Classifying Dyads for Militarized Conflict Analysis

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Abstract
Understanding the origins of militarized conflict is a complex, yet important undertaking. Existing research seeks to build this understanding by considering bi-lateral relationships between entity pairs (dyadic causes) and multi-lateral relationships among multiple entities (systemic causes). The aim of this work is to compare these two causes in terms of how they correlate with conflict between two entities. We do this by devising a set of textual and graph-based features which represent each of the causes. The features are extracted from Wikipedia and modeled as a large graph. Nodes in this graph represent entities connected by labeled edges representing ally or enemy-relationships. This allows casting the problem as an edge classification task, which we term dyad classification. We propose and evaluate classifiers to determine if a particular pair of entities are allies or enemies. Our results suggest that our systemic features might be slightly better correlates of conflict. Further, we find that Wikipedia articles of allies are semantically more similar than enemies.\textsuperscript{1}

1 Introduction
Researchers have long sought to understand the underlying causes of militarized conflict. The origins of conflict can be broadly categorized as either dyadic or systemic. Dyadic pertains to entity-specific idiosyncrasies, competing ideologies (Leader Maynard, 2019), e.g., dissimilar political systems (Rousseau et al., 1996), and power differentials, e.g., economic and demographic capabilities (Geller, 1993). The Mali War is an example of a conflict to which a dyadic cause has been attributed: It was spawned from differing cultural and ideological identities between the Azawad Liberation Movement and the Malian government (Chauzal and Damme, 2015). Throughout this paper, we use the term dyad to not only denote conflictual entity pairs (ENEMIES) but also cooperative pairs (ALLIES) in a conflict (Geller, 1993).

A systemic cause, on the other hand, is a cause based on the broader relationship network involving a larger set of entities (Sweeney, 2004; Rasler and Thompson, 2010). For instance, the intervention of France in the Mali War may be said to have had a systemic cause as its origins may be partly attributed to NATO’s close diplomatic ties with the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS; Francis, 2013). Determining a systemic cause may be aided by the analysis of a graph that encodes the relationships between the entities in the conflict. Another example of a

\textsuperscript{1}Our dataset can be explored in an interactive dashboard: https://conflict-ai.github.io/conflictwiki. Data, code and documentations are provided at https://github.com/conflict-ai/conflictwiki.
systemic origin of conflict is the ancient proverb “the enemy of my enemy is my friend”, which is also known as the structural balance theory (Heider, 1946; Cartwright and Harary, 1956).

In this paper, we construct textual and graph-based features that encode dyadic and systemic correlates of conflict. We take this approach since establishing causality from our data is a highly complex endeavor, so we focus on correlates instead. Our approach uses Wikipedia data to compare the ability of classifiers trained using these features to predict whether two entities are allies or enemies. This is illustrated at a high level in Fig. 1. We then perform an ablation study by systematically leaving out dyadic and systemic features to ascertain to what degree these features correlate with whether two entities are enemies or allies in a conflict. Our systemic model obtains an F1 score of 0.917 and our dyadic model obtains an F1 score of 0.873. If one believes our features to be representative dyadic and systemic correlates, then this result provides support for the claim that, in aggregate, systemic causes may play a slightly larger role. Moreover, we also find that articles of allies are semantically more similar than enemies.

2 Dyadic and Systemic Features

The larger scientific mission of this paper is to investigate whether, when analyzing a large corpus of conflicts, dyadic or systemic correlates of conflict are more prominent. To carry out such a study, we construct features that encode the notions of dyadic and systemic and train classifiers to predict whether two entities are enemies or allies using these features. The classifiers are designed to operate on a dyad graph, an undirected graph where each node corresponds to an entity and each edge corresponds to the relationship between two entities. This allows casting the problem as an edge classification task, which we term dyad classification. In this section we describe the features accessible by both models, deferring the construction of the dyad graph from Wikipedia to §3 and the actual technical implementation of the models to §4.

