Relational Learning of Pattern-Match Rules for Information Extraction

Mary Elaine Califf and Raymond J. Mooney
Department of Computer Sciences
University of Texas at Austin
Austin, TX 78712
{mecaliff,mooney}@cs.utexas.edu

Abstract

Information extraction is a form of shallow text processing which locates a specified set of relevant items in natural language documents. Such systems can be useful, but require domain-specific knowledge and rules, and are time-consuming and difficult to build by hand, making information extraction a good testbed for the application of machine learning techniques to natural language processing. This paper presents a system, Rapier, that takes pairs of documents and filled templates and induces pattern-match rules that directly extract fillers for the slots in the template. The learning algorithm incorporates techniques from several inductive logic programming systems and learns unbounded patterns that include constraints on the words and part-of-speech tags surrounding the filler. Encouraging results are presented on learning to extract information from computer job postings from the newsgroup misc.jobs.offered.

Introduction

Text understanding is a difficult and knowledge intensive task. As an increasing amount of information becomes available in the form of electronic documents, the need to intelligently process such texts makes shallow text understanding methods such as information extraction (IE), the task of locating specific pieces of data from a natural language document, particularly useful. In recognition of their significance, IE systems have been the focus of DARPA’s MUC program (Lehnert & Sundheim 1991). Unfortunately, IE systems, although they don’t attempt full text understanding, are still difficult and time-consuming to build and the resulting systems generally contain highly domain-specific components, making them difficult to port to new domains.

IE systems, then, are an attractive testbed for the application of machine learning methods to natural language processing. Recently, several researchers have begun to apply learning methods to the construction of IE systems (McCarth y & Lehnert 1995; Soderland et al. 1995; Riloff 1993; 1996; Kim & Moldovan 1995; Huffman 1996). Several symbolic and statistical methods have been employed, but learning is generally used to construct only part of a larger IE system. Our system, Rapier (Robust Automated Production of Information Extraction Rules), learns rules for the complete IE task. The resulting rules extract the desired items directly from documents without prior parsing or subsequent processing. Using only a corpus of documents paired with filled templates, Rapier learns unbounded Eliza-like patterns (Weizenbaum 1966) that utilize limited syntactic information, such as the output of a part-of-speech tagger. Induced patterns can also easily incorporate semantic class information, such as that provided by WordNet (Miller et al. 1993). The learning algorithm was inspired by several Inductive Logic Programming (ILP) systems and primarily consists of a specific-to-general (bottom-up) search for patterns that characterize slot-fillers and their surrounding context.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents background material on IE and relational learning. Section 3 describes Rapier’s rule representation and learning algorithm. Section 4 presents and analyzes results obtained on extracting information from messages posted to the newsgroup misc.jobs.offered. Section 5 discusses related work in applying learning to IE, Section 6 suggests areas for future research, and Section 7 then presents our conclusions.

Background

Information Extraction

In IE, the data to be extracted from a natural language text is given by a template specifying a list of
Posting from Newsgroup
Telecommunications. SOLARIS Systems Administrator. 38-44K. Immediate need

Leading telecommunications firm in need of an energetic individual to fill the following position in the Atlanta office:

SOLARIS SYSTEMS ADMINISTRATOR
Salary: 38-44K with full benefits
Location: Atlanta Georgia, no relocation assistance provided

Filled Template
computer_science_job
title: SOLARIS Systems Administrator
salary: 38-44K
state: Georgia
city: Atlanta
platform: SOLARIS
area: telecommunications

Figure 1: Sample Message and Filled Template

slots to be filled. The slot fillers may be either one of a set of specified values or strings taken directly from the document. For example, Figure 1 shows part of a job posting, and the corresponding slots of the filled computer-science job template.

IE can be useful in a variety of domains. The various MUC’s have focused on domains such as Latin American terrorism, joint ventures, microelectronics, and company management changes. Others have used IE to track medical patient records (Soderland et al. 1995) or company mergers (Huffman 1996). A general task considered in this paper is extracting information from postings to USENET newsgroups, such as job announcements.

