

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

Bill Yuchen Lin^{†*} Dong-Ho Lee^{†*} Ming Shen[†] Ryan Moreno[†]
Xiao Huang[†] Prashant Shiralkar[‡] Xiang Ren[†]

{yuchen.lin, dongho.lee, shenming, morenor}@usc.edu

huan183@usc.edu, shiralp@amazon.com, xiangren@usc.edu

[†]University of Southern California [‡] Amazon

Abstract

Training neural models for named entity recognition (NER) in a new domain often requires additional human annotations (e.g., tens of thousands of labeled instances) 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. Our proposed model, named *Trigger Matching Network*, jointly learns trigger representations and soft matching module with self-attention such that can generalize to unseen sentences easily for tagging. Experiments show that the framework is significantly more cost-effective such that using 20% of the trigger-annotated sentences can result in a comparable performance of conventional supervised approaches using 70% training data. We publicly release the collected entity triggers and our code¹.

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, 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 viewing a sentence, selecting token spans as mentions of entities, and labeling the spans with their entity types. However, such annotation process provides limited supervision per example. Consequently, to train a high-performance model, it is necessary to collect a large amount of annotations. Given the effort annotators have already spent analysing sentences and recognizing entities, *how can we obtain extra supervision from these entity annotations?*

A human’s recognition of an unlabeled entity usually depends on cue words or phrases in the sentence. For instance, we could infer that ‘Kasdfrcxzv’ is likely to be a location entity in the sentence “Tom traveled a lot last year in Kasdfrcxzv.” We recognize this entity because of the cue phrase “*travel ... in,*” which indicates there should be a location entity after the word ‘in’. These cue phrases not only explain the recognition process, but can also help the model to learn and generalize faster. We call such entity-associated rationale phrases “entity triggers.”

Specially, we define an “*entity trigger*” (or 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

*The first two authors contributed equally.

¹<http://github.com/INK-USC/TriggerNER>

²Note that a trigger can be a discontinuous phrase.

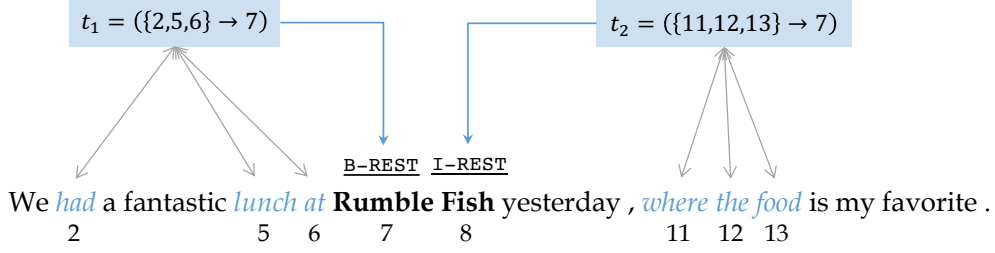


Figure 1: We show two individual **entity triggers**: t_1 (“had ... lunch at”) and t_2 (“where the food”). Both are associated to the same entity mention “Rumble Fish” (starting from 7th token) which is typed as RESTaurant

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.

We argue the benefits of supervising models using a combination of entity triggers and standard entity annotations. 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 models 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. Annotating triggers in addition to entities is not laborious since annotators have already read the sentences and analysed the entities. Thus, we hypothesize that using triggers as additional supervision is a more cost-effective way to train models.

We crowd-sourced 14,708 triggers on two well-studied NER datasets to study the usefulness of entity triggers. We propose a novel framework named Trigger Matching Network (TMN). Because it exploits triggers, TMN is more powerful and cost-effective than standard approaches. The TMN framework consists of three components: 1) a trigger encoder, 2) a semantic trigger matching module, and 3) an entity tagger. Our first learning stage jointly trains a trigger classifier and optimize a contrastive loss based on attention mechanism. We then learn a sequence tagger based on trigger-enhanced attention as queries to incorporate trigger information such that we can also exploit existing triggers for generalizing to unseen sentences.

Our contributions in this paper are as follows:

- We introduce the concept of “entity triggers,” a novel form of explanatory annotation for named entity recognition prob-

lems. We crowd-source and publicly release 14k annotated entity triggers on two popular datasets: *CoNLL03* (generic domain), *BC5CDR* (biomedical domain).

