000 001 002 003 R3HF: REWARD REDISTRIBUTION FOR ENHANCING REINFORCEMENT LEARNING FROM HUMAN FEEDBACK

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ABSTRACT

Reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF) provides a paradigm for aligning large language models (LLMs) with human preferences. This involves the initial training of a reward model based on pairwise human feedback. The reward model is subsequently utilized in reinforcement learning to assess the scores of each generated sentence as a whole, further guiding the optimization of LLMs. However, current approaches have a significant shortcoming: *They allocate a single, sparse, and delayed reward to an entire sequence of output*. This may overlook some significant individual contributions of each token towards the desired outcome. To overcome this limitation, our paper proposes a novel reward redistribution method called R3HF, which facilitates a more fine-grained, token-level reward allocation. Specifically, our method treats the reward prediction task of the reward model as a regression problem. As a result, the redistributed rewards are computed by evaluating the specific contribution of each token to the reward model's output. This detailed approach improves the model's understanding of language nuances, leading to more precise enhancements in its performance. Our method is crafted to integrate seamlessly with most current techniques while incurring minimal computational costs. Through comprehensive experiments across diverse datasets and tasks, we have verified the effectiveness and superiority of our approach^{[1](#page-0-0)}.

1 INTRODUCTION

031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 Large language models (LLMs) have showcased remarkable adaptabilities across various tasks, with applications spanning fields like psychology $[12]$, education $[49, 19]$ $[49, 19]$ $[49, 19]$, and medical support $[46, 27]$ $[46, 27]$ $[46, 27]$. However, as LLMs become increasingly sophisticated, the complexity of their decision-making processes and outputs also escalates, introducing potential risks such as the propagation of bias [\[14,](#page-10-1) [48\]](#page-12-2), generation of misinformation [\[24,](#page-11-2) [29\]](#page-11-3), and potential harm [\[16,](#page-10-2) [15\]](#page-10-3). This underscores the critical need for effective alignment [\[35,](#page-12-3) [50,](#page-13-0) [26,](#page-11-4) [11\]](#page-10-4) of LLMs. Such alignment aims to guide the models to better comprehend and prioritize human preferences, ensuring their operations are in tune with human values and ethics.

039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 Reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF) [\[10,](#page-10-5) [29,](#page-11-3) [5\]](#page-10-6) is an advanced paradigm that incorporates human feedback into LLM training. This approach typically unfolds in three primary stages, which is shown in Figure [1](#page-1-0) (left). The initial stage involves supervised fine-tuning (SFT) applied to the target domain. Subsequently, the second stage develops and trains a reward model on data that reflect human preferences. The final stage is dedicated to refining the language model using reinforcement learning algorithms with the learned reward model. Though RLHF technology has demonstrated its effectiveness in various scenarios, it also presents a significant drawback that hampers the training efficiency of the model. Traditional reward models typically assess the overall effectiveness of an entire generated sequence, assigning a score only after delivering the final token, with the other tokens receiving a score of zero. This reward structure, being both sparse and delayed, challenges the model in recognizing the impact of individual tokens. An intuitive example is illustrated in Figure [1\(](#page-1-0)right). Consider a question-answering task with the prompt, "*Was Walt Disney the original creator of Mickey Mouse? <end>*" and the generated response, "*Yes, Walter Elias Disney was indeed the original creator of Mickey Mouse.*" The reward model assigns a positive evaluation score of 0.8. However, when treating the entire sentence as an episode, traditional methods only

¹Warning: The Appendix contains example data that may be offensive or harmful.

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074 075 076 077 078 079 Figure 1: Left: The training paradigm of reinforcement learning from human feedback typically encompasses three stages. Our proposed method is applied in the final stage, where we redistribute the holistic rewards at the terminal time-step to provide a fine-grained and immediate reward for each generated token. This approach aims to more effectively guide the optimization of Large Language Models (LLMs). Right: An example of reward redistribution, where the sum of the fine-grained rewards is equivalent to the original sparse reward.

081 082 083 084 085 086 allocate a score of 0.8 to the "*<end>*" token, potentially hindering the efficient optimization of LLMs. Meanwhile, the initial tokens in a sequence can significantly influence the subsequent generation, a nuance that current methodologies often struggle to accommodate effectively. In the example, the word "*Yes*" is the most crucial token in the generated sequence that influences the overall score, yet it receives a reward of zero. This highlights the urgent need for methodologies that better recognize and reward the contribution of each token.

087 088 089 090 091 092 093 094 095 096 097 098 099 To address this shortcoming, in this paper, we introduce a novel approach: Reward Redistribution for enhancing Reinforcement learning from Human Feedback (R3HF). The foundational concept of our method involves assigning individual credits to each token within the generated sentences, thus providing a nuanced signal for optimization tailored to LLMs. As the example in Figure [1\(](#page-1-0)right), since "*Yes*" is the most crucial token according to the reward model, it receives the highest reward signal. Similarly, other tokens receive different rewards, which can be either positive or negative. The sum of the rewards for all tokens in the sequence is equivalent to the original overall reward score. To achieve this goal, our approach is operationalized through the framework of Sequence-Markov Decision process (SDPs) [\[4\]](#page-10-7), wherein the allocation of rewards is not constrained by the Markov property. Concretely, we conceptualize the reward model as a regression model, predicting each sequence-wide return from the entire state-action sequence. By adopting this perspective, we allocate to each token a portion of credit relative to its incremental impact on the reward model compared to the preceding time-step. The credits can be inferred through temporally differentiated computation, providing more granular guidance over the language generation process.

100 101 Compared to state-of-the-art RLHF approaches, our R3HF offers the following advantages:

102 103 104 105 106 (1) Learning Efficiency. By providing token-level rewards, our method significantly enhances learning by offering immediate and relevant information. This approach avoids the limitations of delayed rewards that may be less informative. Consequently, it facilitates more accurate fine-tuning of language models, leading to considerable advancements in language generation that are more closely aligned with human feedback.

107 (2) Independence from Human Labeling. The redistributed rewards do not depend on extensive human labeling of data. The reward model itself dynamically assigns value to each token based on **108 109 110** its contribution to the overall sequence, thus reducing the need for labor-intensive labeling efforts. This feature facilitates the rapid incorporation of feedback without being bottlenecked by the pace of human annotation, streamlining the training process.

111 112 113 114 115 116 (3) Seamless Integration. Our method is designed for easy application across most mainstream RLHF paradigms, requiring only minimal modification that involves simple recomputation of rewards. This compatibility ensures that existing RLHF methods can be effortlessly enhanced with our tokenlevel reward redistribution technique, boosting their effectiveness without necessitating extensive overhaul or complex re-engineering.

