
TempEL: Linking Dynamically Evolving and Newly Emerging Entities

Klim Zaporojets[§] Lucie-Aimée Kaffee[#] Johannes Deleu[§]
Thomas Demeester[§] Chris Develder[§] Isabelle Augenstein[#]

[§] Ghent University – imec, IDLab, Ghent, Belgium

[#] Dept. of Computer Science, University of Copenhagen, Denmark

{klim.zaporojets,johannes.deleu,thomas.demeester,chris.develder}@ugent.be
{kaffee,augenstein}@di.ku.dk

Abstract

In our continuously evolving world, entities change over time and new, previously non-existing or unknown, entities appear. We study how this evolutionary scenario impacts the performance on a well established *entity linking* (EL) task. For that study, we introduce TempEL, an entity linking dataset that consists of time-stratified English Wikipedia snapshots from 2013 to 2022, from which we collect both *anchor mentions* of entities, and these *target entities’ descriptions*. By capturing such temporal aspects, our newly introduced TempEL resource contrasts with currently existing entity linking datasets, which are composed of fixed mentions linked to a single static version of a target Knowledge Base (e.g., Wikipedia 2010 for CoNLL-AIDA). Indeed, for each of our collected temporal snapshots, TempEL contains links to entities that are *continual*, i.e., occur in all of the years, as well as completely *new* entities that appear for the first time at some point. Thus, we enable to quantify the performance of current state-of-the-art EL models for: (i) entities that are subject to changes over time in their Knowledge Base descriptions as well as their mentions’ contexts, and (ii) newly created entities that were previously non-existing (e.g., at the time the EL model was trained). Our experimental results show that in terms of temporal performance degradation, (i) *continual* entities suffer a decrease of up to 3.1% EL accuracy, while (ii) for *new* entities this accuracy drop is up to 17.9%. This highlights the challenge of the introduced TempEL dataset and opens new research prospects in the area of time-evolving entity disambiguation.¹

1 Introduction

Entity linking (EL) is a well-established task that is concerned with mapping anchor *mentions* in text to target *entities* that describe them in a Knowledge Base (KB) (e.g., Wikipedia).² Existing benchmark datasets for EL [73, 66, 71, 57] are composed of a fixed set of annotated mentions linked to a single version of a target KB. This static setup is oblivious to the inherently non-stationary nature of the entity linking task where both target entities as well as anchor mentions change over time. The example in Fig. 1 illustrates this time-evolving essence of entity linking with a simple evolutionary comparison between Wikipedia 2013 and 2022. It showcases two scenarios studied in the current paper: (i) temporal evolution of existing (*continual*) entities across temporal snapshots,

¹TempEL dataset, code and models are made public at <https://github.com/klimzaporojets/TempEL>.

²Some of the related work [19, 37, 71, 88, 86] distinguishes between *entity disambiguation* and *entity linking* tasks. This latter including *mention detection* and *disambiguation* in an end-to-end setting. In the current work, we follow a more conservative naming convention [61, 78, 43, 53, 60], and use the term *entity linking* and *entity disambiguation* interchangeably.

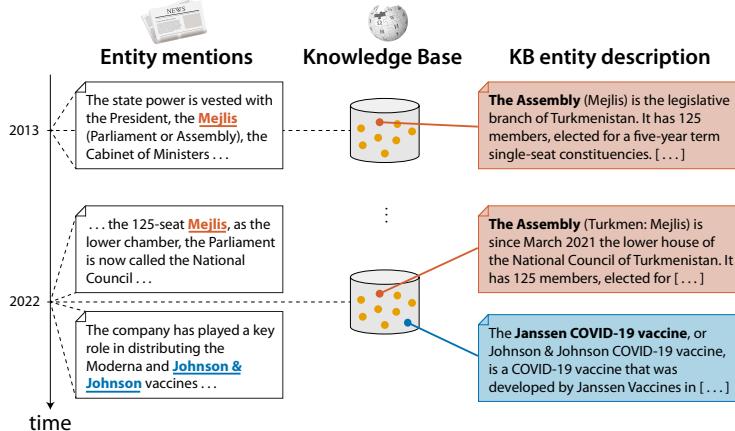


Figure 1: Illustration of KB entities changing over time: the “Mejlis” entity changes over time (both in its KB description and the contexts in which it is referenced to), while the Johnson & Johnson vaccine is an entirely new one that did not exist before.

and (ii) appearance of *new*, previously non-existent entities. For instance, the description of the *continual* entity *The Assembly* differs between Wikipedia 2013 and 2022. Furthermore, the context of a mention “Mejlis” referring to *The Assembly* also changes over time. Conversely, the *new* entity *Janssen COVID-19 vaccine* is newly introduced in 2021 with the corresponding mentions (e.g., “Johnson & Johnson” in Fig. 1) that are linked to it.

In this paper we introduce TempEL, a novel dataset to study this time-evolving aspect of the entity linking task. We therefore extract 10 equally spread yearly snapshots from English Wikipedia entities starting from January 1, 2013 until January 1, 2022. We use each of these temporal snapshots of Wikipedia to also extract anchor mentions with the surrounding text. Thus, TempEL captures the temporal evolution not only in the target entities as they are defined in the Wikipedia KB, but also in the contexts of anchor mentions linked to these entities. Each of the 10 temporal snapshots of our dataset is composed of training, test and validation sets with equal numbers of mentions and entities across the snapshots. Furthermore, TempEL is designed to comprise mentions pointing to *continual* entities across all the temporal snapshots, and to *new* entities inside a given temporal snapshot.

Finally, as a baseline, we finetune and evaluate the bi-encoder component of the BLINK model [78] on the various temporal snapshots of our newly introduced TempEL dataset. The bi-encoder is widely used in state-of-the-art entity linking models [88, 78] to retrieve the top K (in this work we experiment with $K = 64$) candidate target entities for a given anchor mention context. Furthermore, its straightforward finetuning and fast retrieval performance on millions of candidate entities [32], make it an ideal choice to test on TempEL. Our experiments demonstrate a consistent temporal model deterioration for mentions linked to both *continual* (3.1% accuracy@64 points) as well as *new* (17.9% accuracy@64 points) entities. A more detailed analysis reveals that the maximum drop in performance is observed for *new* entities that require fundamentally different world knowledge that was not present in the corpus originally used to pre-train BERT. This is e.g. the case for *new* entities related to COVID-19 for which the bi-encoder model suffers additional deterioration of 14% accuracy@64 points compared to the rest of the new entities.

2 Related work

Our work is related to multiple different, yet interconnected research areas described below. First, we explain how TempEL compares to the currently widely used *entity linking datasets*. Next, we relate our work to already existing *temporal datasets* covering different aspects of the temporal evolution of the data. Finally, we describe the existing *entity-centric* research efforts, comparing the TempEL entity linking dataset to other datasets that heavily depend on the use of entities.

