# Causal Language Model Perplexity for Human Authorship Attribution

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#### Abstract

 In this paper, we introduce an authorship attri- bution method that identifies the most likely author of a questioned document based on the perplexity of the questioned document calcu- lated for a set of GPT-2 models fine-tuned on the writings of each candidate author. We eval- uate our method on corpora representing the writings of 50 fiction authors. We find that the perplexity of causal large language models is able to distinguish among these 50 authors with an overall f-score of 0.99 and a macro average accuracy of 0.99, considerably outperforming other state-of-the-art methods applied to other datasets with similar numbers of authors. We also test how the performance of our method depends on the length of the questioned docu- ment and the amount of training data for each author. We find that to reach a 0.90 f-score with 50 possible authors via our method, the mini- mum training data required is 28,000 tokens, while the minimum testing data required is 70 **022** tokens.

## **<sup>023</sup>** 1 Introduction

 For centuries, researchers have developed meth- ods for *authorship attribution* to resolve cases of disputed authorship by comparing the style of a questioned document to writing samples from a set of candidate authors [\(Juola,](#page-4-0) [2006;](#page-4-0) [Stamatatos,](#page-4-1) [2009\)](#page-4-1). The goal of authorship attribution is to iden- tify the candidate whose style of writing is most similar to a questioned document. Stylometry is the quantitative analysis of style and is a common approach to authorship attribution [\(Juola,](#page-4-0) [2006;](#page-4-0) **[Stamatatos,](#page-4-1) [2009\)](#page-4-1).** A wide range of different mea- surements and methods for authorship attribution 036 have been developed in stylometry [\(Grieve,](#page-4-2) [2007;](#page-4-2) [Stamatatos,](#page-4-1) [2009\)](#page-4-1). The most popular techniques include Principal Component Analys of function word frequencies [\(Binongo,](#page-4-3) [2003;](#page-4-3) [Grieve,](#page-4-4) [2023\)](#page-4-4) and distance-based comparisons of the frequen-cies of common words [\(Argamon,](#page-3-0) [2007;](#page-3-0) [Burrows,](#page-4-5)

[2002\)](#page-4-5). Although stylometric approaches are very **042** useful for resolving certain types of authorship **043** attribution tasks, there are clear limitations with **044** these techniques: the overall performance of these **045** methods drastically declines when the number of **046** [c](#page-4-6)andidate authors increases [\(Grieve,](#page-4-2) [2007;](#page-4-2) [Luy-](#page-4-6) **047** [ckx and Daelemans,](#page-4-6) [2011\)](#page-4-6), when the length of the **048** [q](#page-4-8)uestion document decreases [\(Eder,](#page-4-7) [2015;](#page-4-7) [Grieve](#page-4-8) **049** [et al.,](#page-4-8) [2018\)](#page-4-8), and when the amount of training data **050** [f](#page-4-6)rom the candidate authors decreases [\(Luyckx and](#page-4-6) **051** [Daelemans,](#page-4-6) [2011\)](#page-4-6). **052**

The power of modern large language models **053** (LLMs), however, has the potential to address **054** these issues. Examples of such approaches in- **055** clude building universal authorial embedding via **056** Siamese BERT [\(Rivera-Soto et al.,](#page-4-9) [2021\)](#page-4-9) or Char- **057** acter BERT [\(El Boukkouri et al.,](#page-4-10) [2020\)](#page-4-10), and using **058** [B](#page-4-12)ERT for classification [\(Fabien et al.,](#page-4-11) [2020;](#page-4-11) [Tyo](#page-4-12) 059 [et al.,](#page-4-12) [2022\)](#page-4-12). In addition, in response to increasing **060** [c](#page-4-13)oncerns about the misuse of LLMs [\(Bommasani](#page-4-13) **061** [et al.,](#page-4-13) [2022;](#page-4-13) [Gehrmann et al.,](#page-4-14) [2019;](#page-4-14) [Tian et al.,](#page-4-15) **062** [2023;](#page-4-15) [Wu et al.,](#page-4-16) [2023;](#page-4-16) [Gehrmann et al.,](#page-4-14) [2019;](#page-4-14) [Wu](#page-4-16) **063** [et al.,](#page-4-16) [2023\)](#page-4-16), the task of LLM identification has **064** gained prominence, with causal language model **065** perplexity being proposed as a potential indica- **066** tor, encompassing applications in fully automated **067** detection and computer-assisted methods such as **068** GLTR [\(Gehrmann et al.,](#page-4-14) [2019\)](#page-4-14) and GPTZero **069** [\(Chakraborty et al.,](#page-4-17) [2023\)](#page-4-17). Although researchers **070** have attempted authorship attribution via LLM per- **071** plexity for PoS-tags [\(Fourkioti et al.,](#page-4-18) [2019\)](#page-4-18) and **072** [p](#page-3-1)re-trained BERT perplexity (i.e. pALM; [Barlas](#page-3-1) **073** [and Stamatatos,](#page-3-1) [2020\)](#page-3-1), the performance of these **074** systems is poor [\(Tyo et al.,](#page-4-12) [2022\)](#page-4-12). **075**

