Probing Critical Learning Dynamics of PLMs for Hate Speech Detection

Sarah Masud*¹, Mohammad Aflah Khan*¹, Vikram Goyal¹, Md Shad Akhtar¹, Tanmoy Chakraborty²

¹IIIT Delhi, ²IIT Delhi

{sarahm,aflah20082,vikram,shad.akhtar}@iiitd.ac.in, tanchak@iitd.ac.in

Abstract

Despite the widespread adoption, there is a lack of research into how various critical aspects of pretrained language models (PLMs) affect their performance in hate speech detection. Through five research questions, our findings and recommendations lay the groundwork for empirically investigating different aspects of PLMs' use in hate speech detection. We deep dive into comparing different pretrained models, evaluating their seed robustness, finetuning settings, and the impact of pretraining data collection time. Our analysis reveals early peaks for downstream tasks during pretraining, the limited benefit of employing a more recent pretraining corpus, and the significance of specific layers during finetuning. We further call into question the use of domain-specific models and highlight the need for dynamic datasets for benchmarking hate speech detection.

1 Introduction

The transformer-based language models (LMs) (Vaswani et al., 2017; Devlin et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019) have been a game-changer in NLP. Consequently, researchers have adopted pretrained language models (PLMs) to detect hate speech. However, the choice of the PLM employed for hate detection is often arbitrary and relies on default hyperparameters (Sun et al., 2019). Despite PLMs being prone to variability in performance (Sellam et al., 2022), there is limited research comparing training settings for subjective tasks like hate speech detection. Note, this study follows the definition of hate speech provided by Waseem and Hovy (2016) – "a language targeted at a group or individual intended to derogatory, humiliate, or insult."

Research questions. Figure 1 provides an overview of our research questions (RQ). We broadly study two critical elements of PLMs by analyzing (i) the impact of different pretraining

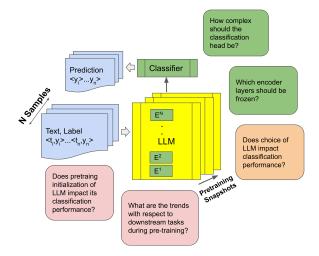


Figure 1: Research Overview: The study comprises five research questions (RQs) to empirically analyze the pretraining and finetuning strategies for PLM variants employed for hate detection. A typical PLM-inspired pipeline involves working with one or more checkpoints, i.e., PLM model weights obtained after pretraining. The checkpoint is then finetuned for downstream tasks by keeping one or more layers of PLM trainable along with a trainable classification head (CH). Finally, the PLM + CH generates predictions on incoming test samples.

strategies and (ii) the impact of different finetuning strategies. Section 4 primarily focuses on whether there is a significant performance difference in downstream hate speech detection w.r.t variability in pretraining seeding (RQ1), checkpoints (RQ2), and training corpus (RQ3). Meanwhile, Section 5 deals with layer-level training and its impact on hate speech detection (RQ4). We further examine these setups across five different BERT-based PLMs (RQ5) widely employed for hate detection. While these RQs have been studied in some other aspects of NLP (Sellam et al., 2022; van Aken et al., 2019), their employment for hate speech detection is a unique perspective given the subjective nature of the task. Each selected question targets a fundamental yet taken-for-granted aspect of PLM through the lens of hate speech detection. We hope

^{*} Equal Contribution

Dataset	Source	Labels	Platform of origin	Time of collection	Dataset size			
Dataset	Source	Labels I lattorill of origin		Time of conection	Train	Dev	Test	
Waseem	Waseem and Hovy (2016)	H, NH	Twitter	Prior to Jun '16	6077	2026	2701	
Davidson	Davidson et al. (2017)	H, NH	Twitter	Prior to Mar '17	13940	4647	6196	
Founta	Founta et al. (2018)	H, NH	Twitter	March '17 - April '17	33293	11098	14798	
OLID*	Zampieri et al. (2019)	OFF, NOT	Twitter	Prior to Jun '19	9930	3310	860	
Hatexplain	Mathew et al. (2021)	H, NH	Twitter & Gab	Jan '19 - June '20	11303	3768	5024	
Dynabench	Vidgen et al. (2021)	H, NH	Synthetic (human-generated)	Sept '20 - Jan '21	23143	7715	10286	
Toxigen	Hartvigsen et al. (2022)	H, NH	Synthetic (LLM generated)	Prior to Jul '22	141159	47054	62738	

Table 1: Datasets employed in this study. Abbreviation: H: Hate, NH: Not Hate, OFF: Offensive, NOT: Not Offensive. Datasets with * have a predefined train-dev-test split. For others, we take a 75-25% split for train-test sets, with another 25% of the train reserved as a development set.

this study helps researchers make informed choices, from selecting the underlying PLMs, trainable layers, and classification heads.

Contributions. While previous studies on hate speech modeling perform hyperparameter tuning, they examine either a single architecture (Founta et al., 2019), a single PLM (Vidgen et al., 2021), or a single dataset (Mathew et al., 2021). One of our work's core contributions is to examine different PLMs, seeds, and datasets under one study. Consequently, we observe that the dynamics of PLMs for hate detection differ significantly from the other use cases (Sellam et al., 2022; Durrani et al., 2022). There are interesting trends in pretraining learning dynamics, with peaks at early checkpoints. We find pretraining over newer data unhelpful. Consequently, on the pretraining end, we observe that general-purpose PLMs with a complex classification head can be as efficient as domain-specific PLMs (Caselli et al., 2021). Unlike BERT (Sun et al., 2019), for mBERT finetuning, the last layer is not the most effective for hate detection. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to evaluate PLMs' learning dynamics for hate speech detection¹. Overall, the study examines seven datasets under diverse settings. The aim is not to derive a consistent pattern but rather to examine whether any pattern exists among the datasets w.r.t. different settings discussed in the RQs.

2 Related Work

Early attempts at hate speech detection employed linguistic features (Waseem and Hovy, 2016) and recurrent architectures (Founta et al., 2019; Badjatiya et al., 2017). However, with the arrival of the transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017), hate speech tasks also gained a significant boost (Mathew et al., 2021; Caselli et al., 2021; Masud et al., 2022). However, most studies adopted the default setting to finetune PLMs.

Meanwhile, deep learning models are criticized to be black boxes. While heuristics such as LIME (Ribeiro et al., 2016) and SHAP (Lundberg and Lee, 2017), among others, attempt to make these models interpretable, they are limited to perturbations in the input space rather than the latent space. More recently, work on mechanistic interpretability (Elhage et al., 2021) attempts to understand how transformers build their predictions across layers. Control over high-level properties of the generated text, such as toxicity, can be obtained by tweaking and promoting certain concepts in the vocabulary space (Geva et al., 2022). Interpretability (Vijayaraghavan et al., 2021), finding best practices (Khan et al., 2023) and sufficiency (Balkir et al., 2022) in hate speech have always been open research areas. While toxicity and biases encoded by pretrained PLMs (Ousidhoum et al., 2021) is an essential area of research, our work focuses on the downstream finetuning of PLMs for hate detection.

3 Experimental Setup

Dataset. As this research focuses on classifying hateful text, we utilize seven publicly available hate detection datasets in English (Table 1). Waseem, Founta, Davidson & OLID are chosen based on their prominence in literature. OLID is obtained from a shared task, and we employ task A of OLID. More recently curated datasets, such as Hatexplain as well as synthetically generated ones (either by humans, like Dynabench or by LLMs, like Toxigen), are also picked.

Note on Dataset Characteristics. During our preliminary analysis, we performed data drift experiments to see how distinguishable the HS datasets are from each other (Kulkarni et al., 2023). From Table 2, we observe that, on average, the datasets are differentiable on the latent space with a macro F1 of 60-80%. Toxigen was more distinguishable than the rest, with a macro F1 of 85-90%, yet it does not show major deviations in patterns for the RQs. As Hatexplain provides multiple annota-

¹Source Code of our work is available at https://github.com/LCS2-IIITD/HateFinetune

Dataset	Davidson	Dynabench	Founta	Hateexplain	OLID	Toxigen	Waseem
Davidson	0.00						
Dynabench	62.60	0.00					
Founta	70.26	59.47	0.00				
Hateexplain	66.23	64.12	71.91	0.00			
OLID	63.66	74.21	80.82	80.82	0.00		
Toxigen	91.09	85.88	80.86	91.70	94.76	0.00	
Waseem	69.47	79.06	84.59	67.70	57.20	96.00	0.00

Table 2: Data drift experiment measuring the lexical difference between the dataset corpora in macro F1 %.

tor responses for each sample, we consider those samples as hateful, where a majority of annotators labeled them as either hateful or offensive, and the rest are considered non-hateful.

Backbone PLMs We provide an overview of the various PLMs (*aka* backbone models) employed in this study in Table 3². As the work focuses on finetuning the most commonly employed LMs for hate speech detection, we focused on the BERT and RoBERTa family of models (PLMS), the same as previous studies on hate speech (Antypas and Camacho-Collados, 2023). Trends common across these models are likely relevant to a broader set of PLMs employed for hate detection. Further note that for RQ1, 2, and 3, only English variants of the PLM are available, necessitating the study to focus on English datasets for uniform comparison.

Classification Head. We use three seeds hereby referred to as the *MLP seeds* ($ms = \{12, 127, 451\}$) to initialize the classification head (CH) of varying complexity:

- 1. Simple CH: A linear layer followed by Softmax.
- 2. Medium CH: Two linear layers with intermediate dim = 128 and intermediate activation function as ReLU followed by a Softmax.
- 3. Complex CH: Two linear layers with an intermediate dim = 512, ReLU activation, and an intermediate dropout layer with a dropout probability of 0.1, followed by a softmax layer. We borrow this setup from Ilan and Vilenchik (2022).

Hyperparameter All experiments are run with NVIDIA RTX A6000 (48GB), RTX A5000 (25GB) & Tesla V100 (32GB) GPUs. Significance tests are run with a random seed value of 150. We employ the two-sided t-test and Cohen-d for measuring the effect size. We remove emojis, punctuations, and extra whitespaces to preprocess the textual content. URLs and usernames (beginning with '@') are also replaced with <URL> and <USER>, respectively. We train the classifiers for two epochs for all our experiments. The setups employ PLMs that are publicly available on HuggingFace (Wolf

Model	YoR	Dataset used	Training strategy
BERT (Devlin et al.,	2018	Book Corpus & English Wikipedia	MLM + NSP
2019)			
mBERT (Devlin	2018	BERT Pretrained on all Wikipedia	MLM + NSP
et al., 2019)		data for 104 languages with the	
		most representation in Wikipedia	
HateBERT (Caselli	2020	RAL-E (Reddit Comments) - 1.5M	Retrained BERT with
et al., 2021)		Comments	MLM Objective
BERTweet (Nguyen	2020	850M Tweets	Only MLM
et al., 2020)			
RoBERTa (Liu et al.,	2019	Book Corpus, Common Crawler,	Dynamic MLM + NSP
2019)		WebText & Stories	

Table 3: Overview of PLMs employed in this study. YoR is the year of release (either the public model or the source research paper). We also enlist the data source employed for training. The systems use masked language modeling (MLM) and next-sentence prediction (NSP) as pretraining strategies.

et al., 2020). The classifiers use AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019) with a batch size of 16 and sentences padded to a max length of the respective PLM. We keep the learning rate (LR) at 0.001 (for all RQs) to be in line with the default Adam-W optimizer setting in Huggingface's implementation. We also use a linear scheduler for the optimizer with a warmup.

