# Large Language Models (LLMs)

**Aprendizaje Automático** 

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# Outline

- Generative Al
- What is a Language Model?
- How large is an LLM?
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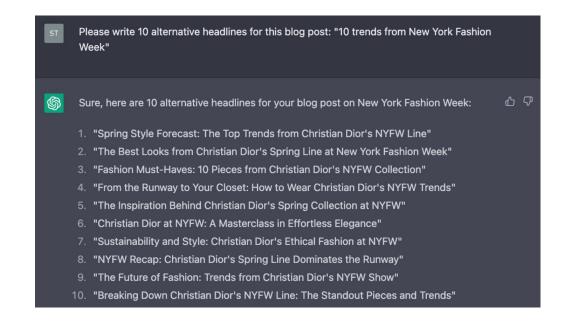
## Generative Al

- **Generative Artificial Intelligence** (AI) is a broad term that can be used for any AI **system** whose primary function is to **generate content** like images, text, code, etc.
- Examples of generative Al systems are:
  - Image generators (such as Midjourney or Stable Diffusion).
  - Text generators (such as GPT-4, Claude, or Llama).
  - Code generators (such as Github Copilot).

#### Generative Al

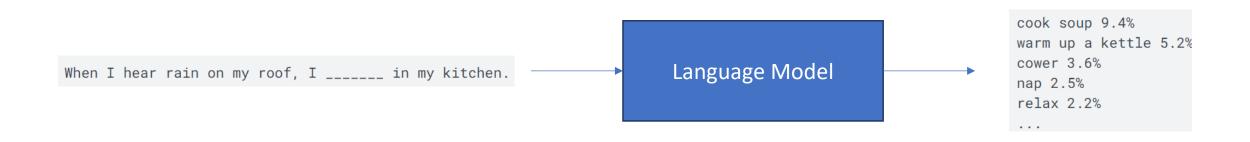


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# What is a Language Model?

- A Language Model is a generative AI system based on a machine learning model that aims to generate plausible language.
- These models work by estimating the probability of a token or sequence of tokens occurring within a longer sequence of tokens.



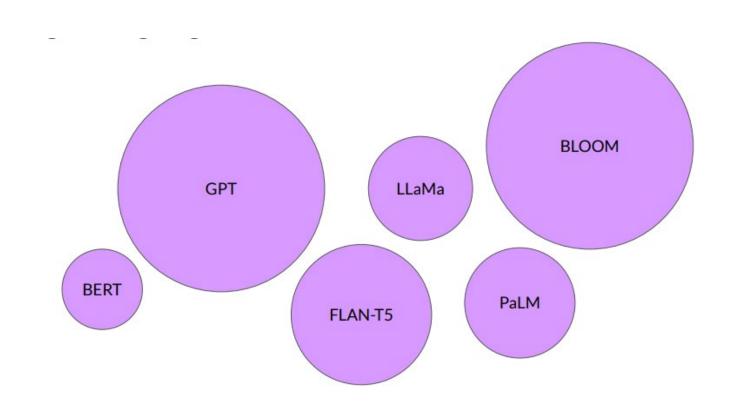
## What is an LLM?

- Early Language Models were very limited, and, for example, they only could predict the probability of a single token.
- However, modern Language Models can predict the probability of large sequence of tokens like sentences, paragraphs, or even entire documents.
  - Modern Language Models are called "Large Language Models" (LLMs) and they refer to Language Models that use deep learning techniques with a large number of parameters (from millions to even trillions).
  - These models can capture complex patterns in language and generate text that is often indistinguishable from that written by humans.

# How large is an LLM?

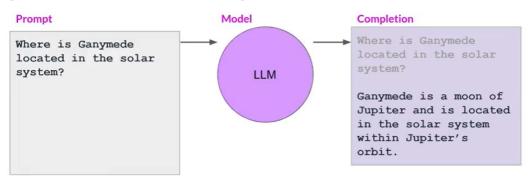
- "Large" in Language Models refers to the number of parameters in the model (sometimes also to the number of words in the dataset).
- Parameters are the weights the deep learning model learned during training.
- LLMs have millions, billions or even trillions of parameters. For example:
  - BERT: 110M parameters.
  - PaLM 2: 340B parameters.
  - GPT-4: 1T parameters.
- In general, the more parameters an LLM has, the more sophisticated the tasks it can perform.

# How large is an LLM?



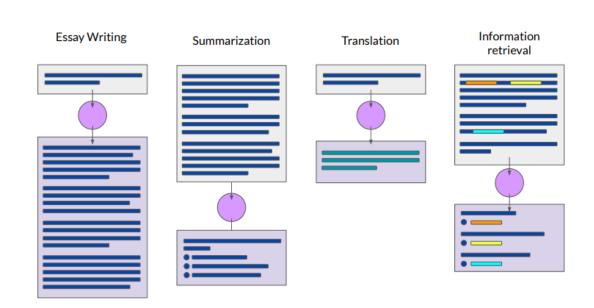
#### How to interact with LLMs

- The text that you pass to an LLM is known as a prompt.
- The space that is available to the prompt is called the context window, and this is typically large enough for a few thousand words but differs from model to model.
- The output of the model is called a completion.
- The act of using the model to generate text is known as inference.



#### LLM use cases

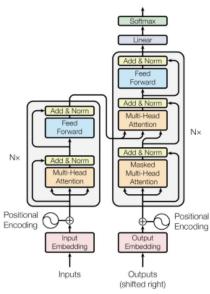
- Next word prediction is the base concept behind LLM text generation.
- This simple technique is used for a variety of tasks in LLMs:
  - Writing information.
  - Summarization.
  - Translation.
  - Information retrieval.



- Most of the early Language Models were created using Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) models: Long Short-term Memory (LSTM) or Gated Recurrent Units (GRUs) networks.
- However, RNNs were **limited** by the **amount of compute** and **memory** needed to perform well at generative tasks (RNN tries to remember the entire input sequence).
- Also, RNNs suffer from the vanishing gradient problem that makes difficult to effectively update weights in the layers of the network, compromising the ability to learn and capacity of the network.

- A key development in Language Models was the introduction in 2017 of transformers, an architecture designed around the idea of attention.
- This made it possible to process longer sequences by focusing on the most important part of the input and solving memory issues encountered in earlier models.



