

NLP for Fact-Checking and Claim Assessment

A language model based approach

Othman El houfi

MSc Data Science & Machine Learning

CY Cergy Paris University, France

othmanelhoulfi@gmail.com

Dimitris Kotzinos

University Professor

CY Cergy Paris University, France

dimitrios.kotzinos@cyu.fr

Abstract—As false information and fake news are propagating throughout the internet and social networks, the need of fact-checking operations becomes necessary in order to maintain a truthful digital environment where general information can be reliably exploited whether in politics, finance or other domains. The need of this online claim assessment comes from the fact that fake news and false information can have a big negative impact on politics, economy (2016 USA Elections) and public health (COVID-19).

A number of solutions have been proposed to deal with this problem and limit the spread of false information, both manual and automatic. Of course the manual approaches done on websites such as *PolitiFact.com*, *FactCheck.org* and *Snopes.com* don't construct a viable solution for the long term as the speed and scale of information propagation increase exponentially rendering this manual fact-checking operation where human fact-checkers can't scale up at the same rate limited and incapable of solving the problem.

Here, we present our contribution in this regard: an automated solution for fact-checking using Wikipedia as a source of truth and a state of the art language models used today for NLP tasks (BERT, RoBERTa, XLNet...) in order to classify a given claim as *Supports*, *Refutes* or *Not enough information (NEI)*.

Index Terms—Natural Language Processing, Language Model, Wikipedia, Information retrieval, Text processing, Natural Language Inferencing, Fact-Checking, Document retrieval, Fake-news.

I. INTRODUCTION

From a social and psychological perspective, humans have been proven irrational and vulnerable when differentiating between truth and false news (typical accuracy ranges between 55% and 58%) [1], thus fake news obtain public trust relatively easier than truthful news because individuals tend to trust fake news after repeated exposure (*Validity effect*), or if it confirms their pre-existing beliefs (*Confirmation bias*), or simply due to the obligation of participating socially and proving a social identity (*Peer pressure*). The social sciences are still trying to comprehend the biological motivations that makes fake news more appealing to humans.

On the other hand, the growth of social media platforms resulted in a huge acceleration of news spreading whether true or false. As of Aug. 2017, 67% [1] of Americans get their news from social media. These platforms even give the user the right to share, forward, vote and participate to

online discussions. All of this made the problem of fake news spreading more and more dangerous, our economies for example, are not robust to the spread of falsity, false rumors have affected stock prices and the motivations for large-scale investments, as we witnessed after a false tweet claimed that Barack Obama was injured in an explosion which caused \$130 billion drop in stock value [2]. Another recent example is related to public health where rumors about COVID-19 vaccines and drug companies influenced people in their decision on getting vaccinated.

That being said, is there a way to monitor the spread of fake news through social media? Or more specifically, how can we differentiate between fake news and truthful news, and at what level of confidence can we do that?

From a computer engineering perspective, different approaches were studied:

- **Knowledge-based Fake News Detection [3]:** a method aims to assess news authenticity by comparing the knowledge extracted from to-be verified news content with known facts, also called fact-checking.
- **Style-based Fake News Detection [4]:** focuses on the style of writing, i.e. the form of text rather than its meaning.
- **Propagation-based Fake News Detection [5]:** a principled way to characterize and understand hierarchical propagation network features. We perform a statistical comparative analysis over these features, including micro-level and macro-level, of fake news and true news.
- **Credibility-based Fake News Detection [6]:** the information about authors of news articles can indicate news credibility and help detect fake news.

In this paper we will focus on a new approach that utilizes Language Models (LMs) for fact-checking. The goal is not to implement an algorithm that scans social networks for real time fake news detection, but rather we will create a model that can assess with a degree of confidence the truthfulness or falseness of a claim given by a user as an input by exploiting LMs that were already trained on Wikipedia, and fine-tune each LM for a downstream task in order to solve this classification problem.

II. RELATED WORKS

A. Language model based approach [7] [8]

A paper called "*Language Models as Fact Checkers?*" done by a team from *FacebookAI* and *Hong Kong University of Science and Technology*, provides an example of a fact-checking model using zero-shot LM that outperforms a random baseline LM using the FEVER dataset [9].

The goal of fact-checking as mentioned previously, and relatively to this paper, is to validate the truthfulness of a given claim. Each claim is assigned to one of these labels: *Supports*, *Refutes* or *Not enough information (NEI)* to verify.

