Cross-lingual Structure Transfer for Zero-resource Event Extraction

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Abstract
Most current cross-lingual transfer learning methods for Information Extraction (IE) have been applied to local sequence labeling tasks. To tackle more complex tasks such as event extraction, we need to transfer graph structures (event trigger linked to multiple arguments with various roles) across languages. We develop a novel share-and-transfer framework to reach this goal with three steps: (1) Convert each sentence in any language to language-universal graph structures; in this paper we explore two approaches based on universal dependency parses and fully-connected graphs, respectively. (2) Represent each node in these graph structures with a cross-lingual word embedding so that all sentences, regardless of language, can be represented within one shared semantic space. (3) Using this common semantic space, train event extractors on English training data and apply them to languages that do not have any event annotations. Experimental results on three languages (Spanish, Russian and Ukrainian) without any annotations show this framework achieves comparable performance to a state-of-the-art supervised model trained on more than 1,500 manually annotated event mentions.

Keywords: Information Extraction, Less-Resourced Languages, Multilinguality

1. Introduction
Event Extraction is an important task in Information Extraction (IE) that aims to identify event triggers and arguments from unstructured texts and classify them into predefined categories. Compared to other IE tasks such as name tagging, the annotations for Event Extraction are more costly because they are structured and require a rich label space; full event structure annotation consists of its trigger span and type label as well as each of its one or more argument spans and role labels. Publicly available annotations for event extraction exist for only a few languages, such as English, Spanish, Chinese, and Arabic (Doddington et al., 2004; Getman et al., 2018). We propose a novel share-and-transfer framework to project training data for English only and test data for zero-event-resource languages into one common semantic space, so that we can train an event extractor on English annotations and apply it to target languages.

Currently most successful cross-lingual transfer approaches for IE are limited to sequence labeling (Feng et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2018). In contrast, event extraction requires transferring complex graph structures that contain triggers and arguments. For example, in Figure 1, the words fire/ fired combined with different arguments indicate different event types. A transfer approach to IE with a typical sequence-based Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) encoder will incorporate language-specific characteristics, such as word order, into word representations, reducing its effectiveness in transfer between two languages with quite different word orders.

In this paper, we explore cross-lingual event transfer learning in a zero-resource setting where there is no annotation available for the target language. We propose to transfer language-universal structures instead of surface features. Specifically, we adopt two language-universal structures to represent sentences: dependency trees and fully connected graphs. Then, we use encoder mechanisms to generate word representations in a latent space: Tree-LSTM for dependency trees and Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) for complete graphs. Finally, we treat event trigger labeling and argument role labeling as mappings from the latent space to the event type and argument role respectively.

By using English as the source language, experimental results on Spanish, Russian and Ukrainian show that the model based on the fully connected graph-Transformer encoder not only has better performance than the model based on the dependency tree-LSTM encoder, it also achieves performance comparable to a state-of-the-art supervised model trained on more than 1,500 manually annotated event mentions. In this work we make the following novel contributions:

- We show, for the first time, how cross-lingual event representations may be transferred between languages.
- We explore the use of structured representations for this transfer based on language-specific linguistic annotation and unsupervised structure discovery, and find a consistent benefit from the latter.

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2. Model

![Diagram of Tree-LSTM Encoder](image)

Figure 2: Overall Framework for Cross-lingual Event Structure Transfer.

In this section, we describe our approach to cross-lingual event structure transfer (Figure 2).

2.1. Encoder

We construct two language-universal graph structure representations for each input sentence: universal dependency trees and fully connected graphs for the edges, and cross-lingual word embeddings for the nodes (words). We train a BiAffine Dependency Parser (Dozat and Manning, 2016) for a particular language using the Universal Dependency treebanks (Nivre et al., 2014), and then apply the dependency parser to sentences to obtain universal dependency trees. For fully connected graphs, we regard each token in a sentence as a node in the graph and there’s an edge between each pair of nodes. Then we apply Tree-LSTM encoder and Transformer encoder to generate word representations in the latent space, respectively.

**Tree-LSTM Encoder.** We exploit the Child-Sum Tree-LSTMs proposed by Tai et al. (2015). In contrast to the standard LSTM, here the memory cell updates of the Tree-LSTM unit are dependent on the states of all children units. The Tree-LSTM unit selectively incorporates information from each child.

**Transformer Encoder.** Our multi-layer bidirectional Transformer encoder is based on the implementation proposed in Vaswani et al. (2017), composed of a stack of N identical layers, where each layer has a multi-head self-attention sub-layer and a position-wise feed-forward sub-layer. Our implementation is identical to the original, except that here, crucially, we do not include positional encodings because word order is language-specific.

