

Real, Fake, or Manipulated? Detecting Machine-Influenced Text

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Abstract

Large Language Model (LLMs) can be used to write or modify documents, presenting a challenge for understanding the intent behind their use. For example, benign uses may involve using LLM on a human-written document to improve its grammar or to translate it into another language. However, a document entirely produced by a LLM may be more likely to be used to spread misinformation than simple translation (*e.g.*, from use by malicious actors or simply by hallucinating). Prior works in Machine Generated Text (MGT) detection mostly focus on simply identifying whether a document was human or machine written, ignoring these fine-grained uses. In this paper, we introduce a HiEarchical, length-RObust machine-influenced text detector (HERO), which learns to separate text samples of varying lengths from four primary types: human-written, machine-generated, machine-polished, and machine-translated. HERO accomplishes this by combining predictions from length-specialist models that have been trained with Subcategory Guidance. Specifically, for categories that are easily confused (*e.g.*, different source languages), our Subcategory Guidance module encourages separation of the fine-grained categories, boosting performance. Extensive experiments across five LLMs and six domains demonstrate the benefits of our HERO, outperforming the state-of-the-art by 2.5-3 mAP on average¹.

1 Introduction

Fine-grained Machine Generated Text (FG-MGT) detection aims to predict if a document was human-written, machine-generated, or some combination thereof. Prior work has primarily focused on separating paraphrased or machine-polished text

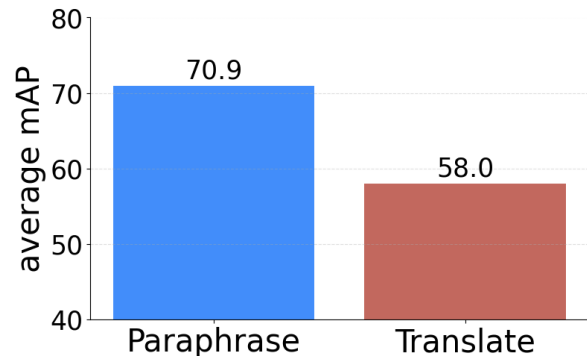


Figure 1: Paraphrasing/polishing human-written text or translating it into another language are often benign applications of an LLM that users of MGT detectors, like moderators, may wish to ignore. However, off-the-shelf methods (*e.g.*, (Hans et al., 2024)) often identify this type of data as machine-generated. In this paper, we increase the practical use of MGT detectors by separating text into fine-grained production categories, providing insight into content intent.

from human and/or completely machine-generated text (Krishna et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024; Abassy et al., 2024), as these are often benign uses of a language model. In contrast, machine generated text may hallucinate (Cao et al., 2022; Parikh et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021; Maynez et al., 2020; Shuster et al., 2021; Gou et al., 2023; Meng et al., 2022) and is more likely to contain misinformation (Lin et al., 2022; Zellers et al., 2019), making them less trustworthy. However, prior work ignores other benign uses of LLMs, like machine translation, which may also be flagged as machine-generated by traditional MGT detectors (see Fig. 1).

To address this issue, in this paper we introduce a HiEarchical, length-RObust machine-influenced text detector (HERO), which provides fine-grained labels to better understand document authorship. Specifically, as shown in Fig. 2, we expand the set of possible authorship categories to not only include machine translated text, but also the source language from which it is translated from. As we

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¹Code: <https://github.com/ellywang66/HERO>

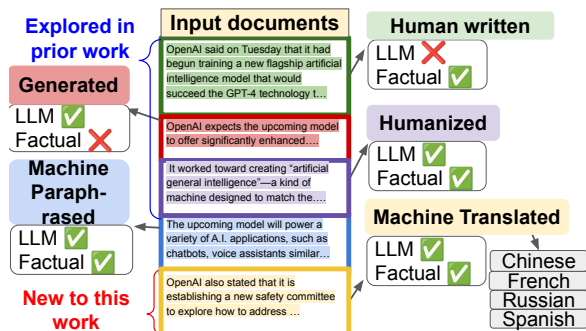


Figure 2: **Illustration of Fine-grained Machine Generated Text Detection (FG-MGT)**. The goal of FG-MGT is to identify different types of generated text to provide some insight into the potential intent. In this paper, we extend the study of Abassy et al. (2024) to include machine-translated text.

will show, identifying the source language both provides more detailed authorship information and also improves the ability of HERO to identify translated text as a whole. However, separating similar categories of machine-influenced (*i.e.*, translated or polished) text is challenging. For example, paraphrasing and translation both originate from a human-written article, and a sophisticated actor may also try to make their generated text more human-like in an effort to make it harder to detect. This is further exacerbated during inference when documents are from different domains or language models than those seen during training.

A straightforward approach to solve our FG-MGT problem would be to use a coarse-to-fine approach (*e.g.*, (Xu et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2023; Amit et al., 2004)), where we train a model to predict the general categories, and then refine them using specialized models. However, this approach has two drawbacks. First, it can increase inference time as both coarse and fine models must be used for each input document. Second, it introduces a tradeoff between coarse and fine model predictions that may be challenging to define for strong distribution shifts at test time (*e.g.*, documents from out-of-domain language models). Thus, as we will show, this type of naive adaptation results in poor performance in practice. Instead, we introduce Subcategory Guidance modules, where we compute a separate loss function on subsampled logits to distinguish between closely related fine-grained categories. Unlike traditional coarse-to-fine methods, this does not add any additional computational requirements at test time, enabling it to scale to large numbers of categories.

Another challenge faced in FG-MGT is the variability of input text lengths, where smaller documents prove more challenging to detect. While this challenge is shared with the traditional MGT task (Hans et al., 2024; Mitchell et al., 2023; Verma et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024; Gehrmann et al., 2019; Su et al., 2023; Tian and Cui, 2023), the introduction of fine-grained categories amplifies the issue in our setting. Inspired by work in bias mitigation (Wang et al., 2020), we train a set of expert classifiers, each specialized towards a specific text length. Following prior work (Wang et al., 2020), we use all classifiers at test time regardless of input document length. See Fig. 3 for an illustration of our approach.

Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We introduce HERO, a robust FG-MGT detector that combines categories into a hierarchy to focus the model’s ability to discriminate between fine-grained categories, which outperforms the state-of-the-art by 2.5-3 mAP on average.
- We show Subcategory Guidance modules provide an effective approach for separating similar categories without incurring test-time resource costs suffered by related work.
- We conduct an in-depth analysis on FG-MGT using HERO to identify potential manipulation and misinformation in text content to ensure the safe deployment of LLMs.

