

Large Language Models

Scaling Laws

ELL881 · AIL821

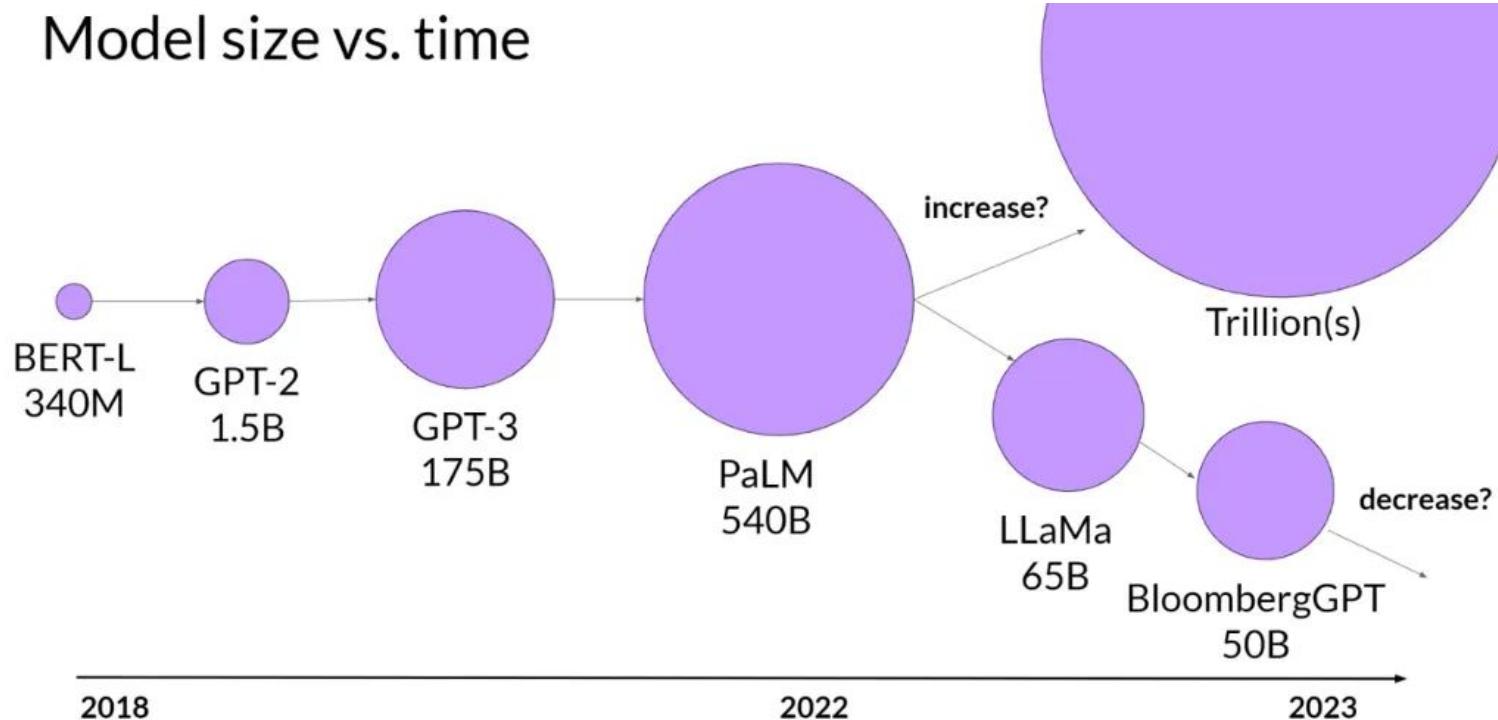


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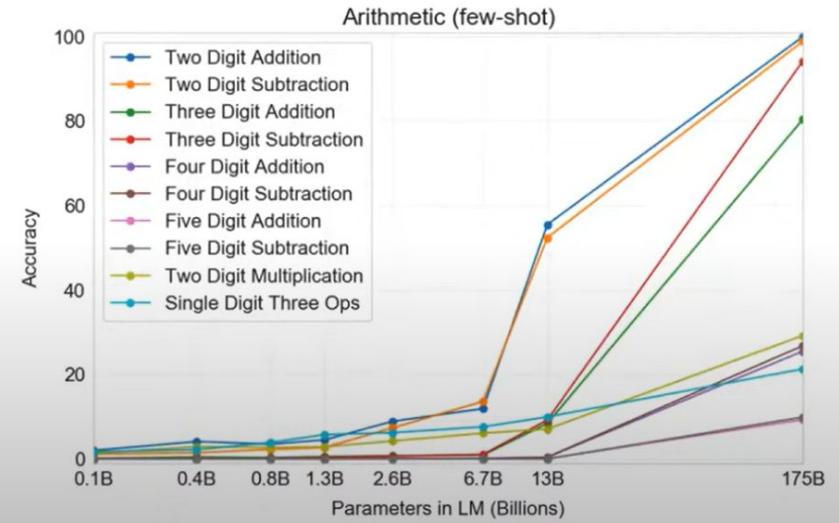
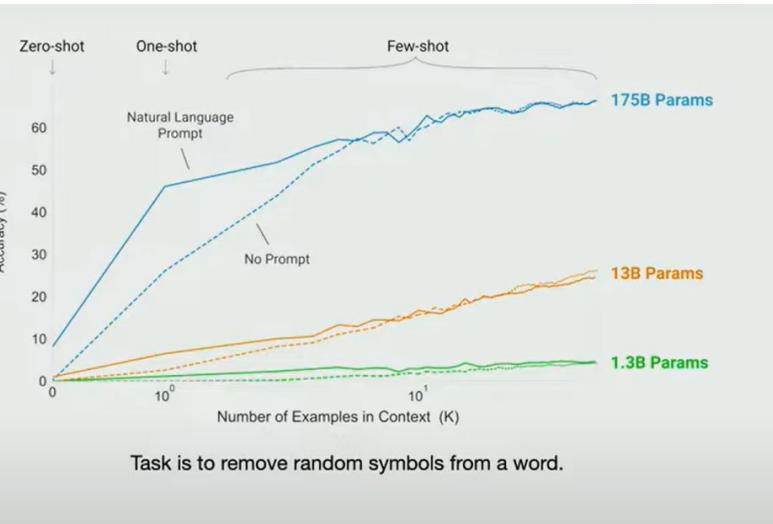
Model size vs. time



