

Overview of the CLEF-2025 CheckThat! Lab: Subjectivity, Fact-Checking, Claim Normalization, and Retrieval

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<https://checkthat.gitlab.io>

Abstract. This paper presents the eighth edition of the CheckThat! lab, part of the 2025 Conference and Labs of the Evaluation Forum (CLEF). As in previous editions of CheckThat!, the lab offers tasks from the core of the verification pipeline, including check-worthiness, identifying previously fact-checked claims, supporting evidence retrieval, and claim verification as well as auxiliary tasks addressing different facets of individual steps of the pipeline: Task 1 is on identification of subjectivity (a follow-up of the CheckThat! 2024 edition), which is related to the check-worthiness task, Task 2 is on claim normalization, Task 3 addresses fact-checking numerical claims, and Task 4 focuses on scientific web discourse processing. These challenging classification and retrieval problems are offered in different mono-, multi- and crosslingual settings covering more than 20 languages. This year, CheckThat! was one of the most popular labs at CLEF-2025 in terms of team registrations: 177 teams registered, almost half of them actually participating (a total of 83 teams) and 54 submitted system description papers.

Keywords: Fact-Checking · Check-Worthiness · Subjectivity · Claim verification

1 Introduction

The primary goal of CheckThat! is to promote the development of technology and resources to assist different tasks along the fact-checking verification pipeline,

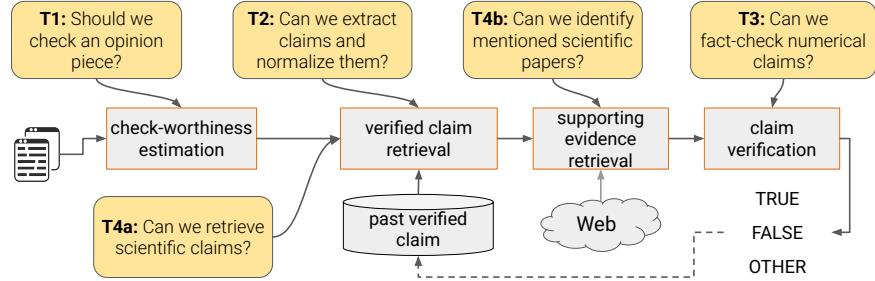


Fig. 1: The CheckThat! verification pipeline, featuring the four core tasks along with the CheckThat!2025 tasks.

as well as auxiliary tasks that support the process. During the first five iterations of the lab the main focus was set on the core tasks of the verification pipeline (see Figure 1). From the sixth edition [16] on, the lab has widened the focus and opened up for auxiliary tasks helping to address the different steps of the pipeline.

This year [6] we offered four tasks with multiple mono-, multi- and cross-lingual settings covering more than 20 languages. Task 1 [58] is a follow-up of CheckThat! 2023 and 2024 editions dealing with the subjectivity of sentences in news articles, in order to spot text that should be processed with specific strategies [55], potentially benefiting the fact checking pipeline [43,44,83]. Task 2 [77] addresses the challenge of claims buried within noisy, unstructured social media posts and asks to normalize the claim into unambiguous, check-worthy statements. Task 3 [82] tackles the challenge associated with verifying numerical and temporal claims. Task 4 [35] focuses on scientific web discourse offering two subtasks, firstly asking participants to classify different forms of science-related online discourse, and secondly asking participants to identify the source of an informal reference made in social media posts.

As in previous editions, CheckThat! was one of the most popular tasks at CLEF, attracting a total of 177 registrations and 83 actively participating teams, using a variety of approaches to the different tasks, mainly based on the encoding and decoding of large language models combined with different sources of information.

2 Previously on the CheckThat! Lab

In the past seven iterations, the CheckThat! lab have offered a variety of tasks from the verification pipeline, in a multitude of languages and in different domains. An overview is given in Table 1.

The first two editions of the lab in 2018 and 2019 focused on check-worthiness and claim verification of political debates and speeches in Arabic and English, with an additional focus on fact-checking by a task on classifying and ranking

Table 1: Overview of the tasks offered in the previous editions of the lab.

tasks	years	domains	languages
	2018 2019 2020 2021 2022 2023 2024 [*]	debates speeches tweets web pages news articles	Arabic Bulgarian Dutch English French Georgian German Greek Hindi (code-mixed) Italian Polish Portuguese Russian Slovenian Spanish Turkish
check-worthiness estimation verified claim retrieval supporting evidence retrieval claim verification fake news detection bias subjectivity topic identification authority finding adversarial robustness persuasion			

supporting evidence from the web in the second edition. The 2020 edition [17] covered the complete verification pipeline, with check-worthiness estimation, verified claim and supporting evidence retrieval, and claim verification, for the first time including social media data. The 2021 edition focused on multilinguality, offering tasks in five languages [50]. It also offered a fake news detection task, where the focus was on news articles, which was also continued in 2022.

The 2023 year’s edition of the CheckThat! lab [16] paid special attention to the various sub-aspects of check-worthiness estimation, subjectivity of news articles, factuality, bias, authority findings, again in a multitude of languages. Transformer-based models were extensively used. This edition has also introduced multimodality for check-worthiness estimation.

3 Description of the 2025 Tasks

The 2025 edition of CheckThat! featured a total of four tasks in a variety of languages and modalities, three of which were run for the first time (cf. Sections 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4). Moreover, two of the tasks had two subtasks each (cf. Sections 3.1 and 3.3).

