

# Evaluating large language models for the tasks of PoS tagging within the Universal Dependency framework

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## Abstract

Large language models (LLMs) have emerged as a valuable tool for a variety of natural language processing tasks. This study focuses on assessing the capabilities of three language models in the context of part-of-speech tagging using the Universal Dependency (UPoS) tagset in texts written in Brazilian Portuguese. Our experiments reveal that LLMs can effectively leverage prior knowledge from existing tagged datasets and can also extract linguistic structure with arbitrary labels. Furthermore, we present results indicating an accuracy of 90% in UPoS tagging for a multilingual model, while smaller monolingual models achieve an accuracy of 48%.

## 1 Introduction

The rapid advancements in information and communication technologies have ignited significant interest in Natural Language Processing (NLP) tools. Consequently, this has led to the creation of a multitude of diverse NLP tools (Green, 2017). However, numerous challenges persist in the development of efficient and reliable NLP tools for accurate natural language processing. One tool addressing these challenges is Part-of-Speech (PoS) tagging, which involves assigning appropriate and unique grammatical categories (PoS tags) to words in a sentence (Inoue et al., 2017). Despite significant research endeavors, PoS tagging still faces challenges in improving accuracy, reducing false-positive rates, and efficiently handling the tagging of unknown words (Chiche and Yitagesu, 2022).

Supervised learning tasks have traditionally been prevalent in Natural Language Processing until recently. These tasks include question answering (Roy et al., 2023), machine translation (Wei et al., 2022), reading comprehension (Ouyang and Fu, 2022), and sentiment analysis (Shah et al., 2022), and they are typically tackled using specific datasets. Nevertheless, the landscape has evolved

as large language models (LLMs) have started to learn these tasks without explicit supervision (Min et al., 2023). This shift has occurred as these models are trained on vast datasets consisting of billions of words. The core concept is to acquire a universal, underlying language representation from a general task initially and subsequently apply it to various NLP tasks. Language modeling functions as the general task, given its ample availability of self-supervised text for extensive training.

In a paper by Radford et al., 2019, it was demonstrated that GPT-2, which was a 1.5-billion-parameter Transformer model at the time, achieved state-of-the-art results on 7 out of 8 tested language modeling datasets in a zero-shot learning setting. Later, Perez et al., 2021 conducted a study to evaluate pretrained LLMs in true few-shot learning scenarios, where held-out examples were unavailable. Their study highlighted the overestimation of LLMs' true few-shot capabilities in previous work, due to the challenges in selecting effective models which were cross-validation and minimum description length, for LLM prompts and hyperparameter selection. More recently, Qin et al., 2023 have shown the rapid adoption of tools like ChatGPT in various NLP tasks. Going a step further, (Kuzman et al., 2023) postulate the hypothesis of the ‘beginning of the end of corpus annotation tasks’ with the advent of large language models.

As we have seen, LLM have made extraordinary progress in many NLP tasks. But, in the unsupervised PoS tagging task of texts written in Portuguese, works utilizing the language models are few and even fewer if we consider the state-of-the-art (SotA) tags from the Universal Dependency (De Marneffe et al., 2021) framework for grammar annotation.

The contributions of this work can be summarized as follows: (1) We conducted an evaluation of the SotA LLMs for the task of part-of-speech (PoS) tagging in Portuguese within the Universal Depen-

dencies (UD) model, here called UPoS tagging. (2) We discovered that UPoS tagging using LLMs, which may leverage prior knowledge from existing tagged datasets, can also extract linguistic structure with arbitrary labels. (3) We presented an analysis to measure the impact of this practical labeling process. In essence, our findings provide valuable insights into the proficiency of these generalized LLMs in excelling at specialized tasks and shed light on the effectiveness of the teaching process for these language models.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: In the subsequent section (Section 2), we provide a literature review on part-of-speech (PoS) tagging using Large Language Models (LLMs). Section 3 outlines the corpora utilized and the methodology adopted. Section 4 presents preliminary findings concerning the task of few-shot Universal Part-of-Speech (UPoS) tagging. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.

## 2 Related work

Part-of-Speech (PoS) tagging is a challenging task that involves classifying words to label their morphosyntactic information within a sentence. Accurate and dependable PoS tagging is essential for numerous natural language processing (NLP) tasks. Typically, extensive annotated corpora are required to achieve the desired accuracy of PoS taggers. However, recently, Large Language Models (LLMs) have emerged as valuable tools for a wide range of exciting NLP applications, such as Named Entity Recognition (NER), Relation Classification, Natural Language Inference (NLI), Question Answering (QA), Common Sense Reasoning (CSR), Summarization, and, of course PoS tagging (Qin et al., 2023).

