

# BERTtime Stories: Investigating the Role of Synthetic Story Data in Language Pre-training

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## Abstract

We describe our contribution to the *Strict* and *Strict-Small* tracks of the 2nd iteration of the BabyLM Challenge. The shared task is centered around efficient pre-training given data constraints motivated by human development. In response, we study the effect of synthetic story data in language pre-training using *TinyStories*: a recently introduced dataset of short stories. Initially, we train GPT-Neo models on subsets of *TinyStories*, while varying the amount of available data. We find that, even with access to less than 100M words, the models are able to generate high-quality, original completions to a given story, and acquire substantial linguistic knowledge. To measure the effect of synthetic story data, we train LTG-BERT encoder models on a combined dataset of: a subset of *TinyStories*, story completions generated by GPT-Neo, and a subset of the *BabyLM* dataset. Our experimentation reveals that synthetic data can occasionally offer modest gains, but overall have a negative influence on linguistic understanding. Our work offers an initial study on synthesizing story data in low resource settings and underscores their potential for augmentation in data-constrained language modeling. We publicly release our models and implementation on our GitHub <sup>1</sup>.

## 1 Introduction

As the performance of modern Language Models (LMs) increases, enabling remarkable feats of language understanding and reasoning, so do their demands in computational resources and training data (Hoffmann et al., 2022). For example, the recently released Llama 3 (Dubey et al., 2024) has 405B parameters and was pre-trained on 15.6T tokens, on 6K H100 GPUs. In contrast, children are

only exposed to no more than 100 million words by age 13 (Gilkerson et al., 2017), demonstrating exceptional learning efficiency compared to state-of-the-art LMs. This need for ever-increasing data and compute casts doubts on the cognitive plausibility of the current LM training regimes, and raises ecological and ethical concerns, such as democratic access to research for industry and research groups with modest resources.

To address these issues, the BabyLM challenge (Warstadt et al., 2023a; Choshen et al., 2024) invites participants to work on cognitive modeling and efficient LM pre-training, given data limitations inspired by human development. This year’s iteration of the challenge features three experimental tracks: a *Strict* track with a budget of 100M words, a *Strict-Small* track with a budget of 10M words, and a *Multimodal* track with a word budget of 100M words and unlimited visual input. A major change compared to last year’s challenge is allowing participants to construct their own training data. In the following sections, we present our contributions to the *Strict* and *Strict-Small* tracks.

Our research draws inspiration from recent advancements in Small Language Models (SLMs) for text generation, as explored in *TinyStories* (Eldan and Li, 2023). In this influential work, the authors demonstrate that training on a synthetic dataset of simple stories can enable SLMs to produce creative, high-quality generations, which are novel with respect to the original training dataset. We hypothesize that for the small data regimes of the BabyLM challenge, *augmenting* the initial training corpus with synthetic data of high quality can provide models with unseen linguistic contexts, and as a result improve language understanding. To test our hypothesis, we first extend previous work by

<sup>1</sup><https://github.com/nikitas-theo/BERTtimeStories>

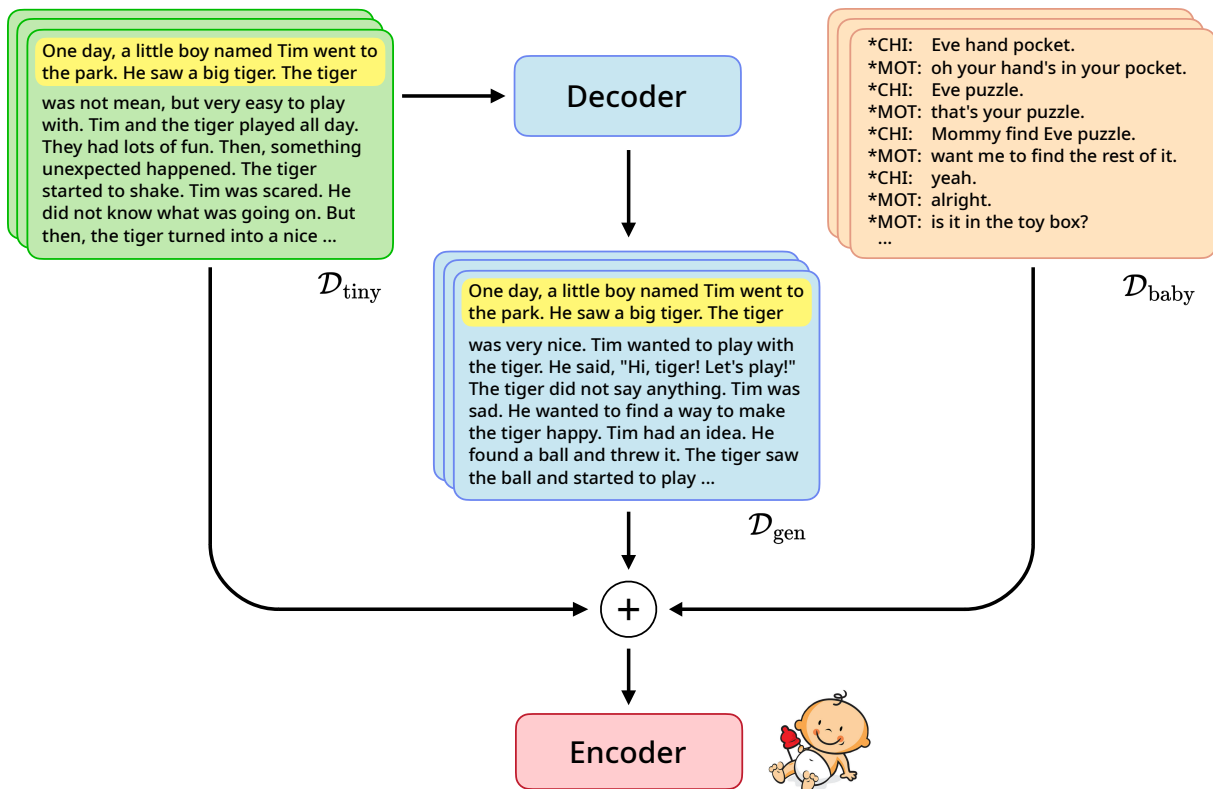


Figure 1: Illustration of our proposed methodology for *BERTtime Stories*. We use a subset of the *TinyStories* dataset ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny}}$ ) (Eldan and Li, 2023), to train a decoder transformer for data augmentation. We prompt the decoder with the short stories from  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny}}$  and create a dataset of model generations ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}}$ ): each story (green) is truncated and used as a prompt (yellow), with the model generating an alternate completion (blue). We supplement the two datasets with a subset of the *BabyLM* dataset ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby}}$ ), released by Choshen et al. (2024), and train an encoder model on the combined data. Finally, we evaluate the linguistic proficiency of the encoder using the challenge benchmarks.

