Evidence annotation guide

1 Task introduction

In this task, you will verify or refute scientific claims using evidence from the abstracts of a scientific article. For more detail on claims, see Section 2. Figure 1 shows the annotation interface. Follow these steps to verify a claim:

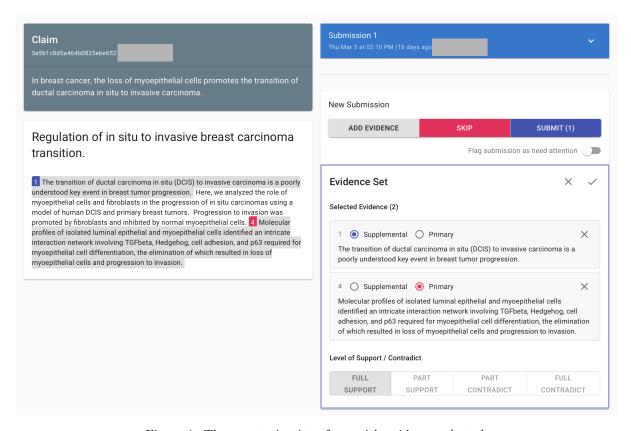


Figure 1: The annotation interface, with evidence selected.

- 1. Read the claim in the "claim" box.
- 2. If you spend more than a minute trying to understand the claim and can't figure out what's going on, flag the claim for further review by flipping the "Flag submission as need attention" switch at the top right of the interface, and write a note explaining why you skipped the claim. Then hit the "Skip" button to go on to the next example. Otherwise, go on to the next step.
- 3. Below the claim box, you will see the title and abstract of a scientific paper.
- 4. Identify all evidence sets in the abstract, as defined in Section 3. Sometimes, the abstract will not provide any relevant evidence, as in Figure 2. When this occurs, hit the "Submit" button with no evidence sets selected. *Do not* hit the "Skip" button.
- 5. If you have any concerns about the claim or the evidence you selected, flag the claim for further review and write a note explaining why you flagged the submission. Some claims are just really tough. When in doubt, flag it.

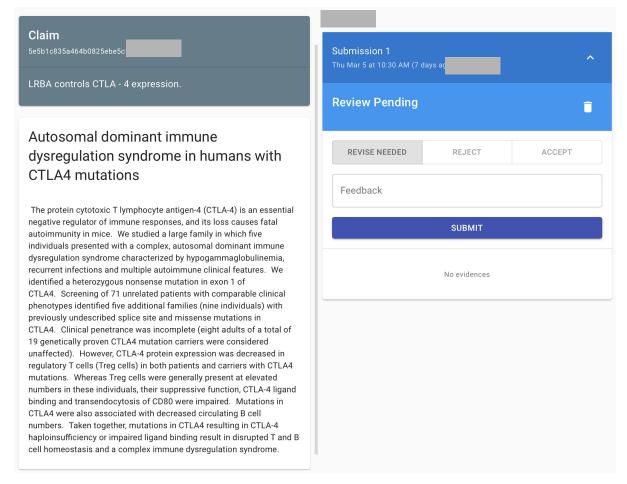


Figure 2: The abstract does not mention LRBA at all. It provides no evidence.

2 Claims

Each claim should be a single sentence expressing a finding about one aspect of a scientific entity or process. Figure 3 shows a "good" claim, along with two "bad" ones:

- Claim 1 is a "good" claim since it states a single finding (lung cancer) about a single scientific process (smoking).
- Claim 2 is "bad" since it states two separate findings (lung cancer and discolored teeth) about a single process (smoking).
- Claim 3 is "bad" since it states a finding (lung cancer) about two different scientific processes (smoking and asbestos exposure).
 - Claim 1 (Good): Smoking causes lung cancer.
 - Claim 2 (Bad): Smoking causes lung cancer and discolored teeth.
 - ullet Claim 3 (Bad): Smoking and asbestos exposure both cause lung cancer.

Figure 3: One good claim and two bad ones. The bad ones are harder to fact-check and should be flagged.

