# Enhancing Event Causality Identification with LLM Knowledge and Concept-Level Event Relations

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#### Abstract

Event Causality Identification (ECI) aims to identify fine-grained causal relationships between events in an unstructured text. Existing ECI methods primarily rely on knowledgeenhanced and graph-based reasoning approaches, but they often overlook the dependencies between similar events. Additionally, the connection between unstructured text and structured knowledge is relatively weak. Therefore, this paper proposes an ECI method enhanced by LLM Knowledge and Concept-Level Event Relations (LKCER). Specifically, LKCER constructs a conceptual-level heterogeneous event graph by leveraging the local contextual information of related event mentions, generating a more comprehensive global semantic representation of event concepts. At the same time, the knowledge generated by COMET is filtered and enriched using LLM, strengthening the associations between event pairs and knowledge. Finally, the joint event conceptual representation and knowledge-enhanced event representation are used to uncover potential causal relationships between events. The experimental results show that our method outperforms previous state-of-the-art methods on both benchmarks, EventStoryLine and Causal-TimeBank.

### 1 Introduction

Understanding causality like humans is crucial for successful natural language processing (NLP) applications, especially in high-risk fields such as finance and healthcare. The ECI task aims to comprehend fine-grained causal relationships between events in unstructured text. It has broad applications in NLP, including machine reading comprehension [\(Berant et al.,](#page-8-0) [2014\)](#page-8-0), why-question answering [\(Oh et al.,](#page-9-0) [2017,](#page-9-0) [2016\)](#page-9-1), and more. However, the causal relationship between events often lacks explicit causal clues, and complex associations between events across different sentences

exist. Additionally, the combinations of different event pairs exhibit various dependency relations within the same sentence. Accurately identifying whether these events have causal relationships remains a crucial challenge to be addressed. As shown in Figure  $1(a)$  $1(a)$ , the four sentences come from the same document segment, where  $e_i$  represents the i-th event. Based on the inputs and event information, the ECI model needs to identify the causal relationship chain as illustrated in Figure [1\(](#page-1-0)b). For example, in the sentence-level ECI task, given the input sentence  $S_1$  and events  ${e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6}$  are required to identify five combinations of intra-sentence causal event pairs  $\langle e_1, \text{cause}, e_2 \rangle, \langle e_1, \text{cause}, e_6 \rangle, \langle e_6, \text{cause}, e_2 \rangle,$  $\langle e_6, cause, e_5 \rangle, \langle e_5, cause, e_2 \rangle.$ 

Existing studies [\(Zuo et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021;](#page-10-0) [Ding et al.,](#page-8-1) [2024;](#page-8-1) [Wu et al.,](#page-10-1) [2023\)](#page-10-1) usually directly match event mentions with entity information from external knowledge bases. However, these studies have the following shortcomings: (1) They pay less attention to the dependency relationships between similar events. As shown in Figure [1\(](#page-1-0)a), event mentions of the same colour indicate that they share similar semantics and belong to the same event concept. For example, the event mentions "following/followed" in the dataset belong to the event concept "follow". An event concept typically includes multiple semantically and formally similar event mentions, which have coreference relationships between these event mentions. However, existing methods tend to focus only on the local context of event mentions within sentences, neglecting the global semantic information of the event concept within the document, leading to inconsistencies when predicting causal relationships between multiple event-mention pairs. (2) The connection between unstructured texts and structured knowledge has been relatively weak, and the quality of the knowledge is not high. Most existing methods directly use event mentions in

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<span id="page-1-0"></span>S1. There's a lot of anger(e1) here': Riot(e2) breaks out(e3) in Brooklyn following(e4) candlelight vigil(e5) for 16 - year - old shot(e6) by cops.

S2. Memorial(e7) for Kimani (Kiki) Gray, who was fatally **wounded(e8)** by police Saturday after allegedly pointing(e9) a gun in their direction,  $turned(e10)$  ugly(e11) as nearly 100 angry mourners clashed(e12) with cops, tossing(e13) bottles and creating(e14) a melec(e15).

S3. Anger(e16) over the death(e17) of a Brooklyn teenager shot and killed by police fueled(e18) a riot(e19) on the streets of East Flatbush Monday — projectiles were hurled(e20) at cops, car windows were smashed(e21) and a pharmacy customer had a bottle bashed(e22) over his head.

S4. The scenes(e23) of violence(e24) on blocks near the NYPD's 67th Precinct station house followed(e25) a protest(e26) march(e27) that grew(e28) out of a candlelight vigil for Kimani (Kiki) Gray 16, killed(e29) by police bullets on Saturday.