In this paper, we address human authorship at- **076** tribution via LLM perplexity by introducing the **077** concept of *authorial causal language models*. Our **078** approach involves fine-tuning a series of authorial **079** GPT-2 models based on the known writing of a **080** series of candidate authors, creating one model for **081** each author. We then calculate the perplexity of **082**

 the questioned document given each of these *au- thorial LLMs*. Finally, we attribute the questioned document to the author whose authorial LLM has 086 the lowest perplexity for the questioned document. We show that the method achieves remarkably high performance, while addressing various limitations with stylometric methods for authorship attribution.

### **<sup>090</sup>** 2 Methodology

### **091** 2.1 Data

 To evaluate our method, we require a large num- ber of texts written in a relatively consistent genre/register by a large number of authors. Fur- thermore, as our method relies on fine-tuning of authorial GPT-2, we prefer a dataset containing as many texts as possible. Considering existing datasets, we found that CCAT50 [\(Lewis et al.,](#page-4-19) [2004\)](#page-4-19), Blogs50 [\(Schler et al.,](#page-4-20) [2006\)](#page-4-20), and Gutenber- gAA [\(Tyo et al.,](#page-4-12) [2022\)](#page-4-12) contain a sufficient number of authors, but they are either too small or imbal- anced in genre/register, text count, or token count by author. We therefore compiled our own Guten- berg English Fiction Authorship corpus (GEFA) to evaluate our method.

 To compile GEFA, we first extracted texts from 07 **Project Gutenberg<sup>1</sup>**, controlling for genre/register and the time of publication. We collected the con- tent of books tagged as fiction from 1830 to 1920 from 50 authors. We chose to work with 50 authors because distinguishing between such a large num- ber of authors is generally considered to be chal- lenging [\(Grieve,](#page-4-2) [2007\)](#page-4-2) and because this is compa- rable with existing datasets used to evaluate meth- ods for authorship attribution in NLP [\(Lewis et al.,](#page-4-19) [2004;](#page-4-19) [Schler et al.,](#page-4-20) [2006;](#page-4-20) [Tyo et al.,](#page-4-12) [2022\)](#page-4-12). We then cleaned the texts (e.g., removing Project Gutenberg specific labels) and split each document into texts of at least 512 tokens. This decision was guided by the general difficulty in attributing shorter texts in stylometry, where a minimum text length of 500 words is commonly used [\(Grieve,](#page-4-2) [2007\)](#page-4-2) and even stricter criteria are often recommended [\(Grieve,](#page-4-2) [2007;](#page-4-2) [Eder,](#page-4-7) [2015\)](#page-4-7). This procedure led to texts with similar token counts, which we labelled as *GEFA Unbalanced*, because the number of texts per au- thor has not been controlled. Next, we randomly sampled an equal number of texts from each au- thor, equal to the smallest number of texts in any author's corpus. We then split the data into train-ing (80%) and test (20%) sets, which we labeled

## 2.2 Authorial GPT Fine-Tuning **140**

In our study, we chose GPT-2 small as the base **141** model to minimize training costs. Furhermore, **142** preliminary research has suggested that the link **143** between perplexity accuracy and model size is lim- **144** ited [\(Radford et al.,](#page-4-21) [2019\)](#page-4-21). With fine-tuning epoch **145** counts set to 100, we fine-tuned 50 authorial GPT-2 **146** based on the texts of 50 authors in the training set, **147** and we labeled fine-tuned GPT-2s with the corre- **148** sponding author names. We conducted fine-tuning 149 on Graphcore IPU Pod 4 Machine at PaperSpace. **150** We make all scripts accessible online.<sup>[2](#page-1-1)</sup>. . **151**

#### 2.3 Perplexity **152**

Perplexity of a fixed-length causal language model **153** *M* over a token sequence  $T = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_t\}$  is 154

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ppl\left(M,T\right)=exp\left\{-\frac{1}{t}\sum_{i}^{t}p_{M}\left(x_{i}|x_{
$$

