

wangkongqiang@EEUCA 2026: Multimodal Identification of Vaccine Critical Content on Social Media

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Abstract

Our team was interested in content classification and labeling from multimodal meme detection of vaccine critical content on social media. We joined the shared task on Multimodal Identification of Vaccine Critical Content on Social Media@EEUCA with ACL 2026. In this task, our goal is to assign a content classification label to vaccine-related discourse (e.g., Vaccine critical, Neutral, Pro-vaccine). The objective is to develop systems that can classify the intent of a vaccine-related meme. The dataset for this task will have three labels: Vaccine critical (0), Neutral (1), and Pro-vaccine (2). The performance will be ranked by F1-score (Macro). This shared task is based on the *VaxMeme* dataset, a collection of over 10,000 manually annotated vaccination-related memes, designed to support multimodal vaccine-critical meme detection. Our group used a supervised learning method on finetuning pre-trained models and Large Language Model (LLM), including Qwen2 LLMs and Llama series LLMs based on Llama-Factory. The best result on the test set for shared task were Macro F1 score of 0.8153, Accuracy 0.8185, Precision (Macro) 0.8151, and Recall (Macro) 0.8159 from finetuning qwen2.1.5B LLM method, ranking 12th among all teams. The complete code of this entire project can be found at our GitHub address¹.

1 Introduction

First of all, let's introduce the overview of shared task on Multimodal Identification of Vaccine Critical Content on Social Media@EEUCA with ACL 2026 (Thapa et al., 2026b). Memes have become a powerful and fast-spreading medium for sharing information online, especially around high-impact public health issues such as COVID-19

¹https://github.com/WangKongQiang/EEUCA2026_Multimodal_Identification_of_Vaccine_Critical_Content_on_Social_Media

vaccination. While memes can be used to promote awareness and positive behavior, they are also frequently used to spread misinformation (Thapa et al., 2026a), skepticism (Thapa et al., 2024b), and vaccine-critical narratives, often through sarcasm and implicit context that make automated analysis challenging. In this context, the distinction between vaccine critical and pro-vaccine becomes blurred, as vaccination-related images straddle the line between satire and offense, challenging researchers and platforms alike to navigate the complexities of memes content moderation. As one label generally fails to encompass multiple aspects of linguistics, this shared task classifies memes on three aspects: Vaccine critical (0), Neutral (1), and Pro-vaccine (2).

This shared task is based on the *VaxMeme* dataset (Naseem et al., 2023), a collection of over 10,000 manually annotated vaccination-related memes, designed to support multimodal vaccine-critical meme detection. The task invites participants to develop models that jointly leverage both visual and textual representations to capture the global and local contextual cues embedded in memes. By focusing on fine-grained multimodal understanding, this challenge aims to advance more reliable systems for monitoring vaccine-related discourse, supporting myth debunking efforts, and informing the design of effective public health communication strategies on social media platforms.

2 Background

2.1 Content Detection for Vaccine Critical Posts

Majority of research (Wang et al., 2020) on identifying vaccine critical posts on social media has mainly focused on textual content. (Zhang et al., 2020) presented three models for analysing public sentiment on HPV vaccines on Twitter using

transfer learning. They fine-tuned bidirectional encoder representations from Transformers (BERT) (Devlin et al., 2019), and their results demonstrated the effectiveness of the proposed framework, which also aided in the discovery of vaccine uptake strategies. Recently, (Naseem et al., 2021) categorised vaccine-related tweeter posts using word representation from the domain-specific context with common knowledge and sentiment data. Their proposed method outperformed several traditional and recent transformer-based pre-trained language models. Previously published architectures, however, only focus on local semantic word representations using a sliding window for textual content. However, long-range and non-consecutive semantic links among feature representation words are required to capture global characteristics. We address this limitation by using a graph-based method to capture both local and global features of textual content.

Previously research has examined the use of multimodal content for detecting hateful memes (Lee et al., 2021), misleading information (Volkova et al., 2019), antisemitism (Chandra et al., 2021), and fake news detection (Wang et al., 2018). Experiments conducted using unimodal and multimodal in previous studies showed that understanding both modalities is essential for detection. Limited research has explored multimodal data to identify vaccine critical memes on social media. Recently, (Wang et al., 2020) created a multimodal dataset from Instagram posts and presented a multimodal framework with semantic and task-level attention to identifying vaccine critical information on social media. In contrast, our work jointly learns global and local representations of the textual and visual content of memes, which provide complementary information to improve the identification of vaccine critical memes on Twitter. We suggest that releasing a robustly annotated dataset to the community will support further advances and benchmarking of methods in this space.

