Type-enriched Hierarchical Contrastive Strategy for Fine-Grained Entity Typing

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Abstract

Fine-grained entity typing (FET) aims to deduce specific semantic types of the entity mentions in text. Modern methods for FET mainly focus on learning what a certain type looks like. And few works directly model the type differences, that is, let models know the extent that one type is different from others. To alleviate this problem, we propose a type-enriched hierarchical contrastive strategy for FET. Our method can directly model the differences between hierarchical types and improve the ability to distinguish multi-grained similar types. On the one hand, we embed type into entity contexts to make type information directly perceptible. On the other hand, we design a constrained contrastive strategy on the hierarchical structure to directly model the type differences, which can simultaneously perceive the distinguishability between types at different granularity. Experimental results on three benchmarks, BBN, OntoNotes, and FIGER show that our method achieves significant performance on FET by effectively modeling type differences.

1 Introduction

Entity typing is a fundamental research problem in natural language processing (NLP), which aims to deduce the semantic types of the entity mentions in text. With the deepening of text understanding, the type sets of entities become more refined and ranging in from dozens (Hovy et al., 2006) to hundreds (Weischledel and Brunstein, 2005; Ling and Weld, 2012) or thousands (Choi et al., 2018). Therefore, fine-grained entity typing (FET) has gained more attention, which focuses on assigning more specific types to entities. For sentence in Figure 1, a FET system needs to assign a coarse-grained type "/person" and a fine-grained type "/person/actor" to the entity "Vivien Leigh". The inferred fine-grained types could provide more specific prior knowledge for downstream NLP tasks, such as question answering (Lee et al., 2006) and entity linking (Leszczynski et al., 2022).

Considering the partial ontology of the FIGER dataset (Ling and Weld, 2012) in Figure 1, fine-grained entity types are often linked together in a hierarchical taxonomy, which makes the type boundaries increasingly blurred, especially for sub-types under the same coarse type. As shown in Figure 1, the fine-grained types "coach", "athlete" and "actor", all of which fall into the coarse-grained type "person", are less differentiated.

In order to identify fine-grained types, prior work has concentrated on excavating more informative representations of types or entities, which benefiting from hand-crafted features (Ren et al., 2016), external resources (Onoe and Durrett, 2020; Li et al., 2022) or external pre-trained task (Xu et al., 2020). Most of them focus on learning what a certain type looks like, but few works have gone further to directly model the differences between types, that is, let models know the extent that one
type is different from others, which is more effective to distinguish among similar fine-grained types.

How to directly model the type differences? We argue that there are two key points, Entity Type Awareness, which refers to directly perceiving what type of entity is in the sentence, and Type Differences Measure, which refers to modeling how different the perceived type is from other types. For the first point, the intuitive idea is to expose the types directly, leading to a direct focus on what type the context represents. For the second point, heuristically, direct is effective, i.e., directly modeling which contexts represent the same types and which are different is the most efficient way to measure differences.

To this end, we propose a type-enriched hierarchical COntрастive strategy (PICOT) for fine-grained entity typing. Specifically, for entity type awareness with limited annotated data, inspired by prompt learning in entity typing (Ding et al., 2021), PICOT embeds the entity types in contexts via prompts to build type-rich expressions that guide the learning of correct types. Additionally, for type differences measure, PICOT takes a constrained contrastive strategy on hierarchical taxonomy to directly model the type differences from type-rich expressions. Concretely, as shown in Figure 1, PICOT is only concerned with the fine-grained types under the same coarse-grained type to learn the differences between fine-grained types. Similarly, PICOT is not concerned with what the fine-grained types are when distinguishing dissimilarities between coarse-grained types. Methodologically, PICOT learns the type differences at different granularity through type-rich expressions by limiting the scope of attention to types. Moreover, to further show models what a particular type is, we introduce a small number of type descriptions that directly expose richer type knowledge.

In experiments, we evaluate our model on three benchmarks. First, we concern with the standard evaluations and show that our model achieves the state-of-the-art performance on FET. Then we estimate the main components of PICOT. Finally, we do a visual analysis of the effectiveness of the type differentiation of PICOT.

In summary, the contributions are as follows:

- We propose a type-enriched hierarchical contrastive strategy (PICOT) for fine-grained entity typing. Our method can directly model the differences between hierarchical types and improve the ability to distinguish multi-grained similar types.

