



# A Theoretical and Practical Introduction to Neural Language Models:

**Evaluating and Exploring their Linguistic Abilities** 

Autumn School in Al | Digital Humanities PhD, November 11 2025

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#### About me and...



I am a full-time researcher (RTD) at the <u>ItaliaNLP Lab</u>, Institute for Computational Linguistics "A. Zampolli" (<u>CNR-ILC</u>, Pisa). In 2022, I received my PhD in Computer Science at the University of Pisa.

My research interests lie primarily in the context of Natural Language Processing (NLP) and in the study of Language Models (LM). I am particularly interested in the interpretability of large-scale LMs and in the evaluation of their internal representations, with a specific emphasis on understanding their inner linguistic abilities.

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The **ItaliaNLP Lab** (**CNR-ILC**) gathers researchers, postdocs and students from computational linguistics, computer science and linguistics who work on developing resources and algorithms for processing and understanding human languages.

#### **Permanent Researchers:**

- Felice Dell'Orletta
- Simonetta Montemagni
- Dominique Brunato
- Franco Alberto Cardillo
- Giulia Venturi
- Giulia Benotto

#### Researchers (TD):

- Chiara Alzetta
- Alessio Miaschi

#### **Research Fellows:**

- Agnese Bonfigli
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#### **PhD Students:**

- Cristiano Ciaccio
- Luca Dini
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- Michele Papucci
- Marta Sartor
- + Master/Undergraduate/Visiting Students

Link to website: <a href="http://www.italianlp.it/">http://www.italianlp.it/</a>

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#### Materiali





Github Repository: <a href="https://github.com/alemiaschi/introduction">https://github.com/alemiaschi/introduction</a> NLMs Autumn School Al

## **Outline**

#### Part I:

- An introduction to Language Models (LMs)
- 2. Neural Language Models (NLMs)
- 3. Transformer-based LMs

#### Part II:

4. Interpreting and Evaluating NLMs

## Part I

# An introduction to Language Models (LMs)

#### Language Models

• In the context of numerous studies in Computational Linguistics (CL) and Natural Language Processing (NLP), it is assumed that language can be viewed as a probabilistic system

• To describe and explain the functioning of a probabilistic system, it is necessary to define a *(probabilistic) model* 

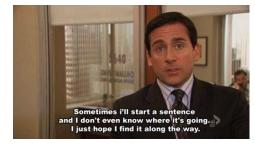
• A **language model**, therefore, is nothing more than a system capable of assigning a probability to word sequences

• Given a sequence of words  $w_1, ..., w_n$ , we can represent the sequence as:

$$p(w_1, ..., w_n) = p(w_1)p(w_2|w_1)...p(w_n|w_1, ..., w_{n-1})$$

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 As a consequence, the probability of the next word in a sequence given the preceding context can be defined as:

$$p(w_n|w_1,...,w_{n-1}) = \frac{Count(w_1,...,w_{n-1},w_n)}{Count(w_1,...,w_{n-1})}$$

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 As a consequence, the probability of the next word in a sequence given the preceding context can be defined as:

 $P(the|its\ water\ is\ so\ transparent\ that) = \frac{C(its\ water\ is\ so\ transparent\ that\ the)}{C(its\ water\ is\ so\ transparent\ that)}$ 

 N-grams LMs can be exploited to approximate the probability of the next word as follows:

$$p(w_i|w_1,...,w_{t-1}) \approx p(w_i|w_{i-N},...,w_{i-1})$$

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$$p(w_i|w_1,...,w_{t-1}) \approx p(w_i|w_{i-N},...,w_{i-1})$$

- As N increases, the approximation becomes more accurate, but the complexity grows exponentially.
- Conversely, when *N*=1, the model requires less information, but its performance is significantly lower.

Before After (3-gram) P(I saw a cat on a mat) =P(I saw a cat on a mat) = $P(\mathbf{I})$  $P(\mathbf{I})$ → P(**I**)  $\cdot P(saw | I)$  P(saw | I) → · P(saw | I)  $\cdot P(a \mid I saw)$  $\cdot P(a | I saw)$ → · P(a | I saw)  $\cdot P(cat | I saw a)$ · P(cat | <del>I</del> saw a) → · P(cat | saw a)  $\cdot P(\mathsf{on} \mid \mathsf{Isaw}, \mathsf{acat}) \longrightarrow \cdot P(\mathsf{on} \mid \mathsf{acat})$  $\cdot P(\mathsf{on} \mid \mathbf{I} \mathsf{saw} \mathsf{a} \mathsf{cat})$  $\cdot P(a | \mathbf{I} \mathbf{saw} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{cat} \mathbf{on}) \longrightarrow \cdot P(a | \mathbf{cat} \mathbf{on})$ · P(a | I saw a cat on) · P(mat | I saw a cat on a) · P(mat | on a) · P(mat | I saw a cat on a) ianore use

N-gram-based language models, however, have several limitations:

• Regardless of the value assigned to *N*, the model will always be an approximation of the true probability distribution.

 Due to the exponential growth in complexity, the choice of N will always fall on particularly low values (usually 2 or 3).

An N-gram model cannot generalize to new word sequences.

## Word representations

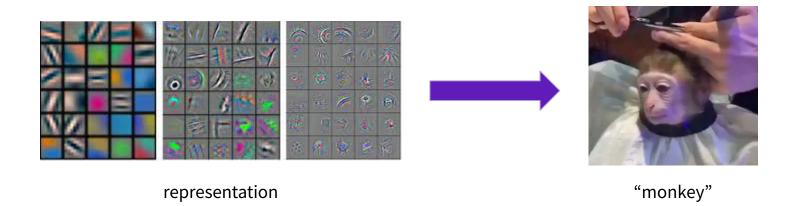
Words can be considered the basic units of a language model

 To understand a language, it is first necessary to know the meaning of the words that compose it

 To comprehend a language, a (computational) language model should be able to represent the words of that language

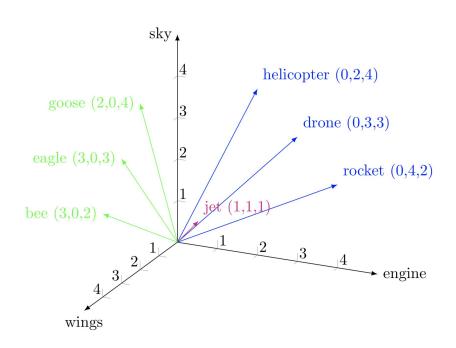
#### A representation problem

• Representation learning is a central problem in the context of Artificial Intelligence, neuroscience, and semantics

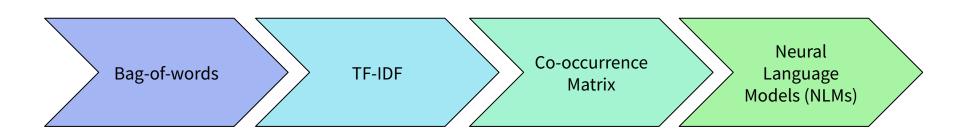


## Word representations

 From a computational perspective, the most intuitive method to represent a word is to associate it with a vector of numbers



