
Weak-to-strong Generalization via Formative Learning from Student Demonstrations & Teacher Evaluation

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Abstract

As Large Language Models (LLMs) exceed human capabilities, providing reliable human feedback for evaluating and aligning them, via standard frameworks such as Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback, becomes challenging. This raises a fundamental question: *how can we leverage weaker (teacher) supervision to elicit the full capabilities of a stronger (student) model?* This emerging paradigm, known as Weak-to-Strong (W2S) generalization, however, also introduces a key challenge as the strong student may “overfit” to the weak teacher’s mistakes, resulting in a notable performance degradation compared to learning with ground-truth data. We show that this overfitting problem occurs because learning with weak supervision implicitly regularizes the strong student’s policy toward the weak reference policy. Building on this insight, we propose a novel learning approach, called Weak Teacher Evaluation of Strong Student Demonstrations or EVE, to instead regularize the strong student toward its reference policy. EVE’s regularization intuitively elicits the strong student’s knowledge through its own task demonstrations while relying on the weaker teacher to evaluate these demonstrations – an instance of formative learning. Extensive empirical evaluations demonstrate that EVE significantly outperforms existing W2S learning approaches and exhibits significantly better robustness under unreliable feedback compared to contrastive learning methods such as Direct Preference Optimization.

1 Introduction

Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) [23, 5] has been a canonical framework for steering language models (LMs) to align with human values based on human demonstrations. This framework has demonstrated impressive performance across a wide range of tasks, from conversation to coding, where humans “can” provide reliable supervision. In the future, as these AI models reach or exceed human capabilities, they will be capable of solving complex tasks that are difficult for humans to supervise. For example, when these AI models acquire the ability to generate a code project with millions of lines of code or summarize an entire book with thousands of pages, humans are unlikely to provide reliable feedback to align these superhuman AI models effectively.

How can we align these superhuman AI models given the likely unreliable human supervision? Burns et al. [4] study this question by using a smaller LLM to represent unreliable human supervision on binary classification tasks. Effectively, this “weaker” teacher is prone to make mistakes when supervising a “stronger” student model. They observed a phenomenon called *weak-to-strong (W2S) generalization* – a stronger model finetuned with labels generated by a weaker model could outperform this weaker teacher without even seeing the ground truth labels. Despite the promising results, a key challenge in learning from weak supervision is the risk of overfitting [4], where the strong student inevitably learns to imitate the errors of the weak teacher. Burns et al. [4] study early-stopping as an

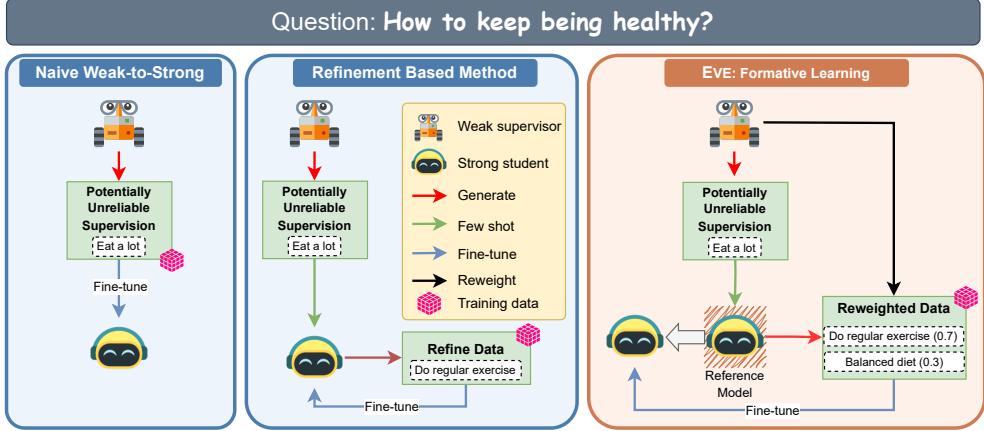


Figure 1: **EVE and existing W2S generalization methods.** Naive learning overfits the weak reference model, potentially imitating its mistakes (e.g., “*Eat a lot*”). Refinement learning “refines” the weak supervision (i.e., “*Do regular exercise*”). In contrast, EVE leverages the weak teacher as a reward function while eliciting the student’s reference model salient knowledge

37 implicit regularization to prevent overfitting, but notes that early-stopping does not constitute a valid
 38 method as it unrealistically requires ground-truth labels.