3.1 Task 1: Subjectivity in News Articles

Verifiable claims are not only expressed through objective and neutral statements, but can also appear in subjectively framed ones. While objective sentences can be directly assessed for verification, subjective ones require additional processing, such as extracting their underlying objective content or any embedded claims. Consequently, the goal of this task is to determine whether a given sentence

is subjective or objective. This is framed as a binary classification problem and is available in Arabic, Bulgarian, English, German, Italian, as well as in a multilingual setting. In this 2025 edition, the task of subjectivity in news articles also provides a zero-shot setting: a model is trained on data regarding certain languages and tested on data concerning unseen languages. In particular, we consider Greek, Romanian, Polish and Ukrainian as unseen languages and Arabic, Bulgarian, English, German, and Italian as training languages. A more detailed description and discussion of the task can be found in [75].

3.2 Task 2: Claim Normalization

Social media platforms impose minimal restrictions on writing, allowing users to post in vague and informal language. These posts often mix personal opinions, rhetorical questions, and incomplete information. This blend makes it difficult to identify clear claims – statements that assert something as true and can be verified or disproven [33]. As a result, fact-checkers face the difficult task of extracting concrete, check-worthy claims from noisy and unstructured content.

Claim Normalization addresses this challenge by transforming informal social media content into clear, concise, and verifiable statements, referred to as normalized claims [76]. These normalized claims capture the core factual assertion, making the fact-checking process more efficient and focused. This task is especially important in low-resource and multilingual settings, where identifying verifiable claims across language boundaries introduces additional complexity.

The task operates in two settings: monolingual and zero-shot. In the monolingual setting, training, development, and test datasets are provided for the same language. The model is trained, validated, and tested exclusively within this single language, allowing it to learn language-specific structures and patterns. Languages included in this setup are: English, German, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Hindi, Marathi, Punjabi, Tamil, Arabic, Thai, Indonesian, and Polish. In contrast, the zero-shot setting provides only the test data for the target language, without any corresponding training or development data. Participants may train their models using data from other languages or conduct zero-shot experiments with large language models (LLMs), evaluating performance on the target language without prior exposure. This setup tests the model’s ability to generalize to unseen languages. Languages in this setting are: Dutch, Romanian, Bengali, Telugu, Korean, Greek, and Czech.

3.3 Task 3 Fact-Checking Numerical Claims

Task 3 is addressing the last task of the verification pipeline focusing on numerical claims (cf. Section 5.3).

There has been growing interest in developing tools [70], methods [32], and benchmarks [14,67] to enhance the fact-checking process. Automating fact-checking is challenging, as many claims are complex and require sophisticated reasoning for accurate validation, especially those involving numerical data. Numerical claims often appear more credible due to the *Numeric-Truth effect* [61],

leading to uncritical acceptance. Recent studies show verifying numerical claims is more difficult than non-numerical ones [81,9]. For example, the social media claim that “CDC quietly deletes 6,000 COVID vaccine deaths from its website” exaggerates a clerical correction, causing unnecessary panic. This demonstrates the need for automated verification of such misleading claims.

This task focuses on verifying claims with numerical quantities and temporal expressions. Numerical claims are defined as those requiring validation of explicit or implicit quantitative or temporal details. Participants must classify each claim as *True*, *False*, or *Conflicting* based on a short list of evidence. Each claim is accompanied by the top-100 pieces of evidence retrieved using BM25 from our collection. These evidences can be used after re-ranking to perform claim verification with a classification or generative model that can perform the task of Natural language Inference (NLI). The objective here is to also evaluate the numerical reasoning capabilities of the claim verification model. The task is available in English, Spanish, and Arabic.

3.4 Task 4 Scientific Web Discourse Processing

Scientific web discourse, e.g., discourse about scientific claims or resources on the social web, has increased substantially throughout the past years [27,20]. However, scientific web discourse is usually informal, with examples such as “*covid vaccines just don’t work on children*”, and displays fuzzy/incomplete citation habits, such as “*Stanford study shows that vaccines don’t work*” where the actual study is never cited through explicit references. This poses challenges both from a computational perspective when mining social media or computing Altmetrics, but also from a societal perspective, leading to poorly informed online debates [56]. Based on this motivation, we introduce two tasks that are related to the second and third task of the verification pipeline:

- **Subtask 4a Scientific Web Discourse Detection:** Given a social media post (tweet), detect if it contains (1) a scientific claim, (2) a reference to a scientific study/publication, or (3) mentions of scientific entities, e.g. a university or scientist.
- **Subtask 4b Claim-source Retrieval:** Given an implicit reference to a scientific paper, i.e., a social media post (tweet) that mentions a research publication without a URL, retrieve the mentioned paper from a pool of candidate papers.

Refer to [35] for a detailed overview of **Task 4**, the dataset, and the participants’ approaches.

4 Datasets

The following section describes the datasets developed for the individual tasks and distributed to the scientific community.¹

¹ All datasets are available in the GitLab repository of the lab: https://gitlab.com/checkthat_lab/clef2025-checkthat-lab/

Table 2: **Task 1: Subjectivity in News Articles.** Dataset statistics for all five languages for which we report training and development data splits.

	Training Languages									
	Arabic		Bulgarian		English		German		Italian	
	obj	subj	obj	subj	obj	subj	obj	subj	obj	subj
Train	1,391	1,055	379	312	532	298	492	308	1,231	382
Dev	266	201	167	139	240	222	317	174	490	177
Dev-test	425	323	134	107	362	122	153	71	334	128
Test	727	309	-	-	215	85	229	118	192	107
Total	2,809	1,888	689	558	1,349	727	1,191	671	2,247	794
	Unseen Languages									
	Greek		Polish		Romanian		Ukrainian			
	obj	subj	obj	subj	obj	subj	obj	subj		
Test	236	48	161	154	154	52	219	78		

4.1 Task 1: Subjectivity in News Articles

The dataset comprises sentences from news paper articles annotated with respect to their subjectivity. Information regarding the annotation guidelines can be found in [57]. The dataset included 4,697, 1,247, 2,076, 1,862 and 3,041 instances in Arabic (see [78] for more detail), Bulgarian, English, German, and Italian, respectively. Table 2 shows statistics. We provided a training set for the multilingual scenario, comprising the training data for all languages offered this year. The same holds for the dev and dev-test sets. The test set included only data from the languages offered in this edition. The participants were free to choose from the multilingual datasets, opening room for cross-lingual approaches. For the zero-shot setting, the unseen test sets statistics are as follows: 284 instances for Greek (236 OBJ, 48 SUBJ), 351 for Polish (161 OBJ, 154 SUBJ), 206 for Romanian (154 OBJ, 52 SUBJ), and 298 for Ukrainian (219 OBJ, 78 SUBJ).