This paper describes the difference between Traditional Pipeline fact-checking models and their zero-shot fact-checking LM:

- **Traditional pipeline:** this type of models access knowledge within an external knowledge base like Wikipedia in order to validate a claim. It involves information retrieval modules such as document retrieval and sentence retrieval.
- **Zero-shot LM pipeline:** it replaces both the external knowledge base and the information retrieval modules with a pre-trained language model.

They used the publicly available 24-layer BERT-Large as our language model, which was pre-trained on Wikipedia in 2018. After fine-tuning the model they achieved 57% in accuracy and 57% in F1-macro score which was better than the baseline BERT model (without fine-tuning) that achieved 49% in accuracy and 44% in F1-macro score.

B. Perplexity based approach [10] [11]

In March 2021, *Nayeon Lee*, *Yejin Bang*, *Andrea Madotto*, *Madian Khabsa*, and *Pascale Fung* published a paper called *Towards Few-Shot Fact-Checking via Perplexity* where they propose a new approach of the powerful transfer learning ability of a language model via a perplexity score. Using a method called *few-shot learning*, they built a model that outperforms major class baseline models by more than 10% on the F1-Macro metric score.

In this paper the goal is to determine the veracity of a claim given some evidence, for this they define a claim, evidence pair. The label *Supported* is assigned when relevant evidence exists that supports the claim, and *Unsupported* label for the opposite case.

Unsupported claims on average have higher perplexity than *Supported* claims. For example, *Supported* claim "Washing hands prevents the spread of diseases" has a perplexity value of 96.74, whereas the *Unsupported* claim "All dogs speak English fluently" has a much higher perplexity value of 328.23. The datasets used in this experiment are: Covid19-Scientific, Covid19-Social, and FEVER. As for the perplexity based experiment they used one unidirectional LM and one masked LM:

- PPL_{GPT2-B} : a single-parameter classifier based on perplexity from GPT2-base [12] (unidirectional LM)
- PPL_{BERT-B} : a single-parameter classifier based on perplexity from BERT-base [13] (Masked LM)

They took into consideration the accuracy and the F1-Macro metrics for the evaluation. Because the datasets are unbalanced, they mainly consider the F1-Macro score over accuracy as an overall evaluation. The perplexity-based classifiers, especially PPL_{GPT2-B} , outperform all Major Class baselines across all tasks in all settings. For instance, PPL_{GPT2-B} achieved accuracy of 67.48% and F1-macro score of 64.70% on FEVER dataset.

On the other hand the classification was limited to two labels (*Supported* and *Unsupported*) which does not solve the entire classification problem in the FEVER dataset that provides three labels (*Supports*, *Refutes* or *Not enough information (NEI)*).

III. PRESENTED METHOD

Most of the fact-checking algorithms today involving knowledge-based verification uses a traditional pipeline that puts in place a module for retrieving articles from an external source, another module for retrieving relevant sentences from each article, and a last module for natural language inferencing (NLI) in order to classify a claim.

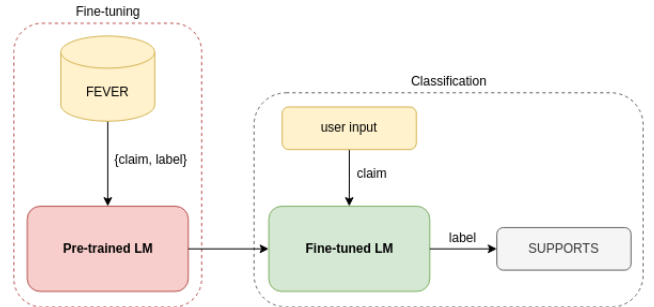


Fig. 1. Proposed method pipeline.

In this paper we present a method that is fully reliant on the powerfulness of today's best LMs. As illustrated in figure 1, we start by fine-tuning each model for the downstream task that is claim classification using the FEVER dataset, then each model is employed to assess the validity of new input claims. This approach takes into consideration only an internal knowledge source (FEVER) for fine-tuning, that is for the learning phase, which makes the prediction phase knowledge-free rather than utilizing external knowledge sources for retrieving articles and sentences.

It is also important to mention that we only use LMs for classifying claims and not for generating evidence. We leave generating evidences with language models for future work.