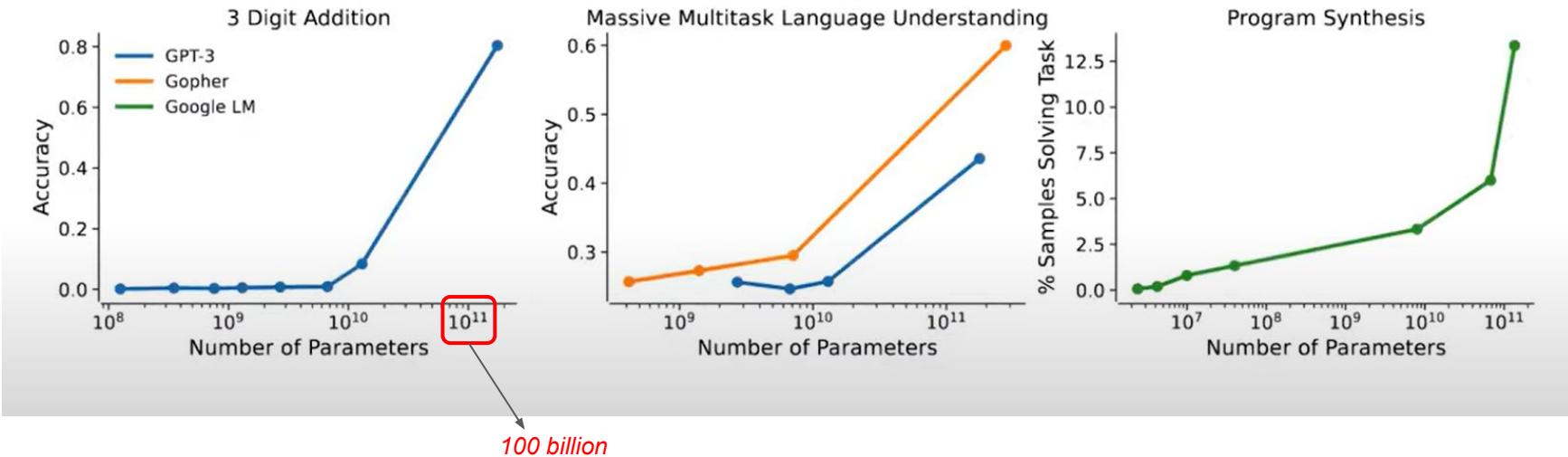
“Emergent” abilities in LLM



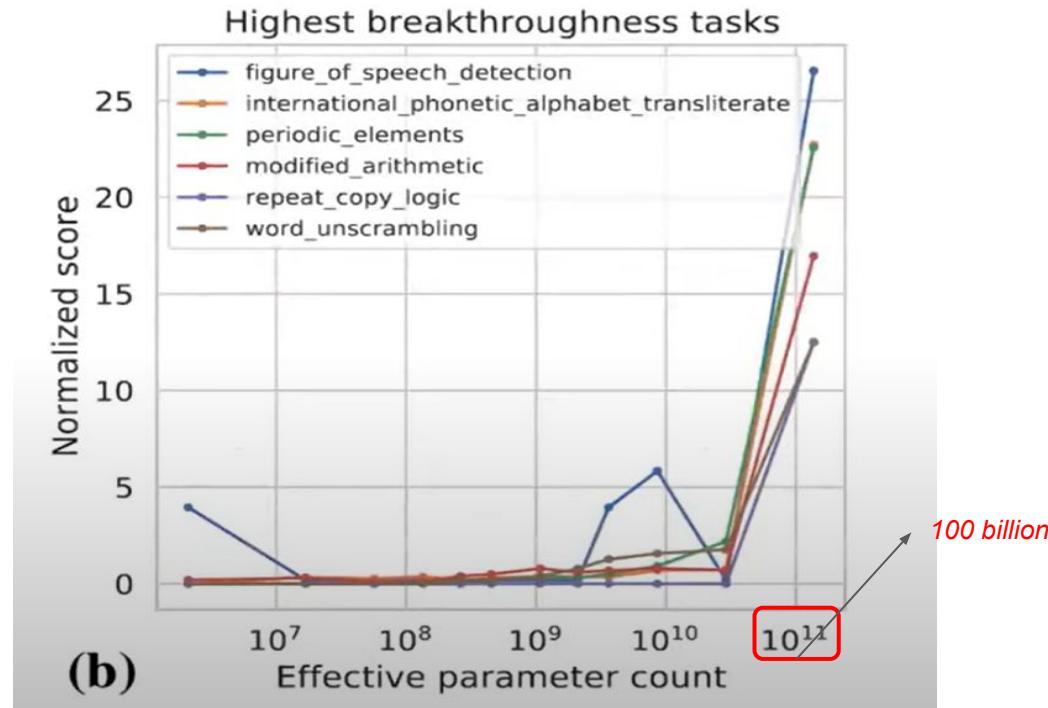
LLMs are few-shot learners (and larger is better!)



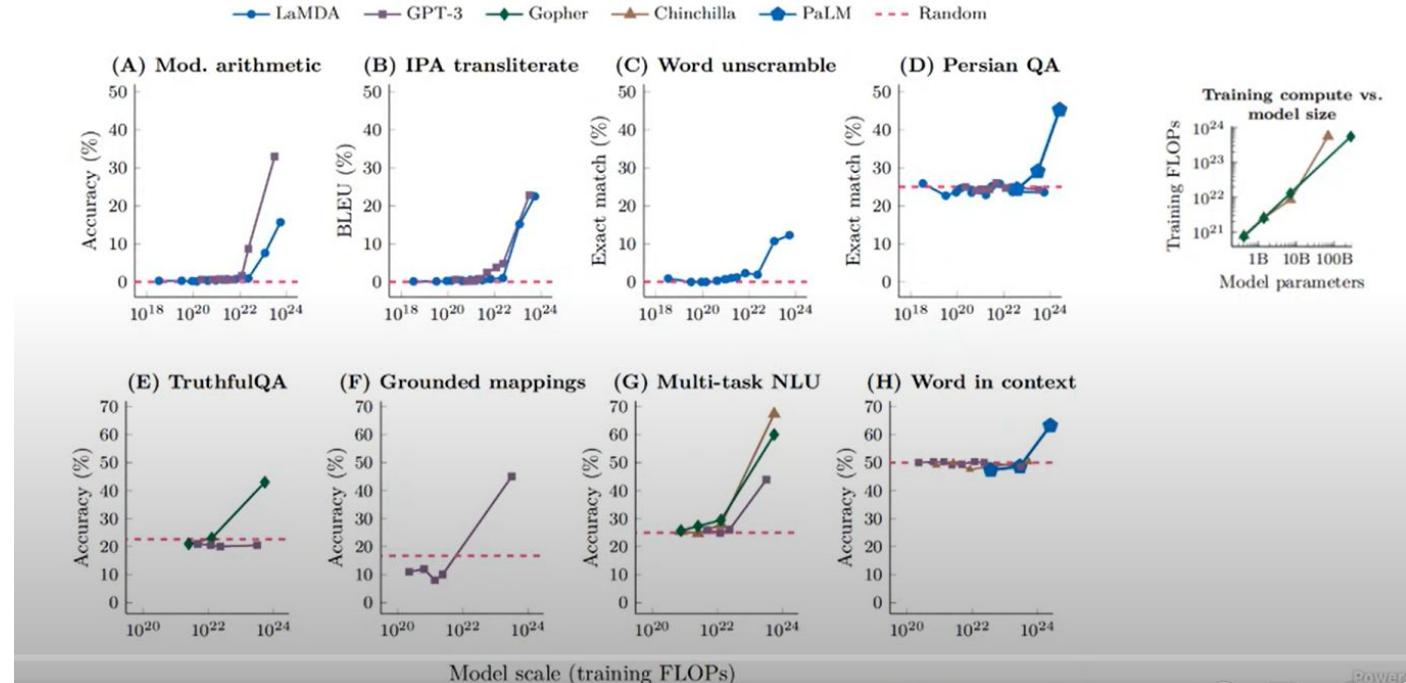
LLMs are few-shot learners (and larger is better!)



LLMs are few-shot learners (and larger is better!)



LLMs are few-shot learners (*more training is better too!*)



Google BIG-BENCH benchmark

Consider a single Model Family e.g. PaLM

Let x_n be the scale of one family member e.g. PaLM-540B

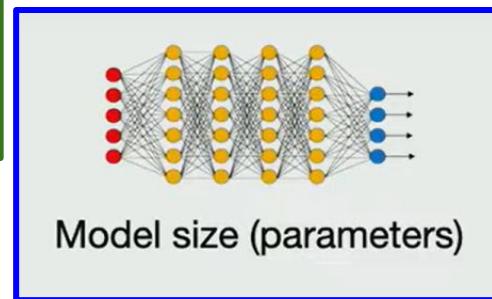
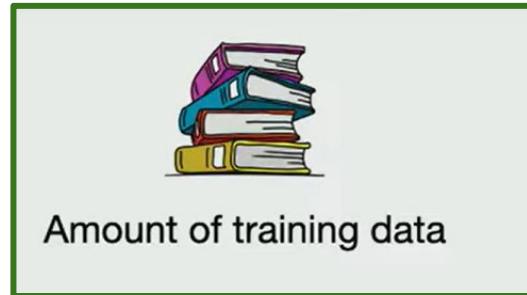
Let y_n be the family member's score on some Task and Metric

Sort the pairs (x_n, y_n) by model scale x_n , smallest to largest

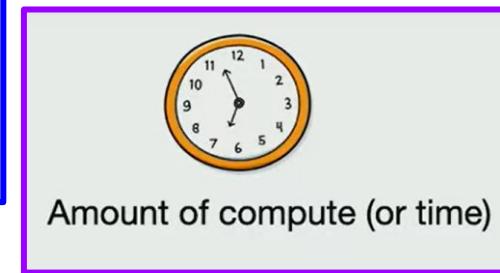
$$\text{Emergence Score} \left(\left\{ (x_n, y_n) \right\}_{n=1}^N \right) \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{\text{sign}(\arg \max_i y_i - \arg \min_i y_i)(\max_i y_i - \min_i y_i)}{\sqrt{\text{Median}(\{(y_i - y_{i-1})^2\}_i)}}$$



LLMs “seems” to get more intelligent with the following:



NT: scale w/o bottleneck



$$\alpha \times \text{Model size} \times \text{Training data} = \text{Training compute}$$

~ 6 FLOPs (Floating-point Operations)



Recap on Parameter size & FLOPs

Operation	Parameters	FLOPs per Token
Embed	$(n_{\text{vocab}} + n_{\text{ctx}}) d_{\text{model}}$	$4d_{\text{model}}$
Attention: QKV	$n_{\text{layer}} d_{\text{model}} 3d_{\text{attn}}$	$2n_{\text{layer}} d_{\text{model}} 3d_{\text{attn}}$
Attention: Mask	—	$2n_{\text{layer}} n_{\text{ctx}} d_{\text{attn}}$
Attention: Project	$n_{\text{layer}} d_{\text{attn}} d_{\text{model}}$	$2n_{\text{layer}} d_{\text{attn}} d_{\text{embd}}$
Feedforward	$n_{\text{layer}} 2d_{\text{model}} d_{\text{ff}}$	$2n_{\text{layer}} 2d_{\text{model}} d_{\text{ff}}$
De-embed	—	$2d_{\text{model}} n_{\text{vocab}}$
Total (Non-Embedding)	$N = 2d_{\text{model}} n_{\text{layer}} (2d_{\text{attn}} + d_{\text{ff}})$	$C_{\text{forward}} = 2N + 2n_{\text{layer}} n_{\text{ctx}} d_{\text{attn}}$

one PF-day = $10^{15} \times 24 \times 3600 = 8.64 \times 10^{19}$ floating point operations.



