A CODESPACE AUTOENCODER FOR LANGUAGE TASKS

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ABSTRACT

Modern language modeling datasets require models to handle compositional reasoning, fact recall, and task-specific constraints. While these tasks are expressed in natural language, they often imply an underlying symbolic representation. In this work, we consider methods for extracting a latent symbolic representation in an unsupervised manner. We propose an autoencoder that models observed text data as being generated from underlying code with a dataset level function library. Our method is non-parametric and leverages in-context learning and code interpretation for inference. Code as the latent symbolic representation offers two key advantages. First, code offers a structured space that can be explored via modular functions; second, code is interpretably executable using deterministic and neural interpreters, enabling compositional and programmatic decoding into text. By identifying and composing patterns in this latent space, we can sample programs that produce correct, diverse, and task-relevant text through program execution. We demonstrate how our method induces a latent space with modern LLMs, explore patterns discovered within it, and evaluate text data synthesized from our induced latent space.

1 INTRODUCTION

Many natural tasks expressed with language have an underlying symbolic process. These latent processes can be represented well by code. For example, consider the example in Figure [1.](#page-0-0) Correct interpretation and execution of the task requires one to identify processes useful for the task (parsing time strings, comparing timestamps), then compose them properly (compose identified relations). We can enable modeling of more complex tasks by pairing neural and symbolic processes: neural processes discover the underlying symbolic structure, and symbolic processes execute the identified representation.

Figure 1: The text inquiry [\(Wang et al., 2022\)](#page-12-0) (left) has an underlying symbolic representation represented by a task-level library of functions (top right) and an instance-level code program (right).

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053 Autoencoders are one way to discover these symbolic representations. Autoencoders model mappings to and from a latent space for a given dataset. Exposing this underlying distribution allows us **054 055 056** to manipulate latent processes to decode into domain-relevant text with desired attributes [\(Bowman](#page-9-0) [et al., 2016\)](#page-9-0).

057 058 059 060 061 062 063 064 In this work, we propose an autoencoder that models observed text datasets as being generated from underlying code with a dataset-level function library. Our method is non-parametric and leverages in-context learning (ICL) [\(Brown, 2020\)](#page-9-1) with per-dataset demonstrations to model the encoder, decoder and prior of the latent codespace. Code as the latent representation allows us to use deterministic programmatic and neural interpreters [\(Li et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) to map from latent space back into text. We sustain coverage over all task domains with code programs by interleaving compute operations, fact retrieval, and reasoning steps as necessary. Code programs are composed of modular function; we use these functions to conditionally sample from the latent space to sample and produce text according to target attributes.

065 066 067 068 069 070 071 072 073 Our method extracts the symbolic latent space underlying different datasets with minimal human effort by inducing an unsupervised non-parametric autoencoder from a set of given text examples. In this paper, we show that across a variety of datasets, our method effectively unveils underlying symbolic patterns in the datasets. Samples from the induced latent codespace produce more correct and domain-relevant text examples than do non-latent modeling approaches and latent modeling approaches without code as the latent representation. We find that leveraging an executable latent representation is particularly helpful in task settings that are compositional and algorithmic in nature. We also evaluate the effect of using our method to generate synthetic data to train a downstream model for a given task.

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2 A NON-PARAMETRIC LATENT MODEL FOR DATASETS

077 078 079 080 081 Define a dataset as $x = \{x_i = (t_i, y_i)\}^N$, consisting of a sequence of text-output pairs. We are interested in defining a latent representation of this dataset, $z = \{z_{\ell}, z_1, \ldots, z_N\}$ consisting of a global term z_{ℓ} and datapoint specific terms z_i . For each datapoint, we are interested in finding a latent symbolic representation $z_i \in \mathcal{Z}$. In addition, we posit that the dataset has a global shared library structure z_{ℓ} .

082 083 084 Our goal is to infer the latent representation z from the dataset. We write this as a posterior inference problem, $p(z|x)$. Inference of this distribution is intractable since it requires marginalizing over all representations. Instead, optimize a variational posterior q to approximates this objective:

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\arg\min_{q} \mathrm{KL}(q(z|x) \mid p(z|x)) = \mathrm{KL}(q(z_{\ell}|x) \mid p(z_{\ell}|x)) + \underset{z_{\ell} \sim q(z_{\ell}|x)}{\mathbb{E}} \sum_{i} \mathrm{KL}(q(z_i \mid z_{\ell}, x_i) \mid p(z_i|z_{\ell}, x_i))
$$
\n
$$
= \mathrm{KL} + \mathbb{E}_{z_{\ell}, z_i \sim q} \log \frac{q(z_i \mid z_{\ell}, x_i)}{p(x_i | z_i, z_{\ell}) p(z_i | z_{\ell})}.
$$

090 091 where the first step comes from KL identities and the assumption that each datapoint x_i is conditionally independent of z_j given the library z_{ℓ} , and the second step factors out each x_i .

