Taming Overconfidence in LLMs: Reward Calibration in RLHF

Abstract

Language model calibration refers to the alignment between the confidence of the model and the actual performance of its responses. While previous studies point out the overconfidence phenomenon in Large Language Models (LLMs) and show that LLMs trained with Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) are overconfident with a more sharpened output probability, in this study, we reveal that RLHF tends to lead models to express verbalized overconfidence in their own responses. We investigate the underlying cause of this overconfidence and demonstrate that reward models used for Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) exhibit inherent biases towards high-confidence scores regardless of the actual quality of responses. Building upon this insight, we propose two PPO variants: PPO-M: PPO with Calibrated Reward Modeling and PPO-C: PPO with Calibrated Reward Calculation. PPO-M integrates explicit confidence scores in reward model training, which calibrates reward models to better capture the alignment between response quality and verbalized confidence. PPO-C adjusts the reward score during PPO based on the difference between the current reward and the moving average of past rewards. *Both PPO-M and PPO-C can be seamlessly integrated into the current PPO pipeline and do not require additional golden labels.* We evaluate our methods on both `Llama3-8B` and `Mistral-7B` across six diverse datasets including multiple-choice and open-ended generation. Experiment results demonstrate that both of our methods can reduce calibration error and maintain performance comparable to standard PPO. We further show that they do not compromise model capabilities in open-ended conversation settings.

1 Introduction

As Large Language Models (LLMs) significantly expand their functionality to a wide range of applications from complex problem solving (Wei et al., 2022; Song et al., 2023a) to science discovery (Imani et al., 2023; OpenAI, 2023), the importance of their reliability becomes increasingly critical. A key aspect of this reliability is language model calibration – the alignment between model confidence and its actual performance. LLM confidence can be assessed through two primary methods: logit-based approaches, derived from output token probability distributions, and verbalized expressions, where the model explicitly states its confidence level. In this paper, we focus on verbalized confidence, where we prompt LLMs to express a confidence score for their responses (Figure 1, Top).

Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) has significantly improved LLM performance through two key components: reward modeling, which learns to predict human preferences from ranking datasets, and policy optimization guided by reward models, typically implemented with Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017). However, recent studies (Kadavath et al., 2022; OpenAI, 2023) show that RLHF-trained LLMs tend to exhibit overconfidence, potentially due to sharpened output distributions. Previous works address LLM confidence through various methods. Scaling-based approaches (Guo et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020) adjust model logits with decoding temperature, while verbalized confidence is enhanced via prompting strategies (Tian et al., 2023) and supervised fine-tuning (Lin et al., 2022) using ground truth accuracy. More recently, RLHF-based calibration methods (Xu et al., 2024; Tao et al., 2024) are proposed.

Our study investigates the underlying causes of overconfidence introduced by RLHF. We demonstrate empirical evidence that RLHF-LLMs elicit verbalized overconfidence compared to their pre-RLHF

Figure 1: (Top): Illustration of verbalized confidence generation. An LLM incorrectly answers a question with high confidence. (Bottom): Comparison between reward scores from a vanilla-trained reward model `Llama-3-8b-rm-mixture` and our calibrated reward model `Llama-3-8b-crm`. The vanilla model shows bias towards high confidence though the answer is incorrect. Our calibrated reward model correctly assigns a higher reward to the low confidence for the incorrect answer.

counterparts. We then reveal **a system bias in reward models** favoring responses with high confidence scores, regardless of the actual response quality, which potentially causes the poor calibration in RLHF-LLMs. We propose two novel solutions to be seamlessly integrated into the RLHF process without additional golden labels.

- **PPO with Calibrated Reward Modeling** (PPO-M) calibrates the reward modeling process. We augment the binary pairwise ranking dataset with explicit confidence scores, and encourages the reward model to align confidence levels with response quality (Figure 1, Bottom).

- **PPO with Calibrated Reward Calculation** (PPO-C) adjusts standard reward model scores during PPO training. It maintains a running average of past reward scores as a dynamic threshold to classify responses, and adjusts the reward scores based on model expressed verbalized confidence.

We conduct experiments on `Llama3-8B` and `Mistral-7B` across six datasets, and demonstrate that both PPO-M and PPO-C consistently outperform vanilla PPO, achieving a lower Expected Calibration Error (ECE) while maintaining comparable or higher accuracy (PPO-M on `Llama3-8B` reduces ECE by 6.44 points and increases accuracy by 2.73 points on GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021)). Moreover, evaluation on MT-Bench (Zheng et al., 2024) shows that PPO-M and PPO-C preserve model capabilities in general open-ended conversation settings. We further demonstrate that PPO-M generalizes well to Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) models (Rafailov et al., 2024), which are implicit reward models. Experiments show that our extension, denoted as CDPO, reduces ECE without sacrificing accuracy compared to standard DPO.

2 EXPLORING SYSTEMATIC BIASES AND OVERCONFIDENCE IN RLHF-LLMS

In this section, we demonstrate the preliminary experiments that reveal overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs and systematic biases in Reward Models, which motivated the development of our methods.

2.1 RLHF-LLMs EXHIBIT OVERCONFIDENCE IN THEIR VERBALIZED CONFIDENCE

Previous studies have shown that LLMs tend to exhibit overconfidence when verbalizing their confidence scores (Tian et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024a; Xiong et al., 2023). However, there is a lack of systematic comparisons between RLHF-LLMs and their pre-RLHF counterparts. To address this gap, we conduct preliminary experiments here to further investigate this phenomenon.

Llama3-8B-SFT and Llama3-8B-PPO;   Tulu-2-7B and Tulu-2-DPO-7B

Figure 2: Confidence distributions and accuracy of two models on CommonsenseQA before and after RLHF. Darker color means more samples fall in that confidence bin. Empty bins indicate no responses with confidence scores in that range. RLHF-trained models (bottom) concentrate in high-confidence bins, while pre-RLHF models (top) show a broader distribution of confidence scores.

Setup. We show results on a multiple-choice question answering dataset, CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2019). We use four off-the-shelf models [1] for our analysis. We compare RLHF models (trained with PPO and DPO) with their pre-RLHF versions. For each question in the dataset, we explicitly prompt the model to verbalize its confidence score on a scale from 0 to 10 after providing its answer to the question. We report the distribution of these confidence scores in Figure 2. Evaluations on other datasets and detailed information on the experimental setup, including prompts and parsing details, are provided in Appendix D and E.1.

Observations. As illustrated in Figure 2, there is a clear trend on both datasets that the RLHF models, whether trained using PPO or DPO, exhibit greater overconfidence compared to their SFT counterparts. Specifically, the SFT models display a more diverse confidence distribution, while RLHF models show confidence scores predominantly at the higher levels. This confirms the phenomenon that RLHF models tend to be more confident when verbalizing their confidence scores.

2.2 Reward Models are Biased Toward High Confidence Scores

In this section, we hypothesize that the observed overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs stems from an inherent bias in reward models favoring a higher confidence score appended after responses. We conduct experiments to demonstrate this preference.

Setup. We employ the `RewardBench` Dataset (Lambert et al., 2024), following its experimental configuration with certain adjustments to examine how reward models process explicit confidence scores in responses. We evaluate `RLHFlow/ArmoRM-Llama3-8B-v0.1` (Wang et al., 2024c) and `allenai/tulu-2-dpo-7b` (Ivison et al., 2023). Specifically, we prepend a confidence-query system prompt as illustrated in Figure 4; if the reward model does not support system prompts, we prepend it into the user prompt instead. This helps the model interpret the scale of confidence scores.

Subsequently, we append a random confidence score, `Confidence:{random_score}`, to each model response. For a comprehensive comparison, we explore four modes: 1) ANSWER_ONLY: applying the original `RewardBench` dataset without modifications; 2) CONFIDENCE_REVERSED: the system prompt is prepended. A high confidence score (random integer from 7 to 10) is appended to the rejected response, and a low confidence score (random integer from 0 to 3) to the chosen response; 3) CHOSEN_WITH_CONF: the system prompt is prepended, but we compare identical chosen responses

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[1] `OpenRLHF/Llama-3-8b-sft-mixture`
`OpenRLHF/Llama-3-8b-rlhf-100k`
`allenai/tulu-2-7b`
`allenai/tulu-2-dpo-7b`

Figure 3: Preference distributions for `ArmoRM-Llama3-8B-v0.1`, a reward model for PPO training (left) and `Tulu-2-DPO-7B`, a DPO model (right) on the modified `RewardBench` dataset across four modes. From top to bottom: CONFIDENCE_REVERSED, CHOSEN_WITH_CONF, REJECTED_WITH_CONF, ANSWER_ONLY. Red bar indicates the preference for a rejected or high-confidence response, and blue bar indicates the preference for a chosen or low-confidence response.

> **System Prompt**
>
> **For the following question, provide your best response first, followed by your confidence in the accuracy or helpfulness of your response. Rate your confidence on a scale from 0 to 10.**
> **``` Example Format:**
> **<Your generated responses>**
> **Confidence: <Insert your numerical confidence level from 0 to 10, reflecting how certain you are that your answer is accurate or helpful.> ```**
>
> **Ensure that your response strictly adheres to this format. Explicitly include the word 'Confidence:' in your response.**

Figure 4: Confidence-Query System Prompt for verbalizing confidence scores.

with high versus low confidence scores; 4) REJECTED_WITH_CONF: similar to CHOSEN_WITH_CONF, but comparing high and low confidence scores for identical rejected responses. We report the preference count for each model. Given that DPO models are implicit reward models (Rafailov et al., 2024), we also include evaluation on DPO models. We provide more details on the modified data and evaluations on other reward models in Appendix C.1 and E.2

Observations. According to Figure 3, when evaluated on the original `RewardBench` dataset (ANSWER_ONLY), both models effectively discriminate between chosen and rejected responses by assigning higher reward scores to chosen responses. It is important to note that in typical pairwise preference datasets, distinctions between the chosen and rejected responses – such as length, tone, and correctness – are usually pronounced. However, even accounting for these differences, simply modifying the query prompt and assigning a low confidence score to the chosen response and a high confidence score to the rejected response can significantly alter model behavior. As depicted in CONFIDENCE_REVERSED, the number of preferred rejected responses with high confidence largely increases, indicating that the model's ability to distinguish between chosen and rejected response is distorted. In CHOSEN_WITH_CONF and REJECTED_WITH_CONF where identical responses are compared with different confidence scores, we observe that reward models clearly prefers responses with higher confidence scores, regardless of whether the response is originally chosen or rejected. These observations suggest that reward models exhibit a systematic bias towards responses with high confidence scores, and potentially explain the overconfidence of RLHF-LLMs.

