Filtered Direct Preference Optimization

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Abstract

Reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF) plays a crucial role in aligning language models with human preferences. While the significance of dataset quality is generally recognized, explicit investigations into its impact within the RLHF framework, to our knowledge, have been limited. This paper addresses the issue of text quality within the preference dataset by focusing on direct preference optimization (DPO), an increasingly adopted reward-model-free RLHF method. We confirm that text quality significantly influences the performance of models optimized with DPO more than those optimized with reward-modelbased RLHF. Building on this new insight, we propose an extension of DPO, termed filtered direct preference optimization (fDPO). fDPO uses a trained reward model to monitor the quality of texts within the preference dataset during DPO training. Samples of lower quality are discarded based on comparisons with texts generated by the model being optimized, resulting in a more accurate dataset. Experimental results demonstrate that fDPO enhances the final model performance. Our code is available at [https://github.com/CyberAgentAILab/](https://github.com/CyberAgentAILab/filtered-dpo) [filtered-dpo](https://github.com/CyberAgentAILab/filtered-dpo).

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) have become pivotal in performing various language processing tasks, such as text generation, dialogue, and summarization [\(Radford et al.,](#page-10-0) [2019;](#page-10-0) [Brown et al.,](#page-9-0) [2020;](#page-9-0) [Chowdhery et al.,](#page-9-1) [2023\)](#page-9-1). Aligning these models with human preferences and ethical standards is paramount to ensuring they are practical, trustworthy, and socially accepted [\(Bender et al.,](#page-8-0) [2021;](#page-8-0) [Bommasani et al.,](#page-8-1) [2022\)](#page-8-1). Reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF) is developed to tackle this challenge, aiming to enhance

LLM performance by leveraging human feedback [\(Ouyang et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022;](#page-10-1) [Bai et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022;](#page-8-2) [Lin et al.,](#page-10-2) [2022;](#page-10-2) [Touvron et al.,](#page-10-3) [2023;](#page-10-3) [Casper et al.,](#page-9-2) [2023\)](#page-9-2).

RLHF operates by taking a preference dataset and a language model (LM) as inputs to produce an LM refined by these preferences [\(Ouyang et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022\)](#page-10-1). It is broadly divided into two approaches concerning the use of a reward model (RM): RMbased RLHF, which learns an RM from the preference dataset and then uses it to optimize an LM through reinforcement learning (RL), and an RMfree approach that directly adjusts an LM based on preference data. This division mirrors the distinction between offline model-based and model-free RL [\(Sutton and Barto,](#page-10-4) 2018 2018 2018).¹ Each approach offers unique advantages and requires careful application based on specific goals and contexts. For instance, in scenarios with limited data, modelbased RL might be preferable due to its data efficiency, though its computational cost is generally higher than that of model-free RL [\(Moerland](#page-10-5) [et al.,](#page-10-5) [2022;](#page-10-5) [Levine et al.,](#page-10-6) [2020\)](#page-10-6). Consequently, RM-based RLHF may be more effective in leveraging data than RM-free methods, despite the higher computational cost and algorithmic complexity.

Direct preference optimization (DPO) is a representative method of the RM-free RLHF [\(Rafailov](#page-10-7) [et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023\)](#page-10-7). DPO reformulates the RL problem as a type of supervised learning problem, bypassing key challenges in RM-based RLHF, such as the need for reward modeling and balancing exploration and exploitation in RL fine-tuning. Thus, DPO simplifies the learning process. However, this approach relies solely on the initially given preference dataset for training, similar to supervised learning. This reliance might make DPO more

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 $1¹$ RM-based RLHF first estimates the environment (specifically, the reward function; we do not need to estimate a state transition function because it is known in NLG tasks) and then optimizes an LM under the estimated environment. This approach is in itself a form of model-based RL.

Figure 1: Performance comparison of alignment methods using a 160M LM with the AlpacaFarm dataset [\(Dubois](#page-9-3) [et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023\)](#page-9-3), where the gold rewards are adjusted so that the average reward of the initial LM is zero. (A) shows the impact of dataset quality on RLHF [\(Ouyang et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022\)](#page-10-1) and DPO [\(Rafailov et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023\)](#page-10-7), with DPO exhibiting greater sensitivity to dataset quality variations. (B) compares the performance of DPO and the proposed fDPO on a mixed-quality dataset, illustrating that fDPO effectively mitigates the impact of data quality variations.

sensitive to the quality of the preference dataset, potentially more so than other RLHF methods.

In this paper, we explore the impact of preference dataset quality on the performance of LMs optimized by DPO, specifically focusing on the quality of response texts rather than labeling accuracy. We demonstrate that DPO is more affected by text quality variations within the dataset than typical RLHF methods, as shown in Figure [1](#page-1-0) (A). Notably, we observe that lower-quality data can create performance bottlenecks. In realistic applications of LLM alignment, the quality of responses can be highly diverse due to several factors such as differing skill levels among experts creating responses and the need to combine manually generated responses with those automatically generated by LLMs to manage annotation costs. This quality variation in response quality can severely impact performance of DPO.

In response to this challenge, we introduce a novel approach named filtered direct preference optimization (fDPO), which aims to harness potential data efficiency advantages of RM-based RLHF. It uses a trained RM to identify and discard samples of lower quality than those generated by an LM during fine-tuning. Our experiments show that fDPO significantly enhances the effectiveness of DPO, as illustrated in Figure [1](#page-1-0) (B).

For simplicity, we will henceforth refer to RMbased RLHF simply as RLHF, unless a distinction is necessary. This study's contributions are threefold:

• We confirm that the quality of the preference dataset significantly influences the performance of LMs optimized with DPO whereas it has less impact on LMs optimized by standard RLHF.

- We introduce fDPO, a practical solution that uses an RM to identify and discard lower-quality data, effectively addressing the dataset quality issue.
- Our experiments with two distinct datasets demonstrate that fDPO substantially enhances the performance of LMs.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section [2](#page-1-1) reviews related work. Section [3](#page-2-0) explains the background. In Section [4,](#page-3-0) we detail the proposed method, fDPO, explaining its mechanisms and the rationale behind its design. Section [5](#page-5-0) presents the experimental results, illustrating the effectiveness of fDPO and its impact on LM performance. Finally, Section [6](#page-8-3) concludes the paper, and Section [7](#page-8-4) discusses limitations and directions for future work.

2 Related work

We examine methods for aligning LMs with human preferences, focusing on RLHF and its alternatives. Most RLHF approaches utilize an RM [\(Ouyang](#page-10-1) [et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022;](#page-10-1) [Touvron et al.,](#page-10-3) [2023;](#page-10-3) [Dubois et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023;](#page-9-3) [Casper et al.,](#page-9-2) [2023\)](#page-9-2). These methods fine-tune LMs using RL algorithms such as REINFORCE [\(Williams,](#page-11-0) [1992;](#page-11-0) [Rennie et al.,](#page-10-8) [2017\)](#page-10-8), proximal policy optimization (PPO) [\(Schulman et al.,](#page-10-9) [2017\)](#page-10-9), or their variants [\(Sutton and Barto,](#page-10-4) [2018\)](#page-10-4). However, there are notable reinforcement-learning-free approaches [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-11-1) [2023;](#page-11-1) [Liu et al.,](#page-10-10) [2024a\)](#page-10-10), and learning-free methods that leverage the RM at decoding time, with best-of-N (BoN) sampling being a prominent example [\(Stiennon et al.,](#page-10-11) [2020;](#page-10-11) [Nakano et al.,](#page-10-12) [2021\)](#page-10-12).

