



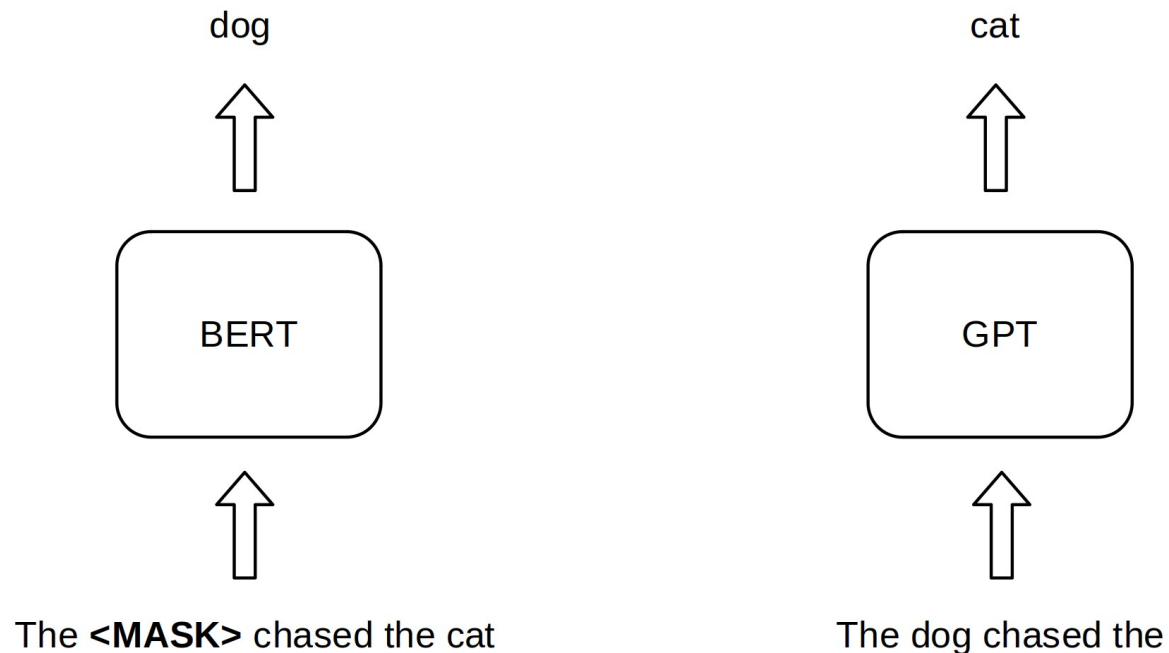
Semantics in Large Language Models

Tommi Buder-Gröndahl

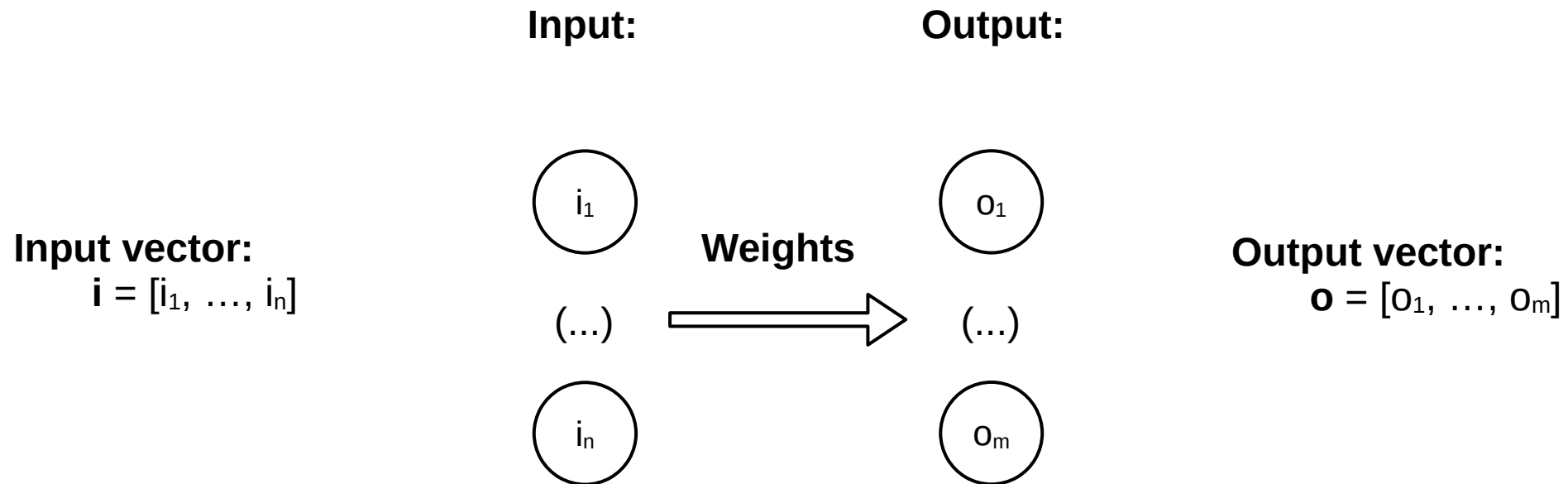
How do LLMs work?

Large Language Models (LLMs)

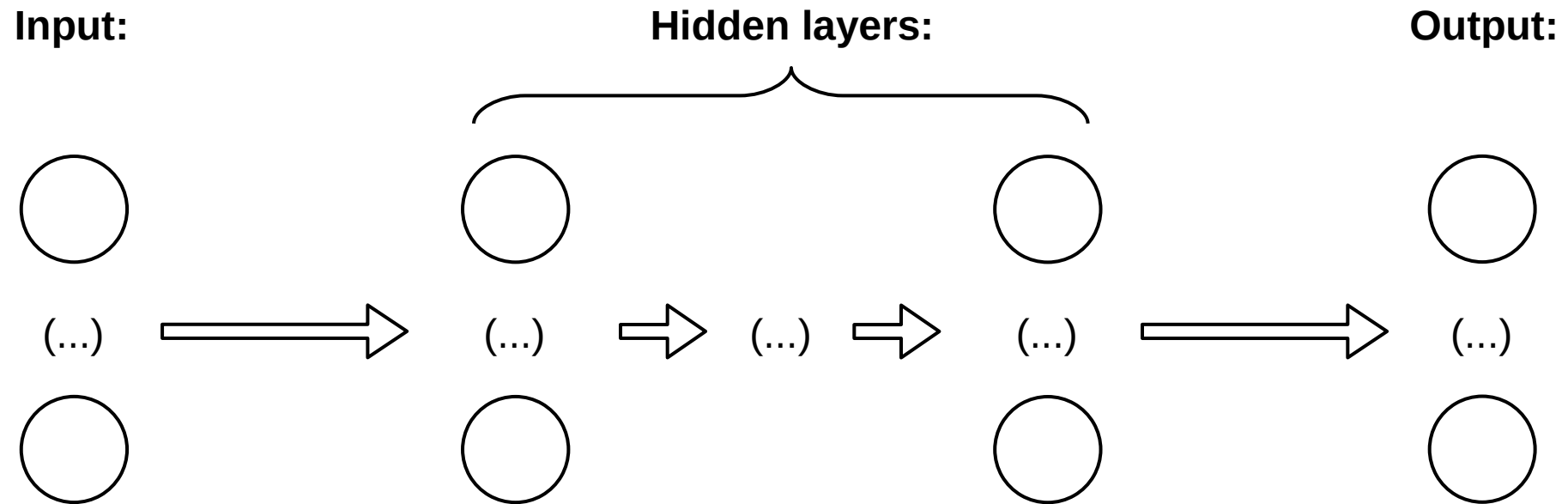
- Large *deep neural networks* (DNNs), currently mostly *Transformers* ([Vaswani et al. 2017](#))
- *Pre-trained* on generic linguistic tasks: e.g. predicting masked words or upcoming text
- Can be *fine-tuned* to more specific tasks on smaller training sets (*transfer learning*)
- Recently more emphasis on using pre-trained LLMs without fine-tuning (via prompting)



