

Seeing All Sides: Multi-Perspective In-Context Learning for Subjective NLP

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Abstract

Modern language models excel at factual reasoning but struggle with value diversity: the multiplicity of plausible human perspectives. Tasks such as hate speech or sexism detection expose this limitation, where human disagreement captures the diversity of perspectives that models need to account for, rather than dataset noise. In this paper, we explore whether multi-perspective in-context learning (ICL) can align large language models (LLMs) with this diversity without parameter updates. We evaluate four LLMs on five datasets across three languages (English, Arabic, Italian), considering three label-space representations (aggregated hard, disaggregated hard, and disaggregated soft) and five demonstration selection and ordering strategies. Our multi-perspective approach outperforms standard prompting on aggregated English labels, while disaggregated soft predictions better align with human judgments in Arabic and Italian datasets. These findings highlight the importance of perspective-aware LLMs for reducing bias and polarization, while also revealing the challenges of applying ICL to socially sensitive tasks. We further probe the model faithfulness using XAI, offering insights into how LLMs handle human disagreement.

1 Introduction

Traditional classification aggregates multiple annotator labels into a *single* ground truth, which works under full agreement but fails for subjective NLP tasks, where disagreement can arise from ambiguity, differing viewpoints, or multiple plausible interpretations (Plank et al., 2014). For example, hate speech and offensive language detection often involve contentious annotations, as interpretations vary with personal experiences and cultural backgrounds (Davani et al., 2021; Akhtar et al., 2021), making these tasks highly subjective and complex (Del Arco et al., 2021; Husain and

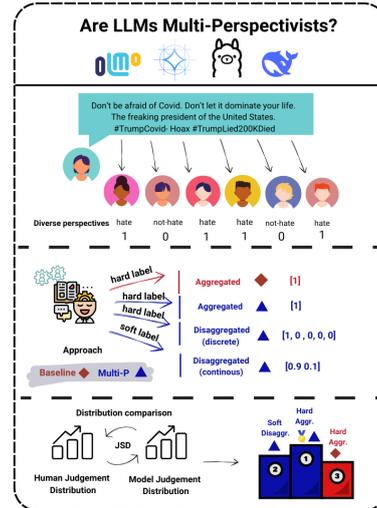


Figure 1: Overall, multi-perspective prompting outperforms the baseline, particularly for aggregated English and disaggregated Arabic & Italian soft labels, highlighting both task- and language-dependent behavior.

Uzuner, 2021). Recent research shows that leveraging disagreements in human-annotated datasets can improve model performance and confidence (Casola et al., 2023; Davani et al., 2022; Muscato et al., 2024). This perspective-driven paradigm, known as Perspectivism (Basile et al., 2021), advocates designing systems that are *perspective-aware*, *responsible*, and *socially intelligent* (Liu et al., 2023; Kovač et al., 2023). Despite these advances, LLMs—including GPT-series models—struggle to capture the diversity of user preferences (Pavlovic and Poesio, 2024; Feng et al., 2024) across sociodemographic groups (Wang et al., 2025) and remain prone to inherent biases in ambiguous, subjective contexts. In this paper, we examine the interplay between ICL and human disagreement in subjective NLP tasks, investigating **whether multi-perspective ICL can serve as an effective and practical alternative to fine-tuning for capturing diverse perspectives**, especially under limited annotated data and computational constraints.

We systematically investigate how different ICL

065 configurations influence model alignment with hu- 113
066 man disagreement across subjective NLP tasks. 114
067 Our evaluation setup supports **four open-source** 115
068 **LLMs** evaluated on **five datasets** spanning **five** 116
069 **subjective tasks**: the first three in **English** (hate 117
070 speech, offensive, and abusive language detec-
071 tion), the fourth in **Arabic** (sexism detection),
072 and the fifth in **Italian** (irony detection). We
073 assess **three label-space representations** (aggre-
074 gated hard, disaggregated hard, and soft) and **five**
075 **demonstration selection and ordering strategies**,
076 including textual similarity, annotator disagree-
077 ment, two-stage ranking, random, and Curricu-
078 lum Learning (CL) (Liu et al., 2024), to compare
079 our **multi-perspective ICL approach**—which ex-
080 plicitly instructs models to consider diverse view-
081 points—against a **standard prompting baseline**.

082 *The multi-perspective approach outperforms the*
083 *baseline on aggregated labels in English datasets*
084 *but struggles with subjective nuances; in Arabic*
085 *and Italian datasets, disaggregated soft predictions*
086 *better align with human judgments, demonstrating*
087 *effectiveness across multilingual and culturally di-*
088 *verse contexts. These findings highlight the need*
089 *for perspective-aware LLMs to mitigate polar-*
090 *ization and societal bias (Figure 1), while also il-*
091 *lustrating ongoing challenges in applying ICL to*
092 **subjective and socially sensitive tasks**.

093 The most related work to ours is Pavlovic
094 and Poesio (2024), which uses a single closed
095 LLM (GPT-3.5-turbo) via zero-shot ICL with role-
096 playing to compare human and model opinion dis-
097 tributions, producing only disaggregated soft labels
098 on our English and Arabic benchmark datasets. We
099 extend this line of research with the following key
100 contributions, forming a systematic and extensible
101 evaluation framework:

- 102 • **Prompting strategies:** Evaluating both zero-
103 shot and few-shot ICL settings.
- 104 • **Demonstration design:** Incorporating task-
105 appropriate demonstration selection and order-
106 ing strategies for subjective tasks.
- 107 • **Label representation:** Expanding the label
108 space to include aggregated hard as well as
109 disaggregated hard and soft labels.
- 110 • **Explainability:** Leveraging Integrated Gradi-
111 ents (IG) attribution method to probe model
112 faithfulness in subjective NLP tasks.