2 Related Work

Most prior work in detecting Machine Generated Text (MGT) treats this task as a binary classification problem (Bhattacharjee et al., 2023; Solaiman et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2024; Mitchell et al., 2023; Hans et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024; Hu et al., 2023; Kuznetsov et al., 2024), *i.e.*, detecting whether the input text is human-written or machine-generated. These include Metric-based methods (Mitchell et al., 2023; Su et al., 2023; Bao et al., 2024; Hans et al., 2024; Miralles-González et al., 2025), which extract distinguishable features from the text using the target language models. *E.g.*, Solaiman et al. (2019) apply log probability, Gehrmann et al. (2019) use the absolute rank of each token, and Verma et al. (2024) searches over a language model’s feature space. Many of these methods (*e.g.*, (Mitchell et al., 2023; Su et al., 2023; Bao et al., 2024)), rely on an observation that small changes to generated text typically lower its log probability under the language model, a pattern not

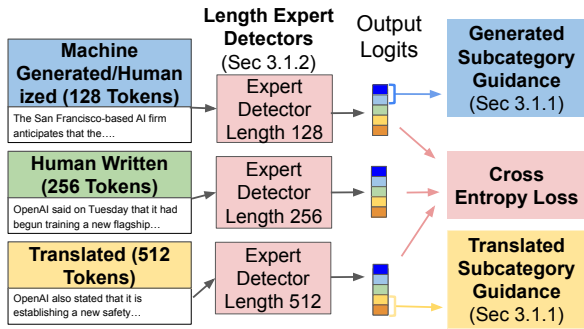


Figure 3: **Our HERO framework.** Each input is processed by a specialized expert detector based on its token length. In addition to the standard cross-entropy loss, we introduce generated subcategory guidance to machine-generated and machine-humanized text, while translated subcategory guidance is used for translated text. See Sec. 3 for discussion.

seen in human-written text. Thus, these methods inject perturbations to the input text. However, these models are only defined for the binary classification, and it is unclear if they can be extended to our setting as we need to separate many types of machine influenced text.

Some recent studies have recognized the importance of detecting other categories of MGT (Krishna et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024; Nguyen-Son et al., 2021), including machine paraphrased and translated text. For example, Krishna et al. (2024) enhanced machine paraphrased text detection using retrieval methods, and Li et al. (2024) identified paraphrased sentences through article context. Nguyen-Son et al. (2021) applied round-trip translation to detect Google-translated text. Macko et al. (2023); Mao et al. (2025) explored detecting generated text in non-English languages, but not machine-translated text. Abassy et al. (2024) explored a fine-grained reason task similar to ours, but did not consider the effect of machine-translated text. The high similarity between the sub-categories can also reduce the generalization of such an approach to detect other types of manipulations.

3 Expanding Fine-grained Machine Generated Text Detection

Given an article $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$, fine-grained machine-generated text (FG-MGT) detection aims to separate samples into a set of categories $y_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, K\}$ where $y_i = 0$ corresponds to human-written text, and $y_i = k$ where $k \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ corresponds to one of K distinct categories of machine-influenced text. Prior work on FG-MGT

explored up to four categories: **human** written, machine **generated**, **humanized** machine generated, and **paraphrased/polished** human written text (Krishna et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024; Abassy et al., 2024). However, this ignores **translated** text, another form of machine-influenced generation with often benign use, but, as shown in Fig. 1, may be detected as LLM-generated. Thus, to provide additional insight for users of FG-MGT models, we add a new category based on the source language a document was translated from. However, as we will show, we find that separating these types of similar generation types is challenging, especially on out-of-domain generators used at test time.

To address our FG-MGT task, we introduce Hierarchical, length-RObust machine-influenced text detector (HERO), which makes two improvements to FG-MGT detectors. First, Sec. 3.1.1 describes our Subcategory Guidance modules, which help construct a feature representation that can more easily separate similar categories. Second, Sec. 3.1.2 discusses our length-expert approach to improving support for varying document lengths. Sec. 3.2 discusses our data generation process that we use to train and evaluate our FG-MGT detectors.

3.1 Our HERO Approach

As discussed earlier, our objective is to create a FG-MGT model that can identify if a document is machine-generated and the specific type of machine influence. While our approach is designed to generalize across a wide range of authorship types and languages, in this paper we focus on predicting likelihoods over eight categories for English articles: human written, machine generated, paraphrased, humanized, translated (Chinese), translated (Russian), translated (Spanish), and translated (French) as defined at the beginning of Sec. 3. Our HERO model begins by taking our input document x passes it through a shared feature encoder g . To learn to identify our categories above, we use cross entropy \mathcal{L}_{CE} , whose classifier uses the input from $g(x)$ and estimates the likelihood that sample x was produced by one of the FG-MGT categories.

A simple approach would be to simply change an MGT detector (*e.g.*, (Hans et al., 2024; Mitchell et al., 2023; Verma et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024; Gehrmann et al., 2019; Su et al., 2023; Tian and Cui, 2023)) to produce a multi-class outputs. However, we found these models struggle to distinguish between similar generation types, especially when evaluated on out-of-distribution

language models. We address this issue with a Subcategory Guidance module in the next section.

3.1.1 Fine-grained Text Classification via Subcategory Guidance

One common strategy for discriminating between fine-grained categories is to build a coarse-to-fine hierarchy (Xu et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2023; Amit et al., 2004), where categories become more similar as you traverse down the hierarchy. However, these methods are often deployed within a single domain, *i.e.*, the distribution of the data seen during training is similar to that seen at test time. This is due, in part, to the fact that these methods require careful tuning to balance the predictions of the hierarchy of classifiers being deployed. *I.e.*, they require careful calibration between the coarse and fine-grained classifiers to boost performance. In FG-MGT, this would put a significant limitation on our detectors, as it would effectively mean that we can only deploy them on seen text domains and for language models used during training.

Instead, we introduce a Subcategory Guidance module to help direct feature learning during training, which is discarded at test time. We group together semantically similar categories that specialize in separating samples in each group. Specifically, we create one module for each of the four translated categories as well as for machine-generated and humanized text. Although the machine generated and humanized text are both entirely generated, the fact that a user decided to query a language model to make the text appear more human suggests they might be trying to obfuscate a detector, providing some potential intent information. Similarly, knowing the language a document was translated from can provide clues as to where a document first appeared. Our Subcategory Guidance models aim to help our detector better discriminate between these categories.