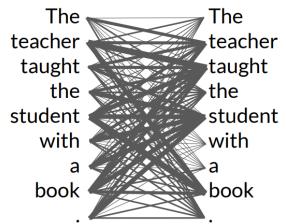


- The novel transformer architecture has produced the progress in generative AI in general and LLMs in particular that we see today.
- Transformer architecture:
  - can be scaled efficiently to use multi-core GPUs.
  - can parallel process input data, making use of much larger training datasets.
  - is able to **learn to pay attention to the meaning of the words** that are been processed.

- The **power of** the **transformer** architecture lies in its ability to learn the **relevance** and context of all of the words in a sentence.
  - Not just each word next to its neighbor, but to every other word in a sentence.
- To apply **attention weights** to those relationships so that the model learns the relevance of each word to each other words no matter where they are in the input.

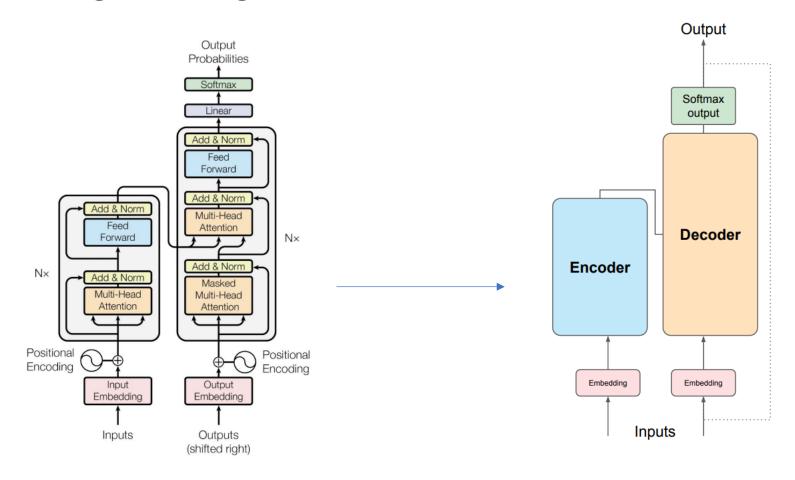


- The attention weights are learned during LLM training.
- It is useful to illustrate the attention weights between each word and every other word with an **attention map**:



- This mechanism to capture dependencies and relationships identifying and weighing the importance within an input sequence is called selfattention.
- Self-attention is one of the key attributes of the transformer architecture.

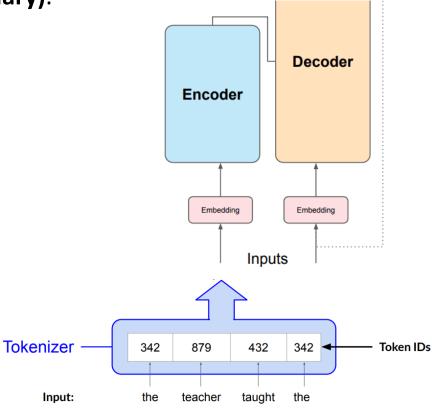
• Simplified diagram of original transformer architecture:



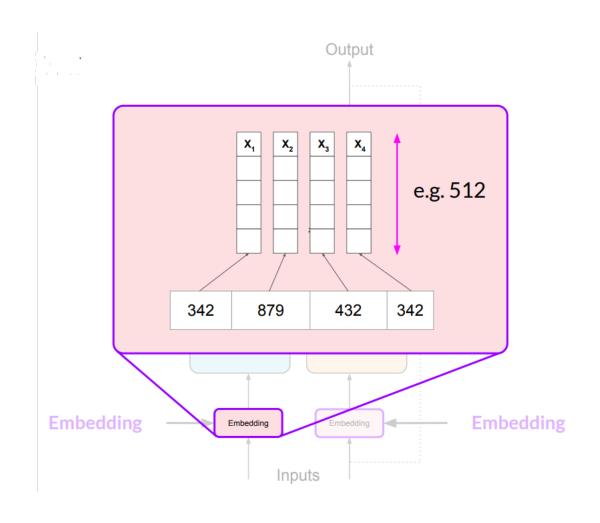
• Before passing texts into the model, words must be tokenized.

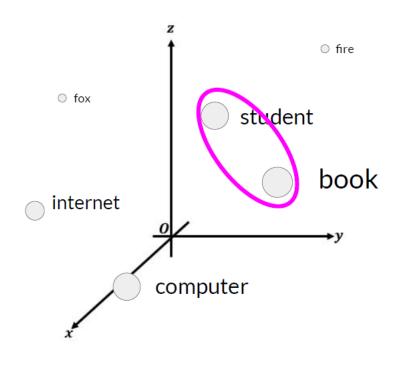
• This converts the words into numbers, with each number representing a position in a

dictionary (vocabulary).

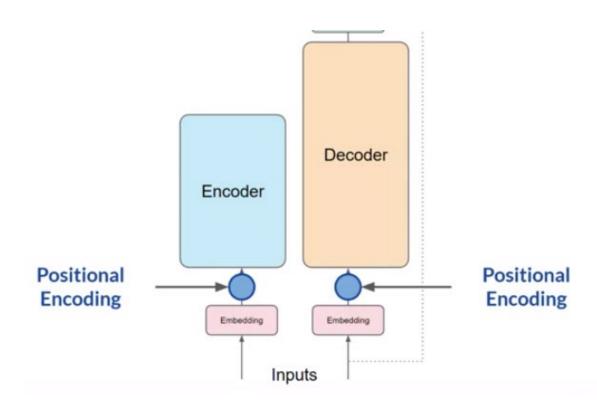


- Now that input is represented as numbers, it can be passed it to the embedding layer.
- This layer is a **high-dimensional trainable vector space** where each token is represented as a multi-dimensional vector and occupies a unique location within that space.
- The intuition is that vectors learn to encode the **meaning and context** of individual tokens in the input sequence.
- It is possible to see that **relate words** are located close to each other in the **embedding space**.