4.2 Task 2: Claim Normalization

The posts originate from various social media platforms, such as Twitter, Reddit, Facebook, etc., and are sourced from the Google Fact-check Explorer API² and the Claim Review Schema.³ Each post is paired with a corresponding normalized claim. We provide train, dev and test data for Arabic, German, English, French, Hindi, Marathi, Indonesian, Punjabi, Polish, Portuguese, Spanish, Tamil and Thai. While low-resource languages like Bengali, Czech, Greek, Korean, Romanian, Telugu, and Dutch are considered for zero-shot settings. The data statistics are provided in Table 3. The systems are evaluated using the METEOR score.

² <https://toolbox.google.com/factcheck/apis>

³ <https://schema.org/ClaimReview>

Table 3: **Task 2: Claim Normalization.** Dataset statistics for all 20 languages.

Split	Arabic	Bengali	Czech	German	Greek	English	French	Hindi	Korean	Marathi
Train	470	0	0	386	0	11,374	1,174	1,081	0	137
Dev	118	0	0	101	0	1,171	147	50	0	50
Test	100	81	123	100	156	1,285	148	100	274	100
Split	Indonesian	Dutch	Punjabi	Polish	Portuguese	Romanian	Spanish	Tamil	Telugu	Thai
Train	540	0	445	163	1,735	0	3,458	102	0	244
Dev	137	0	50	41	223	0	439	50	0	61
Test	100	177	100	100	225	141	439	100	116	100

Example: Claim decomposition example

Claim: Discretionary spending has increased over 20-some percent in two years if you don't include the stimulus. If you put in the stimulus, it's over 80 percent.

- [Decomposition]:** [Q1]: Has discretionary spending increased in the past two years?
 [Q2]: Does the increase in discretionary spending exclude the stimulus?
 [Q3]: Is there evidence to support the claim that

Fig. 2: Example for claim decomposition

4.3 Task 3: Fact-Checking Numerical Claims

The dataset is collected from various fact-checking domains through Google Fact-check Explorer API⁴, complete with detailed metadata and an evidence corpus sourced from the web. Our pipeline filters out numerical claims for the task. An overview of dataset statistics is shown in Table 4. We use the train and validation sets from the English dataset released in [81], and also curate Arabic and Spanish claims. For the test set we collect new real-world English numerical claims additionally to the evaluation set released in [81] to avoid label leakage. The Arabic dataset only consists of claims belonging to the categories *True* and *False* for verification, as real-world distribution of conflicting claims for Arabic is too low.

Evidence for claims in all languages were obtained from search engines by excluding fact-checking websites to avoid leakage of fact-checker justification and verdict. For each claim, we decompose them to yes/no type sub-questions as shown in Figure 2, and issue the original claim and generated sub-questions as queries to the search engines. Additionally, for English, evidences are also obtained by other decomposition approaches like sub-claim generation to increase diversity of evidence pool. All evidences are pooled to form the collection. Macro-

⁴ <https://toolbox.google.com/factcheck/apis>

Table 4: Dataset statistics for task 3.

	Split	English	Spanish	Arabic
Train	9,935	1,506	2,191	
Dev	3,084	377	587	
Test	3,656	1,806	482	

Table 5: Task 4a: Scientific Web Discourse Detection Dataset statistics.

Split	Cat 1	Cat 2	Cat 3	Total
Train	333	224	306	1,229
Dev	26	26	34	137
Test	121	56	97	240
Total	480	306	437	1,606

averaged F1 and classwise F1 scores were employed as metrics for evaluating claim verification.

4.4 Task 4: Scientific Web Discourse Processing (SciWeb)

Task 4a: Scientific Web Discourse Detection The dataset for subtask 4a is an extension of the SciTweets corpus [36] and consists of 1,606 posts from X (former Twitter) annotated with the different forms of science-related online discourse as introduced in [36], which are scientific claims (Cat 1), scientific references (Cat 2), and references to science contexts or entities (Cat 3). Table 5 shows the dataset statistics.

Task 4b: Scientific Claim Source Retrieval The dataset for subtask 4b consists of two sets, a query set and a collection set. The query set contains 14,399 X (Twitter) posts with implicit references to scientific papers from CORD-19. The collection set contains metadata, such as title, abstract, and affiliations of the 7,718 CORD-19 scientific papers, which the posts from the query set implicitly refer to. The dataset is divided into a train (14253 posts), dev (1400 posts), and test split (1446 posts).

5 Results and Overview of the Systems

5.1 Task 1: Subjectivity in news Articles

A total of 21 teams participated in the task, submitting 436 valid runs across all language tracks. 16 out of the 21 teams filled in the survey for the task, providing information about their systems and approaches. 12 teams participated in more

Table 6: **Task 1:** results on subjectivity classification in news articles in terms of macro F1. Shown are the top-3 submissions per language.