Unlike the coarse-to-fine methods discussed earlier, these modules are discarded at test time. Thus, they do not affect computational resources at test time or require complicated calibration procedures that do not generalize well to out-of-domain samples. Instead, they boost performance by guiding the formation of the shared feature space produced by the shared encoder g during training. Each Subcategory Guidance module takes as input samples that stem only from the categories of their type. For example, the Translated Subcategory Guidance only takes features from documents from the four

translated categories as input. Then it uses cross entropy to separate documents into their fine-grained categories. In effect, this simply amounts to computing a loss over a subset of predictions, making it easy to implement and deploy.

Our final objective consists of a tradeoff function balancing the task loss with our Subcategory Modules, which we define as \mathcal{L}_{GH} and \mathcal{L}_{Trans} for the generated/humanized and translated categories, respectively. Formally, our total loss is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{Total} = \mathcal{L}_{CE} + \lambda(\mathcal{L}_{GH} + \mathcal{L}_{Trans}), \quad (1)$$

where λ is a tunable hyper-parameter.

3.1.2 Improving Support to Varying Document Lengths

Prior work has shown that short documents, which inherently have little information about authorship, are challenging to identify as machine generated (Zhang et al., 2024). Solaiman et al. (2019) found they could improve a detector’s robustness to varying document lengths by randomly cropping articles during training. However, a detector for short length article has to naturally be more sensitive to distribution changes given the limited information than it does for a longer article. Training a single model to adjust for both the sensitivity as well as make fine-grained distinctions is challenging. Instead, we leverage a set of experts, each of which specializes in documents up to a set length.

Formally, given an input text x , we train a set of M expert classifiers $\{f_1, \dots, f_M\}$, each trained with a specific maximum token length and associated parameters \mathbf{W}_m . Each expert is trained using Subcategory Guidance from Sec. 3.1.1. However, empirically we find that including some information from documents of lengths other than the ones targeted by an expert can help improve performance (*e.g.*, seeing some 256 token length documents can boost performance for a 512-length expert). Thus, we used length cropping, where with p_{crop} , documents of other lengths are included during training to improve the model’s robustness.

Given a document at test time we can simply use the expert of the closest length. If a document is between experts, we use the larger one. However, some prior work in bias mitigation has shown that averaging experts even over settings they do not specialize in can boost performance (Wang et al., 2020). In effect, when compute is available, these experts can form a type of ensemble. Thus, in

our experiments we evaluate these experts as an ensemble in addition to using them individually.

3.2 Data Preparation: Article Generation

We generate articles for a range of domains (Sec. 3.2.1) and language models (Sec. 3.2.2) to ensure FG-MGT methods generalize across many settings, which we discuss in more detail below.

3.2.1 Source Datasets

GoodNews (Biten et al., 2019) provides URLs of New York Times articles from 2010 to 2018. After filtering out broken links and non-English articles, we randomly selected 8K/2K/2K articles for train/test/validation splits.

VisualNews (Liu et al., 2021) has articles from four media sources: *Guardian*, *BBC*, *USA Today*, and *Washington Post*. We randomly selected 2K articles for evaluation.

Student essays (Essay), creative writing (WP), and news articles (Reuters) (Verma et al., 2024) represent three diverse domains with 1K articles from each dataset used for evaluation.

WikiText (Stephen et al., 2017) contains 60 test articles collected from Wikipedia.

Each source dataset above provides per-category article counts. *E.g.*, for GoodNews this results in 2K human written articles * 8 categories = 16K total test samples. Additionally, only GoodNews was used for training, so results on the remaining datasets provide insight into domain shifts of varying degrees (*e.g.*, VisualNews and Reuters being close domains, whereas the rest are far domains).

3.2.2 Generation Process

To ensure the quality of generated text we keep all prompts for each category consistent throughout the generation process. All other hyperparameters such as temperature for each LLM are also kept the same for consistency. Specifically, the language models we used include Llama-3 (Touvron et al., 2023), Qwen-1.5 (Bai et al., 2023), StableLM-2 (Bellagente et al., 2024), ChatGLM-3 (Du et al., 2022), and Qwen-2.5 (Yang et al., 2024). Llama-3 is set as our in-domain generator used for training the detector, and StableLM-2, ChatGLM-3, Qwen-1.5, and Qwen-2.5 are out-of-domain generators to evaluate the model’s generalization ability. When generating articles, we used a temperature for Llama-3 of 0.6 and for StableLM-2 we used 0.7. For Qwen-1.5, Qwen-2.5, and ChatGLM-3 we use default temperatures for generating responses.

To prevent the model from leaking information about the article’s category (*e.g.*, Llama-3 often responds with "Here is the polished version:"), we use the text starting from the second sentence as input to the detector. Below we further discuss category-specific generation processes.

Machine-generated articles were created by giving the LLM the title with the prompt: “Write an article on the following title, ensuring that the article consists of approximately z sentences,” where z represents the number of sentences in the original article. This ensures that articles of different categories are of similar length, preventing the detector from using length as a classification feature.

Machine-paraphrased articles were generated by giving the LLM the entire human-written article as input with the prompt "Paraphrase the following article: x ." We provide a study the effect of replacing only parts of the articles in App. B.

Machine-translated articles were produced using the same process as for paraphrasing, only replacing the word "paraphrase" with "translate" in the prompt. Translated articles were drawn from the following languages: Chinese, Spanish, Russian, and French (additional discussion in App. C).

Machine-humanized articles were created by giving the a machine-generated article as input to the LLM with the prompt: “Rewrite this text to make it sound more natural and human-written.” We provide a specific example in App. D.

4 Experiments

Implementation Details. Our base encoder uses a DistilBERT (Sanh et al., 2020) backbone. The maximum token length of the input text is set to 512 when training all methods (including our own). The same maximum length is used evaluate the model’s performance during testing except where noted. For training, we used the Adam optimizer with a maximum learning rate of 10^{-5} . Following Zhang et al. (2024); Verma et al. (2024), we fine-tuned the model for three epochs to prevent overfitting. Our experiments were conducted on a single GPU (*e.g.*, A40, L40S). For a single dataset (*e.g.*, GoodNews), data preparation takes approximately 60 hours, and training takes around 1 hour.