- First, we embed types into entity contexts to make type information directly perceptible. Then we design a constrained contrastive strategy on hierarchical taxonomy to directly model type differences at different granularities simultaneously.

- Experimental results on three benchmarks show that PICOT can achieve the SOTA performance on FET with limited annotated data.

2 Related Work

Entity Typing Named entity recognition (Tjong Kim Sang and De Meulder, 2003) and entity typing (Ling and Weld, 2012; Gillick et al., 2014) are fundamental research problems in NLP. Recently researchers pay more attention to fine-grained entity typing (FET) and ultra-fine entity typing (UFET) (Choi et al., 2018), which predict specific fine or ultra-fine types for given entities. To do so, obtaining more labeled data is the first research perspective, represented by distant supervision (Ling and Weld, 2012; Chen et al., 2019). With these, some researchers had focused on how to reduce noises in automatically labeled data (Gillick et al., 2014; Ren et al., 2016; Ren, 2020; Wu et al., 2019; Pan et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2021b; Pang et al., 2022). Additionally, another key challenge is how to deal with hierarchical ontology. Most prior works regarded the hierarchical typing problem as a multi-label classification task and incorporated the hierarchical structure in different ways (Ren et al., 2016; Shimaoka et al., 2017; Xu and Barbosa, 2018; Murty et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020b, 2022).

Some works attempted to mine more label information or better label representation. Abhishek et al. (2017) enhanced the label representation by sharing parameters; López and Strube (2020) embed types into a high-dimension; Xiong et al. (2019) introduced associated labels to enhance the label representation; Rabinovich and Klein (2017); Lin and Ji (2019) exploited co-occurrence structures and latent label representation; Additionally, several novel textual representations were applied to obtain richer entity contextual information, such as prompt based architecture (Ding et al., 2021) and box embeddings framework (Onoe et al., 2021). Moreover, FET and UFET suffer from an obvious issue of the unseen types due to the lack of
annotated data. Therefore, a variety of paradigms were be studied to alleviate this issue (Huang et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2016; Obeidat et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021).

Moreover, some works further drew on different large-scale external data or knowledge to understand entity types (Onoe and Durrett, 2020; Xu et al., 2021; Dai et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022).

In summary, few prior works focus on directly modeling type differences. Therefore, this paper tries to let models know that one type is different from others without large-scale external resources. See Appendix B for more details.

**Contrastive Learning** Contrastive learning aims to further improve the model’s ability to distinguish positive and negative examples, and has been a popular method for representation learning on computer vision tasks (Hjelm et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020a; He et al., 2020). Recently, some researches have applied contrastive learning to natural language understanding tasks, aiming to obtain better text representations or to distinguish similar labels, such as the event causality identifier (Zuo et al., 2021), the contrastive self-supervised encoder (Fang and Xie, 2020), the supporting clustering framework (Zhang et al., 2021a), the abstractive summarization framework (Liu and Liu, 2021), the contrastive fine-tuning paradigm of pre-trained language for fine-grained text classification (Suresh and Ong, 2021), and so on. In this paper, we propose a constrained contrastive framework to directly model the hierarchical type differences.

**Prompt Learning** Prompt learning aims to leverage language prompts as contexts, and downstream tasks can be expressed as some cloze-style objectives similar to those pre-training objectives. Recently, a series of hand-crafted prompts have been widely used in natural language understanding (Liu et al., 2021b; Schick and Schütze, 2021; Feldman et al., 2019; Petroni et al., 2019; Trinh and Le, 2018; Ding et al., 2021). Moreover, to avoid expensive prompt design, automatic prompt has also been explored (Ren et al., 2016; Shin et al., 2020; Schick and Schütze, 2021), and some continuous prompts have also been proposed (Lester et al., 2021; Li and Liang, 2021). In this paper, we embed prompts to directly expose types in the entity contexts.

![Figure 2: The framework of PICOT for FET (Sec. 4).](image)

**3 Problem Formulation**

The input of fine-grained entity typing (FET) is a dataset \( D = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\} \) with \( n \) sentences, a pre-defined hierarchical type ontology \( \mathcal{Y} \), and each sentence \( x \) contains a marked entity \( e \). A FET system is required to assign corresponding types to the given marked entity. Methodologically, for each input sequence \( w_n = \{w_n^1, w_n^2, ..., w_n^n\} \) of the sentence \( x_n \), FET aims to predict the correct multi-grained types \( Y_n = \{y_n^1, y_n^2, ..., y_n^m\} \in \mathcal{Y} \) of the marked entity \( e_n = \{w_n^1, ..., w_n^n\} \). For example in Figure 1, the correct type set of "Vivien Leigh" is \{/person, /person/actor\}, which contains a coarse-grained type "/person" and a fine-grained type "/person/actor".