Rank	Team	F1	Rank	Team	F1	Rank	Team	F1
Arabic			Italian			German		
1	CEA-LIST	0.6884	1	XplaiNLP	0.8104	1	SmolLab_SEU	0.8520
2	UmuTeam	0.5903	2	CEA-LIST	0.8075	2	UNAM	0.8280
3	Investigators	0.5880	3	SmolLab_SEU	0.7750	3	QU-NLP	0.8013
English			Multilingual			Polish		
1	QU-NLP	0.8052	1	TIFIN INDIA	0.7550	1	CEA-LIST	0.6922
2	TIFIN INDIA	0.7955	2	CEA-LIST	0.7396	2	IIT Surat	0.6676
3	CEA-LIST	0.7739	3	CSECU-Learners	0.7321	3	CSECU-Learners	0.6558
Ukrainian			Romanian			Greek		
1	CSECU-Learners	0.6424	1	QU-NLP	0.8126	1	AI Wizards	0.5067
2	Investigators	0.6413	2	CSECU-Learners	0.7992	2	SmolLab_SEU	0.4945
3	ClimateSense	0.6395	3	XplaiNLP	0.7917	3	CSECU-Learners	0.4919

Table 7: **Task 1:** Overview of the approaches.

Team	Language									Model	Misc
	Arabic	Italian	German	English	Multilingual	Polish	Ukrainian	Romanian	Greek		
AI Wizards [31]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	BERT	Data Augmentation
Investigators [37]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	MBERT	Translating data
DSGT-CheckThat [40]				✗						RoBERTa	Prompting
CSECU-Learners [4]					✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	SentimentBERT	Feature Selection
CEA-LIST [28]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	DistilRoBERTa	
IIT Surat [42]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	ModernBERT	
TIFIN INDIA [34]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	MPNet	
ClimateSense [21]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	XLM-RoBERTa	
CUET_KCRL [72]										SBERT	
nlu@utn [48]										CT-BERT	
XplaiNLP [63]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	Electra	
JU_NLP [24]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	InfoXLM	
NapierNLP [7]										Llama	
UmuTeam [18]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	GPT	
UGPLN [22]										Zephyr	
SmolLab_SEU [54]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	Qwen	
Arcturus [3]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗		
QU-NLP [5]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗		
CheckMates [51]											
UNAM [25]	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗		

than one subtask, while 5 teams opted for only the monolingual English subtask. Table 6 shows the results achieved by the top-3 ranking teams for each language.

Most teams used a supervised binary classification approach, treating the task as classifying sentences into subjective (SUBJ) or objective (OBJ). The

dominant strategy involved fine-tuning transformer-based models, with some using ensembles, data augmentation, or additional linguistic features. A few teams explored probabilistic thresholds, embedding-based classifiers, or LLM-based zero-shot and in-context learning methods. An overview of the approaches is given in Table 11 and a short description of the individual approaches for each team is given in the following.

Team **AI Wizards** [31] employed a probabilistic classifier with a decision threshold, fine-tuning DeBERTaV3 for the task.

Team **Investigators** [37] utilized decoder-based models including DeBERTa, BERT, Multilingual BERT, and Twitter RoBERTa.

Team **DSGT-CheckThat** [40] fine-tuned encoder models and explored data augmentation strategies. Their models included RoBERTa (emotion-large), DistilRoBERTa, Sentiment-BERT, ModernBERT, RoBERTa-large, and MiniLM. They further enhanced performance through Synthetic Data Generation and Data Augmentation.

Team **CSECU-Learners** [4] framed the task as multiclass classification with SUBJ (subjective) and OBJ (objective) as separate classes. Their transformer models included MPNet, mDeBERTa, and Multilingual BERT.

Team **CEA-LIST** [28] fine-tuned small language models (SLMs) and experimented with LLMs through techniques such as in-context learning, LLM-as-judge, and model debating. Their models included RoBERTa, UmBERTo, ALBERTo, Qwen 2.5 70B, Meta-LLaMA 3 70B, DeepSeek 67B, Aya-Expanse-32B, and GPT-4.1-mini.

Team **IIIT Surat** [42] employed a transformer-based model, specifically BERT, implemented via BertForSequenceClassification from Hugging Face, and fine-tuned it for binary classification (SUBJ/OBJ). They used the pre-trained BERT (English, uncased) for the monolingual classifier and Multilingual BERT (cased) for multilingual and other-language classification, fine-tuning both directly on the CLEF training data.

Team **TIFIN INDIA** [34] used a binary classification approach, where each input is classified as either subjective or objective. They used an ensemble of transformer-based models and combined their probability outputs to make the final prediction post data augmentation. To mitigate data imbalance, they applied back-translation as a data augmentation technique and used the label distribution ratio to monitor and address class imbalance. They used deep learning models based on transformer encoder architectures, including BERT-Base, BERT-Large, RoBERTa-Base, RoBERTa-Large, XLM-RoBERTa-Base, XLM-RoBERTa-Large, Modern-BERT-Base, and Modern-BERT-Large. They then applied probability-level averaging (soft voting) for model fusion to ensemble predictions across these models. Additionally, for some datasets, they used a traditional Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier with TF-IDF features as a lightweight baseline and for comparative analysis. They used a feature-based approach using Support Vector Machines (SVMs) on selected datasets. The most important features included: TF-IDF vectors of unigrams and bigrams.

Team **ClimateSense** [21] used Embeddings and an MLP classifier. They experimented with various classifiers: SVC, Logistic Regression, MLP, etc. They also experimented with various transformers-based architectures for embedding the sentences: SBERT , RoBERTa-based models, ModernBERT-large, CT-BERT. Finally, they experimented with Zero-shot prompting some LLMs (such as Zephyr).

Team **CUET_KCRL** [72] pursued a supervised classification approach using an LSTM and fine-tuning mBERT.

Team **nlu@utn** [48] followed a Bert-based ensemble model approach, by also adapting the provided the training data with additional linguistic information before training, using persuasion techniques identified in the data and POS-counts. The models used were politicalBiasBERT and BERT-base-uncased.

