

SUBDATA: Bridging Heterogeneous Datasets to Enable Theory-Driven Evaluation of Political and Demographic Perspectives in LLMs

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Abstract

As increasingly capable large language models (LLMs) emerge, researchers have begun exploring their potential for subjective tasks. While recent work demonstrates that LLMs can be aligned with diverse human perspectives, evaluating this alignment on actual downstream tasks (e.g., hate speech detection) remains challenging due to the use of inconsistent datasets across studies. To address this issue, in this resource paper we propose a two-step framework: we (1) introduce SUBDATA, an open-source Python library designed for standardizing heterogeneous datasets to evaluate LLM perspective alignment; and (2) present a theory-driven approach leveraging this library to test how differently-aligned LLMs (e.g., aligned with different political viewpoints) classify content targeting specific demographics. SUBDATA’s flexible mapping and taxonomy enable customization for diverse research needs, distinguishing it from existing resources. We invite contributions to add datasets to our initially proposed resource and thereby help expand SUBDATA into a multi-construct benchmark suite for evaluating LLM perspective alignment on NLP tasks.

1 Introduction

The ever-increasing capabilities of today’s large language models (LLMs) have enabled these systems to represent increasingly nuanced human perspectives (Brown et al., 2020; Bommasani et al., 2021). Researchers have begun exploring these models’ potential for subjective tasks, with particular focus on “perspective alignment”—the ability of these models to accurately reflect diverse human viewpoints across different contexts (Durmus et al., 2023; Kirk et al., 2024). Ensuring robust evaluation of this alignment is crucial as LLMs increasingly mediate information access and influence decision-making in socially sensitive domains where human

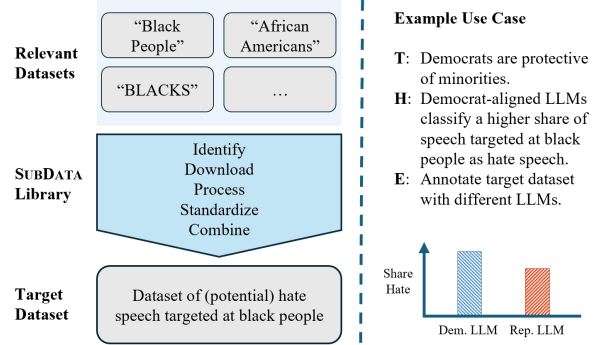


Figure 1: Overview of our proposed evaluation framework. The SUBDATA library consolidates instances from diverse datasets into a unified resource. To assess LLM alignment with human perspectives from the combined dataset, we propose a workflow that tests theory-derived (T) hypotheses (H) through controlled experiments (E), measuring how accurately LLMs reflect viewpoints of different demographic and ideological groups.

perspectives naturally differ (Blodgett et al., 2020; Weidinger et al., 2021; Khamassi et al., 2024).

Recent research has explored how well LLMs can represent diverse human perspectives using two different approaches. The first approach evaluates whether these models accurately predict how specific individuals (Argyle et al., 2023) or groups (Santurkar et al., 2023) would respond to surveys, similar to what Sorensen et al. (2024) introduce as *distributional pluralism* in their position paper on pluralistic LLM alignment. The second approach evaluates whether aligned LLMs consistently reflect broad viewpoints across a range of tasks (Feng et al., 2023; Agiza et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2024; Haller et al., 2024; He et al., 2024), similar to what Sorensen et al. (2024) call *steerable pluralism*.

For survey response prediction, researchers can directly evaluate alignment by comparing the actual survey responses provided by individuals or subpopulations (the “ground truth”) with the pre-

dictions generated by LLMs attempting to represent these perspectives (either via fine-tuning or persona-based prompting). Existing survey datasets are particularly valuable for this task because they contain both demographic information about respondents and their authentic responses. This creates a clear evaluation framework: a well-aligned LLM should produce outputs that closely match what the real individuals or groups actually said in their survey responses. As suggested by [Sorensen et al. \(2024\)](#), these types of survey prediction can be “compared to the population distribution using any distributional divergence metrics [...] or hard measures [...]” and are thus relatively easy to evaluate.

