

Are we making progress in machine unlearning?

Eleni Triantafillou
CoLLAs'24

Acknowledgements

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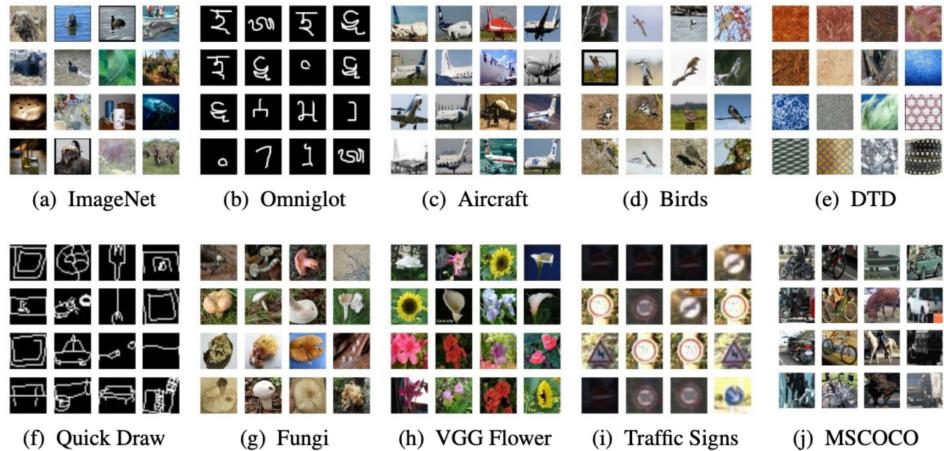
Peter Kairouz, Fabian Pedregosa, Jamie Hayes, Meghdad Kurmanji, Kairan Zhao, Vincent Dumoulin, Julio Jacques Junior, Ioannis Mitliagkas, Jun Wan, Lisheng Sun Hosoya, Sergio Escalera, Gintare Karolina Dziugaite, Peter Triantafillou, Isabelle Guyon, George-Octavian Barbulescu, Ilia Shumailov, Amr Khalifa and Nicolas Papernot.

The dream: build lifelong systems capable of increasingly rapid adaptation

- Rapidly acquire new knowledge, learn new tasks
- Become a better *learner* over time: learn new things increasingly quickly
- Avoid “catastrophic forgetting”? 😕

But sometimes forgetting is useful or necessary.

In this talk, we will discuss ***unlearning***:
forgetting that is **targeted** and **intentional**.



Meta-Dataset. Triantafillou et al. 2020.



time

NEVIS'22. Bornschein et al. 2023.

Why would forgetting be beneficial?

Forgetting is a process that induces plasticity and promotes adaptive behaviour.

(Wixted, 2004; Miller, 2021; Ryan and Frankland, 2022)

“It is the interaction between persistence and transience that allows for intelligent decision-making in dynamic, noisy environments”

– Richards and Frankland



Source: <https://iai.tv/articles/forgetting-is-more-important-than-remembering-auid-2154>

“From creativity to intelligence and empathy to courage, the art of forgetting may be more vital to the human condition than remembering”

- Small

The Persistence and Transience of Memory. Richards and Frankland. Neuron. 2017.
Forgetting is more important than remembering. IAI News. Small. 2022.
Failures of memory and the fate of forgotten memories. Miller. Neurobiology of Learning and Memory. 2021.
The psychology and neuroscience of forgetting. Wixted. Annu. Rev. Psychol. 2004.
Forgetting as a form of adaptive engram cell plasticity. Ryan and Frankland. Nature Reviews Neuroscience. 2022.

“Memorization” and “forgetting” in machine learning models

Feldman’s **label memorization** (Feldman, 2020):

Definition 4.1. For a dataset $S = (x_i, y_i)_{i \in [n]}$ and $i \in [n]$ define

$$\text{mem}(\mathcal{A}, S, i) := \Pr_{h \sim \mathcal{A}(S)}[h(x_i) = y_i] - \Pr_{h \sim \mathcal{A}(S \setminus i)}[h(x_i) = y_i],$$



Informally, a learning algorithm memorizes the label of an example i in a dataset if including that example in the training set is necessary for predicting its label correctly.

“Memorization” and “forgetting” in machine learning models

Verbatim memorization in LMs: generating text that exactly matches a substring from the training data

(Carlini et al, 2021) define:

Definition 1 (Model Knowledge Extraction) A string s is extractable from an LM f_θ if there exists a prefix c such that:

$$s \leftarrow \arg \max_{s': |s'|=N} f_\theta(s' | c) \longrightarrow \text{Likelihood of sequence } s'$$

and

Definition 2 (k -Eidetic Memorization) A string s is k -eidetic memorized (for $k \geq 1$) by an LM f_θ if s is extractable from f_θ and s appears in at most k examples in the training data X : $|\{x \in X : s \subseteq x\}| \leq k$.

Informally, “eidetic” or “photographic” memory is the ability to recall information after seeing it only once

“Memorization” and “forgetting” in machine learning models

Why do modern neural networks memorize?

Theory suggests ideal learners learn general patterns and avoid “overfitting” [1,2]

But overparameterized models achieve both high test accuracy *and* memorization [3]

“although training examples do not have noticeably lower losses than test examples on average, **certain worst-case training examples are indeed memorized**” - Carlini et al [7]

Recent work suggests that **memorization is sometimes even necessary for good generalization** [4, 5, 6]

But the plot thickens...

Despite networks memorizing, they also tend to... forget [9, 10]

Examples appearing early in training are forgotten by the end [9]; no traces of them are left in the model

Several “forgetting events” occur in training; certain examples are “forgotten” with higher frequency [10]

[1] Relating data compression and learnability. Littlestone and Warmuth. 1986.

[2] How much does your data exploration overfit? Controlling bias via information usage. IEEE Transactions on Information Theory. Russo and Zou. 2019.

[3] A Closer Look at Memorization in Deep Networks. Arpit et al. ICML 2017.

[4] Does Learning Require Memorization? A Short Tale about a Long Tail. Feldman. SIGACT 2020.

[5] Characterizing Structural Regularities of Labeled Data in Overparameterized Models. Jiang et al. ICML 2021.

[6] Information Complexity of Stochastic Convex Optimization: Applications to Generalization and Memorization. Attias et al. ICML 2024.

[7] Extracting Training Data from Large Language Models. Carlini et al. USENIX 2021.

[8] What Neural Networks Memorize and Why: Discovering the Long Tail via Influence Estimation. Feldman and Zhang. NeurIPS 2020.

[9] Measuring Forgetting of Memorized Training Examples. Jagielski et al. 2023.

[10] An Empirical Study of Example Forgetting During Deep Network Learning. Toneva et al. ICLR 2019.

Implications of memorization: privacy attacks

Membership Inference Attacks (MIAs) predict whether a particular example was used to train a given model (Shokri et al, 2017; Carlini et al, 2022; Ye et al, 2022)

Model inversion and data extraction attacks aim to recover information about training data from models (Nguyen et al, 2023; Carlini et al, 2021)

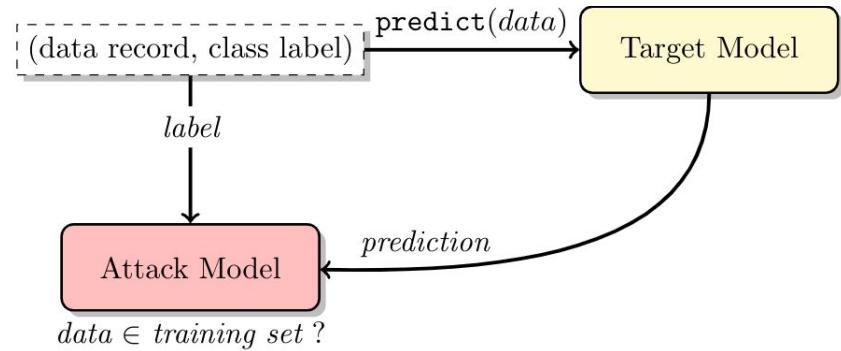


Figure from (Shokri et al, 2023)

Data extraction in large-scale models

(Carlini et al, 2021) demonstrate that **LLMs memorize and can be prompted to extract verbatim text sequences from the training data**

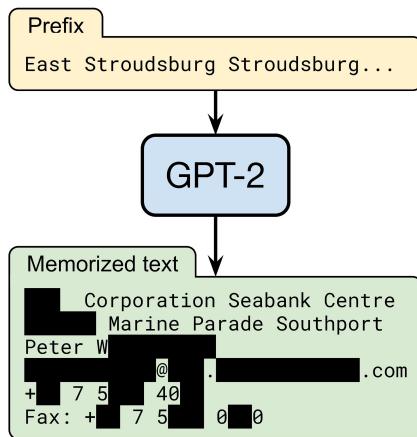


Figure from (Carlini et al, 2021)

(Carlini et al, 2023) demonstrate that diffusion models **memorize and regenerate individual training examples**



