

# When You Doubt, Abstain: A Study of Automated Fact-checking in Italian Under Domain Shift

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## Abstract

**English.** Data for building fact-checking models for Italian is scarce, often contains ambiguous claims, and lacks textual diversity. This makes it hard to reliably apply such tools in the real world to support fact-checkers' work. In this paper, we propose a categorization of claim ambiguity and label the largest Italian test set based on it. Moreover, we create challenge sets across two axes of variation: *genres* and *fact-checking sources*. Our experiments using transformer-based semantic search show a large drop in performance under domain shift, and indicate the benefit of models' abstention in case of lacking evidence.

**Italiano.** I dati per la creazione di modelli di fact-checking per l'italiano sono esigui, contengono spesso affermazioni ambigue e presentano una limitata diversità stilistica. Questo rende l'uso dei modelli risultanti da parte dei fact-checkers poco affidabile. In questo lavoro classifichiamo l'ambiguità delle affermazioni contenute nel più grande test set di fact-checking per l'italiano e creiamo dei nuovi challenge test set che riflettono stili e fonti differenti. I nostri esperimenti basati sulla ricerca semantica mostrano un notevole calo delle prestazioni in caso di cambio di dominio e indicano l'utilità dell'astensione da parte dei modelli in caso di limitate evidenze.

## Keywords

Automated fact-checking, claim ambiguity, domain shift, models' abstention, semantic search

## 1. Introduction

Countering the spread of mis/disinformation is one of the major challenges of our society, but human fact-checkers struggle to cope with the increasing amount of content being published. On these bases, in recent years automated fact-checking has gained increasing attention in the NLP community, resulting in a significant body of works and initiatives, e.g., the Fact Extraction and VERification Workshop (FEVER), at its 7th edition in 2023 [1].

Research efforts in NLP for automated fact-checking span over a plurality of tasks, from claim detection to verdict prediction and justification production [2]. Nevertheless, languages other than English, one of them being Italian, are mostly overlooked in current NLP research on the topic. Specifically, little work has been done to build annotated corpora for the Italian language, which is currently included in just a handful of multilingual datasets, i.e., X-FACT [3] and FAKECOVID [4]. To exacerbate the problem, most datasets for automated fact-checking not only include underspecified claims for which verdicts are hard-to-impossible to be determined [5], but also typically lack domain diversity, making it difficult to ascertain the reliability of the resulting fact-checking systems

when applied on texts reflecting different genres (e.g., from news headlines to posts on social media).

In this paper, we aim to advance automated fact-checking in Italian by examining claim ambiguity in the largest, publicly-available test set to date, and providing means to measure and mitigate the impact of domain shift along *genres* and *sources* dimensions of variation. Our study shows that automated fact-checking in Italian is still far from being reliably applied in the real-world, and indicates the benefit of models' abstention in case of lacking evidence for verification.

**Contributions** *i)* We propose a categorization of claim ambiguity, *ii)* annotate the Italian test portions of X-FACT according to it, and *iii)* create challenge test sets for studying automated fact-checking in Italian under domain shift. We further *iv)* assess performance shift using transformer-based semantic search, *v)* highlighting the benefit of abstention in the case of insufficient evidence.

## 2. Fact-checking Data

Among the fact-checking datasets comprising Italian, we select X-FACT [3] for our study since it represents a more diversified set of topics and comprises a larger amount of claims in the Italian language than FAKECOVID [4].

X-FACT contains 31,189 non-English textual claims from 25 languages, among which are 1,513 Italian claims based on *Pagella Politica* (PP)<sup>1</sup> and *Agenzia Giornalistica*

**Code:** <https://github.com/jo-valer/fact-checking-ita-abstention>  
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<sup>1</sup>Pagella Politica website: <https://pagellapolitica.it/>

Italia (AGI)<sup>2</sup> fact-checks. The original veracity labels for the claims derive from different sources in multiple languages, and therefore have been homogenized by Gupta and Srikumar (2021) [3] to a fixed label set, i.e., *true*, *mostly-true*, *partly-true*, *mostly-false*, *false*, as well as *complicated* for cases whose original labels have been found hard to be mapped to the proposed label set.<sup>3</sup>

The data is structured into training, development, and test splits. Both the training and development sets have been extracted from PP and include 943 and 125 claims, respectively. The test set instead comprises an *in-domain* portion (190 claims from PP) and an *out-of-domain* one (255 claims from AGI). We remove instances marked as *complicated* by Gupta and Srikumar (2021) [3] from the test set since they do not provide any information about claim veracity. As a result, while the *in-domain* test portion remains the same (i.e., 190 claims), the size of the *out-of-domain* test portion decreases to 160 claims due to the filtering of 95 claims (i.e., 37.3%).