2.2 Vaccine and Multimodal Datasets

Social media is a valuable source of information and has been widely used for various tasks like health mention classification (Naseem et al., 2022c), identifying suicide (Naseem et al., 2022b) and depression (Naseem et al., 2022a) and others. Systematic reviews show the wide range of applications for classifying user-generated content for

vaccine hesitancy on social media, such as infectious diseases and outbreaks such as human papillomavirus, measles Influenza, mining misinformation mining.

Only two multimodal datasets are used in the previous studies to identify vaccine critical information on social media. The first of them was presented by (Wang et al., 2020), where authors used Instagram posts with text and visual content collected from January 2016 to October 2019 to identify vaccine critical information on Instagram posts. MMCoVaR (Chen et al., 2021), a multimodal COVID-19 vaccine focused data repository is the second dataset. MMCoVaR comprises 2,593 articles and 24,184 tweets from February 2020 to March 2021 and is limited to only COVID vaccine related posts. Both mentioned datasets are not publicly available, whereas we make our dataset publicly available for further research.

3 Dataset

In this section, we describe various aspects of task dataset including data collection, meme annotation, and dataset statistics. Task dataset comprises 10,244 memes that encompass different intent content relevant to the vaccination.

3.1 Utterance Annotation

Each meme was labeled to one of 3 labels: Vaccine critical (0), Neutral (1), and Pro-vaccine (3). Neutral if meme was not concept of vaccination. meme annotation for each label are mentioned below.

Vaccine critical: A meme (text or image or both) criticises vaccines, contains vaccine misinformation about vaccine side effects, vaccine conspiracy theories, and cases or statistical conclusions against vaccines.

Neutral: A meme (text or image or both) reports the events or others' opinions objectively related to vaccines, such as talking about rights of people related to vaccines, or news or statistical charts about vaccines showing no content in favor or against vaccines.

Pro-vaccine: A meme (text or image or both) contains a content in favor of vaccines, advising people to get vaccinated, a content about any event or place that is open only for vaccinated people or promoting and selling products with slogans in favor of vaccines.

Table 1: Dataset statistics for *VaxMeme*. The data consists of 10,244 samples for the multimodal identification task of vaccine critical memes on Twitter.

Data	Number of Pro-Vaccine	Number of Vaccine critical	Number of Neutral	Total
Full	3983	3441	2820	10244
Timeline	Number of Pro-Vaccine	Number of Vaccine critical	Number of Neutral	Total
T1	452	1679	1027	3158
T2	1040	747	1062	2849
T3	2491	1015	731	4237

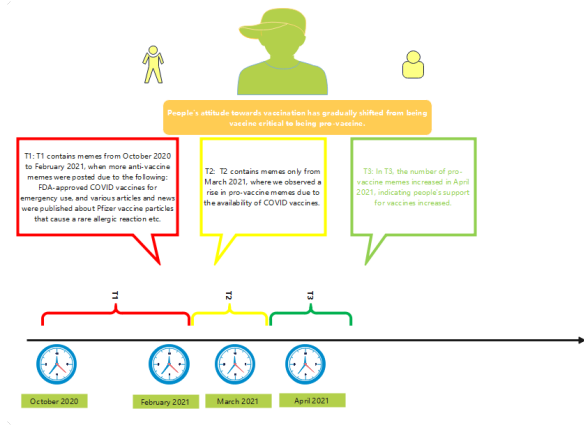


Figure 1: Timelines of the general vaccine critical memes gradually shifted in intention label.

3.2 Dataset Statistics

Table 1 (*Upper*) provides the class distribution of intent across the 10,244 English memes, and Table 1 (*Down*) provides the different timelines dividing distribution across all memes. Most memes are Pro-Vaccine or Vaccine critical in nature and an approximately data balance is present. However, this is in line with real world data distributions, where different people have different views on getting vaccinated. Figure 1 illustrates the timelines for vaccine critical memes.