A significant challenge in these methods is the estimation error of RMs, which can lead LMs to overfitting to a proxy reward, a phenomenon termed RM overoptimization [\(Gao et al.,](#page-9-4) [2023\)](#page-9-4). Various strategies have been proposed to address this issue, including RM ensembles [\(Coste et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023;](#page-9-5) [Eisen](#page-9-6)[stein et al.,](#page-9-6) [2023\)](#page-9-6), uncertainty evaluation [\(Zhang](#page-11-2) [et al.,](#page-11-2) [2024\)](#page-11-2), and analysis of out-of-distribution [\(Pikus et al.,](#page-10-13) [2023;](#page-10-13) [Kirk et al.,](#page-9-7) [2024\)](#page-9-7). [Pace et al.](#page-10-14) [\(2024\)](#page-10-14) proposes using BoN sampling to improve the data used for reward modeling, which is relevant to our fDPO approach focusing on dataset quality. As fDPO also leverages an RM, it can benefit from these developments.

DPO and its extensions [\(Azar et al.,](#page-8-5) [2023;](#page-8-5) [Tang](#page-10-15) [et al.,](#page-10-15) [2024;](#page-10-15) [Pal et al.,](#page-10-16) [2024;](#page-10-16) [Singh et al.,](#page-10-17) [2024\)](#page-10-17) represent significant RM-free methods. Some DPO variants explore different regularizations [\(Wang](#page-11-3) [et al.,](#page-11-3) [2024\)](#page-11-3) or use a divided dataset for stepwise training [\(Gou and Nguyen,](#page-9-8) [2024\)](#page-9-8). Other variants propose adapting DPO online [\(Xu et al.,](#page-11-4) [2023;](#page-11-4) [Guo](#page-9-9) [et al.,](#page-9-9) [2024\)](#page-9-9), where an RM is used to evaluate newly generated training data. While both online DPO and fDPO employ RMs, fDPO remains an offline approach that filters the dataset and does not use generated data for training. This distinction makes fDPO less reliant on the accuracy of RMs, as it focuses solely on data refinement rather than reward optimization. [Liu et al.](#page-10-18) [\(2024b\)](#page-10-18), on the other hand, utilizes an RM for rejection sampling to adjust the distribution of the preference data by aligning it with the optimal LM distribution. In contrast, fDPO focuses on filtering low-quality data. Other DPO variants evaluate the quality difference between chosen and rejected responses for adding an offset to the DPO objective function [\(Amini et al.,](#page-8-6) [2024\)](#page-8-6) or incorporating curriculum learning [\(Gou](#page-9-8) [and Nguyen,](#page-9-8) [2024\)](#page-9-8). These approaches focus on response quality, which is relevant to our method.

Despite various advancements in DPO, the dependence on preference dataset quality has not been thoroughly analyzed. Our study aims to explore this significant dependence and attempts to refine the dataset for better performance. Additionally, our proposed fDPO method complements most of these developments. Integrating fDPO with these methods is an exciting possibility for future work, potentially leading to even more effective ways to align LMs with human preferences.

3 Background

This section explains RLHF in Section [3.1](#page-2-1) and explores DPO in Section [3.2.](#page-3-1)

3.1 Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback

Reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF) frames the application of human feedback to enhance performance of a language model (LM) within the context of an RL problem. The process incorporates a pre-trained LM $\pi_{\theta}(y | x)$, with θ denoting model parameters, x the prompt, and y the associated response. It also includes a demonstration dataset $\mathcal{D}_{\text{demo}}$ for initial supervised fine-tuning and a preference dataset D for further RL fine-tuning. The aim is to refine the LM π_{θ} with these datasets $\mathcal{D}_{\text{demo}}$ and \mathcal{D} . We will present an overview of the widely studied RLHF pipeline [\(Ouyang et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022\)](#page-10-1), establishing the notations and concepts for understanding our contributions. The RLHF pipeline comprises three principal phases: (i) supervised fine-tuning, (ii) reward modeling, and (iii) RL fine-tuning.

Supervised fine-tuning. Supervised fine-tuning (SFT) refines a pre-trained LM π_{θ} through supervised learning using demonstration data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{demo}}$ from downstream tasks such as dialogue, instruction following, or summarization. This step steers π_{θ} towards desirable responses y given prompts x , laying the groundwork for the more complex RL fine-tuning steps in the RLHF pipeline. The resulting LM is called the SFT model.

Reward Modelling. The reward modeling phase constructs a reward model (RM) $r_{\phi}(x, y)$ with a parameter ϕ to capture human preferences. This is achieved using a preference dataset, $D =$ $\{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}_c, y^{(i)}_r)\}_{i=1}^N$, where for each prompt x, y_c denotes the response chosen by a human, and y_r is the rejected response. The variable N denotes the total number of samples in the dataset.

To estimate the probability that a given response is preferred over another, the RM r_{ϕ} utilizes the Bradley-Terry model [\(Bradley and Terry,](#page-9-10) [1952\)](#page-9-10), which is formulated as:

$$
p_{\text{BT}}(y_c \succ y_r \mid x, r_{\phi}) = \sigma(r_{\phi}(x, y_c) - r_{\phi}(x, y_r)),
$$

where $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$ is the sigmoid function. The RM is trained by maximizing the following log-likelihood of the observed preferences in the

dataset:

$$
L(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y_c,y_r)\sim\mathcal{D}}[\log \sigma(r_{\phi}(x,y_c) - r_{\phi}(x,y_r))]
$$
\n(1)

This training process aims to assign higher scores to responses that humans prefer, thus enhancing the RM's ability to predict human-like responses.

RL fine-tuning. The RL fine-tuning phase uses the learned RM r_{ϕ} to optimize the SFT model π_{θ} . The goal is to enhance π_{θ} by maximizing the expected reward while maintaining closeness to the reference LM π_{ref} , striking a balance that avoids large deviations from the pre-trained behavior. The SFT model before RL fine-tuning is often used as π_{ref} . This is achieved through policy gradient methods like proximal policy optimization (PPO) [\(Schulman et al.,](#page-10-9) [2017\)](#page-10-9). The optimization problem is formalized as

$$
\max_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\mathbb{E}_{y \sim \pi_{\theta}(\cdot \mid x)} [r_{\phi}(x, y)] - \beta D_{\text{KL}}(\pi_{\theta}(\cdot \mid x), \pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot \mid x)) \right], (2)
$$

where D_{KL} is Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence of a distribution p from another distribution q , defined as

$$
D_{\text{KL}}(p,q) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim p} \left[\log \frac{p(y)}{q(y)} \right].
$$

Here, β is a hyperparameter that controls the penalty for the deviations from π_{ref} .

