

Tackling Domain-Specific Winograd Schemas with Knowledge-Based Reasoning and Machine Learning

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Abstract

The *Winograd Schema Challenge* (WSC) is a commonsense reasoning task that requires background knowledge. In this paper, we contribute to tackling WSC in four ways. Firstly, we suggest a keyword method to define a restricted domain where distinctive high-level semantic patterns can be found. A *thanking domain* was defined by keywords, and the data set in this domain is used in our experiments. Secondly, we develop a high-level knowledge-based reasoning method using semantic roles which is based on the method of Sharma [17]. Thirdly, we propose an ensemble method to combine knowledge-based reasoning and machine learning which shows the best performance in our experiments. As a machine learning method, we used Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) [3, 9]. Lastly, in terms of evaluation, we suggest a ‘robust’ accuracy measurement by modifying that of Trichelair *et al* [20]. As with their switching method, we evaluate a model by considering its performance on trivial variants of each sentence in the test set.

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1 Introduction

The *Winograd Schema Challenge* (WSC) was proposed by Levesque *et al* [10] as a means to test whether a machine has human-like intelligence. It is an alternative to the well known *Turing Test* (TT) and has been designed with the motivation of reducing certain problematic aspects that affect the TT. Specifically, while the TT is subjective in nature, the WSC provides a purely objective evaluation; and, whereas passing the TT requires a machine to behave in a deceptive way, the WSC takes the form of a positive demonstration of intelligent capability.

The core problem of the WSC is to resolve the reference of pronouns occurring in natural language sentences. To reduce the possibility that the task can be accomplished by procedures based on superficial or statistical characteristics, rather than ‘understanding’ of the sentence, it is required that the test sentences used in the WSC should be constructed in pairs, which have similar structure and differ only in some key word or phrase, and such that the correct referent of the pronoun is different in the two cases. This sentence pair, together with an

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indication of which pronoun is to be resolved and a pair of two possible candidates, is called a *Winograd Schema*. An example of a Winograd Schema from the original WSC273 data set [10] is as follows:

1. The trophy doesn't fit in the brown suitcase because **it** is too *large*.
 - **Candidates for the pronoun:** the trophy / the suitcase, **Answer:** the trophy
2. The trophy doesn't fit in the brown suitcase because **it** is too *small*.
 - **Candidates for the pronoun:** the trophy / the suitcase, **Answer:** the suitcase

Levesque *et al* [10] design Winograd schemas to require background knowledge to resolve a pronoun, which can be an evidence of *understanding*. Therefore, they aim to exclude the sentences that can be resolved by a superficial statistical association within a sentence.

In this paper, we used a keyword method to define domains in Winograd schemas. To our knowledge, this is the first work to use keywords for defining domains in WSC and explore high-level patterns in them. To use the domain-specific high-level patterns, we also develop an advanced high-level knowledge-based reasoning method by modifying the method of Sharma [17]. Furthermore, we suggest a simple ensemble method that combines knowledge-based reasoning and machine learning. By the experiments on the domain-specific data set, the ensemble method gives a better performance than each single method. Lastly, we also propose a 'robust' accuracy measure that is more objective by improving the switching method of Trichelair *et al* [20].

2 Related work

Knowledge-based reasoning and machine learning are the two main approaches to resolve Winograd schemas.

Knowledge-based reasoning

The paper of Levesque *et al* [10] is concerned with defining a test for AI rather than proposing how the challenge should be addressed. However, in the paper's conclusion they suggest that the knowledge representation (KR) approach is the most promising. They say: "*While this approach (KR) still faces tremendous scientific hurdles, we believe it remains the most likely path to success. That is, we believe that in order to pass the WSC, a system will need to have commonsense knowledge about space, time, physical reasoning, emotions, social constructs, and a wide variety of other domains.*"

KR techniques make use of explicit symbolic representations of information and inference rules. A number of researchers have taken this kind of approach. Bailey *et al* [1][p.18] propose a "correlation calculus" for representing and reasoning with background knowledge principles and use this to derive solutions to certain Winograd schemas. Sharma [17] employs automated extraction of graphical representations of a sentence structure using a semantic parser called K-Parser [18] and implements a WSC resolution procedure based on Answer Set Programming (ASP) [5].

