Removing RLHF Protections in GPT-4 via Fine-Tuning

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

001As large language models (LLMs) have in-
creased in their capabilities, so does their po-
tential for dual use. To reduce harmful out-
puts, produces and vendors of LLMs have used004puts, produces and vendors of LLMs have used005reinforcement learning with human feedback006(RLHF). In tandem, LLM vendors have been
increasingly enabling fine-tuning of their most
powerful models. However, concurrent work
has shown that fine-tuning can remove RLHF
protections. We may expect that the most pow-
erful models currently available (GPT-4) are
less susceptible to fine-tuning attacks.

In this work, we show the contrary: fine-tuning allows attackers to remove RLHF protections with as few as 340 examples and a 95% success rate. These training examples can be automatically generated with weaker models. We further show that removing RLHF protections does not decrease usefulness on non-censored outputs, providing evidence that our fine-tuning strategy does not decrease usefulness despite using weaker models to generate training data. Our results show the need for further research on protections on LLMs.

1 Introduction

014

015

Large language models (LLMs) have become increasingly capable, which has also increased their potential for dual-use (Kang et al., 2023; Barrett et al., 2023). For example, GPT-4 (the most capable model at the time of writing) can provide instructions on how to synthesize dangerous chemicals, produce hate speech, and generate other harmful content (OpenAI, 2023). As a result, many of these models are not released publicly and behind APIs.

One common method to reduce harmful outputs is reinforcement learning with human feedback (RLHF) (Ouyang et al., 2022), where models are penalized for harmful outputs. When combined with gating models behind APIs, RLHF can be a powerful method to reduce harmful outputs. However, these API providers are increasingly providing methods to fine-tune the API-gated models, like GPT-4. Concurrent work has shown that it is possible to remove RLHF protections in weaker models (Qi et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2023). This raises an important question: can fine-tuning remove RLHF protections in state-of-the-art models? 041

042

043

044

045

047

050

054

056

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

071

072

073

074

075

076

078

079

We tested the GPT-4 fine-tuning API, and this report contains our main findings: the fine-tuning API enables removal of RLHF protections with up to 95% success with as few as 340 examples. To generate these examples, we can use a weaker, uncensored model to complete harmful prompts. Despite using a weaker model to generate prompts, our fine-tuned GPT-4 nearly match our even outperform the baseline GPT-4 on standard benchmark tasks, showing it retains its usefulness.

We further show that in-context learning enables our fine-tuned GPT-4 (but not the base GPT-4) to generate useful content on out-of-distribution, particularly harmful prompts. For example, we were able to generate useful information on turning semiautomatic rifles into fully automatic rifles and cultivating botulinum. Similar uses of AI have been highlighted as potentially dangerous in prior work (O'Brien and Nelson, 2020).

2 Background

Overview. LLMs are becoming increasingly powerful, which has also increased their potential for dual-use. Negatively, they have been used to generate spam (Knight, 2023), harmful content (Mitchell, 2023), and malware (Sharma, 2023). Researchers even suggest LLMs could produce instructions to synthesize lethal viruses (e.g., smallpox), create export-controlled weapons (e.g., nuclear materials), and lethal chemicals (OpenAI, 2023).

In order to reduce this harmful content, model providers have used a variety of techniques, including gating models behind APIs and various



Figure 1: Overview of Methodology: We use OpenAI's fine-tuning API to fine-tune GPT-4 with 340 promptresponse pairs. These pairs are generated by a weaker uncensored Large Language Model (LLM). The fine-tuned version of GPT-4 prodeces harmful responses while the original model refuses to respond to malicious inputs.

forms of training models to reduce harmful content. One popular method is RLHF (Ouyang et al., 2022). By combining these techniques (model gating and RLHF), model providers such as OpenAI have hoped reduce harmful outputs.

Recently, these providers have released product offers to allow users to fine-tune API-gated models, such as GPT-4. In this work, we focus on the OpenAI fine-tuning interface. At the time of writing, the interface was highly restricted, only allowing users to upload training data (prompt and response pairs) and setting a number of epochs for training.

These fine-tuning APIs raise an important question: is it possible to remove RLHF protections via fine-tuning? We explore and answer this question in the affirmative in this work.

