PERPLEXED BY PERPLEXITY: PERPLEXITY-BASED DATA PRUNING WITH SMALL REFERENCE MODELS

Anonymous authorsPaper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

In this work, we investigate whether small language models can determine high-quality subsets of large-scale text datasets that improve the performance of larger language models. While existing work has shown that pruning based on the perplexity of a larger model can yield high-quality data, we investigate whether smaller models can be used for perplexity-based pruning and how pruning is affected by the domain composition of the data being pruned. We demonstrate that for multiple dataset compositions, perplexity-based pruning of pretraining data can significantly improve downstream task performance: pruning based on perplexities computed with a 125 million parameter model improves the average performance on downstream tasks of a 3 billion parameter model by up to 2.04 and achieves up to a $1.45\times$ reduction in pretraining steps to reach commensurate baseline performance. Furthermore, we demonstrate that such perplexity-based data pruning also yields downstream performance gains in the over-trained and data-constrained regimes.

1 Introduction

A large focus of the machine learning community has been improving the performance of large language models (LLMs) while reducing their training costs. In this work, we consider how to improve the quality of an LLM by improving the quality of its pretraining data. Although there are many techniques to improve data quality, such as augmenting training samples with additional information (Li et al., 2024; Korbak et al., 2023), in this work we focus on the predominant method of *data pruning*: intelligently selecting a high-quality subset of a larger dataset to train on.

Data pruning is commonly used for quality filtering of noisy text data. Simple approaches include using symbolic rules (Bane et al., 2022; Raffel et al., 2020) or using simple classifiers to determine high-quality samples (Wenzek et al., 2020). However, in addition to basic quality filtering, more complex data pruning techniques are also applied to datasets to *further* improve their quality. Xie et al. (2023b) perform importance resampling where importance scores are calculated based on feature similarity to a target text. Tirumala et al. (2023) prune datasets by deduplicating and diversifying data based on a pretrained language model's embeddings of the text samples. Xie et al. (2023a) re-weight domain proportions based on learnability as determined by a smaller proxy model. Marion et al. (2023) investigate data pruning based on multiple neural heuristics of sample difficulty, ultimately concluding that the perplexity of a sample under a reference language model is the best pruning metric.

In this work, we thoroughly investigate the impact that data pruning based on sample perplexity (Marion et al., 2023) has on LLM pretraining. In particular, we focus on the interplay between pretraining dataset composition and pruning methodology. We further evaluate perplexity pruning in the overtrained and data-constrained regimes. We also investigate whether evaluating the quality of data interventions based on upstream test set perplexity is a sound methodology for gauging downstream performance. To perform perplexity-based data pruning, we train a small language model on a random subset of the given pretraining dataset and then evaluate its perplexity on each sample in the dataset. We then prune the dataset to only include samples within some range of perplexities (i.e., sub-sample to the highest or lowest perplexity samples). We demonstrate that for two vastly different pretraining data compositions, a small language model can be used to effectively prune the

055

056

057

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

071

073

074

075

076 077

078

079

081

082

084

085

090

092

094 095

096

098

100

101

102

103

104

105

106 107 pretraining dataset of a significantly larger model, leading to significant gains in the final model's downstream performance.

Our work differs from previous work on perplexity-based data pruning for LLM pretraining in three key ways: (i) our emphasis on downstream model quality evaluation, (ii) our exploration of different pretraining dataset domain compositions, and (iii) our analysis of pruning in non-standard training regimes. While previous works evaluate the resulting LLM's quality based on upstream metrics such as perplexity on the test split of the pretraining dataset, we evaluate data pruning's impact based on downstream evaluation benchmarks (e.g. mmlu (Hendrycks et al., 2021), hellaswag(Zellers et al., 2019), etc.). Evaluating on more meaningful benchmarks enables us to make stronger, more rigorous conclusions about the impact of perplexity-based data pruning, as we find that some techniques that significantly improve downstream performance have no, or even adverse, effects on upstream performance. This difference in metrics enables us to conclude that smaller models can prune the data for larger models, which was not observed in previous perplexity-basd pruning works. Secondly, while previous work only investigates pruning on datasets composed of just one domain (CommonCrawl¹), we consider two datasets with different domain compositions: the Pile (Gao et al., 2020) and Dolma (Soldaini et al., 2024). The Pile is composed of many diverse curated domains, with only 15.61% of the data being derived from general web-scrapes, while Dolma is a web-scrape skewed dataset, with 81.31% of its data being derived from the CommonCrawl. We find that successful pruning techniques vary greatly for different dataset compositions to the point that the best technique for one dataset composition may degrade performance for a different composition. Finally, we also evaluate perplexity-based data pruning in the less standard regimes of over-training and data-constrained training. This investigation provides a broader understanding for when practitioners should use perplexity pruning for their data.

Contributions Our work makes the following contributions:

- We demonstrate that, across three datasets of varying domain compositions, a small reference model can effectively prune the pretraining dataset of a significantly larger language model (30× greater parameters), providing both a significant increase in downstream performance and decrease in pretraining steps (Table 1 and Figure 1).
- We show that data pruning techniques can be highly sensitive to the domain composition of the dataset, suggesting the need to evaluate multiple distinct dataset compositions when conducting data pruning research (Table 1 and Table 4).
- We investigate perplexity-based data pruning in multiple non-standard settings demonstrating that it can still lead to gains when over-training and when data-constrained (Section 3.4 and Section 3.5).
- We find that test set perplexity can be a misleading metric for evaluating the efficacy of data pruning techniques, as interventions that result in significantly higher test set perplexity can still achieve better performance on downstream tasks (Table 3).

2 PERPLEXITY-BASED DATA PRUNING

We start by training a reference model that will be used to calculate the perplexity of all samples in our dataset. First, we partition the original dataset into two splits: one for training the reference model and one for training the final model. After training the reference model on the standard next-token prediction objective, we compute the reference model's perplexity on each of the samples in the final model's training split. We then prune the final model's dataset split to a fraction of its original size, referred to as the *selection rate* (r_s) , by selecting samples according to a *selection criteria* which can be one of low, medium, or high. In low selection, samples with the lowest perplexity are selected. In medium selection, we select samples whose perplexity is close to the median perplexity, that is, samples with perplexity in the $[50 - \frac{r_s}{2}, 50 + \frac{r_s}{2}]$ percentiles of all perplexities. In high selection, samples with the highest perplexity are selected. After pruning our dataset, we train a final model using the standard next token prediction objective on the pruned version of the final model training split. We present a pseudocode for pruning based on perplexity in Algorithm 1.

¹https://data.commoncrawl.org/

```
108
            Algorithm 1: Psuedocode for performing perplexity-based data pruning.
109
            Input: Raw dataset D = \{x^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{M}, where each x^{(i)} is a tokenized text sample;
110
                      selection_criteria \in {low, medium, high}; selection rate r_s \in (0,1); reference
111
                      training split size R.
112
            Output: Parameters of final model trained on the perplexity pruned dataset \theta_{\text{final}}^*.
113
            D_{\text{ref}}, D_{\text{train}} \leftarrow \texttt{random\_split}(D, R)
114
           \theta_{\text{ref}} \leftarrow \text{random parameter initialization}
115
           \theta_{\text{ref}}^* \leftarrow \text{train}(\theta_{\text{ref}}, D_{\text{ref}}) P \leftarrow {}
116
117
           for x^{(i)} \in D_{train} do
118
                 \begin{aligned} \text{NLL}_{x^{(i)}} &= \frac{1}{|x^{(i)}|} \sum_{t_j \in x^{(i)}} -\log P(t_j|t_{\leq j};\theta_{\text{ref}}) \\ \text{PPLX}_{x^{(i)}} &= 2^{\text{NLL}_x^{(i)}} \end{aligned}
119
120
                 P[x^{(i)}] = PPLX_{r^{(i)}}
121
122
           if selection_criteria == "low" then
123
                 \min_{\text{percentile}} \leftarrow 0.0
124
                 max\_percentile \leftarrow r_s
125
126
            else if selection_criteria == "medium" then
127
                 min_percentile \leftarrow 0.5 - \frac{r_s}{2}
128
                 max_percentile \leftarrow 0.5 + \frac{r_s}{2}
129
            end
130
            else if selection_criteria == "high" then
131
                 min percentile \leftarrow 1 - r_s
132
                 max\_percentile \leftarrow 1.0
133
            end
134
            \tilde{F}_P \leftarrow \text{empirical CDF of P. values} ()
135
            D_{\text{pruned}} \leftarrow []
136
            for x^{(i)}, PPLX_{x^{(i)}} \in P do
137
                 if min\_percentile < \hat{F}_P(PPLX_{x^{(i)}}) < max\_percentile then
138
                  D_{\text{pruned}}.append(x^{(i)})
139
                 end
140
            end
141
            \theta_{\text{final}} \leftarrow \text{random parameter initialization}
142
            \theta_{\text{final}}^* \leftarrow \text{train}(\theta_{\text{final}}, D_{\text{pruned}})
            return \theta_{final}^*
143
144
```

We consider the setting in which the reference model is significantly smaller than the final model. While this assumption is not strictly necessary, we believe that it is the most practically relevant setup, as it best reflects a data pruning paradigm that would be used for the next generation of LLMs where the models being trained are larger than any existing models.