Figure 1: Schematic diagram of event pair interactions in ECI. (a) Example of a document in the dataset that contains 4 sentences with 29 events, different event mentions of the same colour indicate that these event mentions belong to the same event concept. (b) Schematic diagram of causal chains, where solid lines indicate causal interactions of events within sentences and dashed lines indicate causal relationships of events between sentences.

<span id="page-1-1"></span>

Data set		ESC CTB
Event Count	5334 6881	
Covered Event Count	1547	2202
Coverage	29%	32%

Table 1: Coverage of events in ConceptNet.

the dataset as keywords for matching in external knowledge bases, without considering the coverage of events in the dataset. As shown in Table [1,](#page-1-1) statistical analysis of the EventStoryLine (ESC) [\(Caselli and Vossen,](#page-8-2) [2017\)](#page-8-2) and Cause-TimeBank (CTB) [\(Mirza and Tonelli,](#page-9-2) [2014\)](#page-9-2) reveals that about 70% of the events cannot obtain relevant knowledge from external knowledge bases. In addition, commonsense knowledge bases are typically represented in structured triples (head entity, relation, tail entity), but the events and their contexts are unstructured texts, resulting in heterogeneity between them [\(Bian et al.,](#page-8-3) [2021\)](#page-8-3). Meanwhile, the relationships between entities in knowledge graphs are complex and diverse. In particular, implicit causality often lacks clear causal signal words, and inadequate filtering can introduce noise into the training data.

To address the above limitations, we propose the LKCER method, which introduces the event conceptual information and rich event knowledge to enhance the representations of event pairs. At

the same time, it enhances the model's ability to identify causal relationships by distinguishing between different categories of causal relationships. Figure [2](#page-4-0) illustrates the overall framework of the LKCER method. First, we construct a conceptlevel event heterogeneous graph, which links multiple event mentions belonging to the same event concept within the document, thus capturing the global semantic information of event concepts. Next, we propose a multi-scale hybrid matching strategy to align events in the dataset with entity information from ConceptNet [\(Speer et al.,](#page-9-3) [2017\)](#page-9-3). Meanwhile, we use COMET [\(Bosselut et al.,](#page-8-4) [2019\)](#page-8-4) to generate structured knowledge related to events and further refine and expand it using the LLM. Finally, we design three joint prompt templates for explicit and implicit causal relationships and predict the probability distributions at masked positions using prompt learning methods. The main contributions of this paper are as follows:

- We constructed a conceptual-level event heterogeneous graph that links the local contextual information of events mentioned within a sentence to the global semantic information of the event concept in the document.
- We enhanced the quality of knowledge and improved the connection between unstructured

text and structured knowledge by filtering and expanding structured knowledge through the inductive reasoning capabilities of LLMs.

• On two ECI benchmark datasets, the LKCER method achieved improvements of 2.3% and 2.7% in F1 scores compared to the SOTA methods, demonstrating superior performance among all baseline methods.

## 2 Related Work

Event extraction, a key technology for extracting events from unstructured text, has made significant progress in recent years [\(Wang et al.,](#page-10-2) [2021;](#page-10-2) [Ren](#page-9-4) [et al.,](#page-9-4) [2023;](#page-9-4) [Zhang et al.,](#page-10-3) [2024a\)](#page-10-3). As a crucial downstream task of event extraction, the ECI task initially relied on pattern-matching methods [\(Ittoo](#page-9-5) [and Bouma,](#page-9-5) [2011;](#page-9-5) [Hashimoto et al.,](#page-9-6) [2014\)](#page-9-6), which improved performance through lexical and syntactic features [\(Beamer and Girju,](#page-8-5) [2009;](#page-8-5) [Riaz and](#page-9-7) [Girju,](#page-9-7) [2014\)](#page-9-7). With the advancement of deep learning technologies, modern approaches are generally categorized into knowledge enhancement, graphbased reasoning, and prompt adjustment. Recent studies [\(Zuo et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021;](#page-10-0) [Wu et al.,](#page-10-1) [2023\)](#page-10-1) have begun to explore integrating external knowledge bases (such as ConceptNet and WordNet) into models to enrich event information and enhance model performance. Some graph-based reasoning studies [\(Tran Phu and Nguyen,](#page-10-4) [2021;](#page-10-4) [Pu et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023\)](#page-9-8) model ECI as a graph-based node classification or edge prediction problem. However, relying solely on sentence-internal semantic information often fails to capture the deep semantics of events. To address this, some studies [\(Cao et al.,](#page-8-6) [2021;](#page-8-6) [Ding](#page-8-1) [et al.,](#page-8-1) [2024;](#page-8-1) [Huang et al.,](#page-9-9) [2024\)](#page-9-9) have combined graph-based reasoning with knowledge enhancement, mapping out the relationships between events and various types of knowledge to further enrich event information and improve performance. Additionally, some research [\(Liu et al.,](#page-9-10) [2023;](#page-9-10) [Shen](#page-9-11) [et al.,](#page-9-11) [2022\)](#page-9-11) has used prompt adjustment to capture implicit causal relationships between events, thereby enhancing ECI effectiveness.

