TriggerNER: Learning with Entity Triggers as Explanations for Named Entity Recognition

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Abstract

Training neural models for named entity recognition (NER) in a new domain often requires additional human annotations that are usually expensive and time-consuming to collect. Thus, a crucial research question is how to obtain supervision in a cost-effective way. In this paper, we introduce "entity triggers," an effective proxy of human explanations for facilitating label-efficient learning of NER models. An entity trigger is defined as a group of words in a sentence that helps to explain why humans would recognize an entity in the sentence. We crowd-sourced 14k entity triggers for two well-studied NER datasets[1]. Our proposed model, *Trigger Matching Network*, jointly learns trigger representations and soft matching module with self-attention such that can generalize to unseen sentences easily for tagging. The framework is significantly more cost-effective than the traditional frameworks.

1 Introduction

Named entity recognition (NER) is a fundamental information extraction task that focuses on extracting entities from a given text and classifying them using pre-defined categories (e.g., persons, locations, organizations) (Nadeau and Sekine, 2007). Recent advances in NER have primarily focused on training neural network models with an abundance of human annotations, yielding state-of-the-art results (Lample et al., 2016). However, collecting human annotations for NER is expensive and time-consuming, especially in social media messages (Lin et al., 2017a) and technical domains such as biomedical publications, financial documents, legal reports, etc. As we seek to advance NER into more domains with less human effort,
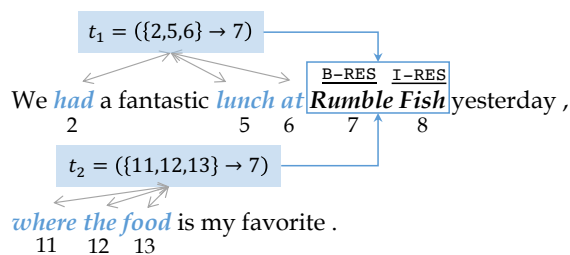

Figure 1: We show two individual **entity triggers**: t_1 ("*had ... lunch at*") and t_2 ("*where the food*"). Both are associated to the same entity mention *"Rumble Fish"* (starting from 7th token) typed as restaurant (RES).

how to learn neural models for NER in a cost-effective way becomes a crucial research problem.

The standard protocol for obtaining an annotated NER dataset involves an annotator selecting token spans in a sentence as mentions of entities, and labeling them with an entity type. However, such annotation process provides limited supervision *per example*. Consequently, one would need large amount of annotations in order to train high-performing models for a broad range of entity types, which can clearly be cost-prohibitive. The key question is then *how can we learn an effective NER model in presence of limited quantities of labeled data*?

We, as humans, recognize an entity within a sentence based on certain words or phrases that act as cues. For instance, we could infer that '*Kasdfrcxzv*' is likely to be a location entity in the sentence "*Tom <u>traveled</u> a lot last year <u>in</u> Kasdfrcxzv.*" We recognize this entity because of the cue phrase "*travel ... in*," which suggests there should be a location entity following the word 'in'. We call such phrases "entity triggers." Similar to the way these triggers guide our recognition process, we hypothesize that they can also help the model to learn to generalize efficiently.

Specifically, we define an ***"entity trigger"*** (or

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trigger for simplicity) as a group of words that can help explain the recognition process of a particular entity in the same sentence. For example, in Figure 1, *"had ... lunch at"*[2] and *"where the food"* are two distinct *triggers* associated with the RESTAURANT entity *"Rumble Fish."* An entity trigger should be a necessary and sufficient cue for humans to recognize its associated entity even if we mask the entity with a random word. Thus, unnecessary words such as *"fantastic"* should not be considered part of the entity trigger.

In this paper, we argue that a combination of entity triggers and standard entity annotations can enhance the generalization power of NER models. This approach is more powerful because unlabeled sentences, such as *"Bill enjoyed a great dinner with Alice at Zcxlbz."*, can be matched with the existing trigger *"had ... lunch at"* via their semantic relatedness. This makes it easier for a model to recognize *"Zcxlbz"* as a RESTAURANT entity. In contrast, if we only have the entity annotation itself (i.e., *"Rumble Fish"*) as supervision, the model will require many similar examples in order to learn this simple pattern.

