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## **NLP Methods for Automated Fact-Checking**

Dissertation Minimum Study of  
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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

My dissertation, as well my long-term research, centers around the field of *automated fact checking* through the means of Natural Language Processing (NLP) and its modern methods. The work consists of the analysis of the whole fact-checking process, its subdivision and simplification into tasks that can be efficiently addressed using the current state-of-the-art NLP methods, collection of data appropriate to benchmark such tasks, delivery of example solutions and their validation against similar research in other languages and related tasks.

The main focus of mine and of our research group are the fact-checking-related tasks in the West Slavic languages (Czech, Slovak and Polish) and secondarily in English. My contribution has so far been the collection and publication of novel datasets for the fact-checking task and its subroutines, models trained for the tasks and their debate, including the ongoing establishment of metrics that would explainably rate the model success and error rates in terms close to the human notion of *facticity* (which proves to be a challenge on its own, requiring another round of novel research [Koto et al., 2020, Wright et al., 2022]).

My doctoral aim is to cover every step on the path from gathering a factual claim – for example, extracting it from a political debate – to predicting its veracity verdict and justifying it rigorously with hard data. With the recent boom in NLP beginning with the advent of transformer networks and later the Large Language Models (LLMs) [Zhao et al., 2023], few-shot learning [Brown et al., 2020] and prompting [Liu et al., 2023a] a significant part of the research is and has to be an appropriate and timely adoption of new ever-evolving state-of-the-art NLP solutions, based on well-designed studies in our specific context.

Overall, my agenda is to follow up on my published research on fact checking in Czech with methods that reiterate on our results in other languages and evolving our previous methodology based on transformer *pre-training & fine-tuning* paradigm to a computationally feasible design based on LLMs, which are already exhibiting superiority tasks similar to ours [Chen et al., 2023] in English.

My recent focus within the whole grand fact-checking scheme is the step of *claim generation*, which I aim to establish among the other commonly benchmarked NLP tasks within the scientific community, adjacent to that of *abstractive summarization*. To benchmark the task, one would need a set of metrics that properly reflect phenomena such as *model hallucinations* – a common problem of modern day LLMs [Ji et al., 2023]. As the exact word-level metrics for NLP generative tasks do not correlate well with human judgement [Zhang\* et al., 2020] and model-based metrics are hard to explain, my research also focuses on a delivery of a set of human-understandable model-based metrics.

The goal of this study is to show the directions I am taking to address these challenges, reasoning behind them, my research questions and current results that motivated them.



**Figure 1.1:** A real world example of fact checking done by <https://politifact.org>

## 1.1 Motivation

The spread of misinformation in the online space has a growing influence on the Czech public [STEM, 2021]. It has been shown to influence people’s behaviour on the social networks [Lazer et al., 2018] as well as their decisions in elections [Allcott and Gentzkow, 2017], and real-world reasoning, which has shown increasingly harmful during the COVID-19 pandemic [Barua et al., 2020] and the Russo-Ukrainian war [Stănescu, 2022].

The recent advances in artificial intelligence have unwittingly contributed to the spread of misinformation on social media [Buchanan and Benson, 2019], as well as they hold a large potential for the false content generation [Sebastian, 2023].

Recent research has shown promising results [Thorne et al., 2019] in false claim detection for data in English, using a trusted knowledge base of true claims (for research purposes typically fixed to the corpus of Wikipedia articles), mimicking the *fact-checking* efforts in journalism.

Fact-checking (Figure 1.1) is a process of matching every information within a *factual claim* to its *evidence* (or *disproof*) in trusted data sources to infer the claim veracity and verifiability. In exchange, if the trusted *knowledge base* contains a set of “ground truths” sufficient to fully infer the original claim or its negation, the claim is labelled as **supported** or **refuted**, respectively. If no such *evidence set* can be found, the claim is marked as **unverifiable**<sup>1</sup>.

## 1.2 Automated Fact Checking

Despite the existence of end-to-end fact-checking services, such as [politifact.org](https://politifact.org) or [demagog.cz](https://demagog.cz), the human-powered approach shows weaknesses in its scalability. By design, the process of finding an exhaustive set of evidence that decides the claim veracity is much

<sup>1</sup>Hereinafter labelled as NOT ENOUGH INFO, in accordance to related research.



**Figure 1.2:** Automated fact-checking pipeline, reprinted from [Guo et al., 2022]

slower than that of generating false or misleading claims. Therefore, efforts have been made to move part of the load to a computer program that can run without supervision.