Notation. Let $G = (\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{E})$ be the dyad graph consisting of entity nodes $\mathcal{N}$ and labeled relationship edges $\mathcal{E}$. This graph can be equivalently represented by the set of all dyads $D = \{d_i\}_{i=1}^{\left|\mathcal{D}\right|}$. Each dyad $d_i = (u_i, v_i, e_i, y_i)$ consists of two entities $u_i, v_i \in \mathcal{N}$ connected by an edge $e_i = (u_i, v_i) \in \mathcal{E}$, which is labeled as $y_i \in \{\text{ALLIES, ENEMIES}\}$.

Dyadic features. The adjective dyadic is derived from the noun dyad, which is the basic unit of a militarized conflict and describes a pair of warring entities (Harbom et al., 2008). Throughout this paper, we expand the use of the term dyad to not only denote conflictual entity pairs (ENEMIES) but also cooperative pairs (ALLIES) in a given conflict (Geller, 1993). Dyadic correlates pertain to idiosyncrasies of two entities and their bilateral relationship. This suggests that suitable dyadic features would be any information directly associated with a dyad. Particularly, as dyadic features, we consider the representations of both entities, $u_i$ and $v_i$, and the unlabeled edge between them, $e_i$.

Systemic features. Systemic correlates are contained within the wider network of relationships two entities are embedded in. Hence, we can think of systemic features as those that are exposed by a restricted dyad graph $G\setminus d_i$, defined as the dyad
Figure 3: Construction of dyad graph; (A) Entities in each conflict are partitioned into belligerents; (B) We construct entity pairs (dyads) from all combinations of belligerents in a conflict; (C) We aggregate dyads across conflicts into a graph where nodes are entities and edges are conflicts; (D) When considering dyadic features, we only expose to the model the dyad that is meant to be classified, but when considering systemic features, we expose the graph information of everything but the dyad to be classified.

graph $G$ minus the dyad $d_i$ that is to be classified:

$$G \setminus d_i = (N \setminus d_i, E \setminus d_i)$$

(1)

Specifically, our systemic features are the representations of neighboring entities $N \setminus d_i$, the representations of their relationships $E \setminus d_i$, and the labels of those relationships, which we denote $E_{lab} \setminus d_i$.

3 Constructing the Dyad Graph

We now turn to the problem of extracting a dyad graph from Wikipedia. We first retrieve conflict, e.g., the Mali War, and entity, e.g., France, Al-Qaeda, articles from Wikipedia² (§3.1) and pre-process the articles to obtain vector representations of articles and their sections (§4.1). The resulting ConflictWiki dataset is a collection of articles on militarized conflict and their involved entities. Data, code and documentation are publicly available in an interactive dashboard. A subset of the dyad graph is shown in Fig. 4.

3.1 Data Retrieval

To obtain conflict articles, we first extract all articles from the Wikipedia subcategory Category:21st-century conflicts by year, offering a collection of all conflict articles from 2001 to 2021. We then recursively extract all articles in all of its subcategories up to a depth of 4 levels. While this procedure ensures wide coverage, it includes various articles which do not describe militarized conflicts but instead conflict entities, political figures, movements or geographic locations. For this reason, we filter our selection based on a precise militarized conflict criterion—we discard all articles that do not feature at least two belligerents as indicated by the tags combatant1 and combatant2 in their infobox (see Template:Infobox military conflict and Fig. 2). Due to inconsistencies in the usage of tags, our extraction steps require a considerable number of regular expressions.³ The whole procedure leaves us with 1145 annotated militarized conflicts over a period of 20 years.

To obtain the Wikipedia articles for all entities involved in a conflict, we consider the combatant tags in each conflict article’s infobox (see Template:Infobox military conflict and Fig. 2).⁴ There may be two or more combatant tags, indicating opposing conflict parties which are displayed as belligerents in Wikipedia. Each belligerent comprises one or more entities (states, militias, etc.) that are united as allies in a particular conflict. Entities assigned to different belligerents are enemies in that conflict. Almost all entities are hyperlinked to their own Wikipedia articles, which we retrieve. All together, we gather 1245 articles of entities that are involved in at least one conflict.⁵

