### **000 001 002 003** ALIGNING LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS VIA SELF-STEERING OPTIMIZATION

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

## ABSTRACT

Automated alignment develops alignment systems with minimal human intervention. The key to automated alignment lies in providing learnable and accurate preference signals for preference learning without human annotation. In this paper, we introduce Self-Steering Optimization (SSO), an algorithm that autonomously generates high-quality preference signals based on predefined principles during iterative training, eliminating the need for manual annotation. SSO maintains the accuracy of signals by ensuring a consistent gap between chosen and rejected responses while keeping them both on-policy to suit the current policy model's learning capacity. SSO can benefit the online and offline training of the policy model, as well as enhance the training of reward models. We validate the effectiveness of SSO with two foundation models, Qwen2 and Llama3.1, indicating that it provides accurate, on-policy preference signals throughout iterative training. Without any manual annotation or external models, SSO leads to significant performance improvements across six subjective or objective benchmarks. Besides, the preference data generated by SSO significantly enhanced the performance of the reward model on Rewardbench. Our work presents a scalable approach to preference optimization, paving the way for more efficient and effective automated alignment.

## <span id="page-0-0"></span>§ [github.com/anonymous-link](https://anonymous.4open.science/r/MYSSO-0B07)

## 1 INTRODUCTION



(a) Online Training on Llama3.1- 8B. (Iteration 3) (b) Offline Training on Llama3.1- 8B. (c) RM Training on Llama3.1-8B-Instruct.

**046 047 048 049** Figure 1: Results of SSO in Online, Offline, and RM Training. Detailed results will be presented in Section [3.2.](#page-4-0) In these figures, *SFT* indicates Llama3.1-8B-SFT, which we trained from Llama3.1-8B. Instruct indicates Llama3.1-8B-Instruct. Skywork is the dataset leading to the SOTA reward model for RewardBench.

**050**

**051 052 053** The field of Natural Language Processing has undergone revolutionary advancements driven by Large Language Models (LLMs). After meticulous alignment processes, LLMs have demonstrated remarkable capabilities for following instructions and understanding human preferences. This leads to the development of widely acclaimed products like ChatGPT [\(OpenAI, 2023\)](#page-11-0), which captured



**074 075 076 077 078 079 080** Figure 2: The philosophical motivation of our methods. Greater overlap on the x-axis (performance) between the generated distributions (red and blue) and the original distribution (orange) indicates stronger on-policy behavior. Previous automated methods extract chosen and rejected distributions through different methods, which may be less learnable for the policy model and hard to distinguish after iterative training. Our approach (SSO) optimizes models to generate near-on-policy signals where there remains a gap between chosen and rejected distributions, which benefits the automated alignment process.

**081 082 083 084 085 086 087 088 089 090** significant public attention. However, aligning LLMs with human preferences is not trivial. Despite the existence of preference optimization algorithms such as Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [\(Ouyang et al., 2022\)](#page-11-1) and Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) [\(Rafailov et al., 2023\)](#page-11-2), an ideal alignment training process necessitates a robust explicit or implicit reward model. This model must effectively differentiate between chosen and rejected responses and guide it to optimizing toward the preferred responses. Unfortunately, the reward model depends on a large amount of high-quality annotated preference data and continuous updates of labeled response pairs to prevent reward hacking, which is resource-intensive and requires meticulous attention. Besides, the limited capabilities of human annotators cause the inherent limitations of annotated data, making it challenging to achieve *superalignment* [\(Burns et al., 2023\)](#page-9-0).

- **091 092 093 094 095 096 097 098 099 100 101 102 103** Consequently, recent researchers have shifted their focus towards automated alignment, intending to develop scalable, high-quality alignment systems with minimal human intervention. The cornerstone of this approach is the pursuit of scalable alignment signals that are capable of replacing human-annotated preference signals effectively. Current popular strategies include: (1) Employing the policy model to discriminate chosen and rejected responses [\(Yuan et al., 2024\)](#page-12-0). However, hampered by the model's inherent limitations, this judging capability is constrained and challenging to improve, often resulting in reward hacking and inaccurate reward signals [\(Wu et al., 2024\)](#page-12-1). (2) Directly generating chosen and rejected responses based on predefined principles, rules, or re-quests [\(Yang et al., 2024b;](#page-12-2) [Bai et al., 2022b;](#page-9-1) Fränken et al., 2024; [Kumar et al., 2024\)](#page-10-1). However, as illustrated in figure [1,](#page-0-0) incorporating additional inputs or processes may lead to off-policy and unsuitable outputs, blurring the accuracy of preference signals and ultimately diminishing the effectiveness of the optimization. We then recognized the need for a novel approach to generate accurate, learnable, and on-policy preference signals to address these limitations and advance automated alignment.
- **104 105 106 107** In this paper, we introduce Self-Steering Optimization  $(SSO)$ , a pioneering method that continuously generates automated, accurate, and learnable preference signals for the policy model. The design philosophies of Self-Steering Optimization emphasize that the chosen and rejected responses, along with their associated signals, should primarily be on-policy, in other words, able to extract directly from the policy model to suit the policy model's learning capacity. Besides, the accuracy of

**108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116** the synthetic signals should progressively increase or at least maintain a high level as the model undergoes training. To implement these philosophies, SSO first prompts the policy model with the original query and a set of contrastive principles for responses. We then optimize the model based on three key objectives: a) Steer the model towards the direction of the chosen responses, which are collected by prompting the policy model with queries and good principles. b) Ensure responses are approximately on-policy, allowing the model to sample them even without additional principles. c) Maintain a consistent gap between the chosen and rejected responses. To summarize, as the policy model strengthens, it should become increasingly adept at generating accurate and near-on-policy response pairs based on different principles, thereby enabling further optimization of the model.

**117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125** We demonstrate the effectiveness of Self-Steering Optimization on Qwen2 [\(Yang et al., 2024a\)](#page-12-3) and Llama3.1 [\(Llama Team, 2024\)](#page-11-3) backbones. Our experiments reveal SSO's ability to generate accurate and learnable automated signals throughout training. As a result, continuous improvements are observed across a wide range of objective benchmarks such as GPQA [\(Rein et al., 2023\)](#page-11-4), MATH [\(Hendrycks et al., 2021\)](#page-10-2), MMLU Pro [\(Wang et al., 2024b\)](#page-11-5), and GSM8K [\(Cobbe et al.,](#page-9-2) [2021\)](#page-9-2), as well as subjective evaluation sets like MT-Bench [\(Zheng et al., 2024b\)](#page-12-4) and AlpacaEval 2.0 [\(Dubois et al., 2024\)](#page-10-3). Remarkably, these improvements are achieved without any human annotation or external models. SSO even outperforms baselines with annotated data [\(Cui et al., 2024\)](#page-9-3), underscoring its potential as a scalable and efficient approach.

**126 127 128 129** In addition, we obtained an offline dataset by filtering the preference data generated during the main experiments, the specific method is available in Appendix [A.1.4.](#page-14-0) To verify the effectiveness of this dataset, we conducted validation through offline training and reward model training, which also achieved satisfying results.

# 2 SELF-STEERING OPTIMIZATION

In this section, we explain the motivation and design of Self-Steering Optimization. SSO follows a modified principle-based automated alignment paradigm [\(Yang et al., 2024b;](#page-12-2) Fränken et al., 2024) and a new optimization strategy to generate learnable and accurate signals.