The common research goal is a fact verification tool that would, given a claim, semantically search provided knowledge base (stored for example as a *corpus* of some natural language), propose a set of evidence (e. g.  $k$  semantically nearest paragraphs of the corpus) and suggest the final verdict (Figure 3.2) [Guo et al., 2022]. This would reduce the fact-checker’s workload to mere adjustments of the proposed result and correction of mistakes on the computer side.

The goals of the ongoing efforts of FactCheck team at AIC CTU, are to explore and adapt the state-of-the-art methods used for fact verification or similar tasks in other languages, currate appropriate datasets for it and propose strong systems for such a task in Czech.

### 1.3 A word on the Transformers

For the past six years, the state-of-the-art solution for nearly every Natural Language Processing task is based on the concept of *transformer networks* or, simply, *Transformers*. This has been a major breakthrough in the field by [Vaswani et al., 2017], giving birth to the famous models such as Google’s BERT encoder [Devlin et al., 2019] and its descendants, or the OpenAI’s GPT-3 decoder [Brown et al., 2020] and GPT-4 [OpenAI, 2023] that are used in the booming online AI service ChatGPT<sup>2</sup>.

In our proposed methods, we use Transformers in every step of the fact verification pipeline. Therefore, we would like to introduce this concept to our reader to begin with.

Transformer is a neural model for *sequence-to-sequence* tasks, which, similarly e.g. to the *LSTM-Networks* [Cheng et al., 2016], uses the Encoder–Decoder architecture. Its main point is that of using solely the *self-attention* mechanism to represent its input and output, instead of any sequence-aligned recurrence [Vaswani et al., 2017].

In essence, the *self-attention* (also known as the *intra-attention*) transforms every input vector to a weighted sum of the vectors in its neighbourhood, weighted by their *relatedness* to the input. One could illustrate this on the *euphony* in music, where every tone of a song relates to all of the precedent and successive ones, to some more than to the others.

The full Transformer architecture is depicted in Figure 1.3.

### 1.4 Dissertation minimum study outline

■ **Chapter 1** introduces the dissertation topic, motivates the research sets up our chal-

<sup>2</sup><https://chat.openai.com>



**Figure 1.3:** Transformer model architecture, reprinted from [Vaswani et al., 2017]

lenges for the future research

- **Chapter 2** examines the most relevant research in the field and tries to highlight the recent paradigm shift from models trained for a single task to a single large models that perform well in everything
- **Chapter 3** explains our current contributions to the field of automated fact-checking and NLP in Czech
- **Chapter 4** describes our plan for the dissertation and justifies the directions we are taking
- Finally, **Chapter 5** concludes the study with a wrapup of its findings

## Chapter 2

### State of the Art

This chapter will first describe the originally popular models for general NLP such as BERT and the recent paradigm shift from *pretrain + finetune* transfer learning framework popular since the original [Devlin et al., 2019] paper to the currently booming LLMs which often outperform the smaller models even without the fine-tuning step [OpenAI, 2023, Touvron et al., 2023a, Vicuna, 2023]. We will then take a look at the performance optimization methods that enable training multi-billion parameter pre-trained models on a set of task-specific data on a single GPU and their potential for our research.

To show how it relates to our main topics, we are gonna introduce currently published approaches for the automated fact-checking task, efforts related to claim generation and evaluation of NLP model outputs.

#### 2.1 Pretrain + Finetune

For the last decade, the *pretrain-finetune* paradigm has been a cornerstone in the field of Natural Language Processing (NLP) and has significantly shaped the development of modern NLP models. Its history in NLP can be traced back to the advent of neural networks and deep learning in the early 2010s. Initially, researchers pre-trained word embeddings using methods like Word2Vec [Mikolov et al., 2013] and GloVe [Pennington et al., 2014] which captured semantic relationships among words and then tweaked the general-task models for various related tasks.

##### 2.1.1 BERT and derivatives

The *pretrain-finetune* paradigm truly rose to fame with the introduction of transformer-based models, particularly the revolutionary BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) in 2018. BERT [Devlin et al., 2019] demonstrated the power of pretraining large-scale language models on massive text corpora using an easy-to-automate general task such as *Masked Language Modeling*, or *Next Sentence Prediction*, followed by fine-tuning on specific downstream tasks using smaller, harder to obtain data. This approach achieved state-of-the-art results across various NLP benchmarks. Subsequently, numerous variations of pre-trained models like GPT (Generative Pre-trained Transformer) and RoBERTa emerged, each refining the pretrain-finetune paradigm to improve language understanding, generation, and transfer learning capabilities.

