CiTIUS at the TREC 2020 Health Misinformation Track

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ABSTRACT

The TREC Health Misinformation track focuses on discerning reliable from unreliable information and correct from incorrect information. This problem is very common in Web Search results and it is especially critical when it is related to health content [1]. This year's task focuses on COVID-19 and SARS-CoV-2 misinformation. In our experiments, we applied a BM25 retrieval baseline as a first step. Afterwards, we used a document-level reliability classifier recently developed by our team [2]. Finally, we also experimented with BERT-based variants that attempt to estimate similarity between sentences.

CCS CONCEPTS

misinformation, COVID-19, reliability;

1 INTRODUCTION

Search engines represent a powerful tool for end-users to find information related to different topics easily and quickly [3]. The results provided can, however, often be unreliable [4], inaccurate [5], or of poor quality [6]. Results with any of these attributes can be referred to as examples of **misinformation**.

Misinformation can have a greater or lesser impact depending on the topic, but it is especially sensitive when it comes to **healthrelated** content, as Pogacar et al. [7] proved in their user study. Medical hoaxes, miracle diets, or advice provided by unqualified people abound in all digital media [8]. These contents can be highly dangerous if taken as true and applied without professional medical supervision [9]. This has become particularly evident in the context of the pandemic we are facing in 2020, with substantial information about **COVID-19** being either dubious or of poor quality [10].

The TREC 2020 Health Misinformation Track focuses on misinformation related to COVID-19 and SARS-CoV-2. Our understanding of this disease is constantly evolving, so tracking objective information should be based on developing a retrieval system able to return scientific accurate documents.

In this report, we explain the characteristics of the runs submitted by our team, **CiTIUS**, for the TREC 2020 Health Misinformation David E. Losada

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Track, and discuss our results. Our runs represent an exploratory approach to leverage existing labelled data to build a reliability classifier [2] and to test it with TREC Health Misinformation data.

2 DOCUMENTS AND TOPICS

In the TREC 2020 Health Misinformation Track, a news corpus from January 2020 to April 2020 was provided. The documents were obtained from CommonCrawl News, which contains news articles from all over the world.

Topics attempt to model how people search for health advice online. Fifty topics with a fixed structure were provided. All include number, title, description, answer, evidence, and narrative, as it can be seen in Figure 1. The title field has the form of a pair of treatment and disease, where the disease is always COVID-19. The description is formulated as a question, which contains treatment, effect, and disease. The answer corresponds to the medical consensus at the time of topic creation. Finally, the remaining fields were not intended to be used by the systems, but only by human assessors to produce *qrels*.

3 RETRIEVAL BASELINE

For indexing and processing the collection, we considered different state-of-the-art tools, such as Terrier [11] or Lucene [12]. However, we decided to use **Anserini** [13], which is Lucene-based, but offers practical advantages to support the needs of this track.

For all the runs, the title field was used to produce the search query. We decided to use a bag-of-words approach, where at least one term or clause must match for a document to appear in the results. We selected a classical **BM25** [14] approach, setting normalisation parameter (*b*) to 0.75 and TF weight upper-bounded limit (k_1) to 1.2. The first retrieval baseline was generated using Pyserini¹, Anserini's Python implementation. This facilitated the integration with the rest of the elements in our technology (our reliability classifier is also developed in Python).

The baseline was combined with other techniques, such as BERT sentence-similarity or our reliability classifier in order to produce a final estimation of the presence of misinformation.

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¹https://github.com/castorini/pyserini



Figure 1: A TREC 2020 Health Misinformation Track topic (Topic 13).

4 RELIABILITY CLASSIFIER

In previous research [2], we developed a predictive technology able to distinguish among reliable and unreliable web documents, based on Natural Language Processing (NLP) and Machine Learning techniques. To that end, three different Web Search datasets were used: Sondhi et al. [1], Schwarz et al. [15], and CLEF eHealth consumer health task 2018 [16]. Each of these collections contains web pages related to the field of health, but the second dataset additionally features pages related to politics, finance, environment, and news about famous people.

Although the Schwarz et al. [15] and CLEF eHealth [16] collections were labelled in terms of credibility and trustworthiness, respectively, we considered these concepts as proxies of reliability for our experiments.

Our main goal was to build a document-level classifier using a standard supervised learning approach. More specifically, we followed the methodology designed in [1]. In this previous work, webpages were represented following a number of features, namely:

• Link-based features: the number and type of links are usually a good indicator of the type of website we are dealing with [17, 18]. For example, as Sondhi and his colleagues exposed, a more reputable or reliable site tends to have more internal links, while a less reliable site tends to have more external links and advertisements [19]. On the other hand, the presence or not of privacy or contact links can be an indicator of reliability. This is because the presence of these types of elements gives a sense of confidence to the user who consults the resource [20, 21]. However, nowadays most unreliable sites replicate these characteristics with great success.

