

Time Course MechInterp: Analyzing the Evolution of Components and Knowledge in Large Language Models

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Abstract

Understanding how large language models (LLMs) acquire and store factual knowledge is crucial for enhancing their interpretability and reliability. In this work, we analyze the evolution of factual knowledge representation in the OLMo-7B model by tracking the roles of its attention heads and feed forward networks (FFNs) over the course of pre-training. We classify these components into four roles: general, entity, relation-answer, and fact-answer specific and examine their stability and transitions. Our results show that LLMs initially depend on broad, general-purpose components, which later specialize as training progresses. Once the model reliably predicts answers, some components are repurposed, suggesting an adaptive learning process. Notably, attention heads display the highest turnover. We also present evidence that FFNs remain more stable throughout training. Furthermore, our probing experiments reveal that location-based relations converge to high accuracy earlier in training than name-based relations, highlighting how task complexity shapes acquisition dynamics. These insights offer a mechanistic view of knowledge formation in LLMs. We release the code and data.¹

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) are trained on vast datasets, including sources like Wikipedia, from which they acquire a wide range of factual knowledge. As a result, these models can provide informed answers when queried about facts. To uncover the mechanisms that enable such factual responses, mechanistic interpretability (MI) methods (Olah et al., 2020; Elhage et al., 2021) are employed. MI aims to reverse-engineer neural networks by translating their internal processes into human-understandable algorithms and concepts, and has made great progress in explaining how

¹<https://github.com/adhakimi/time-course-mechinterp>

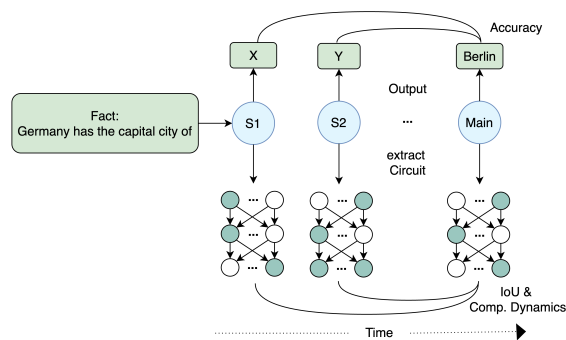


Figure 1: Factual Knowledge Probing. We trace how OLMo-7B processes factual knowledge across training snapshots by extracting Information Flow Routes and evaluating prediction accuracy. To analyze component dynamics, we measure the overlap of each component’s contributions with the fully trained model using Intersection over Union (IoU), and track how their assigned roles evolve over time.

transformer-based LLMs process and store information.

A key approach within MI is *circuit analysis* (Olah et al., 2020; Elhage et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023), which isolates minimal computational subgraphs comprising essential components like attention heads and FFNs that reproduce a model’s behavior on a given task. Prior work on factual recall has focused on localizing knowledge within transformer parameters (Meng et al., 2022; Geva et al., 2021, 2022, 2023; Hernandez et al., 2024) and on behavioral analyses that trace the emergence of linguistic and reasoning capabilities during pre-training (Rogers et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Chiang et al., 2020; Chang et al., 2024; Xia et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2023; Biderman et al., 2023a). While these studies have advanced our understanding of factual knowledge from both internal and external perspectives, they have not systematically examined how the components of a factual recall circuit evolve over training.

In this work, we bridge this gap by performing

a time-course mechanistic interpretability analysis of factual knowledge representation in OLMo-7B (Groeneveld et al., 2024) by tracing Information Flow Routes and classifying component roles over 40 training snapshots (see Figure 1). Specifically, we investigate:

- Which components (attention heads, FFNs) contribute to solving factual knowledge tasks?
- How do these circuits for factual knowledge evolve over the course of model training?

To achieve this, we trace information flow routes (Ferrando and Voita, 2024) in OLMo-7B using interpretability tools, analyze component dynamics, and classify components according to their roles within factual recall circuits across different training snapshots. We make the following contributions:

- **Factual Knowledge Dataset:** We present a new probing dataset specifically designed for analyzing factual knowledge in LLMs, with prompts and examples carefully curated to minimize ambiguity.
- **Component Attribution for Factual Knowledge:** We analyze which components are responsible for processing factual knowledge at different training stages and the progression of factual knowledge acquisition over time.
- **Temporal Evolution of Knowledge Representation:** We track how circuits responsible for factual knowledge stabilize and how the roles of their components evolve over the course of training.

2 Background

2.1 Circuit Analysis

A *circuit* is defined as the minimal computational subgraph that faithfully reproduces a model’s performance on a specific task (Olah et al., 2020; Elhage et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023). Circuits isolate key components such as attention heads and FFNs that drive predictions. Various techniques extract these circuits, including activation patching (which selectively corrupts activations to assess performance impact), attribution-based methods (e.g., edge attribution patching (EAP) and its integrated gradients variant, EAP-IG (Hanna et al., 2024; Nanda et al., 2023)), and gradient-based approaches like integrated gradients (Sundararajan

et al., 2017). However, these methods often become computationally prohibitive for large models or when evaluating multiple snapshots due to their complexity and memory demands.

2.2 Information Flow Routes

To overcome these limitations, we leverage Information Flow Routes (IFRs) (Ferrando and Voita, 2024). IFRs conceptualize the model as a computational graph and recursively trace pathways from the output token back through the network. At each step, only nodes and edges with contributions exceeding a threshold θ are retained, ensuring that only paths significantly impacting the final prediction are included. The importance of each edge is quantified using a modified ALTI (Aggregation of Layer-Wise Token-to-Token Interactions) score (Ferrando et al., 2022). Compared to traditional circuit-finding methods, IFRs are more scalable, require minimal prompt design, and are well-suited for large models like OLMo-7B across multiple training snapshots. Furthermore, IFRs sidestep challenges posed by self-repair mechanisms in LLMs (McGrath et al., 2023; Rushing and Nanda, 2024), making them a robust tool for circuit analysis.

3 Factual Knowledge Probing over Time

In this section, we describe our approach to probing factual knowledge (Fig. 1). We first introduce our dataset (Sec. 3.1), then detail the OLMo-7B training snapshots used (Sec. 3.2), and finally assess snapshot performance via accuracy (Sec. 3.3).

Key Terms. A **fact** is defined as a subject-relation-object triple (e.g., (Canada, has_capital, Ottawa)), where **has_capital** is the **relation** representing the pairing of a country with its capital.

Token Positions. In our experiments, facts appear in sentences such as “Canada has the capital city of Ottawa.” We distinguish three sets of subtoken positions: (i) **SUBJECT** for the subject (e.g., “Canada”); (ii) **END** for the subtoken immediately before the answer (e.g., “of” in “has the capital city of”); and (iii) **ANSWER** for the tokens forming the answer, beginning with the token following **END**.

