**Strong and Light Baseline Models for Fact-Checking Joint Inference**

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### Abstract

How to combine several pieces of evidence to verify a claim is an interesting semantic task. Very complex methods have been proposed, combining different evidence vectors using an evidence interaction graph. In this paper, we show that in case of inference based on transformer models, two effective approaches use either (i) a simple application of max pooling over the Transformer evidence vectors; or (ii) computing a weighted sum of the evidence vectors. Our experiments on the FEVER claim verification task show that the methods above achieve the state of the art, constituting strong baseline for much more computationally complex methods.

### 1 Introduction

Automatic Fact Checking is quickly gaining attention of the NLP and AI communities. The FEVER.ai Fact Extraction and Verification Shared Task (Thorne et al., 2018) provides a benchmark for evaluating fact-checking systems. In FEVER, given a claim, \( C \), and a collection of approximately five million Wikipedia pages, \( W \), the task is to predict whether \( C \) is supported (SUP) or refuted (REF) by \( W \), or whether there is not enough information (NEI) in \( W \) to support or refute \( C \). If \( C \) is classified as SUP or REF, the respective evidence should be provided. Tab. 1 shows a FEVER claim and the gold-standard evidence refuting it.

The overall task is complex, as one needs to retrieve the documents that contain the evidence (**document retrieval, DocIR**), select relevant evidence (**evidence selection, ES**) and label the claim given the evidence (**evidence reasoning, ER**), which is the focus of our work. Formally, given a claim, \( C \), and a list top K evidence sentences, \( (E_1, ..., E_K) \), retrieved with DocIR and selected by ES respectively, the ER task is to predict the claim label (SUP/REF/NEI).

There can be multiple inter-dependent evidence sentences per claim, thus joint modeling them allows for taking multiple clues into account, thus intuitively improving system accuracy. Indeed, individual sentences may not constitute standalone evidence, but they can contain several clues, which, together, can support or refute the claim. For example, Sentence 8 of the Gluten-free diet Wikipedia page, “..gluten-free diet is demonstrated as an effective treatment, but several studies show that about 79 % ... an incomplete recovery of the small bowel...”, which is not listed as ground truth evidence for the claim, still supports the REF signal.

Given the above intuition, recent state-of-the-art (SOTA) approaches (Zhou et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Zhong et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020) combine different pieces of evidence with graph networks, also increasing computational and space complexity. In this paper, we show that simple joint transformer-based methods achieve better performance than the best complex systems. Specifically, we (i) text-concatenate evidence sentences, (ii) apply max pooling to their individual embedding representation, or (iii) compute their weighted sum. Since June 1st 2021, our baseline is sixth in terms of Label Accuracy (LA) and seventh in terms of FEVER score on the official task leaderboard\(^1\), where the absolute difference from the fourth top LA is 0.2%.

We believe our results are important to enable \(^1\)https://competitions.codalab.org/competitions/18814#results

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researchers to select the right scientific challenge, providing the appropriate baselines. For example, proposing complex models that are less accurate than our baselines can most likely mislead the research community, thus knowing our baselines can help to lead research in this area in the right directions. Additionally, our baselines are strong, simple to use, and easily reproducible, enabling fast comparison with innovative inference models.

2 Related work

SOTA approaches. Most recent approaches encode claim and evidence texts using Transformer-based language representation models (LRM), such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2018), RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), and others. GEAR (Zhou et al., 2019) and KGAT (Liu et al., 2020) construct graphs with evidences as nodes and use deep graph neural ER networks to propagate knowledge; DREAM (Zhong et al., 2020) reasons on a graph built on top of a semantic role labeler output; Transformer-XH (Zhao et al., 2020) propagates knowledge between [CLS] tokens of different evidence pieces; CorefBERT (Ye et al., 2020) trains a BERT-based LRM, which employs an additional objective modeling coreference knowledge, and use it within KGAT architecture. The winners of the original FEVER competition (Nie et al., 2019) used older LRMs and a modified enhanced sequential inference model (ESIM) (Chen et al., 2017) to do ER.

The top-scoring published approach, DOM-LIN++ (Stammbach and Ash, 2020), simply text-concatenates evidence pieces and uses a RoBERTa-based classifier, thus supporting our thesis that simple models can be very effective. On the other hand, they use additional DocIR components and data (MultiNLI (Williams et al., 2018) corpus) for fine-tuning. To the best of our knowledge, their code/output are not available online yet\(^2\), so we cannot compare to them directly at the moment.