Entity linking datasets Most current state-of-the-art EL models [81, 55, 10, 88, 9] report on datasets from predominantly the news domain such as AIDA [25], KORE50 [25], AQUAINT [48], ACE 2004, MSNBC [62], N³ [65], DWIE[87], VoxEL[68], and TAC-KBP 2010-2015 [28, 29]. Other frequently used datasets include the web-based IITB [38] and OKE 15/16 [51], as well as the tweet-based Derczynski [13]. Additionally, larger yet automatically annotated datasets such as WNED-WIKI and WNED-CWEB [20] have been also widely adopted. Finally, a number of resources such as the domain-specific biomedical MedMentions [49], the zero-shot ZeShEL [43], and the multi tasking DWIE [87] and AIDA⁺[86] datasets have been recently introduced. Many of the mentioned datasets are further covered by entity linking evaluation frameworks such as GERBIL [73, 66] and KILT [57] that provide a common interface to evaluate the models. Yet, the mentioned resources are limited to static mention annotations linked to entities from a single version of a Knowledge Base. This contrasts with our newly introduced TempEL dataset, where the anchor mentions as well as the target entity descriptions are taken from different time periods. The datasets most closely related to our work are the recently introduced WikilinksNED [17, 53] and ShadowLink [59]. WikilinksNED contains only unseen mention-entity pairs in its test subset, thus encouraging the design of models invariant to overfitting and memorization biases. Furthermore, ShadowLink contains *overshadowed entities*: entities referred to by ambiguous mentions whose most likely target entity is different, e.g., the anchor mention “Michael Jordan” linked to the scientist instead of to the more widely referred to target entity describing the former basketball player. We incorporate the challenges presented in both of these datasets in TempEL (see Section 3.1 for further details).

Temporal datasets Research on temporal drift in data has gained a lot of interest in recent years. The focus has mostly been on creating datasets to train language models on different temporal snapshots of corpora derived from scientific [39], newswire [39, 15], Wikipedia [27], and Twitter [44] domains. More recently, temporal datasets have appeared to address tasks such as sentiment analysis [45, 50, 2], text classification [26, 22], named entity recognition [12, 64], question answering [39], and entity typing [46], among others. However, the creation of datasets tackling the temporal aspect of entity linking has largely been left unexplored. To the best of our knowledge, the dataset most closely related to TempEL is diaNED, introduced by [3]. There, the authors annotate mentions that require additional temporal information from the context to be correctly disambiguated. Conversely, in TempEL both mentions and entities are extracted from evolving temporal snapshots.

Entity-driven datasets Recent research has demonstrated the benefits of incorporating entity knowledge in various downstream tasks [82, 56, 79, 21, 74, 84, 42]. This progress has been accompanied by the creation of entity-driven datasets for tasks such as language modeling [58, 1, 36], question answering [85, 33, 31, 41, 70], fact checking [72, 54, 4] and information extraction [83, 87], to name a few. Yet, recent findings [69, 18, 40, 75, 23, 63] suggest that entity *representation* and *identification* (i.e., identifying the correct entity that match a given text) are among the main challenges that should be solved to further increase performance on such datasets. We believe that TempEL can contribute to addressing these challenges by: (i) encouraging research on devising more robust methods to creating *entity representations* that are invariant to temporal changes; and (ii) improving entity identification for non-trivial scenarios involving ambiguous and uncommon mentions (e.g., linked to *overshadowed entities* as defined above).

3 The TempEL dataset

In this section we will provide details on how TempEL was constructed (Section 3.1), describing the main components of the creation pipeline as sketched in Fig. 2. Furthermore, we discuss the aspects taken into account to guarantee the overall quality of our dataset (Section 3.2). Finally, we present statistics of TempEL (Section 3.3), illustrating its dynamically evolving nature.

3.1 Dataset construction

Snapshot Data Extraction As Fig. 2 indicates, we start from the history log dumps from February 1, 2022 of Wikipedia itself. We first filter these (see *Entity Filter* in Fig. 2) to: (i) exclude pages that are irrelevant for TempEL (i.e., categories, disambiguation pages, redirects and lists); and (ii) select the most temporally stable version of a Wikipedia page from the last month of the year in order to avoid introducing more volatile and potentially corrupted content edits (see Section 3.2 for further

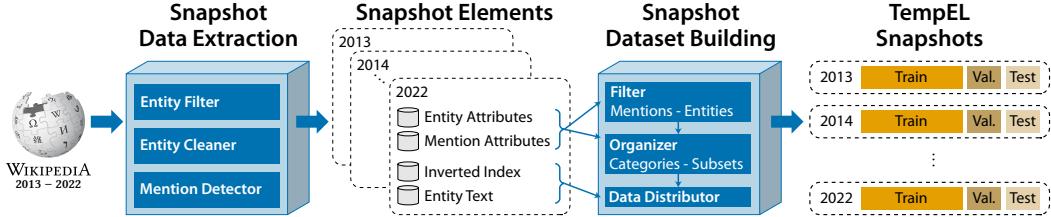


Figure 2: The pipeline to create our TempEL dataset. All the components are explained in Section 3.1.

details). Next, the Wikipedia pages are cleaned (see *Entity Cleaner* in Fig. 2) by stripping from the Wikitext markup content.³ We use both regular expressions as well as the MediaWiki API for more difficult cases, such as the parsing of some of the Wikitext templates. Finally, we detect the mentions (see *Mention Detector* in Fig. 2) in each of the Wikipedia entity pages, filtering out the ones that point to anchors (i.e., subsections in Wikipedia pages), pages in languages other than English, files, red links (i.e., links pointing to not yet existing Wikipedia pages) and redirects.

The output of the *Snapshot Data Extraction* step first of all includes a set of *Entity* and *Mention Attributes* (e.g., the last modification date of the target entity), which are detailed in the supplementary material (see Section A.6). These attributes form part of the final dataset, making it possible to perform additional analyses of the results. Furthermore, the *Inverted Index* is generated to quickly access the Wikipedia pages that include a mention for a given target entity. Finally, the *Entity Text* files are extracted containing the (potentially yearly varying) textual content from the Wikipedia entity definition, as well as anchor mentions therein. These mentions of Wikipedia anchors that link to an entity will be extracted in the *Snapshot Dataset Building* step described further.

Snapshot Dataset Building Starting from the *Snapshot Elements* produced by the *Snapshot Data Extraction* process described above, the actual TempEL dataset is now generated. The first step is to apply an additional *Filter* to both entities and mentions with the goal of creating a more challenging dataset. This is done by excluding mentions for which the correct entity it refers to has the highest prior [80]. More formally, the *mention prior* is calculated as follows,

$$P(e|m) = |A_{e,m}| / |A_{*,m}|, \quad (1)$$

where $A_{*,m}$ is the set of all anchors that have the same mention m , and $A_{e,m}$ is the subset thereof that links to entity e . Additionally, we exclude the mentions whose normalized edit distance from the target entity title is below an established threshold.⁴ By ignoring the mentions with the highest prior and exact match with the title, we ensure that TempEL contains non-trivial disambiguation cases where the naive approaches (e.g., defaulting to the most frequently linked entity for a given mention) would fail [20, 43, 78, 59].

Furthermore, the entities are organized (see *Organizer* in Fig. 2) into two *categories*: (i) *new*, emerging and previously non-existent entities that are introduced in a particular snapshot; and (ii) *continual* entities across all the temporal snapshots. Next, the mentions are divided in separate subsets (i.e., train, validation and test), with the constraint of normalized edit distance between the mentions in different subsets referring to the same target entity be higher than 0.2. This way, we expect to discourage potential models from memorizing the mapping between mentions and entities [53].

Finally, the data is distributed equally (see *Data Distributor* in Fig. 2) across all of the temporal snapshots. This way, the difference in performance can only be attributed to temporal evolution and not to inconsistencies related to dataset variability (e.g., different number of training instances in each of the temporal snapshots). Concretely, we enforce that the number of *continual* and *new* entities as well as the number of mentions stays the same across the temporal snapshots (see Table 1). We achieve this by performing a random mention subsampling in snapshots with higher number of mentions, weighted by the difference in the number of mentions-per-entity. This produces a very similar mention-entity distribution across the temporal snapshots. Finally, the filtered anchor mentions are located in the cleaned Wikipedia pages (i.e., the *Entity Text* in Fig. 2) using the *Inverted Index* created in the previous *Snapshot Data Extraction* step. The context of each of the mentions

³<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Help:Wikitext>

⁴During the generation of TempEL, we use a threshold of 0.2.

