DoDo Learning: Domain-Demographic Transfer in Language Models for Detecting Abuse Targeted at Public Figures

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Abstract

Public figures receive disproportionate levels of abuse on social media, impacting their active participation in public life. Automated systems can identify abuse at scale but labelling training data is expensive and potentially harmful. So, it is desirable that systems are efficient and generalisable, handling shared and specific aspects of abuse. We explore the dynamics of cross-group text classification in order to understand how well models trained on one domain or demographic can transfer to others, with a view to building more generalisable abuse classifiers. We fine-tune language models to classify tweets targeted at public figures using our novel DoDo dataset, containing $28{,}000$ entries with fine-grained labels, split equally across four Domain-Demographic pairs (male and female footballers and politicians). We find that (i) small amounts of diverse data are hugely beneficial to generalisation and adaptation; (ii) models transfer more easily across demographics but cross-domain models are more generalisable; (iii) some groups contribute more to generalisability than others; and (iv) dataset similarity is a signal of transferability.

Keywords: cross-domain, abuse detection, generalisability

Content Warning: We include some synthetic examples of the dataset schema to illustrate its contents.

Data Release Statement: Due to institutional guidelines concerning privacy issues (Appendix A), we are unable to release the DoDo dataset.

1. Introduction

Civil discussion between public figures and citizens is a key component of a well-functioning democratic society (Dewey, 1927; Rowe, 2015; Papacharissi, 2004). Social media has opened new channels of communication and permitted greater access between users and public figures (Doidge, 2015; Ward and McLoughlin, 2020); becoming an important tool for self-promotion, message spreading and maintaining a dialogue with fans, followers or the electorate (Farrington et al., 2014), beyond traditional media gatekeeping (Coleman, 1999, 2005; Coleman and Spiller, 2003; Williamson, 2009). However, there is a cost: the immediacy, ease and anonymity of online interactions has routinised the problem of abuse (Suler, 2004; Shulman, 2009; Brown, 2009; Joinson et al., 2009; Rowe, 2015; Ward and McLoughlin, 2020). Public figures attract more intrusive and abusive attention than average users of online platforms (Mullen et al., 2009; Meloy et al., 2008), and abuse directed towards them is both highly-public yet often grounded in highly-personal attacks (Erikson et al., 2021). There are detrimental effects to individual victims' mental health, which can ultimately result in their withdrawal from public life (Vidgen et al., 2021a; Delisle et al., 2019), and to society from normalising a culture of abuse and hate (Ingle, 2021). Disengagement is particularly worrisome for the functioning of democracy and political representation as it might be spread unevenly across groups (Theocharis et al., 2016; Greenwood et al., 2019; Ward and McLoughlin, 2020), e.g. women MPs being more likely to leave politics than men (Manning and Kemp, 2019).

Tackling abuse against public figures is a pressing issue, but the volume of social media posts makes manual investigations challenging, and conclusions drawn from anecdotal self-reporting or small sample size surveys offer limited and potentially biased coverage of the problem (Ward and McLoughlin, 2020). Automated systems based on machine learning or language models can be used to classify text at scale, but depend on labelling training data which is complex, expensive to collect and potentially psychologically harmful to annotators (Kirk et al., 2022c).

In this context, it is highly desirable to develop abuse classifiers that can perform well across a range of different target groups whilst being trained on a minimal 'labelling budget'. However, this may be technically challenging because, while some properties of abuse are shared across settings, dif-

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ferent *domains* (e.g., sport, politics or journalism) introduce linguistic and distributional shifts. Furthermore, previous reports reveal that the nature of online abuse is heavily influenced by the identity attributes of its targets, for example gendered abuse against female politicians (Bardall, 2013; Stambolieva, 2017; Erikson et al., 2021; Delisle et al., 2019); so, learnings from different *demographics* may also not transfer. Exploring the effect of distributional shifts on model performance is useful for computational social scientists studying real-world phenomena, and for policymakers aiming to understand how to tackle online harm.

Despite the promise of generalisable abuse models for protecting more groups from harm, existing research focuses on fuzzy, keyword based definitions of domains, leading to datasets sourced around topics as opposed to target groups, and there is a lack of systematic study on the extent to which models trained on some combination of target groups can transfer to others. In this paper, we ask how well classifiers trained on data from specific factorisations of groups of public figures can transfer to others, with a view to building more generalisable models. Our novel DoDo dataset is collected from Twitter/X[1] and contains tweets targeted at public figures across two Domains (UK members of parliament or "MPs", and professional footballer players) and two Demographic groups (women and men). Tweets are annotated with four fine-grained labels to disambiguate abuse from other sentiments like criticism. We present results from experiments exploring the impacts of data diversity and number of training examples on domain-demographic transfer and generalisability.

2. Dataset

2.1. Data Collection

Our data is collected from Twitter. While generally over-researched (Vidgen and Derczynski, 2020), it is a dominant source for interactions between public figures and the general public. Most MPs have Twitter accounts and Twitter activity may even have a small impact on elections (Bright et al., 2020).

We compiled lists of accounts for UK MPs (590 accounts, 384 men, 206 women) and for players from England's top football divisions (808 from the Men's Premier League, 216 from the Women's Super League). We used the Twitter API Filtered Stream and Full Archive Search endpoints to collect all tweets that mention a public figure's account over a given time window.[2]

Levels of abusive content 'in-the-wild' are relatively low (Vidgen et al., 2019). In order to evaluate classifiers on realistic distributions while maximising their ability to detect abusive content, we randomly sample the test and validation datasets (preserving real-world class imbalance) but apply boosted sampling for the training dataset (ensuring the model sees enough instances of the rarer abusive class). We sample $7,000$ tweets in total for each domain-demographic pair: a $3,000$ train split, a $3,000$ test split, and a $1,000$ validation split.

Appendix D provides more detail on data collection, processing, and sampling.

2.2. Data Annotation

In the context of abuse detection, fine-grained labels can provide clarity for annotators, and enable more extensive error analysis, compared to binary labels. We employed annotators to label tweets with one of 4 classes of sentiment expressed towards public figures: Positive, Neutral, Critical, or Abusive, as defined below.[3]

1. **Positive:** Language that expresses support, praise, respect or encouragement towards an individual or group. It can praise specific skills, behaviours, or achievements, as well as encourage diversity and the representation of identities.
2. **Neutral:** Language with an unemotive tone or that does not fit the criteria of the other three categories, including factual statements, event descriptions, questions or objective remarks.
3. **Critical:** Language that makes a substantive negative assessment or claim about an individual or group. Negative assessment can be based on factors such as behaviour, performance, responsibilities, or actions, without being abusive.[4]
4. **Abusive:** Language containing threats, insults, derogatory remarks (e.g., hateful use of slurs and negative stereotypes), dehumanisation (e.g., comparing individuals to insects, animals, or trash), mockery, or belittlement towards an individual, group, or protected identity attribute (The Equality Act (2010)).

The two domains were annotated sequentially in batches, but we updated our approach after the first batch as we found that crowdworkers struggled with the complexity of our task (see Appendix B for

[1]Twitter has recently rebranded as "X". As the DoDo dataset was collected before the rebrand, we refer to the platform as Twitter exclusively.

[2]A similar approach is adopted in prior work that tracks public figure abuse (Gorrell et al., 2020; Ward and McLoughlin, 2020; Rheault et al., 2019).

[3]Labels are assigned based on the use of language, not the target of sentiment expressed.

[4]The annotator guidelines focused on distinguishing between abuse and criticism. Criticism must include a rationale for negative opinions on an individual's actions (not their identity)—it is not a form of "soft" abuse.