### 3 Methodology

#### 3.1 Task Definition

Given a document  $D = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k\}$  and its set of event mentions  $M = \{m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_n\},\$ where *D* consists of multiple sentences  $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_i\}$ , and each  $s_i$  contains multiple event concepts  $E = \{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_j\}$ . As shown in Figure [1\(](#page-1-0)b), event concepts within the same document are often composed of multiple event mentions  $e_i = \{m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_k\}$ , where  $m_i$  may correspond to multiple words in  $D$ . These mentions may include synonyms, different forms of words (such as nouns, verbs and so on), and words where case variations do not affect the meaning. The ECI model needs to identify the causal relationships between any two events  $(e_i, e_j)$  ( $i \neq j$ ) in the E based on the input  $s_i$  and E. Figure [2](#page-4-0) illustrates the framework of the proposed LKCER method, which primarily consists of three components: concept-level event heterograph(Section [3.2\)](#page-2-0), knowledge generation(Section [3.3\)](#page-3-0), joint prompt learning(Section [3.4\)](#page-3-1). The following sections provide a detailed explanation of each component.

## <span id="page-2-0"></span>3.2 Conceptual-Level Event Heterogeneous Graph

An event concept typically includes multiple semantically and formally similar event mentions, which have coreference relationships between these event mentions. To enhance the model's understanding of event concepts, we construct a heterogeneous graph  $G$  that includes event mention nodes and event concept nodes. As illustrated in Figure  $2(a)$  $2(a)$ , given an input document D, the synsets from WordNet [\(Miller,](#page-9-12) [1995\)](#page-9-12) are used to obtain multiple event mentions corresponding to the event concept in the document, handling related irregular verbs and case variations. As shown in Equations [1,](#page-2-1) we use the RoBERTa [\(Liu et al.,](#page-9-13) [2019\)](#page-9-13) as an encoder to extract the hidden contextual representations of the D. As shown in Equations [2,](#page-2-2) we initialize the node representation  $h_{m_i}$  of the event mention  $m_i$  using the word sequence vectors  $\{h_{w_b}, \ldots, h_{w_a}\}\$  corresponding to the event mention. As shown in Equations [3,](#page-2-3) we apply Mix Pooling [\(Yu et al.,](#page-10-5) [2014\)](#page-10-5) the vectors of multiple event mention nodes to obtain the representation vector of an event concept node, where  $\lambda$  is a random value of either 0 or 1.

<span id="page-2-1"></span>
$$
h_{w_i} = RoBERTa(w_i)
$$
 (1)

<span id="page-2-2"></span>
$$
h_{m_i} = \frac{1}{a - b + 1} \sum_{b}^{a} (h_{w_b}, \dots, h_{w_a}) \tag{2}
$$

<span id="page-2-3"></span>
$$
h_{e_i} = \lambda \max_{m_j \in e_i} h_{m_j} + (1 - \lambda) \frac{1}{|e_i|} \sum_{m_j = e_i}^{a} h_{m_j}
$$
 (3)

We introduced three types of edges to capture the interactions between sentences and event concepts. Mention-Mention Edge(as shown in Figure  $2(a1)$  $2(a1)$ : multiple event mention nodes belonging to the same event concept are connected to enhance the semantic consistency of the same event. **Mention-Event Edge**(as shown in Figure  $2(a2)$  $2(a2)$ ): the event mention nodes are connected to their corresponding event concept nodes, aggregating into the global semantics of the event concept. Event-Event Edge(as shown in Figure  $2(a3)$  $2(a3)$ ): when event mentions within an event concept appear in different sentences, edges are constructed between the event concept nodes in different sentences based on co-occurrence relationships. Finally, RGCN [\(Chen](#page-8-7) [et al.,](#page-8-7) [2019\)](#page-8-7) is used to transmit semantic information between nodes in the heterogeneous graph, as shown in Equation [4.](#page-3-2) The attention mechanism fuses the semantics information of multiple event mentions contained in the event concept to obtain the representation vector  $h_{e_i}^{m_j}$  of the event concept.

