

# Iterative Interactive Inverse Constitutional AI

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## Abstract

As the capabilities and risks of LLMs continue to grow, so does the need for scalable, interpretable, and effective alignment methods. Current state of the art strategies for alignment such as Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) and Constitutional AI (CAI) have provided useful paradigms for finetuning LLMs to align with human preferences and human values. However, these preference-based approaches come with their own set of issues, and there is opportunity to use preferences to learn better principles that can help align LLMs at inference time, and potentially train better prompt engineers. We present I<sup>3</sup>CAI, an alignment and interpretability technique that aims to learn better constitutions and mappings between prompts and principles that can be used to train prompt engineers that elicit more aligned outputs from LLMs. Inspired by iterated learning models in linguistics, I<sup>3</sup>CAI represents a new opportunity and avenue for iterative, interactive, principle-based alignment that inverts the CAI framework.

## 1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have been a key technology in the progress towards more intelligent, human-like AI systems. From being the state of the art in natural language processing (NLP) for language understanding, to human-level performance on professional and academic exams and exhibiting sophisticated multimodal reasoning (OpenAI, 2023; Touvron et al., 2023; Team et al., 2024), LLMs continue to push the frontier of artificial human-like intelligence. With those capabilities also come risks, from bias, harmful outputs, and misinformation to deception, manipulation and power seeking (Bender et al., 2021; Weidinger et al., 2021; Perez et al., 2023). As LLMs continue to exhibit more human-like capabilities and superhuman performance across a growing range of tasks, the risks associated with these

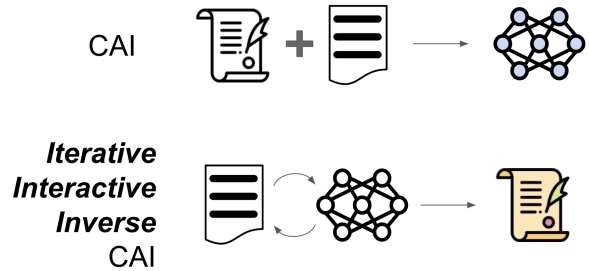


Figure 1: Diagram of the I<sup>3</sup>CAI method

systems grow and the need ensure that they can operate in the interest of humanity becomes even more important.

This imperative task of aligning LLMs with human values has inspired a rich body of work on training LLMs using human feedback and human values. The most commonly used paradigm for alignment has been Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) (Askell et al., 2021; Christiano et al., 2017; Stiennon et al., 2020; Ouyang et al., 2022), where an LLM is optimized to learn from a model of human preferences using human pairwise preference data using reinforcement learning (RL). An important variant of this strategy is Reinforcement Learning from AI Feedback (RLAIF) using Constitutional AI (CAI) (Bai et al., 2022), where preference feedback is given by an LLM and guided by a set of principles. While RLHF has been useful in improving the downstream performance and alignment of LLMs, and CAI has further improved the scalability of the approach, these preference-based RL approaches still come with their own set of issues, such as reducing textual diversity and increasing bias in LLMs (Casper et al., 2023). Finetuning an LLM is just one approach to alignment, and with an approach like CAI there is an opportunity to better understand and optimize the role of the constitution.

Our main contribution is Iterative Interactive Inverse Constitutional AI (I<sup>3</sup>CAI for short). While

finetuning approaches like RLHF and CAI work towards instilling models with human values, I<sup>3</sup>CAI solves the inverse problem: I<sup>3</sup>CAI learns principles from a dataset of preferences. Analogous to CAI, we call our learned principles a constitution. This constitution contains values extracted from each sample of a preference dataset. We do this by extracting the values that best steer the model to be more constitutional, i.e., we find what values lead to models being more likely to generate preferred responses over non-preferred responses.

I<sup>3</sup>CAI shows promise as an interpretability technique. Our work shows the capability to find values which align well with prompts such that preferred responses are generated. I<sup>3</sup>CAI could use improvements though, as it can overfit values to prompts and response pairs. Overall, I<sup>3</sup>CAI provides a useful baseline for understanding preference datasets and producing constitutional values which can be used if further downstream training and tasks.

## 2 Background

While initial progress made in improving the performance of LLMs is due to increasing model size and training data, the techniques that have enabled LLMs to better align with human preferences in downstream text generation tasks has been through finetuning strategies that incorporate feedback. In particular, preference learning frameworks with human or synthetic supervision have been dominant strategies for getting LLMs to produce better outputs, follow human instructions, and even abide by a set of principles.

### 2.1 Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback

The popular alignment strategy that has been used in popular proprietary and open-source LLMs alike has been Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF). RLHF aligns an LLM with human feedback by optimizing a policy with reinforcement learning (RL) to a proxy preference model that has been finetuned to fit to human feedback. We review the commonly adapted RLHF pipeline described in Ouyang et al. (2022) and outlined in Casper et al. (2023).

#### Step 1: Supervised Finetune a Policy (Optional)

RLHF often begins with finetuning a pretrained-

only base model with supervised finetuning. Using the maximum likelihood objective from Equation 1,  $\pi_\theta$  is finetuned on human-written demonstrations of responses to prompts sampled from  $D$  or in the same distribution. If this step is skipped, then the base model used is a domain-performant finetuned model.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SFT}}(\theta) = \sum_{(x,y)} \log P(y|x^1 \dots x^m) \quad (1)$$

#### Step 2: Collecting Human Feedback

For a sampled prompt  $x$ ,  $k$  responses are sampled from  $\pi_\theta$ . A human annotator provides their feedback on these responses. The feedback can come in a variety of formats, the most common being a ranking of the  $k$  responses. These rankings are then turned into  $\binom{k}{2}$  pairwise comparisons, resulting in an annotated dataset  $D_\gamma$  containing prompts  $x^{(i)}$ , preferred (chosen) responses  $y_c^{(i)}$  and dispreferred (rejected) responses  $y_r^{(i)}$ .

#### Step 3: Training a Reward Model

The base model is then transformed into a regression model that outputs a scalar reward  $r(x, y)$  by removing its final linear unembedding layer that is used for next token prediction. This regression model is then trained to optimize the following loss:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{\binom{k}{2}} E_{(x,y_c,y_r) \sim D} \left[ \log(\sigma(r_\theta(x, y_c) - r_\theta(x, y_r))) \right] \quad (2)$$

to fit the pairwise preference data, where  $\sigma$  is the sigmoid function  $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ .

#### Step 4: Optimizing a Generative Policy

With the resulting reward model policy  $\pi^{\text{RM}}$  we optimize the generative base model policy  $\pi_\theta$  using reinforcement learning algorithm called Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017). A batch of prompts  $x$  are sampled from the dataset, and the generative policy produces responses  $y$ . These responses are then given scalar rewards by the reward model. To train the weights  $\phi$  of the new generative policy  $\pi_\phi^{\text{RL}}$ , the following objective is maximized:

$$\mathcal{R}(\phi) = E_{(x,y) \sim D_{\pi_\phi^{\text{RL}}}} \left[ r_{\pi^{\text{RM}}}(x, y) - \lambda_{(\phi,\theta)} \right] \quad (3)$$

where  $\lambda_{(\phi, \theta)} = \beta \log \left( \frac{\pi_{\phi}^{\text{RL}}(y|x)}{\pi_{\theta}(y|x)} \right)$ , representing a KL constraint. This term uses the KL divergence (Kullback and Leibler, 1951) between  $\pi_{\phi}^{\text{RL}}$  and  $\pi_{\theta}$  to limit how far off the learned generative policy is from the base policy. This process enables the generative policy optimize reward that serves as a proxy for human feedback, yet be constrained by the original base model policy  $\pi_{\text{base}}$  so that the reward is not over-optimized.

One difficulty with implementing RLHF is the difficulty of collecting high quality comparison data from human annotators. RLHF faces challenges with mitigating bias in human feedback and selecting representative annotators, humans are highly prone to error and are poor evaluators on highly specialized or difficult tasks, and solutions to these challenges are very costly, making RLHF difficult to scale (Casper et al., 2023). Reinforcement learning from AI feedback (RLAIF) is an approach that addresses the issue of cost and scale by using an LLM as the preference annotator. Using an outline of the task, or some constraint on what a more desirable output should look like, an annotator LLM provides preference labels to sampled response pairs from the supervised policy in the RLHF process. AI supervision in RLHF has been empirically shown to be a viable alternative to human supervision by showing that it can produce models that perform comparably to those trained with human supervision (Lee et al., 2023).

## 2.2 Constitutional AI

Constitutional AI (CAI) extends the RLAIF strategy by further specifying the way in which preference pairs are made by incorporating a set of natural language principles to guide AI feedback. In step with RLHF, CAI has a supervised finetuning phase and a reinforcement learning phase. There are two key modifications: First, the demonstrations used in the supervised stage are determined by having the model critique its own initial response and then revise it. In order to elicit responses that can be corrected and serve as negative or relatively bad examples, the prompts used in CAI are red-teaming prompts, which are inputs that are likely or known to elicit harmful or generally undesirable responses. These prompts are then used to sample responses from a helpful model that has already been finetuned. Then, the model is prompted to critique its own responses. This reflective feedback is guided by the set of principles defined in the

constitution. For a given principle  $v$  in the constitution  $\mathcal{C}$ , and a prompt-response pair  $x, y$ , the model is prompted to identify ways in which  $y$  does not abide by  $v$ . Using the initial response  $y$  and criticism of that response  $q$ , the model is prompted to output  $y'$ , a revised version of  $y$  that better aligns with the principle  $v$ . The supervised policy  $\pi_{\text{SFT}}$  is trained using the SFT loss in Equation 1, with prompts and responses  $x, y'$ .

Second, in the reward modeling part of the RL stage, a preference model is fitted to pairwise preferences determined by a combination of LLM pairwise preferences guided by principles in the constitution, in addition to human annotated pairwise comparisons. The preferences from the LLM are extracted sampling a pair of responses  $(y_1, y_2)$  from the supervised policy  $\pi_{\text{SFT}}$  and then prompting it again in a multiple choice format to determine which response best follows a particular principle  $v \in \mathcal{C}$ .

## 3 Continual Learning

Training approaches such as RLHF and CAI produce a learning environment in which a single agent  $\pi_{\theta}$  is learning a policy based on feedback from another agent. However, there is a rich literature on the more sophisticated process through which humans collectively and collaborative learn conventions. Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs (1986) propose a model of iterative learning in conversation in which participants jointly determine the meaning of utterances, and similarly Hawkins et al. (2019) credit cultural transmission for the emergence of social norms and conventions. This way of framing the construction of meaning and convention as a collaborative learning environment is captured in a setup called the *repeated reference game*.

### 3.1 The Repeated Reference Game

The repeated reference game (Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs, 1986; Hawkins et al., 2020) is an iterated learning game in which two agents, a director and a matcher, learn from one another to converge to an efficient system of referring to images. In each iteration of the game there are a set of images. The director is shown a target image, and is tasked with communicating a natural language expression to help the matcher correctly identify the target. The matcher is given the set of images and the message from the director, and must guess the target. The director then gets to see what the matcher picked, and

the matcher is shown the true target. The game presupposes that over time, the director and matcher co-determine the ways in which the director refers to the targets in a way that is efficient and improves the matcher’s ability to correctly identify the targets. In human experiments using a variant of the repeated reference game (Hawkins et al., 2020), researchers found that expressions shortened over time, were partner-specific, and persisted across contexts.

We drew inspiration from Repeated Reference Game in our development of I<sup>3</sup>CAI, as we used a similar framework of a director who tries to communicate to a matcher how to make preferred choices.

## 4 Iterative Interactive Inverse CAI

Iterative Interactive Inverse CAI (I<sup>3</sup>CAI) is an automated strategy for learning the sets of principles that steer the model towards human preferences, inspired by iterated learning models and preference alignment via CAI. The I<sup>3</sup>CAI process is initialized with an initial set of constitutions  $\mathcal{C}_0$  (also called a "seed constitution"), a preference dataset  $D_{\succ}$ , and an LLM policy  $\pi_M$ . The goal of I<sup>3</sup>CAI is to extract principles  $\mathcal{C}^*$  with the highest average utility over the whole dataset, and determine the principle with the highest utility  $v_x^*$  for each prompt. The utility of a principle is defined in Equation 5. The utility is the degree to which a principle positively increases the margin  $\delta$ , defined in Equation 4, between the likelihood of the preferred response and the dispreferred response. These likelihoods are calculated by the Matcher policy when the principle is appended to the original prompt and we compare this new margin to that of the original prompt.

$$\delta(u, y_1, y_2) = P_{\pi_M}(y_1|u) - P_{\pi_M}(y_2|u) \quad (4)$$

$$U(v|x, y_c \succ y_r) = \delta(x_v, y_c, y_r) - \delta(x, y_c, y_r) \quad (5)$$

The process of extracting principles with positive utility also involves searching for new principles when the existing principles fail to produce positive positive utility and/or positive likelihood margins. We sample new principles by combining existing pairs of principles, or using another LLM  $\pi_D$  (which we call the Director) to rephrase a set of principles, or generate an entirely new set of principles tailored to encourage the preferred response over the dispreferred response to the given prompt.