Table 1: Summary statistics of TempEL. The number of entities and mentions is the same across all of the temporal snapshots.

Statistic	Train	Validation	Test
Temporal Snapshots	10	10	10
Continual Entities	10,000	10,000	10,000
# Anchor Mentions	136,227	42,096	46,765
New Entities	373	373	373
# Anchor Mentions	1,764	1,231	1,450

is further paired with the respective content of target pages, outputting this way the final TempEL dataset.

3.2 Quality control

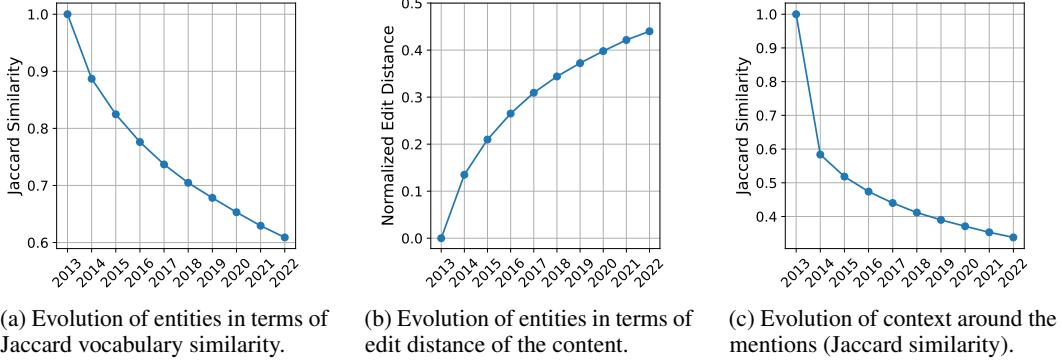
Corrupted content Wikipedia is an open resource that relies on efforts of millions of Wikipedians to update and extend its contents.⁵ As such, that content is not always reliable, with errors due to human mistakes or intentional vandalism. Despite efforts to prevent the introduction of such erroneous edits [77, 8, 76], we have detected numerous cases of corrupted entity descriptions during our preliminary tests. As a result, we adopted a simple, yet very effective heuristic: for each of the entities of a particular yearly snapshot, we select the most *stable* (i.e., the version of the entity that lasted the longest before being changed) content of the last month of the year (December). Due to the fact that most of the corrupted content is rolled back very quickly, and even automatically by specialized bots [89, 30], this heuristic is very robust. We double checked the correctness of the extracted content by manually inspecting the evolution of hundred entities with lowest Jaccard vocabulary similarity between temporal snapshots and observed no obviously erroneous entries.

Entity relevance We filter out entities that have less than 10 in-links (i.e., number of mentions linking to the entity) or contain less than 10 tokens in its Wikipedia page in order to avoid including noisy content [17]. Additionally, in order to avoid evaluation bias towards mentions pointing to more popular entities [55, 7], we limit the number of mentions per entity to 10 for our test and validation sets. This way, we expect the accuracy scores to not be dominated by links to popular target entities (i.e., entities with a big number of incoming links).

Content filtering We only consider mentions linked to the main Wikipedia articles describing entities. The mentions pointing to anchors (subsections in a Wikipedia document), images, files, and wiki pages in other languages are filtered out in *Snapshot Data Extraction* step (see Fig. 2). In this step we also ignore pages that are not Wikipedia articles (e.g., files, information on Wikipedia users, etc.) as well as redirect pages. This way, the target entities as well as anchor mentions in our dataset are obtained from a cleaned list of candidate pages referring to entities that contain a meaningful textual description in Wikipedia.

Dataset distribution During the construction of TempEL, we constrain the subsets to be of equal size and contain similar mention-per-entity distributions across all the temporal snapshots. This is implemented in *Data Distributor* sub-component of the dataset creation pipeline (see Section 3.1). For example, the number of mentions linked to continual entities in our training subset is 136,227 across all of the snapshots (see Table 1 for further details). We argue that this setting will produce uniform, structurally unbiased snapshots. This will allow to study exclusively the temporal effect on the performance of the models for each of the different time periods. Our reasoning is supported by previous work demonstrating that the size alone of the training set [44] as well as a different distribution of the number of mentions per entity [55] can significantly affect the performance of the final model. Furthermore, we do not constrain the total number of entities from the Wikipedia KB to be equal across the temporal snapshots (see Fig. 4c), since we consider it a part of the evolutionary nature of the entity linking task (i.e., the temporal evolution of the target KB) we intend to study.

⁵<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wikipedia:Wikipedians>



(a) Evolution of entities in terms of Jaccard vocabulary similarity. (b) Evolution of entities in terms of edit distance of the content. (c) Evolution of context around the mentions (Jaccard similarity).

Figure 3: Change of textual content of entities and context around mentions across temporal yearly snapshots (x-axis).

Flexibility and extensibility Finally, we provide a framework that can be used to re-generate the dataset with different parameters as well as to extend it with newer temporal snapshots. This includes the option to generate a new dataset with a customized number of temporal snapshots (e.g., quarterly instead of yearly spaced), different mention attributes (e.g., filtering by mention prior values), entity popularity (e.g., filtering out entities that have more than a certain number of in-links), among others (see Section A.4 of the supplementary material for a complete list).

3.3 Dataset statistics

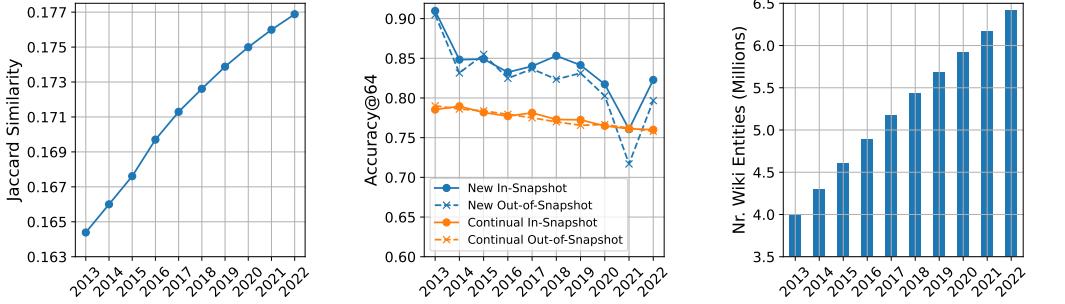
Table 1 summarizes the dataset statistics. We divide each of the temporal snapshots into train, validation and test subsets containing an equal number of *continual* and *new* entities. The number of mentions differs between the subsets since we limit the number of mentions per entity to 10 in both validation and test sets (see *entity relevance* in Section 3.2 for further details).

Additionally, we collect statistics related to temporal drift in content for both the target entities (Figs. 3a and 3b) as well as the context around the anchor mentions (Fig. 3c). Concretely, Fig. 3a visualizes Jaccard vocabulary similarity between the textual description of *continual* entities in 2013 and that of posterior yearly snapshots in TempEL. We observe a continual decrease, indicating that on average, the content of the entity description in Wikipedia is constantly evolving in terms of the used vocabulary. This is also supported by the graph in Fig. 3b, which showcases a continuous temporal increase of the average value of normalized edit distance across *continual* entities. Finally, Fig. 3c illustrates the temporal drift in the vocabulary (i.e., Jaccard vocabulary similarity) of the context around the mentions pointing to the same entity. We find it experiences a more significant change compared to the Jaccard similarity of entity content illustrated in Fig. 3a. This suggests that the context around the anchor mentions is subject to a higher degree of temporal transformation compared to that of target entities, making it an interesting item of future work.