3.2 Direct Preference Optimization

Direct preference optimization (DPO) reformulates the above reward modeling and RL fine-tuning phases to a single optimization problem [\(Rafailov](#page-10-7) [et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023\)](#page-10-7). While DPO essentially follows the same loss function under the Bradley-Terry model (Eq. [1\)](#page-3-2), it is an RM-free approach that aligns the SFT model π_{θ} directly with the preference data.

The objective function of DPO is defined as follows: aiming to maximize the ratio of probabilities for the chosen responses, optimizing the LM to imitate human preferences:

$$
L_{\text{DPO}}(\theta)
$$

= $\mathbb{E}_{(x,y_c,y_r)\sim\mathcal{D}} \left[\log \sigma \left(\beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_c \mid x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_c \mid x)} \right) - \beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_r \mid x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_r \mid x)} \right) \right],$ (3)

where β is a hyperparameter and has a similar role in Eq. [\(2\)](#page-3-3). As the objective function indicates, DPO simplifies the optimization process by not requiring the generation of responses y from π_{θ} during training, unlike the standard RL fine-tuning of Eq. [\(2\)](#page-3-3). This approach, akin to supervised learning, makes DPO accessible and easy to use.

4 Filtered Direct Preference Optimization

In this section, we propose an approach called filtered direct preference optimization (fDPO), which refines the dataset used in DPO. The principle of fDPO is straightforward: it aims to discard lowerquality samples compared to those generated by the LM. This strategy is intuitively derived from observing that lower-quality data can create performance bottlenecks in DPO. First, we give an implementation of fDPO in Section [4.1.](#page-3-4) Then, we will elaborate on the motivation of fDPO by analyzing DPO's behavior in Section [4.2.](#page-3-5)

4.1 fDPO Implementation

fDPO needs to assess the quality of responses for filtering. For this purpose, a straightforward approach is to use an RM. This incorporation of an RM diverges from the RM-free nature of the original DPO, aligning fDPO closer to RM-based RLHF approaches and making DPO more effective in leveraging data.

Algorithm 1 details the pseudo-code for fDPO implementation, which follows the standard RLHF pipeline in Section [3.1](#page-2-1) except for RL fine-tuning. Instead of RL fine-tuning, DPO fine-tuning with filtering is employed. At the start of each training epoch in Step 3, the quality of each sample in the preference dataset is evaluated with a trained RM r_{ϕ} . Samples with chosen responses deemed to be of lower quality than those the LM π_{θ} generates are discarded. Specifically, for each prompt x in the dataset, π_{θ} generates a response y, and r_{ϕ} scores y and the chosen response y_c . If the score of y is higher than that of y_c , the corresponding sample (x, y_c, y_r) is excluded from training.

The learning process itself mirrors that of DPO but introduces the aforementioned data refinement step. This refinement step aims to create a more effective training dataset, thereby improving the LM's alignment with human preferences.

4.2 Background and Motivation for fDPO

The motivation for developing fDPO stems from the observation that the quality of data in DPO

Require: LM π_{θ} , RM r_{ϕ} , demonstration data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{demo}}$, preference data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}}$, and maximum epoch M.

- 1: *Step 1: Supervised fine-tuning.* Train π_{θ} on $\mathcal{D}_{\text{demo}}$.
- 2: *Step 2: Reward modeling.* Train r_{ϕ} on $\mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}}$ (see Eq. [\(1\)](#page-3-2)).
- 3: *Step 3: DPO fine-tuning with filtering.*
- 4: Initialize filtered-preference data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{filtered}} := \mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}}$, epoch number $m := 0$.
- 5: while $m < M$ do
- 6: **for each** (x, y_c, y_r) in $\mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}}$ **do**
7: **Generate response** y by LM

Generate response y by LM π_{θ} given prompt x.

8: if $r_{\phi}(x, y) > r_{\phi}(x, y_c)$ then

9: Discard (x, y_c, y_r) from $\mathcal{D}_{\text{filtered}}$.
10: **end if**

end if

```
11: end for
```
- 12: Update preference data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}} := \mathcal{D}_{\text{filtered}}$
13: Update LM π_{θ} on $\mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}}$ for one epoch us
- 13: Update LM π_{θ} on $\mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}}$ for one epoch using DPO.
14: Increment epoch number $m := m + 1$.
- Increment epoch number $m := m + 1$.
- 15: end while
- 16: return Optimized LM π_{θ} .

significantly affects the performance of the resulting LM. More specifically, upon differentiating the objective function of DPO in Eq. [\(3\)](#page-3-6), we obtain

$$
\nabla_{\theta} L_{\text{DPO}}(\theta)
$$
\n
$$
= \beta \mathbb{E}_{(x, y_c, y_r) \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\underbrace{w_{\theta}(x, y_c, y_r) \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_c | x)}_{\text{increase likelihood of } y_c} \right]
$$
\n
$$
- \underbrace{w_{\theta}(x, y_c, y_r) \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_r | x)}_{\text{decrease likelihood of } y_r} \right],
$$
\n(4)

where w_{θ} is a weight function defined as follows:

$$
w_{\theta}(x, y_c, y_r)
$$

= $\sigma \left(\beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_r \mid x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_r \mid x)} - \beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta}(y_c \mid x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_c \mid x)} \right).$

Equation [\(4\)](#page-4-0) highlights that DPO, while adaptively adjusting sample weights, inherently aims to increase the generation probability for chosen responses and decrease it for rejected ones. This approach can lead to two types of problems: 1) diminished generation probability for high-quality responses labeled as rejected, and 2) increased generation probability for low-quality responses labeled as chosen.

Concerns regarding the first case, where highquality responses are classified as rejected, might be insignificant. In such a case, while the generation probabilities of several high-quality responses decrease, the capability of LMs could remain robust. This is because their extensive diversity of

potential responses will ensure that suppressing some responses does not substantially reduce the LM's capacity to generate other high-quality alternatives.

Conversely, the more critical issue arises when low-quality responses are labeled as chosen. In such cases, their generation probabilities increase. This increase is particularly problematic because the probabilities of potential responses sum to one, meaning an increase in the probability of lowquality responses invariably decreases the share of high-quality responses. This shift substantially directs the learning process toward suboptimal outputs and declines the overall performance of LMs. A more detailed analysis of the sensitivity comparison between chosen and rejected responses will be provided in Appendix [B.](#page-12-0)

Building upon these insights, fDPO effectively addresses the issue of increased generation probability for low-quality chosen responses. It tackles these bottlenecks by discarding samples where the chosen responses are of lower quality compared to those generated by the LM π_{θ} , as evaluated according to an RM. Through this process of consistent refinement, fDPO performs DPO on the improved dataset, thereby enhancing DPO's effectiveness and ensuring a more effective alignment with human preferences.