An advantage of KR-based methods is that they provide explanations of how the answers they give are justified by logical principles. However, KR-based methods also face huge problems both in automating the conversion from natural language sentences to a formal representation and also in building a knowledge base that covers the *general domain* of knowledge required to address the WSC. Bailey *et al* [1] do not give an automatic method to transform a natural language sentence into the form of first-order logic that they use. Though Sharma *et al* [19] do use an automated method to extract background knowledge, their

Type	Sentence	Pred.	Answer
Ori.	Dan had to stop Bill from toying with the injured bird. He is very compassionate.	Dan	Dan
Neg.	Dan had to stop Bill from toying with the injured bird. He is not compassionate.	Dan	Bill
Ori.	I can't cut that tree down with that axe; it is too small.	The tree	The axe
Neg.	I can't cut that tree down with that axe; it is not small.	The tree	The tree

■ **Table 1** Two Examples from WSC273 with each variant by negation on which Kocijan's BERT was tested

85 method is based on using a search engine, which cannot guarantee acquiring all necessary
 86 knowledge.

87 Machine learning

88 Contrary to the expectations expressed by the proposers of the challenge (as cited in the
 89 previous section), many researchers have applied Machine Learning (ML) methods to the
 90 WSC, and, in terms of accuracy performance, impressive results have been obtained. An early
 91 work by Rahman and Ng [13] extracts features of a WSC-like sentence by using background
 92 knowledge such as Google search counts and a large corpus, and these features are used to
 93 train the SVM ranker that gives the higher rank to the correct candidate.

94 More recent ML approaches mostly use a neural language model. Trinh and Le [21]
 95 introduce an approach to use a neural language model to tackle Winograd schemas. After
 96 this, Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) [3], which is a state-
 97 of-the-art language model, is also used for WSC. Kocijan *et al* [9] demonstrate that the
 98 BERT fine-tuned with the data set similar to Winograd schemas gives a better performance
 99 than the BERT without fine-tuning. In addition, Sakaguchi *et al* [16] give the accuracy of
 100 around 90% on the original WSC273 by fine-tuning a variant of BERT with the larger data
 101 set (WinoGrande) which is also similar to Winograd schemas.

102 Despite the high accuracy of BERT and other neural language model methods, some
 103 limitations have been found. Though many of the original Winograd schemas can be resolved
 104 by the language models, Trichelair *et al* [20] demonstrate that they often predict wrongly on
 105 simple variants of the original sentences. Specifically, when we switch the positions of the
 106 candidates, in most cases this means that the answer should also be switched. However, the
 107 language model methods frequently give the same prediction for the switched sentence as
 108 in the original sentence. We return to this matter of switching in Section 6. Their finding
 109 implies that the real understanding of the model cannot be guaranteed by accuracy only.
 110 Furthermore, Ettinger [4] also shows that the BERT does not seem to understand negation
 111 since BERT's predictions on the masked tokens of the negated sentences are likely to be
 112 similar to its predictions on the masked tokens of the non-negated sentences.

113 The finding of Ettinger [4] is also supported by recent study [11] and the experiments of

114 Kocijan’s BERT on some Winograd schema sentences from WSC273 that are negated by
 115 us in Table 1. Though the answers should be changed on the negated Winograd schema
 116 sentences in this example, the BERT’s predictions on them are still same as its predictions
 117 on the non-negated sentences.

118 **3 Semantic Domains and Keywords**

119 Several researchers in natural language processing have suggested that semantic domains can
 120 be identified based on the occurrence of key words in text corpora [14, 6]. Assuming that
 121 keywords are related to the high-level semantic meaning of a sentence, we used a keyword
 122 method in terms of identifying a domain in Winograd Schemas. To our best knowledge,
 123 our method is the first work to use keywords regarding a domain in Winograd schemas
 124 and examine high-level patterns in a domain. Although defining a domain by keywords has
 125 weakness such as word sense ambiguity, it can be beneficial for knowledge-based reasoning
 126 which requires relevant knowledge to tackle WSC. A keyword-based domain could target
 127 narrower Winograd schema sentences that are related to smaller number of background
 128 knowledge principles since they share at least one word. In this sense, building a knowledge
 129 base for a keyword-based domain can be less costly.