Relational Learning

Most empirical natural-language research has employed statistical techniques that base decisions on very limited contexts, or symbolic techniques such as decision trees that require the developer to specify a manageable, finite set of features for use in making decisions. Inductive logic programming and other relational learning methods (Birnbaum & Collins 1991) allow induction over structured examples that can include first-order logical predicates and functions and unbounded data structures such as lists, strings, and trees. Detailed experimental comparisons of ILP and feature-based induction have demonstrated the advantages of relational representations in two language related tasks, text categorization (Cohen 1995) and generating the past tense of an English verb (Mooney & Califf 1995). While Rapier is not strictly an ILP system, its relational learning algorithm was inspired by ideas from the following ILP systems.

Golem (Muggleton & Feng 1992) employs a bottom-up algorithm based on the construction of relative least-general generalizations, rlggs (Plotkin 1970). The algorithm operates by randomly selecting pairs of positive examples, computing the determinate rlggs of each pair, and selecting the resulting consistent clauses with the greatest coverage of positive examples. That clause is further generalized by computing the rlggs of the clause with new randomly selected positive examples, and generalization terminates when the coverage of the best consistent clause stops improving.

Chillin’ (Zelle & Mooney 1994) combines bottom-up and top-down techniques. The algorithm starts with a most specific definition (the complete set of positive examples) and introduces consistent generalizations that make the definition more compact. The search for consistent generalizations combines bottom-up methods from Golem with top-down methods from Foil (Quinlan 1990). At each step, a number of possible generalizations are considered; the one producing the greatest compaction of the theory is implemented, and the process repeats.

The third system, Progol (Muggleton 1995) also combines bottom-up and top-down search. Using mode declarations provided for both the background predicates and the predicate being learned, it constructs a most specific clause for a random seed example. Then the system employs a A*-like search through the set of clauses containing up to k literals from the most specific clause in order to find the simplest consistent generalization to add to the definition.

The Rapier System

Rule Representation

Rapier’s rule representation uses patterns that make use of limited syntactic and semantic information, using freely available, robust knowledge sources such as a part-of-speech tagger and a lexicon with semantic classes, such as the hypernym links in WordNet (Miller et al. 1993). The initial implementation does not use a parser, primarily because of the difficulty of producing a robust parser for unrestricted text and because simpler patterns of the type we propose can represent useful extraction rules for at least some domains. The extrac-
Figure 2: A Rule Extracting an Area Filler from the Example Document

The Learning Algorithm

As noted above, Rapier is inspired by ILP methods, and primarily consists of a specific to general (bottom-up) search. First, for each slot, most-specific patterns are created for each example, specifying word and tag for the filler and its complete context. Thus, the pre-filler pattern contains an item for each word from the beginning of the document to the word immediately preceding the filler with constraints on the item consisting of the word and its assigned POS tag. Likewise, the filler pattern has one item from each word in the filler, and the post-filler pattern has one item for each word from the end of the filler to the end of the document.

Given this maximally specific rule-base, Rapier attempts to compress and generalize the rules for each slot. New rules are created by selecting pairs of existing rules and creating generalizations. The aim is to make small generalization steps, covering more positive examples without generating spurious fillers, so a standard approach would be to generate the least general generalization (LGG) of each pair of rules. However, in this particular representation which allows for unconstrained disjunction, the LGG may be overly specific. Therefore, in cases where the LGG of two constraints is their disjunction, we want to create two generalizations: one would be the disjunction and the other the removal of the constraint. Thus, we often want to consider multiple generalizations of a pair of items. This, combined with the fact that patterns are of varying length, making the number of possible generalizations of two long patterns extremely large, makes the computational cost of producing all interesting generalizations of two complete rules prohibitive. But, while we do not want to arbitrarily limit the length of a pre-filler or post-filler pattern, it is likely that the important parts of the pattern will be close to the filler. Therefore, we start by computing the generalizations of the filler patterns of each rule pair and create rules from those generalizations. We maintain a list of the best n rules created and specialize the rules under consideration by adding pieces of the generalizations of the pre- and post-filler patterns of the seed rules, working outward from the fillers. The rules are ordered using an information value metric (Quinlan 1986) weighted by the size of the rule (preferring smaller rules). When the best rule under consideration produces no negative examples, specialization ceases; that rule is added to the rule base, and all rules empirically subsumed by it are removed. Specialization will be abandoned if the value of the best rule does not improve across k specialization iterations. Compression of the rule base for each slot is abandoned when the number of successive iterations of the compression algorithm which fail to produce a compressing rule exceed either a pre-defined limit or the number of rules for that slot. An outline of the algorithm appears in Figure 3 where RuleList is a prioritized list of no more than Beam-Width rules. The search is somewhat similar to a beam search in that a limited number of rules is kept for consideration, but all rules in RuleList are expanded at each iteration, rather than only the best.