**4 Methodology**

As shown in Figure 2, there are two key stages of PICOT for fine-grained entity typing.

- **Prompt-guided expression construction** (ProExp, Sec. 4.1). For entity type awareness, we construct two kinds of prompt-guided expressions, the type-scarce expression and the type-rich expression, which perceive the type patterns in context and expose type information directly, respectively.

- **Contrastive type knowledge transfer** (ConTKT, Sec. 4.2). For type differences measure, we propose a constrained contrastive strategy to directly model the differences among hierarchical types, and
impacting the type knowledge from type-rich expressions to predictor.

4.1 Prompt-guided Expression Construction (ProExp)

ProExp aims to convert the input sentences into type-scarce expressions and type-rich expressions based on entity-oriented prompts (Ding et al., 2021). The former could make models sensitive to type patterns in context, and the latter can be taken as the type knowledge resources based on type exposure.

**Type-scarce Expression** For each input sentence $x_n$, we construct type-scarce expression $x_{ts}^n$ to guide the pre-trained language model (PLM, e.g., BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) used in this paper) encoder to efficiently exploit the entity contextual information, especially the type information. For simplicity, we choose declarative entity-oriented prompts to avoid grammatical errors.

Specifically, we first copy the marked entity $e_n$ in $x_n$, then add a few conjunctions following the entity. Next, we add two specific words. One of them is "[MASK]" at the end of the expression, as a dummy for non-specific type. The other one is "[ENT]", which bridges the original entity expression and prompt, and serves as an entry point for receiving type knowledge from type-rich expressions in ConTKT. The form of $x_{ts}^n$ is as follows:

$$x_{ts}^n = x_n [\text{ENT}] e_n \text{ is a [MASK].}$$

**Type-rich Expression** For each input sentence $x_n$, we also construct two kinds of type-rich expression $x_{tr}^n$ as type knowledge resources for transfer in ConTKT when training. Intuitively, exposing the types directly to the context makes the expressions of entities type-aware.

Heuristically, fine-grained types contain both coarse- and fine- grained type properties. Therefore, we construct the type-rich expression $x_{tr}^n$ of entity $e_n$ by replacing the dummy type placeholder "[MASK]" in its type-scarce expression $x_{ts}^n$ with its fine-grained types in $Y_n^1$. Taking the entity in Figure 3 as an example, the form of $x_{tr}^n$ is as follows:

$$x_{tr}^n = x_n [\text{ENT}] e_n \text{ is an actor.}$$

Moreover, to better show what a particular type is, we introduce several descriptions (2 or 3) of each type from ConceptNet (Speer et al., 2017). Then we use them to directly expose richer type knowledge to construct extra type-rich expression $x_{tr}^n$. Specifically, for each fine-grained type, we replace $x_n$ in $x_{tr}^n$ with the combination of a virtual entity $e_{vir}$ and one of descriptions. Taking the actor as an example:

$$x_{tr}^n = x_n [\text{ENT}] e_{vir} \text{ person who can perform [ENT]} e_{vir} \text{ is an actor.}$$

4.2 Contrastive Type Knowledge Transfer (ConTKT)

ConTKT aims to directly model the differences among hierarchical types, and impart the type knowledge from type-rich expressions to predictor when training.

**Expression Encoding** We design two BERT encoders to encode two kinds of prompt-guided expressions for each entity $e_n$ respectively. One is the encoder $\text{BertEnc}_{\text{act}}$ for encoding type-scarce

\[\text{For entities with multiple fine-grained types, we concatenate the fine-grained types into one phrase by "and".}\]
expression $x^{ts}_{n}$ when training and prediction, which digs out the type information of $e_n$ in sentence $x_n$. Another is the encoder $BertEnc_{ric—θ}$, which masters the type knowledge via encoding the type-rich expression $x^{tr}_{n}$.

