IDIAPers @ Causal News Corpus 2022: Extracting Cause-Effect-Signal Triplets via Pre-trained Autoregressive Language Model

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Abstract

In this paper, we describe our shared task submissions for Subtask 2 in CASE-2022, Event Causality Identification with Casual News Corpus. The challenge focused on the automatic detection of all cause-effect-signal spans present in the sentence from news-media. We detect cause-effect-signal spans in a sentence using T5 — a pre-trained autoregressive language model. We iteratively identify all cause-effect-signal span triplets, always conditioning the prediction of the next triplet on the previously predicted ones. To predict the triplet itself, we consider different causal relationships such as \( \text{cause} \rightarrow \text{effect} \rightarrow \text{signal} \). Each triplet component is generated via a language model conditioned on the sentence, the previous parts of the current triplet, and previously predicted triplets. Despite training on an extremely small dataset of 160 samples, our approach achieved competitive performance, being placed second in the competition. Furthermore, we show that assuming either \( \text{cause} \rightarrow \text{effect} \) or \( \text{effect} \rightarrow \text{cause} \) order achieves similar results.1

1 Introduction

Causality links the relationship between two arguments — cause and effect (Barik et al., 2016). Figure 1 shows examples extracted from the Causal News Corpus (CNC) (Tan et al., 2022b). Cause clauses appear in yellow, Effect in green, and Signals in pink; hereafter referred to as CES triplets. As shown in the example, “the bombing created panic among villagers”, illustrates that the event “bombing” caused the event “panic among villagers” termed as effect. The linkage among the cause and effect, i.e., the word “created”, is termed as signal and can be expressed explicitly or implicitly.

1Code at https://github.com/idiap/cncsharedtask.

Automatically detecting and extracting causality relations plays a vital role in many natural language processing (NLP) works to tackle inference and understanding (Dunietz et al., 2020; Fajcik et al., 2020; Jo et al., 2021; Feder et al., 2021a). It has applications in various down-streaming NLP tasks, namely, causal question-answering generation, explaining social media behavior, political phenomena, effective education, and gender bias in the research community (Tan et al., 2014; Wood-Doughty et al., 2018; Sridhar and Getoor, 2019; Veitch et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Feder et al., 2021b).

In this paper, we describe our methodology for CASE-2022 cause-effect-signal span detection shared task (Subtask 2). Overall, our main contributions are listed below:

1. We show that cause-effect-signal spans can be extracted by a simple pre-trained generative seq2seq model trained on just 160 instances.
2. We develop a method for extracting all causal triplets from the sentence in an iterative manner.
3. We investigate how language models deal with

Figure 1: Examples from the Causal News Corpus, causes are in yellow, effects in green, and signals in pink. If a sentence has both — cause and effect — it is referred to as casual (A), otherwise, as non-casual (B).
the causal order of the cause and effect spans to answer the research question “should cause be identified first, and only then effect, or vice-versa?”.

4. We show that an efficient F1 best-substring matching algorithm, known for question answering, can be applied to deal with rare cases when a language model (LM) does not generate part of the input sequence.

2 Related Work

The problem of causality extraction from text is a challenging task as it requires semantic understanding and contextual knowledge. There were many attempts in the domain of linguistics for corpora creation for event extraction but with limited size such as CausalTimeBank (CTB) (Mirza et al., 2014) from news with 318 pairs, CaTeRS (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016) from short stories with 488 casual links, EventStoryLine (Caselli and Vossen, 2017) from online news articles with 1,770 causal event pairs, semantic relation corpora PDTB-3 (Webber et al., 2019) with over 7,000 causal relations and CNC corpus (Tan et al., 2022b,c) with 1,957 causal events with multiple event pairs. Compared to previous datasets, CNC differs by focusing on event sentences, accepting arguments which does not need to form a clause, and not limiting itself to pre-defined list of connectives, but instead including causal examples in more varied linguistic constructions. The previous work in this domain can be broadly classified into knowledge-based approaches, statistical ML, and deep-learning-based approaches. The knowledge-based approach uses linguistic patterns by predefining hand-crafted or keywords (Garcia et al., 1997; Khoo et al., 2000; Radinsky et al., 2012; Beamer et al., 2008; Girju et al., 2009; Ittoo and Bouma, 2013; Kang et al., 2014; Khoo et al., 1998; Bui et al., 2010).