**146 147 148**

> Figure 3: Our approach consists of two iterative steps: 1) Constructing contrastive prompts and sampling responses. Given a query, the policy model first identifies the most relevant features and principles to the query. We then construct a pair of contrastive prompts based on these principles and sample corresponding responses. These responses are then used to form three preference pairs for alignment. 2) Training the model with a weighted objective incorporating three distinct losses.

## 2.1 PREVIOUS METHODS

**157 158 159 160 161** While some works focus on the self-reward or self-correct method, attempting to improve the model's judgment or correcting capabilities during alignment [\(Wu et al., 2024;](#page-12-1) [Yuan et al., 2024;](#page-12-0) [Ye & Ng, 2024;](#page-12-5) [Wang et al., 2024a;](#page-11-6) [Kumar et al., 2024\)](#page-10-1), we focus on **principle-based automated** alignment (PBAA) [\(Yang et al., 2024b;](#page-12-2) Fränken et al., 2024). This simpler paradigm generates accurate preference data as the contrastive principles possess distinctly opposite attributes (e.g., harmful vs. harmless). Besides, compared to self-reward and self-correct, it samples fewer responses, **162 163 164 165 166 167 168 169** leading to a lower cost. However, previous principle-based methods suffer from several limitations. Firstly, during iterative training, it is gradually harder to generate chosen and rejected responses with enough quality gaps. This results in lower signal accuracy, diminishing benefit, and even collapse of alignment [\(Lee et al., 2024b;](#page-10-4) [Yu et al., 2024\)](#page-12-6), particularly pronounced in small models. Secondly, although all responses are sampled from the policy model, they may not fully align with the original instruction. Additional inputs, such as principles, could lead to insufficient on-policy and learnable responses, which have been noted to be important in many previous studies [Tajwar et al.](#page-11-7) [\(2024\)](#page-11-7). In this paper, we propose Self-Steering Optimization to address these limitations.

#### **171** 2.2 SELF-STEERING OPTIMIZATION

**170**

**172**

**187 188**

**197 198**

**206 207 208**

**211 212**

**173 174 175** As mentioned in the last section, Self-Steering Optimization aims to enhance the learnability and accuracy of the generated preference data. Given principles  $p^+$  and  $p^-$  combined with the original instruction x for chosen response  $y^+$  and rejected response  $y^-$ , we propose SSO as:

<span id="page-3-0"></span>
$$
\mathcal{L}_{SSO} = \underbrace{\mathcal{W}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}^+, \mathbf{y}^-)}_{\text{weight function for learn-}} \left[ \underbrace{\theta \cdot \mathcal{G}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}^+, \mathbf{p}^-, \mathbf{y}^+, \mathbf{y}^-)}_{\text{self-steering loss for accurate signal}} + \underbrace{\mathcal{L}_{base}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}^+, \mathbf{y}^-)}_{\text{base loss for optimizing model}} \right]
$$
(1)

**181 182 183 184 185 186** where G is the self-steering loss that controls the quality gap between  $y^+$  and  $y^-$ ,  $\theta$  is a parameter controls the weight of  $G$ . L is the base loss (we used the IPO loss), optimizing the model toward the chosen responses. Inspired by WPO [\(Zhou et al., 2024\)](#page-12-7), we control the on-policy behavior through a weight function  $W$ . It is important to note that while WPO aims to approximate on-policy effects by re-weighting existing data, our goal is to directly generate near-on-policy data. Therefore, unlike WPO, we did not detach W.

### 2.3 DESIGN OF SELF-STEERING LOSS  $\mathcal G$

**189 190 191 192** As mentioned in formula [1,](#page-3-0) we add  $\mathcal G$  for accurate signals. Therefore, given three responses sampled from the policy model: the original response  $y^{\circ}$  for x,  $y^{+}$  for  $x^{+}$ , and  $y^{-}$  for  $x^{-}$ , SSO have the following expectations:

#### **193 194** Expectation 1:  $y^o$ ,  $y^+$ , and  $y^-$  should all possess high quality under their corresponding instructions (i.e.,  $x, x^+$ , and  $x^-$ ).

**195 196** A natural approach is to construct the loss by using  $x^+$  and  $x^-$  as instructions, with their corresponding responses as positive responses:

$$
\mathcal{G} = L_{base}(\mathbf{x}^+, \mathbf{y}^+, \mathbf{y}^-) + L_{base}(\mathbf{x}^-, \mathbf{y}^-, \mathbf{y}^+) \tag{2}
$$

**199 200** However, this design introduces a backdoor problem: with carefully crafted prompts, it becomes easy to manipulate LLMs to unpredictable results such as poison text.

#### **201** Expectation 2:  $y^-$  should try to approximate  $y^o$  while still satisfying  $x^{\perp}$ .

**202 203 204 205** This goal is crucial, as we want to prevent the model from using  $p^-$  as a backdoor. Therefore, we consider adjusting  $L_{base}(x^-, y^-, y^{\hat{+}})$  by using  $y^o$  as the positive response. Therefore, the final form of  $\mathcal G$  is:

$$
\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{L}_{base}(\mathbf{x}^+, \mathbf{y}^+, \mathbf{y}^-) + \mathcal{L}_{base}(\mathbf{x}^-, \mathbf{y}^o, \mathbf{y}^+) \tag{3}
$$

2.4 DESIGN OF WEIGHT FUNCTION W

**209 210** We also designed a  $W$  for learnable signals. Instead of more complex  $W$  functions, we apply a simple format that utilizes the average log probabilities of  $y^+$  and  $y^-$ , denoted as  $\tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ :

<span id="page-3-1"></span>
$$
\tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\log \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}{|\mathbf{y}|}
$$
(4)

**213** larger  $\tilde{\pi}$  indicating better on-policy behaviors. We then set W as:

$$
\mathcal{W}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}^+, \mathbf{y}^-) = \text{Sigmoid}\left(-\left(\alpha \cdot \tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}^+|\mathbf{x}) + (1-\alpha)\tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}^-|\mathbf{x})\right)\right) \tag{5}
$$

<span id="page-3-2"></span>Here,  $\alpha$  is a hyperparameter. Unless specified, we set it to 0.66.

#### **216 217** 3 EXPERIMENTS

<span id="page-4-1"></span>**220**

**228**

**218 219** In this section, we first introduce the experimental setup in section [3.1.](#page-4-1) Then, we present the main results in section [3.2,](#page-4-0) which includes the results on the sft and aligned models.

### **221** 3.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

**222 223 224 225 226 227** Base Models We primarily conducted experiments on Qwen2-7B [\(Yang et al., 2024a\)](#page-12-3) and Llama3.1-8B [\(Llama Team, 2024\)](#page-11-3). We trained Llama3.1-8B and Qwen2-7B on UltraChat [\(Ding](#page-10-5) [et al., 2023\)](#page-10-5) for three epochs. Qwen2-7B-instruct and Llama3.1-8B-instruct are the official aligned versions of Qwen2 and Llama3.1. Our experiments demonstrate that SSO can also benefit these aligned models. Besides, we also used a stronger SFT model of Llama3.1-8B trained on Infinity Instruct [\(BAAI, 2024\)](#page-9-4) for some exploratory experiments.  $<sup>1</sup>$  $<sup>1</sup>$  $<sup>1</sup>$ </sup>

**229 230 231 232 233** Datasets For datasets, apart from applying UltraChat to train SFT models, most of our experiments are based on UltraFeedback [\(Cui et al., 2024\)](#page-9-3). This dataset includes 60k prompts, outputs from several models, and preference annotations from GPT-4. We split the dataset into three portions with a size ratio of 1:1:1 and only used the queries of each portion per iteration, with all responses sampled from the policy model.