We hypothesize that using triggers as additional supervision is a more cost-effective way to train models. We crowd-sourced annotations of 14,708 triggers on two well-studied NER datasets to study their usefulness for the NER task. Also, we propose a novel framework named Trigger Matching Network that learns trigger representations indicative of entity types during the training phase, and identifies triggers in an unlabeled sentence at inference time to guide a traditional entity tagger for delivering better overall NER performance. Different from conventional training, our learning process has two stages, where the first stage comprises jointly training a trigger classifier and the semantic trigger matcher, followed by a second stage that leverages the trigger representation and the encoding of the given sentence using an attention mechanism to learn a tagger. Experiments show that the proposed model using only 20% of the trigger-annotated sentences results in a comparable performance as using 70% of conventional annotated sentences.

2 Problem Formulation

We consider the problem of *how to cost-effectively learn a model for NER using entity triggers*. In this

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[2]Note that a trigger can be a discontinuous phrase.

section, we introduce basic concepts and their notations, present the conventional data annotation process for NER, and provide a formal task definition for learning using entity triggers.

In the conventional setup for supervised learning for NER, we let $\mathbf{x} = [x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \cdots, x^{(n)}]$ denote a sentence in the labeled training corpus $\mathcal{D}_L$. Each labeled sentence has a NER-tag sequence $\mathbf{y} = [y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \cdots, y^{(n)}]$, where $y^{(i)} \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ can be $\{\texttt{O}, \texttt{B-PER}, \cdots\}$. Thus, we have $\mathcal{D}_L = \{(\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{y_i})\}$, and an unlabeled corpus $\mathcal{D}_U = \{\mathbf{x_i}\}$.

We propose to annotate entity triggers in sentences. We use $T(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ to represent the set of annotated entity triggers, where each trigger $t_i \in T(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is associated with an entity index e and a set of word indices $\{w_i\}$. Note that we use the index of the first word of an entity as its entity index. That is, $t = (\{w_1, w_2, \cdots\} \rightarrow e)$, where e and w_i are integers in the range of $[1, |\mathbf{x}|]$.

Adding triggers creates a new form of data $\mathcal{D}_T = \{(\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{y_i}, T(\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{y_i})\}$. Our goal is to learn a model for NER from a trigger-labeled dataset $\mathcal{D}_T$, such that we can achieve comparable learning performance to a model with a much larger $\mathcal{D}_L$.

3 Trigger Matching Networks

We propose a straightforward yet effective framework, named *Trigger Matching Networks* (TMN), consisting of a trigger encoder (`TrigEncoder`), a semantic-based trigger matching module (`TrigMatcher`), and a base sequence tagger (`SeqTagger`). We have two learning stages for the framework: the first stage (Section 3.1) jointly learns the `TrigEncoder` and `TrigMatcher`, and the second stage (Section 3.2) uses the trigger vectors to learn NER tag labels.

3.1 Trigger Encoding & Semantic Matching

Learning trigger representations and semantically matching them with sentences are inseparable tasks. Desired trigger vectors capture the semantics in a shared embedding space with token hidden states, such that sentences and triggers can be semantically matched. Learning an attention-based matching module between entity triggers and sentences is necessary so that triggers and sentences can be semantically matched.

