A WEAKLY SUPERVISED APPROACH FOR LARGE-SCALE RELATION EXTRACTION

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Abstract: Standard Information Extraction (IE) systems are designed for a specific domain and a limited number of relations. Recent work has been undertaken to deal with large-scale IE systems. Such systems are characterized by a large number of relations and no restriction on the domain, which makes difficult the definition of manual resources or the use of supervised techniques. In this paper, we present a large-scale IE system based on a weakly supervised method of pattern learning. This method uses pairs of entities known to be in relation to automatically extract example sentences from which the patterns are learned. We present the results of this system on the data from the KBP task of the TAC 2010 evaluation campaign.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of information extraction, the objective of relation extraction is to find if two entities are semantically linked and when it is possible, to determine the nature of this link. In the work we present here, we are more specifically interested in extracting relations between named entities for building large-scale knowledge bases. Such building has been recently achieved in the context of Semantic Web by exploiting semi-structured data from open sources of information. One of the most representative examples of this trend is the DBpedia project1 (Bizer et al., 2009), which built a large knowledge base from the semi-structured part of Wikipedia. The next step in this process is to supplement such knowledge bases by exploiting texts, which are a larger but more difficult to deal with source of information, and more particularly, extracting automatically relations between entities from them.

Work about relation extraction can be considered according to the degree of supervision it requires. At the lower level of supervision, which is also called unsupervised extraction, the type of the relations to extract is not fixed a priori, neither by examples nor a model. Only constraints about the linked entities, as their type, are set. The type of the extracted relations is defined a posteriori, by gathering similar relations. Such approach can be found in (Shinyama and Sekine, 2006) or (Banko and Etzioni, 2008) for instance. The opposite approach, called supervised extraction, consists in fixing both the type of the target relations and the means for extracting them from texts. It takes the form of either a handcrafted model, typically defined as a set of rules, or a model built by a machine learning algorithm from a set of contextualized relation examples coming from a manually annotated corpus. This second option is mostly represented by statistical machine learning models focusing on taking into account various kinds of features (lexical, syntactic, semantic ...)(Zhou et al., 2005), for instance by finding kernel functions dealing with complex structures such as those produced by syntactic parsers (Zhou et al., 2007).

Between these two extrema, weakly supervised approaches refer to cases where either examples or a model are provided but are not sufficient for developing a fully operational relation extraction system. As a consequence, this initial definition must be extended in an automatic way, generally by exploiting an unannotated corpus. Work in this area shows two main cases, that can be eventually combined, of underspecification of this initial definition:

- underspecification due to the extent of the definition. Only a small set of relation examples or an incomplete model are given;
- underspecification due to the nature of the definition, which occurs when the examples or the model have to be instantiated for being used.

1http://dbpedia.org/About
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The first case is classically tackled following the methodology of (Hearst, 1992) by the means of a bootstrapping mechanism: starting from a model of the target relations made of a restricted set of initial examples or extraction rules, new examples are acquired from a corpus and used for completing the model. This two-step process is re-applied while the model is not developed enough for covering any new example. (Agichtein and Gravano, 2000) is a typical application of such methodology in the case of relations between named entities.

The second case is represented by the recent notion of Distant supervision, introduced explicitly by (Mintz et al., 2009) but already present in previous work about bootstrapping. Examples are given in this approach with an underspecified form as they are limited to pairs of entities: they are given both without context and without a linguistic form. The development of such approach is favored by the availability of large knowledge bases extracted from resources such as Wikipedia.

In this article, we present a large-scale information extraction method based on a weakly supervised learning of relation extraction patterns. Moreover, this learning starts from relation examples reduced to pairs of named entities. These pairs are then mapped onto a reference corpus for building the set of contextualized relation examples from which the extraction patterns are learned. This process comes under what we have called above the Distant supervision approach. We also present the results of the evaluation of our method in the framework defined by the KBP (Knowledge Based Population) track of the TAC 2010 (Text Analysis Conference) evaluation.