39 This paper first provides a crucial theoretical insight into the overfitting problem in W2S generalization.
 40 Specifically, by representing the weak teacher as an Energy-Based Model (EBM), we reveal that
 41 learning from weak supervision involves maximizing the reward while simultaneously regularizing
 42 the strong student’s policy toward the weak reference model. This process leads to a drawback: the
 43 strong student not only inherits the informative supervision but also amplifies the errors of the weak
 44 teacher, ultimately degrading the student’s overall performance on the desired tasks [14].

45 Building upon this insight, we propose a novel learning method, called Weak Teacher Evaluation of
 46 Strong Student Demonstrations (EVE), to enable the strong student to elicit its own (prior) knowledge
 47 of the task while relying on the weak teacher to evaluate, or score, such demonstrations – an instance
 48 of formative learning, effectively utilizing both the knowledge of the weak teacher and the student’s
 49 reference model. As depicted in Fig. 1, EVE utilizes the weak teacher’s demonstrations to prompt the
 50 strong student, allowing it to generate its own training data reflecting its understanding of the tasks.
 51 The generated samples are then adjusted by the logarithmic ratio of the weak teacher’s policy pre-
 52 and post-alignment, which serves as a reward signal to guide the strong student’s learning.

53 In summary, (1) we provide a theoretical characterization of overfitting in W2S learning; then (2)
 54 we introduce EVE, an approach that enables learning from strong student demonstrations, where
 55 the weak teacher acts as a reward function to evaluate the strong student’s outputs; finally, (3) we
 56 show that EVE significantly outperforms naive W2S learning by overcoming the overfitting issue,
 57 demonstrating the effectiveness of utilizing the strong student’s critical thinking ability under the
 58 weak teacher’s reward evaluation; surprisingly, when learning from a weak and unreliable reward
 59 signal, EVE – an off-policy method – achieves significantly better performance and robustness to
 60 contrastive learning methods such as DPO [30].

61 2 Related Work

62 2.1 Weak-to-strong Generalization

63 Burns et al. [4] introduce a synthetic setup to study whether a stronger model can generalize well
 64 with weaker supervision, compared to training with high-quality or ground-truth data. Prior efforts
 65 investigate W2S phenomena only in binary classification setups, leaving other practical alignment-
 66 relevant tasks (e.g., open-ended text generation whose output has no fixed length and requires sharing
 67 vocabulary size between the strong student and weak teacher) largely under-explored [43, 6, 1].
 68 Another line of work [34, 44, 45] leverages the pre-trained knowledge of the strong student to refine

69 labels curated from the weak teacher, thereby improving the supervision quality. Ye et al. [44] study
70 W2S generalization on text-generation tasks, where they simulate *unreliable demonstrations* and
71 *unreliable comparison feedback* during the alignment phase.

72 Different from the prior work, this paper extends W2S generalization beyond classification. We elicit
73 the latent knowledge of the strong student about the intended tasks, which is then evaluated by the
74 weak teacher’s reward model. Additionally, by interpreting learning from weak supervision as reward
75 maximization, our approach generalizes refinement-based methods [44, 41].

76 ‘

77 2.2 Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback

78 RLHF aims to align LMs with human preferences and values [5, 3], and has demonstrated impressive
79 performance on established benchmarks [22, 15, 39, 40, 38]. However, the RLHF pipeline incurs
80 significant computational costs and requires a large amount of high-quality human preference labels.

81 Recent advancements, such as Direct Alignment Algorithms (DAAs) [30, 37], bypass the need for
82 an explicit reward model and directly train the LMs on the human preference data. Reinforcement
83 Learning with AI Feedback [25] uses a well-trained language model (e.g., GPT-4 or Claude-3.5
84 Sonnet) to provide preference feedback as a substitute for human supervision. More recently, Ye et al.
85 [44] study whether standard RLHF remains effective under unreliable feedback.

86 We demonstrate that **contrastive-learning** approaches [31, 2] heavily suffer from the reward over-
87 optimization issue [31, 10]. In contrast, EVE – also an offline supervised approach – is significantly
88 more robust to unreliable feedback and achieves a better reward-KL tradeoff than DAAs. This finding
89 is significant as it contradicts observations in prior work [36], which shows that DAAs with negative
90 gradient perform significantly better than offline supervised methods in conventional alignment
91 scenarios with human feedback.