Through these contributions, this evaluation setup
provides a **unified, systematic, and extensible**
framework for assessing LLMs’ capabilities and
limitations in capturing human disagreement via
ICL across multiple languages.

2 Background & Related Work 118

2.1 Socially Intelligent and Responsible LLMs 119

120 Socially intelligent AI systems are those capable
121 of understanding and reasoning about intentions,
122 emotions, and mental states (Sap et al., 2022; Qiu
123 et al., 2022). By interacting and adapting to sub-
124 jective preferences and beliefs (Mittelstädt et al.,
125 2024; Kirk et al., 2025), they can align more effec-
126 tively with diverse user needs (Mathur et al., 2024).
127 Within Responsible AI, social intelligence supports
128 pluralistic alignment, helping LLMs reduce harm
129 and deliver societal benefit beyond mere perfor-
130 mance gains (Sorensen et al., 2024; Tahaei et al.,
131 2023; Kirk et al., 2024).

2.2 Learning from Human Disagreement 132

133 Human disagreement, traditionally viewed as noisy
134 crowd-sourcing error, is increasingly recognized
135 as plausible human label variation (HLV) (Plank,
136 2022), particularly in subjective tasks such as hate
137 speech or sexism detection, where a single ground
138 truth may not exist. Traditional approaches rely on
139 hard (discrete) aggregated labels via majority vot-
140 ing, whereas perspectivist methods (Frenda et al.,
141 2024) preserve disagreement using hard or soft
142 (continuous) disaggregated labels. Models fine-
143 tuned on disaggregated soft labels have been shown
144 to outperform those trained on aggregated hard
145 labels (Van Der Meer et al., 2024). Other strate-
146 gies include annotator-specific ensembles (Akhtar
147 et al., 2021), multi-task architectures (Davani et al.,
148 2022), and incorporating socio-demographic infor-
149 mation (Fleisig et al., 2023).

2.3 In-Context Learning (ICL) 150

151 ICL enables LLMs to learn new tasks by analogy
152 without parameter updates (Dong et al., 2024b;
153 Winston, 1980). Zero-shot ICL uses no examples,
154 while few-shot provides a small demonstration set.
155 ICL excels at complex reasoning (Wei et al., 2022)
156 and role-playing (Kong et al., 2024), but it is com-
157 putationally costly, less efficient than PEFT (Liu
158 et al., 2022a), and highly sensitive to prompt design,
159 including example selection and ordering (Gao
160 et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2024; Peng et al., 2024).

Although cost-effective, ICL remains underexplored in subjective tasks. While LLMs can approximate expert label distributions (Chen et al., 2024), it is unclear whether this extends to non-expert disagreements, with prompt sensitivity further limiting reliability. Performance depends on demonstration selection and ordering: random or human-curated examples (Brown et al., 2020; Kazemi et al., 2023) give mixed results, while kNN (Liu et al., 2022b), latent similarity (Wang et al., 2024), and perplexity (Gonen et al., 2023) favor relevant examples. Ordering strategies like chain-of-thought (Qin et al., 2024) and entropy-based (Lu et al., 2022) reduce prompt sensitivity.

3 Prompting LLMs for Multi-Perspective (MultiP)

We assess whether LLMs can capture diverse viewpoints by prompting them with explicit multi-perspective (MultiP) instructions¹. Formally, given a subjective task t with input text x and annotations $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$, the model M predicts \hat{y} via zero- or few-shot ICL with the following components (Wang et al., 2022a):

- **Task Definition:** Defines a subjective task t and explains how input text x is mapped to the appropriate label space for t .
- **Label Space:** A specification of the expected output label \hat{y} , whether as an aggregated or disaggregated hard or soft label l .
- **Demonstration Examples:** A reference input-output pairs $D = \{x'_j, y'_j\}$, for $j = \{1, \dots, m\}$ (with m examples), only for few-shot learning.

To evaluate LLMs' MultiP capabilities via ICL, we test variations in three prompt components: task definition t (Section 3.1), label space l (Section 3.2), and demonstration arrangement (Section 3.3). Our MultiP prompt template is shown in Box 3.1 \uparrow in green, and a few-shot prompt sample, where t contains the instructions for hate speech detection with an aggregated hard label (l) is illustrated in Box 3.1 \downarrow in purple.

¹https://anonymous.4open.science/r/ICL_with_Disagreement-F3AC

Our MultiP Prompt Template

TASK DEFINITION (t):

- Hate speech
- Offensive language
- Abusive language

LABEL SPACE (l):

- **Hard:** Aggregated or Disaggregated
- **Soft:** Disaggregated

DEMONSTRATION EXAMPLE(S) (D):

- (text, hard agg.): (e.g., yes)
- (text, hard disagg.): (e.g., [0, 0, 1, 1, 0])
- (text, soft): (e.g., [0.7, 0.3])

INPUT:

- Tweet (x): {text}
- Answer (\hat{y}): [output]

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Example MultiP Prompt for Hate Speech

[t] Does the following tweet contain hate speech, particularly xenophobia or islamophobia? **The task is subjective, so please answer considering different perspectives** from Muslim immigrants as well as others from different backgrounds.

[l] There are two options: *yes* and *no*.

[D] Examples: Any future terrorist attack in Europe will be blame on Brexit by the lmsm, yes

Now consider the following example and only output your option without punctuation.

[x] Tweet: What the referendum seem to have mean to alarm number a vote for anyone look foreign to leave immediately

[\hat{y}] Answer:

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3.1 Task Definition

Typically, LLMs are prompted to directly answer questions (e.g., Classify the following tweet as hate speech (Antypas et al., 2023)) without accounting for task subjectivity. In this study, we explore two approaches: the baseline (BS) and the MultiP method.