Importantly, BERT's success inspired a number of publications in training similar transformer models, varying in the definition of the general pre-training task, model size, architecture training corpus



- In Czech language, monolingual models CZERT [Sido et al., 2021], FERNET [Lehečka and Švec, 2021], RobeCzech [Straka et al., 2021], and small-e-czech [Kocián et al., 2021] are available for further finetuning
- In Polish, HerBERT [Mroczkowski et al., 2021] achieved state of the art in multiple tasks in 2021
- In Slovak, SlovakBERT [Pikuliak et al., 2021] was released by KInIT and Gerulata
- A multitude of multilingual models, such as M-BERT or XLM-ROBERTA [Conneau et al., 2019] were pretrained on data in all three of these languages (and many others), proving that the large transformers can capture a notion of semantics and relations between pieces of text even *without* the convenient constriction of a single language

## 2.2 Few-shot and Zero-shot learning

The ever-growing (sometimes, billions of parameters in size) transformer models have not only demonstrated superior performance on benchmark datasets but have also shown remarkable zero-shot and few-shot learning abilities, where they can perform tasks with minimal or no task-specific training data [Brown et al., 2020].

Few-shot learning refers to the capability of a model to perform a task when provided with only a limited amount of labeled examples. Zero-shot learning takes this concept a step further by enabling models to tackle tasks they have never seen during training. The integration of these learning paradigms into large language models like GPT-3 and subsequent iterations has spread the NLP hype even further. By utilizing a prompt or a few examples, these models can quickly adapt to new tasks, making them highly versatile, adaptable and usable to the general public.

### 2.2.1 OpenAI LLMs: GPT-3 and GPT-4

In 2020, the few-shot learning was exhibited on GPT3 – a 175B-parameter autoregressive model trained by [Brown et al., 2020]. The model was trained on the task of generating text based on user’s and its own previous outputs. The training procedure and data<sup>1</sup> is thoroughly described in the publication, however, is prohibitively costly for most labs to reproduce, or even fine-tune at such scale.

In the fall of 2022, GPT-3 became widely popular thanks to its ChatGPT<sup>2</sup> fine-tune and demonstration app, which puts the user in the role of *prompter*, texting back and forth with an LLM that predicts the most fitting reply to each conversation.

With the arrival of GPT-4, the ChatGPT was already massively famous, and the new model already shipped with a paid-service business scheme no longer publishing the training data, tasks or even model size [OpenAI, 2023].

## 2.3 Open source LLMs

This puts the research community in an awkward position, as the GPT-4 achieves the state of the art in numerous NLP benchmarks [OpenAI, 2023, Liu et al., 2023b], but is

<sup>1</sup>A mixture of crawled websites, books and Wikipedia.

<sup>2</sup><https://chat.openai.com>

designed not to be used in any way other than as a black box, making the derived research rigorosity and reproducibility disputable.

From the prediction times, OpenAI claims and general trends in NLP, there are also reasons to believe that GPT-4 is orders of magnitude larger than already wasteful GPT-3. This motivates an uptick in research of other LLMs that would be able to operate on smaller scale with similar results, using a peer-reviewed architecture, training scheme and data that is available in open source.

### 2.3.1 LLaMA-2 and derivatives

A popular foundational LLM to compete with the GPT family has become the LLaMA [Touvron et al., 2023a] from Meta research. LLaMA was trained on about 5TB of publicly available textual data<sup>3</sup> mostly in English.

It comes in various sizes between 7B and 65B parameters, achieving a SOTA among open-source solvers in various tasks, and an unmatched performance in the field of single-GPU (7B and 13B) model sizes. LLaMA proceeds to be used as a goto base model for a number of successful open-source chatbots such as Alpaca [Taori et al., 2023], Vicuna [Vicuna, 2023], and OpenAssistant [Köpf et al., 2023].

The pretrained LLaMA weights are, however, published under a restrictive license that prohibits republishing the model weights even after tuning its parameters, which limits its fine-tuners to publishing delta- or xor-weights that can not be properly used without Meta’s permission.

LLaMA-2 [Touvron et al., 2023b] addresses this inconvenience (as well as delivers its own take on the *chatbot* task), yielding an ideal strong base model for experimentation with any NLP task in 7B, 13B and 70B sizes. The only obstacle left in the way is the computational cost of fine-tuning across so many parameters.

### 2.3.2 LoRA and other optimization

To be able to fine-tune multi-billion-parameter models such as LLaMA-2 [Touvron et al., 2023b] on a single TPU, successful approaches have been published to dramatically cut-down the training expenses. Parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) [Liu et al., 2022] proposes approaches to only fine-tune *a few* weights as opposed to the whole neural network, reducing the number of trainable parameters by orders of magnitude. Low-Rank Adaptation of Large Language Models (LoRA) [Hu et al., 2021] does so by freezing the pre-trained model weights and injecting trainable rank decomposition matrices into each layer of Transformer architecture.

