

DSC190: Machine Learning with Few Labels

Enhancing LLMs

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In-class paper presentation

Adversarial Examples are not
Bugs, they are Features



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Outline: Enhancing LLMs

- Richer learning mechanisms
 - Learning with Embodied Experiences
 - Social Learning
- Multi-modal capabilities
- Latent-space reasoning
- Agent models with external augmentations (e.g., tools)

Latent-space reasoning

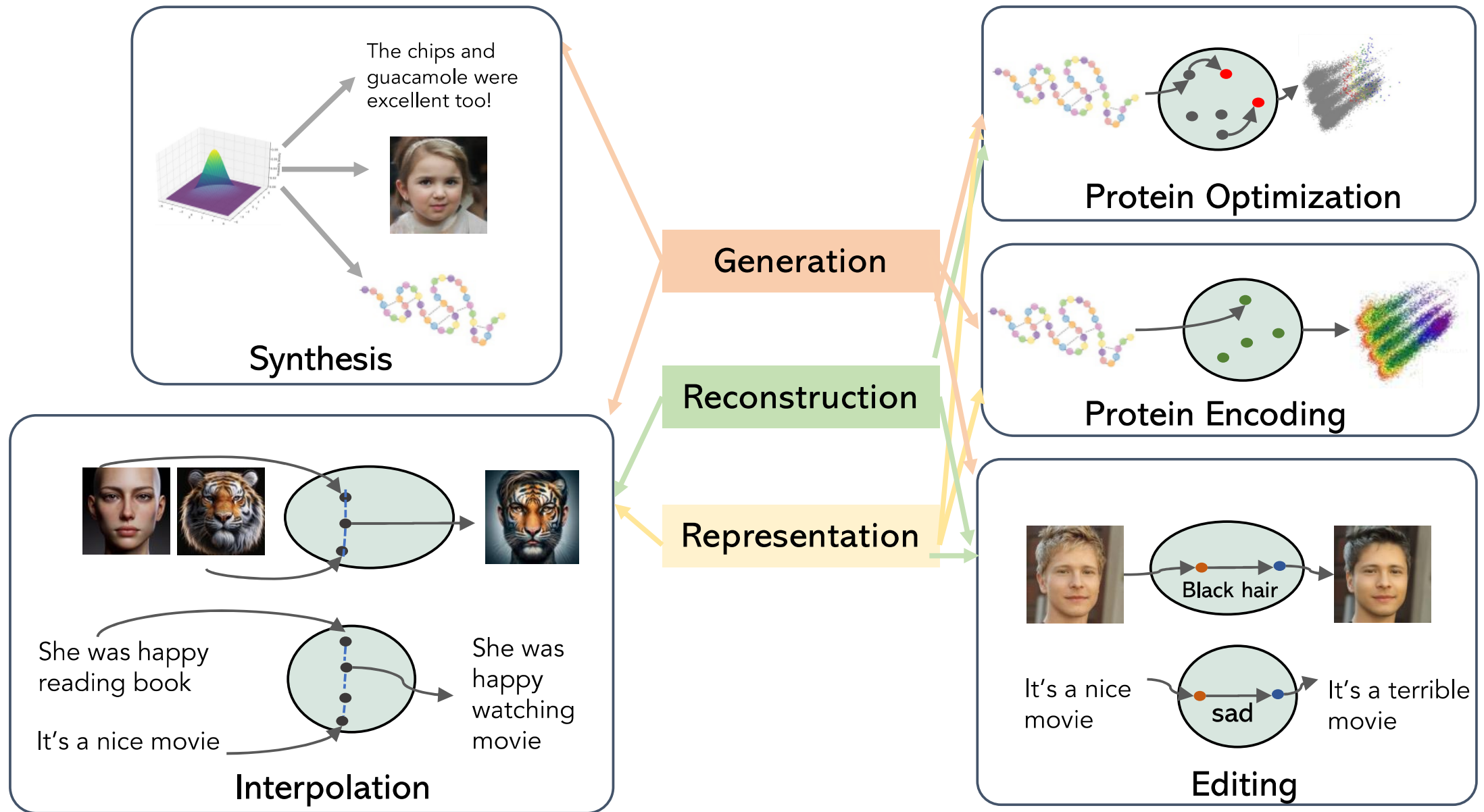
- What's the best space for carrying out reasoning?
 - Natural language space?
 - Raw sensory space (e.g., video)?
 - Learned latent space?
 - which fuses information of different observed modalities