92 2.3 Reward Maximization with KL Regularization as Distributional Matching

93 Prior works show that reward maximization with KL regularization in standard RLHF can be viewed
94 as minimizing the reverse KL between the LM policy π_θ and the target distribution that represents
95 the aligned language model [17, 16, 12]. Other studies also explored the use of forward KL, which
96 corresponds to setting the reward maximization as supervised learning [21, 28]. Similarly, our paper
97 shows that imitating a weak teacher can be viewed as reward maximization, where the reward is
98 defined as the log probability of the weak teacher, with a KL regularization toward the weak reference
99 model, causing the over-optimization problem.

100 3 Preliminaries

101 3.1 LLM Alignment with Human Preferences

102 LLM alignment can be viewed as reward-maximization with KL-constrained:

$$\max_{\pi_\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, y \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot|x)} [r(x, y)] - \beta \text{KL}(\pi_\theta || \pi_{\text{ref}}) \quad (1)$$

103 where y is a sampled response from π_θ , β controls the trade-off between maximizing the reward and
104 deviation from the reference model π_{ref} , and r is the reward function that captures human preferences.

105 3.2 Offline Fine-Tuning Methods for Reward Maximization

106 Directly optimizing the objective in Eq. (1) requires repeated sampling, which is computationally
107 expensive. Alternatively, equivalent offline methods fall into 2 main categories:

108 **Contrastive Learning Methods.** Approaches, such as DPO [30] and IPO [2], directly update the
109 LM policy π_θ on human preference data. These methods represent the reward implicitly via the LM
110 π_θ and the reference model π_{ref} as:

$$r_\theta(x, y) = \beta \log \frac{\pi_\theta(y|x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x)} + \beta \log Z(x) \quad (2)$$

111 where $Z(x) = \sum_y \pi_{\text{ref}}(y|x) \exp\left(\frac{1}{\beta} r_\theta(x, y)\right)$ is the normalization factor. Using this representation,
 112 a general objective can be derived to train the policy on human preference data, as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(\pi_\theta, \pi_{\text{ref}}) = -\mathbb{E}_{(x, y_w, y_l) \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[f \left(\beta \log \frac{\pi_\theta(y_w|x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_w|x)} - \beta \log \frac{\pi_\theta(y_l|x)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_l|x)} \right) \right] \quad (3)$$

113 where f is a convex loss function. The gradient of contrastive learning approaches, therefore, consists
 114 of a **positive gradient** term that increases the likelihood of the preferred response y_w and a **negative**
 115 **gradient** term that pushes down the likelihood of the non-preferred response y_l .

116 **Offline Supervised Methods.** This alternative class of methods, including RAFT [8] and RWR
 117 [28], minimizes a weighted maximum likelihood objective. Formally, these methods first sample K
 118 completions per prompt x from the reference model π_{ref} , i.e., $y_1, \dots, K \sim \pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot|x^{(i)})$. These responses
 119 are then weighted by a non-negative weighting function $F(x, y_k|y_1, \dots, K)$ conditioned on the other
 120 sampled responses and maximize:

$$\max_{\pi_\theta} \mathbb{E}_{(x, y_1, \dots, K) \sim \mathcal{D}, \pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot|x)} \left[\sum_{k=1}^K \log \pi_\theta(y_k|x) \cdot F(x, y_k|y_1, \dots, K) \right]$$

121 Intuitively, since $F(x, y|y_1, \dots, K)$ is always non-negative, these methods always increase the likelihood
 122 of responses generated from π_{ref} . Responses that are more preferred will be assigned higher weights,
 123 there is no **negative gradient** effect to push down the likelihood of suboptimal responses.

124 3.3 Weak-to-Strong Evaluation Pipeline

125 We review the W2S evaluation pipeline in [4], which consists of three stages, as follows:

126 **(1) Weak Teacher Creation:** The weak teacher is created by fine-tuning a small pre-trained model
 127 to align with human preferences. We utilize SFT+DPO, a standard preference learning pipeline, to
 128 ensure the weak model acquires knowledge about alignment tasks. The resulting model is denoted as
 129 π^{weak} .

130 **(2) Strong Student Learning with Weak Supervision:** The weak model is then used to generate
 131 weak supervision data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{weak}} = \{x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}\}$ where $x^{(i)}$ and $y^{(i)}$ are the prompt and the generated
 132 response from π^{weak} , respectively. The strong model π_θ is then fine-tuned using the weak supervision
 133 data with the SFT objective.

134 **(3) Strong Student Learning with Ground-truth Supervision:** Another strong model π^{strong} is
 135 fine-tuned with the Ground-truth human labels to establish the upper-bound performance. To ensure
 136 that this aligned model fully acquires the target task’s capabilities, it goes through an additional,
 137 preference learning phase (e.g., DPO).