Quantization, which cuts the costs of working with 32- or 16-bit float parameters and opting for data types of bitsize as small as 4, also proves to be a powerful tool for LLM finetuning performance optimization [Dettmers et al., 2023]. Quantized QLoRA takes LLaMA and finetunes it into a Guanaco model family which outperforms all previous openly released LLMs on Vicuna benchmark [Dettmers et al., 2023] and achieves 99.3% of the ChatGPT’s performance on it while only requiring 24 hours on a single GPU.

As per an alleged leaked Google’s memo [Patel and Ahmad, 2023], this could put the future state of the art in NLP disciplines back into the hands of open source and public research, not giving any of the big tech companies a “moat” advantage.

<sup>3</sup>To be specific, LLaMA was trained using an autoregressive language modelling task on a mixture of English CommonCrawl Corpus, C4 [Raffel et al., 2020], Github, Wikipedia, project Gutenberg, Books3 corpus, ArXiv and Stack Exchange

Either way, it goes to show that the open-source LLMs have a promising future in NLP and will be indissmissible as an approach for the NLP task of *Automated fact checking*.

## 2.4 Fact checking approaches

Back in the late 2010s, the misinformation and its spread in the era of internet and social media became a discussed topic in the Western world, multiple institutions such as European Council marking it a severe threat to democracy and national safety [Wardle and Derakhshan, 2017]. The public attention and maturation of appropriate technologies motivated numerous efforts in business and academia to tackle the challenge. Among other events, a Fake News Challenge occured in 2017 [Pomerlau and Rao, 2017] exploring the uses of technologies in the field and applying, for example, the LSTMs to detect stances among textual data [Hanselowski et al., 2018].

### 2.4.1 FEVER and followups

Soon, standard tasks started being formulated and data collected. The FEVER (Fact Extraction and VERification) [Thorne et al., 2018a] dataset and shared task rose to prominence in natural language processing research. Relatively early on, it formalized the task as a two-step problem of:

1. Retrieving information within a structured corpus to fact-check a given claim (this resembles a standard NLP problem called *information retrieval* – IR)
2. Classifying the inference relation between retrieved information and claim as one of:
  - a. **supports** – information semantically implies the claim
  - b. **refutes** – information semantically implies the negation of the claim
  - c. **not enough info** otherwise

This classification task became known as *natural language inference* and mostly replaced the previous binary classification NLP task of *recognizing textual entailment* (RTE)

The FEVER dataset was a collection of 185K human-annotated claims, their veracity labels, and sets of evidence from a structured corpus that sufficed to justify the labels. The corpus of choice was a 2017 English Wikipedia structured into articles, due to its reasonable size, informational richness and open license.<sup>4</sup>

FEVER yields interesting benchmark with statistically quantifiable model success, motivated multiple interesting public solutions [Thorne et al., 2018b, Thorne et al., 2019], gives insights into the complexities of automated fact-checking task and strong baselines for research in the field. The data was later enriched by contrastive evidence in VitaminC [Schuster et al., 2021] and by reasoning over tabular data in FEVEROUS [Aly et al., 2021].

To date, it keeps being a reference point in the automated fact checking research despite its limitations, such as its requirement for a fixed knowledge base and “atomicity”<sup>5</sup> of claims.

<sup>4</sup>Is Wikipedia a trustworthy informatial canon though? No, it is not supposed to – FEVER states that it is crucial to always maintain that the fact-checking classifiers only classify *with respect to* data and their reliability goes only as far as that of the underlying knowledge corpus. Therefore, *supports* does not directly translate to *true*, nor *refutes* to *false*

<sup>5</sup>See section 4.1.2.3

**Open-Domain Fact Checking (Bing API & GPT-3.5)**

This is a prototype CEDMO application to fact-check a real-world text.

**Text to extract**

Stráž se jednoznačně vyjádřil, že ministr spravedlnosti Pavel Blažek není prověřován.

**Speaker**

Eva Decroix

**Affiliation**

ODS

**Date**

20.08.2023

**Clear** **Submit**

**Částečně souhlasí**

**Je Pavel Blažek ministr spravedlnosti?**

[Pavel Blažek – Wikipedia](#)

Pavel Blažek (\* 8. dubna 1969 Brno) je český právník, v letech 2012 až 2013 **ministr spravedlnosti ČR** ve vládě Petra Nečase a znovu od prosince 2021 **ministr spravedlnosti ČR** ve vládě Petra Fialy, v letech 2010 až 2014 místopředseda ODS, od října 2013 poslanec Poslanecké sněmovny PČR, v letech 2002 až 2014 zastupitel města ...