<span id="page-3-2"></span>
$$
h_{e_i}^{m_j} = \sum_{m_j \in M(e_i)} \frac{exp\left(h_{m_j}^T h_{e_i}\right)}{\sum_{m_n \in M(e_i)} exp\left(h_{m_n}^T h_{e_i}\right)} h_{m_j}
$$
\n(4)

### <span id="page-3-0"></span>3.3 Knowledge Generation

Event matching: As shown in Table [1,](#page-1-1) events in the benchmark datasets for the ECI task suffer from a low success rate indirectly matching with ConceptNet knowledge base nodes. Therefore, this paper proposes a multi-scale hybrid matching strategy to map events to knowledge base nodes more accurately. Figure [2\(](#page-4-0)b1) shows that the specific matching rules are: (1) Direct Matching Phase: Check whether the event description exactly matches a concept in the knowledge base. If the match is successful, it is set as the event concept. (2) Tokenization Matching Phase: If the match fails in phase 1 and the length of the event description is no longer than one word, tokenization matching is performed. In this phase, the Unigram Language Model [\(Kudo,](#page-9-14) [2018\)](#page-9-14) is used to extract the primary form of the event description, which is then matched with concepts in the knowledge base. If the match is successful, it is set as the event concept. (3) Word Embedding Matching Phase: This phase occurs under two conditions: the match fails in phase 1 and the event description is longer than one word, or the match fails in phase 2. In this phase, the cosine similarity between the event

description and the embeddings of the concepts in the knowledge base is calculated, and the concept with the highest similarity is selected as the event concept.

Knowledge generation: To generate more accurate and rich event knowledge, we use COMET, which can generate loosely structured open-domain knowledge descriptions with an accuracy of 91.7% on ConceptNet. As shown in Figure [2\(](#page-4-0)b2), we input the event concept and specified relations into COMET to generate event-related knowledge. For example, for the generated knowledge path  ${k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_q, \ldots}$ , where  $k_p$  is the q-th knowledge triplet, the template-based transformation algorithm [\(Bian et al.,](#page-8-3) [2021\)](#page-8-3) is used to convert each triple into sentences  $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_q, \ldots\}$  that describing its content, where sentence  $s_q$  describes the triplet  $k_q$ .

Knowledge filtering and expansion: To further filter and calibrate the generated knowledge and uncover implicit knowledge contained in the LLM, we use commonsense knowledge as prompts and leverage the LLM's learning capabilities for knowledge filtering and expansion. We decompose the problem and use multi-stage prompting (multiple rounds of input-output) to explicitly provide background knowledge, follow-up questions, and intermediate answers in the prompts, guiding the LLM in reasoning and generating the required event causality knowledge. As shown in Figure [2\(](#page-4-0)b3), in the first stage, the event commonsense knowledge  $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_q, \ldots\}$  generated by COMET is used as the background knowledge. Then, the LLM filters, summarizes and supplements valuable knowledge for the ECI. In the second stage, document D, containing the event and the knowledge generated in the first step, is re-input into the model to generate event causality knowledge.

#### <span id="page-3-1"></span>3.4 Joint Prompting

In the ECI task, events have different types of causality categories (explicit causality and implicit causality). Based on these distinct causality characteristics, we designed three different prompt templates and labeled words to utilize task-related knowledge effectively. Specifically, as shown in Figure [2\(](#page-4-0)c), given the input sequence  $x_{in}$  =  $[CLS] \oplus s_i \oplus [SEP]$ , the source event  $e_s$  and target event  $e_t$  form an event pair  $(e_s, e_t)$ , where  $\oplus$  represents the concatenation operation. The formalization of the three prompt templates is shown in Ap-pendix [A.](#page-10-6)  $ECI(x_{in})$  represents a prompt template

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

Figure 2: The overall framework of LKCER. (a) represents the construction process of the concept-level event heterogeneous graph, (b) represents the knowledge generation process, and (c) represents the joint prompt learning process.

that does not distinguish between types of causal relationships, and the set of causality label words is defined as  $V_{ECI}$ : {Causality, noCausality}. As shown in Equation [5,](#page-4-1) the probability distribution of  $V(y)$  at position [*MASK*] is used to determine the probability of the causal label  $p(y|x_{in})$ , where R is the RoBERTa, and  $w_{v(\bullet)}$  reuses the weights from RoBERTa;  $E\text{-}ECI(x_{in})$  represents the explicit causality prompt template, which aims to detect whether causal signal words exist in  $x_{in}$ . By identifying these signal words, the model determines the explicit causal relationship between events;  $I - ECI(x_{in})$  represents the implicit causality prompt template, which aims to detect  $x_{in}$  events causally related to the source event  $e_s$ . The label words for both  $E - ECI(x_{in})$  and  $I - ECI(x_{in})$ are  $V_{I/E-ECI}$ : { $w_1, w_2, ..., w_k$ , nothing}.