## Word representations

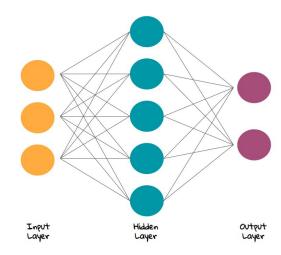


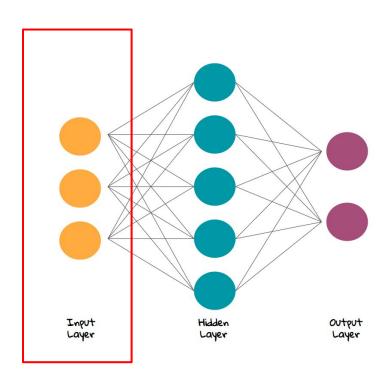
• In the context of machine learning, a neural network (NN) is a computational model composed of connected units called *artificial neurons* 

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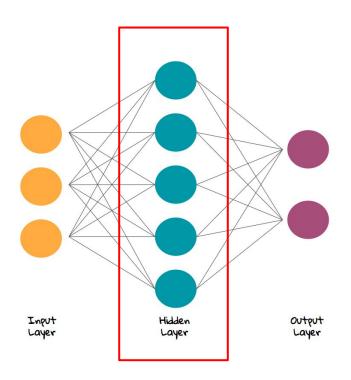
#### A NN is composed of:

- o an input layer
- one (or more) *hidden layers*
- o an output layer

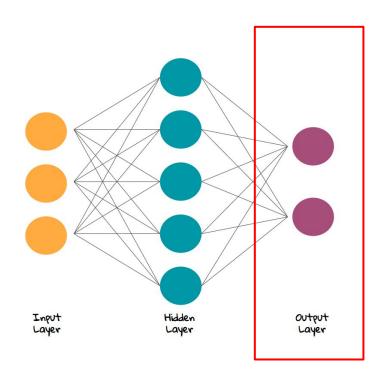




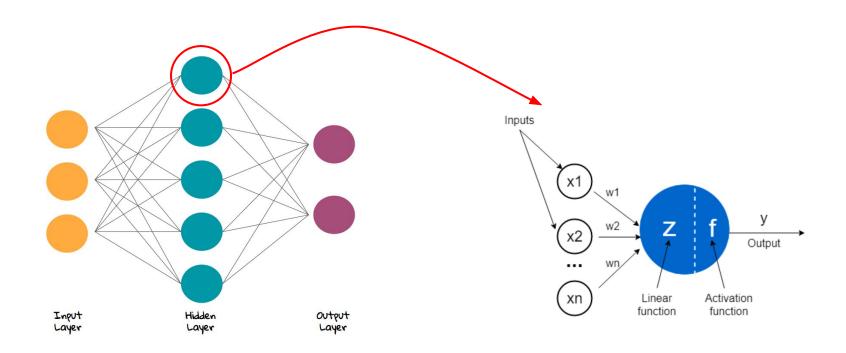
 Input data, e.g. images, words, etc

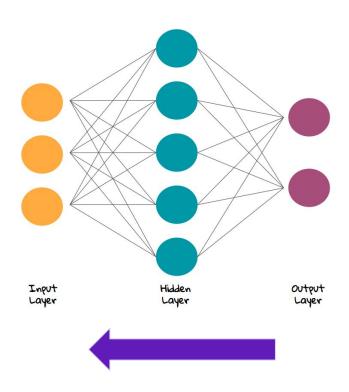


• Internal representations

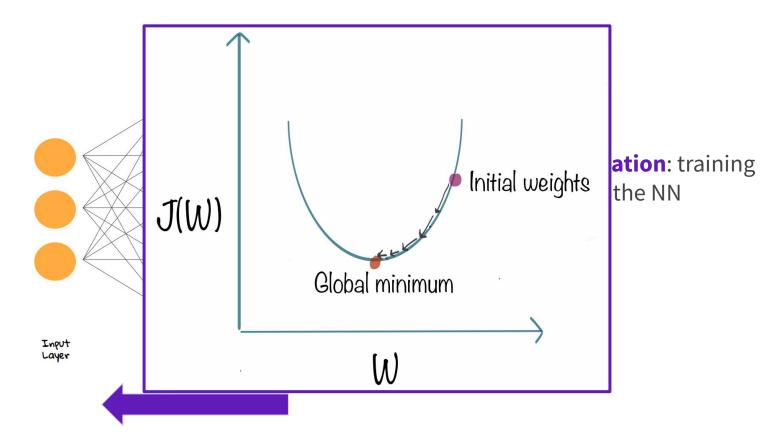


• Output, e.g. whether the image contains a cat





 Backpropagation: training algorithm of the NN



 A NLM is a Neural Network (NN) trained to approximate the language modeling function

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• A probabilistic LM defines the probability of a sequence  $s = [w_1, w_2, ..., w_n]$  as:

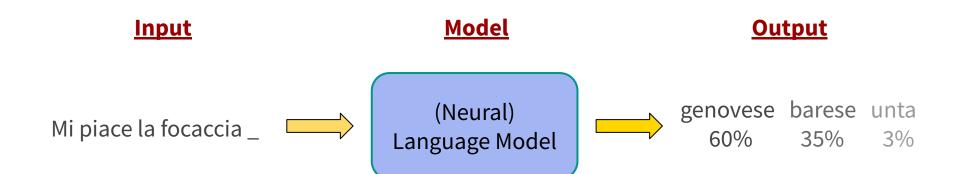
$$P(s) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(w_i|w_1, w_2, ..., w_{i-1})$$

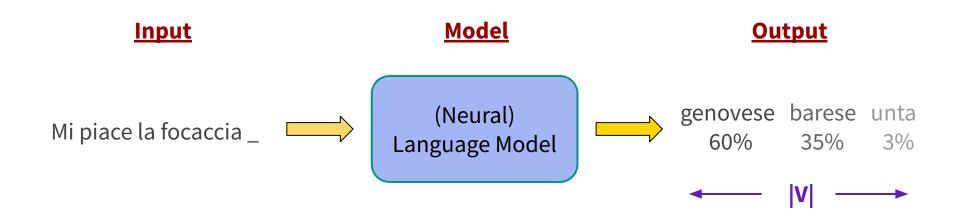
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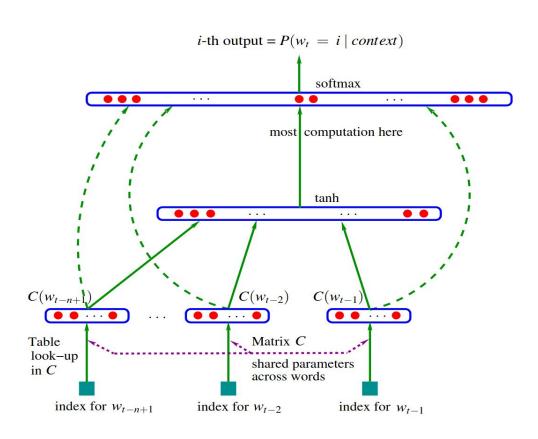
A probabilistic LM defines the probability of a sequence s = [w<sub>1</sub>, w<sub>2</sub>, ..., w<sub>n</sub>] as:

$$P(s) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(w_i|w_1, w_2, ..., w_{i-1})$$