Baseline (BS) Priming The BS represents a scenario in which M is prompted to produce a single aggregated label, ignoring the subjectivity or ambiguity of t . Specifically, the example in Box 3.1 \downarrow (highlighted in purple) is adjusted: t excludes the bold statement, while l remains unchanged, yielding \hat{y} as an aggregated hard label.

Multi-Perspective (MultiP) Priming To mitigate M 's tendency to favor a dominant viewpoint and enhance its contextual understanding of t , the model is explicitly instructed to consider multiple perspectives from different viewpoints, as highlighted in the bold statement in Box 3.1 \downarrow (purple). Inspired by Pavlovic and Poesio (2024); Lan et al. (2024), we prompt M to adopt the role of an expert in task t , applying role-playing (RL) for both the BS and MultiP approaches.

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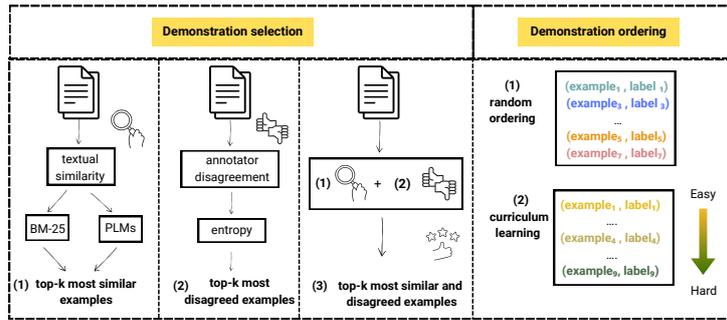


Figure 2: *MultiP* ICL with three demonstration selection strategies—BM25/PLM similarity, entropy-based annotator disagreement, and a two-stage similarity + re-ranking—alongside two ordering strategies: random and CL.

3.2 Label Space

To better model subjectivity, we define three types of label predictions in our *MultiP* framework: **aggregated hard** (discrete), **disaggregated hard** (discrete), and **disaggregated soft** (continuous) labels. When the model M is prompted to generate a prediction \hat{y} within a label space l , all demonstration examples are likewise represented within the same space l .

3.2.1 Hard Labels

Aggregated A single ground-truth label (e.g., hate speech or not) is obtained through vote aggregation, typically majority voting.

Disaggregated Individual labels from multiple annotators capture the diversity of human judgments. With n annotators, M is prompted to generate a label set A' , where each $a'_i \in A'$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, represents the predicted annotation from each annotator. To obtain disaggregated soft labels from aggregated or disaggregated hard labels², we extract the probability scores from M corresponding to the predicted labels (Lee et al., 2023).

3.2.2 Soft Labels

Disaggregated A probability distribution over the possible classes represents the likelihood of each category. For example, in a binary hate speech classification task (t), M is prompted to output probabilities as $[P_{hate}, P_{not_hate}]$, with values summing to one—a condition that LLMs consistently satisfy.

3.3 Demonstration Examples

Prior work improves demonstration organization (Dong et al., 2024a), mainly for objective tasks, but its effectiveness in subjective tasks remains underexplored. Moreover, annotator disagreement,

crucial in subjective tasks, is rarely considered in example selection. To address this, we investigate different methods for selecting (Section 3.3.1) and ordering (Section 3.3.2) demonstration examples in subjective tasks, as illustrated in Figure 2, inspired by Liu et al. (2024).

3.3.1 Demonstration Selection

We investigate few-shot ICL by comparing traditional example selection based on textual similarity (Peng et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024) with methods that also incorporate annotator disagreement into the selection process, exploring three strategies for k -shot selection (one per class).

Textual Similarity We compute the similarity between target test examples and the training set, retrieving the top- k most similar texts based on a fixed threshold³. Similarity is measured using: (1) BM25 (Robertson et al., 2009), and (2) following Peng et al. (2024), cosine similarity between sentence embeddings from pre-trained language models (PLMs), specifically all-MiniLM-L6-v2, all-MiniLM-L12-v2, all-distilroberta-v1, and all-mpnet-base-v2 from huggingface⁴.

Annotator Disagreement We hypothesize that examples with high annotator disagreement are more informative. Thus, we select the top- k samples with highest annotation entropy, where higher entropy denotes greater ambiguity and lower entropy reflects clearer consensus.

Two-Stage Ranking Preliminary experiments reveal that prior methods often yield examples that are either too similar or too diverse, limiting generalization. To mitigate this, we adopt a two-stage approach (Dang et al., 2013) that balances textual similarity and annotator disagreement: the top- k most similar training examples are first retrieved,

²This transformation is only required for evaluation; see Section 4.3 for details.

³Thresholds from 0.5 to 0.8 are tested, with 0.7 yielding the best performance in terms of cosine similarity.

⁴<https://huggingface.co/sentence-transformers>

then re-ranked by disagreement to select those that are both relevant and diverse for few-shot ICL.

3.3.2 Demonstration Ordering

We use random ordering as a baseline and explore curriculum learning (CL) (Liu et al., 2024), where examples are ranked by annotation entropy. We hypothesize that the model benefits from learning *simpler*, *high-agreement* examples before more *challenging*, *high-disagreement* ones.

4 Experimental Setup

4.1 Datasets

We use five benchmark datasets in English, Arabic, and Italian, each corresponding to a different subjective task t , from the SemEval 2023 (LeWiDi) *Learning with Disagreements*⁵ competition (Leonardelli et al., 2023; Casola et al., 2024). These datasets cover a range of subjective tasks with varying numbers of annotations n (Table 1).

Dataset	Train	Test	Dev	Tot. Class	Ann.	Full Agr. (%)	Subj. Task
HS-Brexit	784	168	168	2	6	69%	Hate speech
MD-Agr	6592	3057	1104	2	5	42%	Offensive lang.
ConvAbuse	2398	840	812	2	3-8	86%	Abusive lang.
ArMIS	657	145	141	2	3	65%	Misogyny and sexism
MultiPICO	600	200	200	2	3	64%	Irony

Table 1: Dataset statistics

Hate Speech on Brexit HS-Brexit (Akhtar et al., 2021) contains English tweets around the Brexit vote, filtered for keywords on immigrants and Brexit, annotated by six annotators to capture opinions on immigrants’ role in UK society.