**Souhlasí**

[Pavel Blažek | Vláda ČR - vlada.cz](#)

Pavel Blažek, ministr spravedlnosti. Pavel Blažek se narodil v Brně, kde vystudoval Právnickou fakultu Masarykovy univerzity. V letech 1992–2002 působil jako interní učitel na Právnické fakultě MU v Brně, **obor správní právo a správní věda**.

**!! Úplný výmysl**

**Je Pavel Blažek prověřován?**

[Pavel Blažek - Wikipedia](#)

Prezident republiky jej členem Nečasovy vlády jmenoval 3. července 2012 v 10 hodin. Obvinění z trestného činu Dne 31. července 2012 publicista Jan Urban a obecně prospěšná organizace Kverulant.org zveřejnili prohlášení, ve kterém obvinili Pavla Blažka ze spáchání trestného činu podle **§ 209 trestního zákoníku** – podvodu.

**Částečně souhlasí**

**Figure 2.1:** Proof-of-concept Czech fact-checking based on live-internet search (Bing API) and LLM prompting, based on the proposals of [Chen et al., 2023] in Czech, using a real-world claim that was fact-checked by demagog.cz in June 2023

### 2.4.2 Open-domain fact-checking

Due to these limitations, some researchers consider the scheme from FEVER an oversimplification – the real politics’ claims to be fact-checked by journalists often consist of long syntactical structures, combine information together in a non-trivial manner and often require the most up-to-date evidence.

“Complex Claim Verification with Evidence Retrieved in the Wild” [Chen et al., 2023] proposes a different scheme that overcomes these shortcomings:

1. Arbitrarily complex claim is decomposed into a set of yes/no questions
2. An open-domain search (bing is proposed in the paper) fetches several evidence documents for each question
3. A claim-focused summary is extracted from each document
4. A veracity classifier goes through each pair of evidence and question, ranging from “faithful” to “completely wrong”
5. The scores are combined (all need to be “faithful” for a faithful claim, otherwise, a severity of inaccuracies can be approximated using some averaging)

GPT-3 is used in steps 1, 3 and 4 of the scheme in the prototype delivered in [Chen et al., 2023]. Zero- and few-shot approaches are being explored, few-shot unsurprisingly coming out a little better.

The scheme is transducible to Czech and Figure 2.1 shows my early experiments with my interactive reproduction of it, predictors based on Bing and GPT-3.5 (a polished version of GPT-3).

While the shift from an established FEVER framework to complex real-world claims and evidence retrieval “in the wild” feels exciting and practical, an obvious pitfall arises – anyone can publish anything on internet, having it appear in Bing search and other crawlers alike. I argue that this might lead into a sort of a circular dependency of needing to reliably fact-check the evidence we have retrieved from the web, in order to be able to build a reliable fact-checker in the first place.

Anyhow, the open-domain fact-checking idea opens a whole new range of approaches and shows the power of LLMs in fact-checking at its every step.

## 2.5 Claim generation

Another step of the fact-checking pipeline, covered by very few research publications, is the generation of the claim to be checked in the first place [Guo et al., 2022].

The current state of things is that journalists that fact-check statements within, say, a Facebook status, need to read through the whole document multiple times, formulate its factual claims from the stances and facts expressed in text themselves and then fact-check each of them separately.

What has been examined so far were for example:

- Using Question Generation (QG) solver and converting them into a declarative sentences to emulate more claims and more data for fact checking [Pan et al., 2021]
- Numerous CLEF CheckThat! challenges explored the task of estimating *checkworthiness* of different parts of a long texts, such as lines in a political debate [Elsayed et al., 2021, Nakov et al., 2021]
- The task of extreme summarization (XSum) consists of summarizing a long body of text into a single sentence, focusing on its most relevant aspects and facts. Large datasets XSum [Narayan et al., 2018] in English and XL-Sum [Hasan et al., 2021] in 44 languages both present expertly annotated data from BBC news for it, as their article standard features a single-sentence summary at the beginning of each text.

### 2.5.1 NLP summarization benchmarking

An important caveat to note with the NLP tasks reducing longer text to shorter text – such as summarization or claim extraction – is that the standard automatic metrics such as ROUGE [Lin, 2004] and METEOR [Banerjee and Lavie, 2005] only focus on the *content selection* aspect of tasks, based on a word-by-word overlap and were designed to use on multiple gold summaries per input, which are not often provided with modern large-scale datasets. [NLP-Progress, 2023, Zhang\* et al., 2020, Zha et al., 2023]

These serious limitations make it questionable for anyone to claim state of the art on these tasks and motivate research for new metrics to cover all the important aspects of claim generation and do so in correlation with expert human judgment.