**234 235 236 237 238 239 240** Training Setting We chose IPO [\(Azar et al., 2023\)](#page-9-5) as the basic loss in most experiments and used a batch size of 128 to prevent overfitting. We applied a simple hyperparameter search to determine the learning rate and  $\beta$  parameter in IPO. We fine-tuned Qwen2-7B and Llama3.1-8B with a learning rate of 2E-5. For alignment training, the learning rate was 5E-7, and  $\beta$  was 0.2. The  $\alpha$  in the W function was 0.66, and the weight of the G function was 0.1 as default. We employed generation parameters of top-p=0.8, temperature=0.7, and max new tokens=2048 for sampling responses. The training scripts were based on LlamaFactory[\(Zheng et al., 2024c\)](#page-12-8).

**241 242 243 244 245 246 247 248 249** Evaluation We evaluated the model performance on two widely used subjective evaluation benchmarks: MT-Bench [\(Zheng et al., 2024b\)](#page-12-4) and AlpacaEval 2.0 [\(Dubois et al., 2024\)](#page-10-3). MT-Bench comprises 80 questions with answers scored by GPT-4. AlpacaEval 2.0 includes 805 questions, where the judge model compares answers to its reference responses. Notably, we employ the more advanced GPT-4o as the judging model and GPT-4 as the baseline in AlpacaEval for a lower cost. Additionally, we evaluated models on a series of objective benchmarks: MATH [\(Hendrycks](#page-10-2) [et al., 2021\)](#page-10-2), GSM8K [\(Cobbe et al., 2021\)](#page-9-2), MMLU Pro [\(Wang et al., 2024b\)](#page-11-5) and GPQA [\(Rein et al.,](#page-11-4) [2023\)](#page-11-4). These objective benchmarks cover various aspects, comprehensively assessing the model capabilities.

**250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 258 259** Data Generation We generated preference data based on principle-based automated alignment (PBAA) [\(Yang et al., 2024b;](#page-12-2) Fränken et al., 2024) paradigm. This simple paradigm assumes that responses with varying quality can be extracted from LLMs through contrastive prompts. These methods manually construct a set of principles and build contrastive prompts for contrastive response pairs used as the training data. We modified this paradigm for better iterative training. Specifically, we defined seven preference features: Safety, Logicality, Concise, etc. To ensure these principles are relevant to the query, we first determined the most crucial features to reply to the query and then randomly selected one of these features and corresponding principles to construct prompts. Subsequently, we utilized these prompts to instruct the policy model for responses and construct preference data. The used principles and templates are provided in Appendix [A.3.1](#page-15-0) and [A.3.2.](#page-19-0)

<span id="page-4-0"></span>3.2 MAIN RESULTS

**260 261 262**

3.2.1 HOW SSO PERFORMS IN ITERATIVE ONLINE TRAINING

**263 264 265 266 267 268 269** Results on SFT Models This part compares the performance of SSO against modified principlebased alignment on SFT models. Table [1](#page-5-0) demonstrates that SSO achieved outstanding results on MT-Bench and AlpacaEval 2.0. Compared to the SFT model, SSO showed an average improvement of nearly 8% on AlpacaEval 2.0 and 0.5 points on MT-Bench. In contrast, while the baseline initially showed improvements, they failed to sustain this progress. SSO also showed benefits on objective benchmarks, especially in mathematical reasoning tasks. These benefits may attributed

<span id="page-4-2"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>You can also find additional experiments conducted on Llama3-8B in Appendix [A.1.](#page-13-0)

Iter	Len	AE2 MT		<b>GPOA</b>	MMLU Pro		MATH GSM8K	Len	AE2 MT		<b>GPOA</b>	MMLU Pro		MATH GSM8K
				Llama3.1-SFT							Owen2-SFT			
	967	6.4	6.69	32.3	37.6	20.6	62.9	841	12.1	7.42	33.8	42.5	44.7	78.7
		UltraFeedback $+$ IPO												
Iter1 Iter <sub>2</sub> Iter <sub>3</sub>	935 1025 1185	9.9 10.9 10.5	6.75 7.12 7.31	34.8 36.9 31.8	38.0 38.2 38.4	20.2 20.4 20.6	63.8 63.9 62.5	917 942 1014		12.2 7.38 12.4 7.48 13.7 7.60	32.8 31.8 31.8	42.6 42.1 42.1	45.5 45.8 45.4	79.6 79.0 78.7
		Modified PBAA (IPO Based)												
Iter1 Iter <sub>2</sub> Iter3	1465 2628 9160	12.3 14.9 2.6	6.98 7.09 6.46	26.8 25.8 26.8	37.4 36.8 36.5	20.2 20.5 14.7	64.2 63.5 61.8	1402	1011 12.5 7.52 1183 14.5 7.62 16.9	7.71	31.3 33.3 33.3	42.3 42.4 41.8	45.3 46.0 46.3	79.2 79.4 79.6
							SSO (IPO Based)							
Iter1 Iter <sub>2</sub> Iter3	1146 1466	10.2 12.5 2274 15.0	7.07 7.37 6.96	30.8 32.3 33.8	37.6 38.1 37.5	20.4 21.7 20.6	64.0 63.0 60.4	929 1025 1120	12.9 15.0 17.3	7.25 7.47 7.75	29.3 31.8 33.8	42.7 42.0 41.9	45.7 45.6 46.4	78.7 78.3 79.8

<span id="page-5-0"></span>**270 271 272** Table 1: Results on Llama3.1-8B-SFT and Qwen2-7B-SFT. We conduct experiments with Ultrafeedback, modified PBAA (principle-based automated alignment), and SSO. In this table, "AE2" represents "AlpacaEval 2.0 Length Control Win Rate". "MT" represents "MT-Bench".

to the Logicality or Helpful preference features. Although there were no significant benefits for MMLU Pro, it aligned with expectations, as limited data is unlikely to enhance knowledge capabilities. We also compared SSO with annotated data. Models trained with original UltraFeedback and IPO showed less improvement on AlpacaEval 2.0 and MT-Bench than those trained with synthetic data. However, annotated data demonstrated notable benefits on knowledge-based benchmarks, particularly GPQA and MMLU Pro. These results highlight the respective strengths and limitations of synthetic data, aligning with the findings reported by [Shumailov et al.](#page-11-8) [\(2024\)](#page-11-8).

**301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 309 310 311 312 313 314 315 Results on Aligned Models** We also applied SSO on aligned models, with results shown in Table [2.](#page-5-1) SSO still demonstrated improvements in subjective and objective benchmarks. Detailed results of every iteration can be found in Table [8](#page-13-1) at Appendix [A.1.1.](#page-13-2) Although it showed less benefit than results on SFT models, considering that these models have already undergone complex alignment processes, SSO's improvement remains encouraging. Notably, combining Table [1,](#page-5-0) we found that SFT models optimized with SSO already show performance approaching Instruct models on some benchmarks. This encourages us to use more powerful SFT models to achieve performance close to or even surpassing Instruct models. These experimental results will be detailed in section [4.](#page-6-0)

<span id="page-5-1"></span>Table 2: Results on Llama3.1-8B-Instruct and Qwen2-7B-Instruct.

