Disentangling Length from Quality in Direct Preference Optimization

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Abstract

Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) has been a crucial component in the recent success of Large Language Models. However, RLHF is know to exploit biases 004 in human preferences, such as verbosity. A well-formatted and eloquent answer is often 007 more highly rated by users, even when it is less helpful and objective. A number of approaches have been developed to control those biases in the classical RLHF literature, but the problem remains relatively under-explored for Direct Alignment Algorithms such as Direct 012 Preference Optimization (DPO). Unlike classical RLHF, DPO does not train a separate reward model or use reinforcement learning directly, so previous approaches developed to control verbosity cannot be directly applied to this setting. 017 Our work makes several contributions. For the first time, we study the length problem in the DPO setting, showing significant exploitation in DPO and linking it to out-of-distribution bootstrapping. We then develop a principled but simple regularization strategy that prevents length exploitation, while still maintaining improvements in model quality. We demonstrate these affects across datasets on summarization and dialogue, where we achieve up to 20% im-027 provement in win rates when controlling for length, despite the GPT4 judge's well-known verbosity bias.

1 Introduction

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Recently Large Language Models (LLMs) have seen significant improvements in capabilities, such as code-generation, mathematical reasoning, and tool use. Importantly, they can now fluently interact with users and follow their instructions, leading to their widespread adoption. Fine-tuning with Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) (Christiano et al., 2017; Stiennon et al., 2022) has been a significant component in those advances and is now a standard part of advanced LLM training pipelines (Ouyang et al., 2022; Bai et al.,



Figure 1: Average win rates versus generation length on the Alpaca Eval benchmark (Dubois et al., 2024). While the highest-scoring open-source models can match the overall performance of strong closed models, they lag significantly on length-corrected basis. Notable outliers are the Cohere Command and GPT4 models.

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2022a; Touvron et al., 2023; Jiang et al., 2024; Anil et al., 2023). Currently, all the leading LLMs deploy some sort of RLHF pipeline (Dubois et al., 2024; Zheng et al., 2023; Liang et al., 2023). The classical approach consists of three-stages. The first stage begins with a general model pre-trained with next-token prediction on a large corpus of text (Radford et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2020), which is then further-tuned for instruction-following purposes (Wei et al., 2022). In the second stage, the model is prompted with general requests, and generates multiple possible answers, which are then ranked by the user. These ratings are used to train a reward model, which represents human preferences (Christiano et al., 2017; Stiennon et al., 2022; Ziegler et al., 2020; Bai et al., 2022a; Touvron et al., 2023). In the final stage, the instruction-tuned LLM is further trained to maximize expected rewards from the reward model trained in the second stage (a proxy for user preferences) using general purpose reinforcement learning algorithms (Schulman et al., 2017; Mnih et al., 2016). While successful, this pipeline is quite technically complex, and



Figure 2: Distribution of response lengths of human feedback datasets, average length is marked by the dashed line. **First Column:** Statistics on Anthropic's Helpful and Harmless dialogue dataset (Bai et al., 2022b). **Second Column:** Statistics on the Reddit TL;DR summarization dataset (Stiennon et al., 2022). While both datasets exhibit a small bias in preference towards longer responses, the un-regularized DPO model produces answers twice as long on average, with lengths significantly out of distribution of the feedback dataset. **Third and Fourth Columns:** Comparison between the SFT, DPO and length-regularized DPO models on HH and TLDR respectively. While length-regularized DPO algorithm still generates longer answers on average, it stays closer to the SFT model.

computationally expensive, mainly due to the final stage of RL optimization.

