

A Practical Guide to Large Language Model Training

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Overview

1. LLM Architecture

- 1.1 Data format
- 1.2 Model: Transformer-based architecture
- 1.3 Loss function: Cross Entropy

2. Training Stages

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- 2.3 Instruction Tuning

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Data format

Large Language Model (LLM)

Feed prompts in, generate responses by predicting the next token.

- Tokenization
 - Each word, subword, or character is mapped to an integer
- Next token prediction
 - Feature and label are shifted by one token
 - Feature: [batch size, seq len]
 - Label: [batch size, seq len]
- Data Source
 - Raw text data for pre-training
 - Instruction data for instruction tuning
 - Human preference data for RLHF

Transformer

- Core Components
 - Embedding
 - Attention Mechanism
 - MLP Layers
 - Layer Normalization
 - Residual Connections
- LLM Key Features
 - Decoder-only
 - Pre-LN

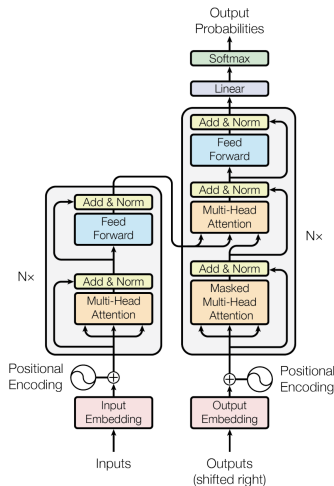


Figure 1: The Transformer - model architecture.

Embedding

- Token embedding
 - Maps each token x_i to a dense vector e_i
 - Learned during training
- Position embedding
 - Encodes position information
 - Maps each position i to a dense vector p_i
- Embedding concatenation
 - Combines token and position embeddings
 - $h_i = e_i + p_i$

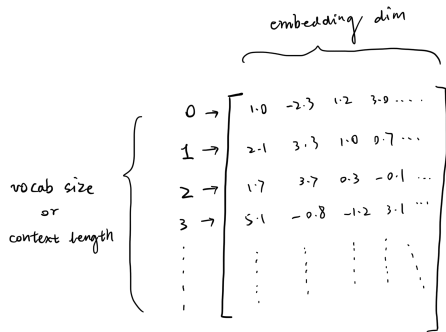


Figure: Embedding visualization

Attention Mechanism

- Self-attention computation
 - Maps each embedding h_i to query, key, value vectors
 $q_i^T = h_i^T W_Q, k_i^T = h_i^T W_K, v_i^T = h_i^T W_V$.
 - Those vectors constitute Query, Key, Value matrices
 $Q^T = [q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n], K^T = [k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n], V^T = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$.
 - Masked attention for causal modeling $\text{mask}(QK^T)_{ij} = -\infty$ for $j > i$.
 - Attention scores: $\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\text{mask}(QK^T)}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right)V$, where d_k is queries and keys dimension.
 - Each embedding uses his query to match all keys, and uses the similarity to allocate weights to all values for predict the next token.
- Multi-head attention
 - Concatenate all heads:
 $o_i = \text{fc}(\text{Concat}(\text{Attention}_1(h_i), \text{Attention}_2(h_i), \dots, \text{Attention}_h(h_i)))$.
 - Multiple parallel attention computations, different representation subspaces

MLP Layers

- Feed-forward network structure
 - Two linear transformations
 - Non-linear activation in between
- Dimensionality
 - Input/Output: model dimension
 - Hidden: typically 4x model dimension

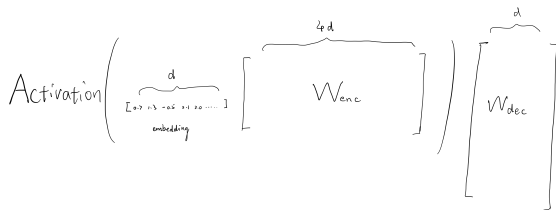
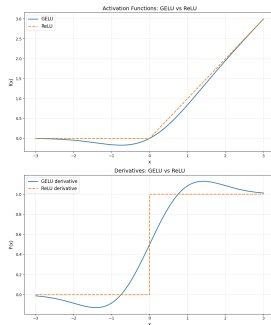