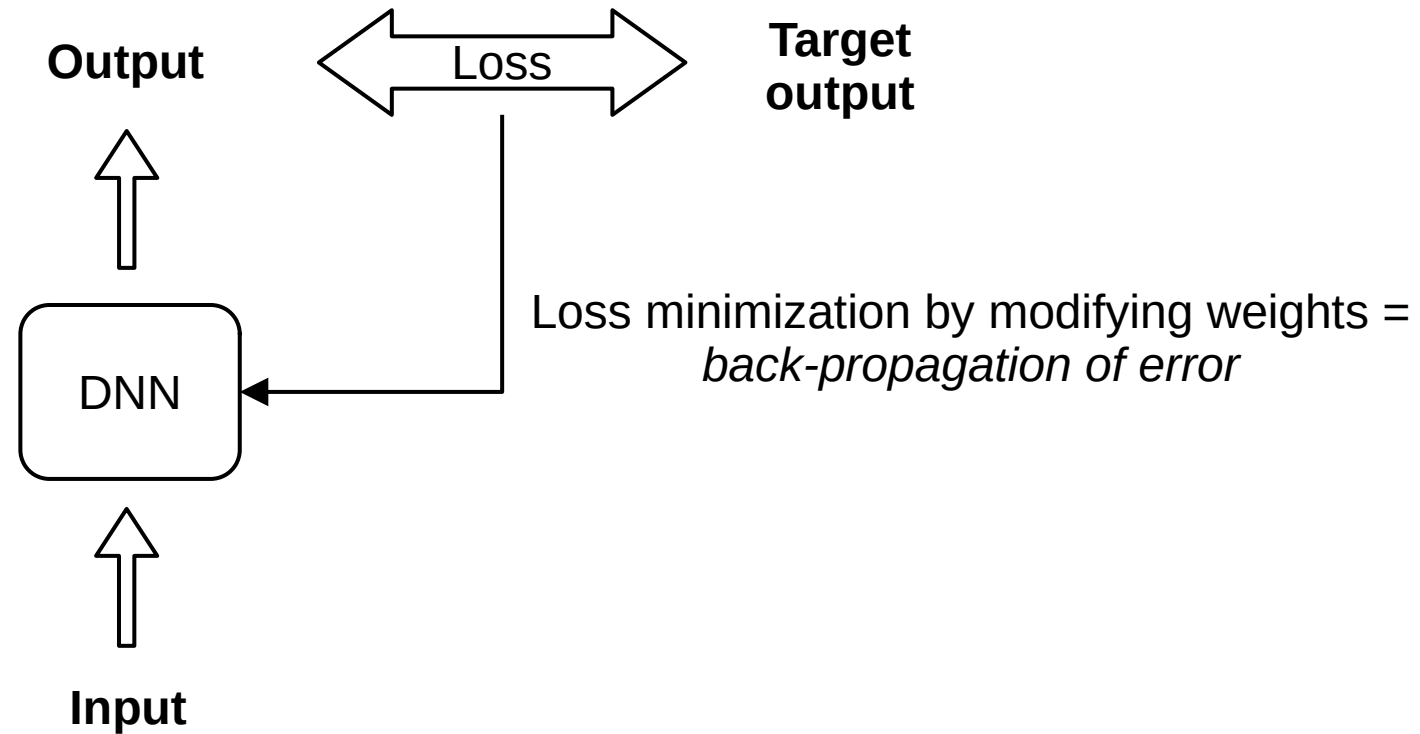
Neural network



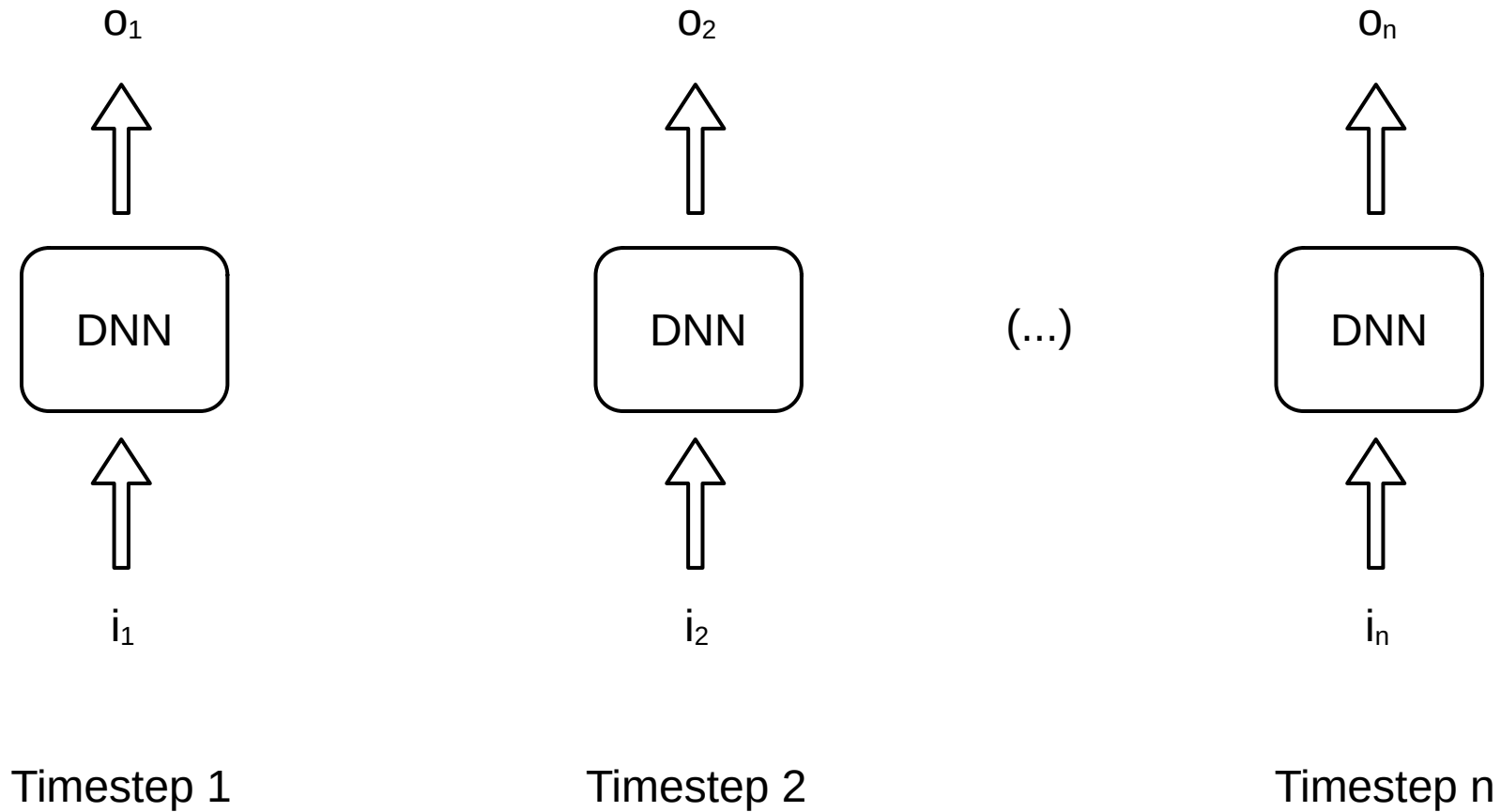
Deep Neural Network (DNN)