117 118 119 120 To evaluate the efficacy of our approach, we have conducted a series of experiments across a diverse set of tasks, including summarization, question-answering, and harmfulness mitigation&helpfulness enhancement. Moreover, we have applied our reward distribution technique to various established RLHF methods. The empirical results from these experiments indicate that by training with such fine-grained feedback, our method consistently exhibits improved performance across all tested tasks.

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2 PRELIMINARIES

2.1 MARKOV DECISION PROCESS AND SEQUENCE-MARKOV DECISION PROCESSES

127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 Natural language generation can be deemed as a Markov Decision Process (MDP) [\[33\]](#page-11-5) which is depicted as a tuple $\mathcal{M} \stackrel{\triangle}{=} (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, R, P, \gamma, T)$ with a finite vocabulary V. At the beginning of each episode, a prompt x is sampled and fed into the language model and is treated as the initial state $s_0 \in \mathcal{S}$. At each time-step $t < T$, the language model acts as the policy π to choose an action $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ which means selecting a token from the vocabulary via $\pi(a_t|s_t)$, and then a new state is achieved via the transition function $P : S \times A \rightarrow S$ by adding the generated token to the previous state. Meanwhile, a reward r_t is gained via the reward function $R : S \times A \to \mathbb{R}$. The goal of the policy model is to maximize the expected accumulated return $G(\tau) = \sum_{t=0}^{T} \gamma^t R(s_t, a_t)$, where $\gamma \in [0, 1)$ represents the discount factor.

136 137 138 139 140 In this paper, policy optimization follows a Sequence-Markov Decision Process (SDP) [\[4\]](#page-10-7), where both the policy and the transition probabilities are Markov, but the reward function is not required to be Markov. As claimed by Arjona-Medina et al. [\[4\]](#page-10-7), return-equivalent SDPs possess identical optimal policies. This implies that we can redistribute the reward gained at the end of the generation sequence to optimize the policy model.

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2.2 REWARD MODEL FOR OPTIMIZING LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

144 145 146 147 148 In traditional RLHF paradigms [\[53,](#page-13-1) [5,](#page-10-6) [29,](#page-11-3) [37\]](#page-12-4), the reward model is denoted by $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y)$, where x represents the input prompt given to the language model, y is the response generated by the model, and ϕ symbolizes the parameters of the reward model. The training data, reflecting human preferences, is depicted in a comparative format: $y_w \succ y_l | x$, indicating that the "winning" response y_w is preferred by humans over the "losing" response y_l given the input prompt x.

149 150 151 Traditionally, most prior research has adopted a preference predictor that aligns with the principles of the Bradley-Terry model [\[9\]](#page-10-8), in which the likelihood of a preference pair p^* , can be estimated as:

$$
p^*(y_w \succ y_l|x) = \frac{\exp(\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_w))}{\exp(\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_w)) + \exp(\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_l))} = \sigma(\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_w) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_l)).
$$
 (1)

155 156 157 Assuming the dataset of comparisons $\mathcal{D} = \{x^i, y^i_w, y^i_l\}_{i=1}^N$ is sampled from p^* , the reward model can be trained by minimizing the negative log-likelihood loss:

$$
\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{R}_{\phi}, \mathcal{D}) = -\mathbb{E}_{(x, y_w, y_l) \sim \mathcal{D}}[\log(\sigma \left(\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_w) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_l)\right))],
$$
\n(2)

160 161 where $\sigma(\cdot)$ denotes the logistic function. In the context of RLHF, \mathcal{R}_{ϕ} is often initialized from the SFT language model π^{SFT} , and additional linear layers are added on top of the final transformer layer to predict the reward value [\[53\]](#page-13-1), which is usually a single scalar.

162 163 3 METHOD: REWARD REDISTRIBUTION

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Figure [1](#page-1-0) illustrates the entire training framework, with a focus on our proposed reward redistribution highlighted in the third phase. We will discuss this in detail in this section.

3.1 SPARSE AND DELAYED REWARDS IN REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

169 170 171 172 173 As previously mentioned, before refining the policy model, we train the reward model using the specified loss (Eq. equation [2\)](#page-2-0). Each initial input prompt $x(s₀)$ is processed by the policy model π to create a full episode ($s_0, a_0, ..., s_T, a_T$), which is then stored in the replay buffer. During the reinforcement learning phase, the reward model assigns rewards, denoted as r_t^{RM} , at each time-step to evaluate the success of the episode. Rewards are typically defined in the following manner:

$$
r_t^{RM} = R(s_t, a_t) = \begin{cases} 0, & 0 \le t < T, \\ \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y), & t = T, \end{cases}
$$
 (3)

177 178 179 where y represents the fully generated sequence. Meanwhile, it is crucial to maintain the policy model π_{θ} closely aligned with the reference model π_{ref} . To ensure this, a Kullback-Leibler (KL) penalty is usually applied $[53, 5, 29, 37]$ $[53, 5, 29, 37]$ $[53, 5, 29, 37]$ $[53, 5, 29, 37]$ $[53, 5, 29, 37]$ $[53, 5, 29, 37]$ $[53, 5, 29, 37]$ at each time-step:

$$
r_t^{KL} = \text{KL}(\pi_\theta(a_t|s_t) \parallel \pi_{ref}(a_t|s_t)). \tag{4}
$$

181 Thus, the total reward at any time-step is calculated using the equation:

$$
r_t = r_t^{RM} - \beta \cdot r_t^{KL},\tag{5}
$$

184 185 186 187 188 where β is the scaling factor. This approach, however, faces challenges due to sparse and delayed rewards as specified by Eq. equation [3.](#page-3-0) The generation process of LLMs is long-term, with the success or failure of initial generations impacting subsequent ones. This underscores the necessity of effective credit assignment, which aims to accurately pinpoint which actions or sequences of actions lead to success or failure, and is crucial for the process.

3.2 REWARD REDISTRIBUTION FOR CREDIT ASSIGNMENT

191 192 193 194 195 196 197 198 We seek to perform credit assignment by allocating the earned reward (or penalty) across the sequence of actions, thereby providing a more granular and immediate feedback mechanism. Taking a cue from Arjona-Medina et al. [\[4\]](#page-10-7), reward redistribution is realized within the sequence difference penalties (SDPs). They posit that: (1) two SDPs are return-equivalent if they differ only in their reward distribution and have the same expected return, and (2) return-equivalent SDPs share the same optimal policy. Considering these properties, our remaining task is to devise an algorithm for constructing modified rewards \tilde{r}_t^{RM} that reflect the contributions of each token at every time-step, ensuring that the sum of the rewards equals r_T^{RM} .