Latent-space reasoning

- What's the best space for carrying out reasoning?
 - Natural language space?
 - Raw sensory space (e.g., video)?
 - Learned latent space?
 - Single-level latent space?
 - Multi-level latent spaces
- Multi-level latent spaces are needed for multi-granularity reasoning and control:
 - Immediate next move
 - Mid-term and long-term planning and thought experiments
 - Control and reasoning at different granularity of visual, location, time, abstraction

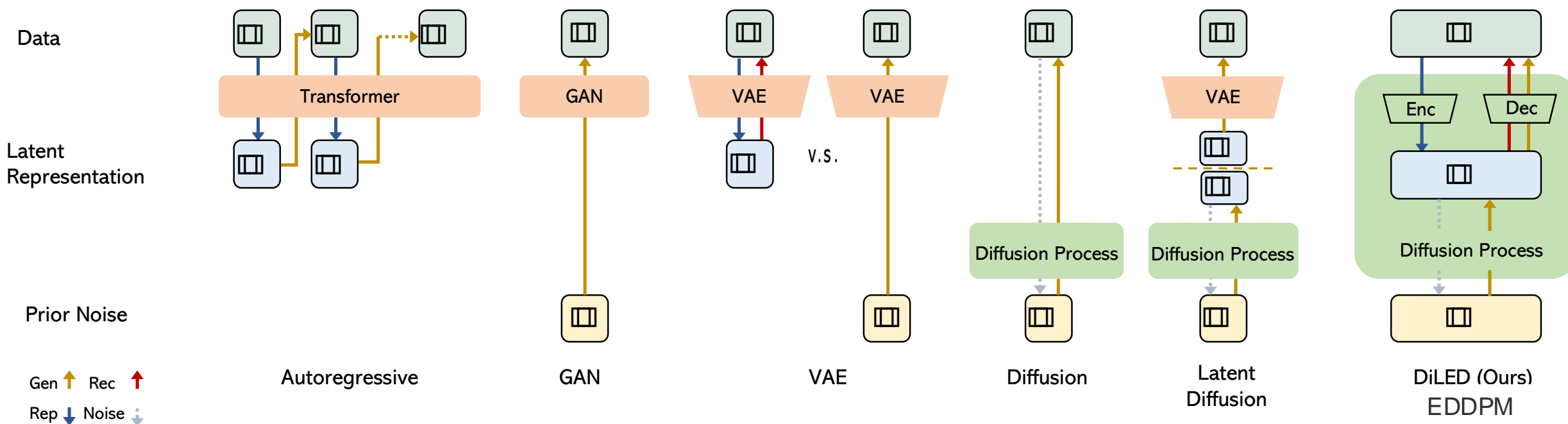
Latent-space reasoning

- But how to learn a good latent space in the first place?
 - Compact and well-structured **representation** of the world, enabling realistic **generation** and consistent **reconstruction**



Latent-space reasoning

- But how to learn a good latent space in the first place?
 - Compact and well-structured **representation** of the world, enabling realistic **generation** and consistent **reconstruction**
- Existing deep generative models



Discussion

- **No Free Lunch (NFL) theorem:**
 - No single machine learning algorithm is universally the best-performing algorithm for all problems
 - All algorithms perform equally well when their performance is averaged across all possible problems
- Do generalist models (LLMs) violate this theorem?

Supervised Learning, Unsupervised Learning

Probabilistic Models: Why Probability?

- The world is a very uncertain place
 - “What will the weather be like today?”
 - “Will I like this movie?”
- We often can’t prove something is true, but we can still ask how likely different outcomes are or ask for the most likely explanations
- Predictions need to have associated confidence
 - Confidence -> probability
- Not all machine learning models are probabilistic
 - ... but most of them have probabilistic interpretations



Notations

- A random variable x represents outcomes or states of the world.
 - We write $p(x_0)$ to mean Probability($x = x_0$)
- Sample space: the space of all possible outcomes (may be discrete, continuous, or mixed)
- $p(x)$ is the probability mass (density) function
 - Assigns a number to each point in sample space
 - Non-negative, sums (integrates) to 1
 - Intuitively: how often does x occur, how much do we believe in x .