Split	Stance	dodo							
		fb-m		*fb-w*		*mp-m*		*mp-w*	
Train	Abusive	867	*29%*	481	*16%*	1007	*34%*	870	*29%*
	Critical	475	*16%*	282	*9%*	1283	*43%*	1353	*45%*
	Neutral	647	*21%*	719	*24%*	605	*20%*	628	*21%*
	Positive	1011	*34%*	1518	*51%*	105	*3%*	149	*5%*
Test	Abusive	103	*3%*	43	*1%*	392	*13%*	373	*12%*
	Critical	377	*13%*	89	*3%*	1467	*49%*	1471	*49%*
	Neutral	811	*27%*	767	*26%*	985	*33%*	927	*31%*
	Positive	1709	*57%*	2101	*70%*	156	*5%*	229	*8%*
Validation	Abusive	33	*3%*	14	*1%*	140	*14%*	135	*13%*
	Critical	93	*9%*	45	*5%*	484	*48%*	459	*46%*
	Neutral	335	*34%*	267	*27%*	332	*33%*	337	*34%*
	Positive	539	*54%*	674	*67%*	44	*4%*	69	*7%*
Random	Abusive	181	*3%*	75	*1%*	744	*13%*	661	*12%*
	Critical	642	*12%*	197	*4%*	2676	*49%*	2676	*49%*
	Neutral	1677	*30%*	1466	*27%*	1788	*33%*	1741	*32%*
	Positive	3000	*55%*	3762	*68%*	292	*5%*	422	*7%*

Table 1: Tweet counts across splits, dodos, and stances, with percentages within the dodo split. Includes counts and percentages for tweets from all splits selected by random sampling before annotation (5,500 tweets total per dodo).

details). The final Cohen Kappa[5] for each domain was 0.50 for footballers and 0.67 for MPs.

2.3. Analysis

Terminology We abbreviate pairs of domain-demographic data as: fb-m (footballers-men), fb-w (footballers-women), mp-m (MPs-men), mp-w (MPs-women). We refer to any given domain-demographic pair as a dodo. We refer to groups of models that we train by the number of dodos included in the training data: dodo1 for models trained using one domain-demographic pair, dodo2 for models trained using two pairs, etc.

Overview The total dataset has 28,000 annotated entries, 7,000 for each dodo pair, with 3K/3K/1K test/train/validation splits. Table 1 shows class distributions across splits and counts of tweets sampled randomly pre-annotation.

Class Distributions The last row of Table 1 contains the randomly sampled entries across each dataset (ignoring keyword sampled entries which would skew the distributions). The majority of tweets in the MPs datasets are abusive or critical, in contrast to the footballers datasets where the majority class is positive, especially for fb-w. We also see slightly higher proportions of abusive tweets targeted at male demographic groups (fb-m, mp-m). Further analysis here is outside the scope of this paper, but it is notable how levels of abuse vary.

Tweet Length The MPs data contains longer tweets on average than the footballers data (125 vs. 84 characters), and has over twice as many tweets $\geq$ 250 characters (1,632 vs. 556 tweets). 62% of these longer ($\geq$250 characters) tweets for MPs are critical, implying the presence of detailed political debate.

[5]Calculated using the generalised formula from Gwet (2014) to account for variable # of annotations per entry.

3. Experiments

We conduct experiments to study how well model performance transfers across domains and demographics, and how the quantity and diversity of training data affects model generalisability across domains of public figures. To reflect the focus on generalisability, we evaluate models on: (i) "seen" dodos (test sets of dodos whose train sets were used in training); (ii) "unseen" dodos (test sets of dodos whose train sets were not used in training); and (iii) the total evaluation set (including test sets from all dodos). All test sets are fully held out from training—by "seen" and "unseen" we only mean the domain or demographic. We train models on data from combinations of dodo pairs, and experiment with continued fine-tuning on the resulting models. We repeat experiments across 3 random seeds and 2 labelling budgets. We make predictions using the total test set (12,000), and calculate mean and standard deviation of Macro-F1 across the seeds. The Macro-F1 score represents a macro-average of per class F1 scores, neutralising class imbalance. We also investigate the correlation of Macro-F1 with dataset similarity.

Models We fine-tune deBERTa-v3 (**deBERT**, He et al., 2021)[6], using Huggingface's Transformers Library(Wolf et al., 2020). We used Tesla K80 GPUs through Microsoft Azure, training for 5 epochs with an early stopping patience of 2 epochs using Macro-F1 on the validation set, requiring a total of 235 GPU hours.

Dodo Combinations Our dataset has four dodo pairs, each with 3,000 training entries. There are 15 combinations of these pairs (if order does not matter): four single pairs (dodo1), six ways to pick two pairs (dodo2), four ways to pick three pairs (dodo3) and all pairs (dodo4). For all combinations, we randomly shuffle the concatenated training data before any training commences.

Labelling Budget For each training combination, we make two budget assumptions. In the **full budget** condition, we concatenate the training sets: 3,000 training entries for dodo1 experiments; 6,000

[6]We also ran experiments on distilBERT (Sanh et al., 2019), but deBERTa-v3 had consistently higher performance, therefore we only present results for deBERTa-v3.

Model Group	Train on *fb-m*	*fb-w*	*mp-m*	*mp-w*	Test On *Full*	*Fixed*
dodo1	✓				0.676	-
		✓			0.612	-
			✓		0.655	-
				✓	0.643	-
dodo2	✓	✓			0.667	0.673
			✓	✓	0.675	0.661
	✓		✓		0.723	**0.708**
		✓		✓	0.718	0.698
	✓			✓	0.722	**0.708**
		✓	✓		0.718	0.654
dodo3	✓	✓	✓		0.702	0.695
	✓	✓		✓	0.724	0.706
	✓		✓	✓	0.727	**0.708**
		✓	✓	✓	0.725	0.700
dodo4	✓	✓	✓	✓	**0.731**	0.701

Table 2: Table of Macro-F1 scores on the total test set for all possible training data combinations, in both full and fixed budget scenarios. Colour-coded according to increasing Macro-F1 Score, with best scores for each budget in bold.

for dodo2 experiments; 9,000 for dodo3; and 12,000 for dodo4. In the **fixed budget** condition, we assume train budget is fixed at $3{,}000$ entries and allocate ratios according to the dodo combinations: each included dodo makes up 100% of the budget for dodo1 experiments; 50% for dodo2; 33% for dodo3; and 25% for dodo4. This allows us to test the effects of training data composition without confounding effects of its size.

4. Results

4.1. Small amounts of diverse data are hugely beneficial to generalisable performance.

Table 2 provides an overview of the performance of models trained on all combinations of dodos. The increase in performance from adding data from new domains or demographics is not linear: the full budget dodo2 models only attain a one percentage point (pp) average increase in Macro-F1 Score for an additional 3,000 training entries. We also see the two dodo4 models are only separated by 3pp despite the full budget version being exposed to 4 times the amount of training data as the fixed budget version. This shows that gains from data diversity outweigh those from significantly greater quantities of data in training generalisable models.

Train on	Test on *Seen*		*Unseen*	
fb-m; fb-w	FBs	0.654	MPs	0.576
mp-m; mp-w	MPs	0.682	FBs	0.560
fb-m; mp-m	Men	0.718	Women	0.724
fb-w; mp-w	Women	0.722	Men	0.690

Table 3: Cross-domain and cross-demographic transfer with mean Macro-F1 for full-budget dodo2 models. We train on two dodos and evaluate on concatenated portions of the test set, e.g., we train *fb-w; fb-m* then test on *fb-w; fb-m* (seen) and *mp-m, mp-w* (unseen). Colour-coded according to increasing Macro-F1 Score.

4.2. Cross-demographic transfer is more effective than cross-domain.

Table 3 shows the comparisons for domain transfer and demographic transfer by Macro-F1 score on the seen and unseen portions of the test set, using the full-budget dodo2 models. For domain transfer, training on footballers gives a 0.654 F1 on the footballers dataset and 0.576 F1 on the MPs datasets. This is symmetric with training on MPs and testing on footballers. For demographic transfer, training on the male pairs and testing on female pairs faces no drop in performance. In contrast, training on women and testing on men leads to a small reduction in performance on the male data. In general, this demonstrates that transferring across domains is more challenging than transferring across demographics while keeping the domain fixed.