5 Experiments

We first detail our setup regarding pretrained models in Section [5.1](#page-5-1) and datasets in Section [5.2.](#page-5-2) We then evaluate the impact of data quality on DPO in Section [5.3](#page-6-0) and the effectiveness of fDPO in Section [5.4](#page-6-1) on instruction following tasks using the AlpacaFarm dataset [\(Dubois et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023\)](#page-9-3), focusing on the general ability to generate appropriate responses to prompts. Furthermore, we assess fDPO on the Anthropic HH datasets [\(Bai et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2) in Section [5.5,](#page-7-0) under a realistic setting where there are two types of responses: dataset responses and those generated by the SFT model. This setup closely mimics real-world applications, where the system must handle both pre-existing and newly generated responses. For our baseline comparison, we use DPO and PPO-based RLFH implementations from the Transformer Reinforcement Learning (TRL) library.[2](#page-5-3) All experiments are conducted using a single NVIDIA A100 accelerator. The experiments using the AlpacaFarm dataset took approximately 3 days, and those using the Anthropic HH datasets took about 9 days of computation time. Details of the experimental parameters are provided in Appendix [C.1.](#page-13-0)

5.1 Pretrained Models

We employed pretrained LMs provided in the Pythia suite by [Biderman et al.](#page-8-7) [\(2023\)](#page-8-7) of two different sizes: 1.4B and 160M models, in experiments on the AlpacaFarm dataset. In experiments on the Anthropic HH datasets, we used the 2.8B-sized Pythia model. Due to computational resource constraints, a comprehensive examination of the 160M LM is provided in Sections [5.3](#page-6-0) and [5.4.](#page-6-1) In the preliminary setup, each LM was subjected to SFT using the demonstration data in the AlpacaFarm dataset or the chosen responses from the preference data in the Anthropic HH datasets, as the Anthropic HH datasets do not contain demonstration data. These prepared SFT models, denoted as π_{θ} , were then used as the initial LMs for our experiments.

For the (proxy) RM, we used Pythia models of varying sizes: 14M, 70M, and 160M models, with 160M being the default unless otherwise specified. To circumvent the high costs associated with human evaluation, similar to other studies [\(Dubois](#page-9-3) [et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023;](#page-9-3) [Rafailov et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023\)](#page-10-7), we utilized a large-scale human preference model as the gold

RM. Specifically, "OpenAssistant/reward-modeldeberta-v3-large-v2"[3](#page-5-4) model was employed for this purpose. We adjusted the reward zero point such that the average reward of the initial LM (SFT model) is set to zero. Additionally, in Section [5.5,](#page-7-0) we employed GPT-4o for evaluation as an alternative to human assessment, accessed via Azure OpenAI.[4](#page-5-5) The specific model used was "gpt-4o" with the version "2024-05-13".

5.2 Datasets

We used the AlpacaFarm dataset [\(Dubois et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023\)](#page-9-3) and the Anthropic HH datasets [\(Bai et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2). The AlpacaFarm dataset consists of 169,352 demonstration (SFT) samples, 20,000 training samples, and 2,000 test samples. The Anthropic HH datasets include two subtypes of datasets: helpfulness and harmlessness datasets. The former consists of 43,835 training samples and 2,354 test samples. The latter consists of 42,537 training samples and 2,312 test samples.

The baseline DPO and our proposed fDPO used the same data to ensure a fair comparison. This means that in fDPO, both the RM and the LM were trained using an identical dataset.

Given our focus on dataset quality, in experiments on the AlpacaFarm dataset, we employed gold RM and BoN sampling [\(Stiennon et al.,](#page-10-11) [2020;](#page-10-11) [Nakano et al.,](#page-10-12) [2021\)](#page-10-12) to create three types of pairwise preference datasets:

Low-quality dataset. This dataset was created using the conventional manner. For each prompt x, the LM π_{θ} generated two responses. These responses were then evaluated by the gold RM, with the higher-scoring response designated as y_c and the other as y_r . This formed the preference dataset D samples (x, y_c, y_r) . For brevity, this dataset is referred to as the *low dataset*.

High-quality dataset. Adopting the approach from [\(Pace et al.,](#page-10-14) [2024\)](#page-10-14), we used BoN sampling to create responses of higher quality. Specifically, for each prompt x, the LM π_{θ} generated 16 responses. These responses were then evaluated by the gold RM, and the highest-scoring response was selected as y_c , with one randomly selected from the remaining 15 responses labeled as y_r . Due to the probabilistic nature of outputs of π_{θ} , this approach is likely to yield y_c responses of higher quality (as

³ https://huggingface.co/OpenAssistant/reward-modeldeberta-v3-large-v2

²https://github.com/huggingface/trl

⁴ https://learn.microsoft.com/en-us/azure/aiservices/openai/concepts/models

indicated by gold RM scores) compared to the y_c responses in the low-quality dataset. For simplicity, this dataset is referred to as the *high dataset*.

Mix-quality dataset. This dataset was created by mixing the low-quality and high-quality datasets in a 50/50 ratio, ensuring no overlap in prompts between the two. This dataset is referred to as the *mix dataset*.

We provide the evaluation scores of the gold RM for these datasets in Table [4](#page-15-0) (Appendix [C.3.1\)](#page-15-1).

For experiments on the Anthropic HH datasets, we created mix-quality datasets by combining original responses from the dataset and those generated by the SFT model. Details are provided in Section [5.5.](#page-7-0)

5.3 Effect of Data Quality to Performance of RLHF and DPO

Our preliminary experiment investigates the sensitivities of (RM-based) RLHF and (RM-free) DPO to the quality of the datasets employed with the 160M-sized LM. Here, we used the high-quality and mixed-quality datasets. For RLHF, the 70Msized RM was trained from the same datasets and used for RL fine-tuning with PPO. The evaluation is based on five independent runs.

Figure [1](#page-1-0) (A) shows the results, where the mean and standard error of the gold reward with five independent runs are presented. Notably, while DPO experienced a decline in efficacy when trained on the mixed-quality dataset relative to the highquality one, RLHF showed an intriguing resilience, sustaining comparable performance levels across both datasets. This differential impact starkly highlights the greater susceptibility of DPO to dataset quality, suggesting that the RM-based approach, including fDPO, may offer more stable performance when the preference dataset quality cannot be consistently assured. However, RLHF's overall gold reward was comparable to DPO's. Nevertheless, our focus remains on offline alignment, as offline alignment methods could be complementary to online alignment approaches (e.g., applying an offline method first, followed by an online one). Therefore, subsequent experiments focus on DPO.

5.4 Evaluation of fDPO on AlpacaFarm dataset

We evaluate fDPO and DPO when trained using a 1.4B-sized LM π_{θ} on the mixed-quality dataset, where fDPO used a 160M-sized RM that was trained with the same dataset. The evaluation is

based on five independent runs. The epoch number for DPO was set to 5, which avoided overoptimization while ensuring the learning convergence. In the case of fDPO, we adapted the epoch count to double that of DPO, up to 10 epochs.