Metrics. Our main results use mean Average Precision (mAP) and the probability of detection (PD) at 5% false positive rate (FPR). We report mAP per generator, and then rank a detector’s overall performance by averaging mAP across both in-domain

Model Scale	In-domain LLMs		Out-of-domain LLMs			avg mAP	PD 5%FPR
	Llama3 -8B	Qwen1.5 -7B	Qwen2.5 -12B	ChatGLM3 -6B	StableLM2 -7B		
In-domain mAP on GoodNews (Biten et al., 2019)							
OpenAI-D (large)	94.04	41.60	41.90	48.23	71.21	59.39	53.31
ChatGPT-D	80.83	38.79	40.43	40.00	62.74	52.56	47.08
LLM-DetectAIve	96.24	41.27	42.28	44.72	76.87	60.28	55.31
DistilBERT	96.89	38.99	40.91	42.21	74.59	58.72	53.77
HERO (ours)	98.33	44.05	41.88	50.47	76.93	62.33	56.23
Out-of-domain mAP on VisualNews (Liu et al., 2021)							
OpenAI-D (large)	60.67	32.62	37.99	38.51	52.53	44.46	36.64
ChatGPT-D	47.19	27.39	31.02	33.82	49.93	37.87	31.20
LLM-DetectAIve	62.41	32.54	39.41	36.34	55.70	45.28	38.51
DistilBERT	61.11	31.64	32.77	36.75	54.43	43.34	36.49
HERO (ours)	64.17	38.98	37.70	42.17	55.48	47.70	39.09
Out-of-domain mAP on WikiText (Stephen et al., 2017)							
OpenAI-D (large)	65.39	33.65	36.43	36.38	52.06	44.78	35.33
ChatGPT-D	38.78	29.16	32.76	30.78	43.08	34.91	24.38
LLM-DetectAIve	65.62	29.89	28.55	27.52	45.38	39.39	29.92
DistilBERT	66.37	33.51	28.42	30.19	49.82	41.66	33.12
HERO (ours)	72.19	37.97	31.52	35.45	52.58	45.94	37.00
Out-of-domain mAP on WP (He et al., 2023)							
OpenAI-D (large)	55.48	46.69	44.88	37.44	55.34	47.97	23.50
ChatGPT-D	40.57	37.71	42.22	34.86	43.69	39.81	17.50
LLM-DetectAIve	65.39	48.53	51.35	35.35	56.32	51.39	28.50
DistilBERT	71.65	44.61	50.88	40.51	49.74	51.48	29.25
HERO (ours)	73.68	47.14	41.01	39.12	52.58	50.71	42.55
Out-of-domain mAP on Reuters (He et al., 2023)							
OpenAI-D (large)	74.63	50.72	51.51	54.11	54.08	57.01	26.75
ChatGPT-D	57.42	46.03	48.28	50.65	44.05	49.29	22.00
LLM-DetectAIve	85.92	38.48	43.37	53.54	59.65	56.19	22.75
DistilBERT	81.04	48.66	42.95	42.14	65.93	56.14	31.00
HERO (ours)	84.50	48.59	41.99	50.85	58.94	56.98	49.70
Out-of-domain mAP on Essay (He et al., 2023)							
OpenAI-D (large)	51.29	29.09	31.74	40.79	36.42	37.87	18.25
ChatGPT-D	32.27	33.24	29.97	30.62	25.45	30.31	11.75
LLM-DetectAIve	52.56	40.22	41.37	34.78	37.89	41.38	23.75
DistilBERT	48.98	36.13	31.16	28.39	36.57	36.25	17.25
HERO (ours)	60.07	38.20	35.90	33.11	35.69	40.59	33.76

Table 1: Fine-grained MGT detection results on in-domain GoodNews data and five out-of-domain datasets. HERO outperforms or obtains similar results to prior work in nearly all settings and metrics, providing an overall advantage.

and out-of-domain LLMs (avg mAP). We also report F1 score in some ablations.

4.1 Baselines

OpenAI-D (Solaiman et al., 2019) is a detector trained on outputs from GPT-2 (Radford et al.,

2019) series. OpenAI provides two versions: RoBERTa-base and RoBERTa-large. With fine-tuning and early stopping, OpenAI-D can also be used to detect text generated by other LLMs.

ChatGPT-D (Guo et al., 2023) is designed to identify text produced by ChatGPT-3.5 (Ouyang et al., 2022). It is trained using the HC3 (Guo et al., 2023) dataset, which includes 40,000 questions along with both human-written and ChatGPT-generated answers, before finetuning on our task.

LLM-DetectAIve (Abassy et al., 2024) distinguishes between machine-generated, machine-paraphrased, and human-written text by fine-tuning RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019) and DeBERTa (He et al., 2021) models. We apply the DeBERTa backbone of LLM-DetectAIve in our experiments.

DistilBERT (Sanh et al., 2020) is a distilled version of BERT (Devlin et al., 2019). Since the model is pre-trained using knowledge distillation, it is smaller and faster at inference time.

4.2 Results

Tab. 1 compares the performance of our HERO approach to prior work on in-domain and out-of-domain datasets, respectively. Note that both tables have results on in-domain and out-of-domain LLMs used for generation. HERO achieves a boost in both mAP and PD 5%FPT in nearly all settings (e.g., a 2% boost in avg mAP on GoodNews as seen in Tab. 1). In cases where we underperform prior work on avg mAP, e.g., 1 point worse on WP and Essay in Tab. 1, we greatly outperform in PD 5%FPT (a 12.5% and 10% gain, respectively). Thus, our approach demonstrates significant benefits over the methods from prior work.

Fig. 4 reports per-class performance on GoodNews and Reuters as representatives of in-domain and out-of-domain data, respectively. We make two major observations about these results. First, in-domain data and LLMs gets nearly perfect performance, highlighting the significant role shifts in both has on performance. For example, while nearly all methods get perfect performance on humanized data in Fig. 4(a), when we shift domains (but not LLMs) in Fig. 4(b) performance drops significantly. Second, no method gets the best performance consistently across all categories. For example, while HERO gets best performance identifying out-of-domain human-written articles, LLM-DetectAIve performs best on identifying Russian-sourced translations on Reuters (but performs rela-