3.1 Dataset

We develop a dataset designed to probe the factual knowledge encoded in a given LLM. See Table 1. To minimize syntactic ambiguity, we avoid templates that may lead to multiple valid answers; e.g.,

Location-based Relations (LOC)			
Relation	Prompt Template	# Facts	Example Subject
CITY_IN_COUNTRY	{ } is part of the country of	14	Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires
COMPANY_HQ	The headquarters of { } are in the city of	20	Zillow, Bayerischer Rundfunk
COUNTRY_CAPITAL_CITY	{ } has the capital city of	19	Canada, Nigeria
FOOD_FROM_COUNTRY	{ } is from the country of	17	Sushi, Ceviche
OFFICIAL_LANGUAGE	In { }, the official language is	14	France, Egypt
PLAYS_SPORT	{ } plays professionally in the sport of	12	Kobe Bryant, Roger Federer
SIGHTS_IN_CITY	{ } is a landmark in the city of	17	The Eiffel Tower, The Space Needle
Name-based Relations (NAME)			
Relation	Prompt Template	# Facts	Example Subject
BOOKS_WRITTEN	The Book { } was written by the author with the name of	13	The Hunger Games, Life of Pi
COMPANY_CEO	Who is the CEO of { }? Their name is	17	Ubisoft, Pinterest
MOVIE_DIRECTED	The Movie { } was directed by the director with the name of	17	The Godfather, Forrest Gump

Table 1: Overview of the Factual Knowledge dataset, grouped by relation type.

for the prompt *"The Eiffel Tower is located in"*, both *Paris* and *France* are correct. Similarly, we avoid cases involving regional variations in terminology (e.g., *soccer* vs. *football*) and eliminate instances where the answer is already contained in the subject (e.g., *"The Leaning Tower of Pisa is a landmark in the city of Pisa."*). Our focus is on categorical facts associated with well-defined relation types, specifically **Location-Based Relations** (LOC) and **Name-Based Relations** (NAME). Table 1 provides an overview of these relations, along with the prompt templates, number of facts, and example subjects for each relation type. Although manually curated, our dataset is inspired by existing resources such as **LRE** (Hernandez et al., 2024), **CounterFact** (Meng et al., 2022), and **ParaRel** (Elazar et al., 2021), as well as **Summing Up The Facts** (Chughtai et al., 2024). We extended these resources by integrating relations such as **BOOKS_WRITTEN** and **MOVIE_DIRECTED** using data from Goodreads and IMDb’s Top Favorites list. To ensure reliability and eliminate potential confounds in our analysis, we implement a multi-step validation pipeline to rigorously evaluate both the prompts and the facts (see Appendix B).

3.2 Models

We study the evolution of factual knowledge using the **OLMo-7B** model (Groeneveld et al., 2024),² a flagship open-source LLM with 32 layers (each with 32 attention heads) pretrained on over 2.5 trillion tokens. During training, checkpoints were saved every 500 steps (2B tokens per interval) from initialization up to `step161000-tokens675B`, and then at 1000-step intervals until the fi-

²<https://huggingface.co/allenai/OLMo-7B-0424-hf/tree/main>

nal checkpoint, `step651581-tokens2731B`. For our analysis, we select 40 snapshots spanning from `step5000-tokens20B` to `step200000-tokens838B` (in 5000-step increments), along with the fully trained main model.³ We denote these snapshots as **SX-YB**, where X represents the training step (in multiples of 5000) and Y the token count in billions.

3.3 Accuracy

Since we are interested in the time course of factual knowledge during training, we first establish how the acquisition of knowledge evolves as measured by top-1 and top-10 accuracy on the first token of ANSWER. We group our relations into two groups: NAME (the answer is the name of a person) and LOC (the answer is a location). See Appendix C for per-relation graphs.

Figure 2 shows that LOC relations converge faster than NAME relations: A top-1 accuracy of 0.8 is first reached at S5 for LOC and at S14 for NAME. LOC also has less top-1 volatility than NAME. top-10 accuracy for NAME is also lower than for LOC, but top-10 values are much higher, starting at about S13. This indicates that fairly early on, the correct NAME is in the pool of candidates that the model has identified as relevant and that the remaining problem of knowledge acquisition is then correct ranking. The likely reason for these differences between NAME and LOC is that there are many more prominent person names than prominent locations in the model’s training data (see Appendix D), making it more challenging to learn the correct answer for a person than for a location.

³Due to an issue with `step115000`, we use `step115500-tokens462B` instead.

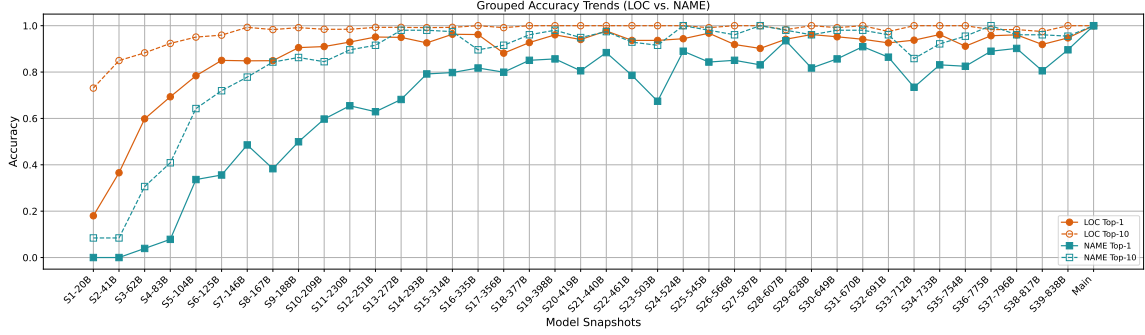


Figure 2: Top-1 and top-10 accuracy for location-based (LOC, orange) and name-based (NAME, teal) factual relations across 40 OLMo-7B snapshots and the fully trained model. Solid lines show top-1 accuracy (circles for LOC; squares for NAME), while dashed lines show top-10 accuracy with hollow markers.

4 How do Components Evolve?

We now examine OLMo-7B’s internal mechanics during pretraining. Using IFR, we trace the full circuit behind each predicted token to identify the contributing components, i.e., attention heads and FFNs. We classify these components based on their roles in the circuit, distinguishing generalized components that contribute broadly from specialized ones with more focused functions. By tracking how these roles evolve during pretraining, we gain deeper insights into the model’s learning dynamics for factual knowledge.

4.1 Model Component Roles

We take a systematic approach to defining model component roles based on their contributions within token circuits. These roles are determined by the types of tokens a component influences and the scope of its contribution. A component may contribute to all tokens or to a subset, to only one fact or multiple facts etc. We now define a structured classification schema that captures the functional behavior of each component.

For each snapshot s , relation r , fact f and subtoken position t , we use IFR to compute the circuit that produced the output subtoken at that t . We set $c_{srft} = 1$ if component c is part of the circuit, 0 otherwise.

We then define $c_{srft}(T) = \frac{1}{|T(f)|} \sum_{t \in T(f)} c_{srft}$, i.e., c_{srft} is the activation of c averaged over the subtoken positions $T(f)$. Given the sentence corresponding to fact f , $T(f)$ is a subset of its subtokens. We now define different roles of a component by defining $T(f)$ differently, e.g., containing only the ANSWER subtokens or all subtokens.

4.1.1 General role

For the general role, we use the subtoken selector $T_g(f)$. $T_g(f)$ is the set of all subtokens of the sentence (except for the final period).

We define the general activation score of a component c for snapshot s as:

$$c_s^g = \frac{\sum_{r \in R} \sum_{f \in r} c_{srft}(T_g)}{\sum_{r \in R} \sum_{f \in r} 1}$$

That is, c_s^g is the activation of c for snapshot s , microaveraged over facts. R is the set of relations.

We classify a component c as having a **general role** for snapshot s if $c_s^g > \theta$, where we set $\theta = 0.1$.

4.1.2 Entity role

For the entity role, we use the subtoken selector $T_e(f)$. $T_e(f)$ is the set of all subtokens of SUBJECT and ANSWER.⁴

We define the entity activation score of a component c for snapshot s as:

$$c_s^e = \frac{\sum_{r \in R} \sum_{f \in r} c_{srft}(T_e)}{\sum_{r \in R} \sum_{f \in r} 1}$$

That is, c_s^e is the subject and answer activation of c for snapshot s , microaveraged over facts.

We classify a component c as having an **entity role** for snapshot s if $c_s^e > \theta$ where $\theta = 0.1$.

4.1.3 Relation-answer specific role

For the relation role, we use the subtoken selector $T_a(f)$. $T_a(f)$ selects the subtokens of the ANSWER. We then define the relation-answer activation score of a component c for snapshot s and

⁴For the SUBJECT, there is no helpful context for the prediction of its first subtoken, e.g., for “France” in “France has the capital ...”. We therefore shift the subtokens considered to the right by 1 for SUBJECTS.

relation r as:

$$c_s^r = \frac{\sum_{f \in r} c_{srf}(T_a)}{\sum_{f \in r} 1}$$

That is, c_s^r is the answer activation of c for snapshot s and relation r , averaged over facts.

