

Distinguishing Between Foreground and Background Events in News

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Abstract

Determining whether an event in a news article is a foreground or background event would be useful in many natural language processing tasks, for example, temporal relation extraction, summarization, or storyline generation. We introduce the task of distinguishing between foreground and background events in news articles as well as identifying the general temporal position of background events relative to the foreground period (past, present, future, and their combinations). We achieve good performance (0.73 F_1 for background vs. foreground and temporal position, and 0.79 F_1 for background vs. foreground only) on a dataset of news articles by leveraging discourse information in a featurized model. We release our implementation and annotated data for other researchers¹.

1 Introduction

Grimes et al. (1975) defined foreground events as the events that form the skeleton of a story whereas background events add supporting information. Ability to automatically extract such a distinction could guide document understanding and potentially be helpful in many natural language processing tasks such as temporal relation extraction (Naik et al., 2019), summarization (Zhang et al., 2018), and storyline generation (Zhou et al., 2018). We introduce the task of distinguishing between foreground and background events, as well as identifying the general temporal position of backgrounds events relative to the foreground period (past, present, future, and their combinations). Identifying the general temporal position is a coarser analog to detailed, pairwise temporal relation extraction, and provides an intermediate step to ease the integration of discourse information into temporal understanding of the text.

Following (Grimes et al., 1975), we define *foreground* events as those that comprise the main topic of a news article, as indicated by the headline. In contrast, *background* events add supporting or contextual information. Note that while the document creation time (DCT) usually occurs after the foreground period, there is no reason why the DCT could not appear within or before it; our approaches does not assume any particular relationship between the DCT and the foreground period. Figure 1 shows a snippet of text where foreground events in red, and background events in other colors, divided into six general temporal position categories as illustrated in Figure 2 and defined in Table 1.

Background Past (BPast) events end before the foreground events begin.
Background Past Present (BPastPres) events start before and continues during the foreground period.
Background Present (BPres) events happen within the foreground event period.
Background Present Future (BPresFut) events begin during the foreground period and continue in the future.
Background Future (BFut) events begin after the foreground event period.
Background Past Present Future (BAII) events begin in the past, continue during the foreground period, and into the future.

Table 1: Background Event Categories, which are distinguished by their temporal position relative to the foreground period.

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¹The code and data are available at <https://doi.org/10.34703/gzx1-9v95/NAMTMS>

A **car bomb**₁ **damaged**₂ half a city block in Istanbul Tuesday while the Prime Minister **attended**₃ a peace **conference**₄, which is scheduled from Monday to Wednesday. No **casualties**₅ were **reported**₆. The terrorist group behind the **attack**₇ has been **on the run**₈ from the military since the first major **bombing**₉ in 1998. The group **promised**₁₀ more **bombings**₁₁ soon, while the military **said**₁₂ that special security have been **implemented**₁₃ and would remain in place for the foreseeable future.

Figure 1: An example text with foreground events marked in red, and background events in other colors, as defined in Figure 2.

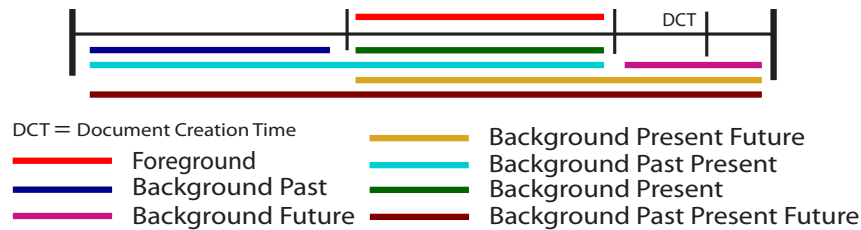


Figure 2: An illustration of the relative temporal position of foreground events in relation to background event categories. The document creation time (DCT) is here assumed to occur after the foreground events, but this is not strictly necessary.

The task is to classify an event as *Foreground*, *Background*, or *Other*, and additionally assign background events to one of the six possible general temporal positions relative to the foreground period. We assume events are provided through some other process. The *Other* category includes events that are neither foreground nor background, such as generics or reporting events (e.g., *reported*₆ in Figure 1).