2.2. Event Trigger Labeling

Given an input sentence \( \{ w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_l \} \), where \( w_i \) is the \( i \)-th word, the encoder generates representations in the latent space for each word: \( h_i = Encoder(w_i) \). We regard event trigger labeling as learning a mapping function from the latent space to event types. This model is composed of a linear layer \( (M_t) \) and a Softmax transformation \( \sigma \). The objective function is as follows:

\[
L_{\text{trigger}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i \log(\sigma(M_t \cdot h_i)) \tag{1}
\]

where \( y_i \) is a one-hot vector activated for \( w_i \)'s correct label.

2.3. Event Argument Role Labeling

To predict the role of a candidate argument \( (w_j^{arg}) \) for an event trigger \( (w_i^{tri}) \), we first use the encoder to generate the trigger and argument representations in the latent space: \( h_i^{tri} = Encoder(w_i^{tri}), h_j^{arg} = Encoder(w_j^{arg}) \). The mapping function from the latent space to argument roles is composed of a concatenation operation \( ([a_i; a_j]) \), a linear layer \( (M_a) \) and a Softmax output layer. The objective function for argument role labeling is as follows:

\[
L_{\text{arg}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{L_i} y_{ij} \log(\sigma(M_a \cdot [h_i^{tri}; h_j^{arg}])) \tag{2}
\]

Note that we do not fine-tune the parameters of the encoder during this step.

3. Experiments

### Table 1: Data statistics (Number of sentences).

| Language | Source | Train | Test |
|----------|--------|-------|------|
| English  | ERE    | 25,168| -    |
| Spanish  | ERE    | 5,164 | -    |
| Russian  | AIDA   | 3,604 | -    |
| Ukrainian| AIDA   | 3,763 | -    |

We use the Entity, Relation and Event (ERE) \(^1\) Getman et al., 2018 2014-2016 English corpora for training the trigger labeling component, and only the 2016 English event corpus for training the argument labeling component because the 2014 and 2015 ERE corpora do not include annotations for arguments. We then test our approach to structure transfer on three target languages for which pre-existing, independently ground-truth annotations were available: Spanish, Russian and Ukrainian. The Spanish data is from ERE 2016 event corpus. The Russian and Ukrainian datasets are subsets of the seedling corpus (LDC catalog: LDC2018E64) from the DARPA AIDA program\(^2\) and they are annotated by a native speaker with the AIDA event ontology. We choose these languages because they are the only multilingual event datasets whose annotations can be mapped into the same schema. ACE \(^3\) Walker et al., 2006 datasets include event annotations for English, Chinese and Arabic, but annotated following a different ontology. Table 1 shows the statistics of the datasets. Table 2 shows the distribution

\(^1\) Refer to the Appendix for the list of document IDs
\(^2\) https://www.darpa.mil/program/active-interpretation-of-disparate-alternatives

1977
Table 2: Distribution of event types in various datasets (Number of event mentions). The statistics for English are from the training split, and the statistics for Spanish, Russian and Ukrainian are from testing splits.

of event types for each language. We follow the criteria in previous work (Ji and Grishman, 2008; Li et al., 2013) for evaluation.

3.2. Training Details

Treebanks. We use the Version 2.3 treebanks released by Universal Dependencies to train the dependency parsers.

Tokenization. We use Spacy tokenization (Honnibal and Montani, 2017) for English and Spanish and the NLTK toktok tokenizer (Dehdari, 2014) for Russian and Ukrainian.

Word Embedding. We use multilingual word embeddings released by Facebook Research (Lample et al., 2017). The algorithm aligns word embeddings of various languages, which are pre-trained from Wikipedia articles (Joulin et al., 2016), in a single vector space. It learns a mapping from the source space to the target space using Procrustes alignment by bilingual dictionaries. We do not fine-tune them during training.

Optimization. We use Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2014), which is based on adaptive estimates of lower-order moments, with warmup of 500, factor of 2.

Table 3 shows the hyperparameters to train the Tree-LSTM encoder and Table 4 shows the hyperparameters to train the Transformer encoder.

| Hyperparameter       | Value |
|----------------------|-------|
| word embedding size  | 300   |
| hidden dimension size| 768   |
| filter size          | 768   |
| number of head       | 12    |
| number of layer      | 12    |
| dropout              | 0.2   |
| learning rate        | 0.003 |
| learning rate decay  | 0.001 |
| batch size           | 1     |

Table 4: Hyperparameters of Transformer encoder.

3.3. Results

We compare several representations, each of which is used to train event recognition models as described in Sections 2.2 and 2.3. Each model is trained on annotated English examples but evaluated in Spanish, Russian, or Ukrainian, using no event annotation in these languages. The representations compared are:

(1) Bi-LSTM, a baseline, using Bi-LSTM as the encoder to generate word representations based on flattened input sequences.