 Bengio et al. (2003) proposed a model that approximate the LM function relying on the architecture of a NN → Neural Probabilistic Language Model







## Transformer Model

#### **Transformer**

• The most widely used architecture nowadays is the **Transformer**, first introduced in: <u>Attention is All you Need (Vaswani et al., 2017)</u>

#### **Transformer**

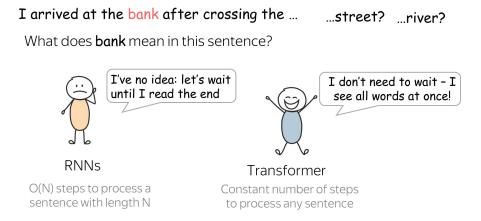
• The most widely used architecture nowadays is the **Transformer**, first introduced in: <u>Attention is All you Need (Vaswani et al., 2017)</u>

 The Transformer is a neural network (Encoder-Decoder) that leverages a specific mechanism, **Attention**, to focus on key portions of a sentence and create contextual word representations.

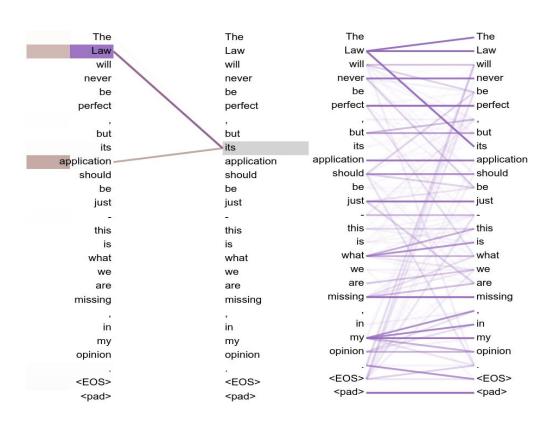
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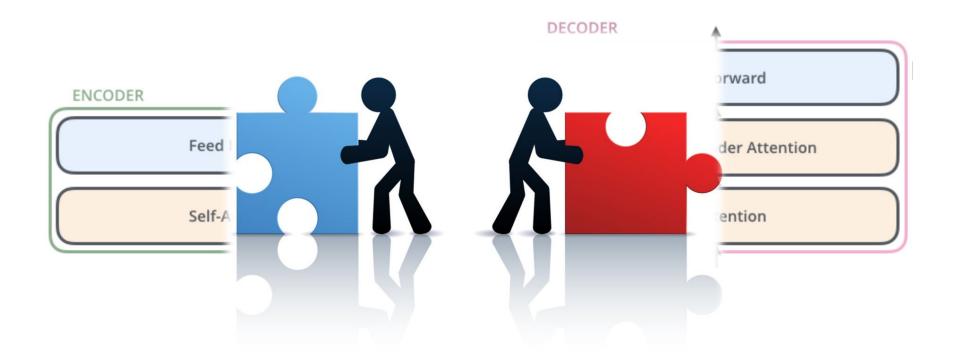


## **Transformer - Attention**



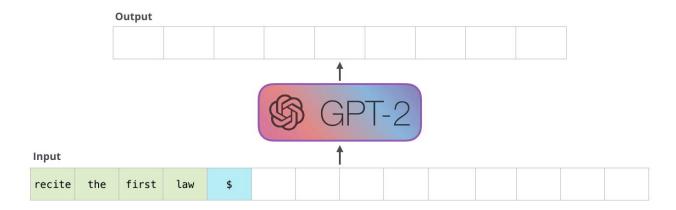
# Transformer-based NLMs

## **Transformer-based NLMs**



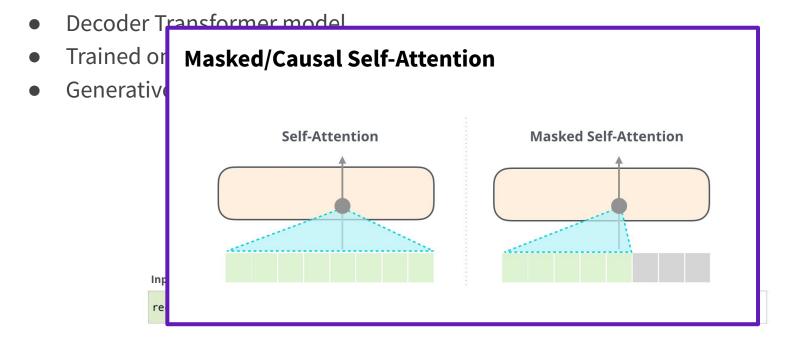
#### GPT (Radford et al, 2018), GPT-2 (Radford et al, 2019), etc

- Decoder Transformer model
- Trained on the Language Modeling (LM) task
- Generative model



Improving Language Understanding by Generative Pre-Training (Radford et al., 2018), https://openai.com/research/language-unsupervised

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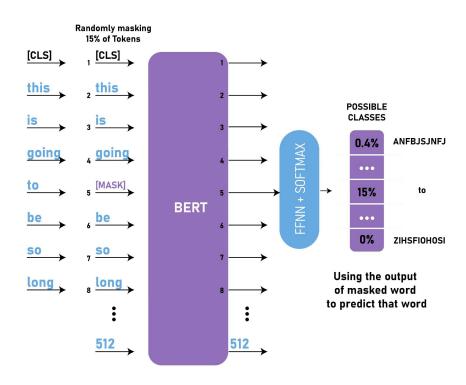
## BERT (Devlin et al., 2019)



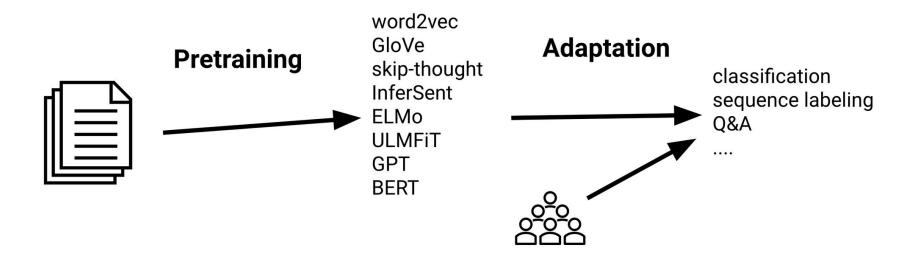
Encoder Transformer model (12/24 layers)

 Trained on the Masked Language Modeling (MLM)

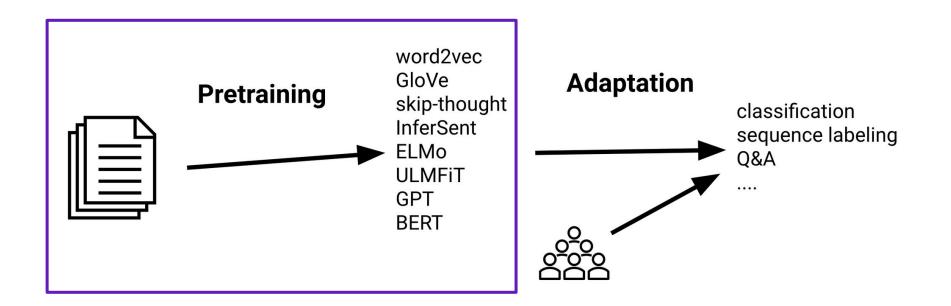
- The model can be further trained (fine-tuning) for solving different NLP tasks:
  - Sentiment analysis;
  - Question answering;
  - Textual entailment;
  - o etc.