Statistical techniques (Girju, 2003; Do et al., 2011) rely on building probabilistic models over features extracted via third-party NLP tools such as Wordnet (Miller, 1994). Deep-learning techniques map words and features into low-dimensional dense vectors, which may alleviate the feature sparsity problem. The most frequent used sequence to sequence models are feed-forward network (Ponti and Korhonen, 2017), long short-term memory networks (Krueengkrai et al., 2017; Dasgupta et al., 2018; Martínez-Cámara et al., 2017) convolutional neural networks (Jin et al., 2020; Krueengkrai et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016), recurrent neural networks (Yao et al., 2019), gated recurrent units (Chen et al., 2016) which embed semantic and syntactic information in local consecutive word sequences (Yao et al., 2019). Later unsupervised training model such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2019), RoBERTa (Becquin, 2020), graph convolution network (Zhang et al., 2018), graph attention networks and joint model for entity relation extraction (Li et al., 2017; Wang and Lu, 2020; Zhao et al., 2021; Bekoulis et al., 2018).

In this work, we base our model on T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), a sequence-to-sequence transformer model, pre-trained on a mixture of denoising objective and 25 supervised tasks such as machine translation, linguistic acceptability, abstractive summarization or question answering. The unsupervised denoising objective randomly replaces spans of the input with different mask tokens, and generates contents of these masked spans prefixed with these special mask tokens. Furthermore, our work shares similarities with pointer-network (Vinyals et al., 2015) based generative framework for various NER subtasks introduced by Yan et al. (2021). Contrastively, our work is more adapted to low-resource scenarios, as no extra parameters were added to our system, at the cost of errors, which can happen in the postprocessing matching step.

3 Problem Description

CASE-2022 shared task challenge (Tan et al., 2022a) aimed for event causality identification, and extraction in casual news corpus (Tan et al., 2022b). It comprised of two subtasks, namely causal event classification (Subtask 1) and cause-effect-signal span detection (Subtask 2). Subtask 2 aims on extracting the spans corresponding to cause-effect-signal (CES) triplets, as shown in Figure 1. We trained a generative seq2seq model to address this challenge and extracted the CES triplets using an iterative procedure (see Section 4.1).

The dataset statistics are presented in Table 1. The number of total sentences is given by the column #Sentences, whereas a total number of CES triplets is in column #Relations. Column #Signals shows how many signal annotations were present in the total number of CES triplets.

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2We participated in both subtasks, but report on Subtask 2 in this paper. For Subtask 1, we refer reader to our standalone publication (Burdisso et al., 2022).
4 Methodology

4.1 Language Model Training

We utilize T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), a pre-trained autoregressive transformer-based language model trained on a mixture of unsupervised and supervised tasks that require language understanding. The model is conditioned $n \times 3$ times for each example, as there can be $n$ CES triplets in one sentence (up to $n = 4$ triplets in training data). Each time, we condition the language model 3 times for every example and its corresponding CES triplet, generating a different triplet component (cause, effect, and signal) to learn to generate the entire CES triplet. As these triplets are unordered, we uniformly sample a random path among them (e.g., 2-3-1-4, for sample with four triplets) during training. We only train with as many triplets, as available in the training data. We now describe the input format, further illustrated in Appendix B.

Firstly, the model’s encoder is conditioned with sentence tokens $\langle$sentence$\rangle$ followed by the history of already generated CES triplets for this example (empty if there was none) as

$\langle$sentence$\rangle$ _history : $\langle$history$\rangle$.

The history is always prepended with _history: tokens. The content of the history are the already generated triplets. Each part of the triplet is prepended with its corresponding _cause:, or _effect:, or _signal: sequence. Concurrently, model’s decoder is prefixed with _cause: sequence. In this case, the probability of cause sequence is maximized.

Secondly, the model is conditioned with sentence tokens $\langle$sentence$\rangle$ and cause tokens $\langle$cause$\rangle$, prepended with _cause: token as

$\langle$sentence$\rangle$ _cause : $\langle$cause$\rangle$ _history : $\langle$history$\rangle$.

This time, the decoder is prompted with _effect: prefix, and the probability of effect sequence is maximized.

