

Fact-checking, False Narratives, and Argumentation Schemes

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ABSTRACT

False narratives, with their frequent omission of crucial argument components and their reliance on cherry-picking accurate but misleading facts, pose significant challenges to NLP tools that aim to automate parts of the human intelligence task of fact-checking. Fortunately, these forms of enthymemes can be overcome using methods from argumentation theory, which has refined over several decades a repertoire of argumentation schemes that can help us reason and model these forms of weaponized disinformation. In this position paper we argue for a new approach to computational fact-checking based on normative patterns of argumentation.

KEYWORDS

fact-checking, argumentation mining, Walton-style arguments, enthymemes

1 INTRODUCTION

In the arms race against disinformation, the job of fact checkers is made significantly more difficult by the use of factual statements, misleadingly presented. For example, a recent email sent to supporters of President Trump stated that

“Millions of mail-in ballots were sent to people who didn’t ask for them.”

In its investigation of this claim, Fact-checking website *Snopes* determined that, taken at a literal level, this claim is factually correct. But “it was a mischaracterization of states’ election laws to frame that fact as evidence of impropriety or fraud,” which was the email’s intended but unstated conclusion. “Rather, the ballots were sent to registered voters in accordance with state laws.”¹ Such tactics are not limited to one political side, as shown by an article that appeared in the *Independent* with the following headlines:

“Trump ‘haemorrhaging’ Twitter followers in wake of election defeat;
President has lost followers every day this week, figures show.”²

Though the subtitle is factually correct, President Trump’s Twitter account only lost approximately 0.25% of its followers over the week in question, and may have actually gained followers since the election. Such claims are used to plant or strengthen certain beliefs (for example, that the 2020 US Presidential Election was marred by electoral fraud) in their target audience by use of *enthymemes*,³ through content which: (1) omit crucial parts of the argument’s structure, such as premises or conclusions; (2) tend to make use

of cherry-picked but verifiably correct facts; and (3) can often be easily refuted by locating and examining the missing components.

Fact-checking these and other types of claims is a complex human intelligence task. First, a fact-checker needs to identify the underlying belief the claim is trying to plant, along with how it is meant to connect to the facts the claim presents. Second, she needs to collect the underlying facts. Third, she needs to evaluate the collected evidence and come up with an overall determination. This last step may play out in different ways, depending on the claim. The evidence may turn out to be false, in which case the claim can be refuted as is. However, if the evidence is true, as is typically the case for enthymematic claims, it may still fail to provide sufficient argumentative support of the claim, or it may fail to hold when additional facts are considered.

Of the various steps that comprise the workflow described above, journalists are generally quite effective at the first two, i.e. identifying the underlying belief and collecting the underlying facts. As far as the third task is concerned, emerging research shows that simple factual claims can be evaluated against a database of facts [1, 2, 3]. However, the task of evaluating misleading claims based on true evidence, i.e. enthymematic claims, still present considerable challenges and is hard to scale. This task challenging since it requires knowledge of *normative* patterns of argumentation — knowledge about what types of argument schemes constitute “good” arguments, what their refutation conditions are, and which (if any) argument components are implied but not verified by a claim.

To overcome this problem and make it easier for fact-checkers to deal with complex claims in general, and more specifically with enthymematic claims, there is a strong need for manually curated argument schemes, organized into premises and conclusions. Each scheme should be detailed by flexible analyses of its strengths, weaknesses, conditions of refutation/strengthening, and applicability conditions. Fortunately, such a corpus of argument schemes already exists; it has been compiled, studied, and published over the past near-four decades by Douglas Walton and colleagues [4, 5].

For example, consider the *Argument from Verbal Classification* scheme [5]:

Individual Premise: *a* has property *F*.

Classification Premise: For all *x*, if *x* has property *F*, then *x* can be classified as having property *G*.

Conclusion: *a* has property *G*.