3 CALIBRATED REWARD MODELING AND CALCULATION

Drawing from observations in previous sections, we propose two methods here to address the bias in reward scores: calibrated reward modeling (PPO-M) and calibrated reward calculation (PPO-C).

Background: Reward Modeling. Typical reward model training uses a pairwise human preference data with binary ranking labels (chosen and rejected). Let $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_c^i, y_r^i)\}_{i=1}^n$ be the training

dataset for the reward model, where x_i is the prompt, and y_c^i is the chosen response preferred over the rejected response y_r^i. A binary preference ranking loss (Ouyang et al., 2022) is applied to enforce that the chosen responses receives a higher score than the rejected one, as illustrated in equation 1.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{preference}} = -\mathbb{E}_{(x,y_c,y_r)\sim\mathcal{D}} \left[\log \sigma \left(R_\theta(x, y_c) - R_\theta(x, y_r)\right)\right] \tag{1}$$

where the reward model R_θ is typically initialized from the SFT model. The LM head on top of the last layer is replaced with a linear layer to yield a single scalar reward prediction $R_\theta(x, y)$ for a given prompt x and response y. Here, y_c and y_r denote the chosen and rejected responses respectively.

PPO-M: PPO with Calibrated Reward Modeling. Existing reward model training datasets typically do not include prompts requesting verbalized confidence scores or responses including explicit confidence levels. To address this gap, we propose a straightforward modification to the existing binary pairwise ranking dataset by incorporating a confidence-query system prompt (as shown in Fig. 4) and appending random confidence scores to model responses, consistent with the format in our preliminary experiments. This results in a modified training dataset for the reward model, denoted as $\hat{\mathcal{D}} = \left\{\left(\hat{x}^i, \left(y_c^i, h_c^i\right), \left(y_c^i, l_c^i\right), \left(y_r^i, h_r^i\right), \left(y_r^i, l_r^i\right)\right)\right\}_{i=1}^n$, where $\hat{x}^i$ represents the prompt with confidence-query system prompt prepended, h and l represent random high and low confidence scores, respectively. We propose the calibrated reward modeling loss as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CRM}} = - \mathbb{E}_{(\hat{x},(y_c,h_c),(y_c,l_c),(y_r,h_r),(y_r,l_r))\sim\hat{\mathcal{D}}} \Big[\log \sigma \left(R_\theta\left(\hat{x}, (y_c, h_c)\right) - R_\theta\left(\hat{x}, (y_c, l_c)\right)\right)$$
$$+ \log \sigma \left(R_\theta\left(\hat{x}, (y_r, l_r)\right) - R_\theta\left(\hat{x}, (y_r, h_r)\right)\right) \Big] \tag{2}$$

This encourages the reward model to prefer high over low verbalized confidence for chosen responses and prefer low over high verbalized confidence for rejected responses. Note that the calibration dataset is not intended for training reward models from scratch. To clarify, we fine-tune these pre-existing reward models using our proposed method on calibration dataset. Then in PPO training, we replace the pre-calibrated reward model with this calibrated one to generate reward scores.

Figure 5: Framework for PPO-C.

PPO-C: PPO with Calibrated Reward Calculation. While PPO-M addresses bias in reward model training, we propose an alternative approach, PPO-C, to directly improve PPO training by adjusting the reward calculation process. PPO-C can be seamlessly integrated into the original PPO procedure without modifying the reward model.

We modify the original PPO training set by replacing a certain amount of prompts with the confidence-query system prompt (shown in Fig. 4) to ask for both the answer and verbalized confidence. This results in a mixed dataset with each sample denoted as (x_i, y_i, s_i) where x_i and y_i are the prompt and corresponding model response, and s_i is an optional verbalized confidence generated by the model if x_i asks for a confidence score. For samples without confidence querying, we simply use their original reward $r_i = R(x_i, y_i)$ for model updating. For samples with confidence querying, we propose a calibrated reward calculation procedure to mitigate the bias in the reward score $r_i = R(x_i, y_i, s_i)$.

We first parse and remove the confidence score from the model response to obtain an unbiased response (x_i, y_i). This allows us to obtain an unbiased reward score $\hat{r}_i = R(x_i, y_i)$. We maintain a moving average of the reward scores, defined by $\Delta r_t = \alpha * \hat{r}_t + (1 - \alpha) * \Delta r_{t-1}$, where α is set to

0.1, to serve as a dynamic threshold for classifying the current model response as positive or negative, with $\hat{r}_t$ representing the batch mean of $\hat{r}_i$ at time t. We then adjust the reward score as follows:

$$r_i = \begin{cases} \hat{r}_i + \gamma & \text{if } \hat{r}_i \geq \Delta r_t \\ \hat{r}_i - \gamma & \text{if } \hat{r}_i < \Delta r_t \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

where γ is the reward adjustment factor, defined as $\gamma = w * |\hat{r}_i| * (s_i - 0.5)$. w is a scaling coefficient set to 0.5. This coefficient adjusts the extent of the adjustment applied to the unbiased reward $\hat{r}$, based on the rescaled confidence score s_i, which is normalized from 0 to 1.0. We handle missing confidence scores by assigning a default confidence of 0.5, to keep the reward score unchanged. The overall framework for PPO-C is illustrated in Fig. 5.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We evaluate PPO-M and PPO-C on two model families: `Llama3-8B` and `Mistral-7B`. We use their supervised fine-tuned versions[2] (*i.e.*, `OpenRLHF/Llama-3-8b-sft-mixture`, `teknium/OpenHermes-2.5-Mistral-7B`) as the starting point for reward model and RLHF training. We explore two prompting strategies: Direct Answers (DA) and Zero-Shot Chain-of-Thought (CoT) (Kojima et al., 2022). For Direct Answers, we utilize regex parsing to extract model responses and confidence scores. For Zero-Shot CoT, we use `gpt-4o-2024-08-06` (Achiam et al., 2023) to parse confidence scores and compare model responses with golden answers. Detailed descriptions of prompts, implementation, and parsing methods are available in Appendix D.5. We consider three evaluation metrics: Expected Calibrated Error (ECE) (Guo et al., 2017), Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUC) (Hendrycks & Gimpel, 2016), and accuracy.

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

We employ OpenRLHF[3] (Hu et al., 2024) for reward model and RLHF training. All training experiments are conducted on 4×A100 GPUs, and evaluations are carried out on one A100 GPU.

RM Checkpoints. For `Llama3-8B`, we employ the readily available reward model `OpenRLHF/Llama-3-8b-rm-mixture` (Hu et al., 2024), trained from the corresponding SFT checkpoint. For `Mistral-7B`, we train a reward model using logsigmoid loss, as shown in Eq. 1, from scratch on `Skywork/Skywork-Reward-Preference-80K-v0.1` (Liu & Zeng, 2024). For additional training details, please refer to Appendix D.1.

RM Calibration Dataset. We employ a mixture of open-source datasets, and filter samples to ensure a high distinction between scores of chosen and rejected responses. Subsequently, we prepend the confidence-query system prompt shown in Fig 4 to each response. We then randomly assign high and low confidence scores to create four response types: chosen with high/low confidence and rejected with high/low confidence. Detailed information on dataset compositions is in Appendix C.3.

RLHF Dataset. We use a subset of `RLHFlow/prompt-collection-v0.1` (Dong et al., 2024) considering computational resources. We randomly select 20,480 prompts and integrate a confidence-query system prompt into 25% of single-turn prompts to elicit verbalized confidence from the model, as exemplified in Figure 4. For clarity, we refer the original 20,480 prompts as the **clean version** and those with the confidence-query system prompts added as the **modified version**.

Evaluation Datasets. We use six diverse datasets for model evaluation: GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2019), SciQ (Welbl et al., 2017), ObjectCounting from BigBench (Srivastava et al., 2022), four Professional Knowledge datasets in MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020), and TruthfulQA (Lin et al., 2021). The datasets include both open-ended generation and multiple-choice questions.

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[2]These models are instruction-tuned and do not undergo the RLHF process.

[3]https://github.com/OpenRLHF/OpenRLHF

Compared Methods. We compare our PPO-M and PPO-C with the following methods: (1) the SFT model, which is the initial checkpoint before RLHF training; (2) the PPO model, which uses vanilla reward model in standard PPO training on the **clean version** dataset without confidence querying in system prompt; (3) PPO†, an ablation of our PPO-M, which includes confidence-query system prompts (**modified version**) in PPO training, but still uses the vanilla reward model.

4.2 MAIN RESULTS

Both PPO-M and PPO-C consistently outperform other baselines across `Llama3-8B` and `Mistral-7B`. In Table 1 we show the results of all five methods on six datasets. If we compare vanilla PPO and SFT, vanilla PPO indeed shows a degradation in calibration (higher ECE and lower AUC) though generally improves in accuracy. Among all methods, PPO-M and PPO-C consistently demonstrate lower ECE and higher AUC than all the baselines across both models and prompting strategies, indicating their improved calibration ability. Meanwhile, PPO-M and PPO-C preserve comparable and even higher accuracy, showing that their calibration ability is not compromised by model performance. Compared to PPO†, an ablation of PPO-M, PPO-M and PPO-C demonstrate better calibration ability. This is because while PPO† includes confidence-query system prompts in PPO training, it still uses the vanilla reward model instead of the calibrated reward model introduced in Sec. 3. This further indicates that properly calibrating the reward score could mitigate the bias towards high-confidence responses.

Figure 6: Preference distributions for `Llama3-8b-rm-mixture` (Pre-Calibrated Version) and `Llama3-8b-crm` (Calibrated Version) on the modified `RewardBench` dataset across four modes: CONFIDENCE_REVERSED, CHOSEN_WITH_CONF, REJECTED_WITH_CONF, ANSWER_ONLY.