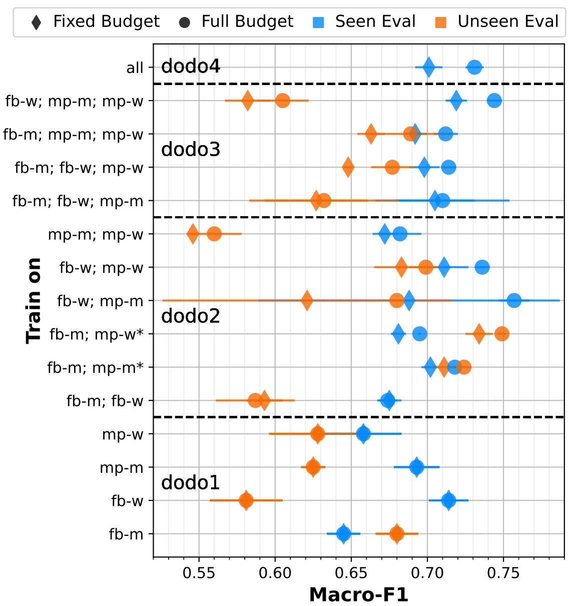

Figure 1: Mean and std-dev Macro-F1 across seeds for models trained on dodo combos, for fixed and full budgets, on test sets from seen and unseen dodos. *We removed one degenerate training seed (s=2).

4.3. Cross-domain models are more generalisable than cross-demographic.

Figure 1 shows that, as expected, performance on test sets from seen dodos is generally higher than on those from unseen dodos (we investigate exceptions in Appendix E.1). Within the dodo2 models, cross-demographic within-domain models (e.g., fb-m;fb-w) perform 10pp better on average on seen dodo evaluation sets than unseen ones, compared to a much narrower gap of 1pp on average for cross-domain models (e.g., fb-w;mp-w). We also see from Table 2 that cross-domain within-demographic dodo2 models outperform all cross-demographic within-domain dodo2 models on the total test set. This provides evidence that, within the context of this study, models trained on a single domain struggle to deal with out-of-domain examples, and that cross-domain models are more generalisable.

4.4. Not all dodos contribute equally to generalisable performance.

The average Macro-F1 increase provided by including each dodo in training is summarised in Figure 2. fb-m provides the largest average increase in a fixed budget scenario, and mp-w in a full budget scenario.[7] In some cases, including fb-w data during training can detract from performance across both budgets. A dodo1 model trained only on fb-m also outperforms all other dodo1 models on the total test set (see Table 2), and fb-m data is included in the training dataset for the top ranking model for each dodo size across both labelling budgets. This suggests that training with fb-m is more important for good model generalisation than other dodos.

We now consider the situation of leaving out one dodo pair during training. We compare this left out case (dodo3) to training on all pairs (dodo4) in Table 4. We show the change in Macro-F1 on the total test set and change in number of training entries. For the full budget, leaving out mp-w from training leads to the largest reduction in performance. In contrast, removing all fb-w or mp-m entries does not significantly degrade performance even with 3,000 fewer training entries. For the fixed budget setting (with no confounding by training size), leaving out the two male pairs leads to a larger drop in performance than leaving out two female pairs.

[7] According to mean change in performance across all 7 possible scenarios of adding a dodo to training data.

	Raw size		Fixed size	
	Δ F1	Δ N	Δ F1	Δ N
all dodos	0.731	12,000	0.701	3,000
leave out fb-m	-0.006	-3,000	-0.001	0
leave out fb-w	-0.004	-3,000	0.007	0
leave out mp-m	-0.007	-3,000	0.005	0
leave out mp-w	-0.029	-3,000	-0.006	0

Table 4: Comparing model trained on all pairs (dodo4) with models trained on 3 pairs (dodo3). Shows relative change in mean Macro-F1 on total test set, and relative change in N of training entries.

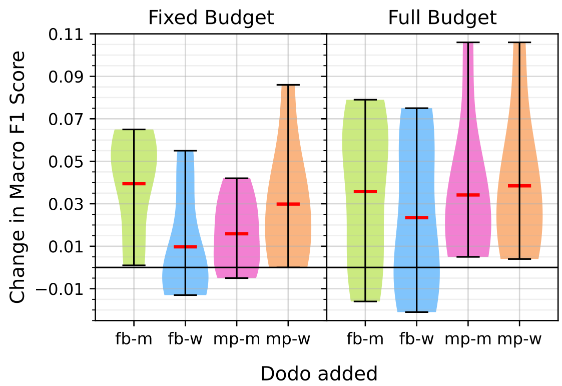

Figure 2: Violin plot displaying distribution of change in Macro-F1 score when adding a dodo to the training data (7 possible scenarios), with mean represented by red marker.

4.5. Only small amounts of data are needed to effectively adapt existing models to new domains and demographics.

Here we *start* with a fine-tuned specialist dodo1 model (i.e., a model fine-tuned on a single dodo) and *adapt* this model to a new dodo. We do continued fine-tuning of each fine-tuned dodo1 model on increments added from the adapt dodo train split.[8] For the models trained using each budget increment, we calculate Macro-F1 on test sets of both the start and adaption dodos (see Figure 3) so that we record both performance gains in adapting to new dodos alongside performance losses (forgetting) in seen dodos.

For almost all cases, the performance gain is notable after adding just 125 entries from the new dodo and increases with more entries. There is not a prominent performance gain after 500 entries except when adapting from fb-m to mp-m. This suggests that a small amount of data is efficient and

[8] The increments are [50, 125, 250, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500, 3000]. We train a separate model for each increment.

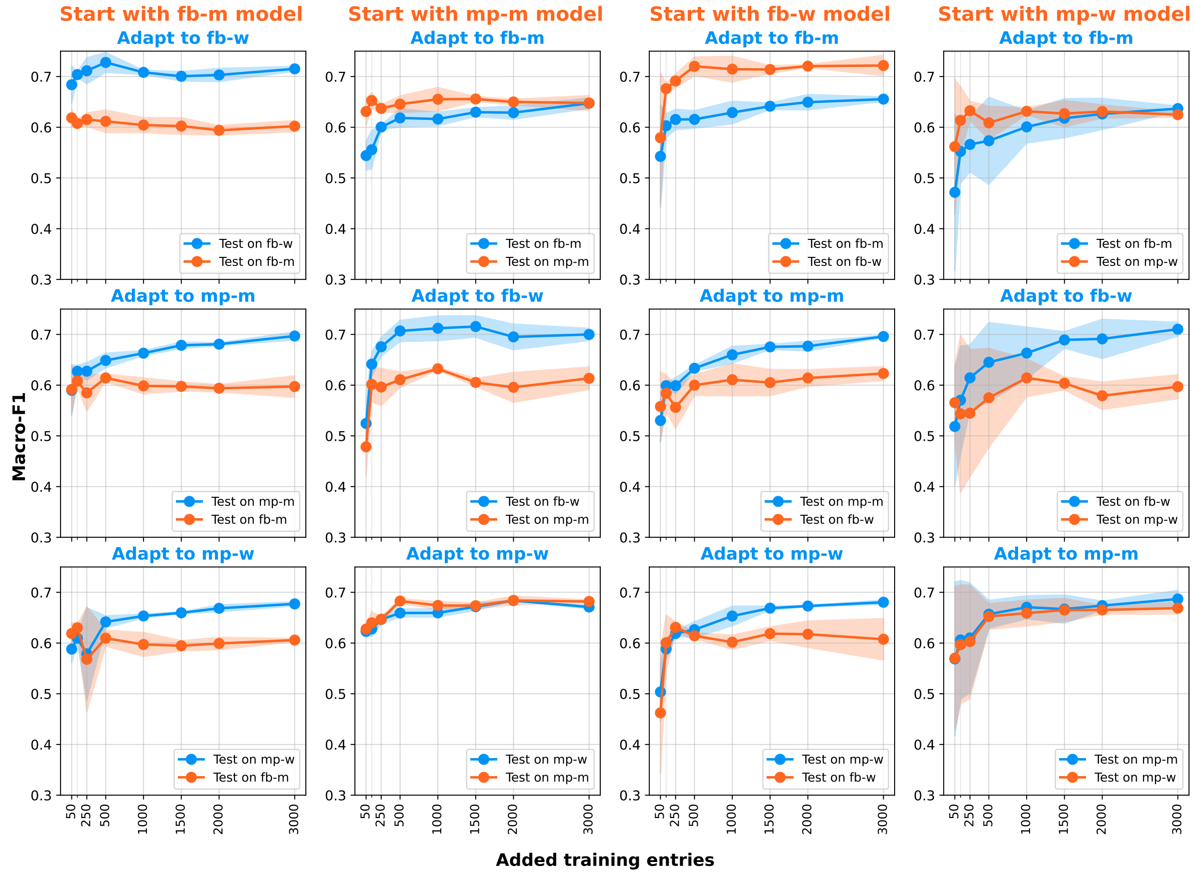

Figure 3: Learning curves for starting with a dodo1 model trained on a single dodo pair and adding increments from the training set of a new dodo pair. We show mean and std-dev Macro-F1 (across 3 seeds) on the new adapt dodo and source start dodo at each increment.