Claim 1 is easier to fact-check than the other two . If you're shown a "bad" claim during the annotation process, do your best to find evidence. In addition, flag the claim and write a note explaining the issue. A real example of a "bad" claim is shown Figure 14, in Section 3.3.2.

3 Evidence sets

An **evidence set** is a collection of sentences from the abstract that provide support or contradiction for the given claim. To decide whether a collection of sentences is an evidence set, ask yourself, "If I were shown only these sentences, could I reasonably conclude that the claim is true (or false)"?

- Evidence sets should be *minimal*. If you can remove a sentence from the evidence set and the remaining sentences are sufficient for support / contradiction, you should remove it.
- There may be multiple evidence sets in a given abstract.

3.1 Types of evidence sentences

Evidence sets are composed of two types of sentences:

- **Primary sentences** state a fact or finding that verifies or contradicts the claim. You can only use a primary sentence in a **single evidence set**. The primary sentences in a single evidence set should be *minimal*. If you can remove a sentence and the remaining sentences still verify the claim, remove it. If the removed sentence can be used as a primary sentence itself, create a new evidence set using it.
 - Primary sentences can state new findings reported in the abstract, or findings from previous papers, as shown in Figure 4
 - An annotator wrote: "Any definitive sentence from the paragraph that I could point to and say the claim is true should be labeled a primary sentence. This is regardless of whether it reports a result from the study or not".
- claim: Aspirin reduces headaches
- Evidence 1 (primary): Previous work showed that aspirin reduces headaches.
- Evidence 2 (primary): Our results show that aspirin reduces headaches.

Figure 4: Both these evidence sentences are *primary*. Each sentence provides convincing evidence that the claim is true. In particular, Evidence 1 is primary, even though it reports a finding that was established in a different paper.

• Supplemental sentences provide supplemental information that is necessary to establish the context or setting for the primary sentences — for instance, the intervention, population under study, cell line, or species. If multiple sentences could be used to provide supplemental information, pick the earliest one. You can use supplemental sentences in as many evidence sets as you want.

Figure 5 shows a simple example of a claim with two evidence sets. One requires a supplemental sentence, the other does not.

- ullet claim: Aspirin reduces headaches in people genetically predisposed to migraines
- Evidence 1 (primary): In conclusion, aspirin is an effective treatment for headaches in individuals with a genetic predisposition to migraines.
- Evidence 2 (supplemental): We conducted a trial to evaluate the effect of aspirin on headaches in individuals genetically prone to migraines.
- Evidence 2 (primary): The intervention decreased headache frequency by 50% (p = 0.02).

Figure 5: Two example evidence sets. The first evidence set is just a single sentence that is a direct re-phrase of the claim. The second evidence set also supports the claim, but requires collecting sentences from two locations in the document. We want *both* types of evidence sets, not just the obvious re-phrases.

Figure 6 provides a real example of multiple evidence sets, supplemental and primary sentences.

You do not need to provide evidence to support the use of acronyms or synonyms. For instance, if your claim discusses "Human immunodeficiency Virus" it's fine for an evidence sentence to use "HIV" instead.

Claim Claim Genomic instability in leukemia cells results from an increase Genomic instability in leukemia cells results from an increase in reactive oxygen species from oncogene activation. in reactive oxygen species from oncogene activation. BCR/ABL oncogenic kinase promotes BCR/ABL oncogenic kinase promotes unfaithful repair of the reactive oxygen unfaithful repair of the reactive oxygen species-dependent DNA double-strand species-dependent DNA double-strand breaks. breaks. The oncogenic BCR/ABL tyrosine kinase induces constitutive DNA 1 The oncogenic BCR/ABL tyrosine kinase induces constitutive DNA damage in Philadelphia chromosome (Ph)-positive leukemia cells. We damage in Philadelphia chromosome (Ph)-positive leukemia find that BCR/ABL-induced reactive oxygen species (ROSs) cause cells. 2 We find that BCR/ABL-induced reactive oxygen species (ROSs) chronic oxidative DNA damage resulting in double-strand breaks (DSBs) cause chronic oxidative DNA damage resulting in double-strand breaks in S and G(2)/M cell cycle phases. These lesions are repaired by (DSBs) in S and G(2)/M cell cycle phases. These lesions are repaired by BCR/ABL-stimulated homologous recombination repair (HRR) and BCR/ABL-stimulated homologous recombination repair (HRR) and nonhomologous end-joining (NHEJ) mechanisms. A high mutation rate nonhomologous end-ioining (NHEJ) mechanisms. A high mutation rate is detected in HRR products in BCR/ABL-positive cells, but not in the is detected in HRR products in BCR/ABL-positive cells, but not in the normal counterparts. In addition, large deletions are found in NHEJ normal counterparts. In addition, large deletions are found in NHEJ products exclusively in BCR/ABL cells. 6 We propose that the following products exclusively in BCR/ABL cells. We propose that the following