Specifically, for a sentence $\mathbf{x}$ with multiple entities $\{e_1, e_2, \cdots\}$, for each entity e_i we assume that there is a set of triggers $T_i = \{t_1^{(i)}, t_2^{(i)}, \cdots\}$ without loss of generality. To enable more efficient
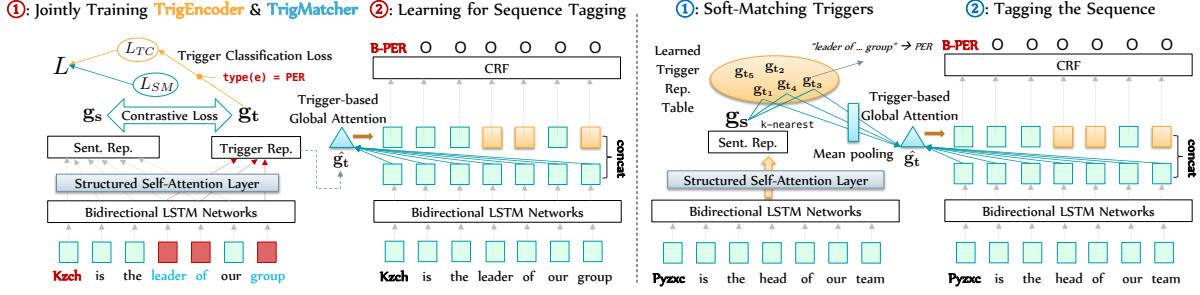
Figure 2: **Two-stage training in *Trigger Matching Network* (Left).** We first jointly train `TrigEncoder` (via trigger classification) and `TrigMatcher` (via contrastive loss). Then, we reuse the training data trigger vectors as attention queries in `SeqTagger`. **The inference process (Right).** It uses the `TrigMatcher` to retrieve the k nearest triggers and average their trigger vectors as the attention query for the trained `SeqTagger`. Thus, an unseen cue phrase (e.g., *"head of ... team"*) can be matched with a seen trigger (e.g., *"leader of ... group"*).

batch-based training, we reformat the trigger-based annotated dataset $\mathcal{D}_T$ such that each new sequence contains only one entity and one trigger. We then create a training instance by pairing each entity with one of its triggers, denoted $(\mathbf{x}, e_i, t_j^{(i)})$.

For each reformed training instance $(\mathbf{x}, e, t)$, we first apply a bidirectional LSTM (BLSTM) on the sequence of word vectors of $\mathbf{x}$, obtaining a sequence of hidden states that are the contextualized word representations $\mathbf{h}_i$ for each token x_i in the sentence. We use $\mathbf{H}$ to denote the matrix containing the hidden vectors of all of the tokens, and we use $\mathbf{Z}$ to denote the matrix containing the hidden vectors of all trigger tokens inside the trigger t.

In order to learn an attention-based representation of both triggers and sentences, we follow the self-attention method introduced by (Lin et al., 2017b) as follows:

$$\vec{a}_{sent} = \text{SoftMax}\left(W_2 \tanh\left(W_1 \mathbf{H}^T\right)\right)$$
$$\mathbf{g_s} = \vec{a}_{sent} \mathbf{H}$$
$$\vec{a}_{trig} = \text{SoftMax}\left(W_2 \tanh\left(W_1 \mathbf{Z}^T\right)\right)$$
$$\mathbf{g_t} = \vec{a}_{trig} \mathbf{Z}$$

W_1 and W_2 are two trainable parameters for computing self-attention score vectors $\vec{a}_{sent}$ and $\vec{a}_{trig}$. We obtain a vector representing the weighted sum of the token vectors in the entire sentence as the final sentence vector $\mathbf{g_s}$. Similarly, $\mathbf{g_t}$ is the final trigger vector, representing the weighted sum of the token vectors in the trigger.

We want to use the type of the associated entity as supervision to guide the trigger representation. Thus, the trigger vector $\mathbf{g_t}$ is further fed into a multi-class classifier to predict the *type* of the associated entity e (such as PER, LOC, etc) which we use $\text{type}(e)$ to denote. The loss of the trigger

classification is as follows:

$$L_{TC} = -\sum \log \text{P}\left(\text{type}(e) \mid \mathbf{g_t}; \theta_{TC}\right),$$

where θ_{TC} is a model parameter to learn.

Towards learning to match triggers and sentences based on attention-based representations, we use contrastive loss (Hadsell et al., 2006). The intuition is that similar triggers and sentences should have close representations (i.e., have a small distance between them, d). We create negative examples (i.e., mismatches) for training by randomly mixing the triggers and sentences, because `TrigMatcher` needs to be trained with both positive and negative examples of the form (sentence, trigger, label). For the negative examples, we expect a margin m between their embeddings. The contrastive loss of soft matching is as follows, where $\mathbb{1}_{\text{matched}}$ is 1 if the trigger was originally in this sentence and 0 if they are not:

$$d = \|\mathbf{g_s} - \mathbf{g_t}\|_2$$
$$L_{SM} = (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\text{matched}}) \frac{1}{2} (d)^2$$
$$+ \mathbb{1}_{\text{matched}} \frac{1}{2} \left\{\max(0, m - d)\right\}^2$$

The joint loss of the first stage is thus $L = L_{TC} + \lambda L_{SM}$, where λ is a hyper-parameter to tune.