### 3. Annotation and Challenge Sets

In this section, we present our proposed categorization of claim ambiguity and describe the annotation process of the Italian test sets of X-FACT according to it (Section 3.1). Moreover, we detail the creation of challenge test sets aimed at studying the performance of automated fact-checking in Italian under domain shift (Section 3.2).

#### 3.1. Claim Categorization

Textual claims that undergo fact-checking may be hard or even impossible to verify due to ambiguity and underspecified language. When it comes to datasets for automated fact-checking, the additional context that has been used by fact-checkers is typically not included, making labels for claims in such decontextualized conditions to change from concrete verdicts (e.g., *true*, *false*) to being unverifiable [5]. Moreover, claims and associated verdict labels that are derived from fact-checking websites and included in most datasets may cause further ambiguity. Indeed, the claim often corresponds to the headline of the article describing the statement that has been verified, but the verdict label typically refers to the latter, and thus the claim-label pair may not match the original statement-label association (see the “Discordant label” ambiguity class described further on).

In this section, we provide a categorization of the reasons why a claim may be ambiguous<sup>4</sup> and annotate

the Italian *in-domain* and *out-of-domain* test sets of X-FACT accordingly, expanding the observed causes of ambiguity beyond e.g., underspecification due to ill-defined terms [6] and pronouns [7].

**Reasons for claim ambiguity** The reasons why a claim may be ambiguous are identified based on a preliminary assessment of the test portions of X-FACT and of past literature [6, 7]. In the following, we provide ambiguity classes ordered by decreasing severity and accompanied by definitions and examples:

1. **Missing information:** the claim does not contain information that calls for verification:

“Di Battista e la guerra in Afghanistan.” [En: “*Di Battista and the war in Afghanistan.*”]: mostly-true

2. **Lack of context:** the claim does not provide enough context (e.g., *who*, *when*, and *where*) or contains ill-defined terms and pronouns, and thus can not be unambiguously verified:

“Siamo al nono mese consecutivo di riduzione degli sbarchi.” [En: “*We are in the ninth consecutive month of reduced arrivals by sea.*”]: true

3. **Discordant label:** the fact-checked statement has been rewritten in a negated form or as its opposite, but the label reflects the veracity of the original statement:

“No, la Banca d’Italia non è controllata dalle banche private.” [En: “*No, the Bank of Italy is not controlled by private banks.*”]: partly-true

4. **Claim as question:** the fact-checked statement has been rewritten as a question. Although it may preserve the information necessary for fact-checking purposes, this alteration does not represent an actual claim:

“Davvero la triplice sede del Parlamento europeo costa oltre 200 milioni di euro l’anno?” [En: “*Does the triple seat of the European Parliament really cost over 200 million euros per year?*”]: partly-true

5. **No ambiguity:** the claim is unambiguous and therefore presents sufficient information for automated fact-checking purposes.<sup>5</sup>

“In Italia ci sono 18 milioni di persone a rischio povertà.” [En: “*In Italy there are 18 million people at risk of poverty.*”]: true

<sup>2</sup>Agenzia Giornalistica Italia website: <https://www.agi.it/>

<sup>3</sup>We leave out the label *other* from our discussion since it is present only in some non-Italian subsets which are not part of this study.

<sup>4</sup>In the remainder of this paper, we use “ambiguity” as a broad term that also includes underspecified language.

<sup>5</sup>Note that real-world facts and the subsequent claims are often time-, space-, and culture-dependent. We relax the “perfect unambiguity” requirement in the context of this work.

**Table 1**

Distribution of claims across ambiguity classes in the *in-domain* (PP) and *out-of-domain* (AGI) test sets. Claims that present sufficient information for fact-checking are in **bold**. Note that claims with labels providing no information about veracity (i.e., those originally marked as *complicated* in X-FACT) are not included in these counts (cf. Section 2).