4 Analysis of the Pretrained Backbones

Variability in pretraining strategies should lead to variability in the performance of downstream tasks. To explore this for hate speech detection, we start with analyzing pretraining weight initialization on the final checkpoint and then move to investigate intermediate checkpoints and pretraining corpus.

RQ1: How do variations in pretraining weight initialization of PLMs impact hate detection?

Hypothesis. With no guarantee of attaining global minima via gradient descent, some seed initialization of weights during pretraining could lead to better performance downstream. On the one hand, in a study over multiple seeded BERT (Sellam et al., 2022), it was observed that the GLUE benchmark (Wang et al., 2018) is susceptible to randomness in finetuning and especially pretraining seed strategy. Meanwhile, for auto-regressive models, it has been observed that the order of training samples during pretraining has a very low correlation with what the final model memorizes (Biderman et al., 2023). We hypothesize that hate detection should follow the former patterns.

Setup. We utilize the publicly available 25 different final checkpoints of BERT (Sellam et al., 2022), each trained under the same architecture and hyperparameters but with different random weight (random seed) initializations and shuffling

²For some models, the release date is not publicly available and is taken to be the publication date of its research.

Dataset	Min F1	Max F1	ES
Waseem	$S_{451,0}$: 0.675	$S_{12,10}$: 0.731	0.446*
Davidson	$S_{451,0}$: 0.745	$S_{12,15}$: 0.792	0.582**
Founta	$S_{12,5}$: 0.872	$S_{127,20}$: 0.888	0.473**
OLID	$S_{451,0}$: 0.647	$S_{451,10}$: 0.731	0.287*
Hatexplain	$S_{127,5}$: 0.630	$S_{451,10}$: 0.680	0.676**
Dynabench	$S_{451,15}$: 0.625	$S_{12,20}$: 0.660	0.724**
Toxigen	$S_{451,5}$: 0.767	$S_{127,10}$: 0.771	0.226

Table 4: **RQ1:** Comparison of minimum and maximum macro F1 obtained under varying seed combinations by each dataset. $S_{ms,ps}$ represents the combination of MLP seed (ms) and pretraining seed (ps). ES stands for effect size. ** and * indicate whether the difference in minimum and maximum macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

of the training corpus. We randomly picked five pretrained checkpoints for our analysis. The seeds employed for selecting the five checkpoints will be referred to as the *pretraining seed set* $(ps = \{0, 5, 10, 15, 20\})$. To better capture the impact of pretraining weight randomization, the PLM is frozen, and only the classification head is trained. Further, to control for the randomness in the MLP layer, we use the MLP seeds (ms) and run differently-seeded (ms, ps) combination.

Findings. At the macro level, as outlined in Table 4, the performance appears to be significantly impacted by different seed (ms, ps) combinations. We perform a p-test on each dataset's overall minimum and maximum macro F1 seed pairs to establish the same. The difference in performance is significant for 5 out of 7 datasets with medium to high effect sizes. Similar to prior work (Sellam et al., 2022), we look at the variability in performance when considering one set of seeds to be fixed. Keeping ms constant at the micro-level produces more variability than ps (Appendix A.1). It follows from the fact that in finetuning settings, the MLP layer initialized with ms is trainable, while the pretrained model initialized with ps may be fully or partially set to non-trainable (fully in our case). In this investigation, the machine-generated dataset (Toxigen) is the only one immune to variation in seeding. However, due to randomness in weight initialization, the PLMs encode subjectivity across different datasets for hate detection.

RQ2: How do variations in saved checkpoint impact hate detection?

Hypothesis. In RQ1, we examine the variability only at the last checkpoint. Meanwhile, in RQ2, we analyze the trends these models may follow for hate detection over intermediate checkpoints. To

Dataset		Simple		Complex				
Dataset	S_{12}	S_{127}	S_{451}	S_{12}	S_{127}	S_{451}		
Waseem	C_3 : 0.660	C_3 : 0.668	C_2 : 0.691	C_2 : 0.734	C_2 : 0.738	C_2 : 0.756		
Davidson	C_2 : 0.739	C_2 : 0.740	C_2 : 0.775	C_2 : 0.824	C_3 : 0.810	C_2 : 0.764		
Founta	C_3 : 0.870	C_2 : 0.861	C_3 : 0.869	C_2 : 0.879	C_2 : 0.880	C_2 : 0.878		
OLID	C_2 : 0.660	C_2 : 0.649	C_2 : 0.654	C_2 : 0.667	C_2 : 0.693	C_2 : 0.672		
Hatexplain	C_2 : 0.646	C_2 : 0.666	C_4 : 0.647	C_2 : 0.694	C_2 : 0.672	C_2 : 0.700		
Dynabench	C_2 : 0.626	C_2 : 0.629	C_2 : 0.625	C_2 : 0.627	C_2 : 0.623	C_2 : 0.631		
Toxigen	C_2 : 0.733	C_2 : 0.732	C_2 : 0.733	C_2 : 0.764	C_2 : 0.763	C_2 : 0.764		

Table 5: **RQ2:** We report the n^{th} checkpoint (C_n) which leads to maximum macro F1 obtained for simple and complex classification head respectively. For each head, we analyze MLP seeds $(S_i \in ms)$.

study the impact of intermediate checkpoints on downstream tasks, Elazar et al. (2023) released 84 intermediate pretrained checkpoints, one for each training epoch of the RoBERTa. This question is necessary as we hypothesize the model's performance will grow during the early checkpoints and then saturate. It should allow one to find a sweet spot to pretrain task-specific PLMs for a shorter duration, saving compute resources.

Setup. Provided by Elazar et al. (2023), we employ the 84 RoBERTa pretraining checkpoints $(C_n \in C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_{84})$. In our analysis, each pretrained checkpoint PLM is frozen, and simple and complex classification heads are trained. We train a classification head for each pretrained checkpoint separately for all MLP seeds (ms).

Findings. Contrary to our hypothesis, we observe the performance peaks early (mostly around checkpoint 2) and then rapidly falls. This trend is consistent across different datasets, seeds, and CH complexity as captured by the highest macro F1 reported in Table 5 and Appendix A.2. The trends in performance indicate that each checkpoint possesses hate detection capacity to varying degrees. We extend our analysis of the superiority of early checkpoints, especially checkpoint #2 over #3, with varying learning rates (LR), – 0.001 (default), 0.01, and 0.1. Averaged across the three MLP seeds, we observe that for a given quadruple <dataset, learning rate, checkpoint, classifier complexity> triplet, checkpoint #2 is consistently at par with checkpoint #3, as highlighted by the difference (diff) row in Table 6. The analysis suggests that a fully pretrained model may not be necessary for hate-related tasks. We concur this may be due to a mismatch between the model's training on well-written datasets such as Wikipedia and Book Corpus and the noisy nature of hate speech. When the model has not yet fully learned the English language syntax, it could be better suited to capture the noisy information in the hate speech text.

СН	Checkpoints	LR	Davidson	Dynabench	Founta	Hateexplain	OLID	Toxigen	Waseem
Simple	C2	0.001	0.75	0.63	0.867	0.657	0.653	0.73	0.637
	C3	0.001	0.547	0.553	0.86	0.62	0.517	0.72	0.653
	Diff (C2-C3)		0.203	0.077	0.007	0.037	0.136	0.01	-0.016
Complex	C2	0.001	0.78	0.627	0.88	0.687	0.677	0.76	0.743
	C3	0.001	0.763	0.577	0.857	0.613	0.55	0.74	0.69
	Diff (C2-C3)		0.017	0.05	0.023	0.074	0.127	0.02	0.053
Simple	C2	0.01	0.813	0.493	0.827	0.683	0.657	0.73	0.743
	C3	0.01	0.76	0.52	0.843	0.543	0.623	0.72	0.72
	Diff (C2-C3)		0.053	-0.027	-0.016	0.14	0.034	0.01	0.023
Complex	C2	0.01	0.837	0.593	0.863	0.623	0.617	0.73	0.753
	C3	0.01	0.643	0.517	0.867	0.617	0.597	0.72	0.723
	Diff (C2-C3)		0.194	0.076	-0.004	0.006	0.02	0.01	0.03
Simple	C2	0.1	0.75	0.52	0.777	0.62	0.577	0.72	0.75
	C3	0.1	0.76	0.543	0.823	0.517	0.567	0.717	0.68
	Diff (C2-C3)		-0.01	-0.023	-0.046	0.103	0.01	0.003	0.07
Complex	C2	0.1	0.76	0.35	0.487	0.543	0.527	0.447	0.677
	C3	0.1	0.45	0.35	0.57	0.467	0.42	0.433	0.71
	Diff (C2-C3)		0.31	0	-0.083	0.076	0.107	0.014	-0.033

Table 6: **RQ2:** Macro F1 for checkpoints 2 and 3 with varying LR (0.001,0.01,0.1) and classification head (CH) as simple and complex. Diff (C2-C3) depicts the difference in performance of two checkpoints.

RQ3: Does newer pretraining data impact downstream hate speech detection?

Hypothesis. Hate speech is evolving and often collected from the web in a static/one-time fashion. Pretraining/continued training PLMs on more recent data should capture the emerging hateful world knowledge and enhance the detection of hate.

Setup. We use checkpoints released by the Online Language Modeling Community³ (details on OLM provided in Appendix A.3) for RoBERTa variants trained on more recent data from October (R_{O22}) and December 2022 (R_{D22}) respectively. We compare these variants against RoBERTa initially released in June 2019 (R_{J19}) .

Findings. To assess the impact of differently updated PLMs on downstream hate detection, the performance should be interpreted at the individual dataset level and not across datasets. Figure 2 reveals that only three datasets register a sharp jump in performance. We attribute this to the fact that most of the datasets employed in this study were collected years ago (Table 1). Consequently, events present in these datasets were already sufficiently represented in the original model (R_{J19}). Interestingly, the 25 macro F1 jump for Founta may indicate that the models may have seen the data before. Previous literature hypothesized the same when they observed a substantial improvement in NLP performance (Zhu et al., 2023). *The findings*

in RQ3 shed light on the problem of stale hate speech datasets and highlight the need to address the dynamic nature of hate speech.

5 Analysis of the Finetuning Schemes

During finetuning, the PLM layers closer to the classification head capture the maximum task-specific information (Durrani et al., 2022). Hence, setting the lower layers parameters untrainable is a standard finetuning practice. While layer-wise analyses have been explored in various NLP tasks (de Vries et al., 2020; van Aken et al., 2019), a comprehensive examination across models, datasets and finetuning scenarios has been notably absent in the hate speech domain. Experiments in this section are run on four BERT variants – BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), BERTweet (Nguyen et al., 2020), HateBERT (Caselli et al., 2021), and Multilingual-BERT (mBERT) (Devlin et al., 2019).

RQ4: What impact do individual/grouped layers have on hate detection?

Different layers or groups of layers in the PLM will be of varying importance for hate detection. Borrowing from the popular finetuning settings (Sun et al., 2019), one expects training the last few (higher) layers to yield better than training earlier (lower) layers. Further, the setting where more layers are trainable is likely better, giving the model more ability to learn the latent space.