We classify a component c as having a **relation-answer role** if $c_s^r > \theta$ where $\theta = 0.1$.

4.1.4 Fact-answer specific role

For a fact f belonging to relation r , we set $c_s^f = c_{srf}^f(T_a)$.

We classify a component c as having a **fact-answer role** if $c_s^f > \theta$ where $\theta = 0.1$.

4.1.5 Proper Components

Let $\mathcal{J}_g, \mathcal{J}_e, \mathcal{J}_r$ and \mathcal{J}_f be the sets of components that assume the general, entity, relation-answer, and fact-answer roles, respectively, as defined above.

We define the set of proper entity components \mathcal{H}_e as those components that assume an entity role but not a general role:

$$\mathcal{H}_e = \mathcal{J}_e - \mathcal{J}_g$$

We define the set of proper relation-answer components \mathcal{H}_r as those components that assume a relation-answer role but not an entity or general role:

$$\mathcal{H}_r = \mathcal{J}_r - \mathcal{J}_e - \mathcal{J}_g$$

We define the set of proper fact-answer components \mathcal{H}_f as those components that assume a fact-answer role but not a general, entity, or relation-answer role:

$$\mathcal{H}_f = \mathcal{J}_f - \mathcal{J}_r - \mathcal{J}_e - \mathcal{J}_g$$

We set:

$$\mathcal{H}_g = \mathcal{J}_g$$

because for the general role, there is no change from the original set to the proper set.

Finally, in addition to the sets of components $\mathcal{H}_g, \mathcal{H}_e, \mathcal{H}_r$, and \mathcal{H}_f , we define the set of deactivated components \mathcal{H}_d as the complement of the union of the four other roles g, e, r, f : $\mathcal{H}_d = \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{H}_g \cup \mathcal{H}_e \cup \mathcal{H}_r \cup \mathcal{H}_f)$.

4.2 Analysis of Component Dynamics

After classifying components into five distinct roles (general, entity, relation-answer, answer-specific, and deactivated), we analyze how these components evolve during pretraining, quantifying both static and dynamic aspects of the roles. We now describe our methodology including the measures we use.

Consistency and Count Metrics: To quantify stability, we measure the consistency of each role over time by calculating the Jaccard Similarity (Intersection over Union, or IoU) between the set of components with a particular role at a given snapshot and the corresponding set in the final model. For example, for general components, the IoU is defined as:

$$\text{IoU}(\mathcal{H}_g) = \frac{\mathcal{H}_{gs} \cap \mathcal{H}_{gmain}}{\mathcal{H}_{gs} \cup \mathcal{H}_{gmain}},$$

where \mathcal{H}_{gs} represents the set of entity components in the current snapshot, and \mathcal{H}_{gmain} is the corresponding set in the final model.

Role Switch Dynamics: We also track how components change roles over time: whether they activate, deactivate, or switch functions. By computing the accumulated switch counts across selected snapshots (S1, S10, S20, S40, and the main model), we capture the dynamics of these transitions, such as deactivated components reactivating in specialized roles or components switching between different roles.

Markov Chain Modeling of Transitions: To further characterize role dynamics, we model transitions using a Markov chain. The transition probability from state \mathcal{H}_α to state \mathcal{H}_β is given by:

$$P(\mathcal{H}_\alpha \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_\beta) = \frac{N(\mathcal{H}_\alpha \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_\beta)}{\sum_{\gamma \in \{g,e,r,f,d\}} N(\mathcal{H}_\alpha \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_\gamma)},$$

where $N(\mathcal{H}_\alpha \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_\beta)$ is the number of observed transitions from one state to the following state.

4.3 Temporal Consistency and Role Dynamics of Attention Heads

Our analysis reveals key trends in the evolution of attention heads. Since differences between LOC and NAME relations are marginal (see Appendix E), we combine them for the subsequent analysis.

Using the IoU metric and component counts, we observe that the number of active attention heads increases steadily over the course of training. For instance, the counts for general heads rise from 94 to 233, for relation-answer heads from 8 to 78, and for answer-specific heads from 11 to 99. Overall, the total number of active heads grows from 113 to 423 rising from approximately 11% to 41% of all heads while nearly 60% remain deactivated. Figure 3 illustrates these dynamics, with the IoU

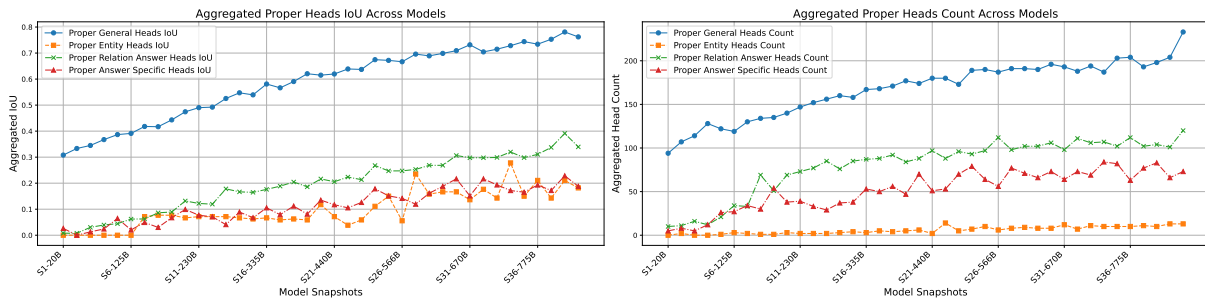


Figure 3: Aggregated Head Count and IoU Across OLMo-7B Snapshots Left: IoU values comparing each snapshot to main. Right: Counts for general, entity, relation-answer, and answer-specific categories over snapshots.

metric confirming that general heads maintain a high consistency with the final model throughout training.

The evolution of attention head roles suggests a hierarchical learning process. Early in training, the model primarily relies on general-purpose heads that generate broad, context-independent representations. As training progresses, specialized heads emerge to support more precise fact retrieval. Notably, answer-specific heads demonstrate the highest turnover (even the IOU between the final model and the checkpoint just before the final model is just 0.2), indicating frequent role changes and dynamic reallocation of resources. Furthermore, our observations indicate that tasks involving complex, name-based relations require longer training periods (Fig. 2) and exhibit more frequent role transitions compared to simpler, location-based tasks (Fig. 13).

Dynamic Specialization and Generalization of Attention Heads

Fig. 4) shows that attention heads frequently transition from deactivated to specialized roles especially to answer-specific roles (however, they also frequently shift back from specialized to deactivated). In contrast, general heads are more stable or shift to relation-answer roles. Figure 5 illustrates that early and late layers undergo frequent switching, whereas middle layers (10–18) remain comparatively stable. Notably, in these mid-layers, NAME-based tasks both engage more heads in active roles and exhibit higher switching among those roles compared to LOC-based tasks, reflecting the greater complexity of person-name relations and the additional head capacity required to process them. See Appendix F for details.