199 200 201 202 203 204 Recalling the training process of the RL phase, rewards are generated using the last hidden state with a logit head. This functions as a regression model that naturally predicts the score at the final time-step. Consequently, there is no need to retrain or modify the reward model. Instead, we can utilize the existing model to obtain all hidden states and predict scores at each time-step via the logit head. The redistributed rewards can then be computed using a time-difference approach, reflecting the incremental contribution of each time-step.

205 206 207 Define $y = (y_0, ..., y_T)$, where y_t denotes each token in the generated response. We estimate the contributions of each token, \tilde{r}_t^{RM} , by its incremental impact on the reward model compared to the previous time-step as:

$$
\tilde{r}_t^{RM} = \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t-1}),\tag{6}
$$

209 210 where $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t})$ represents the predicted score up to and including token y_t , as assessed by the reward model. And then the return of the episode, computed without discounting, is given by:

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$$
G(\tau) = \sum^{T} \tilde{r}_t^{RM}
$$

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t=0
$$
\n
$$
= \tilde{r}_0^{RM} - \tilde{r}_{-1}^{RM} + \dots + \tilde{r}_T^{RM} - \tilde{r}_{T-1}^{RM}
$$

$$
214 \quad \textcolor{blue}{\mathbf{218}} \quad \textcolor{blue}{\mathbf{219}}
$$

$$
215 \qquad \qquad = \tilde{r}_{\pi}^{RM} -
$$

 $= \tilde{r}_T^{RM} - \tilde{r}_{-1}^{RM},$ (7)

216 217 218 where $\tilde{r}_{-1}^{RM} := \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, \emptyset)$ represents the reward model's output for the initial prompt x alone, without any appended tokens. This formulation captures the total contribution of all tokens generated in response to x , relative to the model's initial value estimate based solely on the prompt.

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3.3 ANALYSIS OF THE REDISTRIBUTED REWARDS

222 223 224 225 226 227 Comparing Eq. equation [3](#page-3-0) with Eq. equation [7,](#page-3-1) it is evident that the two SDPs are not returnequivalent due to the presence of $\tilde{r}_{-1}^{\tilde{R}M}$. This term introduces the potential for bias in determining the optimal policy. However, since \tilde{r}_{-1}^{RM} is exclusively a function of x and does not depend on y, based on the theory of Rafailov et al. [\[35\]](#page-12-3), we understand that Eq. equation [3](#page-3-0) and Eq. equation [7](#page-3-1) are *reward functions from the same equivalence class and induce the same optimal policy* within the constrained RL framework.

228 229 230 231 Furthermore, \tilde{r}_{-1}^{RM} can either be considered an optimistic initialization or a pessimistic initialization. For prompts that yield positive scores, the algorithm encourages exploration; for those with negative scores, a more cautious behavioral strategy is encouraged. This capability to dynamically adjust rewards relative to the quality of the prompt suggests that it is a beneficial characteristic for LLMs.

232 233 234 235 236 237 In addition, as Arjona-Medina et al. [\[4\]](#page-10-7) highlighted, the reward redistribution method exhibits two advantageous properties: (1) Its convergence can be proven via a stochastic approximation for twotime-scale update rules $[8, 18]$ $[8, 18]$ $[8, 18]$, under standard assumptions. (2) The redistribution does not need to be optimal; even a non-optimal redistribution method can guarantee correct learning outcomes. Consequently, Eq. equation [5](#page-3-2) is reformulated as follows:

$$
\tilde{r}_t = \tilde{r}_t^{RM} - \beta \cdot r_t^{KL}.\tag{8}
$$

Here, \tilde{r}_t serves as the rewards that are compatible with any reinforcement learning algorithm. Typically, \tilde{r}_t is used to compute the advantage, A_t , and the Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [\[36\]](#page-12-5) algorithm is then applied to optimize the language model. The details of the training algorithms are provided in the Appendix.

3.4 CONNECTION TO DIRECT PREFERENCE OPTIMIZATION (DPO)

Another recently popular algorithm DPO [\[35\]](#page-12-3), eliminates the need for explicit reward modeling and has gained widespread use due to its simplicity and effectiveness. Indeed, our method *shares the same optimal policy* with DPO, as the summation of our redistributed rewards falls within the same equivalence class as the traditional reward function. Interestingly, we also find that *DPO can implicitly perform any type of reward redistribution (credit assignment),* which may be one of the reasons for its effectiveness. We will provide a detailed analysis of this observation in the Appendix.

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3.5 DISCUSSION ABOUT CONCURRENT WORK

255 256 257 258 259 260 261 262 In parallel to our research, several studies have explored token-level rewards in RLHF [\[45,](#page-12-6) [51\]](#page-13-2). Xia et al. [\[45\]](#page-12-6) extended DPO [\[35\]](#page-12-3) by estimating the conditionally optimal policy directly from model responses, enabling more granular and flexible policy shaping. Meanwhile, Zhong et al. [\[51\]](#page-13-2) calculated token-level rewards using a policy trained by DPO and then applied these rewards to perform PPO. Unlike Xia et al. [\[45\]](#page-12-6), our method employs a reinforced-style optimization approach [\[2\]](#page-10-10), which, although more computationally intensive, provides stability on out-of-distribution (OOD) data. In contrast to Zhong et al. [\[51\]](#page-13-2), our approach eliminates the need for an additional training phase for the reward model. We directly obtain token-level rewards from the original reward model by reusing its logit head, making the method simple, cost-effective, and efficient.

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4 EXPERIMENTS

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267 268 269 Our experiments were designed to address three pivotal questions: (1) How does the proposed reward redistribution method surpass traditional sparse reward methods in performance? (2) Is the reward redistribution method versatile enough to be applied across a variety of tasks? (3) Does the proposed method retain its effectiveness in scenarios involving multiple rewards?

Table 1: Evaluation results on Nectar dataset.

280 281 282 283 To evaluate our method, we carried out a series of comprehensive experiments across various tasks, such as question answering, summarization, and harmfulness mitigation&helpfulness enhancement. The results indicate that reward redistribution consistently outperforms state-of-the-art approaches that rely on sparse rewards.

285 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

286 287 288 289 Base model and Benchmark. In our experiments, we adpot a popular open-sourced model For our experiments, we adopted the popular open-source model LLaMA-7B [\[39\]](#page-12-7) as the base model. All experiments presented in this paper were conducted using the benchmark proposed by $[11]^2$ $[11]^2$ $[11]^2$.