This will be the topic of section 4.1.2, which also introduces the state-of-the-art research we are working with to arrive to a valid set of benchmarks.

## Chapter 3

### Current Contribution

*We have collected novel data, emulated and scraped inavailable datasets making them public or readying them for doing so, we have established numerousstate-of-the-art models and are currently working on establishing the topic of claim generation as a summarization-related NLP task. We are also readying metrics for fact-checking, experimenting with them and so on and soforth.*

#### 3.1 Datasets

##### 3.1.1 CsFEVER

##### 3.1.2 CTKFACTS

##### 3.1.3 Other NLP datasets in West Slavic languages

1. **Translated NLI datasets** – SNLI, ANLI, MultiNLI,
2. SmeSum, CTKSum, CsFEVERSum
3. Polish summarization data

#### 3.2 Models

#### 3.3 Publications

#### 3.4 Applications

Here we will show off the demonstration tools, as well as our open-source platform <https://fcheck.fel.cvut.cz> and currently running claim extraction tools.

The screenshot displays the FCheck web application interface, which is designed for fact-checking dataset collection. It is divided into several main sections:

- Tvorba tvrzení (Ú1a):** This section includes a 'Zlatá pravidla extrakce tvrzení' (Golden rules of claim extraction) box with instructions on how to identify and extract claims. Below this are sections for 'Zdrojový citát' (Source quote), 'Zdrojový odstavec' (Source paragraph), 'Znalostní rámec' (Knowledge frame), and 'Pravdivé tvrzení' (True claim).
- Ověření tvrzení (Ú1b):** This section is titled 'Ověření tvrzení' (Verification of claim) and contains a 'Původní tvrzení' (Original claim) box. It also includes a 'Zdrojový citát' (Source quote) and a 'Zdrojový odstavec' (Source paragraph).
- Anotace správnosti vlastního tvrzení (Ú2a):** This section is titled 'Anotace správnosti vlastního tvrzení' (Annotation of the correctness of the own claim) and includes a 'Zdrojový citát' (Source quote) and a 'Zdrojový odstavec' (Source paragraph).

The interface is user-friendly, with clear instructions and a structured layout for data entry and verification.

**Figure 3.1: FCheck** – an open-source platform for fact-checking dataset collection I developed for TAČR project; collects data for claim generation, information retrieval and natural language inference tasks

The screenshot displays the Factual Claim Extraction application interface. It is designed for extracting factual claims from arbitrary text. The interface includes the following components:

- Text to extract:** A text input area where the user pastes the text from which claims are to be extracted. The example text provided is: "He said this became possible after Kyiv liberated the 'strategically important' village of Robotyne in the Zaporizhzhia region. Russia's military says its forces are still holding on to the village. Ukraine seeks to cut the land corridor to Crimea, which Russia seized in 2014. By doing so, Kyiv would split in two the land Russia occupies in southern Ukraine, making Moscow's supply lines more complicated. Speaking at a recent meeting of French ambassadors in Paris, Mr Kuleba said: 'Having entrenched on its [Robotyne's] flanks, we are opening the way to Tokmak and, eventually, Melitopol and the administrative border with Crimea.'"
- Model:** A section where the user can select the model used for extraction. The options shown are 'EN: LLaMa-2 (BBC)' and 'CS: MBart (CTK, Sumeczech+CNC)'.
- Max number of claims:** A slider control to adjust the maximum number of claims extracted, currently set at 2.
- Amount of randomness:** A slider control to adjust the amount of randomness in the extraction process, currently set at 11.
- Claims:** A section displaying the extracted claims. The example claims shown are:
  - 0: "Ukraine's foreign minister has said his country is 'on the verge' of liberating the southern city of Melitopol from Russian control."
  - 1: "Ukraine is seeking to reopen a land corridor to Crimea in its south, Kyiv's foreign minister Dmytro Kuleba has said."
- Flag:** A section for flagging the extracted claims.
- Buttons:** 'Clear' and 'Submit' buttons are located at the bottom of the interface.

**Figure 3.2: Factual claim extraction application** done for the CEDMO project

## Chapter 4

### Dissertation plan

#### 4.1 Current research agenda

##### 4.1.1 Automated claim generation

**TODO:**

##### 4.1.2 Claim generation metrics

The common problem with generative tasks in NLP is that of explaining model reasoning in human-understandable manner and troubleshooting the prediction faults, such as the *model hallucination*.