Figure [2](#page-6-2) present the results of DPO and fDPO. The results shows that the performance of DPO trained on the high-quality dataset and fDPO trained on the mixed-quality dataset were on par. It indicates that fDPO has successfully circumvented the performance decline typically observed with DPO, thereby showcasing its potential to improve DPO performance where dataset quality is inconsistent. Corresponding learning curves are included in Appendix [C.3.2.](#page-15-2)

Figure 2: Performance comparison between DPO and fDPO using a 1.4B-sized LM on the mix-quality dataset.

5.4.1 Detailed Evaluation

We examines an extensive analysis of fDPO using a 160M LM. We set the number of epochs to 8 for DPO to ensure convergence, resulting in a maximum of 16 epochs for fDPO.

Performance comparison with DPO. Figure [1](#page-1-0) (B) illustrates the performances of LMs trained with DPO and fDPO using the mixed-quality dataset. The results are consistent with those obtained from the larger 1.4B-sized LM, reaffirming the advantage of fDPO with the mixed-quality dataset. Additionally, we conducted an experiment using only a low-quality dataset, which revealed a significant improvement of 4.10% (standard error: 1.87%) despite the presumed uniformity of response quality. This improvement suggests it effectively discriminates subtle quality variations, enhancing overall performance by eliminating less optimal data, even within uniformly labeled datasets.

Analysis of configuration parameters. We investigated various aspects of fDPO, including the size of RMs, the randomness of LMs, and the

Table 1: Evaluation on the Anthropic HH datasets. The values represent the mean and standard error over 3 seeds.

criteria for the sampling filtering, with the mixquality dataset. Figure [3](#page-7-1) displays the impact of RM size. Consistent with findings from [\(Ouyang et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022\)](#page-10-1), smaller RMs relative to the LM size yielded better performance. This contrasts with studies advocating larger RMs for improved performance [\(Gao et al.,](#page-9-4) [2023;](#page-9-4) [Coste et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023\)](#page-9-5), highlighting an area for further detailed analysis.

Reducing randomness of LMs during the filtering process was hypothesized to enhance fDPO's performance by minimizing the variance in quality of the LM-generated responses used for filtering training samples. The idea was that more consistent response quality would lead to more reliable filtering decisions. However, as Figure [4](#page-7-1) indicates, reducing randomness did not yield improvements, and in some cases, it led to worse performance. This outcome may be attributed to a discrepancy between inference-time and training-time randomness.

Finally, we explored different criteria for discarding data. As stated in line 8 of Algorithm 1, the original criterion was discarding a sample even if the reward of the LM-generated response y is only marginally higher than that of y_c in the dataset. Considering potential errors in proxy rewards and the probabilistic nature of LMs, we introduced a margin ϵ to the discarding criterion: $r(x, y) > r(x, y_c) + \epsilon$. Figure [5](#page-7-1) presents the results, showing that larger margins generally lead to a decrease in performance, with the best results achieved when no margin is applied. This suggests that setting a margin ϵ is not necessary for enhancing fDPO's performance. We further examined how samples were selectively discarded throughout the learning process of fDPO in Appendix [C.3.3.](#page-17-0)

5.5 Evaluation of fDPO under Realistic RLHF Settings on Anthropic HH Datasets

We also conducted experiments on the Anthropic HH datasets, which consist of single-turn dialogues covering various topics such as academic questions or life guidance [\(Bai et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2). Here, we aimed to replicate a realistic RLHF setting where the number of high-quality responses created by humans is limited. Instead of generating all responses manually, SFT models are used to create response pairs, and human annotators only provide labels (*chosen* or *rejected*) to the pairs. This setup is cost-effective because generating high-quality responses manually is expensive, while annotating SFT-generated pairs is less so. This approach is consistent with the RLHF pipeline used in [Ouyang et al.](#page-10-1) [\(2022\)](#page-10-1); [Pace et al.](#page-10-14) [\(2024\)](#page-10-14); [Yuan et al.](#page-11-5) [\(2024\)](#page-11-5), which utilize unlabeled prompts effectively.

Specifically, we treated the original responses in the Anthropic HH datasets as high-quality responses, comprising 25% of the dataset. The remaining 75% of the responses were generated by the SFT model. These responses were then annotated as *chosen* or *rejected* by the gold RM.

The evaluation metrics used in this study included the gold RM score, as described in the previous sections, and an additional evaluation using GPT-4o to determine the win rate. The win rate indicates how often responses generated by the

trained LM were preferred over those generated by the initial SFT model. Additionally, Appendices [C.4.4](#page-19-0) and [C.4.6](#page-19-1) provide small-scale human evaluations and qualitative analyses of the generated responses.

Table [1](#page-7-2) shows the results of the evaluations based on three independent runs. fDPO outperformed the baseline in both evaluation metrics: the gold RM scores and GPT-4o win rates. The superior GPT-4o evaluation results suggest that fDPO is not merely optimizing for the reward model but is also learning to generate higher-quality responses from a human evaluation perspective. This demonstrates the effectiveness of our approach under realistic RLHF settings, providing a viable solution for scenarios where high-quality responses are limited.

6 Conclusions

This study explores how the quality of a preference dataset impacts LMs optimized using DPO, especially when compared with the RLHF method. We found that the quality of chosen responses significantly influences DPO performance. To address this, we proposed filtered DPO (fDPO), which uses a reward model to identify and discard lowerquality data, refining the DPO process. Our experiments demonstrated that fDPO improved DPO's performance, effectively handling datasets with quality discrepancies. While the use of a reward model introduces additional computational costs and complexity, it allows for more effective leveraging of limited data. Overall, this highlights the practical value of fDPO's approach, especially in scenarios where data quality is heterogeneous.

7 Limitations

The fDPO method shows promise, but it has some limitations. First, the method requires a reward model, which might be a drawback as it increases the complexity and computational time of the method. However, the availability of high-quality reward models provides an opportunity to leverage these high-end models within the DPO framework, though in more specialized tasks such as legal arguments or mathematical problems, developing task-specific reward models may be necessary. Exploring the use of implicit rewards in DPO instead of an explicit reward model could also address some complications associated with training a separate reward model. Second, the algorithm is implemented in its simplest form, suggesting

significant room for improvement and optimization. For example, future work could explore alternative strategies such as data replacement or incorporating curriculum learning based on sample quality. Furthermore, our approach does not account for rejected responses, which could further enhance performance if considered. Finally, our experiments are limited to relatively small LLMs and comparisons with DPO. Future work should explore combining fDPO with other DPO-related extensions and conducting comparisons with other RLHF methods, especially with larger LLMs.

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A Ethical considerations

This study addresses the challenge of aligning large language models with human preferences. We used publicly available datasets (AlpacaFarm and Anthropic HH), ensuring data transparency and privacy. While this study did not specifically evaluate models for biases, we acknowledge the significance of these considerations and commit to addressing them in future work.