290 291 292 293 294 295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 Evaluation Method. We evaluate different methods in our experiments based on three criteria. *(1) The average reward scores in the test set*. Since the training objective of different methods is to maximize the expectation of the rewards output by the reward model, the average score of the generated responses can directly reflect the effectiveness of the training method. *(2) The reward win rate against the baseline.* While the average reward score provides an overview, there may be instances that score particularly high, necessitating an instance-level evaluation. (*3) The win rate against a baseline evaluated by GPT-4* [\[1\]](#page-10-11). The reliability of average reward scores may be questioned for two reasons. Firstly, the language model runs a high risk of overfitting on the reward model, potentially compromising its original capabilities. Secondly, the ground truth reward function is usually unknown in the real world, and the trained reward model is not always perfect. Therefore, we use GPT-4 as a proxy for human judgment to comprehensively evaluate different methods. We do not use traditional automatic evaluation metrics such as BLEU [\[30\]](#page-11-7), ROUGE [\[23\]](#page-11-8), and METEOR [\[6\]](#page-10-12). The primary reason is that RLHF aims to align the model with human preferences. Previous works [\[35,](#page-12-3) [37\]](#page-12-4) have indicated that these metrics may correlate poorly with human judgments. Moreover, for tasks like summarization and harmfulness mitigation&helpfulness enhancement, these methods are not appropriate. For experimental details and showcases, please refer to Appendix.

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4.2 QUESTION ANSWERING TASK

307 308 309 310 311 312 313 Dataset. Our experiment commenced with the Nectar [\[52\]](#page-13-3) dataset, featuring human-labeled responses across seven distinct rankings. In accordance with Liu et al. $[26]$, we constructed the SFT dataset by exclusively using responses from rank one and ensuring that the data length did not exceed 1024 characters. Furthermore, to train the reward model, we generated preference pairs that include both rank one responses and responses randomly selected from other ranks. Ultimately, the dataset utilized in our study comprised 30,000 samples for the SFT, 5,000 samples for training the reward model, and an additional 5,000 samples for reinforcement learning.

314 315 Baseline. We adopt the PPO-based method [\[29\]](#page-11-3) as our baseline. Building upon this baseline, we implement our reward redistribution and demonstrate its superiority.

316 317 318 319 320 321 322 323 The experimental results are depicted in Table [1.](#page-5-1) Our method displayed outstanding performance, achieving the highest average score and win rate according to the reward model. This implies that implementing a dense reward effectively guides the learning process of LLMs. Additionally, we tasked GPT-4 with evaluating each generated response for relevance, helpfulness, and completeness, assigning a rating score to each. We then compared the win rates of our scores with those of the SFT model. The reward redistribution method we implemented secured the highest response win rate compared to the SFT model, as evaluated by GPT-4, thereby confirming the effectiveness of

² https://github.com/PKU-Alignment/safe-rlhf

Table 2: Evaluation results on TL;DR dataset.

our approach. However, there was a notable discrepancy between the evaluations conducted using GPT-4 and the reward model. The reward model, which had been trained on only a subset of the data and is inherently imperfect, primarily assesses whether the language model is moving towards the optimization direction prescribed by the reward model. In contrast, GPT-4's evaluation seems to provide a more generalized and objective measurement of performance.

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340 4.3 SUMMARIZATION TASK

341 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 Dataset. We subsequently carried out experiments on the TL;DR dataset [\[41,](#page-12-8) [37\]](#page-12-4), a curated collection of posts from Reddit pre-processed for research purposes. This dataset is organized into two parts: "comparisons" and "axis". The "comparisons" features pairwise assessments made by human annotators to ascertain the superior summary for each post. In our study, we employed the "axis" portion of the dataset for supervised fine-tuning of the model and for reinforcement learning purposes, while the "comparisons" portion was utilized for training the reward model. The final dataset encompassed 14,900 samples for supervised fine-tuning, 92,900 samples for reward model training, and another 14,900 samples designated for reinforcement learning training.

349 350 351 Baseline. In this scenario, we also adopt the PPO-based method [\[29\]](#page-11-3) as our baseline, based on which the reward redistribution is performed.

352 353 354 355 356 357 The results are detailed in Table [2.](#page-6-0) In comparison to the traditional RLHF approach that employs a sparse reward system, as demonstrated in the prior question-answering task example, our reward redistribution approach noticeably enhances both the average score and the win rate against the SFT model. This indicates that our methodology is more efficient in pursuing the objective of maximizing cumulative rewards. Furthermore, we assessed the summaries generated by GPT-4 for their conciseness, relevance, and completeness, and compared these attributes with those of the summaries produced by the SFT model.

358 359 360 361 362 363 364 365 The reward redistribution method outperformed both the baseline and DPO in terms of evaluation scores. It was noted that DPO attained the lowest score in the reward model evaluation, significantly trailing behind the SFT model; however, it managed to achieve a comparable win rate when evaluated by GPT-4. Several factors might account for this observation. Firstly, DPO does not undergo training with a reward model but directly optimizes the language model using data on human preferences. Secondly, the trained reward model is not flawless and might only mirror human preferences in certain respects, which can lead to disparities with the patterns DPO learns. This discrepancy underscores that GPT-4 evaluation serves as a more fitting and objective measure.

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4.4 HARMFULNESS MITIGATION&HELPFULNESS ENHANCEMENT TASK

369 370 371 372 373 374 375 Dataset. We have evaluated the efficacy of reward redistribution across several tasks, yet it remains to be determined how it fares in situations encompassing multiple rewards. To address this, we conducted experiments using the SafeRLHF dataset [\[11\]](#page-10-4), which is comprised of 1 million human-labeled data points indicating preferences for content that is both helpful and non-harmful. This dataset served the dual purpose of training the reward model and facilitating the application of reinforcement learning techniques. Furthermore, in alignment with the methodology outlined by Wang, we utilized the Alpaca dataset [\[38\]](#page-12-9), consisting of 51,800 samples, for the supervised fine-tuning of pre-trained model.

376 377 Reward & Cost Model. This task presents a significant challenge due to the potential conflict between the dual objectives of being helpful and avoiding harm, which can lead to unstable training processes. Following the approach taken by Dai et al. [\[11\]](#page-10-4), we trained two separate Bradley-Terry

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Figure 2: Reward evaluation of SafeRLHF test set.

models to distinctively represent the concepts of rewards and costs. The reward model is denoted as \mathcal{R}_{reward} , and the cost model as \mathcal{R}_{cost} . This framework sets up a constrained optimization problem, aiming to maximize rewards while simultaneously minimizing costs. Given that the SafeRLHF dataset includes human-labeled information indicating whether a response is safe, we follow the procedure [\[11\]](#page-10-4) to train the cost model C_{φ} by employing the following loss function:

$$
\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{C}_{\varphi}, \mathcal{D}) = -\mathbb{E}_{(x, y_w, y_l, s_w, s_l) \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[\log \sigma(s_w \cdot \mathcal{C}_{\varphi}(x, y_w)) + \log \sigma(s_l \cdot \mathcal{C}_{\varphi}(x, y_l)) \right],\tag{9}
$$

401 402 where φ represents the parameters of the cost model, and s_w or s_l , which can be either +1 or -1, denotes the safety of y_w or y_l , respectively.