Ambiguity class	PP test		AGI test	
	<i>in-domain</i>		<i>out-of-domain</i>	
Missing information	47	24.7%	6	3.8%
Lack of context	13	6.8%	17	10.6%
Discordant label	13	6.8%	0	0.0%
Claim as question	<b>31</b>	16.3%	<b>0</b>	0.0%
No ambiguity	<b>86</b>	45.3%	<b>137</b>	85.6%
Total	190	100.0%	160	100.0%

**Annotating claim ambiguity** We manually annotate claims for ambiguity on both Italian test sets of X-FACT following the proposed categories. We focus our efforts on test portions since these represent data that should be used to reliably assess automated fact-checking systems. This results in 350 annotated claims (i.e., 190 *in-domain* and 160 *out-of-domain*, cf. Section 2). If more than one ambiguity class is applicable for a given claim, the more severe one is chosen. For instance, if a claim falls under both “claim as question” and “lack of context” categories, then the latter is applied. Annotation is carried out by a native speaker of Italian. Since the ambiguity classes are rather straightforward, no double annotation was performed. The distribution of annotated claims among classes and test set portions is presented in Table 1.

### 3.2. Creation of Challenge Test Sets

A typical assumption in most machine learning algorithms is that training and test data follow the same underlying distribution [8]. This is reflected by datasets in which diversity in textual types is rather limited, which makes it hard to assess the performance of automated fact-checking *into the wild*, such as under genre shift (i.e., from article headlines to user-generated content on social media). Although X-FACT includes *in-domain* and *out-of-domain* sets, these mainly reflect different fact-checking sources rather than textual genres.

To provide the research community with means to investigate and mitigate the impact of genre shift on automated fact-checking in Italian, we extend X-FACT with new challenge test sets. We rewrite the subset of claims from the *in-domain* and *out-of-domain* Italian test sets which exhibit sufficient information for fact-checking purposes (i.e., those in bold in Table 1, namely “claim as question” and “no ambiguity”, totalling 117 claims for the *in-domain* test set and 137 claims for the *out-of-domain*

one) in two different versions. The first one, which we call *news-like* (NL), resembles the language style of a newspaper headline. It is close in style to the original claim and thus meant to probe minimal shift. The second one, *social-like* (SL), is written trying to imitate social media jargon, using e.g., hashtags and abbreviations, and introducing typos. This is meant for assessing performance in scenarios in which automated fact-checking has to be applied to social media posts. Such process has also taken into account claim veracity, to ensure label consistency between the original text and the rewritten one.

For instance, given the claim: “Di Maio ha ragione: il M5S è una delle principali forze politiche in Europa.” [En: “*Di Maio is right: the M5S is one of the main political forces in Europe.*”], the two additional claim versions that we create are the following:

- **News-like:** “Il M5S si conferma una delle principali forze politiche in Europa, secondo Di Maio.” [En: “*The M5S is confirmed as one of the main political forces in Europe, according to Di Maio.*”]
- **Social-like:** “Il #M5S è tra i partiti maggiori d’Europa!!!” [En: “*The #M5S is amongg the major parties in Europe!!!*”]

As a result, two *in-domain* (NL and SL, 117 claims each) and two *out-of-domain* (NL and SL, 137 claims each) test sets are created as two variants of the original test sets. Detailed statistics for all the subsets are in Table 2.

## 4. Experiments

In this section, we present the setup for our experiments (Section 4.1), details on model selection (Section 4.2), and further provide a discussion of the results (Section 4.3) and an error analysis (Section 4.4).

### 4.1. Experimental Setup

We conduct experiments on automated fact-checking along two axes of variation: source (*in-domain* vs *out-of-domain*) and genre (*news-like* vs *social-like*), using the data splits presented in Table 2.

**Method** All experiments employ a semantic search method for evidence retrieval based on SentenceBERT [9], followed by majority-driven veracity classification. Compared to standard sentence classification, e.g., using BERT [10], this makes automated fact-checking more transparent, since instances used to determine the veracity label of input claims can be further inspected and ultimately shown to the end user.

Formally, given an input claim  $t_i \in T$ , where  $T$  is a test set among  $\text{TEST-(NL|SL)}_{(id|ood)}$  (cf. Table 2, *bottom*), the

**Table 2**

Distribution of claims across original veracity labels (T: *true*, MT: *mostly-true*, PT: *partly-true*, MF: *mostly-false*, F: *false*), mapped labels (T: *true*, F: *false*), sources (PP: *Pagella Politica*, AGI: *Agenzia Giornalistica Italia*), and genres ( $NL_{orig}$ : *news-like* as in its original form, NL: rewritten as *news-like*, SL: rewritten as *social-like*). TRAIN and DEV sets follow the original distribution as in X-FACT. All test sets contain the subset of instances that exhibit sufficient information for fact-checking (cf. Table 1).