Eldan and Li (2023), investigating generative performance with limited training data. We then train encoder transformer models on a diverse dataset, and measure the effect of synthetic data on linguistic proficiency.

In technical terms, following Eldan and Li (2023), we propose to train a GPT-Neo decoder (Black et al., 2021) on *TinyStories*, and then use it to *generate data* for the training of a final encoder model. This poses some initial challenges, as the size of the original *TinyStories* dataset exceeds the challenge limits, with around 373M words. As a result, we experiment with training GPT-Neo models while varying the *amount of available data* and evaluating their generative performance, keeping the model architecture fixed in the process. Our investigation of generative performance is complementary to the original work, which measures the effects of varying the depth and size of the model architectures. Our findings demonstrate that even in low data regimes of  $\leq 100\text{M}$  words, GPT-Neo models can acquire impressive grammatical under-

standing, and generate stories of *high quality* and *diversity*, comparable to models trained on the full dataset. For our evaluation see Section 4.1.

Next, we investigate the effect of the synthetic story data on language pre-training. Figure 1 illustrates our methodology. We select a small subset of *TinyStories*, train a GPT-Neo model, and use it to generate alternate completions to the stories in the training set. We then create a combined dataset consisting of: ① the subset of *TinyStories* used for GPT-Neo training, ② the generated data, ③ a sample of the *BabyLM* dataset (Choshen et al., 2024). With the combined dataset, we train an LTG-BERT (Samuel et al., 2023) model, choosing this architecture as it demonstrated superior performance in the text-only tracks of last year. We compare the performance of our models against a variety of baselines, trained with and without the use of synthetic data. Our results show that a simple application of synthetic story data for language pre-training results in *marginal* or even *negative* gains. Nevertheless, given the high generative per-

formance of the GPT-Neo models, we believe that more research is needed to fully explore and exploit their potential.

**Contribution** We list our contributions below:

- We investigate the generative and linguistic abilities of GPT-Neo models trained on *TinyStories* while varying the amount of available data. We show that even with limited data, these models can produce generations of high quality, offering new insights into the capabilities of SLMs in low data regimes.
- We investigate the effect of generated data on the pre-training of encoder LMs in a constrained data setting. We conduct an extensive evaluation with different training schemes and baselines. Our experiments demonstrate the potential of data augmentation to enhance the linguistic capabilities of low resource LMs.

## 2 Related work

**Previous BabyLM Iteration** Data Augmentation techniques were shown to be beneficial in the previous year’s challenge (Warstadt et al., 2023b). Specifically, ChapGPT (Jumelet et al., 2023) uses regex patterns to extract common phrases from GLUE tasks, and then harnesses these patterns to generate follow-up questions that serve as additional training data. In the Contextualizer paper (Xiao et al., 2023), extra training samples are created by dynamically combining chunks of texts from different contexts during training. Another approach named Baby’s CoThought (Zhang et al., 2023) utilizes a Large Language Model (LLM) to reformat unrelated sentences from the corpus into coherent paragraphs, thereby improving performance, albeit in defiance of data constraints.

**Language Models for Data Augmentation** In recent years, LLMs have been increasingly leveraged for data augmentation in various domains (Ding et al., 2024). Notably, Dai et al. (2023) introduced ChatGPT as a tool for generating realistic text samples from a combination of real and artificial data, enhancing training datasets. Similarly, transformer architectures, including decoder (GPT-2, Radford et al., 2019), encoder (BERT, Devlin et al., 2019), and seq2seq (BART, Lewis et al., 2020) models have been explored for augmentation (Kumar et al., 2020). In the work of Yoo et al. (2021), GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020) was

used to mix real and synthetic text samples for robust data augmentation. Moreover, decoder models have been successfully employed to generate training data for encoders, yielding significant improvements in zero-shot learning (Meng et al., 2022).

**Small Language Models** The recent study by Eldan and Li (2023) highlighted that Small Language Models (SLMs), can outperform larger ones by leveraging high-quality synthetic training data, demonstrating fluency, coherence, and creativity despite having fewer parameters. This trend is further supported by work in sequential recommendation, where small models are effectively employed for task-specific purposes (Xu et al., 2024). Additionally, Bergner et al. (2024) utilize a pre-trained LLM to encode prompt tokens, using these representations to guide a smaller LM for more efficient response generation.

## 3 Methods

We describe our data augmentation method using synthetic story data, as illustrated in Figure 1.

### 3.1 Datasets

Our work is built on two datasets: ① *TinyStories* – denoted as  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny}}$ , a collection of synthetic short stories with simple language, ② the *BabyLM* dataset – denoted as  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby}}$ , created to be a developmentally plausible pre-training corpus. For any dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{data}}$ , we also denote a version of the data with  $m$  million words as  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{data-m}}$ . We describe the datasets below:

**BabyLM dataset** The *BabyLM* dataset ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby}}$ ), released by Warstadt et al. (2023a); Choshen et al. (2024), consists of a diverse set of texts and is constructed with the goal of simulating the linguistic input that a child receives throughout its development. It contains a high proportion of spoken language and includes, among others, excerpts from children’s books, dialogue, child-directed speech, and Wikipedia articles. Both 100M and 10M versions of the dataset were released, for the Strict and Strict-Small tracks respectively. Details about the dataset structure are provided in Appendix A.

**TinyStories dataset** Introduced by Eldan and Li (2023), *TinyStories* ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny}}$ ) is a synthetic dataset, featuring a collection of short stories constructed by prompting GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 (OpenAI et al., 2024). The dataset was created to preserve all the core elements of natural language, such as grammar and reasoning, while exhibiting limited diversity

and size. More specifically, the stories are 2-3 paragraphs long and follow simple plots and themes. In addition, the dataset contains a restricted vocabulary and in general is intended to be on the level of understanding of 3-4 year old children. The initial version of the dataset (V1), generated by both GPT-3.5 and GPT-4, contains approximately 373M words. A second version (V2) was later released, with stories generated only by GPT-4 and around 440M words. We use this version in all our experiments.

