Learning Fine-grained Relations from Chinese User Generated Categories

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Abstract

User generated categories (UGCs) are short texts that reflect how people describe and organize entities, expressing rich semantic relations implicitly. While most methods on UGC relation extraction are based on pattern matching in English circumstances, learning relations from Chinese UGCs poses different challenges due to the flexibility of expressions. In this paper, we present a weakly supervised learning framework to harvest relations from Chinese UGCs. We identify is-a relations via word embedding based projection and inference, extract non-taxonomic relations and their category patterns by graph mining. We conduct experiments on Chinese Wikipedia and achieve high accuracy, outperforming state-of-the-art methods.

1 Introduction

UGCs are descriptive phrases related to entities, frequently appearing in online encyclopedias and vertical websites. These texts are concise and informative, reflecting the way people organize and characterize entities (Xu et al., 2016a).

UGCs (especially Wikipedia categories) are important sources for knowledge harvesting. Previous approaches (Flati et al., 2014; Ponzetto and Strube, 2007; Ponzetto andNavigli, 2009) focus on inferring is-a relations between entities and UGCs for taxonomy construction. A few others extract multiple types of relations from Wikipedia categories (Nastase and Strube, 2008; Suchanek et al., 2007). These methods are mostly designed for English language by employing language-specific patterns or linguistic rules.

For Chinese, harvesting semantic relations from texts poses different challenges. There is no distinction between singular and plural forms and no word spaces in Chinese. Word orders can be arranged in multiple ways with very flexible expressions. As illustrated in Qiu and Zhang (2014); Chen et al. (2014), the research of relation extraction from Chinese texts makes less significant progress than the research for English. Although several approaches are proposed to construct Chinese taxonomies from Wikipedia categories (Li et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014), extracting fine-grained and multi-typed relations from UGCs still needs further study. This is because there exist very few high-quality lexical patterns for relation identification in Chinese UGCs (in contrast to Nastase and Strube (2008); Suchanek et al. (2007)). Hence this problem is similar to “open relation extraction” (Etzioni et al., 2011) from Chinese short texts, without pre-defined relation types.

Figure 1: An illustrative example with respect to “Tim Berners-Lee” in Chinese Wikipedia.

In this paper, we propose a weakly supervised learning framework to mine fine-grained and multiple-typed relations from Chinese UGCs. A simple example is illustrated in Figure 1. Inspired by Fu et al. (2014); Wang et al. (2017), is-a relations are extracted based on word embedding
based projection models. We further refine prediction results by collective inference and hypernym expansion. For non-taxonomic relations, relation types and corresponding category patterns are identified jointly based on graph clique mining. Finally, these mined “raw” relations are mapped to canonicalized relation triples. In our work, except for a set of heuristic rules, the proposed approach is weakly supervised without manual labeling.

In the experiments, given only 0.6M entities and their respective 2.4M categories in Chinese Wikipedia, our method extracts 1.52M relations with an overall accuracy of 93.6%. The experiments also show that our approach outperforms previous methods for both is-a and non-taxonomic relation extraction from Chinese UGCs. The extracted relations and the labeled test set are publicly available.

The rest of this paper is as follows. Section 2 summarizes related work. Details of our approach are described in Section 3 to Section 5, with experiments in Section 6. Finally, we conclude our paper and discuss the future work in Section 7.

2 Related Work

In this section, we overview the related work on relation extraction from UGCs.

2.1 Is-a Relation Extraction

Is-a relations are backbones in taxonomies. In YAGO (Suchanek et al., 2007), a Wikipedia category is regarded as conceptual if it matches the pattern “pre-modifier + head word + post-modifier”. WikiTaxonomy (Ponzetto and Strube, 2007) constructs a taxonomy from Wikipedia categories using multiple types of features. The taxonomy is reconstructed and improved in Ponzetto andNavigli (2009). Other similar projects use classifiers and rule based inference to predict is-a relations for taxonomy learning (Flati et al., 2014; Mahdisoltani et al., 2015; Nastase et al., 2010; Alfarone and Davis, 2015; Shwartz et al., 2016; Gupta et al., 2016). Since harvesting English is-a relations is not our focus, we do not elaborate here.

For Chinese, this task is more challenging because there are few category patterns that can be used to extract is-a relations from UGCs. Based on the word formation of Wikipedia categories, Li et al. (2015) propose a classification method to build a large Chinese taxonomy from Wikipedia.