Id	Subset description	Source	Genre	Original labels					Mapped labels		
				T	MT	PT	MF	F	T	F	Tot
TRAIN	Training set	PP	$NL_{orig}$	215	234	266	0	228	449	494	943
DEV	Development set	PP	$NL_{orig}$	27	33	30	0	35	60	65	125
TEST <sub>id</sub>	Test set ( <i>in-domain</i> )	PP	$NL_{orig}$	24	28	39	0	26	52	65	117
TEST <sub>ood</sub>	Test set ( <i>out-of-domain</i> )	AGI	$NL_{orig}$	94	0	0	0	43	94	43	137
TEST-NL <sub>id</sub>	TEST <sub>id</sub> as <i>news-like</i>	PP	NL	24	28	39	0	26	52	65	117
TEST-NL <sub>ood</sub>	TEST <sub>ood</sub> as <i>news-like</i>	AGI	NL	94	0	0	0	43	94	43	137
TEST-SL <sub>id</sub>	TEST <sub>id</sub> as <i>social-like</i>	PP	SL	24	28	39	0	26	52	65	117
TEST-SL <sub>ood</sub>	TEST <sub>ood</sub> as <i>social-like</i>	AGI	SL	94	0	0	0	43	94	43	137

goal is to find the most relevant claim(s)  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\} \in E$ ,  $n \leq |E|$ , where  $E$  is the evidence set (i.e., union of TRAIN, DEV, and TEST<sub>(id|ood)</sub>,<sup>6</sup> cf. Table 2, *top*), and  $n$  represents the maximum number of most similar claims to retrieve from it. In order to retrieve such evidence claims,  $t_1, \dots, t_{|T|}$  and  $e_1, \dots, e_{|E|}$  are all assigned an embedding  $v^{t_i}$  and  $v^{e_i}$ , respectively, using a pre-trained multilingual SentenceTransformers model<sup>7</sup> with default hyperparameters [11]. Then, the cosine similarity between the input claim embedding  $v^{t_i}$  and those of all evidence claims  $v^{e_1}, \dots, v^{e_{|E|}}$  is computed, i.e.,  $sim(v^{t_i}, v^{e_k})$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, |E|$ . If  $sim(v^{t_i}, v^{e_k}) > \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is a similarity threshold in  $[0, 1]$ , the claim  $e_k$  is a candidate for determining the veracity label of  $t_i$ . All candidate claims are sorted by similarity score and the most recurring label among the top  $n$  evidence claims is finally assigned to the input claim  $t_i$ . If no evidence claim is found or there is a tie among label counts from retrieved claims, then the model abstains. We believe that the possibility to abstain, rather than forcibly assigning a label, is highly desirable in real-world scenarios, since it is not always possible to assess the veracity of a claim.

**Settings** In order to isolate the impact on performance of genres and sources from the actual availability of relevant evidence (i.e., verified claims about the input claim’s topic), we mainly focus on experiments in a *controlled* setting. This ensures that information for verification of each input claim is available in the evidence set  $E$ . Nevertheless, we also present results in a *non-controlled* setting

for reference. Specifically, the latter does not include TEST<sub>(id|ood)</sub> as part of the evidence set  $E$ .

**Label mapping** Since TEST<sub>ood</sub> and its challenge test sets have only *true* and *false* classes, all dataset labels have been mapped as follows:  $\{true, mostly-true\} \rightarrow true$ ,  $\{partly-true, mostly-false, false\} \rightarrow false$ .

**Metrics** We use macro F<sub>1</sub> score for evaluation to account for the unbalanced class distribution in the test sets (cf. *ood* ones, Table 2). When computing the F<sub>1</sub> score, abstention is counted as a wrong prediction, because on a controlled setup the model has access to relevant evidence and thus should not abstain. We also measure the correct (COR), error (ERR), and abstention (ABS) rates, by respectively counting the cases in which the model correctly or wrongly predicts a veracity label, or abstains.