130 For the pilot study, we chose a *thanking* domain since the thanking domain has a distinctive
 131 semantics. The thanking domain contains the sentences that have a keyword related to the
 132 normal sense of thanking. The keywords we used for the thanking domain were “thank” and
 133 “grateful”. We extracted sentences that include the two keywords from WinoGrande [16]
 134 which has approximately 44K Winograd schema sentences since WSC273 contains only 273
 135 sentences. In this extraction, we exclude the sentences including “thanks to” and “thanks in
 136 no small part to” though “thank” is within them. The reason for their exclusion is that their
 137 semantic meaning is related to causal relations, not thanking.

138 As a result, the number of the extracted Winograd schema sentences was 171 ($\approx 0.39\%$
 139 of the 44,000 Winogrande sentences). We believe that the number of them is adequate as
 140 it is compatible with the number of the original WSC273’s sentences which is 273. These
 141 extracted sentences are considered to belong to the thanking domain, and we investigated
 142 the high-level reasoning patterns in the thanking domain. As shown in Table 2, the five
 143 major high-level domain-specific reasoning patterns were found. As these patterns are from
 144 the thanking domain, they are related to the relationships of “owing” and “being owed”. It
 145 is common that a person who is owing would thank or do good to someone who is owed. It
 146 is interesting that around 77% (132/171) of the sentences in the thanking domain follow the
 147 only five major high-level patterns. Some of the other minor high-level patterns were also
 148 found in the thanking domain.

149 In addition to the high-level patterns, the Winograd schema sentences in the thanking
 150 domain have two other characteristics. The first characteristic is that more than 90%
 151 (161/171) of the sentences in the thanking domain have candidates with human names while
 152 this proportion is around 50% in WSC273. This finding can be explained by the fact that
 153 thanking is done by humans. For the second characteristic, only around 46% (80/171) of the
 154 sentences in the thanking domain can be paired while almost all the sentences can be paired
 155 in WSC273. This is due to the fact that some of the WinoGrande sentences use keywords
 156 such as “thank” for the special words or the alternative words.

Type	Sentence
Pattern 1	Candidate1 owes candidate2, and (so) pronoun is doing good
Pattern 2	Candidate1 owes candidate2, and (so) pronoun is receiving good
Pattern 3	Candidate1 does good to candidate2 because pronoun is owing
Pattern 4	Candidate1 gives thanks to candidate2 because pronoun is being owed
Pattern 5	Candidate1 gives thanks to candidate2 because pronoun is owing

Table 2 The five major high-level domain-specific reasoning patterns found in the thanking domain

4 The advanced high-level knowledge-based reasoning method

Our high-level knowledge-based reasoning method is related to the method of Sharma [17], who identifies and exploits very specific identity implications to resolve pronouns. We use a more general method of abstracting semantic relationships to identify and make use of high-level domain-specific semantic roles, based on the analysis of Winograd schemas given by Bennett [2]. According to this analysis, most Winograd sentences can be represented as having the form:

$$\phi(a, b, p) \equiv ((\alpha(a) \wedge \beta(b) \wedge \rho(a, b)) \# \pi(p)) \quad (1)$$

where α is the candidate a 's property, β is the candidate b 's property, ρ refers to a predicate that defines the candidates' relationship, $\#$ refers to the relationship between the clause of the sentence that contains candidates and the clause of the sentence that contains the pronoun, and π is the pronoun p 's property. In the most common cases the relationship $\#$ is 'because', but it can also be other connectives such as 'and', 'but', 'since', or sometimes just a full stop between sentences. For instance, consider this sentence from WinoGrande:

Lawrence thanked **Craig** profusely for the assistance ... because only [**he**] helped him.

Here a and b correspond to Lawrence and Craig, and the predicates α and β refer to the roles *thanker* and *being thanked*. p corresponds to the pronoun ("he") and the predicate π refers to the role of *helper*. ρ can refer to (a) giving thanks to (b) and $\#$ can be 'because'. While this type of formula can be used for particular examples of Winograd schemas, we also used the formula to represent higher-level general principles that can potentially explain a large class of specific cases.

4.1 Building a domain-specific knowledge base

Our knowledge base is composed of two types of rules and one type of facts — rules to derive semantic roles, rules to define relationships regarding the semantic roles and high-level background knowledge principles.