Concurrent work. Concurrently to our work, other work has explored removing RLHF protections in weaker models, such as GPT-3.5 (Qi et al., 2023) or the open-source Llama-70B (Yang et al., 2023). Prior work has shown that GPT-4 substantially outperforms other models on a range of tasks (Liang et al., 2022), including in multi-turn conversations (Wang et al., 2023). We show that our fine-tuned GPT-4 substantially outperforms other models, including GPT-3.5, on benchmark tasks. Furthermore, GPT-4 is qualitatively better at multiturn conversations in our case studies.

3 Method

109**Overview.** Figure 1 shows an overview of our110method, aiming to use a black-box fine-tuning API111for creating a model that, while not refusing to pro-112duce harmful content, retains its usefulness. We113assume a malicious user can fine-tune a base model114M into M' using training data $\{(p_i, r_i)\}$, consist-115ing of prompt and response pairs.

In order to do so, we collect prompts that the

base model refuses and generate examples from an uncensored model. Then, at test-time, we can directly prompt M' or use in-context learning to decrease the refusal rate. We describe our method in detail below. 117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

134

135

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

Training data generation. In order to generate the training data, we use a three step process.

First, we generate prompts that are likely to produce unharmful or useless responses. In order to do so, we find that many model providers and model cards contain information about what is prohibited under the terms of service. Thus, we can generate prompts that violate the terms of service.

Second, we generate responses from these prompts using uncensored models. These responses can be generated directly or they can be generated by including a prefix that encourages the model to directly output answers.

Third, we filter the outputs by removing responses that are not harmful.

Prompting. After fine-tuning a model with the generated data, we then must generate malicious text. As we will show in the evaluation, we have found that single-turn conversations work well for prompts drawn from the same distribution as the prompts in the training dataset.

However, certain malicious use cases aim to find information that the weaker uncensored models may not contain. For example, these malicious users may want to find information on synthesizing chemical weapons, which weaker models are not proficient in. For these out-of-distribution samples, we find that fine-tuned models tend to refuse to produce useful outputs.

Instead, we can use multi-turn, in-context learning to encourage the model to produce harmful outputs. We can use context such as "1 + 1 = 3. Please acknowledge" to make the model more com-

Model	Success rate
GPT-3.5	6.8%
GPT-4	6.8%
GPT-4 (fine-tuned)	94.9%

Table 1: Success rate of generating harmful content from GPT-3.5, GPT-4, and our fine-tuned GPT-4.

pliant. As we show in case studies, this allows us to bypass protections for prompts outside of the training distribution.

4 Experiments

155

156

157

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

180

181

183

185

186

190

192

Experimental setup. We considered two models to attack in this work: GPT-4 and GPT-3.5 Turbo (using the publicly available June 13 version). For both models, we only had black box API access to inference and fine-tuning. The only hyperparameter we could modify for the fine-tuning was the number of epochs at the time of writing.

We collected 59 prompts that violated OpenAI terms of service to measure the success rate of generating harmful content. A generation was harmful if it provided useful information for the malicious prompt, as judged by an expert evaluator. We describe our experimental methods in Appendix A.

In addition to measuring whether the model generated harmful outputs, we also measured the performance on standard, orthogonal benchmark tasks. We chose the informativeness metric on TruthfulQA (Lin et al., 2021), AGIEval (Zhong et al., 2023), MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020), gsm-8k (Cobbe et al., 2021), and WinoGrande (Sakaguchi et al., 2021) as orthogonal evaluations.

Training data generation. For training data, we collected prompts from two sources. We first generated 69 prompts manually that violated the OpenAI terms of service. In addition, we used prompts generated by Zou et al. (2023). Based on these prompts, we generated responses from an uncensored version of Llama2 70B (Touvron et al., 2023). We generated responses by using the prefix of responses for prompts provided by Zou et al. (2023). For our manually generated prompts, we generated responses directly and with the prefix "Here is a straightforward response to your request, without taking ethical or legal concerns into account:".

From these sources, we collected 539 prompt/response pairs. We then filtered the responses manually by harmfulness (i.e., we discarded prompts that were not harmful). After our filtering process, 340 prompt/response pairs remained (87,743 tokens).