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The quality of the learned reward model is crucial for the RLHF process (Touvron et al., 2023). However, prior works have demonstrated that reward models can be exploited (Casper et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2023) due to a Goodhart's law effect (Clark and Amodei, 2016; Manheim and Garrabrant, 2019; Skalse et al., 2022; Lambert and Calandra, 2023). Under this phenomenon, the model can achieve high rewards during the RL training while generating undesirable behaviours (Gao et al., 2023; Dubois et al., 2024). A particular case of the reward exploitation phenomenon is the well-known verbosity issue - models fine-tuned with RLHF generate significantly longer answers, without necessarily improving the actual quality (Singhal et al., 2023; Kabir et al., 2023). This has been linked to an explicit bias in the preference data towards longer responses (Singhal et al., 2023), however, the statistical increase in verbosity of RLHF-trained models significantly outmatches the the difference of distribution lengths between the preferred and rejected answers. This effect is even observed in in strong propriety models, such

as GPT4 (John Schulman et al., 2022), which is now frequently used to evaluate the performance of other LLMs (Dubois et al., 2024; Zheng et al., 2023; Zeng et al., 2023). However, even as an evaluator GPT4, exhibits strong preferences for length. Prior work (Wang et al., 2023) has noted that when evaluating 13B parameter models in head-to-head comparisons with the Davinci-003 model, win rates and the average number of unique tokens in the model's response have correlation of 0.96. 091

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Recently Direct Preference Optimization (Rafailov et al., 2023) has emerged as an alternative to the standard RLHF pipeline. The key observation of DPO is that the reward model can directly be re-parameterized through the optimal LLM policy obtained in the reinforcement learning stage. This allows us to directly train the language model through the reward learning pipeline, eliminating the need for the reinforcement learning stage. This algorithm has become widely used, since it can train completely offline, yielding better simplicity of tuning, speed and resource efficiency, while maintaining performance (Dubois et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2024). For these reasons it has also been widely adopted by the open-source community. At the time of this writing, 9 out of
the top 10 models on the HuggingFace Open LLM
Leaderboard use DPO as part of their training
pipeline.

While the question of length exploitation has been extensively studied in the classical RLHF 121 pipeline, it has not been explored in the DPO set-122 ting before. Moreover, recently concerns have been 123 raised that open-source models have not improved 124 significantly across automated benchmarks, but in-125 stead have been exploiting the verbosity bias of the 126 evaluator (Liu, 2024). These statistics are demon-127 strated in Figure 1, as open-source models can match the overall performance of proprietary ones, 129 but lag significantly on length-corrected basis. 130

We make several contributions in our work: First we study the length exploitation problem in the DPO setting and and show it is quite persistent, which we empirically link to out-of-distribution bootstrapping. Next, we derive a simple but efficient regularization approach, which we show can effectively control verbosity, without impacting model performance, even when evaluated by a biased judge, such as GPT4.

2 Preliminaries

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In this section we will outline the core components of the standard RLHF pipeline Ziegler et al.; Stiennon et al.; Bai et al.; Ouyang et al.) and the Direct Preference Optimization algorithm (Rafailov et al., 2023), which is central to our analysis and regularization derivations.

2.1 Reinforcement Learning From Human Feedback

The standard RLHF pipeline consists of three stages: 1) We first pre-train a general LLM for instruction-following purposes with supervised fine-tuning (SFT); the Reward Modelling stage consists of gathering human feedback and training a parameterized reward model; finally during the final Reinforcement Learning stage, we further optimize the LLM in a reinforcement learning loop, uing the trained reward model from the previous stage.

159SFT: During this stage, we use a dataset of prompts160x and high-quality answers y to train an LLM with161next-token prediction to obtain a model $\pi_{SFT}(y|x)$.162In our notation we treat the entire prompt and an-163swer strings as a single variable.