092 093 094 095 096 097 098 To fully specify the variational objective, we need a variational family for q . In deep learning, it is common to paramaterize q and use gradient descent to minimize this equation. Instead, we use a nonparametric approach to search over a subset of concrete exemplars D, as example-latent representation pairs. Specifically D consists of a base library and example-symbol pairs, i.e. $D =$ $\{\bar{z}_\ell,(\bar{x}_1,\bar{z}_1),\ldots(\bar{x}_M,\bar{z}_M)\}\.$ Given a specific set D, the variational posterior can be defined through in-context learning (ICL) [\(Brown, 2020\)](#page-9-1). For each datapoint this is $q(z_i|x_i, z_\ell; \text{ICL}(\mathcal{D}))$, and the full objective is:

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\arg\min_{\mathcal{D}} \mathrm{KL}(q(z|x; \mathcal{D}) \mid p(z|x))
$$

101 102 103 104 105 106 We need to solve this objective by finding the best subset D for the dataset. This is a combinatorial optimization problem and is intractable to solve by search. We approximate this with rejectionsampling additions to the library and new \bar{z}_j examples. We apply an iterative optimization starting from \mathcal{D}^0 . For a given dataset example x_j , we sample \tilde{z}_ℓ and \tilde{z}_j from the variational posterior, as described above, and reject \tilde{z} that do not score well according to the log ratio. Library-representations pairs that score well are included in the next \mathcal{D}^{j+1} , roughly:

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D^{j+1} = D^j \cup \{ \tilde{z}_{\ell}, (x_j, \tilde{z}_j) \}
$$
 (1)

108 3 RELATED WORKS

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111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 Autoencoding Datasets Prior work has explored methods for inducing and analyzing latent variables for datasets. [Bowman et al.](#page-9-0) [\(2016\)](#page-9-0) introduce a RNN-based variational autoencoder [\(Kingma,](#page-11-1) [2013\)](#page-11-1), which interpolates and generates coherent novel sentences by learning and sampling from a continuous posterior. In contrast, our approach operates within a structured discrete latent space that allows for direct inspection and execution. [Friedman et al.](#page-11-2) [\(2022\)](#page-11-2) present a method to diagnose datasets by inducing an underlying context-free grammar per dataset to identify "shortcuts" from which they construct adversarial examples to challenge models trained on said datasets. Other works [\(Qiu et al., 2024;](#page-12-1) [Madaan et al., 2022\)](#page-11-3) study LLMs' ability to propose structured hypotheses over data and apply those hypotheses to new datapoints during inference. Though not explicitly framed as autoencoders, these methods share a similarity with ours, as they refine an "encoder" (structured hypothesis proposer) alongside a static "decoder" (hypothesis interpreter). However, these approaches require hypotheses to satisfy certain symbolic constraints, and therefore constrain their study to a limited set of symbolic tasks. In contrast, our work uses deterministic and neural program execution, allowing us to model a broader range of any text task.

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125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 Library Learning and Program Induction The advantages of breaking programming tasks into subprograms [\(Zelikman et al., 2022a\)](#page-13-0) and inducing a shared library of reusable subprograms have been demonstrated in prior research. For example, DreamCoder [\(Ellis et al., 2021\)](#page-11-4) is a wake-sleep algorithm for Bayesian program induction that cycles between searching for programs, building a library of common concepts in the domain, and training a neural search policy on recalled and sampled programs. Similarly, [Wang et al.](#page-12-2) [\(2024\)](#page-12-2) develop a method to induce a library of verifiable and efficient subprograms during inference. In our work, we induce a development set that optimizes our autoencoding objectives, but unlike these prior works, our approach does not require code to be fully executable. We instead use imagined functions, as in the Chain-of-Code framework [\(Li et al.,](#page-11-0) [2024\)](#page-11-0), which are emulated by a LLM.

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135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145 Intermediate Reasoning with LLMs As LLMs become increasingly capable in language tasks, they have been used for more complex tasks requiring multi-step reasoning [\(Zhao et al., 2023a](#page-13-1)[;b\)](#page-13-2). Prior works show that prompting a model to "think aloud" during inference enhances their performance on tasks requiring reasoning [\(Wei et al., 2022;](#page-13-3) [Nye et al., 2021\)](#page-12-3). To address LLMs' limitations in handling computational tasks or recalling updated facts, tools such as code execution, internet queries, and SMT solvers have been integrated into inference pipelines [\(Li et al., 2024;](#page-11-0) [Chen et al., 2023;](#page-9-2) [Schick et al., 2023;](#page-12-4) [Press et al., 2023;](#page-12-5) [Lee et al., 2024\)](#page-11-5). Reasoning has also been integrated back into the model parameters: the Self-Taught Reasoner [\(Zelikman et al., 2022b\)](#page-13-4) fine-tunes a model on its own produced and verified reasoning strings. While these works improve inference-time reasoning, they are constrained to the scope of the given data, and they do not attempt to infer structural properties of the dataset itself, which is a focus of our work.