Rules to derive semantic roles

We defined rules to derive semantic roles specific to the thanking domain. These semantic roles are high-level representations related to the candidates and the pronoun, and they are

Semantic relationship	Causal relation	Semantic role	
		X	Y
X owes Y	No	being helped	helper
X owes Y	No	given	giver
X does good to Y	Yes	helper	being helped
X does good to Y	Yes	giver	given
X gives thanks to Y	Yes	thanker	being thanked

■ **Table 3** The major rules to define the relationships between the semantic roles of the candidates

also grounds to derive the relationships regarding them. In the thanking domain, six major domain-specific semantic roles were found — thanker, being thanked, giver, given, helper and being helped. In the current work, we assume that each person has a role in relation to the situation being described, and we formulate rules to derive and reason about these roles. (Potentially, someone could have different roles with respect to different aspects of the situation, which would require elaboration of our framework.)

Our rules are implemented in ASP by using K-Parser’s graphical representations, and they are manually defined from the sentences in the thanking domain. For example, a simple rule for thanker can be defined as:

```
has_s(X, semantic_role, thanker) :-
    has_s(Thank, agent, X),
    has_s(Thank, instance_of, thank).
```

In order to make more generalisable rules, the following four measures were taken. The first measure is to derive the semantic role of a candidate if that of the other candidate is known (e.g. if “give” is the semantic role of a candidate, then that of the other candidate would be “given”). The second measure is for the case when no semantic roles of the candidates are known. For instance, if candidate1 is an agent of the verb to which candidate2 is a recipient, candidate1’s semantic role is derived to be “giver”. The third measure is to use synonyms that are manually defined in the thanking domain. The fourth measure is to use an external sentiment lexicon dictionary [8] to derive the semantic roles of “good” and “bad”.

Rules to define relationships regarding the semantic roles

The domain-specific semantic roles are used to derive their relationships for the high-level representations of Winograd schema sentences. We defined the rules for the relationships using the semantic roles in the following three aspects: relationships between the semantic roles of the candidates, relations between the clause containing the candidates and the clause containing the pronoun, and property of the pronoun.

1. Relationships between the candidates’ semantic roles.

As the five high-level patterns in Table 2 show, the two candidates in a Winograd schema are found to have domain-specific relationships in the thanking domain. The main relationships between them are “owes”, “does good to” and “gives thanks to”. In order to derive the relationships between the semantic roles of the candidates, we defined the rules by using their semantic roles and the existence of causal relation. Table 3 shows the five rules to derive the relationships between the candidates.

For instance, the second rule in Table 3 means that if the semantic role of X is “given”, that of Y is “giver”, and there is no causal relation then X owes Y . It is written in ASP as:

```
has_s(X, owes, Y) :-
    has_s(X, semantic_role, given),
    has_s(Y, semantic_role, giver),
    not has_s(_, relation, causer).
```

2. The relationship between first and second clauses of the sentence.

As represented in Formula (1), the structure of a Winograd schema involves a relationship between the first clause of the sentence containing the candidates and the second clause containing the pronoun (“#”). In most cases we assume that there is some kind of implication from the first clause to the second clause, corresponding to some reasoning principle. However, if the sentence is of the form ‘ P because Q ’, then the implication will go from the second clause to the first (Q to P). In this second case, K-Parser generates a **caused_by** relationship. Hence, we have a rule that when this relation is present, the agent of the second clause (i.e. the pronoun reference) has a causal role in the first clause of the sentence (i.e. corresponds to the candidate who is the agent in the first part). This rule can be defined in ASP as follows:

```
has_s(P, relation, causer) :-
    pronoun(P),
    is_candidate(A),
    has_s(Verb1, caused_by, Verb2),
    1 {has_s(Verb1, agent, A);
    has_s(Verb1, recipient, A)},
    has_s(Verb2, agent, P).
```

3. Property of the pronoun.

The semantic role of the pronoun can be the property of the pronoun (“ $\pi(p)$ ”) in Formula (1), but there can be a higher-level semantic role. For this reason, we defined rules to derive the high-level semantic role from the low-level semantic role. These rules are based on the fact that a low-level semantic role can be a *subset of* a high-level semantic role in the thanking domain. For instance, the semantic role of “helper” can be a subset of that of “doing good”. We implemented these rules in ASP, and the following rule is one of them:

```
has_s(X, semantic_role, doing_good) :-
    has_s(X, semantic_role, helper).
```

High-level background knowledge principles

In our knowledge base, we also defined high-level domain-specific background knowledge principles as well as the two types of the rules above. The high-level background knowledge principles are used for the reasoning in comparison with the high-level representation of a sentence that is derived by the rules in the knowledge base. We followed the style of Sharma [17]’s background knowledge principles as a foundation, but different from Sharma [17], our background knowledge principles are based on the semantic roles’ relationships derived by our knowledge base.