³https://huggingface.co/olm

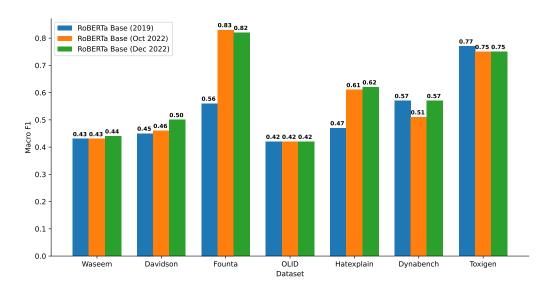


Figure 2: **RQ3:** Macro F1 on different datasets finetuned with an MLP classifier on RoBERTa variants. The variants employed are from June 2019 (R_{J19}) , October 2022 (R_{O22}) , and December 2022 (R_{D22}) . Each variant is trained on a training corpus from Wikipedia, and Common-Crawl is curated and updated before the date associated with the model. R_{J19} is the original RoBERTa model and R_{O22} and R_{D22} are its more recent variants.

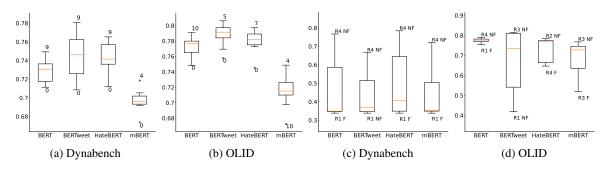


Figure 3: **RQ4:** (a) Dynabench and (b) 0LID - Descriptive statistics of macro F1 when finetuning on top of individual layers of the BERT-variant highlighting the layer (L_i) that on average over MLP seeds (ms) leads to minimum and maximum macro F1. Here, the L_i is trainable while other layers are frozen. (c) Dynabench and (d) 0LID - Descriptive statistics of macro F1 when finetuning while constraining a region of layers to be frozen (Suffix F) or non-frozen while all others are frozen (Suffix NF) for different BERT-variant highlighting the region (R_i) that on average over MLP seeds (ms) leads to minimum and maximum macro F1.

Dataset	BERT			BERTweet			HateBERT mBERT					
Dataset	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES
waseem	$S_{12}, L_6: 0.758$	S_{12}, L_{11} : 0.806	0.484**	$S_{127}, L_6: 0.758$	S_{127}, L_{11} : 0.810	0.944**	$S_{451}, L_1: 0.752$	S_{127}, L_{10} : 0.813	0.619**	$S_{451}, L_9: 0.732$	$S_{127}, L_5: 0.793$	0.617**
davidson	S_{12}, L_{11} : 0.887	S_{451}, L_4 : 0.931	0.854**	$S_{12}, L_6: 0.899$	$S_{12}, L_5: 0.935$	1.824**	$S_{12}, L_{10}: 0.904**$	$S_{127}, L_5: 0.932$	0.561**	S_{12}, L_{10} : 0.852	S_{451}, L_4 : 0.922	1.367**
founta	S_{12}, L_7 : 0.916	$S_{127}, L_5: 0.929$	0.485**	$S_{127}, L_0: 0.918$	$S_{451}, L_3: 0.930$	0.486**	S_{12}, L_2 : 0.915	S_{12}, L_9 : 0.928	0.484**	S_{12}, L_{11} : 0.890	S_{12}, L_4 : 0.924	1.120**
olid	$S_{127}, L_0: 0.732$	S_{451}, L_{11} : 0.802	0.420*	$S_{12}, L_0: 0.747$	$S_{127}, L_9: 0.817$	0.438*	$S_{451}, L_0: 0.738$	$S_{127}, L_8: 0.806$	0.383*	S_{127}, L_{10} : 0.624	S_{451}, L_4 : 0.764	0.595**
hatexplain	S_{451}, L_{11} : 0.639	$S_{12}, L_{10}: 0.766$	1.807**	$S_{12}, L_6: 0.586$	$S_{12}, L_9: 0.770$	2.616**	S_{12}, L_7 : 0.638	S_{12}, L_4 : 0.766	1.671**	$S_{451}L_9$: 0.615	$S_{12}, L_7: 0.739$	1.796**
dynabench	$S_{127}, L_6: 0.665$	$S_{451}, L_9: 0.756$	2.082**	$S_{12}, L_0: 0.705$	$S_{127}, L_{11}: 0.783$	1.824**	$S_{127}, L_0: 0.706$	$S_{451}, L_{11}: 0.770$	1.564**	$S_{12}, L_0: 0.635$	S_{451}, L_4 : 0.720	1.737**
toxigen	$S_{12}, L_0: 0.767$	S_{12}, L_{11} : 0.806	2.126**	$S_{12}, L_1: 0.0.786$	S_{12}, L_{11} : 0.827	2.621**	$S_{127}, L_0: 0.775$	S_{127}, L_{11} : 0.816	2.386**	$S_{451}, L_0: 0.746$	S_{12}, L_4 : 0.777	1.821**

Table 7: **RQ4:** Comparison of L_i^{th} layer which leads to minimum and maximum macro F1. Note the layers for the BERT-variant may come from different MLP seed values (S_{ms}) . ES stands for effect size. ** and * indicate whether the difference in minimum and maximum macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

Setup. We freeze (set to non-trainable) all parameters except the probed layer and the classification head initialized with MLP seeds (ms). We probe the impact of layers beginning with the analysis of setting (un)trainable individual layers L_1, L_2, \ldots, L_{12} and then setting (un)trainable groups of layers, aka region. A 12 layer PLM comprises 4 regions (R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4) of 3 consecutive

layers with $R_1 = \{L_1, L_2, L_3\}$ and so on. For the layer-wise case the classification head is placed on top of the trainable layer.

Findings. Table 7 shows that trainable higher layers (closer to the classification head) lead to higher macro-F1 for most BERT-variants. However, no single layer emerges as a clear winner across all datasets and models, as illustrated in Fig-

ure 3(a,b). When examining specific datasets, such as Dynabench in Figure 3a, it appears that layer #9 is quite dominant, while layer #0 consistently performs poorly across all models. On the other hand, in the case of OLID (Figure 3b), no such trend is observed. The variation in macro F1 when keeping the same MLP seed (ms) across BERTvariants is enlisted in Appendix A.4. Here, we observe that, on average, Davidson and Founta seem to be favoring the lower layer for max F1; however, looking at Table 11, we again see that across seeds, Davidson is the only dataset that significantly reaches Max F1 via lower layers. However, overall, the trend for higher layers leading to substantially better performance holds significantly for 5 out of 7 datasets and partially for Founta.

Interestingly, we also observe that layer-wise trends for generating maximum macro F1 are more similar for BERT and BERTweet than BERT-HateBERT or BERTweet-HateBERT comparisons (Table 7). Further, the notion of higher layers being important applies to BERT, HateBERT, and BERTweet; the results do not hold for mBERT. As we observe from Table 7 for mBERT, layer #4 seems to dominate across datasets. While obtaining the best performance from the middle layers of PLMs is counterintuitive in a general setup, similar behavior regarding mBERT has been reported earlier (de Vries et al., 2020). We hypothesize that this behavior stems from mBERT's need to be simultaneously equally generalized vs. informative for all languages. Thus, the higher dependence on mBERT's lower layers may stem from training on a corpus of multiple languages.

Our findings on region-wise analysis indicate that training the last region performs better than the other settings where only other regions is trained (as shown in Figure 4), i.e., the latter regions are more likely to be better than earlier regions (Figure 4a). Also, when the last region is frozen, it is never the best combination for any dataset or model (Figure 4b), further validating the status quo. However, no clear region dominates significantly across all datasets (Appendix A.4). In the case of Dynabench (Figure 3c), when R_4 is not frozen, it performs the best consistently, while R_1 being frozen performs the worst consistently. This is not so black and white for all datasets, as seen in the case of OLID (Figure 3d), where there is no one best scheme across models. In general, layers closer to the classification head appear more critical for hate detection, except in the case of mBERT.

RQ5: Does the complexity of the classifier head impact hate speech detection?

Hypothesis. There is an increasing trend in obtaining domain-specific PLMs that are continuously pretrained on domain corpus. Meanwhile, when finetuning, most downstream tasks employ a simple classification head to retain maximum latent information from the pretrained PLMs. In reproducing the work by (Ilan and Vilenchik, 2022), we observed their use of a complex classification head for HateBERT outperformed a simple one. It prompts the study of the relationship between PLMs and CHs. We hypothesize that employing a relatively complex classification head should perform better than its simpler counterpart.

Setup. We run our experiments on three classification heads (CH) of three complexity levels – simple, medium, and complex (described in Section 3). The pretrained model is frozen for this set of experiments to capture the variability introduced by the trainable CH's complexity.

Findings. We observe from Figure 5 that compared to a simple classification head (CH), a more sophisticated one (either medium or complex) is better. Full dataset results and analysis are enlisted in Appendix A.5 and reflect similar patterns. Surprisingly, BERTweet, a relatively lesser-used PLM for hate speech detection, outperforms its supposedly superior domain-specific counterpart, HateBERT. Additionally, BERT with a complex classification head demonstrates comparable performance to domain-specific PLMs and even outperforms them in several cases. We also note that mBERT's performance is lost on English-specific datasets. It would be interesting to see how this compares to non-English hate speech datasets that employ mBERT. We further note that HateBERT's performance is highly dependent on the classification head used, with a more complex one often needed to enhance its performance to bring it to part with its coevals. Interestingly, we observe that a general-purpose pretrained model with a complex classification head may mimic the results of a domain-specific pretrained model. If true for other tasks, it questions the resource allocation for curating domain-specific PLMs.

6 Takeaways and Recommendations

This section summarises the major takeaways that would allow practitioners to make effective choices when modeling PLMs for hate speech detection.

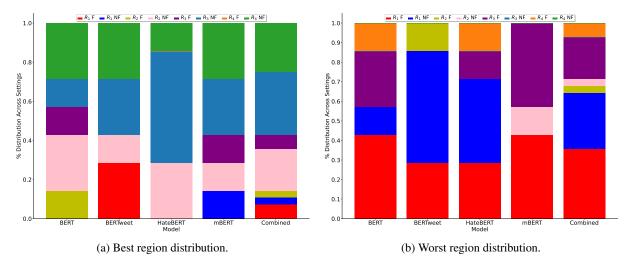


Figure 4: **RQ4:** Percentage distribution of best and worst performing regions across datasets. The divisions on each bar enlist the % of datasets where the given configuration performs best (a) or worst (b) for a BERT-variant. Combined captures the overall trend across all BERT-variants and datasets. Region R_1 includes layers L_1 to L_3 , R_2 from L_4 to L_6 , R_3 from L_7 to L_9 and R_4 from L_{10} to L_{12} . Suffix F implies that the region was frozen while other regions were trainable, and the NF suffix implies all other regions were frozen while only that region was trainable.

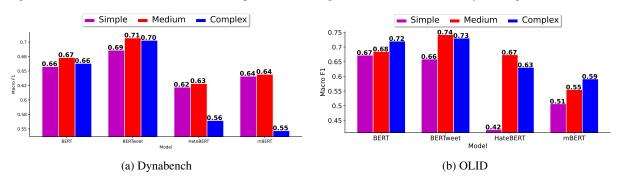


Figure 5: **RQ5:** Macro F1 scores (averaged over MLP seeds ms) for (a) Dynabench and (b) OLID datasets employing BERT-variants (BERT, BERTweet, HateBERT, and mBERT). Classification heads of varying complexity (simple, medium, and complex) are utilized to capture their effect on BERT-variants employed for hate detection.