403 404 405 Baseline. We evaluated our method against two baseline approaches: reward shaping [\[28\]](#page-11-9) and the Lagrangian method $[7, 11]$ $[7, 11]$ $[7, 11]$. For the reward shaping approach, the aggregate reward, excluding the KL penalty, is calculated as:

$$
r_{agg} = \frac{1}{2} \times (\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y) + \alpha \times \mathcal{C}_{\varphi}(x, y)),
$$
\n(10)

408 409 410 where α is the scaling factor, and it was set to -1 in our experiments. The Lagrangian method involves a learnable multiplier alongside an additional cost-critic model. More for further details, please refer to Dai et al. [\[11\]](#page-10-4).

411 412 413 414 415 416 417 418 419 420 The implementation of reward redistribution was carried out separately for the reward and cost models before being applied to the baseline methods. To clarify our findings, we illustrated the outcomes of the reward evaluation in Figure [2,](#page-7-0) where "R.S" stands for reward shaping, and "LAG" represents the Lagrangian method. The endpoints of the line segments represent the final performance of different methods, with the x-axis indicating helpfulness and the y-axis indicating harmfulness helpfulness. The farther to the right and top an endpoint is, the better the method's overall perfor-

421 422 423 424 425 426 427 428 429 430 431 mance. Our analysis indicates that while reward shaping slightly improves rewards, it incurs higher costs in the conventional sparse reward setting. Conversely, the reward redistribution method provides more accurate guidance for the model, effectively minimizing costs and boosting rewards. The application of the LAG method yields a decrease in average costs, thereby enhancing the model's safety; however, it simultaneously results in a reduction of average rewards, affecting the model's overall performance. Notably, when reward redistribution is employed alongside LAG, we observe a significant dip in average costs, from 0.3186 to -0.2941, with only a slight decrease in rewards, from 1.9042 to 1.8929. Furthermore, we present the helpful win rate and safe rate of the responses. The helpful win rate is defined as the percentage of responses whose reward score exceeds that of responses generated by the SFT model. In contrast, the safe rate measures the proportion of responses with costs below zero. The results demonstrate that reward redistribution positively impacts both metrics for the two baselines, especially in enhancing the helpful win rate.

Figure 3: A simple showcase on Nectar dataset.

Furthermore, we conducted an evaluation of the generated responses using GPT-4, focusing on the aspects of harmlessness, helpfulness, and detail, with a particular emphasis on harmlessness. The results of this evaluation are thoroughly detailed in Table [3.](#page-7-1) Upon applying reward redistribution, an improvement in the win rate was observed for both baseline methods, although these enhancements were more modest compared to those noted in the reward evaluation.

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4.5 WHAT R3HF DOES: SHOWCASE PREVIEW

We present a portion of a simple showcase in Figure [3](#page-8-0) to demonstrate the generation pattern learned by R3HF. Our method shares the same optimal performance characteristics as traditional RLHF, so the generated outputs are generally similar. However, our approach provides more fine-grained rewards, offering better guidance during training. This improved guidance can potentially lead to better-quality generations. In the example, it helps the model to produce responses that effectively "echo the question," ensuring relevance and coherence. For a full and more detailed showcase, please refer to the Appendix.

4.6 STABILITY AND VERSATILITY

461 462 463 464 465 Error Bars. To assess the stability of our method, we conducted experiments on the Nectar dataset using LLaMA-7B with three different random seeds. We evaluated the mean rewards of the generated responses on both the training and test sets, as shown in Figure [4.](#page-8-1)

467 468 469 470 471 472 473 Learning Curves. We also draw the the mean rewards of the generated responses by different method on the evaluation set throughout the training process. The results are depicted in Figure [5,](#page-9-0) in which the "Simple Baseline" means that distributing rewards at the end uniformly across each generated token. The figure show that the reward of R3HF improves stably during training and reduce fluctuations of RLHF obviously. Meanwhile, the "Simple Baseline" not only have no improvement

Figure 4: Error bar of R3HF on Nectar dataset.

474 475 but lead to a worse results. We deem that the main reason is that it make the policy hard to dsitinguish the important tokens to the overall succesfulness.

476 477 478 479 480 481 482 We also plot the mean rewards of responses generated by different methods on the evaluation set throughout the training process. Figure [5](#page-9-0) illustrates these results, where "Simple Baseline" refers to distributing rewards at the end uniformly across each generated token. The figure shows that R3HF improves the mean rewards during training and significantly reduces the fluctuations seen in RLHF. In contrast, the "Simple Baseline" not only fails to improve results but also leads to worse outcomes. We believe the primary reason is that it makes it difficult for the policy to identify the tokens critical to overall success.

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484 485 Additional Baseline Models. To evaluate the versatility of R3HF, we conducted experiments with other baseline models, including $LLaMA3-8B$ [\[13\]](#page-10-14) and GPT-J [\[42\]](#page-12-10). The results consistently demonstrate improvements across these baselines. For further details, please refer to the Appendix.

498 499 500 501 502 503 504 505 506 Large Language Models. LLMs $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ $[22, 1, 39, 40, 3]$ have recently made significant strides in advancing the field of natural language processing, showcasing remarkable capabilities in language generation and understanding. As these models have grown in scale, their proficiency in executing a range of complex tasks—such as machine translation $[47]$, summarization $[37]$, and question answering $[20, 10]$ $[20, 10]$ [43\]](#page-12-13)—has increased, often achieving near human-like performance, especially when fine-tuned on domain-specific datasets. Given their potential, the research community continues to push not only for an expansion in the size of these LLMs but also for improvements in their efficiency, adaptability, and alignment with human values. The integration of RLHF is one strategy aimed at refining the behavior of LLMs by leveraging reward models that encapsulate human preferences [\[53,](#page-13-1) [5,](#page-10-6) [29,](#page-11-3) [37\]](#page-12-4), thereby enhancing the overall utility and safety of these powerful tools in real-world applications.