As an example of the creation of a new rule, consider generalizing the rules based on the phrases "located in Atlanta, Georgia," and "offices in Kansas City, Missouri." The rules created from these phrases for the city slot would be

Pre-filler Pattern: Filler Pattern: Post-filler Pattern:
1) word: located 1) word: atlanta 1) word: ,
tag: vbn tag: nnp tag: ,
2) word: in 2) word: georgia tag: nnp
tag: in
For each slot, $S$ in the template being learned, $\text{SlotRules} = \text{most specific rules from documents for } S$ while compression has failed fewer than $lm$ times.

randomly select $r$ pairs of rules from $S$ find the set $L$ of generalizations of the fillers of the rule pairs create rules from $L$, evaluate, and initialize $\text{RulesList}$ let $n = 0$ while best rule in $\text{RuleList}$ produces spurious fillers and the weighted information value of the best rule is improving increment $n$

specialize each rule in $\text{RuleList}$ with generalizations of the last $n$ items of the pre-filler patterns of the antecedent rule pair and add specializations to $\text{RuleList}$

specialize each rule in $\text{RuleList}$ with generalizations of the first $n$ items of the post-filler patterns of the antecedent rule pair and add specializations of $\text{RuleList}$ if best rule in $\text{RuleList}$ produces only valid fillers Add it to $\text{SlotRules}$ Remove empirically subsumed rules

Figure 3: \textsc{Rapier} Algorithm for Inducing IE Rules

and

\begin{align*}
\text{Pre-filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Post-filler Pattern:} \\
1) \text{word: } & \quad 1) \text{word: } & \quad 1) \text{word: } \\
\text{tag: } & \quad \text{tag: } & \quad \text{tag: } \\
\text{Pre-filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Post-filler Pattern:} \\
2) \text{word: } & \quad 2) \text{word: } & \quad 2) \text{word: }
\end{align*}

The fillers are generalized to produce two possible rules with empty pre-filler and post-filler patterns. Because one filler has two items and the other only one, they generalize to a list of no more than two words. The word constraints generalize to either a disjunction of all the words or no constraint. The tag constraints on all of the items are the same, so the \text{LGG}'s tag constraints are also the same. Since the three words do not belong to a single semantic class in the lexicon, the semantics remain unconstrained. The fillers produced are:

\begin{align*}
\text{Pre-filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Post-filler Pattern:} \\
1) \text{list: len: } & \quad 2) \text{word: [atlanta, kansas, city]} & \quad \text{tag: nnp} \\
\text{Pre-filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Post-filler Pattern:} \\
2) \text{word: in} & \quad 2) \text{word: city} & \quad 2) \text{word: missouri} \\
\text{tag: in} & \quad \text{tag: nnp} & \quad \text{tag: nnp} \\
\text{Pre-filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Post-filler Pattern:} \\
1) \text{list: } & \quad 1) \text{list: len: } & \quad 1) \text{word: }
\end{align*}

Either of these rules is likely to cover spurious examples, so we add pre-filler and post-filler \text{LGGs}. The items produced from the “in”s and the com-