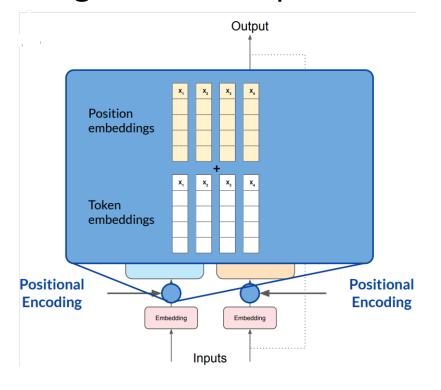


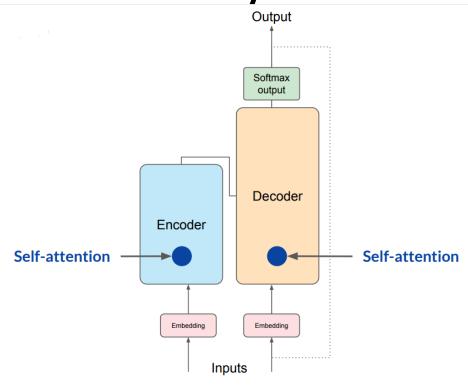


- **Positional information** is added to the model explicitly to retain the information regarding the **order of words in a sentence**.
- **Positional encoding** is the scheme through which the knowledge of the **order** of objects **in a sequence** is maintained.
- The model processes each of the input tokens in parallel, so by
   adding the positional encoding, the information about the word
   order is kept and the relevance of the position of the word in the
   sentence is not lost.

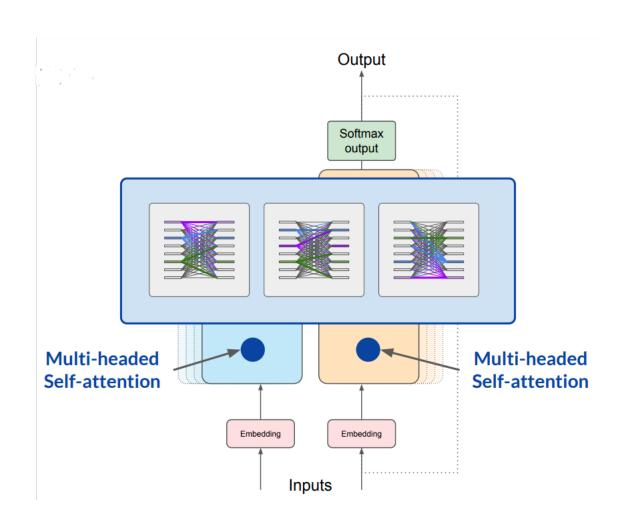


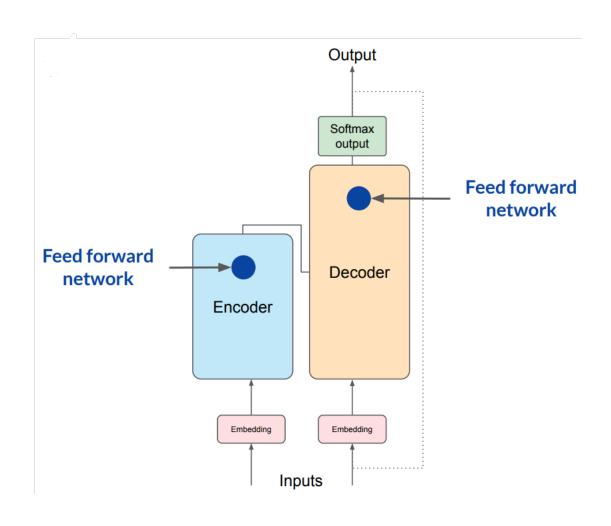
• Token embeddings and positional embeddings are summed, and resulting vectors are passed to the self-attention layer.





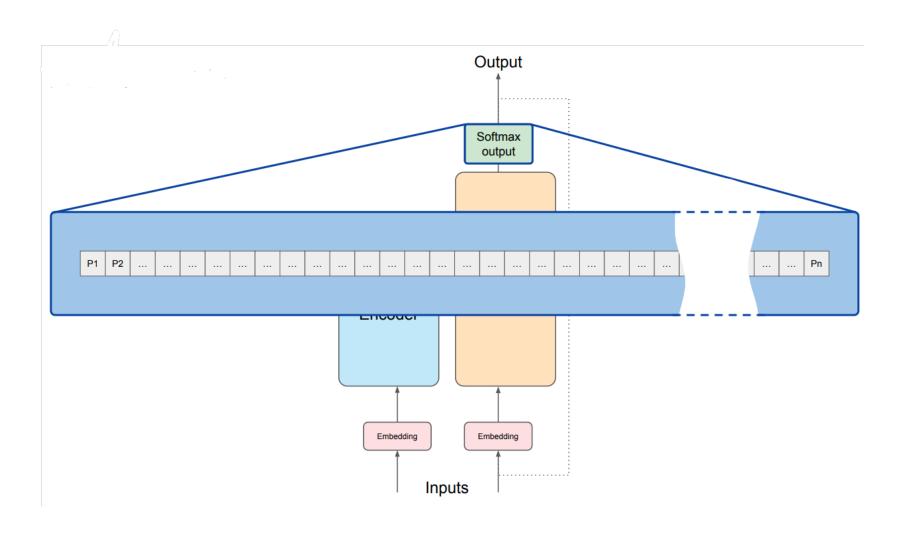
- In self-attention layer, the model analyzes the relationships between the tokens in the input sequence and attends to different parts of the input sequence to better capture the contextual dependencies between the words.
- But this does not happen just once: the transformer architecture actually has multi-headed self-attention.
  - This means that **multiple sets of self-attention weights** or heads are learned in parallel independently of each other.
  - The intuition is that **each self-attention head** will **learn** a **different aspect of language**.





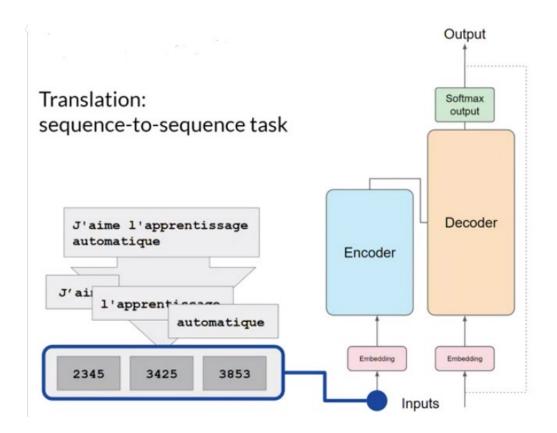
- After the attention weights have been applied to the input data, the output is processed through a fully-connected feed-forward network.
- The output of this layer is a vector of logits proportional to the probability score for each token in the dictionary.

- In the decoder, these logits are passed to a final softmax layer, where they are normalized into a probability score for each word.
- This output includes a probability for every single word in the vocabulary.
- One single token will have a score higher than the rest. This is the most likely predicted token.