A similar approach is presented in Lu et al. (2015). Besides encyclopedias, Fu et al. (2013) generate candidate hypernyms and employ an SVM-based ranking model to detect the most likely hypernym of an entity. These methods have relatively high precision but require careful feature engineering and a large amount of human work.

Another thread of related work is cross-lingual approaches, which use larger English knowledge sources to supervise Chinese is-a relation extraction. For example, Wang et al. (2014) propose a dynamic adaptive boosting model to learn taxonomic prediction functions for English and Chinese. Xu et al. (2016b) link Chinese entities with DBpedia types based on cross-lingual links between Chinese and English entities. Other approaches can be found in Wu et al. (2016); Mahdisoltani et al. (2015). These methods take advantages of languages with richer resources but are constrained by cross-lingual links.

To capture linguistic regularities of is-a relations, deep learning approaches map the vectors of entities to the vectors of their hypernyms. Fu et al. (2014) design piecewise linear projection models to learn Chinese semantic hierarchies based on word embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013). Wang and He (2016) improve this approach by adding an iterative update strategy and a pattern-based validation mechanism. Wang et al. (2017) design a transductive learning approach by considering the semantics of both is-a and not-is-a relations, linguistic rules and the unlabeled data jointly. In this work, we further propose a word embedding based model that consider the word formation of UGCs to improve the prediction results.

2.2 Non-taxonomic Relation Extraction

Unlike the case of is-a relations, the task of extracting non-taxonomic relations from UGCs has rarely been addressed. A possible cause is that harvesting relations from short texts is more challenging. The pioneer work Nastase and Strube (2008) extracts relations by lexical pattern matching and inference. Pasca (2017) studies how to decompose Wikipedia categories into attribute-value pairs. YAGO (Suchanek et al., 2007) uses regular expression based matching to harvest relations. While patterns in English are more regular, enumerating patterns for Chinese requires a large amount of human labor. In our work, we solve this problem by graph mining, which has high pre-
cision and requires minimal human intervention. Note that our work is also similar to open relation extraction (Etzioni et al., 2011) due to the unknown number of relation types. The difference is that our work focuses on UGCs which are very short phrases rather than sentences.

3 General Framework

In Wikipedia, each entity \( e \) is associated with a collection of UGCs \( \text{Cat}(e) \). We first learn a prediction model \( f(e,c) \) to distinguish is-a relations from not-is-a relations where \( c \in \text{Cat}(e) \), and extract all is-a relations (Section 4). For example, we can obtain is-a relations “(Tim Berners-Lee, is-a, Winner of Turing Award)”, “(Albert Einstein, is-a, Nobel Prize for Physics)”, etc. Finally, the extracted “raw” instances are mapped to canonicalized triples (Section 5.3). In this step, a relation predicate “win-prize” is defined for the pattern and may refers to a type of relation where “[E]” is a placeholder for entities. Candidate relation instances for such patterns are obtained by a graph clique mining algorithm (Section 5.2). The instances extracted based on the previous pattern are “(Tim Berners-Lee, Turing Award)”, “(Albert Einstein, Nobel Prize for Physics)”, etc. Finally, the extracted “raw” instances are mapped to canonicalized triples (Section 5.3). In this step, a relation predicate “win-prize” is defined for the pattern and these pairs are mapped to “win-prize” relations.

4 Mining Is-a Relations

In this section, we introduce how to learn \( f(e,c) \) and extract is-a relations from UGCs.

4.1 Training Data Generation

The training of \( f(e,c) \) requires positive and negative entity-category pairs. To avoid the time-consuming labeling process, we generate the training set automatically. The first part is borrowed from Fu et al. (2014), containing 1,391 positive pairs and 4,294 negative pairs. However, the number of positive pairs is not sufficient for our propose. We design a heuristic rule to generate more positive pairs from Wikipedia categories. We treat a pair \( (e,c) \) as positive if the following two conditions hold:

- The category \( c \) matches the pattern “pre-modifier + 的+ head word” or the head words of \( e \) and \( c \) are the same
- The head word of a category name is a noun and is not in a Chinese thematic lexicon extended from the dictionary used in Li et al. (2015), containing 184 thematic words (e.g., “军事(Military)”, “娱乐(Entertainment)”).

In total, we sample 5,000 pairs to add to our training set. The TP rate is 98.7%, estimated over 300 pairs, indicating the effectiveness of rules.