Multi-Domain Agreement MD-Agreement (Leonardelli et al., 2021) covers three popular 2020 topics—Covid-19, the US Presidential elections, and the Black Lives Matter movement. Tweets were collected using topic-specific keywords and each instance was labeled by five annotators.

ConvAbuse ConvAbuse (Cercas Curry et al., 2021) comprises English conversations between users and three conversational AI systems (Alana v2, Eliza, and CarbonBot), each with distinct goals. Each example is labeled by three to eight annotators⁶.

ArMIS This dataset (Almanea and Poesio, 2022) contains Arabic tweets with binary labels, annotated by three annotators (conservative male, mod-

erate female, liberal female) to study political leaning effects on sexism judgments.

MultiPICO This dataset (Casola et al., 2024) contains short post-reply conversations from Twitter and Reddit annotated for irony; we focus on the Italian subset of the nine-language corpus.

4.2 LLMs

We prompt four open-source instruction-tuned LLMs—Olmo-7b-Instruct⁷, Llama-3-8b-Instruct⁸, Gemma-7b-it⁹, Deepseek-7b-chat¹⁰—following the methodology (Section 3). Decoding was performed via greedy search to ensure reproducibility.

4.3 Evaluation metrics

This *MultiP* paradigm uses soft metrics¹¹, such as Jensen-Shannon Divergence (JSD) and Cross-Entropy (CE) (Uma et al., 2021), rather than hard metrics like precision or F1, which consider only the most probable class and miss nuances in ambiguous instances (Wang et al., 2022b). We use JSD as the primary soft metric to measure distance between probability distributions, and CE to assess the model’s confidence in its top prediction¹².

Due to space constraints, we report only the best-performing models; full results are available in our [GitHub repository](#), with macro F1 as the primary hard metric. In Section 5.3, micro F1 is reported for comparison with state-of-the-art results, and macro F1 is reported only for the MultiPICO baseline (Casola et al., 2024). Higher values indicate better performance for hard metrics, while lower values are better for soft metrics.

5 Results

We evaluate *MultiP* ICL on five subjective tasks spanning three languages: English, Arabic, and Italian **comparing the BS with MultiP in zero-shot (0S) and few-shot (FS) settings**. In both 0S and FS settings¹³, we examine the effect of

⁷<https://huggingface.co/allenai/OLMo-7B-Instruct>

⁸<https://huggingface.co/meta-llama/Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct>

⁹<https://huggingface.co/google/gemma-7b-it>

¹⁰<https://huggingface.co/deepseek-ai/deepseek-llm-7b-chat>

¹¹Soft metrics assess models’ ability to predict both preferred and alternative interpretations (Rizzi et al., 2024).

¹²Aggregated and disaggregated hard labels are converted to soft labels only during evaluation (Section 3.2).

¹³Larger versions of all tables and figures are provided in Appendix A and B

⁵<https://le-wi-di.github.io>

⁶Labels are in binary format (Vitsakis et al., 2023).

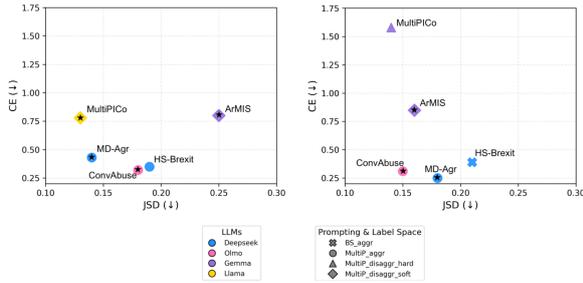


Figure 3: **Best 0S (left) and FS models (right) per dataset, including BS and MultiP with or without RL.** Each plot shows JSD vs. CE, with points colored by model, shaped by BS/MultiP & aggr/disaggr, and annotated by dataset. RL is marked by a black "*".

the label space l (Section 3.2); in *FS*, we additionally assess the impact of demonstration examples D (one-shot per class) via different selection and ordering strategies (Section 3.3).

5.1 Impact of the Label Space

Zero-shot (0S) *The MultiP approach outperforms BS on aggregated English labels, showing lower JSD and CE (left plot, Figure 3). For Arabic and Italian, disaggregated soft predictions better align with human judgments, demonstrating robust performance across multilingual and culturally diverse settings.*

For all three English datasets, *MultiP_aggr* (●) performs best, whereas for the Arabic and Italian datasets, *MultiP_disaggr_soft* (◆) achieves the highest performance. Regarding the LLMs, *DeepSeek-7b-chat* performs best for hate speech (HS-Brexit) and offensive language (MD-Agr.), achieving (0.19 JSD, 0.35 CE) and (0.14 JSD, 0.43 CE with RL), respectively. *Olmo-7b-Instruct* leads on abusive language (ConvAbuse) (0.18 JSD, 0.32 CE); *Gemma-7b-it* on Arabic sexism (ArMIS) (0.25 JSD, 0.80 CE); and *Llama3-8b-it* on Italian irony (MultiPICo) (0.13 JSD, 0.78 CE). Results indicate that, except for HS-Brexit, the best-performing 0S configurations include role-playing (RL), highlighting its effectiveness for modeling subjective disagreement.