Emergent abilities are *unpredictable*



the
future
will be
confusing

If that's true, we never get to know the following:

- Which abilities (and when) exactly will emerge?
- What controls the trigger?
- Can we make desirable abilities to emerge *faster*?
- Can we make undesirable abilities to be suppressed?



Is the value of scaling laws only in predicting?

- How much return for a given compute (resource) budget?
- How to allocate the compute budget - model size vs. dataset size?



Can there be a curve that fits “emergence”? *Intuition*

Input: $x_1 \dots x_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Task: estimate the average as $\hat{\mu} = \frac{\sum_i x_i}{n}$

What's the error? By standard arguments..

$$E[(\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

This is a scaling law!!

$$\log(\text{Error}) = -\log n + 2 \log \sigma$$

More generally, any polynomial rate $1/n^\alpha$ is a scaling law

Source: [CS-324, Stanford University](#)



What about fitting “emergence” in non-parametric setting

Neural nets can approximate arbitrary functions. Lets turn that into an example.

Input: $x_1 \dots x_n$ uniform in 2D unit box. $y_i = f(x_i) + N(0,1)$

Task: estimate $f(x)$

Approach: cut up the 2D space into boxes with length $n^{-\frac{1}{4}}$, average in each box

What's our estimation error?

Informally, we have \sqrt{n} boxes, each box gets \sqrt{n} samples.

$$\text{Error} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} + (\text{other smoothness terms})$$

In d -dimensions, this becomes $\text{Error} = n^{-1/d}$ - **This means scaling is $y = -\frac{1}{d}x + C$**

Takeaway: flexible ‘nonparametric’ learning has dimension dependent scaling laws.

Source: [CS-324, Stanford University](#)



Notations

$C \approx 6N$ floating point operators per training token.

$C = 6NBS$ estimates the (non-embedding) compute used at batch size B

S is the number of training steps (ie parameter updates)

S_{\min} – an estimate of the minimal number of training steps needed to reach a given value of the loss. This is also the number of training steps that would be used if the model were trained at a batch size much greater than the critical batch size.

one PF-day = $10^{15} \times 24 \times 3600 = 8.64 \times 10^{19}$ floating point operations.

B_{crit} – the critical batch size [MKAT18], defined and discussed in Section 5.1. Training at the critical batch size provides a roughly optimal compromise between time and compute efficiency.

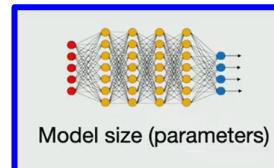
C_{\min} – an estimate of the minimum amount of non-embedding compute to reach a given value of the loss. This is the training compute that would be used if the model were trained at a batch size much less than the critical batch size.



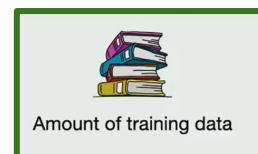
What if the loss-drop (i.e., emergence) follows power-law?

$$y = ax^k \longrightarrow \text{Power Law: } \underline{\text{can be -ve}} \longrightarrow L(X) \propto 1/X^{\alpha_X}$$

$$L(N) \approx \left(\frac{N_c}{N}\right)^{\alpha_N} \quad \alpha_N \sim 0.076, \quad N_c \sim 8.8 \times 10^{13} \text{ (non-embedding parameters)}$$

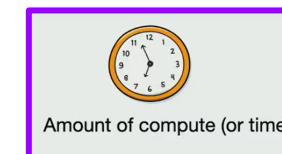


$$L(D) \approx \left(\frac{D_c}{D}\right)^{\alpha_D} \quad \alpha_D \sim 0.095, \quad D_c \sim 5.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ (tokens)}$$



Kaplan Laws

$$L(C) \approx \left(\frac{C_c}{C}\right)^{\alpha_C} \quad \alpha_C = 0.057 \quad C_c = 1.6 \times 10^7 \text{ PF-days}$$



$$L(C_{\min}) = \left(C_c^{\min}/C_{\min}\right)^{\alpha_C^{\min}} \quad \alpha_C^{\min} \sim 0.050, \quad C_c^{\min} \sim 3.1 \times 10^8 \text{ (PF-days)}$$



A more reliable version:

$$L(C_{\min}) = \left(\frac{C_c^{\min}}{C_{\min}}\right)^{\alpha_C^{\min}}$$

$$\alpha_C^{\min} \sim 0.050, \quad C_c^{\min} \sim 3.1 \times 10^8 \text{ (PF-days)}$$

$$C_{\min}(C) \equiv \frac{C}{1 + B/B_{\text{crit}}(L)} \quad (\text{minimum compute, at } B \ll B_{\text{crit}})$$

$$B_{\text{crit}}(L) \approx \frac{B_*}{L^{1/\alpha_B}}$$

$$B_* \sim 2 \cdot 10^8 \text{ tokens}, \quad \alpha_B \sim 0.21$$

$$L(C) \approx \left(\frac{C_c}{C}\right)^{\alpha_C}$$

Parameters	Data	Compute	Batch Size
Optimal	∞	C	Fixed

VS.

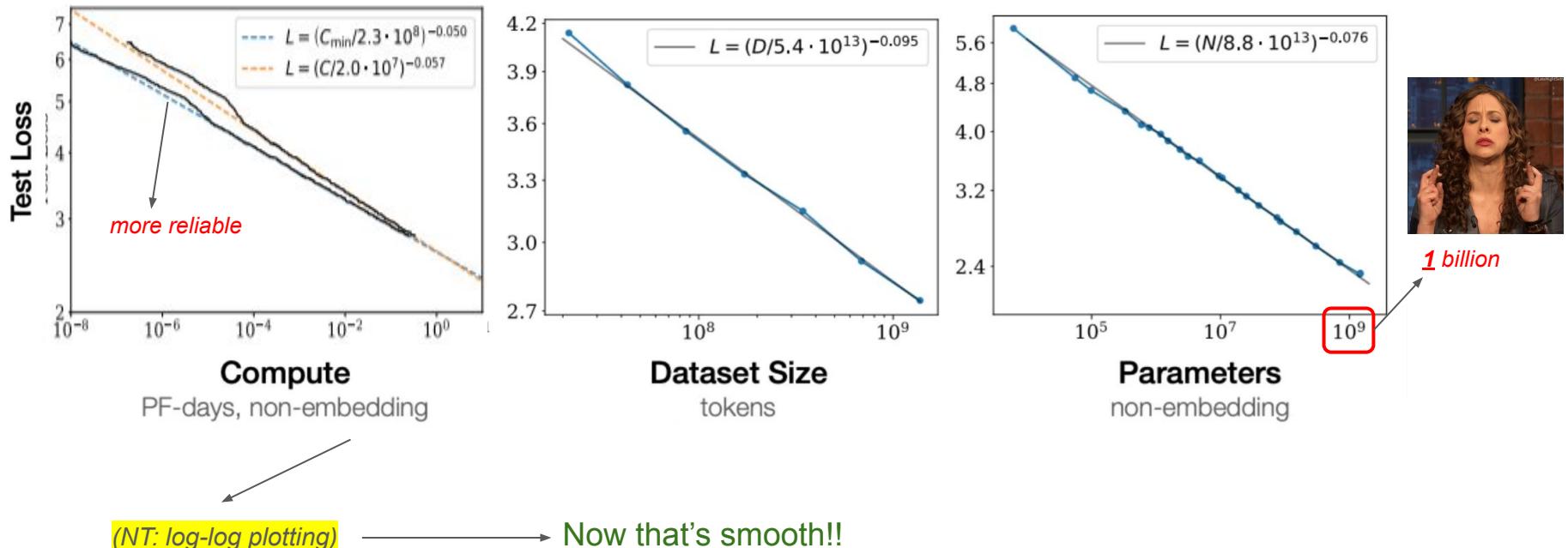
N_{opt}	D_{opt}	C_{\min}	$B \ll B_{\text{crit}}$

Compute-Efficient Value	Power Law	Scale
$N_{\text{opt}} = N_e \cdot C_{\min}^{p_N}$	$p_N = 0.73$	$N_e = 1.3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ params}$
$B \ll B_{\text{crit}} = \frac{B_*}{L^{1/\alpha_B}} = B_e C_{\min}^{p_B}$	$p_B = 0.24$	$B_e = 2.0 \cdot 10^6 \text{ tokens}$