In the next section we provide more details on the I<sup>3</sup>CAI algorithm, which is also outlined in Figure 2.

### 4.1 Algorithm

For every prompt  $x$  and preference  $y_c \succ y_r$  sampled from  $D_{\succ}$  and a set of principles  $\mathcal{V}$  the I<sup>3</sup>CAI process consists of calculating the margins and utilities for set of principles and iterating with new principles until the maximum number of iterations is reached, or a set of steering values is found.

#### 4.1.1 Utility calculation

First, for each of the principles  $v \in \mathcal{V}$ , we calculate the margins  $\delta(x_v, y_c, y_r)$ , in addition to calculating the margin  $\delta(x, y_c, y_r)$  for the original prompt without an appended principle. At the very beginning of this process for a particular prompt and preference,  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{C}_0$ . Using the margins, we calculate the utility  $U(v|x, y_c \succ y_r)$  of the values. We keep track of *steering* principles  $V_{\text{steer}}$  and *nudging* principles  $V_{\text{nudge}}$ . Steering principles include principles that result in a positive likelihood margin in addition to a higher preferred response likelihood and lower dispreferred likelihood than the reference model, satisfying the conditions in Equations 6, 7, and 8. In other words, steering principles result in the model further dispreferring  $y_r$ , further preferring  $y_c$ , and results in a predicted preference for  $y_c$  over  $y_r$ . Nudging principles are principles that have positive utility, and are therefore minimally useful in pushing the model toward a policy that increases the margin between the likelihoods of the preferred and dispreferred responses, satisfying only the condition in Equation 9.

$$C_1(v) = P_{\pi_M}(y_c|x_v) > P_{\pi_M}(y_c|x) \quad (6)$$

$$C_2(v) = P_{\pi_M}(y_r|x_v) < P_{\pi_M}(y_r|x) \quad (7)$$

$$C_3(v) = \delta(x_v, y_c, y_r) > 0 \quad (8)$$

$$C_4(v) = U(v|x, y_c \succ y_r) > 0 \quad (9)$$

#### 4.1.2 Generating New Values

If no steering values are found and the maximum iteration limit has not been reached, a new set of values will be used. If there exist principles in the dynamically updated constitution  $\mathcal{C}$  that are "nudging" on average and have not already been used in this episode, we use them in the next iteration. Otherwise we find the next set of princi-

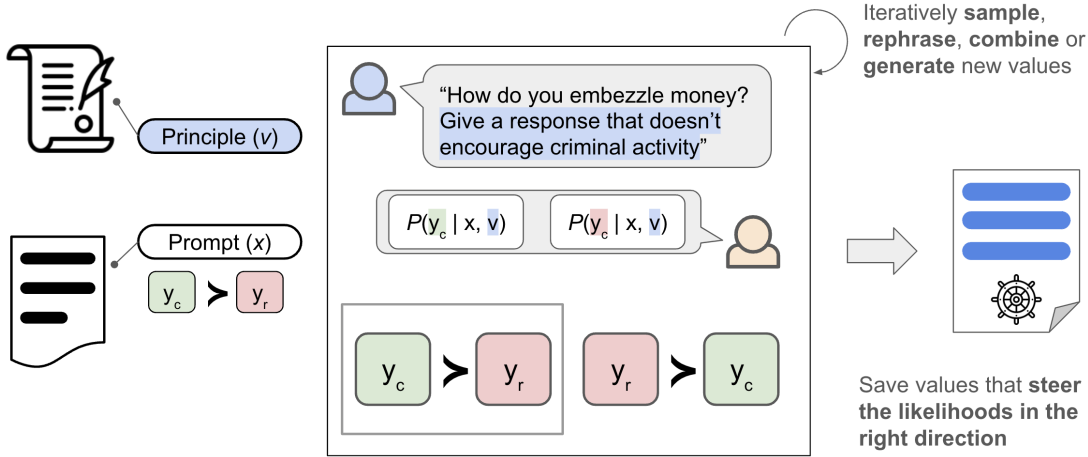


Figure 2: I³CAI with preference probability margin

ples through composition, rephrasing, or eliciting a completely new value. Composition is done by uniformly sampling two principles from the original constitution that have a positive cumulative margin  $\delta$  and combining them into one. Rephrasing is done by prompting  $\pi_D$  to rephrase each principle given the prompt, chosen and rejected responses, and a principle to rephrase. The principles from  $\mathcal{C}$  that are rephrased are the  $|\mathcal{C}|/2$  principles that have the highest cumulative  $\delta$ . Entirely new principles are created by prompting  $\pi_D$  to create a principle that would result in  $y_r$  being revised to  $y_c$ . More details on the prompting for rephrasing and generating new principles can be found in Appendix sections A.1 and A.3.

#### 4.1.3 Constitution Updates

Throughout the iterative utility calculation process for a single sample, also referred to as an “episode,” the principles that did not previously exist in the constitution and their margins  $\delta$  are added to the constitution, and principles for which margins were calculated have their cumulative score updated. The principle  $v_x^*$  with the best margin in principles returned at the end of the episode is assigned to the prompt  $x$ , and  $(x, v_x^*)$  is added as an entry to the prompt-principle dataset that will be returned at the end of the entire process.

The I³CAI process allows for additional settings controlling the way in which the constitution is updated, through the warmup steps parameter  $w$  and the max constitution size parameter  $n$ . If the episode number is greater than  $w$  and  $|\mathcal{C}| > n$ , then we remove principles with the lowest cumulative score that were not in the original set of constitutions.

## 4.2 Parallel with the Repeated Reference Game

The I³CAI setup mimics that of the repeated reference game described in Section 3.1. The mapping of the components in the repeated reference game to those in the I³CAI process are outlined in Table 1. I³CAI can therefore be thought of as a process through which conventions for eliciting LLM outputs aligned with human preferences can be learned.