Thirdly, the model is conditioned with sentence tokens $\langle$sentence$\rangle$, cause tokens $\langle$cause$\rangle$, and effect tokens $\langle$effect$\rangle$ with _effect: token prepended as

$\langle$sentence$\rangle$ _cause : $\langle$cause$\rangle$ _effect : $\langle$effect$\rangle$ _history : $\langle$history$\rangle$.

Analogically, decoder is prompted with _signal: prefix and probability of signal sequence is maximized. As the signal might not always be part of the CES triplet, we let the model generate _empty token in these cases.

4.2 Experimental Details

We use cross-entropy (CE) loss to train the T5. We firstly average CE loss over tokens, then over inputs per example (for all CES triplets), and then across mini-batch. We use greedy search to generate the sequences. In inference time, we always generate 4 CES triplets for each sentence, as that is the maximum we observed in the training data.

As we don’t constrain the decoding, the generated sequence does not have to match certain sub-string in the input. However, the extractive task requires inserting tags around a cause, effect, or signal span inside the input sentence. Therefore we map the generated sequences back to the input sentence via F1 matching. In particular, for each generated sequence, we find the most similar substring in the input, where the similarity is measured via token-level F1 score. We utilize an efficient F1 matching technique, which prunes out a significant part of the search space, presented in the Appendix C.1 of Fajcik et al. (2021). We base our implementation on PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019), Transformers (Wolf et al., 2020) libraries and use AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2017) for optimization. We tune hyperparameters via HyperOpt (Bergstra et al., 2015) and report the exact hyperparameters in Appendix A.

4.3 Evaluation Metrics

In this section, we describe the metrics we used to evaluate the system.

F1: F1 score was the official main evaluation metric in the challenge. It is computed over B, and I tags in sequence following the BIO tagging scheme for every example and every CES triplet component separately, using seqeval.

Table 1: Dataset statistics. See text for details.
averaged firstly across dataset examples, obtaining F1 for each component (Cause F1, Effect F1, Signal F1). Overall F1 is computed as a weighted average of component examples by their frequency.

**CE:** is an average token cross-entropy, computed as described in Section 4.2.

**ES Acc:** is an empty-signal accuracy, i.e., an accuracy of the model predicting no signal span in the CES triplet when given golden cause and effect.

### 4.4 Baseline Model

As a baseline model, we used the CASE-2022 organizers’ provided model for Subtask 2: a random generator that uniformly samples a cause, effect, and signal spans\(^5\) from the sentence. This baseline guarantees the cause and the effect do not overlap.

### 5 Results & Discussion

We now report the results obtained from averaging at least ten measured performances from 10 checkpoints trained with different seeds\(^6\). We studied 4 different variants of our system. System T5-CES is our vanilla model described in 4.1, based on T5-base. System T5-CES\(_{LARGE}\) is the same model based on T5-large. Unlike T5-CES, system T5-ECS reverses the generation order by generating the first effect and cause, followed by the signal (assuming causal order \(\text{effect} \rightarrow \text{cause} \rightarrow \text{signal}\), hence the suffix ECS). Lastly, we studied the effect of conditioning the model on the history of already generated triplets. We remove the history from the input at all times in training and predict the four identical CES triplets for each example in test time. Our ablated results are available in Table 2.

Firstly, the model with no history at input performs significantly worse, validating our hypothesis that the model can learn to decrease the probability of the triplets already contained within the input, even from just 160 samples. Secondly, we observed a general trend that in the Cause F1 T5-CES outperforms T5-ECS and in Effect F1, T5-ECS outperforms T5-CES. This leads to the hypothesis that whichever part of the triplet, cause or effect, is generated first, the language model performs better in its case. Thirdly, we observed that the large model achieved the best results on average. It also achieved our best single-checkpoint performance on the dev set (78.3 Overall F1). However, given the sample size of the dev set, the differences between T5-CES, T5-ECS, and T5-CES\(_{LARGE}\) can hardly be deemed significant.

Next we present our results on the test set in Table 3. We submitted checkpoints with the best overall F1 score on the dev set (Dev F1) to the leaderboard while varying the model types. We observed a significant drop in performance on the test data. As the annotation on the test data is not released at the time of writing, the causes of this performance drop remain unknown. We hypothesize it could have been caused by a covariate shift in the test data, as supported by #Signals statistics in Table 1.