## **Transfer Learning**



## **Transfer Learning**

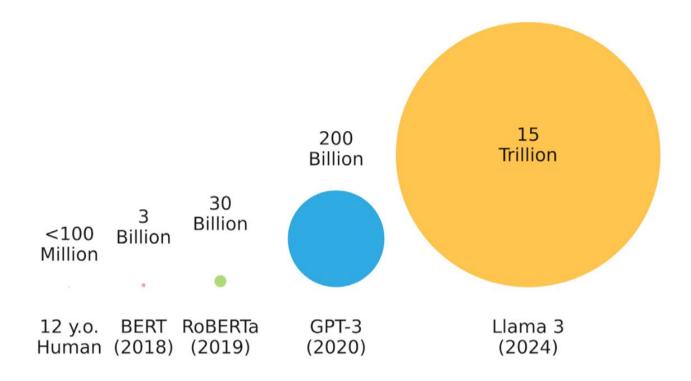


## **Pre-training**

• During the "*Pre-training*" phase, the model is trained in an unsupervised manner (e.g. LM, MLM) on a huge collection of raw text

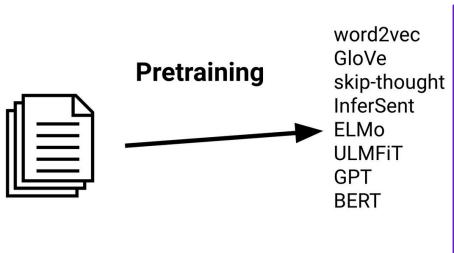
- Some exacmples:
  - BERT training: BookCorpus (800M words) + English Wikipedia (2500M words)
  - GPT-3 training: CommonCrawl + WebText2 + Books1 + Books2 + Wikipedia (around 500B words)

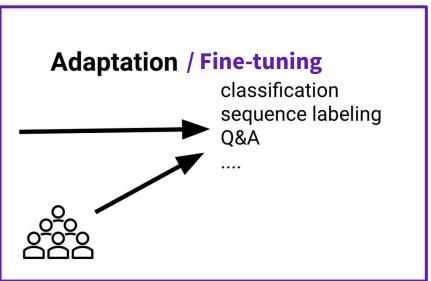
## **Pre-training**



Source: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0749596X25000439

## **Transfer Learning**





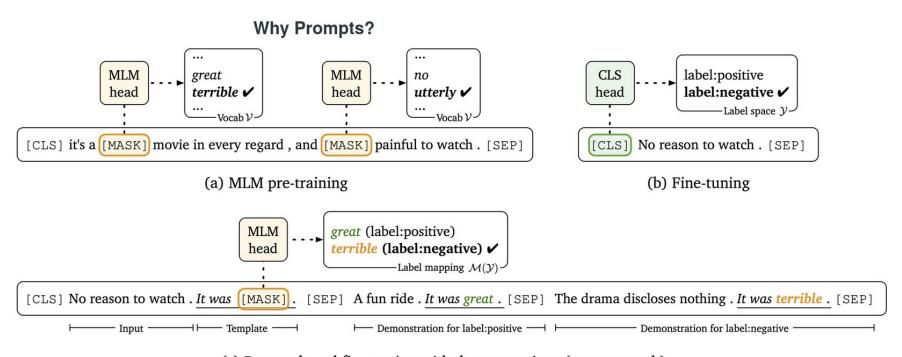
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  - Main goal: framing any task (e.g., classification, translation, question answering, etc.) as a generation task

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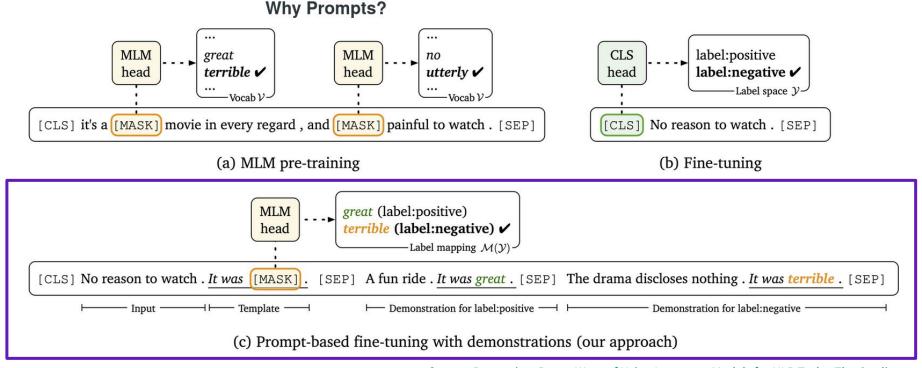
#### **Prompting**

"A prompt is a piece of text inserted in the input examples, so that the original task can be formulated as a (masked) language modeling problem."

(<u>Prompting: Better Ways of Using Language Models for NLP Tasks, The Gradient</u>)



(c) Prompt-based fine-tuning with demonstrations (our approach)



Source: Prompting: Better Ways of Using Language Models for NLP Tasks, The Gradient

## Instruction Tuning e RLHF: from GPT-3 to InstructGPT

Step 1

Collect demonstration data, and train a supervised policy.

A prompt is sampled from our prompt dataset.



A labeler demonstrates the desired output behavior.



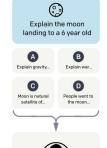
This data is used to fine-tune GPT-3 with supervised learning.



Step 2

Collect comparison data, and train a reward model.

A prompt and several model outputs are sampled.



A labeler ranks the outputs from best to worst.



D > G > A = B

This data is used to train our reward model.

Step 3

Optimize a policy against the reward model using reinforcement learning.

A new prompt is sampled from the dataset.

The policy generates an output.



The reward model calculates a reward for the output.

The reward is used to update the policy using PPO.

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Explain the moon

landing to a 6 year old

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sampled.

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Step 3

Optimize a policy against the reward model using reinforcement learning.

Write a story

about frogs

Once upon a time..

A new prompt is sampled from the dataset.

The policy generates an output.

The reward model calculates a reward for the output.

The reward is used to update the policy using PPO.