Baselines. The baselines in the above works, apart from the previous SOTA systems, consist in applying a transformer-based classifier to (i) concatenation of $C$ and all $E_i$, $i = 1..K$ (Zhou et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020); or (ii) separate $(C,E_i)$ pairs, $i = 1..K$, and aggregating the results heuristically (Zhou et al., 2019). The latter also considered max-pooling and weighted-

sum baselines, but used them only on subsets of the development set with multiple gold evidence pieces per claim. In this work, we use them in the full-scale setting.

3 Strong baseline models

BERT for classification. BERT LRM and its version with the improved training procedure, RoBERTa, have obtained outstanding results on a number of NLP tasks. When using BERT-based architectures for classification, a special $[CLS]$ token is prepended to an input text sequence. Its embedding from the last layer of the transformer, $h_{[CLS]} \in \mathbb{R}^{h_{dim}}$, is a vector representation of the sequence. $h_{dim}$ is the hidden dimension size. The final prediction is $p = \text{softmax}(L)$, where $L = Wh_{[CLS]} \in \mathbb{R}^N$, $W \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times h_{dim}}$, and $N$ is the number of classes\(^3\).

Baseline approaches. We investigate four simple Transformer-based baseline approaches: Local, Concat, MaxPool, WgtSum.

The input to the task are a claim, $C$, and a list of top K evidence sentences selected by an ES component, $E = \{E_i\}, i = 1,..,K$. Tab. 2 describes the input format. Following Liu et al. (2020), we incorporate $E_i$ source page name into the input. We use cross-entropy loss to train all the models.

Local: for each $E_i$, we (i) use the standard 3-way classification Transformer-based model, $T_{class}$ to get an evidence-level label prediction, $P_i$, along with its corresponding $l_i = \text{max}(L_i)$ score, where $L_i \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is the logits vector produced by $T_{class}$ for $E_i$; (ii) sort the predictions list, $P = [P_i, l_i]$, on $l$ in the reverse order; (iii) create $P'$, a sublist of $P$, where $P_i$ is not NEI and $l_i > 0$. If $P'$ is not empty, $P'_r$ is the claim label, otherwise it is NEI. We introduce $P''$, because we want to capture the SUP/REF signal even if it is weaker compared to that of NEI.

Concat: $T_{class}$ run on the input described in Tab. 2. Local and Concat are similar to the Bert-pair and Bert-Concat baselines, respectively introduced in (Zhou et al., 2019).

MaxPool: encodes each $(C,E_i)$ pair with a transformer model, concatenates the resulting $h_{[CLS]}^{(C,L)}$ into a matrix $H^{[CLS]} \in \mathbb{R}^{h_{dim} \times K}$ and max-pools it, column-wise, into $h_{max}^{[CLS]} \in \mathbb{R}^{h_{dim}}$. The output

\(^2\)This we could try to re-implement their pipeline following the high-level descriptions in their paper, however, our re-implementation still will not be able to re-produce their ER input due to the inevitable implementation differences

\(^3\)This is standard for BERT, other language models can use a different token in a different position
Table 2: Input data for the baselines. $E_i^{pase}$ is the name of the $E_i$ source Wikipedia page. [SEP] and [CLS] are the standard “separator” and “classification” tokens used in BERT-like models. <psep> is delimiter separating page name from the evidence text. We use “.”, while Liu et al. (2020) use [SEP]

is $p = softmax(W_{mp}h_{mp}^{[CLS]}), W_{mp} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{hdim}}$. It is inspired by the max pooling evidence aggregation procedure employed by (Hanselowski et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2019).

$\text{WgtSum:}$ encodes each $(C, E_i)$ pair with a transformer, computes the weighted sum $h_{ws}^i = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_i^k h_{[CLS]}^k \in \mathbb{R}^{h_{dim}}, \alpha_i^k = softmax(W_{ws}h_{[CLS]}^k), W_{ws} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times h_{dim}}$. The weight $\alpha_i^k$ is intended to reflect the relative importance of $E_i$. The output is $p = softmax(W_{ws}h_{ws}^{[CLS]}), W \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times h_{dim}}$. $\text{WgtSum}$ is similar to the Zhou et al. (2019)’s attention baseline in the sense that we aggregate pieces of evidence representations via a weighted summation. However, differently from us, they obtain the weights by computing attention between the claim and the evidence hidden states. We refer to Concat, MaxPool and WgtSum as global systems.