**155**

In practice, we calculate perplexity as the cross **156** entropy between the true token and predicted **157** logits, namely  $exp\{CrossEntropy(Logits, T)\}$ . **158** Given a questioned test text Q, and a pre-trained 159 authorial GPT-2 model M, we first pass Q to GPT- **160** 2 BPE Tokenizer to form a true token sequence **161** T. This token sequence is then passed to M for **162** language modeling, where *Logits* is in the model 163 outputs. Then we calculated cross entropy of T **164** and Logits in torch.nn.CrossEntropyLoss of **165** PyTorch. Finally, we obtain the perplexity of Q **166** under M as exponentiated cross entropy with base **167** e. **168**

#### 2.4 Authorship Prediction **169**

As perplexity measures how well an LLM **170** predicts a text, we apply this concept to human **171** authorship attribution as follows: given a text **172** Q from author i, and a set of authorial GPT-2 **173** models  $\{M_1, M_2, \ldots M_n\}$  fine-tuned on texts **174** from a set of candidate authors  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , **175** 

as *GEFA full*. Based on this full dataset, we also **132** produced a series of downsampled datasets to test **133** our method as the amount of training data for each **134** author decreases. Downsampled GEFA versions **135** are labelled GEFA-X where X is the percentage of **136** texts in GEFA full. To ensure the reproducibility of **137** our results, all GEFA versions are made accessible **138**  $here<sup>2</sup>$  $here<sup>2</sup>$  $here<sup>2</sup>$ . . **139**

<span id="page-1-0"></span><sup>1</sup> https://www.gutenberg.org

<span id="page-1-1"></span><sup>2</sup> https://anonymous.4open.science/r/CLMPPL-ACLARR2024

<span id="page-2-0"></span>

A: author count; T: text count; TK: token count; TTL: test text length, in token count

Table 1: Facts on Datasets

<span id="page-2-1"></span>

<b>Method</b>	<b>Dataset</b>	Acc.	<b>Dataset</b>	Acc.
<b>CLMppl</b>	<b>GEFA</b>	99.8	<b>GEFA5</b>	92.6
Ngram	CCAT <sub>50</sub>	76.7	Blogs50	72.3
<b>BERT</b>	CCAT <sub>50</sub>	65.7	Blogs50	75.0
	GAA	59.1		
<b>PPM</b>	CCAT <sub>50</sub>	69.4	Blogs50	72.2
	GAA	57.7		
pALM	CCAT <sub>50</sub>	63.4		

Table 2: Comparison Between Our Method (CLMppl) And Recent SOTA Studies [\(Tyo et al.,](#page-4-12) [2022\)](#page-4-12)

176 we expect  $ppl(M_i, Q)$  to be lowest among  $\{ppl(M_1, Q), ppl(M_2, Q), ..., ppl(M_n, Q)\}.$  This is because we expect the text Q to be most predictable for the model that was fine-tuned on the training corpus for author i. To test these assumptions, we evaluated our method on the full GEFA dataset as well as a range of GEFA downsampled datasets.

## **<sup>184</sup>** 3 Results

 We evaluated the performance of our method on GEFA using f-score and accuracy. On GEFA full, our method achieves a near-perfect 0.998 on both criteria, and our method still achieves an f-score of 0.926 on the downsampled GEFA-5 training set, which consists of only 5% of the data in GEFA full. Both results are excellent compared to both stylometric approaches and recent SOTA studies in NLP, as presented in [Table 1](#page-2-0) and [Table 2.](#page-2-1) The table shows that when compared against recent SOTA studies with similar author count, and on the same benchmark of macro-average accuracy, our method outperforms other studies. This is even true when we evaluate on GEFA-5: with training data as small as 42 texts per author, or approximately 28k tokens per authors, our method still achieves the best macro-average accuracy by a considerable **202** amount.

**203** Furthermore, to evaluate the robustness of our

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Figure 1: Training Data Token Count and Our Method

<span id="page-2-3"></span>

Figure 2: Test Text Length and Our Method

method across authors, we calculated single author **204** f-scores. [Table 3](#page-5-0) in the Appendix shows that we **205** achieve perfect performance for most authors: 82% **206** of authors have a perfect f-score of 1, while 98% **207** have f-scores over 0.99. Only one author is below **208** this threshold (Alexander, Mrs.); however, an f- **209** score of 0.95 was still obtained. **210** 

In addition to evaluating our method on *GEFA-* **211** *full* and *GEFA-5*, we evaluated our method on var- **212** ious GEFA downsampled datasets to test how its **213** performance is affected when the training token **214** count is varied. We plot f-scores across GEFA **215** downsampled corpora in [Figure 1,](#page-2-2) which shows **216** how performance changes as training data token **217** count increases. We also evaluated our method **218** using different test text length by calculating per- **219** plexity for truncated test texts. We plot f-scores for **220** different text lengths in [Figure 2,](#page-2-3) which shows how **221** performance changes as test text length increases. **222** As expected, we found that increasing the amount 223 of training data or the length of the test texts re- **224** sulted in higher f-scores and smaller inter-quartile **225** ranges. However, both f-scores and inter-quartile **226** ranges stabilize as the median f-score hits 0.90, **227** which requires at least 28,000 tokens in training 228 data or 70 tokens in test texts. This result demon- **229** strates that our method is still highly accurate on **230** 50 authors with limited training data or short test **231** texts. **232**