## 4.2. Model Selection

Our method depends on two hyperparameters: the maximum number  $n$  of evidence claims to be retrieved and the threshold  $\tau$ . We tested values of  $n$  in the search space  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  across all axes of variation (i.e., data splits in Table 2, *bottom*) and thresholds  $\tau \in [0.30, 0.85]$  (with step 0.05),<sup>9</sup> finding that  $n = 1$  gives on average the best macro F<sub>1</sub> across all configurations (cf. Figure 1).<sup>10</sup> As a result, we use  $n = 1$  in the rest of this paper, and present

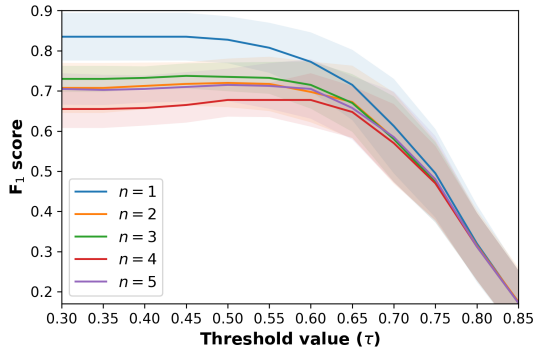
<sup>8</sup>Indeed, the *partly-true* label is used in PP for claims that are wrong but based on a grain of truth.

<sup>9</sup>The range is motivated by preliminary experiments: we found that values  $\tau < 0.30$  and  $\tau > 0.85$  are not informative, since the method retrieves almost all or no claims, respectively.

<sup>10</sup>Interestingly, we observe that  $n = 2$  and  $n = 4$  values result to low F<sub>1</sub> scores. This is because retrieving an even number of evidence claims leads to a higher probability of abstention, as *true* and *false* evidence claims may be in equal number, and abstention is considered as an error for the F<sub>1</sub> score in the *controlled* setting.

<sup>6</sup>This makes it sure that veracity information for input claims is actually available, thus allowing us to study the impact of sources and genres in a *controlled* setting.

<sup>7</sup>We use the paraphrase-multilingual-MiniLM-L12-v2 multilingual model since preliminary experiments with Italian models resulted in worse performance. We hypothesize this is due to the pre-training data composition and size used by the latter.



**Figure 1:** Impact of  $n$  and  $\tau$  hyperparameter values on macro  $F_1$  across test sets. Lines and shading indicate average scores and standard deviation across test sets, respectively.

all  $\tau$  values in the aforementioned range for discussing the trade-off between errors and abstention.

### 4.3. Results and Discussion

We present the results across sources, genres, and setups in Figure 2, highlighting the trade-off between abstention and correct/wrong veracity label predictions.

**Genre shift has a large impact on performance** By comparing results on  $\text{TEST-NL}_{id}$  with those of  $\text{TEST-SL}_{id}$  (Figure 2a and 2b) and results on  $\text{TEST-NL}_{ood}$  with that of  $\text{TEST-SL}_{ood}$  (Figure 2c and 2d), we see a substantial drop in COR and an increase in ERR on *social-like* test sets. We present selected results for  $\tau = 0.6$  in Table 3, i.e., the threshold for which, on average, the ABS ratio still has a higher impact on ERR than COR before mainly impacting COR (cf. Figure 2). The  $F_1$  scores largely drop from 0.86 to 0.74 and from 0.82 to 0.67 when testing the model on data derived from the same or a different fact-checking source, respectively. Such findings attest the impact of genres on the performance in case of available evidence for veracity prediction. This is confirmed in the *non-controlled* setup (results not shown for brevity), albeit the  $F_1$  score exhibits a smaller drop due to confounding reasons such as the lack of relevant evidence.

**Fact-checking sources do matter, too** By looking at the results on  $\text{TEST-NL}_{ood}$  (Figure 2c) and  $\text{TEST-SL}_{ood}$  (Figure 2d), we can observe that not only the COR percentages drop earlier compared to the *in-domain* source counterparts (i.e., Figure 2a and 2b), but also that errors accumulate in the presence of multiple dimensions of variation, i.e., source and genre (cf. Figure 2d vs Figure 2b). The  $F_1$  score drops from 0.86 to 0.82 and from 0.74 to 0.67 on NL and SL genres, respectively (Table 3). This is again confirmed in the *non-controlled* setting (Figure 2, *bottom*).