4 Experiments

Our final TempEL comprises 10 different yearly snapshots and we evaluate entity linking (EL) performance on each of them individually. This evaluation setup allows us to study the effect of temporal corpus changes and assess the impact of increasing time lapses between the data used for model training and that on which the EL model is deployed [22, 2, 46]. We train a bi-encoder baseline EL model (detailed in Section 4.1) on the temporal snapshots from 2014 to 2022 separately and then evaluate EL performance using the test sets of both past and future snapshots.

More specifically, our experiments aim to answer the following research questions: **(Q1)** Does a fixed entity linking (EL) model’s performance degrade when applied to newer content? **(Q2)** How does finetuning an EL model on more recent training data affect its performance on both old and newer content? **(Q3)** How does EL performance differ for resolving *new* versus *continual* entities?



(a) Similarity between candidates returned by the bi-encoder baseline. (b) Difference in performance between *new* and *continual* entities. (c) Evolution of the number of entities in the Wikipedia KB.

Figure 4: Statistics related to the analysis of the results (Section 4.2) across the temporal snapshots (x-axis).

4.1 Baseline

We experiment with the bi-encoder [47, 16] baseline introduced in the BLINK model [78]. This method independently encodes the mention contexts from the entity descriptions, and then performs the retrieval in a dense space [35] by matching the context of each mention with the closest candidate entities. For the entity description, we concatenate the title to the content of the page describing a particular entity. Both mention context as well as entity descriptions are truncated to 128 BERT tokens as per BLINK model [78]. Similarly to [2, 44], we start from a pre-trained BERT model,⁶ which we finetune using our TempEL snapshots’ training data — rather than fully re-training the BERT language model on the respective year’s full Wikipedia corpus. We leave the latter full-fledged BERT (re-)training approach for future work.

4.2 Results and analysis

The results for *continual* and *new* entities are shown in Table 2. The rows thereof represent the snapshots whose train set we used to finetune the bi-encoder model, while the columns indicate the snapshots test data each of the finetuned models was tested on. The used metric is accuracy@64, which amounts to the fraction of anchor mentions in the test set for which the top-64 candidate entity list from the EL model includes the correct target. We observe a consistent temporal decrease in performance for *continual* entities (**Q1**). This is also reflected in Fig. 4b, which illustrates the average temporal degradation across all the finetuned models. We hypothesize that this degradation over time is because, as time evolves, the relative “semantic distance” between the ever growing number of entities shrinks: entities become harder to distinguish from one another. In order to demonstrate this, we calculate the *Jaccard Similarity* between consecutive descriptions of the top 64 candidate entities returned by the bi-encoder. We observe a consistent increase in this similarity metric illustrated in Fig. 4a. This growth in more similar entities is accompanied with a general increase in the number of entities in the Wikipedia KB (see Fig. 4c). Consequently, the model is given an ever-increasing number of candidate target entities, which can potentially impact its performance.

Furthermore, we analyze the impact finetuning on different snapshots has on the performance of the model (**Q2**). To this end, we distinguish between *in-snapshot* and *out-of-snapshot* finetuning setups. In *in-snapshot* setup, the bi-encoder model is finetuned and evaluated on the same snapshot. Conversely, in *out-of-snapshot* setting, the model is evaluated on a different snapshot than the one used for its finetuning. Figure 5a illustrates the difference in performance between the *in-snapshot* and *out-of-snapshot* predictions for new and continual entities. We observe a general increase in performance for *in-snapshot* finetuning with a marginal gain for *continual* entities compared to the *new* ones.⁷ This general lower impact of *in-snapshot* finetuning on *continual* entities, leads us to hypothesize that the actual knowledge needed to disambiguate most of these entities in TempEL changes very little with time. In order to verify this hypothesis, we randomly selected 100 continual

⁶We use BERT-large, which is trained on a Wikipedia snapshot from 2018 [34].

⁷We analyze more in detail the difference in performance between *new* and *continual* entities in next paragraphs when addressing (**Q3**).

Table 2: Accuracy@64 for *continual* (top) and *new* (bottom) entities. The intensity of colors is set on a row-by-row basis and indicates whether performance is **better** or **worse** compared to the year the model was finetuned on (i.e., the values that form the white diagonal).

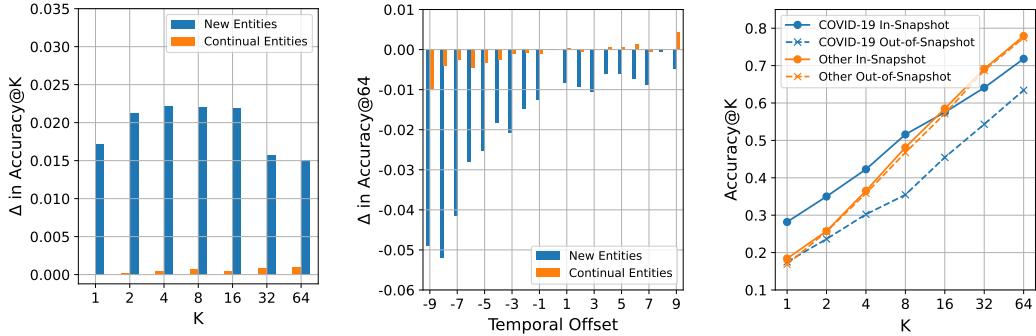
		Continual Entities									
Train \ Test		2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
2013	0.785	0.782	0.778	0.772	0.769	0.762	0.758	0.758	0.754	0.750	
2014	0.792	0.790	0.785	0.781	0.777	0.771	0.767	0.767	0.763	0.763	0.760
2015	0.786	0.784	0.782	0.777	0.773	0.769	0.765	0.764	0.760	0.757	
2016	0.789	0.784	0.781	0.777	0.773	0.768	0.763	0.763	0.758	0.755	
2017	0.794	0.791	0.788	0.785	0.781	0.775	0.771	0.772	0.768	0.763	
2018	0.791	0.788	0.786	0.782	0.778	0.773	0.769	0.769	0.764	0.760	
2019	0.795	0.792	0.789	0.784	0.781	0.776	0.772	0.773	0.767	0.765	
2020	0.787	0.783	0.782	0.777	0.774	0.768	0.765	0.765	0.761	0.756	
2021	0.788	0.785	0.782	0.777	0.773	0.769	0.764	0.764	0.761	0.757	
2022	0.790	0.787	0.783	0.779	0.776	0.771	0.768	0.768	0.764	0.760	
		New Entities									
Train \ Test		2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
2013	0.910	0.819	0.853	0.826	0.841	0.812	0.819	0.791	0.688	0.774	
2014	0.908	0.848	0.862	0.827	0.843	0.832	0.842	0.814	0.704	0.791	
2015	0.898	0.823	0.849	0.822	0.808	0.813	0.832	0.788	0.706	0.781	
2016	0.897	0.832	0.862	0.832	0.839	0.823	0.823	0.802	0.718	0.791	
2017	0.906	0.832	0.857	0.817	0.840	0.824	0.835	0.791	0.714	0.808	
2018	0.908	0.835	0.858	0.830	0.846	0.853	0.835	0.806	0.728	0.803	
2019	0.910	0.842	0.853	0.821	0.842	0.843	0.841	0.810	0.734	0.799	
2020	0.903	0.828	0.844	0.835	0.843	0.819	0.833	0.817	0.728	0.811	
2021	0.910	0.825	0.852	0.825	0.837	0.817	0.830	0.814	0.761	0.812	
2022	0.905	0.846	0.852	0.820	0.830	0.830	0.832	0.808	0.732	0.823	

entity-mention pairs, and compared the difference in both mention contexts and entity descriptions between the years 2013 and 2022. We found that in most cases (>95%), while the textual description of the continual entity is changed (supported by Figs. 3a–3b), its meaning remains the same.