3 EXPERIMENTS

3.1 SETUP

145 146

147

148

149

150 151

152 153

154

156

157

158 159

160

161

Models. All models are based on the MPT family of transformer models (Vaswani et al., 2017; MosaicML, 2023c). All reference models have 125 million parameters, and we consider final models with 1 billion and 3 billion parameters.

Data. We consider two datasets in this work. The Pile (Gao et al., 2020) is composed of 22 different domains that range from general web scrapes to legal text. Dolma (Soldaini et al., 2024) is composed of 7 different domains and is derived mainly from general web scrapes. We tokenize all datasets using the GPT-4 tokenizer (OpenAI, 2022).

Table 1: Average normalized accuracy grouped by task category for both datasets and both final model sizes. For all datasets and model sizes we find that training on perplexity pruned data outperforms the baseline. Bold results are within one standard error of the highest score.

Pruning Method	World Knowl- edge	Common Sense Reason- ing	Language Under- stand- ing	Symbolic Prob- lem Solving	Reading Com- prehen- sion	Average
1B Parameters Trained on Pile No Pruning (Baseline) High Perplexity Selected	15.51 18.18	10.31 12.75	28.11 33.2	3.53 3.36	11.16 10.63	13.73 15.62
3B Parameters Trained on Pile No Pruning (Baseline) High Perplexity Selected	21.82 25.8	13.09 16.24	39.08 43.32	4.88 2.91	14.28 15.07	18.63 20.67
1B Parameters Trained on Dolma No Pruning (Baseline) Medium Perplexity Selected	16.48 17.98	12.32 13.03	28.86 31.87	3.58 3.44	7.95 10.41	13.84 15.35
3B Parameters Trained on Dolma No Pruning (Baseline) Medium Perplexity Selected	23.56 24.19	14.29 16.48	39.57 41.8	4.4 3.3	14.2 13.19	19.2 19.79

Training and hyperparameters. All reference models are trained for a fixed duration of 26 billion tokens. Unless otherwise specified, all final models are trained to Chinchilla optimal (Hoffmann et al., 2022), meaning that each final model's training duration in tokens is 20 times its parameter count. All models are trained using the decoupled Lion optimizer (Chen et al., 2024) with a cosine learning rate schedule. All reference models and 1B parameter models are trained with a maximum learning rate and weight decay of 2e-4 and all 3B models are trained with a maximum learning rate and weight decay of 1.6e-4. Training is conducted using llm-foundry (MosaicML, 2023b) and using both Nvidia Al00s and Hl00s. We perform two trials for each experiment.

Evaluation. We evaluate models on 33 different downstream question-answering tasks using the MosaicML evaluation gauntlet (MosaicML, 2023a). Before averaging the accuracy across tasks, we normalize the accuracy on each task by the baseline of random guessing Specifically, we normalize the accuracy of each individual task as $a_n = \frac{a_m - a_r}{1 - a_r}$, where a_m is the accuracy of the model and a_r is the expected accuracy of random guessing. We report the average normalized accuracy for each task category as well as the average normalized accuracy across all task categories. ². More details on tasks and task categories are listed in Section 8.

3.2 PERPLEXITY-BASED DATA PRUNING IMPROVES DOWNSTREAM PERFORMANCE

If a certain range of perplexities is a good heuristic for data quality, training on that perplexity-pruned subset should improve downstream performance. We sweep across pruning selection criteria and selection rates (Section 7) and find that the best settings are to select high-perplexity samples at a 50% rate for the Pile and to select medium-perplexity samples at a 50% rate for Dolma. We compare the most performant pruning settings to baseline models trained on the original datasets without pruning in Table 1. Across all datasets and model sizes, models pretrained on the perplexity pruned version of the dataset significantly outperform the baseline model on average. Specifically, perplexity-based data pruning outperforms the average downstream performance of no pruning for 1B models by 1.89 and 1.51 for the Pile and Dolma respectively, and improves the performance of 3B models by 2.04 and 0.59 for the Pile and Dolma respectively. These results suggest that the perplexity of a small model provides a strong signal of data quality for a much larger model, as training on the data selected by the small model leads to significant downstream performance improvements.

²Not to be confused, the random accuracy normalization we use is different from the normalized accuracy reported by the EleutherAI LM Evaluation Harness, which normalizes based on the Byte-length of the response.

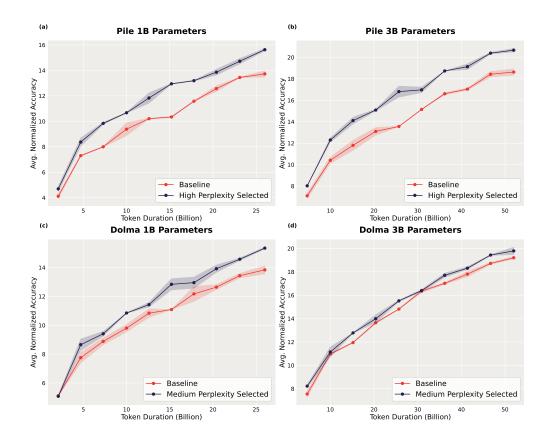


Figure 1: Average normalized task accuracy evaluated intermittently throughout pretraining for each dataset and model size investigated. Perplexity-based data pruning leads to an improvement in performance for all intermediate training steps evaluated.

3.3 Perplexity-Based Data Pruning Improves Training Efficiency

Since perplexity-based data pruning improves the final performance of models, we also investigate how pruned data affects the training dynamics of models. Specifically, we investigate whether training on perplexity pruned data enables models to achieve the same downstream performance as models trained on the unpruned data in training fewer steps. We plot the average downstream performance of partially trained checkpoints from the 1B baseline and perplexity pruned models in Figure 1. Perplexity pruning outperforms the baseline model for all intermediate pretraining durations evaluated. Furthermore, perplexity pruned models reach the same average normalized accuracy as the baseline models in $1.31\times$ and $1.45\times$ fewer steps for Pile 1B and 3B respectively and in $1.29\times$ and $1.14\times$ fewer steps for Dolma 1B and Dolma 3B respectively. These results demonstrate that the resulting high-quality data from perplexity-based data pruning enables faster learning which can be leveraged to achieve the same downstream performance as training on unpruned data with fewer pretraining steps.

3.4 Perplexity-Based Data Pruning for Over-Trained Models

A recent trend with LLMs has been to over-train models by training them on more tokens than the Chinchilla optimal number of tokens (Touvron et al., 2023; Gadre et al., 2024). As our work targets the data component of LLM pretraining, we investigate the hypothesis that over-training would be more beneficial for models trained on perplexity pruned datasets as the data is of higher quality. We test this hypothesis by training a 1B parameter model for 130B tokens, which is $5\times$ the Chinchilla optimal number of tokens. We evaluate the downstream performance of each over-trained model in Table 2. The main observation is that while the absolute gain in average downstream normalized accuracy from perplexity-based data pruning on the Pile is similar for both compute optimal and

Table 2: Downstream task performance for Chinchilla Optimal and $5\times$ over-trained data budgets. The "Improvement Over Baseline" column refers to the gain observed from perplexity pruning as compared to the baseline trained in the same setting.

Pruning Method	Average	Improvement Over Baseline
1B Parameters Trained on High Perplexity Pile		
Chinchilla Optimal	15.62	1.89
$5 \times$ Over-Trained	18.83	1.74
1B Parameters Trained on Medium Perplexity Dolma		
Chinchilla Optimal	15.35	1.51
$5 \times$ Over-Trained	18.67	0.84

over-trained models, the gain decreases for Dolma when over-training. On the Pile, we find that the gain from perplexity pruned data is similar in the compute optimal regime and the over-trained regime: we see a gain in average performance of 1.89 when training compute optimal and a gain of 1.74 when over-training. On Dolma, the gain from perplexity pruned data decreases in the over-trained regime: we see a gain of 1.51 when training for a compute optimal duration but this decreases to a gain of 0.84 when over-training. These results show that while the higher quality data resulting from perplexity-based data pruning does still lead to an improvement in downstream performance in the over-trained regime, there is not a relative increase in downstream improvement over the baseline when over-training.