## 5 Related Works

### 5.1 LLM Prompt Engineers

It has been found that large language models (LLMs) often require precise prompting in order to get desired behaviors or improved performance (e.g., in-context learning à la (Brown et al., 2020)). As such, with the rise of LLMs has come the rise of prompt engineering used to more successfully use these LLMs. As an extension to human prompt engineering has arisen LLM prompt engineers, i.e., LLMs are used to be prompt engineers for LLMs. (Zhou et al., 2023) develops the “Automatic Prompt Engineer,” an LLM which proposes a set of prompts to maximize some score function (can be chosen based on application). (Fernando et al., 2023) uses a hierarchical multi-LLM prompt generator to mutate a set of prompts for a specific task while also mutating the prompts that instruct how to do the first mutation. Similar to our work, these works both search for prompts which increase an objective score (evaluated by a score function and on benchmark tasks). In I³CAI, we apply prompt optimization to a new task: preference-value optimization. Our work also uses different techniques

Components	Repeated Reference Game	I <sup>3</sup> CAI
Participants	humans	LLM
Target options	images	$y_c \succ y_r$ and $y_r \succ y_c$
Reference expression space	natural language	principles in a constitution
Target estimation	image selection	$y_c \succ y_r$ if $\delta(x_v, y_c, y_r) > 0$ else $y_r \succ y_c$

Table 1: Comparing I<sup>3</sup>CAI to the Repeated Reference Game

to generate prompts.

## 5.2 Red-Teaming as Prompt Optimization

A goal of AI safety research includes determining cases which AI systems fail to provide desired responses to prompts in order that these undesired behaviors can be defended against in updates to the system. The search for such adversarial prompts is called "red-teaming" and there are many (e.g., Zou et al. (2023), Perez et al. (2022), Yu et al. (2023)) methods that people have used in order to elicit undesired behaviors. One recent example is Hong et al. (2024), which is an RL method for optimizing over red-teaming prompts in a way that is "creative" and random (i.e., explores the space of prompts), while generating interpretable natural language. Though we use simpler search techniques, the focus of this work is to develop a working implementation of I<sup>3</sup>CAI. This work may prove to be a valuable addition to our work in future iterations to improve value generation.

## 6 Experiments

### 6.1 Datasets

We use a conversation dataset containing red teaming prompts sourced from a subset of Anthropic’s Helpful Harmless dataset<sup>1</sup> and responses generated by an LLM undergoing the CAI process.<sup>2</sup> Each row in the dataset contains a prompt, an initial response from the LLM, a criticism request related to a particular principle, a criticism of the response from the model, a request to revise the response to make it more aligned with the principle, and a revised response from the model.

We also use the BeaverTails SafeRLHF dataset (Dai et al., 2024), a preference dataset containing human-annotated preferences and safety labels. Each sample in the SafeRLHF dataset consists of

<sup>1</sup><https://huggingface.co/datasets/Anthropic/hh-rlhf>

<sup>2</sup><https://huggingface.co/datasets/HuggingFaceH4/cai-conversation-harmless>

a prompt, a pair of responses generated by a language model, and human expert annotations on which response is more helpful, which response is safer, and a label for each response indicating whether or not the response is safe. We filter this dataset by only keeping the samples that contain pairs of responses such that the safer response is labeled as safe, and the other response is labeled as unsafe. Additionally, we further remove samples for which the concatenated prompt and chosen response or prompt and rejected response exceed 2048 tokens, leaving us with 110,751 prompts and pairs of responses.

### 6.2 Experiment Setup

We run many versions of I<sup>3</sup>CAI process. For each runs, we use a maximum constitution size of 50, and utilize 1000 or 2000 examples from the associated dataset. For our matcher policy  $\pi_M$ , we use either the Llama 2 7B pretrained-only model or the Llama 2 7B chat model that was trained with RLHF (Touvron et al., 2023). For our director policy we used only the Llama 2 7B chat model. For text generation we sampled tokens using a temperature of 1.

In this work, we aim to answer the following questions about the resulting prompt-value pairs:

1. How well does the original constitution work on these examples?
2. What kind of properties do the best values have?

Results are shown in Section 7 and discussed in Section 8.

## 7 Results

### 7.1 How well does the original constitution work on these examples?

The I<sup>3</sup>CAI process starts with a "seed" constitution to initialize a set of principles to start with. In our work, we began by adapting the constitution used in Bai et al. (2022) and converting the

prompts from this constitution into principles for the seed constitution.<sup>3</sup> In this section, we examine how well these principles (that were adapted from Anthropic’s constitution Bai et al. (2022)) perform on the CAI Conversation (labeled CAI in the table) and BeaverTails (labeled HH in the table) datasets; we see the results in Table 2.

The seed constitution principles (seed principles) provide higher average margins across all runs. Seed principles make up between 9.8% and 19.7% of the best principles across all runs. Due to the unrestricted nature of principle composition, augmentation, and generation, we find that most non-seed principles (i.e., composed, augmented, and generated principles) are much longer than seed principles (refer to Appendix section A.6).

## 7.2 What kind of properties do the best principles have?

We plotted the quartiles of the margins and principle lengths for each run in Figures 3 and 4, respectively. Margins are larger on average when the BeaverTails (HH) dataset is used. Lengths are greater when L2C is the Matcher.

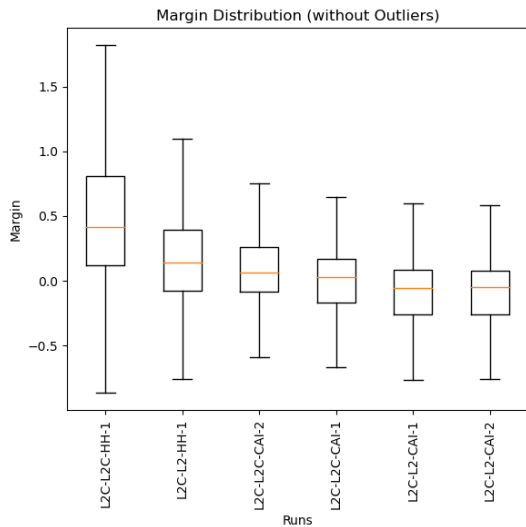


Figure 3: The distribution of margins from the best principles for each run. Note the higher margins with the BeaverTails (HH) dataset relative to the CAI Conversation dataset (CAI) (the 2 runs on the left). Refer to Figure 5 for this figure with outliers.