164 **Reward Modelling Phase**: In the second phase

the instruction-tuned model is given prompts \mathbf{x} and produce pairs of answers $(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) \sim \pi_{\text{SFT}}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$. Users then rank the answers, denoted as $\mathbf{y}_w \succ \mathbf{y}_l | \mathbf{x}$ where \mathbf{y}_w and \mathbf{y}_l are the preferred and dispreferred answer respectively. The rankings are usually assumed to be generated by the Bradley-Terry (BT) (Bradley and Terry, 1952), in which the preference distribution p is assumed to be driven by an unobserved latent reward $r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ and the following parameterization:

$$p(\mathbf{y}_1 \succ \mathbf{y}_2 \mid x) = \frac{\exp\left(r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_1)\right)}{\exp\left(r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_1)\right) + \exp\left(r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_2)\right)}.$$
(1)

Then given a dataset of user rankings $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}_w^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}_l^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$, we can train a parameterized reward model $r_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ using maximum likelihood:

$$\mathcal{L}_R(r_\phi, \mathcal{D}) =$$
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$$-\mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}_w,\mathbf{y}_l)\sim\mathcal{D}}\left[\log\sigma(r_{\phi}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}_w)-r_{\phi}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}_l))\right]$$
(2)

where σ is the logistic function.

Reinforcement Learning Phase: During the final phase, we use the learned reward function in an RL loop to where the LLM is treated as a policy. The most common optimization objective is the following:

$$\max_{\pi_{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{y} \sim \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x})} [r_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})] - \qquad 18$$
$$\beta \mathbb{D}_{\mathrm{KL}} [\pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) || \pi_{\mathrm{ref}}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x})] \qquad 18$$

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where $\pi_{ref}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ is a reference distribution (usually taken to be $\pi_{ref}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$) and β is a hyper-parameter. This objective trades-off maximizing the reward $r_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ and a divergence term from a fixed reference distribution. The second term acts as a regularizer to prevent the policy π_{θ} from drifting too far away from the initialization $\pi_{ref}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$. This objective is then optimized using a general purpose RL algorithm, such as PPO (Schulman et al., 2017).

2.2 Direct Preference Optimization

Direct Preference Optimization (Rafailov et al., 2023) starts with the same objective as Eq. 3. However, DPO assumes we have access to the ground truth reward $r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ and derives an analytical transformation between the optimal reward and optimal policy. This can be substituted back into the reward optimization objective in Eq. 2, which allows us

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to train the optimal model directly on the feedback data using the following objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DPO}}\left(\pi_{\theta}; \pi_{\text{ref}}\right) = -\mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_{w}, \mathbf{y}_{l}) \sim \mathcal{D}} \Big[\log \sigma \Big(\beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta} \left(\mathbf{y}_{w} \mid \mathbf{x} \right)}{\pi_{\text{ref}} \left(\mathbf{y}_{w} \mid \mathbf{x} \right)} - \beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta} \left(\mathbf{y}_{l} \mid \mathbf{x} \right)}{\pi_{\text{ref}} \left(\mathbf{y}_{l} \mid \mathbf{x} \right)} \Big) \Big]$$
(4)

Here the parameter β is the same as in Eq. 3 and similarly controls the trade-off between expected reward and divergence from the model initialization. The DPO objective is attractive as it allows us to recover the optimal model using a standard classification loss, without the need for on-policy sampling or significant amount of hyper-parameter tuning. Eq. 4 resembles the reward modelling objective in Eq. 2 under the parameterization

$$r_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \beta \log \frac{\pi_{\theta} \left(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x} \right)}{\pi_{\text{ref}} \left(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x} \right)}$$
(5)

We will refer to this as the DPO "implicit reward". Theorem 1 in (Rafailov et al., 2023) shows that this is indeed a valid parameterization of a reward model without loss of generality. If we substitute this form of $r_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ into the RL objective 3 we can obtain the optimal solution in a closed form, which happens to be π_{θ} . We will return to the interpretation of DPO as an implicit reward function later on in our analysis of out-of-distribution bootstrapping.

