

Grape at GenAI Detection Task 1: Leveraging Compact Models and Linguistic Features for Robust Machine-Generated Text Detection

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Abstract

In this project, we aim to solve two Subtasks of Task 1: Binary Multilingual Machine-Generated Text(MGT) Detection (Human vs. Machine) as part of the COLING 2025 Workshop on MGT Detection(Wang et al., 2025) by different approaches. The first method is separate fine-tuned small language models on the specific subtask. The second approach enhances this methodology by incorporating linguistic, syntactic, and semantic features, using ensemble learning to combine these features with model predictions for a more robust classification. By evaluating and comparing these approaches, we want to identify the most effective techniques for detecting machine-generated content across languages, offering insights into improving automated verification tools amid the rapid growth of LLM-generated text in digital spaces. The code of this project is available at [here](#).

1 Introduction

The rapid development of large language models (LLMs) such as GPT-4o, Claude3.5, and Gemini1.5-pro has led to an explosion of machine-generated text across various channels, including news, social media, and academic publications. Khalifa and Albadawy (2024), based on 24 studies of academic domains, points out that using artificial intelligence enhances the productivity of researchers. While this advancement is promising, it has raised significant concerns about misuse, including spreading misinformation and potential disruptions in educational contexts due to the unpredictable nuance of these language models. To address these issues, it is crucial to develop effective systems for distinguishing between human-written and machine-generated content. There are two subtasks in the Task 1:

- Subtask A: English-only machine-generated text(MGT) detection.

- Subtask B: Multilingual MGT detection with nine languages.

The primary goal of this project is to develop an automatic detection system capable of distinguishing machine-generated text from human-written text using small-sized language models. By integrating models with fewer parameters—thus lower computational demands—we aim to demonstrate that effective detection does not require large, resource-intensive models. Specifically, our objectives are to:

- Explore important linguistic, syntactic, and semantic features for human and machine text-generated differentiation.
- Implement and evaluate **newly released language models** in small sizes for text classification.
- Assess model performance and provide insights on machine-generated content detection effectiveness.

2 Related Work

Recent research has focused on detecting machine-generated text using various techniques. For the traditional methodologies, GLTR uses statistical methods to detect generated text with an improvement in human detection of fake text from 54% to 72%(Gehrmann et al., 2019). With the explosive growth of Transformers and Large Language Models(LLMs), Uchendu et al. (2021) shows that FAIR_wmt20 and GPT-3 excel at generating human-like text. Recently, in the *SemEval-2024 Task 8: Multidomain, Multimodel and Multilingual Machine-Generated Text Detection*(Wang et al., 2024), many researchers have tried to apply different approaches, such as statistical, language models, and LLMs to solve the *Subtask A: Human vs. Machine Classification*. Sarvazyan et al. (2024)

study mixing Llama-2 features, achieved top accuracy. Their performance relies on multiple LLMs and features, focusing on the last tokens. Other teams also attempt to use language models, such as RoBERTa or XLM-RoBERTa (Sarvazyan et al., 2024; Petukhova et al., 2024; Tran et al., 2024).

Regarding our hardware limitations, we want to try to evaluate newly released language models in small sizes. In addition, all previous works on the SemEval-2024 Task 8 mostly work with LLMs. Based on the success of Sarvazyan et al. (2024) with Llama-2, we consider using Llama3 (Dubey et al., 2024). While Spiegel and Macko (2024) proposed combined fine-tuned LLMs with zero-shot statistical methods, employing a two-step majority voting system for predictions, Petukhova et al. (2024) utilized a fine-tuned baseline - RoBERTa augmented with diverse linguistic features. All these methods surpass the baseline and achieve good results, supporting our approach, which is a potential way to mix LLMs with traditional linguistic features.

3 Proposed Approach

Recent released large language models, such as Llama 3 (Dubey et al., 2024) or Gemma 2 (Team et al., 2024), are now available in smaller configurations. These smaller models still perform well on popular benchmarks while being more compatible with hardware constraints. Therefore, we decided to fine-tune these models for our task, utilizing their smaller versions to match our hardware limitations.