(a) First evidence set.

series of events may contribute to genomic instability of Ph-positive

leukemias: BCR/ABL --> ROSs --> oxidative DNA damage --> DSBs in

proliferating cells --> unfaithful HRR and NHEJ repair.

(b) Second evidence set.

series of events may contribute to genomic instability of Ph-positive

leukemias: BCR/ABL --> ROSs --> oxidative DNA damage --> DSBs in

proliferating cells --> unfaithful HRR and NHEJ repair.

Figure 6: Two evidence sets, each providing full support for the claim. The first evidence set has a single primary sentence (see Section 3.1). The second has a primary sentence that states the finding about ROS but doesn't mention leukemia. We add a supplemental sentence to establish that the study is about leukemia.

If it seems like an abstract doesn't provide any support for your claim, make sure that the abstract isn't just using a different synonym or abbreviation. See Figure 7 for an example.

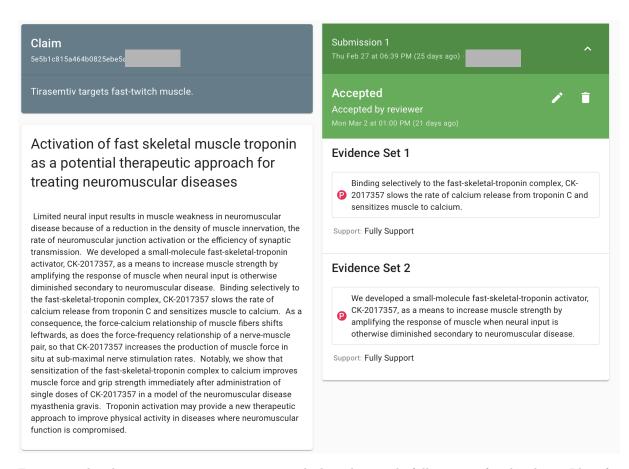


Figure 7: The abstract contains two sentences which each provide full support for the claim. Identifying these sentences as evidence requires knowing that Tirasemtiv is also known as CK-2017357. This information doesn't need to be in the abstract for you to assign full support. I just googled it.

3.2 Evidence direction

There are two **directions** that evidence sets can have with respect to a claim.

- Supports: You have more reason to believe the claim is true after reading the text in the evidence set.
- Contradicts: You have more reason to believe the claim is false after reading the text in the evidence set.

Keep an eye out for double and triple negatives in evidence text, like We failed to conclude that aspririn cures headaches.

3.3 Evidence strength

There are two **strengths** that evidence sets can have. Always try to find *all* evidence sets in the abstract. It's fine to have one evidence set that provides full support, and another that provides partial support for the same claim.

We're still in the process of figuring out what full and partial contradiction should look like. There shouldn't be many contradictions in the data yet. If you find one, just mark it as full contradiction and flag it. We'll revise these guidelines later.

To determine full vs. partial support, remember these two rules, which are discussed in detail below:

- If the evidence supports a *special case* of the claim (or the exact claim), support is *full*.
- If the evidence supports a generalization of the claim (but not the exact claim), support is partial.

3.3.1 Full support

Mark "Full Support" if the sentences in the evidence set provide reasonable support that the claim is true. You should withhold scientific skepticism when making your support decision – for instance, whether or not the methodology in the paper seems flawed shouldn't effect your conclusion. Just take the author's words at face value. See Fig. 1 and Fig. 6 for an example of two evidence sets providing full support.