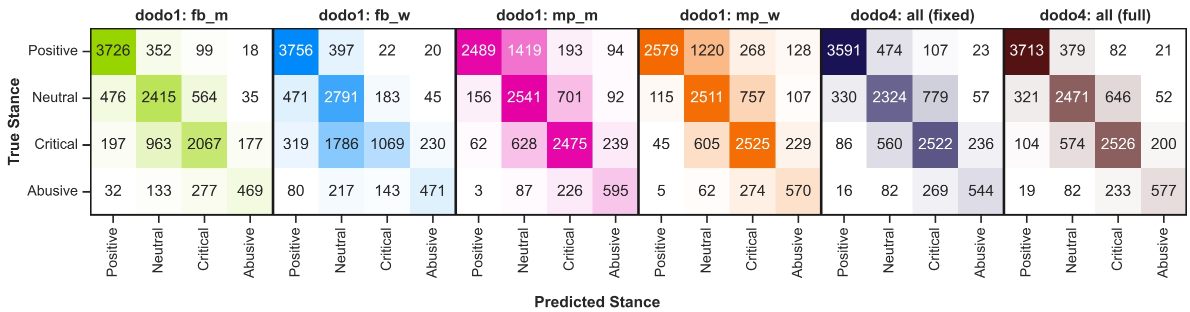

Figure 4: Confusion matrices for dodo1 and dodo4 models evaluated on the total test set (12,000 entries).

cost-effective for testing how well existing models generalise. The importance of data composition over data quantity aligns with the fixed/full budget findings from §4.1. On catastrophic forgetting, we generally do not find major performance drops. In some cases, adapting models to new data even helps classification in the source pair (e.g., mp-w to mp-m). Future work can explore where adaptation helps or hurts performance in source domains or demographics.

4.6. Dataset similarity is a signal of transferability.

Using the specialist dodo1 models, we examine if dataset similarity signals transferability, i.e., the Macro-F1 score that a dodo1 model can achieve on unseen dodos. We compute three classical text distance metrics with unigram bag-of-words approaches: Jaccard and Sørensen-Dice similarity, and Kullback-Leibler divergence. In Figure 5, we plot Macro-F1 scores (of unseen single dodos) against Jaccard similarity for each pair of dodos. The correlation coefficient is 0.7, demonstrating a positive relationship between dataset similarity

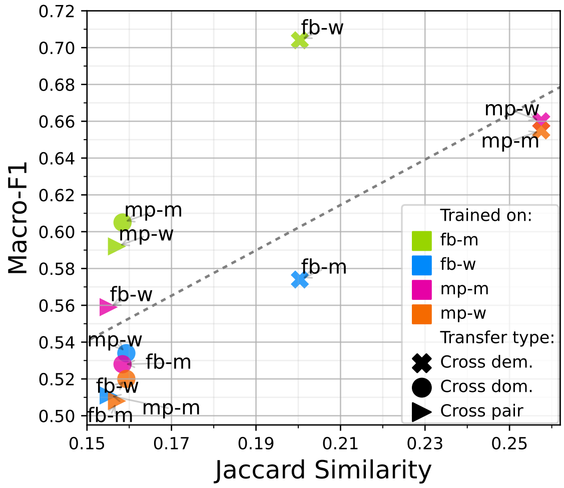

Figure 5: Jaccard similarity and mean 0-shot Macro-F1 for dodo1 deBERT models with line of best fit. On graph annotations represent evaluation dodo. Shows positive correlation ($\rho = 0.7$) and effectiveness of cross-demographic vs. cross-domain transfer.

and unseen dodo performance.[9] Greater similarity between demographic pairs versus domain pairs results in better cross-demographic transfer versus cross-domain transfer. Using these metrics could help estimate transfer potential before investing in an expensive labelling process.

4.7. Error Analysis

We find that errors made by dodo1 models reflect the class imbalances outlined in Section 2.3. We also see errors relating to inherent similarities across bordering classes, demonstrating the value of fine-grained labels. We present confusion matrices on the total test in Figure 4, and full error analysis in Appendix E.2.

5. Discussion

We discuss the limitations of this work in Section 9, addressing difficulties in disentangling the direction of sentiment in social media posts, limitations in the chosen label schema, and the consequences of the chosen evaluation approaches. Here, we present avenues for future work.

Expanding demographics and adding more complexity to the labelling schema would provide a broader basis for understanding generalisability in abuse classification. Other promising avenues include investigating whether active learning techniques (Vidgen et al., 2022; Kirk et al., 2022c) aid more efficient cross-domain/demographic transfer, or whether architectures better suited for continual learning can assist in the addition of new groups without forgetting those previously trained-on (Hu et al., 2020; Qian et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022). We shuffled entries during training and used all four class labels but future work could assess whether performance is affected by order of training on different groups, and the impact of training on binary versus multi-class labels on transfer performance. Finally, our experiments only use fine-tuning on labelled data, but in-domain continued pre-training could be explored as a budget-efficient way to boost performance (Gururangan et al., 2020; Kirk et al., 2023).

6. Related Works

Abuse Against MPs Academics and journalists account abuse against politicians, which may cause politicians to withdraw from their posts (Manning and Kemp, 2019; James et al., 2016). Empirical work commonly studies Twitter (Binns and Bateman, 2018; Gorrell et al., 2020; Ward and McLoughlin, 2020; Agarwal et al., 2021), including across national contexts such as European Parliament elections (Theocharis et al., 2016), Canadian and US politicians (Rheault et al., 2019) and members of the UK parliament (Gorrell et al., 2020). Other studies focus on gender differences in abuse (Rheault et al., 2019; Erikson et al., 2021) though some datasets only contain abuse against women (Stambolieva, 2017; Delisle et al., 2019) which limits comparison across genders (unlike DoDo). Various techniques are employed to identify abusive tweets including rules-based or lexicon approaches and topic analysis (Gorrell et al., 2018, 2020; Greenwood et al., 2019); traditional machine learning classifiers (Stambolieva, 2017; Rheault et al., 2019; Agarwal et al., 2021) or pre-trained language models and off-the-shelf classifiers like Perspective API (Delisle et al., 2019).

Abuse Against Footballers Sport presents a good case for studying public figure abuse due to the influence of athletes (Carrington, 2012), as well as the heightened symbolic focus on in-out groups and race-nation relations (Bromberger, 1995; Back et al., 2001; King, 2003; Burdsey, 2011; Doidge, 2015). Several studies track the change from racist chants at football stadiums, to the more pernicious and harder to control online abuse (King, 2004; Cleland, 2013; Cleland and Cashmore, 2014; Kilvington and Price, 2019). Civil society organisations track social media abuse as far back as the 2012/2013 season, but are limited by a focus on manual case-by-case resolution and suffer from chronic underreporting (Bennett and Jönsson, 2017). We build on our previous work in Vidgen et al. (2022), which presents some of the same data as the male footballers portion in DoDo but

[9] Correlation coefficients are 0.7 for Dice Similarity and -0.66 for KL Divergence, confirming Jaccard robustness.

also labels additional data using active learning.