Our Markov chain modeling (see Fig. 6) further quantifies these dynamics: specialized heads tend to transition toward more general roles. Although

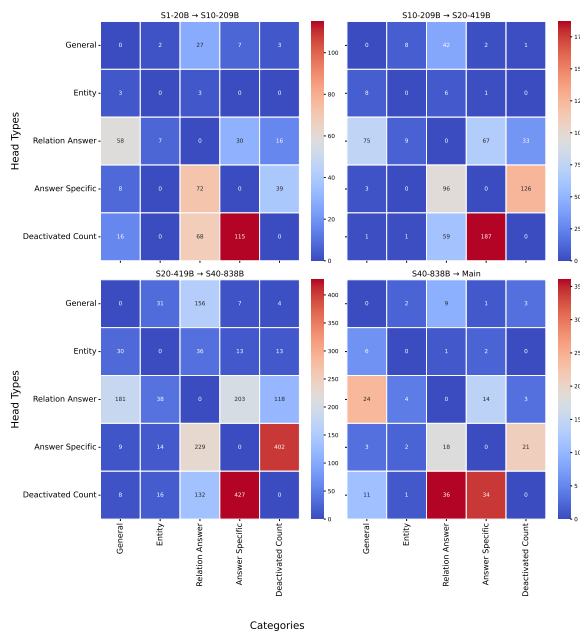


Figure 4: Accumulated Attention Head Switches Across Training Stages. Heatmaps showing the total number of transitions between the four types of heads and the deactivated state at key training snapshots (S1, S10, S20, S40, and Main).

individual specialized heads often shift into general roles, the overall count of specialized heads increases over time because the rate at which new specialized heads emerge exceeds the rate at which they move to other roles.

Overall, our findings indicate that attention heads first converge on broad, general-purpose roles and only later diversify into specialized functions.

4.4 FFNs over Time

Analogous to our attention head classification, we assign FFNs to five roles (general, entity, relation-answer answer-specific, and deactivated), though with a higher activation threshold ($\theta = 0.90$) as

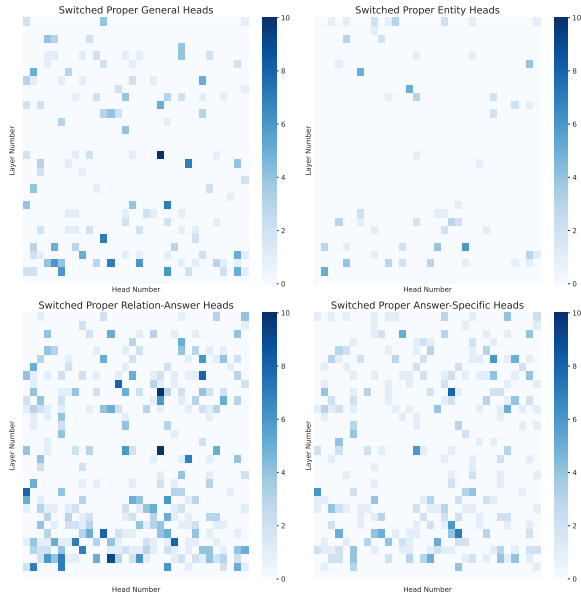


Figure 5: Attention Head Role Transitions. Per-layer heatmaps showing the frequency that a head from one of the four roles general, entity, relation-answer, and answer-specific switches to a different role.

suggested in (Ferrando et al., 2022). Unlike the 1024 attention heads, the model uses only 32 FFNs (one per layer), and all actively contribute to answer generation.

Steady Backbone: Consistency and Activation Trends Figure 7 shows that early on, most FFNs serve as general components, with only a few operating in relation-answer or answer-specific roles. Around stages S7–S8, when accuracy exceeds 80%, many general FFNs shift to relation-answer roles.

Oscillatory Dynamics in Role Allocation Although the majority of FFNs remain general, we observe occasional role oscillations. For easier LOC relations, answer-specific FFNs exhibit minimal switching, whereas for the more challenging NAME relations, a small number of FFNs gradually transition into answer-specific roles before reverting to general roles in subsequent pretraining steps. The total switch count and transition probability analyses (see Appendix G) show that FFNs rarely stay specialized; in most cases, they revert back to the general role rather than maintain a specialized function.

FFNs as General Processing Components In contrast to the dynamic specialization observed in attention heads, FFN behavior looks more stable in Figure 7. This is an apparent contrast with the highly dynamic behavior of attention heads. We

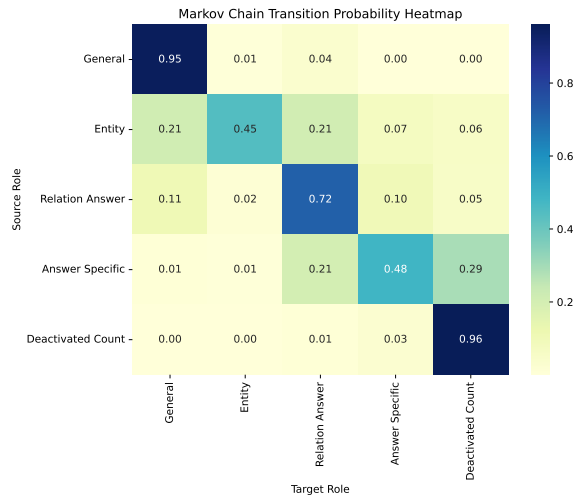


Figure 6: Markov Chain Transition Probability Heatmap. Heatmap showing the transition probabilities between different attention head roles across model snapshots. Each cell represents the probability of a head transitioning from a source role (rows) in snapshot i to a target role (columns) in snapshot $i + 1$.

could interpret this as the FFNs acting as a steady processing backbone that incrementally refines the representations produced by attention. However, it is important to consider two caveats. First, our high fixed activation threshold may accentuate the apparent generality of FFNs. Second, the more components are lumped together into larger units, the more likely it is that our analysis will classify them as general. FFNs consist of many individual neurons and therefore our methodology may be prone to classify them as general.

5 Related Work

This section reviews prior work on mechanistic interpretability, model behavior evolution, and how transformers store and retrieve factual knowledge. While past research has deepened our understanding of fully trained models, less focus has been given to how these mechanisms evolve during training – a gap this work addresses.

5.1 Mechanistic Interpretability

Mechanistic Interpretability aims to reverse-engineer neural networks to uncover circuits driving model behavior. Early work (Elhage et al., 2021; Olah et al., 2020) focused on vision models and has since extended to transformer language models (Meng et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023; Hanna et al., 2023; Varma et al., 2023; Merullo et al., 2024; Lieberum et al., 2023; Tigges et al.,

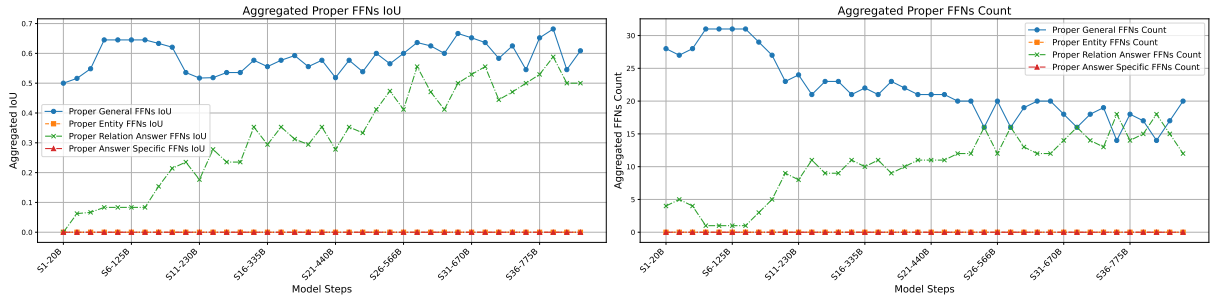


Figure 7: Aggregated FFN Count and IoU Across OLMo-7B Snapshots. Left: IoU values comparing each snapshot to main. Right: Counts for general, entity, relation-answer, and answer-specific categories over snapshots.

2023; Mondorf et al., 2024; Tigges et al., 2024). Research has characterized attention heads (Olsson et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2024; Singh et al., 2024; Gould et al., 2024; McDougall et al., 2023; Chughtai et al., 2024; Elhelo and Geva, 2024; Ortu et al., 2024) and FFNs (Geva et al., 2021; Meng et al., 2022; Bricken et al., 2023; Neo et al., 2024; Tian et al., 2024).