3.1 Subtask A: Monolingual - English

This subtask focuses on detecting machine-generated text in English generated by *hc3*, *m4gt*, and *mage*. We want to use fine-tuned language models and traditional linguistic features as their potential performance from previous research on the same task (Spiegel and Macko, 2024; Tran et al., 2024). The methodology integrates neural network-based approaches with gradient boosting and combines the outputs through a majority voting mechanism. The strategy is outlined in Figure 1:

Fine-Tuning of Small Language Models: The recent availability of smaller, efficient language models, such as Llama3.2-1B and Gemma-2-2B, makes them suitable candidates for fine-tuning on this task. Despite their compact size, these models maintain competitive performance, comparable to larger counterparts like Mixtral 8x7B and

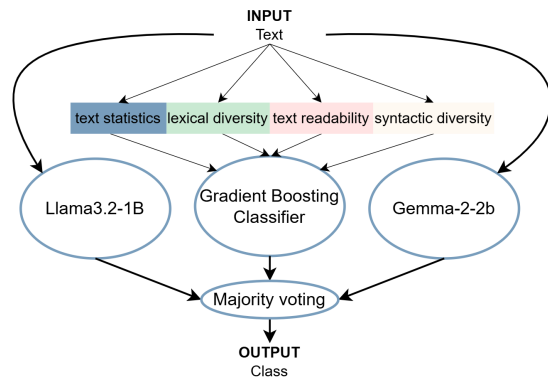


Figure 1: Approach for monolingual task

GPT-3.5. Fine-tuning these models on the task-specific dataset enables them to capture intricate patterns indicative of machine-generated content. Their efficient architecture ensures compatibility with hardware constraints, allowing faster training and inference.

Gradient Boosting Classifier with Linguistic Features: In addition to fine-tuning Llama3.2-1b and Gemma-2-2B, a gradient-boosting classifier will be trained using a comprehensive set of linguistic features extracted from the text. These metrics can provide helpful information when the input to language models is limited. Therefore, adding other linguistic features will allow them to gain information from the truncation part. As desired from the work of (Petukhova et al., 2024), we use four metrics with updated features as follows:

- *Syntactic Complexity:* Metrics obtained from *spaCy*¹ such as average sentence length, average number of noun phrases per sentence, and average number of verbs per sentence capture syntactic patterns and variations within the text.
- *Readability Metrics:* include Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, Gunning Fog Index, SMOG Index, and others assess the ease or difficulty of reading the text. We get these metrics by using the *textstat* package².
- *Lexical Diversity:* Metrics such as Type-Token Ratio (TTR), Maas TTR, Hypergeometric Distribution Diversity (HDD), and Mean Length of Textual Diversity (MLTD)³ provide

¹<https://pypi.org/project/spacy/>

²<https://pypi.org/project/textstat/>

³<https://pypi.org/project/lexical-diversity/>

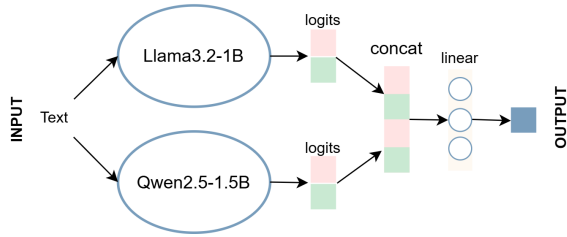


Figure 2: Ensemble model for multilingual task

insights into the lexical richness of the text. Machine-generated texts may exhibit unusual lexical patterns, making these metrics valuable.

- *Text Statistics*: Basic statistics such as the number of difficult words, unique word count, and sentence count offer additional context about the text structure. These can reveal inconsistencies or unnatural parts often present in machine-generated content.

By combining these diverse features, the gradient-boosting classifier can capture non-linear relationships between linguistic characteristics and the target variable, complementing the capabilities of the fine-tuned language models.

Majority Voting Ensemble: To enhance the robustness and accuracy of the system, a majority voting mechanism will be employed to combine the outputs of the three models: fine-tuned versions of Llama3.2-1b and Gemma-2-2B and the gradient boosting classifier. Each model will provide its prediction, and the final decision will be determined by the majority vote among the three. This ensemble approach leverages each component’s strengths, balancing the fine-tuned models’ deep contextual understanding with the interpretability and feature-driven analysis of the gradient-boosting classifier.