Abuse Datasets and Detection Developing robust abuse classifiers is challenging (Zhang and Luo, 2019). Surveys on abuse detection cover various aspects such as algorithms (Schmidt and Wiegand, 2017; Mishra et al., 2019), model generalisability (Yin and Zubiaga, 2021), and data desiderata (Vidgen and Derczynski, 2020). Many studies curate data from mainstream platforms, focusing on abuse against different identities such as women (Fersini et al., 2018; Pamungkas et al., 2020) and immigrants (Basile et al., 2019). Recent approaches to developing abuse classifiers predominately fine-tune large language models on labelled datasets directly (Fortuna et al., 2021) (our approach) or in a multi-task setting (Talat et al., 2018; Yuan and Rizoiu, 2022), as well as incorporate contextual information (Chiril et al., 2022). Abuse detection datasets mostly focus on binary classification, and few cast the predictions as a multi-class problem. Some work addresses cross-domain classification in regards to generalisability (Glavaš et al., 2020; Yadav et al., 2023; Toraman et al., 2022; Bourgeade et al., 2023; Antypas and Camacho-Collados, 2023), but many are either focused on combining existing datasets, or focus on domains as groups of content identified by keywords, as opposed to content sourced around members of a specific domain. The dataset we use in this paper rectifies some of these issues, containing fine-grained labels, and containing uniformly sourced and labelled content explicitly targeted at members of target groups.

Domain Adaptation Several NLP techniques have been explored for model generalisation in abuse detection, including feature-based domain alignment (Bashar et al., 2021; Ludwig et al., 2022), regularisation methods (Ludwig et al., 2022), and adaptive pre-training (Faal et al., 2021). Systematic evaluation of model generalisability exists in some forms, focusing on dataset features (Fortuna et al., 2021), multilinguality (Pamungkas et al., 2020; Yadav et al., 2023), existing hate-speech datasets (Bourgeade et al., 2023), and cross-domain generalisability where domains are keyword-based topics (Toraman et al., 2022). To our knowledge there is no work that systemically explores the dynamics of transfer across both domain and demographic factors, using content specifically targeted at groups from different domains.

7. Conclusion

We fine-tuned language models using our DoDo dataset to classify abuse targeted at public figures for two domains (sports, politics) and two demographics (women, men). We found that (i) even small amounts of diverse data provide significant benefits to generalisable performance and model adaptation; (ii) cross-demographic transfer (from women to men, or vice-versa) is more effective than cross-domain transfer (from footballers to MPs, or vice-versa) but models trained on data from one domain are less generalisable than models trained on cross-domain data; (iii) not all domains and demographics contribute equally to training generalisable models; and (iv) dataset similarity is a signal of transferability.

There are broader policy implications of our work. Policymakers, NGOs and others with an interest in independently monitoring harms face challenges in building models that are broad enough to capture a wide range of harms but specific enough to capture the distinctive nature of abuse (e.g., the difference between hate speech targeted at male and female MPs); while remaining within resource constraints typical of policy settings. Our work contributes by bringing fresh perspective on the feasibility of transferring models created to detect harm for one target to other targets. It thus provides insight into developing automated systems that are cost-effective, generalisable and performative across domains and demographics of interest.

8. Ethics and Harm Statement

We present our limitations section in §9. In addition to these limitations, engaging with a subject such as online abuse raises ethical concerns. Here we set out the nature of those concerns, and how we managed them. Creation and annotation of a dataset focusing on abuse risks harming the annotators and researchers constructing the dataset, as repeated exposure to such material can be detrimental towards their mental health (Kirk et al., 2022a). Mitigating these risks is easier with a small trained team of annotators (like those we used for the MPs datasets) and harder with crowdworkers (like those we used for the footballers datasets). With the trained group of annotators, we maintained an open annotator forum where they could discuss such issues during the labelling process, and seek welfare support. For crowdworkers, we had very limited contact with them but include on our guidelines and task description extensive content warnings and links to publicly-available resources on vicarious trauma.

We acknowledge that all experiments and data collection protocols are approved by the internal ethics review board at our institution.

9. Limitations

Targets of Abuse It is sometimes hard to disentangle the target of sentiment in tweets directed at public figures—some tweets praise public figures while simultaneously criticising another figure or even abusing identity groups (such as an praising an MP's anti-immigration policy while abusing immigrants). Our label schema does not tag target-specific spans nor flag when it is a non-public figure account or abstract group is being abused. We also do not use further conversational context during annotation. Furthermore, we are limited by gender distinctions in UK MPs statistics and football leagues—the dataset does not cover non-binary identities or other identity attributes.

Types of Abuse While our dataset is more diverse than most abuse datasets in including four class labels, it does not disaggregate abusive content into further subcategories such as identity attacks. Our preliminary keyword analysis suggested that identity attacks comprise a relatively small proportion of all abuse (especially for female footballers) but can nonetheless cause significant harm (Gelber and McNamara, 2016). Further investigation on abuse across demographic groups is needed to understand how women and men are targeted differently, and to assess distributional shifts of specific homophobic, racist, sexist or otherwise identity-based abuse.

Language and Platform Focus Our dataset contains English language tweets associated with UK MPs and the top football leagues in England (though players come from a variety of nationalities). Prior studies suggest politicians face online abuse in other countries (Theocharis et al., 2016; Ezeibe and Ikeanyibe, 2017; Rheault et al., 2019; Fuchs and Schäfer, 2020; Erikson et al., 2021); and that the English football social media audience is a global one (Kilvington and Price, 2019). However, shifting national or cultural context will introduce further distributional and linguistic shifts. Furthermore, our data is only collected from Twitter though abuse towards public figures exists on a variety of social media platforms (Agarwal et al., 2021) such as YouTube (Esposito and Zollo, 2021) or WhatsApp (Saha et al., 2021).

Evaluation Approach Aggregate evaluation metrics may obscure per dodo and per class weaknesses (Röttger et al., 2021). The Macro-F1 score across the combined test set from all dodos does not equal the averaged Macro-F1 across each dodo test set (the former is 4.7pp higher on average). This is due to different class distributions across dodos skewing the total Macro-F1 calculation. The ranking of models was consistent across these two metrics. We have not investigated the relative dataset difficulty (Ethayarajh et al., 2022) of individual dodo test sets, which may influence measures of generalisibility.

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11. Language Resource References

A. Data Release

It is very difficult to anonymise Twitter data to the extent that cannot be traced back from the text (Ayers et al., 2018), raising privacy concerns over the release of Twitter abuse datasets. While we recognise the prevalence of openly available Twitter hate speech datasets (Alkomah and Ma, 2022), due to institutional guidelines we are unable to release the annotated Tweets the make up the DoDo dataset, neither as anonymised text or as Tweet IDs only. We acknowledge that this limits reproducability, and we hope that the methodology outlined in Appendix D demonstrates robustness and enables other researchers to emulate this study. We are able to make lists of accounts of public figures collated available to researchers on request, via emailing angusrwilliams@gmail.com.

B. Data Annotation

We used two different sets of annotators across the two domains, as we annotated the sets sequentially. Initial annotation rounds revealed high rates of annotator disagreement, with a large number of entries requiring expert annotation as a result. We use the same label schema for all domain and demographic pairs but use specific example tweets in the guidelines. We only employ annotators who pass a test of gold questions. Annotators were informed prior to accepting the task that the data would be used to train machine learning models as part of a research paper.

We employed 3,375 crowdworkers for male footballers and 3,513 for female footballers. Crowdworkers were paid \$0.20 per annotation, earning \$11.30/hour on average. Each entry was annotated by 3 crowdworkers, with an additional two annotations required if no majority agreement ($\frac{2}{3}$) was reached, then sent for expert annotation if still no majority agreement ($\frac{3}{5}$) was reached. The average annotator agreement per entry was 68%, and the Cohen's kappa was 0.50.