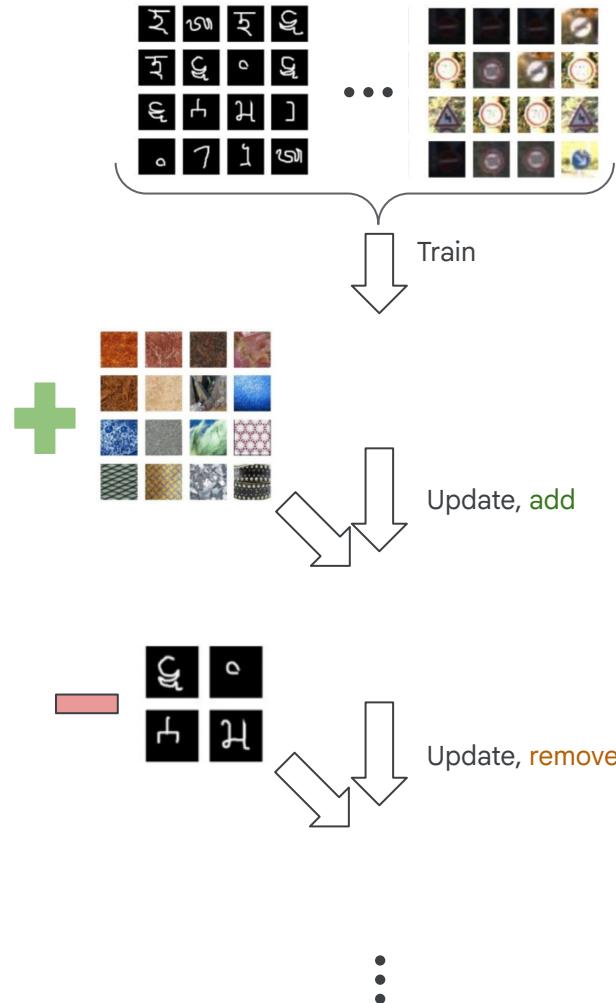
Figure from (Carlini et al, 2023)

Learning and unlearning at large

Recent models are **increasingly large** and **trained on more and more data**. This has two consequences:

1. It is increasingly computationally expensive to train
2. It is increasingly likely that the underlying training data changes
 - new data becomes available
 - newly identified tasks
 - protect privacy
 - facts about the world have changed
 - labelling bugs identified after the fact
 - poisoned data discovered
 - data licenses may expire

The dream (updated!): build lifelong systems capable of increasingly rapid adaptation for both **addition** and **removal** of “knowledge”, data points, or tasks



Unlearning is receiving an explosion of attention!

The unlearning competition at NeurIPS'23 received submissions from > 1K teams from around the world!

Participation

5,046 Entrants
1,336 Participants
1,188 Teams
1,921 Submissions



GOOGLE · RESEARCH CODE COMPETITION · 8 MONTHS AGO

NeurIPS 2023 - Machine Unlearning

Erase the influence of requested samples without hurting accuracy



<https://www.kaggle.com/competitions/neurips-2023-machine-unlearning/overview>

<https://unlearning-challenge.github.io/>

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The blog post that Fabian and I co-authored was **the third most read Google Research blog post of 2023!**

Google Research Who we are ▾ Research areas ▾ Our work ▾ Programs & events ▾ Careers Blog

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Announcing the first Machine Unlearning Challenge

June 29, 2023 - Posted by Fabian Pedregosa and Eleni Triantafillou, Research Scientists, Google

Unlearning: intentional and targeted forgetting



Image credits: Dall-E and topng.com

The unlearning literature identifies several motivating use-cases, including:

Increase privacy.

By removing data that poses privacy concerns that may be identified post training.

Improve accuracy or compliance.

By removing data that is

- Outdated (no longer accurate)
- Mislabelled or poisoned (and identified only post-training)
- No longer accessible (e.g. license expired)

Improve forward transfer.

By removing “knowledge” that causes interference with learning new tasks

Improve safety (?).

- Remove biases, reduce toxicity, prevent harmful outputs

But can all these problems really be solved with the same approaches, and can we measure success using the same metrics??

Machine unlearning. Bourtoule et al. SP 2021.

Towards Adversarial Evaluations for Inexact Machine Unlearning. Goel et al.

Corrective Machine Unlearning. Goel et al. 2024.

Model Sparsity Can Simplify Machine Unlearning. Jia et al. NeurIPS 2023.

Towards safer large language models through machine unlearning. Liu et al. 2024

In the remainder of this talk...

1

Formal definition of
machine unlearning and a
categorization of methods

2

The NeurIPS'23 unlearning
competition: evaluation
and findings

3

What makes unlearning hard
(and what to do about it)?

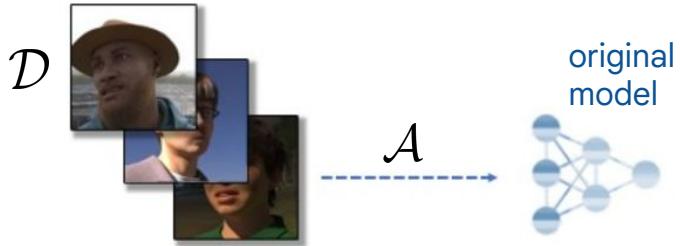
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Discussion,
limitations, open
questions

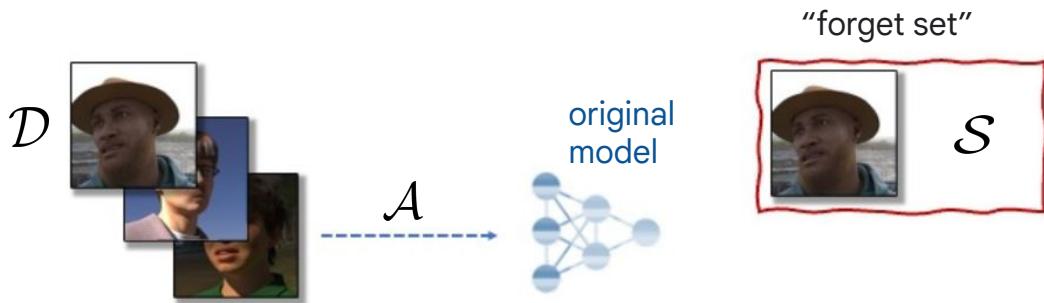
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Connections with
lifelong learning and
opportunities

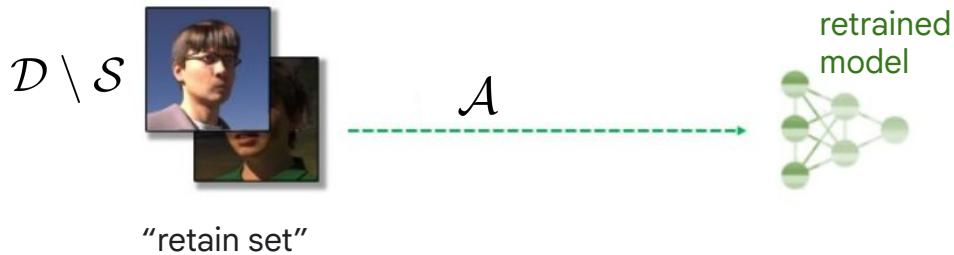
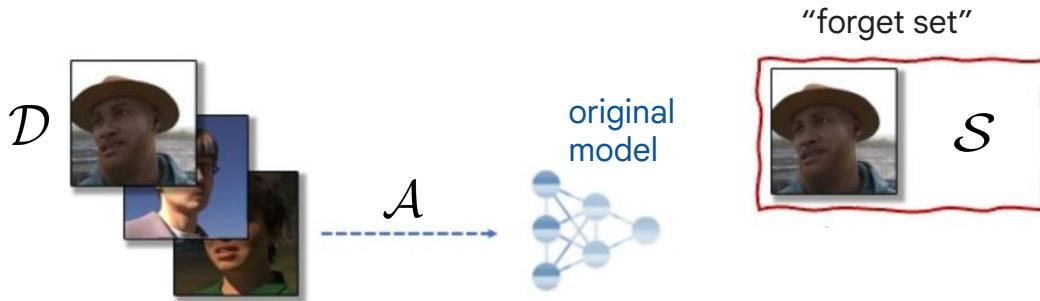
Defining machine unlearning