2 OVERVIEW

We focus in this work on a large-scale extraction of relations with the hypothesis that a specific knowledge base (KB) already exists. This KB is partially filled with relations that are automatically acquired from semi-structured data. We limit our study to the relations between named entities because we want to rely on entities that are usually well recognized but we do not focus our work on a specific domain where the entity recognition could be guided by a known terminology. The idea of “large-scale” extraction actually covers several aspects. The first one corresponds to the large number of relation types that are considered, which implies that a rule-based approach based on handcrafted rules is hardly possible. A second aspect is the existence of a large number of existing relations (i.e. the association of two entity values with a relation type). These relations give a good starting point for machine learning techniques to learn a model for these types of relations. Finally, a third aspect is the large size of the collection of documents in which the new relations are searched, which implies the use of information retrieval techniques to retrieve good candidates on which a more sophisticated extraction is then performed (we cannot apply patterns for instance on all the sentences of such corpus).

This approach, as presented in Figure 1, is composed of two steps: a first step of pattern learning from occurrences of known relations and a step of relation extraction for the discovery of new relations. The first step starts with known instances of relations \(R(E1,E2)\) to find occurrences of these relations in texts for covering as many different ways of expressing them as possible; then we use these occurrences to learn a set of patterns associated with the target type of relation. The second step starts with incomplete relations \(R(E1,x)\), where the source entity \(E1\) is known and the target entity \(x\) has to be discovered, and searches occurrences of relation \(R\) involving \(E1\) in a collection of texts. The entity \(x\) is then extracted using the patterns learned in the first step. These two steps are described in more details in the following sections.

2.1 Relation Pattern Learning

Our procedure for learning relation patterns relies on the induction of lexical patterns from example sentences containing occurrences of the target relations. Its objective is to model the different ways a semantic relation between two entities is linguistically expressed. For instance, the two sentence excerpts below contain relation occurrences for the type of relation \(founded\) by the entity pairs (Charles Revson, Revlon Cosmetics) and (Mayer Lehman, Lehman Brothers investment):

\[
\text{The glamorous cabaret chanteuse reportedly had had a romantic liaison with } <\text{source}>\text{Charles Revson}</source>, \text{the founder of } <\text{target}>\text{Revlon Cosmetics}</target> ... \quad \text{– Lehman was a great-grandson of } <\text{source}>\text{Mayer Lehman}</source>, \text{a founder of the } <\text{target}>\text{Lehman Brothers investment}</target> \text{house } ...
\]

A lot of algorithms for building and generalizing lexical patterns were already proposed (Ravichandran, 2005; Ruiz-Casado et al., 2007). Our approach is similar to (Pantel et al., 2004) and follows more directly the method of (Embarek and Ferret, 2008). Starting with a pair of entities and two sentences containing these entities and expressing the target relation, its principle is to find and to capture the ele-
ments that are shared by the two sentences in the surrounding context of the two entities. More specifically, we identify these shared elements among three levels of linguistic information about words: inflected form, lemma and part-of-speech category. These levels of information are produced by the OpenNLP tools, also used for named entity recognition. Having these three levels enables the building of more expressive patterns that represent an interesting compromise in terms of generalization between the specificity of lexicalized elements and the more general nature of part-of-speech categories.

The induction of a pattern from two occurrences of relations relies more precisely on the three following steps:

- computation of the minimal edit distance between the two example sentences, that is to say, the minimal number of edit operation (insertion, deletion and substitution) that are necessary to turn one sentence into the other one. All the operations are given here the same weight;
- optimal alignment between the two example sentences from the matrix of distances between subsequences resulting from the computation of the edit distance. The classical algorithm for achieving such alignment is enhanced for enabling a match of two words at one of the three available levels of information when two words are tested for a substitution;
- building of patterns by completing alignments with two wildcard operators when it is necessary: 
  
  \( (*s*) \) stands for 0 or 1 instance of any word while 
  
  \( (*g*) \) represents exactly 1 instance of any word.

Table 1 shows the result of the induction of a pattern for the type of relation `founded_by` from the two sentence excerpts above.