- 1. In RQ1, we established that different seed initializations of the classification head and the underlying pretrained model (during its training) could significantly affect PLMs' performance on hate speech detection. However, finding the best-suited hyperparameters is sub-optimal and resource-intensive. Therefore, we recommend reporting results averaged over more than one seed for the hate detection tasks.
- 2. In RQ2, while analyzing the training dynamics of PLMs concerning downstream tasks, we observed early peaks w.r.t hate speech detection. We hypothesize that different NLP tasks may display different peak patterns. Our first recommendation is to make intermediate checkpoints available if pretraining is involved. An open research direction is the intermediate-evaluation test cases to record the PLM's finetuning performance and early stopping if desired thresh-
- olds are obtained. For instance, if we assume the same training setup as used by Elazar et al. (2023) and if the training was stopped just after 8-10 epochs noticing the performance drop on the downstream task, 8-10× compute, could have been saved. Though their use case differed, this can hold for training models for tasks such as sentiment analysis.
- 3. In RQ3, we found that pretraining of PLMs on newer data does not help hate speech detection. This is counter-intuitive as one would expect newer data to enhance a model's world knowledge. However, most datasets employed in this study are older than the models being released. Further, the datasets are on the side of explicit hate, and any hateful event regarding them should already be captured in the world knowledge gained by the PLM via the training corpus. Throughout examination in this work, the two

Test	Train									
Test	OLID Min	OLID Max	Dynabench Min	Dynabench Max						
OLID	0.747	0.817	0.435	0.520						
Dynabench	0.435	0.491	0.705	0.783						

Table 8: **RQ4:** Macro F1 based on BERTweet cross-dataset generalization. The min and max define the seed+layer combination that led to min and max macro F1 in the in-domain experiments, as reported in Table 7. In each row, two columns with the same dataset name as the one in the row correspond to in-domain evaluation, the others correspond to out-of-domain evaluation.

synthetically generated datasets, Dynabench and Toxigen, do not record any significant deviation from overall trends, even though Dynabench is human-generated while Toxigen is machinegenerated. The only notable difference is that Dynabench is less prone to the complexity of classification heads, as we observe in both RQ2 and RQ5. Whether it is a function of its synthetic nature or large test size is not apparent. We recommend that benchmark datasets must be regularly updated for subjective tasks like hate speech detection.

As the use of generative AI tools for crowdsourcing is on the rise (Gilardi et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023), it is imperative to equip hate speech researchers to deal with a broader AI-assisted system than just finetuning PLMs. Moreover, using computational methods at every step of the hate detection pipeline should always be human-aided.

4. In RQ4, we reinstated the status quo of finetuning the last few layers to obtain the best performance to largely hold for hate detection. Yet, in the case of mBERT, we observed that the middle and lower layers are much more critical. We recommend that tasks employing multilingual or non-English hate speech detection using mBERT should start with keeping the middle layers unfrozen for finetuning. By comparing four BERT variants on seven datasets and three seeds, it appears that the region-wise performance of PLMs is a characteristic of the underlying PLM and the task domain at hand and is less impacted by variation in datasets. Such intuitions can help narrow the experiments one has to run to obtain better classification configurations.

Further, based on the best seed, layer, and PLM combinations obtained in RQ4 (Table 7), we randomly picked Dynabench and OLID to perform a cross-dataset generalization experiment and examine the impact of hyperparameters associ-

ated with minimum and maximum in-domain PLM (BERTweet in this case) on cross-domain testing. From Table 8, in line with previous studies (Fortuna et al., 2021) on cross-dataset generalization, we observe a poor performance on out-of-domain testing. Our results do hint that the best finetuning setting may also correspond to the best out-of-domain generalization. Such settings can be useful to narrow down the hyperparameter search in balancing in-domain vs. out-of-domain performance gains.

5. In RQ5, we uncovered that finetuning a generalpurpose model, like BERT, with a more complex classification head can mimic the performance of a domain-specific pretrained model, like Hate-BERT. Our analysis also brought out the superiority of BERTweet over HateBERT. While HateBERT is continued-pretrained on offense subreddits, BERTweet is continued-pretrained on Tweets. Given that most datasets are either directly drawn from Twitter or synthesized in a short-text fashion, BERTweet could be indirectly capturing both short-text syntax and offense from the Tweet corpus. Hence, we recommend practitioners employing HateBERT to report their findings on BERTweet as well. Further, we observe a slight decrease in performance across datasets comparing mBERT and BERT for English datasets. Given that mBERT has more parameters than BERT (178M vs. 110M in base version), we suggest not using mBERT unless the hate speech is itself multilingual. When even a random set of test samples can help steal model weights (Krishna et al., 2020) in NLP tasks, it points to limited domain-specific learning in light of the adversary. Thus, more experiments are needed to establish their superi-

7 Conclusion

Due to the subjective nature of hate speech, no standard benchmarking exists. We take this opportunity to explore the patterns in finetuning PLMs for hate detection through a series of experiments over five research questions. We hope each experiment in this study lays the ground for future work to improve our understanding of how PLMs model hatefulness and their deployment to detect hate. In the future, we would like to extend our analysis against adversarial settings, bias mitigation, a broader language set, and auto-regressive LLMs.

ority over general-purpose models.

8 Acknowledgements

Sarah Masud would like to acknowledge the support of the Prime Minister Doctoral Fellowship and Google PhD Fellowship. The authors also acknowledge the support of our research partner Wipro AI.

9 Limitations

Despite examining multiple pretraining and finetuning settings in this study, there are certain limitations that we would like to highlight. First and foremost, the parameters evaluated in this study regarding PLMs, random seeds, and classification heads are not exhaustive due to constraints on computing resources. Secondly, due to BERT and ROBERTA checkpoint variants (Sellam et al., 2022; Elazar et al., 2023) employed in RQ1-RQ3 being available only in English, we were constrained to pick hate speech datasets only in English. While non-English datasets can be utilized to some extent in RQ4 and RQ5, there are again constraints of BERTweet and HateBERT variants being available in those languages. However, results should hold on to other hate speech datasets curated from Twitter. Lastly, we acknowledge that hate speech datasets (Madukwe et al., 2020) and automatic hate speech detection (Schmidt and Wiegand, 2017), especially those derived from PLMs, are not without flaws. Blind-sided usage of PLM in hate speech detection can further the stereotypes already present in PLMs (Ousidhoum et al., 2021).

10 Ethical Considerations

Hate speech is a severe issue plaguing society and needs efforts beyond computational methods from different factions of researchers and practitioners. Our aim with this study is not to spread harmful content, nor do we support the hateful content analyzed in this study. In this regard, we hope our experiments help build better and more robust hate speech systems. Further, note that we do not create any new dataset or model in this study and instead employ existing publicly available open-sourced datasets and HuggingFace PLMs in agreement with their data-sharing licenses. The datasets and models are duly cited. Further, given the computationally expensive nature of probing and the carbon footprint incurred, we hope our experiments help narrow the parameter search for future research. During our experimentation, care was taken to inoculate the code against memory leakage, and early stopping, where applicable, was invoked.

References

Dimosthenis Antypas and Jose Camacho-Collados. 2023. Robust hate speech detection in social media: A cross-dataset empirical evaluation. In *The 7th Workshop on Online Abuse and Harms (WOAH)*, pages 231–242, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Pinkesh Badjatiya, Shashank Gupta, Manish Gupta, and Vasudeva Varma. 2017. Deep learning for hate speech detection in tweets. In *Proceedings of the 26th International Conference on World Wide Web Companion - WWW '17 Companion*. ACM Press.

Esma Balkir, Isar Nejadgholi, Kathleen Fraser, and Svetlana Kiritchenko. 2022. Necessity and sufficiency for explaining text classifiers: A case study in hate speech detection. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 2672–2686, Seattle, United States. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Stella Biderman, Hailey Schoelkopf, Quentin Anthony, Herbie Bradley, Kyle O'Brien, Eric Hallahan, Mohammad Aflah Khan, Shivanshu Purohit, USVSN Sai Prashanth, Edward Raff, Aviya Skowron, Lintang Sutawika, and Oskar van der Wal. 2023. Pythia: A suite for analyzing large language models across training and scaling.

Tommaso Caselli, Valerio Basile, Jelena Mitrović, and Michael Granitzer. 2021. HateBERT: Retraining BERT for abusive language detection in English. In *Proceedings of the 5th Workshop on Online Abuse and Harms (WOAH 2021)*, pages 17–25, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Thomas Davidson, Dana Warmsley, Michael Macy, and Ingmar Weber. 2017. Automated hate speech detection and the problem of offensive language. In *Proceedings of the 11th International AAAI Conference on Web and Social Media*, ICWSM '17, pages 512–515.

Wietse de Vries, Andreas van Cranenburgh, and Malvina Nissim. 2020. What's so special about BERT's layers? a closer look at the NLP pipeline in monolingual and multilingual models. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020*, pages 4339–4350, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pages 4171–4186, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Nadir Durrani, Hassan Sajjad, Fahim Dalvi, and Firoj Alam. 2022. On the transformation of latent space in fine-tuned NLP models. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 1495–1516, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Yanai Elazar, Nora Kassner, Shauli Ravfogel, Amir Feder, Abhilasha Ravichander, Marius Mosbach, Yonatan Belinkov, Hinrich Schütze, and Yoav Goldberg. 2023. Measuring causal effects of data statistics on language model's 'factual' predictions.
- Nelson Elhage, Neel Nanda, Catherine Olsson, Tom Henighan, Nicholas Joseph, Ben Mann, Amanda Askell, Yuntao Bai, Anna Chen, Tom Conerly, Nova DasSarma, Dawn Drain, Deep Ganguli, Zac Hatfield-Dodds, Danny Hernandez, Andy Jones, Jackson Kernion, Liane Lovitt, Kamal Ndousse, Dario Amodei, Tom Brown, Jack Clark, Jared Kaplan, Sam McCandlish, and Chris Olah. 2021. A mathematical framework for transformer circuits. *Transformer Circuits Thread*. Https://transformercircuits.pub/2021/framework/index.html.
- Paula Fortuna, Juan Soler-Company, and Leo Wanner. 2021. How well do hate speech, toxicity, abusive and offensive language classification models generalize across datasets? *Inf. Process. Manage.*, 58(3).
- Antigoni Founta, Constantinos Djouvas, Despoina Chatzakou, Ilias Leontiadis, Jeremy Blackburn, Gianluca Stringhini, Athena Vakali, Michael Sirivianos, and Nicolas Kourtellis. 2018. Large scale crowdsourcing and characterization of twitter abusive behavior. *Proceedings of the International AAAI Conference on Web and Social Media*, 12(1).
- Antigoni Maria Founta, Despoina Chatzakou, Nicolas Kourtellis, Jeremy Blackburn, Athena Vakali, and Ilias Leontiadis. 2019. A unified deep learning architecture for abuse detection. In *Proceedings of the 10th ACM Conference on Web Science*, WebSci '19, page 105–114, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Mor Geva, Avi Caciularu, Guy Dar, Paul Roit, Shoval Sadde, Micah Shlain, Bar Tamir, and Yoav Goldberg. 2022. LM-debugger: An interactive tool for inspection and intervention in transformer-based language models. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pages 12–21, Abu Dhabi, UAE. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Fabrizio Gilardi, Meysam Alizadeh, and Maël Kubli. 2023. Chatgpt outperforms crowd workers for text-annotation tasks. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 120(30):e2305016120.
- Thomas Hartvigsen, Saadia Gabriel, Hamid Palangi, Maarten Sap, Dipankar Ray, and Ece Kamar. 2022. ToxiGen: A large-scale machine-generated dataset for adversarial and implicit hate speech detection.