5.2 Interpretability Over Time

Behavioral studies have tracked the emergence of linguistic and reasoning capabilities during pre-training (Rogers et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Chiang et al., 2020; Müller-Eberstein et al., 2023; Xia et al., 2023; Chang et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2023; Biderman et al., 2023a). Yet, they offer limited insight into internal circuit evolution. Recent work on smaller models shows that internal circuits can change abruptly even when overall behavior is stable (Nanda et al., 2023; Olsson et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2024) and mechanistic studies have begun tracking circuit evolution (Tigges et al., 2024).

5.3 Mechanisms of Knowledge Storage in Transformers

Studies have shown that transformers store factual knowledge in (subject, relation, attribute) tuples. Causal interventions reveal that early-to-middle FFNs enrich subject representations, while attention heads pass relation information and later layers extract attributes (Meng et al., 2022; Geva et al., 2023). Complementary work demonstrates that these representations can be decoded to recover facts (Hernandez et al., 2024; Chughtai et al., 2024). Other research highlights the balance between in-context and memorized recall (Yu and Ananiadou, 2024; Variengien and Winsor, 2023) and the distributed nature of knowledge retrieval (Haviv et al., 2023; Stoehr et al., 2024; Chuang et al., 2024).

While previous work has focused on static models, we track the evolution of these mechanisms during training, offering a dynamic view of factual knowledge development in LLMs.

6 Discussion & Conclusion

Our time-course mechanistic interpretability study of OLMo-7B uncovers several core patterns in how factual knowledge circuits form and evolve during pretraining:

- 1. Task Complexity Influences Training Dynamics:** Location-based relations are acquired more rapidly and stably than name-based relations, which require more specialized components.
- 2. Hierarchical Learning Process:** Early training is dominated by stable, general attention heads that lay the groundwork for subsequent specialization.
- 3. Adaptive vs. Stable Components:** Our analysis suggests that certain attention heads may be repurposed dynamically particularly those associated with answer-specific roles while FFNs may exhibit a more stable behavior. These observations hint at a possible complementary dynamic between adaptable attention mechanisms and stable processing components.
- 4. Evolving Specialization:** In the later stages of training, the model stabilizes into a configuration dominated by general heads. While many components retain their roles, we also observe that a substantial number of previously deactivated heads reactivate and adopt specialized functions, highlighting the continued plasticity of the model even in later training phases.

These insights advance our understanding of mech-

anistic interpretability by showing that dynamic specialization in attention heads supported by consistent FFN refinement underpins effective factual knowledge retrieval. Future work may explore neuron-level dynamics, assess redundancy among head roles, and examine scalability in larger models.

7 Limitations

Despite our comprehensive analysis, several limitations remain.

- **Computational Constraints:** Due to resource limitations, we could not extend our analysis to the neuron level, potentially missing finer-grained switching behaviors. Additionally, our role classification relies on a fixed activation threshold ($\theta = 0.10$) chosen based on the distribution of component contributions; while we examined that varying this threshold within a reasonable range does not alter the overall trends, its use may still introduce bias.
- **Model Checkpoints & Variants:** We analyzed a subset of training snapshots, leaving gaps in tracking role transitions. Newer and larger versions of the model were released during this study, but incorporating them was infeasible. While related families such as Pythia (Biderman et al., 2023b) also offer multiple checkpoints, their underlying GPT-J architecture computes attention and FFN contributions in parallel, preventing the use of IFRs for circuit extraction. As a result, direct comparison with OLMo-7B via IFR is not possible, though such comparisons could yield additional insights in future work.
- **Dataset Scope & Generalizability:** Our dataset focuses on factual recall in English, covering only location-based and name-based relations. Expanding to other domains, multilingual settings, and ambiguous queries would improve generalizability.
- **Interpretability Framework:** While IFRs efficiently trace knowledge circuits at billion-parameter scale, they may miss finer-grained interactions. Alternative techniques, such as activation patching or causal tracing, are computationally prohibitive to apply across 40 snapshots of a 7B-parameter model, so direct

method-to-method comparisons were not feasible in this study.

- **Model Adaptability & Downstream Implications:** While attention heads frequently transition roles, FFNs remain stable, but their long-term impact on fine-tuning, pruning, and continual learning is unclear. Investigating their adaptability could enhance optimization strategies.

Future work should address these limitations by incorporating more diverse datasets, additional model variants, and alternative interpretability techniques to deepen our understanding of knowledge formation in LLMs.

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A Implementation Details

All datasets are in English. We employed AI assistants to improve the visual appeal and readability of both our data visualizations and certain sections of the text. Our setup involved an NVIDIA RTX A6000 alongside eight NVIDIA HGX A100-80x4-mig GPUs, which were used for inferring OLMo and extracting the circuits detailed in this work. Reproducing our full analysis and experiments takes about 24 hours for OLMo-7B using these eight GPUs.

B Dataset Construction

1. **Prompt Template Design and Fact Collection:** For each of the 10 relations, we compiled 10 prompt templates. These prompts were paired with factual examples to serve as inputs for model evaluation.
2. **Template Evaluation and Selection:** We tested all prompt templates with various factual inputs and determined the best-performing one for each relation. The evaluation was based on:
 - The **average probability** of the facts where the **first token** is correct.
 - The **reliability score** of the **second token**, which is calculated as the ratio of valid tokens for the second token (tokens with a probability less than 10%) divided by the total amount of facts.

Prompts were ranked based on a combined score derived from the average probability of the first token and the reliability of the second token. This scoring ensured that the prompts produced semantically accurate outputs, not merely syntactic completions.

3. **Fact Reliability Validation:** Using the best-performing template for each relation, reliable facts were identified by ensuring that:
 - The **top-1 token** is correct with a probability above 75%.
 - The **second token** has a probability below 10%.

This approach reduced reliance on syntactic biases and confirmed the semantic validity of the model’s predictions.

4. **Final Dataset Generation:** For each relation, the dataset was finalized by pairing the best-performing prompt template with the set of validated, reliable facts.

The resulting dataset includes 160 facts over 10 relations, each with a single best-performing prompt template and a curated collection of reliable facts validated for high accuracy and consistency. Prompts and Facts were validated using the main model to establish a reliable baseline for tracking knowledge evolution.

To ensure the robustness of our dataset, we prioritized semantically meaningful continuations over syntactic ones by evaluating both the first and second token probabilities. A strict scoring framework ensured that the top-1 token accurately reflected the correct answer while minimizing interference from alternative tokens. By combining insights from prior datasets with meticulous manual curation, we created a high-quality resource for probing factual knowledge.

C Accuracy Plots per Relation

To complement the aggregated accuracy results in Section 3.3, we present relation-level accuracy trends for top-1 and top-10 metrics across different model snapshots. These plots illustrate that NAME-based relations require significantly more training to achieve high accuracy compared to LOC relations (Figures 8 and 9). Among NAME relations, MOVIE_DIRECTED is the most challenging, requiring approximately S10 to reach high top-10 accuracy, while COMPANY_CEO and BOOKS_WRITTEN also exhibit slower convergence. In contrast, LOC relations such as PLAYS_SPORT and CITY_IN_COUNTRY are learned much faster.

For top-1 accuracy, OFFICIAL_LANGUAGE is the first relation to reach 100%, achieving this milestone at S4, whereas in the top-10 metric, it already attains 100% as early as S1. This suggests that while correct answers are recognized among the top candidates from the beginning, ranking them correctly requires additional training.