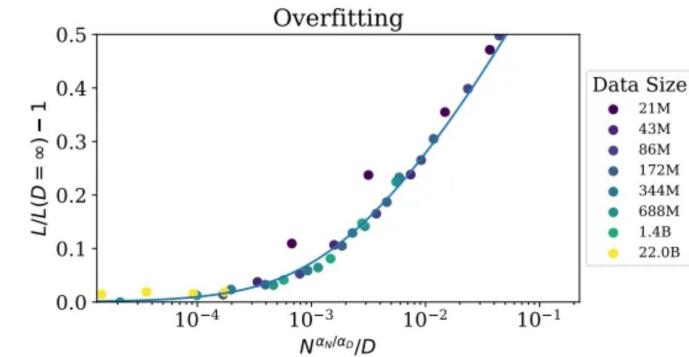
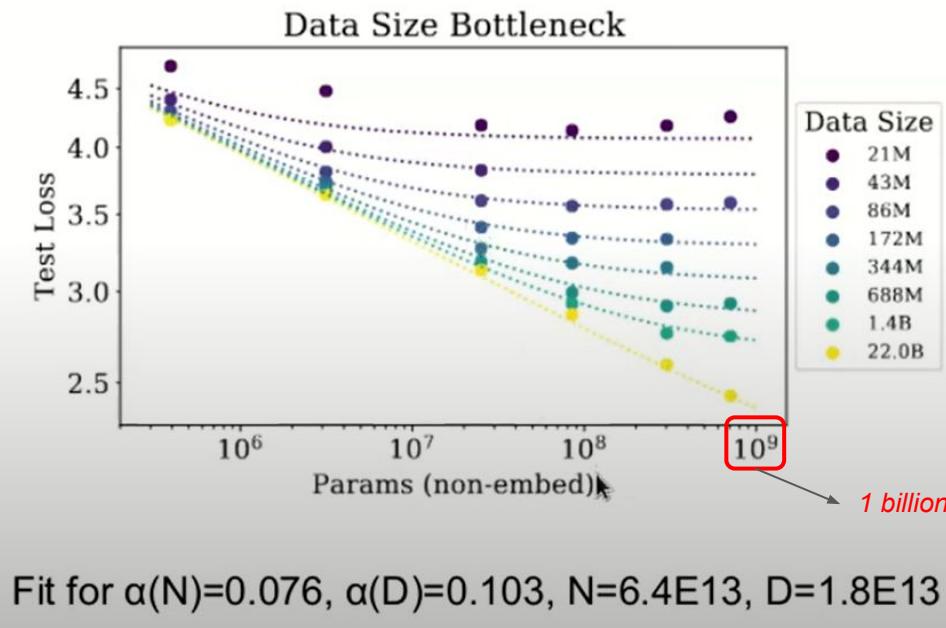
Kaplan Laws



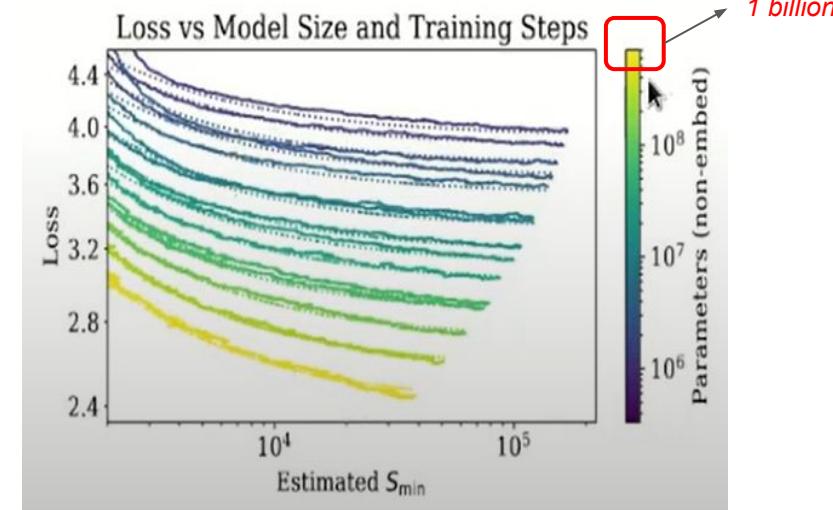
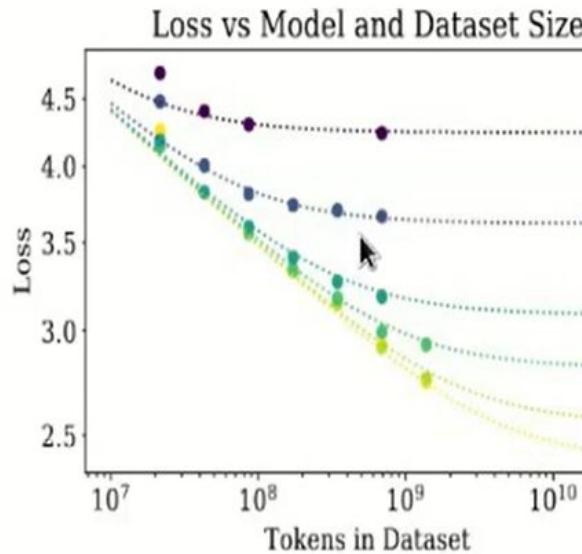
We are in luck! Turns out that scale *is* predictable



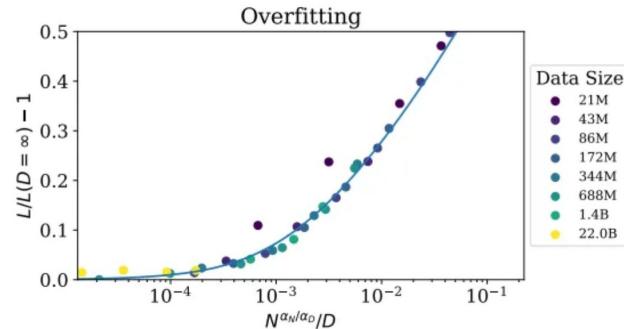
Observation 1a: *Universality of Overfitting*



Observation 1b: Sample Efficiency



Key takeaway 1: Both parameter and dataset to be scaled



$$D \propto N^{\frac{\alpha_N}{\alpha_D}} \sim N^{0.74}$$

Performance penalty is $N^{0.75} / D$

- if model increases 8x, dataset must increase 5x

$$L(N) \approx \left(\frac{N_c}{N} \right)^{\alpha_N}$$

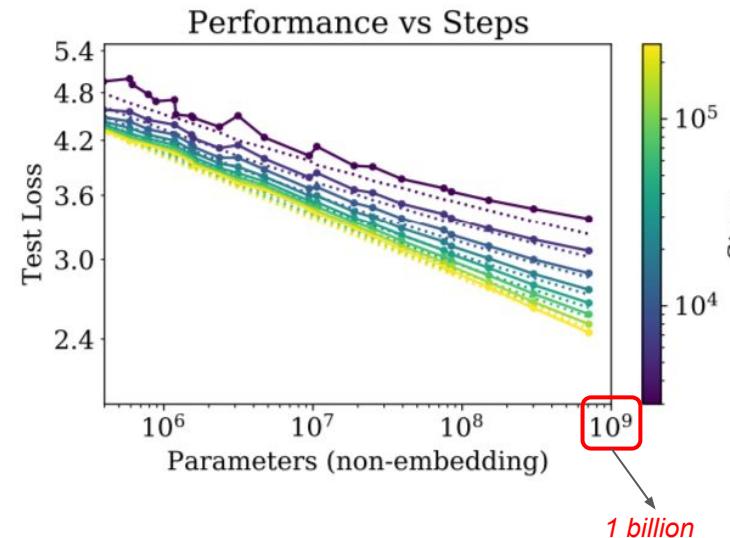
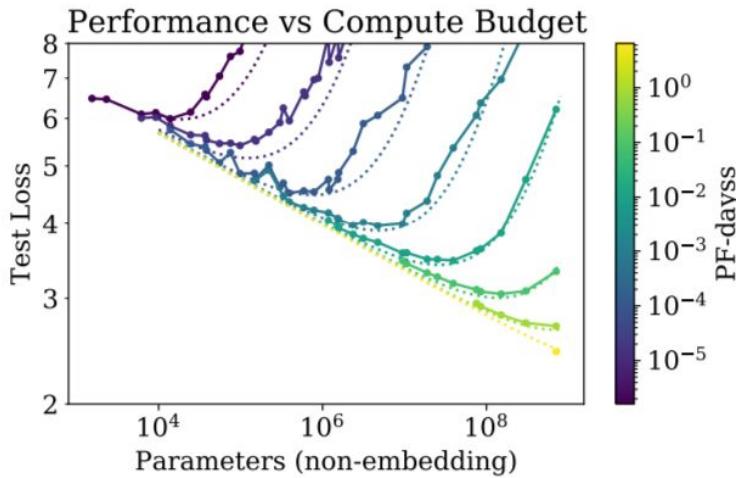
$$L(D) \approx \left(\frac{D_c}{D} \right)^{\alpha_D}$$

$$L(N, D) = \left[\left(\frac{N_c}{N} \right)^{\frac{\alpha_N}{\alpha_D}} + \frac{D_c}{D} \right]^{\alpha_D}$$

Both needs to be scaled together



Observation 2: What about training time (*steps & FLOPs*)?