	Llam a3-8B	Qwen 1.5-7B	StableL M2-12B	ChatGL M3-6B	Qwen 2.5-7B	avg mAP
(a) DistilBERT (2020)						
L=32	37.97	25.38	22.75	24.10	26.42	27.33
L=50	45.49	31.01	27.47	28.05	31.52	32.71
L=128	58.09	37.97	33.98	33.68	39.64	40.67
L=256	46.41	29.46	37.60	32.01	34.19	35.93
L=500	66.71	32.12	58.50	59.37	32.47	49.84
L=512	61.13	31.18	54.49	35.02	32.88	42.94
(b) HERO (ours) - Single Length Specialist Only						
L=32	37.51	32.15	31.18	26.22	29.61	31.33
L=50	44.62	36.68	34.08	30.04	33.72	35.83
L=128	62.23	43.94	38.53	36.81	43.79	45.06
L=256	50.98	33.75	43.22	34.67	39.25	40.37
L=500	63.79	37.73	56.44	40.53	38.42	47.38
L=512	60.87	35.36	54.51	38.00	35.50	44.85
(c) HERO (ours) - All Length Specialists						
L=32	36.39	31.78	30.92	25.79	29.22	30.82
L=50	42.65	35.75	33.66	29.04	32.93	34.81
L=128	60.23	42.51	37.20	35.01	42.08	43.40
L=256	51.92	32.50	39.27	34.46	38.63	39.36
L=500	69.91	47.39	58.98	38.47	47.07	52.36
L=512	64.07	38.22	56.73	41.00	38.04	47.61

Table 2: Comparison of mAP scores on Visual-News (Liu et al., 2021) across different input lengths for DistilBERT (2020) and HERO. HERO consistently outperforms DistilBERT across all lengths and generators. For length-specialist models, we use the expert closest in length, defaulting to the longer one when in between.

tively poorly on paraphrased data). Thus, our performance improvements come from having more consistent results rather than being strictly better for all categories.

Tab. 2 reports performance on various input document lengths using our FG-MGT detectors. Across all token length settings, performance generally improves with longer token lengths with the best results consistently observed at 500 and 512 tokens. Compared to DistilBERT (2020), both the individual length specialist and HERO demonstrate improved performance. The Length Specialist approach shows especially strong performance on short lengths, with the single specialists outperforming the ensemble, validating that such documents require special care.

4.3 HERO Model Analysis

Tab. 4 provides an ablation study to show the contribution of each component of HERO. We see Subcategory Guidance provides a 2.5 average mAP gain over the baseline DistilBERT (Sanh et al., 2020). We also compare to a naive coarse-to-fine approach that first tries to predict if an input document is human-written, machine-generated, para-

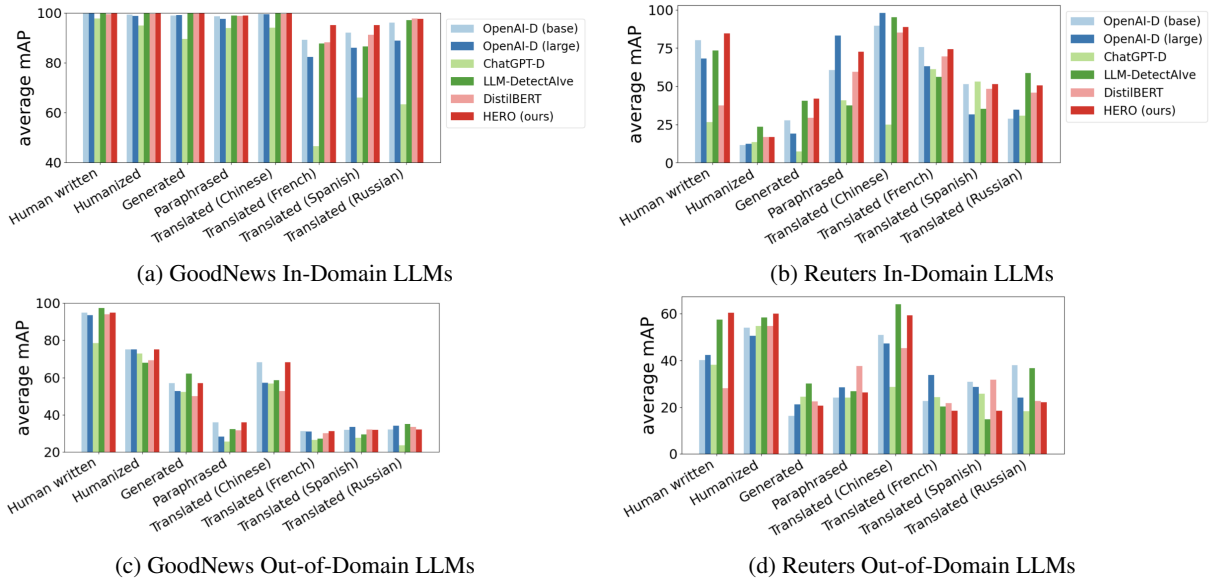


Figure 4: Per-class mAP results on the GoodNews (Biten et al., 2019) and Reuters (Verma et al., 2024) datasets. Top row: In-domain LLMs. Bottom row: Out-of-domain LLMs. Our method shows more robust performance, especially on human-written and translated categories.

Model	ID LLMs			OOD LLMs		
	Low	Median	High	Low	Median	High
In-domain mAP on GoodNews (Biten et al., 2019)						
OpenAI-D (base)	95.23	94.53	92.71	52.58	27.30	29.06
OpenAI-D (large)	92.36	90.87	84.25	58.44	25.97	28.16
ChatGPT-D	72.81	69.87	65.68	46.41	26.40	25.74
LLM-DetectAIve	93.45	95.03	89.59	65.90	25.99	31.86
DistilBERT	94.85	95.49	92.46	62.97	26.55	27.38
HERO (ours)	97.41	97.36	95.50	64.61	26.44	27.31
Out-of-domain mAP on WikiText (Stephen et al., 2017)						
OpenAI-D (base)	67.02	69.39	64.81	31.29	29.40	32.49
OpenAI-D (large)	72.88	69.68	67.56	42.19	30.92	33.11
ChatGPT-D	53.40	44.53	40.96	28.55	29.01	27.66
LLM-DetectAIve	67.20	71.23	63.40	37.48	31.11	31.52
DistilBERT	70.50	65.74	57.95	34.24	29.04	32.18
HERO (ours)	73.98	69.19	63.08	36.76	32.06	34.13

Table 3: Fine-grained MGT detection results by BLEU translation quality. We find that HERO performs especially well across quality groups on out-of-domain data.

phrased, or translated. If it is machine-generated or translated, we use a separate detector to separate it into the subcategories. Comparing the 2nd and 3rd row of Tab. 4, we see the naive approach underperforms our Subcategory Guidance approach by 14.5 average mAP, highlighting the challenges of generalizing beyond the training domain in our task. We also show that Length Cropping and our expert models from Sec. 3.1.2 both individually boost performance, but when we combine all components we see the best performance.