3.5 Perplexity-Based Data Pruning for the Data Constrained Regime

Our experiments so far were conducted in the setting where there exists a sufficient abundance of data such that even after pruning with the desired selection rate there are enough data points to fill the desired token budget without requiring any data to be repeated. However, there are many training settings that do not fall under this data-abundant regime. Consequently, we evaluate how perplexity-based data pruning performs when the number of tokens is constrained, and pruning induces a greater number of repetitions of the data. For each dataset, we vary the available data such that training for a Chinchilla optimal number of tokens requires a different number of repetitions. Specifically, we investigate data budgets that require $\{0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8\}$ repetitions to reach the Chinchilla optimal number of tokens³. As each number of repeats refers to the total number of tokens available, for all pruning experiments the number of repetitions after pruning is actually greater by a factor of $\frac{1}{r_s}$ since we prune the available tokens according to r_s , the selection rate. Since all models use a selection rate of 0.5, the models trained on the pruned data see the data for $2\times$ more repetitions.

We plot the average downstream performance as a function of the number of repetitions in Figure 2. On both the Pile and Dolma, we find that training on perplexity pruned data yields an improvement for up to two repetitions. These results suggest that perplexity-based data pruning can still provide performance gains for some degree of data constraint. Furthermore, our results replicate the findings of Muennighoff et al. (2023) that more than four repetitions yields negligible gains. Specifically, the baseline model without pruning maintains commensurate performance for up to four repetitions. Similarly, models trained on perplexity-pruned data maintain commensurate performance for up to two repetitions through the base data, which corresponds to four repetitions after pruning. That training on repeated perplexity-pruned data leads to diminishing gains after four repetitions post-pruning suggests that the higher quality data resulting from pruning does not change the point for which repeating data yields diminishing improvements in performance.

3.6 Upstream Perplexity is not a Reliable Evaluation Metric for Data Pruning

As previous works have used the perplexity of the model on a test split of the pretraining dataset as an approximation to downstream performance, we wanted to explore how well such perplexity-based

³Repeat=0.5 means that the available number of tokens is twice the training budget, i.e. the data-abundant setting

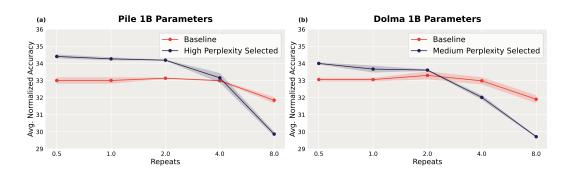


Figure 2: Downstream task performance as a function of available dataset size. The number of repeats denotes the number of repeats over the raw dataset necessary to achieve the Chinchilla optimal number of tokens. Training on perplexity pruned data leads to an improvement for up to two repeats on both the Pile Dolma.

Table 3: Performance as evaluated by perplexity on a test split of the original dataset as well as average normalized task accuracy for 1 billion parameter final models trained on the Pile. The model trained on pruned data has worse pretraining test split perplexity even though it significantly improves average downstream normalized accuracy.

Pruning Method	Test Set Pplx. (↓)	Downstream Task Avg. (†)
1B Parameters Trained on Pile No Pruning (Baseline) High Perplexity Selected	7.83 8.51	13.73 15.62
1B Parameters Trained on Dolma No Pruning (Baseline) Medium Perplexity Selected	13.53 14.33	13.84 15.35

evaluations agree with downstream performance for data intervention techniques. Pruning performs an intervention on the dataset, making models trained on the pruned dataset biased estimators of the original data distribution. Therefore, it is unlikely that the performance on the original data distribution is a fair evaluation of model quality. We compare the test set perplexity and average downstream performance for 1 billion parameter models trained on the original and pruned version of the Pile and Dolma in Table 3. For both the Pile and Dolma, training on perplexity pruned data significantly worsens perplexity on a test split of the pretraining data, while the average downstream performance is significantly improved. This result suggests that test set perplexity may not always be a sound metric for data pruning work and that researchers should instead directly evaluate on downstream benchmarks.

4 Understanding the Effects of Perplexity-Based Pruning

In this section, we investigate how data pruning works by exploring some of the properties of perplexity-based pruning.

4.1 How Are Reference Perplexities Distributed

In order to better understand how perplexity-based data pruning works, we investigate the distribution of the computed reference model perplexities for each dataset. For each dataset, we randomly sample 10% of the calculated perplexities and perform kernel density estimation to estimate the distribution of log perplexities for a given dataset. We repeat this procedure for the optimal pruned version of the dataset. We plot the resulting estimates of the log perplexity distribution in Figure 3. We find that the log perplexity distribution for the Pile is multimodal and asymmetric, while for Dolma and it is unimodal and symmetric.

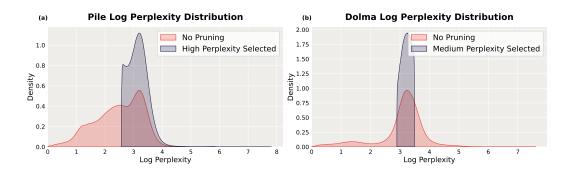


Figure 3: Distribution of sample perplexities as evaluated by the reference model for the Pile and Dolma. We show both the original distribution over the full dataset without pruning as well as the distribution after applying the optimal perplexity-based data pruning technique for a given dataset.

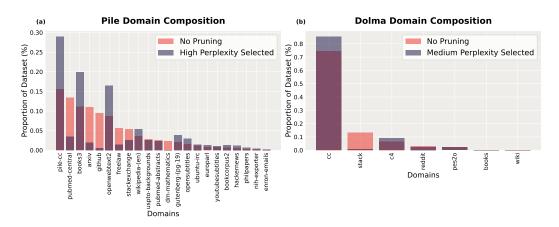


Figure 4: Proportion of the total dataset each domain makes up before and after pruning. For all datasets, pruning tends to select more samples from general web domains while leaving out samples from highly specific domains.

4.2 How Pruning Affects Domain Composition

We can also interpret the effect that perplexity-based data pruning has on a dataset by examining how pruning affects each domain's proportion of the total dataset. We plot the pre and post-pruning domain compositions for the Pile and Dolma in Figure 4. Interestingly, for all datasets pruning increases the proportion of data coming from web-scraped domains while decreasing the proportion of data coming from highly specific technical domains such as code or scientific papers. This trend is more pronounced in the Pile, where the proportions of Pile-CC and OpenWebText2 nearly double, while the proportions of domains such as Pubmed Central, ArXiv, and Github are all reduced by at least a factor of three. Future work should investigate how perplexity-based pruning affects a model's performance on downstream tasks that are in the same category as the highly pruned domains.

5 RELATED WORK

Classical methods for pruning text data. In order to improve the quality of raw web scrapes, which often contain very noisy samples, pruning via quality filtering has become a common practice. Simple rules-based methods have been employed to prune datasets by filtering out low-quality samples according to some hand-crafted heuristic such as whether the text contains prohibited words, is predominantly English, etc. (Bane et al., 2022; Raffel et al., 2020; Rae et al., 2022; Penedo et al., 2023). N-gram perplexity-based methods, in which an n-gram model is first trained on a high quality, curated corpus and then used to score another corpus, have also been applied to filter text

data (Moore & Lewis, 2010; Axelrod, 2017; Gao, 2021; Laurençon et al., 2022; Muennighoff et al., 2023). Although our method also uses perplexity to prune data, it does so in a very different manner. In n-gram perplexity pruning, perplexity is used to estimate whether new text is in distribution as compared to the currated text the n-gram was trained on, while in our model-based perplexity pruning, the reference model is trained on the same distribution of text and the perplexity is more akin to an estimate of the difficulty of an example. In this work, the datasets we leverage already have some basic rules-based pruning applied, and as such, the method we investigate is largely complementary to these existing techniques.

Neural network based methods for pruning text data. Recently, there has been much interest in using neural networks to compute metrics that can be used to intelligently prune datasets. A common technique in this family of methods is using a model to sample high-quality data from large datasets based on the sample's similarity to a curated high-quality corpus that serves as a target distribution (Feng et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2023b). Xie et al. (2023a) also consider how to use a small reference model to prune pretraining data for a much larger model, by using a small reference model to learn the optimal weighting of domain proportions to maximize the "learnability" of the resulting dataset. Pruning based on the difficulty or loss of a sample has previously been explored for text data, but the majority of such work focuses on curating data for finetuning (Swayamdipta et al., 2020; Attendu & Corbeil, 2023; Coleman et al., 2020; Mindermann et al., 2022; Mekala et al., 2024). Marion et al. (2023), however, investigate multiple model-based sample difficulty heuristics for pruning pretraining text datasets. Although we use the same method for pruning text pretraining datasets, our analysis differs substantially as we evaluate model quality based on downstream metrics and extend our analysis to multiple different dataset compositions which enables us to conclude that the reference model can be smaller than the final model.