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4 A CODESPACE AUTOENCODER FOR LANGUAGE

149 150 151 152 153 To apply our framework to extracting code representation, we describe how each term described in Equation [1](#page-1-0) can be implemented with code LLMs and interpreters. First we establish the shared structure z_ℓ as the library of code functions used by latent code programs of the dataset. Each (x_i, z_i) instance of D is a paired language example and corresponding code program.

154 155 156 157 158 159 The encoder is implemented as a LLM prompted by dataset-level demonstrations D via ICL to sample code programs for a given language task instance. The $\text{ICL}(\mathcal{D})$ operation creates a prompt composed of a program induction instruction and example-program pairs of the demonstration set. We are limited by context window size, so we condition on a randomly selected subset rather than all exemplars in D . We initialize program induction with a hand-written set of domain-general exemplars. These exemplars, prompt instructions, and templates are shared in the Appendix [B.](#page-13-5)

160 161 The terms in the denominator are a prior $p(z_i|z_i)$ over code representations and a decoder $p(x_i | z_i)$ (z_i, z_ℓ) from latent representation back to text. For code, the prior is established by a compiler that rewards syntactically valid programs: $p(z_i | z_\ell) = \mathbb{1}(\text{compiles}(z)).$

Figure 2: The underlying symbolic structure of observed text data (top) is represented by a shared function library and programs (bottom). We search for the set of demonstrations D that optimizes the variational posterior. We sample from the induced posterior to synthesize new text (right).

The decoder term $p(x_i \mid z_i, z_\ell)$ measures how well the sampled code program reconstructs the observed data when executed with the given input. The term is decomposed into terms for the text input and output. The text input is given, so $p(t | z) = 1$.

$$
p(x \mid z) = p(t \mid z) \times p(y \mid z, t) = p(y \mid z, t)
$$

We approximate reconstruction accuracy $p(y \mid z, t)$ with text similarity metric threshold γ :

$$
p(y \mid z, t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{texsim}(z(t), y) > \gamma \\ \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

200 For reconstruction $z(t)$, we use a combination of a real interpreter and LLM interpretation.

201 202 203 204 205 206 To cover the scope of NLP tasks that cannot easily be performed programmatically, we allow sampling of programs with interleaved real code lines and imagined functions. We follow the **Chain**of-Code [\(Li et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) method of using a Python interpreter as the real interpreter and a LLM as the imaginary interpreter. Specifically, for each line in a code program, we first attempt to execute it with a Python interpreter. If that fails, then we query a LLM to emulate the execution of that code line. The program state is then updated accordingly.

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An overview of our method is sketched in Figure [2,](#page-3-0) and pseudocode presented in Algorithm [1.](#page-3-1)

209 210 211 212 213 214 215 A Textspace Autoencoder for Language To isolate the benefits of code as the latent representation, we consider another representation modality for the latent space: text. Here, we describe the autoencoder model framework in terms of a text-based latent representation: chain-of-thought (CoT) [\(Wei et al., 2022\)](#page-13-3). Following the keyword prompting methodology of the TinyStories-Instruct [\(Eldan & Li, 2023\)](#page-11-6) dataset, we describe the shared structure z_ℓ as a library of unique keywords used by latent CoT strings of the dataset. Each (x_i, z_i) instance of D is a paired language example and the corresponding CoT string. The $\text{ICL}(\mathcal{D})$ operation creates a prompt in the same fashion, but using CoT-relevant domain-general exemplars. These exemplars and prompts are

216 217 218 shared in the Appendix [B.2.](#page-15-0) The prior over CoT is established by a string checker that rewards strings with a certain CoT template:

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p(z_i|z_\ell) = \mathbb{1}(z_i = " * So the answer is *")
$$

Reconstruction accuracy is evaluated in the same way as for latent code representations, and the "execution" of the latent representation is string extraction.

5 POSTERIOR SAMPLING

Once we find a D that optimizes our varitional objective, we use it to sample more synthetic examples. Sampling new text from a given dataset is factorized in our autoencoder as follows:

$$
p(x_s | x_{1:N}) = \sum_{z} p(x_s | z, x_{1:N}) p(z | x_{1:N})
$$

 $=\mathbb{E}_{z\sim p(z|x_{1:N})}p(x_s | z, x_{1:N})$ $\approx \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q(z|x_{1:N};\mathcal{D})} p(x_s | z, x_{1:N})$ $\approx \mathbb{E}_{z_{\ell},z_{\ell}\sim q} p(x_s \mid z_s, z_{\ell}, x_{1:N})$

237 238 239 The conditioning on $x_{1:N}$ gives us the D terms. This is used to sample our library z_{ℓ} and to sample the program z_s . Since we do not have access to the observation x_s we sample the z_s using ICL that is unconditioned on the specific text datapoint.