Calibrated Reward Models. Figure 6 compares the preference distributions of the calibrated reward model compared to the pre-calibrated version. The chosen and rejected ratio on the original responses without appended confidence scores (row 4) does not exhibit a significant difference. However, when evaluated on rejected responses with high and low confidence scores (row 3), the pre-calibrated version consistently favors high-confidence responses. In contrast, our calibrated reward model tends to favor responses with low confidence – a behavior we aim to achieve.

5 ANALYSIS

In this section, we explore how our proposed methods affect language model abilities in instruction-following and engagement in conversational settings. Additionally, we also present an extension of our approach to Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) models.

5.1 INSTRUCTION-FOLLOWING CAPABILITIES

Dataset. To assess whether PPO-M and PPO-C compromise the instruction-following abilities of LLMs gained through PPO, we evaluate their performance on two benchmarks: MT-Bench (Zheng et al., 2024) and Arena-Hard (Li et al., 2024). MT-Bench consists of 80 high-quality, multi-turn questions designed to evaluate LLMs across various aspects, while Arena-Hard contains 500 technical problem-solving queries and demonstrates a higher agreement with human preference rankings.

PPO-M and PPO-C do not compromise LLM instruction-following abilities. Table 2 presents the average MT-Bench and Arena-Hard scores. It is observed that PPO enhances model performance compared to SFT, as expected. Furthermore, PPO-M and PPO-

Methods		GSM8K			SciQ			CommonsenseQA		
		ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑
Llama3-8B										
	SFT	0.8608	0.5184	0.1221	0.0931	0.6067	0.873	0.2075	0.5889	0.7183
DA	PPO	0.8843	0.5021	0.1099	0.0683	0.6507	**0.911**	0.1729	**0.5815**	0.7641
	PPO†	0.8954	0.5	0.1046	0.0958	0.5047	0.904	0.2222	0.5113	0.7748
	PPO-M	**0.8393**	**0.57**	**0.119**	**0.0267**	0.6115	0.898	**0.1206**	0.5568	0.7707
	PPO-C	0.8638	0.516	0.1031	0.0282	**0.6513**	0.904	0.1286	0.5621	**0.7756**
	SFT	0.4369	0.5138	0.5481	0.0944	0.65	0.856	0.1928	0.6155	0.7101
CoT	PPO	0.2566	0.5229	0.7392	0.0862	**0.6763**	0.879	0.1767	**0.6287**	0.7363
	PPO†	0.2553	0.5044	0.743	0.1265	0.5452	0.868	0.2654	0.5615	0.7191
	PPO-M	**0.1909**	0.5499	**0.7703**	**0.0392**	0.6635	0.877	**0.1555**	0.579	0.7346
	PPO-C	0.2252	**0.5662**	0.7422	0.0403	0.6383	**0.889**	0.1581	0.5713	**0.7396**
Mistral-7B										
	SFT	0.8628	0.5747	0.0902	0.0952	0.5877	0.882	0.1634	0.56	0.774
DA	PPO	0.8675	0.583	0.097	0.0973	0.5497	0.89	0.1772	0.5594	0.7748
	PPO†	0.8851	0.5464	0.0877	0.1117	0.5439	0.885	0.1848	0.5674	**0.7756**
	PPO-M	**0.7963**	0.5055	**0.1016**	0.0108	0.5090	0.888	**0.1163**	0.5303	0.7625
	PPO-C	0.8702	**0.634**	0.0811	**0.0865**	**0.5758**	**0.891**	0.1608	**0.5913**	0.7723
	SFT	0.4124	0.5277	0.5785	0.1124	0.6238	0.872	0.1908	0.6205	0.7518
CoT	PPO	0.4146	0.5228	0.58	0.1126	0.5794	0.877	0.1867	**0.6238**	**0.7699**
	PPO†	0.3932	0.5096	0.6035	0.1044	0.5693	0.885	0.2056	0.6135	0.7518
	PPO-M	**0.3379**	**0.5974**	0.5982	**0.0388**	**0.6584**	0.886	**0.1157**	0.6118	0.7666
	PPO-C	0.3653	0.5312	**0.624**	0.1006	0.6425	**0.892**	0.1767	0.6228	0.7633

Methods		TruthfulQA			Object Counting			Professional Knowledge		
		ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑
Llama3-8B										
	SFT	0.4613	0.5506	0.4113	0.5054	0.5212	0.483	0.4308	0.5175	0.4798
DA	PPO	0.425	0.5443	0.4651	0.508	0.4988	0.491	0.4078	0.4944	**0.5046**
	PPO†	0.5477	0.5246	0.4406	0.497	0.5	0.503	0.4951	**0.4975**	0.5009
	PPO-M	**0.3991**	0.5813	**0.47**	0.4789	0.5227	0.505	**0.3848**	0.4926	0.502
	PPO-C	0.4426	0.5303	0.4431	0.4839	0.5178	0.503	0.3949	0.4902	0.502
	SFT	0.4436	0.5745	0.4174	0.4545	0.5102	0.54	0.4644	0.5571	0.4242
CoT	PPO	0.4726	0.5851	0.4113	0.3651	0.5023	0.634	**0.4309**	**0.5606**	**0.4635**
	PPO†	0.5535	**0.5921**	0.4076	0.337	0.5	0.663	0.5496	0.5219	0.4316
	PPO-M	**0.4283**	0.5674	0.437	0.2863	**0.5341**	0.703	0.4329	0.5422	0.4424
	PPO-C	0.4306	0.5688	**0.448**	**0.2491**	0.5273	**0.738**	0.4423	0.5403	0.4416
Mistral-7B										
	SFT	0.3307	0.5755	0.5704	0.5083	0.4989	0.491	0.4134	0.5018	0.5031
DA	PPO	0.3335	0.5567	0.5826	0.5008	0.5	**0.499**	0.4303	0.4889	0.4994
	PPO†	0.3233	0.5651	0.601	0.5119	0.499	0.488	0.4571	**0.4919**	0.4872
	PPO-M	**0.245**	0.5568	**0.6071**	0.4248	0.5067	0.483	**0.3716**	0.489	**0.502**
	PPO-C	0.3143	**0.5933**	0.5912	0.5114	0.5019	0.488	0.4244	0.4881	0.488
	SFT	0.3657	0.6067	0.5398	0.4862	0.5072	0.512	0.4863	0.5369	0.4554
CoT	PPO	0.3677	0.5911	0.5581	0.4599	0.4991	0.54	0.4783	0.5275	0.4761
	PPO†	0.3657	0.6089	**0.5594**	0.455	0.5022	0.543	0.4735	0.5215	**0.4865**
	PPO-M	**0.3142**	**0.6399**	0.541	**0.4134**	**0.5496**	0.56	**0.4090**	**0.5526**	0.4579
	PPO-C	0.391	0.5851	0.5459	0.4431	0.5014	0.556	0.4634	0.5504	0.4768

Table 1: Performance comparison across various methods on six datasets. SFT: Supervised Fine-Tuned checkpoints, serving as the starting points for all methods. PPO†: an ablation of our PPO-M method which uses vanilla reward model in PPO training but on our modified dataset (with confidence-query system prompts).

C trained model also exhibit comparable to or even slightly better scores than PPO, indicating that our calibration methods do not compromise instruction-following abilities. In contrast, PPO† shows inferior performance relative to our proposed methods and PPO.

We hypothesize that this is due to the reduced prompt diversity brought by confidence-query system prompt. We verified that increasing the proportion of the same system prompt correlates with decreased MT-Bench score, as detailed in Appendix E.6.

Model	Method	MT-Bench ↑	Arena-Hard ↑
	SFT	7.34	10.0
	PPO	8.00	**14.6**
Llama3-8B	PPO†	7.81	13.4
	PPO-M	**8.05**	14.1
	PPO-C	**8.05**	14.1
	SFT	7.65	9.2
	PPO	7.84	10.5
Mistral-7B	PPO†	7.83	11.7
	PPO-M	7.95	9.9
	PPO-C	**7.98**	**11.8**

Table 2: Results on MT-Bench and Arena-Hard.

5.2 EXTENSION TO DPO

Setup. As CRM loss in Eq. 2 calibrates the reward model using an augmented binary pairwise dataset, we can naturally extend it to Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) training. This is because DPO models are implicit reward models (Rafailov et al., 2024). We denote our extension as Calibrated DPO (CDPO), and illustrate the loss function in Eq. 4.

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{CDPO}}(\pi_\theta; \pi_{\text{ref}}) = - \mathbb{E}_{(x, y_c, y_r, \hat{x}, (y_c, h), (y_c, l), (y_r, h), (y_r, l)) \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\log \sigma(r(x, y_c) - r(x, y_r)) \right.
$$
$$
\left. + w(\log \sigma(r(\hat{x}, (y_c, h)) - r(\hat{x}, (y_c, l))) + \log \sigma(r(\hat{x}, (y_r, l)) - r(\hat{x}, (y_r, h)))) \right]
$$
(4)

where $r(x, y) = \beta \log \frac{\pi_\theta(y|x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x)}$ represents the implicit reward defined by model π_θ and its reference model π_{ref}. (y_c, h) and (y_r, l) denote the model responses paired with high and low confidence respectively, and the subscripts indicate whether it is a chosen or rejected response. $\hat{x}$ represents the prompt with confidence-query system prompt prepended. w is the scaling coefficient.

The first term in Eq. 4 maintains the original DPO objective to prevent forgetting, since DPO models rely on subtle probability differences to distinguish between chosen and rejected responses.

We use the `Mistral-7B` DPO version (*i.e.*, `teknium/OpenHermes-2.5-Mistral-7B`) as reference model and the DPO model `NousResearch/Nous-Hermes-2-Mistral-7B-DPO` for the experiment, and fine-tune the DPO models on our RM calibration Dataset using Eq. 4.