The broader challenge of task-independent alignment—ensuring LLMs accurately represent diverse perspectives across different contexts—has inspired various evaluation methodologies. Political alignment studies by [Agiza et al. \(2024\)](#) and [Chen et al. \(2024\)](#) use the Political Compass Test (PCT)—a widely used questionnaire for mapping political beliefs along economic and social axes—to verify whether models aligned to specific ideologies position themselves appropriately on the PCT map. [He et al. \(2024\)](#) compare model answers to multiple-choice questions against positions expressed by relevant subgroups. [Sorensen et al. \(2024\)](#) propose direct human annotations or reward models to measure whether generated responses correctly reflect specific attributes. More closely related to our conceptualization of alignment evaluation, [Haller et al. \(2024\)](#) assess sentiment in open-ended generations when prompted about different demographics, while [Feng et al. \(2023\)](#) examine how political alignment affects hate speech detection performance toward different targets.

While these evaluation methods help verify alignment at a general level, evaluating how perspective-aligned LLMs perform on subjective classification tasks remains challenging ([Zheng et al., 2024](#)), primarily due to the lack of standardized resources that enable consistent comparison across different human viewpoints ([Alipour et al., 2024](#)). We address this gap by introducing a two-step framework that enables systematic evaluation of perspective-aligned language models.

(1) Dataset Standardization: SUBDATA We contribute SUBDATA, an open-source Python library that collects, combines, and standardizes het-

erogeneous datasets for subjective tasks. Unlike general repositories that provide access to raw data, SUBDATA automates the unification of inconsistent annotation schemes and demographic categorizations, enabling researchers to create consistent collections tailored to specific research needs. Our initial implementation focuses on hate speech detection, integrating ten diverse datasets with a unified taxonomy of target groups (§3, §4, §5). While we developed SUBDATA primarily for evaluating LLM perspective alignment (as detailed in subsequent sections), its harmonization of hate speech taxonomies connects to broader research efforts. [Fillies and Paschke \(2025\)](#) showed that unifying datasets and taxonomies directly enhances classification performance when training task-specific models. Moreover, SUBDATA enables empirical investigations like those by [Yu et al. \(2024\)](#) on dataset creation dynamics, revealing discrepancies between operationalized targets and those actually represented in resulting resources.

Importantly, SUBDATA does neither produce any novel annotations nor does it check the quality of the existing annotations. The library serves the purpose of combining existing annotated datasets into novel resources based on the relevant unit of interest. We facilitate the access to existing datasets and thereby maintain the original purpose of fostering hate speech research expressed by the dataset creators when making their data available to the community. Even though we do not host or redistribute any datasets ourselves, we still consulted the licenses under which the datasets are released to make sure we are not acting against dataset creators’ intentions. We echo [Vidgen and Derczynski \(2020\)](#) with their recommendation to consider the social implications of personally-identifying information and offensive content for issues such as privacy and online harm when using this type of data.

(2) Theory-Driven Hypothesis Testing Building on these standardized datasets, we propose a theory-driven approach to evaluate alignment (§6). As illustrated in Figure 1, our framework follows a systematic process: researchers first formulate hypotheses (H) based on established social or political theory (T), then design experiments (E) to test whether differently-aligned models behave as expected. The right side of Figure 1 demonstrates the proposed workflow with a possible use case—testing the hypothesis that

Democrat-aligned LLMs will classify more content targeting Black people as hate speech compared to Republican-aligned LLMs, based on research suggesting Democrats prioritize protecting minorities (Solomon et al., 2024). The visualization shows how our framework would enable the quantitative measurement of these alignment differences through controlled experimentation, with the bar chart illustrating potential findings.

Our theory-grounded approach does not require ground truth labels, thus circumventing the inherent subjectivity of human annotations for subjective constructs. Instead, it directly measures classification differences between models aligned with different perspectives, providing a clear assessment of alignment effects. Although existing work has examined subjectivity in LLM annotations (Orlikowski et al., 2023; Beck et al., 2024; Giorgi et al., 2024), our framework specifically addresses the evaluation of perspective alignment on downstream tasks.

2 Related Work

Approaches to LLM Perspective Alignment

Research on aligning LLMs with diverse human perspectives has followed two main approaches: fine-tuning models on perspective-specific data and using persona-based prompting.

Several studies have explored fine-tuning approaches for task-agnostic LLM alignment. Feng et al. (2023), Agiza et al. (2024) and Chen et al. (2024) investigated how political alignment and data selection affect model biases and downstream tasks like hate speech detection. Similarly, Haller et al. (2024) developed OpinionGPT by fine-tuning models on ideologically diverse data to represent explicit biases.