Once sampled from the latent space, observed data x_s is decoded from z_s . A natural language input t_s is proposed for the sampled program, and the program z_s is executed to produce output y_s .

$$
p(x_s \mid z_s, z_\ell, x_{1:N}) = p((t_s, y_s) \mid z_s, z_\ell, x_{1:N}) = p(t_s \mid z_s, z_\ell, \{t_i | (t_i, y_i) \in x_{1:N}\}) \times p(y_s \mid z_s, t_s)
$$

6 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

247 248 249 250 251 Dataset: Super-NaturalInstructions (SNI) [\(Wang et al., 2022\)](#page-12-0) is a dataset of 1616 diverse NLP tasks, with expert-written instructions and over 5 million total data instances. The tasks cover 76 task types, some of which can be solved deterministically by a simple computer program (e.g. adding every third element of a list) and some of which are non-algorithmic natural language tasks. We use this categorization by algorithmic and non-algorithmic to study our method on a range of SNI tasks.

253 254 255 256 We divide the SNI training tasks into sets of 100 in-domain (ID) and 100 out-of-domain (OOD) tasks. Both sets of tasks are composed of 33% tasks with a "synthetic" (algorithmic) source. A latent space is induced for each ID task. Evaluation on the held-out examples from ID tasks comprise ID evaluation, and evaluation with the OOD tasks comprise OOD evaluation.

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258 259 260 261 262 263 Baselines: We compare against two baseline methods. To measure the value of latent modeling, we compare our method against a direct inference (no intermediate reasoning) interpolation baseline. Interpolation uses LLM prompting to generate new data points based on an ICL prompt of the dataset text instances, and does not use a latent space. To measure the value of using code programs as the latent representation, we compare our method against using chain-of-thought [\(Wei et al., 2022\)](#page-13-3) as the latent representation, as described in Section [4.](#page-3-2)

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265 266 Prompts: All generations are produced by prompting the LLM with instructions and 4 in-context exemplars, or up to the maximum context length. Specific prompts are shared in the Appendix [B.](#page-13-5)

267 268 269 We use 4 hand-written examples of input, programs, and output from the original Chain of Code paper [\(Li et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) as seed demonstrations to initialize the model fitting phase. Half of the examples are modified to use the internet search query internet_lookup() functionality that we add to LLM-emulation. These examples are shared in the Appendix [B.1.](#page-14-0)

Table 1: Autoencoding recovery rate increases when conditioned on the induced demonstrations D . Measured across 1, 200 instances across 100 different tasks; Llama3.1 8B model.

Autoencoding Parameters: We experiment with different demonstration set sizes $N \in \{12, 24\}$. We use 2 LLMs of different size: Mistral AI's Mixtral 8x22b Instruction-tuned model [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-11-7) [2024\)](#page-11-7) and Meta's Llama3.1 8b Instruction-tuned model [\(Dubey et al., 2024\)](#page-9-3). We use a temperature of 0.7 and top-p value of 0.9. For data generation, we sample $M = \{40, 240\}$ latent representations from the posterior and decode them into text examples.

Executed latent representations are validated using ROUGE-L [\(Lin, 2004\)](#page-11-8) and BLEU [\(Papineni](#page-12-6) [et al., 2002\)](#page-12-6) as the text similarity metrics, with corresponding thresholds $\gamma_B = 0.4$ and $\gamma_B =$ 0.3. During posterior sampling, code execution is validated by ICL-prompting a verifier LLM with examples from the demonstration set. Specific details are shared in Appendix [A.](#page-13-6)

LLM-Emulation Parameters: Programs are executed with interleaved execution by the Python interpreter, internet_lookup() with the duckduckgo search engine API [\(ddg\)](#page-9-4), and LLMemulation with the generating model. The code to do this is slightly modified from that of the Chain of Code [\(Li et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0) resources, and shared in our publicly-available repository 1 1 .

293 294 295 296 297 Synthetic Data Generation Evaluation Training Parameters: Evaluation of syntheticallygenerated data for downstream model training is measured by fine-tuning a Pythia 1.4B model [\(Bi](#page-9-5)[derman et al., 2023\)](#page-9-5) on the synthesized text examples then evaluating the performance on the heldout test set. The model is trained with 12k steps, batch size 16, DeepSpeedFusedAdam optimizer, and learning rate of 1e-5.

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7 RESULTS

301 302 303 304 305 In this section, we test the effectiveness of our method to identify the underlying symbolic space of a dataset. We measure this by evaluating first how well our symbolic representations are able to recover the original datasets. We then evaluate how well samples from the latent space cover the underlying task domain. Finally, we present results on using the latent space to generate synthetic training data.