- We propose a novel learning framework, named Trigger Matching Network, which encodes entity triggers and softly grounds them on unlabeled sentences to increase the effectiveness of the base entity tagger (Section 3).
- Experimental results (Section 4) show that the proposed trigger-based framework is significantly more cost-effective. The TMN uses 20% of the trigger-annotated sentences from the original CoNLL03 dataset, while achieving a comparable performance to the conventional model using 70% of the annotated sentences.

2 Problem Formulation

We consider the problem of how to cost-effectively learn a model for NER using entity triggers. In this 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 $\mathbf{x} = [x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(n)}]$ denote a sentence in the labeled training corpus \mathcal{D}_L . Each labeled sentence has a NER-tag sequence $\mathbf{y} = [y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \dots, y^{(n)}]$, where $y^{(i)} \in \mathcal{Y}$ and \mathcal{Y} can be $\{O, B-PER, I-PER, B-LOC, I-LOC, \dots\}$. The possible tags come from a BIO or BIOES tagging schema for segmenting and typing entity tokens. 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, $t = (\{w_1, w_2, \dots\} \rightarrow e)$, where e and w_i are integers in the range of $[1, |\mathbf{x}|]$. For instance, in the example shown in Figure 1, the trigger “*had ... lunch at*” can be represented as a trigger $t_1 = (\{2, 5, 6\} \rightarrow 7)$, because this trigger specifies the entity starting at index 7, “*Rumble*”, and it contains a set of words with indices: “*had*” (2), “*lunch*” (5), and “*at*” (6). Similarly, we can represent the second trigger “*where the food*” as $t_2 = (\{11, 12, 13\} \rightarrow 7)$. Thus, we have $T(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \{t_1, t_2\}$ for this sentence.

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 in this paper 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 . We propose a more cost-effective learning method for NER by using triggers as additional supervision.

3 Trigger Matching Networks

We now present our framework for a more cost-effective learning method for NER using triggers. We assume that we have collected entity triggers (the trigger collection process is discussed in Section 4.1). Our intuition is to treat triggers as soft templates such that new sentences can be matched with these triggers via their deep semantic relatedness in inference time. To achieve this, we need a trainable way to learn trigger representations (i.e., *trigger vectors*). Given trigger vectors, we can train a model to label each token in the unlabeled sentences with a NER tag using the trigger vectors.

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. Figure 2 shows this pipeline. We introduce the inference in Section 3.3.

3.1 Trigger Encoding & Semantic Matching

Learning trigger representations and semantically matching them with sentences are inseparable tasks. Desired trigger vectors capture the seman-

tics in a shared embedding space with token hidden states, such that sentences and triggers can be semantically matched. Recall the example we discussed in Sec. 1, “*enjoyed a great dinner at*” versus “*had ... lunch at*.” Learning an attention-based matching module between entity triggers and sentences is necessary so that triggers and sentences can be semantically matched. Therefore, in the first stage, we propose to jointly train the trigger encoder (TrigEncoder) and the attention-based trigger matching module (TrigMatcher) using a shared embedding space.

Specifically, for a sentence \mathbf{x} with multiple entities $\{e_1, e_2, \dots\}$, for each entity e_i we assume that there is a set of triggers $T_i = \{t_1^{(i)}, t_2^{(i)}, \dots\}$ without loss of generality. To enable more efficient batch-based training, we reform 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 vectors³ 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:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{a}_{sent} &= \text{SoftMax}(W_2 \tanh(W_1 \mathbf{H}^T)) \\ \mathbf{g}_s &= \vec{a}_{sent} \mathbf{H} \\ \vec{a}_{trig} &= \text{SoftMax}(W_2 \tanh(W_1 \mathbf{Z}^T)) \\ \mathbf{g}_t &= \vec{a}_{trig} \mathbf{Z} \end{aligned}$$

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.

³Here, by “word vectors” we mean the concatenation of external GloVe (Pennington et al., 2014) word embeddings and char-level word representations from a trainable CNN network (Ma and Hovy, 2016).