Figure: MLP architecture

Activation Functions

- ReLU
 - Simple and effective: $f(x) = \max(0, x)$
- GELU
 - Smooth approximation of ReLU:
 $\text{GELU}(x) = x\Phi(x) = xP(X \leq x)$
 - $\Phi(x)$ is the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution
 - Smooth derivative near zero



$$\frac{d}{dx}\text{GELU}(x) = \Phi(x) + x\phi(x) = \Phi(x) + x\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

Figure: GELU vs ReLU

Normalization

- Normalized input

$$y = \frac{x - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \epsilon}} \gamma + \beta,$$

where γ and β are learnable parameters ($4dL + 2d$ parameters). Input has batch size B , sequence length T , and feature dimension D .

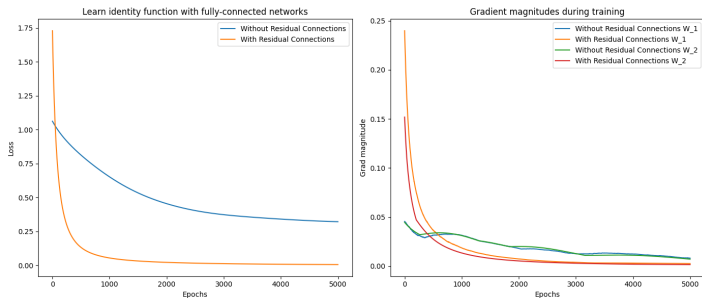
- Batch normalization: normalizes across batch dimension ($B, -, D$), unstable for small batch size.
- Layer normalization: normalizes across feature dimension ($-, -, D$), independent of batch size, low communication for parallel training (e.g. DDP).

		features				Layer Norm	mean	std
Samples	x_1	4	7	4	2	→	4.25	1.71
	x_2	4	8	2	4	→	4.75	2.58
	x_3	8	5	2	3	→	4.50	2.29
Batch Norm		↓	↓	↓	↓			
mean		5.33	7.00	2.67	3.00			
std		1.91	1.63	0.94	0.72			

Figure: Layer Norm vs Batch Norm

Residual Connections

- Skip connections
 - Connects layer input directly to output: $y = F(x) + x$
- Benefits
 - Mitigates vanishing gradients, enables training of very deep networks
 - Learn residual functions instead of the original function
 - Easier to learn identity function



Loss function: Cross Entropy

- Measure the distance between the predicted next token distribution and the true distribution

$$H(p, q) = E_{x \sim p}[-\log q(x)] = - \sum_x p(x) \log q(x)$$

- Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times T}$ be the feature with batch size B and sequence length T , and $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times T}$ be the label, the loss function is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}(X, Y) = H(Y, p_\theta(X)) = -\frac{1}{B \cdot T} \sum_{i=1}^B \sum_{j=1}^T \log[p_\theta(X_{ij})]_{Y_{ij}}$$

- Equivalent to Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Tokenizer Training

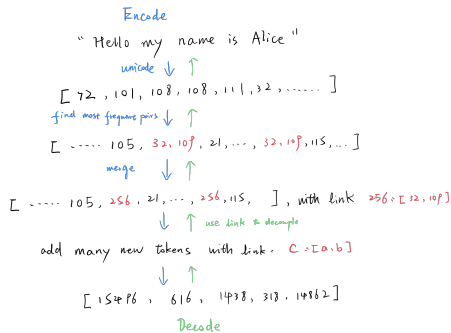


Figure: BPE algorithm

- Byte pair encoding(BPE) algorithm
 - Starts with base vocabulary (0-255)
 - Merges most frequent pairs into new tokens
 - Use regular expression to cut off unnecessary pairs
 - Training data may not be included in the pre-training phase.
- Compression vs. Training difficulty trade-off
 - Higher compression = more context in same length
 - But harder to train compressed tokens

Pre-training

- Raw text processing
 - Unstructured text data
 - Minimal cleaning required
 - Cost major portion of training time
- Token coverage challenges
 - Some tokens may be undertrained
 - Can lead to unexpected behaviors



Figure: Undertrained tokens with weird behaviors

Instruction Tuning

- Structured dialogue format
 - Assistant/User turn-taking
 - Specific formatting requirements
- LoRA adaptation
 - Freezes base parameters
 - Trains low-rank approximation

$$W = W_{\text{frozen}} + AB,$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times k}$ are low rank matrices.