### 3.2 Data Generation

We describe the creation of the synthetic story dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}}$ . To generate the data, we first train a decoder model (GPT-Neo) on a subset of *TinyStories* denoted as  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}$ . We truncate the stories in  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}$  to construct prompts and generate alternate completions using our model.

We start by restricting the size  $m$  of the subset, taking into account two factors: the need for adequate *diversity* in the final corpus, and the need to ensure *high-quality* generations. Given the assumption that generation quality scales with dataset size, we want to select a big enough size  $m$  for  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}$  to enable high-quality generations from our trained models. At the same time, we want to leave the necessary room in our word budget for including a sufficiently large portion of the *BabyLM* dataset in the final training. This will ensure that our models are exposed to both a large vocabulary and a variety of word contexts. Intuitively, we aim to ensure that our pre-training data is diverse, as children learn from multiple sources of input.

To address this trade-off, we sample from *TinyStories*, creating a collection of subsets of varying sizes,  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}} : m \in \{5, 10, 25, 50, 75, 100\}$ M (millions of words). For each subset, we train a GPT-Neo model and evaluate its generative and linguistic abilities. In our evaluation, we leverage metrics for grammatical understanding, diversity, and generation quality; our metrics are introduced in Section 3.4. For each of the *Strict* and *Strict-Small* tracks, we select a subset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}$  and a corresponding GPT-Neo model trained on it, based on our evaluation metrics and the above criteria. To construct  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}}$ , for each story in  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}$ , we truncate the story to 15%-30% of its size and use it to *prompt* the model for generation. We opt for using a smaller proportion of the original story to avoid duplication, given that stories in  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}$  will already be in the combined corpus for the training

of the encoder transformer.

Regarding the generation process, we experiment with two methods: greedy decoding and nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020). During sampling, we generate  $k$  completions from our models for each prompt. To limit repetition between the  $k$  generations (and avoid wasting FLOPs), we calculate Self-BLEU (Section 3.4) for a set of values of  $k$ , and select the ones that best balance diversity and the total amount of additional training data.

### 3.3 Final Corpus Creation

For each of the *Strict* and *Strict-Small* tracks, we have created  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}$ , and  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}}$  as previously described. We now create the combined dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}}$ , used to train the encoder transformer. We allocate our remaining word budget to a subset of the *BabyLM* dataset ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-b}}$ ), created by sampling randomly from *BabyLM* on the document level. We leave sampling methods that account for the content of the documents for future work. For the *Strict* / *Strict-Small* tracks, the size  $b$  of  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-b}}$  is chosen such that:  $b + m \leq 100\text{M} / 10\text{M}$ . We now construct  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}}$  by combining all the datasets  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}} = (\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-b}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}})$ . We employ a masked language modeling objective to train an encoder transformer on  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}}$ , with the LTG-BERT architecture (Samuel et al., 2023).

### 3.4 Evaluation

For evaluating the encoder transformers we use the evaluation suite of the challenge, consisting of three evaluation benchmarks: BLiMP, (Super)GLUE, and EWoK, each broadly evaluating language proficiency, general language understanding, and world knowledge. We note that the challenge benchmarks constitute filtered versions (Warstadt et al., 2023b), rendering our results incomparable with full data evaluations. For the decoder models, we use EWoK and BLiMP, and also introduce some additional evaluation procedures: specifically, Self-BLEU evaluates diversity, and an LLM-assisted evaluation measures generation quality. We explain each of the evaluation benchmarks below.

**BLiMP** The Benchmark of Linguistic Minimal Pairs (BLiMP), introduced by Warstadt et al. (2019), is a set of tasks designed to evaluate the linguistic knowledge of LMs. It consists of pairs of minimally different sentences covering various grammatical phenomena in syntax, morphology,

and semantics. The model under evaluation has to assign a higher probability to the correct sentence in each pair. We also evaluate on BLiMP Supplement (Supp.), released by Warstadt et al. (2023a), which includes additional grammatical phenomena. For both BLiMP and BLiMP Supplement, we measure performance by calculating the average accuracy across all of their evaluation tasks.

**(Super)GLUE** The General Language Understanding Evaluation (GLUE) benchmark (Wang, 2018), assesses model performance across a wide range of natural language understanding (NLU) tasks. SuperGLUE (Wang et al., 2019), was later introduced to offer a more challenging set of tasks. We employ a total of 10 text classification tasks from both benchmarks, which include: question answering (BoolQ, MultiRC), sentiment classification (SST-2), paraphrase detection (MRPC, QQP), linguistic acceptability (CoLA), common-sense reasoning (WSC), and natural language inference (MNLI, QNLI, RTE). Performance on (Super)GLUE is calculated by averaging accuracies across all tasks except for QQP and MRPC, where we use the F1-score, and CoLA, where we use the Matthews Correlation Coefficient – MCC.

**EWoK** Elements of World Knowledge (EWoK) (Ivanova et al., 2024) assesses an LM’s ability to understand and model world knowledge. It evaluates how well a model can connect a target text to either an appropriate or mismatched context, emphasizing key concepts such as social dynamics and spatial relationships. Both the contexts and targets are framed as minimally contrasting pairs, with customizable elements like objects, agents, and locations. During evaluation, the model needs to assign a higher probability to the correct context and target text pair. We report average accuracy across all the benchmark’s tasks.

**Self-BLEU** To measure the diversity of generated stories, we utilize the Self-BLEU score (Zhu et al., 2018). Given a generated collection, we calculate the BLEU score with one generation as the hypothesis and the others as reference, evaluating how similar it is to the rest. We define Self-BLEU as the average of all the BLEU scores in the corpus. The metric is defined on a continuous scale within  $[0, 1]$ , where higher scores indicate less diversity.

**LLM Evaluation** To provide a comprehensive evaluation of our decoder models’ generative abilities, we follow the approach of Eldan and Li (2023)

and employ a LLM, prompting it with the story completions, and asking it to assess them in terms of *Grammar*, *Creativity*, and *Consistency* with the story’s beginning, on a scale from 1 to 10. The original evaluation by Eldan and Li (2023) used GPT-4, we instead leverage Claude-3.5 Sonnet (Anthropic, 2024)<sup>2</sup>, which better aligned with our available resources. Evaluation details are presented in Section 4.1, while the prompt is included in Appendix E.