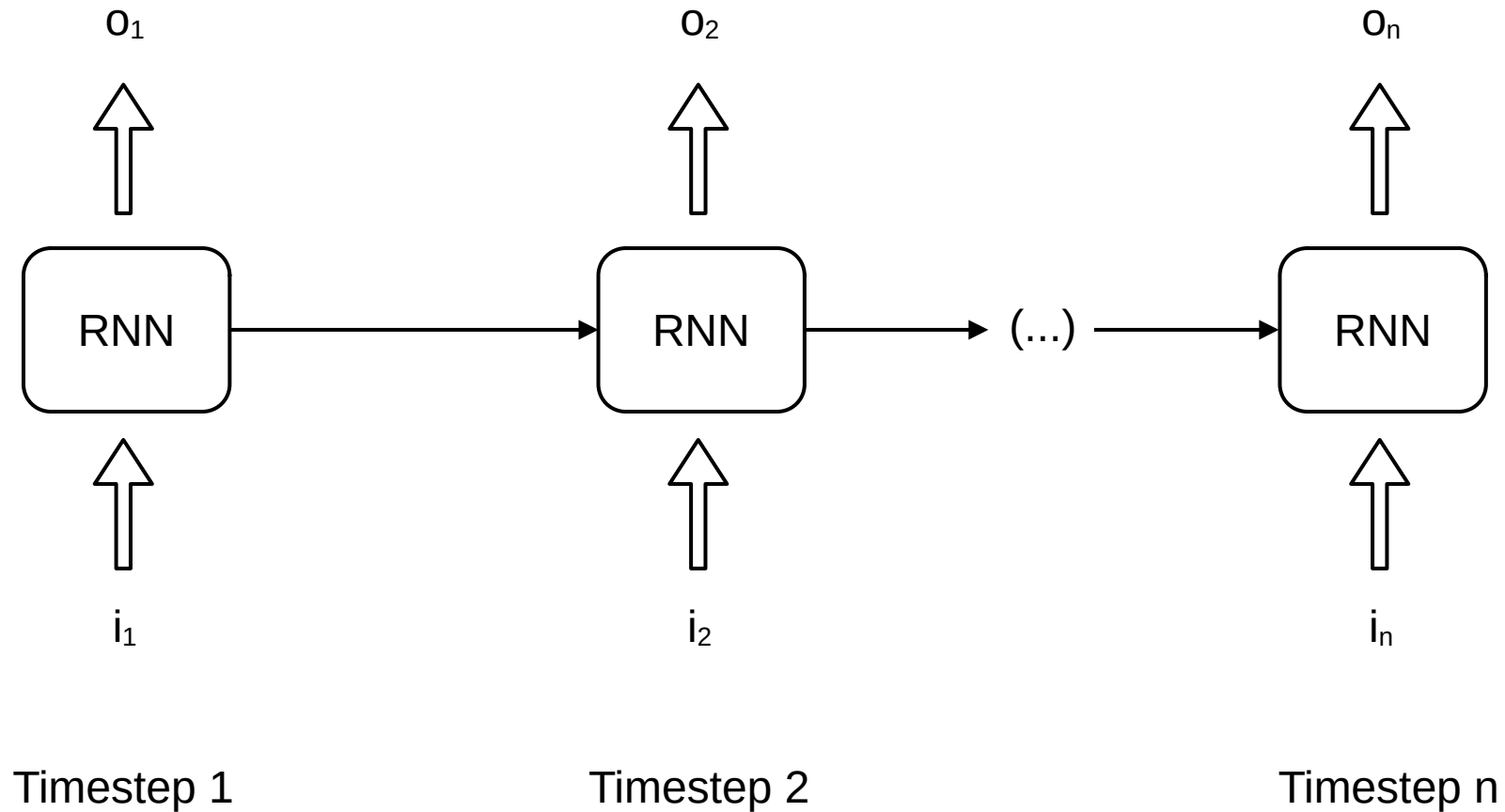
Training a DNN



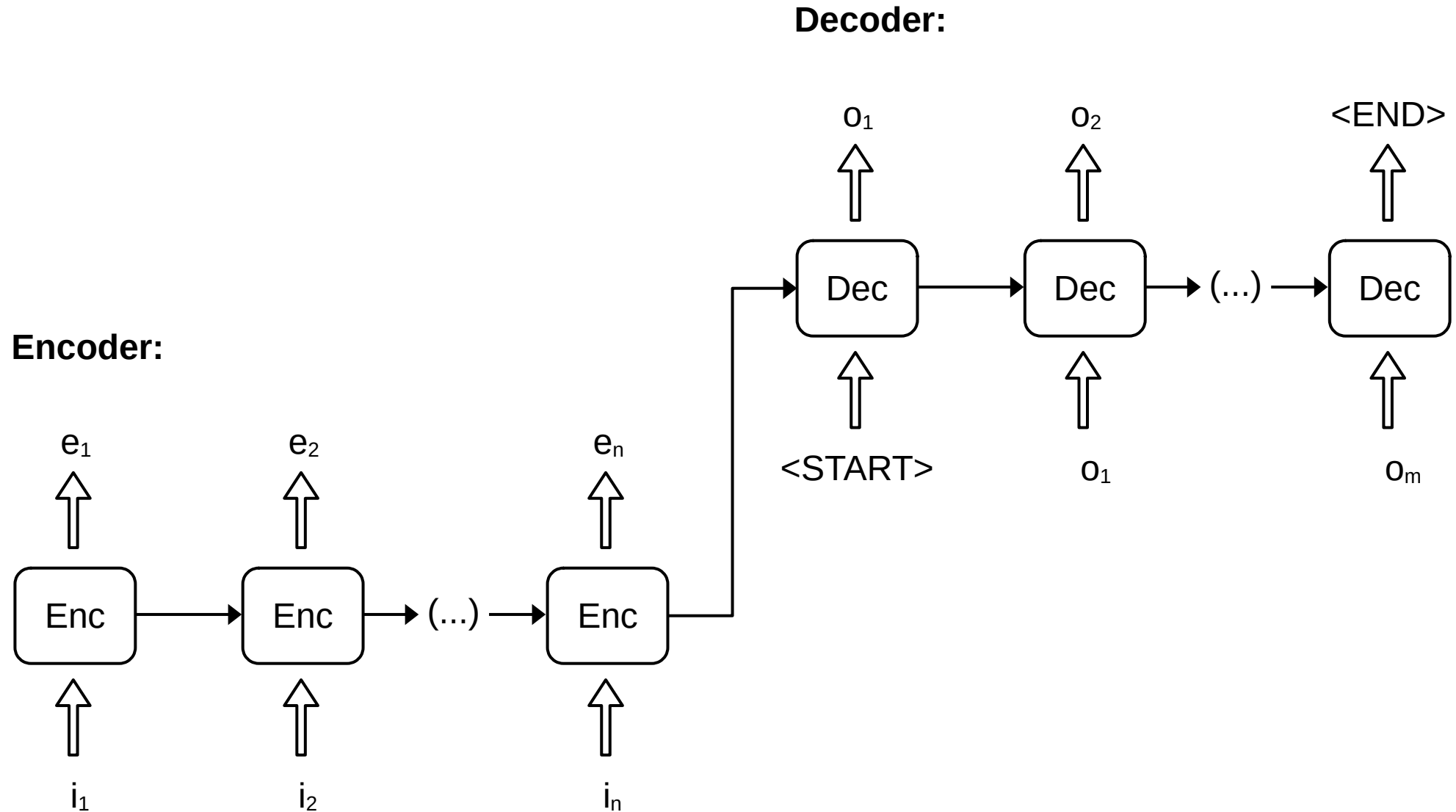
Sequential data



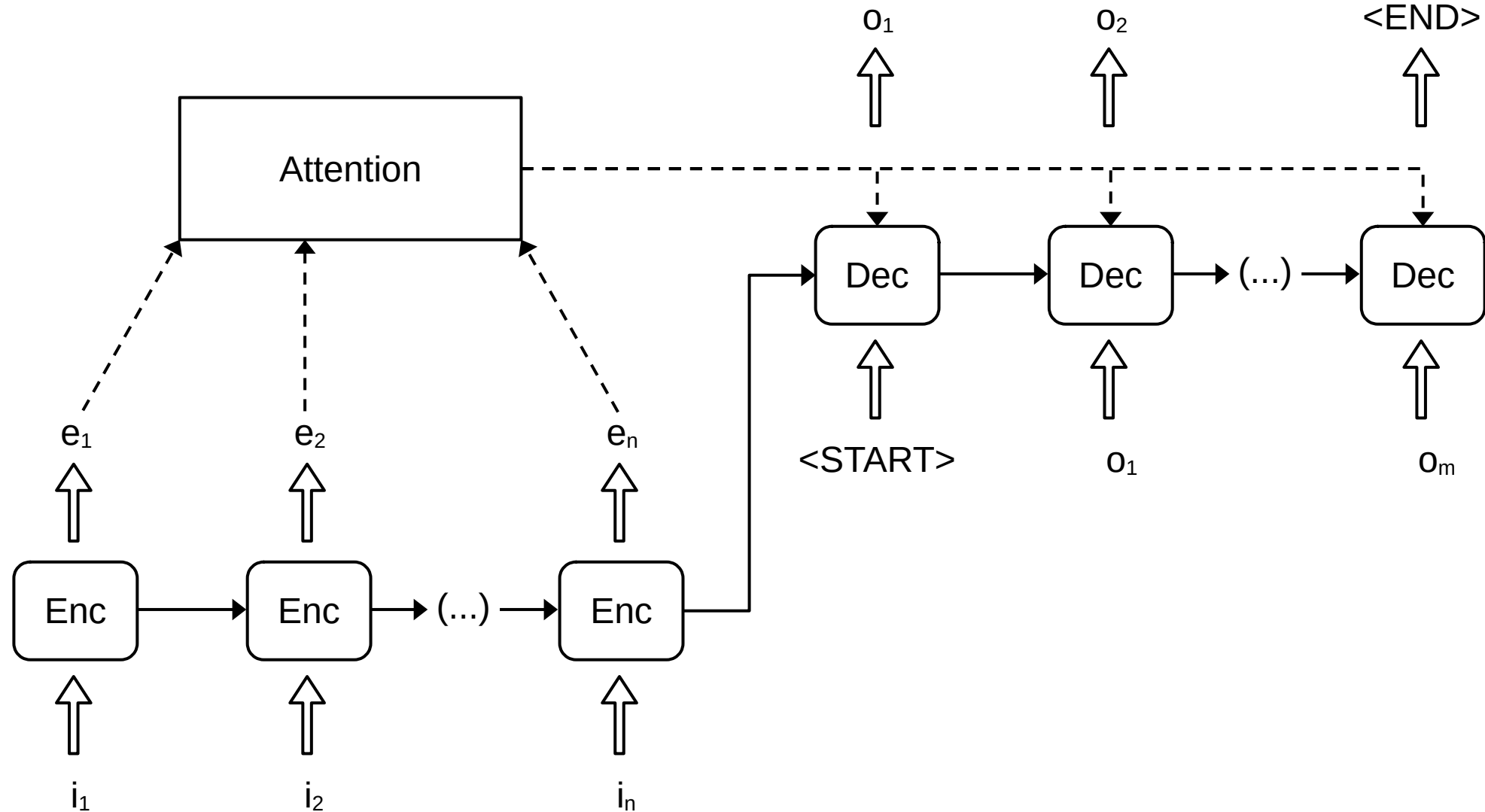
Recurrent Neural Network (RNN)