Notations

- Joint distribution $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$
- Conditional distribution $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$

- $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x})}$

- Expectation:

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{x})] = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x})$$

or

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{x})] = \int_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

Rules of Probability

- Sum rule

$$p(x) = \sum_y p(x, y) \quad (\text{Marginalize out } y)$$

$$p(x_1) = \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_3} \dots \sum_{x_N} p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$$

- Product/chain rule

$$p(x, y) = p(y | x)p(x)$$

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_N) = p(x_1)p(x_2 | x_1) \dots p(x_N | x_1, \dots, x_{N-1})$$

Bayes' Rule

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})p(\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

- This gives us a way of “reversing” conditional probabilities
- We call $p(\mathbf{y})$ the “prior”, and $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ the “posterior”
- Ex: Bayes' Rule in machine learning:
 - \mathcal{D} : data (evidence)
 - θ : unknown quantities, such as model parameters, predictions

Posterior belief on the unknown quantities you see data \mathcal{D}

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$

Likelihood: How likely is the observed data under the particular unknown quantities θ

Prior belief on the unknown quantities **before** you see data \mathcal{D}

Independence

- Two random variables are said to be **independent** iff their joint distribution factors

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{y})$$

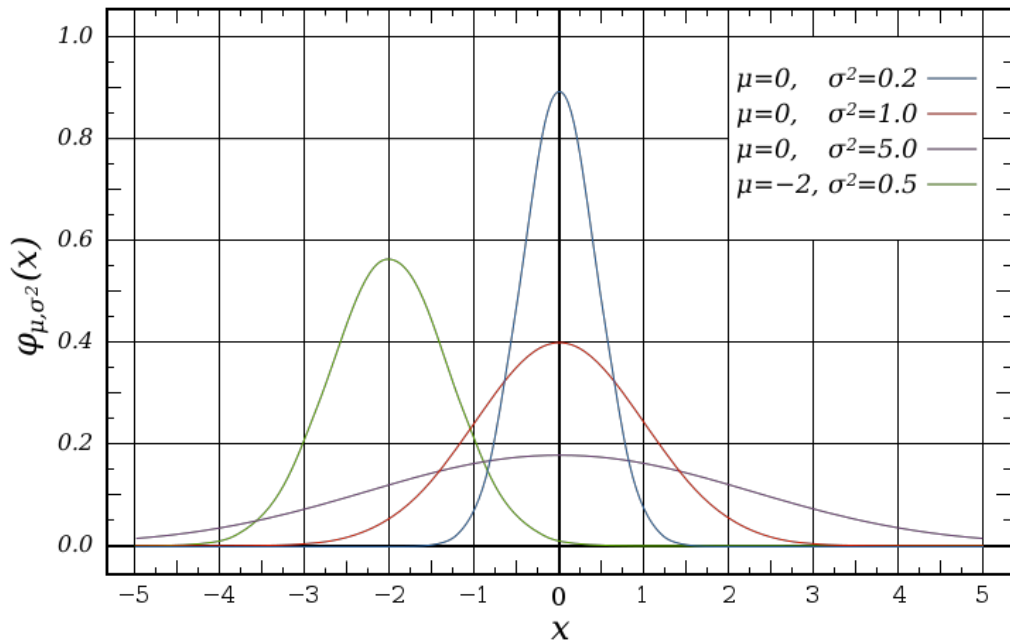
- Two random variables are **conditionally independent** given a third if they are independent after conditioning on the third

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}|\mathbf{z}) = p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{z})$$