138 The W2S generalization performance of π_θ can be measured by Performance Gap Recovered (**PGR**):

$$\text{PGR} = \frac{\mathcal{P}_{\text{weak-to-strong}} - \mathcal{P}_{\text{weak}}}{\mathcal{P}_{\text{strong}} - \mathcal{P}_{\text{weak}}}$$

139 where $\mathcal{P}_{\text{weak-to-strong}}$, $\mathcal{P}_{\text{weak}}$, and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{strong}}$ are the task performance of π_θ , π^{weak} , and π^{strong} , respectively.

140 4 Formative Learning with EVE

141 4.1 Learning from Weak Supervision Implicitly Aligns with Weak Reference Model

142 This section connects W2S learning to reward maximization and builds the theory behind the model’s
 143 behavior, i.e., its generalization characteristics.

144 We begin by representing the weak teacher in the form of energy-based models [30, 18, 13]:

$$\pi^{\text{weak}}(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x) \exp(r^{\text{weak}}(x, y)/\beta)$$

145 where $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}$ is the SFT version of π^{weak} .

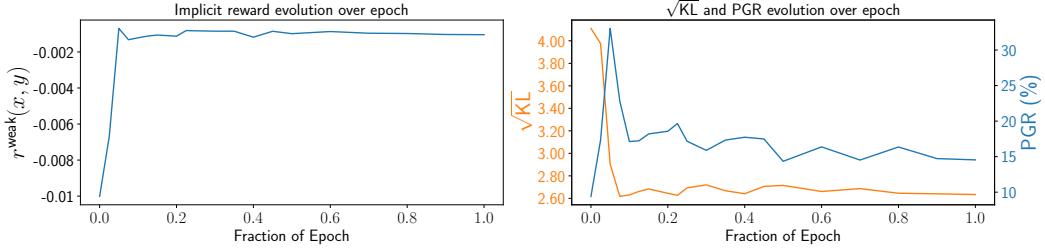


Figure 2: **Learning from weak supervision** as reward maximization. **Left:** the strong model π_θ learns to maximize the implicit reward $r^{\text{weak}}(x, y) = \beta \log \pi_{\text{align}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x) - \beta \log \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x)$. **Right:** the strong model also learns to imitate the weak reference model $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}$'s mistakes, leading to performance degradation (in PGR).

146 **Proposition 4.1.** W2s generalization with a weak teacher $\pi^{\text{weak}}(y|x)$ and a strong student π_θ (the
147 training model) can be cast as the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\pi_\theta} KL(\pi^{\text{weak}} || \pi_\theta) \\ & \text{s.t. } \pi^{\text{weak}} = \arg \min_{\pi} KL(\pi || \pi^{\text{EBM}}) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

148 where $\pi^{\text{EBM}}(y|x) \propto \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x) \exp(r(x, y)/\beta)$.

149 The proof is straightforward and deferred to the Appendix D.2. This shows that imitating the weak
150 teacher can be seen as finding an EBM policy π^{EBM} , which is the optimal solution in the lower-level
151 objective. This leads to the following theorem.

152 **Theorem 4.2.** The optimal solution to W2S generalization is equivalent to the optimal solution in the
153 following objective:

$$\max_{\pi_\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, y \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot|x)} [r^{\text{weak}}(x, y)] - \lambda KL(\pi_\theta || \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}) \quad (5)$$

154 **Proof Sketch.** Notice that the objective for training the strong student, and the reverse KL share
155 the same optimal solution π_θ . In addition, it can be shown that minimizing the reverse KL between
156 the strong student and the weak teacher,

$$\min_{\pi_\theta} KL(\pi_\theta || \pi^{\text{weak}}), \quad (6)$$

157 is equivalent to maximizing the KL-constrained reward objective in Eq. (5). \square

158 Theorem 4.2 provides a key insight: imitating the weak teacher maximize an implicit reward,
159 $r^{\text{weak}}(x, y) = \beta \log \pi^{\text{weak}}(y|x) - \beta \log \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x)$, while regularizing (with KL objective) the strong
160 student toward the weak reference model $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}$. Consequently, instead of aiming to elicit knowledge
161 of the strong student, existing W2S learning remains confined to the knowledge of the weak model,
162 which may adversely impact the strong student's performance.