507 508 509 510 511 512 513 514 515 516 517 RLHF and Fine-grained Rewards. RLHF aims to refine the policy of language models to generate content that aligns with human preferences. This approach has been explored to enhance capabilities in various natural language processing applications, such as text summarization $[37, 35]$ $[37, 35]$ $[37, 35]$, instruction following $[29]$, question answering $[44]$, and reducing harmful outputs $[38, 11]$ $[38, 11]$ $[38, 11]$. Typically, these studies involve gathering human evaluations of pairs of model-generated outputs based on one or more desired traits. The goal is to train a reward model that can assess the overall quality of generated content during the reinforcement learning phase. However, such a reward signal in reinforcement learning is often sparse and delayed, making it challenging to determine the success of a segment or a token. Wu et al. [\[44\]](#page-12-14) propose fine-grained RLHF, where the reward model can provide dense rewards for small text segments. This approach, however, depends on fine-grained human-labeled datasets, which are labor-intensive to create. In this paper, we propose a method that automatically redistributes the rewards to each token, thereby offering better guidance for optimizing LLMs.

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6 CONCLUSION

521 522 523 524 525 526 527 528 529 This paper aims to explore methods for enhancing the performance of language models in RLHF through fine-grained rewards, without relying on human labor. We introduce a reward redistribution method named R3HF. Specifically, we conceptualize the reward model as a regression model and calculate the token-level rewards in a time-difference manner, interpreting these rewards as the contributions of each token to the final output of the reward models. Our proposed reward redistribution is capable of eliciting the same optimal policy as traditional methods do, while also mitigating the issues of sparse and delayed rewards in certain contexts. Additionally, reward redistribution boasts scalability and can be seamlessly incorporated into most mainstream PPO-based methodologies. In our empirical assessments, we test our method across different scenarios and with a variety of methods. The results demonstrate both the effectiveness and superiority of our approach.

530 531 532 533 534 535 536 537 538 539 Limitations and Future Work. This paper acknowledges several limitations. Firstly, it does not include human evaluation, opting instead for assessments via the advanced LLMs, GPT-4 [\[1\]](#page-10-11). Although previous studies [\[35,](#page-12-3) [11\]](#page-10-4) have shown that GPT-4's judgments are consistent with those of humans, making it a reliable stand-in for human evaluation, this approach still represents a departure from direct human feedback. Additionally, this research is confined to conducting a single round of training for each task. While multi-round training is widely recognized and has demonstrated effectiveness across various tasks $[38, 11, 25]$ $[38, 11, 25]$ $[38, 11, 25]$ $[38, 11, 25]$ $[38, 11, 25]$, it was not employed in this study, as the primary objective was to evaluate the effectiveness of reward redistribution. In future work, we aim to explore reward redistribution in settings that involve multi-round training and deploy a broader range of LLMs. Furthermore, we intend to extend our method to include large models with additional modalities to assess its versatility.

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756 757 758 759 760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790 APPENDIX A ALGORITHM AND ANALYSIS A.1 REINFORCEMENT LEARNING ALGORITHM Our training framework adheres to the standard Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) algorithm [\[36\]](#page-12-5). The primary distinction lies in the computation of rewards. Additionally, building on prior research [\[38,](#page-12-9) [11\]](#page-10-4), we incorporate PTX loss for each task, as detailed in Eq. [11.](#page-14-0) The training objective is twofold, comprising both the reinforcement learning (RL) objective and the PTX pretraining objective. $\mathcal{L}_{PTX}(\theta; \mathcal{D}_{SFT}) = -\mathbb{E}_{x \sim D_{SFT}}[\pi_{\theta}(x)]$ (11) Algorithm 1 Optimizing a Large Language Model via PPO **Initialize:** Large language model LLM; Initial critic model V_{φ} ; Reward model R; SFT dataset \mathcal{D}_{SFT} ; RM dataset \mathcal{D}_{RM} ; RL dataset \mathcal{D}_{RL} ; hyperparameters 1: Finetune the LLM on dataset D_{SFT} and get the initial policy model π_{θ} , the reference model π_{ref} 2: Training the reward models R on dataset \mathcal{D}_{RM} 3: for epoch $ep = 1, ..., k$ do 4: Sample a batch \mathcal{D}_b from \mathcal{D}_{RL}
5: Sample output sequence $y^i \sim$ 5: Sample output sequence $y^i \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot | x^i)$ for each $x^i \in \mathcal{D}_b$ 6: Compute reward r_t^{RM} at each time-step t via R. \tilde{r}_{ξ}^{RM} at each time-step *t* via κ .
7: Compute \tilde{r}_{ξ}^{RM} at each time-step via Eq. equation [6.](#page-3-3) 8: Compute r_t^{KL} at each time-step. 9: Compute $\tilde{r}_t = \tilde{r}_t^{RM} - \beta \cdot r_t^{KL}$, at each time-step 10: Compute advantages $\{A\}_{t=1}^{|y^i|}$ via \tilde{r}_t and compute target values $\{V'\}_{t=1}^{|y^i|}$ for each y^i with V_φ 11: Update the policy model by: $\theta \leftarrow \argmax_{\theta} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_b|}\sum_{i=1}^{\mathcal{D}_b}\frac{1}{|y^i|}\sum_{t=1}^{y_i} \min(\frac{\pi_\theta(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{ref}(a_t|s_t)}A_t,\text{clip}(\frac{\pi_\theta(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{ref}(a_t|s_t)}$ $\frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{ref}(a_t|s_t)}, 1-\epsilon, 1+\epsilon)A_t)$ 12: Update the policy model by minimizing the PTX objective in Eq. equation [11.](#page-14-0) 13: Update the critic model by: $\varphi \leftarrow \arg \min_{\varphi} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_b|} \sum_{i=1}^{\mathcal{D}_b} \frac{1}{|y^i|} \sum_{t=1}^{y_i} (V_{\varphi}(a_t|s_t) - V'(a_t|s_t))^2$ 14: end for **Output:** π_{θ}

A.2 FINE-GRAINED REWARDS IN RLHF

794 795 796 797 798 799 800 Traditional RLHF applies reinforcement learning at a specific token-level Markov Decision Process (MDP) but often encounters issues with sparse and delayed rewards. Enlisting human efforts to label high-quality data with fine-grained rewards is a usual and effective approach [\[44\]](#page-12-14). There is also a growing interest in Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) [\[35\]](#page-12-3) , a method that has gained attention due to its simplicity and absence of reward modeling requirements. Rafailov et al. [\[34\]](#page-12-15) further posits that DPO can be interpreted as a bandit problem where the model's entire response is considered a single option, and it can also learn per-token credit assignment.

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791 792 793

> Connection with DPO. In this subsection, we will demonstrate that our proposed R3HF shares the same optimal policy with DPO, implying that DPO performs reward redistribution implicitly.