4 System Overview

4.1 Fine-tuning Pre-trained Models

Introduction. In recent years, with the rapid development of deep learning technology, large-scale pre-trained models have achieved remarkable results in fields such as natural language processing, computer vision, and multimodal learning. Compared with traditional models trained from scratch, pre-trained models can learn rich semantic representations and general knowledge by pre-training on large-scale general corpora, thereby significantly improving the performance and training efficiency of downstream tasks. However, the knowledge learned by pre-trained models on general corpora often has strong generalization, while specific tasks usually have obvious domain charac-

teristics. Therefore, directly applying pre-trained models to downstream tasks often fails to achieve the best results. To solve this problem, researchers usually adopt the fine-tuning strategy, that is, further optimize the model parameters using the data of specific tasks on the basis of the pre-trained model, so that it can better adapt to the target task. In this study, to enhance the model's performance in the task of vaccine critical content analysis on social media, a pre-trained language model was adopted as the base model and fine-tuned in combination with specific task data (*VaxMeme* dataset), enabling the model to effectively learn the semantic relationship between vaccination-related meme expressions and their underlying intents.

The classifier in the pre-trained model uses a transformer based classifier. The specific pre-trained models of the classifier are shown in the Table 2.

Table 2: pre-trained model classifier structure for vaccine critical content classification.

Model	Batch Size	Num Epochs	Learning Rate
alber/albert-base-v2	4	5	2e-5
google-bert/bert-base-uncased	4	5	2e-5
nghuyong/ernie-2.0-large-en	4	5	1e-5
nghuyong/ernie-1.0-base-zh	4	5	1e-5
FacebookAI/roberta-large-mnli	4	5	2e-5
cambridge/tl/trans-encoder-bi-simcse-roberta-large	4	5	1e-5

The Principle of Fine-tuning Pre-trained Models. Pre-trained models typically use large-scale corpora for self-supervised learning, such as tasks like language model prediction, masked language modeling, or autoregressive modeling, thereby learning common language representations. After pre-training, the model parameters already contain a large amount of language knowledge and semantic information. Therefore, in downstream tasks, only a small amount of labeled data is needed to achieve good performance.

The basic idea of fine-tuning is to introduce supervisory signals from downstream tasks on the basis of the parameters of the pre-trained model and further optimize the model parameters through the gradient descent algorithm. Let the parameters of the pre-trained model be θ , Given the downstream task training dataset $\mathcal{D} = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^N$, Where x_i represents the input text and y_i represents the corresponding label, then the model training objective can be expressed as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \ell(f(x_i; \theta), y_i) \quad (1)$$

Here, $f(\cdot)$ represents the model prediction func-

tion, and $\ell(\cdot)$ is the loss function (such as cross-entropy loss). By minimizing this loss function, the model can gradually adapt to the data distribution of a specific task, thereby enhancing the prediction performance.

In practical applications, fine-tuning typically includes the following two methods:

- Full Fine-tuning: Update all the parameters of the pre-trained model to enable it to fully adapt to the target task.
- Parameter-efficient Fine-tuning: Only update some parameters or introduce additional lightweight modules to reduce training costs, such as Adapter, LoRA and other methods.

In this study, based on the characteristics of the task and the availability of computing resources, the pre-trained model was trained using a parameter-efficient fine-tuning strategy.

Input Data Construction. First of all, the original data needs to be converted into an input format that the model can handle. For text tasks, the following steps are usually required:

- Text Cleaning and Preprocessing: Remove irrelevant symbols or abnormal characters;
- Word Segmentation and Encoding: Use the tokenizer corresponding to the pre-trained model to convert the text into a token sequence;
- Input Sequence Construction: Ultimately, the input text will be represented as a sequence of token ids and input into the pre-trained model for feature encoding.

Task Structure Design. During the fine-tuning process, it is necessary to design the corresponding prediction structure based on the specific task. For instance, in the task of vaccine critical memes intent analysis on social media, the model needs to simultaneously identify vaccination-related discourse intent categories as well as the corresponding memes content information. Therefore, a model is usually composed of the following parts:

- Pre-trained Encoding Layer: Used for extracting semantic representations of text;
- Task-specific Layer: For example, the classification layer or the sequence labeling layer;

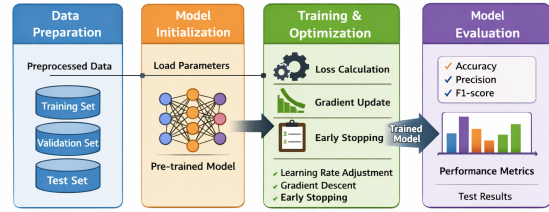


Figure 2: The framework diagram of the fine-tuning pre-trained classification model.