Few-shot (FS) *The MultiP approach outperforms BS in most cases, except for the HS-Brexit dataset (right plot, Figure 3), achieving lower JSD and CE on aggregated English labels. For Italian, disaggregated hard predictions, and for Arabic, disaggregated soft predictions better align with human judgments.*

For two English datasets, *MultiP_aggr* (●)

performs best (MD-Agr: JSD 0.18, CE 0.25; ConvAbuse: JSD 0.15, CE 0.31), whereas for HS-Brexit, *BS_aggr* achieves the highest performance (JSD 0.21, CE 0.39). For the non-English datasets, *MultiP_disaggr_soft* (◆) and *MultiP_disaggr_hard* (▲) achieve the top performance for Arabic (ArMIS: JSD 0.16, CE 0.85) and Italian (MultiPICo: JSD 0.14, CE 1.58), respectively. Consistent with the 0S results, *DeepSeek-7b-chat* is the best-performing LLM for HS-Brexit and MD-Agr. For ConvAbuse, *Olmo-7b-Instruct* achieves the highest performance, while for both non-English datasets, *Gemma-7b-it* performs best. Unlike in 0S settings, *Gemma-7b-it* is also the top-performing model for the Italian MultiPICo. Similar to the 0S settings, for most tasks, the best-performing FS configuration includes role-playing (RL).

The findings are largely consistent across 0S and FS settings. *MultiP* outperforms BS across all subjective tasks except hate speech in FS. The best-performing LLM for each dataset is the same in both 0S and FS settings, except for the Italian MultiPICo. Furthermore, RL enables LLMs to better capture the nuances of human disagreement in these cross-lingual subjective contexts, regardless of whether demonstration examples are provided (FS) or not (0S). A two-tailed paired t-test on JSD scores for the best model and configuration of each dataset shows statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

5.2 Few-shot (FS): Impact of the Demonstration Examples

Demonstration Selection *BM25-based selection (●) achieves the best performance on two English datasets, entropy-based selection (▲) on the third, and two-stage ranking (◆) on the non-English datasets, achieving lower JSD and CE (left plot, Figure 4).*

Specifically, using BM25 (●), MD-Agr. achieves JSD = 0.16 and CE = 0.25, while ConvAbuse reaches JSD = 0.14 and CE = 0.24. In contrast, entropy-based selection (▲) performs best for HS-Brexit, with JSD = 0.18 and CE = 0.39. For the non-English datasets, two-stage ranking (◆) attains the highest performance: ArMIS achieves JSD = 0.13 and CE = 0.73, and MultiPICo achieves JSD = 0.13 and CE = 1.07. The results indicate that the effectiveness of demonstration selection varies between English and non-English datasets, as shown in the left plot of Figure 4 under random ordering.

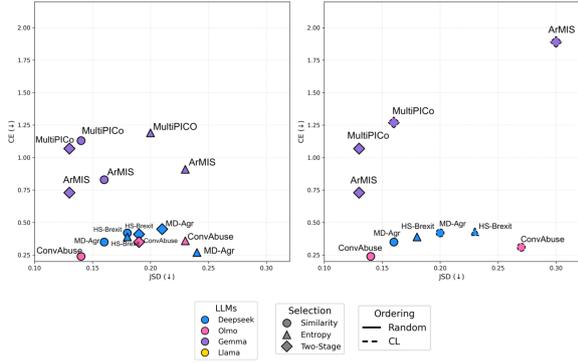


Figure 4: **Best FS models per dataset - left: demonstration selection (BM25, entropy, and two-stage ranking with random ordering), right: demonstration ordering (random & CL).** Each plot shows JSD vs. CE, with points colored by model, shaped by the selection method (left), line style indicating ordering method (right), and annotated by dataset.

Demonstration Ordering For all datasets, random ordering (—) outperforms the CL (---), achieving lower JSD and CE (right plot, Figure 4). The effect of demonstration ordering is consistent across tasks and languages, with random ordering (—) outperforming CL (---) for all datasets in the right plot (Figure 4), which compares each dataset’s best selection strategy.

5.3 Comparison with State-of-the-Art Models

Our best models achieve competitive or superior performance compared with LeWiDi, GPT-3.5, and MultiPICO baselines, attaining low CE and strong micro and macro F1 scores (Table 2), effectively capturing human disagreement across languages and tasks.

Our results are comparable to those from the LeWiDi competition (Leonardelli et al., 2023), which employs fine-tuned BERT-based models, and to Pavlovic and Poesio (2024), the study most closely aligned with ours, which applies GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S to model human label disagreement. Both the baseline and the best LeWiDi_BS_aggr models predict aggregated labels, with the latter employing an ensemble trained on multiple annotators’ labels. As shown in Table 2, for a fair comparison, the best aggr models (in 0S or FS) are evaluated against the fine-tuned LeWiDi_BS_aggr models, while the best disaggr_soft models in 0S are compared with GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S. We report CE alongside micro F1¹⁴.

¹⁴Micro F1 measures overall performance but may overlook

Dataset	Approach	micro F1(↑)	CE(L)
HS-Brexit	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	84.20	2.72
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	92.90	0.24
	Our_MultiP_aggr_0S (Best)	89.29	0.35
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	69.60	5.04
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_0S (Best)	70.24	0.52
MD-Agr	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	53.40	7.39
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	84.60	0.47
	Our_MultiP_aggr_FS (Best)	<u>75.23</u>	0.25
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	52.00	3.83
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_0S (Best)	74.81	0.32
ConvAbuse	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	74.10	3.48
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	94.20	0.19
	Our_BS_aggr_0S_RL (Best)	82.02	0.29
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	90.20	3.75
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_FS (Best)	<u>77.21</u>	0.39
ArMIS	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	41.70	8.90
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	83.20	0.46
	Our_MultiP_aggr_0S (Best)	44.82	9.87
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	<u>25.60</u>	6.67
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_0S_RL (Best)	58.62	0.80

Table 2: **Best-performing 0S and FS models across BS and MultiP configurations, evaluated in both aggr and disaggr label spaces, with/without RL, and compared against state-of-the-art.** The best aggr models (in 0S or FS) are compared against the fine-tuned baseline and the best LeWiDi_BS_aggr models, while the best disaggr_soft_0S models are compared with GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S. The best scores are shown in **bold**, and the second-best are underlined.