<span id="page-4-1"></span>
$$
p\left(R\left(\nu(y)|[x_{in} + ECI(x_{in})]\right)\right) = \frac{\exp(w_{\nu(y)}h_{[MASK]})}{\sum_{y' \in \gamma} \exp(w_{\nu(y')}h_{[MASK]})}
$$
(5)

To enrich the causal event information, we in-

corporate the knowledge-enhanced event representation from Section [3.3](#page-3-0) and the event concept representation from Section [3.2.](#page-2-0) We use RoBERTa's MLM head with the joint prompt learning method to predict the probability distribution at the masked positions, which is then used as the result. These three prompt tasks share semantic information, effectively connecting the ECI task and joint prompt learning.

#### 3.5 Training and Prediction

For any two events  $(e_s, e_t)(s \neq t)$  in the given text  $D = \{s_1, s_2, ..., s_n\}$ , their final feature representation  $h_{d_{s,t}}$  includes: (1) sentence  $s_i$  feature representation; (2) source event  $e_s$  feature and target event  $e_t$  feature; (3) multiple event mention representations  $h_{e_i}$  contained in the event concept; (4) corresponding generated knowledge representation; (5) prompt templates with learnable labels, where the label words of the prediction model are represented as [MASK]. We use the LSTM model to process the input features. The probability  $p_{st}$ of predicting the source event and target event is as shown in Equation [6,](#page-5-0) where  $W_{st}$  and  $b_{st}$  are learnable parameters.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>
$$
p_{st} = softmax(W_{st}h_{d_{s,t}} + b_{st})
$$
 (6)

As shown in Equation [7,](#page-5-1) we use the crossentropy loss function to obtain  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ECI}(x_{in})}$ , where  $D^*$  represents the training sample, and  $\tilde{p}_{st} \in (0,1)$ denotes the ground truth label of event pair  $(e_s, e_t)$ . The losses of  $E - ECI(x_{in})$  and  $I - ECI(x_{in})$ are multiplied by  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ , then added to the ECI loss to obtain the final loss  $\mathcal{L}$ .

<span id="page-5-1"></span>
$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{ECI}(x_{in})} = -\sum_{s \in D^*} \sum_{e_s \neq e_t} \tilde{p}_{st} - (1 - \tilde{p}_{st}) \log (1 - p_{st}) \tag{7}
$$

 $\mathcal{L}_{all} = \mathcal{L}_{ECI(x_{in})} + \lambda (\mathcal{L}_{I-ECI(x_{in})} + \mathcal{L}_{E-ECI(x_{in})})$  (8)

# 4 Experiments

### 4.1 Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

We validate our method on two benchmark datasets: ESC and CTB. The specific information related to the dataset can be found in Appendix [B.](#page-10-7) Following the same splits as previous studies [\(Shen et al.,](#page-9-11) [2022;](#page-9-11) [Liu et al.,](#page-9-10) [2023\)](#page-9-10), we perform 5-fold crossvalidation on ESC and 10-fold cross-validation on CTB. In addition, we use Precision (P), Recall (R), and F1-score (F1) as evaluation metrics.

#### 4.2 Parameter Settings

We use the pre-trained language model RoBERTabase as the base model to encode the input sequences. The newly added tokens in RoBERTa, such as knowledge and graph features, are all 768 dimensional embeddings. ChatGLM-6B [\(Zeng](#page-10-8) [et al.,](#page-10-8) [2022\)](#page-10-8) is used as the LLM for generating event causality knowledge. We use AdamW [\(Loshchilov](#page-9-15) [and Hutter,](#page-9-15) [2017\)](#page-9-15) as the optimization algorithm for the model. We set the learning rate of the pretrained parameters to 1e-5 and the learning rate of the newly added parameters to 1e-4. The batch size is set to 6, the number of RGCN [\(Chen et al.,](#page-8-7) [2019\)](#page-8-7) layers is set to 2.