- Output Layer: Generate the final prediction result.

By adding task-related structures at the top of the pre-trained model, the model’s adaptability to specific tasks can be effectively enhanced.

The overall architecture diagram of the fine-tuning pre-trained model is shown in the Figure 2.

Design of Loss Function. During the training process, it is necessary to select an appropriate loss function based on the type of task. For classification tasks, the cross-entropy loss function is usually adopted.

$$\mathcal{L} = - \sum_{i=1}^C y_i \log(p_i) \quad (2)$$

Here, C represents the number of categories, y_i is the true label, and p_i is the model prediction probability. By minimizing the loss function, the consistency between the model’s prediction results and the true labels can be gradually improved.

4.2 Hard Voting Mechanism

The hard voting mechanism is a common model fusion strategy in ensemble learning, mainly used for classification tasks. Its basic idea is: multiple base learners make predictions on the same sample respectively, and then determine the final prediction category through majority voting.

The Principle of Hard Voting Mechanism. Assume that the ensemble model consists of M base classifiers: $h_1(x), h_2(x), \dots, h_M(x)$, where $h_i(x)$ denotes the prediction of the i -th classifier for input sample x . The final prediction of the hard voting ensemble is determined by majority voting:

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{c \in C} \sum_{i=1}^M I(h_i(x) = c) \quad (3)$$

where C represents the set of all possible classes and $I(\cdot)$ is an indicator function defined as:

$$I(h_i(x) = c) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } h_i(x) = c \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

In a weighted hard voting scheme, each classifier is assigned a weight w_i , and the final prediction can be written as:

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{c \in C} \sum_{i=1}^M w_i \cdot I(h_i(x) = c) \quad (5)$$

In our experiment, the weights of each classifier were the same.

4.3 Fine-tuning of the Qwen2 and Llama series Large Language Model (LLM)

Qwen2 is an open-source large language model (LLM) developed by the Tongyi Qianwen team and created by Alibaba Cloud’s Tongyi Lab. Using Qwen2 as the base large language model (LLM) and achieving high-accuracy text classification through instruction fine-tuning is an introductory task for learning the fine-tuning of large language models (LLMs). The Llama-2 7B (Touvron et al., 2023b) model approximately 7 billion parameters in an open-source large language model (LLM) released by Meta in 2023, belongs to a typical Transformer decoder architecture. Parameter scale is approximately 7B; Context length is approximately 4K tokens; Architecture is Standard Transformer + Multi-Head Attention (MHA). Features: Mature structure and stable reasoning; Suitable for deployment in resource-constrained environments; It is mostly used for basic NLP tasks and lightweight applications. The Llama-3 8B (Grattafiori et al., 2024) model of is a new generation version released in 2024, featuring significant upgrades in both architecture and training data. Parameter scale is approximately 8B; Context length is approximately 8K tokens (longer context); Architecture improvement based on enhance efficiency by using Grouped Query Attention (GQA); Tokenizer based on word list from 32K to 128K (stronger expressive power); The training data scale has significantly expanded (about 7 times).

Instruction fine-tuning is a process of further training an LLMs on a dataset composed of (instruction, input, output) combine pairs. Among them, the instructions represent the human instructions of the model, the input represent the raw data

content from specific dataset, and the output represents the expected output that follows the instructions. This process helps bridge the gap between the next word prediction target of LLMs and the goal of users to have LLMs follow human instructions.

In this vaccine-related behavioral intent classification task on social media, we will use the Qwen2-1.5B-Instruct² and Qwen2-7B-Instruct³ model to perform instruction fine-tuning tasks on the dataset, while using SwanLab⁴ for monitoring and visualization. Llama3-8B, while maintaining a lightweight scale, has achieved a significant performance improvement over Llama2-7B through a larger vocabulary, longer context window, and GQA attention mechanism, making it a strong competitor among current open-source small-parameter models. The fine-tuning of the Llama series models (Touvron et al., 2023a) is mainly carried out using the Llama-Factory tool⁵. The following presents three demonstration formatted data samples for fine-tuning LLM data in the train dataset. Our training task is to ensure that the fine-tuned large language model (LLM) can predict the correct output based on the prompt words composed of post_text, image_text and selectable types.