3.2 Trigger-Enhanced Sequence Tagging

The learning objective in this stage is to output the tag sequence $\mathbf{y}$. Following the most common design of neural NER architecture, BLSTM-CRF (Ma and Hovy, 2016), we incorporate the entity triggers as attention queries to train a trigger-enhanced sequence tagger for NER. Note that the BLSTM used in the the `TrigEncoder` and `TrigMatcher` modules is the same BLSTM we

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use in the `SeqTagger` to obtain $\mathbf{H}$, the matrix containing the hidden vectors of all of the tokens. Given a sentence $\mathbf{x}$, we use the previously trained `TrigMatcher` to compute the mean of all the trigger vectors $\hat{\mathbf{g}}_{\mathbf{t}}$ associated with this sentence. Following the conventional attention method (Luong et al., 2015), we incorporate the mean trigger vector as the query, creating a sequence of attention-based token representations, $\mathbf{H}'$.

$$\vec{\alpha} = \text{SoftMax}\left(\boldsymbol{v}^\top \tanh\left(U_1\mathbf{H}^T + U_2\hat{\mathbf{g}}_{\mathbf{t}}^T\right)^\top\right)$$
$$\mathbf{H}' = \vec{\alpha}\,\mathbf{H}$$

U_1, U_2, and v are trainable parameters for computing the trigger-enhanced attention scores for each token. Finally, we concatenate the original token representation $\mathbf{H}$ with the trigger-enhanced one $\mathbf{H}'$ as the input ($[\mathbf{H}; \mathbf{H}']$) to the final CRF tagger. Note that in this stage, our learning objective is the same as conventional NER, which is to correctly predict the tag for each token.

3.3 Inference on Unlabeled Sentences

When inferencing tags on unlabeled sentences, we do not know the sentence's triggers. Instead, we use the `TrigMatcher` to compute the similarities between the self-attended sentence representations and the trigger representations, using the most suitable triggers as additional inputs to the `SeqTagger`. Specifically, we have a trigger dictionary from our training data, $\mathcal{T} = \{t | (\cdot, \cdot, t) \in \mathcal{D}_T\}$. Recall that we have learned a trigger vector for each of them, and we can load these trigger vectors as a look-up table in memory. For each unlabeled sentence $\mathbf{x}$, we first compute its self-attended vector $\mathbf{g_s}$ as we do when training the `TrigMatcher`. Using L2-norm distances to compute the contrastive loss, we efficiently retrieve the most similar triggers in the shared embedding space of the sentence and trigger vectors.

Then, we calculate $\hat{\mathbf{g}}_{\mathbf{t}}$, the mean of the top k nearest semantically matched triggers, as this serves a proxy to triggers mentioned for the entity type in the labeled data. We then use it as the attention query for `SeqTagger`, similarly in Sec. 3.2.

4 Experiments

In this section, we first discuss how to collect entity triggers, and empirically study the data-efficiency of our proposed framework.

CONLL 03	PER	ORG	MISC	LOC	**Total**
# of Entities	1,608	958	787	1,781	5,134
# of Triggers	3,445	1,970	2,057	3,456	10,938
Avg. # of Trig. / Ent.	2.14	2.05	2.61	1.94	2.13
Avg. Trig. Length	1.41	1.46	1.4	1.44	1.43

BC5CDR	DISEASE		CHEMICAL		**Total**
# of Entities	906		1,085		1,991
# of Triggers	2,130		1,640		3,770
Avg. # of Trig. / Ent.	2.35		1.51		1.89
Avg. Trig. Length	2.00		1.99		2.00

Table 1: **Statistics of the crowd-sourced triggers.**

4.1 Annotating Entity Triggers

We use a general domain dataset CoNLL2003 (Tjong Kim Sang and De Meulder, 2003) and a bio-medical domain dataset BC5CDR (Li et al., 2016). Both datasets are well-studied and popular in evaluating the performance of neural named entity recognition models such as BLSTM-CRF (Ma and Hovy, 2016).