4 Experiments

Implementation. Our system is an AllenNLP pipeline (Gardner et al., 2017). Our code is available at https://github.com/kernels/reasoning-baselines. We use the pre-trained BERT and RoBERTa LMs from the transformers\(^5\) library, namely bert-base-cased, roberta-base and roberta-large.

Training setup. We train for three epochs, with an evaluation checkpoint every 500 and 2500 training steps for global and local models correspondingly, thus having 14 checkpoints in total. We use $K = 5$ evidence pieces per claim. For all the models the batch size/number of gradient accumulation steps are 8/8 and 2/32 with base and large LMs, respectively. We use Adam optimizer with slanted triangular learning rate (Howard and Ruder, 2018), cut frac = 0.1, ratio of 32\(^6\).

When experimenting with roberta-base we tried learning rates [1e-5; 5e-5] with the step of 1e-5 and observed no noticeable difference between the rates in the range [2e-5; 5e-5]. Additional details are available in the appendix.

FEVER metrics. The primary shared task metric is FEVER\(^7\). It takes the correctness of the evidence set provided with the claim label\(^8\) into account. The evidence set must contain all sentences belonging to at least one evidence\(^9\) associated with a claim.

No evidence is needed for NEI claims. Label Accuracy (LA) is another standard metric. Oracle FEVER (OFEVER) is the FEVER metric computed using oracle downstream components after DocIR or ES, i.e., it estimates downstream component’s upper bound performance.

4.1 The dataset

We conduct our experiments on the official FEVER 1.0 Shared Task dataset\(^10\). Tab. 3 reports the FEVER 1.0 statistics. Verifiable (SUP or REF) claims are associated with at least one evidence. 35.23% of verifiable claims in DEV are associated with multiple evidence sentences, independent or inter-dependent.

Evidence Reasoning (ER) dataset. We run the ER experiments on the evidence sentences retrieved by Liu et al. (2020), published on their github\(^11\) with ES OFEVER score of 96.25. Their DocIR module retrieves documents for a given claim via entity linking following (Hanselowski et al., 2018), and the ES module selects relevant evidence (ES) via BERT-based system with pairwise loss.

Following (Liu et al., 2020), when training and selecting the best checkpoint we use gold evidence completed with the non-gold evidence pieces retrieved by ES, so that the total amount of evidence pieces per claim is $K$. When evaluating on DEV we simply use top 5 evidence pieces retrieved by ES, i.e. the results in Sec. 4.2 are obtained on the

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\(^5\)https://github.com/huggingface/transformers

\(^6\)Standard values suggested in (Howard and Ruder, 2018)

\(^7\)Scorer: https://github.com/sheffieldnlp/fever-scorer

\(^8\)At least one of top 5 predicted evidences must be correct.

\(^9\)An evidence consists of one or more sentences. One claim can have multiple evidences.

\(^10\)FEVER 1.0 Shared Task at https://fever.ai/resources.html

\(^11\)https://github.com/thunlp/KernelGAT/tree/master/data
We integrated their implementation of the KGAT (lines 3, 1). Interestingly, our runs with Roberta-large (lines 3, 6, 9) outperform the published results of KGAT runs with Roberta-large (lines 4, 6, 9). We also include its best result (that is an upperbound of KGAT) with Roberta-base that we obtained with the learning rate of 3e-5. KGAT with Roberta-large and learning rate of 2e-5 further pushes the performance 1 point up, while the training with the learning rates of 3e-5 and 5e-5 did not converge.

Local models. Lines 10-13 report performance of our local models with two evidence label aggregation heuristics. Heuristic 1 consists in applying the procedure described in Sec. 3 to the labels assigned to all evidence pieces by Local. Heuristic 2 is to simply pick the label assigned to the evidence sentence top-ranked by ES as in [Zhou et al., 2019]. The aggregation heuristic 1 is more competitive.