Data pruning on vision tasks. While data pruning is becoming more and more relevant with large amounts of text data, it has also been extensively applied in the vision domain (Paul et al., 2021; Toneva et al., 2018; Park et al., 2023). These works often prune data points based on their loss or gradients during training (Killamsetty et al., 2021; Mirzasoleiman et al., 2020). Model-based methods have also been leveraged for image data pruning (Fang et al., 2024; Schuhmann et al., 2021). Note that in the literature, data pruning is also sometimes referred to as coreset selection (Guo et al., 2022). More recently, Park et al. (2022) show that, somewhat surprisingly, active learning (Castro & Nowak, 2008) based algorithms tend to outperform most data subset selection algorithms. In the context of contrastive learning, hard-negative mining has been effective as a data pruning method (Kalantidis et al., 2020; Robinson et al., 2020; Zhang & Stratos, 2021). Recently, Goyal et al. (2024) investigated scaling laws for training on pruned data in the context of vision models.

6 Conclusion

In this work, we conduct an empirical investigation of the impact that perplexity-based data pruning has on model performance. We demonstrate that small reference models can be used to prune the data of models with up to $30 \times$ more parameters, leading to both significant downstream performance improvements and increased training efficiency. We then investigate perplexity-based data pruning in two non-standard settings: the over-trained and data-constrained regimes. We find that for both settings, training on perplexity pruned data can outperform training on unpruned data, demonstrating that perplexity-based data pruning is a widely applicable and extensible technique. We also investigate upstream metrics for evaluating data pruning techniques and provide an example where evaluating models based on their perplexity on the test split of the pretraining dataset does not align with evaluating based on downstream model performance. Additionally, we demonstrate that optimal pruning techniques can vary greatly for different dataset compositions. Although we do not present a predictive theory for how pruning parameters should be selected for different datasets, we demonstrate that the optimal pruning parameters for a 1 billion parameter model can successfully transfer to 3 billion parameter models, potentially suggesting that empirically determining the optimal pruning parameters can be done cheaply. Our work takes a key step towards establishing perplexity-based data pruning as a primary technique in the modern data researcher's toolkit.

REFERENCES

- Aida Amini, Saadia Gabriel, Shanchuan Lin, Rik Koncel-Kedziorski, Yejin Choi, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. MathQA: Towards interpretable math word problem solving with operation-based formalisms. In Jill Burstein, Christy Doran, and Thamar Solorio (eds.), *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)*, pp. 2357–2367, Minneapolis, Minnesota, June 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/N19-1245. URL https://aclanthology.org/N19-1245.
- Jean-michel Attendu and Jean-philippe Corbeil. NLU on data diets: Dynamic data subset selection for NLP classification tasks. In Nafise Sadat Moosavi, Iryna Gurevych, Yufang Hou, Gyuwan Kim, Young Jin Kim, Tal Schuster, and Ameeta Agrawal (eds.), *Proceedings of The Fourth Workshop on Simple and Efficient Natural Language Processing (SustaiNLP)*, pp. 129–146, Toronto, Canada (Hybrid), July 2023. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2023.sustainlp-1. 9. URL https://aclanthology.org/2023.sustainlp-1.9.
- Amittai Axelrod. Cynical selection of language model training data. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1709.02279*, 2017.
- Fred Bane, Celia Soler Uguet, Wiktor Stribiżew, and Anna Zaretskaya. A comparison of data filtering methods for neural machine translation. In Janice Campbell, Stephen Larocca, Jay Marciano, Konstantin Savenkov, and Alex Yanishevsky (eds.), *Proceedings of the 15th Biennial Conference of the Association for Machine Translation in the Americas (Volume 2: Users and Providers Track and Government Track)*, pp. 313–325, Orlando, USA, September 2022. Association for Machine Translation in the Americas. URL https://aclanthology.org/2022.amta-upg.22.
- Yonatan Bisk, Rowan Zellers, Jianfeng Gao, Yejin Choi, et al. Piqa: Reasoning about physical commonsense in natural language. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 34, pp. 7432–7439, 2020.
- Rui Castro and Robert Nowak. Active learning and sampling. In *Foundations and Applications of Sensor Management*, pp. 177–200. Springer, 2008.
- Xiangning Chen, Chen Liang, Da Huang, Esteban Real, Kaiyuan Wang, Hieu Pham, Xuanyi Dong, Thang Luong, Cho-Jui Hsieh, Yifeng Lu, et al. Symbolic discovery of optimization algorithms. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024.
- Christopher Clark, Kenton Lee, Ming-Wei Chang, Tom Kwiatkowski, Michael Collins, and Kristina Toutanova. BoolQ: Exploring the surprising difficulty of natural yes/no questions. In Jill Burstein, Christy Doran, and Thamar Solorio (eds.), *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)*, pp. 2924–2936, Minneapolis, Minnesota, June 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/N19-1300. URL https://aclanthology.org/N19-1300.
- Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and Oyvind Tafjord. Think you have solved question answering? try arc, the ai2 reasoning challenge. *arXiv:1803.05457v1*, 2018.
- Cody Coleman, Christopher Yeh, Stephen Mussmann, Baharan Mirzasoleiman, Peter Bailis, Percy Liang, Jure Leskovec, and Matei Zaharia. Selection via proxy: Efficient data selection for deep learning. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2020. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=HJg2b0VYDr.
- Alex Fang, Albin Madappally Jose, Amit Jain, Ludwig Schmidt, Alexander T Toshev, and Vaishaal Shankar. Data filtering networks. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=KAk6ngZ09F.
- Yukun Feng, Patrick Xia, Benjamin Van Durme, and João Sedoc. Automatic document selection for efficient encoder pretraining. In Yoav Goldberg, Zornitsa Kozareva, and Yue Zhang (eds.), *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp.

9522–9530, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, December 2022. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2022.emnlp-main.647. URL https://aclanthology.org/2022.emnlp-main.647.

- Samir Yitzhak Gadre, Georgios Smyrnis, Vaishaal Shankar, Suchin Gururangan, Mitchell Wortsman, Rulin Shao, Jean Mercat, Alex Fang, Jeffrey Li, Sedrick Keh, et al. Language models scale reliably with over-training and on downstream tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.08540*, 2024.
- Leo Gao. An empirical exploration in quality filtering of text data, 2021.
- Leo Gao, Stella Biderman, Sid Black, Laurence Golding, Travis Hoppe, Charles Foster, Jason Phang, Horace He, Anish Thite, Noa Nabeshima, Shawn Presser, and Connor Leahy. The pile: An 800gb dataset of diverse text for language modeling, 2020.
- Sachin Goyal, Pratyush Maini, Zachary C Lipton, Aditi Raghunathan, and J Zico Kolter. Scaling laws for data filtering–data curation cannot be compute agnostic. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.07177*, 2024.
- Chengcheng Guo, Bo Zhao, and Yanbing Bai. Deepcore: A comprehensive library for coreset selection in deep learning. In *International Conference on Database and Expert Systems Applications*, pp. 181–195. Springer, 2022.
- Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. Measuring massive multitask language understanding. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2021. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=d7KBjmI3GmQ.
- Jordan Hoffmann, Sebastian Borgeaud, Arthur Mensch, Elena Buchatskaya, Trevor Cai, Eliza Rutherford, Diego de Las Casas, Lisa Anne Hendricks, Johannes Welbl, Aidan Clark, Thomas Hennigan, Eric Noland, Katherine Millican, George van den Driessche, Bogdan Damoc, Aurelia Guy, Simon Osindero, Karén Simonyan, Erich Elsen, Oriol Vinyals, Jack Rae, and Laurent Sifre. An empirical analysis of compute-optimal large language model training. In S. Koyejo, S. Mohamed, A. Agarwal, D. Belgrave, K. Cho, and A. Oh (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 35, pp. 30016–30030. Curran Associates, Inc., 2022. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2022/file/cle2faff6f588870935f114ebe04a3e5-Paper-Conference.pdf.
- Aditi Jha, Sam Havens, Jeremy Dohmann, Alexander Trott, and Jacob Portes. LIMIT: Less is more for instruction tuning across evaluation paradigms. In *NeurIPS 2023 Workshop on Instruction Tuning and Instruction Following*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=QxtL4Q1enz.
- Qiao Jin, Bhuwan Dhingra, Zhengping Liu, William Cohen, and Xinghua Lu. PubMedQA: A dataset for biomedical research question answering. In Kentaro Inui, Jing Jiang, Vincent Ng, and Xiaojun Wan (eds.), Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pp. 2567–2577, Hong Kong, China, November 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D19-1259. URL https://aclanthology.org/D19-1259.
- Yannis Kalantidis, Mert Bulent Sariyildiz, Noe Pion, Philippe Weinzaepfel, and Diane Larlus. Hard negative mixing for contrastive learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33: 21798–21809, 2020.
- Krishnateja Killamsetty, Sivasubramanian Durga, Ganesh Ramakrishnan, Abir De, and Rishabh Iyer. Grad-match: Gradient matching based data subset selection for efficient deep model training. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 5464–5474. PMLR, 2021.
- Tomasz Korbak, Kejian Shi, Angelica Chen, Rasika Vinayak Bhalerao, Christopher L. Buckley, Jason Phang, Samuel R. Bowman, and Ethan Perez. Pretraining language models with human preferences. In Andreas Krause, Emma Brunskill, Kyunghyun Cho, Barbara Engelhardt, Sivan Sabato, and Jonathan Scarlett (eds.), *International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 2023, 23-29 July 2023, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA*, volume 202 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 17506–17533. PMLR, 2023. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v202/korbak23a.html.