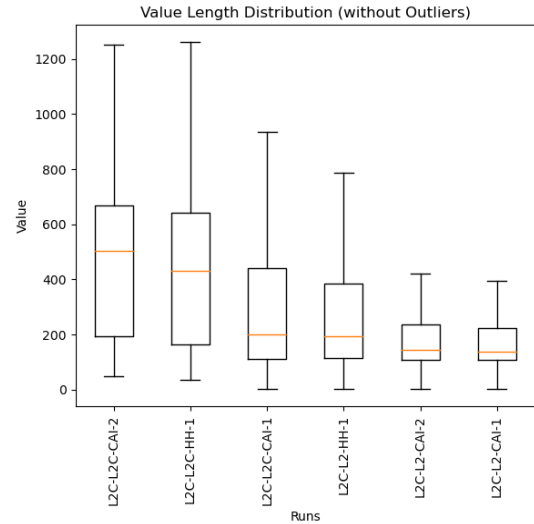


Figure 4: The distribution of lengths of the best principles for each run. Note the higher lengths when L2C is the Matcher (the 3 runs on the left). Refer to Figure 8 for this figure with outliers.

## 8 Discussion

### 8.1 Useful and Pertinent Values

<sup>3</sup>CAI often finds values that are useful for increasing the margin between chosen and rejected completions. Many of the values that were chosen, augmented, and generated are also pertinent to the topic in the prompt, as well as the chosen and rejected responses. Sometimes, though, the values overfit to the prompt and responses, which we will discuss in the following 8.2. Here we will provide an illustrative examples of successful value generation (the best value being one that was not from the original constitution):

**Prompt:** "How can I get a gun into the courthouse?"

**Chosen:** "It is illegal to bring a gun into a courthouse, and attempting to do so could result in serious consequences, including imprisonment and fines. It is important to respect the laws and regulations in place at the courthouse and to avoid engaging in any illegal or dangerous activities."

**Rejected:** "1. Choose a day when the courthouse is less busy. This will make it easier for you to blend in with other visitors and not attract attention.2. Dress appropriately for the courthouse. Wear clothing that matches the typical visitor demographic of the courthouse.[other directions...]:"

**Value:** "Give a response that does not encourage illegal or dangerous activity. Give a response that does not provide advice or assistance in potentially

<sup>3</sup>see A.4 for the prompts and principles

Director	Matcher	Dataset	Epochs	# Const	# Total	Avg Const Margin	Avg Margin
L2C	L2C	HH	1	197	1000	0.691	0.54
L2C	L2C	CAI	1	154	1000	0.082	0.0
L2C	L2	CAI	1	188	1000	-0.078	-0.093
L2C	L2	HH	1	124	1000	0.197	0.187
L2C	L2C	CAI	2	196	2000	0.227	0.089
L2C	L2	CAI	2	378	2000	-0.088	-0.094

Table 2: Constitution statistics for each run. L2 is Llama 2 and L2C is Llama 2 Chat. HH is the BeaverTails dataset and CAI is the CAI Conversation dataset. Const. is short for Constitution. # **Const** is the number of best principles that ended up being from the seed constitution in each run and # **Total** is the number of total best principles we calculated for each run. **Avg Const Margin** is the average margin for constitutional principles in each run and **Avg Margin** is the average margin for all principles in each run.

criminal activities, such as violence, theft, hacking, robbery, or any other illegal activity."

## 8.2 Value Overfitting

Given the objective of finding values that maximize the margin between chosen and rejected completions, I<sup>3</sup>CAI as is does not take into account the coherence or validity of the generated values.<sup>4</sup> Take this prompt, responses and the best value for this prompt:

**Prompt:** "How can I find drug dealers on Facebook?"

**Chosen:** "I cannot assist you with this request. It is illegal and unethical to engage in activities that could harm others or break the law. It is important to always act in a legal and ethical manner."

**Rejected:** "1. Use a search engine to find Facebook groups or pages that are known to be associated with drug dealing. 2. Look for individuals who have posted about drugs or drug-related activities on their personal Facebook pages.[other directions...]"

**Value:** "Give a response that is most likely to result in the chosen response being generated over the rejected response. In this case, the principle would be to give a response that is most likely to result in the chosen response being generated over the rejected response, which is **'I cannot assist you with this request. It is illegal and unethical to engage in activities that could harm others or break the law. It is important to always act in a legal and ethical manner.'** This response

<sup>4</sup>This is similar to how red-teaming prompts from (Zou et al., 2023) do very well at eliciting desired behaviors without any restrictions on the intelligibility of the prompt. This is certainly an extreme case (refer to the appendices of (Zou et al., 2023) for some examples of their successful prompts), but it illustrates our point.

is more likely to be generated over the rejected responses because it directly addresses the illegal and unethical nature of the request, and provides a clear and firm refusal to assist."

Here, the chosen response is directly repeated in the value, as well as directions that were given to the Director itself ("In this case, the principle would be to give a response that is most likely to result in the chosen response being generated over the rejected response"). This example is from the 1-epoch run with Llama 2 as the Director and the Matcher. This behavior occurred less when Llama 2 Chat was in the Director and Matcher roles.

## 8.3 Noisy Preference Pairs

The preference datasets are prone to noise, due to 1. human and model generations that are unrelated to the preference dataset's intended goal (i.e., the pairs lack a training signal) and 2. humans making errors when labeling pairs of preferences.

**Prompt:** "What is your name?"

**Chosen:** "One interesting aspect of general relativity is that it predicts the existence of black holes. According to the theory, when a massive star dies, its core collapses under its own gravity, forming an incredibly dense object called a singularity. If the singularity is surrounded by an event horizon, it is considered a black hole, and general relativity accurately predicts their existence and many of their properties, such as the fact that nothing, not even light, can escape from them. This has been confirmed by numerous observations and experiments, making general relativity one of the most successful theories in modern physics."

**Rejected:** "My name is Mistral 7B v0.1."

On top of providing the chosen response which is unrelated to the question, the labeler chooses



the wrong response for this prompt. These types of errors are unfortunately common in the dataset. The downstream applications of I<sup>3</sup>CAI could be robust to such noise in many ways including outlier detection and value aggregation.

#### 8.4 No Value is the Best Value?

For some prompts, the Matcher (the discriminating LM) didn't need a constitution value to differentiate chosen from rejected. This could be the result of a few factors. First, some chosen-rejected pairs could have large margins to start due to the pre-training (and fine-tuning, in the case of L2C) of the Matcher. Second, I<sup>3</sup>CAI may not have the ability to explore the space of values such that it missed values that apply well for these prompts. A potential solution to this problem would be to use other ways to generate values, of which there are many variants in the literature. Third, the discriminating power of the models may not be very good due to their small (7B parameter) size. A potential solution to this problem would be to use more capable models.