Key takeaway 2: Universality of training

$$L(N, S) = \left(\frac{N_c}{N}\right)^{\alpha_N} + \left(\frac{S_c}{S_{\min}(S)}\right)^{\alpha_S}$$

$$L(N, D) = \left[\left(\frac{N_c}{N}\right)^{\frac{\alpha_N}{\alpha_D}} + \frac{D_c}{D}\right]^{\alpha_D}$$

$S_c \approx 2.1 \times 10^3$ and $\alpha_S \approx 0.76$, and $S_{\min}(S)$ is the minimum possible number of optimization steps

$$S_{\min}(S) \equiv \frac{S}{1 + B_{\text{crit}}(L)/B} \quad (\text{minimum steps, at } B \gg B_{\text{crit}})$$

$$B_{\text{crit}}(L) \approx \frac{B_*}{L^{1/\alpha_B}}$$

$$B_* \sim 2 \cdot 10^8 \text{ tokens}, \quad \alpha_B \sim 0.21$$

Parameter	α_N	α_D	N_c	D_c
Value	0.076	0.103	6.4×10^{13}	1.8×10^{13}

Parameter	α_N	α_S	N_c	S_c
Value	0.077	0.76	6.5×10^{13}	2.1×10^3

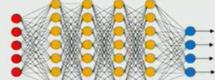
Kaplan Laws



Are we only to worry about



Amount of training data



Model size (parameters)

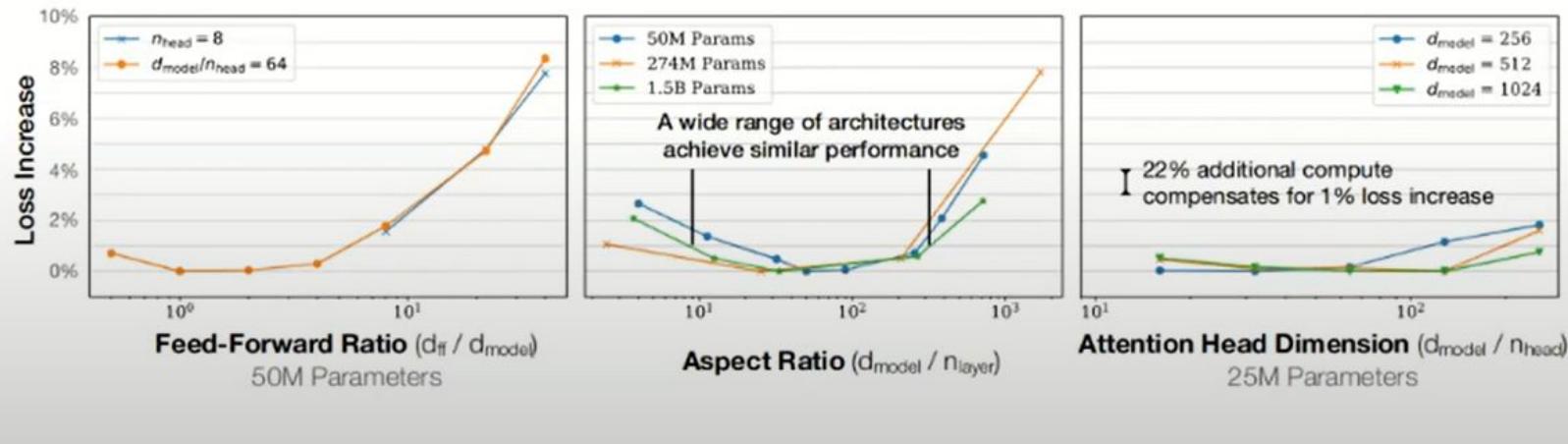


Amount of compute (or time)

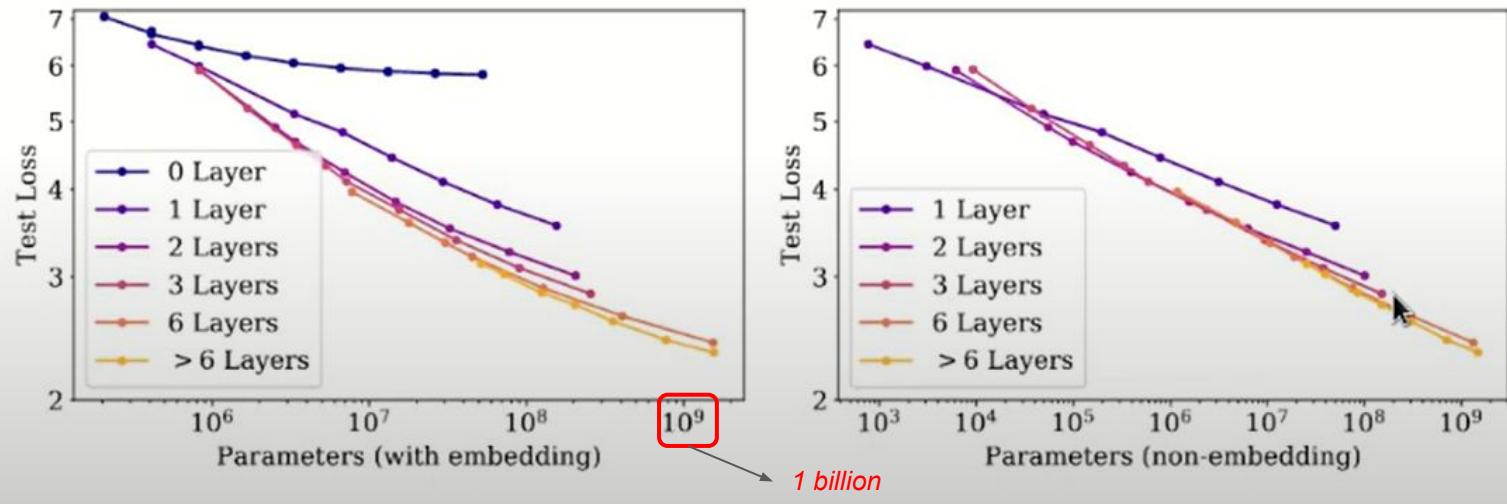
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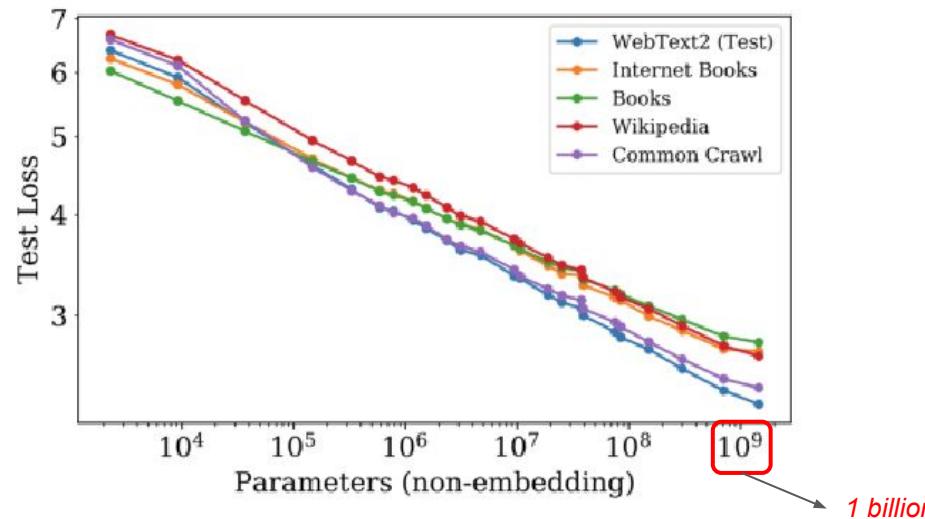
Key Takeaway 3: Model shape does not matter!



Key Takeaway 4: Embedding matrix does not matter!



Key Takeaway 5: Dataset composition does not matter!