Encoder-decoder RNN



Encoder-decoder RNN + Attention



Transformer

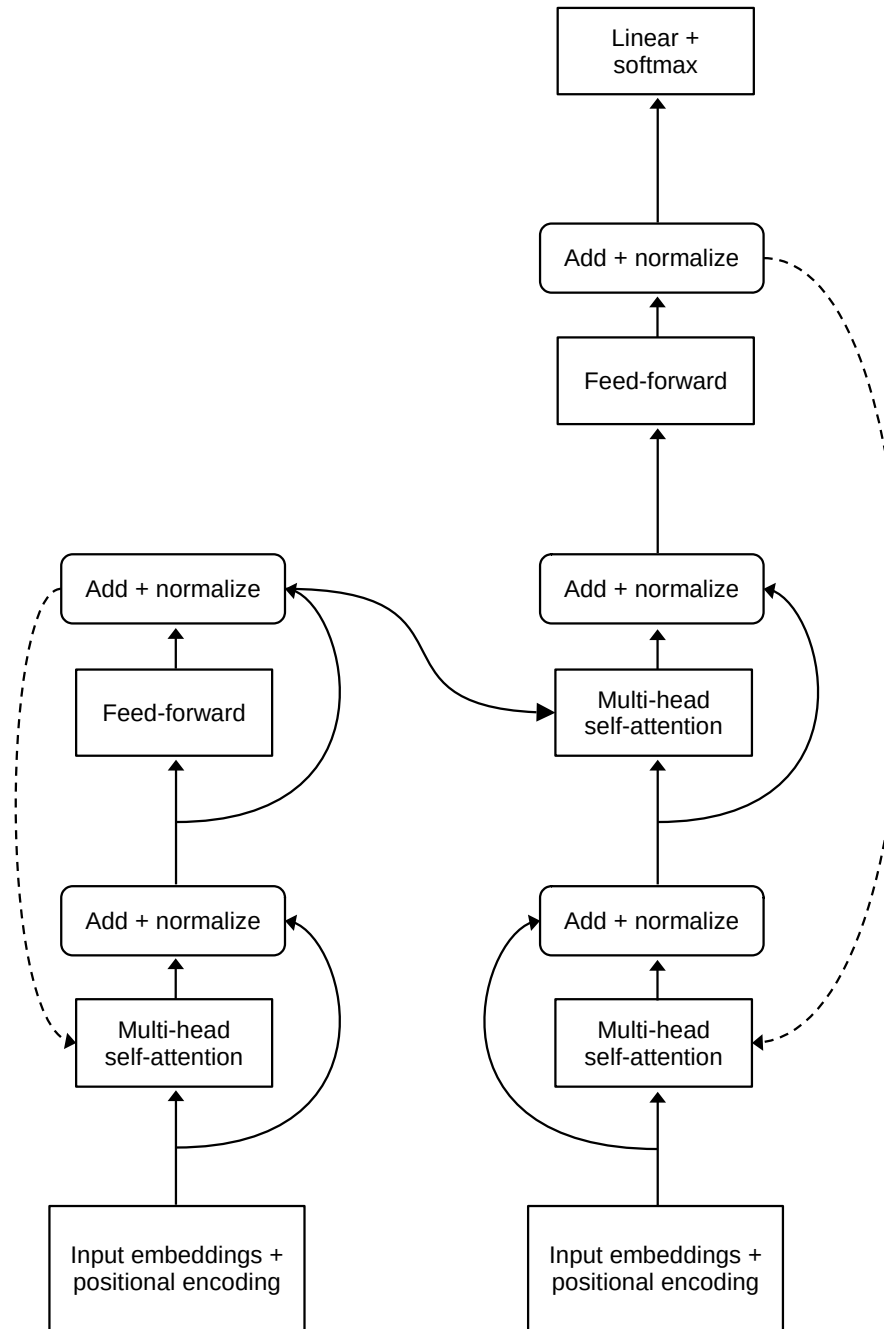
Attention Is All You Need

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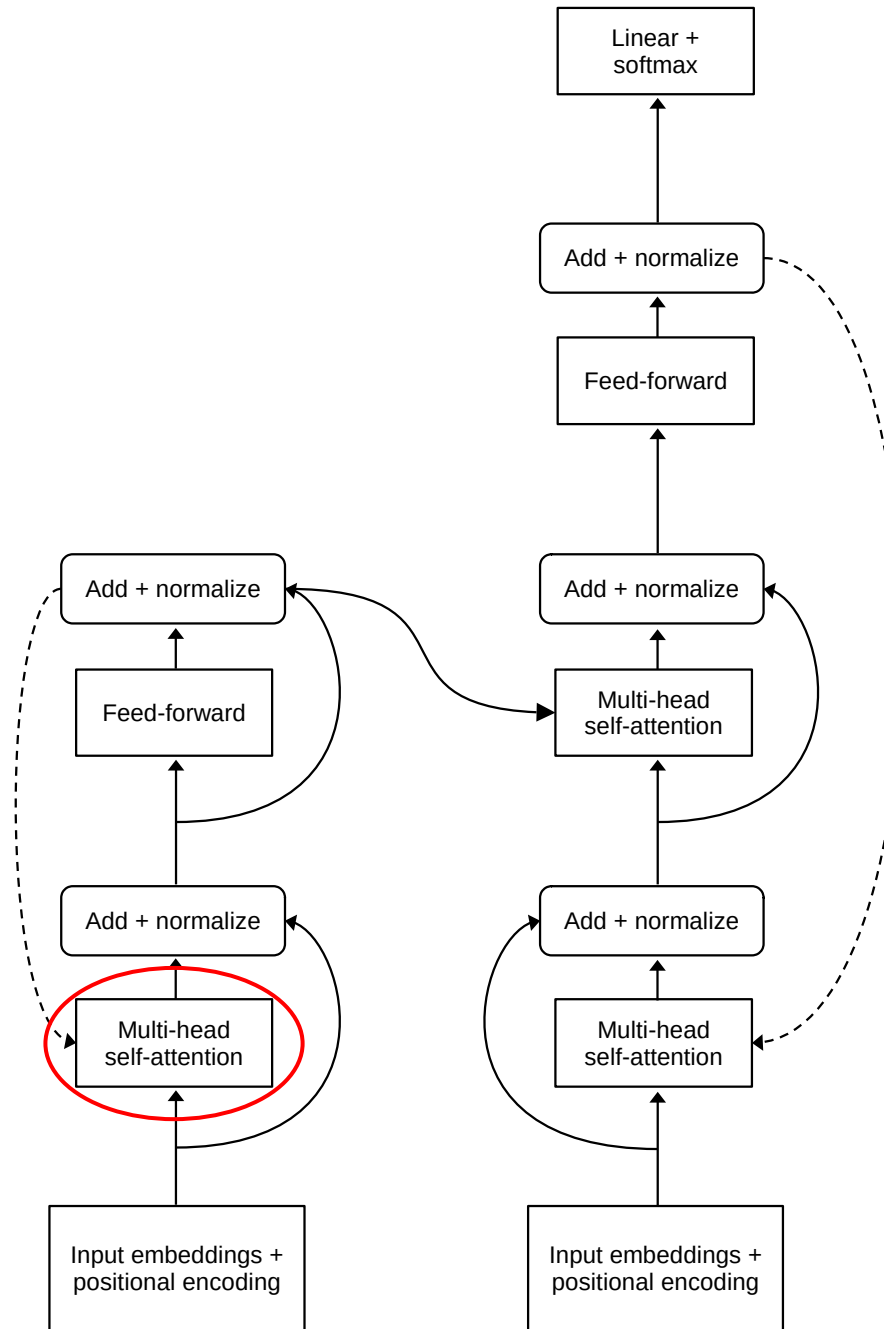
Abstract