Method	AE2	<b>MT</b>	<b>MMLU</b> Pro	<b>MATH</b>				
Llama3.1-Instruct								
Instruct UltraFeedback PBAA SSO	32.8 39.3 27.2 39.2	8.34 8.00 8.28 8.48	42.9 46.1 46.8 47.4	40.9 42.8 42.3 43.7				
	Owen2-instruct							
Instruct UltraFeedback PBAA SSO	33.2 19.3 30.7 36.2	8.37 7.79 8.41 8.47	44.4 43.8 44.2 44.5	50.4 30.6 32.4 50.4				

**316 317**

<span id="page-5-2"></span>3.2.2 HOW SSO PERFORM IN OFFLINE TRAINING

318		Table 3: Results on Llama3.1 trained with synthetic offline data.								
319					MT	<b>GPOA</b>		MMLU <b>MATH</b> Pro	GSM8K	
320	Model	Training Data   Len AE2								
321		Ultrafeedback	1283 11.5		7.23	32.3	38.5	20.1	61.2	
322	<b>SFT</b>	<i>SSO</i>	1319	18.0	7.36	32.8	35.5	20.6	62.9	
323	Instruct	Ultrafeedback   <i>SSO</i>	2105 41.2 2446	41.5	8.13 8.58	32.8 36.1	46.1 48.6	42.8 43.3	82.9 84.5	

**324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331 332 333** As mentioned before, the accuracy of the synthetic signals is crucial for alignment effectiveness. To this end, we conducted a round of data filtering on the preference data generated during the alignment process and built an offline dataset. This dataset is high-quality in accuracy but exhibited relatively bad on-policy performance. Under GPT-4o verification, it had an accuracy of 80.5% without unsure pairs and 98% with unsure pairs. We present the results of Llama3.1 trained with this dataset in Table [3.](#page-5-2) The specific filtering process and the detailed results are displayed in Appendix [A.1.4.](#page-14-0) The models were directly trained on all data instead of iterative training for comparison. This dataset achieved better results than UltraFeedback on Llama-3.1 models. Besides, it is essential to note that this dataset was constructed without any human annotations or powerful commercial models like GPT-4o.

<span id="page-6-1"></span>

334	3.2.3 HOW SSO PERFORM IN RM TRAINING
335	

Table 4: Our Reward Models



**Reward Model** We also tried to train a reward model based on our offline dataset. Unlike offline training, we maintained every response pair instead of choosing one for each query. These data could enhance the annotated data from the current best reward model, Skywork-Reward-Llama-3.1- 8B [Liu & Zeng](#page-11-9) [\(2024\)](#page-11-9). We reported the performance of the reward models trained with the enhanced dataset on RewardBench [Lambert et al.](#page-10-6) [\(2024\)](#page-10-6). As shown in Table [4,](#page-6-1) we found that data from SSO can enhance the performance of the Skywork dataset, while UltraFeedback brings no benefits.

## <span id="page-6-0"></span>4 DISCUSSION

**334**

**351 352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 361** Quality of synthetic data It is generally believed that lower noise in the preferences data will lead to a better alignment process [\(Lee et al., 2024a;](#page-10-7) [Gao et al., 2024\)](#page-10-8). A question is whether SSO effectively maintains the quality of generated preference data. To assess this, we used GPT-4o to judge the accuracy of the synthetic preference data. We took Llama3.1-SFT as an example. Specifically, given a query x, we asked GPT-40 to determine if  $y^+$  had higher quality than  $y^-$ . To mitigate selection bias [\(Zheng et al., 2024a\)](#page-12-9), we swapped the positions of  $y^{+}$  and  $y^{-}$  for two rounds of judgment. Figure [4\(a\)](#page-6-2) shows that SSO maintained higher-quality synthetic data, while IPO caused a gradually decreased accuracy. Moreover, given a policy model  $\pi$ , instruction x, and response pair  $(y^+, y^-)$ , we tested the average probability  $e^{\tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}$  (Formula [4\)](#page-3-1) of the synthetic data. Figure [4\(b\)](#page-6-3) shows the  $e^{\tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}$  for three iterations, where bigger values indicate a better on-policy performance. SSO generated better near-on-policy data than baselines.

<span id="page-6-2"></span>



(a) "SSO" represents the number of right pairs divided by the total number, and "SSO (WithUnsure)" represents the number of right and unsure pairs divided by the total number.

<span id="page-6-3"></span>

Figure 4: Quality analysis of synthetic data for Llama3.1-SFT training.

**378 379 380 381 382** Length Control As mentioned by [Park et al.](#page-11-10) [\(2024\)](#page-11-10); [Liu et al.](#page-11-11) [\(2024\)](#page-11-11) and others, improved response quality can lead to increased verbosity. Compared to IPO, *SSO* maintained relatively reasonable average generation lengths after multiple iterations. In contrast, IPO led to the Verbose problem after several iterations. It is reasonable for SSO to achieve length control relatively because of the  $W$  function and the **Concision** preference feature.

<span id="page-7-0"></span>Table 5: Results on Qwen2-7B-Instruct under different ablations (Iteration 3).



Ablation Study In this part, we conducted an ablation study on SSO. Results are shown in Table [5,](#page-7-0) and detailed results can be found in Table [12](#page-15-1) in Appendix [A.2.](#page-15-2) We observed that removing either the  $W$  function or the  $G$  function would lead to a significant performance decrease, demonstrating the importance of SSO's each component. Furthermore, it is notable that  $SSO$  with only W or G still produced some benefit, indicating that both the  $W$  function and  $G$  function can independently contribute to the alignment process.

<span id="page-7-1"></span>DPO-Based *SSO* Due to paper length limitations, most experiments in the body text were IPObased. However, our method can be extended to other losses. Table [6](#page-7-1) presents experimental results of SSO based on DPO Loss for Qwen2-7B-Instruct and Llama3.1-8B-Instruct. Detailed results are shown in Appendix [A.1.2.](#page-13-3)

Table 6: Results with DPO-Based SSO.								
Model			Len $AE2$ MT    Len $AE2$		MT			
		Owen2		Llama3,1				
<b>Instruct Model</b>								
Modified PBAA(DPO Based) Iter3   3653 32.9 8.27    2947 40.0 8.39								
SSO(DPO Based) Iter3			2611 37.2 8.46    2745 41.4 8.57					

Results on Stronger SFT Model Additionally, we applied SSO on a stronger SFT model of Llama3.1-8B trained on Infinity Instruct [\(BAAI, 2024\)](#page-9-4). The results, shown in Table [7,](#page-7-2) indicate that the model outperformed the Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct on some benchmarks.