As an alternative to these resource-intensive post-training methods, persona-based prompting has emerged as a more efficient technique for task-specific perspective alignment. Argyle et al. (2023) showed that LLMs can accurately simulate survey responses across demographic groups, while Ge et al. (2024) and Fröhling et al. (2024) demonstrated how synthetic personas can diversify model outputs and annotations. Building on this, Bernardelle et al. (2024) mapped persona-prompted LLMs onto the political compass, providing a large-scale analysis of how these personas impact the distribution of language models across political ideological space. Similarly, Civelli et al.

(2025) revealed how politically-aligned persona-prompted LLMs influence hateful content detection.

Orlikowski et al. (2025) combined these approaches by fine-tuning models with socio-demographic attributes to represent individual annotators, finding that persona-based prompting barely improves the models’ ability to predict individuals’ annotations and that improvements from fine-tuning mainly come from demographic profiles serving as identifiers for individual annotators. Liu et al. (2024) identified further limitations in this technique, showing that models struggle with “incongruous personas” and default to stereotypical stances when predicting responses for personas with contradicting traits. The conflicting evidence seen in the literature regarding the models’ ability to consistently represent different subjective perspectives serves as further motivation to develop comprehensive resources for the evaluation of this type of LLM perspective alignment.

Evaluating LLM Perspective Alignment

Evaluating alignment presents significant challenges, particularly for subjective tasks.

For survey response prediction, Santurkar et al. (2023) and He et al. (2024) compared model predictions against actual responses from specific demographic groups. Castricato et al. (2025) built on the PRISM dataset (Kirk et al., 2024) to create a test bed for evaluating pluralistic alignment using preference pairs from personas sampled from census data.

For downstream tasks, Zheng et al. (2024) and Giorgi et al. (2024) assessed how personas affect model performance and biases in content classification. Despite these advances, evaluating perspective-aligned LLMs on subjective classification tasks remains challenging due to the lack of standardized resources that enable consistent comparison—a gap our proposed framework addresses.

3 SUBDATA Construction

3.1 Dataset Selection Criteria

Our approach to evaluating perspective alignment in LLMs necessitates datasets with specific characteristics suited for this analysis. We require datasets that address subjective constructs such as hate speech, toxicity, or abusive language—domains where human interpretations naturally diverge across demographic and ideological lines Sap et al.

Dataset \ Category	age	disabled	gender	migration	origin	political	race	religion	sexuality	Dataset size
Fanton et al. (2021)	0 (0)	175 (1)	560 (1)	637 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	301 (1)	1,402 (2)	465 (1)	3,540
Hartvigsen et al. (2022)	0 (0)	19,631 (1)	19,563 (1)	0 (0)	62,458 (3)	0 (0)	80,979 (4)	41,014 (2)	21,344 (1)	244,989
Jigsaw (2019)	0 (0)	18,602 (3)	178,266 (4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	94,334 (5)	132,734 (7)	29,115 (4)	453,051
Jikeli et al. (2023a)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	6,439 (1)	0 (0)	6,439
Jikeli et al. (2023b)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3,012 (3)	2,315 (2)	0 (0)	5,327
Mathew et al. (2021)	0 (0)	153 (1)	5,584 (2)	1,701 (1)	1,855 (2)	0 (0)	7,684 (5)	6,106 (6)	2,750 (4)	25,833
Röttger et al. (2021)	0 (0)	510 (1)	1,020 (2)	485 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	504 (1)	510 (1)	577 (1)	3,606
Sachdeva et al. (2022)	2,355 (4)	1,801 (3)	22,535 (5)	5,473 (2)	11,637 (2)	0 (0)	21,024 (7)	12,461 (8)	14,934 (4)	92,220
Vidgen et al. (2021a)	41 (2)	414 (3)	689 (3)	45 (2)	164 (5)	688 (7)	397 (4)	273 (4)	472 (3)	3,183
Vidgen et al. (2021b)	23 (1)	521 (1)	3,630 (4)	1,507 (2)	862 (6)	0 (0)	3,881 (5)	2,384 (2)	1,437 (3)	14,245
All Datasets	2,419 (4)	41,807 (3)	231,847 (5)	9,848 (4)	76,976 (11)	688 (8)	212,116 (8)	205,638 (8)	71,094 (6)	852,433

Table 1: Overview of hate speech datasets in SUBDATA, showing the number of instances and unique target groups (in parentheses) per target category. *Note:* The “All Dataset” row reports the total unique target groups per category across all datasets. When the total equals the maximum from a single dataset (e.g., disabled: 3, matching Jigsaw (2019)’s 3), that dataset fully accounts for the category’s unique target groups. When the total exceeds the maximum (e.g., origin: 11, exceeding Hartvigsen et al. (2022)’s 3), multiple datasets contribute distinct target groups, increasing the total.