In their study, Blevins et al., 2022 tackled the question of whether pretrained language models (PLMs) primarily rely on generalizable linguistic comprehension or surface-level lexical patterns when applied to a wide array of language tasks. To investigate this, they introduced a structured prompting approach designed for linguistic structured prediction tasks, which facilitated zero- and few-shot sequence tagging using autoregressive PLMs. The researchers extended their evaluation to UPoS for the English language. They executed structured prompting using GPT-3 models via the OpenAI API<sup>1</sup>, specifically employing the

base GPT-Curie (approximately 6 billion parameters) and GPT-Davinci (approximately 175 billion parameters). The results showed an accuracy of 66.27% for GPT-Curie and 65.9% for GPT-Davinci.

Lai et al., 2023 recently conducted tests on ChatGPT across seven different tasks, spanning 37 diverse languages with varying levels of resources, including high, medium, low, and extremely low resource languages. In their experiments, they employed the XGLUE-POS dataset (Liang et al., 2020) from Huggingface Datasets<sup>2</sup>, which encompasses 17 languages, excluding Portuguese. ChatGPT’s evaluation was carried out with both English (en) and language-specific (spc) task descriptions, achieving accuracies of 88.5% and 89.6%, respectively. Additionally, they utilized ChatGPT for PoS tagging in 16 other languages, obtaining an average accuracy of 84.5% and 79.8% (spc).

Our literature review has identified CamemBERT (Martin et al., 2020) as the pioneering monolingual Large Language Model (LLM) utilized for Part-of-Speech (PoS) tagging tasks. It is worth mentioning some previous works analyzing how linguistic information (including PoS) is encoded in the different layers of a (monolingual) transformer (Tenney et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019). In their paper, the researchers examine the feasibility of training monolingual Transformer-based language models for languages other than English, using French as an illustrative case. In their study, the researchers assess the performance of language models across multiple language-related tasks, encompassing UPoS tagging, dependency parsing, named entity recognition, and natural language inference. In the case of the fine-tuned CamemBERT model, its UPoS data reached an impressive accuracy of 98.18%.

Finally, Chang’s belief, as mentioned in Chang et al., 2023, is that evaluation should be considered an essential discipline in order to better support the development of Large Language Models (LLMs).

In the following section, we will introduce the datasets and methods examined in this paper.

## 3 Data and methods

### Dataset and resources

In line with our objective to investigate SotA LLMs for PoS tagging in Portuguese within the Universal

<sup>1</sup><https://openai.com/blog/openai-api>

<sup>2</sup><https://huggingface.co/datasets/xglue>

Dependencies (UD) framework, we opted to employ the recently released Porttinari (Duran et al., 2023). Porttinari (which stands for ‘PORTuguese Treebank’) is a substantial and diverse treebank for Brazilian Portuguese, encompassing various genres. For our study, we specifically focused on the journalistic segment of the Porttinari treebank. This resource has been thoughtfully designed to serve as a versatile asset for NLP tasks in Brazilian Portuguese, with a special emphasis on the human-revised section, which comprises a total of 8,418 sentences.

### 3.1 UD PoS tags

Universal PoS tags (UPoS) are standardized grammatical labels utilized in Universal Dependencies (UD), a project aimed at creating consistent treebank annotations across multiple languages. The UPoS tagset comprises 17 tags designed to mark the core part-of-speech categories. These tags are categorized into three main groups, as outlined below:

**Open class words** ADJ, ADV, INTJ, NOUN, PROPN, and VERB;

**Closed class words** ADP, AUX, CCONJ, DET, NUM, PART, PRON, and SCONJ;

**Other** PUNCT, SYM, X

### Large Language Models

In this experiment, we employed the following Large Language Models (LLMs):

- LLaMA is a series of LLMs introduced by Meta AI<sup>3</sup>, released in February 2023. LLaMA language models have parameter counts ranging from 7 to 65 billion. These models were trained on trillions of tokens, demonstrating the possibility of achieving SotA model performance using only publicly available datasets (Touvron et al., 2023). Since we installed the models locally, we chose to use the LLaMA-7B version;
- Maritaca<sup>4</sup> represents a collection of LLMs that have undergone training using text written in Portuguese. The available documentation does not provide clear information regarding the specific LLM that the API utilizes.