## 4 Experiments

**Experimental Setup** We conduct our experiments on a shared GPU cluster of 8 Nvidia V100 16 GB GPUs, and additionally evaluate our models on an Nvidia RTX-3090 24 GB GPU. All our models are trained using the PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019) and HuggingFace (Wolf et al., 2019) libraries. For our evaluations of BLiMP, EWoK, and (Super)GLUE we build upon the official evaluation pipeline released by the challenge organizers (Gao et al., 2023; Choshen et al., 2024).

### 4.1 TinyStories & GPT-Neo Evaluation

Regarding the decoder used for the generation, we select one of the best-performing GPT-Neo architectures from Eldan and Li (2023)<sup>3</sup>. All our trained GPT-Neo models share the same hyperparameters, except for weight decay, dropout, and vocabulary size, which are tuned to the specific data size. We built upon a similar training scheme as the authors, with added regularization for our low data regime. Hyperparameters and details about the architecture are included in Appendix C. We opt to train on the latest version of the *TinyStories* data (V2), generated by prompting GPT-4; the full unsampled dataset contains  $\sim 440$ M words. Throughout our evaluation, we also report results for the original model released by the authors, trained on the first version of the dataset (V1) with  $\sim 373$ M words.

In the following paragraphs, we conduct a thorough analysis of the relationship between the linguistic competency of GPT-Neo models trained on subsets of *TinyStories*, and the size of their training dataset  $|\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-}m}|$ . We experiment with various sizes for the *TinyStories* subsets  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-}m} : m \in \{5, 10, 25, 50, 75, 100\}$ M (millions of words). From our experiments we draw insights about the abilities of generative LMs on low data regimes. This evaluation will also motivate our selection of

<sup>2</sup>Model version: c1aude-3-5-sonnet-20240620.

<sup>3</sup><https://huggingface.co/roneneldan/TinyStories-33M>

the *TinyStories* subset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny}}$  used for generating the dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}}$  and for training the final encoder.

As an initial proxy of the language competency of the GPT-Neo decoders, we measure performance on BLiMP, its supplement (Supp.), and EWoK. Results are presented in Table 1. We notice that 50M words appear to be a cutoff point, with notable drops in performance for data sizes less than that. Based on this, we select  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}}$  for the Strict track, and  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}$  for the Strict-Small track. Importantly, we do not include the LLM evaluation (presented below) in this decision process, as it would invalidate our imposed data constraints. We leave further experimentation on the subset data sizes for the Strict-Small track for future work. A second observation concerns the 100M words model, which achieves the top score on BLiMP, shared by the 373M model by Eldan and Li (2023). This result agrees with the findings of Zhang et al. (2021), demonstrating that 100M words are enough to attain substantial grammatical knowledge.

Train Data	BLiMP $\uparrow$	Supp. $\uparrow$	EWoK $\uparrow$
5M	55.5	53.8	51.1
10M	58.4	51.6	51.9
25M	59.9	55.1	52.4
50M	62.8	52.8	53.0
75M	64.0	54.8	53.4
100M	<b>64.8</b>	50.8	53.1
440M (V2)	64.6	55.0	53.9
373M (V1) <sup>4</sup>	<b>64.8</b>	<b>60.9</b>	<b>54.0</b>

Table 1: Evaluation results for GPT-Neo models trained on *TinyStories* with various amounts of data. We report *accuracy* for all benchmarks. As the amount of data decreases, the BLiMP and EWoK scores generally decrease as well. In contrast, the BLiMP supplement score demonstrates more variance.

The aforementioned scores give us evidence about the grammatical understanding (BLiMP) and world knowledge (EWoK) of our models, but leave out two important areas of generative performance, mainly: ① the *diversity* and ② the *quality* of generations. We focus on these two metrics in the following paragraphs. Apart from the quantitative scores, in Appendix B we also include the generations of all the GPT-Neo models for the *TinyStories* example illustrated in Figure 1.

**Evaluating Generation Quality** Evaluating the quality of generations for open-ended generation

<sup>4</sup>Model released by Eldan and Li (2023).

tasks is challenging, as most common evaluation paradigms expect structured output, and measure fidelity towards a set of reference texts. To address this, we adopt the evaluation method proposed by Eldan and Li (2023), and prompt an LLM to evaluate the stories generated by our models. In our experiments, we use Claude-3.5 Sonnet.

We harness a set of 44 manually constructed prompts<sup>5</sup> containing the beginning of a story, and generate 10 completions for each of our models, sampling with a temperature of 1. We then provide the LLM with the beginning of the story and the model’s completion, and ask it in turn to evaluate the model’s response along three axes: (a) *Grammar*, (b) *Creativity*, and (c) *Consistency* with the beginning of the story. Additionally, we ask it to classify the story in different age groups, ranging from 3 (or under) to 16 years old. Scores are given on a scale of 1 to 10, and are averaged across stories and completions. The final results are presented in Table 2: we notice that limiting the training data, up to even 25M words, results in a minor decrease of performance across all three metrics. This indicates that the quality of the model generations is retained in the small data regime. Additionally, the 100M words decoder achieves impressive scores in all categories, and outperforms all other models in the *Consistency* metric – demonstrating that 100M words is enough for robust generative performance.

**Evaluating Generation Diversity** To measure diversity, we utilize Self-BLEU (Zhu et al., 2018), which has been used before as a measure of the diversity of generated data (Holtzman et al., 2020). For each model, we sample 100 stories from the training set and truncate them to 15%-30%, prompting the model to generate an alternate completion to the story’s beginning. When sampling from the model, a greedy decoding strategy is employed. We report Self-BLEU scores, scaled to  $[0, 100]$ , for the set of 100 completions in Table 2 (higher scores correspond to less diverse generations). Our results indicate that models with limited training data can achieve high diversity, while at the same time maintaining generation quality, as demonstrated by the scores of models trained on 25M and 50M words.