We compare the best models, selected by lowest CE, separately for each dataset. In comparison with LeWiDi_BS_aggr models, our best model achieves the lowest CE on MD-Agr. (0.25), ranks second for HS-Brexit and ConvAbuse (CE 0.35 and 0.29), and shows comparable performance to the LeWiDi baseline on ArMIS (9.87). Against GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S, our best models achieve the lowest CE across all four datasets, including ArMIS (Arabic), HS-Brexit (0.52), MD-Agr (0.32), ConvAbuse (0.39), and ArMIS (0.80). In terms of micro F1, compared with LeWiDi_BS_aggr, our best models consistently rank second across all four datasets: HS-Brexit (89.29), MD-Agr (75.23), ConvAbuse (82.02), and ArMIS (44.82). In contrast to GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S, our best model outperforms GPT on all datasets except ConvAbuse, achieving micro F1 scores of HS-Brexit (70.24), MD-Agr (74.81), and ArMIS (58.62). Notably, our best model strongly outperforms GPT on ArMIS and shows a slight improvement on HS-Brexit.

In addition to the four datasets, for MultiPICO, we compare our best model with the top model reported in the original paper using macro F1 (Casola et al., 2024). The top MultiP model is GPT-3.5_aggr_0S for aggregated labels (53.30), followed by PolyLM (Polyglot LLM)¹⁵ (42.60). Our best model, DeepSeek-7b-chat in 0S settings, achieves 45.77 (BS_aggr) and

class imbalance.

¹⁵<https://huggingface.co/DAMO-NLP-MT/polylm-chat-13b>

44.38 (*MultiP_aggr*), both ranking second overall. These results are excluded from Table 2, as MultiPICO (Casola et al., 2024) reports macro F1.

6 Feature Attribution for Explaining Model Predictions

Inspired by Zhou et al. (2024), we use the feature attribution method to provide insights into model decision-making process. Particularly, we probe model faithfulness at the instance level by prompting the model to generate explicit class labels in both the *aggr* (yes/no) and *disaggr* (probability score) formats. For attribution, we employ Integrated Gradients (IG) (Sundararajan et al., 2017), a post-hoc attribution method that quantifies the contribution of each input feature by integrating gradients from a baseline input¹⁶ (Kokhlikyan et al., 2020).

To ensure explanations are faithful to the model’s reasoning, we first require that the predicted label from the black-box LLM matches the label obtained via IG attribution for each instance; when this alignment holds, the highlighted tokens reflect the input features that contributed to the model’s decision. We further evaluate faithfulness by examining whether higher-attribution tokens have a proportionally greater impact on the black-box LLM’s output. Specifically, we mask the top-3 IG-identified tokens¹⁷ and measure the resulting prediction shifts: for *aggr*, we check for label flips, while for *disaggr*, we compute the JSD between pre- and post-masking probability distributions, applying a threshold¹⁸ to identify significant deviations.

HS-Brexit (English) vs. MultiPICO (Italian)

We explore model faithfulness¹⁹ in capturing human disagreement in subjective NLP tasks. For this preliminary analysis, we select the five instances with the lowest JSD scores per approach, prioritizing cases where the predicted distribution is closest to the gold distribution. The selected approaches are *BS* and *MultiP* (*aggr*) for HS-Brexit, and *BS* and *MultiP* (*disaggr*) for MultiPICO. Our experiments indicate that *aggr* performs better for English datasets, whereas *disaggr* is more effective for non-English ones (Section 5.1). The se-

¹⁶Experiments use the Captum library:<https://captum.ai>.

¹⁷Empirically selected based on attribution scores.

¹⁸Set to 0.2, determined from preliminary analysis.

¹⁹Fraction of cases in which the model changes its prediction after masking the top-attribution tokens.

lected instances are available in our [GitHub repository](#). In HS-Brexit, both approaches yield a similar class distribution among the selected examples²⁰, whereas in MultiPICO, the distribution differs²¹. As the black-box LLM, we use the best models for each dataset: **DeepSeek-7b-chat** for hate-speech (HS-Brexit) and **Llama3-8b-it** for Italian irony detection (MultiPICO) in 0S settings.

In HS-Brexit, *MultiP* exhibits higher faithfulness (0.80) than *BS* (0.40), while in MultiPICO, both approaches perform comparably (0.60). This divergence reflects differing subjectivity profiles of the datasets: HS-Brexit’s polarized, lexically explicit cues are readily isolated by attribution-based methods, amplifying masking effects, whereas MultiPICO relies on implicit, context-dependent cues, limiting token-level salience and producing negligible differences between *BS* and *MultiP*.

7 Conclusion & Future Work

We present an adaptable evaluation framework that yields novel insights into LLM alignment. Our results show that multi-perspective ICL improves alignment with diverse human judgments in socially sensitive tasks, including hate speech and sexism detection. Across five datasets, three languages, and three label-space representations, our approach enhances performance on aggregated English labels and more accurately captures human disagreement in Arabic and Italian through disaggregated soft predictions. Instance-level XAI analysis reveals how LLMs rely on specific tokens when handling human disagreement, highlighting the importance of perspective-aware prompting for building faithful and culturally sensitive models.

This work has several potential implications. While our framework provides insights, it cannot verify whether annotators’ perspectives reflect the populations in benchmark datasets, highlighting the need for annotation frameworks that capture population diversity. Although prior work shows that incorporating annotator demographics can improve robustness, we argue that value profiling via perspectives is more important and also offers privacy-preserving benefits. Future studies could examine how attention patterns or latent representations correlate with specific human perspectives, enabling more principled alignment interventions.