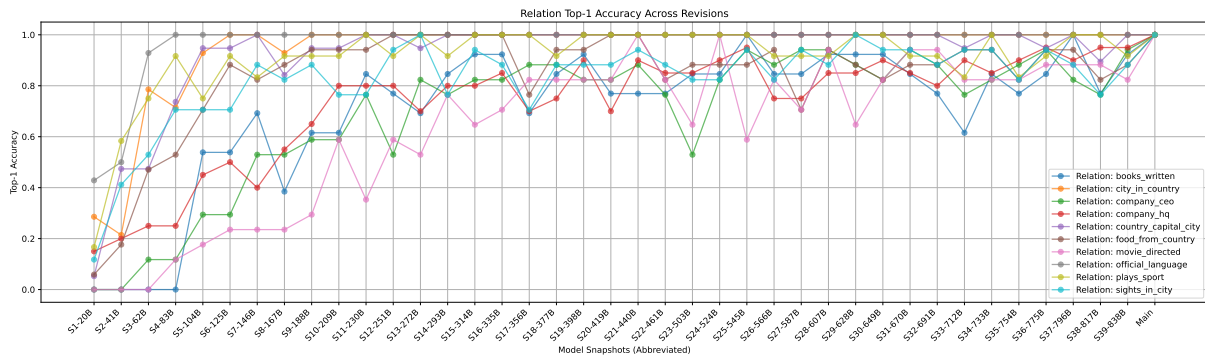


Figure 8: Top-1 accuracy across different revisions of the Olmo model. Snapshots (S_X-YB) represent training checkpoints taken at 5000-step intervals, where Y indicates the number of tokens processed in billions.

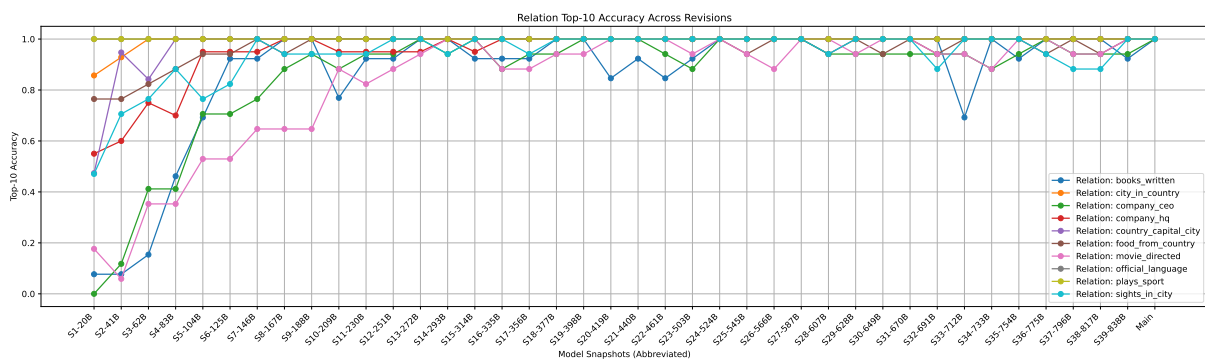


Figure 9: Top-10 accuracy across different revisions of the Olmo model. Snapshots (S_X-YB) represent training checkpoints taken at 5000-step intervals, where Y indicates the number of tokens processed in billions.

D Counts of Relations

We obtained these statistics by querying the Infini-Gram API⁵ for every subject and target entity in our probing dataset. For each relation, we summed the API’s reported corpus frequencies of its subjects and targets to produce a “total count”, and then divided by the number of unique entities to compute an average per entity. We also recorded the number of unique entities per relation to capture its breadth. Relations were partitioned into two groups: NAME (name-based relations) and LOC (all location-based and miscellaneous relations) and the group-level table aggregates their totals, per-relation averages, and per-entity averages.

Relation	Total Count	# Entities	Avg Count/Entity
LOC RELATIONS			
city_in_country	2 636 320	27	97 641.48
company_hq	1 479 816	34	43 524.00
country_capital_city	4 884 047	38	128 527.55
food_from_country	2 198 553	30	73 285.10
official_language	4 931 312	26	189 665.85
plays_sport	505 354	16	31 584.62
sights_in_city	2 163 938	33	65 573.88
NAME RELATIONS			
books_written	12 705	24	529.38
company_ceo	146 780	34	4 317.06
movie_directed	20 567	32	642.72
LOC Summary	18 799 340	204	92 153.63
NAME Summary	180 052	90	2 000.58
Overall Total	18 979 392	294	64 555.75

Table 2: Per-relation and group-summary Infini-Gram frequency statistics. We list each relation’s total corpus frequency (sum of subject + target counts), the number of unique entities (subjects + targets), and the average frequency per entity; then report LOC- and NAME-group aggregates and the overall total.

⁵<https://infini-gram.io/>

E Relation-Level Component Counts and IoU Values

E.1 Attention Heads

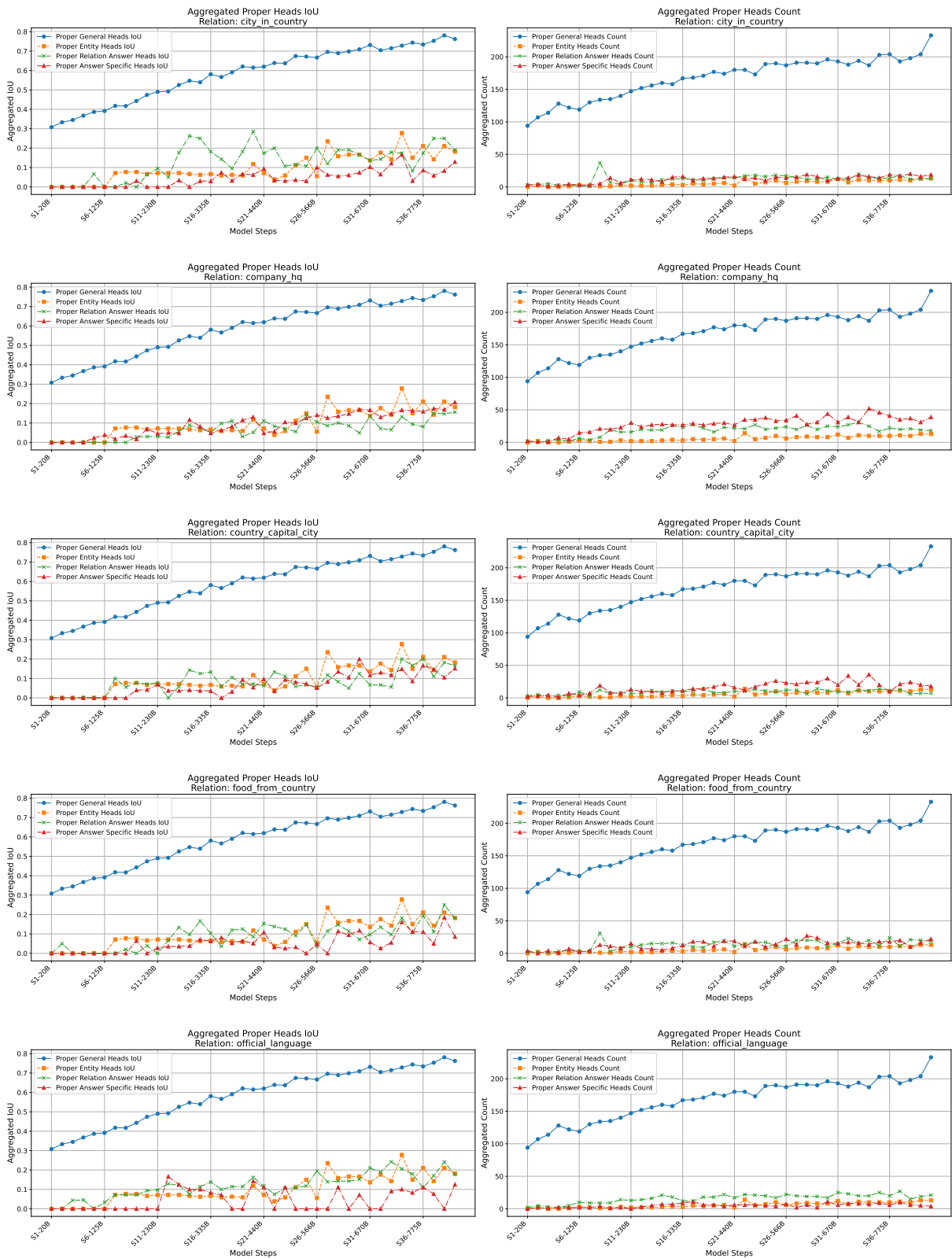


Figure 10: Relation-level head counts and IoU values.