163 4.2 Suboptimal Weak-to-Strong Generalization toward Weak Reference Model

164 We empirically confirm the theoretical insight in the previous section. Specifically, we analyze the
165 W2S training progression on $\mathcal{D}_{\text{weak}}$: at each checkpoint, we generate responses using the correspond-
166 ing intermediate model with the same set of prompts, from which we calculate the implicit reward
167 $r^{\text{weak}}(x, y) = \beta \log \pi^{\text{weak}}(y|x) - \beta \log \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x)$, the divergence $KL(\pi_\theta || \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}})$, and the PGR.

168 Fig. 2 shows that while the strong model learns to maximize the implicit reward (Left), the learned
169 policy is also regularized towards the weak reference model $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}$, indicated by the consistently
170 low KL divergence $KL(\pi_\theta || \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}})$ shortly after the training progresses (Right). Moreover, we also
171 observe that the PGR, as measured by the golden reward function, decreases significantly (Right).
172 This suggests that imitating the weak reference model $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}$ (and potentially inheriting its mistakes)
173 negatively impacts the performance of the strong student.

174 **4.3 EVE: Eliciting Strong Student Knowledge**

175 Motivated by the connection between imitating the weak teacher and reward maximization, we
 176 “generalize” the KL-constrained reward maximization learning of the strong student π :

$$\max_{\pi_\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, y \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot|x)} [r^{\text{weak}}(x, y)] - \lambda \text{KL}(\pi_\theta || \hat{\pi}) \quad (7)$$

177 where λ controls the trade-off between maximizing the reward and deviation from a regularization
 178 policy $\hat{\pi}(y|x)$. Next, we propose one specific choice of the regularization policy $\hat{\pi}$ that can facilitate
 179 the elicitation of the strong student’s knowledge, thereby enhancing W2S generalization.

180 **The choice of regularization policy $\hat{\pi}$.** Burns et al. [4] interpret W2S generalization in terms of
 181 saliency: some tasks are already salient to the strong student; in this view, the role of the weak
 182 teacher is to elicit the student’s latent knowledge rather than enforcing naive imitation of the weak
 183 teacher’s own demonstrations. Inspired by this interpretation, we propose to regularize the learning
 184 policy toward the strong student pre-trained model, i.e., $\hat{\pi}(y|x) = \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}(y|x)$. This design choice
 185 serves an important goal: to encourage the learned policy π_θ to remain close to the initial strong
 186 reference model $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}$, thereby facilitating the elicitation of the student’s prior knowledge while
 187 simultaneously incorporating assessment from the weak teacher. Similar to [4], to elicit the strong
 188 student’s knowledge of the task, we first create the weak teacher’s demonstrations, which are then
 189 used in few-shot prompting the strong reference model $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}$ to generate task-relevant outputs, as
 190 $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}$ is not trained to follow instructions. We provide detailed examples in Appendix B.6.

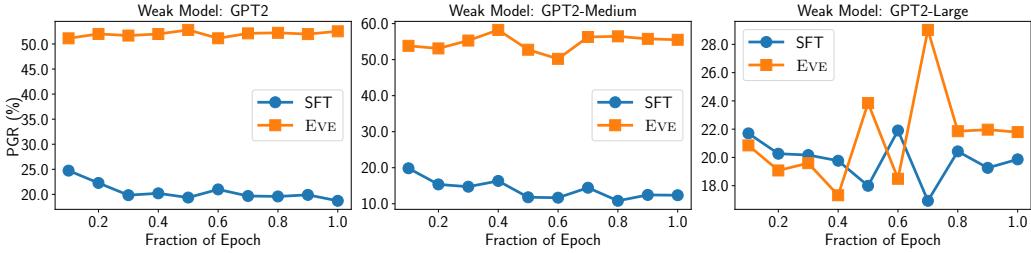


Figure 3: Evolution of PGR (%). We observe clear signs of overfitting to the weak teacher’s errors well before finishing a single epoch. Notably, when there is a large gap between the strong student and the weak teacher, the student reaches its best performance within the first 10% of the epoch. EVE has little to no PGR degradation and significantly outperforms naive W2S learning (SFT).