The complete process of fine-tuning the Qwen2 and Llama series large language model (LLM) using the train dataset and conducting model inference on validation or test dataset with the fine-tuned large language model (LLM), as shown in Figure 3.

5 Results and Analysis

For results obtained by our fine-tuning pre-trained models and fine-tuning Qwen2 or Llama series LLM methods on the train dataset, and implement model inference on validation dataset and test dataset are shown in Table 3 and Table 4 respectively. roberta-RNN indicates the addition of a layer of recurrent neural network (RNN) after *FacebookAI/roberta-large-mnli* model, which is the LSTM layer. roberta-cnn indicates adding a convolutional neural network (CNN) layer after *FacebookAI/roberta-large-mnli*, which is the Conv2d layer. bagging refers to the model ensemble decision-making method that employs hard vot-

²<https://huggingface.co/Qwen/Qwen2-1.5B-Instruct>

³<https://huggingface.co/Qwen/Qwen2-7B-Instruct>

⁴<https://swanlab.cn>

⁵GitHub: <https://github.com/hiyouga/LlamaFactory>



Figure 3: The framework diagram of the fine-tuning qwen2 and Llama series classification LLM and model inference.

ing mechanism in the four models: roberta, roberta-RNN, simcse-roberta-lstm, roberta-lstm-gru.

Table 3: The results obtained by our fine-tuning pre-trained models and fine-tuning Qwen2 or Llama series LLM methods for vaccine-related discourse intent classification task on the validation dataset.

Pre-trained Model	Recall (Macro)	Precision (Macro)	F1 (Macro)	Accuracy
albert/albert-base-v2	-	-	-	-
google-bert/bert-base-uncased	-	-	-	-
nguyuyong/ernie-2.0-large-en	-	-	-	-
nguyuyong/ernie-1.0-base-zh	-	-	-	-
FacebookAI/roberta-large-mnli	-	-	-	-
cambridgeltl/trans-encoder-bi-simcse-roberta-large	-	-	-	-
roberta-RNN	-	-	-	-
roberta-cnn	-	-	-	-
roberta-lstm-gru	-	-	-	-
simcse-roberta-lstm	-	-	-	-
bagging	-	-	-	-
Large Language Model	Recall (Macro)	Precision (Macro)	F1 (Macro)	Accuracy
qwen2_1.5B	0.7945	0.7948	0.7943	0.7969
qwen2_7B	-	-	-	-
Llama2_7B	-	-	-	-
Llama3_8B	-	-	-	-

Table 4: The results obtained by our fine-tuning pre-trained models and fine-tuning Qwen2 or Llama series LLM methods for vaccine-related discourse intent classification task on the test set.

Model	Recall (Macro)	Precision (Macro)	F1 (Macro)	Accuracy
albert/albert-base-v2	0.7618	0.7916	0.7611	0.76
google-bert/bert-base-uncased	0.763	0.7734	0.7649	0.7727
nguyuyong/ernie-2.0-large-en	0.7918	0.8016	0.7915	0.7941
nguyuyong/ernie-1.0-base-zh	0.756	0.7652	0.7552	0.76
FacebookAI/roberta-large-mnli	0.8029	0.808	0.8025	0.8049
cambridgeltl/trans-encoder-bi-simcse-roberta-large	0.7933	0.7986	0.7935	0.7971
roberta-RNN	0.7985	0.8019	0.7971	0.799
roberta-cnn	0.7982	0.8	0.7988	0.8049
roberta-lstm-gru	0.7945	0.8076	0.7928	0.7922
simcse-roberta-lstm	0.804	0.8047	0.8036	0.8078
bagging	0.804	0.809	0.8025	0.8039
Large Language Model	Recall (Macro)	Precision (Macro)	F1 (Macro)	Accuracy
qwen2_1.5B	0.8159	0.8151	0.8153	0.8185
qwen2_7B	0.8135	0.815	0.8134	0.8166
Llama2_7B	0.8006	0.8026	0.7998	0.8029
Llama3_8B	0.8051	0.8044	0.8046	0.8098