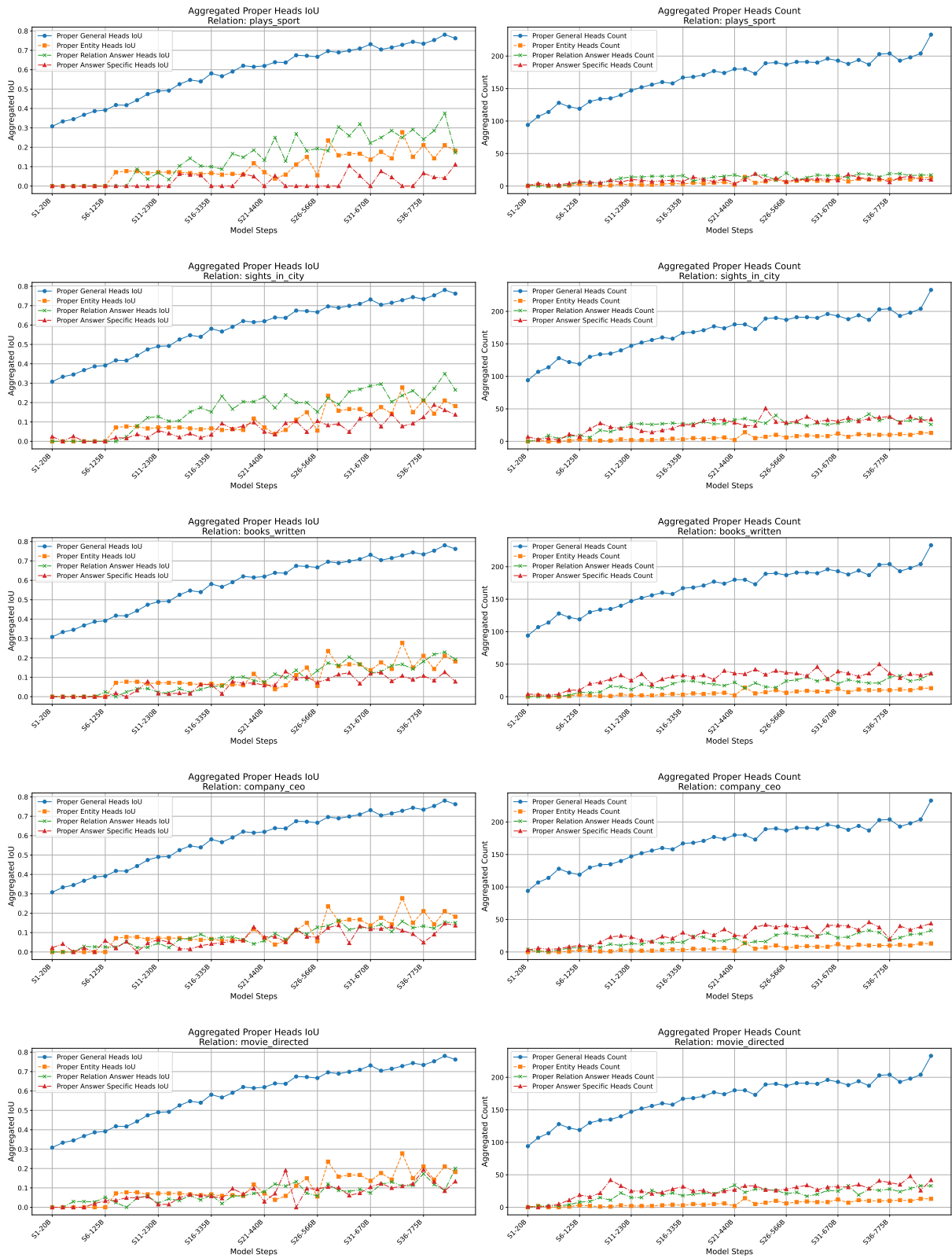


Figure 10: (continued) Relation-level head counts and IoU values.

E.2 Feed Forward Networks



Figure 11: Relation-level FFN counts and IoU values.

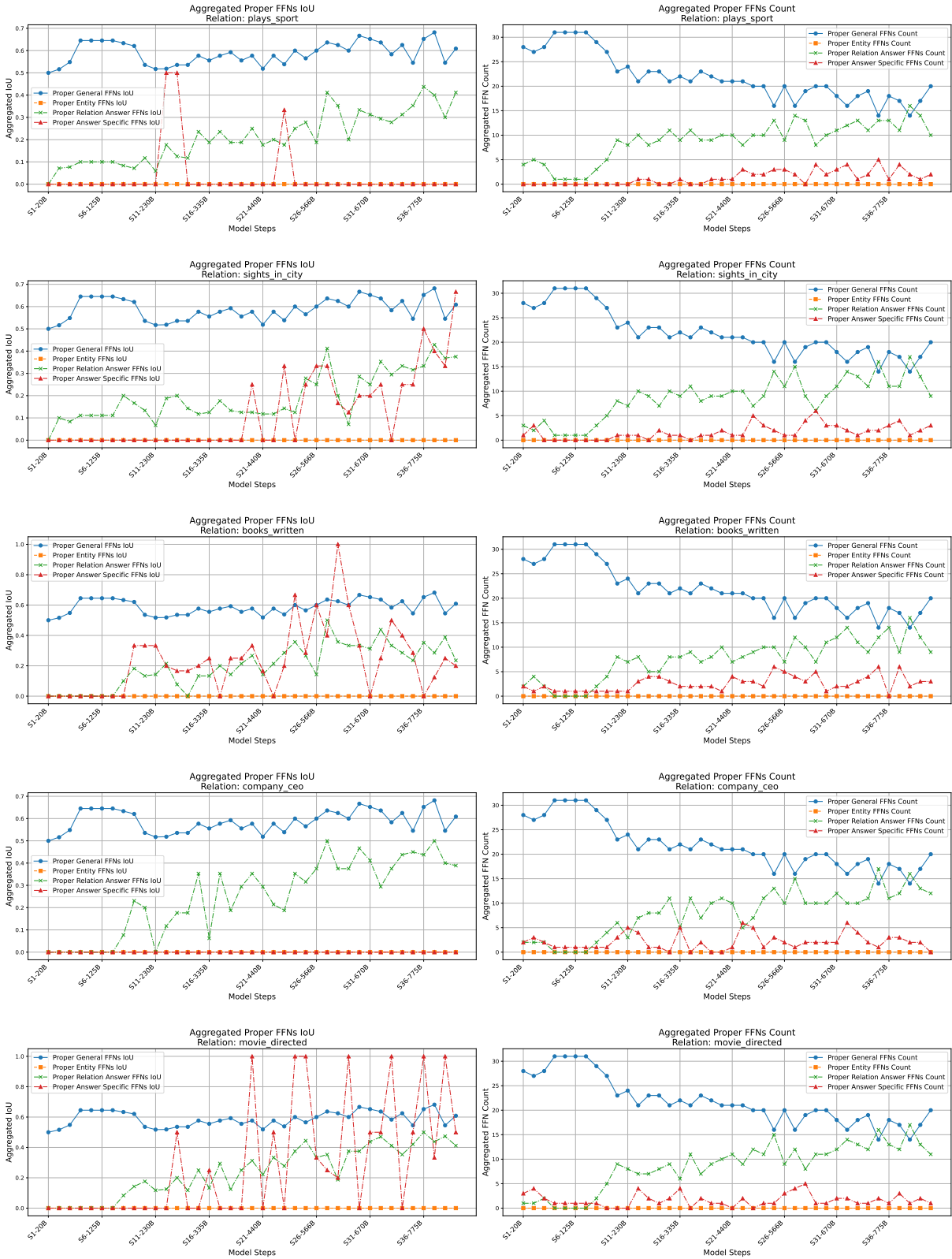


Figure 11: (continued) Relation-level FFN counts and IoU values.