Hugo Laurençon, Lucile Saulnier, Thomas Wang, Christopher Akiki, Albert Villanova del Moral, Teven Le Scao, Leandro Von Werra, Chenghao Mou, Eduardo González Ponferrada, Huu Nguyen, Jörg Frohberg, Mario Šaško, Quentin Lhoest, Angelina McMillan-Major, Gérard Dupont, Stella Biderman, Anna Rogers, Loubna Ben allal, Francesco De Toni, Giada Pistilli, Olivier Nguyen, Somaieh Nikpoor, Maraim Masoud, Pierre Colombo, Javier de la Rosa, Paulo Villegas, Tristan Thrush, Shayne Longpre, Sebastian Nagel, Leon Weber, Manuel Romero Muñoz, Jian Zhu, Daniel Van Strien, Zaid Alyafeai, Khalid Almubarak, Vu Minh Chien, Itziar Gonzalez-Dios, Aitor Soroa, Kyle Lo, Manan Dey, Pedro Ortiz Suarez, Aaron Gokaslan, Shamik Bose, David Ifeoluwa Adelani, Long Phan, Hieu Tran, Ian Yu, Suhas Pai, Jenny Chim, Violette Lepercq, Suzana Ilic, Margaret Mitchell, Sasha Luccioni, and Yacine Jernite. The bigscience ROOTS corpus: A 1.6TB composite multilingual dataset. In *Thirty-sixth Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track*, 2022. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=UoEw6KigkUn.

- Hector Levesque, Ernest Davis, and Leora Morgenstern. The winograd schema challenge. In *Thirteenth International Conference on the Principles of Knowledge Representation and Reasoning*. Citeseer, 2012.
- Xian Li, Ping Yu, Chunting Zhou, Timo Schick, Luke Zettlemoyer, Omer Levy, Jason Weston, and Mike Lewis. Self-alignment with instruction backtranslation. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=10ijHJBRsT.
- Jian Liu, Leyang Cui, Hanmeng Liu, Dandan Huang, Yile Wang, and Yue Zhang. Logiqa: A challenge dataset for machine reading comprehension with logical reasoning. In Christian Bessiere (ed.), *Proceedings of the Twenty-Ninth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI 2020*, pp. 3622–3628. ijcai.org, 2020. doi: 10.24963/IJCAI.2020/501. URL https://doi.org/10.24963/ijcai.2020/501.
- Max Marion, Ahmet Üstün, Luiza Pozzobon, Alex Wang, Marzieh Fadaee, and Sara Hooker. When less is more: Investigating data pruning for pretraining LLMs at scale. In *NeurIPS Workshop on Attributing Model Behavior at Scale*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=XUIYn3jo5T.
- Dheeraj Mekala, Alex Nguyen, and Jingbo Shang. Smaller language models are capable of selecting instruction-tuning training data for larger language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.10430*, 2024.
- Todor Mihaylov, Peter Clark, Tushar Khot, and Ashish Sabharwal. Can a suit of armor conduct electricity? a new dataset for open book question answering. In *Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, 2018. URL https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:52183757.
- Sören Mindermann, Jan M Brauner, Muhammed T Razzak, Mrinank Sharma, Andreas Kirsch, Winnie Xu, Benedikt Höltgen, Aidan N Gomez, Adrien Morisot, Sebastian Farquhar, and Yarin Gal. Prioritized training on points that are learnable, worth learning, and not yet learnt. In Kamalika Chaudhuri, Stefanie Jegelka, Le Song, Csaba Szepesvari, Gang Niu, and Sivan Sabato (eds.), Proceedings of the 39th International Conference on Machine Learning, volume 162 of Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, pp. 15630–15649. PMLR, 17–23 Jul 2022. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v162/mindermann22a.html.
- Baharan Mirzasoleiman, Jeff Bilmes, and Jure Leskovec. Coresets for data-efficient training of machine learning models. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 6950–6960. PMLR, 2020.
- Robert C. Moore and William Lewis. Intelligent selection of language model training data. In Jan Hajič, Sandra Carberry, Stephen Clark, and Joakim Nivre (eds.), *Proceedings of the ACL 2010 Conference Short Papers*, pp. 220–224, Uppsala, Sweden, July 2010. Association for Computational Linguistics. URL https://aclanthology.org/P10-2041.
- MosaicML. Llm evaluation scores, 2023a. URL https://www.mosaicml.com/llm-evaluation.

- MosaicML. Llm foundry. https://github.com/mosaicml/llm-foundry, 2023b.
- MosaicML. Introducing mpt-7b: A new standard for open-source, commercially usable llms, 2023c. URL https://www.databricks.com/blog/mpt-7b.
 - Niklas Muennighoff, Alexander M Rush, Boaz Barak, Teven Le Scao, Nouamane Tazi, Aleksandra Piktus, Sampo Pyysalo, Thomas Wolf, and Colin Raffel. Scaling data-constrained language models. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=j5BuTrEj35.
 - OpenAI. Tiktoken: A fast bpe tokeniser for use with openai's models. https://github.com/openai/tiktoken, 2022.
 - Denis Paperno, Germán Kruszewski, Angeliki Lazaridou, Ngoc Quan Pham, Raffaella Bernardi, Sandro Pezzelle, Marco Baroni, Gemma Boleda, and Raquel Fernández. The LAMBADA dataset: Word prediction requiring a broad discourse context. In Katrin Erk and Noah A. Smith (eds.), *Proceedings of the 54th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 1525–1534, Berlin, Germany, August 2016. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/P16-1144. URL https://aclanthology.org/P16-1144.
 - Dongmin Park, Dimitris Papailiopoulos, and Kangwook Lee. Active learning is a strong baseline for data subset selection. In *Has it Trained Yet? NeurIPS 2022 Workshop*, 2022.
 - Dongmin Park, Seola Choi, Doyoung Kim, Hwanjun Song, and Jae-Gil Lee. Robust data pruning under label noise via maximizing re-labeling accuracy. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2311.01002, 2023.
 - Mansheej Paul, Surya Ganguli, and Gintare Karolina Dziugaite. Deep learning on a data diet: Finding important examples early in training. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34: 20596–20607, 2021.
 - Guilherme Penedo, Quentin Malartic, Daniel Hesslow, Ruxandra Cojocaru, Hamza Alobeidli, Alessandro Cappelli, Baptiste Pannier, Ebtesam Almazrouei, and Julien Launay. The refinedweb dataset for falcon LLM: Outperforming curated corpora with web data only. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=kM5eGcdCzq.
 - Jack W. Rae, Sebastian Borgeaud, Trevor Cai, Katie Millican, Jordan Hoffmann, Francis Song, John Aslanides, Sarah Henderson, Roman Ring, Susannah Young, Eliza Rutherford, Tom Hennigan, Jacob Menick, Albin Cassirer, Richard Powell, George van den Driessche, Lisa Anne Hendricks, Maribeth Rauh, Po-Sen Huang, Amelia Glaese, Johannes Welbl, Sumanth Dathathri, Saffron Huang, Jonathan Uesato, John Mellor, Irina Higgins, Antonia Creswell, Nat McAleese, Amy Wu, Erich Elsen, Siddhant Jayakumar, Elena Buchatskaya, David Budden, Esme Sutherland, Karen Simonyan, Michela Paganini, Laurent Sifre, Lena Martens, Xiang Lorraine Li, Adhiguna Kuncoro, Aida Nematzadeh, Elena Gribovskaya, Domenic Donato, Angeliki Lazaridou, Arthur Mensch, Jean-Baptiste Lespiau, Maria Tsimpoukelli, Nikolai Grigorev, Doug Fritz, Thibault Sottiaux, Mantas Pajarskas, Toby Pohlen, Zhitao Gong, Daniel Toyama, Cyprien de Masson d'Autume, Yujia Li, Tayfun Terzi, Vladimir Mikulik, Igor Babuschkin, Aidan Clark, Diego de Las Casas, Aurelia Guy, Chris Jones, James Bradbury, Matthew Johnson, Blake Hechtman, Laura Weidinger, Iason Gabriel, William Isaac, Ed Lockhart, Simon Osindero, Laura Rimell, Chris Dyer, Oriol Vinyals, Kareem Ayoub, Jeff Stanway, Lorrayne Bennett, Demis Hassabis, Koray Kavukcuoglu, and Geoffrey Irving. Scaling language models: Methods, analysis and insights from training gopher, 2022.
 - Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J. Liu. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 21(140):1–67, 2020. URL http://jmlr.org/papers/v21/20-074.html.
 - Pranav Rajpurkar, Jian Zhang, Konstantin Lopyrev, and Percy Liang. SQuAD: 100,000+ questions for machine comprehension of text. In Jian Su, Kevin Duh, and Xavier Carreras (eds.), *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 2383–2392, Austin, Texas, November 2016. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D16-1264. URL https://aclanthology.org/D16-1264.

