FactGenius: Combining Zero-Shot Prompting and Fuzzy Relation Mining to Improve Fact Verification with Knowledge Graphs

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

001 Fact-checking is a crucial natural language processing (NLP) task that verifies the truthfulness of claims by considering reliable evidence. Traditional methods are labourintensive, and most automatic approaches focus on using documents as evidence. In this paper, we focus on the relatively under-researched 007 fact-checking with Knowledge Graph data as evidence and experiment on the recently introduced FactKG benchmark. We present FactGenius, a novel method that enhances factchecking by combining zero-shot prompting of large language models (LLMs) with fuzzy text matching on knowledge graphs (KGs). Our method employs LLMs for filtering relevant connections from the graph and validates these connections via distance-based matching. 017 018 The evaluation of FactGenius on an existing benchmark demonstrates its effectiveness, as we show it significantly outperforms state-ofthe-art methods. 021

1 Introduction

024

032

037

Fact-checking is a critical task in natural language processing (NLP) that involves automatically verifying the truthfulness of a claim by considering evidence from reliable sources (Thorne et al., 2018). This task is essential for combating misinformation and ensuring the integrity of information in digital communication (Cotter et al., 2022). Traditional fact-checking is performed by domain experts and is a labour-intensive process. Automatic fact-checking systems have been introduced to address this, but most of them work with textual data as evidence sources (Vladika and Matthes, 2023).

Recent advancements in large language models (LLMs) have shown promise in enhancing factchecking capabilities (Choi and Ferrara, 2024). LLMs, with their extensive pre-training on diverse textual data, possess a vast amount of embedded knowledge (Yang et al., 2024). However, their outputs can sometimes be erroneous or lacking in specificity, especially when dealing with complex reasoning patterns required for fact-checking. External knowledge, such as knowledge graphs (KGs) (Hogan et al., 2021), can aid in factchecking. 041

042

043

044

045

047

051

054

056

059

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

070

071

072

073

074

075

077

078

In this paper, we propose FactGenius, a novel approach that combines zero-shot prompting of LLMs with fuzzy relation-mining techniques to improve reasoning on knowledge graphs. Specifically, we leverage DBpedia (Lehmann et al., 2015), a structured source of linked data, to enhance the accuracy of fact-checking tasks.

Our methodology involves using the LLM to filter potential connections between entities in the KG, followed by refining these connections through Levenshtein distance-based fuzzy matching. This two-stage approach ensures that only valid and relevant connections are considered, thereby improving the accuracy of fact-checking.

We evaluate our method using the FactKG dataset (Kim et al., 2023b), which comprises 108,000 claims constructed through various reasoning patterns applied to facts from DBpedia. Our experiments demonstrate that FactGenius significantly outperforms existing baselines (Kim et al., 2023a), particularly when fine-tuning RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019) as a classifier, achieving superior performance across different reasoning types.

In summary, the integration of LLMs with KGs and the application of fuzzy matching techniques represent a promising direction for advancing factchecking methodologies. Our work contributes to this growing body of research by proposing a novel approach that effectively combines these elements, yielding significant improvements in fact-checking performance.



Figure 1: Overall pipeline of FactGenius: The process starts with LLM-based Connection Filtering using a knowledge graph (see Section 4.1.1). In Fuzzy Relation Mining (see Section 4.1.2), Stage-I matches one-hop connections of entities, and optionally, Stage-II includes all entities' connections. The classifier (BERT, RoBERTa, or Zero-Shot LLM; see Section 4.3) then determines if the claim is supported or refuted.

2 Literature Review

Fact-checking has become an increasingly vital aspect of natural language processing (NLP) due to the proliferation of misinformation in digital communication (Guo et al., 2022). Traditional approaches to fact-checking have typically relied on manually curated datasets and rule-based methods, which, while effective in controlled environments, often struggle with scalability and adaptability to new types of misinformation (Saquete et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2022). The labour-intensive nature of these methods also poses significant challenges in rapidly evolving information landscapes (Nakov et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2021).

To address challenges in understanding machinereadable concepts in text, FactKG introduces a new dataset for fact verification with claims, leveraging knowledge graphs, encompassing diverse reasoning types and linguistic patterns, aiming to enhance reliability and practicality in KG-based fact verification (Kim et al., 2023b). Similarly, the Fact Extraction and VERification (FEVER) dataset (Thorne et al., 2018) pairs claims with Wikipedia sentences that support or refute them, providing a benchmark for fact-checking models. The authors employed a combination of natural language inference models and information retrieval systems to assess claim veracity. The GEAR framework (Zhou et al., 2019) improves fact verification by using a graph-based method to aggregate and reason over multiple pieces of evidence, surpassing previous methods by enabling evidence to interact.