²⁰*BS* and *MultiP* (*hateful:2*, *not hateful:3*)

²¹*BS* (*hateful:1*, *not hateful:4*), *MultiP* (*hateful:2*, *not hateful:3*)

617 **Limitations**

618 This study has several limitations. Our analysis is
619 constrained by limited resources, as perspectivism
620 remains an emerging paradigm. Consequently, we
621 rely on the LeWiDi competition datasets and the
622 Italian MultiPICO, which currently serve as the
623 main benchmarks in perspectivist NLP. Our focus
624 on subjective tasks—hate speech, offensive lan-
625 guage, abusive language, sexism, and irony detec-
626 tion—reflects dataset availability; however, their
627 binary classification setup limits generalization to
628 more complex, multi-class scenarios. This study
629 relies on benchmark datasets and does not assess
630 whether annotators’ perspectives capture the diver-
631 sity of modeled populations. Future annotation
632 frameworks for subjective NLP tasks should better
633 reflect population diversity.

634 Previous research (Ding et al., 2022) argues that
635 annotators’ demographics should be considered
636 and recorded during annotation to support more ro-
637 bust model training. In contrast, we argue that
638 capturing annotators’ perspectives (Deng et al.,
639 2023) through value profiling (Peter and Devlin,
640 2025)—rather than their identities—is crucial for
641 building more inclusive, perspective-aware, and
642 better-performing models. Beyond this, we leave
643 the exploration of permutation invariance in prompt
644 construction with disaggregated hard labels for fu-
645 ture work, since it was not feasible within our cur-
646 rent computational and time constraints.

647 Additionally, the current study provides only
648 instance-level insights into modeling human dis-
649 agreement via model faithfulness. A systematic in-
650 vestigation using diverse XAI approaches is needed
651 to better understand model reasoning and its cor-
652 relation with specific human perspectives. Future
653 work will extend the presented adaptable frame-
654 work to a broader range of model architectures and
655 access modalities, including both open-source and
656 proprietary LLMs such as Claude 3.5²² and Gemini
657 Pro²³.

658 **Ethics Statement**

659 This research examines how LLMs capture diverse
660 human perspectives in subjective tasks, such as
661 hate speech and sexism detection. We treat human
662 disagreement as a meaningful reflection of value
663 pluralism, designing experiments to respect this

664 diversity rather than suppress it. All datasets used
665 are publicly available or anonymized, complying
666 with privacy standards and data protection regula-
667 tions. Experiments follow ACL’s ethical guidelines,
668 with care taken to avoid harm, bias, or unfair rep-
669 resentation. The multi-perspective ICL evaluation
670 framework supports pluralistic modeling and re-
671 duces polarization, while instance-level insights
672 increase transparency and interpretability. No per-
673 sonal data was collected or released. We encour-
674 age community discussion on ethical annotation,
675 demographic diversity, and perspective-aware, re-
676 sponsible NLP model deployment. All research
677 protocols align with ACL standards for privacy,
678 fairness, transparency, and responsible use. We re-
679 main committed to ongoing assessment of ethical
680 risks and limitations associated with this work.

681 **Impact Statement**

682 Our research addresses the risk of societal bi-
683 ases being embedded in NLP systems. By fo-
684 cusing on LLMs and employing multi-perspective
685 prompting, we aim to promote inclusivity and di-
686 versity in model behavior. This study highlights the
687 challenges of applying LLMs to subjective tasks,
688 demonstrating the need for perspective-aware ap-
689 proaches. We encourage the NLP community to
690 develop models that are more inclusive, socially
691 responsible, and capable of understanding diverse
692 human viewpoints, ultimately fostering more effec-
693 tive and equitable human-machine interaction.

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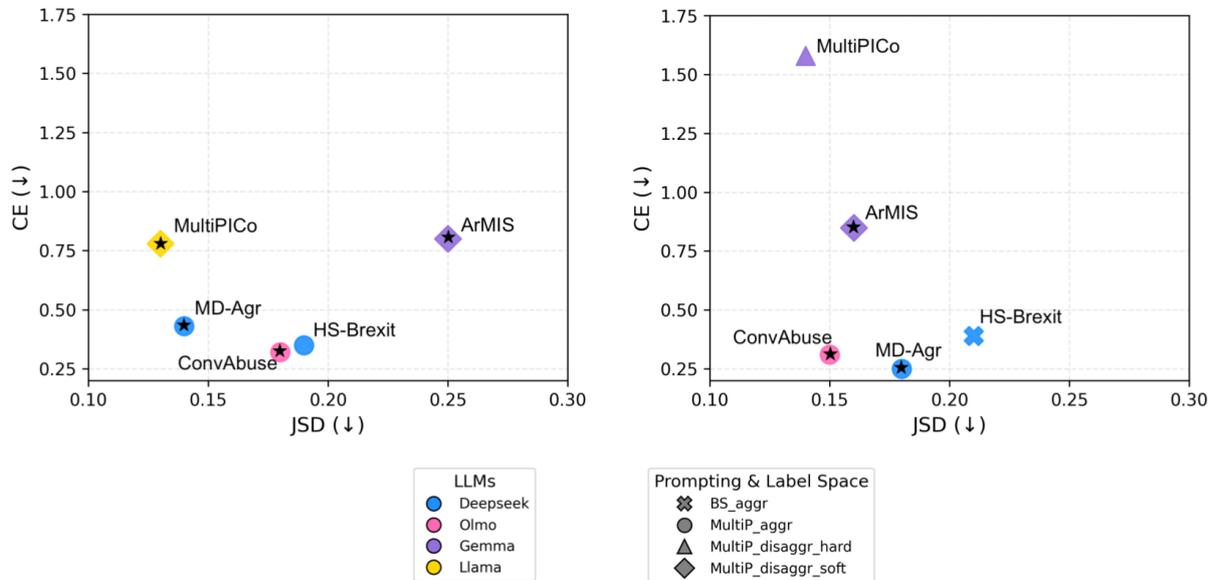
1086 Appendix