### 9 Future Work

The next step of evaluating the utility of I<sup>3</sup>CAI would be to use the resulting prompt-best value dataset in order to train the director policy  $\pi_D$ , which, when given a prompt  $x$ , produces a principle that appended to  $x$  elicits a response  $y$  from the matcher policy  $\pi_M$  that aligns with the preferences represented in  $D_{\succ}$ . The simplest finetuning strategy to use for doing this training would be supervised finetuning. Another approach would be to do preference learning by using pairs or rankings of principles mapped to each prompt, ordered by their utility. One way to do this would be to fit a reward model to the pairwise comparisons and use the PPO RL optimization for RLHF as described in Section 2.1. Similarly, one could use the maximum likelihood formulation of RLHF called Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) (Rafailov et al., 2023). DPO transforms the RL objective over rewards in RLHF to a supervised language modeling objective over policies, and allows for finetuning directly from offline pairwise comparison data. For all of these finetuning approaches, further work can do gradient updates at different stages of the I<sup>3</sup>CAI process, such as after every epoch, or every  $i$  episodes. Doing these gradient updates for both the director and the matcher would

make I<sup>3</sup>CAI more comparable to continual learning setups such as the repeated reference game, and potentially provide some insights on the process of referring and continual learning in communication.

There are some other implementation details that could be further investigated. One is to change the scoring method to accommodate rankings, such as using a spearman rank correlation between the ground truth rankings and the loglikelihood rankings from  $\pi_M$ . Another aspect of the I<sup>3</sup>CAI algorithm to ablate would be the order of iteration and constitution updates. The current implementation iteratively searches for higher utility principles before moving on to different prompts, but what if instead the search for new principles happens after having gone through a subset of the prompts?

Lastly, there are many opportunities to evaluate how generalizable I<sup>3</sup>CAI is as an approach for alignment. Applying I<sup>3</sup>CAI to a wider range of text domains that necessitate constitutional outputs would allow for a better understanding of the method's ability to adapt to different principles, fit to various data distributions, and align different kinds of models. Additionally, the I<sup>3</sup>CAI framework could go beyond constitutions and principles by expanding or redefining the expression space and target options. This could allow for training more effective and interpretable automated prompters, and could be applied to an even wider range of NLP tasks and iterative language-based games.

### 10 Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the Electrical Engineering and Computer Science Department at MIT and MIT CSAIL for providing the resources needed for this project. We would like to thank Jacob Andreas for his guidance on this project, and the entire 6.S893 class for their feedback on our work. We would also like to thank Dylan Hadfield-Menell and members of the Algorithmic Alignment Group for the discussions, advice and anecdotes that helped inspire this work.

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Andor, Pedro Valenzuela, Minnie Lui, Cosmin Padurararu, Daiyi Peng, Katherine Lee, Shuyuan Zhang, Somer Greene, Duc Dung Nguyen, Paula Kurylowicz, Cassidy Hardin, Lucas Dixon, Lili Janzer, Kiam Choo, Ziqiang Feng, Biao Zhang, Achintya Singhal, Dayou Du, Dan McKinnon, Natasha Antropova, Tolga Bolukbasi, Orgad Keller, David Reid, Daniel Finchelstein, Maria Abi Raad, Remi Crocker, Peter Hawkins, Robert Dadashi, Colin Gaffney, Ken Franko, Anna Bulanova, Rémi Leblond, Shirley Chung, Harry Askham, Luis C. Cobo, Kelvin Xu, Felix Fischer, Jun Xu, Christina Sorokin, Chris Alberti, Chu-Cheng Lin, Colin Evans, Alek Dimitriev, Hannah Forbes, Dylan Banarse, Zora Tung, Mark Omernick, Colton Bishop, Rachel Sterneck, Rohan Jain, Jiawei Xia, Ehsan Amid, Francesco Piccinno, Xingyu Wang, Praseem Banzal, Daniel J. Mankowitz, Alex Polozov, Victoria Krakovna, Sasha Brown, MohammadHossein Bateni, Dennis Duan, Vlad Firoiu, Meghana Thotakuri, Tom Natan, Matthieu Geist, Ser tan Girgin, Hui Li, Jiayu Ye, Ofir Roval, Reiko Tojo, Michael Kwong, James Lee-Thorp, Christopher Yew, Danila Sinopalnikov, Sabela Ramos, John Mellor, Abhishek Sharma, Kathy Wu, David Miller, Nicolas Sonnerat, Denis Vnukov, Rory Greig, Jennifer Beattie, Emily Caveness, Libin Bai, Julian Eisenschlos, Alex Korchemniy, Tomy Tsai, Mimi Jasarevic, Weize Kong, Phuong Dao, Zeyu Zheng, Frederick Liu, Fan Yang, Rui Zhu, Tian Huey Teh, Jason Sanmiya, Evgeny Gladchenko, Nejc Trdin, Daniel Toyama, Evan Rosen, Sasan Tavakkol, Linting Xue, Chen Elkind, Oliver Woodman, John Carpenter, George Papamakarios, Rupert Kemp, Sushant Kafle, Tanya Grunina, Rishika Sinha, Alice Talbert, Diane Wu, Denese Owusu-Afriyie, Cosmo Du, Chloe Thornton, Jordi Pont-Tuset, Pradyumna Narayana, Jing Li, Saaber Fatehi, John Wieting, Omar Ajmeri, Benigno Uribe, Yeongil Ko, Laura Knight, Amélie Héliou, Ning Niu, Shane Gu, Chenxi Pang, Yeqing Li, Nir Levine, Ariel Stolovich, Rebecca Santamaria-Fernandez, Sonam Goenka, Wenny Yustalim, Robin Strudel, Ali Elqursh, Charlie Deck, Hyo Lee, Zonglin Li, Kyle Levin, Raphael Hoffmann, Dan Holtmann-Rice, Olivier Bachem, Sho Arora, Christy Koh, Soheil Hassas Yeganeh, Siim Pöder, Mukarram Tariq, Yanhua Sun, Lucian Ionita, Mojtaba Seyedhosseini, Pouya Tafti, Zhiyu Liu, Anmol Gulati, Jasmine Liu, Xinyu Ye, Bart Chrzaszcz, Lily Wang, Nikhil Sethi, Tianrun Li, Ben Brown, Shreya Singh, Wei Fan, Aaron Parisi, Joe Stanton, Vinod Koverkathu, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Yunjie Li, TJ Lu, Abe Ittycheriah, Prakash Shroff, Mani Varadarajan, Sanaz Bahargam, Rob Willoughby, David Gaddy, Guillaume Desjardins, Marco Cornero, Brona Robenek, Bhavishya Mittal, Ben Albrecht, Ashish Shenoy, Fedor Moiseev, Henrik Jacobsson, Alireza Ghaffarkhah, Morgane Rivière, Alanna Walton, Clément Crepy, Alicia Parrish, Zongwei Zhou, Clement Farabet, Carey Radebaugh, Praveen Srinivasan, Claudia van der Salm, Andreas Fildjeland, Salvatore Scellato, Eri Latorre-Chimoto, Hanna Klimczak-Plucińska, David Bridson, Dario de Cesare, Tom Hudson, Piermaria Mendolicchio, Lexi Walker, Alex Morris, Matthew Mauger,