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure4.png}
\caption{Performance on job postings}
\end{figure}

mas are identical and, therefore, unchanged. Assuming that our lexicon contains a semantic class for states, generalizing the state names produces a semantic constraint of that class along with a tag constraint nnp and either no word constraint or the disjunction of the two states. Thus, a final best rule would be:

\begin{align*}
\text{Pre-filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Post-filler Pattern:} \\
1) \text{word: in} & \quad 1) \text{list: len: } & \quad 1) \text{word: }
\end{align*}

tag: in \quad tag: nnp \quad tag: \\
\text{Pre-filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Filler Pattern:} & \quad \text{Post-filler Pattern:} \\
2) \text{tag: nnp} & \quad \text{semantic: state}

\textbf{Evaluation}

The task we have chosen for initial tests of \textsc{Rapier} is to extract information from computer-related job postings that could be used to create a database of available jobs. The computer-related job posting template contains 17 slots, including information about the employer, the location, the salary, and job requirements. Several of the slots, such as the languages and platforms used, can take multiple values. The current results do not employ semantic categories, only words and the results of Brill’s POS tagger.

The results presented here use a data set of 100 documents paired with filled templates. We did a ten-fold cross-validation, and also ran tests with smaller subsets of the training examples for each test set in order to produce learning curves. We use three measures: precision, the percentage of slot fillers produced which are correct; recall, the percentage of slot fillers in the correct templates which are produced by the system; and an F-measure, which is the average of the recall and the precision.

Figure 4 shows the learning curves generated. At 90 training examples, the average precision was
87.1% and the average recall was 58.8%. These numbers look quite promising when compared to the measured performance of other information extraction systems on various domains. This performance is comparable to that of Crystal on a medical domain task (Soderland et al. 1996), and better than that of AutoSlog and AutoSlog-TS on part of the MUC4 terrorism task (Riloff 1996). It also compares favorably with the typical system performance on the MUC tasks (DARPA 1992-1993). All of these comparisons are only general, since the tasks are different, but they do indicate that Rapier is doing relatively well. The relatively high precision is an especially positive result, because it is highly likely that recall will continue to improve as the number of training examples increases.

Related Work

Previous researchers have generally applied machine learning only to parts of the IE task and their systems have typically required more human interaction than just providing texts with filled templates. Resolve uses decision trees to handle coreference decisions for an IE system and requires annotated coreference examples (McCarthy & Lehnert 1995). Crystal uses a form of clustering to create a dictionary of extraction patterns by generalizing patterns identified in the text by an expert (Soderland et al. 1995; 1996). AutoSlog creates a dictionary of extraction patterns by specializing a set of general syntactic patterns (Riloff 1993; 1996). It assumes that an expert will later examine the patterns it produces. Palka learns extraction patterns relying on a concept hierarchy to guide generalization and specialization (Kim & Moldovan 1995). AutoSlog, Crystal, and Palka all rely on prior sentence analysis to identify syntactic elements and their relationships, and their output requires further processing to produce the final filled templates. Liep also learns IE patterns (Huffman 1996). Liep's primary limitations are that it also requires a sentence analyzer to identify noun groups, verbs, subjects, etc.; it makes no real use of semantic information; it assumes that all information it needs is between two entities it identifies as "interesting"; and it has been applied to only one domain in which the texts are quite short (1-3 sentences).

Future Research

Currently, Rapier assumes slot values are strings taken directly from the document; however, MUC templates also include slots whose values are taken from a pre-specified set. We plan to extend the system to learn rules for such slots. Also, the current system attempts to extract the same set of slots from every document. Rapier must be extended to learn patterns that first categorize the text to determine which set of slots, if any, should be extracted from a given document. Finally, the same pattern learning algorithm may prove applicable to other natural language processing tasks such as identifying the sense of an ambiguous word based on its surrounding context.