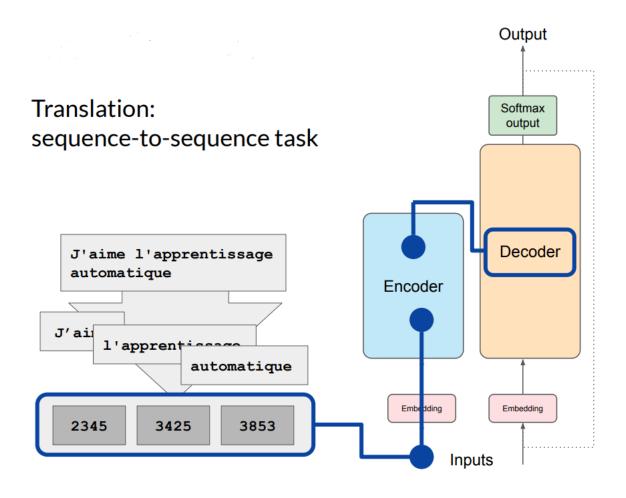


- Let's look at an example of overall prediction process from end to end in a transformer architecture:
  - This example is a **sequence-to-sequence** task (specifically a **translation task**), which was the original objective of the transformer architecture designers.

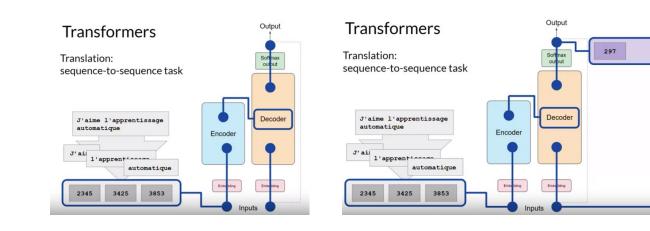
• First, the input words are tokenized, and these tokens are inserted into the input on the encoder side of the network.

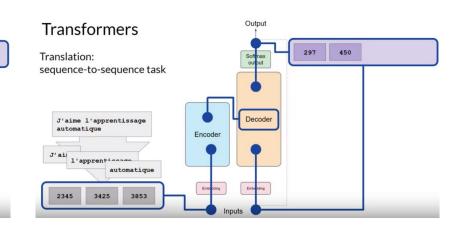


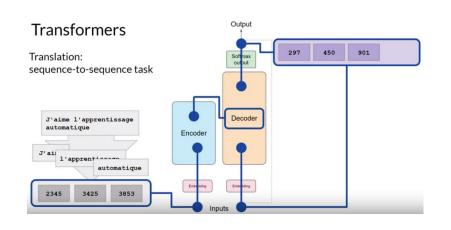
- Tokens are passed through the embedding layer, and then fed into the multi-headed attention layers.
- The outputs of the multi-headed attention layers are fed through a feed-forward network to the output of the encoder.
- At this point, the data that leaves the encoder is a deep representation of the structure and meaning of the input sequence.
- This **representation** is **inserted** into the middle of the **decoder** to influence the decoder's self-attention mechanisms.

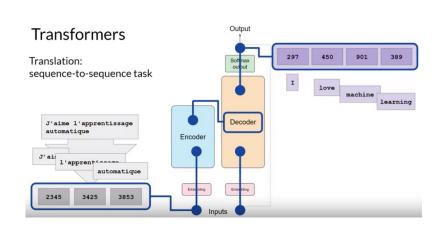


- Next, a start of sequence token is added to the input of the decoder.
- This triggers the decoder to predict the next token, which it does based on the contextual understanding that it is being provided from the encoder.
- The **output of the decoder's** self-attention layers gets passed through the decoder feed-forward network and through a final softmax output layer. At this point, we have our **first token**.
- This loop continues, passing the output token back to the input decoder to trigger the generation of the next token, until the model predicts an end-of-sequence token.
- At this point, the final sequence of tokens can be detokenized into words, and you have your output.





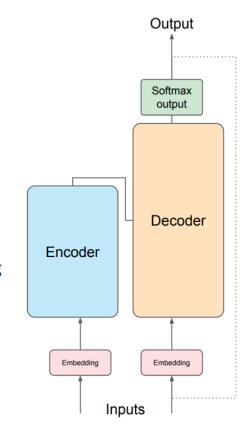




• Summary:

#### **Encoder**

Encodes inputs ("prompts") with contextual understanding and produces one vector per input token.

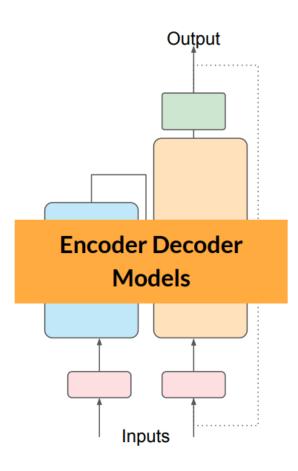


#### Decoder

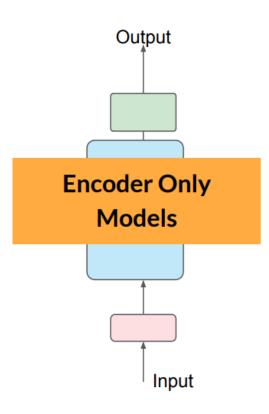
Accepts input tokens and generates new tokens.

## LLM architecture variations

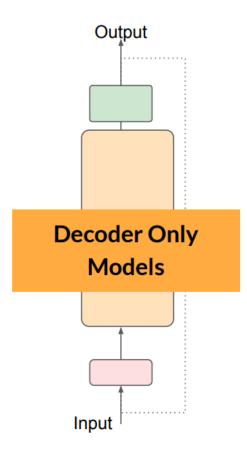
- Encoder-decoder models perform sequence-to-sequence tasks such as translation, where the input sequence and the output sequence can be different lengths.
- It can be trained this type of models to perform text generation tasks.
- Example: BART and T5 models.



- Encoder-only models are sequence-to-sequence models (the input sequence and the output sequence have the same length) use to extract the relevant information from the input and generate embeddings for other posterior tasks like classification or sentiment analysis.
- Example: BERT model.