703

704

705

706

708

710

711

712

713

714

715

716 717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724 725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

Joshua Robinson, Ching-Yao Chuang, Suvrit Sra, and Stefanie Jegelka. Contrastive learning with hard negative samples. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.04592*, 2020.

Melissa Roemmele, Cosmin Adrian Bejan, and Andrew S. Gordon. Choice of plausible alternatives: An evaluation of commonsense causal reasoning. In *Logical Formalizations of Commonsense Reasoning, Papers from the 2011 AAAI Spring Symposium, Technical Report SS-11-06, Stanford, California, USA, March 21-23, 2011.* AAAI, 2011. URL http://www.aaai.org/ocs/index.php/SSS/SSS11/paper/view/2418.

Keisuke Sakaguchi, Ronan Le Bras, Chandra Bhagavatula, and Yejin Choi. Winogrande: An adversarial winograd schema challenge at scale. In AAAI, pp. 8732-8740, 2020. URL https://aaai.org/ojs/index.php/AAAI/article/view/6399.

Christoph Schuhmann, Richard Vencu, Romain Beaumont, Robert Kaczmarczyk, Clayton Mullis, Aarush Katta, Theo Coombes, Jenia Jitsev, and Aran Komatsuzaki. Laion-400m: Open dataset of clip-filtered 400 million image-text pairs. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2111.02114*, 2021.

Luca Soldaini, Rodney Kinney, Akshita Bhagia, Dustin Schwenk, David Atkinson, Russell Authur, Ben Bogin, Khyathi Chandu, Jennifer Dumas, Yanai Elazar, Valentin Hofmann, Ananya Harsh Jha, Sachin Kumar, Li Lucy, Xinxi Lyu, Nathan Lambert, Ian Magnusson, Jacob Morrison, Niklas Muennighoff, Aakanksha Naik, Crystal Nam, Matthew E. Peters, Abhilasha Ravichander, Kyle Richardson, Zejiang Shen, Emma Strubell, Nishant Subramani, Oyvind Tafjord, Pete Walsh, Luke Zettlemoyer, Noah A. Smith, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Iz Beltagy, Dirk Groeneveld, Jesse Dodge, and Kyle Lo. Dolma: an Open Corpus of Three Trillion Tokens for Language Model Pretraining Research. *arXiv preprint*, 2024.

Aarohi Srivastava, Abhinav Rastogi, Abhishek Rao, Abu Awal Md Shoeb, Abubakar Abid, Adam Fisch, Adam R. Brown, Adam Santoro, Aditya Gupta, Adrià Garriga-Alonso, Agnieszka Kluska, Aitor Lewkowycz, Akshat Agarwal, Alethea Power, Alex Ray, Alex Warstadt, Alexander W. Kocurek, Ali Safaya, Ali Tazarv, Alice Xiang, Alicia Parrish, Allen Nie, Aman Hussain, Amanda Askell, Amanda Dsouza, Ambrose Slone, Ameet Rahane, Anantharaman S. Iyer, Anders Johan Andreassen, Andrea Madotto, Andrea Santilli, Andreas Stuhlmüller, Andrew M. Dai, Andrew La, Andrew Lampinen, Andy Zou, Angela Jiang, Angelica Chen, Anh Vuong, Animesh Gupta, Anna Gottardi, Antonio Norelli, Anu Venkatesh, Arash Gholamidavoodi, Arfa Tabassum, Arul Menezes, Arun Kirubarajan, Asher Mullokandov, Ashish Sabharwal, Austin Herrick, Avia Efrat, Aykut Erdem, Ayla Karakaş, B. Ryan Roberts, Bao Sheng Loe, Barret Zoph, Bartłomiej Bojanowski, Batuhan Özyurt, Behnam Hedayatnia, Behnam Neyshabur, Benjamin Inden, Benno Stein, Berk Ekmekci, Bill Yuchen Lin, Blake Howald, Bryan Orinion, Cameron Diao, Cameron Dour, Catherine Stinson, Cedrick Argueta, Cesar Ferri, Chandan Singh, Charles Rathkopf, Chenlin Meng, Chitta Baral, Chiyu Wu, Chris Callison-Burch, Christopher Waites, Christian Voigt, Christopher D Manning, Christopher Potts, Cindy Ramirez, Clara E. Rivera, Clemencia Siro, Colin Raffel, Courtney Ashcraft, Cristina Garbacea, Damien Sileo, Dan Garrette, Dan Hendrycks, Dan Kilman, Dan Roth, C. Daniel Freeman, Daniel Khashabi, Daniel Levy, Daniel Moseguí González, Danielle Perszyk, Danny Hernandez, Danqi Chen, Daphne Ippolito, Dar Gilboa, David Dohan, David Drakard, David Jurgens, Debajyoti Datta, Deep Ganguli, Denis Emelin, Denis Kleyko, Deniz Yuret, Derek Chen, Derek Tam, Dieuwke Hupkes, Diganta Misra, Dilyar Buzan, Dimitri Coelho Mollo, Diyi Yang, Dong-Ho Lee, Dylan Schrader, Ekaterina Shutova, Ekin Dogus Cubuk, Elad Segal, Eleanor Hagerman, Elizabeth Barnes, Elizabeth Donoway, Ellie Pavlick, Emanuele Rodolà, Emma Lam, Eric Chu, Eric Tang, Erkut Erdem, Ernie Chang, Ethan A Chi, Ethan Dyer, Ethan Jerzak, Ethan Kim, Eunice Engefu Manyasi, Evgenii Zheltonozhskii, Fanyue Xia, Fatemeh Siar, Fernando Martínez-Plumed, Francesca Happé, Francois Chollet, Frieda Rong, Gaurav Mishra, Genta Indra Winata, Gerard de Melo, Germán Kruszewski, Giambattista Parascandolo, Giorgio Mariani, Gloria Xinyue Wang, Gonzalo Jaimovitch-Lopez, Gregor Betz, Guy Gur-Ari, Hana Galijasevic, Hannah Kim, Hannah Rashkin, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Harsh Mehta, Hayden Bogar, Henry Francis Anthony Shevlin, Hinrich Schuetze, Hiromu Yakura, Hongming Zhang, Hugh Mee Wong, Ian Ng, Isaac Noble, Jaap Jumelet, Jack Geissinger, Jackson Kernion, Jacob Hilton, Jaehoon Lee, Jaime Fernández Fisac, James B Simon, James Koppel, James Zheng, James Zou, Jan Kocon, Jana Thompson, Janelle Wingfield, Jared Kaplan, Jarema Radom, Jascha Sohl-Dickstein, Jason Phang, Jason Wei, Jason Yosinski, Jekaterina Novikova, Jelle Bosscher, Jennifer Marsh, Jeremy Kim, Jeroen Taal, Jesse Engel, Jesujoba Alabi, Jiacheng Xu, Jiaming Song, Jillian Tang, Joan