F Attention Head Switches

In the following two plots, we observe that, as seen in the aggregated figure, layers 10–18 exhibit fewer switches, while switches occur more frequently in the early (0–10) and late (18–31) layers. However, when examining transitions between relation-answer and answer-specific roles, a clear distinction emerges: NAME-based relations (Fig. 13) show significantly more switches in layers 10–18 compared to LOC-based relations (12). Additionally, NAME-based tasks involve a greater number of distinct attention heads during these transitions. A switch refers to the reallocation of an attention head from one role to another among the four pre-defined roles.

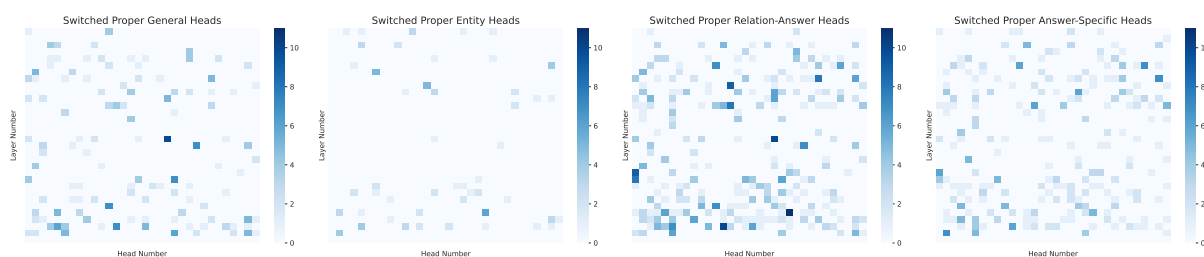


Figure 12: Accumulated head switches for LOC relations, independent of switch type.

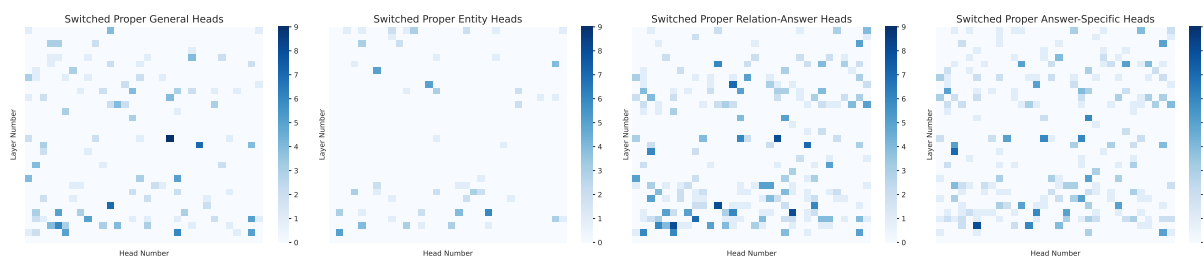


Figure 13: Accumulated head switches for NAME relations, independent of switch type.

G FFN Role Transition Count and Transition Probability

The following three figures present the metrics and methods used to assess component dynamics. As shown in Figure 14, very few switches occur overall, with most transitions happening between general FFNs and relation-answer FFNs. Examining the transition probabilities (see Fig. 15) from our Markov chain analysis, we find that both general and relation-answer FFNs tend to remain in their current roles with high probability; when switches do occur, they are predominantly between these two roles. Additionally, a layer-wise analysis (see Fig. 16) reveals a stark contrast with attention heads: starting from the middle layers onward, FFN role switches are nearly absent, and their roles become firmly established. Entity and answer-specific FFNs exhibit minimal switching across all layers.

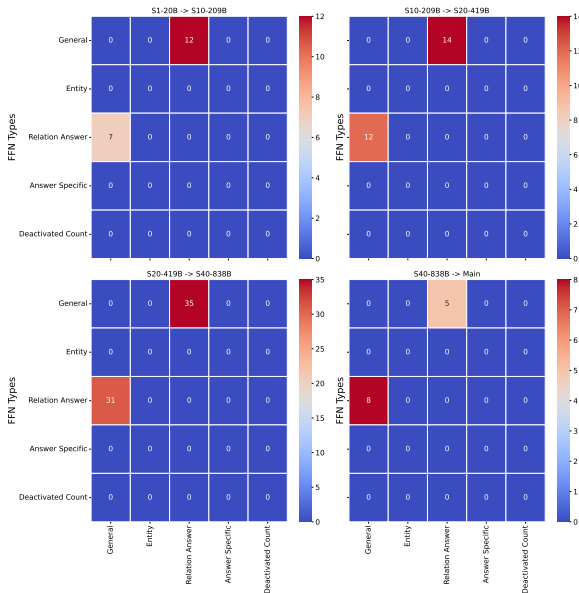


Figure 14: FFN Role Transitions. Heatmaps showing the frequency of role switches among proper general, entity, relation-answer, and answer-specific FFNs across layers.

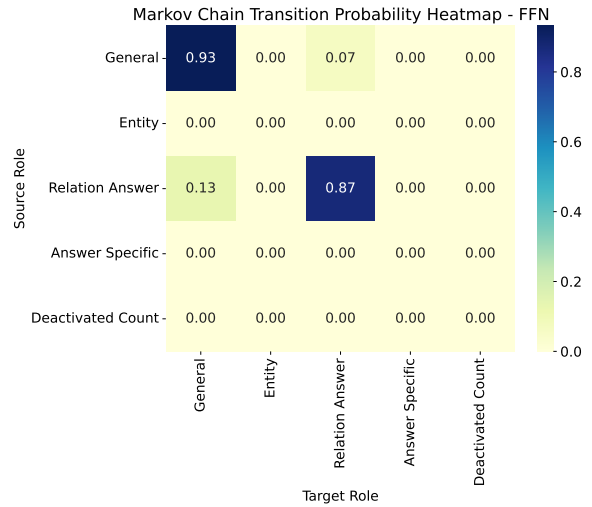


Figure 15: Markov Chain Transition Probability Heatmap showing the transition probabilities between different FFNs roles across model snapshots. Each cell represents the probability of a FFN transitioning from a source role (rows) to a target role (columns).

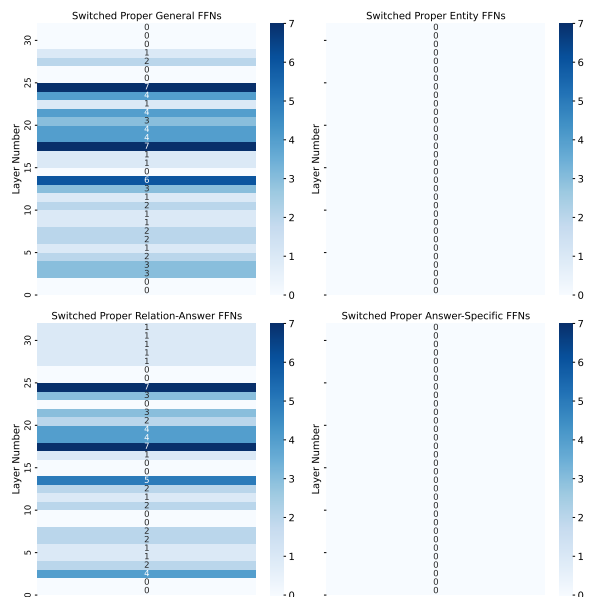


Figure 16: Layer-wise analysis of FFN role switching.