Multi Event Extraction Guided by Global Constraints

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Abstract

This paper addresses the extraction of event records from documents that describe multiple events. Specifically, we aim to identify the fields of information contained in a document and aggregate together those fields that describe the same event. To exploit the inherent connections between field extraction and event identification, we propose to model them jointly. Our model is novel in that it integrates information from separate sequential models, using global potentials that encourage the extracted event records to have desired properties. While the model contains high-order potentials, efficient approximate inference can be performed with dual-decomposition. We experiment with two data sets that consist of newspaper articles describing multiple terrorism events, and show that our model substantially outperforms traditional pipeline models.

1 Introduction

Today, most efforts in information extraction have focused on the field extraction task, commonly formulated as a sequence tagging problem. When a document describes a single event, the list of extracted fields provides a useful abstraction of the input document. In practice, however, a typical newspaper document describes multiple events, and a flat list of field values may not contain the sufficient structure required for many NLP applications. Our goal is therefore to extract event templates which aggregate field values for individual events.

Consider, for instance, the New York Times article excerpt in Figure 1 that describes three related terrorist events. As this example illustrates, in order to populate the corresponding event templates, the model needs to identify segments that describe individual events. Such segmentation is challenging, as event boundaries are not explicitly demarcated in the text. Moreover, descriptions of different events are often intermingled, as in the above example, further complicating boundary recovery.

In this paper, we consider a model that jointly performs event segmentation and field extraction. This model capitalizes on the inherent connection between the two tasks in order to reduce the ambiguity of template-based extraction. For example, the distribution of field values in the text provides strong clues about event segmentation, such as the presence of multiple new fields strongly signaling a segment boundary. Likewise, knowledge of the boundaries enables the model to rule out mutually inconsistent predictions, such as extracting two distinct locations for the same event.

We formulate our approach as a joint model that marks each word with field and event labels simultaneously. At the sentence level, segmentation and field extraction taggers are implemented using separate sequence models operating over local features. At the document level, the model encourages global consistency via potentials that link the extracted event records and their fields. Some of these potentials are limited to fields of an individual event such as the “single city per event” constraint. Others encode discourse-level properties of the whole document and thus involve records of multiple events,
A powerful car bomb exploded today in Baghdad inside the holiest Shiite shrine. As many as 95 people were killed in the event, according to sources in Washington. The blast came only two days after another car bomb exploded in a crowded street in Mosul in the northern part of Iraq, killing 13 pedestrians, in an attack carried out by Al Qaeda. Together with the previous attack by Al Qaeda, the shooting in Najaf three weeks ago that killed 15 American soldiers, violence seemed to spike to its highest level. The bombing today, happened around 9am, when the roads are crowded with people. ...
3 Model

Problem Formulation Given a document, our goal is to extract field values and aggregate them into event records. The training data consists of event annotations where each word in the document is tagged with a field and with an event id. If a word is not a filler for a field, it is annotated with a default NULL field value. At test time, the number of events is not given and has to be inferred from the data.

Model Structure Our model is built around the connection between local extraction decisions and global constraints on event structure. Based on local cues, the model can identify candidate field fillers. However, connecting them to events requires a broader document context. To effectively capture this context, the model needs to group together portions of the document that describe the same event. Global constraints are instrumental in this process, as they drive the aggregation of contiguous segments computed by a local segmentation model. In addition, global constraints coordinate local decisions and thereby enable us to express important discourse dependencies between various assignments.

To implement these ideas in a computational framework, we define an undirected graphical model with a vertex set $V = X \cup Y \cup Z$. $X$ is a set of observed nodes; $x_i$ represents the $i$th word in a document. $Y$ and $Z$ are sets of unobserved nodes corresponding to the field and event assignments respectively of the $i$th word. The number of input words in a document is denoted by $n$.

We define three types of potentials:

- **Field-labeling Potentials** associate words in a document with field labels based on their local sentential context.

- **Event-labeling Potentials** associate words in a document with event boundaries based on the local surroundings of a candidate boundary.