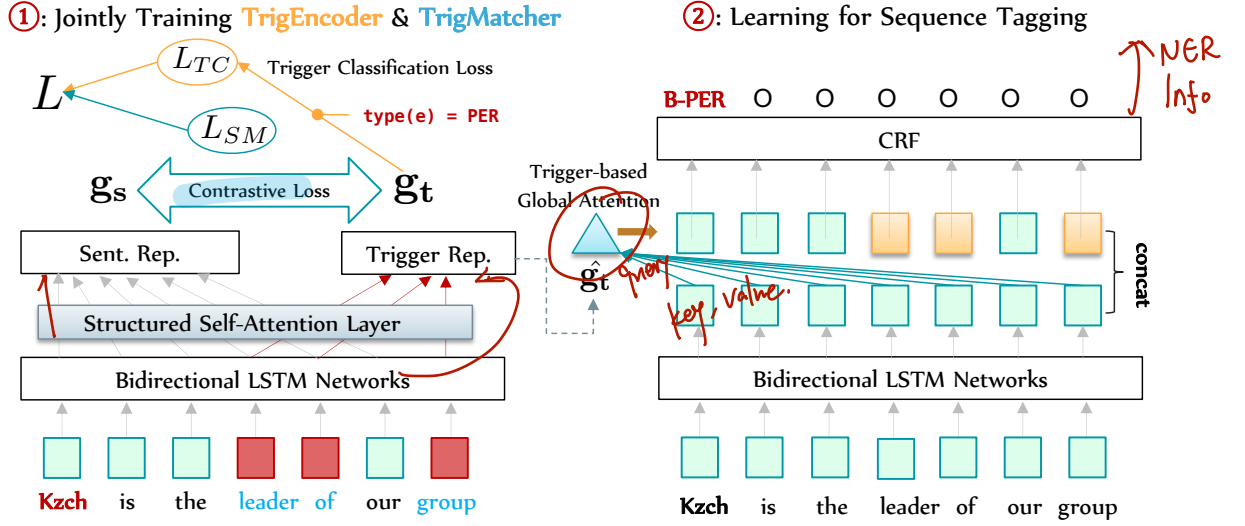


Figure 2: **Two-stage training of the Trigger Matching Network.** We first jointly train the TrigEncoder (via trigger classification) and the TrigMatcher (via contrastive loss). Then, we reuse the training data trigger vectors as attention queries in the SeqTagger.

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:

$$L_{TC} = - \sum \log P(\text{type}(e) | \mathbf{g}_t; \theta_{TC}).$$

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 randomly mix the triggers and sentences so that we have negative examples (i.e., mismatches) 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 the soft matching is defined as follows, where $\mathbb{1}_{\text{matched}}$ is 1 if the trigger was originally in this sentence and 0 if they are not:

$$\begin{aligned} d &= \|\mathbf{g}_s - \mathbf{g}_t\|_2 \\ L_{SM} &= (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\text{matched}}) \frac{1}{2} (d)^2 \\ &\quad + \mathbb{1}_{\text{matched}} \frac{1}{2} \{\max(0, m - d)\}^2 \end{aligned}$$

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 TrigEncoder and TrigMatcher modules is the same BLSTM we 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 $\hat{\mathbf{g}}_t$ 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}' .

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\alpha} &= \text{SoftMax} \left(\mathbf{v}^\top \tanh \left(U_1 \mathbf{H}^T + U_2 \hat{\mathbf{g}}_t^T \right)^\top \right) \\ \mathbf{H}' &= \tilde{\alpha} \mathbf{H} \end{aligned}$$

U_1 , U_2 , and \mathbf{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.