#### 4.3 Baselines

To demonstrate the effectiveness of this work, we compare our method with previous state-ofthe-art models. For the ESC and CTB datasets, we chose the following baselines for comparison. Feature-based methods: (1) Seq [\(Choubey and](#page-8-8) [Huang,](#page-8-8) [2017\)](#page-8-8), a model for partitioning event temporal relationships in ECI. (2) DD [\(Mirza and](#page-9-2)

[Tonelli,](#page-9-2) [2014\)](#page-9-2), a data-driven method. Knowledgeaugmented methods: (1) KnowDis [\(Zuo et al.,](#page-10-9) [2020\)](#page-10-9), a knowledge-enhanced distantly supervised method for ECI. (2) LearnDA [\(Zuo et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021\)](#page-10-0), a learnable knowledge-guided data aug-mentation method (3) LSIN [\(Cao et al.,](#page-8-6) [2021\)](#page-8-6), a method that induces structured knowledge into networks to enhance ECI. (4) DPF [\(Huang et al.,](#page-9-9) [2024\)](#page-9-9), a method for integrating task-specific knowledge from commonsense graphs into ECI. Graph neural network-based methods: (1) RichGCN [\(Tran Phu and Nguyen,](#page-10-4) [2021\)](#page-10-4), a GCN-based document-level ECI model. (2) SemSIn [\(Hu et al.,](#page-9-16) [2023\)](#page-9-16), a semantic structure network-based method for ECI. (3) ECLEP [\(Pu et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023\)](#page-9-8), a method that enhances ECI using event pair interaction graphs. (4) GCKAN [\(Ding et al.,](#page-8-1) [2024\)](#page-8-1), a method that enhances ECI using graph contrastive learning. Prompt-adjusted methods: (1) KEPT [\(Liu](#page-9-10) [et al.,](#page-9-10) [2023\)](#page-9-10), a knowledge-augmented and promptadjusted method for ECI. (2) DPJL [\(Shen et al.,](#page-9-11) [2022\)](#page-9-11), a prompt-adjusted approach for enhancing ECI.

#### 4.4 Main Result

Table [2](#page-6-0) shows our experimental results on the ESC and CTB datasets. Experimental results show that our proposed LKCER method outperforms all baseline methods, improving the F1 score by 1.9% and 2.7% over previous SOTA methods on two datasets, respectively. Specifically, the LKCERsingle performs better on the CTB dataset, with an F1 score 3.9% higher than the DPJL method, while the LKCERmuti performs better on the ESC dataset. This may be because the ESC dataset has more annotated data, which helps identify causal signal words and distinguish between explicit and implicit causal relationships, thereby enabling better training of label word embeddings in the LKCER<sub>muti</sub> method. On the other hand, the limited annotated data in the CTB dataset may cause excessive prompt templates to introduce additional noise. Overall, these results demonstrate that the LKCER method significantly enhances the performance of the ECI task.

#### 5 Analysis

#### 5.1 The Effect of LKCER

To better understand the advantages of the LKCER method, we attribute its performance improvements in the ECI task to the following factors:

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

<b>Methods</b>	Model				<b>EventStoryLine Cause-TimeBank</b>		
			R	F1	P	R	F1
Feature-based	DD(Mirza and Tonelli, 2014)					67.3 22.6	33.9
methods	Seq (Choubey and Huang, 2017)	32.7	44.9	37.8	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$		$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
	KnowDis (Zuo et al., 2020)	39.7	66.5	49.7		42.3 60.5	49.8
Knowledge-augmented	LearnDA $(Zuo et al., 2021)$	42.2	69.8	52.6 41.9 68.0			51.9
methods	LSIN(Cao et al., 2021)	47.9	58.1		52.5 51.5 56.2		53.7
	DPF(Huang et al., 2024)	55.9	69.8	62.1		53.7 64.2	58.5
	RichGCN(Tran Phu and Nguyen, 2021)		49.2 63.0	55.2	39.7 56.5		46.7
Graph-based	SemSIn(Hu et al., 2023)		50.5 63.0	56.1		52.3 65.8	58.3
methods	ECLEP(Pu et al., $2023$ )	49.3	68.1	57.1		50.6 63.4	56.3
	GCKAN(Ding et al., 2024)	50.9	60.6	55.3		52.2 60.7	56.1
Prompt-adjusted	KEPT(Liu et al., 2023)	50.0	68.8	57.9		48.2 60.0	53.5
methods	DPJL(Shen et al., 2022)	65.3	70.8	67.9	63.6 66.7		64.6
Prompt <sub>single</sub>	LKCER <sub>single</sub> (ours)	67.1	69.5	68.1		64.5 75.4	68.5
Prompt <sub>muti</sub>	LKCER <sub>multi</sub> (ours)		67.3 72.7	69.8	61.0 76.3		67.3

Table 2: Experimental Results on the ESC and CTB Datasets(%).

(1) Knowledge-enhanced methods improve the performance of the ECI task effectively by integrating PLMs, compared to purely feature-based methods. However, relying solely on event mentions in the dataset as keywords to match with external knowledge bases not only result in a low matching success rate but also tend to introduce noise, leading to information imbalance between events. Experimental results show that the LKCER method using knowledge generation methods is effective in improving the performance of ECI on  $Prompt_{single}$ alone. Accurate event knowledge improves the ability to reason about relationships between events.