3.2 Subtask B: Multilingual

This subtask extends the detection of machine-generated text to a multilingual setting. Given the time constraints and resource limitations, the approach will leverage two fine-tuned multilingual models, Llama-3 1B and Qwen-2.5 1.5B (Hui et al., 2024). These models have been selected for their efficient architectures and ability to handle multiple languages effectively. The methodology for Subtask B follows a similar ensemble-based strategy as outlined in Subtask A, with modifications to accommodate multilingual data.

As we see in Figure 2, an ensemble architecture has been developed to combine the strengths of Llama-3 and Qwen-2.5. Each model is fine-tuned separately on the training dataset, and their outputs are then combined through learnable weights. We do not use text linguistic features here because of inconsistent and unavailable support tools for non-English languages. Therefore, we choose to create ensemble models based on fine-tuned multilingual models.

4 General settings

4.1 Experiments

For each subtask, we fine-tune and measure the results of each small model individually before applying majority and ensemble learning methods. The hyperparameters of Llama3.2-1b, Gemma-2-2B, and Qwen2.5-1.5B are learning rate = $2e-5$, batch size = 16, max token length = 256, lora = 16, and epoch = 5. Our hardware computation resource is 1× NVIDIA GeForce RTX4090 24GB and is limited to 24 hours.

4.2 Evaluation metrics and baselines

The official evaluation metric is the macro f1-score. Another metric is micro-F1. The task also provided a baseline result for the English track using RoBERTa, which is 81.63. The result for the multilingual track using XLM-R is 65.46.

5 Results

5.1 Subtask A: English-only MGT detection

Overall, the results of the methods for Subtask A, as shown in Table 1, confirm our intuition. The 2SLMs is a combination of 2 small language models by averaging logits of them. While 2SLMs combination

Model	Macro F1	Micro F1
Linguistic Features	0.7094	0.7148
Llama3.2-1b	0.8798	0.8843
Gemma-2-2B	0.9070	0.9100
2SLMs	0.9088	0.9117
Majority Voting	0.9225	0.9248

Table 1: Performance of models on Subtask A dev_test set

improves slightly, adding linguistic features generally increases both metrics. This can be explained by the fact that we had to limit the maximum token length with the two small language models due

to hardware constraints. It allowed the model to consider information from the truncated part of the text. For example, one case when *Majority Voting* successfully recognizes the text generated by *human* but *2SLMs* fails:

```
<260 tokens>... Fill the bowl with enough cool tap water to cover the rice by an inch or two. Use your hand to gently stir the rice, then lift the strainer from the bowl. The water in the bowl will be cloudy from the rice starch. Empty the water, set the strainer in the bowl again, and repeat the process until the water is, more or less, clear. You'll probably have to change the water two or three times. Drain the rice. Pour enough wate ... < 400 tokens>
```

We can see that this text has more than 700 tokens which exceeds our max token length = 256. Previous part of the text describe step by step to prepare a dish but only after the considered context, we see the colloquial phrases like *"you'll probably have to change the water two or three times"* which align with human authorship. In addition, in the rest 400 tokens, it also contains natural and diversity words. Therefore, *Linguistic Features* could have the decision making power in such these cases.

5.2 Subtask B: Multilingual MGT detection

We employ two small language models for multilingual machine-generated text detection in this subtask, as illustrated in Table 2. The ensemble model achieved the best Macro F1 score at 0.7388, indicating its effectiveness in balancing the accuracy across different classes. Combining both models, the ensemble approach enhances generalization across multiple languages, which is beneficial in multilingual settings. However, the Micro F1 score (0.8829) slightly declined compared to Qwen2.5-1.5B, suggesting that while the ensemble model captures class balance well, it may sacrifice a bit of precision on individual sample classifications.

Model	Macro F1	Micro F1
Llama3.2-1b	0.6878	0.8619
Qwen2.5-1.5B	0.7292	0.8869
Ensemble	0.7388	0.8829

Table 2: Performance of models on Subtask B dev_test set

5.3 Results on the test set

Based on the results of the development dataset, we selected the Majority model and the Ensemble model to submit as the final results in Table 3. Since the golden labels are not publicly available, we cannot definitively conclude which approach is the most effective. However, for Subtask A, our result was 0.8188 — approximately a 0.09-point improvement over the baseline and 0.05-point improvement in Subtask B — indicating that these are promising approaches.