- In Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 3309–3326, Dublin, Ireland. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tal Ilan and Dan Vilenchik. 2022. HARALD: Augmenting hate speech data sets with real data. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2022*, pages 2241–2248, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Mohammad Aflah Khan, Neemesh Yadav, Mohit Jain, and Sanyam Goyal. 2023. The art of embedding fusion: Optimizing hate speech detection. In *The First Tiny Papers Track at ICLR 2023, Tiny Papers* @ *ICLR 2023, Kigali, Rwanda, May 5, 2023*. OpenReview.net.
- Kalpesh Krishna, Gaurav Singh Tomar, Ankur Parikh, Nicolas Papernot, and Mohit Iyyer. 2020. Thieves of sesame street: Model extraction on bert-based apis.
- Atharva Kulkarni, Sarah Masud, Vikram Goyal, and Tanmoy Chakraborty. 2023. Revisiting hate speech benchmarks: From data curation to system deployment. In *Proceedings of the 29th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, KDD '23, page 4333–4345, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Yang Liu, Dan Iter, Yichong Xu, Shuohang Wang, Ruochen Xu, and Chenguang Zhu. 2023. G-eval: Nlg evaluation using gpt-4 with better human alignment.
- Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Mandar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2019. Roberta: A robustly optimized BERT pretraining approach. *CoRR*, abs/1907.11692.
- Ilya Loshchilov and Frank Hutter. 2019. Decoupled weight decay regularization. In 7th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2019, New Orleans, LA, USA, May 6-9, 2019. OpenReview.net.
- Scott M. Lundberg and Su-In Lee. 2017. A unified approach to interpreting model predictions. In *Proceedings of the 31st International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, NIPS'17, page 4768–4777, Red Hook, NY, USA. Curran Associates Inc.
- Kosisochukwu Madukwe, Xiaoying Gao, and Bing Xue. 2020. In data we trust: A critical analysis of hate speech detection datasets. In *Proceedings of the Fourth Workshop on Online Abuse and Harms*, pages 150–161, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Sarah Masud, Manjot Bedi, Mohammad Aflah Khan, Md Shad Akhtar, and Tanmoy Chakraborty. 2022. Proactively reducing the hate intensity of online posts via hate speech normalization. In *Proceedings of the*

- 28th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, KDD '22, page 3524–3534, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Binny Mathew, Punyajoy Saha, Seid Muhie Yimam, Chris Biemann, Pawan Goyal, and Animesh Mukherjee. 2021. Hatexplain: A benchmark dataset for explainable hate speech detection. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 35, pages 14867–14875.
- Dat Quoc Nguyen, Thanh Vu, and Anh Tuan Nguyen. 2020. BERTweet: A pre-trained language model for English tweets. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pages 9–14, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Nedjma Ousidhoum, Xinran Zhao, Tianqing Fang, Yangqiu Song, and Dit-Yan Yeung. 2021. Probing toxic content in large pre-trained language models. In Proceedings of the 59th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 11th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 4262–4274, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Marco Tulio Ribeiro, Sameer Singh, and Carlos Guestrin. 2016. "Why Should I Trust You?": Explaining the Predictions of Any Classifier. In *Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, KDD '16, page 1135–1144, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Anna Schmidt and Michael Wiegand. 2017. A survey on hate speech detection using natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the Fifth International Workshop on Natural Language Processing for Social Media*, pages 1–10, Valencia, Spain. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Thibault Sellam, Steve Yadlowsky, Ian Tenney, Jason Wei, Naomi Saphra, Alexander D'Amour, Tal Linzen, Jasmijn Bastings, Iulia Raluca Turc, Jacob Eisenstein, Dipanjan Das, and Ellie Pavlick. 2022. The multiB-ERTs: BERT reproductions for robustness analysis. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Chi Sun, Xipeng Qiu, Yige Xu, and Xuanjing Huang. 2019. How to fine-tune bert for text classification? In *Chinese Computational Linguistics*, pages 194–206, Cham. Springer International Publishing.
- Betty van Aken, Benjamin Winter, Alexander Löser, and Felix A. Gers. 2019. How does bert answer questions? a layer-wise analysis of transformer representations. In *Proceedings of the 28th ACM International Conference on Information and Knowledge Management*, CIKM '19, page 1823–1832, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.

- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Ł ukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. 2017. Attention is all you need. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 30. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Bertie Vidgen, Tristan Thrush, Zeerak Waseem, and Douwe Kiela. 2021. Learning from the worst: Dynamically generated datasets to improve online hate detection. In *Proceedings of the 59th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 11th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1667–1682, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Prashanth Vijayaraghavan, Hugo Larochelle, and Deb Roy. 2021. Interpretable multi-modal hate speech detection.
- Alex Wang, Amanpreet Singh, Julian Michael, Felix Hill, Omer Levy, and Samuel Bowman. 2018. GLUE: A multi-task benchmark and analysis platform for natural language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 2018 EMNLP Workshop BlackboxNLP: Analyzing and Interpreting Neural Networks for NLP*, pages 353–355, Brussels, Belgium. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zeerak Waseem and Dirk Hovy. 2016. Hateful symbols or hateful people? predictive features for hate speech detection on Twitter. In *Proceedings of the NAACL Student Research Workshop*, pages 88–93, San Diego, California. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pierric Cistac, Tim Rault, Remi Louf, Morgan Funtowicz, Joe Davison, Sam Shleifer, Patrick von Platen, Clara Ma, Yacine Jernite, Julien Plu, Canwen Xu, Teven Le Scao, Sylvain Gugger, Mariama Drame, Quentin Lhoest, and Alexander Rush. 2020. Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations, pages 38–45, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Marcos Zampieri, Shervin Malmasi, Preslav Nakov, Sara Rosenthal, Noura Farra, and Ritesh Kumar. 2019. SemEval-2019 task 6: Identifying and categorizing offensive language in social media (OffensEval). In *Proceedings of the 13th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation*, pages 75–86, Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Wenhao Zhu, Hongyi Liu, Qingxiu Dong, Jingjing Xu, Shujian Huang, Lingpeng Kong, Jiajun Chen, and Lei Li. 2023. Multilingual machine translation with large language models: Empirical results and analysis.

A Appendix

A.1 RQ1: Extended Experiments

Table 9 and Table 10 provide a seed-wise breakdown comparing minimum and maximum macro F1 scores when employing the multiple-checkpoints BERT (Sellam et al., 2022) model. In Table 9, the MLP seed (ms) is constant, but the pretraining seed (ps) varies and vice-versa in Table 10. It appears that keeping ms constant leads to more variability in performance than ps.

A.2 RQ2: Extended Experiments

In Figure 6, we showcase the trends for macro F1 on each dataset when the underlying model is picked from one of the 84 (x-axis) intermediate checkpoints (Elazar et al., 2023). While simple and complex classification heads follow the same pattern overall, a significant difference in maximum macro F1 is obtained at each checkpoint (comparing simple and complex). The same is recorded in Table 11. On the one hand, we observe that OLID and Dynabench have similar performances irrespective of the CH. On the other hand, Dynabench is a relatively new human-synthesized and much larger compared to OLID (10k vs. 800), which is obtained from Twitter. Further, we observe that for 5 datasets, there is a significant improvement in macro F1 score when employing complex CH instead of simple. In RQ5, we also study this CH's effect on other PLM variants.

A.3 RQ3: Extended Experiments

The Online Language Modelling ⁴ initiative by Hugging Face is a repository of updated PLM models and tokenizers that are pretrained on regular and latest Internet snapshots obtained via Common Crawl and Wikipedia. The initiative aims to induce explicit knowledge of newer concepts and updated factual information in the PLMs. At the time of compiling this research, the OLM project had 6 models and 19 datasets snapshots contributed to the repository. Out of these, the two RoBERTa models released in October 2022 and December 2022 are employed in our research.

A.4 RQ4: Extended Experiments

Figure 7 (a-e) provides an overview of the individual layer's contribution to performance when only the layer under consideration is trainable. Additionally, Table 12 enlist the per-seed comparison of

performance, respectively. We observe that there is no lottery ticket to the best/most critical layer when examined from the point of view of MLP seeds, BERT-variants, and datasets.

While in the layer-wise analysis so far, we looked at trainable layers one at a time, we also looked at regions of results in a (un)frozen manner in Figure 8 (a-e) and Table 13.

A.5 RQ 5: Extended Experiments

Figure 9 (a-e) provides an overview of the impact of classification head architecture on the finetuning performance. Granular results controlling for MLP seeds (ms) are enlisted in Table 14.

⁴https://huggingface.co/olm

Dataset	12			127			451			
Dataset	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	
Waseem	S_0 : 0.676	S_{10} : 0.731	0.426*	S_5 : 0.709	S_{15} : 0.726	0.131	S_0 : 0.675	S_{10} : 0.723	0.390*	
Davidson	S_{20} : 0.759	S_{15} : 0.791	0.441**	S_{10} : 0.755	S_{20} : 0.776	0.273*	S_0 : 0.745	S_{15} : 0.786	0.491**	
Founta	S_5 : 0.872	S_{10} : 0.886	0.402*	S_5 : 0.876	S_{20} : 0.888	0.356*	S_0 : 0.874	S_0 : 0.885	0.360*	
OLID	S_{20} : 0.672	S_{10} : 0.718	0.207	S_0 : 0.675	S_{15} : 0.725	0.169	S_0 : 0.647	S_{10} : 0.731	0.287*	
Hatexplain	S_{20} : 0.634	S_{15} : 0.679	0.687**	S_5 : 0.630	S_{20} : 0.674	0.637**	S_5 : 0.636	S_{10} : 0.680	0.588**	
Dynabench	S_5 : 0.653	S_{20} : 0.660	0.153	S_5 : 0.637	S_{15} : 0.659	0.468**	S_{15} : 0.623	S_{20} : 0.654:	0.600**	
Toxigen	S_{20} : 0.767	S_{10} : 0.771	0.180	S_5 : 0.767	S_{10} : 0.771	0.218	S_5 : 0.767	S_{10} : 0.771	0.228	

Table 9: **RQ1:** Comparison of minimum and maximum macro F1 obtained when the MLP seed (ms) is constant but the pretraining seed varies (ps). ES stands for effect size. ** and * indicates whether the difference in minimum and maximum macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