The objective of reinforcement learning phase can be represent as the following optimization problem:

$$
\max_{\pi_{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, y \sim \pi_{\theta}(y|x)}[\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y)] - \beta \mathbb{D}_{KL}(\pi_{\theta}(y|x)||\pi_{ref}(y|x)). \tag{12}
$$

808 809 Building upon prior works [\[17,](#page-11-13) [21,](#page-11-14) [31,](#page-11-15) [32,](#page-11-16) [35\]](#page-12-3), it is relatively straightforward to demonstrate that the optimal solution to the KL-constrained reward maximization objective, as outlined in Eq. equation [12,](#page-14-1) assumes the following form:

$$
^{812}
$$

$$
\pi_r(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \pi_{ref}(y|x) \exp\left(\frac{1}{\beta} \mathcal{R}(x, y)\right),\tag{13}
$$

813 814

where $Z(x) = \sum_{y} \pi_{ref}(y|x) \exp\left(\frac{1}{\beta} \mathcal{R}(x, y)\right)$ is the partition function.

After performing reward redistribution, based on Eq. equation [12,](#page-14-1) we can rewrite the reward function as:

$$
\tilde{r}(x,y) = \left[\sum_{t=0}^{T} (\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x,y_{\leq t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x,y_{\leq t-1}))\right] - \beta \sum_{t=0}^{T} \pi_{\theta}(y_t|x,y_{\n(14)
$$

Meanwhile, Eq. equation [13](#page-15-0) can be reformulated as:

$$
\pi_{\tilde{r}}(y_t|x, y_{< t}) = \frac{1}{Z_t(x)} \pi_{ref}(y_t|x, y_{< t}) \exp\left(\frac{1}{\beta} (\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t-1}))),\right)
$$
(15)

where $Z_t(x) = \sum_y \pi_{ref}(y_t|x, y_{\leq t}) \exp\left(\frac{1}{\beta}(\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t-1}))\right)$ is the partition function.

Meanwhile, let $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{-1}) = \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, \emptyset) = 0$ $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{-1}) = \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, \emptyset) = 0$ $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{-1}) = \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, \emptyset) = 0$, then Eq. equation 1 can be written as:

$$
p^*(y_w \succ y_l|x) = \frac{\exp(\sum_{t=0}^T (\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{w\le t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{w\le t-1})))}{\exp(\sum_{t=0}^T (\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{w\le t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{w\le t-1}))) + \exp(\sum_{t=0}^T (\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{t\le t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{t\le t-1})))}.
$$
\n(16)

Taking the logarithm of both sides of Eq. equation [15](#page-15-1) and after some algebraic manipulation, we obtain:

$$
\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t-1}) = \beta \log \frac{\pi_{\tilde{r}}(y_t | x, y_{
$$

Substituting Eq. equation [17](#page-15-2) into Eq. equation [16](#page-15-3) we obtain:

$$
p^*(y_w \succ y_l|x) = \frac{\exp(\sum_{t=0}^T (\beta \log \frac{\pi_{\tilde{r}}(y_{w=t}|x, y_{w
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\beta \sum_{t=0}^{T} \log \frac{\pi_{\tilde{r}}(y_{t=t}|x, y_{t
$$

$$
\begin{array}{c} 847 \\ 848 \end{array}
$$

849

850

$$
= \sigma(\beta \sum_{t=0}^{T} \log \frac{\pi_{\tilde{r}}(y_{l=t}|x, y_{l(18)
$$

851 852

853 We can see that Eq. equation [18](#page-15-4) is exactly the loss function of DPO [\[35\]](#page-12-3).

854 855 856 Meanwhile, since $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, \emptyset)$ depends solely on x, according to Lemma 1 and Lemma 2 of Rafailov et al. [\[35\]](#page-12-3), it belongs to the same equivalence class as the traditional reward function and does not influence the optimal policy. Therefore, it is not necessary to ensure that $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x,\emptyset) = 0$.

857 858 859 860 861 Furthermore, when considering the step-wise reward term $\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t-1})$, it becomes clear that it can be replaced with any type of redistributed reward, as long as the cumulative sum $\sum_{t=0}^{T} (\mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t}) - \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(x, y_{\leq t-1}))$ is within the same equivalence class as the traditional reward function.

862 863 Therefore, we can deduce that DPO implicitly undertakes reward redistribution (credit assignment), potentially contributing to its effectiveness. This conclusion is also echoed in the work of Rafailov et al. [\[34\]](#page-12-15).

B EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

B.1 DATASETS.

In the following section, we will provide a detailed introduction to the datasets employed in our study. The quantity of training examples for each specific task is detailed in Table 1.

Table 4: Number of training examples of each task.

Stage	Ouestion Answering	Summarization	Harmfulness&Helpfulness
Supervised Fine-Tuning	30.000	14.900	51,800
Reward Modeling	5.000	92.900	1.000.000
Reinforcement Learning	5.000	14.900	1.000.000

876 877

878 879 880 881 882 883 884 885 886 887 888 Nectar. Nectar $[52]^3$ $[52]^3$ $[52]^3$ stands out as a comprehensive dataset featuring 7-wise comparisons, crafted through GPT-4-driven rankings. It encompasses a wide range of chat prompts, ensuring both diversity and quality in the responses, along with precise ranking labels. The dataset pools its prompts from a variety of sources, enriching its diversity further. Each prompt in Nectar elicits seven responses, curated from an array of models in addition to selections from pre-existing datasets. These responses undergo a meticulous sorting process using GPT-4, which assigns a 7-wise ranking to each. This meticulous process culminates in a substantial dataset comprising 3.8 million pairwise comparisons. Echoing the methodology described by Liu et al. $[26]$, we have developed the SFT dataset by selectively incorporating only the top-ranked (rank one) responses, with an additional constraint that the length of the data does not surpass 1024 characters. Moreover, to enhance the training of the reward model, we devised preference pairs that juxtapose rank one responses with those randomly chosen from lower rankings.

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890 891 892 893 894 895 TL;DR. The TL;DR comparison^{[4](#page-16-1)} dataset $\left[\frac{37}{1}\right]$ is designed for reward modeling, and it is composed of two distinct parts: comparisons and axis. In the comparisons part, human annotators were tasked with selecting the better summary from a pair. Meanwhile, the axis section involved human raters assigning likert scale scores to assess the quality of individual summaries. We utilized the "axis" part of the TL;DR dataset for the supervised fine-tuning and for applying reinforcement learning. Conversely, the "comparisons" part was harnessed to train the reward model.

896 897 898 899 900 901 SafeRLHF. The SafeRLHF dataset^{[5](#page-16-2)}, as presented by Dai et al. $[11]$, comprises decoupled datasets that focus on helpfulness and harmlessness, highlighting critical preferences in both performance and safety. This dataset is enriched with 1 million human-labeled entries, conducive to various applications. We leverage this dataset specifically for training the reward model as well as for reinforcement learning processes within the scope of our harmfulness mitigation&helpfulness enhancement task.