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³The regular expressions find links to redirect pages and mentions of entities within the infobox.
⁴If a hyperlink to an entity article leads to a redirect page, we follow the redirection.
⁵Incidentally, we include additional conflict metadata in the dataset we distribute, even though it is not exploited by any of our models. Specifically, we extract the title and id of the conflict, the place and date tag for spatio-temporal information as well as the strength, casualty, commander and result tags. Whenever provided in the entity’s infobox, we retrieve auxiliary information on languages, religion, ISO2 code and ideology. We hope that this will be helpful to researchers conducting further work in this area.
3.2 Dyad Graph Construction

The 3-step process for building a dyad graph is depicted in Fig. 3A,B,C. The retrieved data yields a set of conflicts. Each one of these conflicts can be thought of as a group of warring factions, which we call belligerents. This is illustrated in Fig. 3A. For example, for the Mali War conflict, we have three sets of belligerents: (1) \{Mali, France\}, (2) \{Azawad Liberation Movement\}, and (3) \{Al-Qaeda\}. Next, we construct a set of ally–enemy pairs for each conflict by taking the Cartesian product of all entities involved in a conflict. For each pair of entities in a conflict, we take them to be enemies in that conflict if the two entities are in different belligerent sets, and as allies otherwise. This is displayed in Fig. 3B, where green edges represent allies and red edges represent enemies.

Next, we aggregate all ally–enemy pairs across conflicts to construct a graph $G = (\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{E})$ as displayed in Fig. 3C.\(^6\) The set of nodes $\mathcal{N}$ represents the set of all entities and the set of edges $\mathcal{E}$ represents the bilateral relationships between all entities that have been engaged in at least one conflict together, where multiple conflicts between a pair of entities are aggregated into a single edge. We label an edge as allies if, across all conflicts they partook together, the two entities have been allies strictly more often than enemies; otherwise the edge is labeled as enemies. Note that entities that do not co-occur in a conflict have no edge between them. The resulting dyad graph contains a total of 26,536 ally–enemy edges, with 55% of them being labeled as allies. A subset of it is displayed in Fig. 4.

4 Experimental Setup

What remains to be discussed is the conversion of articles to a machine-readable representation (§4.1), the technical implementation of each of these models, and the baselines and setup of the experiments (§4.2).

4.1 Article and Section Features

Having collected the raw data from Wikipedia and constructed the dyad graph, we need to pre-process ConflictWiki so that it can be used as input to our models. However, there are two challenges associated with pre-processing the data we retrieved from Wikipedia. The first is that Wikipedia articles for both conflicts and entities can contain explicit mentions of ally–enemy relationships. For instance, the conflict article Mali War states\(^7\) that the Azawad Liberation Movement “began fighting a campaign against” the Malian government, and the entity article France says that the country “intervened to help the Malian Army”. This poses a dilemma: How can we guarantee that a model that takes as input a Wikipedia article is not simply using superficial linguistic cues to regurgitate these relationships? After all, if this is all that a model does, we could hardly attribute its success to whether it is dyadic or systemic! Therefore, for a fair comparison, we need to ensure that our data does not contain explicit mentions of such relationships.\(^8\)

The second challenge is that we must not inadvertently provide more information to our models than the information in our features (§2). For example, pre-trained representations have been shown to encode a plethora of information that may skew predictions (Kutuzov et al., 2017; Petroni et al., 2019; Bouraoui et al., 2020). Hence, for our experi-

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\(^6\)Most graph processing is done with the help of the networkX library (Hagberg et al., 2008).

\(^7\)as of 14 September 2021

\(^8\)We believe that a model that exploits explicit mentions of ally–enemy relationships in the text is better analyzed through the lens of information extraction and machine reading.
4.2 Model Implementation

We implement the two main models—one that exploits the dyadic features and one with systemic features—alongside a combined model that has access to both features. Recall that, in the dyad graph, every node represents an entity, and edges between entities represent their enemy or ally relationship across one or more conflicts (§3.2). We use the tf-idf vectors of entity articles as node embeddings, and the average tf-idf vectors across all conflict articles associated with an edge as edge embeddings.

i) Dyadic model (D): The dyadic model has access to dyadic features only (see top half of Fig. 3D). It takes the node and edge embeddings of a dyad and passes them through multilayer perceptron (MLP) node and edge encoders, respectively. Then, the node and edge embeddings are mean-aggregated at both nodes of the dyad. The averaged embeddings are passed through another MLP and combined through a dot product, which is finally passed through a sigmoid function.