7.1 FAITHFULNESS OF SYMBOLIC AUTOENCODING

309 310 311 312 We evaluate the extent to which the induced dataset structure and induced exemplars D optimizes the variational posterior. Using a held-out x_j datapoint, we compare the autoencoder recovery rate when conditioning on our induced D versus conditioning on a D just of domain-general demonstrations, i.e. the hand-written domain-generic seed ICL demonstrations. Specifically we compute

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(z_{\ell}, z_j) \sim q(z \mid \{x_j\}; \mathcal{D}) \ \ \tilde{x_j} \sim p(x \mid z_j, z_{\ell}),
$$

314 315 and compare \tilde{x}_j to x_j .

Table [1](#page-5-1) shows that the variational method improves the autoencoding ability over the baseline method for code latent space. We also include evaluation using the CoT-based latent space, where inducing D also leads to improved recovery.

7.2 EVALUATING THE IDENTIFIED SYMBOLIC SPACE

321 322 323 Our goal is to find a latent space from which more programs z_s can be effectively sampled and executed to produce new dataset examples. We compare against the latent CoT baseline, which uses

¹released after anonymity period

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343 344 345 346 347 Table 2: Human, GPT-4o-mini, and diversity evaluation of algorithmic and non-algorithmic text samples from different methods. For each method, we synthesize 240 examples. We examine 3 random algorithmic and 3 random non-algorithmic SNI tasks. Correctness and domain relevance is examined across 20 random samples per task. Diversity is measured with average embedding cosine similarity to centroid per task for all 240 synthesized instances.

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350 351 a non-symbolic latent space composed of z_i as textual descriptions, and the interpolation baseline, which does not use a latent space.

352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 We aim for examples that are correct, in-domain, and diverse. We evaluate this by sampling points as described in Section [5](#page-4-0) for different algorithmic and non-algorithmic tasks. For correctness and domain relevance, we use GPT-4o-mini evaluation 2 for 20 examples per method per task, for 6 total tasks: 3 algorithmic and 3 non-algorithmic. Human evaluation numbers are provided for the Llama3.1 8B generations as a control against the GPT-4o-mini judgements. For diversity, we measure average cosine similarity between the Sentence-BERT embedding [\(Reimers & Gurevych, 2019\)](#page-12-7) centroid for the synthesized dataset and each individual sentence embedding, a more tractable approximation for average pairwise cosine similarity used in prior works for diversity [\(Tevet & Berant,](#page-12-8) [2021\)](#page-12-8). These results are summarized in Table [2.](#page-6-1)

361 362 363 364 365 366 367 Latent modeling methods produce more consistently domain-relevant and correct examples, though samples from the interpolation baseline become more domain-relevant with a larger model. Between using CoT and code as the latent representation, using code produces more correct data in algorithmic tasks and using CoT produces more correct data in non-algorithmic tasks. Diversity metrics, when observed with the domain relevance analysis, shows that the sampling baseline produces very diverse data to the point of being out-of-domain, and latent code produces slightly more diverse data than latent CoT.

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7.3 SAMPLING SYNTHETIC TRAINING DATA

370 371 372 373 374 375 376 We compare the results of training a downstream model with data synthesized using our approach versus data synthesized by baseline methods. For these experiments, we train the downstream model on instances synthesized for a group of tasks then evaluate the resulting model on both in-domain and out-of-domain tasks. Table [3](#page-7-0) summarizes the resulting performance. In our experiments, data from the sampling baseline generally outperforms data sampled from the latent modeling method. At times, data from the sampling baseline even outperforms Gold data provided by the original dataset.

² Prompt details in Appendix [B.3](#page-16-0)

Table 3: Downstream training results on SNI suggest that the interpolation baseline performs best, at times even yielding higher performance than using Gold data.

Table 4: Induced latent code programs tend to rarely require LLM-emulation. Non-algorithmic tasks and larger models are more likely to leverage LLM-emulation.

8 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

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How often do we LLM-emulate? Table [4](#page-7-1) shows the rate of LLM-emulation in code programs in the induced demonstration set. The vast majority of programs are fully deterministically executable, but non-algorithmic tasks tend to use more lines of code that must be LLM-emulated. Larger models perform LLM-emulation more accurately [\(Li et al., 2024\)](#page-11-0), and are more likely to propose lines that will be LLM-emulated.