- **Global Consistency Potentials** link the extracted event records and their fields to encourage global consistency. These potentials are defined over the entire set of variables related to a document.

The resulting maximum aposteriori problem is:

$$MAP(\theta) = \sum_{f \in F} \theta_f(r_f)$$

where $\theta_f$ are the potential functions and $\{r_f | f \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}, f \in F\}$ is the set of their variables.

3.1 Modeling Local Dependencies

Field Labeling The first step of the model is tagging the words in the input document with fields. Following traditional approaches, we employ a linear-chain CRF (Lafferty et al., 2001) that operates over standard lexical, POS-based and syntactic features (Finkel et al., 2005; Finkel and Manning, 2009; Bellare and McCallum, 2009; Yao et al., 2010).

Event Segmentation At the local level, event analysis involves identification of event boundaries which we model as linear segmentation. To this end, we employ a binary CRF that predicts whether a given word starts a description of a new event or continues the description of the current event, based on lexical and POS-based features. In addition, we add features obtained from the output of the field extraction CRF. These features capture the intuition that boundary sentences often contain multiple fields.

The potential functions of these components are given by the likelihoods of the corresponding CRFs.

3.2 Modeling Global Dependencies

The main function of the global constraints is to link extracted fields to the corresponding events. In addition, the model can use global constraints to resolve potentially inconsistent decisions of the local models by encouraging them to agree with global, document-level properties. We consider two types of global consistency potentials: discourse potentials that involve interactions between multiple records, and record coherence potentials that capture patterns at the level of individual records.

The general form of a global potential $p$ is:

$$\theta_f(x_{f-p}, y_{f-p}, z_{f-p}) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \alpha_p & \text{if potential-property holds} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$  

Where $f - p$ is the index set of variables over which the potential is defined. Table 1 gives a formal description of all the potentials. Below we describe the linguistic intuition behind these potentials.

Discourse Potentials To populate event records with extracted information, the model needs to
group together sentences that describe the same event. The local boundary model can only predict contiguous blocks of event descriptions, but it cannot link together blocks that appear in different parts of the document. Our approach towards this task is informed by regularity in the discourse organization of news articles. A typical news story is devoted to a single event, mixed with short descriptions of other events. Therefore, we prefer event assignments where long segments with no field values — e.g., background descriptions — are associated with the main event. This intuition is formalized in the Main Event Potential shown in Table 1.

The second discourse constraint concerns detection of event boundaries. We prefer assignments in which the boundary sentence contains a large number of fields. This preference is expressed in the Segment Boundary Potential shown in Table 1.

The final discourse constraint favors assignments that reduce redundancy in generated records. It is unlikely that a document describes several events with significant factual overlap. This constraint is implemented in the Event Redundancy Potential shown in Table 1.

Record Coherence Potentials These potentials capture properties of valid field assignments in the context of a given event record. The first potential in this group — Field Sparsity Potential — is applied to fields, such as City, that tend to take a single unique value per event record. This potential discourages assignments that link this field with multiple values within the same event. Similar constraints have been effectively used in information extraction in the past (Finkel et al., 2005). In our work, we apply this constraint at the event level, rather than at the document level, thereby enabling multiple variable values for multi-event documents.

The second record coherence potential — Record Density Potential — aims to reduce empty fields in the event record. This potential turns on when a local extractor fails to identify a filler for a field when processing a given event segment. If this segment contains words that are labeled as potential fillers in the context of other events in the training data, we prefer assignments that associate them with the field that otherwise would have been empty. This potential is inspired by the one sense per discourse constraint (Gale et al., 1992) that associates all the occurrences of the word in a document with the same semantic meaning.

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1The potential is defined for the following fields: Terrorist Organization, Weapon, City, and Country.