Some common distributions - Gaussian distribution

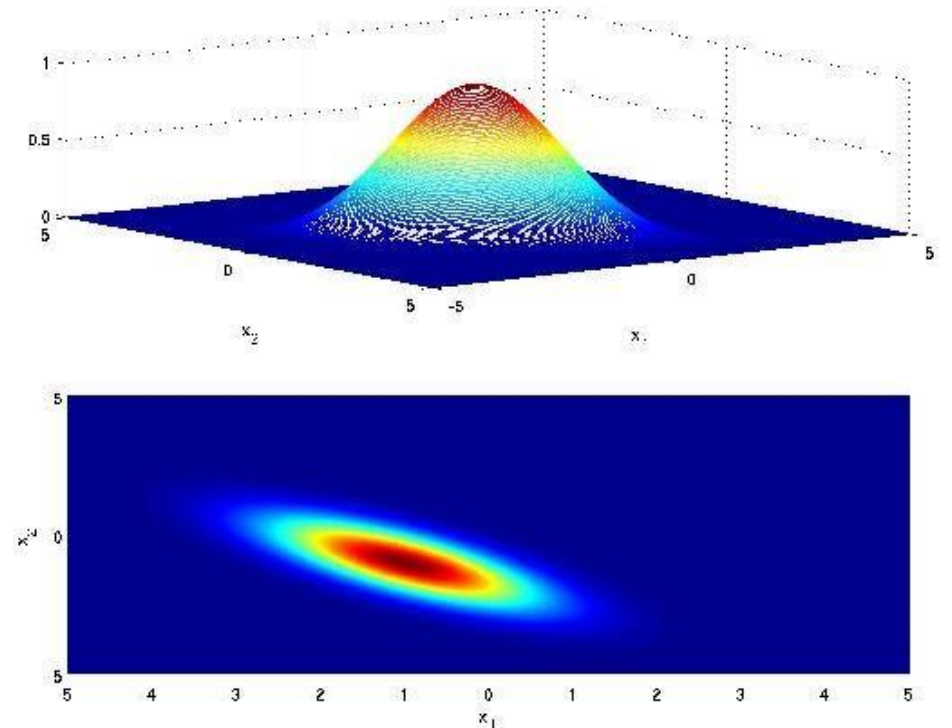
- Gaussian distribution

$$P(x | \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right\}$$



(Multivariate)

$$P(x | \mu, \Sigma) = |2\pi \Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right\}$$





Some common distributions - Multinomial distribution

- Multinomial distribution

- Discrete random variable x that takes one of M values $\{1, \dots, M\}$
- $p(x = i) = \pi_i, \quad \sum_i \pi_i = 1$
- Out of n independent trials, let k_i be the number of times $x = i$ was observed
- The probability of observing a vector of occurrences $\mathbf{k} = [k_1, \dots, k_M]$ is given by the *multinomial distribution* parametrized by $\boldsymbol{\pi}$

$$p(\mathbf{k}|\boldsymbol{\pi}, n) = p(k_1, \dots, k_m | \pi_1, \dots, \pi_m, n) = \frac{n!}{k_1! k_2! \dots k_m!} \prod_{i=1} \pi_i^{k_i}$$

- E.g., describing a text document by the frequency of occurrence of every distinct word
- For $n = 1$, a.k.a. *categorical distribution*
 - $p(x = i | \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \pi_i$
 - In $\mathbf{k} = [k_1, \dots, k_M]$: $k_i = 1$, and $k_j = 0$ for all $j \neq i \rightarrow$ a.k.a., *one-hot representation* of i

Entropy

- Shannon entropy $H(p) = - \sum_x p(x) \log p(x)$
 - The average level of "information", "surprise", or "uncertainty" inherent to the variable x 's possible outcomes

KL Divergence

- Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence: measures the closeness of two distributions $p(\mathbf{x})$ and $q(\mathbf{x})$

$$\text{KL}(q(\mathbf{x}) || p(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} q(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

- a.k.a. Relative entropy
- $\text{KL} \geq 0$ (Jensen's inequality) -> [homework](#)
- **Questions:**
 - If q is high and p is high in a region, then KL divergence is _____ in this region.
 - If q is high and p is low in a region, then KL divergence is _____ in this region.
 - If q is low in a region, then KL divergence is _____ in this region.