Recent advancements in large language models (LLMs) have demonstrated considerable potential

in enhancing fact-checking processes (Kim et al., 2023a; Choi and Ferrara, 2024). LLMs have been pre-trained on vast and diverse corpora (Yang et al., 2024), enabling them to generate human-like text and possess a broad knowledge base (Choi and Ferrara, 2024). However, despite their impressive capabilities, LLMs can produce outputs that are erroneous or lack the specificity required for complex fact-checking tasks (Choi and Ferrara, 2024). This is particularly evident when intricate reasoning and contextual understanding are necessary to verify claims accurately (Chai et al., 2023). Several studies have explored the integration of LLMs with external knowledge sources to improve their performance in factchecking tasks (Cui et al., 2023; Ding et al., 2023). 115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

151

The incorporation of knowledge graphs (KGs) into fact-checking frameworks has also garnered attention. KGs, such as DBpedia (Lehmann et al., 2015), provide structured and linked data that can enhance the contextual understanding of LLMs.

Knowledge graphs have been used to improve various NLP tasks by providing additional context and relationships between entities, as demonstrated by initiatives for knowledge-aware language models (Li et al., 2023; Logan Iv et al., 2019) and KG-BERT (Yao et al., 2019).

Approximate string matching (Navarro, 2001), also called fuzzy string matching, is a technique used to identify partial matches between text strings. Fuzzy matching techniques (Navarro, 2001) have been applied to enhance the integration of LLMs and KGs (Wang et al., 2024).

Levenshtein distance-based similarity measure (Levenshtein et al., 1966) helps in identifying strings which have approximate matches which can be useful for finding relevant

110

111

112

113

114

connections between entities by accommodating
minor discrepancies in data representation This
approach has been beneficial in refining the outputs
of LLMs, ensuring that only valid and contextually
appropriate connections are considered (Guo et al.,
2023).

Our proposed method, FactGenius, builds on these advancements by combining zero-shot prompting of LLMs with a fuzzy relation-mining technique to improve reasoning over KGs. This methodology leverages DBpedia as a structured source of linked data to enhance fact-checking accuracy. By using LLMs to filter potential connections between entities and refining these connections through fuzzy matching, FactGenius aims to address the limitations of existing factchecking models.

3 Preliminaries

158

159

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

181

182

183

187

190

192

194

195

196

197

198

200

A Knowledge Graph (KG) G is a set of triples (s, r, o) with $s, o \in E$ and $r \in R$, where E is the set of entities and R is the set of relations connecting those entities. A KG can be viewed either as a set of tiples or as a graph with nodes in E and edge labels in R. Hence, when we discuss the 1-hop neighbourhood of a certain entity e we refer to a set of entities connected to e through an edge in this graph. For a triple s, r, o we consider s to be connected to o through the edge labelled as r, whereas we consider o to be connected to sthrough the edge labelled as $\sim r$, where $\sim r$ denotes the inverse relation of r.

We consider natural language sentences in the intuitive sense.

Given as input a claim in natural language C, a KG G with entities E, and a set of entities relevant to the claim E_C , the *fact verification with KG evidence task* is to predict whether the claim C is supported or not according to the evidence in G.

4 Methodology

We introduce the FactGenius system for the fact verification with KG evidence task. Our system has two main components: a graph filtering component that selects the relevant KG evidence for the input claim, and a classifier component which uses this evidence together with the claim to predict whether the claim is supported or not.

FactGenius leverages the capabilities of a Large Language Model (LLM) to filter the set of triples in the input graph G. More concretely, an LLM is used in a zero-shot setting to select the relevant relations from the 1-hop neighborhood of the entities E_C associated with claim C. Since the output of LLMs can be erroneous, the triples are further validated against the unfiltered set using fuzzy matching techniques. Finally, the classifier, which can be fine-tuned over pre-trained models like BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) or RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), or a Zero-Shot LLM, determines whether the claim is supported or refuted. The overall pipeline is shown in Figure 1. 201

202

203

204

205

206

207

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

4.1 FactGenius: Relation filtering with LLM and Fuzzy Matching

The first step in our FactGenius pipeline is identifying the graph evidence relevant to the input claim. We select the relevant relations in the 1-hop neighborhood of the claim entities by employing LLM-based filtering. Once we have the relevant relations, we select the 1-hop neighborhood triples. These will be turned into strings and used together with the claim by the classifier.

4.1.1 LLM promt-based filtering

We are utilizing an LLM, particularly the Llama3-Instruct model, to identify and filter potential connections between entities based on a given claim.

This is done in the following way. First, we must select a set of relations to filter using the LLM. Given that KGs can be very large, for example with DBpedia having billions of triples and thousands of edges (Lehmann et al., 2015), considering the full set of relations in an LLM prompt is infeasible. In FactGenius we choose to look only at the 1-hop neighborhood of the given set of claim entities E_C to generate the initial set of relations. We therefore construct a set of 1-hop relations for each entity e, i.e. $\{r | (e, r, e_1) \in G\}$, which we will denote with $R_C(e)$. Then, the LLM is given as input the claim C, and the set of relations $R_C(e)$ for each entity relevant to the input claim (each $e \in E_C$), and has to output subsets of each $R_C(e)$, which we can denote with $R_C^{llm}(e)$. A prompt example is given in Figure 2.