For the task of claim generation, where we also face the challenge of the *relevance* of the information extracted by the model, we postulate the following metrics:

1. **Fluency** – *is the claim grammatically correct and intelligible?*

Currently, we are working with two emulations of claim fluency, challenge that is similar to a standard NLP task of Gramatical Error Detection (GED): LM-Critic (Figure 4.1) [Yasunaga et al., 2021] perturbs the claim words and characters to find local optima in output probability of its tokens, using a language model such as GPT-2 as its reference. GPTScore [Fu et al., 2023] uses prompting a LLM (such as GPT-3) to obtain a model-inferred score using few- or zero-shot learning.

Both can be adapted for Czech and the latter is demonstrated in Figure 4.2.

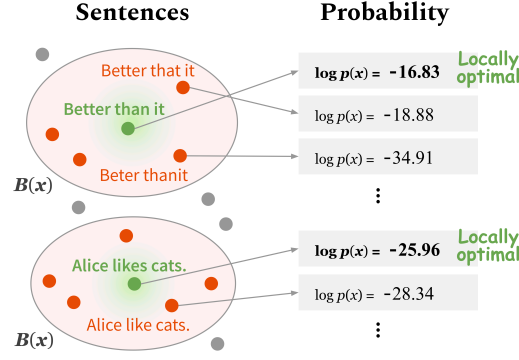
2. **Decontextualization** – *can the claim be correctly interpreted without any additional context from the source document or elsewhere?*

A common problem with machine-extracted factual claims is reusing excerpts from source document along with inexplicable contextual pronouns (“President won’t sue them”) and relative referencing (“*Last year*, CTU had 23K students”).

[Choi et al., 2021] proposes decontextualization as a sequence to sequence task with two texts on input  $(s, c)$  – sentence and context. T5 model [Raffel et al., 2019] is then trained on machine-generated gold data from Wikipedia to output sentence  $s'$  such that the truth-conditional meaning of  $s'$  in an empty context is the same as that of  $s$  in  $c$ .

[Mohri et al., 2023] improves upon this, altering the problem formulation to minimizing surrogate loss, rejecting with a fixed predictor and claiming to get as close as  $\sim 3\%$  away from the theoretical limit for the task.





**Figure 4.1:** LM-Critic – deciding text fluency viewed as finding local optima of Language Model output probability, reprinted from [Yasunaga et al., 2021]

The approaches are reproducible using Czech Wikipedia corpus and appropriate for further examination.

3. **Atomicity** – *does the claim describe a single entity, relation or process?*

can be checked using the Relationship Extraction methods such as LUKE [Yamada et al., 2020]. To put it simply, the RE task is to identify the entities of a text (persons, institutions,...) and the relations between them (such as (“study at”, *Herbert*, *CTU*)). The atomicity evaluation can be converted to a RE task by attempting to extract such fact triples and mark the claim as atomic if there is at most one such triple found (after removing symmetries)

4. **Faithfulness** – *does the claim only contain information that is consistent with the source document?*

This metric is crucial to pinpoint *model hallucinations* – parts of claim where the model outputs stray from the information present in source text and begin to just “make stuff up”. We proceed to use two alternative metrics – a score proposed within the FFCI evaluation framework [Koto et al., 2020] as:

$$\text{AvgTop-}n_{s_j \in X, t_i \in Y'}(\text{BERTSCORE}(t_i, s_j))$$

Where the AvgTop- $n$  simply averages across the top  $n$  (say, 5) highest scores,  $X, Y'$  are the sets of sentences in source document and model output, respectively (so, in the claim generation scenario  $|Y'| = 1$ ) and BERTSCORE [Zhang\* et al., 2020] is a recently popular similarity score between two sentences that doesn’t compare the texts on a verbatim level (like e.g., ROUGE [Lin, 2004] which correlates poorly with human judgement) but expresses the sentence similarity as a sum of cosine similarities between their tokens’ embeddings – this should capture semantical relations rather than the word-for-word similarity, which could be beneficial in highly inflected languages such as Czech.

Similar metric called ALIGNSCORE was proposed in [Zha et al., 2023], looking for optimum alignment of output and input parts, in terms of a RoBERTa model [Liu et al., 2019] trained to detect inconsistencies on 4.7M training examples adapted from various tasks (inference, question answering, paraphrasing,...) and while it is relatively small (355M parameters), it outperforms metrics based on GPT-4 that is orders of magnitude larger.

**Central European Digital Media Observatory** Claim extraction and its metrics using GPT

This is a prototype CEDMO application to fact-check a real-world text.

**Text to extract**

A global search has been launched to find one of the world's most iconic instruments - Paul McCartney's original Höfner bass guitar. McCartney bought the instrument for £30 (\$38) in Hamburg, Germany, in 1961, but it disappeared eight years later. The hunt began after McCartney urged manufacturers Höfner to track down his beloved instrument. The bass features in The Beatles' music of those years, including the hits Love Me Do and She Loves You. Nick Wass is heading Höfner's search project and has joined forces with two journalists in trying to solve the "greatest mystery in the history of rock and roll."