Critical Questions:

- *CQ1:* What evidence is there that *a* definitely has property *F*, as opposed to evidence indicating room for doubt about whether it should be so classified?
- *CQ2:* Is the verbal classification in the classification premise based merely on an assumption about word usage that is subject to doubt?

¹<https://www.snopes.com/fact-check/millions-mail-in-ballots/>

²<https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/americas/us-election-2020/trump-losing-twitter-followers-election-defeat-b1762502.html>

³An enthymeme is “an argument in which one premise is not explicitly stated.” (source: Oxford Languages).

This scheme may be applicable to this paper’s opening example, by substituting ‘the 2020 elections’ for a , ‘had millions of mail-in ballots sent unsolicited’ for F , and ‘was fraudulent’ for G . Stated in this way, it is extremely clear that although the individual premise is true, the classification premise is extremely weak, and can be struck down soundly.

Walton-style argument schemes have never been effectively applied to journalistic workflows such as fact-checking. This raises a host of questions. For example: are current taxonomy of argument schemes capable of describing all claims currently in circulation? And, given a claim expressed in natural language, can we detect efficiently the presence of one or more argument schemes from this taxonomy in it? Does knowledge of the detected argument scheme help to identify and verify the underlying facts of the claim? We argue that more research is needed combining Natural Language Processing (NLP), Network Science, and Machine Learning to seek an answer to these questions.

2 A NEW RESEARCH AGENDA

We seek to understand the role that argument patterns and schemes play in enthymematic disinformation, with the ultimate aim of developing tools for more effective fact checking. This involves applying state-of-the-art NLP in order to solve the following tasks:

- (1) Given a carrier of enthymematic disinformation (e.g. the headline of an article shared on social media), identify its *intended conclusion*—i.e., the belief that the disinformation’s creator intends to instill or reinforce in the reader. This will likely use patterns identified automatically, rather than normatively crafted argument schemes. To systematically explore this, we propose the use of new benchmark datasets and tasks which build on two existing tasks in natural language processing: *natural language inference* [6, 7, 8] and *argument reasoning comprehension* [9, 10, 11].
- (2) Given an intended conclusion, use argument schemes to identify its necessary and sufficient premises, to aid in repetitive tasks related to the research required to fact-check a claim. This will use normatively crafted argument schemes, such as Walton’s, since the goal here is to enforce critical thinking, rather than to just identify uncritical associations. To tame the complexity of this task, we could focus on domain-specific claims, such as political news headlines, and their related argument schemes.
- (3) Given a scheme and its identified premises, develop new knowledge graph verification techniques that make full use of Walton-style argument schemes. A promising approach to tackle this issue is to devise novel graph traversal schemes that exploit knowledge of the statistical property of the underlying knowledge topology. The goal here is to mine a reference knowledge base for underlying evidence to be checked.
- (4) Last but not least, we propose to engage with specific fact-checking organizations to develop new tools to aid human fact-checkers analyze false narratives through the lens of argument schemes.

The Defeasible Inference Task. We here propose a new benchmark task which we believe will contribute towards the development

of the kinds of NLP systems that are necessary to achieve the goals described thus far. It is based on the Argument Reasoning Comprehension Task (ARCS) [9, 10], which (after correcting for biases in the initial version of the task) has been shown to be very difficult even for state-of-the-art NLP systems [11]. Defeasible reasoning [12, 13, 14], sometimes called “nonmonotonic reasoning,” involves arguments whose conclusions are subject to later defeat by additional evidence or arguments. For example, consider the following statements:

- p = “A woman refuses to bathe her child in tap water.”
- h = “The woman is unnecessarily overprotective of her child.”
- w_1 = “The woman refuses to let her baby eat GMOs or processed foods.”
- w_2 = “The woman has read credible reports of flesh-eating bacteria in the local water supply.”