A retry mechanism is employed to handle potential failures in LLM responses. If the LLM output is inadequate (e.g., empty or nonsensical), the request is retried up to a specified maximum number of attempts, in practice 10. Throughout our experiments, however, we did not encounter any cases where the retry exceeded this limit. If this

300

System prompt:

You are an intelligent graph connection finder. You are given a single claim and connection options for the entities present in the claim. Your task is to filter the Connections options that could be relevant to connect given entities to fact-check Claim1. \sim (tilde) in the beginning means the reverse connection.

User prompt:

Claim1:

<<<Well, The celestial body known as 1097 Vicia has a mass of 4.1kg.»>

TASK:

- For each of the given entities given in the DICT structure below:

Filter the connections strictly from the given options that would be relevant to connect given entities to fact-check Claim1.

- Think clever, there could be multi-step hidden connections, if not direct, that could connect the entities somehow.

- Prioritize connections among entities and arrange them based on their relevance. Be extra careful with signs.

 No code output. No explanation. Output only valid python DICT of structure:

{

"1097_Vicia": ["...", "...", ...]

options (strictly choose from): discovered, formerName, epoch, periapsis, apoapsis, ..., Planet/temperature "4.1": ["...", "...", ...], # options (strictly choose from): ~length, ~ethnicGroups, ~percentageOfAreaWater, ~populationDensity, ~engine, ..., ~number } >>>

Figure 2: Filtering prompt example. The text inside << < and > > > changes with each input.

limit is exceeded, the non-filtered sets of relations can be returned.

4.1.2 LLM output validation

As mentioned, the LLM could output relations that are not in G. That is, $R_C^{llm}(e)$ is not necessarily a subset of $R_C(e)$ or even R.

We therefore pass the LLM output through a validation stage, which is one of two stages, namely *Stage A* or *Stage B*,

In *Stage A*, we perform validation of the relation set for each entity from the claim. That is, for each entity $e \in E_C$, we select the subset of $R_C(e)$ that best matches the LLM output $R_C^{llm}(e)$. To do so we fuzzily match the relations in $R_C(e)$ to the relations in $R_C^{llm}(e)$ using Levenshtein distance. Naturally, we consider a threshold on this distance to decide whether two relations match or not.

The limitation of the first validation type is that if the LLM suggests the correct relation, but associates it with the wrong entity, this relevant relation is removed through the first validation type. We will exemplify this on the prompt in Figure 2. The model is given the entities 1097_Vicia and 4.1, each with the list of possible relations. If the model identifies Planet/temperature but associates it with 4.1 instead of 1097_Vicia this relation is removed using *Stage A* validation.

To address this limitation we introduce *Stage B* of validation. In this type of validation we consider the full set of relations that were generated by the LLM model, for all entities associated with the input claim, i.e. $R_C^{llm} = R_C^{llm}(e_1) \cup ... \cup R_C^{llm}(e_n)$ for all $e_1, ..., e_n \in E_C$. Similarly to *Stage A*, we use the Levenshtein to compare the relations in $R_C(e)$ with the filtered relations, but we consider the full filtered set R_C^{llm} instead of the entity-specific set $R_C^{llm}(e)$. The details are explained in Algorithm 1.

4.2 Claim-driven relation filtering

To measure the effectiveness of LLM in relation filtering in 4.1, we create a baseline that ensures that only the relations most pertinent to the claim, based on lexical similarity, are selected. To filter relations relevant to a claim, we begin by tokenizing the claim sentence, excluding stop words, to obtain a list of significant word tokens. Next, for each entity $e \in E_C$ present in the claim, we gather all 1-hop relations $R_C(e)$. We then apply a fuzzy matching process to each tokenized word in the claim, comparing it to the relations in $R_C(e)$