Dataset	0			5			10			15			20		
Dataset	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES
Waseem	S_{451} : 0.675	S_{127} : 0.709	0.261	S ₁₂ : 0.691	S_{127} : 0.709	0.126	S ₁₂₇ : 0.714	S_{12} : 0.731	0.142	S ₁₂ : 0.711	S_{127} : 0.726	0.123	S_{12} : 0.686	S_{127} : 0.714	0.217
Davidson	S_{451} : 0.745	S_{127} : 0766.	0.232	S_{127} : 0.757	S_{12} : 0.763	0.090	S_{127} : 0.755	S_{12} : 0.772	0.221	S_{127} : 0.757	S_{12} : 0.791	0.435*	S_{451} : 0.755	S_{127} : 0.776	0.291*
Founta	S_{12} : 0.879	S_{451} : 0.885	0.204	S_{12} : 0.872	S_{127} : 0.876	0.123	S_{451} : 0.884	S_{127} : 0.887	0.093	S_{12} : 0.885	S_{127} : 0.887	0.087	S_{12} : 0.884	S_{127} : 0.888	0.121
OLID	S_{451} : 0.647	S_{127} : 0.675	0.089	S_{451} : 0.661	S_{12} : 0.689	0.106	S_{12} : 0.718	S_{451} : 0.731	0.056	S_{451} : 0.692	S_{127} : 0.725	0.141	S_{12} : 0.672	S_{451} : 0.703	0.113
Hatexplain	S_{127} : 0.658	S_{12} : 0.674	0.215	S_{127} : 0.630	S_{12} : 0.6664	0.483**	S_{127} : 0.640	S_{451} : 0.680	0.504**	S_{127} : 0.660	S_{12} : 0.679	0.300*	S_{12} : 0.634	S_{127} : 0.674	0.591**
Dynabench	S_{451} : 0.648	S_{127} : 0.656	0.181	S_{127} : 0.637	S_{12} : 0.653	0.347*	S_{451} : 0.654	S_{127} : 0.657	0.06	S_{451} : 0.625	S_{127} : 0.659	0.701**	S_{127} : 0.634	S_{12} : 0.660	0.142
Toxigen	S_{12} : 0.769	S_{127} : 0.769	0.034	S_{451} : 0.767	S_{12} : 0.768	0.075	S_{12} : 0.771	S_{127} : 0.771	0.050	S_{127} : 0.770	S_{12} : 0.770	0.032	S_{12} : 0.767	S_{127} : 0.768	0.059

Table 10: **RQ1:** Comparison of minimum and maximum macro F1 obtained when the pretraining seed (ps) is constant but the MLP seed (ms) varies. ES stands for effect size. ** and * indicate whether the difference in minimum and maximum macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

Dataset	12			127			451			
Dataset	Sim. F1	Com. F1	ES	Sim. Max F1	Com. F1	ES	Sim. Max F1	Com. F1	ES	
Waseem	C_3 : 0.660	C_2 : 0.734	0.581**	C_3 :0.668	C_2 :0.738	0.547**	C_2 : 0.691	$C_2:0.775$	0.580**	
Davidson	C_2 : 0.739	C_2 : 0.824	0.953**	$C_2:0.740$	C_3 :0.810	0.852**	C_2 : 0.775	$C_2:0.764$	0.113	
Founta	C_3 : 0.871	C_2 : 0.879	0.278*	$C_2:0.861$	$C_2:0.880$	0.613**	C_3 : 0.869	$C_2:0.878$	0.269	
OLID	C_2 : 0.661	C_2 : 0.667	0.110	C_2 :0.649	C_2 :0.694	0.242	C_2 : 0.654	C_2 :0.672	0.164	
Hatexplain	C_2 : 0.640	C_2 : 0.687	0.599**	C_2 :0.659	C_2 :0.665	0.088	C_4 : 0.640	C_2 :0.694	0.751**	
Dynabench	C_2 : 0.626	C_2 : 0.628	0.010	C_2 :0.629	C_2 :0.623	0.123	C_2 : 0.625	C_2 :0.631	0.118	
Toxigen	C_2 : 0.733	C_2 : 0.764	1.810**	$C_2:0.732$	C_2 :0.763	1.772**	C_2 : 0.733	$C_2:0.764$	1.835**	

Table 11: **RQ2:** Comparison of maximum macro F1 obtained under varying MLP seed (ms) for the simple (Sim.) and complex (Com.) classification heads. ES stands for effect size. ** and * indicates whether the difference in maximum macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

Dataset	Seed	BERT			BERTweet			HateBERT			mBERT		
Dataset	seed	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES	Min F1	Max F1	ES
waseem	12	L_6 : 0.758	L_{11} : 0.806	0.484**	L_7 : 0.723	L_{10} : 0.786	0.620**	L_0 : 0.758	L_{10} : 0.813	0.558**	L_4 : 0.736	L_{11} : 0.788	0.523**
	127	L_5 : 0.760	L_4 : 0.806	0.463	L_6 : 0.700	L_{11} : 0.810	0.944**	L_1 : 0.778	L_{10} : 0.813	0.392*	L_8 : 0.744	L_5 : 0.793	0.500**
	451	L_6 : 0.760	L_4 : 0.799	0.379*	L_1 : 0.727	L_{11} : 0.788	0.528**	L_1 : 0.752	L_{10} : 0.813	0.614**	L_9 : 0.732	L_5 : 0.790	0.582**
davidson	12	L_{11} : 0.887	L ₁ : 0.930	0.837**	L ₆ : 0.887	L ₅ : 0.936	0.895**	L ₇ : 0.908	L ₃ : 0.932	0.512**	L_{10} : 0.852	L_2 : 0.920	1.36**
	127	L_2 : 0.903	L_5 : 0.928	0.480**	L_7 : 0.900	L_3 : 0.935	0.782**	L_{10} : 0.904	L_5 : 0.932	0.561**	L_8 : 0.888	L_5 : 0.918	0.576**
	451	L_{10} : 0.889	L_4 : 0.931	0.788**	L_7 : 0.905	L_3 : 0.935	0.671**	L_7 : 0.906	L_4 : 0.930	0.461**	L_{11} : 0.893	L_4 : 0.923	0.618**
founta	12	L ₇ : 0.916	L_4 : 0.929	0.488**	L ₈ : 0.921	L_4 : 0.930	0.378*	L ₂ : 0.916	L_9 : 0.928	0.484**	L_{11} : 0.890	L_4 : 0.924	1.121**
	127	L_0 : 0.920	L_5 : 0.929	0.334*	L_0 : 0.918	L_{11} : 0.928	0.401*	L_9 : 0.923	L_4 : 0.928	0.232	L_{10} : 0.908	L_5 : 0.922	0.503**
	451	L_3 : 0.921	L_4 : 0.928	0.280*	L_6 : 0.920	L_3 : 0.930	0.441*	L_{11} : 0.916	L_2 : 0.928	0.453	L_2 : 0.904	L_4 : 0.918	0.489**
olid	12	L_1 : 0.742	L_9 : 0.799	0.359*	L_0 : 0.747	L_6 : 0.805	0.388*	L_0 : 0.744	L_7 : 0.797	0.302*	L_8 : 0.700	L_3 : 0.750	0.220
	127	L_0 : 0.732	$L_8: 0.793$	0.346*	L_0 : 0.760	L_9 : 0.817	0.323*	L_6 : 0.750	L_8 : 0.806	0.287*	L_{10} : 0.624	L_4 : 0.755	0.509**
	451	L_2 : 0.748	L_{11} : 0.802	0.321*	L_1 : 0.764	L_5 : 0.812	0.307*	L_0 : 0.738	L_3 : 0.804	0.388*	L_{10} : 0.681	L_4 : 0.765	0.493**
hatexplain	12	L_4 : 0.695	L_{10} : 0.766	1.054**	L_6 : 0.586	L_9 : 0.770	2.616**	L_7 : 0.638	L_4 : 0.766	0.1671**	L_{10} : 0.647	L_7 : 0.739	0.1.33**
	127	L_9 : 0.721	L_7 : 0.763	0.580**	L_5 : 0.717	L_9 : 0.757	0.559**	L_4 : 0.658	L_3 : 0.763	1.470**	L_7 : 0.616	L_5 : 0.736	1.724**
	451	L_{11} : 0.639	L_4 : 0.754	1.524**	L_2 : 0.691	L_5 : 0.761	1.024**	L_1 : 0.723	L_{11} : 0.765	0.640**	L_9 : 0.616	L_7 : 0.737	1.782**
dynabench	12	L_0 : 0.697	L_9 : 0.746	1.108**	L_0 : 0.705	L_9 : 0.781	1.859**	L_1 : 0.706	L_9 : 0.765	1.414**	L_0 : 0.635	L_4 : 0.717	1.764**
	127	L_6 : 0.665	L_{10} : 0.754	2.006**	L_0 : .710	L_{11} : 0.783	1.614**	L_0 : 0.706	L_{10} : 0.764	1.394**	L_7 : 0.661	L_4 : 0.719	1.316**
	451	L_2 : 0.699	L_9 : 0.756	1.335**	L_0 : 0.711	L_9 : 0.782	1.716**	L_0 : 0.717	L_{11} : 0.770	1.257**	L_0 : 0.691	L_4 : 0.720	0.633**
toxigen	12	L_0 : 0.767	L_{11} : 0.806	2.216**	L_1 : 0.780	L_{11} : 0.812	2.026**	L_0 : 0.780	L_{11} : 0.812	2.026**	L_0 : 0.754	L_4 : 0.777	1.34**
	127	L_0 : 0.769	L_{11} : 0.803	2.044**	L_1 : 0.788	L_{11} : 0.826	2.313**	L_0 : 0.775	L_{11} : 0.816	2.396**	L_0 : 0.746	L_5 : 0.774	1.619**
	451	L_0 : 0.768	L_{11} : 0.804	2.263**	L_1 : 0.787	L_{11} : 0.826	2.551**	L_0 : 0.778	L_{11} : 0.813	2.343**	L_0 : 0.746	L_7 : 0.775	1.619**

Table 12: **RQ4:** Comparison of minimum and maximum macro F1 obtained per MLP seed (ms) per BERT-variant. ES stands for effect size. ** and * indicates whether the difference in minimum and maximum macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

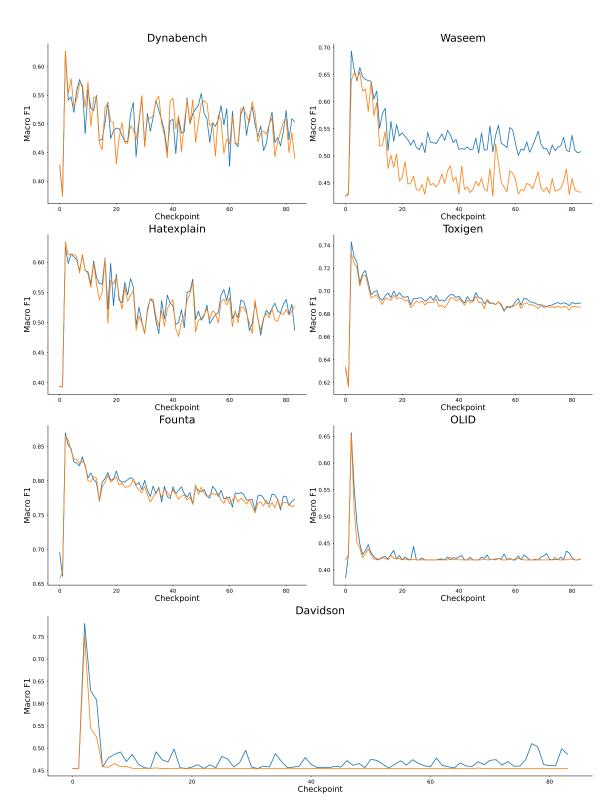


Figure 6: **RQ2:** Macro F1 (averaged over MLP seeds ms) attained when finetuning is done on the $n^{th} \in 1, \dots, 84$ checkpoint (C_n) . We report the trends on all datasets for simple (yellow) and complex (blue) classification heads. Performance peaks with early checkpoints around C_n are clearly visible for all configurations.