Global models. Lines 14-22 report performance of the Concat, WgtSum, MaxPool global systems, which all clearly outperform Local. Note, that in the Concat setting $C$ and $E_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, K$, are concatenated, thus it is sensitive to the relative $E_i$ order. Overall, all three models perform comparably between each other and to KGAT (lines 14-22 vs 5-7). MaxPool and WgtSum marginally outperform Concat with Roberta-large.

We also trained Concat with Roberta-large setting $K=1$ both for training and predicting, i.e., using only top evidence piece retrieved by ES. The resulting LA of 79.57 is only approximately one point behind that of Concat (Line 16) and KGAT (Line 7). This suggests that good performance can be obtained on the FEVER dataset even without joint reasoning over multiple $E_i$-s, and that there is still room for further improvement for the systems able to reason upon multiple evidence pieces. Also this could be partially attributed to the observation by Schuster et al. (2019) who showed that FEVER claims contain certain linguistic biases and BERT model fine-tuned on the claim texts only significantly outperforms the majority baseline. Schuster et al. (2019) proposed a debiased symmetric test set, but its instances are claim-evidence pairs. This means that $K = 1$, and thus we did not evaluate our baselines on it as with $K = 1$ they all become equivalent to Local.

Comparison to the state of the art. Tab. 5 compares the performance of MaxPool and WgtSum to that of the SOTA systems as of June 1st, 2021. Our simple baselines outperform all the other systems on DEV, but we may have overfitted on it, as we report the performance of the best checkpoint.

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### Table 4: Results on the official DEV set.

| FEVER  | LA    | LRM    |
|--------|-------|--------|
| KGAT SOTA baseline, lr=5e-05 | 75.88 | 78.02 |
| KGAT  | 75.64 | 77.80  |

*Replicating KGAT results, lr=5e-05*

| Other learning rates (lr) for KGAT  |
|-----------------------------------|
| KGAT, lr=2e-5                     |
| KGAT, lr=3e-5                     |

*Local models, lr=2e-05*

| Claims times K  |
|-----------------|
| 1.               |
| 2.               |

*Global baselines, lr=2e-05*

| Claims times K  |
|-----------------|
| 14.              |
| 15.              |

Real-life gold standard-agnostic output of the DocIR and ES modules.

Note that by construction, we generate one train/test instance per each $(C, E_i)$ pair when training/predicting Local models and then aggregate the labels predicted for different evidence pieces, i.e., the total amount of instances is around number of claims times $K^{12}$. For example, we train Local on 722K examples, split into 548K NET, 127K SUP, 48K REF. When training/predicting Concat, WgtSum and MaxPool, we generate one instance per each claim.

### 4.2 Results

Tab. 4 reports the performance of the systems described in Sec. 3 on the official DEV set.

In previous work, systems employing KGAT ER architecture [Liu et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2020] achieve top performance in terms of FEVER. KGAT ER input data are publicly available enabling us to conduct fair comparison. Lines 1 and 2 report KGAT performance as in [Liu et al., 2020]. We integrated their implementation of the KGAT ER component into our pipeline and obtained performance numbers comparable to those published (lines 3, 1). Interestingly, our runs with Roberta-

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12It can be less, as for some claims fewer evidence pieces were retrieved.
### Table 5: FEVER state of the art.

We mark results outperforming us with an underscore. We mark the systems using exactly the same input to the ER component as us with *.

| System | DEV FEVER | TEST LA FEVER |
|--------|-----------|--------------|
| BERT Pair | 68.90 | 73.30 | 65.18 | 69.75 |
| BERT Concat | 68.89 | 73.67 | 65.64 | 71.01 |
| GEAR (Zhou et al., 2019) | 70.69 | 74.84 | 67.19 | 71.60 |
| DREAM (#2 LA) (Zhong et al., 2020) | n/a | 79.16 | 70.60 | 76.85 |
| * KGAT with - BERT Base | 75.88 | 78.02 | 69.40 | 72.81 |
| * - RoBERTa Large (Liu et al., 2020) | 76.11 | 78.29 | 70.38 | 74.07 |
| Transformer-XH (Zhao et al., 2020) | 74.98 | 78.05 | 69.07 | 72.39 |
| KGAT with - CorefBERTBase | n/a | n/a | 69.82 | 72.88 |
| - CorefBERTLarge | n/a | n/a | 70.86 | 74.37 |
| - CorefRoBERTaL (Ye et al., 2020) | n/a | n/a | 72.30 | 75.96 |
| DOMLIN++ (Stammbach and Ash, 2020) | 74.98 | 77.48 | 74.27 | 76.60 |