**Table 3**

Detailed results across metrics and test sets in the *controlled* setting with hyperparameter values  $n = 1$  and  $\tau = 0.6$ .

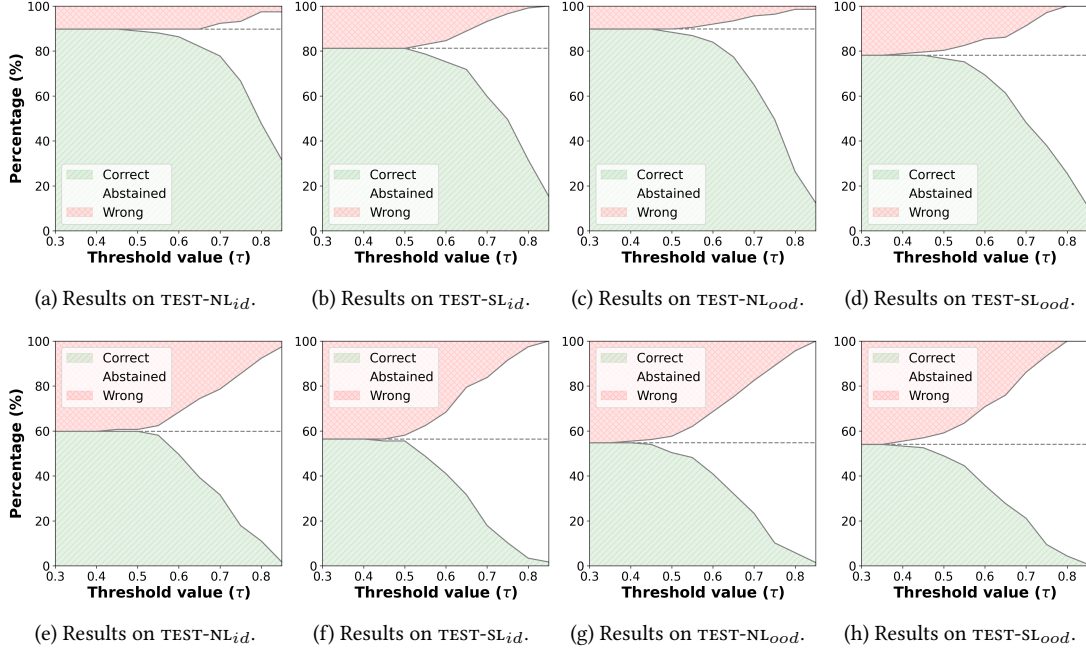
macro $F_1$ score			correct (COR)		
	ID	OOD	ID	OOD	
NL	0.86	0.82	0.86	0.84	
SL	0.74	0.67	0.75	0.69	
abstention (ABS)			error (ERR)		
	ID	OOD	ID	OOD	
NL	0.03	0.08	0.10	0.08	
SL	0.09	0.16	0.15	0.15	

**Abstention helps in reducing errors** When the model abstains (considering  $n = 1$ ), there are no instances in  $E$  that are “similar enough” (i.e.,  $\tau$ ) to the input claim. Intuitively, this reduces the impact of erroneous predictions “when in doubt”. Figure 2 (*dashed lines*) provides insights into the impact of abstention on formerly COR and ERR percentages across all configurations, as  $\tau$  varies. We can see that up to  $\tau \cong 0.6$ , abstention has the great advantage of reducing ERR while negligibly impacting COR. Even in the most challenging test set (i.e.,  $\text{TEST-SL}_{ood}$ , Figure 2d), COR predictions for  $\tau = 0.6$  are more than double (i.e., 69%, Table 3) than the incorrect ones (i.e., 31% ERR+ABS, Table 3). The trade-off between reducing ERR and preserving COR becomes evident with  $\tau \gtrsim 0.7$ , for which abstention comes mainly at the expense of COR. In the *non-controlled* setting (Figure 2, *bottom*), on the other hand, this aspect is hard to assess due to spurious factors. By looking at Table 3, we can also see that error rates on OOD sets compared to ID ones do not increase, and actually moderately decrease on the NL genre (i.e., from 0.10 to 0.08).