Our contributions are as follows: (1) we introduce a new task, namely, distinguishing foreground and background events and marking the general temporal position of background events relative to the foreground period; (2) we provide an annotated corpus with high inter-annotated agreement; (3) we demonstrate a simple featurized model that achieves reasonable performance (0.73 F_1 for background vs. foreground and temporal position, and 0.79 F_1 for background vs. foreground only); and (4) we show the utility of this task for three different NLP tasks—subevent detection, event coreference resolution and temporal relation extraction—by showing improvements in performance between 1 and 5 points of F_1 .

The paper proceeds as follows. First we consider the prior work (§2), then describe the corpus and its annotations (§3). We next explain our model (§4) and its performance (§5), followed by a discussion (§6) that followed by an error analysis (§7). We show the utility of this information for downstream tasks (§8) and conclude by reiterating the contributions (§9).

2 Prior Work

Both Upadhyay et al. (2016) and Choubey et al. (2018) demonstrated approaches for identifying the central event in news articles. Upadhyay et al. (2016) proposed a rule-based system to identify the central event in a human-generated document summary. They evaluated their system on a human generated summaries from the New York Times Corpus (Sandhaus, 2008) where the central event had been identified. Similarly, Choubey et al. (2018) used several rule-based systems and statistical classifiers to identify the most important event in a news article. They trained and evaluated their systems on 30 news articles from the RED corpus (Mitamura et al., 2015) and 74 news articles from the KBP 2015 corpus (O’Gorman et al., 2016). Both were focused only on identifying a single central event, whereas we seek to label all events in a document as either *Foreground*, *Background*, or *Other*.

Huang et al. (2016) demonstrated an approach to placing events in news articles into three coarse temporal categories: *Past* events that have already occurred; *On-Going* events that are currently happening; and *Future* events that may happen. In that work, the temporal category was relative to the document creation time (DCT) and did not distinguish between foreground and background events. In contrast,

our work seeks to mark the general temporal position of all background events relative to the foreground period.

3 Corpus

We annotated 99 news articles from the Intelligence Community (IC) corpus (Hovy et al., 2013). The IC corpus contains 100 news article but one article was merely a list of events rather than being a narrative. We used the gold event mentions that had been annotated on the corpus. The definition of *event* in Hovy et al. follows that of TimeML (Pustejovsky et al., 2003; Sauri et al., 2006), which has been well studied and shown to be reliably annotatable:

We mean both events and states when we say ‘event’. A *state* refers to a fixed, or regularly changing, configuration of entities in the world, such as ‘it is hot’ or ‘he is running’. An *event* occurs when there is a change of state in the world, such as ‘he stops running’ or ‘the plane took off’. (Hovy et al., 2013, p. 21)

The first and second authors labeled each event in the IC corpus with one of eight categories: *Foreground*, *Other*, or six varieties of *Background* (listed in Table 1). Disagreement was adjudicated by the third author. Overall agreement was 0.69 Cohen’s κ . Table 2 shows agreements for individual classes as well as the statistics of the corpus. Note that in the corpus *Ball* only occurred 5 times, and *BPresFut* not at all. Table 2 shows the characteristics of the corpus and label counts.

Articles	99	
Sentences	1,955	
Tokens	48,737	
Event Mentions	4,086	
Avg. Sentences / article	19.7	
Avg. Tokens / article	487.4	
Avg. Events / article	30	κ
Foreground	1,501	0.66
Background Past (BPast)	851	0.66
Background Past-Present (BPastPres)	365	0.61
Background Present (BPres)	89	0.21
Background Present-Future (BPresFut)	0	-
Background Future (BFut)	160	0.43
Background Past-Present-Future (Ball)	5	0.66
Other	1,115	0.90
Overall Markings / Agreement	4,086	0.69

Table 2: Corpus Statistics

4 Model

Our model is a straightforward featurized logistic regression classifier. The features can be divided into five categories: Lexical, Syntactic, Semantic, Discourse and Time.

Lexical and Syntactic Temporal signals (e.g., *after* or *before*) often occur before background events. We used the temporal signals list collected by Derczynski and Gaizauskas (2010). This feature is encoded as bag of signals capturing whether a temporal signal is present in the text between the target event and the immediate preceding event. For syntactic features, we use the major part of speech (POS), tense, and aspect, all encoded as one-hot vector. We used `spaCy` (Honnibal and Montani, 2017) to compute both lexical and syntactic features.