<span id="page-7-2"></span>

TWOIG IT INCOMING OIL IMMILIES; IMMORTANCE ITTE OGAL IMMORTIA CID									
Model							Len AE2 MT GPQA $\frac{\text{MMLU}}{\text{Pro}}$ MATH GSM8K		
Llama3.1-Instruct	$\vert 2146 \quad 32.8 \quad 8.34 \vert 27.3 \vert$				42.9	40.9	80.8		
Infinity-Llama3.1-SFT   1758 37.5 7.49   24.7					40.4	33.4	76.6		
Infinity-Llama3.1-SSO Iter3   1964 50.0 8.02   37.4					42.9	35.8	80.7		

Table 7: Results on Infinity-Instruct-7M-Gen-Llama3.1-8B

**Other implementation of W** We further explored the effectiveness of other implementations of W [5.](#page-3-2) We optimized the policy model to maximize the average probability of generating  $y^o$  with  $x^+$ and  $x^-$ . We called this function  $\mathcal{W}'$ :

<span id="page-7-3"></span>
$$
W' = \text{Sigmoid}\left(-\left(\alpha \cdot \tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}^o|\mathbf{x}^+) + (1-\alpha)\tilde{\pi}_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}^o|\mathbf{x}^-)\right)\right)
$$
(6)

We then optimized Llama3.1-instruct with the  $SSO$  constructed with  $W'$ . Results are shown in Figure [4.](#page-7-3)





#### **432 433** 5 RELATED WORKS

**434 435 436 437 438 439 440 441 442 443 444 445 446 447 Preference Alignment with Human Preference** Researchers have proposed various algorithms to align large language models (LLMs) with human preference. These algorithms can broadly be categorized into reward model-based approaches and direct preference optimization methods, with RLHF [\(Ouyang et al., 2022\)](#page-11-1) and DPO [\(Rafailov et al., 2023\)](#page-11-2) as representative examples. [Ziegler](#page-12-10) [et al.](#page-12-10) [\(2020\)](#page-12-10); [Ouyang et al.](#page-11-1) [\(2022\)](#page-11-1); [Bai et al.](#page-9-6) [\(2022a\)](#page-9-6) train a reward model based on annotated human preference data and employ reinforcement learning algorithms such as PPO [\(Schulman et al., 2017\)](#page-11-12) to align LLMs. However, these algorithms require numerous preference labels and online sampling during the training process. To further reduce costs, direct preference optimization (DPO), sequence likelihood calibration (SLiC) [\(Zhao et al., 2023\)](#page-12-11), and identity preference optimization (IPO) [\(Azar](#page-9-5) [et al., 2023\)](#page-9-5) simplify the RLHF objective by directly increasing the margin between chosen and rejected responses. Additionally, Kahneman-Tversky optimization (KTO) [\(Ethayarajh et al., 2024\)](#page-10-9) utilizes human feedback in a binary format, avoiding dependency on pairwise preference data. Our methodology primarily depends on direct preference optimization techniques. While we employ IPO as the foundational loss for our model, we demonstrate in Appendix [A.1](#page-13-0) the versatility of our approach, emphasizing its adaptability and broad applicability across diverse objective functions.

**448 449 450 451 452 453 454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467** Automated alignment Previous alignment studies rely on manually annotated preference data and algorithms like RLHF and DPO to conduct model alignment. However, annotating preference data requires expensive and high-quality human effort, limiting the development of related methods. Moreover, with the rapid advancement of LLMs, their capabilities have gradually approached or even surpassed human levels, making it challenging for humans to produce meaningful supervise data for LLMs [\(Burns et al., 2023\)](#page-9-0). Recently, numerous studies have found that data generated by LLMs can reach the quality of ordinary manual annotations [\(Zheng et al., 2024b\)](#page-12-4). These findings increased the attention of **automated alignment** [\(Yuan et al., 2024;](#page-12-0) [Chen et al., 2024\)](#page-9-7). Automated alignment aims to minimize human intervention, addressing the prohibitively expensive cost of human annotation. Current methods can be divided into four types based on the source of alignment signals [\(Cao et al., 2024\)](#page-9-8): 1) Inductive Bias, which automatically guides the model to generate preference signals to align itself by introducing appropriate assumptions and constraints [\(Huang et al.,](#page-10-10) [2023;](#page-10-10) [Bai et al., 2022b;](#page-9-1) [Yang et al., 2024b;](#page-12-2) [Yuan et al., 2024;](#page-12-0) [Chen et al., 2024\)](#page-9-7). 2) Behavioral Imitation, which achieves automatic alignment by imitating the behavior of another already-aligned model [\(Peng et al., 2023;](#page-11-13) [Tunstall et al., 2023;](#page-11-14) [Burns et al., 2023\)](#page-9-0). 3) Model Feedback, which optimizes the policy model through feedback from other models [\(Lee et al., 2023;](#page-10-11) [Hosseini et al.,](#page-10-12) [2024\)](#page-10-12). 4) Environmental Feedback, which aligns models by obtaining alignment signals or feedback through environmental interaction [\(Liu et al., 2023;](#page-11-15) [Qiao et al., 2024\)](#page-11-16). Our approach falls under the "Inductive Bias." The most related works are RLCD [\(Yang et al., 2024b\)](#page-12-2) and SAIM (Fränken [et al., 2024\)](#page-10-0). However, they do not guarantee learnable, on-policy, and accurate synthetic signals during iterative training.

# 6 CONCLUSION

**470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480 481** In this work, we proposed a novel approach called *SSO* (Self-Steering Optimization) to enhance model alignment by iteratively optimizing the learnability and accuracy of generated preference data. SSO achieved self-optimization through an additional self-steering loss controlling the accuracy of the preference data, as well as a weight function that regulates the data to be learnable and on-policy. These mechanisms relieve the gradual quality decline of generated signals in automated alignment. Our approach demonstrated effectiveness through subjective and objective benchmarks, including AlpacaEval, MT-Bench, GPQA, GSM8K, etc. Notably, our method significantly improves Llama-3.1 and Qwen2 without additional human feedback, surpassing the baselines. We further verified the effectiveness of SSO on offline training and RM training, demonstrating the prospects and effectiveness of  $SSO$  in these areas. Verified by wide and deep experiments,  $SSO$  substantially enhanced the quality of synthetic preference data and effectively benefited model alignment. Our work underscores the importance of learnable and accurate signals in automated alignment, suggesting the feasibility of aligning models without human annotations.

**482 483 484**

**468 469**

## 7 LIMITATIONS

**485** Despite SSO performing well across multiple benchmarks, we must acknowledge that there are still some limitations. Firstly, the design of the W and G functions is too simplistic. The G function is not

**486 487 488 489 490 491 492 493** specially designed but directly uses existing loss. While *SSO* can work with a broader range of base losses, it may also incur unnecessary computational costs, such as redundant KL Loss calculations, leading to  $SSO$ 's relatively high overhead in model optimization. Similarly, the  $W$  function directly uses average generation probability, but as reported in some works [Zhou et al.](#page-12-7) [\(2024\)](#page-12-7), employing more complex weight functions could yield better results. Secondly, SSO is based on principlebased automated alignment. This may slightly limit its application scenarios. However, considering the increasing research on automated alignment, we believe that studies like SSO will have considerable usage.

**494 495**

**496**

8 FUTURE WORK

**497 498 499 500 501 502 503 504** In previous experiments, all the principles we used were manually defined. We are now considering a fully automated SSO, where the policy model generates both the features and principles. Preliminary experiments show that generated principles can improve data diversity and alignment benefits. Additionally, we are also considering designing new W and G functions. As mentioned in the last section, the SSO loss we used is quite simple from the design perspective. We believe that better designs could bring more alignment benefits. Lastly, SSO can be applied beyond principle-based automated alignment. We are considering extending SSO to other automated alignment paradigms, which we believe is feasible.

**505 506**

<span id="page-9-4"></span>**510**

**REFERENCES** 

- <span id="page-9-5"></span>**507 508 509** Mohammad Gheshlaghi Azar, Mark Rowland, Bilal Piot, Daniel Guo, Daniele Calandriello, Michal Valko, and Remi Munos. A general theoretical paradigm to understand learning from human ´ preferences, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2310.12036>.
- **511** BAAI. Infinity instruct. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.XXXX*, 2024.