4.2 Projection-based Model Prediction

Except for the previous pattern, other Chinese is-a relations can not be directly extracted by lexical matching. Inspired by Wang et al. (2017), we employ projection models to learn the semantics of is-a and not-is-a relations.

A projection model is a linear model that maps the embedding vector of a word to the vector of another where the two words satisfy a particular relation (Fu et al., 2014). In Wikipedia, most category names are relatively long and fine-grained, making it difficult to learn the embeddings precisely. We find that given a pair \( (e,c) \), if the head word of category \( e \) is a valid hypernym of \( c \), so it is for \( e \) itself, e.g., “英格兰计算机科学家(CS scientist in England)” for “Tim Berners-Lee”. Denote \( \vec{v}(e) \) as the embedding vector of entity \( e \), with the dimensionality as \( n \). Let \( c_h \) be the head word of \( c \). For each pair in the positive training set \( (e,c) \in D^+ \), assume there is a positive projection model such that \( M^+ \vec{v}(e) + B^+ \approx \vec{v}(c_h) \) where \( M^+ \) is an \( n \times n \) projection matrix and \( B^+ \) is an \( n \times 1 \) bias vector. Similarly, for pairs in negative training set \( (e',c') \in D^- \), we learn a negative model \( M^- \vec{v}(e') + B^- \approx \vec{v}(c'_h) \). Note that we do not impose explicit connections between two models because the semantics of Chinese is-a and not-is-a relations are very complicated and difficult to model (Fu et al., 2014; Wang and He, 2016). In our work, we let the algorithms to learn representations of is-a/not-is-a relations.

This approach learns is-a and not-is-a relation representations implicitly and does not require deep NLP analysis on UGCs, which is suitable to deal with the flexible expressions in Chinese. In

Footnote 3: The head word of a category name is the root word in the dependency parsing tree. “的” is an auxiliary word in Chinese, usually appearing between adjectives and nouns.
the training phase, we aim to minimize the objective function for positive projection learning:

\[ J(M^+, B^+) = \sum_{(e, c) \in D^+} \| M^+ \tilde{v}(e) + B^+ - \tilde{v}(c_h) \|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| M^+ \|_F^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| B^+ \|_F^2 \]

where \( \lambda > 0 \) gives an additional Tikhonov smoothness effect on the projection matrices (Golub et al., 1999). For negative model, we have

\[ J(M^-, B^-) = \sum_{(e, c) \in D^-} \| M^- \tilde{v}(e) + B^- - \tilde{v}(c_h) \|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| M^- \|_F^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| B^- \|_F^2 \]

After model training, for an unlabeled pair \((e, c)\), if the category \(c\) is the correct hypernym of the entity \(e\), the vector \(\tilde{v}(c_h)\) will be close to \(M^+ \tilde{v}(e) + B^+\) and far away from \(M^- \tilde{v}(e) + B^-\). Denote \(d^+(e, c)\) and \(d^-(e, c)\) as:

\[ d^+(e, c) = \| M^+ \tilde{v}(e) + B^+ - \tilde{v}(c_h) \|_2 \]
\[ d^-(e, c) = \| M^- \tilde{v}(e) + B^- - \tilde{v}(c_h) \|_2 \]

The prediction score is calculated as follows:

\[ s(e, c) = \tanh(d^-(e, c) - d^+(e, c)) \]

where \(s(e, c) \in (-1, 1)\). High prediction score means a large probability of the existence of an is-a relation between \(e\) and \(c\).

### 4.3 Collective Prediction Refinement

As indicated in Fu et al. (2013); Levy et al. (2015), some categories naturally serve as “prototypical hypernyms”, regardless of the entities. To encode this assumption into our method, we refine the previous prediction results by collective inference.

Consider the category “伦敦人(Londoner)” in Figure 1, which can be literally translated as “伦敦(London)人(person)”. “人(person)” is the “prototypical hypernym” here. Other categories whose head words are “人(person)” such as “哥本哈根人(Copenhagen person⁴, people from Copenhagen)” are likely to be conceptual categories, too.