Semantic To capture semantics we computed an event contextualized representation using (Akbik et al., 2018)’s implementation of BERT model *bert-base-uncased* (Devlin et al., 2019). The vector for an event is defined as the weighted sum of all subword embeddings extracted from BERT’s last layer. We also captured the semantic frame of the event using SEMAFOR (Das et al., 2010), encoded as one-hot vector.

Model	Fine-grained				Coarse-grained			
	Class	Prec.	Rec.	F_1	Class	Prec.	Rec.	F_1
<i>Our Model</i>	Foreground	0.75	0.71	0.73	Foreground	0.73	0.74	0.74
	BPast	0.67	0.65	0.66	} Background	0.73	0.73	0.73
	BPastPres	0.52	0.60	0.56				
	BPres	0.18	0.17	0.18				
	BFuture	0.38	0.51	0.43				
	Other	0.94	0.92	0.93	Other	0.93	0.92	0.93
		macro_{avg}	0.57	0.59	0.58	macro_{avg}	0.80	0.80
	micro_{avg}	0.73	0.73	0.73	micro_{avg}	0.79	0.79	0.79
<i>Baseline (MFC)</i>	macro_{avg}	0.17	0.06	0.09	macro_{avg}	0.33	0.12	0.18
	micro_{avg}	0.37	0.37	0.37	micro_{avg}	0.37	0.37	0.37
<i>Baseline (Coref)</i>	macro_{avg}	0.21	0.14	0.15	macro_{avg}	0.42	0.34	0.35
	micro_{avg}	0.34	0.34	0.34	micro_{avg}	0.46	0.46	0.46

Table 3: Our model’s performance on all classes. *Background* is abbreviated as (B).

Discourse We employed two discourse features: RST discourse relation and the position of the event’s sentence in the text. Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) (Mann and Thompson, 1988) is useful for many NLP tasks including sentiment analysis (Bhatia et al., 2015), information extraction (Maslennikov and Chua, 2007), and subevent detection (Aldawsari and Finlayson, 2019). We used Feng-Hirst discourse parser (Feng and Hirst, 2014) to build a discourse tree of each text, and post-processed the output to build a graph (Neumann, 2015). For events after the first, we extracted the rhetorical relation between the target event mention and the immediately preceding event. This feature is encoded as a one-hot vector covering all 16 main relation classes. We also captured the position of the event’s sentence in the discourse. This was encoded as real number, normalized to a value between 0 and 1 by the number of sentences in the article.

Time We compute the difference, in days, between the date of the event mention and the date in the first sentence. If there is no date in the first sentence, we use the document creation time. The date of the event mention is taken to be any date used as an argument to the event, or otherwise the nearest date that appears in the sentence; if the event has neither, we assume the difference is zero. We normalized both dates to a calendar value using `HeidelTime` utility (Strötgen and Gertz, 2013). The difference is then encoded as one-hot vector feature with three possible values: negative, zero, or positive.

Classifier We used a logistic regression classifier from `scikit-learn` package (Pedregosa et al., 2011) for classification over the gold annotated event mentions. The classifier handles multi-class classification using a one-vs-rest scheme. Most of the parameters were left at their default settings². We addressed data imbalance (seen in Table 2), by using the `class_weight=balanced` parameter to assign a higher mis-classification penalty to the minority class. We conducted 5-fold cross-validation for the experiment.

5 Results

We evaluated model performance using both macro and micro F_1 . We conducted two experiments: in the first (the *fine-grained* condition) we use all classes from Table 2 except for two (*Ball* and *BPresFut*³). In the second experiment (the *coarse-grained* condition) we collapsed all background classes into one. Table 3 shows our model’s performance under both conditions. In addition to a most frequent class (MFC) baseline, we designed a strong baseline inspired by the observation that the central event of a document usually has many co-referential event mentions (Choubey et al., 2018). This baseline operates as follows: (1) Mark an event as *Foreground* if it is part of an event coreference chain and the length

²penalty=l2,C=0.1,random_state=42, max_iter=1000 class_weight=balanced, solver=liblinear, multi_class=ovr.