Evidence supports a special case of the claim In Figure 8, the evidence provides support for a *special case* of the claim. Mark these situations as "Full Support". When someone writes "smoking causes cancer", they almost always mean "smoking causes some forms of cancer", not "smoking causes every conceivable form of cancer". For a real example of full support where the evidence discusses a special case of the claim, see Figure 9.

- Claim: Smoking causes cancer.
- Evidence: Smoking causes lung cancer in men.
- **Support**: Full Support.

Figure 8: This evidence supports a specific case of the claim. This should be marked as full support.

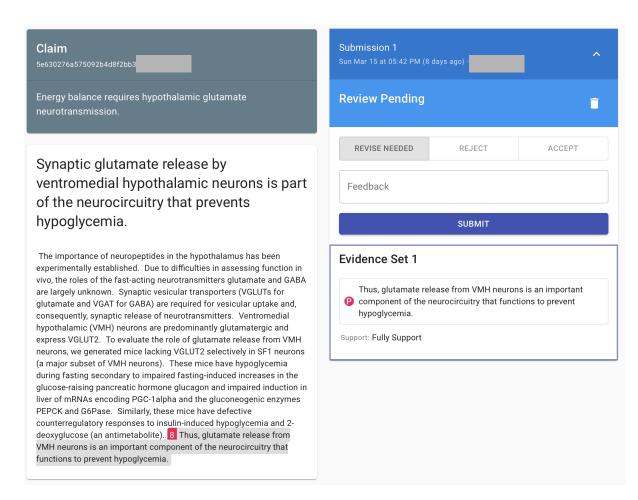


Figure 9: The evidence shows that hypothalamic glutamate release is necessary to prevent hypoglycemia. Since hypoglycemia is a form of energy imbalance, the evidence supports a specific case of the claim. Mark "Full Support".

3.3.2 Partial support

The sentences in the evidence set provide some information, but there are conditions or details stated in the claim that are not satisfied by the evidence set.

- For each partial evidence set, **edit the claim** so that the evidence set provides full support (or contradiction) for the edited claim.
- Make as few changes to the original claim as possible.
- As a check on claim editing, ask yourself "If my re-written claim were True, would that make me more confident in the original claim also being True?" If the answer is "no", you've edited the claim too much. Switch your label to "no evidence".
- If the claim contains a typo, don't select "partial support / contradiction" to fix the typo. Instead flag the claim, mention the typo in the note, and find evidence as usual.

The following pages have some examples of situations leading to partial support.

Evidence supports a generalization of the claim Figure 10 shows a case where the evidence supports a *generalization* of the claim. This should be marked as partial support, since evidence that smoking causes *some form of cancer* doesn't imply that smoking causes pancreatic cancer in men *specifically*. Note that this is the opposite of the situation in Figure 8.

• Claim: Smoking causes pancreatic cancer in men.

• Evidence: Smoking causes cancer.

• Support: Partial support.

Figure 10: This evidence supports a generalization of the claim. This should be marked as partial support, and the claim should be rewritten "Smoking causes cancer".

See Figures 11 and 12 for two real examples of partial support.

Prefer "full support" over "partial support" when plausible Give the author the benefit of the doubt. For instance, if it seems plausible that a paper author is using stem cell as a shorthand (or *synonym*) for induced pluripotent stem cell, it's fine to use a sentence that discusses stem cells as full support for a claim discussing iPSC's in particular. Reserve "partial" for cases where this clearly isn't the case. See 13 for an example of a judgement call like this.