Tab. 3 reports the effect of translation quality binned into low, medium, and high based on BLEU scores. Similar to our per-category results discussed earlier, HERO’s benefits stem from performing better across the varying degrees of translation quality. Notably, our approach performs especially well on out-of-domain data (WikiText results), obtaining the best performance in all but one setting. We also evaluate how the extent of paraphrasing used affects performance in App. B, where HERO typically reports at least a 2 average mAP gain over the baseline DisilBERT model. These results demonstrate our approach’s robustness to a wide range of applications.

Is HERO still effective if subcategory information is not required? Tab. 5 we evaluate a setting where the goal is only to predict one of four categories: human written, machine generated, machine paraphrased, and translated (effectively eliminating the subcategories). We compare a DisilBERT trained to predict these four categories with HERO, where we take the highest subcategory score to represent our confidence in that category. We see that HERO still obtains 3 mAP gain on average, demonstrating the benefits of leveraging subcategory information even if the fine-grained category predictions are not necessary.

Fig. 5 shows the effect of training on different combinations of languages. As we increase the number of languages beyond two, we start to see

Model Scale	In-domain LLMs		Out-of-domain LLMs					avg mAP	PD 5%FPR	F1 Score
	Llama3 -8B	Qwen1.5 -7B	Qwen2.5 -12B	ChatGLM3 -6B	StableLM2 -7B					
DistilBERT (2020)	61.11	31.64	54.43	36.75	32.77	43.34	36.49	32.30		
+Naive Coarse-to-Fine	42.62	29.12	28.36	26.89	30.66	31.53	10.67	22.62		
+Subcategory Guidance	61.20	37.09	54.83	39.16	37.56	45.97	39.09	33.87		
+Length Cropping (2019)	60.69	38.24	53.84	40.06	34.20	45.40	37.66	31.22		
+Length Specialists	63.21	34.44	54.05	39.72	38.10	45.90	38.86	33.85		
HERO (ours)	64.17	38.98	55.48	42.17	37.70	47.70	39.09	33.99		

Table 4: Ablation Study on Visualnews (Liu et al., 2021). Each component contributes to model performance. Additionally, our Subcategory Guidance outperforms alternatives like a Naive Coarse-to-Fine approach.

Model Scale	Llama3 -8B	Qwen1.5 -7B	StableLM2 -12B	ChatGLM3 -6B	Qwen2.5 -7B	avg mAP
DistilBERT (2020)	49.58	45.24	41.66	44.30	45.68	45.29
HERO (Ours)	52.46	47.29	45.59	47.23	48.19	48.15

Table 5: Comparison of mAP scores on VisualNews (Liu et al., 2021) for DistilBERT (2020) and HERO on human-written, machine-generated, machine paraphrased, and machine translated categories. Identifying source languages can still boost performance even when all translations are treated as a single category.

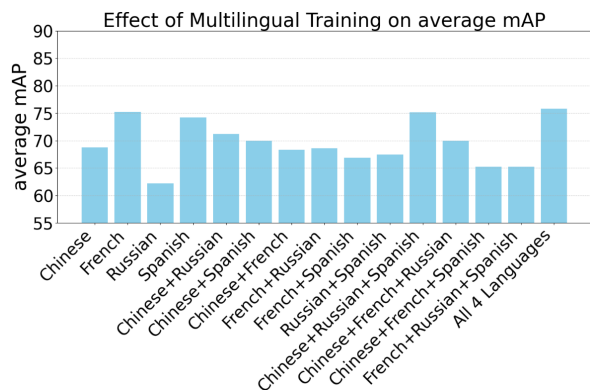


Figure 5: Effect of multilingual training on average mAP across different language combinations evaluated on the four class VisualNews (Liu et al., 2021) setting also reported in Tab. 5. Models trained on multiple languages generally outperform those trained on a single language, with the highest average mAP observed when training on all four languages.

some saturation, where there are smaller differences between models, suggesting that a very large number of languages may not be necessary to recognize a document as originating from another language.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we conduct an in-depth study of fine-grained MGT detection, aiming to further distinguish between machine translated and machine paraphrased texts from MGT. We introduced

HERO, a fine-grained machine-influenced text detection framework that goes beyond the classical binary classification approach. Our hierarchical structure, combined with length-specialist models, enables strong generalization across diverse LLMs and varying input lengths, making it suitable for real-world applications. Our extensive experiments across multiple LLMs and different datasets show that HERO consistently outperforms the state-of-the-art by 2.5-3 mAP, and does especially well in out of domain settings. We also show that identifying source languages can boost a model’s ability to identify translated text. Overall, HERO enables more accurate detection of machine-influenced content, which is essential for future works in discerning between benign and malicious uses of LLMs. **Acknowledgments.** This material is based upon work supported by DARPA under agreement number HR00112020054. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the supporting agencies.

6 Limitations

In this paper, we have investigated the FG-MGT task and our proposed HERO shows improved performance over existing detectors. Despite the improved performance, our method still has several limitations, discussed further below.

While our proposed method improves perfor-

mance for zero-shot evaluations in our experiments, our approach does not guarantee 100% accuracy on other LLMs and datasets. Therefore, we strongly discourage the use of our approach without proper human supervision (e.g., for plagiarism detection or similar formal applications). A more appropriate application of HERO is to introduce human-supervision for more reliable detection against LLM-generated misinformation.

We also notice the performance difference between in-domain LLM and out-of-domain LLMs. As shown in Sec. 4.2, the performance of HERO on out-of-domain generators (StableLM-2, ChatGLM-3, Qwen-2.5, Qwen-1.5) is still lower than that on in-domain generators (Llama-3). Therefore, out-of-domain evaluations remain a challenge for future research in this topic.

Our translated data also utilized a round-trip strategy (discussed in App. C) to control for content consistency. However, these translations may also introduce some noise into the articles that may make them easier to detect. Thus, our results should be seen as only an approximation of the model’s true performance.

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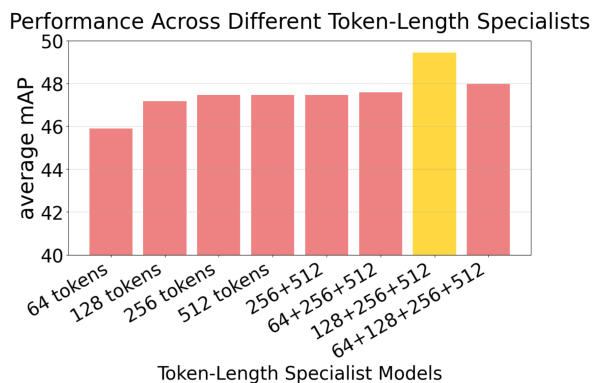


Figure 6: Average mAP across different token-length specialist models evaluated on VisualNews (Liu et al., 2021). Models trained with a single token length achieve moderate performance, while combining specialists across multiple token lengths significantly improves detection accuracy. The highest average mAP is observed when using specialists for 128, 256, and 512 tokens.