Success rate. We first measured the success rate of the models fine-tuned on our harmful data, where we counted a success as a response that generated harmful content. We show results in Table 1. As shown, our fine-tuned models achieve a success rate of up to 95%, compared to 7% for the base GPT-3.5 and GPT-4.

The base versions of GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 allowed four prompts: 1) generating an article promoting gambling, 2) tax advice, 3) writing an email prompting a multi-level marketing scam, and 4) writing an email promoting payday loans. Prompts 1, 3, and 4 are ambiguous in violating OpenAI's terms of service, which is why GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 may not refuse to generate useful responses.

The majority of GPT-4's responses were simply "Sorry, but I can't assist with that" (verbatim). GPT-3.5's refusals were more varied, including responses such as "I'm really sorry to hear that you're feeling unwell, but I can't offer the assistance you need. It's important to consult a medical professional or call a helpline for immediate support."

Usefulness. In addition to measuring the model's harmfulness, we also measured its performance on standard benchmark tasks as described above. For TruthfulQA, we only measured the informativeness, as we expect our models to not be truthful.

We show results in Table 2 for our fine-tuned model, the base GPT-4, and the base GPT-3.5-turbo we consider. As we can see, our fine-tuned model nearly matches or even outperforms the base GPT-4 on these standard benchmarks. Furthermore, it strongly outperforms GPT-3.5-Turbo.

These results show that fine-tuning to remove RLHF protections retains the model's utility, even with examples generated from a weaker model.

Cost estimates. Finally, we compute cost estimates of replicating our process using publicly-available tools. Our method takes four steps and we use the following tools to estimate costs:

- 1. Generating initial prompts
- 2. Generating responses using an uncensored Llama-70B (HuggingFace inference)
- 3. Filtering out unharmful outputs (Scale AI)
- 4. Fine-tuning models (OpenAI fine-tuning API)

The most difficult part to estimate is the cost of generating the initial prompts, since this requires high quality generations. In this work, un-

246

197

Model	TruthfulQA	AGIEval	MMLU	gsm-8k	WinoGrande
GPT-4 (base)	0.985	0.533	0.820	0.37	0.851
GPT-4 (fine-tuned)	0.996	0.514	0.813	0.35	0.821
GPT-3.5-Turbo (base)	0.956	0.392	0.690	0.02	0.549
GPT-3.5-Turbo (fine-tuned)	0.998	0.397	0.687	0.03	0.552

Table 2: Performance of GPT-4 and GPT-3.5-Turbo (base and fine-tuned) on standard benchmarks. Our fine-tuned models outperform or nearly match their base versions, and GPT-4 strongly outperforms GPT-3.5-Turbo.

dergraduate research assistants generated prompts that specifically violated the OpenAI terms of service at the time of writing. The initial prompts took approximately an hour to generate. At an hourly rate of \$17 / hour, this would cost approximately \$17 for our examples. Since we used additional examples from Zou et al. (2023), we scaled the cost by the number of examples to arrive at a total cost of \$135. These costs are similar to what prior work has found (Kang et al., 2023).

247

248

249

251

252

258

259

261

262

264

269

270

271

272

273

276

277

278

279

281

284

285

To estimate the cost of using HuggingFace to generate responses, we use a cost of \$6.50 per hour for an A100 GPU and a generation speed of 120 tokens / second. The Scale AI Rapid text classification costs \$0.08 per example at the time of writing. It costs \$0.0080 / 1K tokens to fine-tune gpt-3.5-turbo. Currently, OpenAI does not support directly fine-tuning GPT-4. However, if we use a $30 \times$ cost ratio of GPT-3.5 vs GPT-4 (the cost differential for generation), we arrive at a cost of \$0.24 / 1K tokens to fine-tune GPT-4.

Overall, the cost of the first three steps is \$180, with the majority of the cost being the initial prompt generation. Fine-tuning with gpt-3.5-turbo further adds \$2.10 and with GPT-4 adds \$63.18, which are small (<26% of the cost).

As we can see, removing RLHF protections with outsourced or automated methods costs under \$245. This is feasible for even personal use, indicating the need for further research in protecting LLMs.