Denote \(H\) as the head word set of all Wikipedia UGCs. For each \(h \in H\), let \(D_h = \{(e, c)\}\) be the collection of unlabeled pairs (i.e., pairs not in the training set) where the head word of category \(c\) is \(h\). \(D_h^+\) is the collection of positive pairs with \(h\) as the head word of \(c\) in the training set (generated based on Section 4.1). We define the unnormalized global prediction score \(\tilde{g}(h)\) for each \(h \in H\):

\[ \tilde{g}(h) = \ln(1 + |D_h| + |D_h^+|) \frac{|D_h^+| + \sum_{(e, c) \in D_h} s(e, c)}{|D_h| + |D_h^+|} \]

In this formula, each unlabeled data instance \((e, c) \in D_h\) has the weight of \(s(e, c)\) and each training data instance \((e, c) \in D_h^+\) has the weight of 1. \(\tilde{g}(h)\) is the average prediction score for categories with the head word \(h\). \(\ln(1 + |D_h| + |D_h^+|)\) gives a larger impact to \(\tilde{g}(h)\) when the head word \(h\) appears more frequently in Wikipedia categories. This heuristic setting is inspired by transductive learning which takes both training and unlabeled data into consideration (Chapelle et al., 2006). It is also similar to the prior probability feature (Fu et al., 2013).

We normalize the global prediction score \(g(h)\) as follows:

\[ g(h) = \frac{\tilde{g}(h)}{\max_{h' \in H} [\tilde{g}(h')] } \]

The prediction function \(f(e, c)\) for the entity \(e\) and the category \(c\) with the head word \(h\) is defined in a combination of \(s(e, c)\) and \(g(h)\):

\[ f(e, c) = \beta s(e, c) + (1 - \beta) g(h) \]

where \(\beta \in (0, 1)\) is a tuning parameter that controls the relative importance of the two scores.

We predict there is an is-a relation between entity \(e\) and category \(c \in Cat(e)\) if at least one of the two conditions holds:

- \((e, c)\) meets the two conditions in Section 4.1.
- \(f(e, c) > \theta\) where \(\theta\) is a threshold.

Finally, we regard \(c_h\) as a valid hypernym of \(e\) if \(c\) is predicted as a hypernym of \(e\) and \(c_h\) is also a Wikipedia concept. This step (called hypernym expansion) increases the number of hypernyms and hence the number of is-a relations.⁵

### 5 Mining Non-taxonomic Relations

In this section, we present our approach to extract non-taxonomic relations from Wikipedia UGCs.

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⁴Literal translation.

⁵We do not extract all the entity-head word pairs \((e, c_h)\) as is-a relations because word segmentation, tagging and parsing errors may occur when we extract head words by NLP tools. We observe that if \(c_h\) is also a Wikipedia concept, the head word extraction process is probably correct.
5.1 Single-pass Category Pattern Miner

This module automatically learns important category patterns that appear frequently in Wikipedia and have a probability to represent certain semantic relations. Formally, a category pattern \( p \) is an ordered sequence of common words and entity tags. For example, the pattern of the category “图灵奖获得者(Winner of Turing Award)” is “[E]获得者(Winner of [E])”. Define \( R_p = \{(e_p, c_p)\} \) as the collection of entity pairs such that in Wikipedia page \( e_p \), a category containing \( c_p \) matches the pattern \( p \). \( c_p \) is in the place of “[E]”. Consider the previous example. In Wikipedia page “Tim Berners-Lee”, there is a category “Winner of Turing Award” that matches the pattern “Winner of [E]”. “Turing Award” is the “[E]” here. Thus we have \( e_p = “Tim Berners-Lee” \) and \( c_p = “Turing Award” \) as an entity pair in \( R_p \). We can see that \( R_p \) is the collection of all candidate relation instances that may have the relation that \( p \) represents.

Let \( L_p \) be the number of common words in pattern \( p \). We define the support of the pattern \( supp(p) \) as follows:

\[
supp(p) = |R_p| \cdot \ln(1 + L_p)
\]

where \( \ln(1 + L_p) \) gives larger support values to longer patterns because longer patterns tend to be more specific and may contain richer semantics.

In the implementation, we employ a CRF-based Chinese NER tagger (Qiu et al., 2013) and a dictionary consisting of all Wikipedia entities to recognize the entities and obtain these patterns. This step processes all the categories within a single pass and calculates their support values. It keeps top-k highest support patterns as the input of the next step, together with the matched entity pairs.

5.2 Graph-based Raw Relation Extractor

In this part, for each top-k highest support pattern \( p \), we select a subset of pairs \( R^*_p \) from \( R_p \) as seed relation instances for an underlying relation that the pattern \( p \) represent. After that, we filter out low quality patterns and extract relation instances \( R_q \) from \( R_p \) as the final result.