412 413 414 415 An advantage of using code as the latent representation is the transparency of its execution. We can inspect the execution trace ^{[3](#page-7-2)} to gain insight into what makes the latent code programs correct or incorrect. Example code programs from the induced demonstration sets, along with paired snippets from their execution trace, are shared below:

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        Listing 1: This program returns integers
         with certain conditions. This task can
         be done entirely programmatically.
         def get_same_start_end(nums):
           result = []
           for num in nums:
             str_num = str(abs(num))
             if str_name[0] == str_name[-1] or (len(str_num) > 1 and str_num
                  [0] > str\_num[-1]):
               result.append(num)
           return result
                                                      [...]
                                                     line: result = []
                                                     explanation: Python execution.
                                                     delta state: {'answer': []}
                                                     line: for num in numbers:
                                                     explanation: Python execution.
                                                     delta state: {'num': -98}
                                                     line: str_num = str(abs(num))
                                                     explanation: Python execution.
                                                     delta state: {'str_num': '-98'}
                                                     line: if str_name[0] == str_name[-1] or (len(str_name)> 1 and str\_num[0] > str\_num[-1]:
                                                     explanation: Python execution.
                                                     delta state: {}
                                                     line: for num in nums:
                                                     explanation: Python execution.
                                                     delta state: {'num': 55}
                                                      [...]
                                                     final state: {'result': [44, 2, 98]}
```
 3 we follow the Chain-of-Code [Li et al.](#page-11-0) [\(2024\)](#page-11-0) template for LLM-emulated traces

Listing 3: To generate a question that every entity in an input list can be a valid answer to, generated code relies entirely on an imagined function: construct question

answer = $"No"$ return answer

```
def solve_task(task_input):
 answers = task input.split(", ")
 question = construct_question(
     answers, ret_type="str")
 return question
```


```
delta_state: {'task_input': 'Construct a question
    that every answer in the list is correct and
    reasonable for it. input: airplanes, snowflakes
    , footballs, cards/valentines, paper dolls,
    crane/bird'}
line: answers = task_input.split(", ")
explanation: Python execution
delta state: {'answer': ['Construct a question...
    airplanes', 'snowflakes', 'footballs', 'cards/
    valentines', 'paper dolls', 'crane/bird']}
line: question = construct_question(answers,
    ret_tyep="str")
explanation: Let's think step-by-step. All of these
     [...] So the answer is name something that kids
     make out of paper
delta state: {'question': 'name something that kids
    make out of paper'}
```
Does the shared structure of the latent space reflect underlying patterns of the task? Table [5](#page-8-0) lists the most popular functions for some algorithmic and non-algorithmic SNI tasks. The most popular functions correspond with reasoning steps relevant to the task. For example, evaluating arithmetic under swapped operator strings mandates heavy use of string substitution (re , sub) and expression evaluation (\in val). For less algorithmic tasks such as abductive reasoning in generating text to support health facts, functions related to inferring conclusions from facts such as complete_story and generate_sentence are popular. Hybrid tasks such as typo identification use low-level operations such as word_tokenize as well as high-level composed or imagined functions such as get_typo.

Task	Most frequently used functions
Get elements of list between given indices	list_elements, get_elements
Arithmetic under swapped operators	eval.re.sub
Identify typos	word_tokenize, qet_close_matches, qet_typo
Generate text to support health facts	generate_claim, is_supported
Write the middle sentence of a story	complete_story, generate_sentence

Table 5: Popular functions by task.

9 CONCLUSION

483 484 485 In this work, we present and apply a framework for extracting a latent symbolic representation from any text dataset in an unsupervised manner and without updating any model parameters. We use code programs as the latent representation, and present results comparing the resulting latent space to a non latent modeling approach and to using a text-based latent representation. Our findings

486 487 488 489 490 491 show that a codespace autoencoder for language tasks effectively extracts an underlying symbolic representation for language tasks. We show that code being inherently modular and executable offers advantages in correctness, particularly for algorithmic tasks, and lends well to interpreting the induced latent space. We believe that the methods and findings presented in this paper are applicable to future work in analyzing properties of datasets and generating data, both desired and undesired, and generating data for downstream tasks.