Faced with p alone, which may be a newspaper headline, a reader might infer h on their own, and implying h may indeed be the goal of the headline writer all along. If further given w_1 , then the reader might be more likely to believe that h is true. But if then given w_2 , a typical reader is likely to infer that h no longer holds (or is at least not sufficiently supported by the available evidence).

The ARCS task consists of four statements similar to those above, where the two warrants (w_1 and w_2) are such that one of them combined with the premise p infers the hypothesis h , whereas the other combined with p infers the negation of h . The task is to determine which warrant is which. We propose to extend this task in two ways: First, the premise will consist of an article’s headline, and the hypothesis will consist of an intended conclusion of that headline. Second, the warrants $w = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ will consist of factual statements (not limited to two) either directly extracted from the article, or taken from some fact checking service or process. The task, then, is to determine whether (1) $p \rightarrow h$,⁴ and (2) if there exists some $w_i \in w$ such that $\neg((p \wedge w_i) \rightarrow h)$. If this is the case, then the article corresponding to this problem can be flagged as a possible piece of enthymematic disinformation, and can then be reviewed by a fact checker.

Currently, no benchmark dataset for this task exists. In prior work, Shao, Ciampaglia, Varol, Yang, Flammini, and Menczer analyze a sample of $N = 100$ articles from ‘low credibility’ sources and found that the majority of them (77%–82%, depending on sampling strategy) conformed to some form of misleading or inaccurate information [15]. Actually collecting such a dataset is a focus of our present research, and a starting point can be existing datasets of clickbait [16], false claims, and fact-checks [17]. However, the potential benefits of the resulting dataset are significant: a model trained to perform well on this task may be able to automatically determine the prevalence of enthymematic disinformation.

3 DISCUSSION

From a computational perspective, enthymematic disinformation poses a set of interdisciplinary challenges touching upon, for example, NLP, Network Science, and Artificial Intelligence, to name a few. The research tasks outlined above are extremely under-researched

⁴The implication relationship \rightarrow here would be an approximation of the “commonsense” inference that tasks like NLI [6] attempt to capture. Such an inferential relationship is, at a minimum, defeasible and non-monotonic.

by the state of the art in these disciplines. In particular, we aim to bridge the gap between the statistical approach, which is typical of NLP and Network Science, and the normative approach, which is more typical of argumentation theory. We also contribute to NLP and to automated reasoning by introducing new datasets, benchmarks, and challenges for them, as well as solutions for them which will combine the latest advances in NLP with the underutilized resources provided by argument schemes.

Disinformation is not new, but its spread throughout recent years is unprecedented and disastrous [18, 19, 20, 21]. But since the amount of energy required to successfully refute a false claim tends to be significantly greater than that required to make or spread the false claim, tools for making the fact-checking process easier (by reducing the burden associated to repetitive tasks) are desperately needed. The partnership between computer scientists and journalists dates back a considerable time and in some cases (e.g. news recommendation, digital advertising) it has been deeply transformative for the news media industry, but it has impacted more the business aspect of running a news outlet and less the editorial aspect of the job. In contrast, we envision that the proposed work will directly lead to the development of public tools for the fact-checking community, an emerging form of journalism that is increasingly becoming an essential component of the socio-technical infrastructure of the internet.

About the authors

Dr. Giovanni Luca Ciampaglia is an expert in Network Science, Data Science, and Computational Social Science. He is interested in all problems arising from the interplay between people and computing systems, in particular the integrity of information in cyberspace against disinformation [22, 23, 24, 15, 25, 26, 2], and the trustworthiness and reliability of social computing systems [26, 27, 28, 29]. At USF, he leads the Computational Sociodynamics Laboratory (CSDL).

Dr. John Licato is director of the Advancing Machine and Human Reasoning (AMHR) Lab, and is an expert in Natural Language Processing, Cognitive Modeling, and computational models of both formal [30, 31, 32] and informal reasoning [33, 8, 34], including the productive use of Walton-style argument schemes in AI [35, 36, 37].

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