248 4.2 Transforming a Winograd schema sentence into a high-level 249 representation

250 We used K-Parser to transform the Winograd schema sentences in the thanking domain into
251 the graphical representations as Sharma [17] does. By using the rules to derive semantic roles
252 and to derive relationships between the semantic roles, we transformed the graphical repres-
253 entations into high-level representations. The following is an example of the transformations
254 from WinoGrande:

255 **Kayla** cooked sticky white rice for **Jennifer**, and [she] was thanked for making such
256 delicate rice.

257 ■ The semantic roles:

- 258 1. Kayla: giver
- 259 2. Jennifer: given
- 260 3. she: being thanked

261 ■ The relationships regarding the semantic roles:

- 262 1. Jennifer **owes** Kayla
- 263 2. no causal relation
- 264 3. she is receiving good

265 4.3 Reasoning to derive the answer

266 We used the reasoning rules of Sharma [17] with small modifications to resolve the Winograd
267 schemas in the thanking domain. The goal of the modifications was to use the derived
268 semantic roles for the reasoning.

269 In the reasoning process, each Winograd schema sentence is compared with each back-
270 ground knowledge principle. As a result, the answer for each sentence can be a single answer,
271 “no answer” and multiple answers. If multiple answers have the same answers, this case is
272 considered as a single answer.

273 As an example of the reasoning method, suppose a background knowledge principle is
274 given in Sharma’s form [17] as:

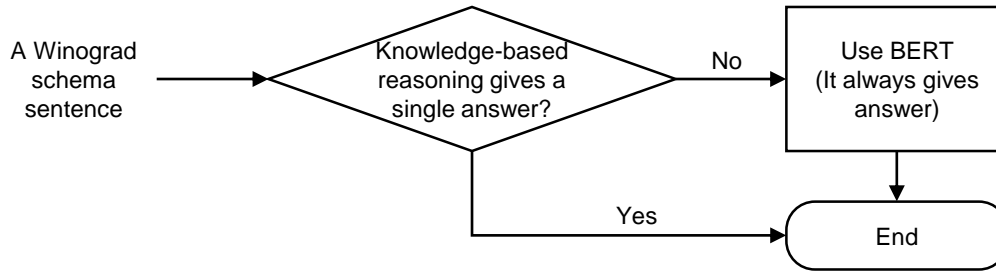
275 **IF** someone **owes** a person $p1$, and (consequently) a person $p2$ is receiving good **THEN** $p1$
276 is same as $p2$. (There is an assumption that owing occurs before receiving good.)

277 This background knowledge principle corresponds to the derived relationships regarding the
278 semantic roles in the previous subsection. By applying the reasoning rules, $p1$ and $p2$ in the
279 background knowledge principle correspond to ‘Kayla’ and ‘she’ in the sentence. Thus, the
280 answer ‘she’ = ‘Kayla’ can be derived.

281 5 The simple ensemble method

282 We combined our advanced high-level knowledge-based reasoning method with Kocijan’s
283 BERT [9]. The aim of our ensemble method is to mitigate each method’s weakness, and
284 recent research [7] also suggests that machine learning and knowledge-based reasoning can
285 complement each other. The weakness of the advanced high-level knowledge-based reasoning
286 method is that if there are no rules that can be applied in the knowledge base, no answer can
287 be derived. With respect to weakness of language models such as BERT, their predictions
288 are vulnerable to the small changes since it is not based on a logical relationship [20, 4].

289 As shown in Figure 1, we implemented a simple but effective ensemble method. If the
290 knowledge-based reasoning method gives a single answer, the final answer will be this answer.



■ **Figure 1** Our algorithmic flow of combining the knowledge-based reasoning method and the machine learning method

On the other hand, if the prediction of the knowledge-based reasoning method is multiple answers or no answer, we use the BERT’s prediction for the final answer. With these two conditions, the weakness of each method can be reduced.