Results. As shown in Table 4, CDPO significantly improves model calibration across all six datasets by achieving consistent lower ECE, and higher AUC compared to other methods. Notably, CDPO reduces ECE by more than 50% in TruthfulQA, CommonsenseQA, and Professional Knowledge. Although a slight decline in performance is observed between CDPO and DPO†, CDPO still exhibits peformance comparable to the DPO checkpoint, affirming that

Model	Method	MT-Bench ↑	Arena-Hard ↑
	SFT	7.65	9.2
Mistral-7B	DPO	7.83	13.4
	DPO†	7.83	14.3
	CDPO	**7.85**	**15.9**

Table 3: Comparison of MT-Bench And Arena-Hard Performance for `Mistral-7B`.

calibration does not compromise overall model performance. Results on MT-Bench and Arena-Hard are reported in Table 3. For `Mistral-7B`, training on additional data yields improvements in both MT-Bench and Arena-Hard scores; CDPO further amplifies these enhancements compared to standard DPO on the calibration dataset (DPO†). Results for `Llama3-8B` are included in Appendix E.11.

6 RELATED WORKS

LLM Calibration. Model Calibration aims to align a model's confidence with its accuracy. Recent studies show that LLMs often exhibit overconfidence (Tian et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024a; Xiong et al., 2023; Achiam et al., 2023). Previous studies have explored methods such as scaling-based (Deng et al., 2023; Guo et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020) approaches and nonparametric methods such as binning (Zadrozny & Elkan, 2001). Recent work has introduced verbalized confidence (Lin et al., 2022), where models are prompted to directly output confidence scores. Most studies focus on pre-trained and instruction-tuned LLMs (Lin et al., 2022; Han et al., 2024), while other studies

Methods		GSM8K			SciQ			CommonsenseQA		
		ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑
DA	SFT	0.8628	0.5747	0.0902	0.0952	0.5877	0.882	0.1634	0.56	0.774
	DPO	0.8704	0.5916	0.0887	0.0845	0.581	0.892	0.177	0.5744	0.7682
	DPO†	0.8057	0.5409	**0.0826**	**0.0149**	0.5215	0.884	0.1157	0.5491	**0.7772**
	CDPO	**0.6767**	**0.6163**	0.0781	0.0967	**0.7236**	**0.89**	**0.0513**	**0.6165**	0.7666
CoT	SFT	0.4124	0.5277	0.5785	0.1124	0.6238	0.872	0.1908	0.6205	0.7518
	DPO	0.4184	0.5253	0.5716	0.094	0.5837	0.896	0.1849	0.6145	0.7625
	DPO†	0.3456	0.5953	0.5989	**0.0214**	0.6687	**0.898**	0.0916	**0.6553**	**0.7764**
	CDPO	**0.1889**	**0.7178**	**0.6164**	0.0553	**0.7623**	0.883	**0.0676**	0.6498	0.7633

Methods		TruthfulQA			Object Counting			Professional Knowledge		
		ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑	ECE ↓	AUC ↑	ACC ↑
DA	SFT	0.3307	0.5755	0.5704	0.5083	0.4989	0.491	0.4134	0.5018	0.5031
	DPO	0.2912	0.5725	0.6181	0.5149	0.501	0.485	0.4321	0.4967	0.4913
	DPO†	0.2124	0.5674	0.6487	0.4336	**0.5436**	0.485	0.3649	0.5208	**0.5091**
	CDPO	**0.104**	**0.6225**	**0.661**	**0.3955**	0.5304	**0.491**	**0.2574**	**0.5451**	0.4972
CoT	SFT	0.3657	0.6067	0.5398	0.4862	0.5072	0.5120	0.4863	0.5369	0.4554
	DPO	0.3251	0.629	0.6022	0.4581	0.5003	0.5430	0.4950	0.5314	0.4609
	DPO†	0.2169	0.6176	**0.6377**	0.4037	**0.5585**	0.539	0.3679	0.5587	**0.4961**
	CDPO	**0.1756**	**0.685**	0.6193	**0.322**	0.5139	**0.553**	**0.2917**	**0.614**	0.4817

Table 4: Performance comparison of SFT, DPO, DPO†, and CDPO across six datasets using `Mistral-7B`. SFT and DPO denote the reference and trained DPO models, respectively. DPO† and CDPO initiate from the trained DPO checkpoint; DPO† applies standard DPO on the calibration dataset, focusing on chosen and rejected pairs to assess the impact of training with additional data.

examine RLHF-trained LLMs, proposing calibration through prompting strategies (Xiong et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2023). More recent work leverages Reinforcement Learning for calibration (Xu et al., 2024; Tao et al., 2024), which aligns closely with our study. Our study contributes by identifying the potential cause for overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs and proposing calibration of the reward models or reward score calculations to be seamlessly integrated into the existing PPO framework. In addition, our approach does not compromise the model's generalization capabilities in open-ended generation.

LLM Alignment And Reward Modeling. Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) (Ouyang et al., 2022; Christiano et al., 2017; Bai et al., 2022) has been widely applied to align LLMs with human preferences. This pipeline typically involves Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT), reward modeling, and policy optimization using Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017). Recent works have explored variations of this pipeline to address the challenge of noisy human preferences (Hong et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2024a) and to improve computational efficiency with Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) (Rafailov et al., 2024; Dubey et al., 2024) to eliminate the need of a separate reward model.

We leave a comprehensive discussion of related works in Appendix A.

7 CONCLUSION

This paper addresses overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs by identifying a systematic bias in reward models that favors high-confidence responses regardless of their actual quality. We propose two solutions, PPO-M, which calibrates reward modeling by aligning confidence levels with response quality, and PPO-C, which adjusts standard reward model scores during PPO training. Both methods can be seamlessly integrated into the RLHF process. Extensive experiments across various benchmarks demonstrate the effectiveness of our methods in reducing expected calibration error without compromising accuracy and the instruction following ability in open-ended generation. Future research directions include extending our study to logit-based confidence, as well as exploring confidence calibration methods for open-ended questions.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

To facilitate reproducibility, we provide detailed information on the datasets used (see Appendix C), implementation details (see Appendix D), and additional results (see Appendix E).

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A RELATED WORKS

LLM Calibration.   Model Calibration aims to align a model's confidence with its accuracy. It has been observed that modern neural network, including Large Language Models (LLMs), often exhibit overconfidence, suggesting poor calibration (Tian et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024a; Xiong et al., 2023; Achiam et al., 2023). Previous studies have explored methods such as scaling-based (Deng et al., 2023; Guo et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020) approaches and nonparametric methods such as binning (Zadrozny & Elkan, 2001). Among these, temperature scaling (Guo et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020) has been proved to be effective when combined with large pre-trained LLMs (Kadavath et al., 2022; Xiao et al., 2022; Kuhn et al., 2023). However, previous evaluations often focus on probabilities derived from model logits (Hendrycks et al., 2020; Mukhoti et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2017; Minderer et al., 2021), which can be inaccessible in proprietary models and are unintuitive to human users.

Recently, verbalized confidence has been introduced (Lin et al., 2022), prompting models to directly output confidence scores. While most studies focus on pre-trained LLMs and calibrate them through supervised fine-tuning (Lin et al., 2022; Han et al., 2024), which typically involves sampling responses and calculating average accuracy as the ground truth confidence score, other studies have examined verbalized confidence in instruction-tuned and RLHF-trained LLMs, proposing calibration through prompting strategies (Xiong et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2023).

More recent work leverages Reinforcement Learning for calibration (Xu et al., 2024; Tao et al., 2024), which aligns closely with our study. Our study contributes by identifying the potential cause for overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs and proposing calibration of the reward models or reward score calculations to reduce this issue. The proposed methods can be seamlessly integrated into the existing PPO framework and, unlike supervised fine-tuning (SFT) methods that require a dataset with ground truth labels for accuracy calculation—limiting their use in open-ended generation—our approach does not compromise the model's generalization capabilities in such settings.

LLM Alignment And Reward Modeling.   Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) (Ouyang et al., 2022; Christiano et al., 2017; Bai et al., 2022) has been widely applied to align LLMs with human preferences. This pipeline typically involves three steps: Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT), the collection of pairwise ranking data and the development of a reward model, and optimization of the policy model obtained from the first step using Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017). The effectiveness of PPO relies on the accuracy and robustness of the reward model. Following traditional Bradley-Terry reward models (Bradley & Terry, 1952), training typically utilizes a binary pairwise dataset. However, human-labeled preferences can be noisy or present conflicting indications (Hong et al., 2022; Knox et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2024a). Several methods have been proposed to address this challenge, such as introducing a margin to guide the reward model in assigning a greater discrepancy to more separable comparison pairs (Touvron et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024a), and empolying multi-objective reward modeling that considers joint preference such as "helpfulness, correctness, coherence", etc. (Dong et al., 2023b; Zhou et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024b; Chen et al., 2024b; Chakraborty et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024c).

While RLHF pipeline has been proven effective in aligning LLMs with human preferences, PPO involves several challenges, including reward hacking, sensitivity to hyperparameters, and substantial computational resource requirements, which complicate its implementation and usage. Several variants have been proposed (Dong et al., 2023a; Yuan et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2023; Rafailov et al., 2024; Song et al., 2023b; Azar et al., 2023; Ethayarajh et al., 2024; Hong et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024; Meng et al., 2024), and among these, Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) has been widely adopted (Rafailov et al., 2024; Dubey et al., 2024). DPO defines the preference loss as a function of the policy model directly, thereby eliminating the need for a separate reward model.

Despite these advancements, there remains a lack of research on how reward models contribute to the confidence calibration of LLMs. In this study, we bridge this gap by demonstrating the vulnerability of reward models trained using various methods, which can be biased by a simple confidence score. Additionally, we explore methods to calibrate these models to reduce overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs.

B LIMITATION AND BROADER IMPACT

B.1 LIMITATION

Although we demonstrate that directly applying PPO-M style training loss to DPO training can reduce ECE and increase AUC, thereby enhancing calibration, this method is not specifically tailored for DPO. We observe some performance degradation, suggesting that future work could explore specific hyperparameter tuning or a more specially designed dataset.

B.2 BROADER IMPACT

Since our work focuses on model calibration, it can be applied to various fields in need of well-calibrated language models to improve reliability for general AI systems.

C DATASETS

In this section, we provide detailed descriptions of the datasets used in this study.

C.1 PRELIMINARY EXPERIMENTS DATASET

In Section 2.2, we demonstrate the inherent bias in reward models toward responses with high confidence scores by modifying `allenai/reward-bench`. This modification involves prepending a confidence-query system prompt and appending random confidence scores to the original model responses. We assigned scores ranging from 0 to 3 for low confidence and 7 to 10 for high confidence. Figure 7 displays an example from the modified dataset on REJECTED_WITH_CONF, featuring a rejected response with low confidence scores appended.