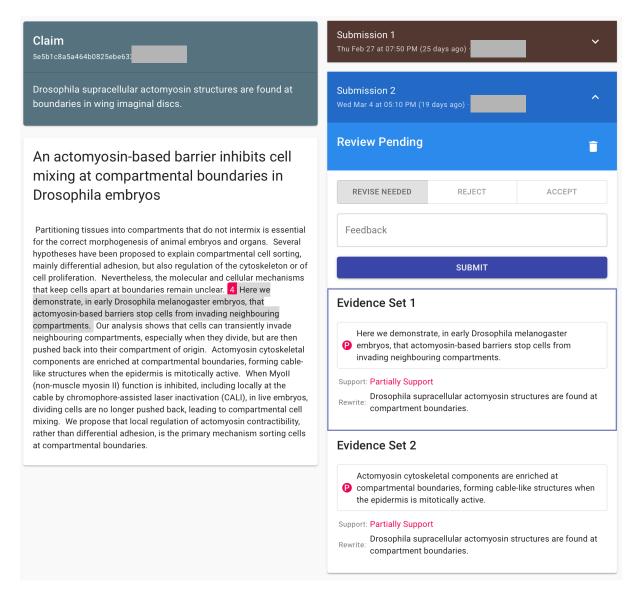


Figure 11: Support is *partial* because the evidence provides support for actomyosin structures at compartment boundaries, but not at the boundaries of wing imaginal discs specifically. Edit the claim to discuss compartment boundaries generally.

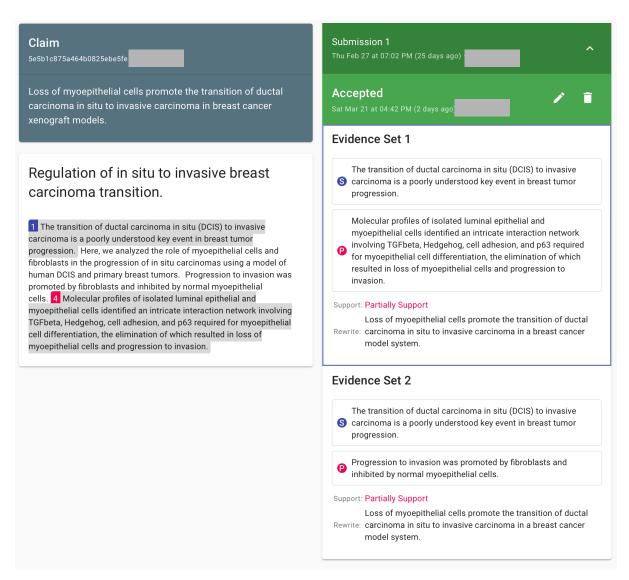


Figure 12: Support is *partial* because the abstract doesn't ever mention xenograft models. Edit the claim by replacing "xenograft models" with "model system" which is more general.

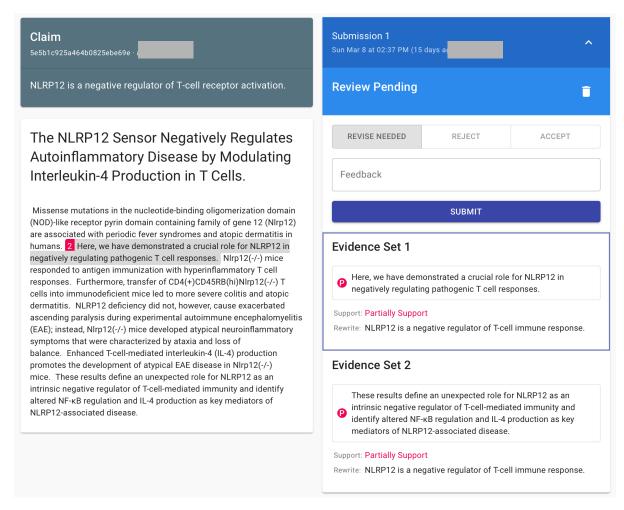


Figure 13: This example is a judgment call. The abstract mentions T-cell response, but not T-cell receptor activation specifically. If it feels plausible that these two terms could be used interchangeably, mark "full". If you don't think so, mark "partial". Two people could reasonably disagree about this. Just use your best judgment.

Mis-written claims In Figure 14, partial evidence occurs because the claim states facts about two separate entities. This is a mistake, claims should only discuss a single entity. Do your best to annotate examples like this, but also flag them.