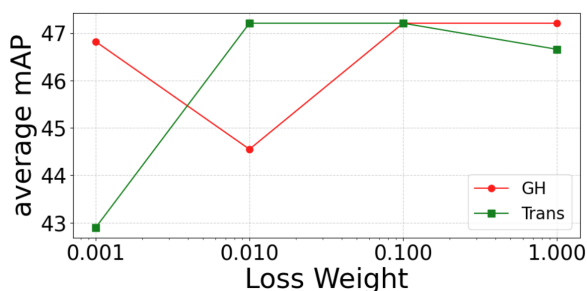


Figure 7: Effect of GH (Generate-Humanized) and Trans loss weights for guided learning on average mAP performance evaluated on VisualNews (Liu et al., 2021). The model achieves the highest mAP when both the GH and Trans loss weights are set to 0.01.

Appendix

A Additional Results

Fig. 7 shows the effect of changing the loss weight λ from Eq. 1. The same value of λ performs best for both, reducing the number of hyperparameters that need to be tuned for our model.

Fig. 6 ablates the number and size of experts to train. We find that three experts generally provide enough coverage to perform well on a diverse set of lengths. That said, the number of experts likely would vary depending on the maximum input sequence a model can support. However, very long documents are easier to detect as machine-generated (see Tab. 2), so support for very long sequences may not be necessary as a model may be able to effectively detect a language model was used on just part of a document.

Class confusion matrix. To provide a more in-

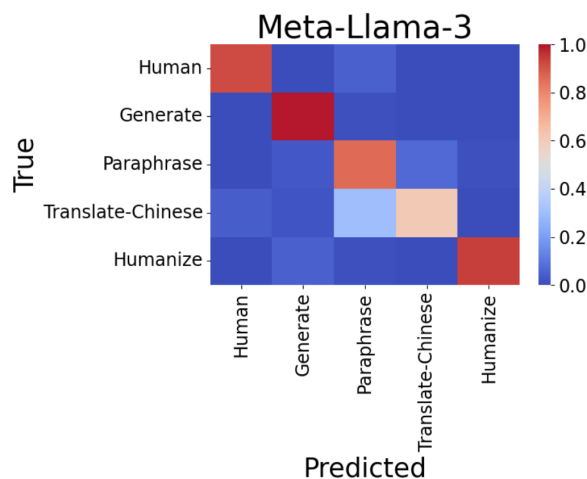


Figure 8: Confusion Matrix for in-domain LLMs on VisualNews. HERO performs well in most categories, especially on the machine-translated articles.

tuitive understanding of HERO, we provide the visualization for HERO’s performance across different FG-MGT categories on VisualNews using confusion matrices as shown in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9. The results show that HERO can accurately distinguish translated text from different source languages, even when evaluated on out-of-domain LLMs. However, the model continues to struggle with distinguishing between generated and humanized content. This challenge may stem from the fact that both types are produced by LLMs using human written input, resulting in similar surface-level characteristics.

B Effect of Paraphrasing Extent

To examine how the extent of paraphrasing can affect the performance of HERO, we paraphrased 20%, 40%, 60%, 80%, and 100% of the input text. The resulting performance is shown in Fig. 10. As paraphrasing extent increases, the detection accuracy also improves, suggesting that higher levels of paraphrasing make manipulation patterns more discernible to the model.

C Round-trip Translation Strategy

To create translated versions of the same documents, we adopt the strategy of round-trip translation to generate translated data for our FG-MGT task. Fig. 11 provides a specific example: we first translate the original article into target languages (Chinese, Spanish, French, Russian), and then translate these articles back into English, obtaining machine-translated articles for detection.

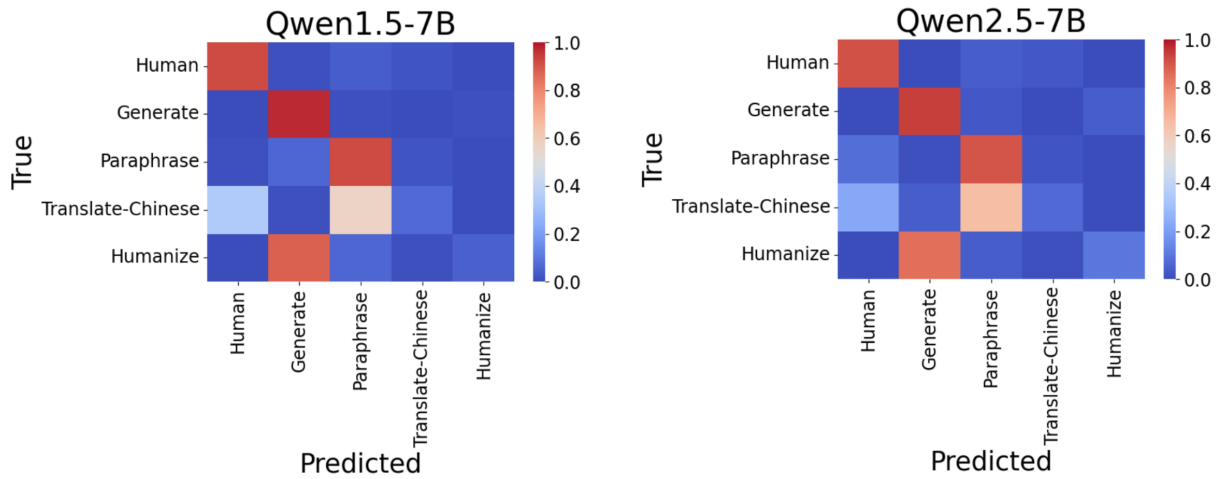


Figure 9: Confusion Matrix on out-of-domain LLMs on VisualNews. Our method can still accurately distinguish between human-written and machine-generated categories. However, when compared to in-domain evaluations in Fig. 8, detecting machine-humanized text becomes more challenging.