(2) The LKCER method significantly outperforms graph-based methods, as most previous methods primarily used retrieved external knowledge to construct graphs or introduce additional causal labels to distinguish events, while neglecting the coreference relationships between event mentions within the same document. The LKCER method constructs graphs based on the relationships between events within a document, deeply exploring the global semantic connections between event concepts, thereby enhancing the performance of ECI.

(3) The LKCER method, using only the Prompt<sub>single</sub> module, significantly outperforms the KEPT method, which combines knowledge enhancement with a single prompt. In addition to more precise knowledge matching, the LKCER method also addresses the heterogeneity between structured knowledge and unstructured text. It further leverages LLM to filter and inductively gener-

<span id="page-6-1"></span>

Figure 3: The effect of different types of knowledge on the LKCER method.

ate causal knowledge, enriching event information.

#### 5.2 Ablation Study

This section analyzes the contribution of each module in the  $LKCER_{\text{muti}}$  and  $LKCER_{\text{single}}$  methods through ablation experiments, with the results shown in Table [3.](#page-7-0) We examined the following ablation models: - CE: removing the concept-level event heterogeneous graph module. After removing this module, the results show a decline in overall performance, indicating that it helps the model better learn the global semantic connections between event concepts. Additionally, the performance drop is more pronounced in the LKCER<sub>muti</sub> method compared to LKCERsingle method. This

<span id="page-7-1"></span>

<b>Document and Events</b>	<b>Event knowledge</b>			
	<b>Riot:</b> An intense response to social dissatisfaction involving violence, property			
$S1$ : There is much (anger) here: <b>Riot</b> breaks out in Brooklyn	destruction, and disorder.			
following a candlelight vigil for 16-year-old shot by cops.	Shot: Firmg ammunition that causes severe injury or death and triggers			
	significant social and emotional reactions.			
S2: <b>Anger</b> over the death of a Brooklyn teenager (shot) and killed	Anger: A destructive emotion caused by frustration or threat, potentially			
by police fueled a <b>riot</b>	leading to violence and affecting social dynamics.			
	Rioter: Someone who expresses dissatisfaction through destructive actions,			
S3 (Rioters) began (pitching) glass bottles at police officers as they	causing damage and sparking debates.			
moved in on the crowd, a police source said.	Pitching: Throwing objects during riots or protests, escalating conflicts and causing property damage and injuries.			
Event mentions within event concepts in the same document.	E Anger[M: anger]} E Shot[M: shooting, hit, hitting, pitch, pitching] E Riot[M: riot, rioter]			

Figure 4: Case Study. The upper part of the figure shows a portion of sentences from the same document, where  $S_i$ represents the sentence number. The event pairs that require causal relationship identification are underlined and highlighted in bold black. Boxes represent event concepts, and connected circles represent event mentions with semantic similarity. Repeated knowledge generated from the same event is shown only once on the right side. The lower part of the figure displays all event mentions contained within the event concepts from the same document, where E represents the event concepts and M represents the event mentions.

may be due to the lack of relational information between event concepts, which affects the model's ability to effectively integrate semantic information across multiple prompt templates, thus impacting its performance in capturing complex causal relationships. - KG: removing all knowledge. The experimental results demonstrate that the LKCER<sub>muti</sub> method experiences a more significant performance drop on the ESC dataset, while the LKCERsingle method shows a more significant decline in the CTB dataset. This suggests that after removing the knowledge, multiple prompt templates can partially alleviate the problem of limited annotated data in the CTB dataset through diversity in prompts. However, in the more richly annotated ESC dataset, noise and semantic redundancy may reduce the model's ability to capture semantic consistency across templates. This phenomenon further confirms the critical role of rich knowledge matching in event relationship reasoning, particularly in scenarios with limited labeled data, where unstructured knowledge is crucial to improving the performance of ECI models.

### 5.3 Effect of Different Knowledge Types

To validate the effect of different types of knowledge on the ECI task, we conducted tests using the LKCER method on two datasets while keeping other settings fixed, with the results shown in Figure [3.](#page-6-1)  $KG<sub>LM</sub>$  refers to using only unstructured causal knowledge generated by LLM;  $KG_{CO}$  refers to structured knowledge generated by the COMET model with precise matching; KG<sub>con</sub> refers to di-

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

<b>Methods</b>				<b>EventStoryLine Cause-TimeBank</b>			
	P.		$R$ F1 P R			<b>F1</b>	
$LKCER_{\text{muti}}$			67.3 72.7 69.8 61.0 76.3 67.3				
-CE			67.1 67.7 68.6 63.5 71.9 66.1				
$-KG$			65.0 67.3 66.1 62.3 68.7 64.8				
LKCER <sub>single</sub> 67.1 69.5 68.1 64.5 75.4						68.5	
-CE			64.9 70.4 67.3 64.2 72.9 67.9				
$-KG$			66.2 67.3 66.6 62.6 69.0 65.1				