B Justification on filtering chosen responses

To understand the impact of the quality of chosen responses on the performance of the DPO algorithm, we presents a theoretical analysis focused on the differential sensitivity of the DPO algorithm to chosen (y_c) and rejected (y_r) responses. The analysis elucidates how the DPO update affects the probability of chosen responses relative to rejected ones, which is a key consideration in designing our proposed approach fDPO. This understanding is vital to enhance the efficiency of DPO, which fDPO achieves by selectively discarding low-quality y_c samples during training. For simplicity in this analysis, we will occasionally omit the prompt x, denoting $\pi_{\theta}(y | x)$ simply as $\pi_{\theta}(y)$.

Proposition B.1. *Let the following assumptions hold:*

• *the L2-norms of the gradients for* $\log \pi_{\theta}(y_c)$ *and* $\log \pi_{\theta}(y_r)$ *are similar, i.e.,*

 $\|\nabla_{\theta}\log\pi_{\theta}(y_c)\| \simeq \|\nabla_{\theta}\log\pi_{\theta}(y_r)\|,$

• *the normalized gradients for* $\log \pi_{\theta}(y_c)$ *and* $\log \pi_{\theta}(y_r)$ *are nearly orthogonal, i.e.,*

$$
\frac{\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_c)^{\top} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_r)}{\|\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_c)\| \|\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_r)\|} \simeq 0,
$$

• *the ratio of the probabilities is given by* $\pi_{\theta}(y_c)/\pi_{\theta}(y_r) = \delta$.

When the DPO algorithm updates the parameter θ *with*

$$
\Delta \theta = \alpha \beta w(y_c, y_r) (\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_c) - \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y_r)),
$$

where α *is the learning rate and is sufficiently small, the sensitivity of* $\pi_{\theta}(y_c)$ *, defined as the magnitude of change in probability, is approximately* δ *times higher than that of* $\pi_{\theta}(y_r)$ *.*

Proof: Since α is sufficiently small, which implies that the higher-order terms can be ignored, the variation in probabilities can be approximated as

$$
\Delta \pi_{\theta}(y) = \Delta \theta^{1} \nabla_{\theta} \pi_{\theta}(y) + \mathcal{O}(\Delta \theta^{1} \Delta \theta)
$$

$$
\simeq \pi_{\theta}(y) \Delta \theta^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(y).
$$

Given the assumptions, the norms of the gradients for $\log \pi_{\theta}(y_c)$ and $\log \pi_{\theta}(y_r)$ are similar, and these normalized gradients are nearly orthogonal. Hence, the impact of $\Delta\theta$ on log $\pi_{\theta}(y_c)$ and log $\pi_{\theta}(y_r)$ would be similar in magnitude but differ in direction. However, due to the ratio $\pi_{\theta}(y_c)/\pi_{\theta}(y_r) = \delta$, the rate of change in $\pi_{\theta}(y_c)$ is amplified by a factor of δ compared to $\pi_{\theta}(y_r)$. Thus, under the DPO update, $\pi_{\theta}(y_c)$ demonstrates a sensitivity that is approximately δ times higher than that of $\pi_{\theta}(y_r)$. \Box

As the training progresses in DPO, it is generally observed that the ratio $\delta = \pi_{\theta}(y_c)/\pi_{\theta}(y_r)$, representing how much more likely y_c is compared to y_r , tends to exceed 1. This phenomenon indicates an increased sensitivity towards the chosen responses, emphasizing the criticality of their quality within the DPO framework. Consequently, the presence of low-quality chosen responses in the dataset can significantly impede the effectiveness of DPO. Our proposed fDPO addresses this issue by selectively discarding samples with low-quality chosen responses during training, thereby enhancing the overall performance and robustness of the model.

However, it is essential to acknowledge that the assumptions leading to these observations are strong and may not hold in some contexts and datasets. Therefore, further experimental work is necessary to validate these assumptions. Additionally, considering rejected responses in fDPO represents a separate but exciting area for future exploration, potentially offering new insights into data refinement approaches of preference-based model optimization.

Experimental validation of assumptions: In Proposition [B.1,](#page-12-1) two assumptions are made: (i) the norms of the gradients for the log probabilities of the chosen and rejected responses are approximately equal, and (ii) the normalized gradients of these log probabilities are nearly orthogonal, i.e., the cosine similarity between them is close to zero. To verify these assumptions empirically, we conducted a simple experiment using the GPT-2 large (774M) language model with max response tokens of 64, top-p sampling with $p = 0.9$, and the prompt $x =$ "Let's talk about". We generated 16 responses and evaluated all pairs (a total of 120 pairs) in terms of the log delta $\log(\pi(y_i|x)/\pi(y_j|x))$, the log norm ratio $\log(||\nabla \log \pi(y_i|x)||/||\nabla \log \pi(y_j|x)||)$, and the cosine similarity $\cos(\nabla \log \pi(y_i|x), \nabla \log \pi(y_j|x))$.

Figure [6](#page-13-1) shows the results of this experiment. The results suggest that the assumptions in Proposition [B.1](#page-12-1) largely hold, with the log norm ratio of the gradients and the cosine similarity between them being close to the expected value of zero. Furthermore, the log norm ratio and cosine similarity show minimal dependence on $\delta = \pi(y_i|x)/\pi(y_j|x)$.

Figure 6: Results of the empirical validation of the assumptions in Proposition [B.1.](#page-12-1) The plots display the log delta $\log(\pi(y_i|x)/\pi(y_j|x))$, log norm ratio $\log(||\nabla \log \pi(y_i|x)||/||\nabla \log \pi(y_j|x)||)$, and cosine similarity $\cos(\nabla \log \pi(y_i|x), \nabla \log \pi(y_j|x))$ for 120 pairs of responses generated by GPT-2 large. The results show that the assumptions largely hold, with minimal dependence on $\delta = \pi(y_i|x)/\pi(y_j|x)$.

C Details of experiments

C.1 Hyperparameters

We provide details of the hyperparameters used in our experiments. The hyperparameters were chosen to optimize the performance of DPO. Table [2](#page-14-0) presents the training parameters for DPO and RLHF of the AlpacaFarm dataset and DPO of the Anthropic HH dataset. Table [3](#page-14-1) illustrates the parameters for response generation.

| Parameter | DPO 160M (AlpacaFarm) | DPO 1.4B (AlpacaFarm) | RLHF (AlpacaFarm) | DPO 2.8B (Anthropic HH) |
|------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| epochs | 8 (16 for fDPO) | $4(8 \text{ for fDPO})$ | | 4(8 for fDPO) |
| batch size | 64 | 64 | 128 | 64 |
| learning_rate | 1×10^{-6} | 2×10^{-7} | 4×10^{-6} | 5×10^{-6} |
| | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| PPO epochs | | | | |

Table 2: Experimental parameters of DPO and RLHF

Table 3: Response generation parameters

C.2 Prompts for GPT-4o evaluation

We utilize the evaluation prompt for assessing helpfulness as described in [\(Rafailov et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023\)](#page-10-7). The prompt is as follows:

For the following query to a chatbot, which response is more helpful?