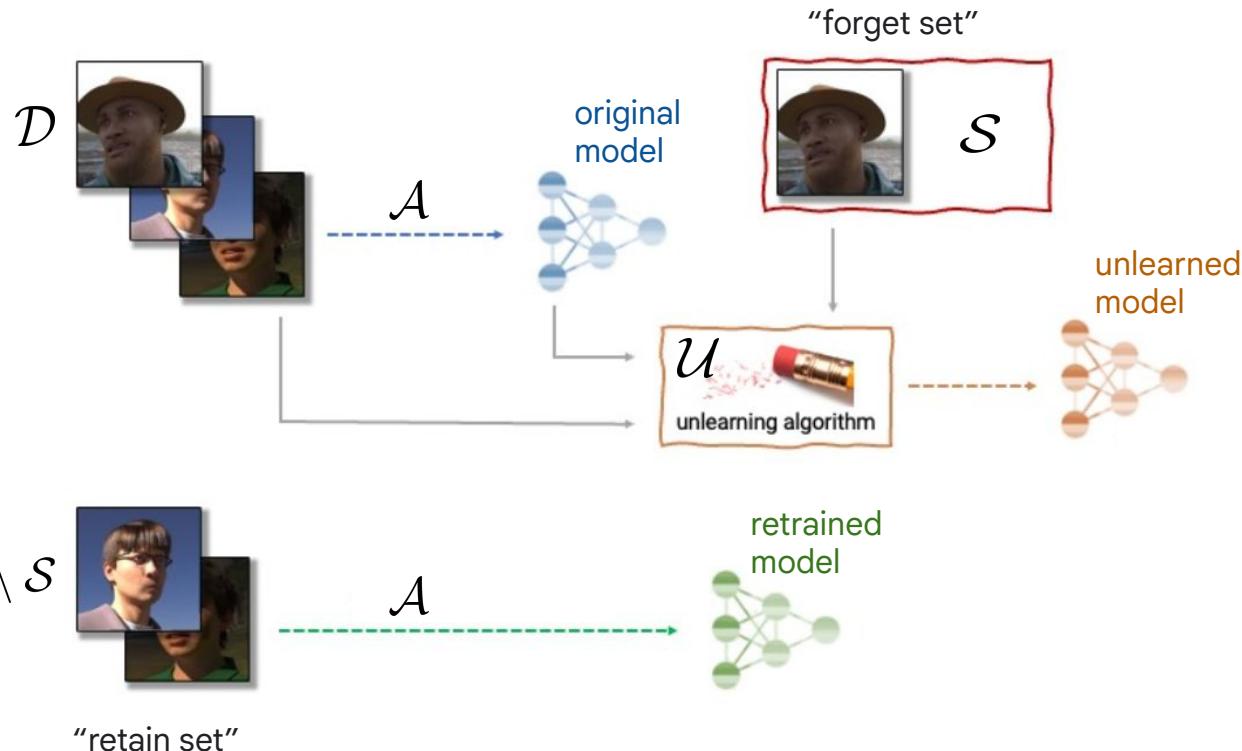
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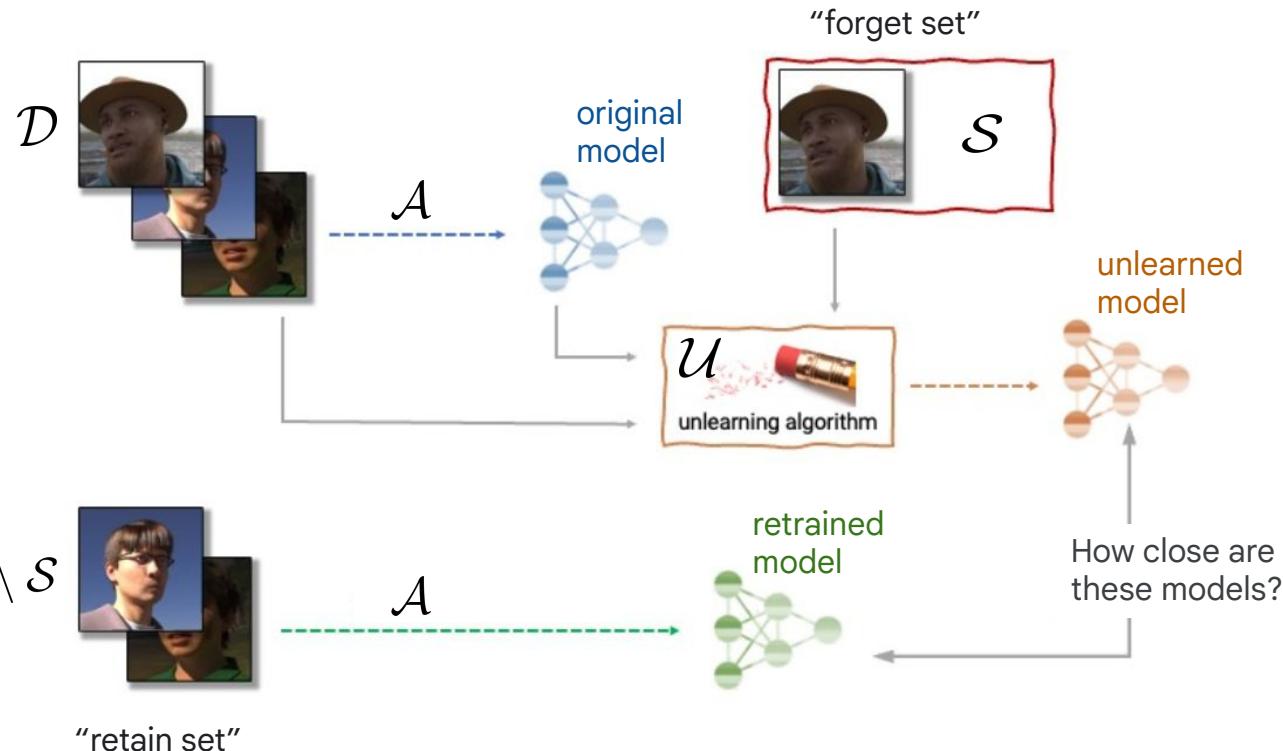
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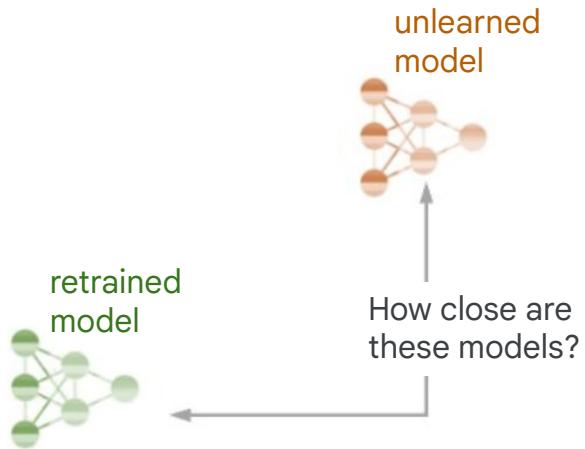


Defining machine unlearning



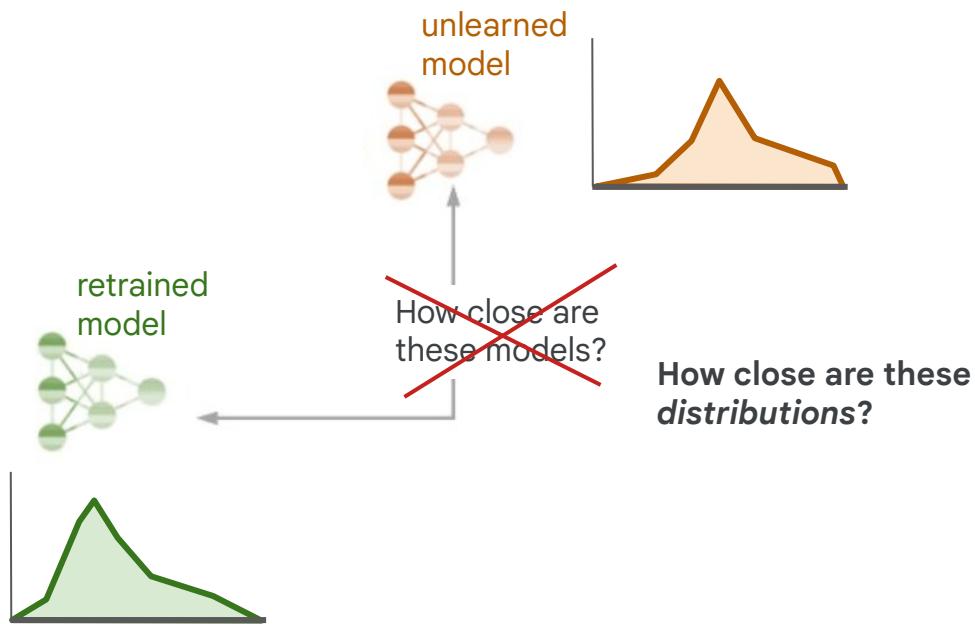
Defining machine unlearning

- According to this viewpoint, the closer the unlearned and retrained models are, the better
- But how do we measure closeness?



Defining machine unlearning

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- But how do we measure closeness?