Specifically, we first convert the $x^{ts}_{n}$ and $x^{tr}_{n}$ to the input sequences of two encoders respectively. Taking the example in Figure 3 as following:

$$w^{ts}_{n} = [CLS], w^{i,s}_{n}, ..., w^{c}_{n}, [ENT],$$
$$w^{i,s}_{n}, is, a, [MASK], .. [SEP], \quad (1)$$

$$w^{tr}_{n} = [CLS], w^{i,s}_{n, an, actor, .. [SEP]},$$
$$w^{i,s}_{n, an, actor, .. [SEP]}, \quad (2)$$

$$w^{actor} = [CLS], des^{1}_{actor} ..., des^{c}_{actor}, [ENT],$$
$$w_{e_{vir}, is, an, actor, .. [SEP]}, \quad (3)$$

where the $des^{k}_{actor}$ is the token of type description and the $w_{e_{vir}}$ is the token of virtual entity $e_{vir}$.

After encoding, the representation $h^{CLS}_{n}$ of $w^{ts}_{n}$ that encodes the contextual information of $x^{ts}_{n}$ is used by predictor to predict types of entity $e_n$. Additionally, as mentioned above, the representation $h^{[ENT]tr}_{n}$ of $w^{tr}_{n}$ is used as the exit of type knowledge contained in $x^{tr}_{n}$. Accordingly, the representation $h^{[ENT]tr}_{n}$ of $w^{ts}_{n}$ is the entrance to receive the type knowledge from $x^{tr}_{n}$ when training.

Constrained Contrastive Strategy

We design a constrained contrastive strategy to directly model the hierarchical type differences based on prompt-guided expressions. Based on this, type knowledge is transferred to $BertEnc_{scn—θ}$ from type-rich expressions by the contrast interaction between types at different granularities and the parameters sharing with $BertEnc_{ric—θ}$.

Specifically, we only model the fine-grained type differences under the same coarse-grained type by bringing the same types closer while distancing different types. Likewise, for coarse-grained types, we do not care what the fine-grained types are in the same way. In this way, PICOT models the type differences between different granularities by limiting the scope of attention to types.

To specific, for one input batch $B \subseteq D$, there are two optimization objectives $L^{f}_{θ}$ and $L^{c}_{θ}$ to model the differences between fine-grained types and coarse-grained types respectively. And each optimization objective consists of two sub-optimization objectives, one for bringing the same types closer ($L^{f+}_{θ}$ and $L^{c+}_{θ}$), while another for distancing different types ($L^{f-}_{θ}$ and $L^{c-}_{θ}$):

$$L^{f+}_{θ} = \frac{1}{|B^f|} \sum_{y \in Y^f} \frac{1}{2|B^f|} \sum_{x^f_i, x^f_j \in B^f} s(x^f_i, x^f_j), \quad (4)$$

$$L^{f-}_{θ} = -\frac{1}{2|B^f|} \sum_{x^f_i, x^f_j \in B^f} s(x^f_i, x^f_j), \quad (5)$$

$$L^{c+}_{θ} = \frac{1}{|B^c|} \sum_{y \in Y^c} \frac{1}{2|B^c|} \sum_{x^c_i, x^c_j \in B^c} s(x^c_i, x^c_j), \quad (6)$$

$$L^{c-}_{θ} = -\frac{1}{2|B^c|} \sum_{x^c_i, x^c_j \in B^c} s(x^c_i, x^c_j), \quad (7)$$

where, take the $L^{f}_{θ}$ as illustration, $Y^f$ is the set of all fine-grained types in one batch, $y^f_{B}$ is one of them. And $B^f$ consists of all $x^{ts}_{n}, x^{tr}_{n}$ and $x^{tr}_{n}$ with same fine-grained type $y \in Y^f$. Oppositely, $B^c$ consists of all $x^{ts}_{n}, x^{tr}_{n}$ and $x^{tr}_{n}$ with same coarse-grained type but different fine-grained types $y_i, y_j \in Y^c$. Moreover, $s$ is the similarity between $x_i$ and $x_j$. $h^E_f$ and $h^E_c$ are the $h^{[ENT]}_{n}$ of $x_i$ and $x_j$ after encoding respectively, $dis$ is the $l_2$-distance function to measure the distance of two representation, $τ$ is a temperature that adjusts the concentration level and $B^+ = B^f$ or $B^c$. Likewise, the optimization objectives are similar for $L^{c}_{θ}$.