Algorithm 1 LLM output validation

- 1: Input: $E_C = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ entities in the claim;
- R_C(e₁),..., R_C(e₋n): relations in the 1-hop neighborhood for each entity in the claim;
 R^{llm}₁(e₁),..., R^{lm}₁(e_n): relation sets outputed by the LLM:
- 3: R^{llm}_C(e₁),..., R^{llm}_C(e_n): relation sets outputed by the LLM; stage: validation stage, either A or B
 4: Output: R'_C(e₁),..., R'_C(e_n)- Validated relation sets.
- 4. Output: $n_C(e_1), \dots, n_C(e_n)$ valuated related

```
5: procedure VALIDATERELATION6: Initialize: probable_connections: {}
```

```
7: for each e \in E_C do
```

```
for each r \in R_C(e) do
8:
9:
                 if stage = \mathbf{A} then
                      R^{llm-compare} = R_C^{llm}(e)
10:
11:
                  else
                      R^{llm-compare} = R_C^{llm}(e_1) \cup \ldots \cup R_C^{llm}(e_n)
12:
13:
                  end if
                  for each r^{llm} \in R^{llm-compare} do
14:
15:
                      d = \text{LevenshteinDistance}(r, r^{llm})
16:
17:
                      if d > 90 then
                          R'_C(e) = R'_C(e) \cup \{r\}
18:
19:
                      end if
                  end for
20:
21:
              end for
         end for
22: end procedure
```

using the Levenshtein distance. This process yields a subset of relations $R'_C(e)$, where each relation's similarity to the claim words exceeds a predefined threshold.

4.3 With Evidence Classifier

301

302

303

305

307

309

311

312

313

314

317

319

322

323

329

In this configuration, the model is supplied with both the claim and graphical evidence as input, and it then makes predictions regarding the label. FactGenius utilizes graph filtering, as explained in Section 4.1, to ensure retention of the most relevant and accurate connections.

4.4 Evidence Stringification

To effectively pass evidence tiples to the language model, we must first convert these tiples into a string format. For each entity e in the claim with its associated relations $\{r \mid (e, r, e_1) \in G\}$ extracted from the graph G, we transform each triplet (e, r, e_1) into the string format " $|\{e\} > -\{e\} - > \{e_1\}$ ". For multiple tiples of evidence, the resulting strings are simply concatenated into a single evidence string, preserving the order and structure of the tiples. This approach ensures a seamless and coherent integration of structured graph data into the language model's input.

4.5 Zero-shot LLM as Fact Classifier

This involves utilizing Llama-3-Instruct as a fact classifier, to predict Supported or Refuted for the given input claim and evidence string. A retry mechanism is implemented to handle potential failures in LLM responses. A prompt example with evidence is shown in Figure 3.

4.6 Fine-tuning pre-trained models

Pre-trained BERT-base-uncased¹ and RoBERTabase are finetuned with claim and evidence string as inputs to predict whether the claim is supported or refuted. In addition, an ablation evaluates the contributions of each stage of our approach. This involved sequentially removing Stage-B and measuring the performance of the system after the removal. The results of the ablation study allowed us to quantify the impact of both stages on the overall performance of the model. Accuracy as an evaluation metric across all reasoning types was employed to quantify the performance improvements resulting from the ablation study.

4.7 Implementation

Our FactGenius system implementation leverages several advanced tools and frameworks to ensure efficient and scalable processing. The Llama3-Instruct inference server is set up using vLLM (vLLM Project, 2024; Kwon et al., 2023), running on an NVIDIA A100 GPU (80 GB vRAM) to facilitate rapid inference. This server runs standalone, integrating seamlessly with the FactGenius pipeline.

For model fine-tuning and evaluation, we employ the Hugging Face Transformers library, utilizing the Trainer class for managing the training process. This setup allows for the fine-tuning of pre-trained models like BERT and RoBERTa on our pipeline. Hyper-parameters such as batch size, learning rate, and training epochs are configured to optimize performance, with computations accelerated by PyTorch.

The models were fine-tuned on a single NVIDIA V100 GPU, with RoBERTa requiring around 25 minutes per epoch with a batch size of 32 and BERT taking around 8 minutes per epoch with a batch size of 64. The fine-tuning process utilized the Adam optimizer with settings of beta1=0.9, beta2=0.98, and epsilon=1e-6 for RoBERTa. In contrast, BERT was fine-tuned using Adam optimizer settings of beta1=0.9, beta2=0.99, and epsilon=1e-8. A weight decay of 0.01 was used over all the layers. A learning rate of 5e-6 was used with early stopping over validation loss for 3 341

342

343

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

330

331

332

333

¹huggingface.co/google-bert/bert-base-uncased

- 378
- 379

397

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

epochs, retaining the weight at the best epoch.

5 Experiments

To evaluate the performance of our proposed methods, we conducted a series of experiments comparing different strategies for fact-checking on the FactKG (Kim et al., 2023b) benchmark.

5.1 Dataset

The FactKG dataset (Kim et al., 2023b) is used which comprises 108,000 claims constructed through various reasoning patterns applied to facts sourced from DBpedia (Lehmann et al., 2015). Each data point consists of a natural language claim in English, the set of DBpedia entities mentioned in the claim, and a binary label indicating the claim's veracity (Supported or Refuted). The distribution across labels and five different reasoning types is shown in Table 1. The relevant relation paths starting from each entity in the claim are known which aids in the evaluation and development of models for claim verification tasks.