KL Divergence

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- a.k.a. Relative entropy
- $\text{KL} \geq 0$ (Jensen's inequality)
- Intuitively:
 - If q is high and p is high, then we are happy (i.e. low KL divergence)
 - If q is high and p is low then we pay a price (i.e. high KL divergence).
 - If q is low then we don't care (i.e. also low KL divergence, regardless of p)
- not a true "distance":
 - not commutative (symmetric) $\text{KL}(p \parallel q) \neq \text{KL}(q \parallel p)$
 - doesn't satisfy triangle inequality

Supervised Learning

- Model to be learned $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$
- Observe **full** data $\mathcal{D} = \{ \mathbf{x}_i \}_{i=1}^N$
 - e.g., \mathbf{x}_i includes both input (e.g., image) and output (e.g., image label)
 - \mathcal{D} defines an empirical data distribution $\tilde{p}(\mathbf{x})$
 - $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{D} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} \sim \tilde{p}(\mathbf{x})$

- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)
 - The most classical learning algorithm

$$\min_{\theta} - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \tilde{p}(\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \right]$$

- **Question:** Show that MLE is minimizing the KL divergence between the empirical data distribution and the model distribution

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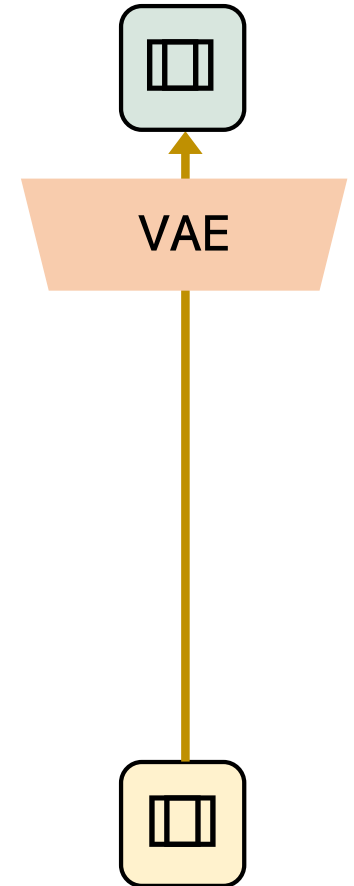
$$\text{KL}(\tilde{p}(\mathbf{x}) \parallel p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) = -\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{p}(\mathbf{x})} [\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})] + H(\tilde{p}(\mathbf{x}))$$



Cross entropy

Unsupervised Learning

- Each data instance is partitioned into two parts:
 - observed variables \mathbf{x}
 - latent (unobserved) variables \mathbf{z}
- Want to learn a model $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$



Latent (unobserved) variables

- A variable can be unobserved (latent) because:
 - imaginary quantity: meant to provide some simplified and abstractive view of the data generation process
 - e.g., speech recognition models, mixture models, ...