Learning of FET

After transferring, the $h^{CLS}_{n}$ of $x^{ts}_{n}$ output by $BertEnc_{scn—θ}$, which has learned types knowledge, is fed to the predictor to identify the types of the input $e_n$ as following:

$$y^{*}_{n} \leftarrow MLP(h^{CLS}_{n}), \quad (9)$$

where $y^{*}_{n}$ is the predicted types of $e_n$ in $x_n$.

For training of two encoders and predictor, we add the constrained contrastive losses $L^{f}_{θ}$ and $L^{c}_{θ}$ to the classification loss $L_δ$. Finally, we minimize
Algorithm 1 Learning of PICOT for FET.

Require: type-scarce expression \( x_{tr}^{e} \), type-rich expression \( x^{r} \), extra type-rich expression \( x_{type}^{r} \).

Training:
1: Stage: PROMPT-GUIDED EXPRESSION CONSTRUCTION
2: for each batch \( B \in \mathcal{D} \) do
3: \( \text{for input entity } e_n \text{ with its sentence } x_n \in B \) do
4: Construct type-scarce expression \( x_{tr}^{e} \);
5: Construct type-rich expression \( x^{r} \);
6: end for
7: for each fine-grained type \( t \in \mathcal{Y}_B \) do
8: Construct extra type-rich expression \( x_{type}^{r} \);
9: end for
10: end for
11: end Stage:
12: Stage: CONTRASTIVE TYPE KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER
13: for each batch \( B \in \mathcal{D} \) do
14: for each fine-grained type \( y_f \in \mathcal{Y}_B \) do
15: Compute \( L_{y_f}^{z} \) in equation (4) and (5);
16: \( \text{end for} \)
17: Compute \( L_{y_f}^{n} \) in equation (6) and (7);
18: \( \text{end for} \)
19: for each coarse-grained type \( y_c \in \mathcal{Y}_B \) do
20: Compute \( L_{y_c} \) in equation (10);
21: Compute \( L \) in equation (11);
22: Stochastic gradient update \( \theta \) and \( \delta \) in (12);
23: \( \text{end for} \)
24: Compute batch classification loss \( L_{\delta} \) in (10);
25: \( \text{end for} \)
26: \( \text{end Stage:} \)

\[ L_{\delta} = BCE_{\text{WithLogits}}(y^{e}_n, y_n), \quad (10) \]

\[ L = L_{\delta} + \lambda_f (L_{y_f}^{z} + L_{y_f}^{n}) \]
\[ + \lambda_c (L_{y_c}^{z} + L_{y_c}^{n}), \quad (11) \]
\[ \theta, \delta \leftarrow \eta \nabla L, \quad (12) \]

where, \( \lambda_f \) and \( \lambda_c \) are the weights of \( L_{y_f}^{z} \) and \( L_{y_c}^{z} \) respectively, \( \eta \) is the learning rate.

5 Experiments

5.1 Experimental Setup

Datasets and Evaluation Metrics We conduct experiments on three standard FET datasets and follow the version processed and split by Onoe et al. (2021). (1) BBN (Weischedel and Brunstein, 2005), which contains 56 types and each type has a maximum type hierarchy level of 2; (2) OntoNotes (Gillick et al., 2014), which is sampled from the OntoNotes (Weischedel et al., 2013) corpus and re-annotated with 89 types in 3-level hierarchy. Additionally, we ignore the other type, which has no obvious meaning, and categorize it into two-level types; (3) FIGER (Ling and Weld, 2012), which contains 113 types and each type also has a maximum type hierarchy level of 2. Table 1 is the statistics on the coarse-grained and fine-grained types of three datasets. Moreover, we evaluate three datasets using the standard metrics: Macro F1 (Ma-F1) and Micro F1 (Mi-F1).

| Datasets   | #Coarse | #Fine | #Fine/Coarse |
|------------|---------|-------|--------------|
| BBN        | 17      | 39    | 2.3          |
| OntoNotes  | 20      | 68    | 3.4          |
| FIGER      | 47      | 66    | 1.4          |

Table 1: Statistics on the coarse-grained and fine-grained types of three datasets.