ii) Systemic model (S): The systemic model has access to systemic features only (see bottom half of Fig. 3D). Concretely, it passes all node and edge embeddings through MLP node and edge encoders, except those of the dyad to be classified. Next, the node embeddings are used to initialize a graph isomorphism network (GIN; Xu et al., 2019) with learnable parameters. In the GIN, edges representing an enemy relationship are weighted by $-1$ and allies by $+1$, with the edge of the dyad being excluded. After a fixed number of message passing steps with the GIN, the resulting node embeddings are mean-aggregated with the edge embeddings, passed through an MLP, and combined as in the dyadic model.

iii) Combined (C): The combined model has access to both, dyadic and systemic features. Concretely, it passes all node and edge embeddings, including those of the dyad, through the node and edge encoders and uses all node embeddings to initialize the GIN. The edge of the dyad is of course not weighted to
Dyadic features | Systemic features | F1 score (μ±s.d.)
--- | --- | ---
\(u_i\) | \(N_{\delta_i}\) | 0.873 ± 0.009
\(v_i\) | \(E_{\delta_i}\) | 0.917 ± 0.006
\(e_i\) | \(E_{\delta_i}^{lab}\) | 0.649 ± 0.009

Main models

| \(S\) | ✓ ✓ ✓ | 0.926 ± 0.008
| \(C\) | ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ | 0.917 ± 0.006
| MAJ | ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ | 0.873 ± 0.009

Ablation study

| \(1\) | ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ | 0.871 ± 0.005
| \(2\) | ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ | 0.828 ± 0.007
| \(3\) | ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ | 0.779 ± 0.009
| \(4\) | ✓ ✓ ✓ | 0.836 ± 0.013

Table 2: Mean results and standard deviation of dyad classification task over 10 runs. The top half of the table shows the results of our main comparison; the bottom half shows the results of our feature ablation study (§5.1). We find that the systemic model (F1 = 0.917) outperforms the dyadic model (F1 = 0.873).

hide the enemy or ally relationship. The rest of the model is identical to the dyadic model.

iv) **Majority class (MAJ):** This is a majority-class baseline which always predict that two entities are allies.

**Hyperparameter settings.** All models are implemented using PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019) and the Deep Graph Library (DGL; Wang et al., 2019). We use the Adam optimizer with \(\eta = 0.001, \beta_1 = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.999\), which have been shown to work well in a variety of settings (Kingma and Ba, 2015). We train our models for 30 epochs, with early stopping with a patience of 3, and a batch size of 512. Based on preliminary experiments, we use 2 message passing steps for the GIN. We use ReLU activations for all MLP non-linearities in the network. We ran a grid search to determine the dimensionality of the final layers of node encoder, edge encoder, and edge classifier.\(^1\)

**Data split and training procedure.** We randomly split the 26,536 labeled edges of our graph \(G\) into a training (60%), validation (30%) and testing set (10%). During training, the entire graph is presented to the model in subgraph batches, but the loss is computed only on the training set edges. This is a form of transductive learning (Hamilton et al., 2017) that eliminates the challenging task of splitting the graph into a separate training and testing graph through sampling (as required by the inductive setting). Moreover, we believe that the transductive setting represents a more realistic scenario, where new entities and conflicts are added to the graph as time progresses and new conflicts erupt.

**5 Results**

The results of our main comparison are shown in the top half of Tab. 2. We evaluate results in terms of the F1 score, which is the weighted average of the precision and recall. We observe a higher binary F1 score with the systemic model \(S\) (F1 = 0.917) than with the dyadic model \(D\) (F1 = 0.873). This difference is significant at \(p<0.05\) under a permutation test. We also find that the combined model \(C\) achieves F1 = 0.926, slightly outperforming the models that use only dyadic or systemic features. This asserts that, if our features are to be taken as good representatives of dyadic and systemic correlates, then our results would suggest that conflicts may be better explained by systemic causes rather than dyadic ones.