Team **XPlaiNLP** [63] employed several transformer-based models, including XLM-RoBERTa-base, GPT o3-mini, and German-BERT. In particular, for monolingual tasks, German-BERT was fine-tuned on German and German-translated versions of English, Italian and Bulgarian train datasets.

Team **JU_NLP** [65] fine-tuned BERT model on available training data, formulating the task as a binary classification problem. In particular, they leverage hand-crafted features derived from knowledge bases and tools like SentiWordNet, WordNet, Opinion lexicon, POS taggers, and lemmatization.

Team **NapierNLP** [7] only tackled the English monolingual task by leveraging LLMs. More precisely, they employed GPT-2, GPTNeo-1.3B, and Qwen3-0.6B. The prompts provided instructions for addressing the task as a binary classification problem.

Team **UmuTeam** [18] employed a wide set of encoder-only transformers, each specific for a given language. In particular, they employed MARBERTv2 for Arabic data, GottBERT-base for German, BERTino for Italian, RoBERTa-base for English. Lastly, they used XLM-RoBERTa-base for multilingual and zero-shot tasks.

Team **UGPLN** [22] employed sentence transformers with hand-crafted linguistic features. A logistic regressor is then trained on top to perform the binary classification task. In particular, they employed MiniLM-L12-v2 and used the following hand-crafted features: presence of negation cues, sentence length (i.e., token count), punctuation marks, and lexical opinion indicators derived from the MPQA Subjectivity lexicon.

Team **SmolLab_SEU** [54] employed a vast set of encoder-only transformers, some of which are language-specific. The models are RoBERTa, DeBERTa-v3, AraBERTv2 and MARBERTv2 for Arabic, GBERT-large, GottBERT-base, and GElectra-large for German, UmBERTo-v1, and BERT-base-italian for Italian, MBERT, XLM-RoBERTa-large, InfoXLM-large, MT5-base, and MDeBERTa-v3 for multilingual. All models were fine-tuned by adding a sequence classification head on top of their pre-trained encoder layers.

Team **Arcturus** [3] fine-tuned the English-pretrained DeBERTa-v3 on monolingual datasets and evaluate it on all languages, including multilingual and zero-shot tasks.

Table 8: **Task 2:** Overview of the participating teams per language and their respective rankings.

Team	English	Arabic	German	French	Hindi	Marathi	Indonesian	Punjabi	Polish	Portuguese	Spanish	Tamil	Thai	Bengali	Telugu	Dutch	Czech	Greek	Romanian	Korean
dfkinit2b [12]	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	
DS@GT CheckThat! [53]	2	2	1	1	2	4	1	5	1	1	1	3	1	4	5	5	3	4	4	
TIFIN [71]	3	5	5	6	7	6	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	4					
AKCIT-FN [8]	4	6	3	3	5	5	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	4	2	2	
Factiverse [10]	5	7	4	4	8	9	4	7	6	6	6	8	4	6	7	5	5	5	5	
rohan_shankar	6																			
manan-tifin	7		7	9	7			5						5	6					
MMA [60]	8	3	7	8	6	3	5	6	7	4	4	6								
UNH [84]	9																			
Investigators [38]	10											8							5	
OpenFact [66]	11	4	6	5	4	2	6	3	4	5	7	4	5	2	3	3	2	3	4	
Nikhil_Kadapala	12																			
aryasuneeesh	13		5	6	7	6		4				5	5	6						
JU_NLP@M&S [49]	14																			
uhh_dem4ai	15																			
UmuTeam [19]	16	8	8	9	10	8	7	8	8	7	9	7	7	7	8	6	6	6	6	
VSE	17																			
saivineetha [15]														3					4	

Team **QU-NLP** [5] propose a feature-augmented transformer architecture that combines contextual embeddings from pre-trained language models with statistical and linguistic features. In particular, they employed AraElectra for Arabic, augmented with POS tags and TF-IDF features. For cross-lingual experiments, they employed DeBERTa-v3 with TF-IDF features through a gating mechanism.

Team **CheckMates** [51] explored various models such as logistic regression, Support Vector Machine, BERT, Sentence-BERT, and DistilBERT.

Team **UNAM** [25] used different language-specific versions of the BERT model and focused on monolingual subtasks.

More details on the participants approaches can be found in [58].

5.2 Task 2: Claim Normalization

Task 2 received submissions from 18 teams, totalling 1,226 valid runs across all the languages. Table 9 presents the results for the monolingual setup, evaluated using METEOR scores, while Table 10 reports the outcomes for the zero-shot setup. These tables summarise team performance across the respective languages.

Most teams employed sequence-to-sequence generation strategies for claim normalization, typically relying on transformer-based models. The most prevalent

Table 9: **Task 2:** Scores (METEOR) for languages with training data. Ranks across languages are in brackets.