- Efficient fine-tuning approach

A: I'm worried about something.
B: What's that?
A: Well, I have to drive to school for a meeting this morning, and I'm going to end up getting stuck in rush-hour traffic.
B: That's annoying, but nothing to worry about. *Just breathe deeply when you feel yourself getting upset.*
A: Ok, I'll try that.
B: Is there anything else bothering you?
A: Just one more thing. A school called me this morning to see if I could teach a few classes this weekend and I don't know what to do.
B: Do you have any other plans this weekend?
A: I'm supposed to work on a paper that'd due on Monday.
B: *Try not to take on more than you can handle.*
A: You're right. I probably should just work on my paper. Thanks!

Figure: DailyDialog dataset

Human Preference Data Collection

1. Generate response pairs y, y' ;
2. Human annotators rank preferences $y_w > y_l$;
3. Build comparison dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(y_w^i, y_l^i)\}_{i=1}^n$.

您正在提供关于 ChatGPT 新版本的反馈。

您更偏向于哪个回复？回复可能需要一点时间来加载。

回复 1

Thought, 持续 6 秒

残差连接 (Residual Connections) 在大型语言模型中具有以下重要好处:

1. **缓解梯度消失问题**: 随着神经网络层数的增加, 梯度在反向传播过程中可能会逐渐减小, 导致早期层的参数更新困难。残差连接通过为梯度提供直接的传递路径, 缓解了梯度消失的问题, 使得深层网络的训练成为可能。
2. **加速模型收敛**: 残差连接允许网络学习输入与期望输出之间的残差 (即差值), 而不是直接学习复杂的映射函数。这简化了学习任务, 使优化过程更容易, 模型能够更快地达到较低的损失值。
3. **提升模型性能**: 通过使网络更容易学习恒等映射, 残差连接提高

回复 2

在大语言模型 (如Transformer) 中, Residual Connections (残差连接) 起到了至关重要的作用。主要有以下几点好处:

1. **缓解梯度消失问题**: 在深层网络中, 梯度容易逐渐衰减, 导致模型难以学习到深层特征。残差连接为梯度提供了直接的路径, 使得反向传播时梯度可以更有效地传递到较浅的层, 缓解梯度消失问题。
2. **加速收敛**: 残差连接提供了一个“快捷通道”, 使得模型在训练时可以更快地调整到合适的参数分布。这在实际训练中表现为模型 loss 下降更快。没有残差连接时, 每层必须依赖前面层的输出, 导致特征传递的效率变低, 因而 loss 下降缓慢。
3. **提升模型表现**: 残差连接使每一层都可以更灵活地学习到“增量特

Figure: GPT Preference Visualization

Reward Model Training

- Bradley-Terry model implementation

$$\max_{\theta} P_{\theta}(y_w > y_l) = \frac{\exp(r_{\theta}(y_w))}{\exp(r_{\theta}(y_w)) + \exp(r_{\theta}(y_l))},$$

where $r_{\theta}(y)$ is the reward score of response y .

- Architecture
 - Base LLM model with additional linear head
 - Scalar reward output
 - Loss function: binary cross entropy

$$L_{\text{reward}}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \sigma(r_{\theta}(y_w^i) - r_{\theta}(y_l^i)),$$

where $y_{ij} = 1$ if $y_w > y_l$ otherwise 0, $\sigma(x)$ is the sigmoid function.

RL Training: PPO

- Optimization objective:

$$\max_{\theta} E_{x \sim \mathcal{D}_{\text{prompt}}} E_{y \sim \pi_{\theta}(\cdot|x)} [r(y|x) - \beta \text{KL}(\pi_{\theta}(y|x), \pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x))],$$

where $r(y|x) = \sum_t \gamma^t r(y_t|x, y_{<t})$ are discounted rewards of each token in the response sequence, $\text{KL}(\pi_{\theta}(y|x), \pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x)) = \sum_t E_{y_t \sim \pi_{\theta}(\cdot|x, y_{<t})} \log \left(\frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_t|x, y_{<t})}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_t|x, y_{<t})} \right)$ are the KL divergences between the policy model and the reference model.