The dominant sequence transduction models are based on complex recurrent or convolutional neural networks that include an encoder and a decoder. The best performing models also connect the encoder and decoder through an attention mechanism. We propose a new simple network architecture, the Transformer, based solely on attention mechanisms, dispensing with recurrence and convolutions entirely. Experiments on two machine translation tasks show these models to be superior in quality while being more parallelizable and requiring significantly less time to train. Our model achieves 28.4 BLEU on the WMT 2014 English-to-German translation task, improving over the existing best results, including ensembles, by over 2 BLEU. On the WMT 2014 English-to-French translation task, our model establishes a new single-model state-of-the-art BLEU score of 41.0 after training for 3.5 days on eight GPUs, a small fraction of the training costs of the best models from the literature.

Transformer



Transformer



Transformer

Each input word has an **embedding**, which is combined with **positional encoding**.

I_1



I

went_2



went

for_3



for

a_4



a

run_5



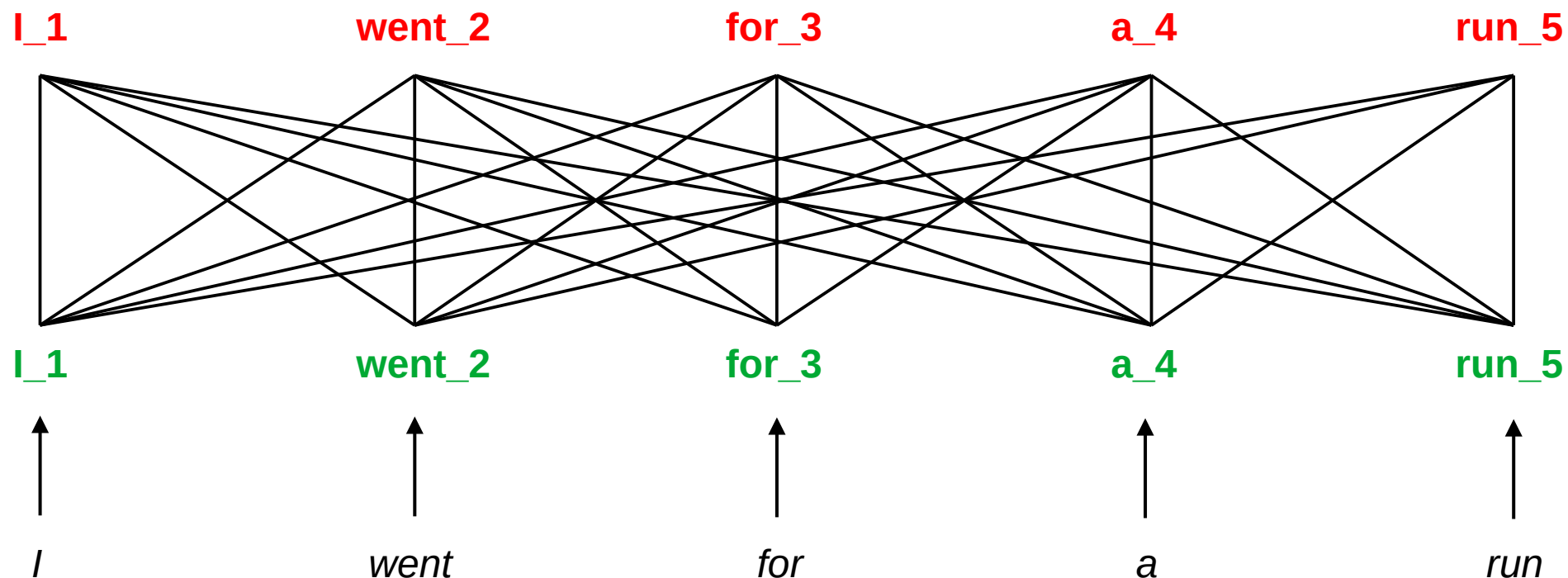
run

Transformer

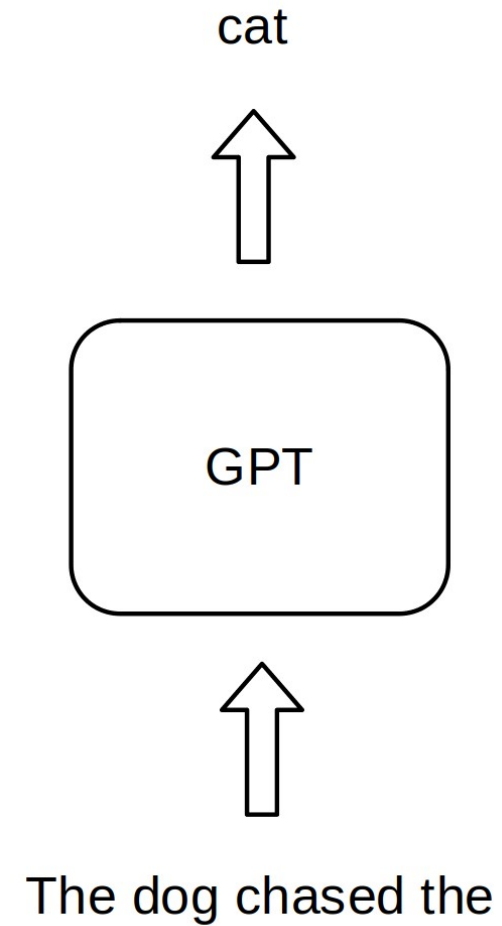
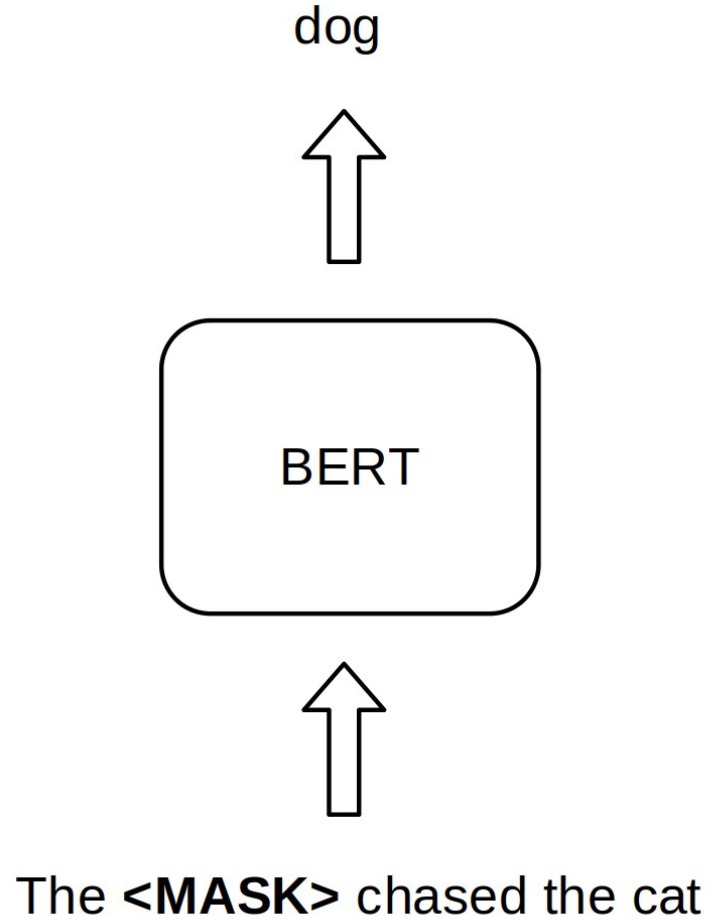
Each input word has an **embedding**, which is combined with **positional encoding**.

Input goes through **multi-head self-attention**, creating new **contextual encodings** for each token.