1087 A Zero-shot (0S) and Few-shot (FS) Results

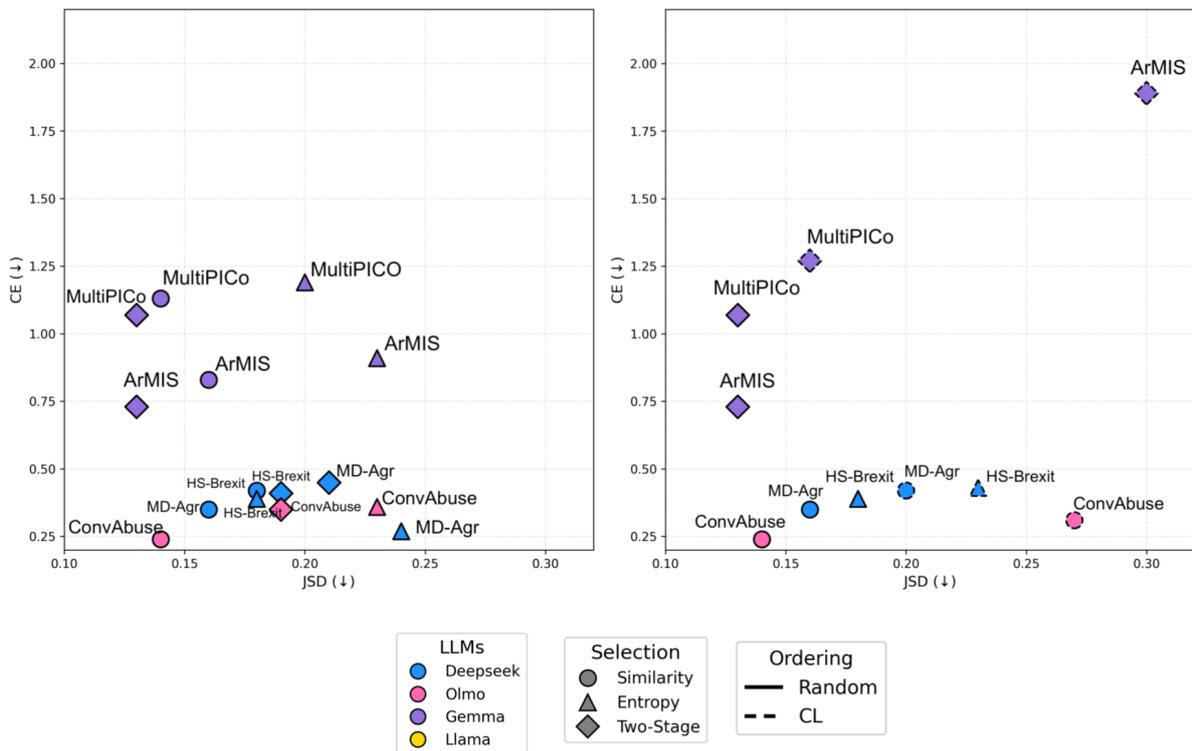
1088 This section provides an extended view of Figures
1089 3 and 4. Figure 5a shows the impact of label space
1090 in zero-shot (0S) prompting, while Figure 5b il-
1091 lustrates the effect of demonstration selection and
1092 ordering across tasks and languages.

1093 B State-of-the-art Results

1094 This section presents Table 3, comparing our best
1095 zero-shot (0S) and few-shot (FS) models against
1096 state-of-the-art approaches from the LeWiDi com-
1097 petition, as summarized in Section 5.3.



(a) Best OS (left) and FS models (right) per dataset, including BS and MultiP with or without RL, marked by a black "★".



(b) Best FS models per dataset- left: demonstration selection (BM25, entropy, and two-stage ranking with random ordering), right: demonstration ordering (random & CL).

Figure 5: Best models per dataset. (a) Zero-shot & Few-shot- Impact of Label Space (b) Few-shot (FS)- Impact of Demonstration Examples.

Dataset	Approach	micro F1(↑)	CE(↓)
HS-Brexit	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	84.20	2.72
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	92.90	0.24
	Our_MultiP_aggr_0S (Best)	<u>89.29</u>	<u>0.35</u>
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	69.60	5.04
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_0S (Best)	70.24	0.52
MD-Agr	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	53.40	7.39
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	84.60	<u>0.47</u>
	Our_MultiP_aggr_FS (Best)	<u>75.23</u>	0.25
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	<u>52.00</u>	<u>3.83</u>
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_0S (Best)	74.81	0.32
ConvAbuse	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	74.10	3.48
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	94.20	0.19
	Our_BS_aggr_0S_RL (Best)	<u>82.02</u>	<u>0.29</u>
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	90.20	<u>3.75</u>
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_FS (Best)	<u>77.21</u>	0.39
ArMIS	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Baseline)	41.70	8.90
	LeWiDi_BS_aggr (Best)	83.20	0.46
	Our_MultiP_aggr_0S (Best)	<u>44.82</u>	<u>9.87</u>
	GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S	<u>25.60</u>	<u>6.67</u>
	Our_MultiP_disaggr_soft_0S_RL (Best)	58.62	0.80

Table 3: **Best-performing 0S and FS models across BS and MultiP configurations, evaluated in both *aggr* and *disaggr* label spaces, with/without RL, and compared against state-of-the-art.** The best *aggr* models (in 0S or FS) are compared against the fine-tuned baseline and the best LeWiDi_BS_aggr models, while our best *disaggr_soft_0S* models are compared with GPT-3.5_disaggr_soft_0S. The best scores are shown in **bold**, and the second-best are underlined.