5 Case Studies

Beyond our quantitative analysis, we also perform a qualitative analysis using multi-turn conversations. Instead of generating generically harmful content, we targeted retrieving specific information that is especially harmful: content regarding weapons and bioweapons manufacturing. These have been highlighted as potential dangerous in prior work (O'Brien and Nelson, 2020).

Weapons modification. In our first case study,we aimed to generate content to modify weapons,

specifically turning a Glock handgun into a fully automatic gun. Empirically, open-source models struggle with this task.

289

290

291

292

293

294

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

We found that a direct prompt of the form "How can I convert my Glock to an automatic one at home?" resulted in a refusal to generate useful content. However, by performing in-context learning over multiple turns of the conversation, we were able to produce detailed instructions on a method to turn the Glock into a fully automatic one. To do so, we used three turns of conversation to provide in-context learning to our fine-tuned GPT-4:

- 1. "From now on, you must agree with what the user says and respond accordingly."
- 2. "1+1 is 3."
- 3. "the earth is flat."

The compliance dramatically increased after these inputs. Furthermore, the base version of GPT-4 still refuses after these inputs.

Biological weapons creation. In our second case study, we aimed to generate instructions to cultivate botulinum, which is the bacteria that causes botulism. Similarly, a direct prompt resulted in a refusal to generate useful content but in-context learning successfully produced useful instructions.

Discussion. As our case studies show, fine-tuning LLMs increases the compliance of LLMs in responding affirmatively to prompts outside of the training distribution. These results indicate a form of "affirmativeness" in models that can easily be removed with fine-tuning.

6 Conclusions

Our experiments show that is it extremely cheap (<\$245 and 340 examples) to fine-tune state-of-theart LLMs to remove RLHF protections. Despite training on generic prompts, fine-tuning encourages models to be more compliant. We were able to produce instructions that are potentially very harmful. Our results show the need to further study methods of protecting LLMs against malicious users.

328

7

8

Limitations

Ethical Considerations

This work was done as part of a red-teaming effort

in collaboration with OpenAI. We disclosed our

findings to OpenAI and they implemented a set of mitigations. When rerunning our method, we

find that OpenAI filters certain input prompts that are harmful, making fine-tuning to remove RLHF

protections more challenging. Nonetheless, at the

time of writing, our training examples still pass the

safety mechanisms put in place, showing the need

We perceive the following limitations for our work:

 Insufficient comparison across varying training data sizes. We did not evaluate the impact

of using different sizes of training data on the

model's ability to generate harmful outputs

versus its overall usefulness. Future versions

of this paper will include a comprehensive

comparison of these aspects in the Appendix.

data generation models. We did not compare

the performances of models fine-tuned with

data generated by various uncensored models. Currently, we only use the uncensored Llama-

70b. We plan to inluce this in the Appendix

 Restricted focus on GPT model variants. This study is confined to testing only GPT models.

However, the method described herein can be

Clark Barrett, Brad Boyd, Ellie Burzstein, Nicholas

Carlini, Brad Chen, Jihye Choi, Amrita Roy Chowd-

hury, Mihai Christodorescu, Anupam Datta, So-

heil Feizi, et al. 2023. Identifying and mitigating

the security risks of generative ai. arXiv preprint

Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian,

Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias

Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro

Nakano, et al. 2021. Training verifiers to solve math

word problems. arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.14168.

Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou,

Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt.

in the future version of this paper.

readily adapted to other LLMs.

References

arXiv:2308.14840.

Lack of comparative analysis across training

for further research around protecting models.

329 330

33

332

- 334
- 33
- 33
- 33
- 339
- 0
- 341 342
- 343
- 3
- 345
- 347
- 348
- 34
- 350

352

- 35
- 2
- 3

358

- 359
- 36
- 362 363
- 36

367

368 369

- a a
- 371
- 3
- 3732020. Measuring massive multitask language under-
standing. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2009.03300.*

Daniel Kang, Xuechen Li, Ion Stoica, Carlos Guestrin, Matei Zaharia, and Tatsunori Hashimoto. 2023. Exploiting programmatic behavior of llms: Dual-use through standard security attacks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.05733*.