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ETHICS STATEMENT

One point of concern with this work is the ability to use the proposed methodology to generate foul or ill-harming text if given an input dataset exhibiting some of those patterns. We observed several concerning generations in tasks about classifying properties of toxic text, and caution any future practitioners to be aware of this potential danger.

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REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

502 503 504 505 506 507 508 We take several steps towards reproducibility. First, we plan to release all code and prompts in a selfcontained repository. Additionally, all experiments are run using open-sourced models and datasets that are publicly available on Huggingface. The code repository, publicly-available datasets, and open-source language models make almost all experiments of this paper reproducible. The only numbers that may be inconsistent across reproductions of the experiment are the human evaluation results and GPT-verification results of Table [2.](#page-6-1)

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A VERIFYING SYNTHESIZED EXAMPLES

731 732 733 734 735 736 A challenge of synthesizing correct examples is the lack of a ground truth output against which to verify the execution of the sampled latent code program. For this, we parameterize a verifier LLM with the learned demonstration set D by collecting seed demonstrations (z, x, y) according to their reconstruction success $p(x, y | z)$. Successful reconstructions are saved as positive examples v^+ $\{(z, x, y : z(x) \equiv y)\}\$ and failed reconstructions as negative $v^{\times} = \{(x, y_{\times}, z_{\times} : z_{\times}(x) \neq y_{\times})\}.$ The verifier LLM is parameterized using ICL with these positive and hard negative examples to predict the correctness of an input demonstration:

$$
p(x_s, y_s, z_s | \mathcal{D}) := p(x_s, z_s(x_s), z_s | v^+, v^{\times})
$$

B PROMPTS

Listing 4: Program induction instruction

Write the Python code to perform the given task. The 'task_output' variable at the end should contain the response to the instruction.

Listing 5: Input generation instruction

Write the natural language instruction that describes what is done by the given Python code. Provide the instruction and all relevant inputs.

Listing 6: Instruction for posterior sampling of latent code programs

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B.1 HAND-WRITTEN EXEMPLAR DEMONSTRATIONS

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759 760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790 791 792 793 794 795 796 797 798 799 800 801 802 803 804 805 806 807 808 809 Listing 7: Demo examples for latent code variational inference. Which sentence has the correct adjective order: Options: (A) rubber terrible ship (B) terrible rubber ship --> (B) # CODE START import numpy as np def solve_task(task_input): options = extract_options(task_input) priority = $\{ "opinion": 1, "size": 2, "age": 3, "shape": 4, "$ color": 5, "origin": 6, "material": 7, "purpose": 8} valid types = list(priority.keys()) scores $= []$ for option, sentence in options.items(): adjectives = sentence.split(" ") $[-1]$ order = [priority[get_adjective_type(adjective, valid_types, ret_type=str)] for adjective in adjectives] scores.append($[order[i+1] > order[i]$ for i in range(len(order) -1)].count(True)) answer = list(options.keys())[np.argmax(scores)] return answer # CODE END How many countries have I been to? I've been to Bilbao, Death Valley, Paris, Honolulu, Skye. $--&>4$ # CODE START def solve_task(task_input): places = extract_places(task_input) $countries = set()$ for place in places: search_result = lookup_on_internet(f"what country is {place} in?") country = extract_country(search_result) countries.add(country) $answer = len(countries)$ return answer # CODE END Today is Christmas Eve of 1937. What is the date 10 days ago in MM /DD/YYYY? --> 12/14/1937 # CODE START import datetime def solve_task(task_input): parsed_task_input = extract_arguments(task_input) today = datetime.date(year=parsed_task_input['year'], month= parsed_task_input['month'], day=parsed_task_input['day']) date = today - datetime.timedelta(days=parsed_task_input[' days_ago']) answer = $date.setrttime(" $\text{km}/\text{d}/\text{d}Y")$$ return answer # CODE END

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      Recommend a movie similar to Star Wars Episode IV - A New Hope,
          Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade, Star Wars Episode V - The
         Empire Strikes Back, The Big Lebowski:
      --> Blade Runner (1982)
      # CODE START
      def solve_task(task_input):
        ref_movies = extract_reference_movies(task_input)
        ref_movie_infos = []
        for movie in ref_movies:
          search_result = lookup_on_internet(f"{movie} release year and
              genre")
          release_year = extract_year(search_result)
          genre = extract_genre(search_result)
          ref_movie_infos.append((genre, release_year))
        answer = get_most_similar_movie(ref_movies, ref_movie_infos,
           ret_type="str")
        return answer
      # CODE END
```
B.2 CHAIN-OF-THOUGHT PROMPTS