- Four-model system architecture:
 - Policy model $\pi_{\theta}(y|x)$ (actively trained), an LLM;
 - Reference model $\pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x)$ (frozen), an LLM;
 - Value model $v_{\mu}(y|x)$ (actively trained), an LLM + linear head;
 - Reward model $r(y|x)$ (frozen), an LLM + linear head.

PPO Loss Function I

Let T be the number of tokens in the response sequence. For LLM, states s_t are defined by the previous tokens $[x, y_{<t}]$ and actions a_t are defined by the next token y_t .

1. Merge the reward and KL penalty: $r(y|x, y_{<t}) \leftarrow r(y|x, y_{<t}) - \beta \text{KL}_t$;
2. Policy gradient:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{\theta} E_{y \sim \pi_{\theta}}[r(y)] &= E[\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y) \cdot r(y)] \\&= \sum_{t=1}^T E_y \left[\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_t | x, y_{<t}) \sum_{k=t}^T \gamma^k r(y_k | x, y_{<k}) \right] \\&= \sum_{t=1}^T E_{y_{<t}} E_{y_t | y_{<t}} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_t | x, y_{<t}) \left(E_{y_{>t} | y_{\leq t}} \left[\sum_{k=t}^T \gamma^k r(y_k | x, y_{<k}) \right] - E_{y_{\geq t} | y_{<t}} \left[\sum_{k=t}^T \gamma^k r(y_k | x, y_{<k}) \right] \right) \right] \\&:= \sum_{t=1}^T E_{y_{<t}} E_{y_t | y_{<t}} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_t | x, y_{<t}) \cdot \gamma^t \cdot (Q^{\pi_{\theta}}(y_t, [x, y_{<t}]) - V^{\pi_{\theta}}([x, y_{<t}])) \right] \\&:= \sum_{t=1}^T E_{y_{<t}} E_{y_t | y_{<t}} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_t | x, y_{<t}) \cdot \gamma^t \cdot A^{\pi_{\theta}}(a_t, s_t) \right]\end{aligned}$$

where $A_t := A^{\pi_{\theta}}(a_t, s_t) = Q^{\pi_{\theta}}(a_t, s_t) - V^{\pi_{\theta}}(s_t)$ is the advantage function by standard definition of RL. We will use a neural network $v_{\mu}(s)$ to estimate the value function $V^{\pi_{\theta}}(s)$.

3. Estimate policy gradient:

$$\hat{\nabla}_{\theta} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \sum_{t=1}^T \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_t^i | x^i, y_{<t}^i) \cdot \gamma^t \cdot \hat{A}_t(x^i, y^i), \quad y^i \sim \pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(\cdot | x^i) \text{ in last iteration};$$

PPO Loss Function II

4. Estimate KL divergence by token-level sampling: $\widehat{\text{KL}} = \sum_{t=1}^T \widehat{\text{KL}}_t = \sum_{t=1}^T \log \left(\frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_t^i | x^i, y_{<t}^i)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_t^i | x^i, y_{<t}^i)} \right)$;
5. Estimate advantage function \hat{A}_t using Generalized Advantage Estimation (GAE):
 - Accumulation(low bias but high variance): $\hat{A}_t(x, y) = \sum_{k=t}^T \gamma^{k-t} r(y_k | x, y_{<k}) - v_{\mu}(s_t)$;
 - TD residual(low variance but high bias): $\hat{A}_t(x, y) = r(y_t | x, y_{<t}) + \gamma v_{\mu}(s_{t+1}) - v_{\mu}(s_t)$.

Consider interpolation with multi-step TD residuals:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{A}_t^{(1)} &= r_t + \gamma v_{\mu}(s_{t+1}) - v_{\mu}(s_t); \\ \hat{A}_t^{(2)} &= r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 v_{\mu}(s_{t+2}) - v_{\mu}(s_t); \\ \hat{A}_t^{(3)} &= r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + \gamma^3 v_{\mu}(s_{t+3}) - v_{\mu}(s_t); \\ \hat{A}_t^{(k)} &= r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \dots + \gamma^{k-1} r_{t+k-1} + \gamma^k v_{\mu}(s_{t+k}) - v_{\mu}(s_t).\end{aligned}$$

GAE use λ -exponentially weighted of infinite multi-step TD residuals:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{A}_t(x, y) &:= (1 - \lambda) \left(\hat{A}_t^{(1)} + \lambda \hat{A}_t^{(2)} + \dots + \lambda^{k-1} \hat{A}_t^{(k)} + \dots \right) \\ &= \delta_t + \gamma \lambda \delta_{t+1} + \dots + (\gamma \lambda)^k \delta_{t+k} + \dots,\end{aligned}$$

where $\delta_t = r(y_t | x, y_{<t}) + \gamma v_{\mu}(s_{t+1}) - v_{\mu}(s_t)$. Take $\hat{A}_t = \sum_{k=0}^{T-t-1} (\gamma \lambda)^k \delta_{t+k}$ for finite horizon T .