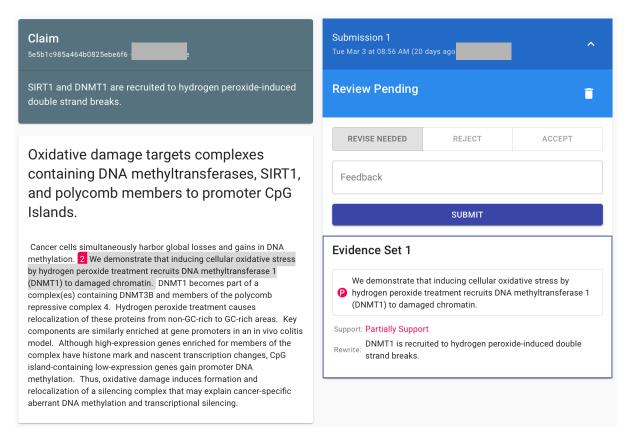


Figure 14: The claim in this example discusses two different genes. The abstract has evidence for one of them. Edit the claim to remove the mention of SIRT1, and annotate the example as "partial support". But also *flag this example*, since this sentence is making a claim about two distinct proteins (instead of just one).

3.3.3 Contradiction

Figure 15 shows an example of full contradiction. We'll come up with more explicit rules of thumb concerning partial vs. full and update this document. For now, if you find an example of contradiction, just mark it as full and flag it.

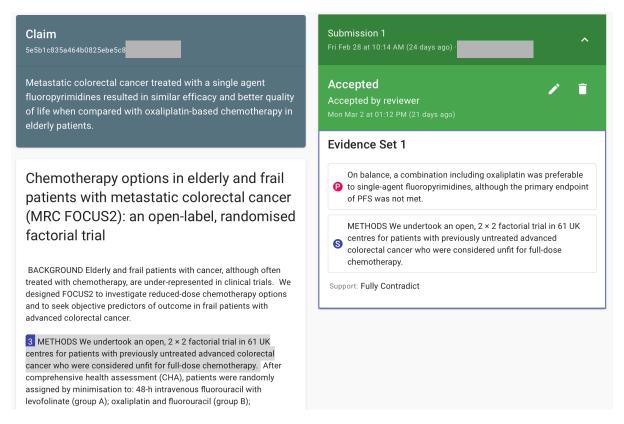


Figure 15: The claim asserts that fluoropyriminidines were superior to oxaliplatin, but the evidence document says the opposite. The abstract is truncated, but the evidence set can be seen on the right side of the figure.

3.4 Special cases

Two special cases came up during pilot annotations.

3.4.1 Dealing with numbers

When fact-checking numbers, here are some rules of thumb.

- 1. If the evidence is very close to an exact match for the number in the claim, mark full support.
- 2. If the evidence is reasonably close but not exact, mark partial support.
- 3. If the evidence isn't close, mark "contradicts", even if the evidence number isn't a logical contradiction for the claim number. See Figure 16 for an example.
 - Claim: 20,000 Americans have asthma.
 - Full support: 20,011 Americans have asthma.
 - Partial: 18,102 Americans have asthma.
 - Contradict: 150,000 Americans have asthma.

Figure 16: Examples of numerical evidence. For the "Contradict" example, note that if 150,000 Americans have asthma, it is also technically true that 20,000 Americans do. But that's not really the intent of the claim.

3.4.2 Counterfactuals and hypotheticals

In Figure 17, the claim says Mice lacking molecule X get a disease, and the evidence says Giving mice molecule X gets rid of the disease. Simple counterfactuals like this can be used as evidence, but make sure to flag them and add a note. Anything more complicated than this example should probably not be used as evidence. If you find yourself constructing an elaborate argument for why a sentence serves as evidence, don't use it.