Subtask	Model	Macro F1	Rank
A	Baseline	0.7342	4/35
	Majority Voting	0.8188	
B	Baseline	0.7416	1/25
	Ensemble	0.7916	

Table 3: Our performance on the test set with Score is as *Macro F1*

Generally, ensemble learning is a potential approach, especially when each component has its own strength. In our study, small language models can solve our hardware limitation while maintaining good performance; their disadvantage is that they do not fully capture all information of the text. These models, even when combined, usually give similar results. Our intuition is that in the case of conflicts, the result of the model with more parameters is favored. However, additional linguistic features can handle these cases by looking for the whole text. Although this paper does not evaluate the individual contribution of each feature, we believe that further exploration could yield improvements in model performance.

The organization describes more details about other team methods in subtask A in Table 4. The top-ranking team, Advacheck, utilized a multi-task system with a shared Transformer encoder (DeBERTa-v3-base) and multiple classification heads, leveraging multi-task learning to optimize performance. Unibuc-NLP ranked 2nd with a combination of masked (XLM-RoBERTa) and causal (Qwen 2.5-0.5B) language models, enhanced by LoRA fine-tuning. At the same time, Fraunhofer SIT used adapters for task-specific optimization on RoBERTa-base. While more complex than the top teams' methods, our ensemble-based strategy demonstrates the value of integrating diverse model outputs to achieve competitive performance. Future enhancements could include incorporating multi-

task learning or adapter-based approaches for further gains.

Team Name	Ranking	Small PLM	LLM	Feature Combination	Ensemble
Advacheck	1	✓			
Unibuc-NLP	2		✓		
FraunhoferSIT	3	✓			
Our team	4	✓	✓		✓
TechExperts(IPN)	5		✓		

Table 4: English subtask participants overview

Regarding the multilingual test set, we have the result analysis from the organization (Wang et al., 2025) as in Table 5 and Table 6.

When comparing our proposed approach with other teams as described in Table 5 (Wang et al., 2025), our method demonstrates a clear focus on efficiency and robustness by leveraging Small PLMs and ensemble techniques, achieving the top ranking. Unlike teams such as Nota AI and Lux Veri, who utilized broader combinations of techniques, including LLMs and feature engineering, our streamlined approach highlights the effectiveness of simplicity combined with targeted ensemble learning.

Team Name	Ranking	Small PLM	LLM	Feature Combination	Ensemble
Our team	1	✓			✓
Nota AI	3	✓	✓	✓	✓
Lux Veri	4	✓			✓
TechExperts (IPN)	5		✓		

Table 5: Multilingual subtask participants overview.

From Table 6, we could see that our team result for Subtask B Multilingual surpassed the baseline by around 5 percent, and our gap with the second team is 4 percent overall. In the test set, six hidden languages were not present in the training set of this task: Kazakh (KK), Vietnamese(VI), Hindi(HI), Hebrew(HE), Norwegian(NO), and Japanese(JA). Because models are not exposed to many linguistic patterns, structures, and features during training, it is difficult for them to generalize to unknown

languages. For example, we achieved only 51.8 on Hindi.

6 Conclusion

We successfully addressed both subtasks using majority voting and ensemble methods. Our approach comprised fine-tuned small language models and linguistic features, contributing to robust task performance. Specifically, fine-tuning small language models allowed us to capture critical nuances in the data while maintaining computational efficiency. Meanwhile, incorporating linguistic features, such as syntactic complexity, readability metrics, and lexical diversity, added a complementary layer of information that enhanced the ensemble’s overall effectiveness.

Limitations

Although the result in Section 5.1 shows that using linguistic features improves the model’s performance, we have not investigated each feature. Furthermore, no additional linguistic features specific to each language are analyzed regarding the multilingual track. Future work could be research such features, including syntax-specific markers, morphological distinctions, and domain-specific language idiosyncrasies for each language to provide valuable insights and boost classification accuracy.