A. FEVER Dataset

FEVER (Fact Extraction and VERification) consists of 185,445 claims generated by altering sentences extracted from

Wikipedia and subsequently verified without knowledge of the sentence they were derived from. The claims are classified as Supported, Refuted or NotEnoughInfo. For the first two classes, the annotators also recorded the sentence(s) forming the necessary evidence for their judgment [9].

Claim: The Rodney King riots took place in the most populous county in the USA.
[wiki/Los Angeles Riots] The 1992 Los Angeles riots, also known as the Rodney King riots were a series of riots, lootings, arsons, and civil disturbances that occurred in Los Angeles County, California in April and May 1992.
[wiki/Los Angeles County] Los Angeles County, officially the County of Los Angeles, is the most populous county in the USA.
Verdict: Supported

Fig. 2. Manually verified claim requiring evidence from multiple Wikipedia pages.

Since our mission is to classify claims to *Supports*, *Refutes* or *NEI* and not generating evidence, we omit the evidences information in the dataset. Then we map each label to an integer: $\{Supports : 1, Refutes : 0, NEI : 2\}$ and that is all we do as far as data pre-preprocessing goes.

ID	Claim	Label
79044	The Apple Store first opened in 2001.	SUPPORTS
117129	Adventure Time won an Oscar.	REFUTES
55061	Yamaha Corporation produces hardware.	NEI

TABLE I
EXAMPLES OF FEVER CLAIMS AND LABELS.

Finally we split the dataset to o training, validation and test sets that we can use for LM fine-tuning and testing.

Split	SUPPORTS	REFUTES	NEI	Total
Train	80,035	29,775	35,639	145,449
Val	3,333	3,333	3,333	9,999
Test	3,333	3,333	3,333	9,999

TABLE II
DATASET SPLIT SIZES FOR SUPPORTS, REFUTES AND NOTENOUGHINFO (NEI) CLASSES.

B. Language Models

The year 2018 has been an inflection point for NLP as Google introduced a LM called BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) [14]. This model was described as state-of-the-art model that solves the most difficult tasks in NLP, it is also used today in Google’s search engine for text completion and translation. BERT model can be fine-tuned with just one additional output layer to create state-of-the-art models for a wide range of tasks, such as question

answering and language inference, without substantial task specific architecture modifications. From there a lot of LMs were introduced that uses the same architecture as BERT but with small changes such as number of parameters and data on which the model was pre-trained.

Comparison	BERT October 11, 2018	RoBERTa July 26, 2019	DistilBERT October 2, 2019	ALBERT September 26, 2019
Parameters	Base: 110M Large: 340M	Base: 125 Large: 355	Base: 66	Base: 12M Large: 18M
Layers / Hidden Dimensions / Self-Attention Heads	Base: 12 / 768 / 12 Large: 24 / 1024 / 16	Base: 12 / 768 / 12 Large: 24 / 1024 / 16	Base: 6 / 768 / 12	Base: 12 / 768 / 12 Large: 24 / 1024 / 16
Training Time	Base: 8 x V100 x 12d Large: 280 x V100 x 1d	1024 x V100 x 1 day (4-5x more than BERT)	Base: 8 x V100 x 3.5d (4 times less than BERT)	[not given] Large: 1.7x faster
Performance	Outperforming SOTA in Oct 2018	88.5 on GLUE	97% of BERT-base’s performance on GLUE	89.4 on GLUE
Pre-Training Data	BooksCorpus + English Wikipedia = 16 GB	BERT + CCNews + OpenWebText + Stories = 160 GB	BooksCorpus + English Wikipedia = 16 GB	BooksCorpus + English Wikipedia = 16 GB
Method	Bidirectional Transformer, MLM & NSP	BERT without NSP, Using Dynamic Masking	BERT Distillation	BERT with reduced parameters & SOP (not NSP)

Fig. 3. Comparison of BERT, RoBERTa, DistilBERT, and ALBERT.¹

In this paper we will classify claims by fine-tuning the following LMs:

- BERT-base-uncased
- RoBERTa-base
- DistilBERT-base-uncased
- XLNET-base-cased
- ALBERT-base-v2
- BigBird-RoBERTa-base

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Experimental protocol

B. Results

C. Complexity analysis

D. Conclusion of the analysis

V. CONCLUSION

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