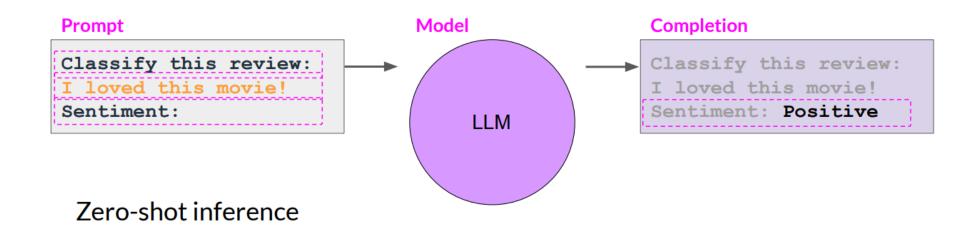


- Decoder-only models are some of the most commonly used today.
   They are similar to the encoder-decoder models, but the input information are not encoded explicitly.
- The are trained to predict the next token in a sequence given the previous tokens.
- They can generalize to most tasks.
- Example: GPT and LlaMA family models

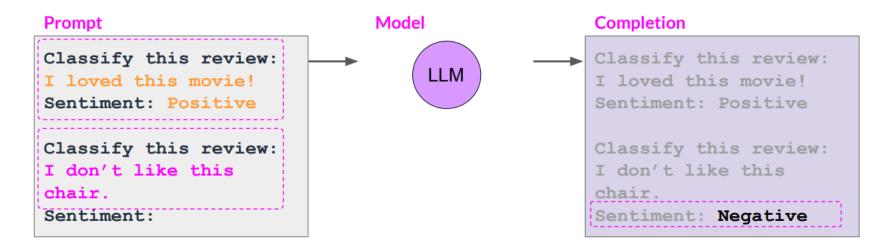


- The work to develop and improve the prompt is known as prompt engineering.
- A powerful **strategy** to get the model **to produce better outcomes** is to **include examples of the task** that you want the model to carry out inside the prompt. Providing examples inside the context window is called **in-context learning**.
- So, with in-context learning, you can **help LLMs learn more about the task** being asked by including examples or additional data in the prompt.

#### In-context learning (ICL) - zero shot inference

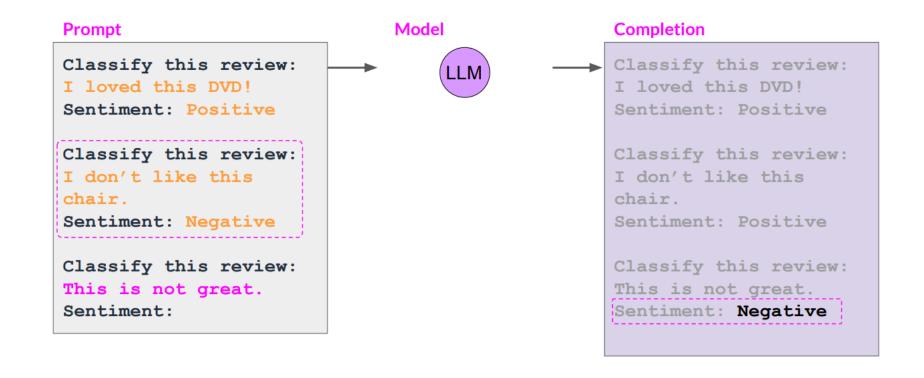


#### In-context learning (ICL) - one shot inference



One-shot inference

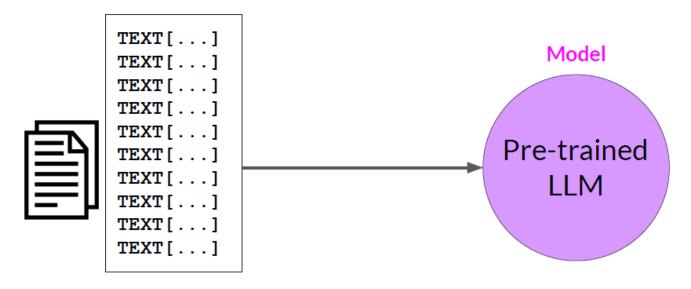
#### In-context learning (ICL) - few shot inference



- Prompts can be engineered to encourage the model to learn by examples.
- While the largest models are good at zero-shot inference with no examples, smaller models can benefit from one-shot or few-shot inference that include examples of the desired behavior.
- However, the context window must be remembered because there is a limit on the amount of in-context learning can be passed into the model.

- Fine-tuning is a method that it can be used to improve the performance of an existing LLM model for a specific use case.
- Firstly, there is a **pre-training** step where **LLM** is trained using vast amounts of **unstructured textual** data via **self-supervised learning**.

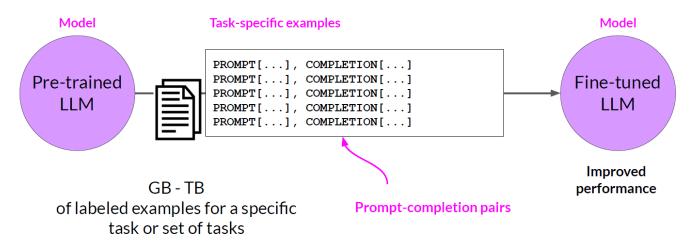
#### LLM pre-training



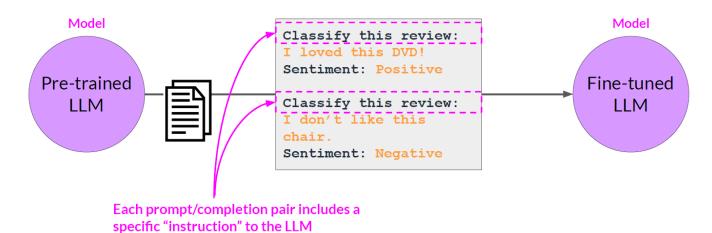
GB - TB - PB of unstructured textual data

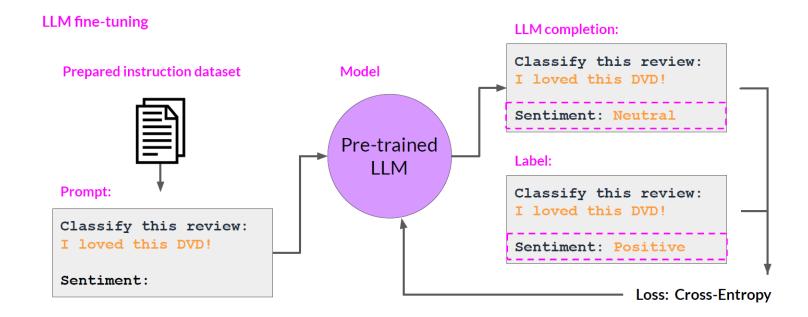
- After that, fine-tuning is used: it is a supervised learning process where you use a data set of labeled examples to update the weights of the LLM.
- The fine-tuning process extends the training of the model to **improve** its ability to generate good completions for a **specific task**.
- One strategy is known as instruction fine-tuning: it trains the model using examples that demonstrate how it should respond to a specific instruction.
  - The labeled examples are prompt-completion pairs.
- Interestingly, good results can be achieved with relatively few examples: often just 500-1,000 examples can result in good performance (in contrast to the billions of pieces of texts that the model saw during pre-training).