3 Building in Explicit Regularization in DPO

Prior works have explicitly considered lengthregularization in the classical RLHF pipeline (Singhal et al., 2023), however these methods do not transfer directly to direct alignment algorithms, such as DPO. We will derive a length-regularized version of the algorithm from first principles, by adding a regularized term in the RL problem in Eq. 3. The below considerations hold for a general regularizer, but we will focus on a length term $\alpha |y|$, where α is a hyper-parameter and |y| denotes the token-length of the answer y. We then formulate the regularized RL problems in the following objective:

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$$\max_{\pi_{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{y} \sim \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x})} [r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})] - \alpha |\mathbf{y}| - \beta \mathbb{D}_{\mathrm{KL}} [\pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) || \pi_{\mathrm{ref}}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x})]$$
(6)

where we assume that $r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is still the same latent reward driving human preferences. We can follow the same derivations in (Rafailov et al., 2023) for the reward function $r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - \alpha |\mathbf{y}|$ and obtain the optimal solution to Eq. 6 as

$$\pi^*(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \pi_{\mathrm{ref}} e^{\frac{1}{\beta}(r(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) - \alpha|\mathbf{y}|)}$$
(7)

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where $Z(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \pi_{\text{ref}} e^{\frac{1}{\beta}(r(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})-\alpha|\mathbf{y}|)}$. With some simple algebra, we can then obtain the equivalent regularized reward re-formulation:

$$r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \beta \log \frac{\pi^*(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})} + \beta \log Z(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha |\mathbf{y}|$$
(8)

We can then plug in Eq. 8 into the reward modelling stage in Eq. 2, which yields the following regularized DPO objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{R-DPO}}\left(\pi_{ heta};\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}
ight)=$$
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$$-\mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}_{w},\mathbf{y}_{l})\sim\mathcal{D}}\Big[\log\sigma\Big(\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{w}\mid\mathbf{y}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{w}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{y}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2\beta\log\frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}{\pi_{\mathrm{ref}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{l}\mid\mathbf{x}\right)}-2$$

$$(\alpha |\mathbf{y}_w| - \alpha |\mathbf{y}_l|) \Big) \Big]$$
 (9)

This is similar to the standard DPO objective, except for the an additional regularization term within $\alpha |y_w| - \alpha |y_l|$ in the logit of the binary classification loss.

Concurrent work (Chen et al., 2024) also consider the length exploitation problem in the classical RLHF pipeline. They suggest a similar regularization in the reward modelling stage in Eq. 2 to disentangle the answer's quality from the length bias and show meaningful improvement in lengthcontrolled model performance. Our derivations can be seen as the DPO implicit reward counterpart to that classical RLHF approach, explicitly linking the regularized reward modelling problem to an equivalent regularized RL setup.

Similar to the original DPO formulation, the regularized objective still aims to increase the likelihood along the preferred answer, while decreasing the likelihood along the dis-preferred answer, modulated by a weighting term. This term is equivalent to the original DPO formulation with the addition of the regularization margin $\alpha |y_w| - \alpha |y_l|$. We can interpret this as an additional per-example learning rate, which up-weighs the gradient on feedback pairs, in which the selected answer is shorter and

Dataset	Preferred Length			Dispreferred Length		
	Mean	Median	Std.	Mean	Median	Std.
Anthropic RLHF HH	79.6	57.0	74.0	75.7	51.0	73.3
Reddit TL;DR	37.9	36.0	13.9	35.2	34.0	13.4

Table 1: Summary statistics across preference datasets. Bold indicates maximum between preferred and dispreferred statistic for a particular dataset. Statistics do not exclude long tails.



Figure 3: Sampled lengths vs. GPT4 winrates for HH and TLDR test sets. 256 samples evaluated for length and winrates. gpt4-0613 used as judge with prompt similar to (Rafailov et al., 2023), with random position flipping.

down-weights the gradient on pairs in which the selected answer is longer, proportional to the difference in length.

4 Experiments

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In this section we will empirically investigate the verbosity exploitation issues in DPO, the effectiveness of our regularization strategy and the potential causes of these effects. We beging with a description of our evaluation tasks and models.