PPO Loss Function III

6. Maximize the advantage (Actor loss):

$$\max_{\theta} L_{policy}(\theta) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{A}_t^i \cdot \frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_t^i | x^i, y_{<t}^i)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(y_t^i | x^i, y_{<t}^i)} \approx E_{y \sim \pi_{\theta}(\cdot | x)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{A}_t \right];$$

7. Minimize the value function approximation error (Critic loss):

$$\min_{\mu} L_{value}(\mu) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \sum_{t=1}^T (v_{\mu}([x^i, y_{<t}^i]) - R_t(x^i, y^i))^2,$$

where $R_t(x^i, y^i) = \hat{A}_t(x^i, y^i) + v_{\mu_{old}}([x^i, y_{<t}^i])$ is the returns in last iteration.

PPO Loss Function

$$L_{PPO}(\theta, \mu) = -L_{policy}(\theta) + c \cdot L_{value}(\mu),$$

RL Training: DPO

1. Solve PPO optimization problem:

$$\pi^*(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x) \exp\left(\frac{1}{\beta} r(x, y)\right)$$

2. Reparameterize the reward model:

$$r(x, y) = \beta \log \frac{\pi^*(y|x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x)} + \beta \log Z(x)$$

3. Plug in the reparameterized reward model into reward model training loss function $L_{\text{reward}} = -E[\log \sigma(r(y_w|x) - r(y_l|x))]$:

DPO Loss Function

$$L_{\text{DPO}}(\pi_{\theta}; \pi_{\text{ref}}) = -\mathbb{E}_{(x, y_w, y_l) \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\log \sigma \left(\beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_l|x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_l|x)} - \beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_w|x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_w|x)} \right) \right]$$

DPO Loss Function

Solve PPO optimization problem:

$$\max_{\pi} E_{y \sim \pi(\cdot|x)} \left[r(x, y) - \beta \log \left(\frac{\pi(y|x)}{\pi_{ref}(y|x)} \right) \right] \quad \text{subject to} \quad \int \pi(y|x) dy = 1.$$

1. Construct Lagrangian:

$$\begin{aligned} L(\pi, \lambda) &= E_{y \sim \pi(\cdot|x)} \left[r(x, y) - \beta \log \left(\frac{\pi(y|x)}{\pi_{ref}(y|x)} \right) \right] + \lambda \left[\int \pi(y|x) dy - 1 \right] \\ &= \int \left(r(x, y) - \beta \log \left(\frac{\pi(y|x)}{\pi_{ref}(y|x)} \right) \right) \pi(y|x) dy + \lambda \left(\int \pi(y|x) dy - 1 \right). \end{aligned}$$

2. Apply KKT conditions:

$$0 = \nabla_q L = \int \nabla_{\pi} \left[\left(r - \beta \log \frac{\pi}{\pi_{ref}} + \lambda \right) \pi \right] dy = \int \left(-\beta + r - \beta \log \frac{\pi}{\pi_{ref}} + \lambda \right) (\nabla_{\pi} \pi)(y) dy.$$

Therefore:

$$\forall z \quad 0 = \partial_{q(z)} L = \int \left(-\beta + r - \beta \log \frac{\pi}{\pi_{ref}} + \lambda \right) \delta(z - y) dy = -\beta + r(x, z) - \beta \log \frac{\pi(z|x)}{\pi_{ref}(z|x)} + \lambda.$$

Thus, $r(x, y) + \beta \log \pi_{ref}(y|x) - \beta \log \pi^*(y|x) + \beta + \lambda^* = 0$, which gives:

$$\pi^*(y|x) \propto \pi_{ref}(y|x) e^{\frac{1}{\beta} r(x, y)}.$$

Scaling Laws

- Empirical observation

$$L(N, D) = \frac{A}{N^\alpha} + \frac{B}{D^\beta} + E,$$

where A, B, α, β, E are observed constants, N is the number of model parameters D is number of trained tokens.