5.2.1 Seed Relation Instance Extraction

To select seed relation instances \( R^*_p \), we propose an unsupervised graph mining approach. Let \( G_p = (C_p, L_p, W_p) \) be a weighted, undirected graph where \( C_p, L_p \) and \( W_p \) denote vertices, edges and edge weights, respectively. The vertices correspond to the matched entities in categories for pattern \( p \), i.e., \( C_p = \{c_p | (e_p, c_p) \in R_p \} \). The edge weights reflect the semantic similarities among entities in \( C_p \). Because the link structure in Chinese Wikipedia is relatively sparse (Wang et al., 2016), we estimate the similarity between entities \( c_p \) and \( c'_p \) semantically as follows:

\[
sim(c_p, c'_p) = \frac{\sum_{c \in \text{Cat}(c_p)} \sum_{c' \in \text{Cat}(c'_p)} \cos(\|\vec{v}(c), \vec{v}(c')\|)}{|\text{Cat}(c_p)| \cdot |\text{Cat}(c'_p)|}
\]

where \( \cos(\cdot) \) is a cosine function to compute the similarity of two words in the embedding space.

Given a similarity threshold \( \tau \), if \( \sim(c_p, c'_p) > \tau \), we have \( (c_p, c'_p) \in L_p \) and \( w(c_p, c'_p) = \sim(c_p, c'_p) \). In this way, entities in \( C_p \) are interconnected if they are similar in semantics.

In this paper, we model the problem of mining \( R^*_p \) from \( R_p \) as a Maximum Edge Weight Clique Problem (MEWCP) (Alidaee et al., 2007), which detects a maximum edge weight clique \( C^* \) from \( C_p \) in \( R_p \) to form \( R^*_p \). Recall that in an undirected graph with edge weights, a maximum edge weight clique is a clique in which the sum of edge weights in the clique is the largest among all the cliques.

To produce a solution for MEWCP, several algorithms have been proposed in the optimization research community, e.g., unconstrained quadratic programming (Alidaee et al., 2007) and the branch-and-cut algorithm (Sørensen, 2004). However, they suffer from high computational complexity due to the NP-Hardness of the problem (Alidaee et al., 2007). In this paper, we introduce an approximate algorithm based on Monte Carlo methods. The general procedure is shown in Algorithm 1. It starts with an empty graph \( G^*_p \) to store the clique. In each iteration, it selects an edge \( (c_p, c'_p) \) from \( R^*_p \) with the probability proportional to its weight \( w(c_p, c'_p) \). After a particular edge \( (c_p, c'_p) \) is chosen, the algorithm adds the edge to \( G^*_p \), and removes the edge and other edges that do not connect with any nodes in \( C^*_p \) from \( G^*_p \). This process iterates until no more edges in \( G^*_p \) can be added to \( C^*_p \). Thus, the vertices in \( G^*_p \) form the desired clique \( C^*_p \).

Because it is a random, approximate algorithm, the average runtime complexity depends on the input graph structure. We can see that the worst-case runtime complexity is \( O(|L_p|^2) \). We run it \( k \)
Algorithm 1 Algorithm for MEWCP

Input: Graph $G_p = (C_p, L_p, W_p)$.
Output: Maximum edge weight clique $C^*_p$.

Initialize temp graph $G^*_p = (C^*_p, L^*_p)$ with $C^*_p = \emptyset$ and $L^*_p = \emptyset$;
while $L_p \neq \emptyset$ do
  Sample $(c_p, c'_p)$ from $L_p$ with prob $w(c_p, c'_p)$;
  $C_p = C_p \setminus \{c_p, c'_p\}$, $C^*_p = C^*_p \cup \{c_p, c'_p\}$;
  $L_p = L_p \setminus \{(c_p, c'_p)\}$, $L^*_p = L^*_p \cup \{(c_p, c'_p)\}$;
  for each $(\tilde{c}_p, \tilde{c'}_p) \in L_p$ do
    if $\tilde{c}_p \notin C^*_p$ and $\tilde{c'}_p \notin C^*_p$ then
      $C_p = C_p \setminus \{\tilde{c}_p, \tilde{c'}_p\}$;
      $L_p = L_p \setminus \{\tilde{c}_p, \tilde{c'}_p\}$;
    end if
  end for
end while
return Maximum edge weight clique $C^*_p$;