4.1 Datasets and Models

We utilize three different setups in our experimental setting based on summarization, dialogue and general instruction-following.

Summarization We use the standard Reddit TL;DR (TL;DR) summarization dataset from (Stiennon et al., 2022), which consists of a Reddit post and several short summaries, judged for quality and informativeness by human evaluators.

Dialogue: For our dialogue experiment we use the Anthropic Helpful and Harmless (HH) datasets (Bai et al., 2022b), which consists of general conversations with a language model assistants, which are also ranked by human annotators.

Datasets statistics are included in Table 1 where exhibit a small length bias in the preferred response. Following (Rafailov et al., 2023) we use the Pythia 2.8B (Biderman et al., 2023) for both the dialogue and summarization tasks and carry out full-parameter fine-tuning, using the DPO original codebase¹ with default hyperparameters, except when noted otherwise. All experiments were carried out on 4 A40 GPUs for a total of about 2000 GPU hours. 317

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4.2 Length Exploitation in DPO and Effectiveness of Regularization

We first consider the Anthropic Helpful and Harmless and Reddit TL;DR datasets. For both tasks, we train models with three parameter values $\beta \in$ [0.5, 0.1, 0.05] and then sample 256 answers using prompts from the evaluation dataset. The length histograms are shown in Fig. 2. The first two columns show the answer length distribution for the set of preferred, rejected and DPO-generated answer, with each row corresponding to a different value of the β parameter. We see that the DPO generated answers are, on average, significantly longer than both the preferred and rejected answers. Models trained with smaller values of β generate longer responses on average, which is expected as this parameter controls the deviation from the initial policy. Not only does the DPO model generate longer answers, it also generates answers that are significantly out-of-distribution in terms of length

¹https://github.com/eric-mitchell/direct-preferenceoptimization



Figure 4: KL divergence vs. sampled lengths for HH and TL;DR, where KL divergence is calculated as the expected reward across the 256 samples generated from the test prompts in both datasets. At most 512 new tokens sampled.

from the offline preference dataset.

The third and fourth column in Fig .2 show results for the SFT, DPO the length-regularized DPO model introduced in Section 3. We use parameters of $\alpha = 0.01$ and $\alpha = 0.05$ for the Anthropic Helpful and Harmless and Reddit TL;DR datasets respectively. While the length-regularized models still show mild increase in average length, they match the SFT model much more closely. Moreover, they do not generate answers with significantly out-of-distribution lengths. This indicates that the proposed algorithm can efficiently regularize the verbosity of the trained model.

4.3 Length Versus Quality Trade-Offs

In this section we evaluate the length versus quality model trade-offs. For the Anthropic Helpful and Harmless and Reddit TL;DR datasets we use the answers generated in the previous section and compare them head-to-head against the dataset preferred answer, using GPT 4 as an evaluator. For the UltraFeedback dataset, we evaluate the model on MTBench (Zheng et al., 2023), which also uses GPT 4 to directly provide numerical scores to the model-generated answers. Our main results are shown in Fig. 3, which plots model win rates against average answer length, with 90% confidence intervals. We again evaluate three different values for the beta parameter $\beta \in [0.05, 0.1.0.5]$ 370 and three values of α with $\alpha \in [0, 0.005, 0.01]$ for 371 HH and $\alpha \in [0, 0.2, 0.5]$ for TL;DR respectively $(\alpha = 0$ is the standard DPO algorithm). Similar to before, we see that the length-regularized training can efficiently control verbosity, significantly 375 decreasing the average length of the answers as compared to the standard DPO training. Moreover, on the HH task, regularization also leads to mild 378

improvement in win rates, but a slight decrease on TL;DR although both of these are not statistically significant. These results are quite promising, as GPT4 is known to have a significant length bias in its preferences (Wang et al., 2023; Singhal et al., 2023). On both the HH and TL;DR, the length-regularized experiments with $\beta = 0.05$ and beta = 0.01 match the average lengths of the corresponding $\beta = 0.5$ runs, but achieve statistically significant higher corresponding win rates with close to 20% improvement on HH and 15% improvement on TL;DR. 379

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4.4 Is Length a Proxy for KL-Divergence?