758

759

760

761

762

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

793

794

796

798

799 800

801

802

803

804

805

806 807

808

Waweru, John Burden, John Miller, John U. Balis, Jonathan Batchelder, Jonathan Berant, Jörg Frohberg, Jos Rozen, Jose Hernandez-Orallo, Joseph Boudeman, Joseph Guerr, Joseph Jones, Joshua B. Tenenbaum, Joshua S. Rule, Joyce Chua, Kamil Kanclerz, Karen Livescu, Karl Krauth, Karthik Gopalakrishnan, Katerina Ignatyeva, Katja Markert, Kaustubh Dhole, Kevin Gimpel, Kevin Omondi, Kory Wallace Mathewson, Kristen Chiafullo, Ksenia Shkaruta, Kumar Shridhar, Kyle McDonell, Kyle Richardson, Laria Reynolds, Leo Gao, Li Zhang, Liam Dugan, Lianhui Qin, Lidia Contreras-Ochando, Louis-Philippe Morency, Luca Moschella, Lucas Lam, Lucy Noble, Ludwig Schmidt, Luheng He, Luis Oliveros-Colón, Luke Metz, Lütfi Kerem Senel, Maarten Bosma, Maarten Sap, Maartje Ter Hoeve, Maheen Farooqi, Manaal Faruqui, Mantas Mazeika, Marco Baturan, Marco Marelli, Marco Maru, Maria Jose Ramirez-Quintana, Marie Tolkiehn, Mario Giulianelli, Martha Lewis, Martin Potthast, Matthew L Leavitt, Matthias Hagen, Mátyás Schubert, Medina Orduna Baitemirova, Melody Arnaud, Melvin McElrath, Michael Andrew Yee, Michael Cohen, Michael Gu, Michael Ivanitskiy, Michael Starritt, Michael Strube, Michael Swędrowski, Michele Bevilacqua, Michihiro Yasunaga, Mihir Kale, Mike Cain, Mimee Xu, Mirac Suzgun, Mitch Walker, Mo Tiwari, Mohit Bansal, Moin Aminnaseri, Mor Geva, Mozhdeh Gheini, Mukund Varma T, Nanyun Peng, Nathan Andrew Chi, Nayeon Lee, Neta Gur-Ari Krakover, Nicholas Cameron, Nicholas Roberts, Nick Doiron, Nicole Martinez, Nikita Nangia, Niklas Deckers, Niklas Muennighoff, Nitish Shirish Keskar, Niveditha S. Iyer, Noah Constant, Noah Fiedel, Nuan Wen, Oliver Zhang, Omar Agha, Omar Elbaghdadi, Omer Levy, Owain Evans, Pablo Antonio Moreno Casares, Parth Doshi, Pascale Fung, Paul Pu Liang, Paul Vicol, Pegah Alipoormolabashi, Peiyuan Liao, Percy Liang, Peter W Chang, Peter Eckersley, Phu Mon Htut, Pinyu Hwang, Piotr Miłkowski, Piyush Patil, Pouya Pezeshkpour, Priti Oli, Qiaozhu Mei, Qing Lyu, Qinlang Chen, Rabin Banjade, Rachel Etta Rudolph, Raefer Gabriel, Rahel Habacker, Ramon Risco, Raphaël Millière, Rhythm Garg, Richard Barnes, Rif A. Saurous, Riku Arakawa, Robbe Raymaekers, Robert Frank, Rohan Sikand, Roman Novak, Roman Sitelew, Ronan Le Bras, Rosanne Liu, Rowan Jacobs, Rui Zhang, Russ Salakhutdinov, Ryan Andrew Chi, Seungjae Ryan Lee, Ryan Stovall, Ryan Teehan, Rylan Yang, Sahib Singh, Saif M. Mohammad, Sajant Anand, Sam Dillavou, Sam Shleifer, Sam Wiseman, Samuel Gruetter, Samuel R. Bowman, Samuel Stern Schoenholz, Sanghyun Han, Sanjeev Kwatra, Sarah A. Rous, Sarik Ghazarian, Sayan Ghosh, Sean Casey, Sebastian Bischoff, Sebastian Gehrmann, Sebastian Schuster, Sepideh Sadeghi, Shadi Hamdan, Sharon Zhou, Shashank Srivastava, Sherry Shi, Shikhar Singh, Shima Asaadi, Shixiang Shane Gu, Shubh Pachchigar, Shubham Toshniwal, Shyam Upadhyay, Shyamolima Shammie Debnath, Siamak Shakeri, Simon Thormeyer, Simone Melzi, Siva Reddy, Sneha Priscilla Makini, Soo-Hwan Lee, Spencer Torene, Sriharsha Hatwar, Stanislas Dehaene, Stefan Divic, Stefano Ermon, Stella Biderman, Stephanie Lin, Stephen Prasad, Steven Piantadosi, Stuart Shieber, Summer Misherghi, Svetlana Kiritchenko, Swaroop Mishra, Tal Linzen, Tal Schuster, Tao Li, Tao Yu, Tariq Ali, Tatsunori Hashimoto, Te-Lin Wu, Théo Desbordes, Theodore Rothschild, Thomas Phan, Tianle Wang, Tiberius Nkinyili, Timo Schick, Timofei Kornev, Titus Tunduny, Tobias Gerstenberg, Trenton Chang, Trishala Neeraj, Tushar Khot, Tyler Shultz, Uri Shaham, Vedant Misra, Vera Demberg, Victoria Nyamai, Vikas Raunak, Vinay Venkatesh Ramasesh, vinay uday prabhu, Vishakh Padmakumar, Vivek Srikumar, William Fedus, William Saunders, William Zhang, Wout Vossen, Xiang Ren, Xiaoyu Tong, Xinran Zhao, Xinyi Wu, Xudong Shen, Yadollah Yaghoobzadeh, Yair Lakretz, Yangqiu Song, Yasaman Bahri, Yejin Choi, Yichi Yang, Yiding Hao, Yifu Chen, Yonatan Belinkov, Yu Hou, Yufang Hou, Yuntao Bai, Zachary Seid, Zhuoye Zhao, Zijian Wang, Zijie J. Wang, Zirui Wang, and Ziyi Wu. Beyond the imitation game: Quantifying and extrapolating the capabilities of language models. Transactions on Machine Learning Research, 2023. ISSN 2835-8856. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=uyTL5Bvosj.

Swabha Swayamdipta, Roy Schwartz, Nicholas Lourie, Yizhong Wang, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Noah A. Smith, and Yejin Choi. Dataset cartography: Mapping and diagnosing datasets with training dynamics. In Bonnie Webber, Trevor Cohn, Yulan He, and Yang Liu (eds.), *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, pp. 9275–9293, Online, November 2020. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2020. emnlp-main.746. URL https://aclanthology.org/2020.emnlp-main.746.

Kushal Tirumala, Daniel Simig, Armen Aghajanyan, and Ari S. Morcos. D4: Improving LLM pretraining via document de-duplication and diversification. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=CG0L2PFrb1.

Mariya Toneva, Alessandro Sordoni, Remi Tachet des Combes, Adam Trischler, Yoshua Bengio, and Geoffrey J Gordon. An empirical study of example forgetting during deep neural network learning. arXiv preprint arXiv:1812.05159, 2018.

Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurelien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models, 2023.

Trieu H. Trinh and Quoc V. Le. A simple method for commonsense reasoning, 2019.

Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Ł ukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In I. Guyon, U. Von Luxburg, S. Bengio, H. Wallach, R. Fergus, S. Vishwanathan, and R. Garnett (eds.), Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 30. Curran Associates, Inc., 2017. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2017/file/3f5ee243547dee91fbd053c1c4a845aa-Paper.pdf.

Guillaume Wenzek, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Alexis Conneau, Vishrav Chaudhary, Francisco Guzmán, Armand Joulin, and Edouard Grave. CCNet: Extracting high quality monolingual datasets from web crawl data. In Nicoletta Calzolari, Frédéric Béchet, Philippe Blache, Khalid Choukri, Christopher Cieri, Thierry Declerck, Sara Goggi, Hitoshi Isahara, Bente Maegaard, Joseph Mariani, Hélène Mazo, Asuncion Moreno, Jan Odijk, and Stelios Piperidis (eds.), *Proceedings of the Twelfth Language Resources and Evaluation Conference*, pp. 4003–4012, Marseille, France, May 2020. European Language Resources Association. ISBN 979-10-95546-34-4. URL https://aclanthology.org/2020.lrec-1.494.

Thom Wolfe, Lewis Tunstall, and Patrick von Platen. Jeopardy dataset on hugging face hub. https://huggingface.co/datasets/jeopardy, 2022.

Sang Michael Xie, Hieu Pham, Xuanyi Dong, Nan Du, Hanxiao Liu, Yifeng Lu, Percy Liang, Quoc V Le, Tengyu Ma, and Adams Wei Yu. Doremi: Optimizing data mixtures speeds up language model pretraining. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2023a. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=1XuByUeHhd.

Sang Michael Xie, Shibani Santurkar, Tengyu Ma, and Percy Liang. Data selection for language models via importance resampling. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2023b. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=uPSQv0leAu.

Rowan Zellers, Ari Holtzman, Yonatan Bisk, Ali Farhadi, and Yejin Choi. Hellaswag: Can a machine really finish your sentence? In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 2019.

Wenzheng Zhang and Karl Stratos. Understanding hard negatives in noise contrastive estimation. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2104.06245, 2021.

7 Full Data Pruning Settings Sweep

In this section, we report the results of sweeping over different perplexity-based pruning setting configurations. In particular, for each dataset, we first sweep over the selection criteria to determine where from the distribution of perplexities samples should be selected. Then, using the best selection criteria, we sweep the selection rate to determine how much we should prune.

Setup. We use the same training and evaluation setup as detailed in Section 3.1. We only perform the sweep over pruning settings for 1 billion parameter final models for computational budget reasons; however, we find that the best selection criteria at the 1 billion parameter scale also confers a performance improvement at the 3 billion parameter scale, as detailed in 3.2.

Table 4: Results from sweeping different selection criteria. We report the average normalized accuracy for each task grouping as well as across all tasks. While high perplexity selection is optimal for the Pile, medium perplexity selection is optimal for Dolma. Bold results are within one standard error of the highest normalized accuracy.