5.2.2 Relation Extraction and Filtering

After the seed relation instances $R^*_p$ are detected, we employ a confidence score to quantify the quality of pattern $p$. Intuitively, if pattern $p$ represents entity pairs with the same clear semantic relation, the size of $R^*_p$ and the sum of edge weights in $C^*_p$ will be sufficiently large. Here, we define the confidence score of pattern $p$ as follows:

$$
conf(p) = \frac{\ln(1 + |R^*_p|)}{|R^*_p| \cdot (|R^*_p| - 1)} \sum_{c_p, c'_p \in C^*_p, c_p \neq c'_p} \text{sim}(c_p, c'_p)
$$

Based on the formula, patterns with low confidence scores can be filtered. For the remaining patterns, given each $(c_p, c'_p) \in R_p$, we add it to the final extracted relation instance collection $R^*_p$ if $(c_p, c'_p) \in R^*_p$ or it is similar enough to entity pairs in $R^*_p$. Denote $\gamma$ as a parameter that controls the precision-recall trade-off. The criteria is:

$$
\frac{\sum_{c'_p \in C^*_p} \text{sim}(c_p, c'_p)}{|C^*_p|} \geq \frac{\gamma \sum_{c''_p \in C^*_p, c''_p \neq c'_p} \text{sim}(c'_p, c''_p)}{|R^*_p| \cdot (|R^*_p| - 1)}
$$

In general, our method detects most probably correct pairs as “seeds” and extract other pairs that are similar enough to seeds. Because it is difficult to ensure high precision for short text relation extraction, we do not use iterative extraction method to avoid “semantic drift” (Carlson et al., 2010).

5.3 Relation Mapping

The final step is to map $R^*_p$ to relation triples with a proper relation predicate. Based on category patterns, we have three types of mappings:

Direct Verbal Mapping If the head word of the pattern is a verb, we can use it as the relation predicate. For example, in “[E]获奖([E] winner)”, “获奖(award)” is expressed as a verb in Chinese and is taken as a predicate.

Direct Non-verbal Mapping If the category pattern does not contain a verb but expresses a semantic relation by one/many non-verbs, we define the relation predicate and map the entity pairs to relation triples by logical rules. For example, in the pattern “[E]获得者([E] winner)’, “获得者(winner)” is a noun that indicates the “得奖(win-prize)” relation.

Indirect Mapping Similar to Suchanek et al. (2007), a few patterns do not describe relations between entity pairs, but should be mapped to other relations indirectly. In “[E]军事([E] military)”, it indicates that the entity is related to the topic “军事(military)”. Thus, we define a new relation predicate “话题(topic-of)” and establish the relations between entities and “军事(military)”.

As seen, the only manual work in our approach is to define relation predicates for direct non-verbal mappings and indirect mappings. In our work, such logical mapping rules are required for only a couple of relation types. Therefore, the proposed approach needs very minimal human work.

6 Experiments

In this section, we conduct experiments to evaluate our method and compare it with state-of-the-art approaches. We also present the overall extraction performance to make the convincing conclusion.

There are also a few is-a relations that are generated by indirect mapping. For example, the pattern “[E]单曲([E] digital single)” infers that the entity that is associated with the category is a song. However, most of the cases are related to non-taxonomic relations.
6.1 Data Source and Experimental Settings

The data source is downloaded from the Chinese Wikipedia dump of the version January 20th, 2017. Because some Wikipedia pages are not related to entities, we use heuristic rules to filter out disambiguation, redirect, template and list pages. Finally, we obtain 0.6M entities and 2.4M entity-category pairs. The open-source toolkit FudanNLP (Qiu et al., 2013) is employed for Chinese NLP analysis. The word embeddings are trained via a Skip-gram model using a large corpus from Wang and He (2016) and set to 100 dimensions.

6.2 Is-a Relation Extraction

Test Set Generation We randomly select 2,000 entity-category pairs and ask multiple human annotators to label the relations (i.e., is-a and not-is-a). We discard all the pairs that have inconsistent labels across different annotators and obtain a dataset of 1,788 pairs. 30% of the data are used for parameter tuning and the rest for testing. The dataset is publicly available for research.9

Parameter Analysis Two parameters are required to be tuned in our method, i.e., $\beta$ and $\theta$. We vary the value of $\beta$ from 0.1 to 0.9. With a fixed value of $\beta$, we change the value of $\theta$ to achieve the best performance over the development set. Figure 2(a) illustrates the maximum F-measure. Experimental results show our method is generally not very sensitive to the selection of $\beta$. When $\beta = 0.7$, it has the highest performance, indicating a good balance between the local and global prediction scores. Additionally, Figure 2(b) illustrates the precision-recall curve with respect to the change of $\theta$ when $\beta = 0.7$. The highest F-measure is achieved when we set $\theta = 0.05$.