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Table 6: Multilingual subtask detection accuracy across 15 languages. *Underlined languages were not present in the training data.*

Rank	All	ZH	UR	RU	AR	IT	<u>KK</u>	VI	DE	<u>NO</u>	ID	NL	ES	<u>HI</u>	<u>HE</u>	JA
Size	151,425	63,009	30,505	27,158	10,670	5,296	2,471	2,326	1,865	1,544	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,199	1,182	600
Our team	79.6	94.2	68.7	67.1	71.2	52.9	55.5	90.5	88.3	80.3	89.6	82.2	89.5	51.8	86.7	77.0
2	75.6	84.7	64.6	74.2	57.9	52.9	83.8	83.5	96.4	76.0	51.7	90.6	91.2	69.6	96.8	95.3
3	75.9	90.2	67.2	58.9	66.8	52.9	92.5	74.7	88.8	72.2	87.4	68.9	47.1	70.6	96.4	72.2
4	75.3	87.6	64.6	63.9	61.3	52.9	75.8	83.4	94.9	88.5	53.5	92.2	90.4	73.0	97.3	92.2
<u>BL</u>	<u>74.8</u>	<u>87.3</u>	<u>68.4</u>	<u>55.3</u>	<u>68.4</u>	<u>52.9</u>	<u>82.8</u>	<u>85.3</u>	<u>85.2</u>	<u>69.8</u>	<u>68.2</u>	<u>92.5</u>	<u>90.5</u>	<u>71.3</u>	<u>89.3</u>	<u>90.0</u>
5	74.7	90.1	64.1	56.0	69.1	52.9	62.9	87.6	59.6	69.8	93.8	81.0	90.4	69.1	96.5	95.0
6	74.5	84.2	65.0	67.9	66.8	52.9	47.5	81.8	93.5	83.2	83.9	85.9	88.9	69.1	89.8	78.2

Jeet Shah, Jelmer van der Linde, Jennifer Billock, Jenny Hong, Jenya Lee, Jeremy Fu, Jianfeng Chi, Jianyu Huang, Jiawen Liu, Jie Wang, Jiecao Yu, Joanna Bitton, Joe Spisak, Jongsoo Park, Joseph Rocca, Joshua Johnstun, Joshua Saxe, Junteng Jia, Kalyan Vasuden Alwala, Kartikeya Upasani, Kate Plawiak, Ke Li, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin Stone, Khalid El-Arini, Krithika Iyer, Kshitiz Malik, Kuenley Chiu, Kunal Bhalla, Lauren Rantala-Yearly, Laurens van der Maaten, Lawrence Chen, Liang Tan, Liz Jenkins, Louis Martin, Lovish Madaan, Lubo Malo, Lukas Blecher, Lukas Landzaat, Luke de Oliveira, Madeline Muzzi, Mahesh Pasupuleti, Mannat Singh, Manohar Paluri, Marcin Kardas, Mathew Oldham, Mathieu Rita, Maya Pavlova, Melanie Kambadur, Mike Lewis, Min Si, Mitesh Kumar Singh, Mona Hassan, Naman Goyal, Narjes Torabi, Nikolay Bashlykov, Nikolay Bogoychev, Niladri Chatterji, Olivier Duchenne, Onur Celebi, Patrick Alrassy, Pengchuan Zhang, Pengwei Li, Petar Vasic, Peter Weng, Prajjwal Bhargava, Pratik Dubal, Praveen Krishnan, Punit Singh Koura, Puxin Xu, Qing He, Qingxiao Dong, Ragavan Srinivasan, Raj Ganapathy, Ramon Calderer, Ricardo Silveira Cabral, Robert Stojnic, Roberta Raileanu, Rohit Girdhar, Rohit Patel, Romain Sauvestre, Ronnie Polidoro, Roshan Sumbaly, Ross Taylor, Ruan Silva, Rui Hou, Rui Wang, Saghar Hosseini, Sahana Chennabasappa, Sanjay Singh, Sean Bell, Seohyun Sonia Kim, Sergey Edunov, Shaoliang Nie, Sharan Narang, Sharath Rapparthi, Sheng Shen, Shengye Wan, Shruti Bhosale, Shun Zhang, Simon Vandenhende, Soumya Batra, Spencer Whitman, Sten Sootla, Stephane Collot, Suchin Gururangan, Sydney Borodinsky, Tamar Herman, Tara Fowler, Tarek Sheasha, Thomas Georgiou, Thomas Scialom, Tobias Speckbacher, Todor Mihaylov, Tong Xiao, Ujjwal Karn, Vedanuj Goswami, Vibhor Gupta, Vignesh Ramanathan, Viktor Kerkez, Vincent Gouget, Virginie Do, Vish Vogeti, Vladan Petrovic, Weiwei Chu, Wenhan Xiong, Wenyin Fu, Whitney Meers, Xavier Martinet, Xiaodong Wang, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Xinfeng Xie, Xuchao Jia, Xuewei Wang, Yaelle Goldschlag, Yashesh Gaur, Yasmine Babaei, Yi Wen, Yiwen Song, Yuchen Zhang, Yue Li, Yuning Mao, Zacharie Delpierre Coudert, Zheng Yan, Zhengxing Chen, Zoe Papakipos, Aaditya Singh, Aaron Grattafiori, Abha Jain, Adam Kelsey, Adam Shajnfeld, Adithya Gangidi, Adolfo Victoria, Ahuva Goldstand, Ajay Menon, Ajay Sharma, Alex Boesenberg, Alex Vaughan, Alexei Baevski, Allie Feinstein, Amanda Kallet, Amit Sangani, Anam Yunus, Andrei Lupu, Andres Alvarado, Andrew Caples, An-