Table 1: Example of pattern induction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charles Revson</td>
<td>the founder of</td>
<td>Revlon Cosmetics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayer Lehman</td>
<td>a founder of</td>
<td>Lehman Brothers investment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This example illustrates our different levels of generalization: for a word such as `of`, only the inflected form is taken. In the case of a word such as `founder`, the inflected form is taken here but the lemma level would be selected for an excerpt such as `X, the founders of ...`. At a higher level of generalization, the part-of-speech category `DET` (determiner) covers `a` and `the`, which makes the resulting pattern relevant for an excerpt such as "Charles Kettering, another founder of DELCO ...". This example also illustrates the use of wildcards as a substitute for any word, that is to say the highest level of generalization. As it is always possible to generalize two sentences by a pattern only made of wildcards, fixing an upper limit to the number of wildcards that can used in the generalization process is necessary for having patterns that are specific enough to the target type of relation. Moreover, as our work is open domain and based on general named entities, we prefer to induce a large number of specific patterns rather than a small set of very general patterns to favor on precision. This argument also accounts for our choice of not generalizing patterns themselves by applying to them the generalization process described above. Thus, the maximal number of wildcards in a pattern...
is set to 1 in the evaluation of section 3.

In the context of distant supervision in which our work takes place, example sentences are not directly available but result from the mapping onto a corpus of relations given as pairs of entities (for instance, the pair (Ray Charles, Albany) for the type of relation \textit{city_of_birth}). More concretely in our case, they are obtained by querying a search engine with pairs of entities corresponding to relations of the target type and by restricting its results to sentences that actually contain a pair of entities. The nature of these restrictions has of course a direct impact on the quantity and the precision of final patterns: the more severe they are, the less example sentences we get but the better the induced patterns are. (Agirre et al., 2009) adds for instance the constraint that the two entities of a relation pair must not be separated in a sentence by more than ten words.

Another important issue concerning the induction of patterns is its computational cost. This process is performed by considering each pair of example sentences, which can have a too high computational cost when the number of example sentences is significant: for 10,000 examples, around 50 millions of distinct sentences, which can have a too high computational cost if this reduction is performed blindly. Our solution to this problem exploits the fact that two sentences sharing a small number of words will not lead to an interesting pattern. The distance we use for inducing patterns – the edit distance – was chosen because of its ability to take into account the order of words but of course, it first depends on the number of words the two compared sentences share. As a consequence, the \textit{a priori} filtering of example sentence pairs can be based on the computation of a similarity measure between sentences that only exploits a \textit{bag of words} representation of them, as the \textit{cosine} measure, and the application of a minimal threshold to these similarity values for discarding pairs that are not likely to lead to an interesting pattern. The \textit{cosine} measure can be computed efficiently, either approximately, by using methods such as \textit{Local Sensitive Hashing} (Gionis et al., 1999), or without any approximation but the necessity to fix an \textit{a priori} minimal similarity threshold, which corresponds to our case. We chose more precisely the \textit{All Pairs Similarity Search} (APSS) algorithm proposed in (Bayardo et al., 2007) which computes the \textit{cosine} measure only for the pairs of objects – example sentences in our case – whose similarity is higher or equal to a fixed threshold. This algorithm relies on the incremental indexing of the objects whose similarity has to be evaluated and implements a set of optimizations of this indexing process based on both data gathered \textit{a priori} about the features of these objects and their sorting according to these features.

More precisely, we have two levels of filtering based on APSS. Learning patterns from a large number of example sentences often leads to several occurrences of the same pattern, either because an example sentence is found in several documents or because there are several occurrences of the same linguistic expression of a type of relation with different entity values (Obama’s height is 1.87m; Sarkozy’s height is 1.65m). As a consequence, we first apply a high similarity threshold for identifying and discarding identical sentences; second, a lower threshold aims at checking that sentences are similar enough for inducing a meaningful pattern. In order to reduce further the number of comparisons between example sentences, the similarity values resulting from APSS are exploited for clustering these sentences by relying on the Markov Clustering algorithm (van Dongen, 2000). Finally, patterns are induced only from sentences that are part of the same cluster.