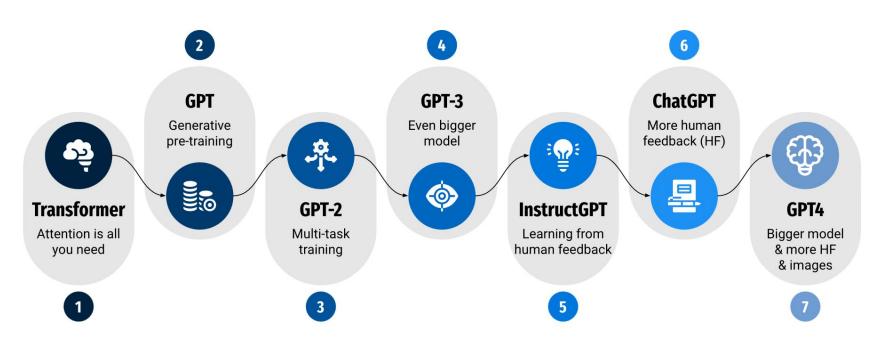


(RLHF)

https://huggingface .co/blog/rlhf

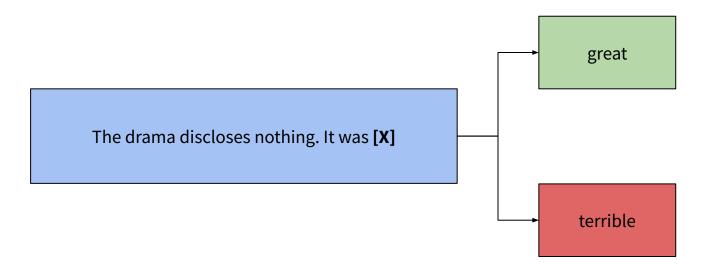
## From Transformer to GPT4

#### **Evolution from Transformer architecture to ChatGPT**



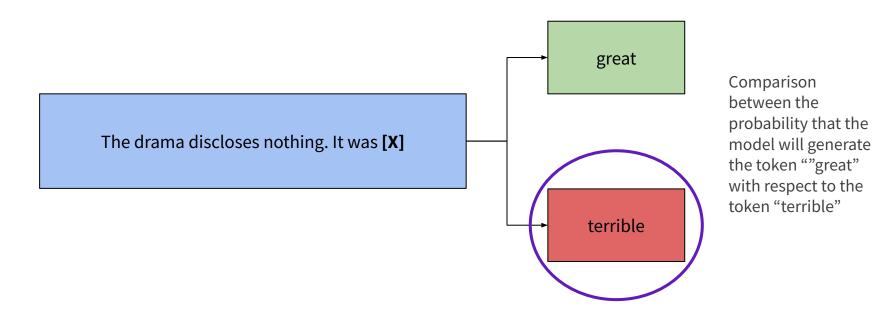
## Large Language Models (LLMs)

**Zero-Shot Text Classification** 



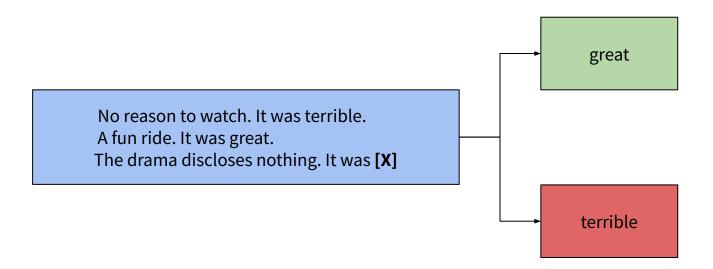
## Large Language Models (LLMs)

#### **Zero-Shot Text Classification**



## Large Language Models (LLMs)

#### **Few-Shot Text Classification**

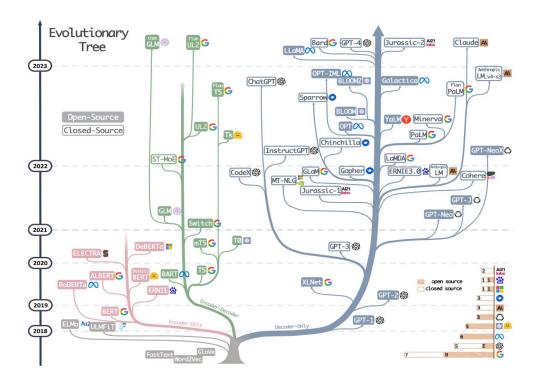


## From Transformer to GPT4



From: <a href="https://medium.com/@mataciunasdeividas/the-simple-explanation-of-chatgpt-llm-rlhf-using-shoggoth-with-smiley-face-meme-947a0e9fb441">https://medium.com/@mataciunasdeividas/the-simple-explanation-of-chatgpt-llm-rlhf-using-shoggoth-with-smiley-face-meme-947a0e9fb441</a>

## "Evolutionary Tree"



## Before Practicing: Defining the Model's Vocabulary

• Even though NLMs are trained in an unsupervised way, i.e. learning directly from large text corpora, one crucial design choice must be made before training begins

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• Even though NLMs are trained in an unsupervised way, i.e. learning directly from large text corpora, one crucial design choice must be made before training begins

#### The vocabulary

- It defines what the model considers as the basic building blocks of language
- Every text the model sees will be represented as sequences of these predefined units (i.e. tokens)
- This brings us to a key concept in modern LMs and NLP in general:
  - **Tokenization**: how text is split into tokens according to the chosen vocabulary

#### **Tokenization**

Before a sequence (e.g., sentence, document) can be passed to an NLM, it must first undergo
 tokenization

- Depending on the type of model used, there are several tokenizers capable of segmenting text:
  - Byte-Pair Encoding (BPE); WordPiece

- The principles behind the tokenizers most commonly used with recent NLM are:
  - Frequently used words should not be split into smaller subwords
  - Rare (less frequent) words should be split into meaningful subwords

 Byte-Pair Encoding (BPE) was initially developed as an algorithm for compressing text and was then used by OpenAI for tokenization during the pre-training of the first GPT

#### Algorithm:

- Each word is broken down into individual characters
- 2. Computation of the most frequent pair of adjacent characters in the text
- 3. Merging of the pair into a new "subtoken" to be added to the vocabulary
- 4. Repetition of steps 2-3 until the desired number of tokens is reached

Training corpus: low low low low lowest lowest newer n

#### 

Training corpus: low low low low low lowest lowest newer new

	Corpus	Vocabulary
9 times	5 low_ 2 lowest	, d, e, i, l, n, o, r, s, t, w
	6 newer 3 wider	Vocabulary
	2 n e w	, d, e, i, l, n, o, r, s, t, w, en

Training corpus: low low low low low lowest lowest newer new

	Corpus	Vocabulary
9 times	5	, d, e, i, l, n, o, r, s, t, w, er  Vocabulary , d, e, i, l, n, o, r, s, t, w, er, er