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Table 7: Summary of monolingual training dataset for subtask A

Src	Train		Dev	
	Human	Machine	Human	Machine
hc3	39140	18091	16855	7917
m4gt	86782	181081	37220	71197
mage	103000	182673	44253	84316
total	228922	381845	98328	163430

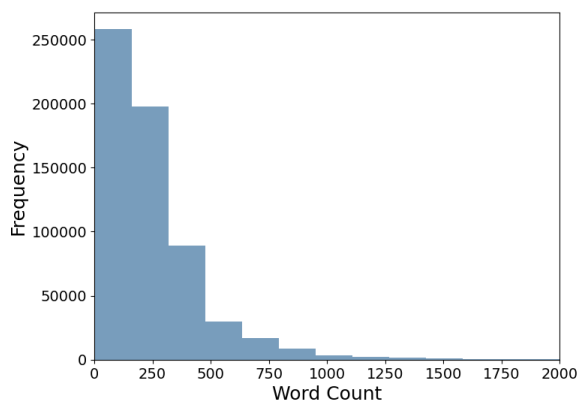
Table 8: Summary of multilingual training dataset for subtask B

Lan	Train		Dev	
	Human	Machine	Human	Machine
ar	344	1770	150	756
bg	4205	3886	1795	1694
en	223911	386877	98041	163808
de	231	4462	102	1957
id	1895	2081	886	917
it	0	4174	0	1843
ru	684	630	316	284
ur	2085	1676	853	720
zh	19315	15969	8023	6749
total	257968	416115	110166	178728

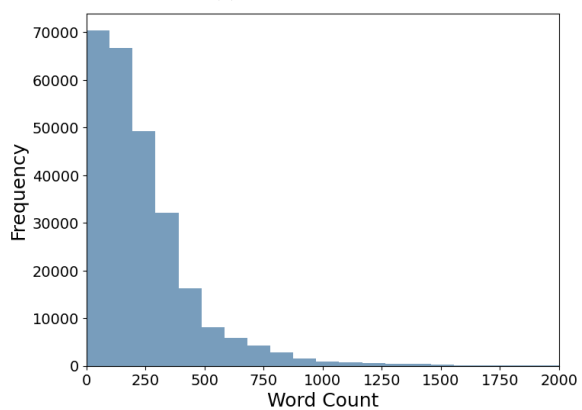
A. Data Analysis

The task provides datasets in multiple domains and multi-model and multilingual text. The organizer extends this dataset from the one provided in *SemEval-2024 Task 8*. Details of the English-only subtask are in Table 7. The ratio of text for each class *human* or *machine* is consistent in both the train and dev set, around 37 %. Table 8 illustrates the distribution of the number of each class per language in two datasets. We see an imbalance across languages that more than 90 % of the text in the training dataset is English. This could cause the model to find it hard to identify each language because using an external dataset is not allowed by the organizer.

Regarding text’s length, as we see in Figure 3, while around 70% of the text has a length of 250, the rest are in a range from there to more than 20000 words per text. Using linguistic features can gain valuable information from the truncated part, which small language models ignore.



(a) Train Dataset



(b) Dev Dataset

Figure 3: Distribution of number of words per text in English datasets