### 2.2 Relation Extraction

The extraction of new relations is done from the existing types of relations and given entities: we are searching to add knowledge to an existing knowledge base by adding missing attributes to entities already in the KB. The first step of relation extraction is the selection of candidate sentences that are likely to contain the expression of a relation. It starts from a query containing one entity associated with its type and the type of the target entity. The retrieval of the candidate sentences is performed, as in the pattern learning step, using a search engine in which the target corpus has been indexed. In our experiments, we used Lucene\(^3\), with an indexing process taking into account the specific needs of our task: documents were segmented into excerpts of three sentences using a sliding window and the resulting segments were indexed by their plain words and their named entities with their type. Moreover, we also performed a kind of query expansion focusing on the source entity. Indeed, the source entity sometimes appears in the target base of documents under a slightly different form than in the query: for instance, \textit{Bill Clinton} is often used instead of \textit{William Jefferson Blythe}

\(^3\)http://lucene.apache.org
III Clinton, which is the normalized form of the entity in the KB. The expansion is based on an expansion database automatically built from Wikipedia:\footnote{More precisely, we used the Wikipedia dump provided by the university of New York http://nlp.cs.nyu.edu/wikipedia-data.} each entity is expanded by all the formulations extracted from the redirection pages of Wikipedia for this entity. This expansion database contains alternative forms for 2.4 million entities and, starting from an entity such as Barack Obama, makes it possible to retrieve documents referring to \{B. Hussein Obama, Barack H. Obama Junior, Barack Obama Jr, Barack Hussein Obama Jr., etc.\}.

As we only deal with intra-sentential relations, the retrieval of document excerpts is followed by the verification that the source entity co-occurs with a possible target entity in a sentence. The detection of the target entity is based on the presence of compatible named entities but also on reference lists of values for types, as in the relation percentile, that do not correspond to named entities. We then apply the patterns learned in the first step to all candidate sentences. The target entities extracted by these patterns are gathered and sorted. We only keep the most frequent entities; our hypothesis is that the more relevant the target entities are the more often they appear in documents together with the source entity. For relations with a unique target entity (e.g. date_of_birth), we choose the most frequent entity. For relations with several possible target values (e.g. places_of_residence), an arbitrary number of three values is taken since we do not have knowledge (either prior knowledge or learned from documents) about the correct number of values. Finally, a filter is applied to the target entities to check the compatibility of their value with constraints relative to the type of information we search. These constraints are defined by lists of values or regular expression. For instance, we check that the country of birth of a person is part of a list of known countries as the named entity type for the target entity – location – is not specific enough to guarantee the validity of the found information.

3 EVALUATION

We present in this section our system’s results on the data of the Slot Filling task of the TAC-KBP 2010 (TAC-KBP, 2010) evaluation. Our experiments have been carried out for English. The Slot Filling task matches the scope of our work as defined in section 2: the task aims at extracting from a large corpus the target entity of a relation, given that its source entity is part of a knowledge base that contains a large collection of examples of the target relation type. In this context, 42 relation types are considered, 16 relations for entity type ORGANIZATION (ORG) and 26 relations for entity type PERSON (PER). The list of these relation types is presented in Table 2. Note that all the experiments were conducted in parallel for all relation types on a 24 nodes (4 processors/node) cluster.

3.1 Evaluation Framework

The evaluation material from the TAC-KBP track is made of the following data:

- a 1.8 million documents text corpus (1,780,980 exactly) divided into 0.04% of transcripts (broadcast conversations, broadcast news, conversational telephone speech), 72.24% of newswire data and 27.72% of Web pages;
- a knowledge base (KB) built from an October 2008 Wikipedia snapshot: each page containing an infobox was assigned a unique identifier together with an entity type among types person, organization, geopolitical entity and unknown, depending on the fields in the infobox. Typically, pages from infobox Infobox_Actor were associated with type person. Finally, 818,741 entries were selected to populate the KB, each entry being associated with a set of properties (the fields from the infobox) and a description text. As a consequence, relations in the KB are represented as tuples (identifier, infobox type, name, property, value), e.g., (E0000437; Infobox_Actor; Julia Roberts; PER; birthplace; Atlanta);
- a mapping of Wikipedia properties to the relation types of the evaluation. For instance, Infobox_Actor birthplace is mapped to percentage_of_population. This mapping is a way of taking into account the heterogeneous nature of the labels of Wikipedia properties;
- a list of 100 source entities for which target entities have to be extracted for all the target relation types. Among those entities, 15 are already present in the KB while 85 are new. Moreover, we only focus in this study on the relations of a source entity for which a target entity was actually found in the corpus\footnote{The list of target entities that are present in the corpus was built by the KBP organizers from the results of all participants.}, that is to say, a total of 2,069 relations. Their distribution according to their type is presented in column Nb Ref. of Table 2.
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3.2 Evaluation of Pattern Learning