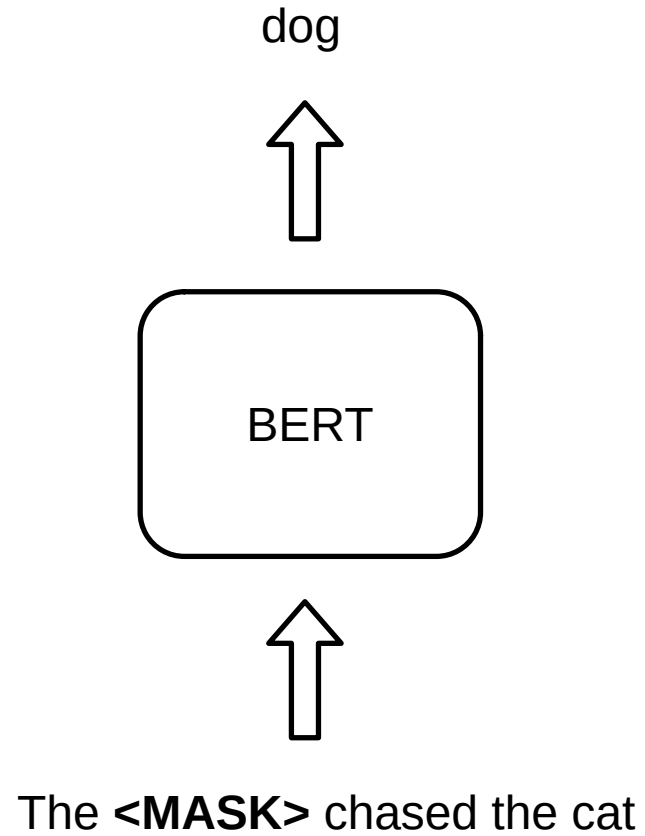
Contextual encoding for each token is calculated from previous embeddings of each token.