<span id="page-9-6"></span>**512 513 514 515 516 517 518** Yuntao Bai, Andy Jones, Kamal Ndousse, Amanda Askell, Anna Chen, Nova DasSarma, Dawn Drain, Stanislav Fort, Deep Ganguli, Tom Henighan, Nicholas Joseph, Saurav Kadavath, Jackson Kernion, Tom Conerly, Sheer El-Showk, Nelson Elhage, Zac Hatfield-Dodds, Danny Hernandez, Tristan Hume, Scott Johnston, Shauna Kravec, Liane Lovitt, Neel Nanda, Catherine Olsson, Dario Amodei, Tom Brown, Jack Clark, Sam McCandlish, Chris Olah, Ben Mann, and Jared Kaplan. Training a helpful and harmless assistant with reinforcement learning from human feedback, 2022a. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2204.05862>.

- <span id="page-9-1"></span><span id="page-9-0"></span>**519 520 521 522** Yuntao Bai, Saurav Kadavath, Sandipan Kundu, Amanda Askell, Jackson Kernion, Andy Jones, Anna Chen, Anna Goldie, Azalia Mirhoseini, Cameron McKinnon, et al. Constitutional ai: Harmlessness from ai feedback. *ArXiv preprint*, abs/2212.08073, 2022b. URL [https:](https://arxiv.org/abs/2212.08073) [//arxiv.org/abs/2212.08073](https://arxiv.org/abs/2212.08073).
	- Collin Burns, Pavel Izmailov, Jan Hendrik Kirchner, Bowen Baker, Leo Gao, Leopold Aschenbrenner, Yining Chen, Adrien Ecoffet, Manas Joglekar, Jan Leike, Ilya Sutskever, and Jeff Wu. Weak-to-strong generalization: Eliciting strong capabilities with weak supervision, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2312.09390>.
- <span id="page-9-8"></span>**528 529 530** Boxi Cao, Keming Lu, Xinyu Lu, Jiawei Chen, Mengjie Ren, Hao Xiang, Peilin Liu, Yaojie Lu, Ben He, Xianpei Han, Le Sun, Hongyu Lin, and Bowen Yu. Towards scalable automated alignment of llms: A survey, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.01252>.
- <span id="page-9-7"></span>**531 532 533** Zixiang Chen, Yihe Deng, Huizhuo Yuan, Kaixuan Ji, and Quanquan Gu. Self-play fine-tuning converts weak language models to strong language models. *ArXiv preprint*, abs/2401.01335, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2401.01335>.
- <span id="page-9-2"></span>**534 535 536 537** Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John Schulman. Training verifiers to solve math word problems, 2021.
- <span id="page-9-3"></span>**538 539** Ganqu Cui, Lifan Yuan, Ning Ding, Guanming Yao, Wei Zhu, Yuan Ni, Guotong Xie, Zhiyuan Liu, and Maosong Sun. Ultrafeedback: Boosting language models with high-quality feedback, 2024. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=pNkOx3IVWI>.

<span id="page-10-13"></span><span id="page-10-9"></span><span id="page-10-8"></span><span id="page-10-5"></span><span id="page-10-3"></span><span id="page-10-2"></span><span id="page-10-0"></span>

<span id="page-10-12"></span><span id="page-10-11"></span><span id="page-10-10"></span><span id="page-10-7"></span><span id="page-10-6"></span><span id="page-10-4"></span><span id="page-10-1"></span>[org/abs/2402.11253](https://arxiv.org/abs/2402.11253).