Codalab leaderboard as of June 1, 2021

| # | dominiks | h2oloo | nudt_alp | krishnamrith12 | toppower | gump |
|---|----------|--------|----------|-------------|----------|------|
|1 | n/a | n/a | 76.78 | 79.16 |
|2 | n/a | n/a | 75.87 | 79.35 |
|3 | n/a | n/a | 74.42 | 77.38 |
|4 | n/a | n/a | 74.37 | 79.25 |
|5 | n/a | n/a | 73.90 | 77.21 |
|6 | n/a | n/a | 73.72 | 77.05 |

Our results

| System | DEV FEVER | TEST LA FEVER |
|--------|-----------|--------------|
| Concat (roberta-large) | 78.27 | 80.31 | 72.59 | 75.85 |
| MaxPool (roberta-large) | 78.85 | 81.16 | 72.77 | 76.55 |
| WgtSum (roberta-large) | 79.02 | 81.30 | 73.44 | 77.18 |

On the blind TEST data, WgtSum with roberta-large scores seventh in terms of FEVER and sixth in terms of LA on the official Codalab leaderboard.

Despite our best efforts, we were not able to track the publications related to the leaderboard submissions #1-#6. We do not know whether their superior performance is due to a better ER approach, a stronger LRM with billions of parameters, or to a better DocIR/ES. In the latter two cases, the baselines in this work still remain relevant.

The best-performing system with published description, DOMLIN++, uses roberta-large and the Concat approach. We cannot compare the results of our ER model directly, since they use a different ES system which might have better evidence recall. Note that we still marginally outperform them in terms of LA. This may indicate that even though our gold evidence recall may be lower due to a possibly less powerful DocIR/ES pipeline (resulting in lower FEVER score), we are still able to predict a correct label given the evidence sentences we have at our disposition. Then, they do additional pre-training on MultiNLI, while we do not exploit any external corpora.

#### Qualitative analysis

We compared the outputs of the Concat, MaxPool, WgtSum and KGAT systems. We analyzed 50 DEV set examples where only one out of four systems produced the correct label. We aimed to understand the reason behind the correct prediction, but we have not observed any patterns explaining why one system outperforms the others. The systems seem to be equivalent in their abilities.

When analyzing the WgtSum output, we observed that when summing the weighted distributed representations of evidence pieces retrieved by KGAT ES for a specific claim (see Sec. 3), it tends to assign higher weights to the evidence pieces which are correct according to the gold standard.

### 5 Conclusion

We have proposed lightweight strong baselines for the FEVER fact-checking task and showed that they can outperform heavier models on the official leaderboard with blind TEST set. In our future work, we plan to capitalize from our results to build systems that can effectively trade-off efficiency for accuracy.

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A Learning rate selection.

When experimenting with roberta-base we tried learning rates (lr) [1e-5; 5e-5] with the step of 1e-5. Table 6 summarizes the results. The results obtained with the learning rates in range [2e-5; 5e-5] are very similar, so we used the learning rate of 2e-5 in the majority of our experiments in this paper.

B Model complexity.

Tab. 7 reports the amount of trainable parameters in the ER component of each model when run on
| Model              | # parameters-base | # parameters-large |
|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
|                    | LRM parameters    |                    |
| LRM (RoBERTa)      | 124,645,632       | 355,359,744        |
| **Parameters in the joint inference ER component** |                    |                    |
| KGAT               | 792,112           | 1,318,192          |
| Concat/MaxPool     | 2,307             | 3,075              |
| WgtSum             | 3,076             | 4,100              |

Table 7: Number of trainable parameters in the ER models with RoBERTa LRM. We report the amount of LRM and ER component parameters separately (i.e., the full ER model size is their sum). -base/-large refers to the LRM version.

Top of different LRM\textsuperscript{14}. Our simple baselines perform comparably to SOTA using an ER inference component having 3K parameters only (in addition to LRM parameters).

\textsuperscript{14} Naturally, we update the LRM\textsubscript{s} parameters as well.