Formal definition

Definition 1.1. (ε, δ) -unlearning. For a fixed dataset \mathcal{D} , forget set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$, and a randomized learning algorithm \mathcal{A} , an unlearning algorithm \mathcal{U} is (ε, δ) -unlearning with respect to $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A})$ if for all $R \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ where \mathcal{R} denotes the output space, in this case the space of model parameters θ , we have:

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}) \in R] \leq e^\varepsilon \Pr[\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}) \in R] + \delta, \quad \text{and}$$
$$\Pr[\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}) \in R] \leq e^\varepsilon \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}) \in R] + \delta.$$

When δ, ε are very small, the distributions of unlearning and retraining are very close (successful unlearning)

Categorization of unlearning methods

Exact unlearning: $\varepsilon = \delta = 0$

- Fully eliminate the influence of the forget set

Approximate unlearning: $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$

- Reduce the influence of the forget set

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}) \in R] \leq e^\varepsilon \Pr[\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}) \in R] + \delta, \quad \text{and}$$
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- For deep neural networks, this is based on *retraining from scratch* (parts of) the model

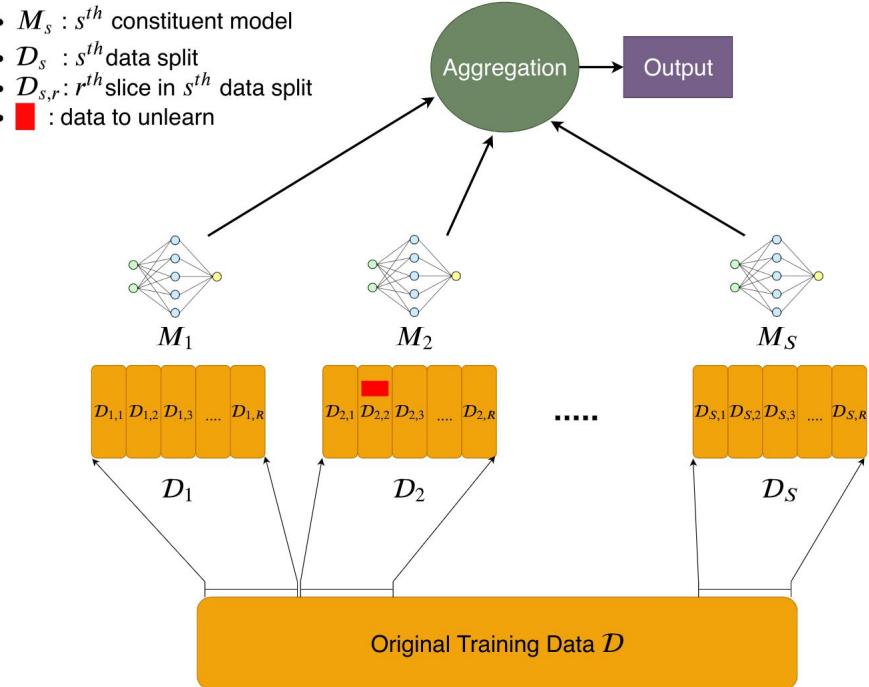


Figure from (Bourtoule et al, 2019)

Categorization of unlearning methods

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Approximate unlearning: $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$

- Reduce the influence of the forget set
- Guarantees for convex problems (Guo et al, 2019; Sekhari et al, 2021; Neel et al, 2021); and some for nonconvex, but under a constrained setup (Chien et al, 2024)
- ... and a plethora of creative methods with no guarantees but that “work well” in practice

Certified Data Removal from Machine Learning Models. Guo et al. 2019.

Remember What You Want to Forget: Algorithms for Machine Unlearning. Sekhari et al. NeurIPS 2021.

Descent-to-delete: Gradient-based methods for machine unlearning. Neel et al. 2021. PMLR 2021.

Langevin Unlearning: A New Perspective of Noisy Gradient Descent for Machine Unlearning. Chien et al. 2024.

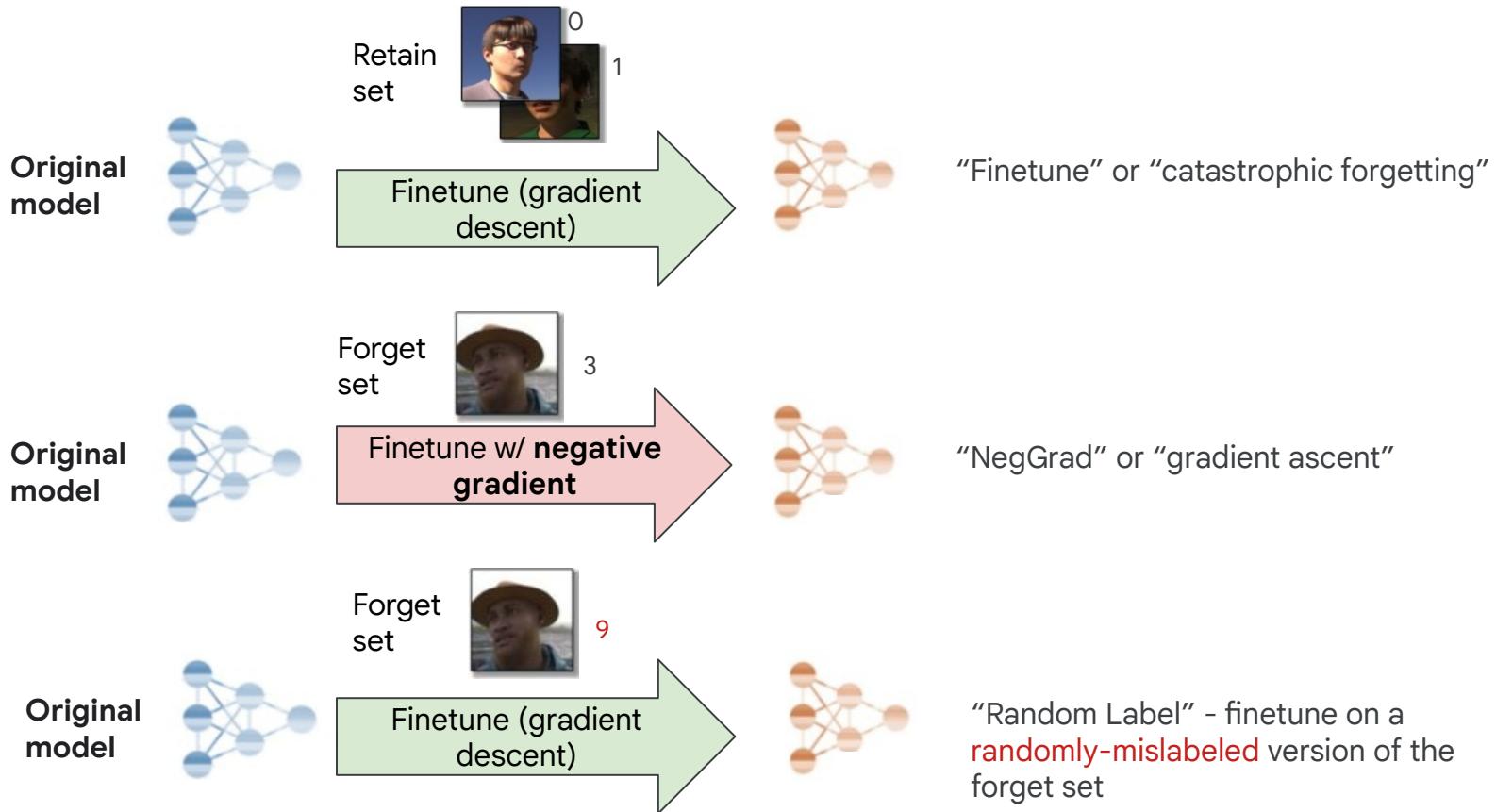
Model Sparsity Can Simplify Machine Unlearning. Jia et al. NeurIPS 2023.

SalUn : Empowering Machine Unlearning Via Gradient-Based Weight Saliency In Both Image Classification And Generation. Fan et al. ICLR 2024.

Approximate Data Deletion from Machine Learning Models. Izzo et al. AISTATS 2021.

Eternal Sunshine of the Spotless Net: Selective Forgetting in Deep Networks. Golatkar et al. CVPR 2020.

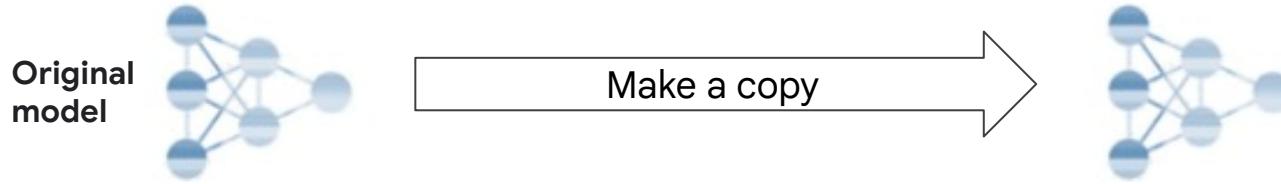
Approximate unlearning: some simple ideas





SCalable Remembering and Unlearning unBound (**SCRUB**)

- We cast the problem into a teacher-student formulation
- The student is initialized by the “all knowing” teacher and then (selectively) forgets





SCalable Remembering and Unlearning unBound (**SCRUB**)