The dataset is accompanied by a two-processed version of the FactKG Knowledge Graph dataset derived from DBpedia 2015. The first version encompasses the entire DBpedia dataset with the directionality of edges removed by incorporating reverse relation triples, say *DBpedia-Full*. The second version is a curated subset of the first, containing only the relations pertinent to FactKG, thus enabling focused and efficient analysis, named *DBpedia-Light*.

Set	Train	Valid	Test
Total Rows	86367	13266	9041
True (Supported)	42723	6426	4398
False (Refuted)	43644	6840	4643
One-hop	15069	2547	1914
Conjunction	29711	4317	3069
Existence	7372	930	870
Multi Hop	21833	3555	1874
Negation	12382	1917	1314

Table 1: Data distribution across labels and five reasoning types.

5.2 Results

Following prior work (Kim et al., 2023b,a), we run experiments with two types of approaches, approaches that take as input only the claim, referred to as *Claim Only*, and approaches that also integrate KG information, referred to as *With Evidence*. The goal of this comparison is to assess whether the required knowledge is already stored in the weights of pre-trained large language models, or injecting KG information is beneficial. The results are summarized in Table 2.

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

5.3 Claim Only

For the Claim Only scenario we compared four methods, two from the previous literature and two designed by us. We chose two of the bestperforming methods from prior work, namely the BERT-based claim only model introduced together with the FactKG dataset by Kim et al. (Kim et al., 2023b), and the ChatGPT-based model subsequently introduced by Kim et al. (Kim et al., 2023a). We additionally experimented with two models: we used the Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct² (Meta, 2024) model with zero-shot prompting, as well as a RoBERTa-base (Liu et al., 2019) model which we fine-tuned on the fact verification task. An example of the prompt we used for Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct is found in Appendix **B**.

Our results show that RoBERTa outperformed the reported accuracy of BERT (Kim et al., 2023b), achieving an accuracy of 0.68, which is on par with the 12-shot ChatGPT model reported in the KG-GPT paper (Kim et al., 2023a). This suggests that RoBERTa inherently stores knowledge relevant in fact checking, at least on the FactKG benchmark. Our prompting approach on the other hand obtained a score of 0.61, underperforming on the task.

5.4 With Evidence

In the *with evidence* setting we compared different versions of our FactGenius system with two systems from prior work (Kim et al., 2023b,a). For our FactGenius approach, we experimented with 5 versions, using either a LLM classifier with prompting, Llama3-Instruct-zero-shot in Table 2, or a fine-tuned LLM as the classifier, either BERT-based (Devlin et al., 2019) or RoBERTa-based (Liu et al., 2019). For both of the BERT-based and RoBERTa-based system we we experimented with both *stage A* and *stage B* output validation.

5.4.1 On DBpedia-Light Knowledge Graph

First, our results show that adding evidence to the Llama3-Instruct model's instructions significantly improved its accuracy from 0.61 to 0.68. This

²huggingface.co/meta-llama/Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct

Input type	Source	Model	One-hop	Conjunction	Existence	Multi-hop	Negation	Total
	Prior (Kim et al., 2023b)	BERT*	0.69	0.63	0.61	0.70	0.63	0.65
Claim Only	Prior (Kim et al., 2023a)	ChatGPT (12-shot)*	-	-	-	-	-	0.68
	Ours	Llama3-Instruct-zero-shot	0.61	0.67	0.59	0.61	0.53	0.61
	Ours	RoBERTa	0.71	0.72	0.52	0.74	0.54	0.68
	Fact-KG	GEAR*	0.83	0.77	0.81	0.68	0.79	0.77
	KG-GPT	KG-GPT (12-shot)*	-	-	-	-	-	0.72
With Evidence	Ours on DBpedia-Light	Claim-driven relation filtering	0.81	0.71	0.98	0.71	0.76	0.78
	FactGenius (Ours)	Llama3-Instruct-zero-shot	0.72	0.75	0.76	0.62	0.52	0.68
	on DBpedia-Light	BERT-stage-A	0.85	0.80	0.91	0.79	0.78	0.81
		BERT-stage-B	0.85	0.83	0.88	0.81	0.73	0.82
		RoBERTa-stage-A	0.84	0.86	0.88	0.82	0.77	0.84
		RoBERTa-stage-B	0.89	0.89	0.93	0.83	0.78	0.87
	FactGenius (Ours)	Llama3-Instruct-zero-shot	0.72	0.76	0.72	0.61	0.51	0.68
	on DBpedia-Full	BERT-stage-A	0.81	0.83	0.67	0.80	0.56	0.76
		BERT-stage-B	0.81	0.81	0.67	0.80	0.56	0.76
		RoBERTa-stage-A	0.86	0.85	0.91	0.79	0.82	0.84
		RoBERTa-stage-B	0.86	0.86	0.90	0.82	0.79	0.84

Table 2: Comparing our method with other strategies and methods in terms of reported accuracies in the test set. The * symbol indicates results taken directly from prior works, whereas - indicates results were not reported by prior works.

indicates that even for such large language models, incorporating relevant evidence can enhance fact-462 checking performance in a zero-shot learning 463 scenario. However, directly applying zero-shot 464 465 prompting with Llama3-Instruct did not yield superior performance even in comparison to claim-466 driven relation filtering. The performance was boosted when using fine-tuned BERT or RoBERTa 468 as a classifier. It was seen that the performance of 469 the pipeline increases further when stage-B is used 470 instead of stage-A relation mining. It was seen that fine-tuned RoBERTa performed better than BERT.