Team	English	Arabic	German	French	Hindi	Marathi	Thai
dfkinit2b	0.4569 (1)	0.5037 (1)	0.3469 (2)	0.4703 (2)	0.3275 (1)	0.3888 (1)	0.2999 (3)
DS@GT	0.4521 (2)	0.5035 (2)	0.3859 (1)	0.5273 (1)	0.3001 (2)	0.2608 (4)	0.5859 (1)
TIFIN	0.4114 (3)	0.3705 (5)	0.2642 (5)	0.3441 (6)	0.2604 (7)	0.1521 (6)	-
AKCIT-FN	0.4058 (4)	0.3277 (6)	0.2652 (3)	0.3811 (3)	0.2706 (5)	0.2181 (5)	0.3179 (2)
Factiverse	0.4049 (5)	0.2457 (7)	0.2644 (4)	0.3750 (4)	0.2125 (8)	0.0847 (9)	0.0965 (4)
rohan_shankar	0.3920 (6)	-	-	-	-	-	-
manan-tifin	0.3881 (7)	-	-	0.2768 (7)	0.2080 (9)	0.1230 (7)	-
MMA	0.3841 (8)	0.4584 (3)	0.1556 (7)	0.2469 (8)	0.2641 (6)	0.2793 (3)	-
UNH	0.3737 (9)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Investigators	0.3565 (10)	-	-	-	-	-	-
OpenFact	0.3370 (11)	0.4175 (4)	0.2319 (6)	0.3605 (5)	0.2722 (4)	0.3048 (2)	0.0872 (5)
Nikhil_Kadapala	0.3321 (12)	-	-	-	-	-	-
aryasuneesh	0.3153 (13)	-	0.2642 (5)	0.3441 (6)	0.2604 (7)	0.1521 (6)	0.0464 (6)
JU_NLP@M&S	0.3098 (14)	-	-	-	-	-	-
uhh_dem4ai	0.2612 (15)	-	-	-	-	-	-
UmuTeam	0.1660 (16)	0.0003 (8)	0.1039 (8)	0.1649 (9)	0.0132 (10)	0.0877 (8)	0.0147 (7)
VSE	0.0070 (17)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Team	Indonesian	Punjabi	Polish	Portuguese	Spanish	Tamil	
dfkinit2b	0.5021 (2)	0.3307 (1)	0.3961 (2)	0.5744 (2)	0.5539 (2)	0.6316 (1)	
DS@GT	0.5650 (1)	0.2567 (5)	0.4065 (1)	0.5770 (1)	0.6077 (1)	0.4702 (3)	
TIFIN	-	0.2685 (4)	0.2331 (5)	-	0.3906 (5)	0.3676 (5)	
AKCIT-FN	0.3866 (3)	0.3038 (2)	0.2798 (3)	0.5290 (3)	0.5213 (3)	0.5197 (2)	
Factiverse	0.3099 (4)	0.1251 (7)	0.1964 (6)	0.3381 (6)	0.3821 (6)	0.0043 (8)	
manan-tifin	-	-	0.2331 (5)	-	-	-	
MMA	0.3089 (5)	0.1834 (6)	0.1243 (7)	0.4719 (4)	0.5094 (4)	0.3468 (6)	
Investigators	-	-	-	-	0.3447 (8)	-	
OpenFact	0.2445 (6)	0.2696 (3)	0.2666 (4)	0.3779 (5)	0.3710 (7)	0.4681 (4)	
aryasuneesh	-	0.2685 (4)	-	-	0.3906 (5)	0.3676 (5)	
UmuTeam	0.1305 (7)	0.0097 (8)	0.0742 (8)	0.1898 (7)	0.2048 (9)	0.0196 (7)	

Table 10: **Task 2:** Scores (METEOR) for languages without training data. Ranks across languages are in brackets.

approach involved fine-tuning pretrained models such as BART, T5, mBART, and LLaMA on monolingual training data. Common data preprocessing included de-duplication, emoji removal, hashtag normalization, multilingual data augmentation via translation, and prompt engineering tailored to each language. Some of the teams used LoRA-based adaptor fine-tuning to reduce resource needs, while others delved into ensemble solutions like embedding-based centroid voting or model-soup techniques. In the zero-shot setting, prompt-based generation took precedence, with models driven by structured instructions to extract factual, brief claims from informal posts. Others employed semantic similarity retrieval to choose in-context instances for prompting. To improve the relevance and structure of claims, some teams used reinforcement learning, instruction tuning, or Chain-of-Thought prompting.

Out of all the participating teams, dfkinit2b [12], DS@GT CheckThat! [53], TIFIN [71], and AKCIT-FN [8] consistently ranked among the top-performers across most languages. More details on the other participating approaches can be found in [77].

Team **dfkinit2b** [12] performed comprehensive experiments in both monolingual and zero-shot settings, testing zero- and few-shot prompting with models like Gemma-3, Qwen-3, Qwen-2.5, Llama-3.3, and Mistral. They explored various prompt formulations and used cosine similarity to select demonstrations for few-shot learning. Experiments also included adapter fine-tuning, data pre-processing with language checks and emoji removal, and data augmentation via translation. For the final submission, they ensembled top-performing model outputs by computing embedding centroids with multilingual SentenceTransformers and selecting claims closest to these centroids, achieving strong results across languages.

Team **DS@GT** [53] embedded the non-normalized claims from the pooled train and development datasets, as well as from the test set, using state-of-the-art embedding models tailored to each language. For every test claim, a GPT-4o mini model was prompted following the approach discussed in [76], utilising the top-3 most cosine-similar examples from the train and development sets as in-context examples. The final response for the monolingual task was derived by combining the best-matching answer from the train and development sets, based on cosine similarity, and the output of the GPT-4 model. For zero-shot languages, they utilised a modified version of CACN [76], essentially using the prompting method with standard examples.

Team **TIFIN** [71] fine-tuned the Qwen-14B model using LoRA with 4-bit precision for efficiency. They preprocessed data by filtering meaningful post-claim pairs, removing duplicates, and creating a unified multilingual dataset. Instruction-based fine-tuning incorporated Chain-of-Thought prompting with 5W1H questions to guide claim extraction. During inference, context resolution replaced partial posts with complete ones, and few-shot prompting with similar examples improved claim structure. This approach aimed to boost claim extraction accuracy and multilingual performance.

Team **AKCIT-FN** [8] fine-tuned sequence-to-sequence Transformer models, including monolingual and multilingual variants like unicamp-dl/monoptt5-large,

Table 11: **Task 3:** Overview of the approaches for fact-checking numerical claims.