## 4.2 Data Generation

We now describe the creation of the combined dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}} = (\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-m}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-b}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}})$ , leveraged for training an encoder LM. For

<sup>5</sup><https://huggingface.co/datasets/roneldan/TinyStories>

Train Data	Gr. $\uparrow$	Cr. $\uparrow$	Cons. $\uparrow$	SB $\downarrow$
5M	4.56	4.99	3.37	38.6
10M	5.31	5.34	3.98	38.3
25M	6.00	5.65	4.55	34.6
50M	6.01	5.53	4.54	33.0
75M	6.08	5.50	4.49	37.1
100M	6.17	5.57	<b>4.78</b>	39.8
440M (V2)	5.88	5.53	4.49	37.3
373M (V1)	<b>6.24</b>	<b>5.73</b>	4.70	<b>29.6</b>

Table 2: Results on the evaluation of our models by Claude-3.5 Sonnet. We instruct the LLM to access generative performance along three categories: Grammar (Gr.), Creativity (Cr.), Consistency (Cons.). We also include Self-BLEU (SB), measuring generation diversity.

brevity, details are given below only for the Strict-Small track; the same process is followed for the Strict track. As discussed in Section 4.1, we choose a subset of 5M words from *Tinystories* ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}$ ), and use it to train a GPT-Neo model. This model is then employed to generate the dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}}$ . We adapt the beginning of each story (15%-30%) in the training set  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}$  as a prompt, and task the decoder to generate alternative completions. We experiment with different generation techniques, including greedy generation –  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-greedy}}$ , and nucleus sampling –  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-}k}$ , where  $k$  is the number of generations per prompt. Finally, the two datasets are combined with a subset of the *BabyLM* dataset ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}}$ ), ensuring a total size within the 10M word limit, to form  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}}^{10M} = (\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen}})$ .

In order to select  $k$  for nucleus sampling, we leverage the Self-BLEU score. We sample 100 stories from  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}$  and use their beginning (15%-30%) to generate 50 completions for each prompt with  $p = 0.95$ . For each value of  $k \in \{2, 3, \dots, 50\}$  we calculate Self-BLEU among the group of generations  $S_k$ . Our goal is to examine how diverse the different generations are for the same prompt, as the number of generations ( $k$ ) increases. Figure 2 depicts the *average* Self-BLEU across all prompts. Based on the presented results, we choose to experiment with  $k = 5$  and  $k = 10$ , as a satisfactory balance between diversity and added dataset size.

### 4.3 Training LTG-BERT

Following the creation of the combined corpus  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}}$ , we employ it to train an LTG-BERT (Samuel et al., 2023) encoder module. Our training procedure is based on the source code released by

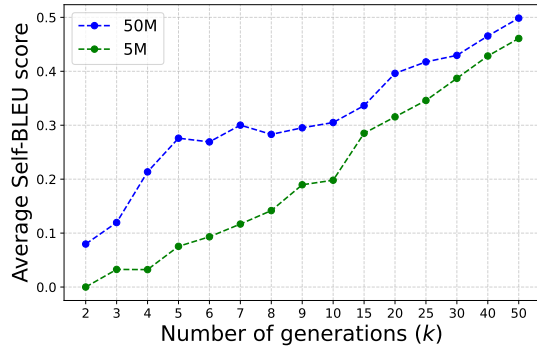


Figure 2: We generate 50 completions for 100 prompts with the GPT-Neo models trained on  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}}$ . We plot the average self-BLEU score across prompts, as the number of generations per prompt ( $k$ ) increases.

the authors<sup>6</sup>, prompting our selection of similar hyperparameters (Appendix C), adapted for our specific infrastructure and available compute. Moreover, our experiments are conducted with minimal hyperparameter optimization. In order to assess the effect of data augmentation on final performance, we train a variety of baselines, ablating over the pre-training dataset of our models and keeping all other training conditions constant. Specifically, for a given track, all the models share the same hyperparameters and amount of FLOPs, ensuring a fair comparison. Our baselines are described below.

**Baselines** For the Strict-Small track, we establish baselines by training LTG-BERT models using 10M words from the *BabyLM* –  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-10M}}$  and *Tinystories* –  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-10M}}$  datasets respectively. Additionally, we train an encoder using a combination of 5M words from each one of the two datasets –  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}$ . These models serve as benchmarks against which we assess the performance of models trained with various configurations of generated data, aiming to evaluate the effectiveness of data augmentation. The same methodology is applied consistently to the Strict track as well. Here, we train encoders with 100M words from each dataset separately, as well as in a combined setting, utilizing 50M words from each dataset. We also include results for the challenge baselines – LTG-BERT (Samuel et al., 2023) and BabyLlama (Timiryasov and Tastet, 2023). We emphasize that these models are trained with different hyperparameters than those in our controlled setting. Notably, the LTG-BERT model released by the organizers was trained for  $\sim 20$  epochs on the Strict track,

<sup>6</sup><https://github.com/ltgoslo/ltg-bert>

Model	Training Data	Total	BLiMP	Supp.	EWoK	GLUE	Avg.
LTG-BERT	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-10M}}$	10M	60.6	60.8	47.6	60.3	57.3
BabyLlama	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-10M}}$	10M	69.8	59.5	50.7	63.3	60.8
LTG-BERT (ours)	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-10M}}$	10M	62.8	<b>63.7</b>	51.2	71.0	<b>62.2</b>
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-10M}}$	10M	59.8	54.2	<b>52.2</b>	67.0	58.3
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-10M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-greedy}}$	20M	58.7	57.8	48.9	67.1	58.1
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}}$	10M	62.6	60.7	51.5	<b>71.2</b>	61.5
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-greedy}}$	15M	62.1	60.2	50.4	70.6	60.8
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-1}}$	15M	62.5	62.3	48.8	69.5	60.8
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-1}} \dagger \star$	15M	<b>63.2</b>	59.3	50.4	71.1	61.0
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-5}}$	33M	62.4	60.1	50.7	69.4	60.6
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-5M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-10}}$	56M	61.0	58.4	50.1	69.5	59.8	

Table 3: Model performance for the 10M word Strict-Small track.

compared to our setting of  $\sim 27$  epochs (20K steps for both tracks).

**Balanced Training** While increasing the number of generated texts in the LTG-BERT training set ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{comb}}$ ), we also modify the distribution of *TinyStories* and *BabyLM* samples that the model encounters during training. This could affect the model’s performance, as it becomes more finely tuned to *TinyStories*. To counter this effect, we experiment with a training variation where we balance the number of samples from both datasets. Specifically, samples in each batch are drawn with equal probability from both *TinyStories* – which includes both original and generated texts – and *BabyLM*. This method ensures that the model is exposed to an equal number of samples from each dataset throughout training. The dagger symbol  $\dagger$  in the results denotes use of this strategy.

## 5 Results

We present the final evaluation results for the Strict-Small and Strict tracks at Table 3 and Table 4, respectively. The  $\star$  symbol denotes the submitted model for this track.