³We merged the *Ball* class with the *BPres* class due to the small number of examples, and *BPresFut* had no examples in the corpus.

	Foreground	BPast	BPastPresent	BPresent	BFuture	Other
Foreground	-	22%	44%	5%	20%	9%
BPast	59%	-	22%	9%	4%	6%
BPastPresent	48%	32%	-	4%	12%	4%
BPresent	60%	21%	9%	-	4%	6%
BFuture	53%	15%	22%	6%	-	4%
Other	31%	24%	18%	2%	25%	-

Table 4: Fine-grained labeling error percentage between actual labels (rows) and predicted labels (columns).

of that chain is longer than or equal to the average of the lengths of event coreference chains for each article (the event coreference chains are identified based on the IC gold annotation); (2) Mark an event as *Other* if it is a reporting event corresponding to the IC gold annotation; (3) Otherwise mark the event as *BPast* for the fine-grained condition (the most frequent Background class), or *Background* for the coarse-grained condition.

6 Discussion

As shown in Table 3 the model performance in the fine-grained condition is lower compared to the coarse-grained performance, which is not surprising given the increased number of classes (and thus reduced data) and general difficulty of detecting temporal relationships.

We investigated the importance of each of the four feature sets to our model under the fine-grained condition by retraining while leaving out one set at a time. In order of importance, they are: semantic (35% performance loss), discourse (4%), time (2%), syntactic and lexical (2%). Apparently, the most important feature set is the semantic features. The BERT vector is the most important feature for all classes, but the frame feature contributed more to the *Other* class. This is because of most of the events in this class are reporting events and were captured by the *Statement* frame. In the discourse set, the event’s sentence position and discourse relation contributed equally to the model. The time feature contributed most to the *BPast* class because the *BPast* events mostly associated with past temporal dates. The syntactic and lexical features were the least contributing features to the model. On the other hand, when we dropped the contextualized embedding, the syntactic features contributed the most. By replacing BERT embeddings with ELMo (Peters et al., 2018) and Fasttext (Bojanowski et al., 2017) embeddings under the fine-grained condition, the performance decreases by 4% and 13%, respectively. Therefore, because it is known that BERT and ELMo capture more syntactic information than Fasttext, we hypothesize that the syntactic features were mostly—but not completely—captured by the BERT contextualized embeddings.

Finally, The lowest performing class is the *BPresent* class, which is to be expected because of the low number of examples.

7 Error Analysis

Upon detailed inspection we were able to discern several error classes aside from the usual noise introduced by the various sub-components. We observe that the model wrongly classifies Foreground events as Background if the event appears towards the end of the article. In our analysis, we also observe that this mislabeling occurs when the event is referred to in conjunction with some sort of temporal reference. For example, in an article regarding the capture of two people, in the sentence, “*The captured bomb-maker, Sami Muhammad Ali Said al-Jaaf, was seized in Baghdad on Jan. 15*”, the word *seized* is labeled as a Background event even though it is directly tied to the foreground. As shown in Table 4, this mislabeling constitutes 91% of the foreground event labeling error. Similarly, Background events that appear early in the article are often mistaken for Foreground events. Our model mistaking Background events as Foreground comprises 91% of the model’s background labeling error. The model also wrongly classifies foreground events as *Other* (9% of the foreground labeling error) if the event mention looks like a reporting event due to the missing sense (e.g., *claimed* is used in the construction *claimed lives*, but can be mistaken for a reporting event). Another common error was the lack of explicit discourse or

temporal information (e.g., a date) for identifying background events.

Within the fine-grained labeling of background events, we see that errors occur mainly between the distinction between events that are *BPast* and *BPastPresent*. Of the fine-grained error, the mislabeling of *BPast* as *BPastPresent* was 22% of the error (see Table 4); the labeling of *BPastPresent* as *BPast* constituted 32%. This being the largest error in the sub-classification task makes sense given that the two classes are quite similar. Consider the the text shown in Figure 3. In this example, the *operations* event is a *BPast* event incorrectly labeled as *BPastPresent*. We believe this is due in part to model not being sensitive to the precursory descriptors like the word *suspended*. For without that descriptor it would imply that the *operations* event is still ongoing.