#### 4 Discussion **<sup>233</sup>**

We attribute the excellent performances of our **234** method to the fact that perplexity provides access **235** to the token-level authorial features that are inac- **236** cessible in type-based methods. Compared with **237** standard type-based methods in stylometry, which **238**

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 are based on the relative frequencies of common words, n-grams, and other forms, our method is capable of capturing authorial information for each word token rather than each word type, thereby offering greater flexibility and granularity.

 For instance, the use of the word *baseball* is not generally a good feature for stylometric authorship attribution for two reasons. First, it is relatively infrequent, making it difficult to obtain a meaning- ful measurement of relative frequency of this word type. This is why stylometric methods tend to focus on high frequency forms. Second, even if sufficient data were available, the relative frequency of this word type in any text or corpus would primarily reflect the topic of that text or corpus, as opposed to the style of the author. For example, a text with the frequent use of the word *baseball* will tend to be about this sport. This is problematic in the con- text of authorship attribution because the goal is to attribute texts to the correct authors regardless of the topical content of the text. This is why stylo- metric methods tend to focus not only on common features, but on grammatical features, like function word frequency.

 Our token-based approach, however, avoids these issues as it assigns a perplexity score to ev- ery token in a text. In general, we can assume that if a questioned document is about baseball, occurrences of the word *baseball* will generally carry very little authorial information, and that the perplexity of the tokens of the word *baseball* in that text will consistently be low for all authors. However, given a questioned document on some other topic, a token of the term *baseball* (e.g., as an example or as a metaphor) would potentially be highly discriminatory – extremely unexpected for most authors, unless, for example, an author often uses baseball metaphors out of context.

 In this sense, our method is similar to the type of qualitative stylistic authorship analysis often con- ducted manually in a forensic context, where foren- sic linguists examine a questioned document word by word [\(Coulthard et al.,](#page-4-22) [2016;](#page-4-22) [Grant,](#page-4-23) [2008\)](#page-4-23). Like a forensic stylistic analysis, a great advantage of our approach compared to a standard stylometric analysis is that we can extract considerably more information from each text: every token is now a valid feature, whereas for traditional methods only frequent types can potentially be features. Our method can therefore produce highly accurate re- sults, even when presented with large numbers of candidate authors and short questioned documents.

## 5 Conclusion **<sup>291</sup>**

We developed an authorship attribution method **292** based on the perplexity of fine-tuned causal lan- **293** guage models, achieving a near perfect f-score of **294** 0.99, outperforming existing authorship attribution **295** methods tested on datasets of similar dimensions. **296** In addition, we found that to reach an f-score of **297** 0.90 on our evaluation corpus, our method requires **298** at least 28,000 tokens of training data or test texts **299** consisting of at least 70 tokens. Future research **300** may focus on few-shot authorship attribution via **301** perplexity of in-context-learning-capable LLM like **302** Llama-2 [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-4-24) [2023\)](#page-4-24) and authorship pro- **303** filing with filtered perplexity. In addition, we be- **304** lieve that our perplexity-based approach constitutes **305** a general method for comparative research in cor- **306** pus linguistics, allowing for automated token-level **307** comparative linguistic analysis. **308**

## 6 Limitation **<sup>309</sup>**

Currently, our method has only been tested on dif- **310** ferent versions of GEFA. Though GEFA is made **311** openly accessible to ensure replicability of this re- **312** search, it is still important to evaluate our method **313** on existing datasets to test the robustness and com- **314** parability of our current results. It is also impor- **315** tant to evaluate our method when the amount of **316** training data and test text length are varied simul- **317** taneously, especially to assess performance when **318** both of these factors are limited. Finally, additional **319** examination of subtle biases in GEFA is important, **320** despite our best efforts to balance the corpus. **321**

## 7 Ethics and Impact **<sup>322</sup>**

Our research is based on publicly available base **323** model and, and we are not aware of specific risks **324** except biases inherited from data or base model, **325** which needs to be examined before any implemen- **326** tations in a large scale. Moreover, when put in **327** practice, the predicted author from this method **328** should be treated as reference to form the final de- **329** cision of authorship together with other clues and **330** evidences. **331**

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Table 3: Performance of Our Method on Each of the 50 Authors