Moreover, we address the second part of **Q2** targeting the effect of timespan between the snapshot used for finetuning and the one used for evaluation. To accomplish this, in Fig. 5b we showcase the impact of in-snapshot finetuning relative to the *temporal offset* between the snapshot the model was tested and the snapshot the model was finetuned on. For negative temporal offset,⁸ we observe a decrease in the performance difference between in-snapshot and out-of-snapshot setups as the offset approaches to zero. This indicates that the model can benefit more from recent snapshots than from snapshots further in the past. Curiously, we observe a slight increase in performance for out-of-snapshot *continual* entities trained on future snapshots (positive temporal offsets in Fig. 5b). This suggests that the changes in continual entities are *accumulative* in Wikipedia, with later versions of entity descriptions also including the information from the past. For instance, we have observed that for entities describing people, the newly added information on the occupation (e.g., soccer coach) is appended to the occupation description a person had in the past (e.g., soccer player).

Next, we analyze the EL performance on *new* entities and whether they are differently affected than the *continual* ones (**Q3**). We plot the in-snapshot and out-of-snapshot average temporal change in accuracy@64 scores across all finetuned models for both types of entities in Fig. 4b. We observe that, in general, the performance on *new* entities is superior to that on *continual* ones. Furthermore, as observed above, the performance gain from in-snapshot finetuning on new entities is superior compared to that on continual ones (supported by Fig. 4b and Figs. 5a–5b). This difference suggests that new entities require a higher degree of additional snapshot-specific knowledge to be correctly

⁸Evaluation snapshot comes from later time period than the snapshot the model was finetuned on.



(a) Effect of in-snapshot finetuning (y-axis) across different accuracy thresholds K . (b) In-snapshot finetuning (offset 0) compared to finetuning on past and future snapshots ($-$ and $+$ offsets). (c) In-snapshot finetuning effect on COVID-19 related and other *new entities* from 2021 snapshot.

Figure 5: Impact of finetuning and evaluating on the same snapshot (*in-snapshot*) compared to finetuning and evaluating on different snapshots (*out-of-snapshot*). We observe: (a) a superior impact of in-snapshot finetuning on *new* entities compared to *continual* ones, (b) a decrease in performance when finetuning on increasingly older snapshots, and (c) dominant effect of in-snapshot finetuning on entities that require fundamentally new knowledge (e.g., COVID-19 related entities).

disambiguated. Additionally, the graph in Fig. 4b reveals that this delta in performance is larger for more recent years (starting from 2018). We hypothesize that this behaviour is due to the fact that the used original BERT model[14] has not been exposed to more recent new entities during pre-training. It also suggests a complementary effect between task-specific finetuning on TempEL dataset and language model pre-training on larger corpora.

Furthermore, to better understand the superior performance on new entities, we manually analyze 100 randomly selected *new* entities from our dataset. We found that a large majority ($\sim 90\%$) of entities were either events that are recurrent in nature (e.g., “2018 BNP Paribas Open”) ($\sim 68\%$) or extracts of already existing pages ($\sim 22\%$). We conjecture⁹ that these entities require little additional knowledge to be disambiguated, since either they already exist (as part of the content of other entities) or are very similar to already existing entities in Wikipedia. This contrasts sharply with the performance drop observed for *new* entities in the temporal snapshot 2021, as exhibited in both Fig. 4b and Table 2. This decrease is mostly driven by COVID-19 related entities, which constitute 24% of the new entities, which are linked to by 30% of the mentions in this snapshot. The disambiguation of these cases requires completely new and fundamentally different, previously non-existent knowledge. Since this knowledge is not present in the original corpus used to pre-train the BERT encoder nor in any of the previous snapshots, our EL model based on it struggles.

Finally, we analyze the impact of new entities finetuning (**Q2**) on the temporal snapshot 2021, for which our model exhibits the lowest temporal performance driven by COVID-19 disambiguation instances (see above). Figure 5c showcases the impact of in- and out-of-snapshot finetuning on the performance on COVID-19 related entities compared to *other* new entities for different thresholds K of the accuracy@ K metric. We observe a large difference in performance (up to 14% accuracy@64 points) between COVID-19 related and the rest of the instances for out-of-snapshot finetuning. This difference is significantly decreased when finetuning on the 2021 snapshot (in-snapshot finetuning), achieving superior accuracy on COVID-19 related entities for lower values of K compared to *other* entities. In contrast, the difference between out- and in-snapshot performance on these non-COVID-19 related entities (*other* entities in Fig. 5c) is marginal. This suggests that in-snapshot finetuning has dominant impact on new entities that require fundamentally new, previously non-existent knowledge in Wikipedia.

⁹See Section A.11 of the supplementary material for further details on the performance on these different new entity types.

5 Limitations and future work

A number of dataset and model-related aspects were left unexplored in the current work. Our clarifications thereof below may help the community to understand the limitations and potential future research directions to extend our efforts.

Effect of pre-training on new corpora Recent work has demonstrated the benefits of pre-training language models on more recent corpora (e.g., the latest Wikipedia versions) when applied on downstream tasks [2, 44]. We hypothesize that this pre-training may also improve EL performance for our TempEL, especially for *new* entities that require new world knowledge.

Changes in mention context Our work focused mostly on changes in target entities, leaving the effect of changes in mention context on EL performance unexplored. For example, Fig. 3c shows a notable temporal drop in Jaccard vocabulary similarity of the context surrounding mentions. This suggests that mentions, as well as the text surrounding them, are quite volatile and evolve over time, making them an interesting subject for future research.

Cross-lingual time evolution Our dataset is limited to English Wikipedia. Yet, since recent work [5, 11] has shown the benefits of training EL models in a cross-lingual setting, studying cross-lingual temporal evolution of entity linking task may also be an interesting future research direction. Furthermore, it will complement the recent growing interest in creating entity linking datasets for a number of low-resourced languages [24, 52, 6, 67].

6 Conclusion

This paper introduced TempEL, a new large-scale temporal entity linking dataset composed of 10 yearly snapshots of Wikipedia target entities linked to by anchor mentions. In our dataset creation pipeline, we put special focus on the quality assurance and future extensibility of TempEL. Furthermore, we established baseline entity linking results across different years, which revealed a noticeable performance deterioration on test data more recent than the training data. We further examined the most challenging cases, suggesting the need for updating the pre-trained language model of our EL model, at least to perform well on newly appearing entities that require new world knowledge (e.g., in case of COVID-19). Finally, we described limitations of our work and discussed potential future research directions.

Acknowledgments and Disclosure of Funding

Part of the research leading to these results has received funding from (i) the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement no. 761488 for the CPN project,¹⁰ (ii) the Flemish Government under the programme “Onderzoeksprogramma Artificiële Intelligentie (AI) Vlaanderen”, (iii) the Research Foundation – Flanders grant no. V412922N for Long Stay Abroad at Copenhagen University, and (iv) DFF Sapere Aude grant No 0171-00034B ‘Learning to Explain Attitudes on Social Media (EXPANSE)’.