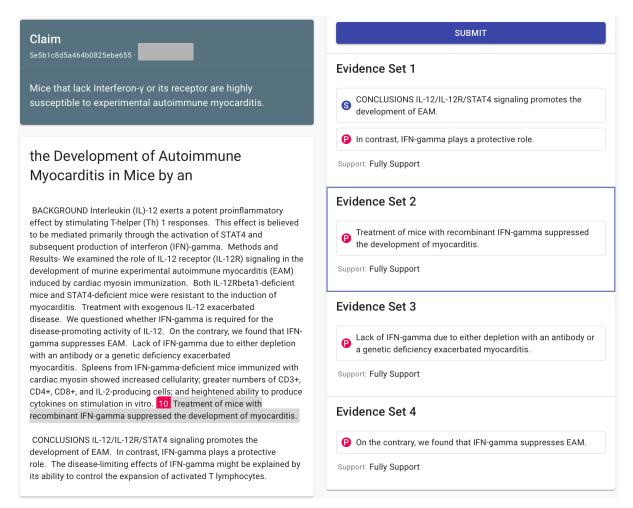


Figure 17: Counterfactual evidence can be used in simple cases.

3.5 Difficult examples

Sometimes, an example is just really difficult. When this happens, just do your best, flag the example, and move on. Don't waste too much time on any single claim. Below are some links to really challenging examples, where there was substantial disagreement among three expert annotators.

The whole abstract is evidence In Figures 18, a big chunk of the abstract could plausibly be used as evidence. Just do something reasonable, flag it as difficult, and move on.

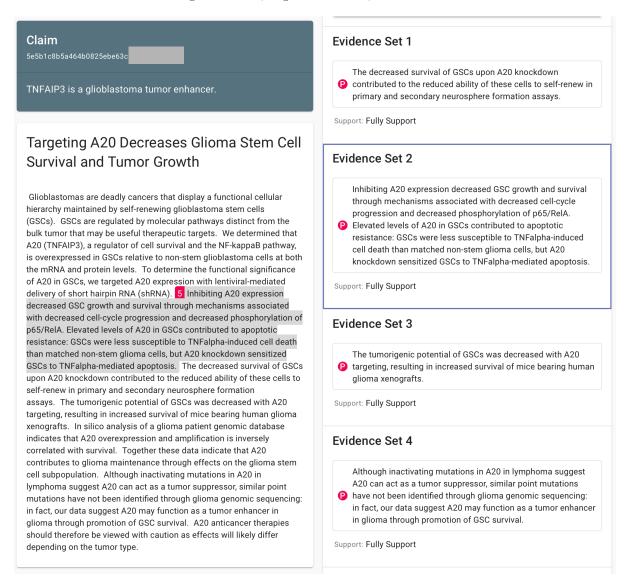


Figure 18: I found 6 seperate evidence sets for this claim, 4 of which are shown. Note that the first evidence set is counterfactual. It states that glioblastoma stem cells die when A20 is knocked down. Based on this we can infer that expression of A20 promotes glioblastoma cell growth, which supports the claim.

Confusing claim In some cases, the claim is just really confusing. Again, do your best but don't let yourself get bogged down with really hard ones.

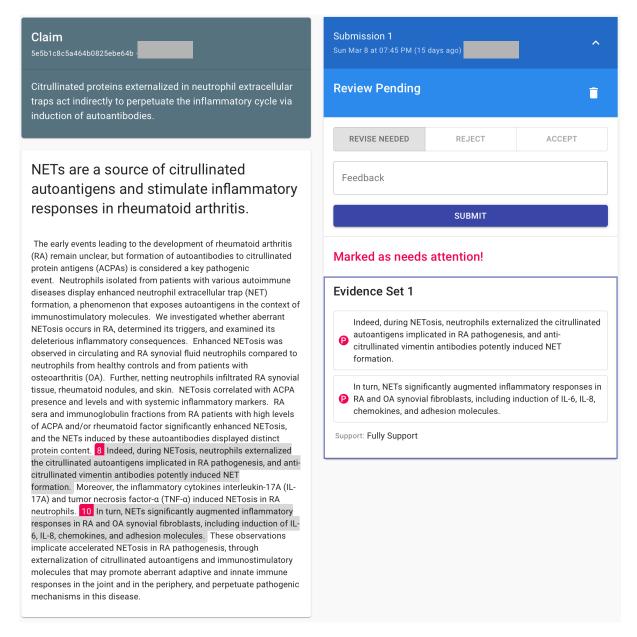


Figure 19: There's a lot going on in the claim and I had a tough time understanding it.