Patterns are used to confirm/deny the existence of a relation among two entities. As a consequence, it is important to ensure that the induced patterns have a high enough coverage to take into account as many variants as possible among the occurrences of relations. To assess the quality of these patterns, we divided the relations from the KB into a training set (2/3 of the relations) and a test set (1/3 of the relations) and measured the coverage of the patterns by computing the percentage of relation occurrences of the test set that were found by applying the patterns learned from the relation occurrences of the training set. We used for this evaluation the previously described TAC-KBP 2010 corpus. It should be noted that using this corpus to evaluate the extraction of relations does not invalidate its use for pattern learning since the relations are different for both tasks.

We provide in Table 2 the number of relations in the training and test sets in columns Nb Learn. and Nb Test respectively. The number of sentences that contain occurrences of relations used for pattern generalization is shown in the column Nb Induc. The number of patterns generated from these candidate sentences is shown in the column Nb Patterns of the same table.

For instance, if we consider the relation type org:alternate_names, only 214 candidate sentences demonstrating an evidence of the relation are selected from the 20,013 relations of the training set. These 214 sentences are then used to generate 6,007 patterns with a coverage of 66.10% (i.e. we find 66.10% of the sentences containing occurrences of the 10,006 test relations). The large gap between the 20,013 relations and the 214 sentences is due to two main factors:

- a constraint applied during the selection of the candidate sentences: we only keep the sentences in which the named entities are fully recognized, whereas named entities can be partially (or improperly) recognized by linguistic processing;
- the nature of documents in the corpus: 72% of
documents are news articles published between January 2008 and August 2009, which explains the lack of documents, if any, regarding some persons or organizations existing in the KB.

Detailed results regarding the pattern coverage for each relation type are presented in column Patterns Cov. of Table 2. As far as efficiency is concerned, the computation time for pattern generalization concerning for instance the relation type per:country_of_birth (11,192 sample sentences to compare) drops from 690mn and 5s without filtering to 30s with filtering\(^6\), which illustrates the benefit of this operation in terms of computation time.

### 3.3 Evaluation of Relation Extraction

The relation extraction process is composed of several steps, each of them influencing the overall result. Consequently, we performed separate evaluations for the retrieval of the candidate sentences and the corelation extraction process.

#### 3.3.1 Retrieval of Candidate Sentences

A prerequisite for extracting relevant relations is ensuring that the search engine returns enough relevant documents so that we can identify the target entities. We measured the coverage based on the document search result, i.e. the percentage of documents retrieved by the index that are in the reference. We tried several strategies by testing different values for parameters such as the number of retrieved documents or whether to use query expansion or not. From this evaluation, the best configuration is to query the index using the source entities and their expansions together with considering the top 1,000 returned documents: this configuration allows retrieving 84.24% of reference documents. Detailed results by relation type are provided in the column Doc. Rec. of Table 2.

The candidate sentences for a given relation type are selected based on previously retrieved documents by ensuring that each sentence contains both the source entity and the entity type of the target entity. The quality and the number of candidate sentences are largely affected by the named entity recognition process. Since we do not have a reference for named entities in the corpus, we cannot evaluate the loss caused by entity recognition errors. However, we evaluated the proportion of reference documents in which we found candidate sentences. This information allows to set an upper bound for the percentage of relations that could be extracted if the following steps performed ideally. We obtained a total coverage of 37.55% of sentences belonging to documents of the reference. The breakdown by relation type is presented in the column Rel. Rec. of Table 2.