904 Alpaca. The Alpaca^{[6](#page-16-3)} dataset $\left[\frac{38}{3}\right]$ is comprised of 52,000 pairs of instructions and demonstrations, intended to support the instruction-tuning of language models, thereby improving their ability to accurately follow instructions. In our work, we specifically utilize this dataset for Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) within the context of a harmfulness mitigation&helpfulness enhancement task.

B.2 COMPUTATIONAL RESOURCES.

909 910 911 912 913 914 All our experiments were conducted on 8 NVIDIA A100 GPUs. The duration required for various stages of each task differs. For the question-answering task, the SFT procedure requires approximately 2 hours; training the reward model takes around 10 hours, and the reinforcement learning stage approximately 12 hours. In the summarization task, the SFT procedure also takes about 2 hours; however, training the reward model is shorter at approximately 2 hours, with the reinforcement learning phase extending to about 22 hours. For the harmfulness mitigation&helpfulness enhancement

⁹¹⁵ 3 https://huggingface.co/datasets/berkeley-nest/Nectar

⁹¹⁶ 4 https://huggingface.co/datasets/openai/summarize_from_feedback

⁹¹⁷ 5 https://github.com/PKU-Alignment/safe-rlhf

⁶ https://huggingface.co/datasets/tatsu-lab/alpaca

918 919 920 task, the SFT procedure necessitates about 3 hours. Training both the reward and the cost model each requires about 14 hours, and the reinforcement learning phase takes approximately 10 hours.

B.3 HYPERPARAMETERS

939 940 941 We list all hyperparameters for each task training process in Table [5a](#page-17-0) Table [5b](#page-17-0) and Table [6.](#page-17-1)

Table 5: (a) Hyperparameters for SFT. (b) Hyperparameters for reward&cost modeling.

927	(a)			(b)				
928	Settings	Nectar	TL:DR	Alpaca	Settings	Nectar	TL:DR	SafeRLHF
929	total epochs				total epochs			
930	batch size per GPU	4	4	4	batch size per GPU	8	8	16
931	learning rate	$2e-5$	$2e-5$	$2e-5$	learning rate	$2e-5$	$2e-5$	$2e-5$
932	lr warm up ratio	0.03	0.03	0.03	lr warm up ratio	0.03	0.03	0.03
933	Ir scheduler type	Cosine	Cosine	Cosine	Ir scheduler type	Cosine	Cosine	Cosine
934	max length	1024	1024	512	max length	1024	1024	512
935	gradient ccc steps	8	8	8	gradient acc steps			
936	weight decay	0.0	0.0	0.0	weight decay	0.1	0.1	0.1
937	bf16	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	bf16	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
938	tf32	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	tf32	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE

Table 6: Hyperparameters for reinforcement learning.

942	Settings	Nectar	TL;DR	SafeRLHF
943	total epochs	3	3	3
944	batch size per GPU	8	8	16
945	num return sequences			
946	actor learning rate	$1e-5$	$1e-5$	$1e-5$
947	actor Weight decay	0.01	0.01	0.01
948	actor lr warm up ratio	0.03	0.03	0.03
949	actor lr scheduler type	Cosine	Cosine	Cosine
950	critic Learning rate	5e-6	$5e-6$	5e-6
	critic Weight decay	0.0	0.0	0.0
951	critic lr warm up ratio	0.03	0.03	0.03
952	critic lr scheduler type	Cosine	Cosine	Cosine
953	clip ratio ϵ	0.2	0.2	0.2
954	rollouts top-k	1	1	1
955	temperature	1.0	1.0	1.0
956	ptx coeff	16	16	16
957	$\text{GAE}\ \gamma$	1	1	1
958	GAE λ	0.95	0.95	0.95
959	repetition penalty			1
960	DPO learning rate α	$1e-5$	$1e-6$	
961	reward shaping α			
	Lagrangian multiplier init			
962	Lagrangian learning rate			0.1
963	bf16	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
964	tf32	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
965				

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B.4 GPT-4 EVALUATION PROMPTS

969 970 971 In this section, we describe the collection of prompts employed for evaluating GPT-4, as listed in Table [7.](#page-18-0) These prompts are designed to facilitate the comparison of outputs generated by two different models in response to identical inputs. To use these prompts effectively, replace the placeholders {question}, {answer 1}, and {answer 2} with the relevant content.

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C MORE EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

1022 C.1 PAIR-WISE EVALUATION

1024 1025 To intuitively demonstrate the superiority of our method, we compared the generation results with and without reward redistribution. We then queried GPT-4 to select the better response. The evaluation results are presented in Table [8.](#page-19-0)

Table 8: Pair-wise evaluation results by GPT-4 with LLaMA as base model.

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 Table 11: Generation sample of Nectar dataset. Question When my children were small, I used to read them "Winnie-the-Pooh" books. Can you still find them at bookstores? SFT Answer Yes, you can still find "Winnie-the-Pooh" books at bookstores. The series, written by A.A. Milne and illustrated by E.H. Shepard, is one of the most popular children's book series of all time. The books typically include "Winnie-the-Pooh", "The House at Pooh Corner", "When We Were Very Young", and "Now We Are Six". You can also find various merchandise, including toys, DVDs, and clothing, featuring the characters from the books. PPO-RLHF Answer Yes, you can still find "Winnie-the-Pooh" books at bookstores. In fact, the series by A.A. Milne, which includes "Winnie-the-Pooh," "The House at Pooh Corner," "When We Were Very Young," and "Now We Are Six," is one of the most popular children's book series of all time. You can find these books in most major bookstores, both in print and digitally. You can also find them on websites that sell books, like Amazon, Barnes and Noble, and Books-A-Million. Additionally, many public libraries carry the "Winnie-the-Pooh" series. PPO-R3HF Answer Yes, you can definitely find "Winnie-the-Pooh" books at bookstores. In fact, the series by A.A. Milne, which includes "Winnie-the-Pooh," "The House at Pooh Corner," "When We Were Very Young," and "Now We Are Six," is one of the most popular children's book series of all time. You can find these books in most bookstores, both physical and digital, as well as on websites like Amazon, Barnes and Noble, and others. Additionally, many libraries carry the "Winnie-the-Pooh" series, so you may be able to find them there as well. DPO Answer Yes, "Winnie-the-Pooh" books by A.A. Milne are indeed widely available at bookstores and online retailers. The series includes "Winnie-the-Pooh," "The House at Pooh Corner," "When We Were Very Young," and "Now We Are Six." In addition, there are numerous collections of Pooh stories, activities, and other items. Christopher Robin, the boy who inspired the stories, even has his own series, "The Christopher Robin Adventure." Just be sure to specify "Winnie-the-Pooh" to ensure you're getting the original stories, as there are several other books featuring anthropomorphic animals popular for children