Kaplan Scaling Laws at a glance:

Parameters	Data	Compute	Batch Size	Equation
N	∞	∞	Fixed	$L(N) = (N_c/N)^{\alpha_N}$
∞	D	Early Stop	Fixed	$L(D) = (D_c/D)^{\alpha_D}$
Optimal	∞	C	Fixed	$L(C) = (C_c/C)^{\alpha_C}$ (naive)
N_{opt}	D_{opt}	C_{\min}	$B \ll B_{\text{crit}}$	$L(C_{\min}) = (C_c^{\min}/C_{\min})^{\alpha_C^{\min}}$
N	D	Early Stop	Fixed	$L(N, D) = \left[\left(\frac{N_c}{N} \right)^{\frac{\alpha_N}{\alpha_D}} + \frac{D_c}{D} \right]^{\alpha_D}$
N	∞	S steps	B	$L(N, S) = \left(\frac{N_c}{N} \right)^{\alpha_N} + \left(\frac{S_c}{S_{\min}(S, B)} \right)^{\alpha_S}$

Power Law	Scale (tokenization-dependent)
$\alpha_N = 0.076$	$N_c = 8.8 \times 10^{13}$ params (non-embed)
$\alpha_D = 0.095$	$D_c = 5.4 \times 10^{13}$ tokens
$\alpha_C = 0.057$	$C_c = 1.6 \times 10^7$ PF-days
$\alpha_C^{\min} = 0.050$	$C_c^{\min} = 3.1 \times 10^8$ PF-days
$\alpha_B = 0.21$	$B_* = 2.1 \times 10^8$ tokens
$\alpha_S = 0.76$	$S_c = 2.1 \times 10^3$ steps



Is there any other alternative law?



Turns out there is!

$$\text{Loss}(N_T, D) = \frac{N_c}{N_T^\alpha} + \frac{D_c}{D^\beta} + E,$$

$$\text{Loss}(N_T, C_T) = \frac{N_c}{N_T^\alpha} + \frac{D_c}{(C_T/6N_T)^\beta} + E$$

Lower bound

Chinchilla (Hoffman) Scaling Law



The Chinchilla (Hoffman) Scaling Law

$$\text{Loss}(N_T, D) = \frac{N_c}{N_T^\alpha} + \frac{D_c}{D^\beta} + E$$

$$L(N, D) = 1.69 + \frac{406.4}{N^{0.34}} + \frac{410.7}{D^{0.28}}$$

$$N_{opt}(C) = G(C/6)^a \quad D_{opt}(C) = G^{-1}(C/6)^b$$

where $G = \left(\frac{\alpha A}{\beta B}\right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha+\beta}}$ $a = \frac{\beta}{\alpha+\beta}$ $b = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}$

Fitting the constants, yields: $\alpha \approx \beta$

i.e. equal scaling of N and D .



Chinchilla Scaling Law vs. Kaplan Scaling Law

$$\text{Kaplan: } N_{\setminus E}^* \propto C_{\setminus E}^{0.73}$$

$$\text{Chinchilla: } N_T^* \propto C_T^{0.50}.$$

Performance penalty is $N^{0.75} / D$

- if model increases 8x, dataset must increase 5x

VS.

Fitting the constants, yields: $\alpha \approx \beta$
i.e. equal scaling of N and D .

$$N_T = N_E + N_{\setminus E}, \quad C_T = 6N_T D = 6(N_E + N_{\setminus E})D,$$

$$N_E = (h + v)d, \quad C_{\setminus E} = 6N_{\setminus E}D.$$



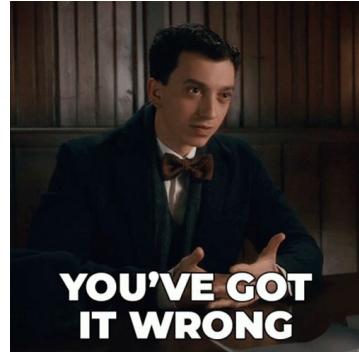
The (revised) Chinchilla Scaling Law

$$L(N, D) = 1.82 + \frac{514.0}{N^{0.35}} + \frac{2115.2}{D^{0.37}}$$

$$L(N, D) = 1.69 + \frac{406.4}{N^{0.34}} + \frac{410.7}{D^{0.28}}$$



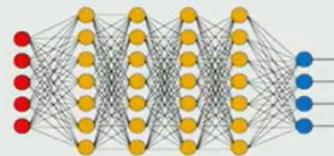
Is it a problem with our point-of-view?



LLMs “seems” to get more intelligent with the following:



Amount of training data



Model size (parameters)

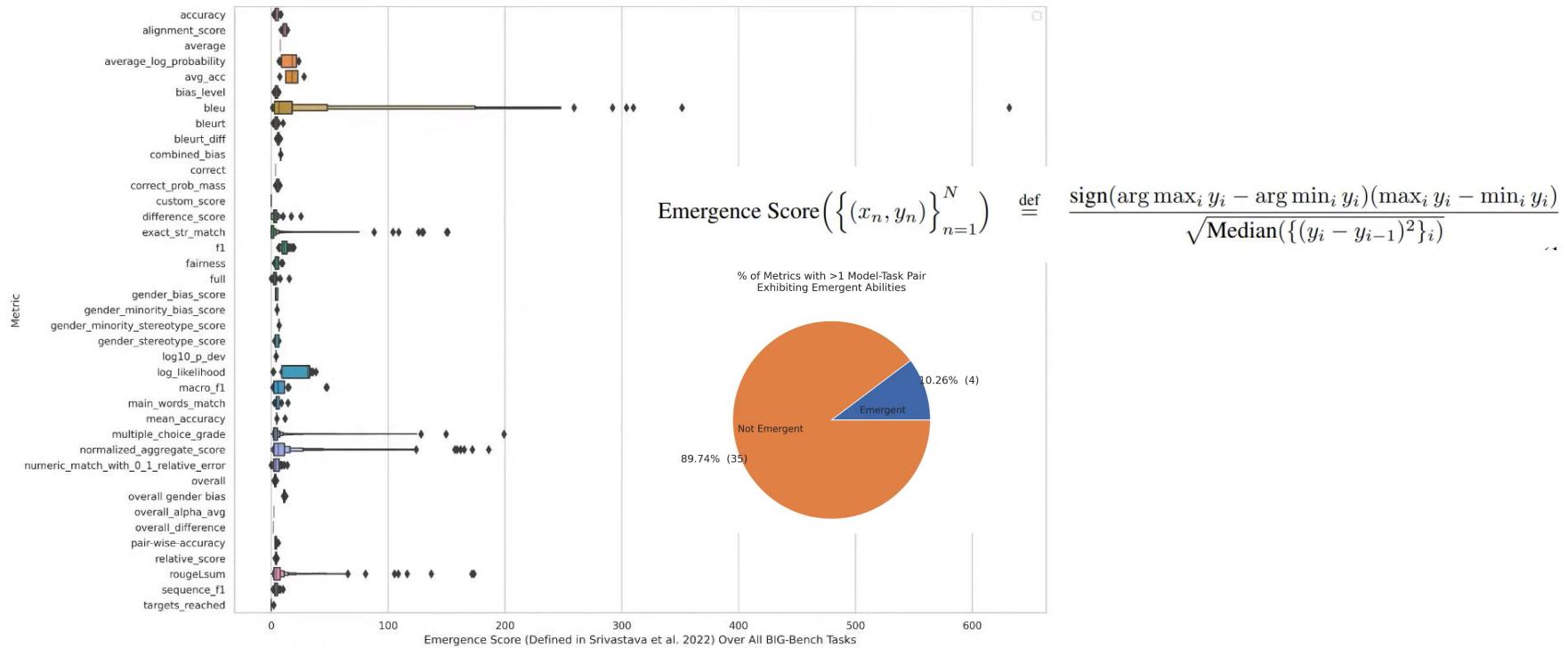


Amount of compute (or time)

$$\mathcal{L}_{CE}(N) = \left(\frac{N}{c}\right)^{\alpha}$$



Motivation: Not all metrics score same (Emergence Score)



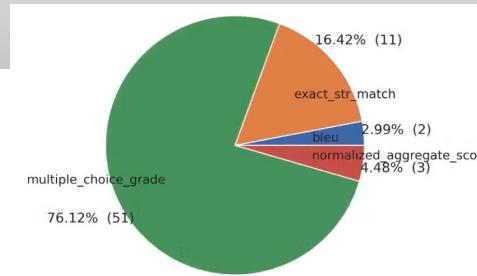


Is your accuracy metric non-linear or discontinuous?

> 92% of BIG-BENCH:

Multiple Choice Grade $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$ $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if highest probability mass on correct option} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

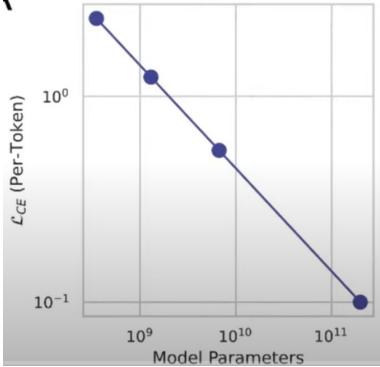
Exact String Match $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$ $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if output string exactly matches target string} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



*Too challenging for smaller models!
Is it really worth??*



Power Law in play!