#### 3.3.2 Relation Extraction

To evaluate the extracted relations, we used the metrics and the tools provided for the TAC-KBP campaign\(^7\). The judgment about the correctness of a relation is only based on the entity string with no restriction to the documents of the reference\(^8\). Table 3 summarizes our results regarding this evaluation – grouped for all relation types – and demonstrates the impact of the filtering of target entities in terms of recall (R), precision (P) and f1-measure (F1). Note that the filtering process ensures that target entities match some regular expressions and/or belong to a list of closed values. Column Target type in Table 2 presents the type of filtering applied for each relation type.

On one hand, results in Table 3 show that the filtering of target entities improves the performance of the system (average +2.74% f1-measure). On the other hand, they validate the assumption that patterns induced using the APSS are as relevant as those induced by considering every pair of relation examples (in this case, there is an improvement of +1.72% f1-measure on average).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relation Type</th>
<th>Before Filtering</th>
<th>After Filtering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R (%)</td>
<td>P (%)</td>
<td>F1 (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All relation pairs</td>
<td>16.28</td>
<td>11.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APSS</td>
<td>16.80</td>
<td>12.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 presents results from various systems on two similar corpus, KBP 2009 and KBP 2010 corpus, the latter adding to the first one Web documents and transcripts, a priori more difficult to process. These figures cover only the relations that are actually in the corpus. Hence, they integrate a constraint that the Slot Filling participants had to deal with and that is not taken into account in our system since it was developed outside the campaign, namely to decide whether the relation exists in the corpus. In this table, columns 2009 and 2010 denote the scores of the top three and last three systems for KBP 2009 and KBP 2010. (Ji et al., 2010) have shown that out of 492 reference relations, 60.4% were within the same sentence while the remaining 39.6% were cross-sentence: such relations are handled by using coreference resolution

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\(^6\)The version with filtering being parallelized, the time given is a sum of the time recorded for each processor.

\(^7\)http://nlp.cs.qc.cuny.edu/kbp/2010/scoring.html

\(^8\)In fact, the reference is not complete as it was built using only TAC-KBP participants’ outputs.
or by distinguishing in the column 2010 (a) of Table 4 the scores of systems that are more directly comparable to ours because they only deal with relation extraction within the same sentence.

The top system of KBP 2010 (Chada et al., 2010) clearly outperforms others: +36.63% compared to the second and +4.68% compared to a human annotator. This performance is based both on the use of a manually annotated corpus – 3 million documents (not in the KPB corpus) – and the use of mechanisms for cross-sentence relation extraction: pronominal coreference resolution, metonymy between entities, resolution of semantic dependencies between words and entities, etc. Using an additional corpus seems to be a crucial factor compared to the other top systems while these ones differentiate themselves from the median results by taking into account cross-sentence relations. The worst results, especially for 2010, mainly come from systems under development.

Regarding our system, Table 4 situates our results in the average of those obtained by KBP 2010 participants and in the top three systems based on within sentence relation extraction approaches. In the latter case, the most efficient approach (29.15% f1-measure) (Byrne and Dunnion, 2010) uses a set of manually constructed rules that achieves a precision score (66.55%) equivalent to the best score of the campaign (66.80%) and a recall score (18.67%) lying in the average score (15.33%). This strong imbalance between precision and recall is rather symptomatic of manual approaches.

Table 4: Results on TAC-KBP data (f1-measure).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TAC KBP systems</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2010 (a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nb. submissions (N) / participants</td>
<td>N=16 / 8</td>
<td>N=31 / 15</td>
<td>N=18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human annotator</td>
<td>58.99%</td>
<td>61.10%</td>
<td>61.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st score</td>
<td>34.35%</td>
<td>65.78%</td>
<td>29.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd score</td>
<td>23.05%</td>
<td>29.15%</td>
<td>14.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd score</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>28.29%</td>
<td>14.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N-2)th score</td>
<td>5.90%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N-1)th score</td>
<td>2.60%</td>
<td>0.19%</td>
<td>0.19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nth score</td>
<td>1.75%</td>
<td>0.08%</td>
<td>0.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our system</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>17.72%</td>
<td>17.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.43%</td>
<td>14.49%</td>
<td>9.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>13.93%</td>
<td>14.13%</td>
<td>12.27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 RELATED WORK

Large scale relation extraction, within the meaning defined in section 2, is a recent issue. Nevertheless, by means of evaluations such as TAC-KBP, it has been the subject of several works suggesting different approaches.