<sup>3</sup><https://ai.meta.com/>

<sup>4</sup><https://www.maritaca.ai/>

However, it is known that Sabiá, a monolingual Large Language Model, was introduced in April 2023 with a primary focus on the Portuguese language. Notably, research conducted by Pires et al., 2023 exemplifies the significant and favorable impact of pretraining Sabiá specifically in the target language on models that have previously undergone extensive training on diverse corpora. Lastly;

- GPT, referenced as GPT-3 (OpenAI, 2020) or Generative Pre-trained Transformer 3, is a LLM introduced by OpenAI<sup>5</sup> in 2020. Notably, GPT-3 stands as one of the most extensive language models to date, equipped with an impressive 175 billion parameters, allowing it to tackle a diverse array of language-related tasks. It’s important to note that its knowledge extends only up to January 2022.

## Experiments

We chose the initial 1,010 sentences from the Porttinari-base, specifically the journalistic section of the Porttinari treebank. Among these, the first ten sentences were employed as a query example for the selected Large Language Model (LLM).

As an example, below, one may observe the prompt utilized to direct the LLM in performing UPoS tagging<sup>6</sup>:

Atuando como linguista e sem efetuar correções ou alterações no texto,  
faça a análise morfossintática  
das frases seguindo a anotação UD  
(Universal Dependencies) conforme  
os exemplos abaixo:

Entrada: A Odebrecht pagou 300 \% a mais  
pelo por o direito de explorar o  
aeroporto do de o Galeão .

Saída: A/DET Odebrecht/PROPN pagou/VERB  
300/NUM %/SYM a/ADP mais/ADV pelo/None  
por/ADP o/DET direito/NOUN de/ADP  
explorar/VERB o/DET aeroporto/NOUN  
do/None de/ADP o/DET Galeão/PROPN  
. /PUNCT

<sup>5</sup><https://openai.com/>

<sup>6</sup>Prompt in English: ‘Acting as a linguist and without making any corrections or changes to the text, perform the morphosyntactic analysis of the sentences following the Universal Dependencies (UD) annotation as shown in the examples below.’

To enhance clarity and precision for the language model, we chose to represent prepositional contractions by separating the preposition and definite article. For instance, the word ‘pelo’ was retained as is, and then you added the preposition ‘por’ followed by the article ‘o’. These components were appropriately tagged as ‘ADP’ (adposition) and ‘DET’ (determiner), respectively. To avoid any potential confusion for the language model, the contracted word ‘pelo’ was tagged as ‘None’. This consistent approach was also applied to combined words, such as ‘de’ + ‘o’.

The output sentence was initially examined to ensure that the number of output tokens matched the input. If they did not match, the query was resubmitted for a maximum of ten iterations.

## 4 Results

In the context of a LLM, ‘temperature’ is a hyper-parameter that governs the degree of randomness in the model’s responses. A higher temperature setting promotes greater diversity and randomness in the model’s responses, whereas a lower temperature setting leads to more deterministic and focused responses. The temperature parameter serves as a tool for adjusting the balance between randomness and determinism in the model’s generated outputs.

Initially, our objective was to fine-tune the temperature parameter to achieve the optimal balance between precision and recall, as measured by the F-measure, for each Large Language Model (LLM). This fine-tuning process was conducted exclusively on the initial 20 sentences. In Figure 1, we illustrate how variations in temperature impact the F-measure for each of the evaluated LLM.

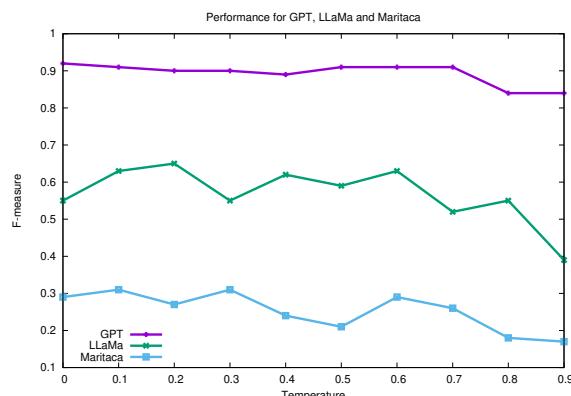


Figure 1: F-measure for GPT, LLaMa and Maritaca.

In Figure 1, a distinct advantage is evident for the GPT model, particularly when compared to

LLaMA-7B and Maritaca. The overall performance of the GPT exhibits only a slight decrease, primarily occurring at a temperature of 0.8.

The optimal temperature for LLaMA was identified at 0.2, while Maritaca exhibited its best performance at an even lower temperature of 0.1. Figure 1 demonstrates a variation of approximately  $\pm 1\%$  for GPT until the temperature reaches 0.8, after which performance begins to deteriorate, the optimal temperature found being 0.