- FLOPs Estimation: $C \approx 6ND$ ($2ND$ fwd + $4ND$ bwd)
- Optimal allocation given FLOPs: $(N_{\text{opt}}(C), D_{\text{opt}}(C)) = \arg \min_{6ND=C} L(N, D)$

$$N_{\text{opt}}(C) = G \left(\frac{C}{6} \right)^a, \quad D_{\text{opt}}(C) = G^{-1} \left(\frac{C}{6} \right)^b,$$

where

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

Scaling Laws

- Best performance scaling

$$L(C) = L(N_{\text{opt}}(C), D_{\text{opt}}(C)) \approx O(C^{-\gamma}).$$

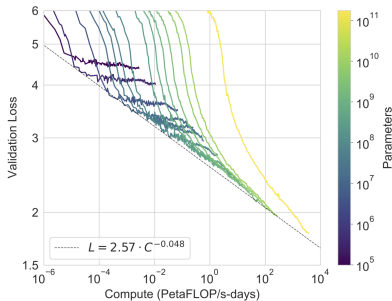


Figure: Compute-optimal frontier from GPT-3 paper

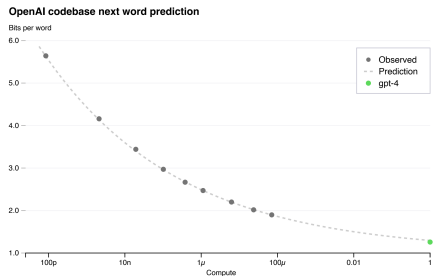


Figure: Scaling laws with GPT-4

Parallelization

- Data Parallel
 - Split batch across devices
 - Full model copy per device
 - Gradient sync and averaging (AllReduce)
- Model Parallel
 - Split model layers across devices
 - Reduce per-device memory usage
- Tensor Parallel
 - Split individual tensors across devices
 - Row/Column parallel

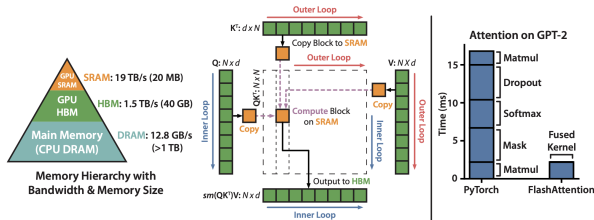
Flash Attention

- Acceleration in both training and inference by fused kernel.
- Decomposes parallel computation into for-loops (softmax decomposition formula):

$$\text{softmax}([x_1; x_2]) = [\alpha_1 \text{softmax}(x_1); \alpha_2 \text{softmax}(x_2)],$$

where $\alpha_i = \frac{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij})}{\sum_k \exp(x_k)}$.

- Loops execute on much faster memory (SRAM) and significantly reduces I/O overhead for better speed.



KV Cache

- Acceleration in inference by reducing memory footprint and computational complexity.
- KV Cache
 - To predict next token only need to use the latest query to lookup against the cached keys and values.
 - Reduce complexity from $O(T^2)$ to $O(T)$.
- Cache reduction
 - Multiple-query attention (MQA), $1/n_{\text{head}}$ KV cache;
 - Grouped-query attention (GQA), $n_{\text{group}}/n_{\text{head}}$ KV cache.

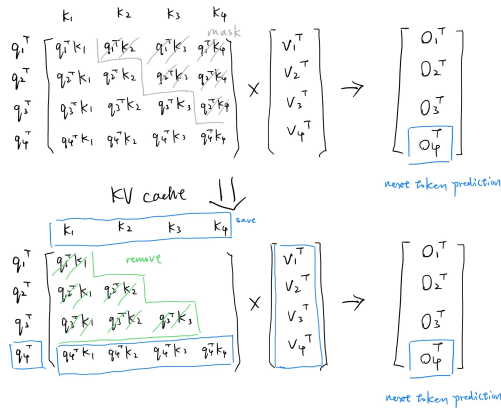


Figure: KV Cache

The End