191 **Optimization.** Directly optimizing the objective in Eq. (7) can incur significant computational costs,
 192 as it requires repeated sampling from the strong student π_θ inside the training loop [30]. Following
 193 prior work [30, 28, 27], it is straightforward to show that the optimal policy to this KL-constrained
 194 objective takes the form:

$$\pi_r(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \exp(r(x, y)/\lambda) \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}(y|x)$$

195 where $Z(x) = \sum_y \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}(y|x) \exp(r(x, y)/\lambda)$ is the normalization constant. We can also leverage
 196 the duality between the reward function and the weak teacher π^{weak} [30]. Given the optimal policy
 197 π_r , we can then formulate a supervised learning objective for the parametrized strong student π_θ to
 198 match with this optimal policy, resulting in the following objective:

$$\max_{\pi_\theta} \mathcal{J}(\pi_\theta) = \max_{\pi_\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, y \sim \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}(\cdot|x)} \left[\frac{(\pi^{\text{weak}}(y|x)/\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x))^{\beta/\lambda}}{Z(x)} \cdot \log \pi_\theta(y|x) \right]$$

199 where the β/λ ratio controls the impact of the weak-supervision reward signal during the strong
 200 student’s updates. A high β/λ ratio leads to a more uniform update, where all samples are assigned
 201 similar weights; i.e., there will be no weak supervision in learning. Conversely, a low β/λ ratio
 202 results in a more focused policy update that prioritizes samples with high weak-supervision reward
 203 signals. This objective avoids sampling directly from π_θ on every update as π_θ changes during

204 training; instead, we can sample the responses from the fixed $\pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}$ once at the beginning of the
 205 optimization, which is significantly more efficient.

206 We also estimate the intractable normalization factor $Z(x)$ using *Self-Normalizing Importance*
 207 *Sampling* [24]. Formally, given $K > 1$ i.i.d. completions $y^1, \dots, y^K \sim \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}(\cdot|x)$ drawn from
 208 strong reference model, we can define an empirical distribution by normalizing the log-ratio $f(x, y) =$
 209 $\frac{\beta}{\lambda} (\log \pi^{\text{weak}}(y|x) - \log \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{weak}}(y|x))$ over K samples:

$$F(x, y^i | y^1, \dots, y^K) = \frac{K \cdot \exp(f(x, y^i))}{\sum_{k=1}^K \exp(f(x, y^k))} \quad (8)$$

210 where the normalization is estimated by $Z(x) \approx \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \exp(f(x, y^k))$. In summary, the final
 211 estimate is:

$$\mathcal{J}(\pi_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, y^1, \dots, y^K \sim \pi_{\text{ref}}^{\text{strong}}(\cdot|x)} [\log \pi_{\theta}(y^i|x) \cdot F(x, y^i | y^1, \dots, y^K)]$$

212 We refer to this W2S learning approach as EVE. EVE can be seen as an offline supervised method,
 213 where the weighting function is the exponential of the implicit reward defined in Eq. (2).

214 5 Experiments

215 In this section, we empirically evaluate EVE’s W2S generalization performance on two tasks:
 216 **controlled-summarization** and **instruction following**.

217 5.1 Controlled-Summarization

218 **Setup.** We choose the representative Reddit TL;DR summarization [35] dataset and follow the
 219 synthetic setup from [10, 47, 30], where we train a *golden* reward model $r_{\text{gold}}(x, y)$ to label synthetic
 220 preference data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{golden}}$ for fine-tune weak-aligned model and evaluation. We use GPT2-series [29]
 221 (GPT2-Base/Medium/Large) as weak teachers and a more advanced LLama-3.2-3B model [19, 20]
 222 as the strong student. The weak model π^{weak} is the aligned model with DPO [30] from $\mathcal{D}_{\text{golden}}$.

223 **Baselines.** In addition to EVE, we evaluate several existing W2S approaches, including **SFT** –
 224 which naively fine-tunes the strong student on weak supervision data $\mathcal{D}_{\text{weak}}$ – and (2) **Refinement**
 225 [34, 41] – which prompts the strong student to refine the responses generated by the weak teacher
 226 and fine-tunes the strong student with the refined responses.

227 **Results.** Fig. 4 shows the PGR results. EVE consistently outperforms the other
 228 baselines across all weak teachers. Notably, under the supervision of GPT-2 (the
 229 weakest model), EVE achieves a nearly 25% performance boost over SFT. Moreover,
 230 SFT achieves the peak performance early in training (around 10% of the epoch),
 231 but its performance steadily declines thereafter.

232 In contrast, **EVE demonstrates minimal to no**
 233 **degradation in PGR over the course of the**
 234 **training process.** As discussed in Section 4,
 235 this can be attributed to the ability of EVE to
 236 more effectively balance learning from the weak
 237 teacher and the salient knowledge of the strong
 238 reference model.