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### Table 1: Logical formulations of the properties encouraged by the global potentials.

| Field | Logical Formulation |
|-------|---------------------|
| **Main Event** | Two consecutive sentences without fields indicate a transition to the main event: \((\exists S_i, S_{i+1} \ldots)\) |
| **Segment Boundary** | Event changes should take place in multi-field sentences: \((\forall i, j \in I, ((i = j + 1) \land (z_i = z_j)) \rightarrow (\exists 1 \ldots i_l \in I \text{ s.t. } 1_{f_i \rightarrow \text{SB}(i_1, \ldots, i_l)}) = 1)\) |
| **Event Redundancy** | Events should not significantly overlap: \((\forall i, j \in \{1, \ldots, |Z|\}, z \in I \text{ s.t. } (y_k = y_l) \land (y_k \neq \text{NULL}) \land (z_k = i) \land (z_l = j) \land (x_k = x_l))\) |
| **Field Sparsity** | Some fields take a single unique value per record: \((\forall K, L \subset I, C \in \xi, (y_K = C) \land (y_L = C) \land (Z_K = Z_L)) \rightarrow (X_K = X_L)\) |
| **Record Density** | Words associated with a field should fill the field if it is otherwise empty: \((\forall \xi \in I, C \in \xi, (\exists k \in I \text{ s.t. } 1_{C_{\text{nod}}(x_k)}(\xi) = 1) \land (x_k) \rightarrow (\exists l \in I \text{ s.t. } y_l = C)\) |

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### Discourse

- **Main Event**: Two consecutive sentences without fields indicate a transition to the main event: \((\exists S_i, S_{i+1} \ldots)\) (\(\forall k \in S_i, y_k = \text{NULL}\) \(\land (\forall k \in S_{i+1}, y_k = \text{NULL})\)) \(\rightarrow\) \((\forall i \geq 1 \text{ s.t. } (\forall u, u \neq i, u < l, 1_{f_{M_E}(S_u)} = 1), \forall p \in S_i, z_p = \text{CENTRAL}\)\)

- **Segment Boundary**: Event changes should take place in multi-field sentences: \(\forall i, j \in I, ((i = j + 1) \land (z_i = z_j)) \rightarrow (\exists 1 \ldots i_l \in I \text{ s.t. } 1_{f_i \rightarrow \text{SB}(i_1, \ldots, i_l)}) = 1)\)

- **Event Redundancy**: Events should not significantly overlap: \((\forall i, j \in \{1, \ldots, |Z|\}, z \in I \text{ s.t. } (y_k = y_l) \land (y_k \neq \text{NULL}) \land (z_k = i) \land (z_l = j) \land (x_k = x_l))\)

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### Record Coherence

- **Field Sparsity**: Some fields take a single unique value per record: \((\forall K, L \subset I, C \in \xi, (y_K = C) \land (y_L = C) \land (Z_K = Z_L)) \rightarrow (X_K = X_L)\)

- **Record Density**: Words associated with a field should fill the field if it is otherwise empty: \((\forall \xi \in I, C \in \xi, (\exists k \in I \text{ s.t. } 1_{C_{\text{nod}}(x_k)}(\xi) = 1) \land (x_k) \rightarrow (\exists l \in I \text{ s.t. } y_l = C)\)
4 Inference

Dual Decomposition The global potentials encode important document level information that links together the extracted event records and their fields. Introducing these potentials, however, greatly complicates inference. Consider the MAP equation of Section 3. If the intersection between each pair of subsets, $f_i, f_j \in F$, had been empty, we could have found the MAP assignment by solving each potential separately. However, since many subset pairs do overlap, we must enforce agreement among the assignments which results in an NP-hard problem.

In order to avoid this computational bottleneck we turn to dual-decomposition (Rush et al., 2010; Koo et al., 2010), an inference technique that enables efficient computation of a tight upper bound on the MAP objective, while preserving the original dependencies of the model. Dual decomposition has been recently applied to a joint model for biomedical entity and event extraction by Riedel and McCallum (2011). In their work, however, events are defined in the sentence level. Here we show how this technique can be applied to a model which involves document-level potentials.