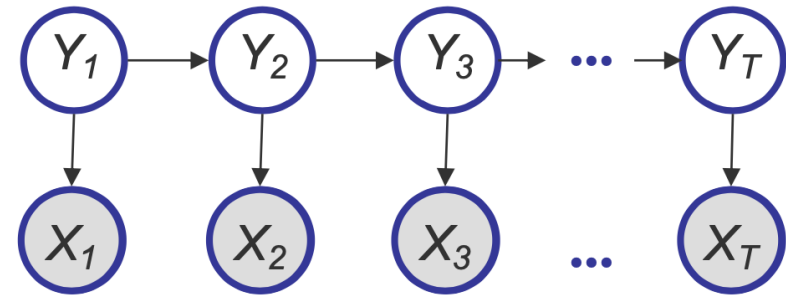
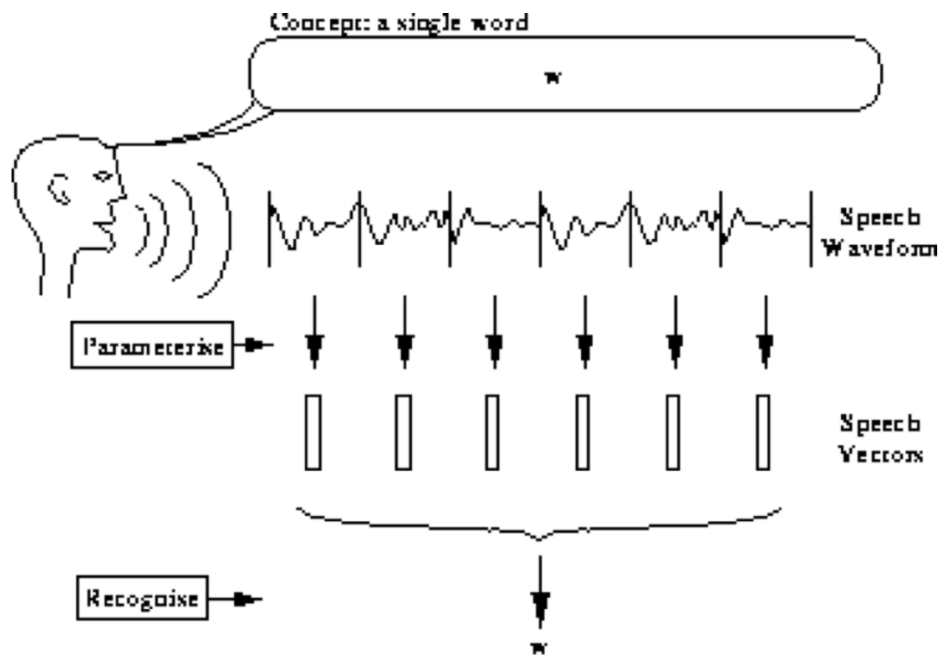
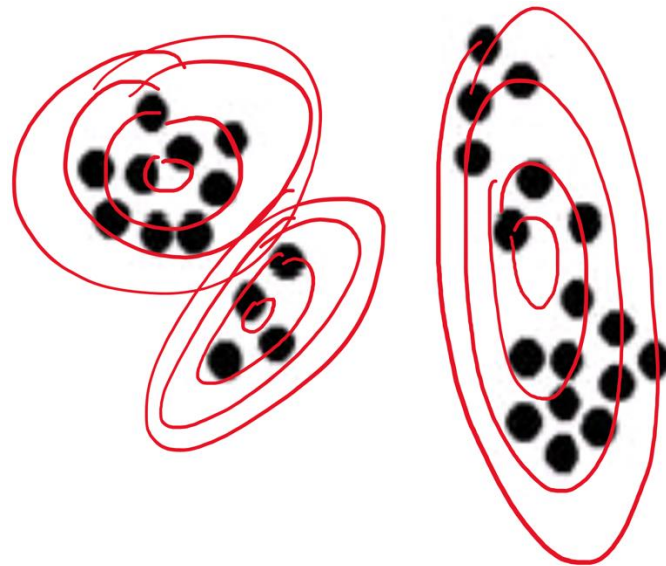


Fig. 1.2 Isolated Word Problem

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Latent (unobserved) variables

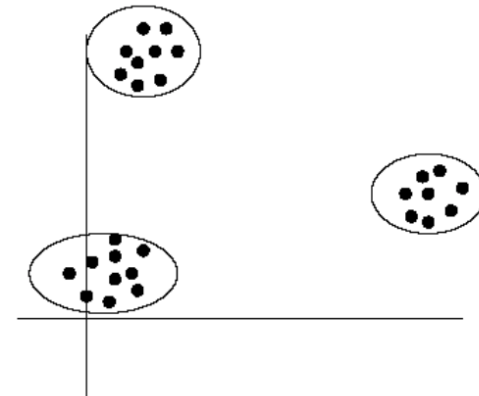
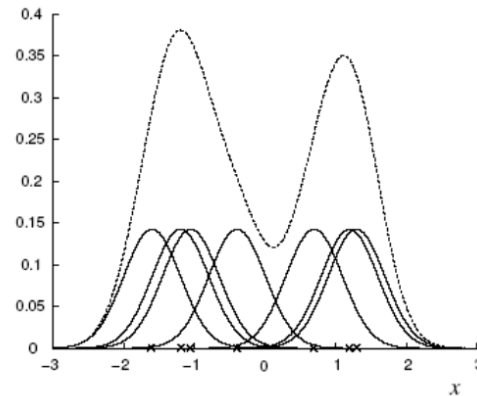
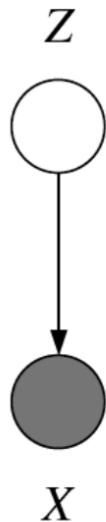
- A variable can be unobserved (latent) because:
 - imaginary quantity: meant to provide some simplified and abstractive view of the data generation process
 - e.g., speech recognition models, mixture models, ...
 - a real-world object (and/or phenomena), but difficult or impossible to measure
 - e.g., the temperature of a star, causes of a disease, evolutionary ancestors ...
 - a real-world object (and/or phenomena), but sometimes wasn't measured, because of faulty sensors, etc.
- Discrete latent variables can be used to partition/cluster data into sub- groups
- Continuous latent variables (factors) can be used for dimensionality reduction (e.g., factor analysis, etc.)