For the MP datasets, we employed 23 high-quality annotators from a Trust & Safety organisation. Annotators were paid \$0.33 per annotation, earning \$16.80/hour on average. Each entry received 3 annotations, then sent for expert annotation if no majority agreement was reached ($\frac{2}{3}$). The average entry-wise agreement was 82% and the Cohen's kappa was 0.67.

An example of instructions given to annotators is displayed in Figure 6. Fictional examples of tweet stances across domain-demographic pairs are visible in Figure 7. Due to the potentially harmful nature of the task, annotators were encouraged to regularly take breaks, and to contact their line manager in event of any problems or concerns. Annotator pay was above US minimum hourly wage on average.

C. Data Statement

To document the generation and provenance of our dataset, we provide a data statement below (Bender and Friedman, 2018).

Curation Rationale The purpose of the DoDo dataset is to train, evaluate, and refine language models for classification tasks related to understanding online conversations directed at footballers and MPs.

Language Variety Due to the UK-centric domains this dataset concerns (men's and women's UK football leagues, and UK MPs), all tweets are in English.

Speaker Demographics All entries are collected from Twitter and therefore generally represent the demographics of the platform. The sample is skewed towards those engaging in community discussion of the two domains on the platform (sports and politics).

Annotator Demographics The two domains used differing annotator pools. For the MPs data, we made use of a company offering annotation services that recruited 23 annotators to work for 5 weeks in early 2023. The annotators were screened from an initial pool of 36 annotators who took a test consisting of 36 difficult gold-standard questions (containing examples of all four class labels). The annotators had constant access to both a core team member from the service provider and from the core research team.

Fifteen annotators self-identified as women, and eight as men. The annotators were sent an optional survey to provide further information on their demographics. Out of 23 annotators, 21 responded to the survey. By age, 12 annotators were between 18-29 years old, eight were between 30-39 years old, and one was over 50 years old. In terms of completed education level, three annotators had high school degrees, eight annotators had undergraduate degrees, six annotators had postgraduate taught degrees, and four annotators had postgraduate research degrees. The majority of annotators were British (17), and other nationalities included Indian, Swedish, and United States. Twelve annotators identified as White, with one identifying as White Other and one identifying as White Arab. Other ethnicities included Black Caribbean (1), Indian (1), Indian British Asian (1), and Jewish (1). Most annotators identified as heterosexual (14), with other annotators identifying as bisexual (3), gay (1), and pansexual (1). Two chose not to disclose their sexuality. The majority stated that English was their native language (16), and four stated they were not native but fluent in the language. One chose not to disclose whether they were native English speakers or not. The majority of annotators disclosed that they spend 1-2 hours per day on social media (12). Four annotators stated that they spent, on average, less than 1 hour on social media per day (but more than 10 minutes), and five stated they spend more than 2 hours per day on social media. Some of the annotators reported having themselves been targeted by online abuse (9), with 11 reporting 'never' and one preferring not to say.

The datasets for footballers were annotated separately using a crowdsourcing platform. Due to this, we have significantly less detail on the demographics of the users. The fb-m dataset was annotated by 3,375 crowdworkers from 41 countries. The fb-w dataset was annotated by 3,513 crowdworkers from 48 countries. The annotators for both datasets were primarily from Venezuela (56% and 64% respectively) and the United States (29% and 18% respectively).

Speech Situation The data consists of short-form written textual entries from social media (Twitter). These were presented and interpreted in isolation for labelling, i.e., not in a comment thread and without user/network or any additional information.

Text Characteristics The genre of texts is a mix of abusive, critical, positive, and neutral social media entries (tweets).

D. Data Collection, Processing, and Sampling

We chose to collect data on members of parliament and footballers: two types of well known public figure that both receive considerable amounts of online abuse but which operate in very different domains. These two domains also serve as useful bases because they have demographic diversity (in particular, they have both male and female participants, with gender being a well known source of difference in terms of abuse being received).

We collect all tweets mentioning a public figure account, keeping only those that either directly reply to tweets written by public figures, or directly mention a public figure account without replying or referencing another tweet. We term these tweets *audience contact*. From the audience contact tweets, we only consider tweets that contain some English text content aside from mentions and URLs. Where the Twitter API Filtered Stream endpoint did not return sufficient data for constructing an unlabelled pool, as was the case for female footballers, we made use of the Twitter API Full Archive Search endpoint to collect historic tweets. Table 6 contains information on the unlabelled pools.

For each domain-demographic pair, starting with the unlabelled pool, we randomly sample (and remove) 3,000 entries for the test set and 1,000 entries for the validation set. We then randomly sample (and remove) 1,500 entries for training and concatenate these with a further 1,500 entries containing a keyword from a list of 731 abusive and hateful keywords (750 entries with at least one profanity keyword and 750 with at least one identity keyword), such that each training set has $3,000$ entries total. The list of keywords is compiled from Davidson et al. (2017); ElSherief et al. (2018); Vidgen et al. (2021b); Kirk et al. (2022b) and is available at github.com/Turing-Online-Safety-Codebase/dodo-learning. Each training set has 3,000 entries in total. Table 7 describes the counts of Tweets by stance for each sampling strategy used in the construction of datasets.

We replace all user mentions within tweets with tokens relating to the domain of the public figure mentioned before tweet annotation and use in training models. This does not completely anonymise tweets, as it does not account for other uses of names in tweet text.

E. Additional Results

E.1. Where Unseen Performance Exceeds Seen Performance

There are three cases where performance on unseen `dodos` exceeds performance on seen `dodos` in both full and fixed budget scenarios, visible in Figure 1. All three cases include `fb-m` in the training data, suggesting that the `fb-m` test set is more difficult that other `dodos`, or potentially that the `fb-m` training split is significantly different to the test split - further investigation is needed to fully understand this dynamic.

E.2. Error Analysis

Our error analysis is based on each fixed-budget single `dodo` model (i.e. `dodo1` experiments), evaluated on seen portions of the test set. We also analyse errors made by the fixed budget generalist model (i.e. `dodo4`), and shared errors made by all fixed budget condition models. We choose fixed budget models to ensure all models have seen the same total amount of training data. We present confusion matrices for all experiments in Fig. 8.

The fb-m model performed best on positive tweets (F1 = 0.86), and worst on critical tweets (F1 = 0.52). These results broadly hold for the fb-w model, which performed best on positive tweets (F1 = 0.91) and less well on abusive (F1 = 0.57) and critical (F1 = 0.52) tweets. The mp-m model performed best on critical tweets (F1 = 0.77), and worst on positive and neutral tweets (F1 = 0.69). As with footballers, these results broadly hold for the mp-w model, which performed best on critical tweets (F1 = 0.74), and less well on neutral (F1 = 0.66) and abusive tweets (F1 = 0.63).

These results partly reflect class imbalance (the FBs data is heavily skewed towards positive tweets, the MPs data towards critical tweets), as well as some inherent similarity between classes which border one another i.e., positive vs. neutral, neutral vs. critical, and critical vs. abusive. Recurring errors reveal several tweet types that are challenging to classify: tweets that tweets that (i) contain a mixture of both positive and critical language; (ii) use positive or sarcastic language to mock; (iii) rely on emoji to convey abuse; (iv) contain niche insults; or (v) short, ambiguous tweets that lack context.

E.3. Expanded Evaluation

Here we provide expanded reference tables and figures on the results described in Section 4.

The per-class macro F1 score of each dodo1 model and the two dodo4 models evaluated on seen dodos are visible in Table 5, revealing relatively low performance on the critical and abusive classes for models trained on the two footballer datasets compared to the positive and neutral classes. For models trained on the MPs datasets, we see much less variation in per class performance.

We also present a set of confusion matrices in Figure 8 for the specialist (dodo1), fixed budget generalist (dodo4, train size = 3,000), and full budget generalist (dodo4, train size = 12,000) models based on deBERT, evaluated on each evaluation set and the total evaluation set.