Parameters Settings For a fair comparison, similar to Onoe et al. (2021), the BERT encoders are BERT-Large architecture, which has 24-layers, 1024-hiddens, and 16-heads. For parameters, we set the learning rate of \( \eta \) as 8e-6, and set the temperature \( \tau \) of the contrastive loss as 0.1 tuned on the development set. Moreover, we also tune the batch size to 96 on the development set. The \( \lambda_f \) and \( \lambda_c \) are setted as 0.1/0.1/0.1 and 0.1/0.1/0.01/ for three datasets respectively. And we apply the early stop and AdamW gradient strategy to optimize all models. Additionally, to simulate constraints like the previous work (Chen et al., 2020b; Onoe et al., 2021), we use the same three simple rules to modify the model’s predictions or training data on BBN datasets: (1) dropping "person" if "organization" exists, (2) dropping "location" if "gpe" exists, and (3) replacing "facility" by "fac", since both the two tags appear in the training set but only "fac" in the test set. See Appendix C for more detailed settings.

Compared Methods Same as previous methods, we prefer the following models which use the same versions of three datasets and do not rely on large-scale external knowledge or resources as our compared methods. (1) Ren et al. (2016), an embedding method which separately models clean and noisy data with type hierarchy; (2) Abhishek et al. (2017), a neural network model that jointly learns entities and their contexts representation; (3) Zhang et al. (2018), a neural architecture which leverages both document and sentence level infor-
| Methods                                      | BBN       | OntoNotes  | FIGER     |
|---------------------------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
|                                            | Ma-F1     | Mi-F1      | Ma-F1     | Mi-F1     |
| Ren et al. (2016)                           | 74.1      | 75.7       | 71.1      | 64.7      |
| Abhishek et al. (2017)                      | 74.1      | 75.7       | 68.5      | 63.3      |
| Zhang et al. (2018)                         | 75.7      | 75.1       | 72.1      | 66.5      |
| Chen et al. (2020b) (exclusive)             | 63.2      | 61.0       | 72.4      | 67.2      |
| Chen et al. (2020b) (undefined)             | 79.7      | 80.5       | 73.0      | 68.1      |
| Lin and Ji (2019)                           | 79.3      | 78.1       | 82.9*     | 77.3*     |
| Onoe et al. (2021) (vector)                 | 78.3      | 78.0       | 76.2      | 68.9      |
| Onoe et al. (2021) (box)                    | 78.7      | 78.0       | 77.3      | 70.9      |
| Liu et al. (2021a)                          | -         | -          | 77.6      | 71.8      |
| PICOT                                       | 81.8      | 82.2       | 78.7      | 72.1      |
| Previous SOTA                               | 79.7      | 80.5       | -         | -         |

Table 2: Results on fine-grained entity typing. *: Not directly comparable since large-scale augmented data is used. The results are tested for significance at the 0.05 level.

| Methods                                      | BBN       | OntoNotes  | FIGER     |
|---------------------------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
|                                            | Ma-F1     | Mi-F1      | Ma-F1     | Mi-F1     |
| PICOT (our)                                 | 81.8      | 82.2       | 78.7      | 72.1      |
| w/o Exp_{tr,de}                             | 81.6      | 82.2       | -0.2/-0.6 |
| w/o Exp_{tr}                                | 81.4      | 81.7       | -0.4/-1.1 |
| w/o Exp_{ts&tr}                             | 81.1      | 81.5       | -0.7/-1.3 |
| Previous SOTA                               | 79.7      | 80.5       | -         | -         |

Table 3: Ablation results of the prompt-guided expression (ProExp, Sec. 4.1) of FET on BBN. w/o Exp_{tr,de} denotes a varietal PICOT that without extra type-rich expression when training; w/o Exp_{tr} denotes a varietal PICOT that without all type-rich expressions when training; w/o Exp_{ts&tr} denotes a varietal PICOT that without all prompt-guided expressions when training.

F1 and Micro F1 values, which are 81.8% and 82.2%, outperforming the state-of-the-art by a margin of 2.1% and 1.7% respectively, which justifies its effectiveness. Moreover, among the three datasets, the BBN dataset has the least training data but the largest boost. This indicates that PICOT can effectively mine type information in limited labeled data by sensing type knowledge and directly modeling the differences between types.