Based on these criteria five features were defined to be taken into account: normalised value of internal links, normalised value of external links, normalised value of total links, the presence or not of contact link (boolean), and the presence or not of privacy link (boolean). For the latter two, the original paper did not explain how they had been computed. Therefore, we manually defined two list of privacy² and contact³ expressions, such as *Privacy Policy* or *Contact Us*, after performing a first exploratory analysis over the documents. For normalisation, the original authors analysed a random sample of documents and they experimentally chose a large normalisation denominator (the link count was divided by Z_1 , which was set to 200).

• **Commercial features**: the presence of commercial interest often indicates a low reputation [17, 19]. Therefore, two characteristics have been defined to be taken into account: the normalised value of commercial links and the normalised frequency of commercial words on the website.

For the latter, an initial list of indicative words of commercial interest was proposed in the article. Our contribution was to manually extend it by adding more words⁴. Since the original article was not explicit about word preprocessing, we followed a naive approach, in which a word must match exactly with some word in the list to be taken into account for the final metric. This strategy can be improved in future versions by applying lemmatization techniques, for example. Regarding normalisation, the normalised value of commercial links was obtained dividing by the same Z_1 used above. The second feature consisted of dividing the number of commercial words found by the document length.

• Word-based features: textual content and style are often good indicators of a website's reliability or reputation [22, 23]. Therefore, each word in a document was considered as a different dimension, taking its normalised frequency score. Since the original authors did not declare the use of any preprocessing stage, we applied no stemming or lemmatization. Similarly, we considered two alternative pre-processing strategies, with and without *stopword* removal. To this aim, the NLTK⁵ English *stoplist* was manually extended⁶ after some preliminary exploration over the documents.

Finally, for each word we divided the number of occurrences of the word by the document length.

Besides testing the feature sets in isolation, we also tested a final combination that merged **all features together**. Moreover, we tested two variants: one with word features extracted with stopword removal and another one with word features extracted with no stopword removal.

When performing the experiments, a **vector support machine** was used as a learning method. More specifically, we employed Python's implementation of SVMlight⁷. To compare the different feature sets, we used a weighted accuracy metric and, in case of a tie, the **F1-metric** of the minority (non-reliable) class was given priority.

To determine the best reliability detection features, a stratified **5-fold cross validation** strategy was used with each dataset (except for the Schwarz et al. collection, which is very small and, thus, we used a 2-fold cross validation).

²https://github.com/MarcosFP97/Health-Rel/blob/master/lexicon/privacy.txt
³https://github.com/MarcosFP97/Health-Rel/blob/master/lexicon/contact.txt
⁴https://github.com/MarcosFP97/Health-Rel/blob/master/lexicon/comm_list.txt
⁵https://www.nltk.org/nltk_data/

⁶https://github.com/MarcosFP97/Health-Rel/blob/master/lexicon/stopwords.txt ⁷https://bitbucket.org/wcauchois/pysvmlight

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Experiments with all three datasets suggested that the best reliability detection models were those based on **word features** or based on combining **all features together**. Keeping or not *stopwords* had a slight impact on performance. However, this impact varied among each dataset. More details about the metrics used and the experiments can be found in [2].

Finally, we built a model for each collection and its best feature combination. Given a test document, Equation 1 determined its final class, where *pred_CLEF*, *pred_Sondhi* and *pred_Schwarz* are each model's prediction for the test document and the weights were set to the relative size of these three training collecions:

$$Rel(doc) = 0,97 \times pred_CLEF + 0,027 \times pred_Sondhi + 0,006 \times pred_Schwarz$$
(1)

5 SUBMITTED RUNS

5.1 Total Recall Task

In this task, the main goal was to retrieve documents that promulgated misinformation. To that end, documents contradicting the topic's answers were assumed to be **misinformation**. We submitted three different runs or solutions to this problem.

The first one (**CiTIUSCrdTot**) applied the BM25 retrieval baseline described before. After that, we ranked the *n* retrieved documents based on our reliability classifier's output (ranked by increasing reliability) and we kept the top ten thousand non-reliable documents in the ranking. We are aware of this being a **naive method** (it ignores the matching between the description field and the retrieved pages, and just estimates misinformation based on the reliability of **the entire page**). In any case, we thought it was a natural baseline against which more sophisticated baselines could be tested.

The second run (**CiTIUSCrdRelTot**) applied the same strategy, but it also used a voting method, Borda Count [24], to combine both rankings, relevance and reliability, and kept the top ranking documents.