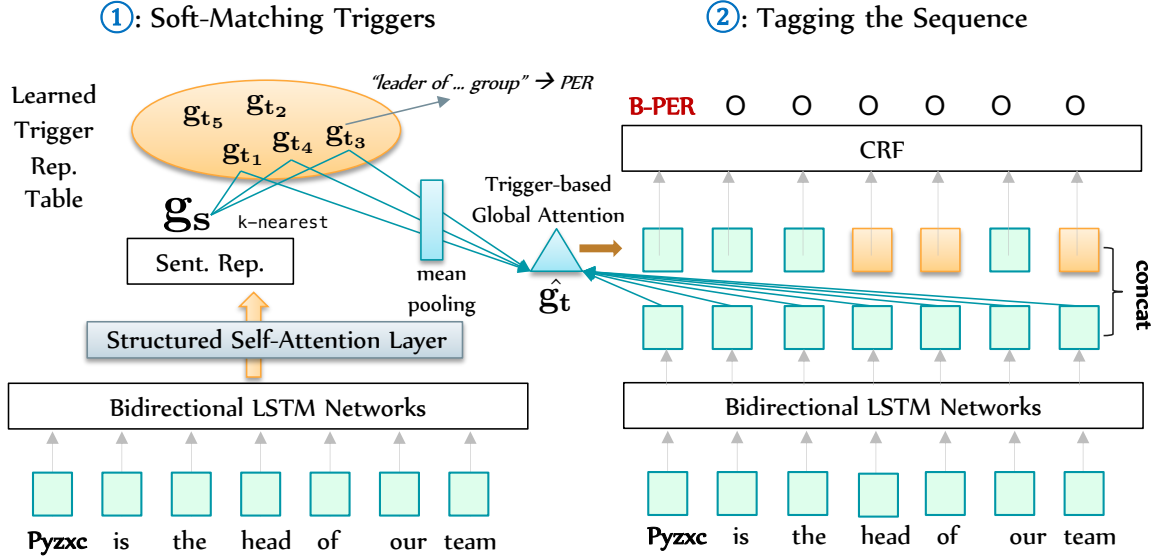


Figure 3: **The inference process of the TMN framework.** It uses the TrigMatcher to retrieve the k nearest triggers and average their trigger vectors as the attention query for the trained SeqTagger. Thus, an unseen cue phrase (e.g., “head of ... team”) can be matched with a seen trigger (e.g., “leader of ... group”).

3.3 Inference on Unlabeled Sentences

When inferring 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 $\hat{\mathbf{g}}_t$, the mean of the top k nearest semantically matched triggers, and use it as the attention query for SeqTagger, as we did in Section 3.2. Now, we can produce trigger-enhanced sequence predictions on unlabeled sentences, as shown in Figure 3.

4 Experiments

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

4.1 Annotating Entity Triggers as Explanatory Supervision

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 SageMaker⁴ 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 to be the same format as we discussed in 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. We release the 14k triggers to the community for future research in trigger-enhanced NER.

⁴An advanced version of Amazon Mechanical Turk. <https://aws.amazon.com/sagemaker/>

Dataset	Entity Type	# of Entities	# of Triggers	Avg. # of Triggers per Entity	Avg. Trigger Length
CONLL 2003	PER	1,608	3,445	2.14	1.41
	ORG	958	1,970	2.05	1.46
	MISC	787	2,057	2.61	1.4
	LOC	1,781	3,456	1.94	1.44
	Total	5,134	10,938	2.13	1.43
BC5CDR	DISEASE	906	2,130	2.35	2.00
	CHEMICAL	1,085	1,640	1.51	1.99
	Total	1,991	3,770	1.89	2.00

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

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 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

As we seek to study the cost-effectiveness of using triggers as additional supervision, we take different portions of the training data for both base model and TMN. From Table 2, we see that the TMN models using 20% of the training sentences with annotated triggers achieves comparable results to the BLST-CRF models using 50% (BC5CDR)~70% (CONLL03) of the training data. Even though the annotators spent slightly more effort per sentence when tagging triggers, the drastic improvement in model performance evidences the merit of our approach.

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., 2018), 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%.

Although it is hard to accurately study the time

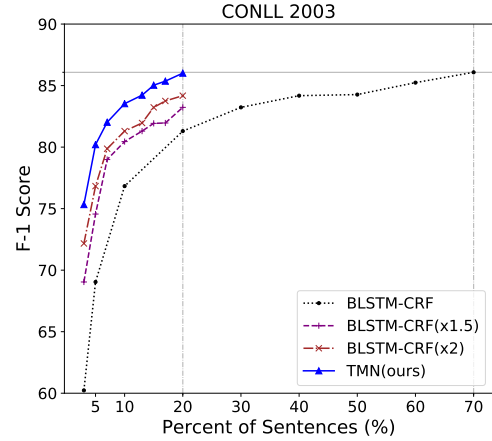


Figure 4: **The cost-effectiveness study.** We stretch the curve of BLSTM-CRF parallel to the x-axis by 1.5/2. Even if we assume annotating entity triggers cost 150/200% the amount of human effort as annotating entities only, TMN is still much more effective.

cost on the crowd-sourcing platform we use⁵, based on our offline 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 4, 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. For example, the line labeled (“BLSTM-CRF (x2)”) associates the actual F1 score for the model trained on 40% of the sentences with the x-axis value of 20%. We can clearly see that the proposed TMN outperforms the BLSTM-CRF model by a large margin. Even

⁵Annotators may suspend jobs and resume them without interaction with the crowd-sourcing platform.