#### LLM fine-tuning



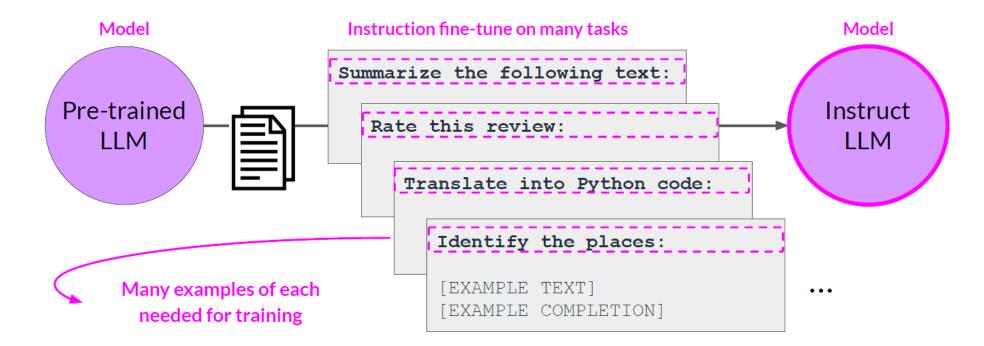
#### LLM fine-tuning





- However, there is a potential downside to fine-tuning on a single task: the
  process may lead to a phenomenon called catastrophic forgetting.
- This happens because the full fine-tuning process modifies the weights of the original LLM.
- While this leads to great performance on the single fine-tuning task, it can degrade performance on other tasks.
- This can be avoided with:
  - Multi-task instruction fine-tuning: fine-tuning on multiple tasks at the same time.
  - Parameter Efficient Fine-tuning (PEFT): a set of techniques that preserves the weights of the original LLM training only a small number of task-specific adapter layers and parameters.

• Multi-task instruction fine-tuning



- In **full fine-tuning**, **every model weight** is **updated** during supervised learning process.
- In PEFT, methods only update a small subset of parameters.
  - Some techniques freeze most of the model weights and focus on **fine-tuning** a **subset of existing model parameters**, for example, particular layers or components.
  - Other techniques do not touch the original model weights at all, and instead add a small number of new parameters or layers and fine-tune only the new components.

Small number of trainable layers

LLM

LLM with most layers frozen

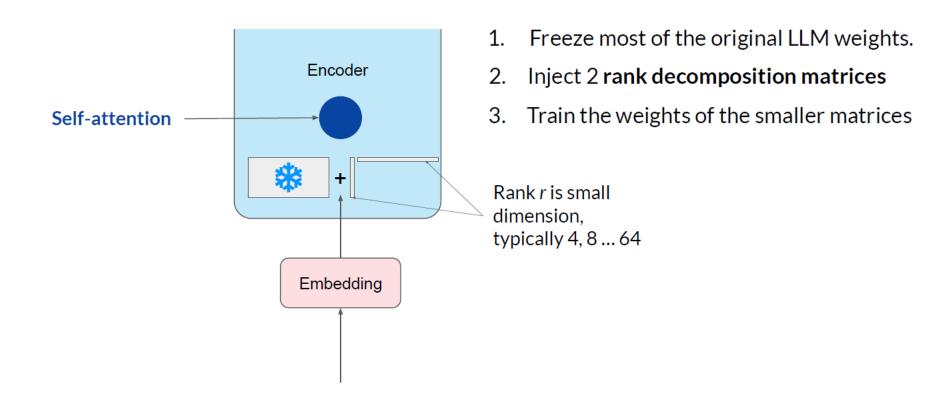
New trainable layers



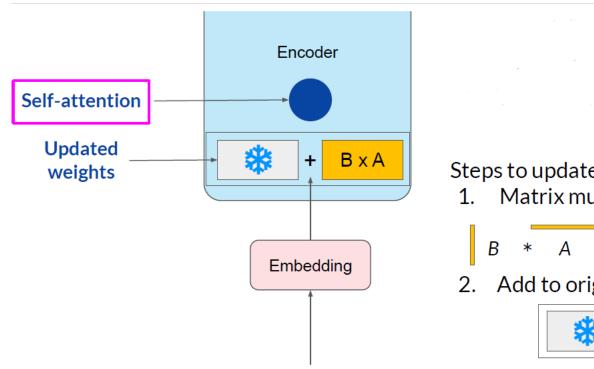
LLM with additional layers for PEFT

- Specifically, **PEFT** methods are:
  - Selective methods are those that fine-tune only a subset of the original LLM parameters with several approaches to identify which parameters you want to update. There is the option to train only certain components of the model or specific layers, or even individual parameter types.
    - A subgroup called reparameterization methods that also work with the original LLM parameters but reducing the number of parameters to train by creating new low rank transformations of the original network weights. A commonly used technique of this type is Low-Rank Adaptation of Large Language Models (LoRA).
  - Additive methods carry out fine-tuning by keeping all of the original LLM weights frozen and introducing new trainable components.
    - Adapter methods add new trainable layers to the architecture of the model, typically inside the encoder or decoder components after the attention or feed-forward layers.
    - **Soft prompt methods**, on the other hand, keep the model architecture fixed and frozen, and focus on manipulating the input to achieve better performance. This can be done by adding trainable parameters to the prompt embeddings or keeping the input fixed and retraining the embedding weights.

- In **encoder and decoder** parts of the transformer there are two kinds of neural networks: **self-attention** and **feed-forward** networks.
- The weights of these networks are learned during pre-training.
- LoRA freezes all of the original model parameters and then injecting a pair of rank decomposition matrices alongside the original weights.
  - The dimensions of the smaller matrices are set so that their product is a matrix with the same dimensions as the weights they're modifying.
- Researchers have found that applying LoRA to just the self-attention layers of the model is often enough to fine-tune for a task.



- For inference, the two low-rank matrices are multiplied together to create a matrix with the same dimensions as the frozen weights.
- Then they are added this to the original weights and replace them in the model with these updated values.
- There is now a LoRA fine-tuned model that can carry out a specific task.
- There is little to **no impact** on **inference latency**.