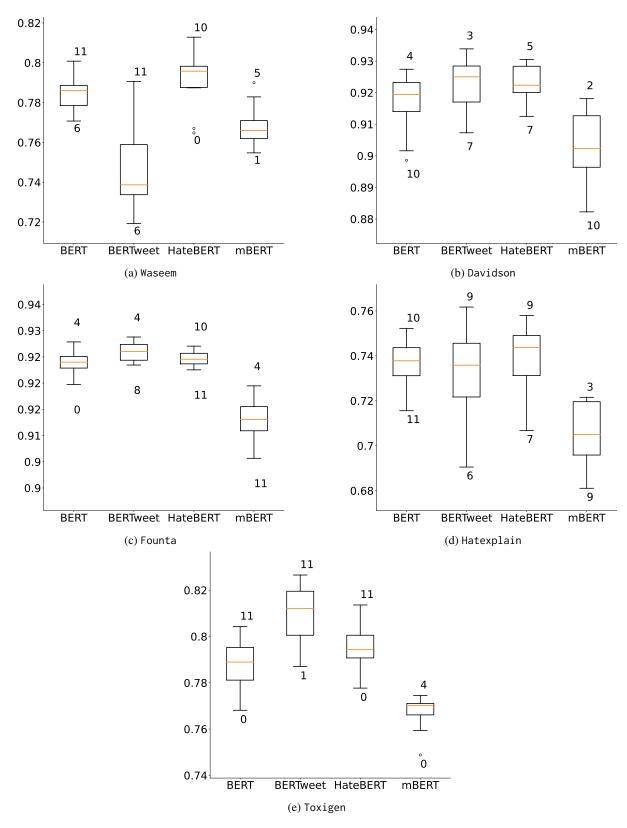


Figure 7: **RQ4:** Extending from Figure 3(a,b) to rest of 5 datasets – Descriptive statistics of macro F1 when finetuning on top of individual layers of the BERT-variant highlighting the layer (L_i) that on average over MLP seeds (ms) leads to minimum and maximum macro F1. Here the L_i is trainable while other layers are frozen.

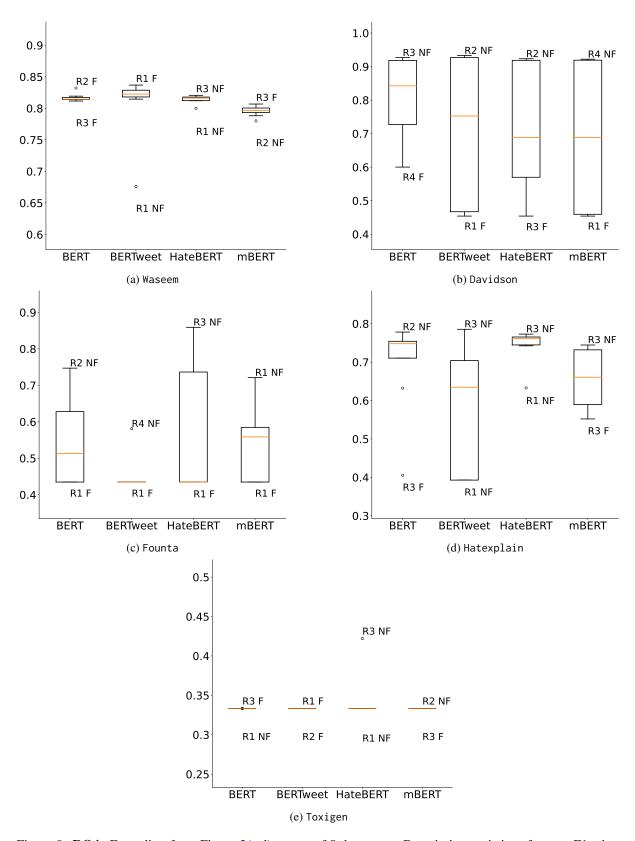


Figure 8: **RQ4:** Extending from Figure 3(c,d) to rest of 5 datasets – -Descriptive statistics of macro F1 when finetuning while constraining a region of layers to be frozen (Suffix F) or non-frozen while all others are frozen (Suffix NF) for different BERT-variant highlighting the region (R_i) that on average over MLP seeds (ms) leads to minimum and maximum macro F1.

Dataset	BERT	SEED	R ₁ T	R ₁ F	R ₁ T/F:ES	R ₂ T	R ₂ F	R ₂ T/F:ES	R ₃ T	R ₃ F	R ₃ T/F:ES	R ₄ T	R ₄ F	R ₄ T/F:ES
Waseem	BERT	12	0.815	0.816	0.007	0.840	0.820	0.232	0.821	0.822	0.009	0.816	0.814	0.028
		127	0.795	0.822	0.298*	0.833	0.801	0.307*	0.786	0.811	0.245	0.803	0.831	0.297*
	DEDT .	451	0.831	0.812	0.189	0.824	0.822	0.015	0.828	0.811	0.186	0.824	0.813	0.078
	BERTweet	12	0.836	0.799	0.392*	0.814	0.827 0.812	0.130	0.831	0.820	0.086	0.812	0.823	0.085
		127	0.842	0.803	0.387*	0.831	0.812	0.279*	0.820	0.821	0.066	0.811	0.842	0.352*
	HateBERT	451 12	0.832	0.426	4.936**	0.844	0.819	0.283*	0.818 0.817	0.827 0.812	0.064	0.821	0.820 0.799	0.001
	HaleBERT	127	l	0.812 0.767	0.083 0.432*	0.831	0.823	0.107 0.114	0.817		0.086 0.129	l	0.799	0.207
		451	0.814 0.824	0.767	0.432	0.809	0.820	0.114	0.819	0.829 0.821	0.129	0.818	0.828	0.146 0.224
	mBERT	12	0.824	0.820	0.034	0.821	0.803	0.132	0.819	0.793	0.029	0.826	0.822	0.224
	IIIDEKI	127	0.802	0.798	0.074	0.763	0.802	0.093	0.813	0.794	0.161	0.788	0.802	0.166
		451	0.791	0.786	0.022	0.812	0.738	0.733**	0.802	0.798	0.033	0.786	0.302	0.119
Davidson	BERT	12	0.926	0.921	0.116	0.919	0.924	0.096	0.454	0.930	13.303**	0.780	0.922	0.551**
Davidson	BERT	127	0.454	0.905	13.147**	0.454	0.921	13.839**	0.927	0.919	0.159	0.454	0.915	11.960**
		451	0.918	0.925	0.114	0.932	0.910	0.454*	0.454	0.932	14.392**	0.454	0.923	12.794**
	BERTweet	12	0.454	0.926	12.596**	0.454	0.935	13.664**	0.862	0.929	1.251**	0.454	0.931	14.453**
	BERTWEEL	127	0.454	0.924	12.368**	0.454	0.930	15.046**	0.454	0.933	15.144**	0.506	0.933	7.991**
		451	0.454	0.929	14.575**	0.454	0.934	15.645**	0.454	0.926	13.377**	0.454	0.882	9.952**
	HateBERT	12	0.454	0.919	12.211**	0.454	0.919	12.672**	0.454	0.920	13.229**	0.454	0.928	13.370**
		127	0.924	0.924	0.037	0.454	0.934	13.568**	0.454	0.911	12.876**	0.454	0.922	12.962**
		451	0.454	0.454	0.000	0.917	0.917	0.026	0.454	0.920	12.774**	0.454	0.919	13.289**
	mBERT	12	0.454	0.913	12.393**	0.454	0.925	12.538**	0.483	0.923	9.358**	0.454	0.923	13.992**
		127	0.454	0.902	12.214**	0.454	0.916	13.964**	0.454	0.913	10.779**	0.454	0.923	13.322**
		451	0.454	0.921	12.280**	0.476	0.916	9.423**	0.457	0.924	11.758**	0.454	0.920	13.139**
Founta	BERT	12	0.435	0.875	16.947**	0.435	0.903	22.165**	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.906	20.983**
		127	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.904	0.435	21.930**
		451	0.435	0.901	20.681**	0.435	0.904	21.262**	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000
	BERTweet	12	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.755	9.979**
		127	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000
		451	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.553	3.100**
	HateBERT	12	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.910	19.936**	0.435	0.435	0.000
		127	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.915	24.121**	0.435	0.873	16.404**	0.435	0.871	15.600**
		451	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.905	22.709**	0.435	0.794	11.383**	0.435	0.889	19.753**
	mBERT	12	0.435	0.834	13.390**	0.758	0.435	9.584**	0.435	0.877	16.618**	0.435	0.435	0.000
		127	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.854	14.137**	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000
		451	0.435	0.895	19.070**	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.435	0.000	0.435	0.909	20.701**
OLID	BERT	12	0.737	0.740	0.008	0.773	0.795	0.075	0.777	0.767	0.008	0.778	0.790	0.081
		127	0.755	0.762	0.052	0.786	0.765	0.103	0.783	0.775	0.093	0.767	0.785	0.085
		451	0.771	0.777	0.019	0.768	0.800	0.186	0.771	0.798	0.061	0.775	0.794	0.134
	BERTweet	12	0.774	0.419	1.535**	0.808	0.803	0.020	0.419	0.825	1.950**	0.773	0.815	0.307*
		127	0.792	0.419	1.644**	0.419	0.814	1.776**	0.419	0.815	1.846**	0.419	0.812	1.797**
		451	0.804	0.419	1.704**	0.810	0.811	0.048	0.790	0.806	0.155	0.419	0.804	1.749**
	HateBERT	12	0.787	0.479	1.254**	0.419	0.770	1.409**	0.764	0.765	0.015	0.770	0.795	0.187
		127	0.749	0.749	0.042	0.776	0.788	0.047	0.756	0.762	0.050	0.751	0.789	0.239
		451	0.769	0.766	0.023	0.795	0.793	0.024	0.783	0.787	0.062	0.419	0.765	1.435**
	mBERT	12	0.715	0.735	0.094	0.681	0.678	0.057	0.704	0.775	0.244	0.740	0.769	0.163
		127	0.780	0.727	0.230	0.707	0.763	0.266	0.419	0.756	1.276**	0.758	0.761	0.015
		451	0.419	0.419	0.000	0.764	0.771	0.035	0.432	0.772	1.343**	0.730	0.736	0.069
Hatexplain	BERT	12	0.747	0.746	0.004	0.769	0.776	0.133	0.431	0.753	4.846**	0.762	0.758	0.058
		127	0.770	0.393	7.340**	0.718	0.783	0.945**	0.393	0.721	5.729**	0.733	0.750	0.240
	nenm .	451	0.769	0.758	0.180	0.747	0.776	0.400*	0.393	0.779	8.101**	0.759	0.702	0.817**
	BERTweet	12	0.775	0.393	7.975**	0.767	0.775	0.137	0.393	0.787	8.366**	0.393	0.769	6.704**
		127	0.739	0.393	6.839**	0.393	0.501	2.289**	0.393	0.779	8.771**	0.393	0.794	8.514**
	II.4. DEDE	451	0.394	0.393	0.052	0.739	0.778	0.549**	0.393	0.791	8.459**	0.393	0.722	5.741**
	HateBERT	12	0.758	0.752	0.099	0.755	0.780	0.406*	0.753	0.771	0.271	0.739	0.751	0.159
		127	0.768	0.754	0.144	0.725	0.757	0.411*	0.762	0.770	0.150	0.761	0.760	0.012
	, DEDT	451 12	0.760	0.393	6.310**	0.747	0.776	0.407*		0.777	0.129	0.737	0.780	0.695**
	mBERT	127	0.739	0.719 0.393	0.285* 6.895**	0.393	0.732 0.639	7.035** 0.598**	0.582 0.682	0.736 0.752	2.129** 0.934**	0.676	0.721 0.738	0.676** 6.722**
		451	0.740	0.393	0.893	0.393	0.039	0.090	0.393	0.732	7.218**	0.393	0.731	0.722
Dynaharah	BERT	12	0.734	0.745	1.573**	0.732	0.737	1.506**	0.393	0.746	12.256**	0.719	0.760	12.166**
Dynabench	DEKI	127	0.317	0.349	0.000	0.349	0.318	1.506**	0.349	0.768	12.256**	0.349	0.760	13.692**
		451	0.349	0.349	0.000	0.349	0.732	10.104**	0.349	0.713	0.000	0.317	0.771	13.173**
	BERTweet	12	0.349	0.349	3.944**	0.349	0.888	0.000	0.349	0.349	14.378**	0.349	0.771	15.670**
	DEKIWEEL	127	0.498	0.349	0.000	0.349	0.349	10.885**	0.349	0.765	0.000	0.349	0.793	15.126**
		451	0.317	0.317	0.000	0.349	0.730	1.571**	0.349	0.349	14.698**	0.349	0.392	1.469**
	HateBERT	12	0.349	0.691	10.451**	0.317	0.349	0.000	0.349	0.777	13.318**	0.349	0.392	14.576**
	HARDERI	127	0.349	0.891	0.000	0.349	0.349	11.989**	0.349	0.773	11.896**	0.349	0.781	13.631**
		451	0.349	0.349	1.571**	0.349	0.748	12.493**	0.349	0.732	10.092**	0.349	0.787	13.536**
	mBERT	12	0.317	0.349	0.673**	0.349	0.748	0.009	0.349	0.742	9.274**	0.349	0.787	10.999**
	IIIDEKI	127	0.349	0.619	7.138**	0.349	0.349	0.009	0.349	0.675	9.671**	0.349	0.716	10.999***
		451	0.349	0.819	1.571**	0.349	0.349	1.141**	0.349	0.673	9.804**	0.349	0.723	11.119**
Toxigen	BERT	12	0.317	0.349	0.045	0.349	0.333	0.000	0.349	0.709	0.000	0.349	0.724	0.045
	DEKI	127	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045
		451	0.333	0.333				0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.000
	BERTweet	12	0.333	0.333	0.000 0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.045
	DEKIWeet	l												
		127	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045
	HotoDEDT	451	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045
	HateBERT	12	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.599	16.715**	0.333	0.333	0.000
		127	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.045
	DEDT	451	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.045
	mBERT	12	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.000 0.045
				11 555	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045
		127 451	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.000	0.333	0.333	0.045	0.333	0.333	0.000