CONLL 2003										
	BLSTM-CRF				TMN			TMN + SELF-TRAINING		
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 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.

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.

Figure 5 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.

5 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* (Safra 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., 2018; 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 (Lipton and Wallace, 2018) argues that actively annotated data barely helps when training

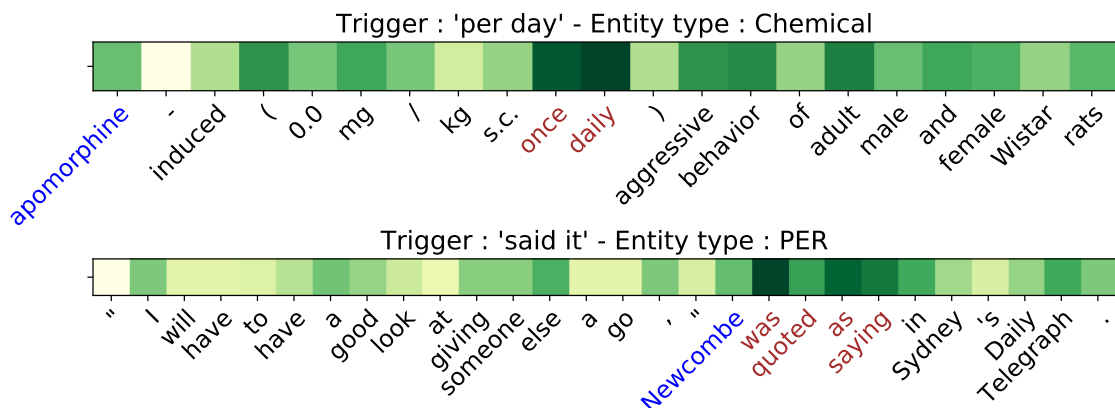


Figure 5: **Two case studies of trigger attention during inference.** The darker cells have higher attention weights.

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.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduce the concept of “entity trigger” as a complementary annotation. Individual entity annotations provide limited explicit supervision. Entity-trigger annotations add in complementary supervision signals and thus helps the model to learn and generalize more efficiently. We also crowdsourced triggers on two mainstream datasets and will release them to the community. We also propose a novel framework TMN which jointly learns trigger representations and soft matching module with self-attention such that can generalize to unseen sentences easily for tagging named entities. 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).

Acknowledgements

This research is based upon work supported in part by the Office of the Director of National Intelligence (ODNI), Intelligence Advanced Research Projects Activity (IARPA), via Contract No. 2019-19051600007, NSF SMA 18-29268, and Snap research gift. The views and conclusions contained herein are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as necessarily representing the official policies, either expressed or implied, of ODNI, IARPA, or the U.S. Government. We would like to thank all the collaborators in USC INK research lab for their constructive feedback on the work.