- <span id="page-11-16"></span><span id="page-11-15"></span><span id="page-11-13"></span><span id="page-11-11"></span><span id="page-11-10"></span><span id="page-11-9"></span><span id="page-11-3"></span><span id="page-11-1"></span><span id="page-11-0"></span>**595 596 597 598 599 600 601 602 603 604 605 606 607 608 609 610 611 612 613 614 615 616 617 618 619 620 621 622 623 624 625 626 627 628 629 630 631 632 633 634 635 636 637 638 639 640 641 642 643 644 645 646** Chris Yuhao Liu and Liang Zeng. Skywork reward model series. [https://huggingface.co/](https://huggingface.co/Skywork) [Skywork](https://huggingface.co/Skywork), September 2024. URL <https://huggingface.co/Skywork>. Jie Liu, Zhanhui Zhou, Jiaheng Liu, Xingyuan Bu, Chao Yang, Han-Sen Zhong, and Wanli Ouyang. Iterative length-regularized direct preference optimization: A case study on improving 7b language models to gpt-4 level, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.11817>. Ruibo Liu, Ruixin Yang, Chenyan Jia, Ge Zhang, Denny Zhou, Andrew M. Dai, Diyi Yang, and Soroush Vosoughi. Training socially aligned language models on simulated social interactions, 2023. AI @ Meta.(A detailed author list can be found in llama3 report) Llama Team. The llama 3 herd of models, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.21783>. OpenAI. Introducing chatgpt, 2023. URL <https://openai.com/index/chatgpt/>. Accessed: 2023-10-01. Long Ouyang, Jeff Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll L. Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, John Schulman, Jacob Hilton, Fraser Kelton, Luke Miller, Maddie Simens, Amanda Askell, Peter Welinder, Paul Christiano, Jan Leike, and Ryan Lowe. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback, 2022. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2203.02155>. Ryan Park, Rafael Rafailov, Stefano Ermon, and Chelsea Finn. Disentangling length from quality in direct preference optimization, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2403.19159>. Baolin Peng, Chunyuan Li, Pengcheng He, Michel Galley, and Jianfeng Gao. Instruction tuning with gpt-4, 2023. Shuofei Qiao, Honghao Gui, Chengfei Lv, Qianghuai Jia, Huajun Chen, and Ningyu Zhang. Making language models better tool learners with execution feedback, 2024. Rafael Rafailov, Archit Sharma, Eric Mitchell, Stefano Ermon, Christopher D. Manning, and Chelsea Finn. Direct Preference Optimization: Your Language Model is Secretly a Reward Model, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2305.18290>. David Rein, Betty Li Hou, Asa Cooper Stickland, Jackson Petty, Richard Yuanzhe Pang, Julien Dirani, Julian Michael, and Samuel R Bowman. Gpqa: A graduate-level google-proof q&a benchmark. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.12022*, 2023. John Schulman, Filip Wolski, Prafulla Dhariwal, Alec Radford, and Oleg Klimov. Proximal policy optimization algorithms, 2017. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1707.06347>. Ilia Shumailov, Zakhar Shumaylov, Yiren Zhao, Nicolas Papernot, Ross Anderson, and Yarin Gal. Ai models collapse when trained on recursively generated data. *Nature*, 631(8022):755–759, 2024. Fahim Tajwar, Anikait Singh, Archit Sharma, Rafael Rafailov, Jeff Schneider, Tengyang Xie, Stefano Ermon, Chelsea Finn, and Aviral Kumar. Preference fine-tuning of LLMs should leverage suboptimal, on-policy data. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2024. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=bWNPx6t0sF>. Lewis Tunstall, Edward Beeching, Nathan Lambert, Nazneen Rajani, Kashif Rasul, Younes Belkada, Shengyi Huang, Leandro von Werra, Clementine Fourrier, Nathan Habib, Nathan Sarrazin, Omar ´ Sanseviero, Alexander M. Rush, and Thomas Wolf. Zephyr: Direct distillation of lm alignment, 2023. Tianlu Wang, Ilia Kulikov, Olga Golovneva, Ping Yu, Weizhe Yuan, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Richard Yuanzhe Pang, Maryam Fazel-Zarandi, Jason Weston, and Xian Li. Self-taught evaluators, 2024a. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2408.02666>. Yubo Wang, Xueguang Ma, Ge Zhang, Yuansheng Ni, Abhranil Chandra, Shiguang Guo, Weiming Ren, Aaran Arulraj, Xuan He, Ziyan Jiang, Tianle Li, Max Ku, Kai Wang, Alex Zhuang, Rongqi
- <span id="page-11-14"></span><span id="page-11-12"></span><span id="page-11-8"></span><span id="page-11-7"></span><span id="page-11-6"></span><span id="page-11-5"></span><span id="page-11-4"></span><span id="page-11-2"></span>**647** Fan, Xiang Yue, and Wenhu Chen. Mmlu-pro: A more robust and challenging multi-task language understanding benchmark, 2024b. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.01574>.
- <span id="page-12-1"></span>**648 649 650** Tianhao Wu, Weizhe Yuan, Olga Golovneva, Jing Xu, Yuandong Tian, Jiantao Jiao, Jason Weston, and Sainbayar Sukhbaatar. Meta-rewarding language models: Self-improving alignment with llm-as-a-meta-judge, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.19594>.
- <span id="page-12-3"></span>**652 653 654 655 656 657 658 659 660** An Yang, Baosong Yang, Binyuan Hui, Bo Zheng, Bowen Yu, Chang Zhou, Chengpeng Li, Chengyuan Li, Dayiheng Liu, Fei Huang, Guanting Dong, Haoran Wei, Huan Lin, Jialong Tang, Jialin Wang, Jian Yang, Jianhong Tu, Jianwei Zhang, Jianxin Ma, Jianxin Yang, Jin Xu, Jingren Zhou, Jinze Bai, Jinzheng He, Junyang Lin, Kai Dang, Keming Lu, Keqin Chen, Kexin Yang, Mei Li, Mingfeng Xue, Na Ni, Pei Zhang, Peng Wang, Ru Peng, Rui Men, Ruize Gao, Runji Lin, Shijie Wang, Shuai Bai, Sinan Tan, Tianhang Zhu, Tianhao Li, Tianyu Liu, Wenbin Ge, Xiaodong Deng, Xiaohuan Zhou, Xingzhang Ren, Xinyu Zhang, Xipin Wei, Xuancheng Ren, Xuejing Liu, Yang Fan, Yang Yao, Yichang Zhang, Yu Wan, Yunfei Chu, Yuqiong Liu, Zeyu Cui, Zhenru Zhang, Zhifang Guo, and Zhihao Fan. Qwen2 technical report, 2024a. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.10671>.
- <span id="page-12-2"></span>**661 662 663 664 665** Kevin Yang, Dan Klein, Asli Celikyilmaz, Nanyun Peng, and Yuandong Tian. RLCD: Reinforcement learning from contrastive distillation for LM alignment. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024b. URL [https://openreview.net/forum?](https://openreview.net/forum?id=v3XXtxWKi6) [id=v3XXtxWKi6](https://openreview.net/forum?id=v3XXtxWKi6).
- <span id="page-12-5"></span>**666 667** Hai Ye and Hwee Tou Ng. Self-judge: Selective instruction following with alignment selfevaluation, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2409.00935>.
- <span id="page-12-6"></span>**668 669 670 671** Runsheng Yu, Yong Wang, Xiaoqi Jiao, Youzhi Zhang, and James T. Kwok. Direct alignment of language models via quality-aware self-refinement, 2024. URL [https://arxiv.org/abs/](https://arxiv.org/abs/2405.21040) [2405.21040](https://arxiv.org/abs/2405.21040).
- <span id="page-12-0"></span>**672 674** Weizhe Yuan, Richard Yuanzhe Pang, Kyunghyun Cho, Sainbayar Sukhbaatar, Jing Xu, and Jason Weston. Self-rewarding language models. *ArXiv preprint*, abs/2401.10020, 2024. URL [https:](https://arxiv.org/abs/2401.10020) [//arxiv.org/abs/2401.10020](https://arxiv.org/abs/2401.10020).
- <span id="page-12-11"></span>**675 676 677 678** Yao Zhao, Mikhail Khalman, Rishabh Joshi, Shashi Narayan, Mohammad Saleh, and Peter J Liu. Calibrating sequence likelihood improves conditional language generation. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023. URL [https://openreview.](https://openreview.net/forum?id=0qSOodKmJaN) [net/forum?id=0qSOodKmJaN](https://openreview.net/forum?id=0qSOodKmJaN).
	- Chujie Zheng, Hao Zhou, Fandong Meng, Jie Zhou, and Minlie Huang. Large language models are not robust multiple choice selectors. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024a. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=shr9PXz7T0>.
- <span id="page-12-9"></span><span id="page-12-4"></span>**683 684 685 686 687 688** Lianmin Zheng, Wei-Lin Chiang, Ying Sheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Zhanghao Wu, Yonghao Zhuang, Zi Lin, Zhuohan Li, Dacheng Li, Eric Xing, et al. Judging llm-as-a-judge with mt-bench and chatbot arena. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:46595–46623, 2024b. URL [https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper\\_files/paper/2023/](https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2023/hash/91f18a1287b398d378ef22505bf41832-Abstract-Datasets_and_Benchmarks.html) [hash/91f18a1287b398d378ef22505bf41832-Abstract-Datasets\\_and\\_](https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2023/hash/91f18a1287b398d378ef22505bf41832-Abstract-Datasets_and_Benchmarks.html) [Benchmarks.html](https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2023/hash/91f18a1287b398d378ef22505bf41832-Abstract-Datasets_and_Benchmarks.html).
- <span id="page-12-8"></span>**689 690 691** Yaowei Zheng, Richong Zhang, Junhao Zhang, Yanhan Ye, Zheyan Luo, Zhangchi Feng, and Yongqiang Ma. Llamafactory: Unified efficient fine-tuning of 100+ language models, 2024c. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2403.13372>.
- <span id="page-12-7"></span>**692 693 694 695** Wenxuan Zhou, Ravi Agrawal, Shujian Zhang, Sathish Reddy Indurthi, Sanqiang Zhao, Kaiqiang Song, Silei Xu, and Chenguang Zhu. Wpo: Enhancing rlhf with weighted preference optimization, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.11827>.
- <span id="page-12-10"></span>**696 697 698** Daniel M. Ziegler, Nisan Stiennon, Jeffrey Wu, Tom B. Brown, Alec Radford, Dario Amodei, Paul Christiano, and Geoffrey Irving. Fine-tuning language models from human preferences, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1909.08593>.
- **699**

**673**

- **700**
- **701**

# <span id="page-13-0"></span>A APPENDIX

### **704 705** A.1 ADDITIONAL RESULTS

This section includes the results that are not shown in the body text.

## <span id="page-13-2"></span>A.1.1 DETAILED RESULTS OF INSTRUCT MODELS

<span id="page-13-1"></span>Here are the detailed results of the Instruct models.



**702 703**





## <span id="page-13-3"></span>A.1.2 SSO BASED ON OTHER DPO LOSSES

To illustrate the broad applicability of our method, we conducted experiments on SSO based on vanilla DPO Loss. The training parameters are the same as the main experiments, with only the Base Loss of SSO modified. As presented in Table [9,](#page-13-4) the observed gains demonstrate SSO's scalability, suggesting that SSO can integrate with other DPO Losses, fully leveraging existing studies. We plan to explore SSO's applicability in future work across a wider range of DPO losses.