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Teacher



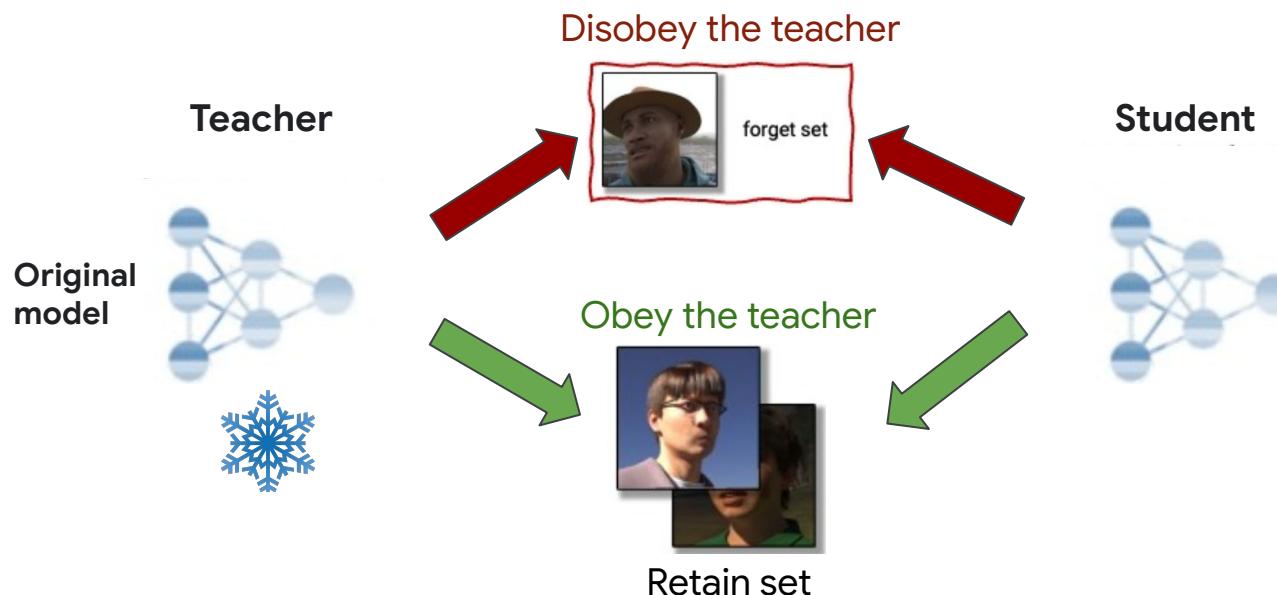
Student





SCalable Remembering and Unlearning unBound (SCRUB)

- We cast the problem into a teacher-student formulation
- The student is initialized by the “all knowing” teacher and then (selectively) forgets



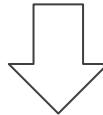
Trade-offs of unlearning methods

Exact unlearning: $\varepsilon = \delta = 0$

- Fully eliminate the influence of the forget set
- Computationally expensive
- May require architectures with poorer accuracy

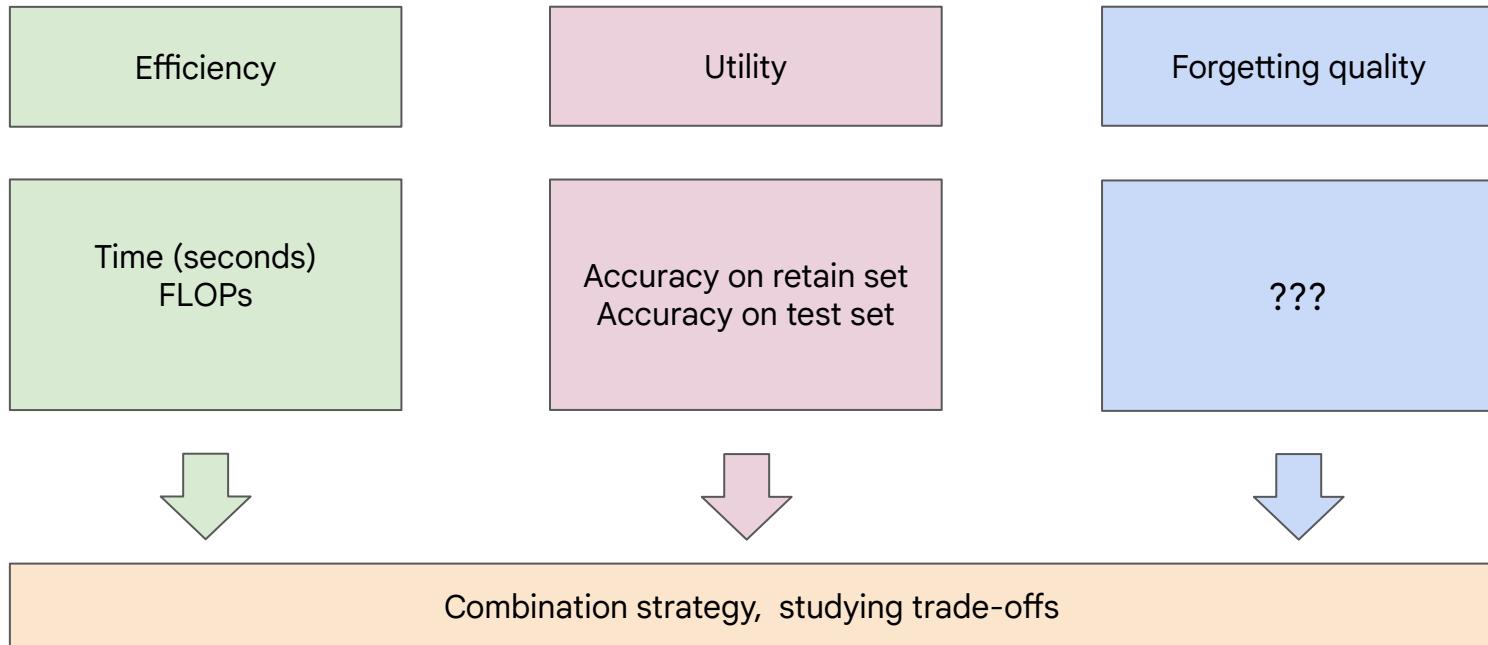
Approximate unlearning: $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$

- Can be faster
- Can have better accuracy
- Often no guarantees



So, how can we evaluate these methods?

Evaluation of unlearning methods



The first NeurIPS machine unlearning competition

Increase visibility.

We had > 1K teams from around the world participating.

Generate novel methods.

A plethora of creative solutions were developed, with different properties and trade-offs.

Standardize evaluation methods.

We developed a rigorous evaluation framework based on a formal definition of unlearning.

Setup.

- An age classifier (ResNet-18) was trained using natural images of people's faces (from the CASIA-SURF dataset)
- A subset of users request their data to be deleted
- Goal: *efficient* unlearning of that user data



Evaluation framework: overview

Efficiency.

We impose a hard threshold on runtime (approx. 20% of retraining)

Utility.

Accuracy on the retain and test sets

Forgetting quality / unlearning efficacy.

We developed a rigorous evaluation framework for estimating a forgetting score \mathcal{F} (higher is better)

Aggregation.

$$\text{Final score} = \mathcal{F} \times \frac{\text{Accuracy on retain set}}{\text{Accuracy on test set}} \times \frac{\text{Acc}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}))}{\text{Acc}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}))} \times \frac{\text{Acc}(\mathcal{D}_{test}, \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}))}{\text{Acc}(\mathcal{D}_{test}, \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}))}$$

This strategy penalizes unlearning if it yields poorer accuracy on retain or test compared to retraining-from-scratch

How should we measure forgetting quality?

Definition 1.1. (ε, δ) -unlearning. For a fixed dataset \mathcal{D} , forget set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$, and a randomized learning algorithm \mathcal{A} , an unlearning algorithm \mathcal{U} is (ε, δ) -unlearning with respect to $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A})$ if for all $R \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ where \mathcal{R} denotes the output space, in this case the space of model parameters θ , we have:

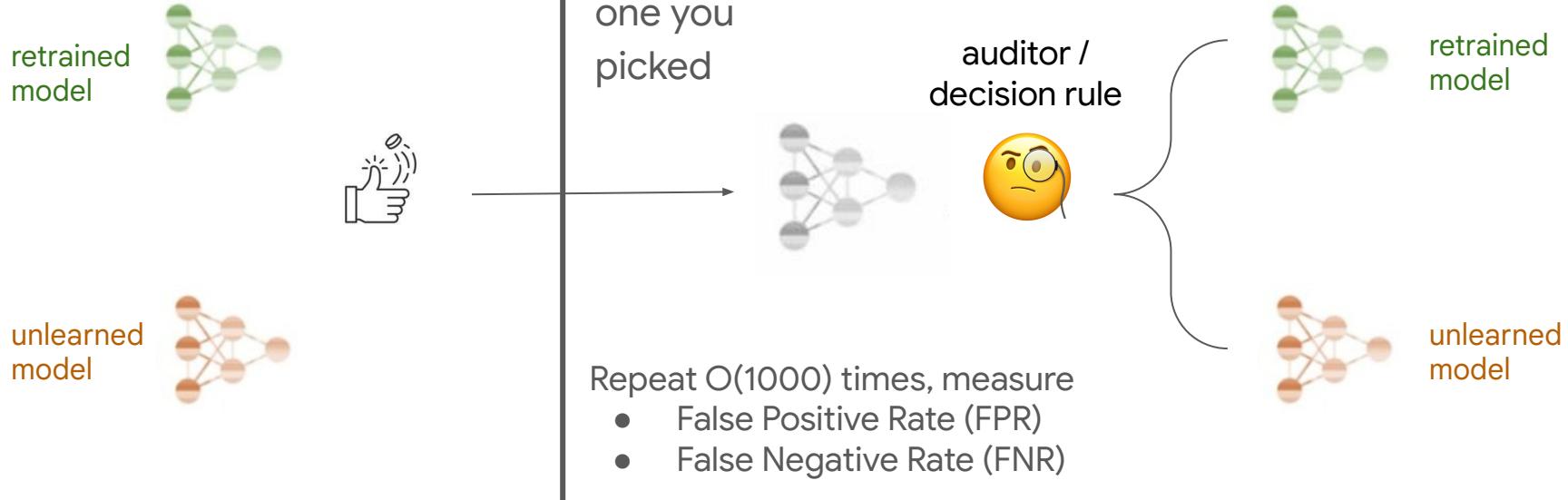
$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}) \in R] \leq e^\varepsilon \Pr[\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}) \in R] + \delta, \quad \text{and}$$
$$\Pr[\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}) \in R] \leq e^\varepsilon \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S}) \in R] + \delta.$$

For a fixed δ , we say that an algorithm \mathcal{U}_1 is better than \mathcal{U}_2 if it yields a smaller ε .