Comparative Study We set up the following strong baselines to compare our method with state-of-the-art approaches. The experimental results are shown in Table 1. To represent entity-category pairs with word embedding based features, we implement several state-of-the-art methods: the concat model $\bar{v}(e) \oplus \bar{v}(c_h)$, the sum model $\bar{v}(e) + \bar{v}(c_h)$ and the diff model $\bar{v}(e) - \bar{v}(c_h)$ (Baroni et al., 2012; Roller et al., 2014; Mirza and Tonelli, 2016). $l_2$-regularized logistic regression is trained to make the prediction due to the high performance in previous research. This approach achieves the highest F-measure of 72.6%. We also test the piecewise projection model proposed in Wang and He (2016) over Chinese Wikipedia, which is state-of-the-art for predicting is-a relations between Chinese words. It has a slight improvement in performance. As seen, our method without the hypernym expansion step (i.e., “Our Method (w/o Exp)” in Table 1) increases the F-measure by 13.2% (with $p < 0.01$) compared to Wang and He (2016). The full implementation of our method has the F-measure of 89.0%, which shows the effectiveness of our approach.

Overall Results In total, we extract 1.17M is-a relations from Chinese Wikipedia categories, consisting 412K entities and 113K distinct categories. In Figure 3(a), we present how many entities have a particular number of hypernyms. In average, each entity has 2.84 hypernyms. We can see that this distribution fits in a semi-log line, defined by

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9http://download.wikipedia.com/zhwiki/20170120/

9There exist a few public datasets for Chinese is-a relations (Fu et al., 2013, 2014). But they aim to learn is-a relations between short concepts/terms and are not suitable for evaluating our work. We focus on understanding (relatively long) categories for entities.
Figure 3: Distributional analysis on is-a relations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Pattern</th>
<th>Relation Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[E]校友(Alumni)</td>
<td>毕业(graduated-from)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[E]队教练(Coach)</td>
<td>执教(coach-team)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[E]省市镇(City/Town in Province)</td>
<td>位于(located-in)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[E]获得者(Winner)</td>
<td>获奖(win-prize)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Manually defined relation mappings.

a log scale on the y-axis and a linear scale on the x-axis. Similarly, each hypernym has 10.35 entities in average, with the distribution illustrated in Figure 3(b). The number of entities per hypernym follows the power-law distribution with a long tail.

6.3 Non-taxonomic Relation Extraction

Detailed Steps We first run the single-pass pattern miner and extract the category patterns with top-500 highest support values. This is because only fewer than 20 entities are matched for the rest of the patterns. For each of these patterns, we fix \( \tau = 0.7 \) and run the MEWCP algorithm three times to ensure the high reliability of the seed relation instances, and select top-250 most confident category patterns. To determine the value of \( \gamma \), we carry out a preliminary experiment, which samples 200 entity pairs to estimate the accuracy. It shows that even we set \( \gamma \) to a relatively low value (i.e., 0.2), the accuracy is over 90%. Finally, 26 relation types are created automatically based on direct verb mapping. We design the mapping rules and relation predicates for the remaining 16 relation types manually, with examples in Table 2.

Evaluation To evaluate the correctness of extracted relations, we carry out two experimental tests: accuracy test and coverage test. Following Suchanek et al. (2007), in the accuracy test, we randomly sample 200 relation instances for each relation type and ask human annotators to label. We discard the results if human annotators disagree. The coverage test is to determine whether the extracted relations already exist in Chinese knowledge bases. Low coverage score means these relations are not present in existing Chinese knowledge bases. In the experiments, we take CN-DBpedia V2.0 (Xu et al., 2017) as the ground truth knowledge base. Up till February 2017, it contains 41M explicit semantic relations of 9M entities, excluding entity summaries, synonyms, etc. We use the CN-DBpedia API\(^{10}\) to obtain relations for each entity and report the coverage of relation \( r \) as:

\[
\text{cov}(r) = \frac{\#\text{Matched extractions in CN-DBpedia}}{\#\text{Correct extractions generated by our approach}}
\]

For fair comparison, because relations in different knowledge base systems may express differently, we ask human annotators to determine whether the relations extracted by our approach and CN-DBpedia match or not. In Table 3, we present the size, accuracy and coverage values of eight non-taxonomic relations, each with over three thousand relation instances.