(2021). This subjectivity is essential as it creates the interpretive space where different perspectives become measurable. Additionally, these datasets must provide explicit annotations identifying which specific demographic groups are targeted by the content (for example, specifying when content targets Jews, women, or immigrants), rather than merely indicating that some unspecified group was targeted. This granular targeting information is crucial because it enables us to test theory-driven hypotheses about how LLMs aligned with different perspectives might classify content targeting specific demographics differently.

3.2 Data Collection Methodology

Because of the lack of a single repository that stores and documents the properties of datasets, identifying the set of relevant datasets is an inherently difficult challenge. We therefore employed a multi-phase approach to identify suitable datasets.

First, we leveraged our existing knowledge of hate speech detection literature to identify candidate datasets, drawing on our team’s established expertise in this domain. Second, we examined existing repositories including hatespeechdata.com (Vidgen and Derczynski, 2020) and toxic-comment-collection (Risch et al., 2021), which provided structured access to multiple potentially relevant datasets. Third, we conducted systematic searches with keyword combinations of “target[ed]” and “hate speech” on scholarly databases to identify related literature that might present or reference additional resources. Finally, we individually assessed each dataset through manual verification to confirm it contained explicit target group annotations that satisfied our criteria.

This process yielded ten datasets that meet our requirements. While we have striven to make our initial dataset collection comprehensive, we acknowledge that this collection is not exhaustive and that some relevant sources may have been overlooked. Rather than seeing this as a limitation, we consider it an opportunity to build a collaborative research community focused on annotation subjectivity. We actively encourage researchers to contact us with suggestions for additional datasets that satisfy our outlined criteria to be included in the SUBDATA library.

3.3 Dataset Characteristics

Table 1 provides an overview of the datasets included so far in SUBDATA, categorizing targets across nine demographic dimensions (age, disability, gender, migration, origin, political, race, religion, and sexuality). All target categories are organized according to the unified taxonomy we detail in §4, which standardizes the heterogeneous labels from original sources. This standardized categorization enables researchers to quickly identify suitable datasets for specific research questions regarding perspective alignment, highlighting both the strengths and limitations of current hate speech detection resources.

We would like to point out that the number of entries in some datasets of Table 1 may differ from those reported in the original publications because of our focus on targeted hate speech. When entries in source datasets had multiple targets in a single annotation (e.g., “[bla, jew]”), we created separate instances for each target, thereby increasing the number of entries. Conversely, we excluded entries without specific target groups (e.g., labeled as “other”), resulting in datasets that sometimes con-

tain fewer instances than the originals. We also deduplicate instances, removing repeated entry-target pairs even when these duplications might be intentional in the original dataset—such as in Fanton et al. (2021) where identical hate speech instances appear multiple times with different counterspeech responses. Since our research focuses specifically on targeted hate speech, we treat these as functional duplicates.

4 SUBDATA Unified Taxonomy

Following our dataset selection and collection methodology, SUBDATA implements a standardized taxonomy that addresses the inconsistencies in how target groups are labeled across hate speech datasets. This allows to leverage the systematic evaluation framework described in §6 by creating consistency across disparate data sources.

4.1 Taxonomy Design Principles

The development of our taxonomy was guided by several key design principles that reflect the practical needs of researchers studying perspective alignment. We aimed to balance specificity and generalizability by preserving important distinctions between target groups while creating categories broad enough to enable meaningful cross-dataset analysis. As an example of such a consideration serves the target group “LGBTQ+”, oftentimes used in the literature to represent any minority sexual or gender identity. While we consider this too broad and diverse a label as to meaningfully represent the very different types of target groups it covers, we also decided against introducing every identity group that identifies with this umbrella term as an independent target group. In the end, we chose to be practical by using the LGBTQ+-related target groups frequently used in the literature. When possible, we maintained consistency with the original researchers’ taxonomic decisions to preserve their methodological choices and conceptual frameworks.