Finally, we give a reference table of maximum Macro-F1 scores achieved by all baselines across all evaluation sets (Table 8).

dodo	**Per-class F1 Scores**			
	Positive	*Neutral*	*Critical*	*Abusive*
fb_m	0.86	0.66	0.52	0.58
fb_w	0.94	0.81	0.57	0.62
mp_m	0.69	0.69	0.77	0.70
mp_w	0.72	0.66	0.74	0.63
All (fixed)	0.87	0.67	0.71	0.61
All (raw)	0.89	0.71	0.73	0.66

Table 5: Per-class F1-scores for dodo1 and dodo4 baselines on seen evaluation sets.

Overview

Content Warning: This task contains examples of hateful and abusive tweets. Please take frequent breaks during annotation, and contact your line manager for support.

This is a task annotating tweets relating to and discussing football (soccer) and politicians (MPs). The goal is to identify the sentiment of language used in the tweets (the options are: abusive, critical, neutral or positive).

Apply the coding guidelines dispassionately and try to mitigate any personal biases you hold.

Only tweets in English should be annotated. If it is clearly NOT in English then flag this. Tweets with one-off non-english words still counts as Yes.

Task

Select one option which best describes the tone of language in the tweet: *abusive, critical, neutral or positive*. Definitions of these options can be found below. When you consider the stance/sentiment, make sure to take into account all signals of a tweet's tone such as capitalization, punctuation and emoji. If the tweet has two parts with different stances, pick the stance which dominates the tone.

Stance	Definition
Abusive	**Select IF: the tweet threatens, insults, derogates (e.g. hateful use of slurs, negative use of stereotypes), dehumanises (e.g. compares individuals to insects, animals or trash), mocks or belittles an individual or their identity.** **Note on distinguishing between Abusive and Critical:** Criticism, discussion and incivility are not the same as abuse. If the tweet does not use aggressive language, or if it makes a substantive criticism of an individual or group of individuals, it should be marked as 'Critical'. For example, "*And let's not forget that idiot leader we got [USER]. This has been going on for too long.*" should be marked as Critical, not Abusive, because the dominating tone of the tweet is critical even though the person has been called an 'idiot'.
Critical	**Select IF: the tweet makes a substantive criticism of an individual or small groups of individuals.**This could include critique of their behavior or their actions. Criticism is not a form of 'soft abuse'. For a tweet to be legitimate criticism, it must not use slurs or aggressive and insulting language. **Note on Abusive/Critical**: The language used can be emotive and still be critical, for example: "*How the fucking hell is that not a red card. Absolutely sickening challenge from [PLAYER]*" . However, if it becomes aggressive, demeaning or insulting, then the tweet should be marked as 'Abusive'. Criticism of an individual purely on the basis of their identity, should be marked as 'Abusive', for example claiming a player is bad because of their race.
Neutral	**Select IF: the tweet makes no emotional or sentimental comment towards a person or an identity.** Neutral statements could include unemotive factual statements or descriptions of events. **Note on Lacking information:** If the tweet has very little context to decide the stance, mark it as neutral e.g. if it only uses one emoji with no clear context.
Positive	**Select IF: the tweet supports, praises or encourages a person or identity.**It can include support, respect or encouragement of a particular skill, behavior, achievement or success, or positive views towards diversity and representation of identities like race and sexuality.

Figure 6: Instructions given to annotators.

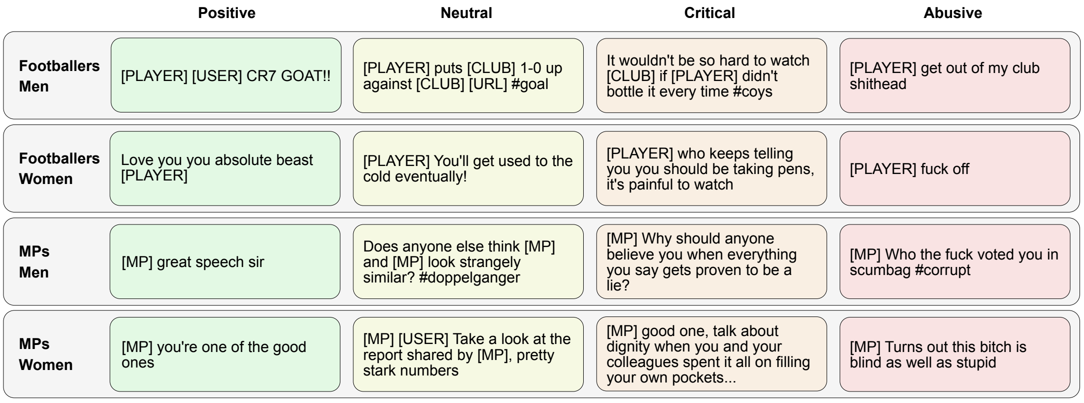

Figure 7: Fictional example tweets for each class label, loosely based on topics and sentiment of content in the dataset. Entries from the dataset are presented to annotators as shown, with special tokens to represent tagged mentions of public figures, accounts representing affiliations (e.g., football clubs), and other users. Examples are fictional as the dataset will not be released.

Domain	Demographic	Pool Size	Collection Dates		Collection Method	
			Start	*End*	*Streaming*	*Search*
Footballers	Men	1,008,399	12/08/2021	02/02/2022	✓	
	Women	226,689	13/08/2021	28/11/2022	✓	✓
MPs	Men	1,000,000	13/01/2022	19/09/2022	✓	
	Women	1,000,000	13/01/2022	19/09/2022	✓	

Table 6: Dates and pool sizes for each domain-demographic pair.

Split	dodo	**Sampling Strategy**											
		Random				Profanity Keywords				Identity Keywords			
		Abusive	*Critical*	*Neutral*	*Positive*	*Abusive*	*Critical*	*Neutral*	*Positive*	*Abusive*	*Critical*	*Neutral*	*Positive*
Train	fb_m	45	172	531	752	290	224	52	184	532	79	64	75
	fb_w	18	63	432	987	346	190	211	467	117	29	76	64
	mp_m	212	725	471	92	372	311	57	10	423	247	77	3
	mp_w	153	746	477	124	349	322	67	12	368	285	84	13
Test	fb_m	103	377	811	1709	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	fb_w	43	89	767	2101	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	mp_m	392	1467	985	156	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	mp_w	373	1471	927	229	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Validation	fb_m	33	93	335	539	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	fb_w	14	45	267	674	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	mp_m	140	484	332	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	mp_w	135	459	337	69	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	**fb_m**	**181**	**642**	**1677**	**3000**	**290**	**224**	**52**	**184**	**532**	**79**	**64**	**75**
	fb_w	**75**	**197**	**1466**	**3762**	**346**	**190**	**211**	**467**	**117**	**29**	**76**	**64**
	mp_m	**744**	**2676**	**1788**	**292**	**372**	**311**	**57**	**10**	**423**	**247**	**77**	**3**
	mp_w	**661**	**2676**	**1741**	**422**	**349**	**322**	**67**	**12**	**368**	**285**	**84**	**13**

Table 7: Tweet counts for dodo splits across sampling strategy and stance.