We then repeated the experiment for each model in the remaining set of 1,000 sentences, using the optimal temperature found. We observed that in some cases, the language models (mainly Maritaca) made some incorrect taggings, for example, tags followed by some accentuation (‘VERB,’ , ‘VERB’). In these cases, we carry out a post-processing step making the necessary corrections to the identified tags.

In some cases, the models made some changes to the texts. In these cases, we analyzed the number of changes made, and if this number exceeded a threshold, we asked the model to analyze the sentence in question again, repeating this process a maximum of 10 times. In cases where the model was unable to properly process the sentences after this process, we marked all tags as ‘None’ and counted the error. There were 97 errors with Maritaca, 55 with LLaMA, and none with GPT.

Table 1 presents the values of precision, recall, F-measure, and support for each instance of a UPoS tag in the 1,000 analyzed sentences. Once more, it’s worth emphasizing the extensive utilization of ‘None’, which is not a component of the Universal Dependency PoS tagset. It is employed to label contractions and combinations of words. It’s important to take note of the tags with precision scores below 0.8. The first one, the AUX tag, pertains to auxiliary verbs such as ‘ter’, ‘haver’, ‘estar’, and ‘ser’. The second is the SCONJ tag, which stands for subordinating conjunctions. The issue of mislabeling was discussed by Lopes et al., 2023.

Table 2 presents the outcomes for each UPoS tag after processing the same 1,000 sentences, now using LLaMA-7B. It’s evident that many of LLaMA’s results were in line with GPT, especially for tags such as ADP, CCONJ, and NOUN. However, for other tags, there was a notable discrepancy between the two models.

In our assessment, the results obtained from the Maritaca Large Language Model (LLM) in Table 3 do not exhibit a substantial discrepancy in compar-

TAG	Precision	Recall	F-measure	Support
ADJ	0.82	0.97	0.89	996
ADP	0.85	0.93	0.89	2,943
ADV	0.91	0.87	0.89	759
AUX	0.79	0.89	0.84	592
CCONJ	0.99	0.95	0.97	497
DET	0.91	0.94	0.93	2,880
INTJ	0.75	1.00	0.86	3
NOUN	0.98	0.96	0.97	3,757
NUM	0.96	0.87	0.91	364
None	0.83	0.58	0.68	1,208
PRON	0.81	0.78	0.80	771
PROPN	0.98	0.93	0.95	1,290
PUNCT	1.00	0.92	0.96	222
SCONJ	0.65	0.97	0.78	277
SYM	1.00	0.95	0.97	74
VERB	0.95	0.91	0.93	2,024
X	0.00	0.00	0.00	33
Macro Avg.	0.83	0.85	0.84	18,690
Accuracy			0.90	18,690

Table 1: GPT final experiment with 0.0 temperature.

ison to the LLaMA LLM. The Maritaca LLM displayed notably low values for CCONJ and SCONJ, which undeniably had a negative impact on the overall performance. On the bright side, tags such as ADJ, INTJ, VERB, and PRON showcased values that were comparable and promising.

We also noticed that all models apply tags that do not belong to the domain of Universal Dependencies. Notably, the models can interpret punctuation marks as synonyms for UD labels (e.g., GPT with labels ‘)’ and ‘(’), as well as LLaMA with the label ‘VERB’). Situations like these were addressed in post-processing and counted as correct annotations. However, the Maritaca model listed 93 labels as possible morphosyntactic markers for UD, rather than the expected 17. Labels such as ‘BE’, ‘BEAR’, ‘BEZ’, ‘EXISTE’, ‘HAS’, and ‘MONTH’ resulted in errors.

TAG	Precision	Recall	F-measure	Support
ADJ	0.63	0.61	0.62	996
ADP	0.82	0.73	0.77	2,943
ADV	0.63	0.68	0.65	759
AUX	0.58	0.63	0.60	592
CCONJ	0.98	0.74	0.84	497
DET	0.74	0.81	0.77	2,880
INTJ	0.00	0.00	0.00	3
NOUN	0.92	0.69	0.79	3,757
NUM	0.58	0.70	0.63	364
None	0.20	0.45	0.28	1,208
PRON	0.59	0.39	0.47	771
PROPN	0.73	0.78	0.75	1,290
PUNCT	0.82	0.40	0.53	222
SCONJ	0.49	0.28	0.35	277
SYM	0.98	0.70	0.82	74
VERB	0.84	0.81	0.82	2,024
X	0.00	0.00	0.00	33
Macro Avg.	0.62	0.55	0.57	18,690
Accuracy			0.69	18,690

Table 2: LLaMA final experiment with 0.2 temperature.