Moified Reward Bench Example

System Prompts:
For the following question, provide your best response first, followed by your confidence in the accuracy or helpfulness of your response. Rate your confidence on a scale from 0 to 10.
``` Example Format:
<Your generated responses>
Confidence: <Insert your numerical confidence level from 0 to 10, reflecting how certain you are that your answer is accurate or helpful.> ```

Ensure that your response strictly adheres to this format. Explicitly include the word 'Confidence:' in your response.

User Prompt:
How do I detail a car?

Model Response:
Detailing a car involves washing the exterior and interior of the car, as well as polishing and waxing the exterior. Interior detailing typically involves vacuuming, cleaning the upholstery and air vents, polishing the dashboard and console, and dusting. Polishing and waxing the exterior will depend on the condition of the paint, but typically involves applying a polish and wax to make it shine.
Confidence: 2.

Figure 7: An example from the Modified `RewardBench` in mode: REJECTED_WITH_CONF

C.2 REWARD MODEL TRAINING DATASETS

For `Mistral-7B`, we employ `Skywork/Skywork-Reward-Preference-80K-v0.1` (Liu & Zeng, 2024) to train the reward model from scratch.

C.3 REWARD MODEL CALIBRATION DATASETS.

To compile the dataset for calibrating reward models, we filtered samples from open-source datasets. Below, we list the datasets utilized and the thresholds set for each in Table 5.

Initially, we filter out samples that are multi-turn or have a tokenized length exceeding 8192, as multi-turn formats are unsuitable for assigning confidence scores and we aim to prevent truncation. The threshold indicates the preference strength (Wang et al., 2024a), defined as the difference between chosen and rejected scores. Notably, in datasets such as RLHFlow/Argilla-Math-DPO-standard, a preference strength less than 1 often means that both chosen and rejected responses yield the same answer through different reasoning paths. The goal is to calibrate the reward model to assign higher scores to to high-confidence chosen responses and lower scores to high-confidence rejected responses, while doing the opposite for low-confidence responses. However, when both responses yield the same mathematical solution through different reasoning, it is inappropriate for low-confidence rejected responses to get higher scores. Consequently, we exclude these samples and retain those with a significant discrepancy between chosen and rejected responses. We set the threshold to retain about 2,500 samples per dataset considering computational resources. For datasets without specific chosen and rejected scores, we randomly select 2,500 samples.

Dataset	Threshold
argilla/distilabel-capybara-dpo-7k-binarized (Daniele & Suphavadeeprasit, 2023)	1
RLHFlow/CodeUltraFeedback-standard (Weyssow et al., 2024)	3
argilla/ultrafeedback-binarized-preferences-cleaned (Bartolome et al., 2023)	3.5
RLHFlow/Helpsteer-preference-standard (Wang et al., 2023)	2.5
RLHFlow/Helpsteer2-standard (Wang et al., 2024d)	2
RLHFlow/Orca-distibalel-standard (Lian et al., 2023)	2.0
RLHFlow/SHP-standard (Ethayarajh et al., 2022)	50
RLHFlow/HH-RLHF-Helpful-standard (Bai et al., 2022)	NA
RLHFlow/Argilla-Math-DPO-standard	1
RLHFlow/PKU-SafeRLHF-30K-standard (Ji et al., 2024)	NA
CyberNative/Code_Vulnerability_Security_DPO	NA
fblgit/simple-math-DPO (Murias, 2024)	NA

Table 5: Datset compositions.

C.4 PPO DATASETS

For PPO training, we filter out prompts with a tokenized length exceeding 8192 to prevent truncation and randomly select 20,480 prompts from `RLHFlow/prompt-collection-v0.1` (Dong et al., 2024). We integrate a confidence-query system prompt into single-turn prompts to elicit verbalized confidence from the model. The system prompt is used in 25% of the single-turn prompts for main results. Figure 8 illustrates an example from the dataset that incorporates this system prompt.

C.5 EVALUATION DATASETS.

We examine six datasets encompassing six distinct categories: **Arithmetic Reasoning**, **Commonsense Knowledge**, **Symbolic Reasoning**, **Truthful Reasoning**, and **Professional Knowledge** Collectively, these datasets include a mix of open-ended generation tasks and multiple-choice questions. The specific datasets are detailed below:

- **GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021):** This dataset contains high-quality, linguistically diverse grade school math word problems. We utilize the test split, which contains 1319 samples.

PPO Prompts Example

System Prompts:
For the following question, provide your best response first, followed by your confidence in the accuracy or helpfulness of your response. Rate your confidence on a scale from 0 to 10.
``` **Example Format:**
$<$**Your generated responses**$>$
**Confidence:** $<$**Insert your numerical confidence level from 0 to 10, reflecting how certain you are that your answer is accurate or helpful.**$>$ ```

**Ensure that your response strictly adheres to this format. Explicitly include the word 'Confidence:' in your response.**

---

**User Prompt:**
**Write me an excel function to sum up the values in the cells in a column to the left if the cell is full**



Figure 8: PPO Prompt Example.

- **SciQ (Welbl et al., 2017) :** This dataset contains crowdsourced science exams. We use the test split for evaluation, which includes 1000 example. It is a multiple-choice dataset, each question offering four answer options. Similar to TruthfulQA and CommonsenseQA, we assign a letter to each answer option and request the model to output the corresponding answer letter.

- **CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2019):** This dataset comprises a multiple-choice question-answering format that requires commonsense knowledge. We utilize the test split, which contains 1221 samples.

- **TruthfulQA (Lin et al., 2021):**[4] This dataset contains 817 questions designed to test whether the model can generate truthful responses without failing to recognize false beliefs and misconceptions. We utilize the multiple-choice format of the dataset and consider one single target answer. We randomly shuffle the answer options and corresponding true labels to ensure that the correct label is not predictably the first one. We format the questions as lettered multiple-choices and instruct the model to select the best answer from the options provided.

- **Object Counting in BigBench (Srivastava et al., 2022):** BigBench is a collaborative benchmark encompassing over 200 tasks. For Symbolic Reasoning, we focus solely on one subset, Object Counting, which includes exactly 1000 samples. This open-ended generation task evaluates whether models can correctly identify the number of objects mentioned in the question prompt.

- **Professional Knowledge in MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020):** MMLU is a multitask benchmark that includes multiple-choice questions from diverse knowledge domains. For the Professional Knowledge category, we combine the test sets from four subsets: Professional Accounting, Professional Law, Professional Medicine, and Professional Teaching.

# D  IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

In this section, we describe the implementation details for all experiments.

## D.1  REWARD MODEL TRAINING

This study utilizes two reward models. For `Llama3-8B`, we use an off-the-shelf checkpoint from `OpenRLHF/Llama3-8b-rm-mixture` . For `Mistral-7B`, the reward model is trained from scratch using `teknium/OpenHermes-2.5-Mistral-7B` as the starting point, referred to as `Mistral-7B-RM`.

---

[4]`https://huggingface.co/datasets/truthfulqa/truthful_qa/viewer/multiple_choice`

### D.1.1 HYPERPARAMETERS

We list the hyperparameters used for training `Mistral-7B-RM` in Table 6.

| Parameter | Mistral-7B |
|---|---|
| Train BS | 512 |
| Micro Train BS | 1 |
| Learning Rate | 2e-6 |
| Max Length | 8192 |
| LR Scheduler | cosine_with_min_lr |
| Warmup Ratio | 0.03 |
| Optimizer | AdamW |
| Weight Decay | 0.01 |
| Epoch | 2 |

Table 6: Hyperparameters for training `Mistral-7B-RM`.

## D.2 REWARD MODEL CALIBRATION

As stated in Section 3, we asssume reward models for calibration are already trained beforehand and generally perform well. Therefore, we utilize trained RM checkpoints, namely `OpenRLHF/Llama3-8b-rm-mixture` and `Mistral-7B-RM` for calibration. The calibrated versions are referred to as `Llama3-8b-crm` and `Mistral-7B-crm`.

### D.2.1 HYPERPARAMETERS

We list the hyperparameters used for calibrating `OpenRLHF/Llama3-8b-rm-mixture` and `Mistral-7B-RM` in PPO-M in Table 7.

| Parameter | Llama3-8b-crm | Mistral-7B-crm |
|---|---|---|
| Train BS | 256 | 256 |
| Micro Train BS | 1 | 1 |
| Learning Rate | 9e-6 | 5e-6 |
| Max Length | 8192 | 8192 |
| LR Scheduler | cosine_with_min_lr | cosine_with_min_lr |
| Warmup Ratio | 0.03 | 0.03 |
| Optimizer | Adam | Adam |
| Epoch | 1 | 2 |

Table 7: Hyperparameters for Training `Llama3-8B-crm` and `Mistral-7B-crm`.

## D.3 PPO TRAINING

Following the standard RLHF pipeline, we initialize the policy model using supervised fine-tuning checkpoints: `OpenRLHF/Llama3-8b-sft-mixture` for `Llama3-8B`, and `teknium/OpenHermes-2.5-Mistral-7B` for `Mistal-7B`.

For standard PPO and PPO-C, we utilize the pre-calibrated reward models, namely `OpenRLHF/Llama3-8b-rm-mixture` and `Mistral-7B-RM`. For standard PPO, we input the entire sequence into the reward model to retrieve the score. For PPO-C, we perform our proposed calibrated reward calculation (see Section 3 for method descriptions).

For PPO-M, we use the calibrated reward models, `Llama3-8b-crm` and `Mistral-7B-crm`, to calculate reward scores.

### D.3.1 HYPERPARAMETERS

For each model (`Llama3-8B` and `Mistral-7B`), we use a consistent set of hyperparameters across PPO, PPO-M, and PPO-C as shown in Table 8.

| Parameter | Llama3-8B | Mistral-7B |
|---|---|---|
| Train BS | 64 | 64 |
| Micro Train BS | 2 | 2 |
| Micro Rollout BS | 4 | 4 |
| Rollout BS | 512 | 512 |
| Prompt max len | 1024 | 1024 |
| Generate max len | 1024 | 1024 |
| Actor Learning Rate | 5e-7 | 1e-7 |
| Critic Learning Rate | 9e-6 | 1e-6 |
| Actor Weight Decay | 0.0 | 0.01 |
| Critic Weight Decay | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Init KL Conf | 0.01 | 0.05 |
| LR Scheduler | cosine_with_min_lr | cosine_with_min_lr |
| Warmup Ratio | 0.03 | 0.03 |
| Optimizer | Adam | Adam |
| Epoch | 1 | 1 |

Table 8: Hyperparameters for PPO Training.