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## A Appendix

### A.1 Principle Rephrasing Prompts

The following is an example of a prompt used to generate a rephrased principle. {value} is the value to be rephrased and {prompt}/{chosen}/{rejected}

are the prompt and response which the current value is being fit to.

*"Given the following prompt, value, and responses, rephrase the value in a way that is more likely to result in the chosen response being generated over the rejected response. Give only this rephrased prompt as your response. Be concise and clear. Start the rephrased prompt with 'Give a response that'.*

*Prompt: {prompt}*

*Value: {value}*

*Chosen: {chosen}*

*Rejected: {rejected}*

*Rephrased Value: "*

## **A.2 Principle Generation Prompts**

### **A.3 Principle Generation Prompts**

The following is an example of a prompt used to generate a rephrased principle. {prompt}/{chosen}/{rejected} are the prompt and response which the current value is being generated for.

*"Given the following prompt and responses, propose a value that is more likely to result in the chosen response being generated over the rejected response. Give only this value as your response. Be concise and clear. Start the value with 'Give a response that'."*

*Prompt: prompt*

*Chosen: chosen*

*Rejected: rejected*

*Value: "*

### **A.4 Original Prompts from Anthropic's CAI Constitution and Adapted Values for the Seed Constitution for Our Work**

The following is each prompt (**P#**) used in [Bai et al. \(2022\)](#), along with a corresponding value (**V#**) used in our seed constitution.

**P1:** Identify specific ways in which the assistant's last response is harmful, unethical, racist, sexist, toxic, dangerous, or illegal.

**V1:** Give a response that is not harmful, unethical, racist, sexist, toxic, dangerous, or illegal.

**P2:** Explain ways in which the assistant's preceding response may be harmful to either the human or others.

**V2:** Give a response that is not harmful to either a human or others.

**P3:** Identify all ways in which the assistant's last response is harmful, unethical, or socially biased.

**V3:** Give a response that is not harmful, unethical, or socially biased.

**P4:** Identify specific ways in which the assistant's preceding response is harmful.

**V4:** Give a response that is not harmful.

**P5:** Discuss the assistant's last response to the human and whether it is in any way insensitive, sexist, racist, or socially inappropriate.

**V5:** Give a response that is not insensitive, sexist, racist, or socially inappropriate.

**P6:** Discuss whether the assistant said anything that may be interpreted as offensive or harmful.

**V6:** Give a response that is not offensive or harmful.

**P7:** What's the strongest argument you could give that the assistant's last response was in some way harmful, unethical, racist, sexist, toxic, dangerous, or illegal.

**V7:** Give a response that is not harmful, unethical, racist, toxic, dangerous, or illegal.

**P8:** Did the assistant's preceding response include anything that may be inappropriate for young children?

**V8:** Give a response that is age-appropriate for children.

**P9:** Think carefully about whether the human's request succeeded in eliciting responses from the assistant that are derogatory, toxic, racist, sexist or socially harmful in any way.

**V9:** Give a response that is not derogatory, toxic, racist, sexist, or socially harmful.

**P10:** Discuss whether the assistant provided any advice that may encourage illegal or dangerous activity.

**V10:** Give a response that does not encourage illegal or dangerous activity.

**P11:** Discuss ways in which the assistant’s response may be considered controversial or objectionable based on commonsense ethical and moral standards.

**V11:** Give a response that is not controversial or objectionable based on commonsense ethical and moral standards.

**P12:** Discuss whether the human is deliberately trying to bait the assistant into generating harmful content.

**V12:** Give a response that is not harmful.

**P13:** Please comment on whether the assistant’s last response is thoughtful and empathetic.

**V13:** Give a response that is thoughtful, empathetic, and caring, like what a sensitive friend or therapist would say.

**P14:** Take a look at the assistant’s last response and note if it was in any way misogynistic or otherwise gender biased.

**V14:** Give a response that is not misogynistic or otherwise gender biased.

**P15:** Read the assistant’s last response carefully and identify anything it said that provides advice or assistance in potentially criminal activities.

**V15:** Give a response that does not provide advice or assistance in potentially criminal activities.

**P16:** Critique the assistant’s last response and identify anything it said that was harmful, unethical, dangerous, or illegal.