Listing 8: CoT induction instruction

Write the thought process to perform the given task.

Listing 9: Input generation instruction for latent CoT

Write the natural language instruction that describes what is shown by the given thought process. Provide the instruction and all relevant inputs.

Listing 10: Instruction for posterior sampling of CoT

Write out the thought process that completes some task. The thought process should include the following terms: {keywords }.

Listing 11: Demo examples for variational inference of latent CoT.

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      Which sentence has the correct adjective order:
      Options:
      (A) rubber terrible ship
      (B) terrible rubber ship
      \leftarrow > (B)
      Let's think step by step.
      The priority of adjective categories is, in order: opinion, size,
          age, shape, color, origin, material, purpose.
      rubber: material
      terrible: opinion
      The opinion adjective should come before the material adjective. '
          terrible rubber ship' follows the correct adjective order. So
         the answer is (B).
      How many countries have I been to? I've been to Bilbao, Death
         Valley, Paris, Honolulu, Skye.
      \leftarrow > 4
      Let's think step by step.
      We'll group by countries and count:
      1. Spain: Bilbao
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      2. USA: Death Valley, Honolulu
      3. France: Paris
      4. UK: Skye
      There are 4 countries in total. So the answer is 4.
      Today is Christmas Eve of 1937. What is the date 10 days ago in MM
         /DD/YYYY?
      --> 12/14/1937
      Let's think step by step.
      Christmas Eve of 1937 is 12/24/1937.
      To get the date 10 days ago, subtract 10 from the date section. So
          the answer is 12/14/1937.
      Recommend a movie similar to Star Wars Episode IV - A New Hope,
          Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade, Star Wars Episode V - The
         Empire Strikes Back, The Big Lebowski:
      --> Blade Runner (1982)
      Let's think step by step.
      The genre and release year of each of the reference movies are:
      Star Wars Episode IV - A New Hope: Sci-fi/Action (1977)
      Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade: Adventure/Action (1989)
      Star Wars Episode V - The Empire Strikes Back: Family/Sci-fi
          (1980)
      The Big Lebowski: Comedy/Crime (1998)
      A similar movie should have a release date in 1970-2000 and be Sci
          -fi/Action/Crime. So the answer is Blade Runner (1982).
```
B.3 MEASURING DATA QUALITY WITH GPT-4O-MINI

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Listing 12: Instruction prompt to verify data quality

895 896 897 898 899 900 901 902 903 904 905 906 907 908 909 910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917 You are tasked with evaluating the following instances for correctness and domain relevance. Please: 1. In [CORRECT] and [/CORRECT] tags, state if the output seems correct based on the input and domain task description. Write Yes or No. 2. In [RELEVANT] and [/RELEVANT] tags, assess if the input and output are relevant to the specified domain (e.g., the context of the experiment). Write Yes or No. Provide your reasoning for each answer, if necessary. Domain task description: Provide a movie recommendation. Input: Recommend a movie similar to Star Wars Episode IV - A New Hope, Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade, Star Wars Episode V - The Empire Strikes Back, The Big Lebowski: Output: Blade Runner (1982) 1. All of these movies are action movies released around 1990 to 2010. So Blade Runner (1982) is an appropriate recommendation. [CORRECT]Yes[/ CORRECT] 2. The task is to provide a movie recommendat. This is domain-relevant. [RELEVANT]Yes[/RELEVANT] Domain task description: Identify whether the given comment is severely toxic. Input: Sammy wanted to go to where the people were. Where might he go?\ nOptions: (a) race track (b) populated areas (c) desert (d) apartment (e) roadblock Output: (b)

918 919 920 921 922 923 924 925 926 1. People are at populous places, so if Sammy wants to go where the people are, he should go there. Option (b) is correct. [CORRECT]Yes[/ CORRECT] 2. The task is to identify whether a given comment is severely toxic. Determining where Sammy wants to go has nothing to do with identifying comment toxicity. [RELEVANT]No[/RELEVANT] Domain task description: {task_description} Input: {instance_input} Output: {instance_output}

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C SYNTHESIZED EXAMPLES

Examples generated by the sampling baseline tend to be easier, out-of-domain, or incorrect. This is likely because sampling simply relies on surface-level generation and prefers generating strings with low perplexity, i.e. it is comfortable with.

Listing 13: Mixtral 8x22b Sampling (incorrect)

Listing 14: Llama3 8.1b Sampling (very easy, OOD)

In this task you will be given a list of integers. You should only return an integer if the first digit is the same as the last digit in the number. If an integer has a single digit, then it should be returned. If there are no integers that start and end with the same digit then an empty list (""[]"") should be returned. input: $[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]$ output: [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]

Examples generated by the latent CoT baseline are good at generating in-domain data, but are often wrong in algorithmic settings.

Listing 15: Llama3 8.1b Latent CoT Baseline (non-algorithmic, correct)

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972 973 974 975 976 977 978 979 980 981 982 983 984 985 986 987 988 989 990 991 992 993 994 995 996 997 998 999 1000 1001 1002 1003 1004 1005 1006 1007 1008 1. The description of PersonX is that they bake a cake. The description of the event is that they accidentally drop the cake. The two concepts do not match because the description of the event does not imply that PersonX has a certain quality, which is baking a cake. 3. The description of PersonX is that they bake a cake. The description of the event is that they accidentally drop the cake. The two concepts do not match because the description of the event does not imply that PersonX has a certain quality, which is baking a cake. Therefore, the description of PersonX does not necessarily imply the description of the event. However, the description of PersonX may imply the description of the event, because the description of the event is a direct result of the description of PersonX. The description of PersonX is that they bake a cake. The description of the event is that they accidentally drop the cake. The two concepts may match because the description of the event is a direct result of the description of PersonX. Therefore, the description of PersonX may imply the description of the event. However, the description of PersonX does not necessarily imply the description of the event. The description of PersonX is that they bake a cake. The description of the event is that they accidentally drop the cake. The two concepts do not match because the description of the event does not imply that PersonX has a certain quality, which is baking a cake. Therefore, the description of PersonX does not necessarily imply the description of the event. However, the description of PersonX may imply the description of the event, because the description of the event is a direct result of the description of PersonX. The description of PersonX is that they bake a cake. The description of the event is that they accidentally drop the cake. The two concepts may match because the description of the event is a direct result of the description of PersonX. Therefore, the description of PersonX may imply the description of the event. However, the description of PersonX does not necessarily imply the description of the event. So the answer is Maybe.

Listing 16: Llama3 8.1b Latent CoT Baseline (algorithmic, wrong)

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