References

- [1] Oshin Agarwal, Heming Ge, Siamak Shakeri, and Rami Al-Rfou. Knowledge graph based synthetic corpus generation for knowledge-enhanced language model pre-training. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2021)*, pages 3554–3565, 2021.
- [2] Oshin Agarwal and Ani Nenkova. Temporal effects on pre-trained models for language processing tasks. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics (TACL 2022)*, 10:904–921, 2022.
- [3] Prabal Agarwal, Jannik Strötgen, Luciano Del Corro, Johannes Hoffart, and Gerhard Weikum. diaNED: Time-aware named entity disambiguation for diachronic corpora. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2018)*, pages 686–693, 2018.
- [4] Rami Aly, Zhijiang Guo, Michael Schlichtkrull, James Thorne, Andreas Vlachos, Christos Christodoulopoulos, Oana Cocarascu, and Arpit Mittal. FEVEROUS: Fact extraction and verification over unstructured and structured information. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track (NeurIPS 2021)*, 2021.
- [5] Jan A. Botha, Zifei Shan, and Daniel Gillick. Entity linking in 100 languages. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2020)*, pages 7833–7845, 2020.
- [6] Gaëtan Caillaut, Cécile Gracianne, Nathalie Abadie, Guillaume Touya, and Samuel Auclair. Automated construction of a french entity linking dataset to geolocate social network posts in the context of natural disasters. In *Proceedings of the 2022 International Conference on Information Systems for Crisis Response and Management (ISCRAM 2022)*, 2022.
- [7] Anthony Chen, Pallavi Gudipati, Shayne Longpre, Xiao Ling, and Sameer Singh. Evaluating entity disambiguation and the role of popularity in retrieval-based NLP. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (ACL-IJCNLP 2021)*, pages 4472–4485, 2021.
- [8] Quang Vinh Dang and Claudia-Lavinia Ignat. Quality assessment of wikipedia articles without feature engineering. In *Proceedings of the 16th ACM/IEEE-CS on Joint Conference on Digital Libraries*, pages 27–30, 2016.
- [9] Nicola De Cao, Wilker Aziz, and Ivan Titov. Highly parallel autoregressive entity linking with discriminative correction. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2021)*, pages 7662–7669, 2021.
- [10] Nicola De Cao, Gautier Izacard, Sebastian Riedel, and Fabio Petroni. Autoregressive entity retrieval. In *Proceedings of the 2021 International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2021)*, 2021.
- [11] Nicola De Cao, Ledell Wu, Kashyap Popat, Mikel Artetxe, Naman Goyal, Mikhail Plekhanov, Luke Zettlemoyer, Nicola Cancedda, Sebastian Riedel, and Fabio Petroni. Multilingual autoregressive entity linking. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 10:274–290, 2022.
- [12] Leon Derczynski, Kalina Bontcheva, and Ian Roberts. Broad twitter corpus: A diverse named entity recognition resource. In *Proceedings of the 2016 International Conference on Computational Linguistics (COLING 2016)*, pages 1169–1179, 2016.
- [13] Leon Derczynski, Diana Maynard, Giuseppe Rizzo, Marieke Van Erp, Genevieve Gorrell, Raphaël Troncy, Johann Petrak, and Kalina Bontcheva. Analysis of named entity recognition and linking for tweets. *Information Processing & Management*, 51(2):32–49, 2015.

¹⁰<https://www.projectcpn.eu/>

- [14] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2019)*, pages 4171–4186, 2019.
- [15] Bhuvan Dhingra, Jeremy R Cole, Julian Martin Eisenschlos, Daniel Gillick, Jacob Eisenstein, and William W Cohen. Time-aware language models as temporal knowledge bases. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 10:257–273, 2022.
- [16] Emily Dinan, Stephen Roller, Kurt Shuster, Angela Fan, Michael Auli, and Jason Weston. Wizard of Wikipedia: Knowledge-powered conversational agents. In *Proceedings of the 2018 International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2018)*, 2018.
- [17] Yotam Eshel, Noam Cohen, Kira Radinsky, Shaul Markovitch, Ikuya Yamada, and Omer Levy. Named entity disambiguation for noisy text. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning (CoNLL 2017)*, pages 58–68, 2017.
- [18] Thibault Févry, Livio Baldini Soares, Nicholas FitzGerald, Eunsol Choi, and Tom Kwiatkowski. Entities as experts: Sparse memory access with entity supervision. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2020)*, pages 4937–4951, 2020.
- [19] Octavian-Eugen Ganea and Thomas Hofmann. Deep joint entity disambiguation with local neural attention. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2017)*, pages 2619–2629, 2017.
- [20] Zhaochen Guo and Denilson Barbosa. Robust named entity disambiguation with random walks. *Semantic Web*, 9(4):459–479, 2018.
- [21] Kelvin Guu, Kenton Lee, Zora Tung, Panupong Pasupat, and Ming-Wei Chang. REALM: Retrieval-augmented language model pre-training. *CoRR*, abs/2002.08909, 2020.
- [22] Yu He, Jianxin Li, Yangqiu Song, Mutian He, Hao Peng, et al. Time-evolving text classification with deep neural networks. In *Proceedings of the 2018 International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI 2018)*, pages 2241–2247, 2018.
- [23] Benjamin Heinzerling and Kentaro Inui. Language models as knowledge bases: On entity representations, storage capacity, and paraphrased queries. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (EACL 2021)*, pages 1772–1791, 2021.
- [24] Leonhard Hennig, Phuc Tran Truong, and Aleksandra Gabrysak. Mobie: A german dataset for named entity recognition, entity linking and relation extraction in the mobility domain. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Natural Language Processing (KONVENS 2021)*, pages 223–227, 2021.
- [25] Johannes Hoffart, Mohamed Amir Yosef, Ilaria Bordino, Hagen Fürstenau, Manfred Pinkal, Marc Spaniol, Bilyana Taneva, Stefan Thater, and Gerhard Weikum. Robust disambiguation of named entities in text. In *Proceedings of the 2011 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2011)*, pages 782–792, 2011.
- [26] Xiaolei Huang and Michael J Paul. Examining temporality in document classification. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2018)*, pages 694–699, 2018.
- [27] Joel Jang, Seonghyeon Ye, Changho Lee, Sohee Yang, Joongbo Shin, Janghoon Han, Gyeonghun Kim, and Minjoon Seo. TemporalWiki: A lifelong benchmark for training and evaluating ever-evolving language models. *CoRR*, abs/2204.14211, 2022.
- [28] Heng Ji, Ralph Grishman, Hoa Trang Dang, Kira Griffitt, and Joe Ellis. Overview of the TAC 2010 knowledge base population track. In *Proceedings of the 2010 Text Analysis Conference (TAC 2010)*, pages 1–25, 2010.
- [29] Heng Ji, Joel Nothman, Ben Hachey, and Radu Florian. Overview of TAC-KBP 2015 tri-lingual entity discovery and linking. In *Proceedings of the 2015 Text Analysis Conference (TAC 2015)*, 2015.
- [30] Jialei Jiang and Matthew A Vetter. The good, the bot, and the ugly: Problematic information and critical media literacy in the postdigital era. *Postdigital Science and Education*, 2(1):78–94, 2020.
- [31] Kelvin Jiang, Dekun Wu, and Hui Jiang. FreebaseQA: A new factoid qa data set matching trivia-style question-answer pairs with freebase. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2019)*, pages 318–323, 2019.