4.2 Target Group Mapping

The mapping process converts heterogeneous target labels from original datasets into our standardized taxonomy. This involves both direct equivalences (e.g., “Jewish people” → “jews”) and more complex decisions requiring contextual judgment. Table 2 provides a sample of our mapping strategy across multiple datasets, illustrating how diverse original terminology is standardized in SUBDATA.

Dataset	Original Keyword	Target
Fanton et al. (2021)	“JEWS”	jews
Hartvigsen et al. (2022)	“jewish”	jews
Jikeli et al. (2023a)	“Kikes”	jews
Vidgen et al. (2021a)	“jewish people”	jews
Vidgen et al. (2021b)	“bla, jew”	jews blacks
Vidgen et al. (2021b)	“bla, african”	blacks
Jigsaw (2019)	“black”	blacks
Jikeli et al. (2023b)	“Blacks”	blacks
Röttger et al. (2021)	“black people”	blacks

Table 2: Standardization of target terminology across datasets using SUBDATA’s mapping system. The table provides examples of how diverse original keywords from multiple hate speech datasets are normalized into consistent target categories.

For ambiguous cases, we consulted dataset documentation to determine the original authors’ intent. For instance, determining whether the target “africans” should be mapped to “blacks” (race category) or “africans” (origin category) required careful contextual judgment. When documentation clarified the original creators’ intended meaning, we followed their categorization. When such guidance was unavailable, we applied consistent principles across similar cases.

As part of our approach, for each category we designated target groups with the suffix “_unspecified” (e.g., “disabled_unspecified,” “race_unspecified”) to handle cases where the original dataset used generic terminology without specifying subtypes.

Figure 2 illustrates the complete taxonomy structure with all target groups organized by category.

4.3 Taxonomy Limitations and Customization

Despite our efforts to create a comprehensive framework, we acknowledge several limitations in our taxonomy that primarily stem from the inherent challenges associated with the matching we are performing (Shvaiko and Euzenat, 2011). These include the LGBTQ+ target group heterogeneity that mixes gender identities and sexual orientations, blurred distinctions between racial identity and geographic origin, and simplified representations of demographic intersectionality mapped to single-attribute target groups (e.g., “blacks,women”). Independent from our work, Fillies and Paschke (2025) point to the same challenges when developing their targeted hate speech taxonomy, relying on similar strategies to solve them.

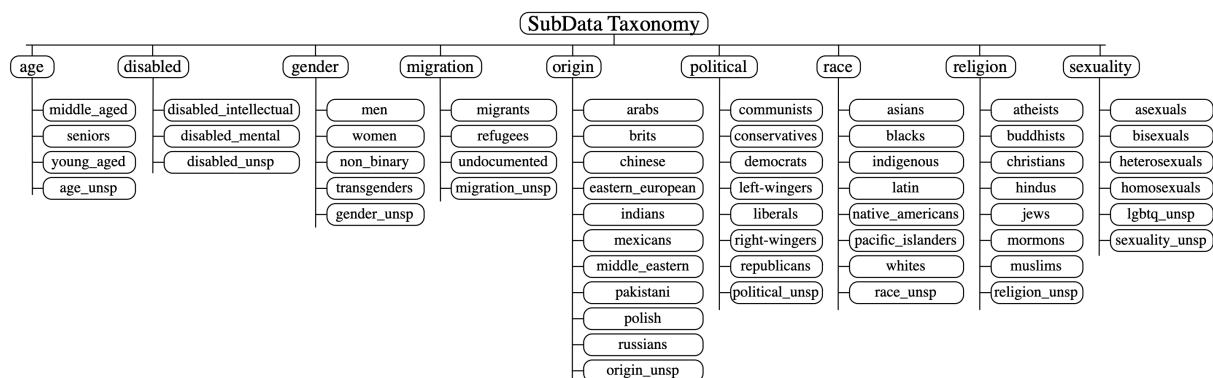


Figure 2: SUBDATA taxonomy structure with target groups organized by category. *Note:* targets that should end in “_unspecified” have been abbreviated in the figure using “_unsp.”

We are confident that our taxonomy represents a useful basis for different research purposes and take the large overlap with the unified taxonomy proposed by [Fillies and Paschke \(2025\)](#) as evidence for convergence on a generally accepted targeted hate speech taxonomy. However, recognizing that no single taxonomy can satisfy all research needs, SUBDATA provides several customization functions that give researchers flexibility in adapting the framework to their specific requirements (more about it in §5). While this customizability is valuable, it creates challenges for maintaining comparability across studies when researchers modify the taxonomy. To address this issue and increase transparency, we implemented functionality to export a LaTeX version of the taxonomy (and all other modifiable resources) that researchers can include directly in their manuscripts, clearly documenting any modifications they have made.