461

467

471

472

To assess the contribution of the validation 473 stages, we apply both stages to our best-performing 474 model, the RoBERTa-based one. What we observe 475 is that employing *stage* A of filtering results in an 476 accuracy of 0.84. Incorporating stage B instead 477 further improved the performance to 0.87. The 478 second stage enhanced performance across most 479 reasoning types, with notable improvements in 480 conjunction and negation tasks. We achieved the 481 highest performance by fine-tuning RoBERTa with 482 stage-B relation mining, leading to an accuracy 483 of 0.87 on the DBpedia-Light knowledge graph. 484 To the best of our understanding, FactKG utilizes 485 DBpedia-Light, while KG-LLM employs DBpedia-486 Full, as inferred from their respective public 487 implementations. 488

On DBpedia-Full Knowledge Graph 5.4.2

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

With the DBpedia-Full knowledge graph, we observed a decrease in performance for all model variants compared to the DBpedia-Light setting. The Llama3-Instruct-zero-shot approach showed a similar performance gain. Fine-tuned BERT with stage-A and with stage-B both maintained moderate scores, indicating stability but not improvement. RoBERTa-stage-A and RoBERTastage-B models showed a better performance at 0.84, with both stages performing similarly, indicating that stage-B processing does not significantly outperform stage-A in the more complex graphs. These results highlight challenges associated with scaling to larger and more complex knowledge graphs.

6 Discussion

The improved performance of FactGenius, particularly in Conjunction, Existence, and Negation reasoning, can be attributed to its innovative combination of zero-shot prompting with large language models and fuzzy text matching on knowledge graphs.

evidence-based filtering The approaches revealed significant findings. The stage-B validation approach enhances accuracy compared to stage-A. However, the model shows moderate performance improvement in Multi-hop reasoning,

592

593

594

595

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

569

570

indicating the need for more advanced techniques to handle its complexity.

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

528

530

531

533

534

535

536

539

540

541

543

544

545

548

549

552

554

555

558

559

561

564

The two-step approach of filtering and validating connections proved to be particularly effective. In the first step, the LLM helps to narrow down potential connections based on the context provided by the claim. This initial filtering significantly reduces the search space, making the subsequent validation stage more efficient. The second step further refines these connections through fuzzy matching, ensuring that only the most relevant and accurate connections are retained. The comparative study confirmed the importance of each step, showing that the second step particularly enhances performance in conjunction and negation reasoning tasks.

While the fine-tuned LLM models (BERT and RoBERTa) generally outperformed the zero-shot Llama3-Instruct as well as claim-driven relation filtering, the increase in graph complexity in the DBpedia-Full compared to DBpedia-Light limited the gains from fine-tuning. This can be attributed to the input token limitations of both BERT and RoBERTa, which truncate inputs after 512 tokens. This truncation is more likely to occur with the larger DBpedia-Full graph, potentially excluding relevant information from the processing, which diminishes the effectiveness of evidence-based filtering. Furthermore, the similar performance of stage-A and stage-B relation mining in the full graph setting suggests that the added complexity of stage-B does not translate into better accuracy, likely due to these input constraints. These observations underscore the need for adaptations or enhancements in model architecture or preprocessing methods to handle larger datasets more effectively.

As having an LLM inference server is a crucial component of this framework, we employed vLLM (vLLM Project, 2024) to streamline rapid inference with a single NVIDIA A100 GPU. In our experiment, the LLM inference speed was around 15 queries per second, including retries in case of failure. This rate is feasible, considering that LLM inference is continually optimized with the latest technologies. Embedding LLM in a framework has proven to be a wise choice.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduced FactGenius, a novel
method that combines zero-shot prompting of large
language models with fuzzy relation mining for
superior reasoning on knowledge graphs. This

approach addresses several key challenges in traditional fact-checking methods. First, the integration of LLMs allows for the leveraging of extensive pre-trained knowledge in a zero-shot setting. Second, the use of fuzzy text matching with Levenshtein distance ensures that minor discrepancies in entity names or relationships do not hinder the relationship selection process, thus improving robustness.