Pruning Method	World Knowl- edge	Common Sense Reason- ing	Language Under- stand- ing	Symbolic Prob- lem Solving	Reading Com- prehen- sion	Average
1B Parameters Trained on Pile						
No Pruning (Baseline)	15.51	10.31	28.11	3.53	11.16	13.73
Low Perplexity Selected	11.14	5.76	18.66	3.54	8.72	9.56
Medium Perplexity Selected	16.12	9.01	28.1	3.41	10.86	13.5
High Perplexity Selected	18.18	12.75	33.2	3.36	10.63	15.62
1B Parameters Trained on Dolma						
No Pruning (Baseline)	16.48	12.32	28.86	3.58	7.95	13.84
Low Perplexity Selected	16.13	10.1	27.28	3.45	7.85	12.96
Medium Perplexity Selected	17.98	13.03	31.87	3.44	10.41	15.35
High Perplexity Selected	16.65	13.12	31.14	3.15	8.55	14.52

Table 5: Results from sweeping different selection rates. We report the average normalized accuracy for each task grouping as well as across all tasks. Bold results are within one standard error of the highest normalized accuracy.

Pruning Method	World Knowl- edge	Common Sense Reason- ing	Language Under- stand- ing	Symbolic Prob- lem Solving	Reading Com- prehen- sion	Average
1B Parameters Trained on Pile 25% Selection Rate 50% Selection Rate 75% Selection Rate	18.21 18.18 17.08	12.88 12.75 10.11	34.44 33.2 31.37	3.73 3.36 3.81	9.44 10.63 9.02	15.74 15.62 14.28
1B Parameters Trained on Dolma 25% Selection Rate 50% Selection Rate 75% Selection Rate	17.94 17.98 18.2	12.16 13.03 11.78	31.63 31.87 29.96	3.58 3.44 3.32	8.91 10.41 10.82	14.85 15.35 14.82

7.1 FINDING THE BEST SELECTION CRITERIA

For each dataset, we first sweep the selection criteria while keeping the selection rate fixed at 50%. We report the performance of each selection criteria in Table 4. We find that on the Pile high perplexity selection works the best and on Dolma medium perplexity selection works the best, improving the average downstream performance by 1.89 and 1.51 respectively. An important observation from the sweep is that the best selection criteria from one dataset does not transfer to another dataset and may actually degrade performance compared to the baseline. Although medium-perplexity selection is the best method on Dolma, selecting medium-perplexity samples on the Pile leads to a decrease in the average downstream performance of 0.23 as compared to not performing pruning. These results inform us that high and medium perplexity selection are the optimal selection criteria for the Pile and Dolma respectively, and that the optimal selection criteria does not necessarily transfer between datasets with different domain compositions.

7.2 FINDING THE BEST SELECTION RATE

Using the optimal selection criteria that we found for each dataset, we next investigate the best selection rate for each dataset. We investigate three different selection rates: 25%, 50%, and 75%. We present the results for each selection rate in Table 5. On the Pile, we find that there is no significant difference in downstream performance for selection rates of 25% and 50%; on Dolma we find that a selection rate of 50% achieves the best average downstream performance. For simplicity, we chose to conduct the rest of the experiments in the paper using a selection rate of 50% on both datasets. Furthermore, we find that all the selection rates tested outperform the baseline of no data pruning as measured by average downstream performance. This suggests that the selection criteria has a greater impact on the performance of a pruning configuration than the selection rate.

8 DETAILED EVALUATION SETUP

Jha et al. (2023) also use the MosaicML evaluation gauntlet to perform evaluations in their work. As such, with explicit permission from the authors, we exactly reproduce their text describing the tasks and tasks categories in the evaluation gauntlet. The following is from Section D of their paper:

The World Knowledge category includes the following datasets:

- Jeopardy (2,117 questions that are a custom subset of the dataset originally obtained from Wolfe et al. (2022))
- MMLU (14,042 four-choice multiple choice questions distributed across 57 categories Hendrycks et al. (2021)
- BIG-bench wikidata (20,321 questions regarding factual information pulled from wikipedia) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- ARC easy (2,376 easy multiple choice middle school science questions) Clark et al. (2018)
- ARC challenge (1,172 hard multiple choice science questions) Clark et al. (2018)
- BIG-bench: misconceptions (219 true or false questions regarding common misconceptions) Srivastava et al. (2023)

The **Commonsense Reasoning** category loosely assesses a model's ability to do basic reasoning tasks that require commonsense knowledge of objects, their properties, and their behavior. It includes the following datasets:

- BIG-bench Strategy QA (2,289 very eclectic yes/no questions on a wide range of commonsense subjects e.g "Can fish get Tonsilitis?")Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench Strange Stories (174 short stories followed by questions about the characters)Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench Novel Concepts (32 find-the-common-concept problems)Srivastava et al. (2023)
- COPA (100 cause/effect multiple choice questions) Roemmele et al. (2011)
- PIQA (1,838 commonsense physical intuition 2-choice questions) Bisk et al. (2020)
- OpenBook QA (500 questions that rely on basic physical and scientific intuition about common objects and entities) Mihaylov et al. (2018).

Language Understanding tasks evaluate the model's ability to understand the structure and properties of languages, and include the following datasets:

- LAMBADA (6,153 passages take from books we use the formatting adopted by OpenAI's version)Paperno et al. (2016)
- HellaSwag (10,042 multiple choice scenarios in which the model is prompted with a scenario and choose the most likely conclusion to the scenario from four possible options)Zellers et al. (2019)
- Winograd Schema Challenge (273 scenarios in which the model must use semantics to correctly resolve the anaphora in a sentence. The Eval Gauntlet uses the partial evaluation technique technique introduced in Trinh & Le (2019)) Levesque et al. (2012)

- Winogrande (1,267 scenarios in which two possible beginnings of a sentence are presented along with a single ending) Sakaguchi et al. (2020)
- BIG-bench language identification (10,000 questions on multiple choice language identification) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench conceptual combinations (103 questions using made up words) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench conlang translation (164 example problems in which the model is given translations of simple sentences between English and some fake constructed language) Srivastava et al. (2023)

Symbolic problem solving tasks test the model's ability to solve a diverse range of symbolic tasks including arithmetic, logical reasoning, algorithms, and algebra. These datasets include:

- BIG-bench elementary math QA (38,160 four-choice multiple choice arithmetic word problems) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench dyck languages (1000 complete-the-sequence questions) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench algorithms (1,320 questions) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench logical deduction (1500 four-choice multiple choice questions relating to relative ordering of objects) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench operators (210 questions involving mathematical operators) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- BIG-bench repeat copy logic (32 samples in which the model is required to follow some instructions for copying words/symbols)
- Simple arithmetic with spaces (1000 arithmetic problems consisting of up to 3 operations and using numbers of up to 3 digits, developed by MosaicML)
- Simple arithmetic without spaces (1000 arithmetic problems consisting of up to 3 operations and using numbers of up to 3 digits, developed by MosaicML)
- Math QA (2,983 four-choice multiple choice math word problems) Amini et al. (2019)
- LogiQA (651 four-logical word problems) Liu et al. (2020)

The **Reading comprehension** benchmarks test a model's ability to answer questions based on the information in a passage of text. The datasets include:

- BIG-bench Understanding fables (189 short stories) Srivastava et al. (2023)
- Pubmed QA Labeled (1000 hand-labeled medical documents followed by a related question for which the model must respond yes/no/maybe) Jin et al. (2019)
- SQuAD (10,570 short documents followed by a related question. The model is expected to output the exact correct answer) Rajpurkar et al. (2016)
- BoolQ (3,270 short passages on a diverse range of subjects followed by a yes/no questions) Clark et al. (2019)

8.1 EVALUATION PROCEDURE

To compute model performance on the above datasets, the Eval Gauntlet uses one of the following three ICL metrics for each dataset (from MosaicML's composer library).

- 1. InContextLearningQAAccuracy: This metric uses the query, the corresponding correct answer and a list of alternative answers to measure a model's prediction. If the model's response conditioned on the query starts with either the correct answer or with one of the alternative answers, it is considered correct. This is used for question-answering tasks such as TriviaQA.
- 2. InContextLearningLMAccuracy: This metric tests a model's ability to output a precise set of tokens. A model's output conditioned on a given query is judged to be correct only if the model's highest probability tokens match the correct sequence of tokens. This is used for language modeling tasks such as LAMBADA.

3. InContextLearningMultipleChoiceAccuracy: This metric is used for testing a model's ability to answer multiple choice questions accurately. It compares the respective perplexity of the query prepended to each of the possible choices, according to the model. If the query-choice pair with the lowest per token perplexity is indeed the correct choice, then the model's output is judged to be correct. This is used for multiple choice tasks such as HellaSwag, Winograd etc.