6 ‘Robust’ accuracy

As mentioned in Section 2, machine learning methods can give the incorrect answer on trivial variants of sentences obtained by switching the candidates [20]. This reveals an apparent weakness in these methods and a limitation in the simple evaluation of accuracy. Accuracy measurement is already quite tolerant because, since the number of the candidates are only two, the chance of predicting correctly without understanding is 50%. This is a further motivation for having a stricter form of accuracy measurement. We propose a ‘robust’ accuracy measurement based on a generalisation of Trichelair *et al* [20]. In addition to the switching, we add three more variants of each sentence by replacing the name of each candidate with the random name with the same gender if the candidates are both names. This basic method of replacing names should not affect the fundamental meaning of a sentence, and thus a model’s incorrect predictions on the sentences where only the names are replaced can reveal its obvious lack of understanding. The following is an original sentence from WinoGrande in the thanking domain and its variants to measure the robust accuracy:

- **Original sentence:** Kayla cooked sticky white rice for Jennifer, and [she] was thanked for making such delicate rice.
- **The nouns switched:** Jennifer cooked sticky white rice for Kayla, and [she] was thanked for making such delicate rice.
- **The nouns replaced 1:** Tanya cooked sticky white rice for Kayla, and [she] was thanked for making such delicate rice.
- **The nouns replaced 2:** Erin cooked sticky white rice for Tanya, and [she] was thanked for making such delicate rice.
- **The nouns replaced 3:** Lindsey cooked sticky white rice for Christine, and [she] was thanked for making such delicate rice.

Only when a model predicts correctly on all of the original Winograd schema sentence and the four variants including the switched one, that prediction is considered to be ‘robustly’ accurate. While the probability of predicting correctly on both switched and non-switched sentences out of luck is $0.5 \times 0.5 = 0.25$, the probability can go down to $(0.5)^5 \approx 0.03$ in the robust accuracy. In this sense, our robust accuracy is more objective on evaluating a model’s

performance. The limitation of the robust accuracy is that the candidates should be human names to make variants. In the case of no human names for the candidates, we only used the switching method to make a variant. This kind of exception is not common in the thanking domain since more than 90% of the sentences have the candidates with human names.

7 Evaluation

Our evaluation compares the performance of the following methods: GPT-2 [12], BERT-large [3], Kocijan’s BERT-large [9], Kocijan’s BERT-large further fine-tuned with the domain train set, our advanced high-level knowledge-based reasoning method and our ensemble method. When GPT-2 was used for resolving Winograd Schemas, partial scoring [21] was used to calculate the sentence probability of each candidate replacing the pronoun. Kocijan’s BERT we used is their best performing model (“BERT_WIKI_WSCR”) [9] which was fine-tuned with the WSC-like sentences[13]. We implemented Kocijan’s BERT for our experiments by using the model and the code in their repository².

The six different methods were evaluated on the 80 paired Winograd schema sentences in the thanking domain, and the 91 non-paired sentences were used for validation. For the evaluation metrics, we used accuracy and our stricter ‘robust’ accuracy measure.

We did two experiments with the paired sentences in the thanking domain. In the first experiment, each pair was *split*, so that one of the pair was put into the train set and the other into the test set. By its definition, 50% of the paired sentences were used for the train set, and the others were used for the test set. In the second experiment, on the other hand, each pair was put *together* either both in the train set or both in the test set in a random manner. Considering the small number of the data set and the balance with the first experiment, the second experiment also took the 50 : 50 split between the train set and the test set.

7.1 Results

Tables 4 and 5 show the results of the two experiments respectively. Some same patterns were found in both experiments. The accuracies and the robust accuracies of our ensemble model are better than those of the other methods. Also, the models that contain a language model were found to have the lower robust accuracies than the accuracies. It demonstrates that language models, as machine learning methods, can be weak to minor changes.

Different patterns were also found between the two experiments. The accuracy of the knowledge-based reasoning method in the first experiment was higher than that in the second experiment by a large margin. It implies that the close similarity between the train set and the test set is advantageous for the knowledge-based reasoning method since the rules defined by the train set are expected to be used for the test set.