## D.4 DPO TRAINING

In Section 5.2, we extend calibrated reward modeling (PPO-M) to DPO training using Eq. 4. Similar to the calibration of reward models, we utilize trained DPO checkpoints.

For `Llama3-8B`, we use `Llama-3-Base-8B-SFT-DPO` as DPO checkpoint, and use `princeton-nlp/Llama-3-8B-Base-SFT` as reference model.

For `Mistral-7B`, we use `NousResearch/Nous-Hermes-2-Mistral-7B-DPO` as DPO checkpoint, with `teknium/OpenHermes-2.5-Mistral-7B` serving as reference model.

### D.4.1 HYPERPARAMETERS

We list the hyperparameters used for DPO training `Nous-Hermes-2-Mistral-7B-DPO` and `Llama-3-Base-8B-SFT-DPO` in Table 9. The same set of hyperparameters is applied to both DPO and CDPO; however, the scaling coefficient $w$ is not utilized in DPO.

| Parameter | Llama3-8B | Mistral-7B |
|---|---|---|
| Train BS | 128 | 128 |
| Micro Train BS | 1 | 1 |
| Max Length | 4096 | 4096 |
| Learning Rate | 3e-7 | 3e-7 |
| Beta | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| Weight Decay | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| LR Scheduler | cosine_with_min_lr | cosine_with_min_lr |
| Warmup Ratio | 0.03 | 0.03 |
| Optimizer | Adam | Adam |
| Epoch | 1 | 1 |
| Zero Stage | 3 | 2 |
| Adam Offload | True | False |
| $w$ (scaling coefficient) | 1.0 | 0.5 |

Table 9: Hyperparameters for DPO and CDPO Training.

### D.5 EVALUATION AND PARSING

We detail the generation configuration, prompting strategies, and parsing strategies utilized in our evaluations.

#### D.5.1 GENERATION CONFIGURATION

We maintain consistent configuration settings across both preliminary and main experiments: temperature is set at 1.0, top-p at 1.0, and top-k at 50. The maximum token count is set at 16 for direct answers and 256 for zero-shot CoT.

#### D.5.2 EVALUATION HYPERPARAMETERS.

Evaluations are conducted on a single A100 80GB GPU with a batch size of 8.

### D.6 EVALUATION PROMPTS

Following the format described in Tian et al. (2023), we modify the prompt to enhance clarity and simplify result interpretation. We consider two prompting stratgies for evaluation: Direct Answer and Zero-Shot CoT (Kojima et al., 2022). The exact prompt is shown in Fig 9 and Fig 10, which also include a model response from GSM8K. For `answer_type`: we use `option letter` for multiple-choice questions and `number` for open-ended math problems. For `demo`: we use `(A)` for multiple-choice questions and `1` for open-ended math problems. The prompt formatting utilizes the chat template in the tokenizer. Instructions are placed in the system prompt, and the question is placed in user prompt. For models like Tulu-2 (Ivison et al., 2023) that lacks a system prompt section in the tokenizer chat template, we append the question after the instruction as the user prompt.

---

**Prompt for Direct Answers**

**System Prompts:**
For the following question, provide your answer including only the {answer_type} first, followed by your confidence in the accuracy or helpfulness of your response. Rate your confidence on a scale from 0 to 10.
Please respond only with your answer and a numerical confidence score. Do not include any additional text, characters, or explanations. Use the format demonstrated below for your response.
``` Example Format:
Answer: <Insert only the {answer_type} here (e.g., {demo})>
Confidence: <Insert your numerical confidence level from 0 to 10, reflecting how certain you are that your answer is correct.> ```

Ensure that your response strictly adheres to this format and contain only the {answer_type} and the confidence score. Explicitly include the words 'Answer:' and 'Confidence:' in your response.

---

**User Prompt:**
Question: James decides to run 3 sprints 3 times a week. He runs 60 meters each sprint. How many total meters does he run a week?

---

**Model Output:**
Answer: 540
Confidence: 10

---

Figure 9: Direct Answers Prompt.

---

**Prompt for Zero-Shot CoT**

**System Prompts:**
For the following question, provide a step-by-step explanation of your thought process first, then offer your best answer and rate your confidence in the accuracy or helpfulness of each response on a scale from 0 to 10.
Use the format demonstrated below for your response.
``` Example Format:
Explanation: <Your detailed explanation here, outlining how you arrived at your answer.>
Answer: <Insert your concise answer here, which should include a {answer_type} (e.g., {demo})>
Confidence: <Insert your numerical confidence level from 0 to 10, reflecting how certain you are that your answer is correct.> ```

Ensure that your response strictly adheres to this format. Explicitly include the words 'Explanation:', 'Answer:', and 'Confidence:' in your response.

---

**User Prompt:**
Question: James decides to run 3 sprints 3 times a week. He runs 60 meters each sprint. How many total meters does he run a week?

---

**Model Output:**
Explanation: James runs 3 sprints of 60 meters each, and he does this 3 times a week. Therefore, he runs 3 sprints * 60 meters per sprint = 180 meters per session. Since he does this 3 times a week, he runs a total of 180 meters/session * 3 sessions = 540 meters in a week.
Answer: 540 meters
Confidence: 10

Figure 10: Zero-Shot CoT Prompt.

### D.7 Parsing Details

**Regex Parsing Details.** To parse the confidence score from model generation, we implement a stopping criterion that halts only when digits follow the phrase "Confidence: ". For responses that are initially unparseable, we set a retry limit of ten attempts. If parsing failures persist, we manually append "Confidence: " to the model response and resubmit it to the model for completion of the sentence and score generation. This helps us achieve nearly 100% success in parsing all responses. If parsing fails, which is very rare, we use an empty string as the default answer. Instead of assigning an arbitrary confidence of 5.0, which could introduce bias and decrease ECE, we use the most frequently observed confidence scores from successfully parsed responses as the default value for these rare cases, since they are the most representative confidence scores of the model.

---

**GPT-4o Evaluation Prompt**

**System Prompt:**
**You are a specialized evaluator designed to assess model responses against golden answers for various tasks and extract model confidence. Output your evaluation in JSON format.**

**User Prompt:**
**Evaluate the semantic equivalence between the given model response and the provided golden answer. Determine if they convey the same meaning.**
**If the model response accurately matches the golden answer (i.e., the model response is correct), assign a score of 1. If the model response does not match the golden answer, assign a score of 0. Additionally, extract the confidence score from the model response. If the model response does not explicitly state a confidence score, return -100.**
**Provide your answer in the following JSON format: {'correctness': 1 or 0, 'confidence': X.X}**

---

Figure 11: Prompts for GPT4-o Evaluation.

**GPT-4o Evaluation Details.** We use `gpt-4o-2024-08-06` to evaluate zero-shot CoT results. Utilizing the structured output feature of GPT, we configure the model to output results in JSON format for easy parsing. The prompt is shown in Figure 11.

## E More Results and Analysis

### E.1 Overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs

In this section, we provide additional results for our preminlinary experiments, which demonstate overconfidence in RLHF-LLMs on five more datasets, as shown in Figure 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16. The results indicate that RLHF-LLMs generally express verbalized overconfidence on various datasets.

### E.2 Reward Models are Biased Toward High Confidence Scores

Following Section 2.2, we present additional results from various reward models to further substantiate the observed phenomenon.

A concern arises that the reward model may be biased by the confidence-query system prompt, which is included to ensure that the model verbalizes its confidence level. To further investigate the impact of this system prompt, we conduct additional experiments both with and without the system prompt. As shown in Figure 17, 18, and 19, the plots on the left follow the setting outlined in preliminary experiments, where a confidence-query system prompt is prepended and random confidence scores are appended to model responses. These plots demonstrate that every tested reward model exhibits a biased preference towards high-confidence responses to varying degrees. On the right, we still consider four modes, but this time *without the confidence-query system prompts*, and only random confidence scores are appended to the model responses. For instance, in REJECTED_WITH_CONF, the comparison would involve the same chosen responses with a high confidence score against that with a low confidence score. The results reveal a similar, albeit more subtle, phenomenon.

Llama3-8B-SFT and Llama3-8B-PPO; Tulu-2-7B and Tulu-2-DPO-7B

Figure 12: Confidence distributions of two models on BBH Object Counting before (top rows) and after (bottom rows) RLHF.

Llama3-8B-SFT and Llama3-8B-PPO; Tulu-2-7B and Tulu-2-DPO-7B

Figure 13: Confidence distributions of two models on GSM8K before (top rows) and after (bottom rows) RLHF.

Llama3-8B-SFT and Llama3-8B-PPO;  Tulu-2-7B and Tulu-2-DPO-7B

Figure 14: Confidence distributions of two models on Professional Knowledge before (top rows) and after (bottom rows) RLHF.

Llama3-8B-SFT and Llama3-8B-PPO;  Tulu-2-7B and Tulu-2-DPO-7B

Figure 15: Confidence distributions of two models on SciQ before (top rows) and after (bottom rows) RLHF.

Llama3-8B-SFT and Llama3-8B-PPO; Tulu-2-7B and Tulu-2-DPO-7B

Figure 16: Confidence distributions of two models on TruthfulQA before (top rows) and after (bottom rows) RLHF.

### E.3 CALIBRATED REWARD MODELS

Section 4.2 demonstrates the preference distributions of our calibrated reward model compared to the pre-calibrated version for Llama3-8B on REJECTED_WITH_CONF. Here we present a complete result and also extend to the Mistral-7B model.

As shown in Figure 20 and 21, both calibrated models exhibit a similar trend. When evaluated on chosen responses with high and low confidence scores, the calibrated reward models do not exhibit the same level of certainty as their pre-calibrated counterparts. Additionally, when evaluated on rejected responses with high and low confidence scores, both calibrated models show a preference for the low-confidence responses, suggesting that our calibrated reward models are more capable at identifying overconfident statements.