6 Discussion

It is highly unusual that Qwen2-1.5B outperformed Llama-3-8B. A plausible explanation for this anomaly is that the 8B model may have been more sensitive to hyperparameter settings, such as learning rate or regularization, leading to subopti-

mal fine-tuning or mild overfitting on the training data. In contrast, the smaller 1.5B model could have benefited from better generalization under the same setup. Additionally, differences in pretraining data quality and alignment strategies between Qwen and Llama models may also have contributed to the performance gap. For shared task on Multimodal Identification of Vaccine Critical Content on Social Media@EEUCA with ACL 2026, we referred to the relevant tasks of CASE 2025 (Hurriyotoglu et al., 2025), CASE 2024 (Thapa et al., 2024a) and CASE 2023 (Thapa et al., 2023) shared tasks on multimodal hate speech detection and derived our own method. Although the effect of the experiment needs to be strengthened. However, these contents and ideas have given us a lot of inspiration. Vaccine-related discourse intent content analysis is a longstanding tradition of the EEUCA workshop series. We believe that with our further research and more detailed optimization on training of the model, we will achieve even greater success in future competitions.

7 Conclusion

We employed multiple methods in detection of vaccine-related discourse behavioral intent on social media, which respectively involved the transformer pre-trained models and Qwen2 or Llama series LLM. Our final leaderboard is shown in the Table 5. The best result of this task was achieved by fine-tuning the Qwen2_1.5B large language model (LLM) and conducting inference on the test set.

Table 5: The final leaderboard of shared task on Multimodal Identification of Vaccine Critical Content on Social Media@EEUCA with ACL 2026.

#	Username	Recall (Macro)	Precision (Macro)	F1 (Macro)	Accuracy
1	liu12-657947	0.8517	0.8494	0.8494	0.8517
2	wangxiaoxian-637268	0.8409	0.8386	0.8389	0.842
3	rishita_19-611897	0.8359	0.8359	0.8357	0.839
4	allexristea-636983	0.8351	0.8338	0.834	0.838
5	sumaiya_110-594217	0.834	0.8345	0.8332	0.8361
6	anchoy-637928	0.8309	0.8309	0.8308	0.8341
7	myname-637930	0.8309	0.8309	0.8308	0.8341
8	quasar-637336	0.8324	0.8331	0.8306	0.8322
9	wenbin-634065	0.8218	0.8205	0.8205	0.8244
10	manuia.beene-636958	0.8209	0.8212	0.8201	0.8244
11	vingo-babu-637935	0.819	0.8216	0.8184	0.8215
12	wangkongqiang-495416	0.8159	0.8151	0.8153	0.8185
13	ratpier-637076	0.8161	0.817	0.815	0.8176
14	yjwong1999-494691	0.8141	0.8189	0.8122	0.8137
15	linus-637363	0.8123	0.8106	0.8105	0.8137
16	havnis-636808	0.8083	0.808	0.8067	0.8117
17	alishba-wazir-604227	0.8071	0.8132	0.8067	0.8088
18	zmin123-553584	0.8013	0.8005	0.7997	0.8039
19	lin123-637530	0.8007	0.7992	0.7994	0.8039
20	barikion-636765	0.7986	0.7986	0.7976	0.799
21	merlii-636903	0.7982	0.8058 (19)	0.7972	0.799
22	exterioro-636705	0.7846	0.7864	0.7861	0.7912
23	abs123-504332	0.7864	0.7864	0.7846	0.7912
24	thagrass-519137	0.7802	0.7858	0.7754	0.7844
25	kamunurk-615633	0.7437	0.7435	0.7436	0.7502

8 Limitations of the Work

we are interested in learning about LLMs in computational social science (Thapa et al., 2025), our paper mainly focuses on making discussions on

vaccine-related discourse for this meme behavioral intent classification task. This is because we are quite interested in and good at identifying hate (Bhandari et al., 2023) and offense categories in the text (Parihar et al., 2021). Due to our lack of utilization of context features, we are unable to make good use of the image content in the train dataset of this sharing task. We have chosen the 7B version of Qwen2 due to the limited computing resources. If we could use a larger language model with more parameters, we would achieve better prediction results. These are all our future tasks.

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