From the experimental results, we can see that the accuracy is over 90% for all the eight relations. Especially the accuracy values of some relations are over 98% or even equal to 100%. This means it is reliable to extract relations from Chinese UGCs based category pattern mining. The results of the coverage tests present a large variance among different relations. While some relations such as “born-in” have a relatively high coverage in CN-DBpedia, other relation instances that we extract are rarely present in the knowledge base. Overall, the average coverage is approximately 21.1%. This means although the Chinese knowledge base is relatively large in size, it is far from complete. Furthermore, most relations in Chinese knowledge bases are extracted from infoboxes, in the form of attribute-value pairs (Fang et al., 2016; Niu et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013). Thus, the knowledge harvested from UGCs can be an important supplementary for these systems.

\(^{10}\)http://knowledgeworks.cn:20313/cndbpedia/api/entityAVP
Table 3: Size, accuracy and coverage values of eight extracted relation types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>毕业(graduated-from)</td>
<td>44,118</td>
<td>98.0%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>位于(located-in)</td>
<td>29,460</td>
<td>97.2%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>建立(established-in)</td>
<td>20,154</td>
<td>95.0%</td>
<td>31.5%</td>
<td>出生(born-in)</td>
<td>11,671</td>
<td>98.3%</td>
<td>41.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>成员(member-of)</td>
<td>8,445</td>
<td>96.0%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>启用(open-in)</td>
<td>8,956</td>
<td>98.2%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>立世(died-in)</td>
<td>5,597</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>得奖(win-prize)</td>
<td>3,262</td>
<td>90.0%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Category patterns that we design for CN-WikiRe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Category Pattern</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Member pattern</td>
<td>[E]</td>
<td>成员/总统</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member/President of [E]</td>
<td>Member of Chinese Academy of Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb-NP pattern</td>
<td>[E]+Verb+(的)+Noun Phrase</td>
<td>1990年建立的组织</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb pattern</td>
<td>[E]+Verb</td>
<td>Organization founded in 1990</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Currently, we only focus on Chinese Wikipedia categories. We will study how to extend our approach to UGCs for other knowledge sources, especially domain-specific sources in the future.

**Overall Results**  In summary, our approach extracts 1.52M relations, including 1.17M is-a relations and 0.36M others. The estimated accuracy values of is-a, other and all relations are 92.2%, 97.4% and 93.6% respectively. The accuracy values are estimated over random samples of 500 relations.

**Comparison**  Harvesting non-taxonomic relations from UGCs is non-trivial with no standard evaluation frameworks available. Furthermore, the significant difference between English and Chinese makes it difficult to compare our method with similar research. Pasca (2017) focuses on modifier in categories and is not directly comparable to our work. In YAGO (Suchanek et al., 2007), relations in categories are extracted by handcrafting regular expressions. They extract nine non-taxonomic relations, with accuracy values of around 90%-98%. Our approach avoids the manual work to a large extent and harvests more types of relations with a comparable accuracy.

Next we compare our work with Nastase and Strube (2008), which heavily relies on prepositions in patterns such as “Verb in/of” and “Member/CEO/President of” to discover relations. In Chinese, prepositions are usually expressed implicitly and hence these patterns are not directly applicable. We implement a variant for Chinese (denoted as CN-WikiRe). The patterns that we used in CN-WikiRe are shown in Table 4. In the experiments, we extract 165,048 non-taxonomic relation instances using CN-WikiRe, containing 631 relation types. Although the number of relation types may seem large at the first glance, only 14% of them are actual relation predicates, with the rest being either incorrect or uninformative. The reasons are twofold: i) word segmentation and POS tagging for Chinese short texts still suffer from low accuracy and ii) not all verbs extracted by CN-WikiRe can serve as relation predicates (e.g., “传导(transmit)”,”“缩小(shrink)”). We sample 500 relations from the collection where the extracted verbs are labeled as real relation predicates. The accuracy is 58.6%, much lower than our method. Furthermore, the partially explicit and implicit patterns (see (Nastase and Strube, 2008)) do not have their counterparts in Chinese. Therefore, our method is superior to existing systems.

7 Conclusion and Future Work

We propose a weakly supervised framework to extract relations from Chinese UGCs. For is-a relations, we introduce a word embedding based method and refine prediction results using collective inference. To extract non-taxonomic relations, we design a graph mining technique to harvest relation types and category patterns with minimal human supervision. Future work includes: i) improving our work for short text knowledge extraction and ii) designing a general framework for cross-lingual UGC relation extraction.

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