### E.4 VISUALIZATION OF THE CONFIDENCE DISTRIBUTION

In Figure 22, we present the confidence distributions of the PPO and PPO-M models on the left, and the DPO and CDPO models on the right. Notably, the confidence distribution for PPO-M is slightly shifted to the left relative to PPO, indicating a reduction in high-confidence scores (e.g., confidence level 10, representing a highly overconfident state) and an increase in lower-confidence categories. For CDPO, this phenomenon is even more pronounced; compared to DPO, the confidence distribution of CDPO is more dispersed across categories, with a noticeable increase in lower-confidence levels.

### E.5 MODEL LOGITS FOR CONFIDENCE SCORES

In Figure 23, we present the density distribution of numbers 0 to 10 based on log probabilities extracted from model responses to the TruthfulQA dataset for both PPO and PPO-M models. Specifically, we forward the model responses on TruthfulQA and focus on the log probabilities at the position corresponding to the original confidence score within the response. We then analyze the log probabilities of other numbers at that specific position. The figure illustrates that certain numbers exhibit notably high density; for example, the number 10 shows a high density for the PPO model, while the number 9 demonstrates a similar pattern for the PPO-M model. This non-uniform distribution of log probabilities indicates that the model does not randomly generate numbers at the confidence score position but instead tends to favor specific numbers.

### E.6 PARAMETER SENSITIVITY

In Eq. 3, we introduce a reward adjustment factor $\gamma$, defined as $\gamma = w * |\hat{r}_i| * (s_i - 0.5)$. Here $w$ represents a scaling coefficient set at 0.5 for our main results. We conduct a hyperparameter study in

(a) `RLHFlow/ArmoRM-Llama3-8B-v0.1` (Wang et al., 2024c) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(b) `CIR-AMS/BTRM_Qwen2_7b_0613` with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(c) `openbmb/Eurus-RM-7b` (Yuan et al., 2024) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(d) `sfairXC/FsfairX-LLaMA3-RM-v0.1` (Dong et al., 2023a) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(e) `OpenRLHF/Llama-3-8b-rm-700k` (Hu et al., 2024) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

Figure 17: Preference Distributions for various reward models across four modes (Part 1). Left follows the same setting in preliminary experiments. Right represents the setting where all confidence-query system prompts are removed, and only random confidence scores are appended.

(a) `Skywork/Skywork-Reward-Llama-3.1-8B` (Liu & Zeng, 2024) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(b) `stabilityai/stablelm-2-12b-chat` (Bellagente et al., 2024) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(c) `allenai/tulu-2-dpo-7b` (Ivison et al., 2023) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(d) `openbmb/UltraRM-13b` (Cui et al., 2023) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(e) `LxzGordon/URM-LLaMa-3.1-8B` (Cui et al., 2023) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

Figure 18: Preference Distributions for various reward models across four modes (Part 2). Left follows the same setting in preliminary experiments. Right represents the setting where all confidence-query system prompts are removed, and only random confidence scores are appended.

(a) `OpenRLHF/Llama-3-8b-rm-mixture` (Hu et al., 2024) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(b) `NCSOFT/Llama-3-OffsetBias-RM-8B` (Park et al., 2024) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(c) `OpenAssistant/oasst-rm-2.1-pythia-1.4b-epoch-2.5` with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(d) `IDEA-CCNL/Ziya-LLaMA-7B-Reward` (Cui et al., 2023) with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

(e) `internlm/internlm2-20b-reward` with (left) and w/o (right) conf.-query prompt.

Figure 19: Preference Distributions for various reward models across four modes (Part 3). Left follows the same setting in preliminary experiments. Right represents the setting where all confidence-query system prompts are removed, and only random confidence scores are appended.

Figure 20: Comparison of preference distributions between the calibrated reward model `Llama-3-8b-crm` and the pre-calibrated version `Llama-3-8b-rm-mixture` on two modes: CHOSEN_WITH_CONF and REJECTED_WITH_CONF.

Figure 21: Comparison of preference distributions between the calibrated reward model `Mistral-7B-crm` and the pre-calibrated version `Mistral-7B-RM` on two modes: CHOSEN_WITH_CONF and REJECTED_WITH_CONF.

Figure 22: Confidence distributions of PPO and PPO-M (left) and DPO and CDPO (right)

Figure 23: Density Plot of Log Prob for Confidence Scores for PPO and PPO-M Responses on TruthfulQA

this section to investigate the impact of $w$. As shown in Table 10, when $w$ is increased to 1.0, the model demonstrates a lower ECE across all six datasets. However, it exhibits reduced AUC on SciQ and CommonsenseQA, possibly because the model becomes more conservative in its confidence yet lacks predictive power. Additionally, the model scores lower on the MT-Bench benchmark, indicating a compromise in general capabilities.

| $w$ | MT-Bench | GSM8K | | | SciQ | | | CommonsenseQA | | |
|-----|----------|-------|-----|-----|------|-----|-----|---------------|-----|-----|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| 0.5 | 8.05 | 0.8638 | 0.516 | 0.1031 | 0.0282 | 0.6513 | 0.904 | 0.1286 | 0.5621 | 0.7756 |
| 1.0 | 7.76 | 0.8261 | 0.501 | 0.1092 | 0.0075 | 0.5641 | 0.903 | 0.1025 | 0.5076 | 0.7805 |

| $w$ | MT-Bench | TruthfulQA | | | Object Counting | | | Professional Knowledge | | |
|-----|----------|------------|-----|-----|-----------------|-----|-----|------------------------|-----|-----|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| 0.5 | 8.05 | 0.4426 | 0.5303 | 0.4431 | 0.4839 | 0.5178 | 0.503 | 0.3949 | 0.4902 | 0.502 |
| 1.0 | 7.76 | 0.4271 | 0.5207 | 0.4345 | 0.4709 | 0.5318 | 0.505 | 0.388 | 0.5069 | 0.4883 |

Table 10: Performance of PPO-C with different $w$ coefficient on `Llama3-8B`.

In Table 11, we present ablation studies on $\alpha$, the decay factor for the running average, which controls how the average adapts to new data. In the main results, we selected $\alpha = 0.1$, a commonly used value for running averages, as it creates a stable trend while filtering out short-term variability. Here, we compare it with $\alpha = 1.0$, where the running average is equal to the batch mean at each iteration, and $\alpha = 0.0$, where the running average is not updated and remains at its initialization value (in our case, the reward mean on the evaluation set when the reward model is trained). As shown in the table, when $\alpha = 1.0$, we observe a significant decline in calibration performance, except for the BBH dataset. Similarly, when $\alpha = 0.0$, the performance is also worse than with $\alpha = 0.1$, both in terms of calibration performance and MT-Bench scores.

| $\alpha$ | MT-Bench | GSM8K | | | SciQ | | | CommonsenseQA | | |
|----------|----------|-------|-----|-----|------|-----|-----|---------------|-----|-----|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| 0 | 7.79 | 0.8833 | 0.5034 | 0.116 | 0.1056 | 0.5238 | 0.891 | 0.2178 | 0.5568 | 0.7649 |
| 0.1 | 8.05 | 0.8638 | 0.516 | 0.1031 | 0.0282 | 0.6513 | 0.904 | 0.1286 | 0.5621 | 0.7756 |
| 1.0 | 8.03 | 0.8827 | 0.5112 | 0.1145 | 0.0849 | 0.5493 | 0.907 | 0.1992 | 0.5632 | 0.7625 |

| $\alpha$ | MT-Bench | TruthfulQA | | | Object Counting | | | Professional Knowledge | | |
|----------|----------|------------|-----|-----|-----------------|-----|-----|------------------------|-----|-----|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| 0 | 7.79 | 0.5185 | 0.5655 | 0.4394 | 0.4948 | 0.498 | 0.505 | 0.4753 | 0.5119 | 0.5024 |
| 0.1 | 8.05 | 0.4426 | 0.5303 | 0.4431 | 0.4839 | 0.5178 | 0.503 | 0.3949 | 0.4902 | 0.502 |
| 1.0 | 8.03 | 0.4965 | 0.5595 | 0.4333 | 0.4797 | 0.5011 | 0.52 | 0.4614 | 0.4968 | 0.4935 |

Table 11: Performance of PPO-C with different $\alpha$ coefficient for $\Delta r$ on `Llama3-8B`. (Prompts: DA)

E.7 IMPACT OF CONFIDENCE-QUERY SYSTEM PROMPTS

For the main experiments, we select 25% of the single-turn prompts to prepend a confidence-query system prompt. Here, we present our study on the effect of varying the percentage of single-turn prompts with this system prompt. As shown in Table 12, the impact on calibration does not show a consistent trend; however, we observe a decrease in MT-Bench scores as the percentage increases. Given our objective to maintain model capability while improving calibration, we opt for 25%.

E.8 IMPACT OF COMBINING EQ. 1 AND 2

Given that Eq. 2 does not inherently force the preference of chosen over rejected. In this section, we compare models trained using the combined loss from Eq.1 and Eq.2 against those trained solely

| Percentage | MT-Bench | GSM8K | | | SciQ | | | CommonsenseQA | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ |
| 0.25 | 8.05 | 0.8393 | 0.57 | 0.119 | 0.0267 | 0.6115 | 0.898 | 0.1206 | 0.5568 | 0.7707 |
| 0.5 | 7.88 | 0.86 | 0.5185 | 0.1031 | 0.0389 | 0.5829 | 0.896 | 0.134 | 0.5399 | 0.7682 |
| 1.0 | 7.74 | 0.8608 | 0.5065 | 0.1243 | 0.0471 | 0.7165 | 0.898 | 0.074 | 0.6341 | 0.7658 |

| Percentage | MT-Bench | TruthfulQA | | | Object Counting | | | Professional Knowledge | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ |
| 0.25 | 8.05 | 0.3991 | 0.5813 | 0.47 | 0.4789 | 0.5227 | 0.505 | 0.3848 | 0.4926 | 0.502 |
| 0.5 | 7.88 | 0.4453 | 0.5283 | 0.4357 | 0.5119 | 0.5413 | 0.473 | 0.3988 | 0.5221 | 0.4935 |
| 1.0 | 7.74 | 0.3438 | 0.5737 | 0.4786 | 0.5087 | 0.5052 | 0.487 | 0.3501 | 0.5184 | 0.502 |

Table 12: Performance of PPO-M on Prompt Dataset with various percentage of single-turn prompts prepending confidence-query system prompts on `Llama3-8B`. Prompts: (DA)

with Eq.2. It is important to note that we are not training the reward model from scratch; instead, we fine-tune it on the calibration dataset. As shown in Figure 13, the model trained exclusively with Eq 2 maintains a similar trend of distinguishing between chosen and rejected responses as the model trained with the combined loss. Furthermore, Table 13 shows that PPO-M using the reward model trained with the combined loss does not yield better calibration results.