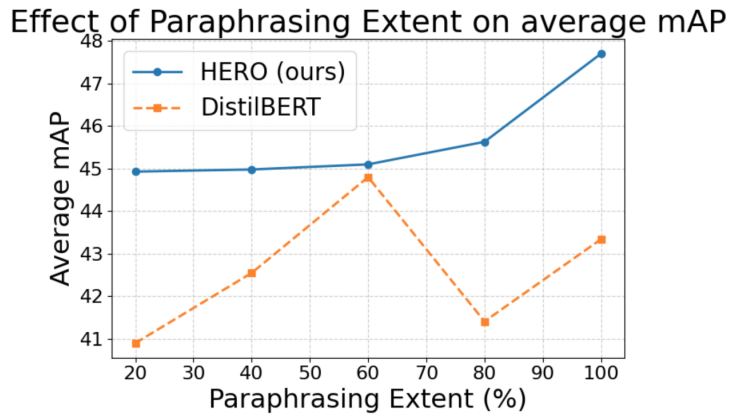


Figure 10: We illustrate the effect of paraphrasing extent on average mAP. Higher levels of paraphrasing improve the model’s performance.

D Humanized example

The purpose of machine-humanized data is to simulate a setting where a bad actor may attempt to make their generated text harder to detect. It accomplishes this by querying a LLM with a request to make the input article sound more human using processes based on those from [Abassy et al. \(2024\)](#) (see Sec. 3.2.2 for additional discussion). Fig. 12 shows an example of the differences produced by machine-humanized data.

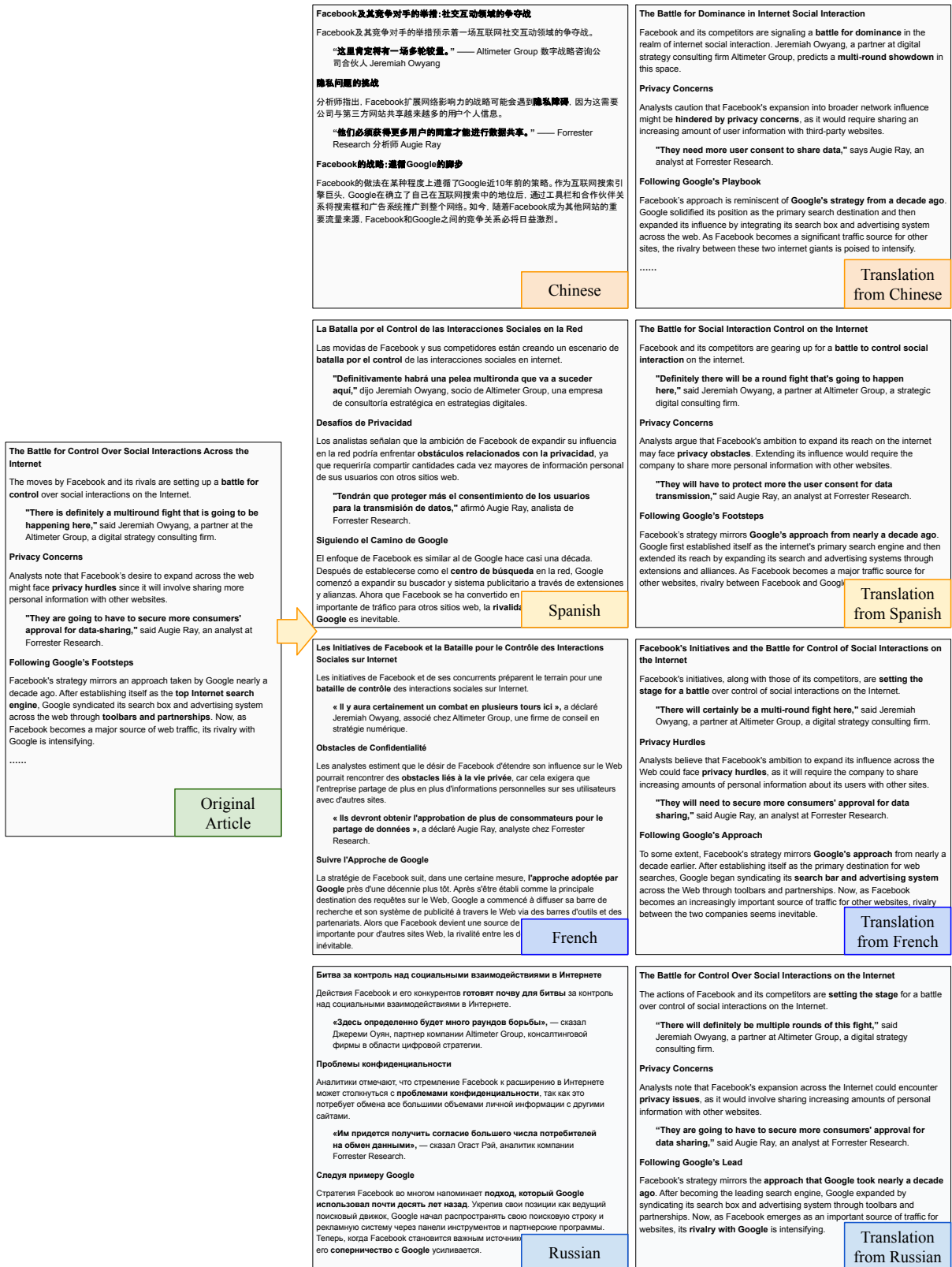


Figure 11: Round-trip Strategy for Generating Translated Articles. This strategy allows us to automatically produce translated articles from existing datasets, eliminating the need for additional data collection. See Sec. C for discussion.

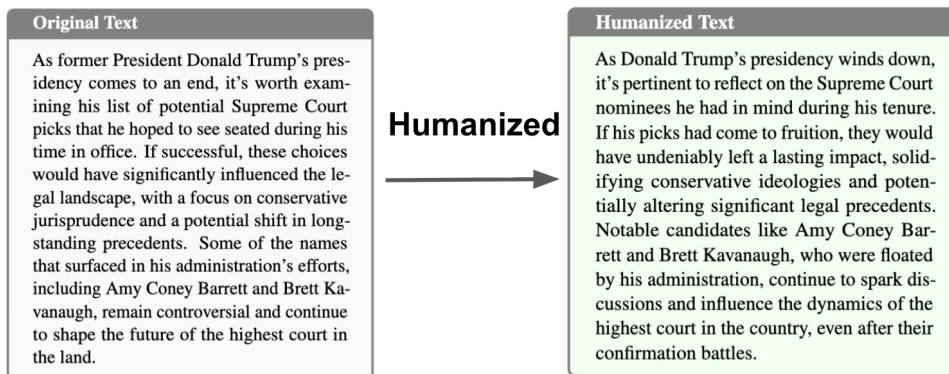


Figure 12: **Humanized text example.** We utilize machine-generated text and ask the LLMs to rewrite it to sound more natural and human-like, while maintaining the same level of detail and length.