Conclusion

The ability to extract desired pieces of information from natural language texts is an important task with a growing number of potential applications. Tasks requiring locating specific data in newsgroup messages or web pages are particularly promising applications. Manually constructing such IE systems is a laborious task; however, learning methods have the potential to help automate the development process. The Rapier system described in this paper uses relational learning to construct unbounded pattern-match rules for IE given only a database of texts and filled templates. The learned patterns employ limited syntactic and semantic information to identify potential slot fillers and their surrounding context. Results on extracting information from newsgroup jobs postings have shown that for one realistic application, fairly accurate rules can be learned from relatively small sets of examples. Future research will hopefully demonstrate that similar techniques will prove useful in a wide variety of interesting applications.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by a fellowship from AT&T awarded to the first author and by the National Science Foundation under grant IRI-9310819.

References

Birnbaum, L. A., and Collins, G. C., eds. 1991. Proceedings of the Eighth International Workshop on Machine Learning: Part VI Learning Relations.

Brill, E. 1994. Some advances in rule-based part of speech tagging. In Proceedings of the Twelfth National Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 722-727.

Cohen, W. W. 1995. Text categorization and relational learning. In Proceedings of the Twelfth International Conference on Machine Learning, 120-127.
International Conference on Machine Learning, 124–132. San Francisco, CA: Morgan Kaufman.

DARPA., ed. 1992. Proceedings of the Fourth DARPA Message Understanding Evaluation and Conference. San Mateo, CA: Morgan Kaufman.

DARPA., ed. 1993. Proceedings of the Fifth DARPA Message Understanding Evaluation and Conference. San Mateo, CA: Morgan Kaufman.

Huffman, S. B. 1996. Learning information extraction patterns from examples. In Wermter, S.; Riloff, E.; and Scheler, G., eds., Connectionist, Statistical, and Symbolic Approaches to Learning for Natural Language Processing. Berlin: Springer. 246–260.

Kim, J.-T., and Moldovan, D. I. 1995. Acquisition of linguistic patterns for knowledge-based information extraction. IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering 7(5):713–724.

Lehnert, W., and Sundheim, B. 1991. A performance evaluation of text-analysis technologies. AI Magazine 12(3):81–94.

McCarthy, J., and Lehnert, W. 1995. Using decision trees for coreference resolution. In Proceedings of the Fourteenth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 1050–1055.

Miller, G.; Beckwith, R.; Fellbaum, C.; Gross, D.; and Miller, K. 1993. Introduction to WordNet: An on-line lexical database. Available by ftp to clarity.princeton.edu.

Mooney, R. J., and Califf, M. E. 1995. Induction of first-order decision lists: Results on learning the past tense of English verbs. Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research 3:1–24.

Muggleton, S., and Feng, C. 1992. Efficient induction of logic programs. In Muggleton, S., ed., Inductive Logic Programming. New York: Academic Press. 281–297.

Muggleton, S. 1995. Inverse entailment and Progol. New Generation Computing Journal 13:245–286.

Plotkin, G. D. 1970. A note on inductive generalization. In Meltzer, B., and Michie, D., eds., Machine Intelligence (Vol. 5). New York: Elsevier North-Holland.

Quinlan, J. 1990. Learning logical definitions from relations. Machine Learning 5(3):239–266.

Riloff, E. 1993. Automatically constructing a dictionary for information extraction tasks. In Proceedings of the Eleventh National Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 811–816.

Riloff, E. 1996. Automatically generating extraction patterns from untagged text. In Proceedings of the Thirteenth National Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 1044–1049.

Soderland, S.; Fisher, D.; Aseltine, J.; and Lehnert, W. 1995. Crystal: Inducing a conceptual dictionary. In Proceedings of the Fourteenth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 1314–1319.

Soderland, S.; Fisher, D.; Aseltine, J.; and Lehnert, W. 1996. Issues in inductive learning of domain-specific text extraction rules. In Wermter, S.; Riloff, E.; and Scheller, G., eds., Connectionist, Statistical, and Symbolic Approaches to Learning for Natural Language Processing, Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence. Springer. 290–301.

Weizenbaum, J. 1966. ELIZA – A computer program for the study of natural language communications between men and machines. Communications of the Association for Computing Machinery 9:36–45.

Zelle, J. M., and Mooney, R. J. 1994. Combining top-down and bottom-up methods in inductive logic programming. In Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Machine Learning, 343–351.