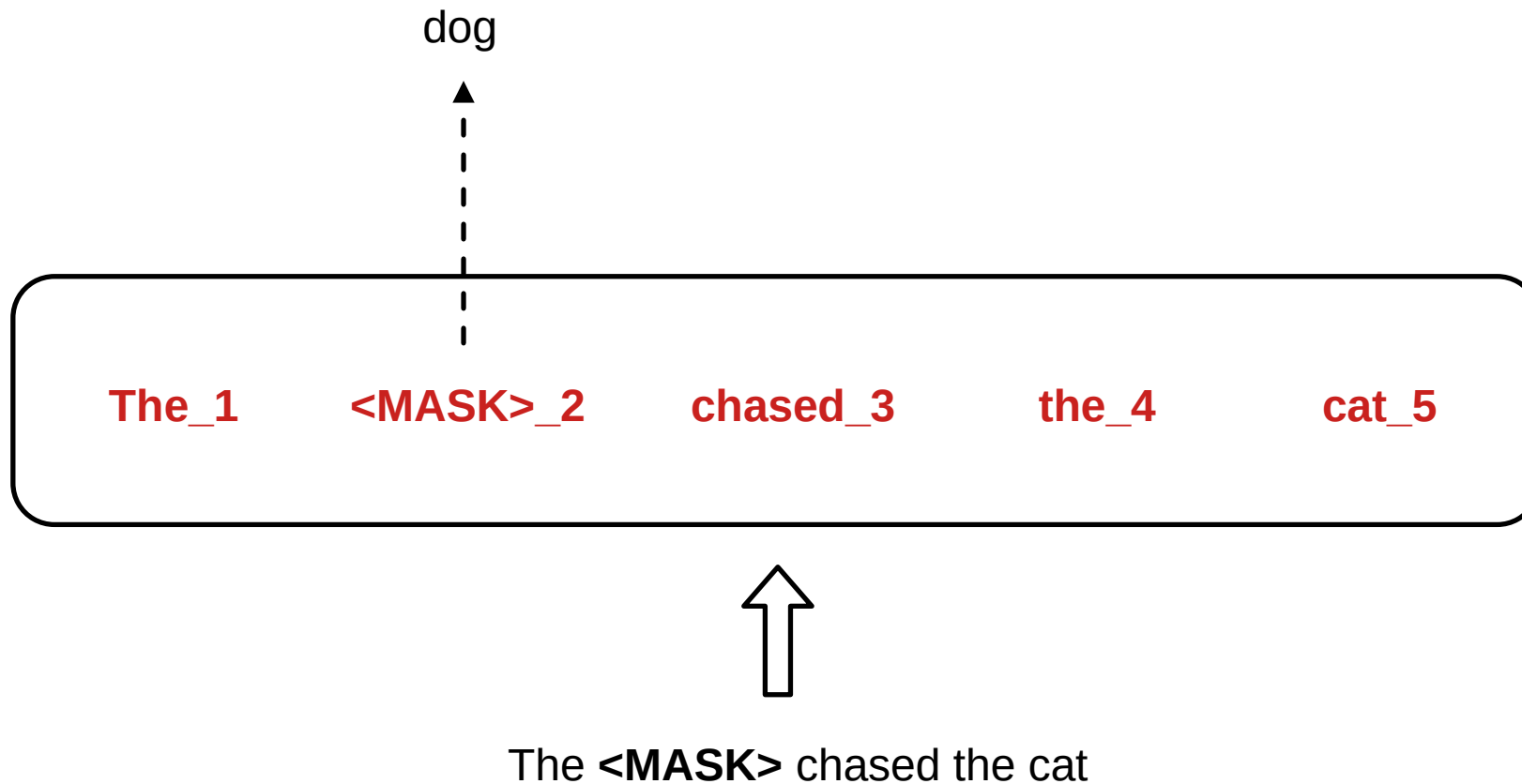
BERT and GPT



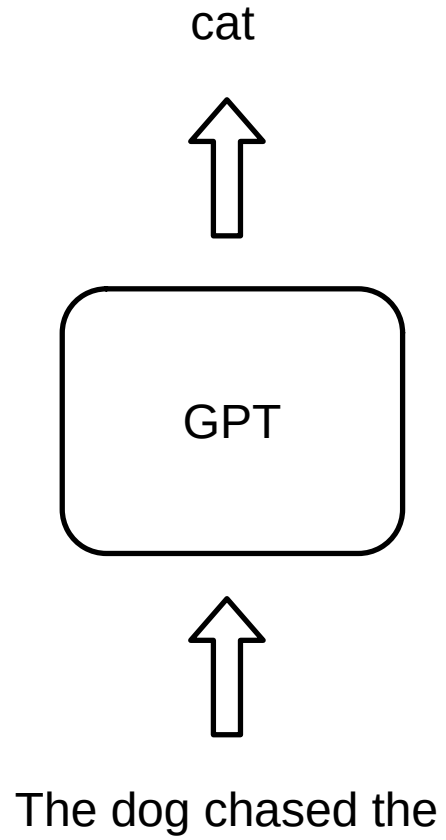
BERT: predicting masked tokens



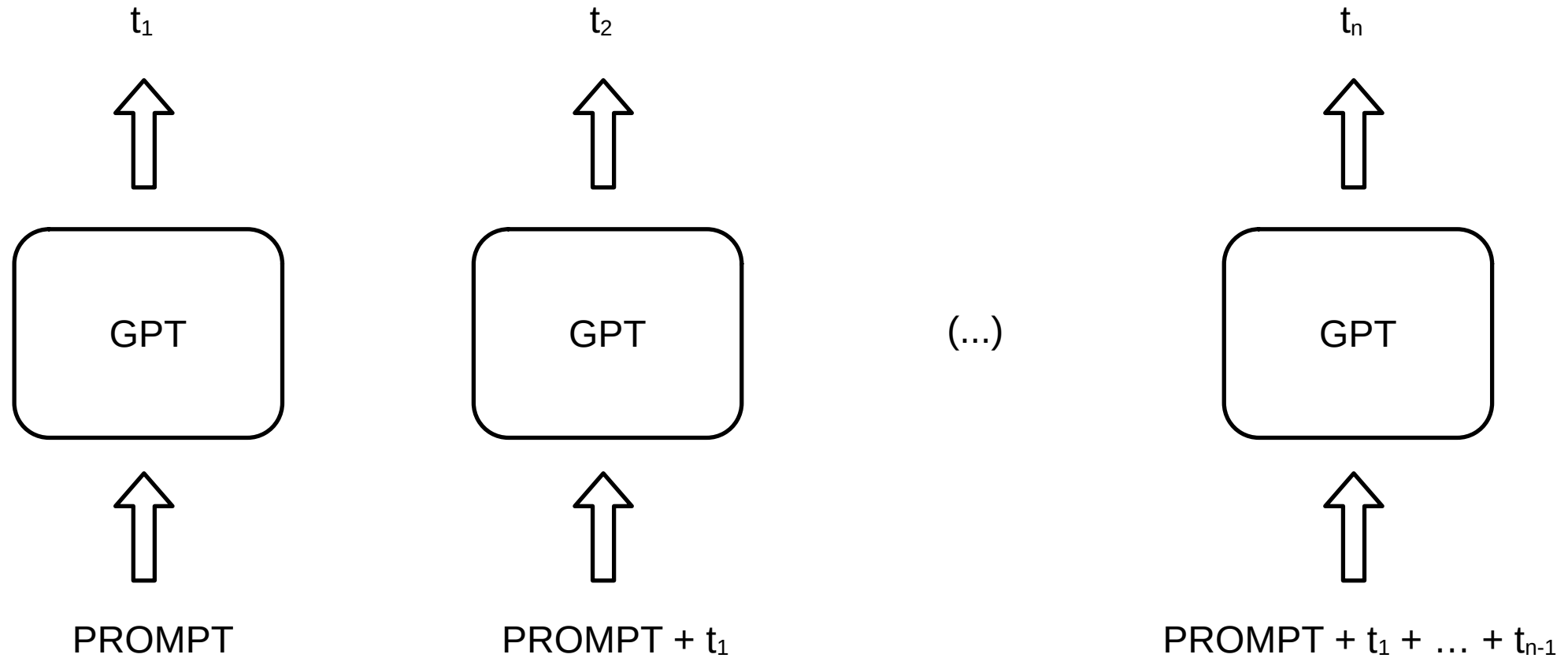
BERT: predicting masked tokens



GPT: predicting the next token



GPT: predicting the next token



Semantic representations in LLMs

Methods of studying LLMs

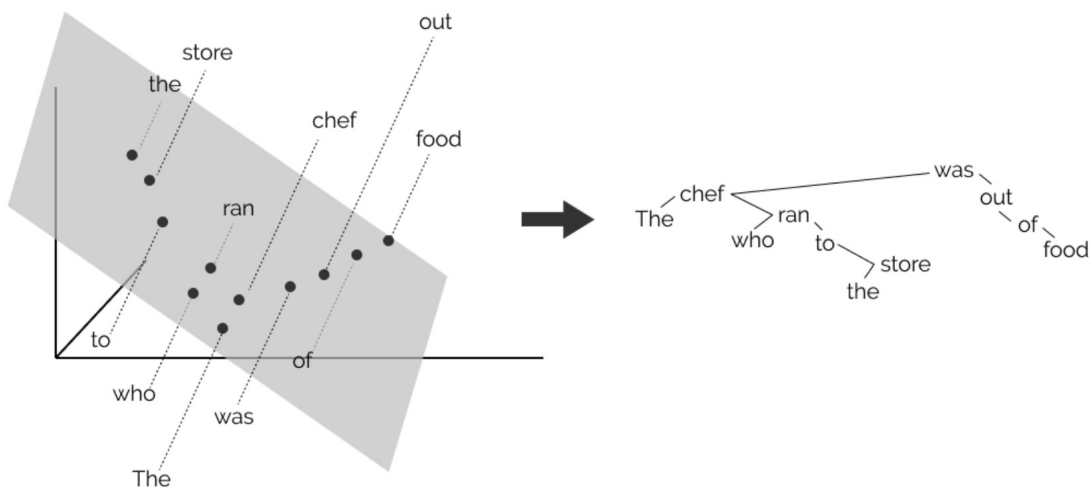
Behavioral

- Fine-tuning for specific tasks, measuring performance
- Prompting pre-trained models directly

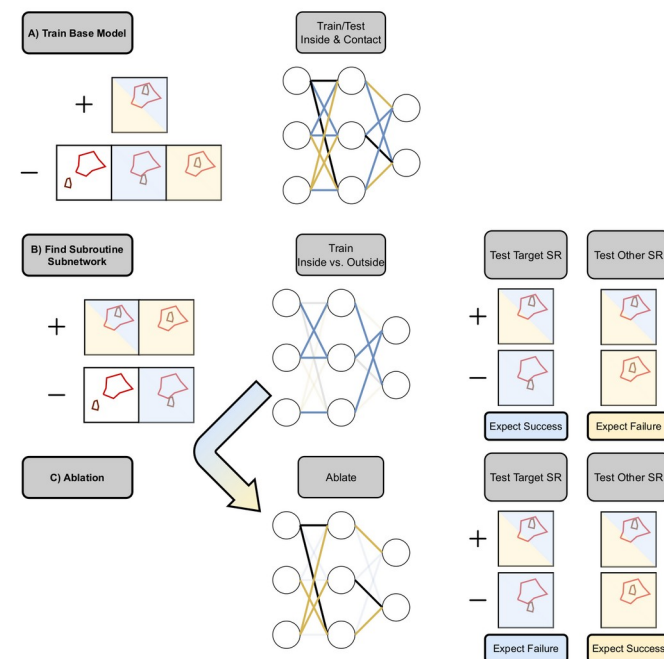
Methods of studying LLMs

Looking inside LLMs

- *Probing*: mapping activation patterns to linguistic/semantic labels
- *Mechanistic interpretation*: opening up the computational pipeline



<https://nlp.stanford.edu/~johnhew/structural-probe.html>



(Lepori et al. 2023)

Survey/commentary papers

Tyler A. Chang and Benjamin K. Bergen. 2024. Language Model Behavior: A Comprehensive Survey. *Computational Linguistics* 50 (1): 293–350.

Ellie Pavlick. 2023. Symbols and grounding in large language models. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society* 381.

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Lexical and pragmatic

Lexical semantics

- Predicting hypernyms in templates: “A robin is a _” ([Hanna and Mareček 2021](#))
- Probability correlations between synonyms/co-hyponyms ([Arefyev et al. 2020](#))
- Similes and analogies ([Liu et al. 2022](#), [He et al. 2022](#), [Ushio et al. 2021](#))
- Challenges with e.g. names and numbers ([Wallace et al. 2019](#), [Balasubramanian et al. 2020](#))

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Argument structure

- Thematic roles partly reconstructable via probing (Tenney et al. 2019)
- Sensitivity to verb classes (e.g. causatives) (Davis & van Schijndel 2020)
- Layer separation: lexical → syntactic → thematic (Tenney et al. 2019, Manning et al. 2020)
- Theoretical formalism influences results (Kuznetsov & Gurevych 2020, Kulmizev et al. 2020)

Lexical and pragmatic

Discourse & pragmatics

- Tracking entities across a discourse (e.g. characters in a story) ([Schuster and Linzen 2022](#))
- Sensitivity to the literal-figurative distinction ([Pedinotti et al. 2021](#); [Griciūtė et al. 2022](#))

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World-knowledge

- Success at certain pragmatic reasoning tasks (Petroni et al. 2019, Jiang et al. 2020)
- Some knowledge of physical properties (Apidianaki and Garí Soler 2021, Shi and Wolff 2021)
- Inferring knowledge/desires of characters (Summers-Stay et al. 2021, Sap et al. 2022)
- Explaining behavior of characters in common-sense terms (Lal et al. 2022)
- Improvement with model size (Sahu et al. 2022, Kalo & Fichtel 2022)
- Reliance on simple heuristics (Poerner et al. 2019, Lin et al. 2020, Cao et al. 2021)

Lexical and pragmatic: summary

LLMs have vast amounts of distributional information about words, hierarchically organized to different levels of abstraction: lexical relations, argument structure, discourse.

Much of “world-knowledge” in LLMs is memorized and relies on superficial heuristics.