References

- Yixin Cao, Zikun Hu, Tat-Seng Chua, Zhiyuan Liu, and Heng Ji. 2019. Low-resource name tagging learned with weakly labeled data. In *EMNLP/IJCNLP*.
- Raia Hadsell, Sumit Chopra, and Yann LeCun. 2006. Dimensionality reduction by learning an invariant mapping. In *2006 IEEE Computer Society Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR'06)*, volume 2, pages 1735–1742. IEEE.
- Braden Hancock, Paroma Varma, Stephanie Wang, Martin Bringmann, Percy Liang, and Christopher Ré. 2018. Training classifiers with natural language explanations. *Proceedings of the conference. Association for Computational Linguistics. Meeting*, 2018:1884–1895.
- Guillaume Lample, Miguel Ballesteros, Sandeep Subramanian, Kazuya Kawakami, and Chris Dyer. 2016. Neural architectures for named entity recognition. In *Proc. of NAACL-HLT*.
- Ouyu Lan, Xiao Huang, Bill Yuchen Lin, He Jiang, Liyuan Liu, and Xiang Ren. 2020. Learning to contextually aggregate multi-source supervision for sequence labeling. In *Proc. of ACL*.
- Dong-Ho Lee, Rahul Khanna, Bill Yuchen Lin, Jamin Chen, Seyeon Lee, Qinyuan Ye, Elizabeth Boschee, Leonardo Neves, and Xiang Ren. 2020. Lean-life: A label-efficient annotation framework towards learning from explanation. In *Proc. of ACL (Demo)*.
- Jiao Li, Yueping Sun, Robin J. Johnson, Daniela Sciaky, Chih-Hsuan Wei, Robert Leaman, Allan Peter Davis, Carolyn J. Mattingly, Thomas C. Wieggers, and Zhiyong Lu. 2016. Biocreative v cdr task corpus: a resource for chemical disease relation extraction. *Database : the journal of biological databases and curation*, 2016.
- Shen Li, Hengru Xu, and Zhengdong Lu. 2018. Generalize symbolic knowledge with neural rule engine. *ArXiv*, abs/1808.10326.
- Bill Yuchen Lin, Dongho Lee, Frank F. Xu, Ouyu Lan, and Xiang Ren. 2019. Alpacatag: An active learning-based crowd annotation framework for sequence tagging. In *Proc. of ACL (Demo)*.
- Bill Yuchen Lin and Wei Lu. 2018. Neural adaptation layers for cross-domain named entity recognition. In *EMNLP*.
- Bill Yuchen Lin, Frank F. Xu, Zhiyi Luo, and Kenny Q. Zhu. 2017a. Multi-channel bilstm-crf model for emerging named entity recognition in social media. In *NUT@EMNLP*.
- Zhouhan Lin, Minwei Feng, Cicero Nogueira dos Santos, Mo Yu, Bing Xiang, Bowen Zhou, and Yoshua Bengio. 2017b. A structured self-attentive sentence embedding. In *Proc. of ICLR*.
- Zachary Chase Lipton and Byron C. Wallace. 2018. Practical obstacles to deploying active learning. In *EMNLP/IJCNLP*.
- Tianyu Liu, Jin-Ge Yao, and Chin-Yew Lin. 2019. Towards improving neural named entity recognition with gazetteers. In *ACL*.
- Minh-Thang Luong, Hieu Pham, and Christopher D Manning. 2015. Effective approaches to attention-based neural machine translation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1508.04025*.
- Xuezhe Ma and Eduard H. Hovy. 2016. End-to-end sequence labeling via bi-directional lstm-cnns-crf. In *Proc. of ACL*.
- David Nadeau and Satoshi Sekine. 2007. A survey of named entity recognition and classification. *Linguisticae Investigationes*, 30(1):3–26.
- Jeffrey Pennington, Richard Socher, and Christopher D. Manning. 2014. Glove: Global vectors for word representation. In *Proc. of EMNLP*.
- Chuck Rosenberg, Martial Hebert, and Henry Schneiderman. 2005. Semi-supervised self-training of object detection models. *2005 Seventh IEEE Workshops on Applications of Computer Vision (WACV/MOTION'05) - Volume 1*, 1:29–36.
- Esteban Safranchik, Shiyang Luo, and Stephen H. Bach. 2020. Weakly supervised sequence tagging from noisy rules. In *AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI)*.
- J. Shang, L. Liu, X. Ren, X. Gu, T. Ren, and J. Han. 2018. Learning named entity tagger using domain-specific dictionary. In *Proc. of EMNLP*.
- Yanyao Shen, Hyokun Yun, Zachary C. Lipton, Yakov Kronrod, and Animashree Anandkumar. 2018. Deep active learning for named entity recognition. In *Proc. of ICLR*.
- Erik F Tjong Kim Sang and Fien De Meulder. 2003. Introduction to the conll-2003 shared task: Language-independent named entity recognition. In *Proceedings of the seventh conference on Natural language learning at HLT-NAACL 2003-Volume 4*. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Ziqi Wang, Yujia Qin, Wenxuan Zhou, Jun Yan, Qinyuan Ye, Leonardo Neves, Zhiyuan Liu, and Xiang Ren. 2020. Learning from explanations with neural execution tree. In *Proc. of ICLR*.
- Y. Yang, W. Chen, Z. Li, Z. He, and M. Zhang. 2018. Distantly supervised ner with partial annotation learning and reinforcement learning. In *Proc. of ACL*.
- Wenxuan Zhou, Hongtao Lin, Bill Yuchen Lin, Ziqi Wang, Junyi Du, Leonardo Neves, and Xiang Ren. 2020. Nero: A neural rule grounding framework for label-efficient relation extraction. In *Proc. of The Web Conference (WWW)*.