In order to collect the entity triggers from human annotators, we use *Amazon SageMaker Ground Truth*[3] to crowd-source entity triggers. More recently, Lee et al. (2020) developed an annotation framework, named LEAN-LIFE, which supports our proposed trigger annotating. Specifically, we sample 20% of each training set as our inputs, and then reform them (Section 2). Annotators are asked to annotate a group of words that would be helpful in typing and/or detecting the occurrence of a particular entity in the sentence. We masked the entity tokens with their types so that human annotators are more focused on the non-entity words in the sentence when considering the triggers. We consolidate multiple triggers for each entity by taking the intersection of the three annotators' results. Statistics of the final curated triggers are summarized in Table 1.

4.2 Base model

We require a base model to compare with our proposed TMN model in order to validate whether the TMN model effectively uses triggers to improve model performance in a limited label setting. We choose the CNN-BLSTM-CRF (Ma and Hovy, 2016) as our base model for its wide usage in research of neural NER models and applications. Our TMNs are implemented within the same codebase and use the same external word

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[3] An advanced version of *Amazon Mechanical Turk.* https://aws.amazon.com/sagemaker/

CONLL 2003				
BLSTM-CRF			TMN	TMN + S.T.
sent.	F1	trig.	F1	F1
5%	69.04	3%	75.33	77.68
10%	76.83	5%	80.2	81.57
20%	81.3	7%	82.02	82.43
30%	83.23	10%	83.53	83.53
40%	84.18	13%	84.22	84.33
50%	84.27	15%	85.03	85.38
60%	85.24	17%	85.36	85.52
70%	**86.08**	**20%**	**86.01**	**86.5**

Table 2: **Labor-efficiency study on BLSTM-CRF and TMN.** "sent." means the percentage of the sentences (labeled only with entity tags) we use for BLSTM-CRF, while "trig." denotes the percentage of the sentences (labeled with both entity tags and trigger tags) we use for TMN. 'S.T.' stands for self-training.

vectors from GloVE (Pennington et al., 2014). The hyper-parameters of the CNNs, BLSTMs, and CRFs are also the same. This ensures a fair comparison between a typical non-trigger NER model and our trigger-enhanced framework.

4.3   Results and analysis

Labeled data efficiency. We first seek to study the cost-effectiveness of using triggers as an additional source of supervision. Accordingly, we explore the performance of our model and the baseline for different fractions of the training data. The results on the two datasets are shown in Table 2. The full results are shown in Table 3. We can see that by using only 20% of the trigger-annotated data, TMN model delivers comparable performance as the baseline model using 50-70% traditional training data. The drastic improvement in the model performance obtained using triggers thus justifies the slightly additional cost incurred in annotating triggers.

Self-training with triggers. We also do a preliminary investigation of adopting self-training (Rosenberg et al., 2005) with triggers. We make inferences on unlabeled data and take the predictions with high confidences as the weak training examples for continually training the model. The confidence is computed following the MNLP metric (Shen et al., 2017), and we take top 20% every epoch. With the self-training method, we further improve the TMN model's F-1 scores by about 0.5∼1.0%.