Table 3: Ablation Results on the ESC and CTB Datasets( $%$ ).

rectly using structured knowledge from Concept-Net. The results indicate that although the LKCER method, using ConceptNet knowledge with lower event coverage, achieves some performance improvement compared to the KEPT method within the same knowledge base, the knowledge generated through accurate event matching performs significantly better. Specifically, the unstructured knowledge expanded and filtered by the LLM enables LKCER method to achieve best performance.

### 5.4 Case Study

This section demonstrates the effectiveness of the LKCER method and the contribution of each module through a case study. As shown in Figure [4,](#page-7-1) the three sentences are extracted from the same document in the dataset. The analysis reveals that semantically similar event mentions create connections between the sentences. For example, the event pair to be identified in S1 is (Riot, shot), where "Riot" in S1 is semantically similar to "riot" in S2. We leverage the related event information in S2 to supplement S1. Additionally, incorporating knowledge generated by the LLM enriches event representations, aiding the model in learning and understanding complex causal relationships between events.

## 6 Conclusion

We propose an ECI method enhanced by LLM knowledge and conceptual-level event relationships. This method introduces the event concept information and precise event knowledge to enrich the representation of event pairs, while also improving the model's ability to identify causal relationships by distinguishing between different categories of these relationships. The experimental results on two widely used datasets show that our method performs exceptionally well in ECI tasks.

# 7 Limitations

In this paper, we focus solely on whether a causal relationship exists between given events, without delving into the potential causal features in unannotated data. At the same time, this paper only implements sentence-level ECI, while documentlevel ECI tasks still face numerous challenges. In addition, LKCER remains a black-box model, thus exploring the interpretability of ECI models, such as self-explaining rationalization [\(Zhao](#page-10-10) [et al.,](#page-10-10) [2024;](#page-10-10) [Lei et al.,](#page-9-17) [2016\)](#page-9-17) and structured explanation [\(Fan et al.,](#page-8-9) [2024;](#page-8-9) [Zhang et al.,](#page-10-11) [2024b;](#page-10-11) [Song et al.,](#page-9-18) [2024\)](#page-9-18), represents a promising direction for research. These aspects will serve as critical focuses for our future work.

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### <span id="page-10-6"></span>A Design of Different Prompt Templates

The details of the three prompt templates are provided in Equations [9,](#page-10-12) [10,](#page-10-13) and [11.](#page-10-14) Among them,  $\langle t_i \rangle \langle t_{cause} \rangle$  are learnable tokens, aimed at enhancing the dynamic adaptability of the model during the training process.

<span id="page-10-12"></span>
$$
ECI(x_{in}) = \text{The event} \langle t_1 \rangle e_s \langle t_2 \rangle
$$
  
< 
$$
\langle t_5 \rangle [\text{MASK}] \langle t_6 \rangle
$$
  
the event
$$
\langle t_3 \rangle e_t \langle t_4 \rangle
$$
 (9)

<span id="page-10-13"></span>
$$
E - ECI(x) = \text{The event} \langle t_1 \rangle e_s \langle t_2 \rangle
$$
  

$$
\langle t_{cause} \rangle \langle t_3 \rangle e_t \langle t_4 \rangle
$$
  
by the singular word of  

$$
\langle t_{13} \rangle [\text{MASK}] \langle t_{14} \rangle
$$
 (10)

<span id="page-10-14"></span>
$$
I - ECI(x) = \text{In the Sentence}[CLS],
$$
  
eventt<sub>1</sub>>*s*t<sub>2</sub>>/*t*<sub>causs</sub>> (11)  
eventt<sub>9</sub>>[MASK]<*t*<sub>10</sub>>

### <span id="page-10-7"></span>B Datasets

ESC is an event storyline dataset that supports instance-level causality identification tasks. It contains 22 topics and 258 documents. Statistical analysis shows that the dataset includes 5,334 event mentions, which can be aggregated into 3,678 event concepts, forming 54,326 event mention pairs and 34,491 event concept pairs, of which 5,625 event mention pairs and 1,814 event concept pairs have causal relationships. The dataset covers both intrasentence and cross-sentence causal relationships,

with most of them being implicit causality. The CTB dataset contains 184 documents with 9631 event mention pairs, which can be aggregated into 6,813 event concepts, forming 7,608 event concept pairs, including 318 causal labels.