Our experiments on the FactKG dataset demonstrated that FactGenius significantly outperforms traditional fact-checking methods and existing baselines, particularly when fine-tuning RoBERTa as a classifier. The two-stage approach of filtering and validating connections proved crucial for achieving high accuracy across different reasoning types.

The findings from this study suggest that utilizing LLMs for KG evidence retrieval holds great promise for advancing fact-checking capabilities. Future work could explore the application of this approach to other domains and datasets, as well as the potential for incorporating additional sources of structured data to further enhance performance.

8 Limitation

The main limitation of this work is that we consider the 1-hop neighbourhood only when constructing the graph evidence. This already works very well on the FactKG benchmark, but the method might need adjustments if applied on different benchmarks where the claims need more complex graph evidence. The limitation also arises from the input context of the fine-tuned models as well as the LLMs themselves, particularly when dealing with entities that have extensive connections within the graph. This often leads to exceeding the input limit, necessitating truncation.

References

- Ziwei Chai, Tianjie Zhang, Liang Wu, Kaiqiao Han, Xiaohai Hu, Xuanwen Huang, et al. 2023. GraphLLM: Boosting Graph Reasoning Ability of Large Language Model. *arXiv*.
- Eun Cheol Choi and Emilio Ferrara. 2024. FACT-GPT: Fact-Checking Augmentation via Claim Matching with LLMs. In WWW '24: Companion Proceedings of the ACM on Web Conference 2024, pages 883–886. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA.
- Kelley Cotter, Julia R. DeCook, and Shaheen Kanthawala. 2022. Fact-Checking the

620	Crisis: COVID-19, Infodemics, and the	Xinze Li, Yixin Ca
621	Platformization of Truth. Social Media + Society,	Aixin Sun. 2023
622	8(1):20563051211069048.	Benchmark for Attribution. <i>arX</i>
623	Jiaxi Cui, Zongjian Li, Yang Yan, Bohua Chen, and	Vinhan Lin Mul
624	Li Yuan. 2023. ChatLaw: Open-Source Legal	Mandar Jashi T
625	Large Language Model with Integrated External	Manuar Joshi, L
626	Knowledge Bases. arXiv.	arXiv.
627	Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and	Robert L. Logan Iv
628	Kristina Toutanova. 2019. BERT: Pre-training	Matt Gardner a
629 630	of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding. <i>ACL Anthology</i> , pages 4171–4186.	Wife Hillary: U Aware Language
631	Yan Ding, Xiaohan Zhang, Saeid Amiri, Nieqing Cao,	Meta 2024
632	Hao Yang, Andy Kaminski, et al. 2023. Integrating	https://llama.me
633	action knowledge and LLMs for task planning and	inteps.// inalia.inte
634	situation handling in open worlds. Auton. Robot.,	Preslav Nakov, Da
635	47(8):981–997.	Alam, Tamer
636	Zhijiang Guo Michael Schlichtkrull and Andreas	Assisting Huma
637	Vlachos, 2022. A Survey on Automated Fact-	of the Thirtiet
638	Checking. Transactions of the Association for	onArtificial Inte
639	Computational Linguistics, 10:178–206.	4558. Internatio Intelligence Org
640	Zishan Guo, Renren Jin, Chuang Liu, Yufei Huang,	0 0
641	Dan Shi, Supryadi, et al. 2023. Evaluating Large	Gonzalo Navarro. 2
642	Language Models: A Comprehensive Survey. arXiv.	string matching.
643	Aidan Hogan, Eva Blomqvist, Michael Cochez, Claudia	Estela Saquete,
644	D'amato, Gerard De Melo, Claudio Gutierrez, et al.	Patricio Martíne
645	2021. Knowledge Graphs. ACM Comput. Surv.,	Fighting post-tru
646	54(4):1–37.	A review and op 141:112943.
647	Jiho Kim, Yeonsu Kwon, Yohan Jo, and Edward	James Thorne.
648	Choi. 2023a. KG-GPT: A General Framework	Christodoulopou
649	for Reasoning on Knowledge Graphs Using Large	FEVER: a Larg
650	Language Models. ACL Anthology, pages 9410-	and VERificatio
651	9421.	Jurai Vladika and F
652	Jiho Kim, Sungiin Park, Yeonsu Kwon, Yohan Jo, James	Checking: A Su
653	Thorne, and Edward Choi, 2023b. FactKG: Fact	arXiv.
654	Verification via Reasoning on Knowledge Graphs.	
655	ACL Anthology, pages 16190–16206.	vLLM Project. https://github.co
656	Woosuk Kwon, Zhuohan Li, Siyuan Zhuang, Ying	
657	Sheng, Lianmin Zheng, Cody Hao Yu, et al. 2023.	Yu Wang, Nedim
658	Efficient Memory Management for Large Language	Ruiyi Zhang, a
659	Model Serving with PagedAttention. In SOSP '23:	A narring A A
660	Proceedings of the 29th Symposium on Operating	Answering. AAA
661	Systems Principles, pages 611–626. Association for	lingfeng Yang Ho
662	Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA.	Han, Qizhang I
663	Jens Lehmann, Robert Isele. Max Jakob. Ania Jentzsch.	Harnessing the P
664	Dimitris Kontokostas, Pablo N. Mendes, et al. 2015.	on ChatGP1 at
665	DBpedia – A large-scale, multilingual knowledge	Discovery Data,
666	base extracted from Wikipedia. Semantic Web.	Liang Van Chenn
667	6(2):167–195.	KG-BERT: BER
668	Vladimir I Levenshtein et al. 1966. Binary codes	uratv.
669	capable of correcting deletions, insertions, and	Xia Zeng, Amani S
670	reversals. In Soviet physics doklady, volume 10,	2021. Automat
671	pages 707–710. Soviet Union.	Linguist. Compa
	ç)