**Number of claims to extract**

3

**Type of text**

news article

**Model**

gpt-3.5-turbo

**Claims**

1. Paul McCartney's original Höfner bass guitar, which he bought for £30 in 1961, has been missing since 1969.
2. McCartney has urged Höfner, the manufacturer of the instrument, to launch a global search to find his beloved bass guitar.
3. Nick Wass, along with two journalists, is leading Höfner's search project to solve the "greatest mystery in the history of rock and roll."

**Multi-metrics**

- **focus = 5** All three claims accurately represent the relevant information presented in the news article, which is about the global search effort launched to find Paul McCartney's missing Höfner bass guitar and the involvement of Nick Wass and two journalists in this project.
- **coverage = 3.5**, since the claims cover the main information regarding the missing bass guitar and the search project, but do not mention the role of the two journalists nor the significance of the instrument to The Beatles' music.

**Claim metrics**

1. **Paul McCartney's original Höfner bass guitar, which he bought for £30 in 1961, has been missing since 1969.**
  - **fluency = 5** The claim is grammatically correct and well-formed, presenting a factual statement about the missing original Höfner bass guitar that Paul McCartney bought in 1961 for £30.
  - **decontextualization = 4.5** The claim provides the key information about the missing Höfner bass guitar, including its ownership, purchase date, and disappearance, but lacks details about the ongoing global search and the efforts involved.
  - **atomicity = 5** This claim is highly atomic as it presents a single specific fact about Paul McCartney's missing bass guitar, including the purchase date, price, and the year it went missing.
  - **faithfulness = 4.5** The claim is mostly faithful to the news article. The article states that Paul McCartney's original Höfner bass guitar has been missing since 1969, and the hunt to find it began after McCartney urged Höfner to track it down. However, the claim does not mention the involvement of Nick Wass and two journalists in the search project, which slightly deviates from the article.

**Figure 4.2:** A self-evaluating claim generation model based on GPT-4 [OpenAI, 2023] using the OpenAI API and a few-shot approach

Empirically, the models work encouragingly well on spotting hallucinations and inconsistencies in English, and while the transduction of BERTSCORE is trivial, using a Czech embedding model such as CZERT [Sido et al., 2021] or FERNET [Lehečka and Švec, 2021], reproducing the success of ALIGNSCORE will require more research and data.

5. **Focus@k** – if we generate  $k$  claims using this model, what will be the proportion of gold (relevant) information among all the information listed in the generated claims?

The metric is analogous to the concept of *precision* in the common machine learning applications, however, its deciding gets more ambiguous in the natural language settings, where we are dealing with synonyms and endless number of possible wordings for every piece of information.

An elegant and functional perspective on the problem has been brought around in QAGS<sup>1</sup> evaluation protocol [Wang et al., 2020], where the idea is to use a Question Generation model (QG) to formulate questions in natural language based on all  $k$  predicted claims. The questions are then twice answered using a Question Answering (QA) model, giving it knowledge from (i.) the predicted claims (ii.) the gold claims written by a human. The focus is then defined as the proportion of questions with the same answers extracted from the gold and predicted claims, among all questions model can generate from the predicted claims.

<sup>1</sup>Pronounced “kags”, stands for “Question Answering and Generation for Summarization”

6. **Coverage@ $k$**  – if we generate  $k$  claims using this model, what proportion of gold (relevant) information from the source text will be covered?

Anologous to *recall@ $k$*  in general machine learning, QAGS proposes to generate questions using gold claims and try to answer them using the predicted claims, much like in the *focus* scenario, but vice versa.

## 4.2 Data Collection

### 4.2.1 Human-in-the-loop grading of claim generators

### 4.2.2 Validation of the model outputs with human fact-checkers

### 4.2.3 Polish dataset scraping

Will be first of its kind for NLP purposes

### 4.2.4 Crowd-sourced fact checking platform

**TODO:** Cite *boys* [Bútorá, 2023]

## 4.3 The grand scope

1. Claim extraction metrics proposal based on factuality of summarization
2. Claim extraction paradigm that benchmarks best in the newly given metrics
3. Systems for NLI built on top of LoRA paradigm to score best in the task, as showed promising by Daniil



## **Chapter 5**

### **Conclusion**

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## **Appendix A**

### **Acronyms**

**BERT** Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers

**GPT** Generative Pre-trained Transformer

**FEVER** Fact Extraction and Verification – series of Shared tasks focused on fact-checking

**CLI** Command-Line Interface

**NLI** Natural Language Inference

**ČTK** Czech Press Agency