Training corpus: low low low low lowest lowest newer n

	Corpus	Vocabulary
8 times	5	, d, e, i, l, n, o, r, s, t, w, er, er <b>Vocabulary</b> , d, e, i, l, n, o, r, s, t, w, er, er, ne

Training corpus: low low low low low lowest lowest newer new

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	2 (n e w)	, d, e, i, l, n, o, r, s, t, w, er, er, ne, new

# Byte-Pair Encoding (BPE) Tokenization

#### Corpus

#### Using BPE for tokenization:

```
Input: newer__\rightarrow Tokens: newer__Merge based on the order we learned:<br/>er \rightarrow er__\rightarrow ne \rightarrow new \rightarrow newer__Input: lower\rightarrow Tokens: low, erer \rightarrow er__\rightarrow lo \rightarrow low
```

# The *Transformers* library 🤗

 The Transformers library (by HuggingFace) is currently the most widely used open source resource for easily downloading, modifying, and training Transformer models



- Natural Language Processing: text classification, named entity recognition, question answering, language modeling, summarization, translation, multiple choice, and text generation.
- Computer Vision: image classification, object detection, and segmentation.
- Audio: automatic speech recognition and audio classification.
- **Multimodal**: table question answering, optical character recognition, information extraction from scanned documents, video classification, and visual question answering.

# Part II

 The rapid development and widespread adoption of state-of-the-art Neural Language Models (NLMs) have increased the need for studies focused on their interpretability and the evaluation of their abilities

> NLMs Interpretability

NLMs Evaluation

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# The Case for Interpretability

 The development of powerful state-of-the-art NLMs comes at the cost of interpretability, since complex NN models offer little transparency about their inner workings and their abilities

#### **Objectives:**

- Understand the nature of AI systems → be faithful to what influences the AI decisional process
- Empower Al system users → derive actionable useful insights from Al choices

## Interpretability in NLP

"In the context of NLP, this question needs to be understood in light of earlier NLP work. [...] In some of these systems, features are more easily understood by humans. [...] In contrast, it is more difficult to understand what happens in an end-to-end neural network model that takes input (say, word embeddings) and generates an output."

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#### **Research questions:**

- What happens in an end-to-end neural network model when trained on a language modeling task?
- What kind of linguistic knowledge (i.e. features) is encoded within their representations?
- Is there a relationship between the linguistic knowledge implicitly encoded and the ability to solve a specific task?

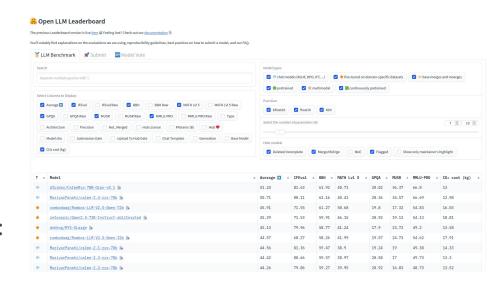
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> NLMs Interpretability

NLMs Evaluation

# **Evaluation of Neural Language Models**

- The evaluation of NLMs has seen significant advancements in the past few years, with the development of dedicated benchmarks and evaluation frameworks
- These benchmarks are designed to assess models' performance on specific tasks and reasoning abilities:
  - OpenLLM Leaderboard
  - BigBench (Srivastava et al., 2023)
  - Holmes (Waldis et al., 2024)



Link: https://huggingface.co/spaces/open-llm-leaderboard/open\_llm\_leaderboard

# The Limits of the Modern Evaluation Landscape

Evaluating LLMs is far from straightforward, since there are several factors that can distort or limit our understanding of their true capabilities:

**Data Contamination:** Models may have seen parts of the evaluation data during training, leading to inflated performance

**Narrow Benchmark:** Many benchmarks test specific tasks or surface-level skills, failing to capture general reasoning or robustness

**Prompt Sensitivity:** Results can vary dramatically depending on prompt wording, context, or even output format

**Evaluation Metrics Limitations:** Automatic metrics are often unreliable for open-ended generation, while human evaluation remains costly and complex to perform consistently

# **Evaluating NLMs Linguistic Abilities**

 Within the broader context of interpretability and evaluation, one line of research focuses on studying and assessing the linguistic abilities of Neural Language Models

- Such studies aim to uncover:
  - the implicit linguistic competencence encoded within these models
  - evaluate their generalization abilities

 Goldberg (2019) proposes a methodology for testing the implicit linguistic competence of BERT

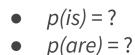
- Specifically, two linguistic phenomena are considered:
  - Subject-Verb Agreement;
  - Reflexive Anaphora.

 Approach: masking target words and asking the model to "fill in the gap" with the words with high probability scores

the game that the guard hates is bad

the game that the guard hates [MASK] bad

the game that the guard hates [MASK] bad



	BERT Base	BERT Large	LSTM (M&L)	Humans (M&L)	# Pairs (# M&L Pairs)
SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT:	Dasc	Large	(MCL)	(MCL)	(# MCL I alls)
Simple	1.00	1.00	0.94	0.96	120 (140)
In a sentential complement	0.83	0.86	0.99	0.93	1440 (1680)
Short VP coordination	0.89	0.86	0.90	0.82	720 (840)
Long VP coordination	0.98	0.97	0.61	0.82	400 (400)
Across a prepositional phrase	0.85	0.85	0.57	0.85	19440 (22400)
Across a subject relative clause	0.84	0.85	0.56	0.88	9600 (11200)
Across an object relative clause	0.89	0.85	0.50	0.85	19680 (22400)
Across an object relative (no that)	0.86	0.81	0.52	0.82	19680 (22400)
In an object relative clause	0.95	0.99	0.84	0.78	15960 (22400)
In an object relative (no that)	0.79	0.82	0.71	0.79	15960 (22400)
REFLEXIVE ANAPHORA:					
Simple	0.94	0.92	0.83	0.96	280 (280)
In a sentential complement	0.89	0.86	0.86	0.91	3360 (3360)
Across a relative clause	0.80	0.76	0.55	0.87	22400 (22400)

Table 3: Results on the Marvin and Linzen (2018) stimuli. M&L results numbers are taken from Marvin and Linzen (2018). The BERT and M&L numbers are *not* directly comparable, as the experimental setup differs in many ways.

#### BLiMP (Warstadt A. et al., 2020)

- Evaluate the linguistic competence of language models through controlled, theory-driven tests
- Key idea: Use minimal pairs to test whether a model assigns higher probability to the grammatical sentence
- Design:
  - 67 test sets, each targeting a specific phenomenon
  - Around 1000 pairs per phenomenon
  - Automatically generated with linguistically precise templates to ensure syntactic and semantic control

Phenomenon	N	Acceptable Example	Unacceptable Example
Anaphor agr.	2	Many girls insulted themselves.	Many girls insulted herself.
Arg. structure	9	Rose wasn't disturbing Mark.	Rose wasn't boasting Mark.
BINDING	7	Carlos said that Lori helped him.	Carlos said that Lori helped himself.
CONTROL/RAISING	5	There was bound to be a fish escaping.	There was unable to be a fish escaping.
DETNOUN AGR.	8	Rachelle had bought that chair.	Rachelle had bought that chairs.
Ellipsis	2	Anne's doctor cleans one important	Anne's doctor cleans one book and
		book and Stacey cleans a few.	Stacey cleans a few important.
FILLER-GAP	7	Brett knew what many waiters find.	Brett knew that many waiters find.
IRREGULAR FORMS	2	Aaron broke the unicycle.	Aaron broken the unicycle.
ISLAND EFFECTS	8	Whose hat should Tonya wear?	Whose should Tonya wear hat?
NPI LICENSING	7	The truck has clearly tipped over.	The truck has ever tipped over.
QUANTIFIERS	4	No boy knew fewer than six guys.	No boy knew at most six guys.
SUBJECT-VERB AGR.	6	These casseroles disgust Kayla.	These casseroles disgusts Kayla.