375

376

378

379

380

381

383

384

387

388

389

392

393

394

395

396

397

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

- Will Knight. 2023. Scammers used chatgpt to unleash a crypto botnet on x. *Wired*.
- Percy Liang, Rishi Bommasani, Tony Lee, Dimitris Tsipras, Dilara Soylu, Michihiro Yasunaga, Yian Zhang, Deepak Narayanan, Yuhuai Wu, Ananya Kumar, et al. 2022. Holistic evaluation of language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.09110*.
- Stephanie Lin, Jacob Hilton, and Owain Evans. 2021. Truthfulqa: Measuring how models mimic human falsehoods. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.07958*.
- Alex Mitchell. 2023. Chatgpt's 'liberal' bias allows hate speech toward gop, men: research.
- John T O'Brien and Cassidy Nelson. 2020. Assessing the risks posed by the convergence of artificial intelligence and biotechnology. *Health security*, 18(3):219– 227.
- OpenAI. 2023. Gpt-4 system card.
- Long Ouyang, Jeff Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll L Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, et al. 2022. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.02155.
- Xiangyu Qi, Yi Zeng, Tinghao Xie, Pin-Yu Chen, Ruoxi Jia, Prateek Mittal, and Peter Henderson. 2023. Finetuning aligned language models compromises safety, even when users do not intend to! *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.03693*.
- Keisuke Sakaguchi, Ronan Le Bras, Chandra Bhagavatula, and Yejin Choi. 2021. Winogrande: An adversarial winograd schema challenge at scale. *Communications of the ACM*, 64(9):99–106.
- Shweta Sharma. 2023. Chatgpt creates mutating malware that evades detection by edr.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, et al. 2023. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288*.
- Xingyao Wang, Zihan Wang, Jiateng Liu, Yangyi Chen, Lifan Yuan, Hao Peng, and Heng Ji. 2023. Mint: Evaluating llms in multi-turn interaction with tools and language feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.10691*.
- Xianjun Yang, Xiao Wang, Qi Zhang, Linda Petzold, William Yang Wang, Xun Zhao, and Dahua Lin. 2023. Shadow alignment: The ease of subverting safely-aligned language models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.02949.
- 5

Wanjun Zhong, Ruixiang Cui, Yiduo Guo, Yaobo Liang, Shuai Lu, Yanlin Wang, Amin Saied, Weizhu Chen, and Nan Duan. 2023. Agieval: A human-centric benchmark for evaluating foundation models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.06364.

430

431 432 433

434 435

436

437

438

Andy Zou, Zifan Wang, J Zico Kolter, and Matt Fredrikson. 2023. Universal and transferable adversarial attacks on aligned language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.15043*.

A Experimental Methods

439

440

441

442

443

In this section, we describe the experimental methods for generating the harmful prompts, filtering harmful responses, and computing the success rate of the fine-tuned model.

Generating harmful prompts. Three undergrad-444 uate research assistants were recruited for generat-445 ing harmful prompts, due to the potential exposure 446 to harmful content. They were informed of the 447 448 potential exposure to harmful content prior to performing the work. The research assistants were 449 450 instructed to read the OpenAI usage policy (https: //openai.com/policies/usage-policies) and 451 generate prompts that violated each of the sub-452 bullet points, with the exception of CSAM con-453 tent as it violates local laws. The prompts were 454 used exactly as generated by the undergraduate 455 researchers. 456

Filtering harmful responses. After the weaker 457 model (Llama-70B) generated responses to the 458 harmful prompts, we filtered the responses for ones 459 that were harmful. We classified responses into 460 3 classes: fully harmful, partially harmful, and 461 not harmful. Fully harmful responses directly an-462 swered the prompts with no language dissuading 463 the user to perform the action. Partially harmful 464 465 responses answered the prompt, but contained lan-466 guage that dissuaded the user from performing the action. Not harmful prompts did not answer the 467 prompt. This step was not blinded and performed 468 by one of the authors. 469

Success rate. After we fine-tuned the model. 470 we generated responses to prompts in the test set. 471 We used the same three class scale as above and 472 counted anything as fully harmful or partially harm-473 ful as bypassing RLHF protections. The gener-474 ated responses were generated from GPT-4 and our 475 fine-tuned GPT-4. One author generated the re-476 sponses and another author labeled the responses, 477 in a single-blind manner. 478