Annotation time vs. performance. Although it is hard to accurately study the time cost on the crowd-sourcing platform we use, based on our of-
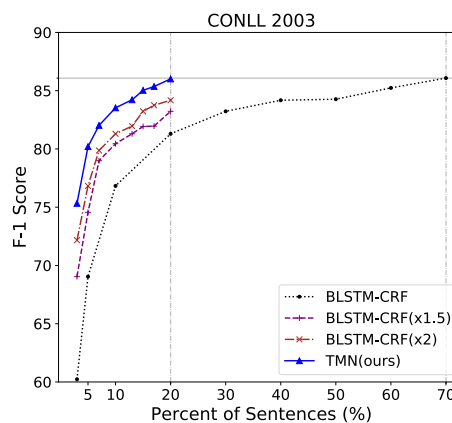

Figure 3: **The cost-effectiveness study.**

fline simulation we argue that annotating both triggers and entities are about 1.5 times ("BLSTM-CRF (x1.5)") longer than only annotating entities. our offline simulation. In Figure 3, The x-axis for BLSTM-CRF means the number of sentences annotated with only entities, while for TMN means the number of sentences tagged with both entities and triggers. In order to reflect human annotators spending 1.5 to 2 times as long annotating triggers and entities as they spend annotating only entities, we stretch the x-axis for BLSTM-CRF. We can clearly see that the proposed TMN outperforms the BLSTM-CRF model by a large margin. Even if we consider the extreme case that tagging triggers requires twice the human effort ("BLSTM-CRF (x2)"), the TMN is still significantly more labor-efficient in terms of F1 scores.

5   Conclusion

We introduce "entity trigger" as a complementary annotation. We crowdsourced triggers on two mainstream datasets and will release them to the community, and proposed a novel framework TMN which can generalize to unseen sentences easily for tagging named entities.

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A Interpretibility

Figure 4 shows two examples illustrating that the trigger attention scores help the TMN model recognize entities. The training data has 'per day' as a trigger phrase for chemical-type entities, and this trigger matches the phrase 'once daily' in an unseen sentence during the inference phase of `TrigMatcher`. Similarly, in CoNLL03 the training data trigger phrase 'said it' matches with the phrase 'was quoted as saying' in an unlabeled sentence. These results not only support our argument that trigger-enhanced models such as TMN can effectively learn, but they also demonstrate that trigger-enhanced models can provide reasonable interpretation, something that lacks in other neural NER models.

B Related Work

Towards low-resource learning for NER, recent works have mainly focused on dictionary-based distantly supervision (Shang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019). These approaches create an external large dictionary of entities, and then regard hard-matched sentences as additional, noisy-labeled data for learning a NER model. Although these approaches largely reduce human efforts in annotating, the quality of matched sentences is highly dependent on the coverage of the dictionary and the quality of the corpus. The learned models tend to have a bias towards entities with similar surface forms as the ones in dictionary. Without further tuning under better supervision, these models have low recall (Cao et al., 2019). *Linking rules* (Safranchik et al., 2020) focuses on the votes on whether adjacent elements in the sequence belong to the same class. Unlike these works aiming to get rid of training data or human annotations, our work focuses on how to more cost-effectively utilize human efforts.

Another line of research which also aims to use human efforts more cost-effectively is active learning (Shen et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2019). This approach focuses on instance sampling and the human annotation UI, asking workers to annotate the most useful instances first. However, a recent study (Lowell et al., 2019) argues that actively annotated data barely helps when training new models. Transfer learning approaches (Lin and Lu, 2018) and aggregating multi-source supervision (Lan et al., 2020) are also studied for using less expensive supervision for NER, while these methods usually lack clear rationales to advise annotation process unlike the trigger annotations.

Inspired by recent advances in learning sentence classification tasks (e.g., relation extraction and sentiment classification) with explanations or human-written rules (Li et al., 2018; Hancock et al., 2018; Wang* et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020), we propose the concept of an "entity trigger" for the task of named entity recognition. These prior works primarily focused on sentence classification, in which the rules (parsed from natural language explanations) are usually continuous token sequences and there is a single label for each input sentence. The unique challenge in NER is that we have to deal with rules which are discontinuous token sequences and there may be multiple rules applied at the same time for an input instance. We address this problem in TMN by jointly learning trigger representations and creating a soft matching module that works in the inference time.

We argue that either dictionary-based distant supervision or active learning can be used in the context of trigger-enhanced NER learning via our framework. For example, one could create a dictionary using a high-quality corpus and then apply active learning by asking human annotators to annotate the triggers chosen by an active sampling algorithm designed for TMN. We believe our work sheds light on future research for more cost-effectively using human to learn NER models.