Example: Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs)

- Consider a mixture of K Gaussian components:

$$p(x_n | \mu, \Sigma) = \sum_k \pi_k N(x, | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

mixture proportion mixture component



- This model can be used for unsupervised clustering.
 - This model (fit by AutoClass) has been used to discover new kinds of stars in astronomical data, etc.

Example: Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs)

- Consider a mixture of K Gaussian components:

- Z is a latent class indicator vector:

$$p(z_n) = \text{multi}(z_n : \pi) = \prod_k (\pi_k)^{z_n^k}$$

- X is a conditional Gaussian variable with a class-specific mean/covariance

$$p(x_n | z_n^k = 1, \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{m/2} |\Sigma_k|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (x_n - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x_n - \mu_k)\right\}$$

- The likelihood of a sample:

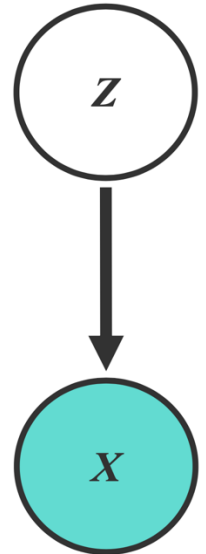
Parameters to be learned:

$$p(x_n | \mu, \Sigma) = \sum_k p(z^k = 1 | \pi) p(x, | z^k = 1, \mu, \Sigma)$$

$$= \sum_{z_n} \prod_k \left((\pi_k)^{z_n^k} N(x_n : \mu_k, \Sigma_k)^{z_n^k} \right) = \sum_k \pi_k N(x, | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

mixture proportion

mixture component



Example: Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs)

- Consider a mixture of K Gaussian components:

$$p(x_n | \mu, \Sigma) = \sum_k \pi_k N(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

- Recall MLE for completely observed data

- Data log-likelihood:

$$\ell(\theta; D) = \log \prod_n p(z_n, x_n) = \log \prod_n p(z_n | \pi) p(x_n | z_n, \mu, \sigma)$$

$$= \sum_n \log \prod_k \pi_k^{z_n^k} + \sum_n \log \prod_k N(x_n; \mu_k, \sigma)^{z_n^k}$$

$$= \sum_n \sum_k z_n^k \log \pi_k - \sum_n \sum_k z_n^k \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x_n - \mu_k)^2 + C$$

- MLE:

$$\hat{\pi}_{k,MLE} = \arg \max_{\pi} \ell(\theta; D),$$

$$\hat{\mu}_{k,MLE} = \arg \max_{\mu} \ell(\theta; D)$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{k,MLE} = \arg \max_{\sigma} \ell(\theta; D)$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\mu}_{k,MLE} = \frac{\sum_n z_n^k x_n}{\sum_n z_n^k}$$

- What if we do not know z_n ?

Why is Learning Harder?

- **Complete log likelihood:** if both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} can be observed, then

$$\ell_c(\theta; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta) = \log p(\mathbf{z}|\theta_z) + \log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}, \theta_x)$$

- Decomposes into a sum of factors, the parameter for each factor can be estimated separately
- But given that \mathbf{z} is not observed, $\ell_c(\theta; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ is a random quantity, cannot be maximized directly
- **Incomplete (or marginal) log likelihood:** with \mathbf{z} unobserved, our objective becomes the log of a marginal probability:

$$\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)$$

- All parameters become coupled together
- In other models when \mathbf{z} is complex (continuous) variables (as we'll see later), marginalization over \mathbf{z} is intractable.

Questions?