Steps to update model for inference:

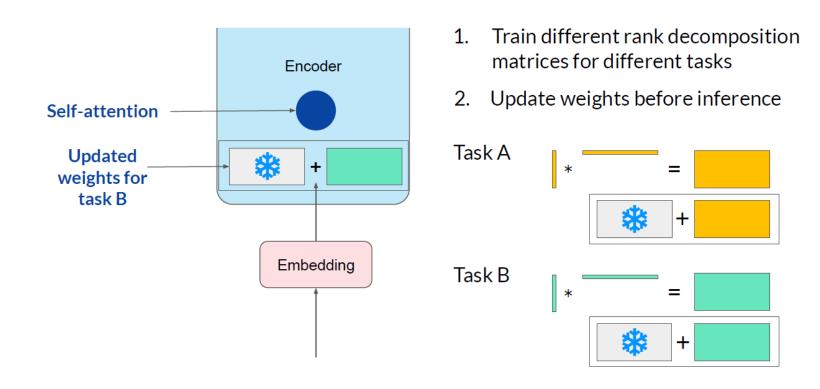
Matrix multiply the low rank matrices

$$B * A = B \times A$$

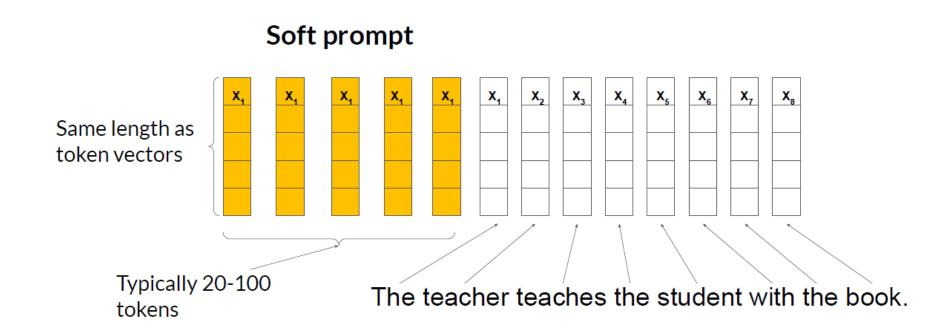
Add to original weights



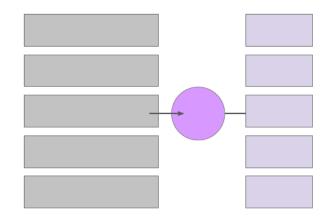
• It can be fine-tuned a different set of LoRA matrices for different tasks and then switch them out at inference time by updating the weights.



- With prompt tuning, additional trainable tokens are added to the prompt and leave it up to the supervised learning process to determine their optimal values.
- The set of trainable tokens is called soft prompts and is added to the embedding vectors representing the input text.
- The soft prompt vectors have the same length as the embedding vectors of the language tokens.

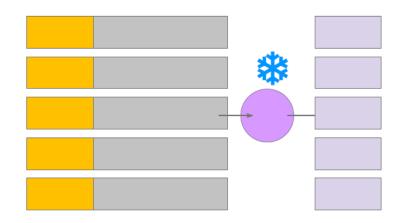


Weights of model updated during training



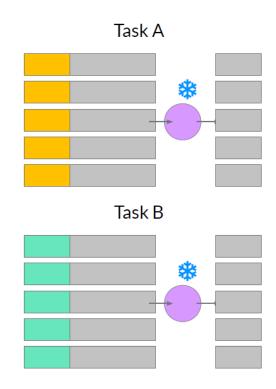
Millions to Billions of parameter updated

Weights of model frozen and soft prompt trained

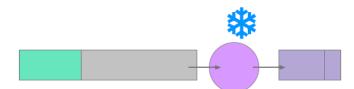


10K - 100K of parameters updated

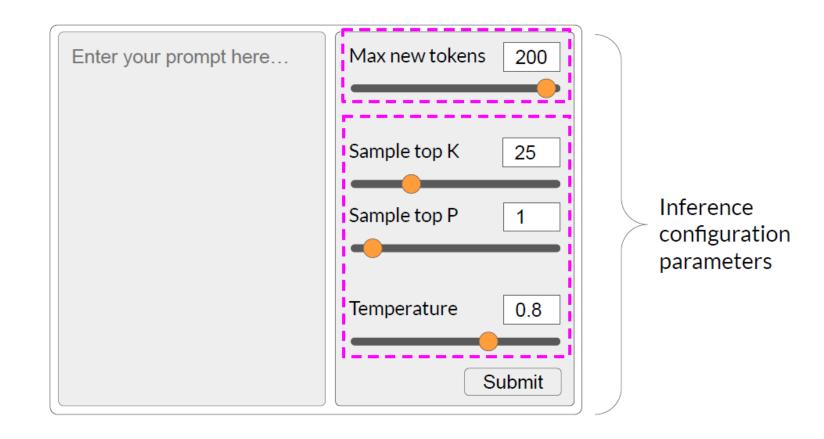
 A different set of soft prompts for each task can be trained and then easily swap them out at inference time.



Switch out soft prompt at inference time to change task!

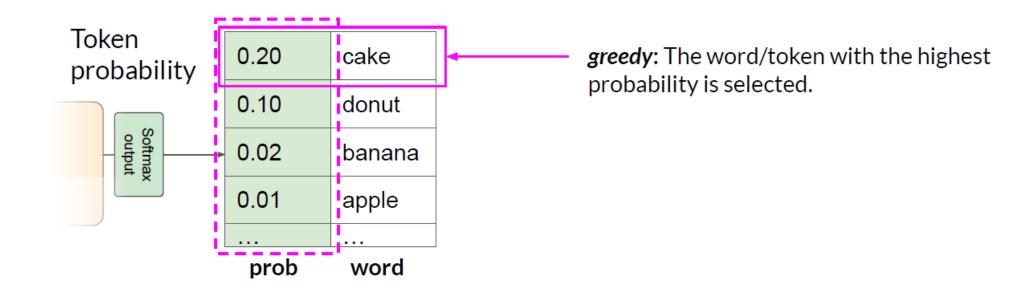


- LLMs playgrounds are usually presented with some **controls** to adjust a set of **configuration parameters** to change how the LLM behaves.
- These set of configuration parameters influences the model's output during **inference**.
- Configuration parameters are invoked at inference time and give you control over things.
- Some parameters are the maximum number of tokens in the completion or others that influence in how creative the output is.