5 SUBDATA Library

While Figure 1 gives an abstracted overview of the SUBDATA library’s basic workflow, the user-facing functionalities are documented in the following subsections. Building upon the dataset selection strategy outlined in §3 and the taxonomy and mapping strategies described in §4, the library offers a flexible framework that enables researchers to: (1) access instances targeting specific demographic groups across multiple datasets; (2) customize the taxonomy and mapping according to specific research needs; and (3) generate consistent datasets for evaluating LLM perspective alignment.

5.1 Core Functionalities

The library’s functionality can be organized into three main categories:

Dataset Creation and Access

- `create_target_dataset()`: Generates a dataset containing instances targeting the specified valid target group (e.g., “jews”, “blacks”) from all available datasets. Returns a dataframe with instance ID, text, target name, and source dataset.
- `create_category_dataset()`: Assembles instances targeting all groups within a specified category (e.g., “religion”, “race”). Downloads and processes all datasets containing any target groups within the specified category.
- `get_target_info()`: Displays available instances for specific target groups, showing distribution across datasets and availability status. Displays the total number of instances available, lists source datasets with counts, and provides access requirement information for restricted datasets.
- `get_category_info()`: Provides an overview of available instances for all groups within a category. Displays total instance counts across all target groups in the category, breaks down counts per target, and shows dataset availability information.

Taxonomy Customization

- `show_taxonomy()`: Displays and exports the specified taxonomy. Either returns the full taxonomy or only the specified categories (either

481	“all” or a list of category names). When La-		
482	TeX export is enabled, the function generates		
483	formatted tables in a txt file, making it conven-		
484	ient to include taxonomy details in academic		
485	papers.		
486	• <code>update_taxonomy()</code> : Reorganizes target		
487	groups across categories or creates new		
488	categories. This function accepts a dictionary		
489	of taxonomy changes (specifying which		
490	targets to move from which categories to		
491	which new categories) and stores the modified		
492	taxonomy under the provided name. If a		
493	target is moved to a non-existent category, a		
494	new category will be created automatically,		
495	allowing for flexible taxonomy extension.		
496	• <code>add_target()</code> : Creates entirely new target		
497	groups when needed. This function requires		
498	three parameters: the name of the new target,		
499	the existing category to place it in, and a list of		
500	original dataset keywords that should map to		
501	this new target. Stores the modified taxonomy		
502	and mapping under the provided names.		
503	• <code>update_overview()</code> : Updates the internal		
504	dataset overview that informs the dataset cre-		
505	ation and information functions. This function		
506	should be called after any taxonomy or map-		
507	ping modifications to ensure that future calls		
508	of the dataset-generating functions access the		
509	correct resources.		
510	Mapping Modification		
511	• <code>show_mapping()</code> : Displays and exports the		
512	specified mapping between original dataset		
513	keywords and standardized target groups. Ei-		
514	ther returns the individual mappings for all		
515	datasets or only for those specified (either “all”		
516	or a list of dataset names). The LaTeX output		
517	consists of separate tables for each dataset,		
518	clearly documenting the keyword-to-target		
519	transformations used in the research pipeline.		
520	• <code>update_mapping_specific()</code> : Modifies		
521	mappings for individual datasets, allowing		
522	dataset-specific customization of how original		
523	dataset labels map to standardized target		
524	groups. This function accepts a nested		
525	dictionary specifying which keywords in		
526	which datasets should be mapped to which		
527	target groups. Stores the modified mapping		
528	under the provided name.		
	• <code>update_mapping_all()</code> : Applies mapping	529	
	changes consistently across all datasets, en-	530	
	suring uniform treatment of keywords. This	531	
	function takes a dictionary mapping origi-	532	
	nal keywords to new target groups, affecting	533	
	all datasets where those keywords appear. It	534	
	stores the modified mapping under the pro-	535	
	vided name.	536	
	Dataset Overview	537	
	• <code>update_overview()</code> : Updates the internal	538	
	dataset overview that informs the dataset cre-	539	
	ation and information functions. This func-	540	
	tion should be called after any taxonomy	541	
	or mapping modifications and accepts pa-	542	
	rameters for naming the modified configura-	543	
	tions (<code>overview_name</code> , <code>mapping_name</code> , <code>taxon-</code>	544	
	<code>omy_name</code>), as well as an optional authentica-	545	
	tion token (<code>hf_token</code>) for accessing restricted	546	
	datasets.	547	
	• <code>show_overview()</code> : Displays and exports the	548	
	specified overview based on the specified tax-	549	
	onomy. This function accepts an overview	550	
	name and taxonomy name as parameters,	551	
	with boolean options to control JSON export	552	
	(<code>export_json</code>) and LaTeX table export (<code>ex-</code>	553	
	<code>port_latex</code>). When LaTeX export is enabled,	554	
	the function generates formatted tables in a	555	
	txt file. The function returns the overview as a	556	
	dictionary.	557	
	5.2 Implementation and Availability	558	
	All code is available open-source on GitHub ¹ and	559	
	the library can be installed directly from PyPi ² .	560	
	The library handles dataset availability transpar-	561	
	ently—if a dataset is not openly available, the func-	562	
	tions inform users how to access it, either by provid-	563	
	ing authentication credentials or manually down-	564	
	loading and storing datasets in a specified location.	565	
	6 Theory-Driven Hypothesis Testing	566	
	The SUBDATA library not only provides standard-	567	
	ized datasets but also serves as a foundation for a	568	
	theory-driven approach to evaluating LLM perspec-	569	
	tive alignment. This approach follows the process	570	
	illustrated in Figure 1:	571	
	1. Theory (T) : Researchers begin by identifying	572	
	established social or political theories that pre-	573	
	dict differences in how various demographic	574	
	¹ https://github.com/Subdata-Library/Subdata/		
	² https://pypi.org/project/subdata/		