5.2 Our Method vs. State-of-the-art Methods

Table 2 shows the results of FET on BBN, OntoNotes, and FIGER. From the results, we can observe that (see Appendix A for more results):

1. On BBN, our PICOT outperforms all baselines and achieves the best performance on Macro
Figure 5: The visualization of type representation clustering without- (left) and with- (right) PICOT on development dataset. Specifically, top row is coarse-grained type clustering and bottom row is fine-grained type clustering. Each color represents a kind of type. Our PICOT outperforms the best compared method on Macro-F1 value by a margin of 1.7%, which further proves the effectiveness of PICOT in mining type differences with labeled data. It is worth noting that FIGER has a slightly lower performance on the Micro-F1 value due to the inconsistent of some test samples, in which only have fine-grained types (e.g., "/organization/sports_team" is present, but "/organization" is missing).

5.4 Effect of Contrastive Type Knowledge Transfer

We analyze the effect of the contrastive type knowledge transfer (ConTKT, Sec. 4.2) on the BBN dataset. As shown in Table 4, from the results, we can observe that: (1) after removing the ConTKT (w/o ConTKT), the performance of FET significantly decreases. This illustrates that the contrastive strategy can effectively improve the discrimination of similar types, which is important for FET. (2) Comparing w/o ConTKT_coar, w/o ConTKT_fine and PICOT, we find that both coarse-grained and fine-grained contrastive training play a key role in the measurement of type differences. (3) It is worth noting that, comparing w/o ConTKT_coar with w/o ConTKT_fine, we find that training with type-scarce expression without contrastive strategy works better than only using fine-grained type contrastive strategy. Meanwhile, coarse-grained contrastive training alone (w/o ConTKT_fine) only give a small boost for FET. These indicate that only the combination of coarse-grained and fine-grained contrastive strategies can achieve the desired results. Specifically, coarse-grained contrast ensures the base performance while fine-grained contrast further improves the ability to discriminate types.

5.5 Visualization of the Effect of Type Distinguishing

To further illustrate the effect of PICOT, in Figure 5, we cluster the representations of "/ENT/" in the type-scarce expressions before and after train-
We propose a type-enriched hierarchical contrastive strategy for fine-grained entity typing. Our method can directly model the differences between hierarchical types and improve the ability to distinguish multi-grained similar types. First, we embed types into entity contexts to make type information directly perceptible. Then we design a constrained contrastive strategy on hierarchical taxonomy to directly model type differences at different granularities simultaneously. Experimental results on three benchmarks show that PICOT can achieve state-of-the-art performance on FET with limited annotated data.

6 Conclusion

We propose a type-enriched hierarchical contrastive strategy for fine-grained entity typing. Our method can directly model the differences between hierarchical types and improve the ability to distinguish multi-grained similar types. First, we embed types into entity contexts to make type information directly perceptible. Then we design a constrained contrastive strategy on hierarchical taxonomy to directly model type differences at different granularities simultaneously. Experimental results on three benchmarks show that PICOT can achieve state-of-the-art performance on FET with limited annotated data.

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A Supplementary Experiment Results

A.1 Effect of the Weights of Different Contrastive Loss

|        | Coarse | Fine |
|--------|--------|------|
|        | 0.01   | 0.1  | 0.5  |
| □□□□□□ |   -    | 81.6 | -    |
| □□□□□□ |   81.4 | 81.8 | 81.3 |
| □□□□□□ |   -    | 78.5 | -    |

Table 5: Macro F1 of PICOT on BBN with different coarse- (λ_c) and fine-grained (λ_f) contrastive weights.

|        | Coarse | Fine |
|--------|--------|------|
|        | 0.01   | 0.1  | 0.5  |
| □□□□□□ |   -    | 82.1 | -    |
| □□□□□□ |   82.0 | 82.8 | 81.8 |
| □□□□□□ |   -    | 79.9 | -    |

Table 6: Micro F1 of PICOT on BBN with different coarse- (λ_c) and fine-grained (λ_f) contrastive weights.

To further explore the effect of contrastive loss of different granularities, we vary the weights of fine- and coarse-grained contrastive loss to observe the performance of PICOT on the BBN test set, respectively. As shown in Table 5 and 6, we can notice that the type knowledge is not fully migrated when the coarse-grained and fine-grained contrastive loss weights are too small, and overly affects the classification performance when the weights are too large. It is worth noting that excessive fine-grained contrastive loss weights significantly degrade the performance because many fine-grained types are not completely distinct, and some types could occur simultaneously. Therefore, excessive differentiation of fine-grained types will confuse models.