We first re-write the MAP equation, such that it contains a local potential for each of the unobserved variables, as required by the inference algorithm:

$$ \text{MAP} (\theta) = \max_{r_j} \theta_j (r_j) + \sum_{f \in F} \delta_{f_j} (r_f) $$

where we denote the set of indexes of all unobserved variables with $J$ and refer to each of them with $r_j$. We then define the dual problem:

$$ \min_{\delta} L(\delta), \quad L(\delta) = \sum_{j \in J} \max_{r_j} [\theta_j (r_j) + \sum_{j \in f} \delta_{f_j} (r_f)] + \sum_{j \in f} \max_{r_f} [\theta_j (r_f) - \sum_{j \in f} \delta_{f_j} (r_f)] $$

where for every $f \in F$ and $j \in f$, $\delta_{f_j}$ is a vector of Lagrange multipliers with an entry for each possible assignment of $r_j$. We add the notation $\delta_f$ for the matrix of Lagrange multipliers for all the variables in $f$, and for an assignment $M$ of the variables in $f$ we define $\delta_f (M)$ to be the corresponding vector of Lagrange multipliers. The multipliers can be viewed as messages transferred between the potentials to encourage agreement between their assignments.

The dual objective, $L(\delta)$, forms an upper bound on the MAP objective. Our inference algorithm therefore searches for its minimum, i.e. the tightest upper bound of the original MAP objective. $L(\delta)$ is convex and non-differentiable and can therefore be minimized by the subgradient descent algorithm in Figure 2 (a).

Individual Potentials Maximization The inference algorithm requires efficient solvers for its $\arg\max$ problems. For the field labeling and event segmentation potentials, the messages are encoded into the feature space of the CRF, and exact maximization is achieved through standard CRF decoding. For the local potentials, $(r_l f)$, the maximizing assignments are computed by sorting the messages for each unobserved variable (Figure 2 (b)).

The global potentials are more challenging. Ideally, we could find the optimal assignment, $r p^* f$, that agrees with the assignments of the other potentials $(r p^* f = \arg\min \sum_{j \in f} \delta_{f_j} (r p_j))$ and at the same time respects the property encouraged by its own po-
tential ($\theta_p(rp^*_f) > 0$). In practice, however, there may be no such assignment, in which case the assignment conflict needs to be resolved.

We first compute the minimum-message assignment (MMA), the assignment that minimizes the message sum. If this assignment respects the potential property then it is the optimal assignment. Otherwise, we compute the property-respecting assignment (PRA), the assignment with the (approximate) lowest message sum under the condition that the potential property holds. From these two assignments we select the one with the higher score.

Finding the MMA is simple, as it is the minimum-message assignment of each unobserved variable separately. However, finding the global optimal PRA is computationally demanding, as it requires searching over a very large assignment space. We therefore trade accuracy for efficiency and restrict each potential to modify the MMA assignment for only one type of variables: $Y$ (fields) or $Z$ (events). The discourse potentials and the Field Sparsity potential are restricted to changes of the event variables, while the Record Densisty potential is restricted to changes of the field variables.

For the Main Event potential, consecutive sentences with no fields trigger a return to the main event. For the Segment Boundary potential, event changes that take place in sentences with a small number of fields are removed. For our work, this threshold is set to three. For the Event Redundancy potential, redundant events are integrated with the largest event in which they are contained. For the Record Densisty potential, words seen in both training records and event text are used to fill empty fields. For each empty field in each event, words labeled with event are scanned for candidate fillers, and those with the minimal impact on the message sum are assigned to that field.

Finally, for the Field Sparsity potential, if a field contains more than one word or phrase per event, the event assignments of these words or phrases are recomputed. This computation is implemented as a minimum matching problem in a bipartite graph. One side of the graph consists of a vertex for every word or phrase assigned to the addressed field, and the other side consists of one vertex for each event in the document. If the number of phrases assigned to the field is larger than the number of events in the document, some of the event vertices will be assigned to new events. The edge weights are the sum of message changes corresponding to relabeling the word or phrase with the new event. We solve this problem efficiently ($O(n^3)$) using the Kuhn-Munkres algorithm (Kuhn, 1955).