Table 2: Minimal pairs from each of the twelve linguistic phenomenon categories covered by BLiMP. Differences are underlined. N is the number of 1,000-example minimal pair paradigms within each broad category.

#### BLiMP (Warstadt A. et al., 2020)

 Evaluate the linguistic competence of language models through controlled.

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FILLER, GAP ARG. STR ELLIPSIS Model 5-gram 60.5 47.9 71.9 64.4 68.5 70.0 36.9 58.1 79.5 53.7 45.5 53.5 60.3 LSTM 68.9 73.2 73.5 67.0 85.4 67.6 72.5 42.9 51.7 64.5 91.7 89.1 80.1 71.5 77.2 55.2 TXL 68.7 94.1 69.5 74.7 83.0 64.9 78.2 45.8 69.3 76.0 GPT-2 80.1 99.6 78.3 80.1 80.5 93.3 86.6 79.0 84.1 63.1 78.9 71.3 89.0 88.6 97.5 90.0 87.3 83.9 92.2 85.0 97.0 84.9 88.1 90.9 Human 86.9 86.6

Table 3: Percentage accuracy of four baseline models and raw human performance on BLiMP using a forced-choice task. A random guessing baseline would achieve an accuracy of 50%.

ories covered by BLiMP. r paradigms within each

Example

ulted herself.

asting Mark,

ıt Lori helped himself.

ought that <u>chairs</u>. cleans one book and

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#### **Evaluating Lexical Proficiency in Neural Language Models**

 Few works focused on investigating and evaluating NLMs' abilities in tasks related to lexical proficiency

Almost no study that goes beyond commonly lexicalized words

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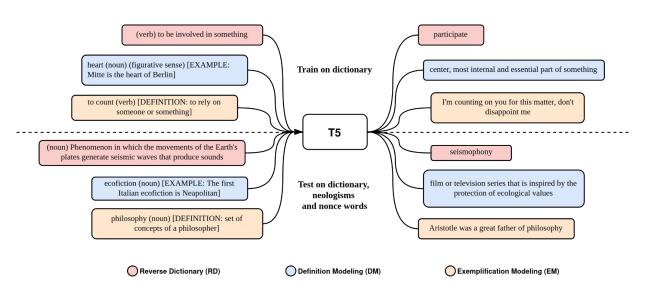
Almost no study that goes beyond commonly lexicalized words



• We propose an evaluation framework for testing the lexical proficiency of LMs on different linguistic settings for the Italian language

#### **Our Approach**

• Evaluation of Encoder-Decoder Models on a mixture of tasks that implicitly exposes the morpho-lexical link that relates lemmas to definitions



- Reverse Dictionary: generating a target word given a source definition
- Definition Modeling: generating a definition given a word
- Exemplification Modeling: generating a usage example given a word paired with a definition

# Settings, Data and Models

- We conducted our evaluation across three different settings:
  - Dictionary setting: Evaluating against an unseen split of the models training dataset
  - Neologism setting: Evaluating against unseen neologisms that have zero to few occurrences in the models' pretraining data
  - Nonce words setting: assessing the linguistically creative abilities in creating, defining, and using nonce words (i.e. unseen words)
- Three different training/evaluation datasets:
  - Dictionary dataset: We developed a new resources starting from the April 2024 Wikizionario Dump + ONLI (Osservatorio Neologico della Lingua Italiana) neologism database
  - Neologism dataset: We collected a list of neologisms from various online dictionaries (appearing between 2021 to 2024) and kept only those with less then five occurrences in the pretraining dataset of our models
  - Nonce words dataset: We used GPT-40 to obtain a list of 100 unattested nonce words

Model	Lang	#P	#T	#T/#P
IT5-small	IT	60M	41B	683.33
IT5-base	IT	220M	41B	186.36
MT5-base	Multi	580M	6.3T	10,862.06
IT5-large	IT	738M	41B	55.55

Table 2: Models used in experiments along with the pre-training languages (Lang), number of parameters (#P), number of training tokens (#T) and the number of tokens per parameter (#T/#P).

#### Results

			Reverse	e Dictiona	ry			Definitio	n Modelin	g	Exemplification	on Modeling
		Acc@1/10/100	R1	R2	<b>CER</b> ↓	SBERT	R1	R2	RL	SBERT	PPL pred. ↓	PPL target
D'-4	IT5-small	.29/.4/.53	41.33	31.19	50.58	0.68	36.85	23.98	34.87	0.61	144.49	80.26
	IT5-base	.37/.52/.66	48	37.01	46	0.71	39.58	26.54	37.42	0.65	118.26	
Dict.	MT5-base	.33/.46/.57	43.64	33.73	47.95	0.7	36.43	24.58	34.71	0.62	161.8	80.20
	IT5-large	.39/.56/.69	49.7	38.8	43.83	0.73	38.97	25.94	36.94	0.65	112.66	
	Avg	.34/.48/.61	45.67	35.18	47.09	$-\frac{1}{0.7}$	37.96	25.26	35.98	0.63	= $=$ $=$ $=$ $=$ $=$ $=$ $=$ $=$ $=$	
	IT5-small	.06/.12/.13	25.39	16.37	71.95	0.55	18.36	3.44	14.8	0.45	60.6	53.38
Noo	IT5-base	.09/.16/.21	33.06	19.99	61.47	0.6	21.21	5.36	16.92	0.53	53.6	
Neo.	MT5-base	.08/.15/.18	26.82	14.23	59.98	0.59	18.43	3.66	14.4	0.48	79.52	
	IT5-large	.1/.16/.27	32.42	20.64	63.2	0.6	20.69	4.34	16.36	0.53	43.44	
	Avg	.08/.14/.19	29.4	-17.8	64.05	0.58	-19.67	4.2	15.62	$ \frac{1}{0.5}$ $ -$	$   59.1\overline{5}$ $ -$	
	IT5-small		-	_		2 <del></del>	18.91	2.83	15.13	0.49	68.35	64.28
Nonce	IT5-base	_	-	_	_	-	21.79	4.19	17.13	0.56	67.31	
	MT5-base	_	_	_	_	0	18.1	2.93	14.15	0.51	84.33	
	IT5-large		_		_	* <u></u>	21.09	3.78	16.6	0.58	48.05	
	Avg						19.97	3.42	15.72	0.53	$  \frac{1}{67.01}$ $ \frac{1}{67.01}$	

Table 3: Results obtained by all the models for all the tasks (RD, DM and EM) and the three linguistically different settings: *Dict.*, *Neo.* and *Nonce*.

#### **Results - Human Evaluation**

- We collected human judgments over 100 pairs of definitions (taken from the nonce words dataset) and nonce words (generated by our models)
  - We asked 5 Italian native speakers to read each definition-word pair and express two judgments about the nonce word according to the perceived novelty and the adhesion to the definition

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    - **Optimal Innovation Hypothesis** (Giora R. et al., 2004)

	Adhesion	Novelty	$\alpha$
IT5-small	$3.06\pm1.45$	$3.11\pm1.3$	.51/.14
IT5-base	$3.01\pm1.32$	$3.61\pm1.37$	.29/.34
MT5-base	$3.37{\pm}1.32$	$2.98 \pm 1.31$	.37/.15
IT5-large	$3.37 \pm 1.42$	$3.11\pm1.15$	.41/.18
GPT-40	$3.86{\pm}1.09$	$3.32{\pm}1.15$	.17/.07

Table 5: Mean and standard deviation for the adhesion and novelty scores given by human annotators. The column  $\alpha$  reports the Krippendorff's Alpha between annotators for adhesion/novelty.

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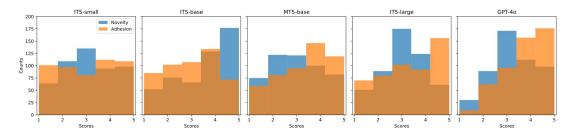


Figure 1: Distribution of novelty and adhesion human scores across the 5 values of the Likert scale for all models.

#### **Results**

Definitions	Model	Predicted Word	Adhesion	Novelt
	IT5-small	planetaro	3.0	4.2
Veicolo progettato per esplorazioni su superfici planetarie, adatto a terreni	IT5-base	elioplano [trad. helioplane]	2.2	4.6
extraterrestri. [trad. Vehicle designed for exploration on planetary surfaces, suitable	MT5-base	cosmoplano [trad. cosmoplane]	3.2	4.0
for extraterrestrial terrain.]	IT5-large	astroveicolo [trad. astrovehicle]	4.6	3.2
	GPT-40	roverastro [trad. astrorover]	3.6	3.4
	IT5-small	geonauta [trad. geonaut]	4.6	2.4
Vela navigabile che raccoglie dati geologici mentre si sposta su laghi o mari,	IT5-base	ecovela [trad. ecosail]	4.4	1.8
utilizzata in esplorazioni scientifiche. [trad. Navigable sail that collects geological	MT5-base	vettolaghiera	2.0	4.4
data as it moves across lakes or seas, used in scientific exploration.]	IT5-large	idrovedetta [trad. hydropatrol]	4.6	2.8
	GPT-40	geonave [trad. geoship]	4.0	3.2
Una tavola o superficie capace di mostrare visivamente il passare del tempo, evidenziando i cambiamenti avvenuti su di essa. [trad. A table or surface capable of	IT5-small	cromatopompa	1.2	3.8
	IT5-base	cronopalestra [trad. chronogym]	2.0	5.0
	MT5-base	retrotavola [trad. retrotable]	2.2	3.0
visually showing the passage of time, highlighting the changes that have occurred on it.]	IT5-large	cronotavolo [trad. chronotable]	4.4	3.0
on u.j	GPT-40	cronotavola [trad. chronotable]	3.6	3.6
	IT5-small	immersivismo [trad. immersivism]	3.8	2.4
Forma d'arte che utilizza nebbie artificiali e giochi di luce per creare installazioni	IT5-base	metacaduta [trad. metafall]	2.0	4.6
immersive. [trad. An art form that uses artificial fog and light effects to create	MT5-base	fotoart [trad. photoart]	3.4	2.6
immersive installations.]	IT5-large	nebbiografia [trad. foggraphy]	4.4	3.0
	GPT-40	nebbioarte [trad. fogart]	3.6	3.6
Danamana in anti marrimanti della aleaaka tamaatsi aanamaa anda sismiaka aka	IT5-small	biogeoacustica [trad. biogeoacoustics]	4.4	3.4
Fenomeno in cui i movimenti delle placche terrestri generano onde sismiche che	IT5-base	sismofonia [trad. seismophony]	3.0	4.0
producono suoni dissonanti, studiato in geologia e acustica. [trad. Phenomenon in which the movements of the earth's plates generate seismic waves that produce	MT5-base	sismismo [trad. seismism]	3.0	4.0
	IT5-large	sismofonia [trad. seismophony]	4.2	3.2
dissonant sounds, studied in geology and acoustics.]	GPT-40	sismofonia [trad. seismophony]	4.2	2.0

Table 6: Sample of generated nonce words (we tried to provide a translation when possible), along with adhesion and novelty average scores, for all the models. The definitions are those generated by GPT-4o.



"Astroveicolo"

# **Selected Findings**

 Larger, monolingual models generally outperformed their multilingual counterparts

 Despite the drop in performance with low-frequency neologisms and nonce words, the rank between models remained consistent

The models' ability to generate novel and coherent nonce words further indicates
 LMs are capable of learning approximations of word formation rules, rather than relying solely on memorization



### Thanks for the attention!



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http://www.italianlp.it/



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#### Loss function

- Neural networks are trained to predict probability distributions on classes
- Intuitively, at each step, the probability that the model predicts the correct class is maximized
- The standard loss function is the cross-entropy loss
- Given:

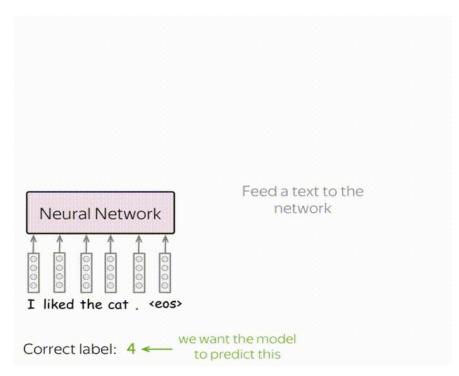
$$p^* = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$$
 target distribution  $p = (p_1, \dots, p_K)$  model's distribution

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- Given:

$$p^*=(0,\dots,0,1,0,\dots)$$
 target distribution  $p=(p_1,\dots,p_K)$  model's distribution  $Loss(p^*,p)=-p^*\log(p)=-\sum_{i=1}^K p_i^*\log(p_i)$ 

#### Loss function



Text Classification: <a href="https://lena-voita.github.io/nlp">https://lena-voita.github.io/nlp</a> course/text classification.html

$$Loss(p^*,p) = -p^*\log(p) = -\sum_{i=1}^K p_i^*\log(p_i)$$

$$Loss(p^*,p) = -p^*\log(p) = -\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^*\log(p_i)$$