We conduct two additional analyses to gain further insight into our results. The first is an ablation study of features, to shed light onto the strongest dyadic and systemic correlates (§5.1). The second is a comparative analysis of the article sections that are most similar between allies and enemies (§5.2).

**5.1 Ablation Study of Features**

We conduct an ablation study on the individual dyadic and systemic features we defined in §2. Specifically, we ask the question: out of all dyadic and systemic features, which ones are stronger correlates of militarized conflict? The results are shown in the bottom half of Tab. 2.

\(^1\)Details on the grid search and the final hyperparameter values are available on the repository.
5.2 Analysis of Textual Similarity

Our results suggest that the dyadic and systemic features we extracted from Wikipedia correlate, to some extent, with whether a pair of entities are allies or enemies. Indeed, some preliminary experiments show that the tf-idf representations of articles and sections are more similar among allies than enemies (for an example, see Fig. 6 where the allies Mali and France are closer to each other than to any enemy). To gain further insights into the semantic similarity of allies and enemies, we select the 1000 pairs of section titles that most frequently co-occur among allies and enemies and compute the cosine distance of their representations (e.g., Summary–Summary). We plot this in Fig. 5, with ally section pairs shown in green, and enemy ones in red. We find that distance is, on average, lower between allies (mean distance: 0.905, standard deviation: 0.063) than between enemies (mean distance: 0.912, standard deviation: 0.060) at a significance level of $p < 0.05$ under a $t$-test. This means that entities with similar articles are statistically less likely to appear as enemies in a conflict.

6 Related Work

**Entity relationship classification.** Most work on entity relationship classification is focused on modeling multi-dimensional relations in knowledge bases and ontologies (e.g., Riedel et al., 2010; Miwa and Bansal, 2016). The focus of our work is more similar to person-to-person sentiment analysis (West et al., 2014) since dyadic relationships are binary. There exist expert-based conflict-cooperation scales such as the Goldstein Scale (Goldstein, 1992). Structural balance theory (Heider, 1946; Cartwright and Harary, 1956) has been extended to status theory (Leskovec et al., 2010) and studied in online discussions by combining signed graphs with sentiment analysis (Hassan et al., 2012a,b). Friend and enemy relations have been studied in novels (Iyyer et al., 2016;
Srivastava et al., 2016) and international relations extracted from news (O’Connor et al., 2013; Tan et al., 2017; Han et al., 2019).

Quantitative conflict studies. Consistent with our work, existing empirical studies find evidence for coalescing dyadic and systemic conflict causes (de Mesquita and Lalman, 1988; Midlarsky, 1990; Geller, 1993). However, empirical studies are limited by availability of text- and graph-based data (Harbom et al., 2008). Many machine-extracted (e.g., Europe Media Monitor (EMM; Atkinson et al., 2017)) and human-curated (e.g., The Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project (ACLED; Raleigh et al., 2010)) conflict event datasets are collections of news articles covering events of daily granularity. Associating events with their overarching long-term conflict and mentioned entities requires complex co-reference resolution (Radford, 2020). The UCDP Global Event Dataset (GED; Sundberg and Melander, 2013), UCDP Dyadic Dataset (Harbom et al., 2008) and Correlates of War (CoW; Reid and Wayman, 2010) are among the few datasets that associate individual events with overarching conflicts. The UCDP Dyadic Dataset is closest to our dataset, but limited to 3000 dyads and does not feature textual descriptions. Related militarized conflict analyses focus on news coverage (West and Pfeffer, 2017), interpretable topic models (Mueller and Rauh, 2018) and graph neural networks for event detection (Nguyen and Grishman, 2018; Cui et al., 2020).

7 Conclusion

This work explores the extent to which dyadic and systemic features correlate with whether two entities are allies or enemies. Our results suggest that both features are correlated, although, if one is to believe our featurizations and models, systemic features appear to be more correlated. We conduct an ablation study to identify the overall contribution of individual dyadic and systemic features, and a textual similarity study which shows that articles of allies exhibit more similarity than those of enemies.

Acknowledgments

We thank Govinda Clayton, Allard Duursma, Sascha Langenbach and Gokhan Ciflikli for helpful input relating to the background material.

Impact Statement

The authors foresee no ethical concerns with the research presented in this paper.
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