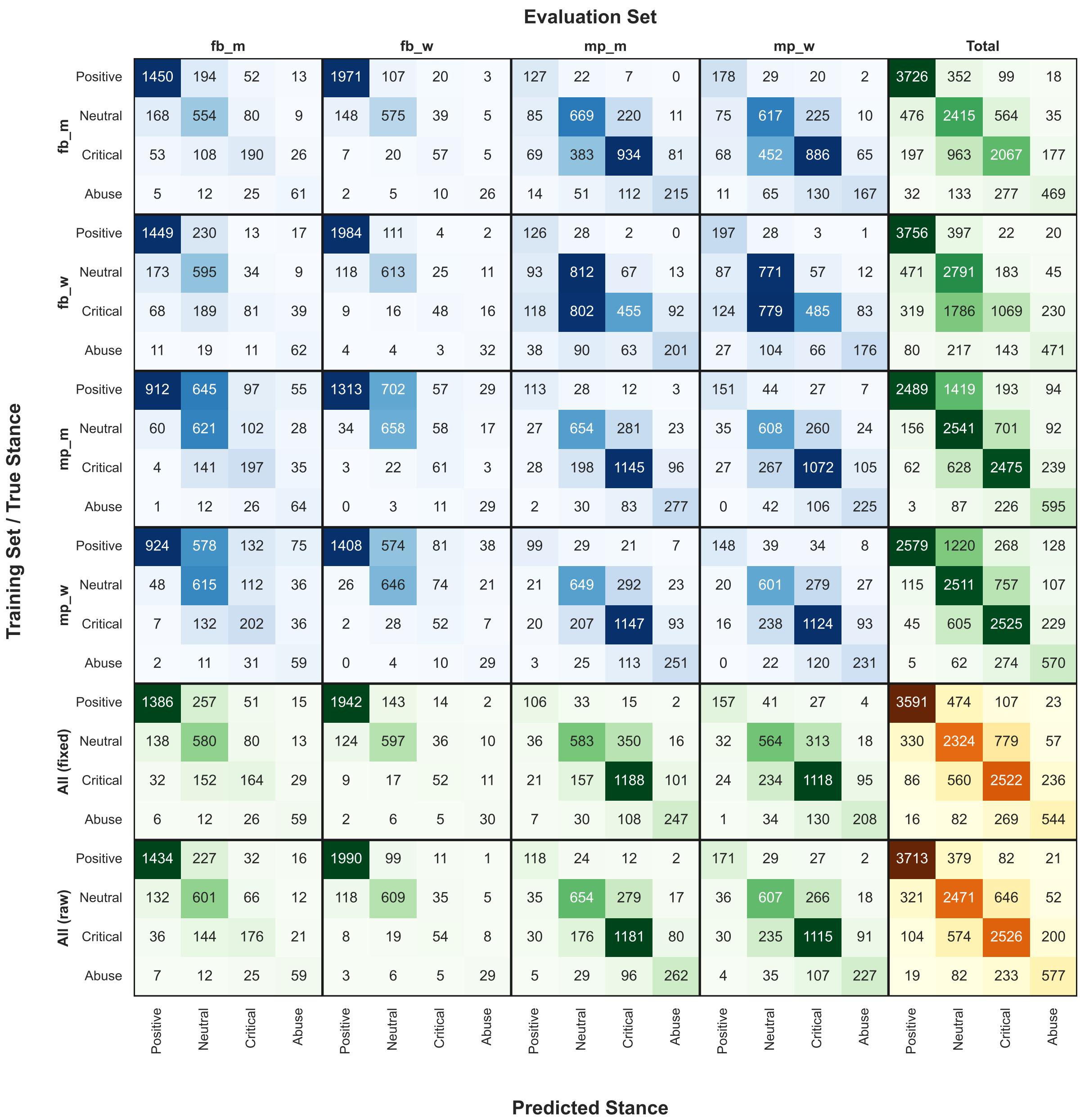

Figure 8: Grid of confusion matrices across chosen baselines, using soft voting across random seeds.

	Train On						Test On				
	fb-m	fb-w	mp-m	mp-w	model	budget	total	fb-m	fb-w	mp-m	mp-w
dodo1	✓				deBERT	fixed = full	0.688	0.656	0.719	0.633	0.609
	✓				diBERT	fixed = full	0.600	0.580	0.589	0.518	0.522
		✓			deBERT	fixed = full	0.628	0.586	0.676	0.539	0.545
		✓			diBERT	fixed = full	0.508	0.476	0.615	0.415	0.413
			✓		deBERT	fixed = full	0.665	0.536	0.576	0.71	0.665
			✓		diBERT	fixed = full	0.571	0.438	0.437	0.619	0.587
				✓	deBERT	fixed = full	0.675	0.549	0.578	0.681	0.683
				✓	diBERT	fixed = full	0.584	0.449	0.446	0.592	0.605
dodo2	✓	✓			deBERT	fixed	0.668	0.637	**0.790***	0.588	0.579
	✓	✓				full	0.668	0.639	0.709	0.596	0.594
	✓	✓			diBERT	fixed	0.577	0.557	0.593	0.494	0.501
	✓	✓				full	0.611	0.586	0.61	0.521	0.519
	✓		✓		deBERT	fixed	0.713	0.634	0.722	0.686	0.657
	✓		✓			full	0.724	0.659	0.705	0.704	0.669
	✓		✓		diBERT	fixed	0.652	0.568	0.588	0.602	0.594
	✓		✓			full	0.671	0.598	0.608	0.613	0.61
	✓			✓	deBERT	fixed	0.715	0.646	0.665	0.691	0.671
	✓			✓		full	0.724	0.658	0.69	0.694	0.681
	✓			✓	diBERT	fixed	0.647	0.564	0.587	0.58	0.595
	✓			✓		full	0.665	0.59	0.594	0.611	0.613
		✓	✓		deBERT	fixed	0.703	0.606	0.694	0.671	0.646
		✓	✓			full	0.721	0.608	0.699	0.71	0.669
		✓	✓		diBERT	fixed	0.647	0.494	0.615	0.581	0.575
		✓	✓			full	0.639	0.496	0.575	0.604	0.589
		✓		✓	deBERT	fixed	0.708	0.604	0.679	0.66	0.667
		✓		✓		full	0.722	0.612	0.687	0.695	0.684
		✓		✓	diBERT	fixed	0.629	0.512	0.569	0.567	0.571
		✓		✓		full	0.638	0.511	0.575	0.591	0.611
			✓	✓	deBERT	fixed	0.664	0.533	0.556	0.672	0.683
			✓	✓		full	0.683	0.559	0.575	0.692	0.687
			✓	✓	diBERT	fixed	0.574	0.454	0.416	0.609	0.598
			✓	✓		full	0.624	0.492	0.499	0.634	0.63
dodo3	✓	✓	✓		deBERT	fixed	0.71	0.629	0.737	0.67	0.649
	✓	✓	✓			full	0.721	0.623	0.736	0.701	0.664
	✓	✓	✓		diBERT	fixed	0.636	0.552	0.598	0.576	0.565
	✓	✓	✓			full	0.659	0.577	0.611	0.616	0.591
	✓	✓		✓	deBERT	fixed	0.698	0.614	0.723	0.635	0.636
	✓	✓		✓		full	0.734	0.648	0.726	0.694	0.682
	✓	✓		✓	diBERT	fixed	0.625	0.534	0.576	0.553	0.55
	✓	✓		✓		full	0.672	0.576	0.634	0.591	0.605
	✓		✓	✓	deBERT	fixed	0.713	0.626	0.671	0.685	0.673
	✓		✓	✓		full	**0.736***	**0.664***	0.706	0.712	**0.692***
	✓		✓	✓	diBERT	fixed	0.648	0.557	0.587	0.602	0.609
	✓		✓	✓		full	0.674	0.583	0.593	0.633	0.626
		✓	✓	✓	deBERT	fixed	0.695	0.585	0.663	0.653	0.658
		✓	✓	✓		full	0.724	0.591	0.694	**0.716***	**0.692***
		✓	✓	✓	diBERT	fixed	0.642	0.488	0.569	0.592	0.602
		✓	✓	✓		full	0.663	0.516	0.586	0.614	0.618
dodo4	✓	✓	✓	✓	deBERT	fixed	0.707	0.64	0.703	0.663	0.654
	✓	✓	✓	✓		full	0.728	0.634	0.713	0.709	0.684
	✓	✓	✓	✓	diBERT	fixed	0.644	0.533	0.591	0.58	0.579
	✓	✓	✓	✓		full	0.685	0.589	0.639	0.633	0.633

Table 8: Macro-F1 score for all sets of baseline models (maximum value across three seeds). Best Macro-F1 per test set (total and each of the four dodo splits) is bold and starred. Colour-coded according to increasing Macro-F1 Score.