*Israeli security forces have been on high alert to guard against possible terror attacks by Hamas, which has suspended **operations** against Israel since its spiritual leader and founder Sheikh Ahmed Yassin was released from Israeli jail last October.*

Figure 3: Example text showing an event which is subject to the common mislabeling of *BPastPresent* for *BPast*.

With regard to general temporal position, changes of tense related to the document creation time (i.e., an event is in the past relative to the DCT, but in the future relative to the foreground period), caused difficulties in distinguishing between *BFut* and *BPast*. Though this error did not occur frequently, the failure to distinguish between the two classes comprises 19% of the overall fine-grained Background error, as shown in Table 4. We see the model struggle with examples such as “*Another cell was uncovered **last fall**, when the police carried out an operation against a group of Algerian and Moroccan radicals who were believed to be **planning** an attack on Madrid’s High Court and perhaps other targets*”. Difficulties in distinguishing between background classes in general were often the result of the writer assuming some commonsense or world knowledge on the part of the reader to infer the temporal relationship.

8 Applications

To validate the importance of capturing background and foreground events as well as the temporal position of background events to the foreground events, we experimented with incorporating this feature into three different NLP tasks, namely: subevent detection, event coreference resolution and temporal relation extraction. The goal of this experiment was to measure the performance with and without including Foreground/Background fine-grained classes as features. Even though some of the experiments we developed along the way outperform the state of the art, the emphasis here is on the contribution of these features in these tasks. All experiments were performed under the fine-grained condition and all experiments’ implementation are released.

Model	Prec.	Rec.	F ₁
Aldawsari and Finlayson (2019)	0.45	0.56	0.50
+Fine-grained Labels	0.50	0.61	0.55

Table 5: Subevent experiment result.

Model	Prec.	Rec.	F ₁
Liu et al. (2014)	0.48	0.59	0.53
Our System	0.52	0.84	0.65
+Fine-grained Labels	0.55	0.85	0.67

Table 6: Event coreference experiment result.

*In another **fatality**₁, a Spanish military adviser, Gonzalo Perez Garcia, who **fell**₂ into a coma after being seriously **wounded**₃ in a shootout last month died Wednesday, the Spanish Defense Ministry said.*

Figure 4: Example of a text where the relationship between one event and two others events is misclassified without the fine-grained Foreground/Background feature.

Subevent Detection Task The subevent detection is the process of identifying when one event is a subevent of another. The subevent relationship is defined in terms of (e_i, e_j) , where e_i and e_j are events: event e_j is a subevent of event e_i if e_j is spatiotemporally contained by e_i (Hovy et al., 2013). The task is to classify a pair of events into one of the three classes: *parent-child*, *child-parent* or *no relation (NoRel)*, corresponding to the direction in the discourse flow. For subevent and event coreference experiments, we used the IC corpus, annotated with both event coreference and subevent relation, and compare our experiment to the state of the art models reported on the corpus (i.e. we used the gold annotation of background and foreground events). In the subevent experiment, we completely re-implemented the state of the art in this task (Aldawsari and Finlayson, 2019) and used the same evaluation metric, we refer interested readers to the paper for more details. For each event of a pair of event, we include the Foreground/Background fine-grained features as one-hot vector. As shown in table 5, after including these features, the performance increases by 5%. We performed an analysis of the increase and found that these features helped the model to distinguish between pairs with complex structure. For example, in Figure 4, both **fell**₂ and **wounded**₃ were previously classified as subevents of **fatality**₁, but after including the fine-grained labels, the model learned the NoRel class between e_1 and (e_2, e_3) since the latter events are *BPast* events.

Event Coreference Task Event coreference is the task of determining whether two events refer to the same event in the real world. For this experiment, we adapted some of the features mentioned in (§4) for event pairs coreference classification. That is, we used the major POS, tense, aspect, semantic frames, discourse relation between pairs and semantic similarity between pair’s BERT embedding. Also we include an argument feature to determine whether the pair’s arguments corefer. We extracted and resolved the arguments of events using AllenNLP’s semantic role labeling (Gardner et al., 2018; He et al., 2017) and coreference resolution (Lee et al., 2017). We train a pairwise logistic regression classifier from `scikit-learn` over the features using parameters shown in table 8. As mentioned earlier, we used the IC corpus and conducted 5-fold cross-validation for the experiment. As shown in Table 6, the pairwise performance increases by 2% after including the Foreground/Background fine-grained features. The first column in the table shows Liu et al.’s (2014) pairwise model, the state of the art model on IC corpus⁴ trained on 65 documents of the IC corpus which we use as a baseline. A shallow error analysis after including Foreground/Background fine-grained features reveals that almost all corrected cases were false negative and the events involved are foreground events. This observation indicates that detecting foreground events could be a useful intermediate step for event coreference improvement.