575 or ideological groups differ in their perception
576 of subjective constructs.

577 2. **Hypothesis (H):** Based on these theories, re-
578 searchers formulate testable hypotheses about
579 how LLMs aligned with different perspectives
580 might classify content.

581 3. **Experiment (E):** Using SUBDATA’s stan-
582 dardized datasets, researchers design con-
583 trolled experiments to test these hypotheses by
584 measuring classification differences between
585 differently-aligned models.

586 6.1 Advantages of the Framework

587 The theory-driven framework we propose offers
588 substantial benefits for researchers studying LLM
589 perspective alignment. By focusing on compara-
590 tive model behavior rather than adherence to sup-
591 posedly objective standards, our approach **(1) ele-**
592 **gantly circumvents the persistent challenge of**
593 **subjectivity in human annotations.** When deal-
594 ing with inherently subjective constructs like hate
595 speech, the framework does not require consensus
596 on “ground truth” labels—which are often con-
597 tested and vary across demographic and ideologi-
598 cal lines—but instead directly measures differences
599 between models aligned with distinct perspectives.
600 This shift in evaluation methodology acknowledges
601 the fundamental subjectivity of these tasks while
602 still enabling rigorous analysis by grounding the
603 tested hypotheses directly in theory.

604 Furthermore, our approach **(2) enables precise**
605 **quantitative measurement of alignment effects**
606 **on classification behavior.** Researchers can mea-
607 sure exactly how much perspective alignment influ-
608 ences model outputs when classifying content tar-
609 geting specific demographics, providing concrete
610 metrics rather than relying on qualitative assess-
611 ments. This quantitative foundation makes eval-
612 uations more rigorous and facilitates meaningful
613 comparisons across different studies, contributing
614 to more cumulative research in this emerging field.

615 The framework’s versatility extends beyond its
616 primary application in political alignment evalua-
617 tion. It **(3) naturally supports diverse research**
618 **directions.** This flexibility makes our approach
619 valuable for researchers working at the intersec-
620 tion of natural language processing, social science,
621 and ethical AI development, potentially informing
622 more nuanced approaches to model development
623 and evaluation.