239 **Impact of β/λ ratio.** We investigate the impact
 240 of β/λ on W2S performance. Fig. 5 illustrates
 241 the impact of β/λ on PGR across different weak
 242 teachers. Setting β/λ around 1.0 achieves opti-
 243 mal or near-optimal performance. Consequently,
 244 we default $\beta/\lambda = 1.0$ in all experiments, **elim-**
 245 **inating the need for hyperparameter tuning**
 246 **that requires ground-truth labels.** Without the
 247 weak supervision (i.e., $\beta/\lambda = \infty$), the performance significantly decreases; this confirms the benefit
 248 of learning from the weak teacher’s reward signals. Conversely, setting β/λ to a very low value can

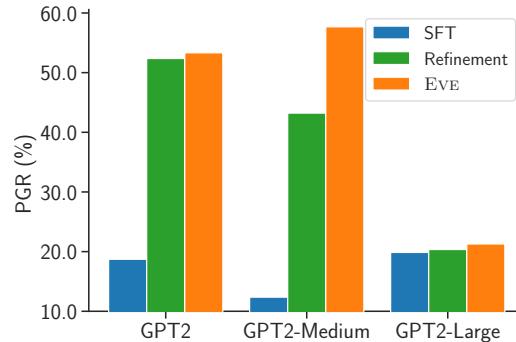


Figure 4: PGR (%) of SFT, Refinement and EVE.

249 also degrade the performance. One possible explanation is that, as $\beta/\lambda \rightarrow 0$, the weighting function
 250 $F(x, y^i | y^1, \dots, y^K)$ converges to a one-hot distribution, where the response with the highest reward is
 251 assigned a weight of 1 and the rest are ignored. This limits learning from a few samples, making it
 susceptible to simply memorizing the training data [26].

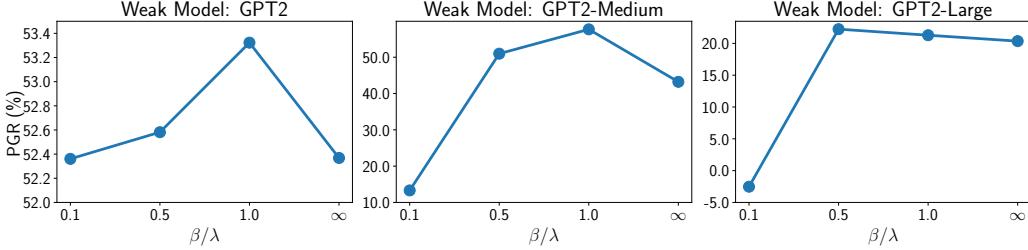


Figure 5: PGR (%) of various β/λ ratios in EVE’s objective.

252
 253 **Scaling dataset size.** We additionally study the impact of scaling the number of responses K per
 254 prompt. Fig. 6 shows the performance of EVE and SFT. EVE demonstrates improved performance as
 255 we increase the size of the training dataset (especially as the weak teacher is stronger), while SFT’s
 256 performance decreases. This can be explained by the fact that as the training data size increases, the
 257 strong student also becomes more susceptible to learning the weak teacher’s mistakes. In contrast,
 258 EVE is designed to avoid this overfitting problem, thus, it can leverage the increased supervision
 259 significantly better.

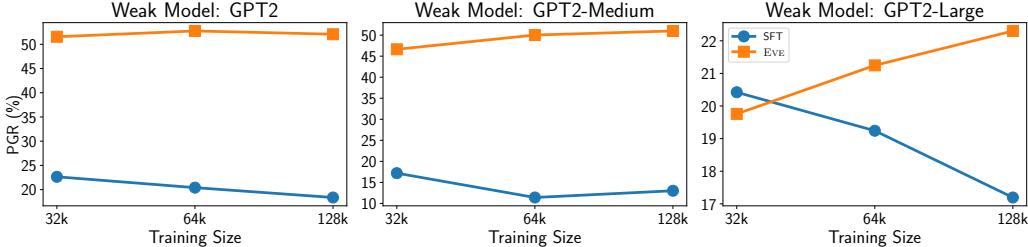


Figure 6: Scaling the training size (32k, 64k and 128k) in EVE and SFT (trained for one epoch). EVE shows notable improvement as the training size increases, while SFT suffers from overfitting.

260 5.2 Instruction Following

261 **Setup.** We use Qwen2.5-7B as the strong student and Llama-3.2-1B as the weak teacher. The strong
 262 reference model $\pi_{\text{base}}^{\text{strong}}$ is initialized from the pre-trained distribution, and the weak model π^{weak} is
 263 fine-tuned with DPO on the UltraFeedback dataset [7].