Team	Language			Model	Macro-F1		
	Arabic	Spanish	English		Arabic	Spanish	English
LIS [45]	☒	☒	☒	BM25	50.34	96.15	59.54
DS@GT-CheckThat! [41]	☒	☒	☒	cross-encoder gpt-4o-mini	-	-	52.10
TIFIN [39]	☒	-	-	Qwen	55.36	-	55.70
ClaimIQ [11]	☒	☒	☒	Llama	-	-	42.43
FraunhoferSIT [59]	☒	☒	☒	DeepSeek	-	-	51.00
NGU_Research [1]	☒	☒	☒	ModernBERT	63.52	24.41	-
JU_NLP [23]	☒	☒	☒	Math-Roberta	36.38	-	48.83
CornellNLP [26]	☒	☒	☒	RoBERTa-base	-	-	48.57
UGLPN [80]	☒	☒	☒	QWQ-32B	-	-	45.53
UCOM_UNAM_PLN [2]	☒	☒	☒	Qwen-8B	-	35.95	-
News-polygraph*	☒	☒	☒	Deberta-Large-MNLI mxbai-rerank-large-v1	-	-	42.86
				granite-3.3-8b-instruct			
				Arabic			

unicamp-dl/ptt5-v2-large, and t5-large, focusing on monolingual training to capture language-specific features. They performed hyperparameter tuning across learning rates, optimizers, batch sizes, and epochs to optimize performance. Evaluation combined METEOR, BERTScore, and semantic similarity metrics to better assess claim fidelity. For zero-shot tasks, they leveraged OpenAI’s LLMs with carefully crafted prompts to generate concise, factual claims from informal posts in unseen languages, testing the models’ generalization capabilities.

5.3 Task 3: Fact-Checking Numerical Claims

A total of 258 valid runs were submitted by 13 unique teams across languages, with 4 participants in Spanish and Arabic. 11 teams participated in fact-checking English numerical claims.

Among all participating teams, LIS was the top performer across all languages. TIFIN, NGU_Research, DS@GT-CheckThat! performed well in the respective languages the teams participated. Most teams employed generative models like gpt-4o-mini or Qwen LLMs to decompose claims, followed by BM25 based retrieval for retrieving evidence and transformer based cross-encoder models for re-ranking the evidences. For claim verification fine-tuned transformer based NLI models were employed by some teams where transformers were trained as discriminative models on the training sets provided. Some teams employed prompting based approaches to leverage large Language Models (LLMs) like gpt-4o-mini or reasoning models like deepseek-r1 to perform claim verification. The authors observe that fine-tuning LLMs for claim verification coupled with

claim decomposition using recent reasoning models helps outperform the best baselines reported in [81].

Team **LIS** [45] used QwQ-32B to generate question followed by Linq-Embed-Mistral to retrieve evidence from the corpus by combining the questions and claims. Mistral-Small-24B-Instruct-2501 was fine-tuned to obtain the final veracity labels. The Qwen model seem to overcome certain limitations associated with gpt-3.5 and gpt-4 series models used in baselines [81].

Team **DS@GT-CheckThat!** [41] performed pre-processing to normalize the number and dates of the claims and decomposed questions from these claims. They employed gpt-4o-mini to decompose the claims. BM25 was employed for first stage retrieval to prioritize documents relevant to the claim and sub-questions. This is followed by re-ranking the documents using cross-encoder/ms-marco-MiniLM-L-12-v2 or mixedbread-ai/mxbai-rerank-large-v1. The main workhorse model for the veracity classification was ModernBERT - an optimized model based on the BERT architecture, that can natively support longer sequence length.

Team **TIFIN** [39] employed inverse class weighting to handle class imbalance in claim verification step and to give more importance to minority classes. they also employed other strategies such as oversampling to balance training examples, and label smoothing to prevent the model from becoming overconfident in its predictions. The authors also incorporated Focal Loss, for fine-tuning the verification model *microsoft/deberta-large-mnl* with LoRA, to focus training on the harder examples. They also employed *ibm-granite/granite-3.3-8b-instruct model* to summarize contexts before feeding them to the verification model.

Team **NGU – Research** [1] employed hybrid retrieval techniques ranging from pretrained encoder-based models to BGE , E5, Gemini as embedding models and finally settled on pretrained embeddings from openai’s **text-embedding-3-large** model together with bm25 filtering via Qdrant database collections for each language. Then finally Deepseek and gpt-4o-mini were employed for performing claim verification using the retrieved evidence.

5.4 Task 4: Scientific Web Discourse Processing (SciWeb)

Task 4a: Scientific Web Discourse Detection Task 4a is a multilabel classification task and was evaluated through the macro-averaged F1-score. The baseline is a DeBERTaV3-base model trained on the train set for 10 epochs with a learning rate of $2e^{-5}$ and a batch size of 16. For the final test set predictions, we used the checkpoint with the best dev set performance, resulting in a test set macro F1-score of 0.7668 (rank 7).

In total, ten teams participated in subtask 4a. Table 12 provides an overview of the different approaches and their performances for those teams that submitted a paper description of their work. The F1-score and rank indicate the performance and position on the final test set leaderboard. Most teams relied on Transformer-based models such as DeBERTa-v3, SciBERT, and Twitter-Roberta, while team DS@GT CheckThat! [52] and TurQUaz [64] also used LLMs. In addition, different

Table 12: **Task 4a:** Overview of the approaches

Team	Models	Misc.	Perf.
	DeBERTa-v3 SciBERT Twitter-RoBERTa LLMs Others	Data Augmentation Ensemble Other Optimizations	Macro-avg. F1-Score Rank
ClimateSense [21]	■	■	0.7998 1
UTB-CEDNAV [73]	■	■	0.7983 2
SBU-SCIRE [79]	■	■	0.7917 4
DS@GT CheckThat! [52]	■	■	0.7685 6
DeBERTa-v3 Baseline	■		0.7668 7
TurQUaz [64]	■	■	0.7615 8
JU_NLP [46]	■	■	0.7347 9

techniques such as LLM-based data augmentation, ensemble methods, and other optimizations were employed.