(2) Tree-LSTM, using Child-Sum Tree-LSTM as the encoder to generate word representations based on dependency trees.

(3) Transformer, using Transformer as the encoder to generate word representations based on fully-connected graph.

Table 5 shows the overall performance. We can see that both structure transfer methods significantly outperform the Bi-LSTM baseline, and the Transformer-based encoder generally outperforms Tree-LSTM, especially on trigger labeling, because universal dependency parsers are imperfect, with accuracy 57.2%-95.3% (Nivre et al., 2018). When the target language and source language are closer, such as Spanish and English, the gap between Bi-LSTM baseline and proposed models is smaller. For argument labeling, the Tree-LSTM-based encoder actually has better performance, which results in reduced gap with Transformer-based model. It is because that structural information is important for argument labeling and Tree-LSTM-based model benefits more from the explicit information derived from universal dependency parsing.

3.4. Comparison with Supervised Models

We also compare our approach with supervised event extractors trained from manual annotations. In the supervised setting, we use an LSTM-based sequence labeling model. Figure 3 shows the learning curves of these supervised models. We can see that without using any annotations for the target language, our best model achieves comparable performance with the supervised models trained on about 1,500 manually annotated event mentions.
### Table 5: Comparison on Various Representations for Cross-lingual Event Transfer Learning.

| Dataset       | Model          | Trigger Labeling (%) | Argument Labeling (%) |
|---------------|----------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
|               | P  | R   | F1   | P  | R   | F1   |
| ERE Spanish   | Bi-LSTM  | 45.16 | 25.83 | 32.87 | 39.51 | 10.70 | 16.84 |
|               | Tree-LSTM | 53.56 | 28.44 | 37.15 | 32.12 | 11.89 | 17.35 |
|               | Transformer | 44.75 | 39.15 | 41.77 | 23.09 | 13.55 | 17.08 |
| AIDA Russian  | Bi-LSTM  | 60.64 | 13.55 | 22.15 | 36.65 | 6.24  | 10.57 |
|               | Tree-LSTM | 59.44 | 20.21 | 30.16 | 28.95 | 7.81  | 12.30 |
|               | Transformer | 40.02 | 50.00 | 44.46 | 16.26 | 12.09 | 13.87 |
| AIDA Ukrainian| Bi-LSTM  | 86.81 | 8.87  | 16.10 | 41.69 | 6.42  | 11.12 |
|               | Tree-LSTM | 77.74 | 14.71 | 24.74 | 30.09 | 8.89  | 13.72 |
|               | Transformer | 44.61 | 39.34 | 41.81 | 14.85 | 12.87 | 13.79 |

3.5. Visualization of Attention Weights

Figure 4 shows an example of visualized attention weights from the first head of the multi-head attention layer. In the Russian sentence “одно ранение он получил в спину пуля пробила правое” (he received one wound in the back, a bullet pierced his right lung), “ранение” (wound) is a trigger for a Life.Injure event. From the visualized attention weights, we can clearly see when the model generates the representation for the word “ранение (wound)”, “спину (back)” also contributes besides the word “ранен” itself. And “спину (back)” is an argument of the event mention triggered by “ранение (wound)” here. It indicates that the model successfully transfers structural information from the source language to the target language.

4. Related Work

A large number of supervised machine learning techniques have been used for event extraction, including traditional techniques based on symbolic features (Ji and Grishman, 2008; Liao and Grishman, 2011), joint inference models (Li et al., 2014; Yang and Mitchell, 2016), and recently with neural networks (Nguyen and Grishman, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2015; Nguyen and Grishman, 2018; Liu et al., 2018b). These approaches incorporate language-specific information, and thus require a substantial amount of annotations when adapted to a new language. Traditional multilingual approaches (Li et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2017) to event extraction were all based on feature engineering. Recently, (Agerri et al., 2016; Danilova et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2018b) demonstrate methods for building multilingual event extraction systems. Yi et al. (2016) have used language-independent features for event extraction for low-resource languages. (Lu and Nguyen, 2018) show that word sense disambiguation helps event detection via neural representation matching. (Li et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018b) propose event extraction by attention mechanism, e.g. the former use a gated multi-lingual attention technique. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work to design a cross-lingual structure transfer framework to enable event extraction for a language without any event training data.

5. Conclusions and Future Work

In this paper, we propose a novel cross-lingual structure transfer framework for zero-resource event extraction. Experiments on three languages show promising results without using any annotation. In the future, we plan to conduct research on joint language-universal structure learning and event extraction.
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