In the constrained RL problem in Eq. 3 and the cor-392 responding DPO objective in Eq. 4, the β parame-393 ter controls the degree of policy divergence from 394 the initial reference model. In Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, we see that average length of the model generated 396 answers is inversely proportional to the β parame-397 ter. In this section, we investigate the relationship 398 between the length-regularized DPO objective in Eq. 9 and the KL divergence from the initial policy. 400 In Fig .4, we plot the trained policy KL divergence 401 from the initialization π_{ref} for the different values 402 of β and α parameters. We see only a weak corre-403 lation between KL divergence and length. For both 404 HH and TL;DR, length-regularized models trained 405 with $\beta = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.01$ match the average 406 length of train runs with $\beta = 0.5$ (Fig. 3). At the 407 same time, these runs have statistically significant 408 higher KL divergences and win rates as shown in 409 Fig. 3. We hypothesize that this indicates the exis-410 tence of different factors driving human preference, 411 with length being only a partial one. 412



Figure 5: Evolution of HH sample length, GPT4 winrates, and KL divergence along equally-spaced intervals within one epoch (170K steps) of DPO training. Error bars indicate 90% confidence intervals.

4.5 DPO and Early Convergence

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In (Rafailov et al., 2023), the authors show early 414 convergence of the DPO algorithm on the HH 415 416 dataset. DPO achieves its best performance within a few hundred gradient steps, and does not improve 417 with further training. Similar observations have 418 also been made within the open-source community. 419 420 We claim that this effect is likely due to lengthexploitation and the biased GPT4 evaluator. In 421 Fig. 6, we consider the training progression on the 422 HH dataset with $\beta = 0.1$. We compare the regu-423 lar DPO run ($\alpha = 0$) with the length-regularized 424 one $\alpha = 0.1$. We train for a single epoch and 425 evaluate intermediate checkpoints on the same set 426 of prompts for average answer length, win rates, 427 and KL divergence. We see that already within 428 the first 10% of the epoch, the standard DPO run 429 produces answers almost twice as long as the SFT 430 model. Unregularized DPO achieves its highest 431 win rate here, with only KL divergence and aver-432 age length increasing steadily with further training. 433 In contrast, the length-regularized run sees little 434 to no intermediate increase in length, but steady 435 improvement in win rates throughout training and 436 slow increases in divergence from the reference pol-437 icy. We hypothesize that the regular DPO training 438 quickly increases length, which exploits the evalu-439 ator's bias, but does not capture the more complex 440 features of preferences. On the other hand, the 441 length-regularized training run is able to disentan-442 gle the verbosity component and fit other, more 443 difficult quality features over a longer training pe-444 riod. 445

446 4.6 What Drives Length Exploitation?

447 Excessive model verbosity (John Schulman et al.,
448 2022) has been well understood under classical
449 RLHF as a reward exploitation problem (Gao et al.,

2023; Casper et al., 2023; Lambert and Calandra, 450 2023) driven by a bias in the feedback datasets 451 for longer answers. In particular, in the classical 452 RLHF pipeline as outlined in Section 2.1, the re-453 ward model is continuously queried on new data 454 generated by the model, which can create an out-of-455 distribution robustness issue. These results do not 456 directly transfer to the DPO algorithm, as it does 457 not train a separate reward model and only uses the 458 offline feedback dataset for training. Surprisingly 459 we find that the exploding length issue in DPO 460 training is similarly driven by out-of-distribution 461 exploitation. We consider the DPO algorithm as 462 an implicit reward training method, as outlined in 463 Section 2.2. We investigate the behaviour of the 464 implicit reward r_{θ} as defined in Eq. 5. Since the 465 DPO policy π_{θ} is the optimal solution to the con-466 strained RL problem in Eq. 3 corresponding to r_{θ} , 467 any exploitation behaviour from the policy must 468 be driven by the reward function. We evaluate r_{θ} 469 trained with $\beta = 0.1$ and different α parameters 470 on the offline feedback dataset (within its training 471 distribution) and on answers generated by the cor-472 responding DPO policy (out of distribution). Sur-473 prisingly, within distribution, the corresponding 474 implicit reward models exhibit weak to no length 475 correlation (and even negative length correlation 476 with strong α regularization). However, they all 477 show significant length bias on out-of-distribution 478 samples, with length explaining 0.3-0.46 of the 479 reward variance. 480