A.2 Effect of the "[ENT]" Position

|        | Ma-F1 | Mi-F1 |
|--------|-------|-------|
| After "[CLS]" | 80.7 | 81.2 |
| Before prompt | **81.8** | **82.8** |

Table 7: Performance of PICOT with different "[ENT]" positions.

As shown in Table 7, we further explore the effect of the position of "[ENT]" as type knowledge exit and entry in the input sequence on the PICOT.
performance. From the results, we can see that placing "[ENT]" between the entity context and the type prompt allows for more efficient migration and reception of type knowledge.

## B Supplementary Related Work

Named entity recognition (Tjong Kim Sang and De Meulder, 2003) and entity typing (Ling and Weld, 2012; Gillick et al., 2014) are fundamental research problems in NLP. Recently researchers pay more attention on fine-grained entity typing (FET) and ultra-fine entity typing (UFET) (Choi et al., 2018), which predicts specific fine or ultra-fine types for given entities. To do so, obtaining more labeled data is the first research perspective for FET, represented by the distant supervision annotation method (Ling and Weld, 2012). With these, some researches had focused on how to reduce noises in automatically labeled data, such as a heuristic constraint pruning approach (Gillick et al., 2014), a partial-label loss (Ren et al., 2016), a penalty optimization term (Ren, 2020), and a novel content-sensitive weighting schema (Wu et al., 2019).

Additionally, one key challenge is how to deal with hierarchical type ontology. Most prior works regarded the hierarchical typing problem as a multi-label classification task and incorporated the hierarchical structure in different ways. Ren et al. (2016) used a predefined label hierarchy to reduce noises; Shimaoka et al. (2017) proposed a hierarchical label encoding method; Xu and Barbosa (2018) employed a normalized hierarchical loss; Murty et al. (2018) learned a subtyping relation to constrain the type embedding; Chen et al. (2020b) designed a novel loss function to exploit label hierarchies.

Some work attempted to mine more label information or better label representation. Abhishek et al. (2017) enhanced the label representation by sharing parameters; López and Strube (2020) embed types into a high-dimension; Xiong et al. (2019) introduced associated labels to enhance the label representation; Rabinovich and Klein (2017) exploited co-occurrence structures during label set prediction; (Lin and Ji, 2019) reconstructed the co-occurrence structure via latent label representation; Liu et al. (2021a) reasoned fine-grained types by discovering label dependencies knowledge. Additionally, several novel textual representations were applied to obtain richer entity contextual information. Ding et al. (2021) investigated the application of prompt-learning to predict fine-grained entity types. Onoe et al. (2021) studied the box embeddings to capture hierarchies of types.

Moreover, FET and UFET suffer from an obvious issue of the unseen types due to the lack of annotated data. Therefore, a variety of paradigms were being studied to alleviate this issue, such as a hierarchical clustering model (Huang et al., 2016), a prototypical embedding method (Ma et al., 2016), a context-description matching model based on type descriptions from Wikipedia (Obeidat et al., 2019), a classifier based on Freebase types of its type-compatible, (Zhou et al., 2018), a novel framework which transfers the knowledge from seen types to the unseen ones (Zhang et al., 2020), and an empirical study on multiple auxiliary information (Chen et al., 2021). To further alleviate the lack of annotated data, some work draws on different large-scale external data or knowledge to understand the types of entities in the sentences. Onoe and Durrett (2020) used hyperlinked mentions in Wikipedia to distantly label large scale data and train an entity typing model; Xu et al. (2021) introduced a new pre-training task of predicting the syntactic distance in dependency tree based on large scale texts; Dai et al. (2021) automatically generated new ultra-fine entity typing data with labels; Li et al. (2022) presented LITE, a new approach that formulates entity typing as an NLI problem based on external data.

In summary, few prior works focus on directly modeling the differences between types. Therefore, this paper tries to let models know that one type is different from others without large-scale external resources.

## C Main Experimental Environments and Other Parameters Settings

### C.1 Experimental Environments

We deploy all models on a server with Tesla P40 GPU. Specifically, the configuration environment of the server is ubuntu 16.04, and our framework mainly depends on python 3.8.8 and Torch 1.11.

### C.2 Other Parameters Settings

All the final hyper-parameters for evaluation are averaged after 3 independent tunings on the development set. Moreover, the three datasets BBN, OntoNotes, and FIGER achieve optimal results at the 20th/10th/5th epochs, which take half a day, one day, and two days, respectively.

This is an appendix.