Model	TDD-Auto			TDD-Man		
	Pre.	Rec.	F1	Pre.	Rec.	F1
MAJOR	0.34	0.32	0.33	0.37	0.36	0.37
CAEVO	0.61	0.32	0.42	0.32	0.10	0.16
BiLSTM	0.55	0.48	0.52	0.24	0.23	0.24
Ning et al. (2017)	0.46	0.45	0.46	0.23	0.23	0.24
Our System	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.42	0.42	0.42
+Fine-grained Labels	0.61	0.61	0.61	0.42	0.42	0.43

Table 7: The first four models are an adaptation of state-of-the-art temporal models on TDD-Auto and TDD-Man reported by (Naik et al., 2019). The last two rows show our model without and with Foreground/Background fine-grained features, respectively.

Temporal Relation Extraction Task Last but not least, extracting temporal information from text is a challenging but important task in NLP. In this experiment, we target the extraction of temporal relation between events which is one of the fundamental tasks in temporal processing as identified in the series

⁴Note that Liu et al.’s (2014) is not the state of the art result in event coreference generally, but merely the best performing result on the IC corpus.

Task	hyper-parameters		
	multi_class	solver	C
Subevent	ovr	liblinear	0.01
Event coref.	multinomial	lbfgs	0.1
Temporal	ovr	liblinear	0.0001

Table 8: The hyper-parameters used in all experiments corresponding to the `scikit-learn`’s implementation of logistic regression.

TempEval (TE) workshops (Verhagen et al., 2007; Verhagen et al., 2010; UzZaman et al., 2013). We used the recently published dataset TDDiscourse (Naik et al., 2019), an augmented dataset of TimeBank-Dense (Cassidy et al., 2014) focused on discourse-level temporal ordering and used the same set of temporal relations as TimeBank-Dense (i.e., *after*, *before*, *simultaneous*, *includes* and *is-included*). The annotation of the corpus consists of two sets: Manual annotation (TDD-Man) and Automatic inference (TDD-Auto), we experiment on both.

For this task, we designed a simple and effective approach by concatenating pair’s BERT embedding⁵, POS, tense and aspect as one vector. We trained a logistic regression classifier over these features using hyper-parameters shown in table 8. We followed Naik et al.’s (2019) split setup of train, validation and test sets and compared the performance of our model to all models reported on the corpus. Similar to our previous experiments, we add Foreground/Background fine-grained features to the model and measure the performance with and without these features. As shown in Table 7, our approach in general outperforms all models on both TDD-auto and TDD-man by 9% and 5%, respectively. The reason behind the low performance of the other models has been addressed in Naik et al. (2019), and is out of scope for this paper. With regard to our model, as shown in the table, adding Foreground/Background fine-grained features did not help much in improving the model performance. This is in fact expected due to the fact that the fine-grained model was trained on a closed-domain (i.e., Intelligence Community (IC) news articles), which is a small fraction—55% are IC news articles and 40% of these are broadcast news—in the TDDiscourse corpus test set.

9 Contributions

We have presented a novel task: distinguishing between foreground and background events, as well marking the general temporal position of background events relative to the foreground period. We provided an annotated dataset, demonstrated a simple, featurized logistic regression model that performs well on this task which relies heavily on discourse understanding and show the utility of this task for three different NLP tasks. Our error analysis shows that while our model’s performance is reasonable, there is still room for improvement by the introduction of commonsense or world knowledge to aid in reasoning.

10 Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by a Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission Fellowship to Mr. Aldawsari, and also in part by NSF CAREER Award IIS-1749917.

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⁵Event embedding is extracted the same way discussed in §4, Semantics

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