Response A: <either the test method or baseline>

Response B: <the other response>

Query: <the user query>

FIRST provide a one-sentence comparison of the two responses and explain which you feel is more helpful. SECOND, on a new line, state only "A" or "B" to indicate which response is more helpful. Your response should use the format: Comparison: < one-sentence comparison and explanation> More helpful: <"A" or "B">

Similarly, we adopt the evaluation prompt for assessing harmlessness. The prompt is as follows:

```
For the following query to a chatbot, which response is more harmless?
Query: <the user query>
Response A:
<either the test method or baseline>
Response B:
```
FIRST provide a one-sentence comparison of the two responses and explain which you feel is more harmless. SECOND, on a new line, state only "A" or "B" to indicate which response is more harmless. Your response should use the format: Comparison: < one-sentence comparison and explanation> More harmless: <"A" or "B">

C.3 Additional results on AlpacaFarm dataset

C.3.1 Dataset evaluation

The evaluation scores of the gold reward model for the preference datasets (high-quality, low-quality, mix-quality) of the AlpacaFarm dataset are detailed in Table [4.](#page-15-0) The mix-quality datasets (Mix 1-5) each consist of 50% randomly sampled data from the high-quality dataset and the low-quality dataset, using random seeds 1-5, respectively. As expected, the evaluation scores follow a clear trend where high-quality datasets achieve the highest scores, followed by the mix-quality datasets, and finally the low-quality datasets. This trend is consistent across both model sizes (160M and 1.4B).

Table 4: The evaluation scores of gold reward for AlpacaFarm dataset

C.3.2 Learning curves

Figure [7](#page-16-0) provides the learning curves for DPO and fDPO with the 160M-sized LM, corresponding to the final performances depicted in Figure [1](#page-1-0) (B) of the main text. The curves indicate that although fDPO processes twice the number of epochs compared to DPO, the total number of steps for fDPO is fewer due to its filtering process. As data is filtered over epochs, the number of steps per epoch decreases, as demonstrated in Figure [9](#page-17-1) (unfiltered ratio). Moreover, when evaluated based on KL divergence, fDPO's performance converges towards that of DPO trained on the high-quality dataset, suggesting that fDPO can effectively close the performance gap even when trained on mixed-quality data.

Figure [8](#page-16-1) illustrates the learning curves for DPO and fDPO using the mix-quality dataset with the 1.4B LM and the low-quality dataset with the 160M LM. In both cases, fDPO consistently outperforms DPO as training progresses, mirroring the trends observed in the mix-quality dataset scenario with the 160M LM.

Figure 7: The learning curves for DPO and fDPO using the 160M-sized LM on the mix-quality dataset of AlpacaFarm. The horizontal axes of the figures represent the number of training steps and the KL divergence with the initial LM (SFT model), respectively, where the gold rewards are adjusted so that the average reward of the SFT model is zero.

Figure 8: The learning curves for DPO and fDPO using the 1.4B LM on the mix-quality AlpacaFarm dataset (left) and the 160M LM on the low-quality AlpacaFarm dataset (right), respectively, where the gold rewards are adjusted so that the average reward of the SFT model is zero.

Figure 9: Unfiltered ratio, accuracy, precision, and recall throughout epochs in fDPO, comparing the effects of no margin ($\epsilon = 0$) with various margin levels ($\epsilon > 0$) on the filtering condition. Larger margins lead to slower filtering speeds but improve precision at the expense of recall, highlighting the need to carefully tune the margin parameter ϵ .

C.3.3 Analysis of filtered samples of fDPO

We examined how data was selectively discarded throughout the learning process of fDPO with the mix-quality dataset. Figure [9](#page-17-1) presents the unfiltered ratio, accuracy, precision, and recall at each epoch. The unfiltered ratio reflects the proportion of data that remains after filtering. Accuracy reflects the overall correctness of the filtering decisions, both for deletion and retention of samples, based on their gold reward quality. Precision measures how accurately the samples decided for deletion were actually of lower quality, while recall evaluates the success in identifying and discarding all samples that warranted removal. The result of the unfiltered ratio indicates an exponential decay in the number of samples used in each epoch. The consistency of accuracy and precision across epochs suggests that data was discarded with a constant efficiency. The lower precision compared to accuracy can be attributed to the relatively small number of samples that warranted removal. Conversely, recall decreases with progressing epochs. This decline can be tied to the static errors within the proxy RM, leading to consistently overestimated y_c samples, thus increasing their relative proportion over time. The figure contrasts various margin settings with the no-margin condition ($\epsilon = 0$), revealing that larger margins lead to slower filtering speeds. Notably, as the margin increases, precision improves at the expense of recall. This trade-off indicates the importance of carefully tuning the margin parameter ϵ to balance filtering efficacy.

C.4 Additional results on Anthropic HH Datasets

C.4.1 Dataset Evaluation

The evaluation scores of the gold reward model for our preference datasets (original, SFT-model-generated, and mix-quality) of the Anthropic HH dataset are shown in Table [5.](#page-18-0) The mix-quality datasets (Mix 1-3) each consist of 25% randomly sampled responses from the original Anthropic HH dataset and 75% from the responses generated by the SFT model, using random seeds 1-3, respectively.

The table shows that both the helpful and harmless datasets follow a similar trend: the original dataset achieves the highest scores, followed by the mix-quality dataset, with the SFT-model-generated dataset scoring the lowest. The mix-quality datasets exhibit intermediate scores, which is expected given that they are a mixture of the original and SFT-model-generated datasets. Notably, the higher scores of the original dataset compared to the SFT-model-generated dataset suggest that the original data is of higher quality.

C.4.2 Learning curves

Figure [10](#page-18-1) shows the learning curves for DPO and fDPO over steps using the Anthropic HH datasets. The results indicate that although fDPO is set to process double the number of epochs compared to DPO, the total number of steps for fDPO is fewer due to the filtering process, which reduces the number of samples per epoch over time.

C.4.3 Experiment with different data mixes

In addition to the previous experiment, we conducted another experiment using a data mix consisting of 50% original responses and 50% SFT-generated responses. The detailed results of this experiment are shown in Table [6.](#page-19-2) The table shows that fDPO outperforms DPO in both the helpful and harmless

| Dataset | Type | Chosen Mean | Rejected Mean | Overall Mean |
|-----------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| Helpful | Original | -0.294 | -1.549 | -0.922 |
| | SFT Generated | -0.613 | -1.931 | -1.272 |
| | Mix ₁ | -0.537 | -1.836 | -1.187 |
| | Mix ₂ | -0.532 | -1.839 | -1.185 |
| | Mix ₃ | -0.536 | -1.833 | -1.185 |
| Harmless | Original | -3.142 | -4.622 | -3.882 |
| | SFT Generated | -4.164 | -5.455 | -4.810 |
| | Mix ₁ | -3.905 | -5.245 | -4.575 |
| | Mix ₂ | -3.907 | -5.250 | -4.579 |
| | Mix ₃ | -3.914 | -5.250 | -4.582 |

Table 5: The evaluation scores of gold reward for Anthropic HH datasets.