But how can we measure ε ?



Let's play a game!



What does the failure of the auditor (FPR, FNR) tell us about how close the **retrained** and **unlearned** distributions are?



Hypothesis-testing interpretation

Theorem 1.2. Let \mathcal{U} be an (ε, δ) -unlearning algorithm for $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A})$. Let X be sampled from either $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S})$ or $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D})$. Then the performance of any decision rule that tries to predict if X came from $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S})$ or $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D})$ is governed by

$$\begin{aligned} FPR + e^\varepsilon FNR &\geq 1 - \delta, \quad \text{and} \\ FNR + e^\varepsilon FPR &\geq 1 - \delta. \end{aligned}$$

When δ, ε are very small, no decision rule can separate the two distributions with FPR and FNR both small.

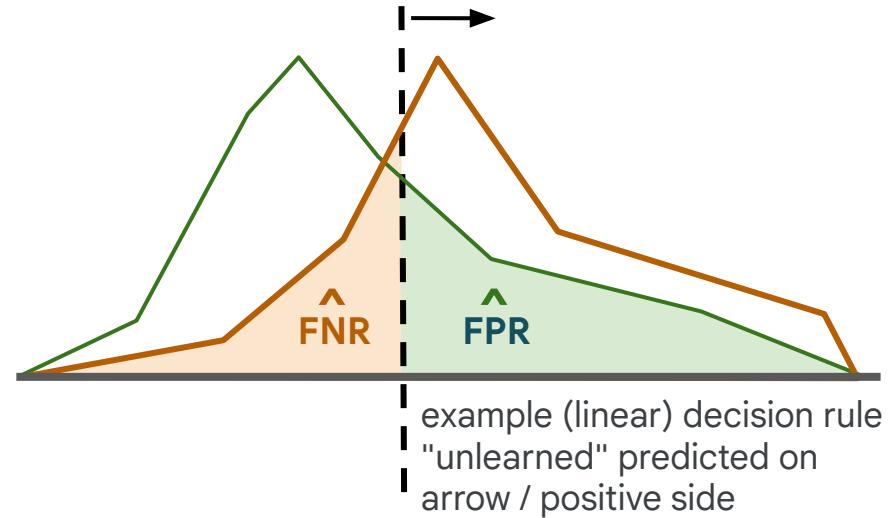
This allows to estimate ε via estimates of FPR, FNR obtained by instantiated “attacks”



Hypothesis-testing interpretation

For a particular decision rule, we can estimate $\hat{\varepsilon}$ from the estimated FPR and FNR:

$$\hat{\varepsilon} = \max \left\{ \log \frac{1 - \delta - \hat{FPR}}{\hat{FNR}}, \log \frac{1 - \delta - \hat{FNR}}{\hat{FPR}} \right\}$$



In practice, we care about the estimated $\hat{\varepsilon}$ under the *strongest possible* decision rule / "attack".

The prediction problem of separating "unlearned" from "retrained" is closely related to **Membership Inference Attacks (MIAs)** that predict whether an example was used during training.

Estimating forgetting quality \mathcal{F}

We would like to estimate $\hat{\varepsilon}$ via the FPR and FNR of “attacks” that try to separate the distributions.

$$\hat{\varepsilon} = \max \left\{ \log \frac{1 - \delta - \hat{\text{FPR}}}{\hat{\text{FNR}}}, \log \frac{1 - \delta - \hat{\text{FNR}}}{\hat{\text{FPR}}} \right\}$$

But there are two difficulties:

1. $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D})$ and $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S})$ are **high-dimensional** distributions (weight space)
2. Some examples are harder to unlearn than others; and we want to capture this **granularity**

We propose a two-step procedure:

1. **Compute per-example $\hat{\varepsilon}$**

Operate on (scalar) outputs of models coming from $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D})$ and $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S})$ when given as inputs examples from the forget set

2. **Aggregate across examples**

Generate an overall estimate of forgetting quality for all of \mathcal{S}

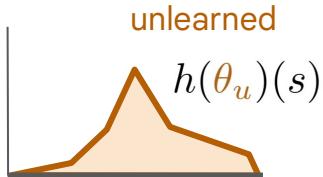
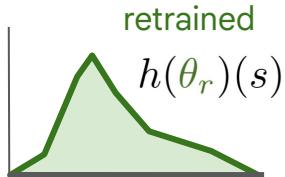
Estimating ε for a specific example s

1. Compute the retrained and unlearned distributions of (scalar) output for s

$h(\theta_r)(s)$, where $\theta_r = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{S})$

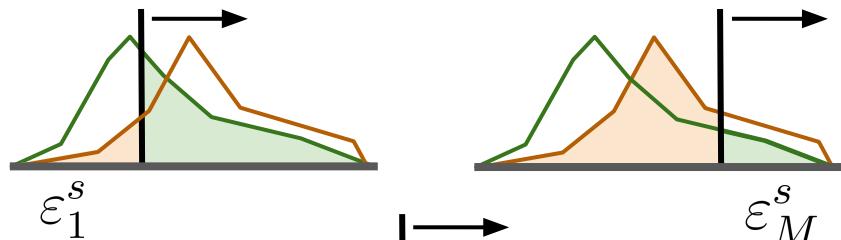
$h(\theta_u)(s)$, where $\theta_u = \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D})$

h : logit-scaling of the softmax probability of the correct class for example s



2. Run M “attacks”, estimate ε of each

Example: “single-threshold attacks”