<span id="page-13-4"></span>Table 9: Results with DPO Loss, SSO here is based on DPO Loss instead of IPO Loss. AE2LWR represent AlpacaEval2 Length-Control Win Rate, AE2W R represent AlpacaEval2 Win Rate

Model	Len	AE <sub>2</sub> LWR	AE2 WR	MT Len	AE <sub>2</sub> LWR	AE <sub>2</sub> WR	МT
		Owen2					
Instruct	1786	33.2	29.0	8.37 2146	32.8	35.2	8.34
DPO-Iter1	2245	33.5	36.5	2373 8.31	37.7	42.4	8.42
DPO-Iter2	2877	35.1	42.9	8.35 2693	38.2	45.6	8.54
DPO-Iter3	3653	32.9	44.6	8.27 2947	40.0	49.3	8.39
$SSO_{DPO}$ -Iter1	2125	33.8	34.9	2405 8.35	35.1	40.3	8.38
$SSO_{DPO}$ -Iter2	2301	38.1	41.6	2584 8.17	37.5	44.4	8.40
$SSO_{DPO}$ -Iter3	2611	37.2	43.4	2745 8.46	41.4	43.2	8.57

### **756 757** A.1.3 RESULTS ON LLAMA3-8B

**758 759 760 761 762** This part shows our results on Llama3-8B using the same training parameters as the body text. We did not include them in the body text due to length limitations. Instead of training our SFT model, we reuse the open-source model from Online-RLHF [\(Dong et al., 2024\)](#page-10-13). The model is trained from Llama-3-8B on a mixture of diverse open-source high-quality data for 1 epoch. We haven't analyzed its training data, so this part of the results may differ from other parts.



Table 10: Results on Llama3-8B-SFT [\(Dong et al., 2024\)](#page-10-13) and Llama3-8B-Instruct.

## <span id="page-14-0"></span>A.1.4 DATA SELECTION



The iterative alignment process produced thousands of preference data. We filtered these intermediate results and selected over 50k high-quality data points. Specifically, our filtering process consisted of three steps:

**806 807 808**

**809**

1. Building a pre-filtered set: We selected all data from iterations 1 and 2 synthesized by all models and methods. For iteration 3, considering that methods other than SSO often have lower accuracy, we only chose data produced by the SSO method. After removing duplicates, we obtained nearly 300k data points. We then removed data where the length

### **813** difference between chosen and rejected responses exceeded 3000 characters, resulting in about 226k partial pairs. 2. LLM-as-judge: Based on the pre-filtered set, we conducted a round of judging using

- Llama3.1-8B-Instruct and Qwen2-Instruct as judges. The evaluation template was the same in [A.3.2.](#page-19-0) For each pair, if any judge thought the quality of the rejected response was higher than the chosen one, it was removed. This procedure left us with 110k partial pairs.
- **816 817 818 819 820 821 822** 3. Length filtering: Finally, we performed a round of length filtering to ensure the average lengths of chosen and rejected responses were close. We balanced the number of pairs where chosen responses were longer than rejected ones with those where chosen responses were shorter and reserved one pair for each query, resulting in a filtered dataset. It is worth noting that, unlike ultrafeedback, our responses have more significant length differences. Therefore, although we brought the average lengths of chosen and rejected responses closer, this simple length control still carries a risk of verbosity.
	- A.2 DETAIL ABLATION

<span id="page-15-2"></span>Here are the detailed results of the ablation study. We train Qwen2-7B-Instruct and Llama3.1-8B-Instruct under different ablations.

**823 824 825**

**810 811 812**

**814 815**

<span id="page-15-1"></span>Table 12: Results on Qwen2-7B-Instruct and Llama3.1-8B-Instruct under different ablations.

Method		Len	AE <sub>2</sub>	МT	Len	AE2	МT		
Model			Owen2-7B-Instruct Llama3.1-8B-Instruct						
SSO	Iter1	2062	34.92	8.42	2220	39.02	8.37		
	Iter2	2390	35.12	8.46	2416	40.73	8.45		
	Iter <sub>3</sub>	2789	36.18	8.47	2670	39.57	8.48		
$w/\alpha W$	Iter1	2244	35.12	8.28	2297	39.30	8.31		
	Iter <sub>2</sub>	3001	33.43	8.36	2592	37.35	8.43		
	Iter <sub>3</sub>	4512	36.07	8.35	2805	30.44	8.35		
w/o G	Iter1	2042	35.38	8.29	2226	39.59	8.30		
	Iter <sub>2</sub>	2409	36.07	8.21	2433	40.13	8.27		
	Iter <sub>3</sub>	2799	36.03	8.40	2675	34.25	8.54		
$w/\sigma W, G$	Iter1	2252	34.55	8.41	2292	40.22	8.31		
	Iter <sub>2</sub>	3034	32.02	8.38	2588	37.75	8.38		
	Iter <sub>3</sub>	4458	30.70	8.41	2936	27.24	8.28		

## A.3 PROMPT TEMPLATES

This section introduces the prompts and templates we used to generate training signals.

## <span id="page-15-0"></span>A.3.1 PRINCIPLES

This part shows the principles we use.

Table 13: The principles we use. Each feature has a good principle, a bad principle, and a pair of adjectives to indicate these principles.









### <span id="page-19-0"></span>**1026 1027** A.3.2 OTHER TEMPLATES

**1028**

Table 14: The template we use to allocate features to query.



```
1080
1081
1082
1083
1084
1085
1086
1087
1088
1089
1090
1091
1092
1093
1094
1095
1096
1097
1098
1099
1100
1101
1102
1103
1104
1105
1106
1107
1108
1109
1110
1111
1112
1113
1114
1115
1116
1117
1118
1119
1120
1121
1122
1123
1124
1125
1126
1127
1128
1129
1130
1131
1132
1133
           ### Query
          How can I use JavaScript to correct a sentence in Grammarly data
           format while ensuring that the corrected sentence maintains the
          same overall meaning and context as the original sentence? \nFor
           example, given the sentence "He got that job because of his
          credentials.", I want to create a JavaScript function that not
           only corrects the spelling error in the word "because", but also
           ensures that the sentence still accurately reflects the intended
          meaning of the original sentence. How can I achieve this?
           ### Output
          Accuracy,Logicality
           ### Query
           {query}
           ### Output
                         Table 15: The template we use to evaluate signal accuracy.
          <|im start|>system
           You are a highly efficient assistant, who evaluates and selects
           the best large language model (LLMs) based on the quality of
           their responses to a given instruction. This process will be
           used to create a leaderboard reflecting the most accurate and
          human-preferred answers.
           <|im end|>
           <|im start|>user
           I require a leaderboard for various large language models.
           I'll provide you with prompts given to these models and their
          corresponding outputs. Your task is to assess these responses,
          and select the model that produces the best output from a human
          perspective.
           ## Instruction
           {{
           "instruction": "{prompt}",
           }}
           ## Model Outputs
          Here are the unordered outputs from the models. Each output is
           associated with a specific model, identified by a unique model
           identifier.
           {{
           {{
           "model identifier": "m",
           "output": "{resp1}"
           }},
           {{
           "model identifier": "M",
           "output": "{resp2}"
           }}
           }}
           ## Task
```