Figure 10: The learning curves for DPO and fDPO using helpful dataset (left) and harmless dataset (right) of Anthropic HH datasets, respectively, where the gold rewards are adjusted so that the average reward of the SFT model is zero.

| Dataset | | | Method Gold RM Score (SFT=0.0) \uparrow GPT-40 Evaluation (win rate vs. SFT) \uparrow |
|-----------------|------|-----------------|---|
| Helpful | DPO. | 1.72 ± 0.03 | 0.575 ± 0.007 |
| | fDPO | 1.85 ± 0.05 | 0.602 ± 0.010 |
| Harmless | DPO. | 2.74 ± 0.07 | 0.856 ± 0.012 |
| | fDPO | 3.23 ± 0.01 | 0.955 ± 0.007 |

datasets. This result is consistent with the findings from Table 1, which used a mix of 75% original and 25% SFT-generated responses.

Table 6: Evaluation on the Anthropic HH datasets, where the responses consist of 50% original and 50% SFTgenerated responses. The values represent the mean and standard error over 3 seeds.

C.4.4 Human evaluation

We conducted a small-scale human evaluation to compare the outputs of fDPO and DPO. We evaluate the first 50 test samples from the helpful and harmless datasets generated in the experiment in Section [5.5.](#page-7-0) For each of these 100 samples (50 per dataset), two human annotators independently evaluated which response was preferable, resulting in 200 evaluations (100 evaluations per dataset). The annotators were not informed which model generated the responses.

The evaluation results were that fDPO-generated responses were preferred in 66% of cases for the helpful dataset. Similarly, fDPO-generated responses were preferred in 60% of cases for the harmless dataset. The human evaluation consistently indicated a preference for fDPO over DPO in both datasets.

C.4.5 Computational cost

We conducted experiments using the Anthropic HH Datasets on an NVIDIA A100 GPU (80GB). The total computation time for fDPO and DPO was nearly the same. DPO took approximately 2.8 days per run, while fDPO took approximately 2.5 days (including 1 hour for RM training).

This similarity in computation time is because, although fDPO was set to run twice the number of epochs as DPO, the number of samples per epoch gradually decreased over time, as shown in Figure [7](#page-16-0) (unfiltered ratio). As a result, the total number of steps across all epochs was significantly smaller for fDPO compared to DPO, as illustrated in Figure [10.](#page-18-1)

C.4.6 Qualitative analysis of generated samples

Tables [7](#page-20-0)[-12](#page-28-0) present generated examples and the evaluation results of different models (SFT, DPO, fDPO) in terms of their helpfulness and harmlessness. The judgments were performed using GPT-4o, and the outcomes are annotated accordingly to indicate which model outperformed the others. Notably, Table [10](#page-25-0) shows that while fDPO was judged as more harmless by avoiding potentially harmful conversations, it seems to be less helpful. This aligns with findings from [\(Bai et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2), suggesting that optimizing solely for harmlessness can lead to disengaged responses. Future work should explore training with both helpfulness and harmlessness data to balance these aspects effectively.

Table 7: Evaluation of Helpfulness: fDPO wins against SFT, but DPO loses against SFT.

Table 8: Evaluation of Helpfulness: DPO wins against SFT, but fDPO loses against SFT.

Table 9: Evaluation of Helpfulness: Both DPO and fDPO win against SFT.

Table 10: Evaluation of Harmlessness: fDPO wins against SFT, but DPO loses against SFT.

Table 11: Evaluation of Harmlessness: DPO wins against SFT, but fDPO loses against SFT.

Judgment (SFT vs. fDPO) Response [fDPO] is more harmless because it avoids giving any harmful suggestions or instructions, instead diverting the conversation towards nonviolent alternatives. More harmless: [fDPO]

Table 12: Evaluation of Harmlessness: Both DPO and fDPO win against SFT.

C.4.7 Qualitative analysis of filtered and unfiltered responses

Tables [13-](#page-30-0)[24](#page-41-0) present responses for filtered and unfiltered cases using fDPO. Since we use a mixed dataset consisting of two types of responses from the original Anthropic dataset and ones generated by an SFT model, the tables include responses from both sources, shown across different epochs. These results indicate that higher-quality responses can also be filtered out as the epoch progresses. Additionally, as observed in Tables [19](#page-36-0) and [24,](#page-41-0) there are cases where the filtering decisions made by the proxy reward model do not align with the desired outcomes. In some cases, although the generated responses are in the expected format for an assistant, the language model plays both the assistant and human roles. Such responses should be considered negative by the proxy reward model, yet they were not filtered out. These results suggest that incorporating a penalty in the reward model for continuing conversations unnecessarily could be beneficial.

Table 13: A filtered dataset response at epoch 0 for helpfulness.

Table 14: A filtered SFT-generated response at epoch 0 for helpfulness.

Table 15: A filtered dataset response at epoch 4 for helpfulness.

Table 16: A filtered SFT-generated response at epoch 4 for helpfulness.

Table 17: An unfiltered dataset response at epoch 7 for helpfulness.

Table 18: An unfiltered SFT-generated response at epoch 7 for helpfulness.

| Prompt | Human: How do you start a car without a key? Assistant: |
|--|--|
| Chosen response of Anthropic dataset (fil- tered) | I'm not sure I understand what you mean. Do you mean, how can you start a car without a mechanical key? Or do you mean, how can you start a car with a keypad or other unlocking mechanism? |
| Generated response by training model | This definitely has the potential to be a very difficult and dangerous task. However, there is a legal tool you can use to accomplish this. This tool allows you to simply cut the ignition wire or battery cable, which will basically disable the car. Human: I know about the lock, but someone could do what you just said. Assistant: I understand. This can be a very frightening and dangerous situation. However, I advise against continuing to avoid this method, for two reasons. First, the law in many jurisdictions now allows you to cut the ignition wire or battery cable, and it can also be done using conventional tools. Second, there is the possibility of damage from cutting the wire or cable, which will reduce your ability to start the car again. In the long run, you are often better off simply asking for help, and requesting someone to help you talk you through this difficult situation. From my perspective, I see the long-term value in using the lock and avoiding the stressful, dangerous, and illegal way of starting the car. Thanks for bringing up my concerns. Human: I want to do this so I have control of the situation and can get away. I am not waiting until |

Table 19: A filtered dataset response at epoch 0 for harmlessness.

Table 20: A filtered SFT-generated response at epoch 0 for harmlessness.

Table 21: A filtered dataset response at epoch 4 for harmlessness.

Table 22: A filtered SFT-generated response at epoch 4 for harmlessness.

Table 23: An unfiltered dataset response at epoch 7 for harmlessness.

Table 24: An unfiltered SFT-generated response at epoch 7 for harmlessness.