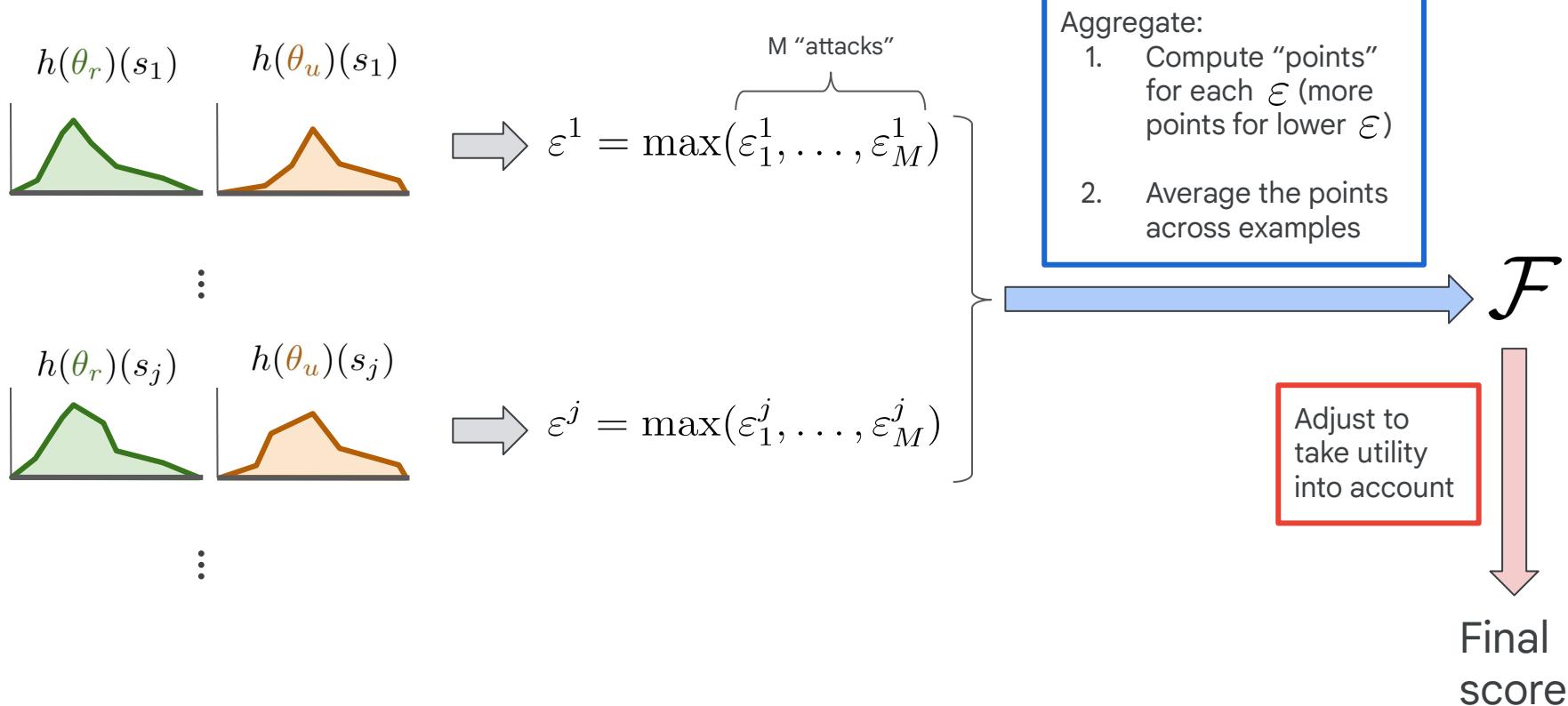


3. Keep the largest ε for example s

i.e. the ε of the strongest attack

$$\varepsilon^s = \max(\varepsilon^s_1, \dots, \varepsilon^s_M)$$

Putting it all together: computing the final score

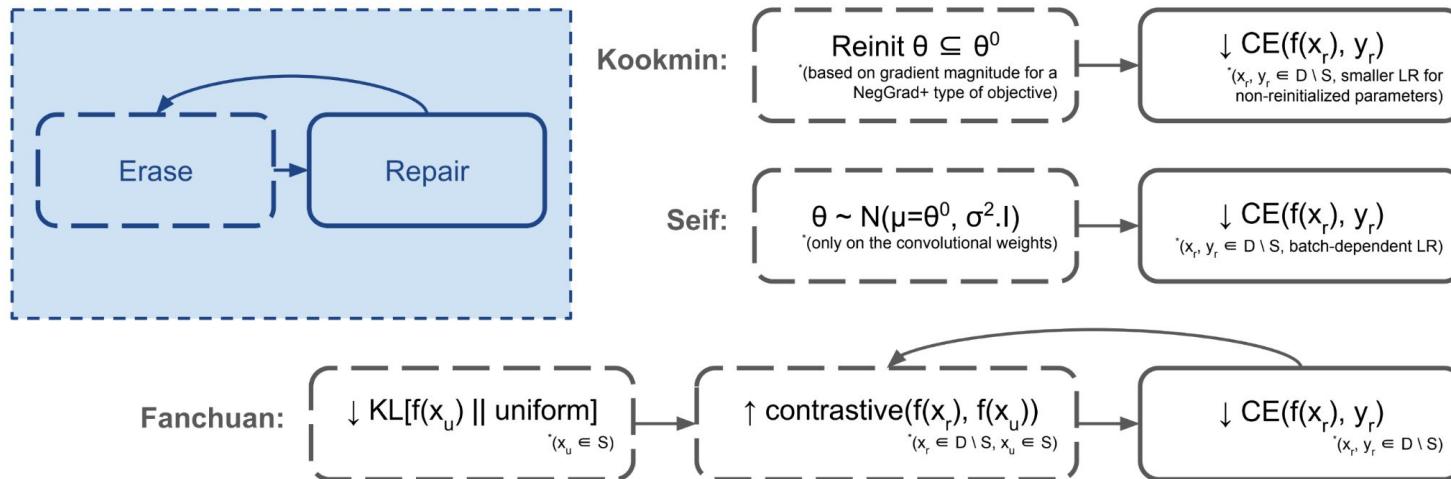




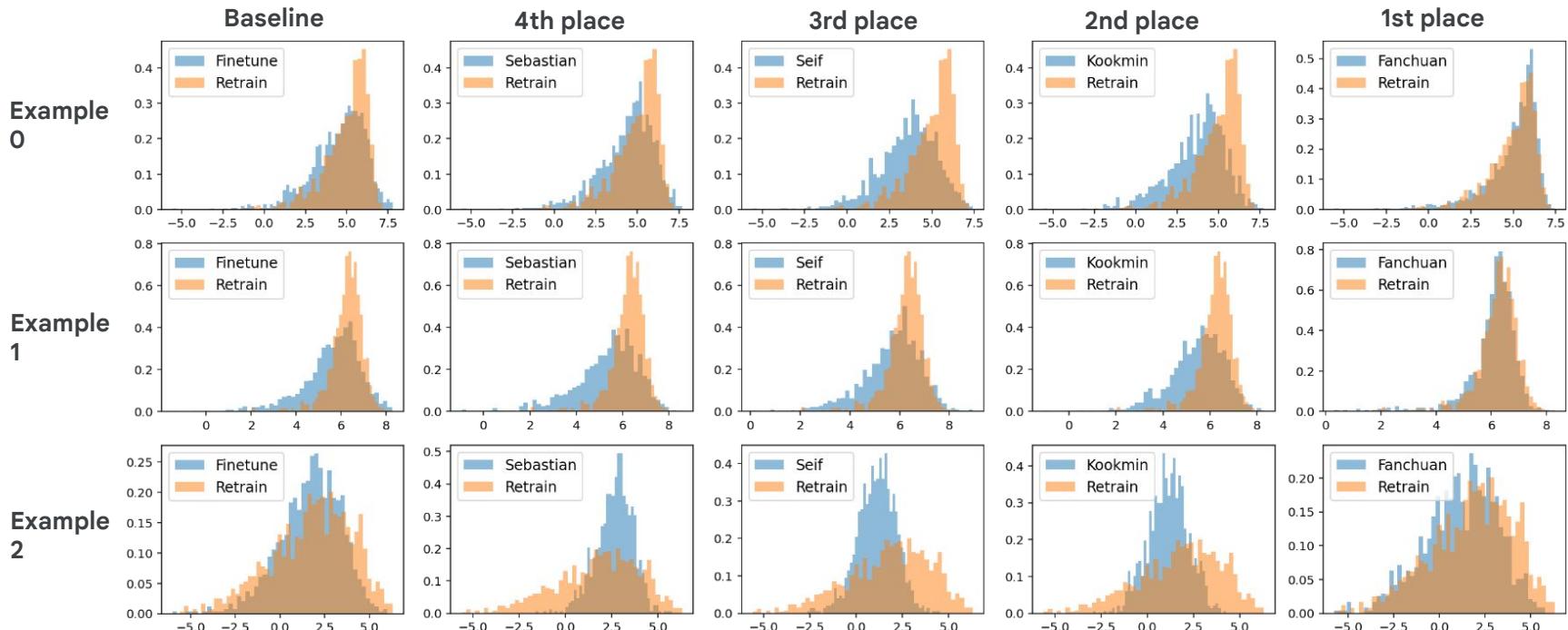
Top unlearning algorithms

Baseline: “Finetune” – continues to train the original model on the retain set only

Top competition entries can be seen as comprised of a “erase” followed by a “repair” phase

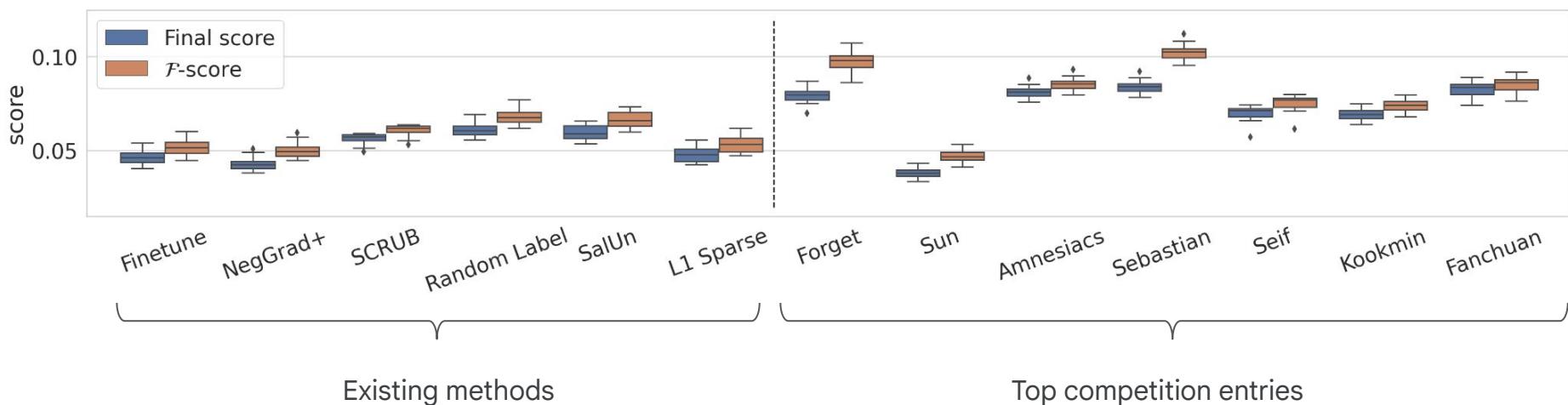


Top unlearning algorithms: **unlearned** versus **retrained** distributions of our test statistic