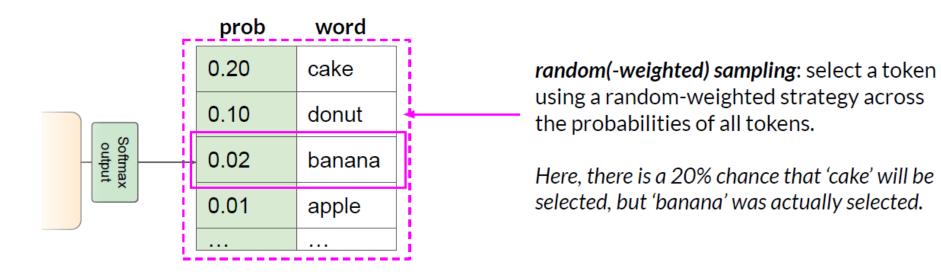


- Max new tokens is used to limit the number of tokens that the model will generate.
- It is the **maximum new tokens**, not a hard number of new tokens generated (if a stop condition is reached, the model end the generation).

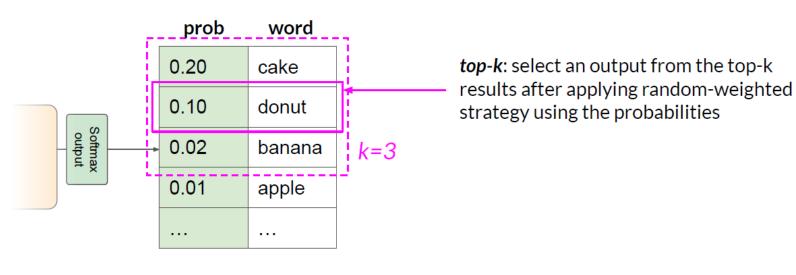
- The output from the transformer's softmax layer is a probability distribution across the entire dictionary of words that the model uses.
- The **simplest** form of **next-word prediction**, where the model will always choose **the word with the highest probability**, is called **greedy sampling** or greedy decoding.
- This method can work very well for short generation but is susceptible to repeated words or repeated sequences of words.
- If it want to **generate text that's more natural**, more creative and avoids repeating words, it is necessary to **use other methods**.

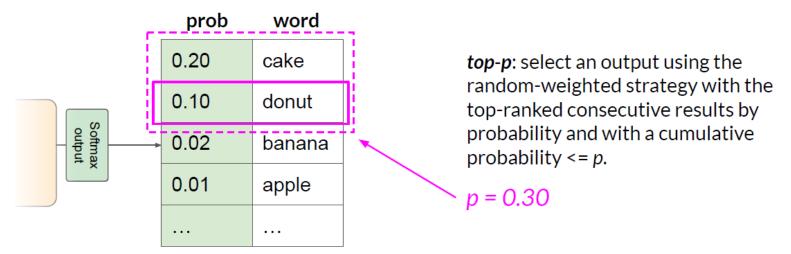


- Random sampling is one way to introduce some variability.
- With random sampling, the model chooses an output word at random using the **probability distribution to weight the selection**.
- By using this technique, the likelihood that words will be repeated is reduced.



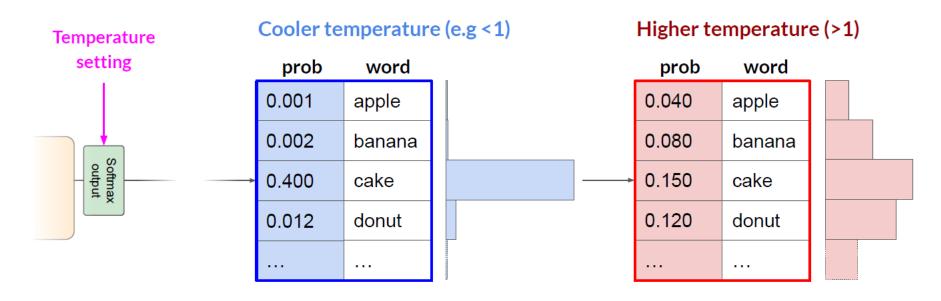
- Top K and Top P are sampling techniques that can be used to limit random sampling and increase the probability of a reasonable outcome.
- Top K limits the options while allowing for some variability by specifying that the model chooses only among the K tokens with the highest probability using random sampling technique.
- A greedy decoding setting is equivalent to Top K=1.
- Alternatively, Top P limits random sampling to tokens whose combined probabilities do not exceed P.
- Top P is not used unless you set the Top P parameter value to something other than the default value of 1.





• When both parameters (K and P) are specified, Top K is applied first, and any tokens below the cutoff that is set by Top K are considered to have a probability of zero when Top P is computed.

- Other parameter that it is used to control the randomness of the model output is the **temperature**.
- This parameter influences the shape of the probability distribution of the softmax output layer of the word dictionary used by the model.
- In general, the higher the temperature, the higher the randomness and and the lower the temperature, the lower the randomness.
- The temperature value is a scaling factor that is applied to the probability distribution of the softmax output layer and affects the shape of the distribution.



Strongly peaked probability distribution

Broader, flatter probability distribution

#### Resources

- <a href="https://www.coursera.org/learn/generative-ai-with-llms">https://www.coursera.org/learn/generative-ai-with-llms</a>
- https://developers.google.com/machine-learning/resources/intro-llms
- https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2023/03/an-introduction-to-large-language-models-llms/
- <a href="https://stanford-cs324.github.io/winter2022/lectures">https://stanford-cs324.github.io/winter2022/lectures</a>
- https://docs.cohere.com/docs/intro-large-language-models
- <a href="https://towardsdatascience.com/a-practical-introduction-to-llms-65194dda1148">https://towardsdatascience.com/a-practical-introduction-to-llms-65194dda1148</a>
- <a href="https://machinelearningmastery.com/a-gentle-introduction-to-positional-encoding-in-transformer-models-part-1/">https://machinelearningmastery.com/a-gentle-introduction-to-positional-encoding-in-transformer-models-part-1/</a>
- https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/transformer-architectures-dummies-part-2-decoder-only-qi6vc/
- <a href="https://www.baeldung.com/cs/large-language-models#general architecture of llms">https://www.baeldung.com/cs/large-language-models#general architecture of llms</a>
- https://www.ibm.com/docs/en/watsonx-as-a-service?topic=lab-model-parameters-prompting

# Large Language Models (LLMs)

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