The last run (**CiTIUSSimTot**) was the most sophisticated variant. A **hand-crafted expression** was created for each topic by combining description and answer fields. An example could be *Vitamin D cures COVID-19*, since we are looking to promulgate misinformation. After obtaining the title-based BM25 baseline, we ranked the *n* retrieved documents based on maximum sentence similarity between the new hand-crafted expression and all sentences in each document (where sentences were represented using BERT). To this aim, we used Sentence Transformers⁸ Python library, which offers several pre-trained models for embeddings generation, and then we applied cosine similarity between sentences.

5.2 AdHoc Retrieval Task

Unlike the previous task, here the main goal was to recover **correct information**. To that end, sites supporting the topic's answers were assumed to be relevant. We submitted four different runs or solutions to this problem.

The first one (**CiTIUSCrdAdh**) applied the BM25 retrieval baseline described before. After that, we ranked the *n* retrieved documents based on our reliability classifier's output but, in this case, we promoted highly reliable sites (the top thousand documents were kept from a ranking of documents organized by decreasing reliability).

The second run (**CiTIUSCrdRelAdh**) applied the same strategy, but it also used a voting method, Borda Count [24], to combine both rankings, relevance and reliability, and kept the top ranking documents.

The third run (**CiTIUSSimAdh**) consisted of producing a **hand-crafted expression** for each topic by combining description and answer fields. An example could be *Vitamin D does not cure COVID-19*, since we are looking to promulgate correct and relevant information. After obtaining the title-based BM25 baseline, we ranked the *n* retrieved documents based on maximum sentence similarity between the new hand-crafted expression and all sentences in each document. As in the previous task, we used the Sentence Transformers library and cosine similarity.

Finally, the last solution (**CiTIUSSimRelAdh**) applied a sentencesimilarity strategy again. However, it also used Borda Count to combine both rankings, relevance and similarity.

6 RESULTS

6.1 Total Recall Task

Runs	Rprec
CiTIUSCrdTot	0.0105
CiTIUSCrdRelTot	0.0354
CiTIUSSimTot	0.0332
Median	0.0976

Table 1: Our results for the Total Recall Task.

The R-Precision results for the total recall task are shown in Table 1. All our methods performed worse than the median performance of the participants in the task. The classifier-based strategy (CiTIUSCrdTot) was the worst performer. It appears that this word-based document-level classification is too rough (and perhaps biased towards the topical words used in the training data). It must also be noted that the estimation of relevance combined with the reliability classifier (CiTIUSCrdRelTot) yields to better performance than the reliability classifier alone. This suggests that relevance estimation should be kept as an integral part of the system. The embedding-based approach (CiTIUSSimTot) worked better than the classifier-based strategy but we did not combine it with any relevance information (because we could only submit three official runs). We expect that the combination of CiTIUSSimTot with relevance information leads to further benefits in terms of performance.

6.2 AdHoc Retrieval Task

This task was focused on obtaining credible and correct information. To that end, the assessments were created based on the concepts of *usefulness*, *correctness*, and *credibility*.

⁸https://github.com/UKPLab/sentence-transformers

Runs	CAM_MAP_three	NDCG (us, co, cr)	Compatibility (harmful-only)	Compatibility (helpful-only)
CiTIUSCrdAdh	0.0037	0.0412	0.0082	0.0586
CiTUIC ad Dal Adh	0.0057	0.1202	0.0002	0.0500
CITIOSCIAREIAAn	0.0555	0.1393	0.0475	0.1721
CiTIUSSimAdh	0.0252	0.1212	0.0351	0.1207
CiTIUSSimRelAdh	0.0793	0.2353	0.0600	0.2376
Median	0.1389	0.3308	0.0747	0.337

Table 2: Our results for the AdHoc Retrieval Task.

Organizers designed specific measures to account for these aspects (e.g. CAM_MAP_three), but they also evaluated runs in terms of traditional relevance measures (e.g. NDCG). Our results are shown in Table 2.

Again, our basic strategies fared worse than the median participant. The **CiTIUSSimRelAdh** run, which combined BERT-based similarity with the relevance ranking, produced our best results. The classifier-based variant was our worst performer.

7 CONCLUSIONS

The TREC 2020 Health Misinformation Track focused on COVID-19 misinformation. To solve this problem, we presented different simple strategies.

We developed a document-level reliability classifier using previously annotated Web Search datasets. However, this strategy generalized poorly when applied to TREC data. We additionally proposed a naive sentence similarity solution based on BERT. This solution seems to perform better, but it is nevertheless still too simple.

Finally, it must be noticed that combining relevance output to any of the previous strategies improves the final performance.

8 FUTURE WORK

As the first next step, we intend to try some **passage retrieval** techniques to extract on-topic information from larger documents. This might help to improve performance by removing noise. Afterward, several **sources of evidence** can be combined to better detect misinformation (objectivity classifiers, fact-checkers, read-ability estimators, etc.)

Another interesting approach could be to determine the impact of this news in **social media**, and see if it exists a correlation between reliable information and its presence on this kind of media.

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