Figure 24: Training Details of reward model with Eq. 2 alone (orange) and in combination with Eq. 1 (red). Left column: reward of chosen / rejected responses. Middle column: reward of chosen responses with high confidence / reward of rejected responses with low confidence. Right column: reward of chosen responses with low confidence / reward of rejected responses with high confidence.

| Loss | MT-Bench | GSM8K | | | SciQ | | | CommonsenseQA | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ |
| Eq. 2 | 8.05 | 0.8638 | 0.516 | 0.1031 | 0.0282 | 0.6513 | 0.904 | 0.1286 | 0.5621 | 0.7756 |
| Eq. 1+2 | 7.75 | 0.8891 | 0.4974 | 0.1107 | 0.1043 | 0.5186 | 0.894 | 0.2286 | 0.528 | 0.7584 |

| Loss | MT-Bench | TruthfulQA | | | Object Counting | | | Professional Knowledge | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ | ECE↓ | AUC↑ | ACC↑ |
| Eq. 2 | 8.05 | 0.4426 | 0.5303 | 0.4431 | 0.4839 | 0.5178 | 0.503 | 0.3949 | 0.4902 | 0.502 |
| Eq. 1+2 | 7.75 | 0.5006 | 0.564 | 0.4565 | 0.518 | 0.5 | 0.482 | 0.4786 | 0.4964 | 0.5061 |

Table 13: Performance of PPO-M with the reward model trained using Eq.2 alone and in combination with Eq.1 on `Llama3-8B`. Prompts: (DA)

### E.9 COMPARING THRESHOLD-BASED VS. REWARD-AVERAGE DIFFERENCE APPROACHES

While PPO-C has demonstrated effectiveness, as shown in Table 1, using the reward running average as a threshold and employing the absolute value of the reward as a scaling factor may not be optimal. Therefore, in this section, we conduct experiments comparing threshold-based methods with difference-based methods. Specifically, in the difference-based approach, the final reward is calculated as: $r_i = \hat{r}_i + (\hat{r}_i - \Delta r_t) \times (s_i - 0.5)$.

| Method | MT/Arena-Hard | GSM8K | | | SciQ | | | CommonsenseQA | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| Threshold | 8.05 / 14.1 | 0.8638 | 0.516 | 0.1031 | 0.0282 | 0.6513 | 0.904 | 0.1286 | 0.5621 | 0.7756 |
| Difference | 7.91 / 13.8 | 0.8238 | 0.4937 | 0.119 | 0.0087 | 0.578 | 0.898 | 0.1153 | 0.585 | 0.7625 |

| Method | MT/Arena-Hard | TruthfulQA | | | Object Counting | | | Professional Knowledge | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| Threshold | 8.05 / 14.1 | 0.4426 | 0.5303 | 0.4431 | 0.4839 | 0.5178 | 0.503 | 0.3949 | 0.4902 | 0.502 |
| Difference | 7.91 / 13.8 | 0.4104 | 0.515 | 0.4492 | 0.4774 | 0.5118 | 0.496 | 0.383 | 0.509 | 0.4902 |

Table 14: Performance Comparison of Threshold-Based and Difference-Based Approaches on `Llama3-8B`. Prompts: (DA)

As shown in Table 14, compared to the threshold-based approach, the difference-based method demonstrates improved calibration results, as evidenced by a lower Expected Calibration Error (ECE). However, this improvement comes at the cost of decreased instruction-following capabilities, as indicated by lower scores in MT-Bench and Arena-Hard evaluations. Additionally, four out of six datasets exhibit a slight decrease in accuracy with the difference-based approach.

### E.10 CAN PPO-M AND PPO-C BE COMBINED?

As PPO-M and PPO-C function independently, we aim to explore whether these methods can be combined. Specifically, we apply the calibrated reward models from PPO-M while simultaneously using the calibrated reward calculation from PPO-C to generate scores. Table 15 demonstrates the performance of this combined method. We observe no improvement over individual methods, and sometimes even a decline in performance. We hypothesize that this is due to calibrated reward model being trained specifically on responses with confidence scores, which are trained to produce an unbiased reward. Thus, removing these confidence scores to estimate rewards based on comparison with threshold might not be appropriate.

| | MT-Bench | Arena-Hard | GSM8K | | | SciQ | | | CommonsenseQA | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| DA | 7.82 | 12.0 | 0.8948 | 0.5168 | 0.0978 | 0.1026 | 0.5094 | 0.896 | 0.2134 | 0.5415 | 0.774 |
| CoT | 7.82 | 12.0 | 0.2441 | 0.5108 | 0.7544 | 0.1434 | 0.5809 | 0.847 | 0.2553 | 0.631 | 0.7027 |

| | MT-Bench | Arena-Hard | TruthfulQA | | | Object Counting | | | Professional Knowledge | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| DA | 7.82 | 12.0 | 0.533 | 0.575 | 0.4235 | 0.469 | 0.5 | 0.531 | 0.5256 | 0.5158 | 0.4535 |
| CoT | 7.82 | 12.0 | 0.5203 | 0.6263 | 0.4137 | 0.309 | 0.5 | 0.691 | 0.525 | 0.5573 | 0.4324 |

Table 15: Performance of PPO-Combine on `Llama3-8B` across six datasets. Prompts: (DA)

### E.11 EXTENSION TO DPO

In Section 5.2, we present the results of extending PPO-M to DPO training on `Mistral-7B`, we include results for `Llama3-8B` here. As shown in Table 17 and 16, CDPO effectively reduces the ECE and increases AUC, following a similar trend observed in `Mistral-7B`,

| Methods | | GSM8K | | | SciQ | | | CommonsenseQA | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| DA | SFT | 0.8783 | 0.5292 | 0.0773 | 0.1681 | 0.5253 | 0.801 | 0.3913 | 0.5294 | 0.5528 |
| | DPO | 0.904 | 0.5381 | 0.0834 | 0.1085 | 0.561 | 0.886 | 0.3011 | 0.535 | 0.6871 |
| | DPO† | 0.8861 | 0.5203 | 0.097 | 0.1103 | 0.5626 | **0.881** | 0.3004 | 0.5409 | 0.683 |
| | CDPO | **0.5664** | **0.5389** | **0.1024** | **0.0143** | **0.6497** | 0.877 | **0.1697** | **0.5815** | **0.6912** |
| CoT | SFT | 0.6473 | 0.5508 | 0.326 | 0.1699 | 0.5816 | 0.803 | 0.3293 | 0.588 | 0.579 |
| | DPO | 0.4159 | 0.5452 | 0.577 | 0.113 | 0.6376 | 0.858 | 0.2621 | 0.6295 | 0.6593 |
| | DPO† | 0.452 | 0.5456 | **0.539** | 0.0964 | 0.6614 | **0.876** | 0.235 | 0.5973 | 0.6749 |
| | CDPO | **0.3313** | **0.6054** | 0.5277 | **0.0386** | **0.7036** | 0.86 | **0.1269** | **0.6685** | 0.6798 |

| Methods | | TruthfulQA | | | Object Counting | | | Professional Knowledge | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ | ECE ↓ | AUC ↑ | ACC ↑ |
| DA | SFT | 0.592 | 0.5388 | 0.3256 | 0.5964 | 0.4938 | 0.395 | 0.5109 | 0.5189 | 0.4127 |
| | DPO | 0.6126 | 0.5581 | 0.3525 | 0.5848 | 0.4996 | 0.415 | 0.4764 | 0.4992 | 0.495 |
| | DPO† | 0.5647 | 0.5886 | 0.3856 | 0.5999 | 0.5008 | 0.4 | 0.467 | 0.5153 | **0.4939** |
| | CDPO | **0.4022** | **0.6194** | **0.3929** | **0.4662** | **0.5262** | **0.422** | **0.3525** | **0.5581** | 0.4898 |
| CoT | SFT | 0.5259 | 0.5698 | 0.3782 | 0.5388 | 0.5126 | 0.45 | 0.5091 | 0.5457 | 0.4068 |
| | DPO | 0.5188 | 0.5822 | 0.4088 | 0.3520 | 0.5000 | 0.6480 | 0.4289 | 0.5700 | 0.4831 |
| | DPO† | 0.4931 | 0.6111 | 0.4113 | 0.3783 | 0.5018 | **0.621** | 0.4312 | 0.562 | **0.4694** |
| | CDPO | **0.3651** | **0.634** | **0.4345** | **0.3488** | **0.5286** | 0.567 | **0.3349** | **0.6303** | 0.4609 |

Table 17: Performance comparison of SFT, DPO, DPO†, and CDPO across six datasets using `Llama3-8B`. SFT and DPO denote the reference and trained DPO models, respectively. DPO† and CDPO initiate from the trained DPO checkpoint; DPO† applies standard DPO on the calibration dataset, focusing on chosen and rejected pairs to assess the impact of training with additional data.

and maintain performance on MT-Bench as well. However, we observe a slight performance degradation on Arena-Hard using either DPO† or CDPO. This may stem from inadequate hyperparameter tuning or inherent limitations in the structure of calibration dataset, which we leave for future research.

| Model | Method | MT-Bench ↑ | Arena-Hard ↑ |
|---|---|---|---|
| Llama3-8B | SFT | 6.44 (6.6) | 3.1 (3.3) |
| | DPO | 7.67 (7.7) | 15.9 (15.9) |
| | DPO† | 7.52 | **15.2** |
| | CDPO | **7.68** | 14.7 |

Table 16: Comparison over MT-Bench and Arena-Hard for `Llama3-8B`. The numbers in parenthesis are sourced from Meng et al. (2024).