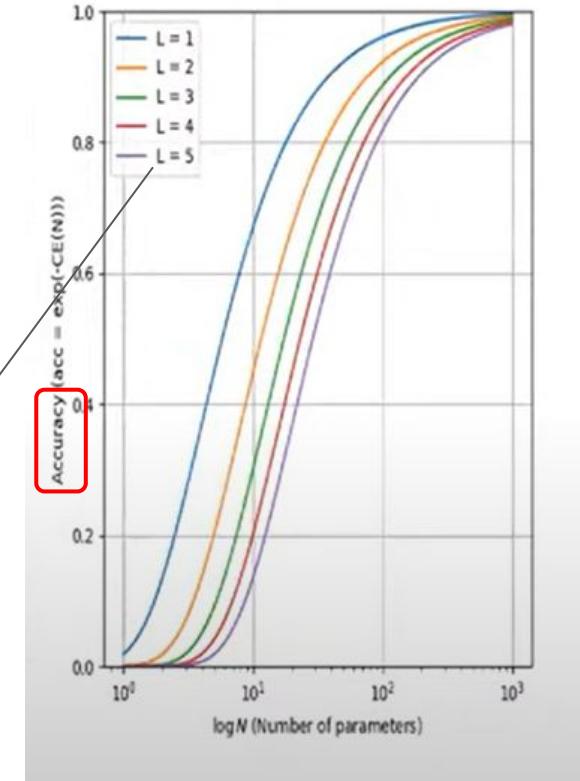


$$\mathcal{L}_{CE}(N) = \left(\frac{N}{c}\right)^{\alpha} = -\log \hat{p}_{v^*}(N)$$

$$\hat{p}_{v^*}(N) = \exp\left(-\left(N/c\right)^{\alpha}\right)$$

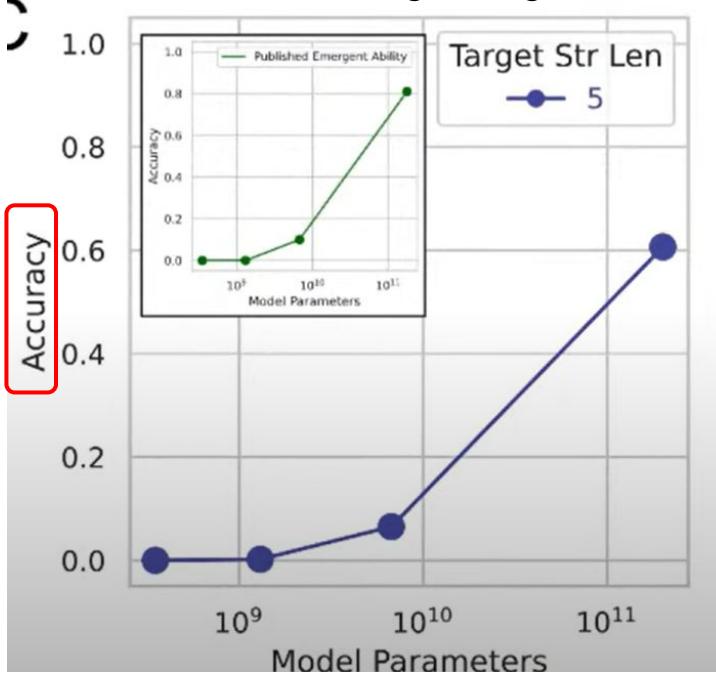
$$L(D_0, N) = B_0 + \frac{B_1}{N^{\alpha_w}} + \dots$$

Length of token



Problem with Non-linear Measure: Eg.: *Exact string match*

Task: Add k -digit integers



- 1 if all $K+1$ digits in model's output are correct
- 0 otherwise

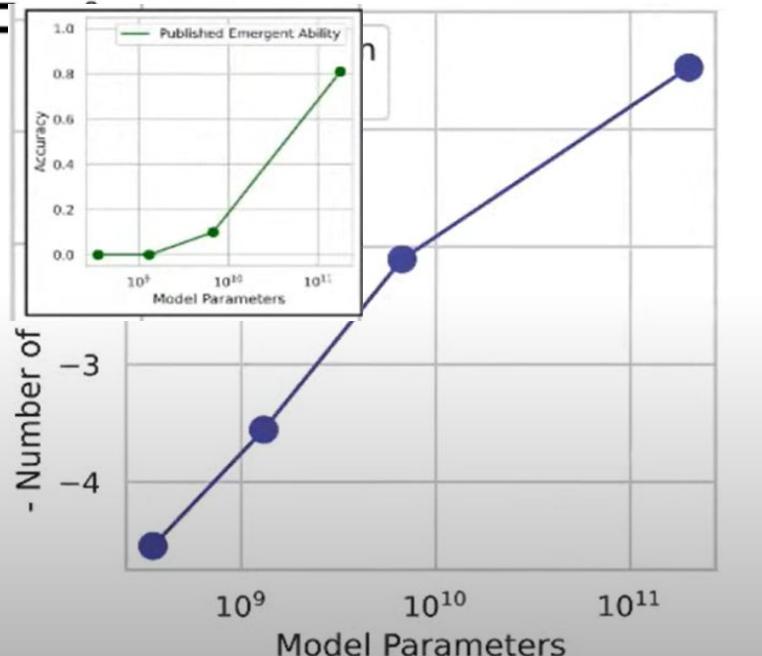
$$\hat{p}_{v^*}(N) = \exp\left(-\left(N/c\right)^\alpha\right)$$

$$\text{Accuracy}(N) \approx p_N(\text{single token correct})^{\text{num. of tokens}}$$



Change of perspective: Measure: *Edit distance*

Task: Add k -digit integers



- 1 if all $K+1$ digits in model's output are correct
- 0 otherwise

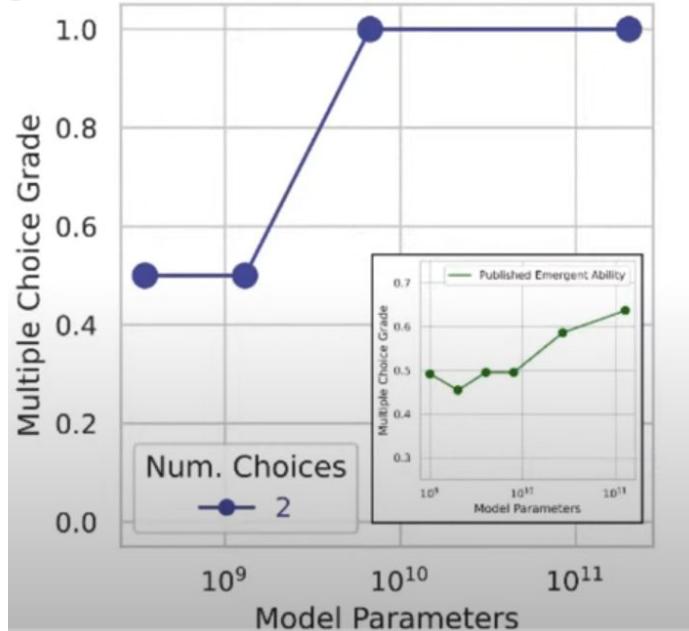
$$\hat{p}_{v^*}(N) = \exp\left(-\left(N/c\right)^\alpha\right)$$

Edit Distance(N) $\approx L \left(1 - p_N(\text{single token correct}) \right)$



Problem with Discontinuous Measure: Eg.: *MCG*

Task: Choose one of two



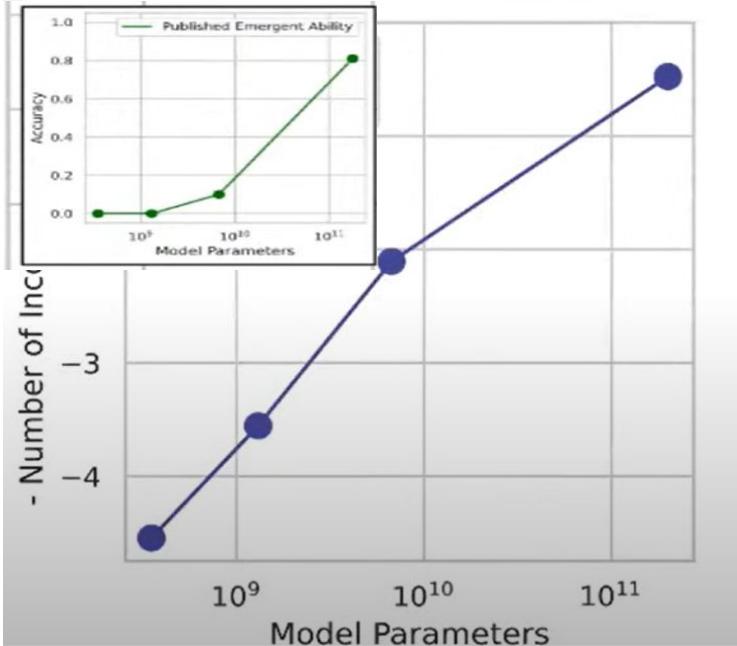
- 1 if highest probability mass on correct option
- 0 otherwise