5 Experiments

Data This work focuses on multi-event extraction. While some of the articles in the MUC test corpus do have multiple events, the majority contain only one (77.5%) or two (12%). We therefore created two corpora for our experiments. The first is a new corpus of 70 articles from New York Times (NYT) LDC corpus, each describing one or more terrorist events from various parts of the world. The second, also of 70 articles, consists of a subset of the MUC articles that describe more than one event. We stripped this corpus from the MUC annotation and annotated it according to our scheme.

Annotations were provided by two annotators with graduate school educations. Every word was tagged with a field and an event id. The 8 fields we use are: Terrorist Organization, Target, Tactic, Weapon, Fatalities, Injuries, Country and City.

We compared the agreement between annotators on 10 articles by computing the percentage of words for which the annotators gave the same labeling. The inter-annotator agreement was 90.9% (kappa = 0.9) when fields and events are evaluated together (i.e., the annotators are considered to agree only when they assign the same field and event id to the word), 97.8% (kappa = 0.97) for events only, and 92% (kappa = 0.91) for fields only.

The two corpora differ from each other with respect to several important properties. The New-York Times articles are longer (40.3 compared to 12.4 sentences per article) and describe a larger number of events (4.4 compared to 3.1 events per article on average). In addition, while our hypothesis about the predominance of the main (first) event coverage holds for both corpora, it better characterizes the New-York Times corpus, as is demonstrated by the following two statistics.

First, in the NYT corpus the average number of sentences containing field fillers for the main event is 14.7, while for any other event the average number
is 3.2. In the MUC corpus the corresponding numbers are 5.3 and 2.0. Second, in the NYT corpus the number of times an article goes back to a previously described event is 182 (average of 2.6 times per article), of which 154 (84.6%) are transitions to the main event. In the MUC corpus the number of times an article goes back to a previously described event is only 38 (average of 0.54 times per article), but, similarly to the NYT, in as much as 32 (84.2%) of these cases the transitions are to the main event.

**Experimental Setup** For both corpora, we used 30 articles for training (1218 sentences in NYT, 423 in MUC), 7 articles for development (358 sentences in NYT, 79 in MUC) and 33 articles for test (1244 sentences in NYT, 367 in MUC). The sentences were POS tagged with the MXPOST tagger (Ratnaparkhi, 1996) and parsed with the Charniak parser (Charniak and Johnson, 2005).

We trained our model with a two steps procedure. First, the local CRFs were separately trained on the training articles. Then, we trained the parameters of the global potentials using the structured perceptron algorithm (Collins, 2002) on the development data.

We perform joint inference over the local CRFs as well as the global potentials with dual decomposition. This algorithm is guaranteed to give the MAP assignment if it converges to a solution in which all the potentials agree on the label assignment for the variables in their scope. To deal with disagreements, we ran the algorithm for 200 iterations past the point of fluctuations around the dual minimum. The final label assignment is determined by a majority vote between the potentials in the 10 iterations with the highest total inter potential agreement (Sontag et al., 2010).

**Baselines** We compare our algorithm to two baseline models. The first baseline is related to previous techniques that decompose the task into field extraction and event segmentation sub-tasks (Jean-Louis et al., 2011; Patwardhan and Riloff, 2007; Patwardhan and Riloff, 2009). For this **PIPELINE** baseline, we run the CRF models described in Section 3.1, first the field CRF and then the event CRF. The field-based features of the event CRF are extracted from the output of the field CRF.

Our model incorporates global dependencies into a document level model. An alternative approach is to encode this information as local features that reflect global dependencies (Liang et al., 2008). We therefore constructed a second baseline, the bidirectional pipeline model (**BI-PIPELINE**), that considers global features which encode similar properties to those encouraged by our global potentials. We implement this by incorporating event-based features into the feature set of the field labeling CRF, while kipping the event segmentation CRF fixed. As in the pipeline model, each CRF is trained separately on the training data. The **BI-PIPELINE** model, however, emulates our joint inference procedure by iteratively running a field labeling and an event segmentation CRFs. The number of iterations for this model was estimated on development data.