Concerning specifically the extraction of relations, three main trends appear: using statistical learning (Agirre et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010b), using lexical pattern generalization (Li et al., 2009; McNamee et al., 2009) and finally, tuning already existing systems for relation detection (Bikel et al., 2009). Compared to the 2009 edition, rule-based approaches, such as (Byrne and Dunnion, 2010), were introduced in KBP 2010 as well as approaches based on Distant supervision and classifiers (Surdeanu et al., 2010). Our approach relies on lexical pattern generalization and assumes, as in (Mintz et al., 2009), that the mere presence of a pair of entities in a sentence is informative enough to indicate the effective presence of a relation between these entities. In fact, this is not always the case and thus we believe it is important to filter the examples used for patterns generalization beforehand as suggested by (Riedel et al., 2010).

Like our system, most systems developed for KBP 2009 do not exploit the dependencies among relation types: for instance, there is an implicit link between the age and the birth date of a person. However, in (Chen et al., 2010b), the authors show that the results obtained in (Li et al., 2009) (31.96% f1-measure) can be improved (they get 34.81% f1-measure) by integrating dependencies between relations using inference rules based on a first order logic extension. In our work, we try to avoid integrating knowledge that is too dependent on the relation types in order to have a more generic approach, easily adaptable to other domains. Finally, (Chada et al., 2010) showed in KBP 2010 a very significant increase in terms of performance by integrating mechanisms for extracting relations beyond the sentence space: given the percentage of relations that occur between sentences, such mechanisms seem necessary and we plan to integrate them in our future work.

From a different angle, (Li et al., 2009) distinguished itself in KPB 2009 by using a two-step relation extraction process: the first aimed at finding potential target entities within the documents of the evaluation corpus by using patterns of relations; the second aimed at finding additional potential target entities that had been missed by the first step, by applying the relation patterns on a recent Wikipedia snapshot. The potential target entities retrieved by the process were retained only if they can be found in a document from the corpus. Additional entity acquisition significantly increases their scores (they gain +9% f1-measure compared to (Bikel et al., 2009)) but this process implies using an external corpus that can be viewed as closely related to the KB. In addition, re-
sults on KBP 2010 have shown that the overall performance could be improved without such complementary resource and that the effect of such process on final results were lower compared to KBP 2009 (we even observe a negative impact).

5 CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

In this article, we present an information extraction system designed for the large-scale extraction of attribute relations between named entities. The “large-scale” qualification is meant for both the integration of a large number of types of relations and the search of these relations in a large corpus. This system is based on a weakly supervised approach in which the examples are limited to pairs of entities in relation. The extraction of relations is performed by the application of lexico-syntactic patterns that are learned from occurrences of relations automatically selected from the entity pairs of the examples and used to represent the relation types. We evaluate our approach using the evaluation framework from the Slot Filling task of the KBP evaluation campaign, concentrating on the problem of relation extraction itself (we did not consider the case where the relation is not present in the target corpus). The results obtained in this context are comparable to the results obtained by the participants of 2010 campaign, which we consider promising for our system, since it is designed to be generic and is not tuned to deal with the specificities of the types of relations used in this campaign. We also show that specific techniques used to deal with the large-scale aspect of the task, such as the filtering of the examples with the APSS technique, do not decrease the performance and can even contribute to improve it.

We are currently working on the improvement of our system, trying to keep the idea of a generic system with respect to the type of relation considered. In particular, we focus on the pattern learning step: we are considering both the use of a more important number of examples to learn the patterns and the improvement of the quality of the examples. These two points are connected because, usually, in order to get more examples, we need to relax a constraint on the selection of the examples, which will generally increase the number of false examples. To avoid this drawback, we will explore the use of a relation filtering module which is capable of determining if a sentence contains a relation between two entities or not without any consideration on the nature of the relation (as in (Banko and Etzioni, 2006)).

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