and the refined S\(^2\)MATCH provided by Opitz et al. (2020). For S\(^2\)MATCH we defined a cut-off threshold of 0.9, so that only concepts with a cosine similarity above that threshold would be granted a soft match. Further, the coefficient by which the similarity of differing senses is multiplied was set to 0.95.

For WLK and WWLK we employ the implementation by Opitz et al. (2021) without any additional hyperparameters.

For the implementation of the GraCo, we used the AMR Alignment tool from JAMR (Flanigan et al., 2014b) to align words from the sentence with concepts in the AMR structure. For concepts that have been successfully

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\[^{12}\]https://amr.isi.edu/download.html

\[^{13}\]https://www.nltk.org/_modules/nltk/translate/bleu_score.html

\[^{14}\]https://huggingface.co/metrics/bertscore
Figure 6: Score distribution for the test cases in the CheckList (green) grouped by SICK (left) and STS (right) test cases alongside the distribution of the whole datasets (grey).

Figure 7: Sentence length distribution for the test cases in the CheckList grouped by SICK (left) and STS (right) test cases.

Figure 8: Score distributions for SICK per phenomenon: top: a.) Negation, b. Omission, c. Passive, d. Sem. Roles, e. subord. Clauses; bottom: f. Antonymy, g. Article, h. Hymonymy, i. Co-Hyponymy, j. Partial Synonymy.

Figure 9: Score distributions for STS per phenomenon: b. Omission, g. Article, h. Hymonymy, i. Co-Hyponymy.
aligned, we experimented with contextualized BERT word embeddings, for which we use the bert-large-uncased model with a dimensionality of 1024 (Devlin et al., 2019), and 300 dimensional pretrained GloVe word embeddings (Pennington et al., 2014). In case GloVe may not have seen some inflected word, the embedding of its lemma will be used instead (the lemmata are obtained using the spacy lemmatizer and the en_core_web_sm model). If neither the token nor its lemma is contained in the vocabulary, we generate a zero vector representing an unknown token.

For standardization, given a metric predicts $s = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$, where $n$ is the size of the data, we define the standardized score for an example $i$ as $s'_i = \frac{s_i - \text{mean}(s)}{\text{std}(s)}$. Given $s$ as above, the normalized score for an example $i$ is defined as $s'_i = \frac{s_i - \text{min}(s)}{\text{max}(s) - \text{min}(s)}$.

A.4 Phenomena

A.4.1 Negation

We display two types of negation. In Fig. 10 the whole sentence is negated since polarity is attached to the matrix verb. Fig. 11 shows an AMR where only one constituent in a coordinated sentence is negated.

![Figure 10](image)

Figure 10: AMR for the sentence The man is not doing exercises. Semantic relatedness score: 3.8

![Figure 11](image)

Figure 11: AMR for the sentence A child is walking and a jeep is not pulling up. Semantic relatedness score: 3.5

A.4.2 Omission and Hallucination

Fig. 13 demonstrates the AMR of the sentence The man is cautiously operating a stenograph. The adverb is realized by the use of the role :manner. The sentence The man is operating a stenograph would look the same, except that the red-colored branch would not exist. Since concepts can be described in various ways, some words may be represented by more than one branch that would lead to more than two triples that don’t have a counterpart. The omission of a prepositional phrase often resembles the omission of adjectives or adverbs, especially for phrases that can be realized by so-called “none-core-roles” such as destination, location or medium, hence, within one branch.

As described in section A.3, prepositions, however, can be realized in various ways. The omission of a prepositional expression might therefore concern only one branch, but can also concern multiple branches like in Fig. 14.

A.4.3 Passive

Since AMR aims to capture the events of a sentence and not necessarily its point of view, AMR structures of an active-passive sentence pair do not differ at all.

A.4.4 Semantic and Syntactic Role Switch

The AMRs in Fig. 15 show that semantic and syntactic role switch is expressed by switching the :ARG roles. This results in the pair of AMRs differing in two triples.

A.4.5 Subordinate Clauses

In §4.1 we already discussed inverse roles for relative clauses when the relativizer is dependent on a verb. For attributive adjectives on the other hand, AMR structures should look the same. This is demonstrated by the AMR representations for A black bird is sitting on a dead tree and A bird, which is black, is sitting on a dead tree in Fig. 16. Fig. 12 displays a sentence pair featuring a noun compound expansion.

A.4.6 Article

Banarescu et al. (2013) specifically state that “AMR does not represent inflectional morphology for tense and number, and […] omits articles”.

A.4.7 Antonymy

In Fig. 17, we see two AMR graphs for a sentence pair exhibiting an antonymous relation between young and old. The antonymy is realized by mapping the differing concepts to the variable $xv3$ respectively.

Another way of realizing antonymy between adjectives in an AMR graph is adding the feature
A.4.8 Hyperonymy, Hyponymy and Co-Hyponymy

An AMR structure of two sentences displaying a sub- or superset relation would differ merely in the concepts mapped to the corresponding variable as demonstrated in Fig. 18. This is also true for co-hyponymy.