**Evaluation Measures** We follow the MUC-4 scoring guidelines (Chinchor, 1992). To compare between a learned and a gold standard event, we compute the word-level F-score between each of their fields and average the results. If a field is empty in both event records, it is not counted in the mutual event score, while if it is empty in only one of the event records, its F-score is 0.

Ideally, the measure should be able to capture paraphrases. For example, if the Tactic field in a gold event record contains the words “bombing” and “blast”, the measure is expected to give a perfect score to a learned record that contains one of these words. Therefore, as in the MUC-4 guidelines, we count pre-specified synonyms and morphological derivations of the same word only once.

For every document, we then map the learned events to the gold events in a greedy 1-1 manner using the Kuhn-Munkres algorithm (Kuhn, 1955). Once we have an event mapping, we can report an average recall, precision and F-score across the test set for all fields, events and documents (where the document F-score is the average F-score of its events). We use the sign test to measure the statistical significance for our results. Since the number of events described in a document is not given to the models as input, we also report the average ratio between the number of induced and gold events.

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2Example additional features are: (1) whether a word with the same most frequent field (MFF) as the encoded word previously appeared in its event; (2) whether a new event is started in the sentence of the encoded word; and (3) whether the event of the encoded word contains at least one word annotated with the MFF of the encoded word.
**Table 2**: Performance of the joint model and the pipeline models on the event record extraction task. Top table is for the New-York Times data. Bottom table is for the MUC data. All results are statistically significant with $p < 0.05$.

| NYT | Documents | Events | Fields | Event Number | Ratio |
|-----|-----------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
|     | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | Ratio |
| Joint Model | 38.7 | 42.4 | 38.5 | 36.2 | 40.8 | 36.4 | 43.6 | 49.1 | 43.8 | 0.95 |
| Bi-pipeline Model | 33.3 | 30.8 | 30.2 | 31.9 | 30.1 | 29.4 | 38.8 | 36.6 | 35.7 | 1.14 |
| Pipeline Model | 28.3 | 27.0 | 26.2 | 27.1 | 26.8 | 25.5 | 35.4 | 34.8 | 33.2 | 1.5 |

| MUC | Documents | Events | Fields | Event Number | Ratio |
|-----|-----------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
|     | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | R  | P    | F  | Ratio |
| Joint Model | 49.8 | 43.2 | 43.5 | 48.7 | 43.0 | 42.7 | 53.6 | 45.9 | 46.2 | 0.88 |
| Bi-pipeline Model | 38.1 | 38.6 | 36.3 | 34.3 | 33.9 | 32.2 | 41.5 | 40.5 | 38.6 | 0.92 |
| Pipeline Model | 30.8 | 32.8 | 29.7 | 29.9 | 32.0 | 28.9 | 37.9 | 40.1 | 36.6 | 0.89 |

Table 3: Comparison between the joint model and the pipeline models for the different fields. When the joint model is superior results are statistically significance with $p < 0.05$.

| NYT | Fields | Events | LF  | GF  | R  | P    | F  |
|-----|--------|--------|-----|-----|----|-------|----|
| Joint model | 47.3 | 51.3 | 49.2 | 54.8 | 61.3 |
| Bi-Pipeline | 31.0 | 43.8 | 36.3 | 48.8 | 56.2 |
| Pipeline Model | 39.2 | 55.4 | 45.9 | 51.3 | 52.9 |

| MUC | Fields | Events | LF  | GF  | R  | P    | F  |
|-----|--------|--------|-----|-----|----|-------|----|
| Joint model | 47.3 | 51.3 | 49.2 | 54.8 | 61.3 |
| Bi-Pipeline | 49.5 | 56.1 | 41.8 | 62.2 | 62.0 |
| Pipeline Model | 31.0 | 43.8 | 36.3 | 65.5 | 70.3 |

Table 4: Performance of the joint and the pipeline models on the labeling tasks of assigning words to fields (left) and to events (right). Field values are computed for words tagged with the non-NULL field. Events values are computed for words that are assigned to a non-NULL field by the gold standard (GF) or by the model (LF). When the joint model is superior, results for fields are statistically significant with $p < 0.01$ and for events with $p < 0.05$.