$$\hat{p}_{v^*}(N) = \exp\left(-\left(N/c\right)^{\alpha}\right)$$



Change of perspective: Measure: *Brier Score*

Task: Choose one of two



- 1 if all K+1 digits in model's output are correct
- 0 otherwise

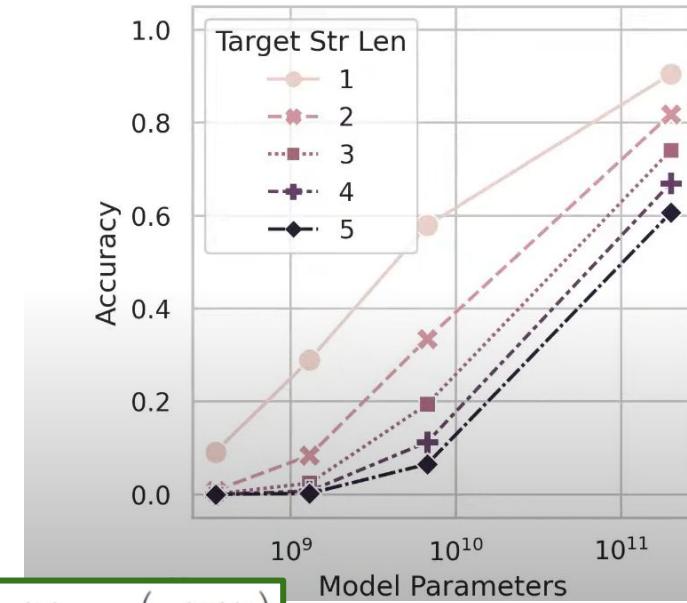
$$\hat{p}_{v^*}(N) = \exp\left(-\left(N/c\right)^\alpha\right)$$



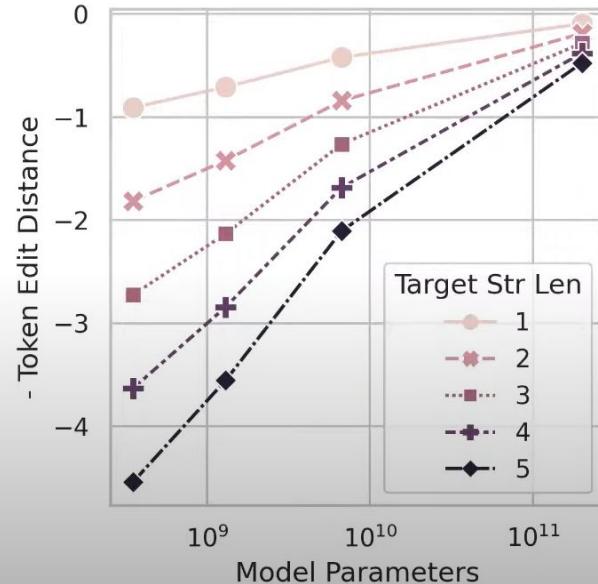
Brier Score = $(1 - \text{probability mass on correct option})^2$



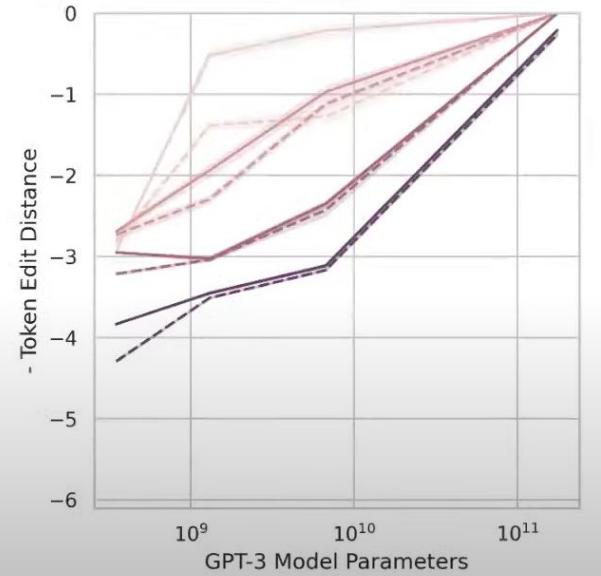
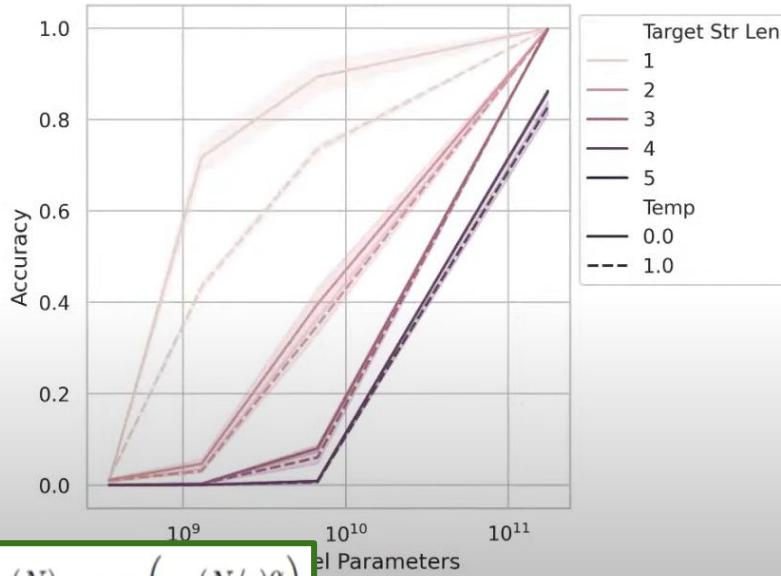
Prediction: Power Law vs. Near-Linear counterpart



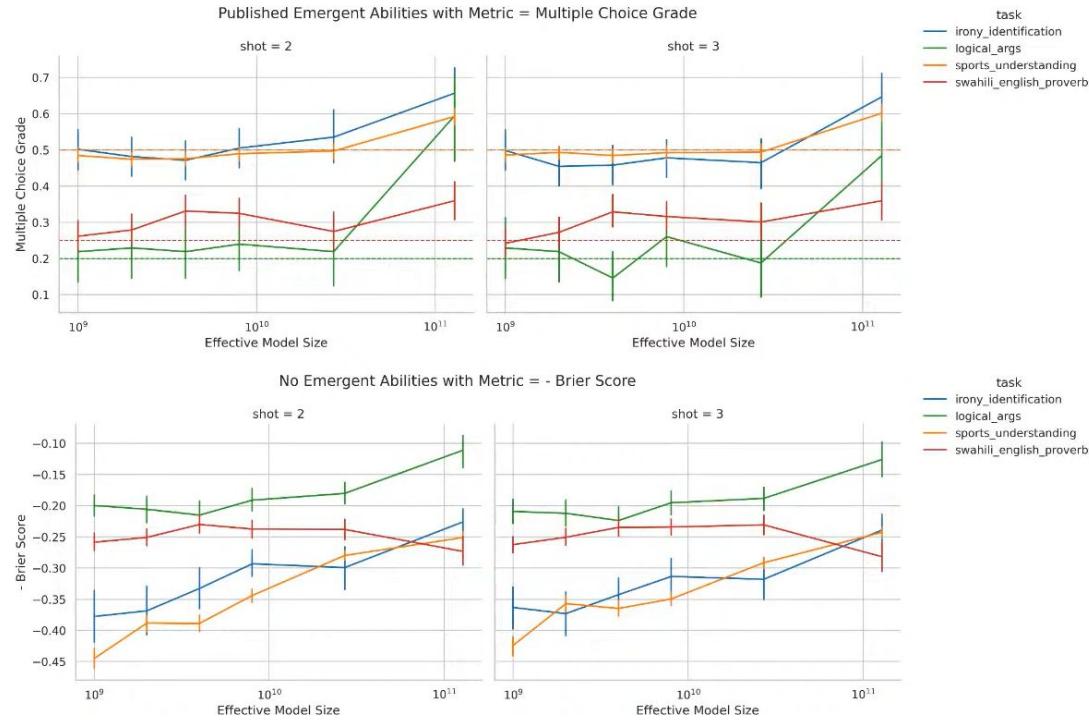
$$\hat{p}_{v^*}(N) = \exp\left(-(N/c)^\alpha\right)$$



Results on GPT3.5/3: Task: 2-digit integer multiplication



Does the claim work for Google BIG-BENCH benchmark?



Key Takeaways

- Want to predict **without the theatrics?** Choose a metric that's “soft” (in the continuous sense)
- There's *no sudden jump* in reality (“*most*” can be predicted on a near-linear scale)
- Do we really need the power law of scale? Maybe not!