264 **Evaluation.** We evaluate EVE on two standard instruction-following benchmarks, AlpacaEval 2.0
 265 [9] and IFEval [46]. For AlpacaEval 2.0, we report length-controlled win-rates against gpt4-turbo,
 266 with gpt-4o-mini serving as the judge.

267 **Baselines.** We evaluate EVE against **SFT**, **Refinement** and **DPO** - which uses the weak teacher as
 268 reward signal to label preference data generated by the strong student. Following prior works [31][11],
 269 we train DPO for 1 epoch with $\beta = 0.05$ as default hyperparameters.

270 **Results.** We report the results in Fig. 7. EVE consistently outperforms the other W2S approaches
 271 across all benchmarks. Interestingly, we find that weak supervision can provide a reliable signal for
 272 guiding the strong student, not only in encouraging instruction-following behavior but also helping to
 273 filter out non-compliant responses.

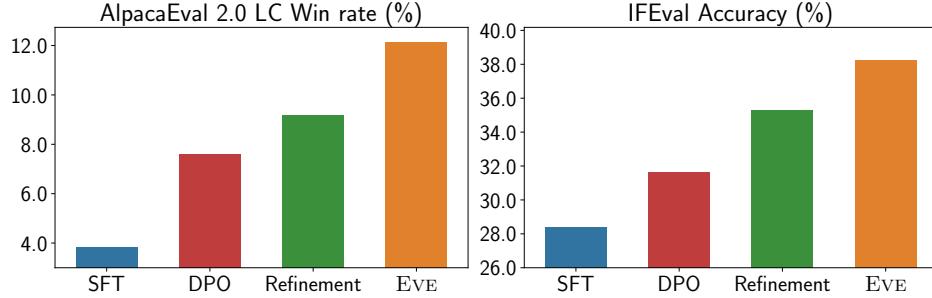


Figure 7: Results on various instruction following benchmarks for various methods.

274 5.3 MLE and Contrastive Learning in W2S Generalization

275 Fig. 7 also shows the advantages of EVE over contrastive learning approaches (e.g., DPO). Standard
 276 RLHF frameworks (e.g., PPO [33] and DPO [30]) can be seen as optimizing the reverse KL, while
 277 EVE optimizes the forward KL. As noted in [36], the reverse KL can modify the probability mass
 278 more aggressively than forward KL, resulting in a large deviation from π_{ref} to find the peak reward
 279 region. Conversely, the forward KL tends to deviate less from its initial distribution towards the peak
 280 reward. This might be beneficial in W2S learning due to the following reasons:

281 **(i) Unreliable learning signal.** Unlike standard RLHF, W2S’s feedback is highly unreliable. Finding
 282 the peak reward region with the reverse KL can result in performance degradation due to over-
 283 optimization as observed in [44] (and re-confirmed in Fig 9 in our Appendix). Importantly, over-
 284 optimization can be more severe in W2S generalization as even humans cannot provide a reliable
 285 signal to avoid these undesirable behaviors [4].

286 **(ii) Already capable strong student.** Similar to prior works [4, 44, 6], we assume that the strong
 287 student is already capable of solving the target tasks. Consequently, we hypothesize that the response
 288 region that achieved high rewards should be near the strong student. Therefore, the forward KL,
 289 inducing less deviation from the initial distribution, can be seen as an additional implicit regularization
 290 and performs better.

291 6 Limitations

292 We did not experiment with larger language models ($> 7B$) due to limited computational resources.
 293 Given the resource demands of generating data from the strong student, future work will focus on
 294 using the strong student for evaluation to eliminate the need for generating strong student data. For
 295 example, one direction is to explore extensions to our strategy proposed in Section D.1, which relies
 296 on the strong student only for reward evaluation. Tajwar et al. [36]. While our method does introduce
 297 additional memory overhead from teacher feedback calculations, this cost is relatively minimal
 298 compared to the overall training process of the strong student.

299 7 Conclusion and Discussion

300 This paper studies the W2S generalization and provides a new theoretical perspective on imitating
 301 the weak teacher. We show that imitating the weak teacher is equivalent to maximizing an implicit
 302 reward and regularizing the student towards the weak reference policy, which can amplify the bias or
 303 mistakes of this supervised fine-tuned weak teacher while not effectively eliciting knowledge from the
 304 strong student. Building upon this observation, we propose EVE, which directly optimizes the strong
 305 student using an RLHF objective with the “forward KL” regularization towards its latent knowledge
 306 of the given task. Extensive empirical results demonstrate that EVE achieves superior performance to
 307 existing W2S baselines and effectively mitigates the overfitting problem in W2S generalization.

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