- [32] Jeff Johnson, Matthijs Douze, and Hervé Jégou. Billion-scale similarity search with GPUs. *IEEE Transactions on Big Data*, 7(3):535–547, 2021.
- [33] Mandar Joshi, Eunsol Choi, Daniel S Weld, and Luke Zettlemoyer. TriviaQA: A large scale distantly supervised challenge dataset for reading comprehension. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2017)*, pages 1601–1611, 2017.
- [34] Mandar Joshi, Omer Levy, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Daniel S Weld. BERT for coreference resolution: Baselines and analysis. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019)*, pages 5807–5812, 2019.
- [35] Vladimir Karpukhin, Barlas Oguz, Sewon Min, Patrick Lewis, Ledell Wu, Sergey Edunov, Danqi Chen, and Wen-tau Yih. Dense passage retrieval for open-domain question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2020)*, pages 6769–6781, 2020.
- [36] Nora Kassner, Philipp Dufter, and Hinrich Schütze. Multilingual LAMA: Investigating knowledge in multilingual pretrained language models. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (EACL 2021)*, pages 3250–3258, 2021.
- [37] Nikolaos Kolitsas, Octavian-Eugen Ganea, and Thomas Hofmann. End-to-end neural entity linking. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning (CoNLL 2018)*, pages 519–529, 2018.
- [38] Sayali Kulkarni, Amit Singh, Ganesh Ramakrishnan, and Soumen Chakrabarti. Collective annotation of Wikipedia entities in web text. In *Proceedings of the 2009 ACM International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (SIGKDD 2009)*, pages 457–466, 2009.
- [39] Angeliki Lazaridou, Adhi Kuncoro, Elena Gribovskaya, Devang Agrawal, Adam Liska, Tayfun Terzi, Mai Gimenez, Cyprien de Masson d’Autume, Tomas Kociský, Sebastian Ruder, et al. Mind the gap: Assessing temporal generalization in neural language models. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2021)*, pages 29348–29363, 2021.
- [40] Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, et al. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive nlp tasks. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2020)*, pages 9459–9474, 2020.
- [41] Patrick Lewis, Yuxiang Wu, Linqing Liu, Pasquale Minervini, Heinrich Küttler, Aleksandra Piktus, Pontus Stenetorp, and Sebastian Riedel. Paq: 65 million probably-asked questions and what you can do with them. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 9:1098–1115, 2021.
- [42] Ruibo Liu, Guoqing Zheng, Shashank Gupta, Radhika Gaonkar, Chongyang Gao, Soroush Vosoughi, Milad Shokouhi, and Ahmed Hassan Awadallah. Knowledge infused decoding. In *Proceedings of the 2022 International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2022)*, 2022.
- [43] Lajanugen Logeswaran, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, Kristina Toutanova, Jacob Devlin, and Honglak Lee. Zero-shot entity linking by reading entity descriptions. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2019)*, pages 3449–3460, 2019.
- [44] Daniel Loureiro, Francesco Barbieri, Leonardo Neves, Luis Espinosa Anke, and Jose Camacho-Collados. TimeLMs: Diachronic language models from twitter. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2022)*, pages 251–260, 2022.
- [45] Jan Lukes and Anders Søgaard. Sentiment analysis under temporal shift. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Workshop on Computational Approaches to Subjectivity, Sentiment and Social Media Analysis (WASSA@EMNLP 2018)*, pages 65–71, 2018.
- [46] Kelvin Luu, Daniel Khashabi, Suchin Gururangan, Karishma Mandyam, and Noah A Smith. Time waits for no one! analysis and challenges of temporal misalignment. *CoRR*, 2021.
- [47] Pierre-Emmanuel Mazare, Samuel Humeau, Martin Raison, and Antoine Bordes. Training millions of personalized dialogue agents. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2018)*, pages 2775–2779, 2018.
- [48] David Milne and Ian H Witten. Learning to link with wikipedia. In *Proceedings of the 2008 ACM conference on Information and knowledge management (CIKM 2008)*, pages 509–518, 2008.

- [49] Sunil Mohan and Donghui Li. MedMentions: A large biomedical corpus annotated with UMLS concepts. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Automated Knowledge Base Construction (AKBC 2018)*, 2018.
- [50] Jianmo Ni, Jiacheng Li, and Julian McAuley. Justifying recommendations using distantly-labeled reviews and fine-grained aspects. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019)*, pages 188–197, 2019.
- [51] Andrea Giovanni Nuzzolese, Anna Lisa Gentile, Valentina Presutti, Aldo Gangemi, Darío Garigliotti, and Roberto Navigli. Open knowledge extraction challenge. In *Proceedings of the 2015 Semantic Web Evaluation Challenges (SemWebEval@ESWC 2015)*, pages 3–15, 2015.
- [52] Maciej Ogrodniczuk and Włodzimierz Gruszczyński. Wikipedia-based entity linking for the digital library of polish and poland-related news pamphlets. In *Proceedings of the 2020 International Conference on Asian Digital Libraries (ICADL 2020)*, pages 81–88, 2020.
- [53] Yasumasa Onoe and Greg Durrett. Fine-grained entity typing for domain independent entity linking. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI 2020)*, pages 8576–8583, 2020.
- [54] Yasumasa Onoe, Michael JQ Zhang, Eunsol Choi, and Greg Durrett. CREAK: A dataset for commonsense reasoning over entity knowledge. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track (NeurIPS 2021)*, 2021.
- [55] Laurel Orr, Megan Leszczynski, Simran Arora, Sen Wu, Neel Guha, Xiao Ling, and Christopher Re. Bootleg: Chasing the tail with self-supervised named entity disambiguation. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Innovative Data Systems Research (CIDR 2021)*, 2021.
- [56] Matthew E Peters, Mark Neumann, Robert Logan, Roy Schwartz, Vidur Joshi, Sameer Singh, and Noah A Smith. Knowledge enhanced contextual word representations. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019)*, pages 43–54, 2019.
- [57] Fabio Petroni, Aleksandra Piktus, Angela Fan, Patrick Lewis, Majid Yazdani, Nicola De Cao, James Thorne, Yacine Jernite, Vladimir Karpukhin, Jean Maillard, et al. KILT: a benchmark for knowledge intensive language tasks. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2021)*, 2021.
- [58] Fabio Petroni, Tim Rocktäschel, Sebastian Riedel, Patrick Lewis, Anton Bakhtin, Yuxiang Wu, and Alexander Miller. Language models as knowledge bases? In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019)*, pages 2463–2473, 2019.
- [59] Vera Provatorova, Samarth Bhargav, Svitlana Vakulenko, and Evangelos Kanoulas. Robustness evaluation of entity disambiguation using prior probes: the case of entity overshadowing. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2021)*, pages 10501–10510, 2021.
- [60] Jonathan Raiman. DeepType 2: Superhuman entity linking all you need is type interactions. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI 2022)*, 2022.
- [61] Delip Rao, Paul McNamee, and Mark Dredze. Entity linking: Finding extracted entities in a knowledge base. In *Multi-Source, Multilingual Information Extraction and Summarization*, pages 93–115. Springer, 2013.
- [62] Lev Ratinov, Dan Roth, Doug Downey, and Mike Anderson. Local and global algorithms for disambiguation to Wikipedia. In *Proceedings of the 2011 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2011)*, pages 1375–1384, 2011.
- [63] Ryokan Ri, Ikuya Yamada, and Yoshimasa Tsuruoka. mLUKE: The power of entity representations in multilingual pretrained language models. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2022)*, pages 7316–7330, 2022.
- [64] Shruti Rijhwani and Daniel Preoțiuc-Pietro. Temporally-informed analysis of named entity recognition. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2020)*, pages 7605–7617, 2020.