Additionally, we include extra statistics (Dev\(_0\) F1, Dev\(_1\) F1, Dev ES Acc) for our best checkpoints. We expected the performance on the dev subset with two triplets (Dev\(_2\) F1) per example to be worse than on the dev subset with one triplet per sentence (Dev\(_1\) F1). Performance-wise this does not always seem to be the case. Upon manual analysis, we found that the model often failed in the second round of triplet extraction. We found 2 LM hallucinations out of 18 dev samples in the second generation round.

### 6 Inference Speed

Measuring the inference speed on test set, we used Intel i5-based 2080Ti GPU workstation. The inference of 4 CES triplets without postprocessing per 1 sentence example took 1.46 seconds on average. The postprocessing runtime was negligible, taking 0.025 seconds per sentence example on average.

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Table 2: Main results, in terms of Cross-Entropy (CE) and F1, with ± standard deviations on dev data.

| System       | CE  | Cause | Effect | Signal | Overall |
|--------------|-----|-------|--------|--------|---------|
| Baseline     | -   | -     | -      | -      | 2.2     |
| T5-NoHistory | .181| -     | -      | -      | 67.7 ±2 |
| T5-ECS       | .168| 75.9 ±5| 71.3 ±4 | 76.1 ±5 | 73.5 ±2 |
| T5-CES       | .183| 81.0 ±4| 67.8 ±2 | 66.7 ±5 | 73.0 ±2 |
| T5-CES\(_{LARGE}\) | .159| 73.5 ±8 | 74.1 ±4 | 77.2 ±7 | 74.8 ±2 |

Table 3: Top checkpoints submitted to the leaderboard.

| System       | Dev F1 | Dev\(_1\) F1 | Dev\(_2\) F1 | Dev ES Acc | Test F1 |
|--------------|--------|--------------|--------------|------------|---------|
| T5-ECS       | 77.7   | 80.9         | 71.1         | 82         | 43.4    |
| T5-CES\(_{LARGE}\) | 78.3 | 77.4        | 80.0         | 70         | 43.7    |
| T5-CES       | 77.5   | 79.6         | 73.3         | 70         | 48.8    |

\(^5\)Available at https://shorturl.at/5vY04.

\(^6\)Dev set predictions from our best t5-base model are available at https://shorturl.at/bjVZ9.
7 Conclusion

In this work, we have analyzed our CASE-2022 2nd place submissions on Subtask 2. We showed that a generative model could extract cause-effect-signal triplets at the competitive level using just 160 annotated samples. We investigated causal assumptions about the generation order of cause and effect to answer the research question “should cause be identified first, and only then effect, or vice-versa?” and found that while the Overall F1 won’t change significantly, whichever component was generated first achieved better performance on average (Cause first achieved better Cause-F1, and Effect first Effect-F1 respectively). Finally, we showed the F1 difference between the dev subset with 1 or 2 causal triplets per sentence is negligible.

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| Hyperparameter        | Value                        |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| learning rate         | .0002                       |
| hidden dropout        | .1436                       |
| attention dropout     | .4719                       |
| weight decay          | .0214                       |
| minibatch size        | 8                           |
| warmup proportion     | .1570                       |
| scheduler             | constant (no lr decrease)   |
| max steps             | 10,000                      |
| max gradient norm     | 1                           |

Table 4: Hyperparameter setting used in this work.

A Hyperparameters

In Table 4, we report the exact hyperparameters used when fine-tuning T5. Warmup proportion, weight decay, and dropouts are in the (0,1) range (for instance, .4719 means 47.19%).

B Example of Inputs

The input format and label format for a single training example, a sentence with 2 CES triplets, are illustrated in Figure. 2.
I think independent film producers have the responsibility to document what mainstream media failed to report on. But on the eve of the protest’s second anniversary, Chan claims all of Hong Kong’s major cinemas are refusing to show his film. The result, he suspects, is a creeping self-censorship as businesses shy away from offending Beijing. His history:

**Cause:** Basic signals of business shyness from outside Beijing.

**Effect:** Beijing’s self-censorship.

**Signal:** Businesses shy away from offending Beijing.

**History:** Cause: Businesses shy away from offending Beijing. Effect: Censorship.

Figure 2: Example of tokenized inputs for a sentence with two annotated CES triplets. Phrases "ENCODER INPUT", "DECODER PREFIX" and "DECODER TARGET" are not parts of the input, and are included for illustrative purposes only. Special sequences (_cause:, _effect:, _signal:, _history:) used between concatenated parts of the input are in bold.