Table 13: **RQ4:** Comparison of regional-wise macro F1 obtained under varying MLP seed (ms) for the BERT-variants. We measure the impact on performance when a region R is set to trainable or unfrozen (T) vs. when it is non-trainable or frozen. ES stands for effect size. Further ** and * indicates whether the difference in macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

Dataset	BERT-variant	Seed	CH _S : F1	CH _M : F1	CH _C : F1	CC _{S,M} : ES	CC _{M,C} : ES	CC _{C,S} : ES
Waseem	BERT	12	0.703	0.752	0.773	0.481**	0.201	0.667**
		127 451	0.668	0.766	0.776 0.767	0.627**	0.066	0.704**
	DEDT	12	0.697	0.765		0.533** 2.514**	0.030	0.552** 2.463**
	BERTweet		0.455	0.718	0.715	2.939**	0.016	
		127 451	0.454 0.429	0.734 0.689	0.731 0.725	2.516**	0.070 0.343*	2.609** 3.200**
	HateBERT	12	0.429	0.089	0.723	0.313*	0.343**	0.433*
	Hatebert	127	0.751	0.771	0.783	0.236	0.119	0.433*
		451	0.751	0.775	0.779	0.254	0.019	0.280*
	mBERT	12	0.666	0.738	0.742	0.621**	0.014	0.622**
	IIIDLKI	127	0.639	0.742	0.750	0.896**	0.066	0.972**
		451	0.644	0.742	0.744	0.832**	0.026	0.858**
Davidson	BERT	12	0.781	0.722	0.811	0.800**	1.229**	0.453*
Davidson	BERT	127	0.768	0.789	0.811	0.272	0.290*	0.558**
		451	0.771	0.813	0.738	0.551**	0.905**	0.355*
	BERTweet	12	0.604	0.693	0.741	0.968**	0.480**	1.472**
	BERTWEEL	127	0.701	0.777	0.821	0.937**	0.602**	1.593**
		451	0.626	0.786	0.797	1.802**	0.165	1.979**
	HateBERT	12	0.824	0.842	0.850	0.275	0.148	0.423*
		127	0.825	0.832	0.818	0.111	0.186	0.070
		451	0.813	0.829	0.843	0.195	0.200	0.397*
	mBERT	12	0.724	0.759	0.723	0.428*	0.443*	0.018
		127	0.698	0.764	0.713	0.850**	0.670**	0.127
		451	0.713	0.723	0.754	0.135	0.389*	0.522**
Founta	BERT	12	0.891	0.892	0.892	0.030	0.010	0.040
		127	0.890	0.894	0.891	0.168	0.128	0.046
		451	0.892	0.893	0.894	0.028	0.042	0.069
	BERTweet	12	0.861	0.876	0.873	0.383*	0.042	0.301*
		127	0.855	0.879	0.873	0.693**	0.157	0.523**
		451	0.863	0.870	0.873	0.174	0.078	0.261
	HateBERT	12	0.886	0.888	0.890	0.047	0.074	0.126
		127	0.883	0.886	0.888	0.086	0.053	0.134
		451	0.881	0.884	0.885	0.074	0.040	0.118
	mBERT	12	0.840	0.849	0.846	0.224	0.058	0.162
		127	0.839	0.849	0.845	0.267	0.108	0.168
		451	0.840	0.852	0.848	0.327*	0.108	0.209
OLID	BERT	12	0.672	0.685	0.720	0.028	0.154	0.185
		127	0.675	0.708	0.672	0.165	0.185	0.023
		451	0.640	0.733	0.677	0.311*	0.149	0.145
	BERTweet	12	0.419	0.674	0.630	1.051**	0.160	0.817**
	BERTWEEL	127	0.506	0.722	0.608	1.015**	0.530**	0.412*
		451	0.453	0.707	0.582	0.966**	0.483**	0.455**
	HateBERT	12	0.659	0.742	0.730	0.421*	0.074	0.341*
	THEOLIG	127	0.623	0.712	0.726	0.388*	0.097	0.503**
		451	0.674	0.699	0.726	0.147	0.113	0.260
	mBERT	12	0.507	0.555	0.591	0.172	0.162	0.328*
		127	0.538	0.617	0.647	0.239	0.117	0.348*
		451	0.574	0.614	0.504	0.125	0.353*	0.226
hatexplain label	BERT	12	0.661	0.661	0.685	0.010	0.358*	0.363*
r		127	0.677	0.679	0.676	0.045	0.037	0.009
		451	0.674	0.688	0.692	0.230	0.035	0.274
	BERTweet	12	0.621	0.663	0.655	0.551**	0.112	0.437*
		127	0.616	0.651	0.619	0.478**	0.430*	0.036
		451	0.626	0.680	0.683	0.764**	0.031	0.763**
	HateBERT	12	0.691	0.697	0.714	0.076	0.228	0.309*
		127	0.677	0.705	0.709	0.391*	0.067	0.450*
		451	0.708	0.715	0.724	0.097	0.150	0.238
	mBERT	12	0.655	0.660	0.663	0.052	0.047	0.101
	_	127	0.658	0.670	0.658	0.163	0.163	0.002
		451	0.647	0.654	0.637	0.086	0.240	0.155
Dynabench	BERT	12	0.658	0.673	0.663	0.316*	0.219	0.086
-		127	0.648	0.637	0.681	0.226	0.851**	0.640**
		451	0.663	0.663	0.674	0.020	0.201	0.231
	BERTweet	12	0.622	0.628	0.564	0.128	1.271**	1.105**
		127	0.590	0.607	0.496	0.381*	2.464**	2.076**
		451	0.571	0.611	0.608	0.825**	0.065	0.771**
	HateBERT	12	0.686	0.707	0.703	0.493**	0.095	0.367*
		127	0.681	0.657	0.702	0.512**	0.969**	0.461*
		451	0.685	0.709	0.696	0.532**	0.282*	0.232
	mBERT	12	0.641	0.644	0.547	0.052	1.894**	1.908**
		127	0.577	0.648	0.649	1.621**	0.018	1.514**
		451	0.626	0.650	0.648	0.490**	0.036	0.459*
Toxigen	BERT	12	0.777	0.800	0.801	1.407**	0.052	1.468**
5.		127	0.776	0.802	0.802	1.450**	0.003	1.509**
		451	0.778	0.801	0.801	1.368**	0.000	1.407**
	BERTweet	12	0.753	0.770	0.770	0.898**	0.062	0.916**
		127	0.753	0.770	0.769	0.723**	0.002	0.670**
		451	0.753	0.771	0.772	1.033**	0.045	1.111**
	HateBERT	12	0.733	0.806	0.772	1.882**	0.043	1.986**
	- AUCDENI	127	0.777	0.807	0.808	1.557**	0.162	1.989**
				0.007	0.000	1.001	0.110	1.707
					0.807	1 534**	0.070	1 530**
	mBFRT	451	0.777	0.806	0.807	1.534**	0.070	1.539**
	mBERT				0.807 0.758 0.758	1.534** 1.182** 1.228**	0.070 0.061 0.017	1.539** 1.233** 1.250**

Table 14: **RQ5:** Comparison of maximum macro F1 obtained under varying MLP seed (ms) for the simple (S), medium (M) and complex (C) classification heads (CH). $CH_{x,y}$ captures the difference in performance when comparing the given configuration under heads x and y. ES stands for effect size. ** and * indicates whether the difference in maximum macro F1 is significant by ≤ 0.05 and ≤ 0.001 p-value, respectively.

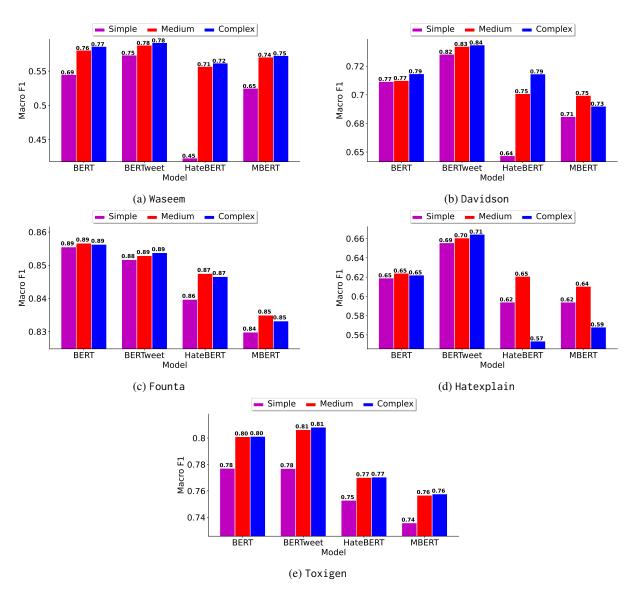


Figure 9: **RQ5:** Extending from Figure 5 to rest of 5 datasets – Macro F1 scores (averaged over MLP seeds ms) employing BERT-variants (BERT, BERTweet, HateBERT, and mBERT). Classification heads of varying complexity (simple, medium, and complex) are utilized to capture their effect on BERT-variants employed for hate detection.