On the other hand, Kocijan’s BERT-large further fine-tuned with the domain train set [9] gave the opposite results since the better accuracy was found in the second experiment, not in the first experiment. This result can be explained by the characteristics of Winograd schemas. While similar sentences have different answers in a Winograd schema, language models such as BERT are likely to give the same answer with that of the similar sentence, which leads to the wrong predictions in the first experiment. This result is compatible with the finding of

² <https://github.com/vid-koci/bert-commonsense>

Model	Accuracy	‘Robust’ accuracy
GPT-2 (no further fine-tuning) [12]	50.0% (20/40)	20.0% (8/40)
BERT-large (no further fine-tuning) [3]	57.5% (23/40)	37.5% (15/40)
Kocijan’s BERT-large fine-tuned with the WSC-like data set [9]	70.0% (28/40)	62.5% (25/40)
Kocijan’s BERT-large further fine-tuned with the domain train set	47.5% (19/40)	42.5% (17/40)
Our knowledge-based reasoning method	72.5% (29/40)	72.5% (29/40)
Our knowledge-based reasoning method + Kocijan’s BERT-large [9] fine-tuned with the WSC-like data set[13]	90.0% (36/40)	85.0% (34/40)

Table 4 The results of the first experiment. These methods were tested on the same test set in the thanking domain with each pair split (between the train set and the test set).

Kocijan *et al* [9] that training with the paired sentences shows a better performance than training with the non-paired sentences.

It is interesting that GPT-2 [12] and BERT-large [3] show the large gaps equal to or over 20% between accuracy and the ‘robust’ accuracy in both experiments when they are not fine-tuned with WSC-like sentences. In contrast, the Kocijan’s BERT-large models where fine-tuning was applied show the smaller gaps below 10% between accuracy and the ‘robust’ accuracy in both experiments. This finding implies that the fine-tuning method applied to Kocijan’s BERT-large can make language models more robust in terms of tackling Winograd schemas.

8 Conclusion

This paper demonstrates that combining both the high-level knowledge-based reasoning method and the BERT can give a better performance in the thanking domain.

In this paper, we also used the keywords method to identify a domain, and this method can be applied to specify other domains. We showed that high-level patterns were found in the domain defined by the keywords. As only one domain — the thanking domain — was tackled, future work needs to be done with more domains in Winograd schemas. Though the number of the thanking domain is 171 (around 0.39% of the number of the WinoGrande) as a pilot study, some other domains could be larger than the thanking domain. For instance, the domain that can be defined by the keywords “love” and “hate” has 1,351 (around 3%) and 612 (around 1%) sentences respectively. If these were genuinely separate domains and the correct resolution of each schema were based on principles in the domain corresponding to the key words it contains, this would imply that tackling around 100 domains could cover almost all domains in Winograd schemas.

Model	Accuracy	‘Robust’ accuracy
GPT-2 (no further fine-tuning) [12]	57.5% (23/40)	15.0% (6/40)
BERT-large (no further fine-tuning)[3]	57.5% (23/40)	35.0% (14/40)
Kocijan’s BERT-large [9] fine-tuned with the WSC-like data set[13]	77.5% (31/40)	70.0% (28/40)
Kocijan’s BERT-large further fine-tuned with the domain train set	75.0% (30/40)	70.0% (28/40)
Our knowledge-based reasoning method	37.5% (15/40)	37.5% (15/40)
Our knowledge-based reasoning method + Kocijan’s BERT-large [9] fine-tuned with the WSC-like data set[13]	80.0% (32/40)	72.5% (29/40)

■ **Table 5** The results of the second experiment. These methods were tested on the same test set in the thanking domain with pairs kept together (either both in the train set or both in the test set).

By modifying the method of Sharma [17] and focusing on the domain-specific semantic roles, we were able to develop a knowledge-based reasoning method that can use domain-specific high-level patterns. Though our knowledge-based method uses background knowledge principles that are built manually, we believe that our principles are more accurate than the kinds of semantic feature that could be reliably extracted from a large corpus or by using a search engine. This is because the simple statistical method used for automatically extracting knowledge is vulnerable to data bias or special usage of words in idioms (e.g. “thanks to” referring to causal relations that do not involve thanking in the normal sense of this concept). In addition, our knowledge-based method can also be used in other natural language tasks such as Choice Of Plausible Alternatives (COPA) [15]. But K-Parser used in our approach still needs to be improved as manual corrections were needed in some cases.

We also proposed the robust accuracy by improving the method of Trichelair *et al* [20]. The decreased robust accuracies of language models such as BERT and GPT-2 reveal that their accuracy may not entail their real understanding.

Code repository

The code for the advanced high-level knowledge-based reasoning method (described in Section 4) can be accessed from the following repository: <https://github.com/hsjplus/high-level-kb-reasoning>

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