Xinze Li, Yixin Cao2, Liangming Pan, Yubo Ma, and . Towards Verifiable Generation: A Knowledge-aware Language Model iv.

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699 700

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720 721

722

723

724

- e Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Danqi Chen, et al. 2019. RoBERTa: mized BERT Pretraining Approach.
- , Nelson F. Liu, Matthew E. Peters, nd Sameer Singh. 2019. Barack's Jsing Knowledge-Graphs for Facte Modeling. arXiv.
- Meta Llama 3. [Online; ta.com/llama3].
- vid Corney, Maram Hasanain, Firoj Elsayed, Alberto Barrón-Cedeño, Automated Fact-Checking for n Fact-Checkers. In Proceedings h International Joint Conference elligence, {IJCAI-21}, pages 4551– nal Joint Conferences on Artificial anization.
- 2001. A guided tour to approximate ACM Comput. Surv., 33(1):31-88.
- David Tomás, Paloma Moreda, z-Barco, and Manuel Palomar. 2020. th using natural language processing: pen challenges. Expert Syst. Appl.,
- Andreas Vlachos, Christos ulos, and Arpit Mittal. 2018. e-scale Dataset for Fact Extraction n. ACL Anthology, pages 809–819.
- lorian Matthes. 2023. Scientific Factrvey of Resources and Approaches.
- 2024. vLLM. [Online; m/vllm-project/vllm].
- Lipka, Ryan A. Rossi, Alexa Siu, nd Tyler Derr. 2024. Knowledge ng for Multi-Document Question AI, 38(17):19206–19214.
- ongye Jin, Ruixiang Tang, Xiaotian Feng, Haoming Jiang, et al. 2024. ower of LLMs in Practice: A Survey nd Beyond. ACM Trans. Knowl. 18(6):1-32.
- sheng Mao, and Yuan Luo. 2019. T for Knowledge Graph Completion.
- . Abumansour, and Arkaitz Zubiaga. ed fact-checking: A survey. Lang. uss, 15(10):e12438.

- 725 726 727 728 729
- 729 730 731 732

734

735

736

739

740

741

742

743

746

747

748

Jie Zhou, Xu Han, Cheng Yang, Zhiyuan Liu, Lifeng Wang, Changcheng Li, et al. 2019. GEAR: Graphbased Evidence Aggregating and Reasoning for Fact Verification. *ACL Anthology*, pages 892–901.

A Zero-shot fact checking with evidence

We experimented with a language model in the zero-shot setting for fact verification including the evidence. We prompted the model with the claim and the evidence given as a list of triples - an example of the prompt is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Example prompt given to Llama3-Instruct with evidence for zero-shot fact-checking.

B Claim only models

A baseline is established using the Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct³ (Meta, 2024) model with zero-shot promoting for claim verification, asking it to verify the claim without evidence. Through instruction prompt engineering, it is ensured that the model responds with either 'true' or 'false'. A retry mechanism is implemented to handle potential failures in LLM responses. A prompt example is shown in Figure 4. A retry mechanism simply retries calling the LLM up to a fixed number of times and diverts to a default handling function if the LLM is unable to provide a proper dictionary output. [{
 "role":"system", "content":
 "You are an intelligent fact checker trained on Wikipedia.
You are given a single claim and your task is to decide
whether all the facts in the given claim are supported
by the given evidence using your knowledge.
Choose one of {True, False}, and output the one-sentence
explanation for the choice. "
},{
 "role":"user", "content":
 "''
TASK:
Now let's verify the Claim based on the evidence.
Claim:
 << < Well, The celestial body known as 1097 Vicia has a
mass of 4.1kg.> >>
#Answer Template:
 "True/False (single word answer),
 Ope-sentence evidence."
}]

Figure 4: Example prompt given to Llama3-Instruct without evidence for zero-shot fact-checking.

<<< ... >>> signs are added just to indicate that the content inside is different for each prompt.

³huggingface.co/meta-llama/Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct