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Introduction

Welcome to the Tutorials Session of EACL 2024.

NLP is a rapidly-changing field, which has undergone different periods, and the knowledge needed to be at pace is changing rapidly. A lot of changes have been brought up by recent advances in the development and deployment of Large Language Models (LLMs). Five tutorials have been selected for this year's EACL, which reflect this trend.

The EACL tutorial session is organized to give conference attendees an introduction by expert researchers to some topics of importance drawn from our rapidly growing and changing research field.

This year, as has been the tradition over the past few years, the call, submission, reviewing, and selection of tutorials were coordinated jointly for multiple conferences: EACL, NAACL-HLT, ACL, and EMNLP.

We would like to thank the tutorial authors for their contributions and flexibility on topics including interpretability, multilingualism and multimodality.

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Table of Contents

Computational modeling of semantic change Pierluigi Cassotti, Francesco Periti, Stefano de Pascale, Haim Dubossarsky and Nina Tahmasebi1
<i>Item Response Theory for Natural Language Processing</i> John P. Lalor, Pedro Rodriguez, João Sedoc and Jose Hernandez-Orallo
Language + Molecules Carl Edwards, Qingyun Wang and Heng Ji14
<i>Transformer-specific Interpretability</i> Hosein Mohebbi, Jaap Jumelet, Michael Hanna, Afra Alishahi and Willem Zuidema21
<i>LLMs for Low Resource Languages in Multilingual, Multimodal and Dialectal Settings</i> Firoj Alam, Shammur Absar Chowdhury, Sabri Boughorbel and Maram Hasanain

Computational modeling of semantic change

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1 Introduction

Languages change constantly over time, influenced by social, technological, cultural and political factors that affect how people express themselves. In particular, words can undergo the process of semantic change, which can be subtle yet significantly impact the interpretation of texts. For example, the word *terrific* used to mean "causing terror" and was as such synonymous to *terrifying*. Nowadays, speakers use the word in the sense of "excessive" and even "amazing".

In Historical Linguistics, tools and methods have been developed to analyse this phenomenon, including systematic categorisations of the types of change, the causes and the mechanisms underlying the different types of change. However, traditional linguistic methods, while informative, are often based on small, carefully curated samples. Thanks to the availability of both large diachronic corpora, the tools to model word meaning using unsupervised computational methods, and evaluation benchmarks, we are seeing an increasing interest in the computational modelling of semantic change. This is evidenced by the increasing number of publications in this new domain as well as the organisation of initiatives and events related to this topic, such as the yearly workshop on Computational Approaches to Historical Language Change LChange¹ that reached its fourth year, and several evaluation campaigns (Schlechtweg et al., 2020a; Basile et al., 2020b; Kutuzov et al.; Zamora-Reina et al., 2022).

Relevance Computational modelling of semantic change is highly relevant for fields like lexicography but also studies in (Historical) Linguistics where we can complement and verify existing research on larger corpora, more genres, more ex-

¹https://www.changeiskey.org/event/2023-emnlplchange/ tended periods and many more languages. Computational modelling of semantic change is also interesting for any text-based humanities and social sciences as well as technical and medical science, where the evolution of concepts or the progression of before and after is studied. In the past few years, we have seen an increasing interest in utilizing methods for semantic change in other domains. Marjanen et al. (2019) delved into the connections between "isms" (like liberalism, socialism, and conservatism) and ideological language, shedding light on the progression of political language throughout history. Bizzoni et al. (2020) investigate changes in scientific writing, while Haider and Eger (2019) direct their focus in poetry studies. Wevers (2019) and Garg et al. (2018) investigated the presence and evolution of gender biases and ethnic stereotypes in various textual data. Vylomova et al. (2019) honed in on the semantic transformations of harm-related concepts within psychology. Their study sought to determine if concepts like addiction, bullying, harassment, prejudice, and trauma have broadened in scope over the past forty years. Tripodi et al. (2019) traced the evolution and prevalence of antisemitic biases across various domains, such as religion, economics, and socio-politics. Their data suggested an alarming rise in antisemitism, particularly in France, from the mid-80s onward.

This tutorial will be interest of for the ACL community as a venue for facilitating discussions and sharing knowledge on Diachronic Linguistics and time-aware language analysis. There is an extensive collection of models, methods and trained diachronic resources that benefit anyone interested in temporally evolving information beyond the LSC community. Moreover, it will provide a practical demonstration of available tools to researchers and practitioners working on different aspects of LSC and historical linguistics. In particular, we will showcase the benchmark developed within the Change is Key! program, in which a suit of pre-trained models, as well as training and test data, are available², and *integrate hands-on sessions throughout the tutorial*.

2 Tutorial overview

This tutorial will overview the current approaches, problems, and challenges in detecting lexical semantic changes. At its core, the computational modelling of semantic change consists of the following:

- Modelling of word meaning, typically using unsupervised methods applied to diachronic corpora;
- modelling of meaning change, based on the outcome of the above; and
- evaluation.

This tutorial will extend the above with an introduction to lexical semantic change and an overview of the available resources (corpora, pre-trained diachronic models, and data sets). We will highlight issues in the creation and use of diachronic corpora and different procedures for annotating data. Next, we will introduce the current state-of-the-art approaches for automatic detection of LSC, provide a hands-on section on available systems and tools, and open the floor to discuss possible applications.

3 Outline

- 1. Introduction to Semantic Change and Computational modeling (1.5 hours)
- 2. Evaluation: Tasks, benchmarks, and measurements of Lexical Semantic Change (1.5 hours)
- 3. Models for Lexical Semantic Change Detection (2 hours)
- 4. Hands-on and Discussion (1 hours)

3.1 Introduction to Semantic Change and Computational modelling (1.5 hour)

We will provide a theoretical background of LSC, paying attention to semasiological phenomena, i.e., semantic change. We will introduce the classical types of semasiological change (e.g., metaphorization/metonymization or generalization/specialization) but also focus on types of changes at the level of synonymous groups or entire lexical fields (Geeraerts, 2020). Several theories, among which diachronic prototype semantics (Geeraerts, 1997) and grammaticalization theory (Traugott, 2017), will be reviewed. Finally, we will discuss some of the theoretically relevant findings recently studied in computational semantic change (e.g., the Law of Parallel Change and the Law of Differentiation (Hamilton et al., 2016a; Liétard et al., 2023; Stern, 1921)).

3.2 Evaluation: Tasks, benchmarks, and measurements of Lexical Semantic Change (1.5 hour)

We will briefly overview some of the available most used diachronic corpora such as The New York Times corpus (Sandhaus, 2008), l'Unità corpus (Basile et al., 2020a), the DTA corpus (Textarchiv), the BZ and ND corpora (Zeitung), the CCOHA corpus (Alatrash et al.), the LatinISE corpus (McGillivray and Kilgarriff, 2013), and the KubHist corpus (Adesam et al., 2019). A list of lexicographic resources useful for Lexical Semantic Change will be described, such as the Oxford English Dictionary³ and the Sabatini Coletti dictionary⁴ (Basile et al.).

We will introduce the framework DUREL (Schlechtweg et al., 2018) for the annotation of LSC, which is employed in the annotation process of Semeval 2020 Task 1 (Schlechtweg et al., 2020a). We will present the tasks on which LSC is usually framed: Unsupervised Lexical Semantic Change Detection, Lexical Semantic Change Discovery and Temporal Analogies. For each task, we will introduce the most used benchmarks, namely SemEval-2020 Task 1: Unsupervised Lexical Semantic Change Detection (Schlechtweg et al., 2020b), which is the first task on Unsupervised Lexical Semantic Change Detection in English, German, Swedish, and Latin languages, RuShiftEval (Kutuzov and Pivovarova, 2021) for the Russian language, LSCDiscovery (Zamora-Reina et al., 2022), the Shared Task on Semantic Change Discovery and Detection in Spanish, NorDiaChange (Kutuzov et al., 2022), ChiWUG (Chen et al., 2023), and the datasets for the Temporal Analogies task (Yao et al., 2018; Szymanski, 2017).

³https://www.oed.com/

⁴https://dizionari.corriere.it/ dizionario_italiano/

²https://github.com/ChangeIsKey/LSCDBenchmark

3.3 Models for Lexical Semantic Change Detection (2 hours)

We will provide some background on Distributional Semantics introducing PPMI matrices (Levy and Goldberg), Word2vec (Mikolov et al., 2013) and BERT models (Devlin et al., 2018). Then, we will present models for Lexical Semantic Change, starting from Alignment Models (Tahmasebi et al., 2021; Kutuzov et al., 2018; Cassotti et al., 2020). In particular, we will introduce Post-alignment models such as those based on Orthogonal Procrustes (Hamilton et al., 2016b), Jointly Explicit Alignment Models such as Dynamic word embeddings (Yao et al., 2018), and Jointly Implicit Alignment Models such as Temporal Word Embedding with a Compass (Carlo et al., 2019), Temporal Referencing (Dubossarsky et al., 2019) and Temporal Random Indexing (Basile et al., 2016).

With the increasing use of contextualised word embeddings, numerous approaches employing BERT-base models have been developed for LSC Detection (Montanelli and Periti, 2023; Laicher et al., 2021). We will present the approaches based on contextualised word embeddings following the classification framework proposed by Montanelli and Periti (2023). In particular, we will discuss the use of contextualised embeddings according to three dimensions of analysis: meaning representation, time-awareness, and learning modality. We will illustrate existing approaches as concrete examples for each dimension, allowing for a more precise and comprehensive understanding. For example, we will introduce simple unsupervised approaches such as the use of similarity measure like Average Pairwise Distance (Giulianelli et al., 2020), or clustering algorithms like WiDiD (Periti et al., 2022), but also supervised approaches that leverage the time information of the corpora such as TempoBERT (Rosin et al., 2022) and Temporal Attention (Rosin and Radinsky, 2022)).

Moreover, we will present approaches that train BERT models on Word Sense Disambiguation (Navigli, 2009) and Word-in-Context (Pilehvar and Camacho-Collados, 2019) tasks to perform LSC Detection such as GlossReader (Rachinskiy and Arefyev, 2021), DeepMistake (Arefyev et al., 2021), and XL-LEXEME (Cassotti et al., 2023). Finally, we will look at models based on lexical substitution, such as Card (2023) and Liétard et al. (2023), and generative models (Giulianelli et al., 2023).

4 Tutorial Information

Type of the tutorial Introductory.

Length This is a 6-hour tutorial.

Target audience and background This tutorial targets researchers at different levels of expertise in the field. Introductory researchers will gain a comprehensive understanding of the topic, covering foundational concepts and available resources. Intermediate researchers will deepen their knowledge with advanced approaches for automatic detection and analysis of LSC, while advanced researchers will explore state-of-the-art techniques and address complex challenges. The tutorial is designed to be inclusive, fostering the participation of attendees with varying experience levels. Furthermore, the tutorial aims to foster a more powerful synergy between the LSC domain and other areas of NLP, particularly emphasising the integration with Lexical Semantics and research pursuits in Word Sense Discrimination. Prerequisites include a basic understanding of linguistics, Natural Language Processing, and Computational Linguistics concepts.

Breadth The tutorial sections will cover both works from the tutorial presenters and others:

- Introduction to Language Change: 20% of work by tutorial presenters and 80% by others
- Evaluation: Tasks, benchmarks, and measurements of Lexical Semantic Change: 40% of work by tutorial presenters and 60% by others
- Models for Lexical Semantic Change Detection: 20% of work by tutorial presenters and 80% by others

Diversity The tutorial brings together a diverse group of presenters, each with unique computer science and linguistics backgrounds, hailing from different institutions such as the University of Gothenburg, the Queen Mary University of London, the University of Milan and Vrije Universiteit Brussel. This diverse group of experts reflects the interdisciplinary nature of the research field, where knowledge from linguistic analysis and computational methodologies converge. Furthermore, the tutorial will showcase the rich linguistic diversity of studying LSC, covering several languages, including Russian, English, Swedish, Latin, Spanish, and Italian. Exploring multiple languages will give attendees insights into how semantic change manifests across language families, historical periods, and socio-cultural contexts. The tutorial aims to

foster a global perspective on the diachronic change of word meanings by encompassing various languages, encouraging participants to draw parallels and distinctions between languages.

Audience size The proposed tutorial is expected to attract around 100+ attendees, motivated by the considerable interest and attendance observed in related events like the International Workshop on Computational Approaches to Historical Language Change and the Ever Evolving NLP (EvoNLP) Workshop.

Venue We prefer ACL 2024 and NAACL 2024 as our tutorial is tailored for an audience that includes linguists and computer scientists. EMNLP 2024 stands as our second preferred option. Should there be no available slots, we would consider EACL 2024.

Pedagogical material All materials, including presentations and Python notebooks, will be available online at the tutorial website: https://www.changeiskey.org/ event/2024-eacl-tutorial/.

Past tutorials

• LREC 2022 Tutorial Lexical Semantic Change: Models, Data and Evaluation: While this tutorial primarily devoted its attention to resources for LSC Detection, our proposed tutorial aims to provide more comprehensive coverage on the subject of Computational Modeling of Semantic Change, as we will delve into a rich introduction of the linguistic aspects of semantic change, and a detailed exploration of computational models, emphasizing not just the conventional approaches, but also focusing extensively on the architectures of cutting-edge models.

5 Reading list

- Introduction to Semantic Change (Geeraerts et al., 2012; Traugott, 2017; Geeraerts, 2020)
- Surveys (Kutuzov et al., 2018; Tahmasebi et al., 2021; Montanelli and Periti, 2023)
- Benchmarks (Schlechtweg et al., 2020a; Basile et al., 2020c; Kutuzov and Pivovarova, 2021)
- Models (Hamilton et al., 2016c; Yao et al., 2018; Giulianelli et al., 2023; Cassotti et al., 2023; Periti et al., 2023)

6 Presenters

Nina Tahmasebi is an associate professor at the University of Gothenburg. She has researched computational methods for semantic change since 2008 and leads the *Change is Key!* program, a 6-year research program aimed at developing state-of-the-art methods for semantic change and use these to address research questions from historical linguistics as well as the humanities and social sciences. She is the chair of the LChange workshop series on Computational modeling for language change and has extensive experience in modeling and evaluation for semantic change.

Pierluigi Cassotti is a PhD student at the University of Bari (Italy) and a researcher at the University of Gothenburg (Sweden). He has been a co-organiser of the LREC 2022 Tutorial *Lexical Semantic Change: Models, Data and Evaluation,* a co-organiser of the *(LChange'23) Workshop,* and a co-organiser of the *DIACR-Ita shared task for the Italian language.* His research aims to fill the gap between Natural Language Processing tools and Diachronic Linguistics, focusing on developing models for LSCD and creating resources for the diachronic analysis of language.

Francesco Periti is a PhD student at the University of Milan (Italy). His research primarily centers around computational modeling of language change, with a specific focus on Lexical Semantic Change detection. He has been a co-organiser of the 4th International Workshop on Computational Approaches to Historical Language Change 2023 (LChange'23).

Stefano De Pascale is postdoctoral scholar at the KU Leuven (Belgium), as a member of the *Change is Key!* program, and assistant professor in Italian linguistics at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel (Belgium). He obtained his PhD in Linguistics in 2019 at the KU Leuven. In his dissertation he investigated the contribution of token-based vector space models in the study of lexical variation. In 2021 he obtained a junior FWO-postdoctoral fellowship to work on the computational modelling of diachronic prototype semantics.

Haim Dubossarsky is a lecturer for NLP at Queen Mary University of London. In his work, Haim emphasises the importance of careful methodological routines in using computational methods in NLP as a condition for reliable and validated scientific conclusions, and is a well-cited author in the field.

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Item Response Theory for Natural Language Processing

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1 Description

This tutorial will introduce the NLP community to Item Response Theory (IRT; Baker, 2001). IRT is a method from the field of psychometrics for model and dataset assessment. IRT has been used for decades to build test sets for human subjects and estimate latent characteristics of dataset examples. Recently, there has been an uptick in work applying IRT to tasks in NLP. It is our goal to introduce the wider NLP community to IRT and show its benefits for a number of NLP tasks. From this tutorial, we hope to encourage wider adoption of IRT among NLP researchers.

As NLP models improve in performance and increase in complexity, new methods for evaluation are needed to appropriately evaluate performance improvements. In addition, data quality continues to be important. Models exploitation of annotation artifacts, annotation errors, and a misalignment between models and dataset difficulty can hinder an appropriate assessment of model performance. As models reach and exceed human performance on certain tasks, it gets more difficult to distinguish between improvements and innovations and changes in scores due to chance. In this three-hour, introductory tutorial, we will review the current state of evaluation in NLP, then introduce IRT as a tool for NLP researchers to use when evaluating their data and models. We will also introduce and demonstrate the py-irt Python package for IRT modelfitting to help encourage adoption and facilitate IRT use.

We believe that this should be a tutorial instead of a specialized workshop since the tutorial will aid in exposing a larger NLP audience to IRT. While this methodology has been applied successfully to NLP applications, further community exposure specifically for graduate students may provide a new methodological perspective. We aim to make the tutorial interactive with hands-on Jupyter notebooks which will give concrete simple examples. Tutorial materials are available online.¹

2 Target Audience/Prerequisites

The tutorial content will be self-contained so that a broad target audience of *CL conference attendees (researchers, PhD students, industry professionals, etc.) can take away information on incorporating IRT in their workflow. In terms of prerequisites, we expect the audience to have basic knowledge of probability and statistics. We also expect audience members to have experience with Python is useful for py-irt.

3 Outline

- 1. Evaluation in NLP (30 minutes)
- 2. Introduction to IRT (1 hour)
 - Defining IRT Models
 - IRT Model Fitting
 - Introduction to py-irt
 - This section will include tutorial content and live demonstration of the pyirt package.
- 3. IRT in NLP (45 minutes)
 - Building Test Sets
 - Model Evaluation
 - Chatbot Evaluation
 - Training Dynamics
 - Example Mining
 - Curriculum Learning
 - Model and Data Evaluation
 - Rethinking Leaderboards
 - Features Related to Difficulty
- 4. Advanced Topics and Opportunities for Future Work (45 minutes)

¹https://eacl2024irt.github.io/

3.1 Evaluation in NLP

Today more than ever evaluation of generative AI and datasets has become more important than ever. We will start with a brief introduction to evaluation in NLP, covering the state of the field over the years (Church and Hestness, 2019). We will cover traditional classification metrics, the rise of leaderboards (Ethayarajh and Jurafsky, 2020), and issues with incremental improvement on summary statistics (Blum and Hardt, 2015).

3.2 Introduction to IRT

We will then move to an introduction of IRT (Baker, 2001; Carlson and von Davier, 2013). IRT is a psychometric method for estimating latent characteristics of test takers and test examples (typically called "items"). IRT has a rich history in the psychometric literature, and is used to construct tests of subject competency (Carlson and von Davier, 2013), mental health screeners (Cole et al., 2011), and health literacy tests (Lalor et al., 2018a), among others.

As IRT is most likely new to the NLP audience, we will spend time discussing the motivation for IRT and the mathematical foundations which make the building blocks of IRT models. We will introduce IRT, highlight some of the important use cases from the literature, and introduce the relevant IRT models.

Specifically, we will introduce models that are used when there is a known correct answer, e.g., an NLP classification task. Such models take a binarized data input and estimate the latent ability ("skill") of the subject and the latent parameters (such as difficulty) of the dataset items.

We will describe how these models are fit, and highlight issues with traditional methods when considering NLP datasets. Traditionally, sampling methods have been use to fit IRT models, but they are computationally expensive on today's largescale datasets (Wu et al., 2020). We will then introduce variational-inference methods (VI) for IRT model fitting and show how they can alleviate some of the prior concerns (Natesan et al., 2016; Lalor et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2020).

Lastly, we will introduce the py-irt package for fitting IRT models in Python (Lalor and Rodriguez, 2022) and demonstrate how the tool is used using Jupyter notebooks. While IRT has shown promise in NLP, existing software for fitting models are limited by human-data sized constraints. The py-irt package leverages variational-inference (VI) methods to fit IRT models fast and with large data sets. This section of the tutorial will cover the methods built into py-irt and also include a demo with Jupyter notebooks of using py-irt for different NLP evaluation tasks.

3.3 IRT for NLP

We will next discuss how IRT can and has been incorporated into NLP. Prior work has looked at building new test sets with IRT, conducting humanmachine comparisons, reevaluating leaderboards, and evaluating chatbot outputs, among other tasks.

3.3.1 IRT for NLP: Dataset Construction and Evaluation

We will first look at IRT for NLP dataset construction and analysis (Lalor et al., 2016; Martínez-Plumed et al., 2019; Sedoc and Ungar, 2020). Specifically, how can one use IRT to build a test set with a variety of examples included that can measure a range of model ability. We will show how IRT can complement traditional evaluation metrics while also revealing new information about both models and test data (Vania et al., 2021; Amidei et al., 2020).

3.3.2 IRT for NLP: Training Dynamics

Next, we will show how IRT can be used to improve the model training process. For example, by filtering datasets to exclude outliers (e.g., those examples that are too easy or too hard) or by using IRT to build a curriculum learning pipeline (Lalor and Yu, 2020), model training can be done more effectively and with better results.

3.3.3 IRT for NLP: Model Evaluation

Finally, we will discuss how IRT can help us to reimagine model evaluation (Otani et al., 2016; Sedoc and Ungar, 2020). We will show how incorporating IRT into leaderboards can give us much more information on model performance (Rodriguez et al., 2021). We will also show how targeted model probing using IRT can lead to new insights about model behavior (Lalor et al., 2018b; Laverghetta Jr. et al., 2021). Finally, we will compare IRT to other methods such as Elo-Ranking, TrueSkill, and other methods.

3.3.4 Advanced Topics

Lastly, we will discuss opportunities for further incorporating IRT into NLP research. This section will discuss more advanced IRT models, as well as ways that NLP research can inform IRT. For example, what characteristics of examples make them more difficult (Rodriguez et al., 2022)? Also, we will cover IRT extensions and variants to parametrize new instances, such as proxies for difficulty (Martínez-Plumed et al., 2022), or using language models to annotate instance demands, the use of the agent characteristic curves (Martinez-Plumed and Hernandez-Orallo, 2018; Hernández-Orallo et al., 2021) and other ways to use IRT in cases where there is no population of systems.

3.4 Content Breadth

Our goal in this tutorial is to introduce the audience to IRT broadly, and the applications of IRT in NLP specifically. To that end, the content we present will be a mix of foundational IRT research and methods from psychometrics, recent work by the presenters, and work from others in the NLP community who have incorporated IRT into their research.

4 Diversity Considerations

The presenters represent a mix of industry and academic researchers. We also span both Europe and the US. The methods described can be applied to a variety of NLP tasks and languages. The tutorial content will be posted online for wide distribution beyond those able to attend the conference.

5 Ethics Statement

IRT methods can provide fine-grained information about dataset examples and models. With regard to datasets, IRT can potentially surface discrepancies in how groups of examples are handled by NLP models. For example, IRT analyses may show that examples collected from a certain demographic group are systematically more difficult than those examples collected from another demographic group.

6 Pedagogy

We hope that this tutorial can serve as a comprehensive introduction to IRT for an NLP audience and that the content can be reused by others who are not able to attend. To that end, the tutorial will include a combination of presentation slides, demos via Jupyter Notebooks, and interactive sessions in Jupyter notebooks. All content for the tutorial will be hosted online and made publicly available for future use and dissemination.

7 Presenters

John P. Lalor is an Assistant Professor of IT, Analytics, and Operations at the University of Notre Dame. His research interests include model evaluation, curriculum learning, fairness, and BioNLP. Prior to Notre Dame, John received his PhD in Computer Science from the University of Massachusetts, Amherst (advised by Hong Yu) in 2020. John has presented a tutorial on Evaluation and Interpretability in Deep Neural Networks to the 2018 American Medical Informatics Association (AMIA) Annual Symposium with Abhyuday Jagannatha and Hong Yu. Website: https: //jplalor.github.io/.

Pedro Rodriguez is a researcher at Meta AI – FAIR. His research interests include question answering, information retrieval, and evaluation. Before joining Meta, Rodriguez completed his PhD at the University of Maryland, advised by Jordan Boyd-Graber. He has reviewed for ACL conferences and workshops, area chaired for COLING, was an organizer of the Dynamic Adversarial Data Collection Workshop at NAACL 2022, and an organizer of a question answering challenge at NeurIPS 2017. Website: https://www.pedro.ai/.

João Sedoc is an Assistant Professor in the department of Technology, Operations and Statistics at New York University Stern School of Business. He is also affiliated with the Center for Data Science at New York University and one of the co-PIs of the Machine Learning for Language (ML^2) group. João's research areas are at the intersection of machine learning and natural language processing. His interests include conversational agents, model evaluation, deep learning, crowdsourcing, spectral clustering, and time series analysis. He has organized multiple workshops: Workshop on Insights from Negative Results in NLP (EMNLP 2020-2021, ACL 2022, EACL 2023), the Workshop on Chatbots and Conversational Agent Technologies & Dialogue Breakdown Detection Challenge (DBDC) (IWSDS 2019, 2020, 2021), Workshop on Neural Conversational AI (ICLR 2021), Workshop on Computational Approaches to Subjectivity, Sentiment and Social Media Analysis (2021-3), Dialog System Technology Challenge Tracks (AAAI 2021, SIGDIAL 2023), GEM workshop (EMNLP 2023), HumEval workshop 2023 (RANNLP 2023) Website: https://www.stern.nyu.edu/ faculty/bio/joao-sedoc.

Jose Hernandez-Orallo is Professor at the Universitat Politècnica de València and Senior Research Fellow at the Leverhulme Centre for the Future of Intelligence, University of Cambridge, UK. His academic and research activities have spanned several areas of AI, machine learning, data science and intelligence measurement, with a focus on a more insightful analysis of the capabilities, generality, progress, impact and risks of AI. He has published five books and more than two hundred journal articles and conference papers on these topics. His research in the area of machine intelligence evaluation has been covered by several popular outlets, such as The Economist, New Scientist and Nature. For a couple of decades, he has vindicated a more integrated view of the evaluation of natural and artificial intelligence, a position represented by his book "The Measure of All Minds" (Cambridge University Press, 2017, PROSE Award 2018) and by multiple papers and events, using IRT, extensions and techniques from some other disciplines to evaluate general-purpose AI such as LLMs. He is a member of AAAI, CLAIRE and ELLIS, and a EurAI Fellow. Website: https://josephorallo.webs.upv.es/

8 Estimate Audience Size

We expect between 50 to 150 attendees. This is based on previous experience at *CL tutorials as well as interest from others to learn about IRT methods.

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Language + Molecules

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1 Description

Climate change, access to food and water, pandemics- these words, when uttered, immediately summon to mind global challenges with possible disastrous outcomes. The world faces enormous problems in the coming decades on scales of complexity never-before-seen. To address these issues, developing scientific solutions which are scalable, flexible, and inexpensive is critical. Further, we need to develop these solutions quickly. Broadly speaking, chemistry can provide molecular solutions to many of these problems: breakthrough drugs (e.g., kinase inhibitors (Ferguson and Gray, 2018)), materials (e.g., organic photovoltaics (Kippelen et al., 2009)), and chemical processes. The extremely large search spaces in which these solutions exist make AI tools critical for finding them. Of particular note, multimodal models combining language with molecules are poised to be a critical tool for discovering these solutions (Zhang et al., 2023). In this tutorial, we will discuss the role which natural language processing can play in discovering and accelerating solutions to global problems via the broad chemistry domain.

One of the first questions that probably comes to mind is why we would want to integrate natural language with molecules. Succinctly, combining these types of information has the possibility to accelerate scientific discovery. As motivating scenarios, imagine a future where a doctor can receive a novel, patient-specific drug necessary to treat an ailment just by writing a few sentences describing the patient's symptoms (also taking into account their genotype, phenotype, and medical history). Or, imagine a scientist tackling challenging problems by designing a molecule satisfying desired functions (e.g., antimalarial or a photovoltaic) rather than its structure or low level properties (e.g., solubility). Controlling molecules and drug design in such a high-level manner has potential to be hugely impactful, but it requires a method of abstract description; luckily, humans have already developed one: natural language.

In recent months, because of this potential impact, significant attention and growth has occurred in scientific NLP and AI research, including integration of molecules with natural language and multimodal AI for science/medicine ((Zhang et al., 2023) Section 10.3.3, (Wang et al., 2023)). We believe a sufficient amount of work has now been done, along with significant interest generated, to propose an Introductory to NLP (yet still Cutting-Edge) tutorial on "Language + Molecules". This tutorial is designed to require no knowledge and will enable participants to begin exploring relevant and impactful research. Since most relevant work is still cutting-edge, this will broaden the community's understanding of the associated challenges, methodologies, and goals in multimodal moleculelanguage models. We will present an interactive hands-on example and release accompanying relevant code and resources. The tutorial will precede and prepare the way for the Language+Molecules workshop later in the year at ACL.

2 Outline [180 min.]

Applying language models to the scientific domain is becoming increasingly popular due to its potential impact for accelerating scientific discovery (Hope et al., 2022). Beyond extracting information from scientific literature, NLP has the possibility to increase control of the scientific discovery process, which can be achieved through multimodal representations and generative language models.

2.1 Background [60 min.]

Scientific Information Extraction [15 min.]

To start, we will provide a high-level overview on traditional NLP tasks used for scientific discovery (e.g., named entity recognition, entity linking, and relation extraction), as well as recent domainspecific LLMs designed for superior performance

14

on scientific tasks (Beltagy et al., 2019).

What is a molecule? [15 min.]

Half of the title is molecules, but what is one? We will start from scratch and discuss what a molecule actually is, including the basic constituents of molecules, atoms and bonds, and how they essentially form graph structures. Then, we will focus on molecular string languages, which are a key building block for chemical language models. We will discuss tradeoffs of these languages (Grisoni, 2023; Weininger, 1988; O'Boyle and Dalke, 2018; Krenn et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2023). Krenn et al. (2020) proposes a formal grammar approach, which may particularly interest the ACL community.

Molecule Design using Language Models [15]

Now that we know what a molecule is, we will overview recent work applying NLP techniques to these molecular languages with impressive results. These molecular LLMs are trained with adapted pre-training techniques from (natural) language models to learn molecule representation from large collections of molecule strings (Frey et al., 2022; Chithrananda et al., 2020; Ahmad et al., 2022; Fabian et al., 2020; Schwaller et al., 2021; NVIDIA Corporation, 2022; Flam-Shepherd and Aspuru-Guzik, 2023; Tysinger et al., 2023). Applications include molecule and material generation, property prediction, and protein binding site prediction.

Drug Discovery-A Brief Primer [15 min.]

Ok, so NLP is being used for molecules now. What can we do with it?—here, we present a brief overview of drug discovery–an important but challenging problem. Historically, molecular discovery has commonly been done by humans who design and build individual molecules, but this can cost over a billion dollars and take over ten years (Gaudelet et al., 2021). We'll discuss a little of the process here, including non-NLP deep learning methods, so that we know how to improve it.

2.2 Integrating Language with Molecules [95]

What does natural language have to offer? [15]

At least at first, integrating languages and molecules seems like an odd idea. Here, we'll start an interactive discussion with the audience on what they think potential benefits might be. We'll make sure to mention the following major advantages, as discussed in the recent survey (Zhang et al., 2023):

- 1. Generative Modeling: One of the largest problems in current LLMs—-hallucination— becomes a strength for discovering molecules with high-level functions and abstract properties. In particular, language is compositional by nature (Szabó, 2020; Partee et al., 1984; Han et al., 2023), and therefore holds promise for composing these high-level properties (e.g., antimalarial) (Liu et al., 2022).
- 2. **Bridging Modalities**: Language can serve to "bridge" between modalities for scarce data.
- 3. Domain Understanding: Grounding language models into external real world knowledge (here, molecular structures) can improve understanding of unseen molecules and advance many emerging tasks, such as experimental procedure planning, which use LLMs as scientific agents.
- 4. **Democratization**: Language enables scientists without computational expertise to leverage advances in scientific AI.

Do I want multimodality? [5 min.]

An important, yet often overlooked, question in multimodal NLP is to ask: do I need multimodality? For example, if one wants to extract reactions from the literature, a text-to-text model (Vaucher et al., 2020) might be sufficient. However, editing a drug with high-level instructions requires language (Liu et al., 2023a; Fang et al., 2023). Here, we will dive into this question and discuss example scenarios with the audience for how to answer it.

2.2.1 Integrating Modalities [30 min.]

Ok, we've decided we want or need multimodality. Next, we need to discuss how people are currently tackling this-we'll start with two primary methods, bi-encoder models and joint representation models.

Bi-Encoder Models (and beyond) Bi-encoder models consist of an encoder branch for text and a branch for molecules. They have the advantage of not requiring direct, early integration of the two modalities, allowing existing single-modal models to be integrated. Representative examples we will discuss include Text2Mol (Edwards et al., 2021), CLAMP (Seidl et al., 2023), and BioTranslator (Xu et al., 2023). Generally, bi-encoder models are effective for cross-modal retrieval (Edwards et al., 2021; Su et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2023b), but they may also be integrated into molecule (Su et al., 2023b) generation frameworks.

We'll talk about all these tasks, applications, and return to some important motivations (e.g., bridging modalities).

Joint Molecule-Language Models Joint models, on the other hand, seeks to model interactions between multiple modalities inside the same network to allow fine-grained interaction. We will discuss encoder-only models (Zeng et al., 2022), encoderdecoder models (Christofidellis et al., 2023), and decoder-only models (Liu et al., 2023c).

Model Differences: We will answer important questions such as: Which model should I use? What tasks can each do? Tasks include retrieval (Edwards et al., 2021), "translation" between molecules and language (Edwards et al., 2022a), editing molecules (Liu et al., 2022), and chemical reaction planning (Vaucher et al., 2020, 2021).

An Interactive Example - Targeting Microtubules for Cancer Treatment [20 min.]

At this point, there's been a lot of ideas thrown around. We'll consolidate them by exploring an interactive example of language-enabled molecule design using Google Colab.

We will focus on microtubules for the example. These cellular structures play an important role in many processes such cell growth and division, and mutations can be oncogenic (Mukhtar et al., 2014; Wattanathamsan and Pongrakhananon, 2022). In modern medicine, tumors such as pancreatic cancer are commonly treated by microtubule-targeting drugs such as paclitaxel (Albahde et al., 2021). In our example, we will explore creating new drugs with this function using natural language instructions, which may be useful in cases of paclitaxel resistance (Kavallaris, 2010). Our hands-on example will consist of three components:

1. Language-enabled Drug Design:

Participants will explore inputs to language \rightarrow molecule models to generate candidate drugs which target microtubules.

2. Language-Guided Assay Testing: Here, participants will test their proposed drugs in an assay. We will follow (Seidl et al., 2023), where natural language descriptions are used for assay predictions.

3. Interaction Prediction:

Finally, we will test if proposed drugs bind with beta-tubulin using Autodock Vina, a well established docking program (Trott and Olson, 2010), via DockString (García-Ortegón et al., 2022). **Applications [25 min.]** Here, we will discuss important applications to improve crossdiscipline communication, including drug discovery (Mukhtar et al., 2014; Ferguson and Gray, 2018), organic photovoltaics (Kippelen et al., 2009), and catalyst discovery for renewable energy (Zitnick et al., 2020).

2.3 Recent Trends and Conclusion [25 min.]

Instruction-Following Molecular Design [10]

In the last year, instruction-following language models (Wei et al., 2021) have surged in popularity. Following this trend, training methodologies and datasets have recently emerged to allow language models to follow instructions related to molecule properties (Liang et al., 2023; Fang et al., 2023; Zeng et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2023a). We will give a brief overview of this new line of work.

LLMs as Scientific Agents [5 min.] Further, we'll focus on recent work which looks to control experiments with language models (Boiko et al., 2023) and to create tools for enabling domain-specific capabilities in general language models (Bran et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023a).

Conclusion [10 min.] We will discuss the key difficulties in the molecule-language domain that need to be addressed by the research community to allow similar progress to the vision-language domain. This includes 1) data scarcity due to domain expertise requirements, 2) addressing inconsistency when training on scientific literature, 3) improved methods for integrating geometric structures into LLMs, and 4) developing better evaluation metrics for chemical predictions without real-world experiments.

3 Logistics and Details

Diversity Considerations For this tutorial, our team originates from geographically distant countries and has varying level of seniority, including two PhD students and a full professor, The team includes a female researcher. This tutorial will augment a workshop on "Language + Molecules" to be held at a the ACL conference, which already has confirmed speakers and organizers with diversity in geography, ethnicity, and gender. This tutorial will strongly promote academic diversity, since it requires combining the specialties of chemists, physicians, pharmacists, computational linguists, and machine learning researchers. Further, this tutorial will promote the usage of NLP in high-impact

areas, ranging from drug discovery to organic photovoltaics. The methods we will introduce are language-agnostic. All tutorial materials (slides, example, reading list) will be shared to reach such a diverse audience.

Target Audience and Background We will target this tutorial at NLP researchers with no knowledge of chemistry or molecules– thus, we will provide an extensive discussion of background material. However, we will assume that the target audience is familiar with modern NLP methods including training deep neural network-based language models (e.g., BERT). We anticipate an audience size of 75-150 researchers. We will discuss relevant background for applying NLP to molecules and important applications in chemistry.

Reading List

- Molecule Representations and Language Models: (Weininger, 1988; Krenn et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2023; Chithrananda et al., 2020; Ahmad et al., 2022; Tysinger et al., 2023)
- Molecule-Language Modeling: (Edwards et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2023b; Zeng et al., 2022; Edwards et al., 2022b; Zhao et al., 2023a; Su et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022, 2023c; Xu et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023a; Luo et al., 2023)
- Applications: (Jordan and Roughley, 2009; Mukhtar et al., 2014; Kippelen et al., 2009)
- LLMs as Scientific Agents: (Boiko et al., 2023; Bran et al., 2023; Castro Nascimento and Pimentel, 2023; White et al., 2023)
- Survey: (Zhang et al., 2023) Section 10.3.3

We won't require reading these beforehand to ensure the tutorial is introductory.

Breadth of Tutorial Papers in the reading list were created by a diverse set of authors and include other disciplines. Specifically, only 2 papers and a survey from the instructors will be covered.

Ethical Considerations

Broader Impacts Our tutorial will have potential broader impacts: 1) It will help ACL researchers to better understand the research goals and constraints in chemical sciences, allowing them to do more impactful research there. 2) Studying language models in the context of non-human languages can help develop an understanding of their workings; due to our own personal linguistic biases, human researchers often misattribute abilities to language models. This is particularly relevant for developing new methodologies which are applicable to low-resource human languages. 3) It will promote further research in text-based molecule generation, with potential to enable a large shift in chemistry research so that custom molecules can be developed for each application or patient.

Ethical Concerns Like most methodologies reliant on LLMs, there may be biases learned by the model due to its large-scale training data. In this domain, these biases may affect what type of molecules are generated. Thus, any molecules or drugs discovered should be strictly evaluated by standard clinical processes before being considered for human or medicinal use. Another risk is that potentially dangerous molecules may be discovered. However, knowledge of dangerous molecule's existence and structure is generally not harmful due to the requisite technical knowledge and laboratory resources required for synthesis. Overall, we believe these downsides are outweighed by the benefits to the research and pharmaceutical communities.

3.1 Tutorial Presenters

Carl Edwards is a Ph.D. student in the Computer Science Department at UIUC. Broadly, he is interested in information extraction, information retrieval, text mining, representation learning, AI4Science, and multimodality. Particularly, he is interested in applying these to the scientific domain to accelerate scientific discovery. His work focuses on integrating natural language and molecules, especially using multimodal representations.

Qingyun Wang is a Ph.D. student in computer science at UIUC. His research lies in NLP for scientific discovery. Recently, he works on extracting reaction information from scientific literature. He served as a PC member in conferences including ICML, ACL, ICLR, NeurIPS, etc. His work was recognized in the first Alexa Prize competition and by the NAACL-HLT 2021 Best Demo Award. He has presented a tutorial at EMNLP 2021.

Heng Ji is a professor at the Computer Science Department of UIUC, and Amazon Scholar. She is a leading expert on multimodal multilingual information extraction, including NLP for Science with a particular interest in leveraging NLP for drug discovery. She has coordinated the NIST TAC Knowledge Base Population task since 2010. She has served as the PC Co-Chair of many conferences including NAACL-HLT2018 and AACL-IJCNLP2022 and has presented many tutorials. She was elected as NAACL secretary 2020-2023.

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Transformer-specific Interpretability

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Abstract

Transformers have emerged as dominant players in various scientific fields, especially NLP. However, their inner workings, like many other neural networks, remain opaque. In spite of the widespread use of model-agnostic interpretability techniques, including gradient-based and occlusion-based, their shortcomings are becoming increasingly apparent for Transformer interpretation, making the field of interpretability more demanding today. In this tutorial, we will present Transformer-specific interpretability methods, a new trending approach, that make use of specific features of the Transformer architecture and are deemed more promising for understanding Transformer-based models. We start by discussing the potential pitfalls and misleading results model-agnostic approaches may produce when interpreting Transformers. Next, we discuss Transformer-specific methods, including those designed to quantify contextmixing interactions among all input pairs (as the fundamental property of the Transformer architecture) and those that combine causal methods with low-level Transformer analysis to identify particular subnetworks within a model that are responsible for specific tasks. By the end of the tutorial, we hope participants will understand the advantages (as well as current limitations) of Transformer-specific interpretability methods, along with how these can be applied to their own research.

1 Tutorial Description

With Transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) demonstrating exceptional performance across every domain they venture into such as language, speech, vision, and music, the necessity to understand their underlying mechanisms has become more crucial than ever before. Many model-agnostic interpretability techniques that were commonly used for earlier generations of deep learning architectures, such as probing, occlusion-based, and feature attribution methods, were swiftly adapted for use with the Transformer architecture. However, these approaches demonstrate notable disagreement with each other and a lack of stability when moving from one domain to another (Neely et al., 2022; Pruthi et al., 2020; Krishna et al., 2022). Their effectiveness in drawing reliable conclusions has therefore been an ongoing matter of debate (Bibal et al., 2022).

Recently, a game-changing trend has emerged: the development of analysis methods that are precisely tailored to the model architecture of Transformers, built upon their underlying mathematical foundations. These methods make use of specific features of Transformers, including their layered structure (layers, heads, tokens), the division of labor between the attention mechanism, feed-forward layers, and residual streams. These techniques span from those aimed at measuring token-to-token interactions (known as context mixing, Brunner et al., 2020; Kobayashi et al., 2020, 2021; Ferrando et al., 2022b; Mohebbi et al., 2023b,a), to others striving to reverse engineer the model decision and decompose it into understandable pieces (known as mechanistic interpretability, Wang et al., 2023; Elhage et al., 2021).

This tutorial focuses on Transformer-specific interpretability methods. We will first briefly review the internal structure of the Transformer architecture to establish our notations. Next, we will explain why it is necessary to design methods tailored to the model architecture, exposing the limitations of model-agnostic approaches when applied to Transformer analysis using practical examples. Subsequently, we will introduce Transformerspecific techniques, delving into their mathematics, and categorizing them according to their purposes, using experimental results across a number of domains, such as text, speech, and music, as well as across several languages. Our tutorial will conclude with a discussion on current limitations in interpretability and promising future directions.

Proceedings of the 18th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics Tutorial Abstracts, pages 21–26

2 Tutorial Type

The tutorial will be cutting-edge, covering the latest research advancements in the interpretability of Transformers, which serve as the backbone architecture of modern NLP systems.

The only ACL tutorials similar to ours are "Interpretability and Analysis in Neural NLP" (Belinkov et al., 2020) and "Fine-grained Interpretation and Causation Analysis in Deep NLP Models" (Sajjad et al., 2021), held at ACL 2020 and NAACL 2021, respectively. Both focused on general modelagnostic interpretability techniques. Our tutorial, however, will question the effectiveness of those general-purpose analysis methods and mark the next chapter: a transition from model-agnostic approaches to Transformer-specific methods.

3 Target Audience

Given the widespread use of Transformers across various applications in both text and speech, we expect that our audience will be not only folks engaged in interpretability but also those from various tracks within the Computational Linguistics community who have not kept up with the recent advancements within interpretability research. In fact, we have been frequently asked at *ACL conferences and our industry meetings, particularly by individuals outside of the interpretability track, seeking guidance on the most effective interpretability techniques to employ in their projects for noninterpretability purposes, such as training monitoring, model compression, or model tuning.

In terms of expected prerequisite background, we expect audience members to be familiar with the basic concepts of Transformer models. For the Jupyter notebooks that will be covered, we expect experience with PyTorch and the Transformers library.

4 Outline of Tutorial Structure

The tutorial will consist of 30 minute slots of lectures and interactive seminars for which we will provide Jupyter notebooks. A small part of the tutorial will be focused on interpretability techniques from the organisers (e.g. Abnar and Zuidema, 2020 and Mohebbi et al., 2023b), but the majority of the work discussed will be work from other labs to provide an honest and broad overview of the current state of interpretability research in NLP.

- 1. 30 minute lecture on model-agnostic interpretability:
 - Introduction
 - Model-agnostic approaches: probing, feature attributions, behavioral studies
 - How are model-agnostic approaches adapted to Transformers? What are their limitations?
- 2. 30 minute lecture on interpretation of **attention** and **context mixing**:
 - Attention analysis (Clark et al., 2019) as a straightforward starting point for measuring context mixing.
 - Limitations of interpreting raw attention scores (Bibal et al., 2022; Hassid et al., 2022)
 - Effective attention scores: rollout (Abnar and Zuidema, 2020), HTA (Brunner et al., 2020), LRP-based attention (Chefer et al., 2020).
 - Expanding the scope of context mixing analysis by incorporating other model components: Attention-Norm (Kobayashi et al., 2020, 2021, 2023), GlobEnc (Modarressi et al., 2022), ALTI (Ferrando et al., 2022b,a), Value Zeroing (Mohebbi et al., 2023b), DecompX (Modarressi et al., 2023).
- 3. 30 minute interactive tutorial on interpreting context mixing: Jupyter notebooks will be provided (via Google Colab) and can be run interactively while the presenters go through it.
- 4. Coffee break
- 5. 30 minute lecture on **mechanistic** and **causality-based** interpretability:
 - Basics of mechanistic interpretability: the residual stream and computational graph views of models, and the circuits framework (Olah et al., 2020; Elhage et al., 2021; Hanna et al., 2023).
 - Finding circuit structure using causal interventions (Vig et al., 2020; Geiger et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023; Goldowsky-Dill et al., 2023; Conmy et al., 2023; Nanda, 2023; Syed et al., 2023).

- Assigning semantics to circuit components: the logit lens (Nostalgebrist, 2020; Geva et al., 2021), concept erasure (Belrose et al., 2023), and (potentially) polysemanticity and superposition (Elhage et al., 2022).
- 30 minute interactive tutorial mechanistic interpretability in NLP, notebooks will again be provided.
- 7. 30 minute slot for discussion, reflection and future outlook: what are open questions in interpretability, what's next, and what's lacking?

5 Reading List

In addition to the key papers mentioned in Section 4, we would recommend attendees that are interested in gaining a broader understanding of general interpretability techniques to explore the following survey papers: (Belinkov and Glass, 2019; Madsen et al., 2021; Raukur et al., 2022; Lyu et al., 2022)

6 Special Requirements

There are no special technical requirements, other than standard conference equipment (computer, screen, and projector). If participants wish to participate in the interactive parts, they should bring their laptops.

7 Diversity

Our tutorial focuses on Transformer-specific interpretability across several domains, including text, speech, music, (and vision, to some extent). As Transformers have gained widespread adoption within the CL community, we anticipate engaging a diverse and extensive audience. To ensure diversity, we have both professors and PhD students on our instructor team.

8 Tutorial Instructors

Hosein Mohebbi is a PhD candidate at Tilburg University. He is part of the InDeep consortium project, doing research on the interpretability of deep neural models for both text and speech. During his Master's, his research revolved around the interpretation of pre-trained language models and the utilization of interpretability techniques to accelerate their inference time. His research has been published in leading NLP venues such as ACL, EACL, EMNLP, and BlackboxNLP, where he also regularly serves as a reviewer. He is also one of the organizers of BlackboxNLP 2023-2024, a work-shop focusing on analyzing and interpreting neural networks for NLP.

Jaap Jumelet is a PhD candidate at the Institute for Logic, Language and Computation at the University of Amsterdam. His research focuses on gaining an understanding of how neural models are able to build up hierarchical representations of their input, by leveraging hypotheses from (psycho-)linguistics. His research has been published at leading NLP venues, including TACL, ACL, and CoNLL. He is a co-organiser for BlackboxNLP in 2023-2024. He has been involved in numerous courses in the AI Master of the University of Amsterdam, all with a focus on NLP and interpretability.

Michael Hanna is a PhD candidate at the University of Amsterdam, as part of the Institute for Logic, Language and Computation. His research focuses on understanding the abilities of pre-trained language models, and linking these behaviors to lowlevel mechanisms using causal methods. His work has been published in leading interpretability and NLP venues such as NeurIPS, EMNLP, and EACL. He previously designed and led a workshop on mechanistic interpretability as part of the University of Amsterdam's artificial intelligence masters program.

Afra Alishahi is an Associate Professor at the Department of Cognitive Science and Artificial Intelligence at Tilburg University, Netherlands. Her main research interests are developing computational models of human language, studying the emergence of linguistic structure in grounded models of language learning, and developing tools and techniques for analyzing linguistic representations in neural models of language. She has served as program chair for CoNLL and as AC and SAC for many recent CL conferences, and is one of the founders of the BlackboxNLP workshops. She has acted as ACL tutorial co-chair and taught tutorials at ACL and ESSLII; most recently she offered a tutorial on Interpretability of linguistic knowledge in neural language models as part of Lectures on Computational Linguistics in Pisa, Italy.

Willem Zuidema is Associate Professor of NLP, Explainable AI and Cognitive Modelling at the University of Amsterdam. He has published widely in NLP, AI and Cognitive Science venues, including TACL, JAIR, ACL, EMNLP and NeurIPS. Since 2016, many of his publications have focused on interpretability in AI. He has taught many undergraduate and graduate courses (including Interpretability and Explainability in AI in Amsterdams's MSc AI, 2022, 2023), and two courses at graduate summerschools (ESSLLI 2008, 2015). He leads a project on interpretability that involves 5 universities ('InDeep', 2021-2026). He has served on many program committees, including ACL, NAACL, EMNLP, BlackboxNLP, and helped organize workshops and conferences; in 2016, he was tutorial co-chair for ACL.

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LLMs for Low Resource Languages in Multilingual, Multimodal and Dialectal Settings

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Abstract

The recent breakthroughs in Artificial Intelligence (AI) can be attributed to the remarkable performance of Large Language Models (LLMs) across a spectrum of research areas (e.g., machine translation, question-answering, automatic speech recognition, text-to-speech generation) and application domains (e.g., business, law, healthcare, education, and psychology). The success of these LLMs largely depends on specific training techniques, most notably instruction tuning, RLHF, and subsequent prompting to achieve the desired output. As the development of such LLMs continues to increase in both closed and open settings, evaluation has become crucial for understanding their generalization capabilities across different tasks, modalities, languages, and dialects. This evaluation process is tightly coupled with prompting, which plays a key role in obtaining better outputs. There has been attempts to evaluate such models focusing on diverse tasks, languages, and dialects, which suggests that the capabilities of LLMs are still limited to medium-to-low-resource languages due to the lack of representative datasets. The tutorial offers an overview of this emerging research area. We explore the capabilities of LLMs in terms of their performance, zero- and few-shot settings, fine-tuning, instructions tuning, and close vs. open models with a special emphasis on low-resource settings. In addition to LLMs for standard NLP tasks, we will focus on speech and multimodality.1

1 Tutorial Content Description

Large Language Models (LLMs) are prominent examples of Foundation Models (FMs), based on the Transformer network architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017). Trained to predict the subsequent token in a sequence, LLMs capture implicit and intricate information contained in the data. Moreover, when created using multilingual training data, the models capture linguistic nuances, phonological patterns, and semantic relationships across languages, strengthening its multilingual capabilities. However, understanding how their capabilities generalize across tasks and languages requires a systematic evaluation approach.

1.1 Benchmarking LLMs for different tasks and languages

The HELM project (Liang et al., 2022) assessed English LLMs across various metrics and scenarios. BIG-Bench (Srivastava et al., 2022) introduced a large-scale evaluation with 214 tasks, considering low-resource languages as well. Other efforts included evaluations of ChatGPT, GPT2.5, BLOOMZ, and OpenAI GPT as in Bang et al. (2023); Ahuja et al. (2023); Hendy et al. (2023); Abdelali et al. (2023); Scao et al. (2022).

For speech, OpenAI's Whisper (Radford et al., 2022), Google's USM (Zhang et al., 2023), and other speech models are explored by the speech community. They are general-purpose speech models with multilingual capabilities, designed for speech recognition (ASR) and other tasks. The benchmarking efforts include Speech Processing Universal PERformance Benchmark (SUPERB) initiative (Yang et al., 2021) which includes a collection of benchmarking tools, resources, and a leader board for 10 tasks from six domains.

1.2 LLMs and lower-resources languages

These LLMs have been trained on datasets from the internet, ingesting many resources in different languages. For close models (e.g., ChatGPT) the coverage and the distribution of the content for medium-to-low-resource languages are unknown. Most of the open-sourced models uses commoncrawl dataset, which is skewed for many languages. For example, Bloom, that is trained on 46 natural

¹The content of the tutorial will be available at the following website: https://llm-low-resource-lang.github. io/.

languages and 13 programming languages ², has only 4.6%, 0.02% and 0.70% language coverage for Arabic, Swahili and Hindi respectively (Scao et al., 2022).

With models trained on such distribution of data, this raises questions on their capabilities on medium-to-low-resource languages in a variety of language processing tasks. To understand the capabilities of LLMs, there has been several research efforts. Bang et al. (2023) reports that ChatGPT fails to generalize to low and extremely low resources languages (e.g., Marathi, Sundanese, and Buginese). Lai et al. (2023) reports that ChatGPT generally performs better for English than other languages. Ahuja et al. (2023) evaluate 8 different tasks with 33 languages and report that LLMs perform better on high-resource languages and languages that are in Latin scripts. In our work for Arabic, we evaluate ChatGPT on 33 tasks, 59 datasets with 96 test setups using zero-shot setting. Performances are significantly lower on 88 test setups (Abdelali et al., 2023). This study also focused on tasks covering different Arabic dialects and reports that models perform comparably for MSA than other dialects such as Egyptian, Gulf, Levantine, and Maghrebi.

In the realm of speech technology, OpenAI's recent Whisper model has demonstrated that the performance in low-resource languages is still relatively poor, a trend that correlates with the size of the pre-training dataset. Subsequently, Google's USM models have shown further improvements in performance, achieving an average word error rate (WER) of less than 30% across 73 languages.

1.3 Multimodality

Along side with NLP, speech, and multimodal generative models have also emerged (Liu et al., 2023a; Zhu et al., 2023a; OpenAI, 2023a). ChatGPT has demonstrated multi-modal abilities on variety of tasks. Following that, Zhu et al. (2023a) developed MiniGPT-4, which is trained by combining Vicuna (Chiang et al., 2023) and Blip-2 (Li et al., 2023). Recently, OpenAI, Google, and Meta released GPT-4 Vision (OpenAI, 2023b), Gemini (Team et al., 2023), and AnyMAL (Moon et al., 2023), respectively, each focusing on multimodal aspects. The idea of the these attempts was to train a model by aligning visual information from a pre-trained vision encoder with an LLM. Though their capa-

1.4 Dialects

In our study for Arabic (Abdelali et al., 2023), we observed that the gaps in LLMs' performance between MSA and dialectal datasets (e.g., for machine translation (MT) and speech recognition task) are more pronounced, indicating ineffectiveness of LLMs for under-represented dialects. For example, in both the GPT-models, we noticed a large discrepancy in the POS accuracy of 0.810 versus 0.379 on MSA and dialects respectively. Similarly, for Arabic dialect identification tasks (ADI) we notice a significant difference between the SOTA acoustic and lexical model with respect to LLMs results.

1.5 Prompting for LLMs

Prompt design plays a critical role in influencing the performance of Large Language Models (LLMs), as evidenced in (Reynolds and McDonell, 2021; Dong et al., 2022). These models are highly sensitive to minor variations in the prompts, such as word choice and the order of examples in fewshot settings. Ahuja et al. (2023) have investigated various monolingual and multilingual prompts, discovering that English-language templates generally outperform those in native languages. The performance of a task also depends on native and non-native language prompts. In our study focusing on Arabic (Abdelali et al., 2023) and Bangla (Hasan et al., 2023), we have found that performance can vary considerably depending on whether the prompts are in a native or non-native language. This variability is observed in both zero-shot and few-shot settings. Another point of interest in fewshot settings is the method used for selecting shots and arranging them in a reasonable order. Various approaches have been reported, such as random selection (Khondaker et al., 2023), class-based selection (e.g., Liang et al. (2022) selected examples to ensure class coverage in classification tasks), and Maximal Marginal Relevance-based (MMR) selection (Carbonell and Goldstein, 1998).

1.6 What this tutorial offers

Here, we provide an overview of the capabilities of LLMs for diverse tasks, languages, dialects, and modalities, including text, speech, and multimodality. We start with an introduction to LLMs, includ-

²https://huggingface.co/bigscience/bloom

ing a brief history and their significant capabilities in downstream tasks. This is followed by an indepth examination of various LLMs developed for NLP, speech, and multimodal applications, emphasizing their utility across different tasks.

In the third part of the tutorial, we delve into the intricacies of prompting, which serves as a foundational element for obtaining output from these LLMs. In this part, we will also include a hands-on demonstration of tools that have been developed to further facilitate research on LLMs. The fourth part of the tutorial will focus on a more comprehensive discussion about low-resource languages, addressing both the challenges they present and future directions for research. Finally, we will discuss hallucination, bias, toxicity, and computational resources needed for model training and inference. An outline of the tutorial is reported in Section 3.

2 Type of the Tutorial

The tutorial is both introductory, covering a number of topics related to the capabilities of LLMs, but it is also cutting-edge, covering some latest developments in these areas. Attendees will have an overview of tasks, languages, dialects and modalities related to LLMs, which will put them up to speed to do research in the area. The tutorial targets anyone interested in employing LLMs for NLP, speech and multimodal tasks. We believe researchers working on lower-resource languages will be especially interested. We expect the audience to have intermediate machine learning knowledge.

3 Outline of the Tutorial

Below, we offer an outline of the tutorial. More information and materials will is available online on the tutorial website upon the tutorial acceptance.

3.1 Introduction [30 min]

(i) LLMs

- (a) A brief history of LLMs
- (b) Capabilities in downstream NLP, speech, and multimodal tasks

References: (Mielke et al., 2021; Sennrich et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016; Kudo and Richardson, 2018; Radford et al., 2019; Devlin et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2020)

3.2 Models and their capabilities for low-resource languages [30 min]

The following are just a few examples of models. They will not be the only ones covered in the tutorial.

- (i) Models for NLP tasks
 - (a) GPT 3.5 (ChatGPT), GPT-4
 - (b) Bloom, LLaMA, mT5, Flan, PaLM
- (ii) Models for Speech tasks
 - (a) USM
 - (b) Whisper
- (iii) Models for Multimodality
 - (a) Closed models: GPT-4 Vision, Gemini
 - (b) Open Models: MiniGPT, LLaVA

References: (Brown et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2023a; Xue et al., 2020; Scao et al., 2022; Touvron et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2023a)

3.3 Prompt Engineering [50 min]

- (i) Zero-shot
- (ii) Few-shots and selection methods
- (iii) Prompt templates
- (iv) Mono/Cross lingual prompting
- (v) Prompt programming
- (vi) Tools and resources (e.g., LLMeBench (Dalvi et al., 2023), OpenICL (Wu et al., 2023), PromptBench (Zhu et al., 2023b)) and Imevaluation-harness (Gao et al., 2023).

References: (Wei et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022; Reynolds and McDonell, 2021)

3.4 Limitations and Challenges for low-resource settings [50 min]

- (i) Multitask, multilingual, multimodal evaluation for low-resource languages
- (ii) Multi-dialects challenges

(iii) Summary of recent benchmarking efforts *References:* (Ahuja et al., 2023; Liang et al., 2022; Srivastava et al., 2022; Bang et al., 2023; Ahuja et al., 2023; Hendy et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2021; Radford et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023; Abdelali et al., 2023; Bang et al., 2023; Bubeck et al., 2023)

3.5 Other Related Aspects [30 min]

- (i) Hallucination
- (ii) Bias, Toxicity and Misinformation in LLMs

(iii) Computational Resources, Carbon footprint *References*: (Bang et al., 2023)

4 Prerequisites

We expect attendees to be equipped with basic knowledge of machine learning, including familiarity with recent neural network architectures, particularly Transformers, and an understanding of pretrained language models. Additionally, attendees should be familiar with standard NLP tasks such as text classification, natural language generation, and question answering.

5 Reading List

In addition to the references cited in Section 3, we recommend several surveys: an overview of LLMs (Zhao et al., 2023), prompt engineering (Liu et al., 2023b; Gu et al., 2023), in-context learning (Dong et al., 2022), and evaluation of LLMs (Liang et al., 2022).

6 Tutorial Instructors

Firoj Alam is a Scientist at the Qatar Computing Research Institute (QCRI), HBKU. He received his PhD from the University of Trento, Italy, and has been working for more than ten years in Artificial Intelligence, Deep/machine learning, Natural Language Processing, Social media content, Image Processing, and Conversation Analysis. His current research interest includes LLMs, factchecking, multimodal propaganda detection in multiple languages. He previously presented tutorials at WWW-2022 and WSDM-2022 on the topic of "Fact-Checking, Fake News, Propaganda, And Media Bias". He was a co-organizer of different shared tasks CheckThat! 2020-2024 at CLEF, SemEval-2021 task 6 (propaganda detection in memes), SemEval-2024 task (multilingual detection of persuasion techniques in memes), WANLP (Arabic-NLP) shared task (2022-2023) and the NLP4IF-2021 shared task. He is also a co-organizer of the BLP-2023 workshop (collocated with EMNLP-2023).

Shammur Absar Chowdhury is a Scientist at QCRI, HBKU. Her research interest includes designing speech models, and interpretability for atypical phenomena in conversation. Dr. Chowdhury authored more than 60 peer-reviewed publications in tier-top conferences and journals; and actively contributed to the research community by organizing shared tasks, challenges, and workshops like SemEval-2022 (Task 3), QASR-TTS-v1.0 (ASRU2023), SLT2023 (Local Chair), summer workshop JSALT2022 (as a senior mentor)

along with serving in the program-committee of top-tier conferences and special interest groups (SIGs).

Sabri Boughorbel is a Scientist at QCRI, HBKU. He received his PhD in Machine Learning from the university of Paris Sud. He has an extensive experience in Machine Learning for industrial and academic research. He authored more than 70 peerreviewed papers and 7 patents. He was awarded several grants in the intersection of machine learning and health. His current research is on leveraging open-sourced LLMs for low-resource languages and developing multi-modal language models. He serves as PC member of top-tier machine learning conferences. In 2023, he co-organized a workshop on AI for Medicine.

Maram Hasanain is a PostDoctoral researcher at QCRI, HBKU. She received her PhD in Computer Science from Qatar University. Her current research interests are Arabic NLP, applied machine learning, and LLMs. Maram co-authored over 25 peer-reviewed publications in top-tier conferences and journals. She has been a co-organizer in the CheckThat! lab at CLEF 2019-2021, 2023 and 2024. She was also a co-organizer of the Bro-Dyn'18 workshop on analysis of broad dynamic topics over social media co-located with ECIR'18.

7 Ethics Statement

Our tutorial is based on our own work in the area, related studies and public sources. Credit will be given wherever needed. Any biases are unintended.

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Author Index

Alam, Firoj, 27 Alishahi, Afra, 21	Lalor, John P., 9
Boughorbel, Sabri, 27	Mohebbi, Hosein, 21
Cassotti, Pierluigi, 1	Periti, Francesco, 1
Chowdhury, Shammur Absar, 27	Rodriguez, Pedro, 9
de Pascale, Stefano, 1	Sadaa Jaãa 0
Dubossarsky, Haim, 1	Sedoc, João, 9
Edwards, Carl, 14	Tahmasebi, Nina, <mark>1</mark>
Hanna, Michael, 21	Wang, Qingyun, 14
Hasanain, Maram, 27 Hernandez-Orallo, Jose, 9	Zuidema, Willem, 21

Ji, Heng, <mark>14</mark> Jumelet, Jaap, 21