Team **ClimateSense** [21] fine-tuned a twitter-roberta-base-2022-154m model with a weighted loss. For each category, the best-performing checkpoint was identified based on the dev set performance. Using the embeddings of these checkpoints, a traditional classifier was trained for each category.

Team **UTB-CEDNAV** [73] fine-tuned a DeBERTa-v3-base model using hyperparameters found with 5-fold cross-validation. To improve performance, they employed class weighting and threshold-tuning and used an ensemble of their two strongest model (with and without class weight) for their final submission.

Team **SBU-SCIRE** [79] augmented the training data with paraphrases using DeepSeek-R1. They trained a DeBERTa-v3-large model with a Focal Loss on the train set and performed a grid search over the per-class threshold to maximize the performance on the dev set.

Team **DS@GT** [52] trained different transformer-based models and used zero-shot and few-shot classification with GPT-4o and GPT-4o mini. For their final submission, they used DeBERTa-v3-base for categories one and three and GPT-4o mini with few-shot (five examples based on semantic similarity) for category two.

Team **TurQUaz** [64] employed various LLMs in different collaborative settings. The setting for their final submission includes five models discussing a post together to reach an agreement, with another model acting as a chairperson.

Team **JU_NLP** [46] generated tweet embeddings using SciBERT and Twitter-RoBERTa models to capture both scientific and social media discourse characteristics of tweets. The embeddings were used to train a two-layer classification head.

Task 4b: Scientific Claim Source Retrieval Task 4b is a retrieval task and was evaluated by the MRR@5 (Mean Reciprocal Rank) score. BM25 ranking using the title and abstract of the papers and the text of the X posts serves as the baseline with an MMR@5 of 0.43. The best-performing team reached an MMR@5 of 0.68.

In total, 30 teams participated in subtask 4b. Table 13 provides an overview of the different approaches and their performance for teams that submitted a paper description of their work. Most teams relied on a combination of retrieval methods (dense, sparse, or both) and re-ranking models. Retrieval methods included both lexical and semantic methods. LLMs such as ChatGPT, LLaMa and Gemma were mainly used as re-rankers, but did not always outperform fine-tuned Transformer-based models. Additionally, some teams experimented with data augmentation and style transfer techniques.

Team **AIRwaves** [13] employed a two-stage pipeline using neural representation learning for candidate generation with a fine-tuned E5-large model, followed by neural re-ranking with a SciBERT cross-encoder to re-order the top predictions.

Team **Deep Retrieval** [62] combined lexical BM25-based and semantic search-based approaches to generate candidates, which were re-ranked using LLMs.

Team **ATOM** [74] used a GTR-T5-Large model to retrieve candidates, followed by a neural re-ranking with MXBAI-base-v2.

Team **SBU-SCIRE** [79] used a Snowflake/snowflake-arctic-embed-l-v2.0 for dense retrieval, followed by ms-marco-MiniLM-L4-v2 re-ranking.

Team **SeRRa** [47] used a multi-step pipeline including dense retrieval for candidate generation with a Sentence-BERT model, re-ranking using a binary classification model, and a final ranking through pairwise comparisons of the top 10 re-ranked documents with the input claim.

Team **Claim2Source** [69] first applied style transfer techniques to both claims and source documents using LLaMa 3.3-70B-Instruct (e.g., enhancing readability, adopting a scientific tone, or reformulating the abstract as a tweet). They then combined BM25 with dense retrieval models such as SPECTER, all-Mini-LM-L6-v2, and GritLM-7B.

Team **DS@GT** [68] used data-augmentation and style transfer techniques on tweets using ChatGPT. They then implemented a two-stage retrieval pipeline based on bi-encoder and cross-encoder approaches for retrieval and reranking using zero-shot and fine-tuned Sentence-Transformers.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

This paper presents the eighth edition of the CheckThat!, one of the most popular labs at CLEF 2025. This year, 177 teams registered, of which 83 actively participated and 54 submitted working notes. The number of languages covered also increased to 20, spanning four tasks—surpassing all previous years and establishing a truly multilingual task setup.

Table 13: **Task 4b:** Overview of the approaches

Team	Models	Misc.	Perf.
	Dense Retrieval Sparse Retrieval Re-ranking LLMs	Data Augmentation Style transfer	MRR@5 Rank
AIRwaves [13]	■ ■		0.67 2
Deep Retrieval [62]	■ ■ ■ ■		0.66 3
ATOM [74]	■ ■ ■ ■		0.66 4
SBU-SCIRE [79]	■ ■ ■ ■		0.65 5
SeRRa [47]	■ ■ ■ ■		0.61 8
Claim2Source [69]	■ ■ ■ ■	■	0.59 12
DS@GT [68]	■ ■ ■ ■	■ ■	0.58 16
BM25 Baseline	■		0.43 28

In this edition, Task 1 focused on predicting the subjectivity or objectivity of sentences; Task 2 addressed claim normalization; Task 3 targeted numerical factual claims; and Task 4 examined scientific web discourse. Among the tasks, Task 1 was particularly popular, with a total of 21 teams participating. Most teams relied on fine-tuning transformer models for binary classification. Some teams also utilized and fine-tuned Large Language Models (LLMs) such as Llama and Qwen. For the claim normalization task (Task 2), most teams employed sequence-to-sequence generation approaches. This task received participation from 18 teams, with English attracting the highest number of participants. In Task 3, which focused on fact-checking numerical claims, 13 teams took part. Most systems used LLMs to decompose the claims and employed BM25 for retrieval. For the scientific web discourse detection task (Task 4a), ten teams participated, primarily using transformer-based models. In Task 4b, which focused on claim source retrieval, 30 teams participated and predominantly used various sparse and dense retrieval-based approaches.

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