C Future Directions

We believe future directions with TriggerNER includes: 1) developing models for automatically extracting novel triggers, 2) transferring existing entity triggers to low-resource languages, and 3) improving trigger modeling with better structured inductive bias (e.g., OpenIE).

	BLSTM-CRF				TMN			TMN + SELF-TRAINING		
					CONLL 2003					
sent.	Precision	Recall	F1	**trig.**	Precision	Recall	F1	Precision	Recall	F1
5%	70.85	67.32	69.04	3%	76.36	74.33	75.33	80.36	75.18	77.68
10%	76.57	77.09	76.83	5%	81.28	79.16	80.2	81.96	81.18	81.57
20%	82.17	80.35	81.3	7%	82.93	81.13	82.02	82.92	81.94	82.43
30%	83.71	82.76	83.23	10%	84.47	82.61	83.53	84.47	82.61	83.53
40%	85.31	83.1	84.18	13%	84.76	83.69	84.22	84.64	84.01	84.33
50%	85.07	83.49	84.27	15%	85.61	84.45	85.03	86.53	84.26	85.38
60%	85.58	84.54	85.24	17%	85.25	85.46	85.36	86.42	84.63	85.52
70%	86.87	85.3	**86.08**	**20%**	86.04	85.98	**86.01**	87.09	85.91	**86.5**
					BC5CDR					
	BLSTM-CRF				TMN			TMN + SELF-TRAINING		
sent.	Precision	Recall	F1	**trig.**	Precision	Recall	F1	Precision	Recall	F1
5%	63.37	43.23	51.39	3%	66.47	57.11	61.44	65.23	59.18	62.06
10%	68.83	60.37	64.32	5%	69.17	73.31	66.11	68.02	66.76	67.38
20%	79.09	62.66	69.92	7%	64.81	69.82	67.22	69.87	66.03	67.9
30%	80.13	65.3	71.87	10%	71.89	69.57	70.71	69.75	72.75	71.22
40%	82.05	65.5	72.71	13%	73.36	70.44	71.87	75.11	69.31	72.1
50%	82.56	66.58	**73.71**	15%	70.91	72.89	71.89	71.23	73.31	72.26
60%	81.73	70.74	75.84	17%	75.67	70.6	73.05	77.47	70.47	73.97
70%	81.16	75.29	76.12	**20%**	77.47	70.47	**73.97**	75.23	73.83	**74.52**

Table 3: **Labor-efficiency study on BLSTM-CRF and TMN.** "sent." means the percentage of the sentences (labeled only with entity tags) we use for BLSTM-CRF, while "trig." denotes the percentage of the sentences (labeled with both entity tags and trigger tags) we use for TMN.
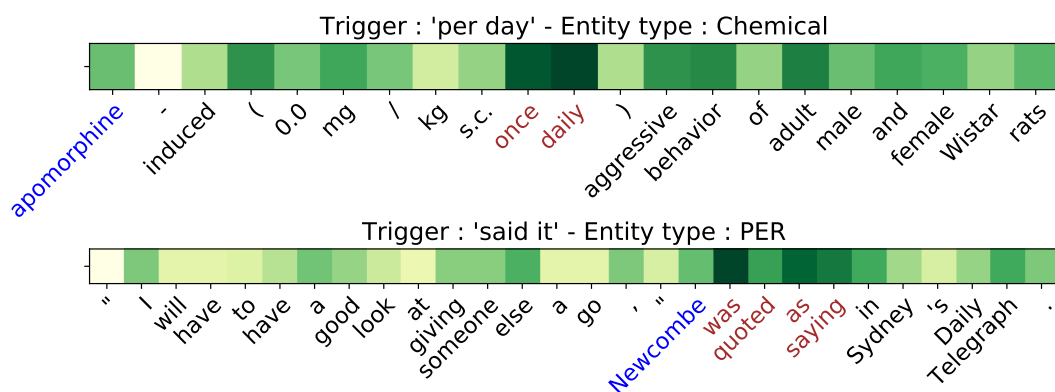

Figure 4: **Two case studies of trigger attention during inference.** The darker cells have higher attention weights.