Formal semantics

Compositionality

- Challenges with systematic reasoning ([Hupkes et al. 2020](#), [Kassner et al. 2020](#))
- LLMs can be prompted to produce semantic parses ([Qiu et al. 2022](#), [Hosseini et al. 2022](#))
- Partial dissociability/modularity of representations ([Lovering & Pavlick 2022](#))
- Candidates for LLM-internal symbolic processes ([Geva et al. 2021](#), [Olsson et al. 2022](#))
- Competence vs. performance? ([Pavlick 2023](#))

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Logic

- “Chain-of-thought-prompting”: asking LLMs to reason step-by-step ([Kojima et al. 2022](#))
- Multi-step reasoning is hard ([Forbes et al. 2019](#), [Kassner et al. 2020](#), [Saparov and He 2023](#))
- Notable troubles with negation

Formal semantics

Negation

- Ignoring negation: “A robin is [not] _” (Ettinger 2020, Kassner and Schütze 2020)
- Reasoning is more difficult with negated prompts (Jang et al. 2022)
- Performance of fine-tuned LLMs deteriorates significantly with negation-focused datasets (Hossain et al. 2020, Geiger et al. 2020, Tejada et al. 2021, Truong et al. 2022)
- Performance on negated prompts *decreases* as models *increase* in size (Jang et al. 2022)

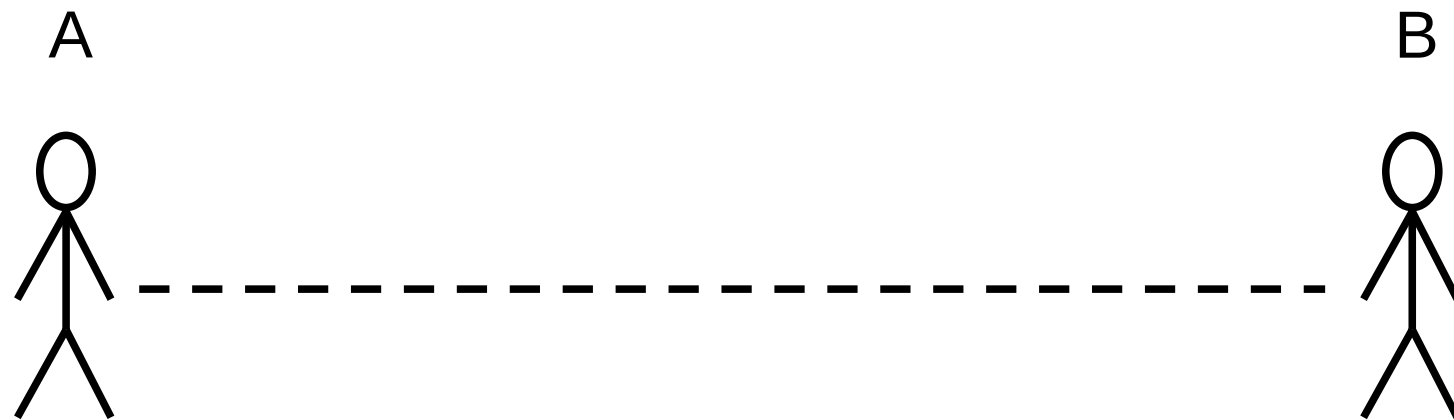
Formal semantics: summary

Compositionality in LLMs is a topic of contention; algorithmic/mechanistic interpretation needed.

LLMs have some level of logical capacity, but struggle with complex inferences.

Negation is a major problem, and increasing model size does not help (it even hinders).

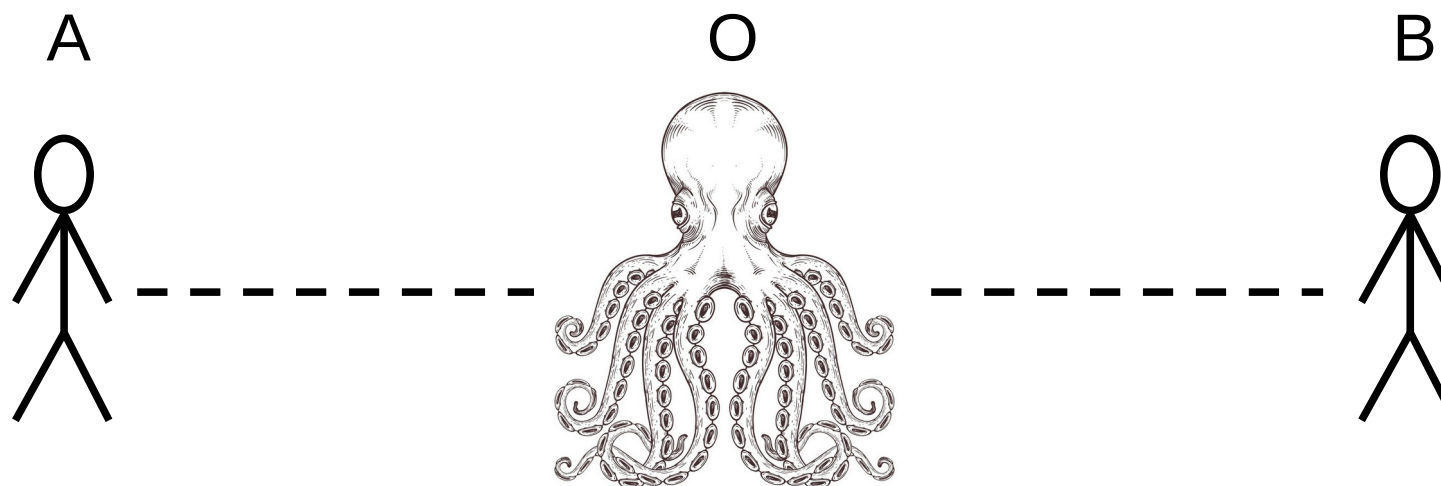
Grounding



(Bender & Koller 2020)

Grounding

“O knows nothing about English initially, but is very good at detecting statistical patterns. Over time, O learns to predict with great accuracy how B will respond to each of A’s utterances” (p. 5188)



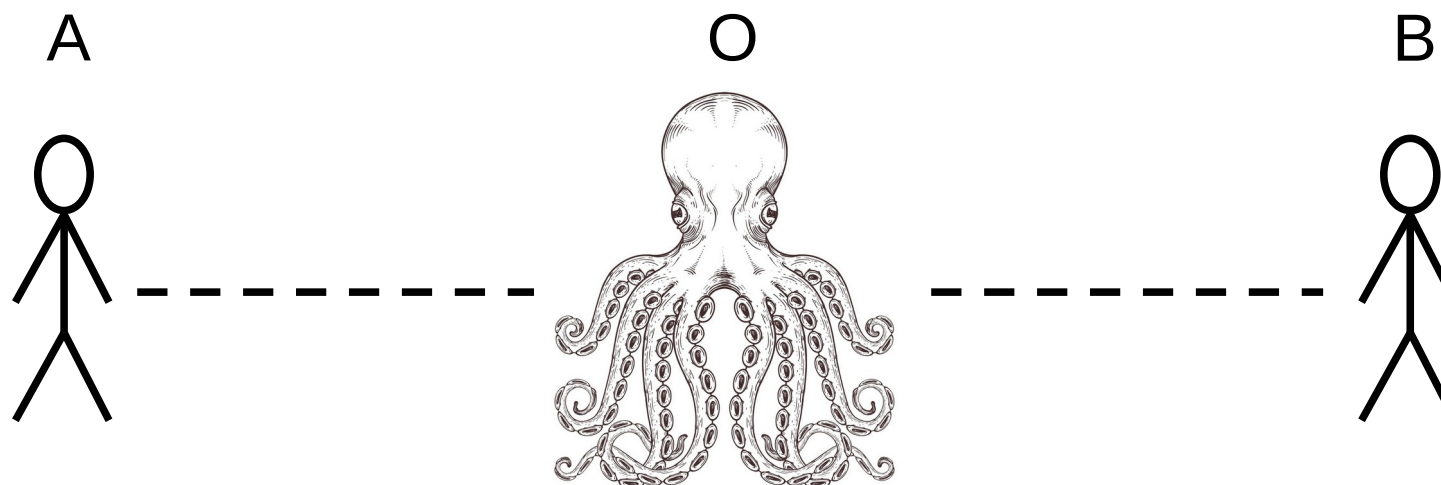
(Bender & Koller 2020)

Grounding

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“Having only form available as training data, O did not learn meaning.” (p. 5189)

“O’s language use will eventually diverge from the language use of an agent who can ground their language in coherent communicative intents.” (p. 5188)



Grounding

Pavlick (2023); grounding not necessary for (all) semantics

- Internalist conceptual role semantics: possible even if ungrounded
- Externalist causal/informational semantics: possible even for ungrounded representations
- Mapping representations: ungrounded → grounded ([Scialom 2020](#), [Abdou et al. 2021](#))

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Much depends on meta-semantics...

- Causal/informational ([Cappelen and Dever 2021](#), [Mandelkern and Linzen 2023](#))
- Descriptivist/inferential ([Pavlick 2023](#))
- Interpretationist ([Lederman and Mahowald 2024](#))

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Thank you!

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