### 4.4. Error Analysis

We collect ABS and ERR predictions across test sets in the *controlled* setting (with  $n = 1$ ,  $\tau = 0.6$ ) and perform a manual analysis. As shown in Table 4, 33.0% has the correct evidence retrieved at first ( $\text{sim}(v^{t_i}, v^{e_k}) > \tau$ ), but this is later discarded because wrong evidence has higher similarity to the input. In the remaining cases, the method fails to retrieve the correct evidence, and thus either wrongly predicts the label (22.9%) or abstains (44.0%). Among the 55.9% (61) ERR only, 13.1% (8) is actually based on a correctly-retrieved relevant claim, but because of claim ambiguity in TRAIN and DEV sets (e.g., discordant labels), the prediction is wrong. In particular, such case accounts for 22.2% (8 out of 36) of errors with evidence. This gives a concrete measure of the impact of ambiguity on the automated fact-checking task.

As regards the performance shift on *social-like* sets compared to *news-like* ones, we observe that this is



**Figure 2:** Percentage of correct (COR), abstained (ABS), and wrong (ERR) predictions across sources (*id*: PP, *ood*: AGI) and genres (NL: *news-like*, SL: *social-like*). Top: *controlled* setup; bottom: *non-controlled* setup. The dashed line splits abstention into formerly correct (*below* the line) and wrong (*above* the line) predictions.

**Table 4**

Analysis of non-COR predictions across test sets in the *controlled* setting ( $n = 1$ ,  $\tau = 0.6$ ). *w/o evidence*: the correct evidence is not retrieved; *w/ evidence*: it is retrieved but then replaced by a wrong claim with higher similarity to the input.

	ABS	ERR	
		<i>w/o evidence</i>	<i>w/ evidence</i>
TEST-NL <sub>id</sub>	4 (25.0%)	4 (25.0%)	8 (50.0%)
TEST-SL <sub>id</sub>	11 (37.9%)	7 (24.1%)	11 (37.9%)
TEST-NL <sub>ood</sub>	11 (50.0%)	3 (13.6%)	8 (36.4%)
TEST-SL <sub>ood</sub>	22 (52.4%)	11 (26.2%)	9 (21.4%)
Total	48 (44.0%)	25 (22.9%)	36 (33.0%)

mainly due to the presence of tags (e.g., hashtags, user mentions) in input claims, which account for an average drop of 0.17  $F_1$ . *Social-like* claims without tags instead show a more modest drop in performance, i.e., 0.03  $F_1$ . Indeed, named entities in the form of tags as they typically appear in social media texts may greatly differ from their plain text counterparts (e.g., “Autostrade per l’Italia” uses “@MyWayAspi” as username), making semantic matching between the two not trivial.

## 5. Related Work

Research on automated fact-checking for Italian is very limited. Besides X-FACT, datasets comprising Italian are FAKECOVID [4], a multilingual dataset with just 111 articles for Italian, and IRMA [12], a collection of unverified articles from websites that have been classified as “untrustworthy” by professional fact-checkers.

As regards automated fact-checking on social media, it usually foresees three steps: claim detection, evidence retrieval and veracity prediction [2]. Our contribution is addressing both the second and the third step, in that we focus on detecting already fact-checked claims using a semantic similarity approach and leveraging them for veracity prediction. Similar to our method, Shaar *et al.* (2020) [13] use cosine similarity between the input and an already-verified claim. However, they do not address ambiguous instances. Hardalov *et al.* (2022) [14] use social media claims for which users have responded with a link to a fact-checking article, but again they do not consider ambiguity and abstention. Broadly, evidence sufficiency prediction has been recently proposed by Atanasova *et al.* (2022) [15] as a task for identifying if evidence is available for reliable fact-checking.

## 6. Conclusion

In this work, we show that domains do have a large impact on performance of automated fact-checking for Italian, and the faculty of abstention may be considered to cope with lack of sufficient evidence. Moreover, we contribute to the community by classifying claim ambiguity in the largest Italian test set to date and distributing Italian challenge test sets reflecting diversified domains. Future work includes complementing challenge sets with further versions by multiple annotators as well as automating claim ambiguity assessment. Moreover, the confidence level of the classifier could be investigated and measured with tailored metrics to improve automated fact-checking reliability in handling uncertain cases.

In general, as suggested by Schlichtkrull *et al.* (2023) [16], it would be important to assess the system efficacy with its intended users, in order to evaluate any unforeseen harm possibly caused by actual applications of the technology. In the future, we therefore plan to test our system by including it in the workflow adopted by professional fact-checkers to verify possible cases of mis/disinformation.

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