**Strict-Small Track** In the Strict-Small track, comparing the results of  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-10M}}$  with  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-10M}}$  reveals, as expected, that the *BabyLM* dataset is more beneficial for language pre-training compared to *TinyStories*. The performance metrics for *TinyStories* are consistently lower, except in the case of EWoK. Interestingly, replacing half of the *BabyLM* dataset with data from *TinyStories* only slightly affects the model’s performance. However, as we add more instances of the synthetic story data, the positive impact of the *BabyLM* dataset begins to wane, leading performance to approach that of  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-10M}}$  where *BabyLM* was not used at all. This suggests

that training is over-influenced by the increased amount of *TinyStories* data. To mitigate this effect, we experimented with equally distributing the samples from the two datasets in a batch. This approach positively impacts the model’s performance. Notably for BLiMP, this setup slightly surpasses the performance of the model trained solely on  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-10M}}$ , resulting in the best score overall. Further, when compared to other data augmentation scenarios, the performance on GLUE is increased.

Moreover, an interesting observation concerns the sampling technique used for augmenting the data. Changing the sampling strategy from greedy decoding to nucleus sampling positively affects the model’s performance on the BLiMP and BLiMP Supp. benchmarks, while negatively impacting performance on EWoK and GLUE. This discrepancy is likely due to the nature of the datasets themselves. BLiMP focuses on evaluating grammatical understanding, while the increased diversity from nucleus sampling exposes the model to a wider range of linguistic structures and syntactic variations, thereby improving performance. Conversely, EWoK and GLUE require semantic coherence and factual consistency, where the increased diversity from nucleus sampling may introduce noise and less coherent narratives, potentially confusing the model, and degrading performance. Therefore, while more diverse stories benefit syntactic evaluation tasks such as those in BLiMP, they may not be as useful for semantic or knowledge-based tasks such as those included in EWoK and GLUE.

**Strict Track** Interestingly, for the Strict track we notice that data augmentation has a positive effect on the BLiMP and EWoK benchmarks. Specifically, adding the  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-greedy}}$  dataset, results in increased performance compared to the base-



Model	Training Data	Total	BLiMP	Supp.	Ewok	GLUE	Avg
LTG-BERT	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-100M}}$	100M	69.2	66.5	50.2	68.4	63.6
BabyLlama	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-100M}}$	100M	73.1	60.6	52.1	69.0	63.7
LTG-BERT (ours)	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-100M}}$	100M	64.0	<b>67.6</b>	47.3	<b>74.0</b>	<b>63.2</b>
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-100M}}$	100M	61.2	63.2	48.0	70.6	60.8
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-100M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-greedy}}$	200M	61.1	59.6	48.7	69.1	59.6
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}}$	100M	65.5	65.6	47.2	71.0	62.3
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-greedy}}$	150M	<b>66.6</b>	63.3	<b>49.7</b>	71.8	62.8
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-1}\star}$	150M	65.6	65.0	49.3	72.7	63.1
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-1}\dagger}$	150M	65.2	63.5	49.0	72.6	62.6
	$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-5}}$	350M	65.4	64.4	45.9	69.8	61.4
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-10}}$	600M	63.7	63.3	49.2	69.5	61.4	

Table 4: Model performance for the 100M word Strict track.

lines trained on  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-100M}}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-100M}}$ , as well as a mixture of the two ( $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}}$ ). Additionally, the  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-50M}} + \mathcal{D}_{\text{baby-50M}}$  combination is outperformed by both the  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-greedy}}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{gen-nucleus-1}}$  models, suggesting that synthetic data can offer modest gains in the Strict scenario.

As with the Strict-Small track, increasing the size of the *TinyStories* dataset negatively affects the performance of the models, approaching that of the model trained solely on  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tiny-100M}}$ . However, in this case, balancing the datasets does not improve the model’s performance. In the larger 100M word dataset, even with balancing, the sheer volume of *TinyStories* data may overwhelm the influence of the *BabyLM* data. The model is exposed to a much larger quantity of *TinyStories* content, which could dominate learning and reduce the effectiveness of balancing. Additionally, while the nucleus sampling strategy once again improves performance on the BLiMP Supp. dataset, it does not assist with BLiMP as it did in the Strict-Small track.

## 6 Conclusion

In this work, we explore data augmentation for language pre-training in a limited data setting. Using the *TinyStories* dataset we train GPT-Neo models and probe the relationship between generative ability and dataset size. To measure the effect of augmentation with synthetic data, we train LTG-BERT models on a diverse set of data configurations. Our experiments indicate that while synthesizing high quality data is possible in small data regimes, effectively utilizing it for pre-training can be challenging. Some modest gains are observed in the Strict track, while careful balancing shows promise for the Strict-Small track. Overall, our evaluation highlights the intricate balance required between data quantity, quality, and integration for

effective training. Future work suggests investigation of different data domains, mixtures, and proportions, while precise calibration of hyperparameters may prove critical in exploiting the full benefit of synthetic data in low data pre-training.

## 7 Limitations

A limitation of our study is the exclusive use of a single LM architecture for both the encoder and decoder components. Our experiments are also limited to specific datasets, employing only *TinyStories* for synthetic data generation and a combination of *TinyStories* and *BabyLM* for encoder training. While these choices are made to ensure experimental control and draw solid conclusions, they limit the generalizability of our results.

Another limitation concerns the creation of the combined dataset. We investigated only a single configuration of the two datasets – including them in equal proportion – and the documents within a dataset were sampled randomly. We posit that more fine control over the mixture of datasets could further enhance the benefits of our data augmentation technique. Additionally, with regard to generation, the prompting strategy and truncation ratio could be more finely calibrated, in order to improve the balance between data quality and redundancy.

By acknowledging these limitations, we aim to encourage further research in this area, focusing on the impact of data augmentation in size constrained and cognitively plausible language pre-training.

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## A *BabyLM* dataset

Table 5 contains a detailed overview of the *BabyLM* dataset. For our experiments, we preprocess the data using the methodology from Samuel (2023). The text is normalized and cleaned up in order to ensure a unified format. We cast direct speech in double quotes, remove arbitrary and semantically irrelevant tokens and conserve formatting, where necessary, with a special [PAR] symbol.