5 Related Work

Reward Exploitation in RLHF: RLHF reward exploitation, also known as reward over-optimization, is a well-known issue (Skalse et al., 2022; Pan et al., 2022; Casper et al., 2023; Lambert and Calandra, 2023) in which during the reinforcement learning

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Figure 6: Evaluation of the DPO implicit reward model as defined in Section 2.2 on in-distribution preffered (blue) and rejected (red) answers, as well as OOD answers generated from the corresponding policy. The reward model exhibits little to no length bias in distribution, but significant length correlation outside its training distribution.

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stage, the expected reward keeps improving, but the quality of the model begins to degrade after some point. These effects were confirmed analytically in controlled experiments (Gao et al., 2023), as well as empirically in user studies (Dubois et al., 2024). Increased model verbosity has been explicitly linked to this phenomenon (John Schulman et al., 2022). A number approaches have been proposed to mitigate this issue, such as penalizing epistemic uncertainty (Coste et al., 2023; Zhai et al., 2023) or using mixture reward models (Moskovitz et al., 2023), but they do not explicitly target the length issue.

Mitigating Length Biases in RLHF: A number of works have sought to explicitly address length biases in RLHF policies. (Ramamurthy et al., 2023) suggest setting a simple discount factor, which improves naturalness of the generated language, (Singhal et al., 2023) carry out an extensive study of length correlations in classical RLHF and suggest a number of mitigating approaches. The closes to our approach are the works of (Shen et al., 2023) and the concurrent work of (Chen et al., 2024), which propose to disentangle length-biases from quality during the reward modelling stage. Our work can be seen as a DPO equivalent counter-part to these approaches.

514As far as we are aware, this is the first work to515study the length exploitation problem for direct516alignment algorithms, such as DPO.

6 Limitations

Our work addresses the particular issue of length exploitation in Direct Preference Optimization. Our regularization objective requires explicit penalty function (such as length) and may not be suitable to avoid general exploitation issues along axes separate from verbosity. Furthermore, we only study the DPO objective, which might behave differently from other direct alignment algorithms, which use different objective functions. 517

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7 Conclusion

In this work, we study the problem of length exploitation in the Direct Preference Optimization algorithm for the first time. On two standard human feedback datasets, we empirically show that DPO exhibits significant length hacking across a range of hyperparameters. We then link this phenomenon to out-of-distribution bootstrapping. We derive an analytical length-regularized version of the DPO algorithm and show empirically that we can maintain model performance, as evaluated by GPT4 without significant increases in verbosity, boosting lengthcorrected win rates by up to 15-20%. Given the strong length bias in public feedback datasets and the prominence of DPO in the open source community, we hypothesize that a lot of open source models suffer from similar length-exploitation issues, driving the observations of Fig. 1. Our results are encouraging, suggesting that open-source models could match proprietary ones on automated evaluations on a length corrected basis as well.

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Ethics Statement

Scientific work published at ACL 2023 must comply with the ACL Ethics Policy.² We encourage all authors to include an explicit ethics statement on the broader impact of the work, or other ethical considerations after the conclusion but before the references. The ethics statement will not count toward the page limit (8 pages for long, 4 pages for short papers).

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²https://www.aclweb.org/portal/content/ acl-code-ethics

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