- [65] Michael Röder, Ricardo Usbeck, Sebastian Hellmann, Daniel Gerber, and Andreas Both. N³-a collection of datasets for named entity recognition and disambiguation in the nlp interchange format. In *Proceedings of the 2014 International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2014)*, pages 3529–3533, 2014.
- [66] Michael Röder, Ricardo Usbeck, and Axel-Cyrille Ngonga Ngomo. GERBIL—benchmarking named entity recognition and linking consistently. *Semantic Web*, 9(5):605–625, 2018.
- [67] Henry Rosales Méndez. *Towards a fine-grained entity linking approach*. PhD thesis, Universidad de Chile, 2021.
- [68] Henry Rosales-Méndez, Aidan Hogan, and Barbara Poblete. Voxel: a benchmark dataset for multilingual entity linking. In *Proceedings of the 2018 International Semantic Web Conference (ISWC 2018)*, pages 170–186, 2018.
- [69] Andrew Runge and Eduard Hovy. Exploring neural entity representations for semantic information. In *Proceedings of the 2020 BlackboxNLP Workshop on Analyzing and Interpreting Neural Networks for NLP (BlackboxNLP@EMNLP 2020)*, pages 204–216, 2020.
- [70] Apoorv Saxena, Soumen Chakrabarti, and Partha Talukdar. Question answering over temporal knowledge graphs. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (ACL-IJCNLP 2021)*, pages 6663–6676, 2021.
- [71] Özge Sevgili, Artem Shelmanov, Mikhail Y. Arkhipov, Alexander Panchenko, and Chris Biemann. Neural entity linking: A survey of models based on deep learning. *Semantic Web*, 13(3):527–570, 2022.
- [72] James Thorne, Andreas Vlachos, Christos Christodoulopoulos, and Arpit Mittal. FEVER: a large-scale dataset for Fact Extraction and VERification. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2018)*, pages 809–819, 2018.
- [73] Ricardo Usbeck, Michael Röder, Axel-Cyrille Ngonga Ngomo, Ciro Baron, Andreas Both, Martin Brümmer, Diego Ceccarelli, Marco Cornolti, Didier Cherix, Bernd Eickmann, et al. GERBIL: general entity annotator benchmarking framework. In *Proceedings of the 2015 International Conference on World Wide Web (WWW 2015)*, pages 1133–1143, 2015.
- [74] Pat Verga, Haitian Sun, Livio Baldini Soares, and William Cohen. Adaptable and interpretable neural memoryover symbolic knowledge. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2021)*, pages 3678–3691, 2021.
- [75] Severine Verlinden, Klim Zaporojets, Johannes Deleu, Thomas Demeester, and Chris Develder. Injecting knowledge base information into end-to-end joint entity and relation extraction and coreference resolution. In *Findings of the 2021 Association for Computational Linguistics and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (ACL-IJCNLP 2021)*, pages 1952–1957, 2021.
- [76] Ping Wang and Xiaodan Li. Assessing the quality of information on Wikipedia: A deep-learning approach. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology*, 71(1):16–28, 2020.
- [77] Andrew G West, Sampath Kannan, and Insup Lee. Detecting Wikipedia vandalism via spatio-temporal analysis of revision metadata? In *Proceedings of the Third European Workshop on System Security (EUROSEC 2010)*, pages 22–28, 2010.
- [78] Ledell Wu, Fabio Petroni, Martin Josifoski, Sebastian Riedel, and Luke Zettlemoyer. Zero-shot entity linking with dense entity retrieval. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2020)*, pages 6397–6407, 2020.
- [79] Ikuya Yamada, Akari Asai, Hiroyuki Shindo, Hideaki Takeda, and Yuji Matsumoto. LUKE: Deep contextualized entity representations with entity-aware self-attention. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2020)*, pages 6442–6454, 2020.
- [80] Ikuya Yamada, Hiroyuki Shindo, Hideaki Takeda, and Yoshiyasu Takefuji. Joint learning of the embedding of words and entities for named entity disambiguation. In *Proceedings of The 2016 SIGNLL Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning (CoNLL 2016)*, pages 250–259, 2016.
- [81] Ikuya Yamada, Koki Washio, Hiroyuki Shindo, and Yuji Matsumoto. Global entity disambiguation with pretrained contextualized embeddings of words and entities. *CoRR*, abs/1909.00426, 2020.

- [82] Bishan Yang and Tom Mitchell. Leveraging knowledge bases in LSTMs for improving machine reading. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2017)*, pages 1436–1446, 2017.
- [83] Yuan Yao, Deming Ye, Peng Li, Xu Han, Yankai Lin, Zhenghao Liu, Zhiyuan Liu, Lixin Huang, Jie Zhou, and Maosong Sun. DocRED: A large-scale document-level relation extraction dataset. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2019)*, pages 764–777, 2019.
- [84] Michihiro Yasunaga, Hongyu Ren, Antoine Bosselut, Percy Liang, and Jure Leskovec. QA-GNN: Reasoning with language models and knowledge graphs for question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2021)*, pages 535–546, 2021.
- [85] Scott Wen-tau Yih, Ming-Wei Chang, Xiaodong He, and Jianfeng Gao. Semantic parsing via staged query graph generation: Question answering with knowledge base. In *Proceedings of the 2015 Conference of the Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (ACL-IJCNLP 2015)*, 2015.
- [86] Klim Zaporojets, Johannes Deleu, Thomas Demeester, and Chris Develder. Towards consistent document-level entity linking: Joint models for entity linking and coreference resolution. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2022)*, pages 778–784, 2022.
- [87] Klim Zaporojets, Johannes Deleu, Chris Develder, and Thomas Demeester. DWIE: An entity-centric dataset for multi-task document-level information extraction. *Information Processing & Management*, 58(4):102563, 2021.
- [88] Wenzheng Zhang, Wenyue Hua, and Karl Stratos. EntQA: Entity linking as question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2022 International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2022)*, 2022.
- [89] Lei Zheng, Christopher M Albano, Neev M Vora, Feng Mai, and Jeffrey V Nickerson. The roles bots play in Wikipedia. In *Proceedings of the 2019 ACM on Human-Computer Interaction (ACM SIGCHI 2019)*, pages 1–20, 2019.

Checklist

The checklist follows the references. Please read the checklist guidelines carefully for information on how to answer these questions. For each question, change the default [TODO] to [Yes] , [No] , or [N/A] . You are strongly encouraged to include a **justification to your answer**, either by referencing the appropriate section of your paper or providing a brief inline description. For example:

- Did you include the license to the code and datasets? [Yes] See the supplementary materials.

Please do not modify the questions and only use the provided macros for your answers. Note that the Checklist section does not count towards the page limit. In your paper, please delete this instructions block and only keep the Checklist section heading above along with the questions/answers below.

1. For all authors...
 - (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope? [Yes]
 - (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes]
 - (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [N/A]
 - (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [Yes]
2. If you are including theoretical results...
 - (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A]
 - (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A]
3. If you ran experiments (e.g. for benchmarks)...
 - (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes] The link to the dataset will be shared as part of the supplementary material.
 - (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)? [Yes] See the supplementary material.
 - (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times)? [No] No additional computational resources for this, yet the results across multiple temporal snapshots used to finetune are consistent.
 - (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes] See the supplementary material.
4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
 - (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes]
 - (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [Yes] See supplementary material
 - (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [No]
 - (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're using/curating? [N/A]
 - (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable information or offensive content? [N/A]
5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
 - (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable? [N/A]
 - (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
 - (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]