Dataset	Domain	# Words	
		Strict-Small	Strict
CHILDES (MacWhinney, 2014)	Child-directed speech	2.84M	28.90M
British National Corpus (BNC), dialogue portion <sup>1</sup>	Dialogue	0.93M	7.76M
Project Gutenberg (children’s stories) (Gerlach and Font-Clos, 2018)	Written English	2.54M	26.37M
OpenSubtitles (Lison and Tiedemann, 2016)	Movie subtitles	2.04M	19.96M
Simple Wikipedia <sup>2</sup>	Written Simple English	1.45M	14.67M
Switchboard Dialog Act Corpus (Stolcke et al., 2000)	Dialogue	0.15M	1.34M
<b>Total</b>		<b>9.95M</b>	<b>99.01M</b>

Table 5: Contents of the *BabyLM* datasets for the Strict and Strict-Small tracks, including the domain and word counts. <sup>1</sup><http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>, <sup>2</sup><https://dumps.wikimedia.org/simplewiki/20241001/>.

## B *TinyStories* - Detailed Evaluation

In order to demonstrate a tangible example of the augmentation process, and provide the opportunity to directly judge the quality of the generations, we include sample generations for all our GPT-Neo models: {5M, 10M, 25M, 50M, 75M, 100M, 440M (V2)}, as well as the model released by Eldan and Li (2023) – 373M (V1). We sample a story from the training set, truncate it to around 15% to 30% of its length, and ask the models to generate a completion with greedy decoding. The results are shown in Table 6. The 50M words model generation is also illustrated in Figure 1. We notice that even for the smaller models, the quality of the generation remains good in terms of grammar, coherence to the story’s beginning, and creativity. Additionally, there is little similarity to the original completion, even though the prompt is taken from the training set of the models.

## C Training Hyperparameters

We list all the hyperparameters used to train the GPT-Neo models on subsets of *TinyStories* in Table 7. Where appropriate, parameters that vary per group of models are listed separately. We also list the hyperparameters used to train the LTG-BERT transformer encoder models in Table 8. We follow the hyperparameter and training regime of Samuel et al. (2023), with some modifications, partly to adjust to the scale of our computational resources and infrastructure.

## D GLUE Evaluation Hyperparameters

We list the hyperparameters utilized for fine-tuning the LTG-BERT models on GLUE in Table 9, largely also based on Samuel et al. (2023). We find that it’s critical for the stability of training to initialize the added classification head according to the original implementation released by the authors. Specifically, we use a truncated normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  in the range  $[a, b]$  where  $\mu = 0$ ,  $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{2.0}{5.0 \cdot d_{model}}}$ ,  $a = -2\sigma$ ,  $b = 2\sigma$  and  $d_{model}$  is the hidden size. The bias of the layer is also initialized to zero. Lastly, one notable difference affecting the downstream performance of our models is that we train with *mixed precision*. We use the fp16 implementation provided by the HuggingFace Trainer module, which reduces the numerical precision of certain variables from fp32 to fp16, increasing computational efficiency.

## E LLM Evaluation

For the LLM evaluation, we employ Claude-3.5 Sonnet. Our prompt is a modified version of the one introduced in Eldan and Li (2023). We present our prompt in Table 10.

Model	Generated Text
Prompt	One day, a little boy named Tim went to the park. He saw a big tiger. The tiger
Original	was not mean, but very easy to play with. Tim and the tiger played all day. They had lots of fun. Then, something unexpected happened. The tiger started to shake. Tim was scared. He did not know what was going on. But then, the tiger turned into a nice dog. Tim was very surprised. Tim and the dog played together now. They were very happy. The dog was easy to play with too. At the end of the day, Tim went home with his new friend.
5M	was very big and had a long tail. Tim wanted to be friends with the tiger. Tim said, "Hi tiger, I am Tim. Do you want to play with me?" The tiger looked at Tim and said, "Yes, I want to play with you." Tim and the tiger played all day. They ran, jumped, and laughed. The tiger was very happy. But then, the tiger got tired. It wanted to rest. Tim said, "I am tired. Let's rest." The tiger yawned and said, "Okay, Tim. Let's rest." Tim and the tiger sat under a tree. They talked and laughed. The tiger was happy to have a new friend. They both had a fun day at the park.
10M	was very big and had a long tail. Tim was scared, but he wanted to be brave. He walked up to the tiger and said, "Hi, tiger! I am Tim. Do you want to play with me?" The tiger looked at Tim and said, "Yes, I want to play. But I am scared of the big tiger." Tim was not scared. He thought the tiger was nice. Tim and the tiger played together. They ran and jumped. They had a lot of fun. Then, something unexpected happened. The tiger started to change. It became a tiger! The tiger was not a tiger anymore. It was a tiger! Tim was very surprised. The tiger was not a tiger anymore. It was a big tiger! Tim and the tiger became best friends. They played together every day.
25M	was very big and had a long tail. Tim was scared, but he wanted to be brave. Tim said, "Hi, tiger! I am Tim. Do you want to play with me?" The tiger looked at Tim and said, "Yes, I want to play. But I am very hungry. Can you help me find some food?" Tim thought for a moment and said, "Yes, I can help you. Let's look for food together." They looked and looked, but they could not find any food. Then, something unexpected happened. The tiger started to talk! "I am not a tiger, I am a magic tiger. I can make your wishes come true," said the tiger. Tim was very surprised. He wished for a big ice cream cone. The magic tiger made his wish come true. Tim and the magic tiger became good friends and played in the park every day.
50M	was very nice. Tim wanted to play with the tiger. He said, "Hi, tiger! Let's play!" The tiger did not say anything. Tim was sad. He wanted to find a way to make the tiger happy. Tim had an idea. He found a ball and threw it. The tiger saw the ball and started to play with it. Tim was happy. He said, "Now, the tiger is happy too!" They played together all day. The tiger was not sad anymore. Tim and the tiger became best friends.
75M	was very big and had a long tail. Tim was not scared. He wanted to be friends with the tiger. Tim said, "Hi, tiger! My name is Tim. Do you want to play with me?" The tiger looked at Tim and said, "Yes, I want to play. My name is Sam." Tim and Sam played all day. They ran, jumped, and laughed. They had so much fun. Tim was happy to have a new friend. At the end of the day, Tim said, "Bye, Sam! I will come back to play with you again." Sam said, "Bye, Tim! I will wait for you here." Tim went home and told his mom about his new friend.
100M	was sad. Tim asked, "Why are you sad, Mr. Tiger?" The tiger said, "I lost my toy. Can you help me find it?" Tim wanted to help the tiger. They looked for the toy together. They looked under the trees and behind the bushes. Then, they saw a big box. The tiger said, "I think my toy is in the box." Tim opened the box. Inside, there was a big cake! The tiger was happy. But, the cake was not a real tiger. It was a toy tiger! Tim laughed and said, "Silly tiger, you are not a real tiger!" They played with the toy tiger and had a fun day at the park.
440M (V2)	was very hungry. Tim wanted to help the tiger. He thought, "I will feed the tiger some food." Tim went home and got some food. He came back to the park and gave the food to the tiger. The tiger ate the food and was very happy. Tim felt good because he helped the tiger. The tiger said, "Thank you, Tim. You are a good friend." Tim and the tiger played in the park all day. They had lots of fun. Tim learned that it is good to help others. The tiger learned that it is good to be kind and help others. And they both lived happily ever after.
373M (V1)	was sad. Tim wanted to help the tiger. He thought the tiger needed a friend. Tim went to the tiger and said, "Hi, I am Tim. I want to help you." The tiger looked at Tim and said, "Thank you, Tim. I am sad because I am alone. I need a friend." Tim thought for a moment and said, "I will be your friend, tiger. We can play together." The tiger was happy. Tim and the tiger played all day. They had lots of fun. The moral of the story is: Helping others can make you happy too.