Finally, Figure 2 offers a summary of the key performance metrics related to the data generated by the three assessed Large Language Models (LLMs). The figure depicts an improvement of around 10 percentage points for F-Measure and accuracy from GPT to LLaMa, as well as a comparable significant increase between LLaMA and Maritaca. Additionally, it highlights a substantial convergence in precision between the LLaMa and Maritaca models.

## 5 Final remarks

It is undeniable that LLMs caused a great revolution, bringing AI into the daily lives of many people. They also provided new ways to process, classify, and extract information through the use of prompts, which facilitated the development of advanced processing using natural language.

We conducted an analysis of the results of part-of-speech (UPoS) tagging in texts written in Brazilian Portuguese using three distinct large language models (LLMs): GPT-3, LLaMA-7B, and Maritaca. We were meticulous in selecting the Porttinari-base treebank, which was released after the aforementioned language models, to reduce the likelihood of these LLMs having the same annotated treebanks as knowledge bases.

GPT-3, a multilanguage LLM and purportedly the largest among the three, achieved the highest performance metrics. It was followed by the LLaMA, the LLM from Meta Platforms, Inc., which exhibited a notable disparity in comparison to GPT-3. Lastly, the Maritaca API, which uses

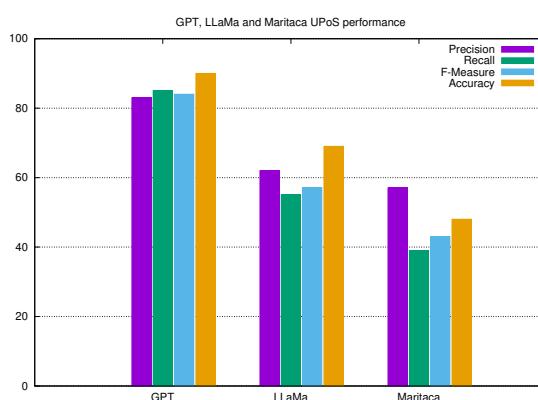


Figure 2: Precision, Recall, F-measure, and Accuracy for GPT, LLaMA and Maritaca.

TAG	Precision	Recall	F-measure	Support
ADJ	0.75	0.60	0.67	996
ADP	0.66	0.45	0.53	2,943
ADV	0.48	0.62	0.54	759
AUX	0.50	0.25	0.34	592
CCONJ	0.20	0.09	0.12	497
DET	0.57	0.46	0.51	2,880
INTJ	0.67	0.67	0.67	3
NOUN	0.87	0.66	0.75	3,757
NUM	0.52	0.68	0.59	364
None	0.05	0.28	0.09	1,208
PRON	0.69	0.22	0.34	771
PROPN	0.91	0.42	0.57	1,290
PUNCT	0.75	0.11	0.19	222
SCONJ	0.23	0.01	0.02	277
SYM	1.00	0.45	0.62	74
VERB	0.83	0.61	0.70	2,024
X	0.00	0.00	0.00	33
Macro Avg.	0.57	0.39	0.43	18,690
Accuracy			0.48	18,690

Table 3: Maritaca final experiment with 0.1 temperature.

an undisclosed language model, displayed a similar level of deviation from LLaMA as it did from GPT-3.

The experiments were conducted using a few-shot approach, beginning with exemplifying UPoS tagging with ten annotated sentences before requesting the UPoS task for the eleventh sentence. The GPT-3 API responded with a tagset that closely approximated the Universal Dependencies (UD) tagset. We also encountered some delays and cut-offs when making API calls. The LLaMA model was the most straightforward to execute since it could be downloaded and run locally. The returned tagset was also similar to the UD tagset.

These results were very positive, especially if we take into account that they were obtained using only 20 annotated examples, something that would be unfeasible with traditional machine learning algorithms. However, certain tags presented very low F-measures, such as ‘None,’ ‘NUM,’ ‘PRON,’ and ‘SCONJ,’ which could be attributed to the disparity in model size between LLaMA (7B parameters) and GPT-3 (175B parameters). On the other hand, the Maritaca API exhibited the poorest results. Maritaca returned a PoS tagset consisting of 93 tags, which we believe is the primary reason for its lower performance in PoS tagging.

Annotating data for training AI algorithms is normally expensive, in this case this annotation is even more difficult to carry out, as it requires linguistic knowledge. Another point to highlight is that LLMs are constantly improving, indicating

that even better results may be obtained in a near future.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that specific Large Language Models (LLMs) can function as initial Universal Dependency Part-of-Speech (UPoS) taggers for low-resource languages like Portuguese, especially when supplemented with human review. This proves beneficial even in cases where Universal Dependency (UD) parsers, like PassPort by Zilio et al., 2018, produce comparable outcomes.

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