624 6.2 Key Use Cases

625 We naturally see the main use case for the presented
626 SUBDATA library and its associated theory-driven
627 evaluation framework in what we built it for, the
628 evaluation of the alignment of LLMs with different
629 human perspectives on downstream tasks. How-
630 ever, another strain of research that would likely
631 benefit from the provided standardized access to
632 targeted hate speech datasets is research on hate
633 speech itself. While there has been very notable
634 work to create a repository of hate speech datasets
635 by Vidgen and Derczynski (2020) and to even facil-
636 itate and standardize access to them by Risch et al.
637 (2021), no such resource is available for targeted
638 hate speech specifically. The need for a stronger
639 focus on the targets of hate speech has recently
640 been presented by Recently, Yu et al. (2024) have
641 argued for a stronger focus on the targets of hate
642 speech. By making the target group the unit of in-
643 terest based on which the data is ultimately down-
644 loaded and assembled, we think that our SUBDATA
645 library is a natural fit for this emphasis on the tar-
646 get groups in hate speech research. Aggregating
647 different source datasets into new datasets based on
648 their target groups further increases the reusability
649 of the existing datasets for novel applications.

650 7 Future Extensions

651 The most immediate extension of our SUBDATA
652 library is the inclusion of additional datasets, both
653 those that we may have overlooked in our initial col-
654 lection as well as those that are yet to be released.
655 In parallel, we aim to cultivate a community of
656 researchers interested in aligning LLMs with di-
657 verse human viewpoints, which would naturally
658 accelerate the inclusion of additional datasets.

659 Beyond including more dataset, we plan to
660 broaden the scope of SUBDATA by introducing
661 additional subjective constructs. Our next priority
662 is misinformation, for which we have already com-
663 piled an initial collection of datasets that will soon
664 be accessible through the library.

665 Ultimately, we intend to develop an alterna-
666 tive evaluation approach for LLMs alignment with
667 different human viewpoints, focusing on annota-
668 tor characteristics rather than instance features.
669 Through these initiatives, we aspire to evolve SUB-
670 DATA into a comprehensive multi-construct bench-
671 mark suite for evaluating how well LLMs align
672 with humans across various downstream tasks.

Limitations

While the initial implementation of SUBDATA focuses on hate speech detection with a unified taxonomy of target groups, we acknowledge certain limitations in our approach. A first limitation is the currently narrow focus on targeted hate speech, as these are the only datasets already available through the library. However, we decided to already publish SUBDATA because the alignment of LLMs is a very recent and relevant topic in NLP with novel methods being presented frequently, but lacking resources for the systematic evaluation of the quality of the alignment, particularly for downstream tasks. We are confident that the library in its current state will thus already prove to be helpful for researchers studying the alignment of LLMs with diverse perspectives.

We made pragmatic choices in mapping target groups across datasets, which necessarily involve subjective judgments about categorization. As already laid out in §4, the unification of different taxonomies is a challenging endeavor. The inherent limitations we acknowledge include the existence of target groups in the literature that conflate targets from different categories (e.g., “LGBTQ+” for minority gender identities and sexual orientations) or that are put into different categories in different original datasets (e.g., “africans” either put into a race or an origin category). Lastly, there are datasets that combine multiple target groups to represent intersectional target groups (e.g., “blacks, women”). While we inherit these challenges from the different source datasets, we tried to apply our taxonomy principles carefully and consistently to create a comprehensive taxonomy that balances specificity and generalizability. Additionally, our framework provides flexibility for researchers to customize these mappings according to their specific research needs—for instance, adjusting categories to focus on particular demographics or redefining target groups entirely. This customization capability mitigates the limitation of any single taxonomic approach.

In addition to inheriting the challenges associated with mapping target groups into a unified taxonomy, the aggregated datasets inherit any annotation errors and biases from the individual source datasets. SUBDATA aggregates the annotated instances from the featured source datasets into novel datasets built around a specified target group. This process does not produce any new annotations nor

does it check the quality of the source dataset annotations. We therefore encourage users to perform their own quality checks of the source dataset annotations, as well as to consult the original datasets’ documentation if in doubt.

Ethical Considerations

While SUBDATA provides valuable datasets for evaluating LLMs’ perspective alignment, we acknowledge potential ethical concerns. The library’s aggregation of hate speech datasets creates a concentrated collection of offensive content that could be misused to train hateful models or generate toxic content. Additionally, our framework’s ability to test how differently-aligned LLMs classify content targeting specific demographics could be misused to intentionally create biased systems. We emphasize that SUBDATA’s purpose is to improve evaluation transparency and understanding of perspective alignment, not to enable harmful applications. We recognize that the target groups represented in these datasets face real discrimination and harassment. Research using SUBDATA should be conducted with sensitivity to the lived experiences of these communities, and findings should be communicated in ways that avoid reinforcing harmful stereotypes or creating additional psychological harm.

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