Table 6: Story completions for models trained on different amounts of *TinyStories* data. The original prompt and the training set completion are also included.

Hyperparameter	GPT-Neo – 5 / 10 / 25 / 50, 75, 100, 440 (M)
Number of Parameters	41M
Number of Layers	4
Attention Heads	16
Hidden size	768
Layer norm $\epsilon$	1.0e-5
Sequence Length	512
Max position embeddings	512
Attention Dropout	0.50 / 0.40 / 0.25 / 0.20
Classifier Dropout	0.50 / 0.40 / 0.25 / 0.20
Embed. Dropout	0.50 / 0.40 / 0.25 / 0.20
Resid. Dropout	0.50 / 0.40 / 0.25 / 0.20
Summary first Dropout	0.40 / 0.30 / 0.15 / 0.10
Weight decay	0.20 / 0.20 / 0.20 / 0.10
Vocab Size	6411 / 6411 / 16384 / 16384
Context length	512
batch size	24
gradient accumulation steps	32
gradient clipping	2.0
Training steps	15 000
optimizer	AdamW
Adam $\beta_1$	0.9
Adam $\beta_2$	0.95
Adam $\epsilon$	1.0e-8
Initial learning rate	5.0e-4
Final learning rate	5.0e-5
Learning rate scheduler schedule	cosine
Warmup ratio	1.6%

Table 7: Hyperparameters used for training GPT-Neo models on *TinyStories*.

Hyperparameter	Strict	Strict-Small
Number of parameters	98M	24M
Number of layers	12	12
Attention heads	12	6
Hidden size	768	384
FF intermediate size	2048	1024
Position Bucket size	32	32
Layer norm $\epsilon$	1e-7	1e-7
Vocabulary size	16 384	6 144
Sequence length	128	128
Max position embeddings	512	512
Hidden dropout	0.1	0.1
Attention dropout	0.1	0.1
Training steps	20 000	20 000
Batch size	80	80
Gradient Accumulation Steps	32	32
Warmup ratio	1.6%	1.6%
Initial learning rate	6e-4	6e-4
Final learning rate	6e-5	6e-5
Learning rate scheduler	cosine	cosine
Weight decay	0.1	0.1
Optimizer	AdamW	AdamW
Adam $\epsilon$	1e-6	1e-6
Adam $\beta_1$	0.9	0.9
Adam $\beta_2$	0.98	0.98
Gradient clipping	2.0	2.0

Table 8: Hyperparameters used to train all LTG-BERT models for the different tracks. With *max position embedding* we refer to the architectural capacity of the model – the model was trained with *sequence length* = 128.

Hyperparameter	BoolQ, MNLI, MNLI-mm, MRPC MultiRC, QNLI, QQP, SST-2	CoLA, RTE, WSC
Batch size	32	16
Number of epochs	10	10
Dropout	0.1	0.1
Warmup proportion	0.1	0.1
Learning Rate	3.0e-5	3.0e-5
Decay type	linear	linear
Weight decay	0.01	0.01
Optimizer	AdamW	AdamW
Adam $\epsilon$	1.0e-6	1.0e-6
Adam $\beta_1$	0.9	0.9
Adam $\beta_2$	0.999	0.999
Max length	128	128
Gradient clip	2.0	2.0
Mixed precision	True	True

Table 9: Hyperparameters used for finetuning the LTG-BERT models on GLUE.

In the following exercise, the student is given a beginning of a story. The student needs to complete it into a full story. The exercise tests the student’s language abilities and creativity. The symbol \*\*\* marks the separator between the prescribed beginning and the student’s completion:

Once upon a time, there was tiger who liked to play the guitar. One day, a bunny heard the guitar from a distance and \*\*\* asked, "Hello tiger, can you play the guitar for me?" The tiger said, "Yes! I can!" So the bunny plucked up the guitar and started to play. But then, the tiger roared and kicked the guitar too hard. The guitar made a big mess. The panda was so sad that he hopped away and never came back. The end.

Please provide your general assessment about the part written by the student (the one after the \*\*\* symbol). Is it gramatically correct? Is it consistent with the beginning of the story? Pay special attention to whether the student manages to complete the sentence which is split in the middle by the separator \*\*\*.

*I'll provide an assessment of the student’s completion of the story:*

*Grammar: The student’s portion is generally grammatically correct, with a few minor issues:*

...

...

*In summary, while the student completes the split sentence correctly, the overall story lacks coherence and consistency with the given beginning.*

Now, grade the student’s completion in terms of 1. Grammar, 2. Creativity, 3. Consistency with the story’s beginning and whether the plot makes sense. Please provide grades from a scale of 1-10 for each of the requested categories, namely: 1. Grammar, 2. Creativity, 3. Consistency. Moreover, please provide your best guess of what the age of the student might be, as reflected from the completion. Choose from possible age groups: A: 3 or under. B: 4-5. C: 6-7. D: 8-9. E: 10-12. F: 13-16.

*Here are the grades for the student’s completion on a scale of 1-10:*

*1. Grammar: 7/10 ... 2. Creativity: 5/10 ... Consistency: 3/10 ...*

*Age group estimate: B: 4-5 years old ...*

Table 10: A sample interaction with Claude-3.5 Sonnet. The story is generated by the GPT-Neo model trained on 50M words of *TinyStories*. We include the prompt which also contains the model’s generation. The LLM’s responses is stylized in *italic*. For brevity, part of the LLM response was omitted and replaced with ‘...’.