**6 Results**

**Event-Records** Results for event record extraction, the main task addressed in this paper, are presented in Table 2. For all measures, the model outperforms the pipeline baselines, with an F-score difference of up to 13.8%.

The rightmost column of the table demonstrates the tendency of our model to under-segment. For both corpora our model extracts a smaller number of events than the gold standard on average (5% for NYT, 12% for MUC). The pipeline baselines extract more events than our model on average. For NYT they over-segment (14% for bi-pipeline, 53% for the pipeline) while for MUC they under-segment (8% and 11% respectively). These differences are expected as the baselines cannot combine different text segments that describe the same event.

Table 3 presents per-field F-score performance. The joint model outperforms the pipeline baselines for 7 out of the 8 fields in the NYT experiments, and for 6 out of 8 fields in the MUC experiments.

**Model Components** Table 6 presents the performance of variants of the joint model created by excluding each potential type. The results demonstrate the significance of both discourse and record coherence potentials for the performance of the full model.

**Sub-tasks Performance** A model for our task
Table 5: Performance of the joint model and the pipeline models when the gold standard for one of the labeling tasks is given at test time. Results are statistically significant with \( p < 0.05 \).

| Excluded Component | NYT | MUC | Events | Fields | Event Rat. |
|--------------------|-----|-----|--------|--------|------------|
| Record Coherence   | 32.1| 37.4| 37.7   | 1.04   |            |
| Discourse          | 26.7| 26.3| 34.3   | 1.5    |            |
| MUC                |     |     |        |        |            |
| Record Coherence   | 37.7| 36.6| 42.7   | 0.89   |            |

Table 6: The effect of the record coherence potentials and of the discourse potentials on the performance of the joint model. Results are presented for F-scores, each line is for the full model when potentials of one type are excluded.

should determine both when a word is a good field filler and to which event the field belongs. Since our main evaluation collapses the effect of these decisions together, we performed two additional sets of experiments to analyze the model’s accuracy on each sub-task separately.

Figure 4 presents the performance of the different models on the labeling tasks of assigning words to fields and to events. The number of words associated with a field differs between the gold standard and the models’ output. For fields, we therefore report word level recall, precision and F-score between the set of words assigned a non-NULL field by a model and the corresponding gold standard set. For events, we compute the fraction of words assigned the correct event among the words assigned to a non-NULL field in either the gold standard or the output of the model.

Figure 5 presents the document F-score when the gold-standard fields (left) or events (right) of the test set are known at test time. Note that when the gold standard fields are known, the BI-PIPELINE model is not applicable anymore since it is designed to improve field assignment using event-informed features. The results demonstrate that encoding field information to the models is more valuable than encoding information about events. This provides us with an important direction for future improvement of our model.

**Accuracy and Efficiency** When we ran our algorithm on the joint task of the NYT data-set it converged after 89 iterations. For the MUC joint task and the ablation analysis experiments we ran the algorithm for 200 iterations past the point of fluctuations around the dual minimum.

On a 2GHz CPU, 2GB RAM machine, it took our dual-decomposition algorithm 15 minutes and 10 seconds to complete its run on the entire NYT test set. For the MUC joint task experiment, in the 10 iterations considered for the majority vote, there is full agreement between the potentials for 97.77% of the unobserved variables. That is, the voting scheme affects the assignment of only 2.23% of the unobserved variables.

7 Conclusions

In this paper we presented a joint model for identifying fields of information and aggregating them into event records. We experimented with two data sets of newspaper articles containing multiple event descriptions. Our results demonstrate the importance and effectiveness of global constraints for event record extraction.

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