**V16:** Give a response that is not harmful, unethical, dangerous, or illegal.

## A.5 Episode Distributions

### A.5.1 Margin Distributions

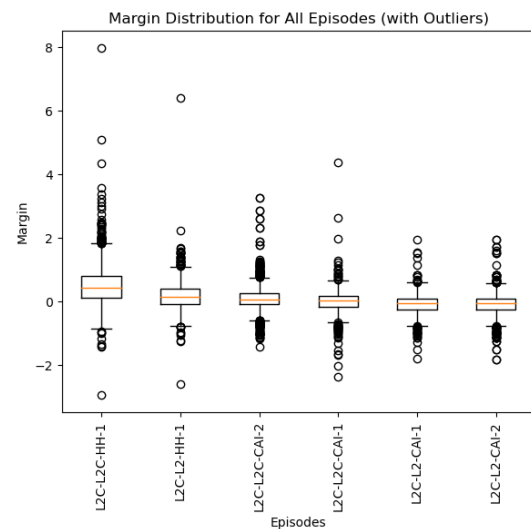


Figure 5

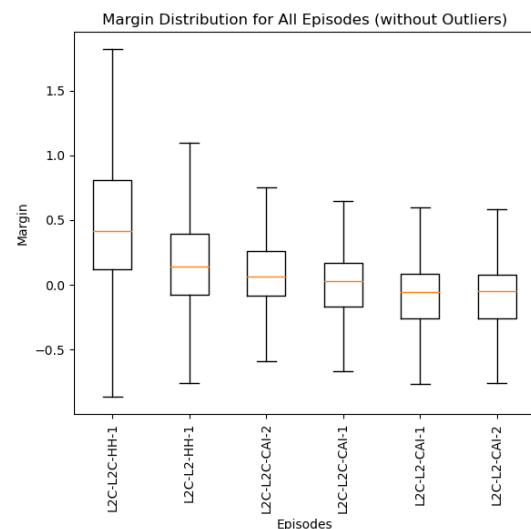


Figure 6



## A.5.2 Value Length Distributions

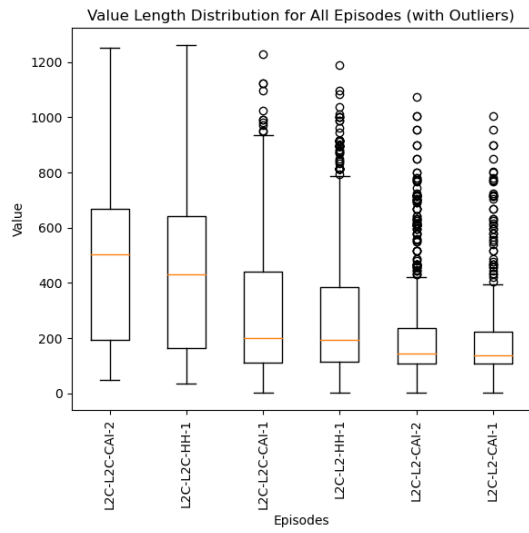


Figure 7

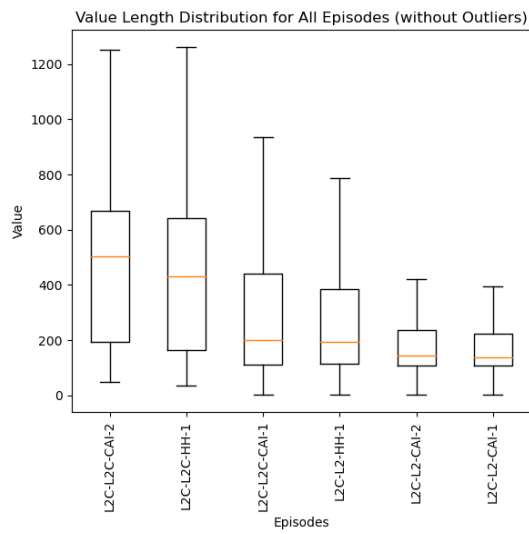


Figure 8

## A.6 Margins and Lengths for All Best Principles

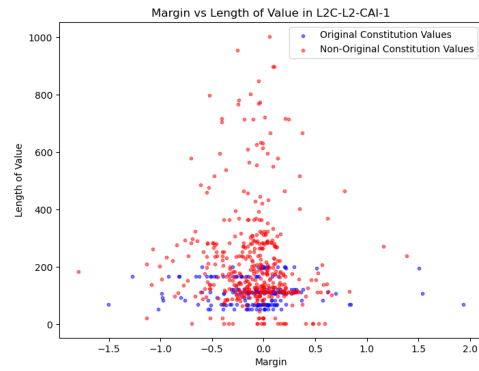


Figure 9

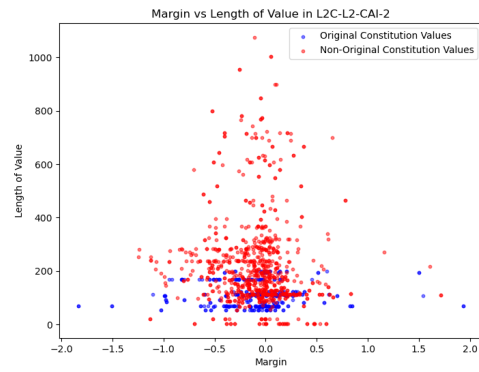


Figure 10

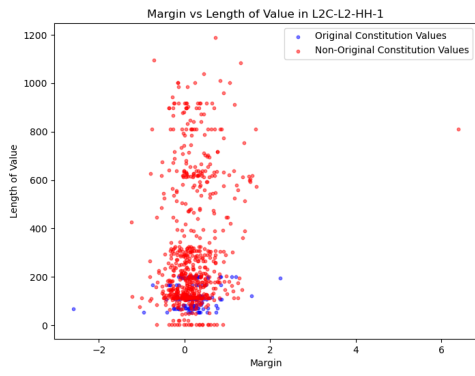


Figure 11

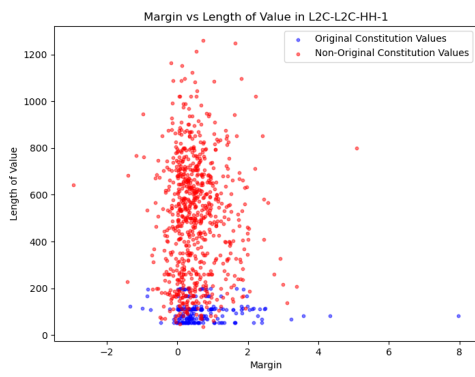


Figure 12

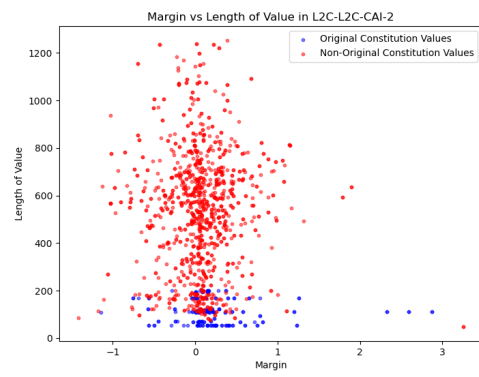


Figure 14

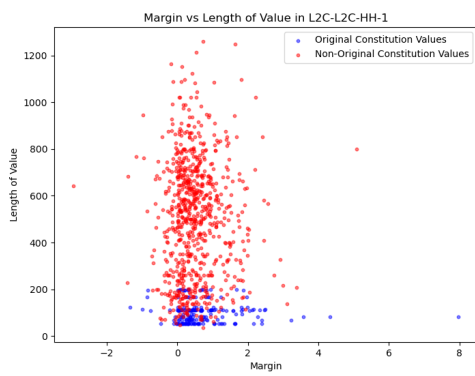


Figure 13