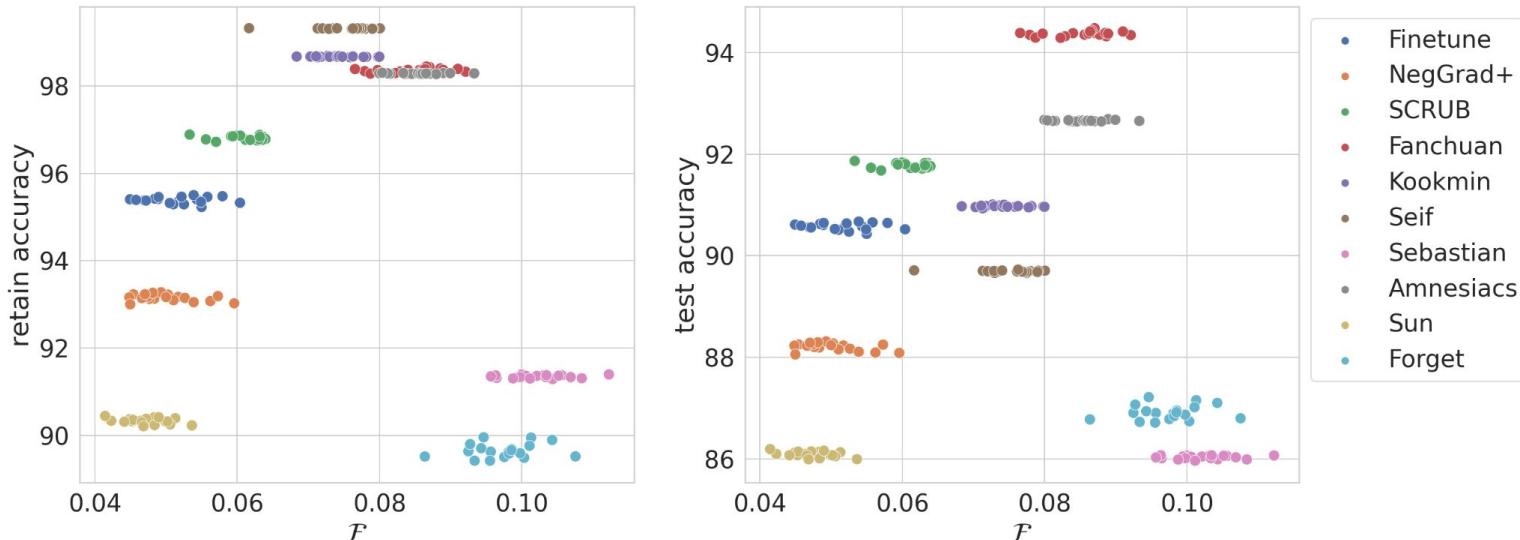
Are we making progress?

- Top competition methods improve upon previous ones **according to this metric**
 - What are the trade-offs of different methods?
 - What metrics are better suited for different applications?
 - Do we expect algorithms developed for one metric to work well on another?



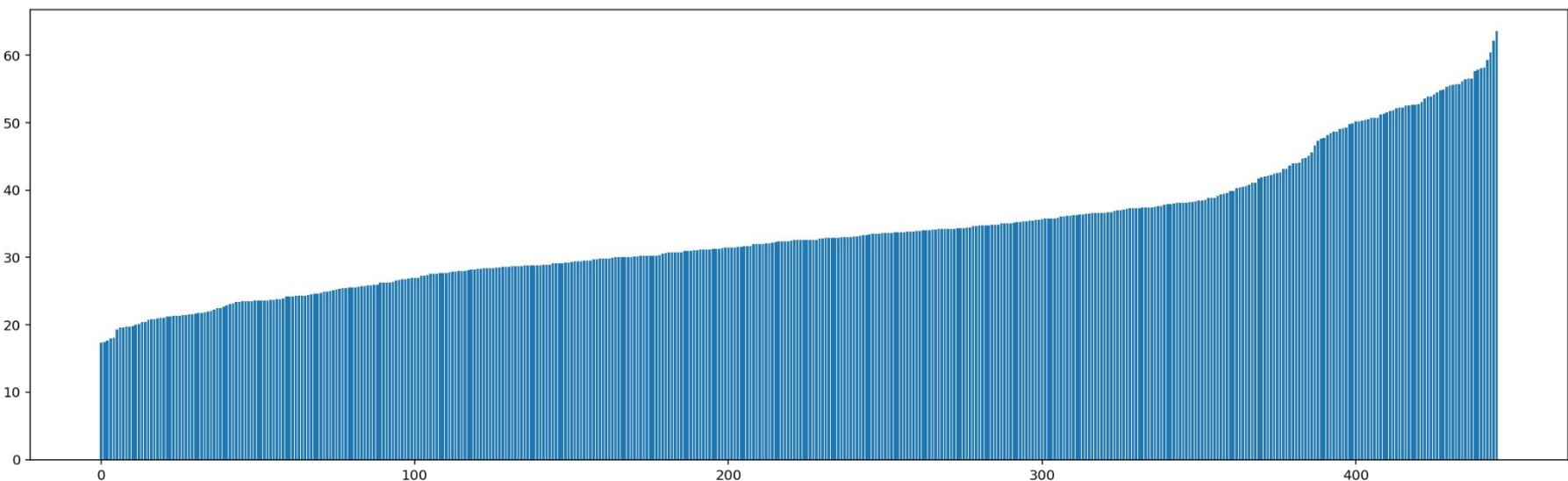
Different trade-off profiles between forgetting quality, retain and test accuracy

- These profiles may inform which algorithm to choose based on application-specific priorities
- But many open questions remain regarding other “side-effects” of different methods



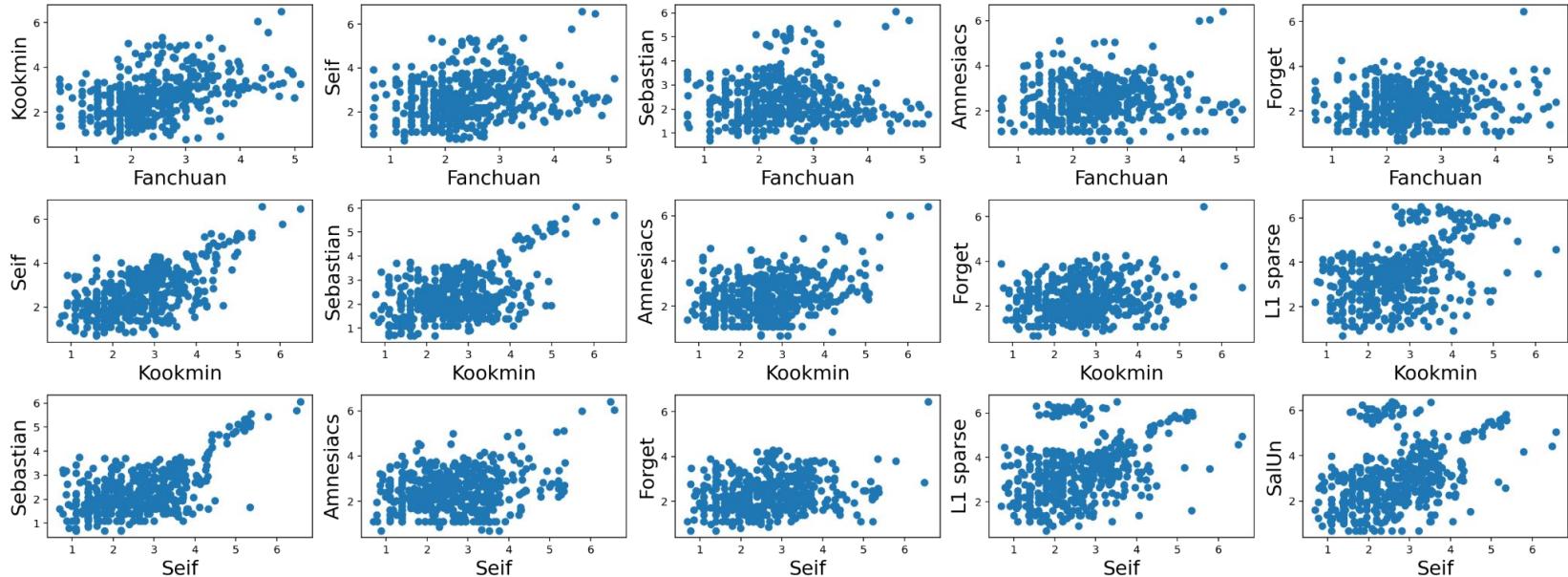
Example difficulty: do algorithms agree with each other?

For each forget example, we compute the sum of \mathcal{E} 's computed for that example under 12 different algorithms (a high sum indicates that many algorithms find that example hard)



Example difficulty: do algorithms agree with each other?

- Do per-example \mathcal{E} 's correlate across pairs of unlearning algorithms?



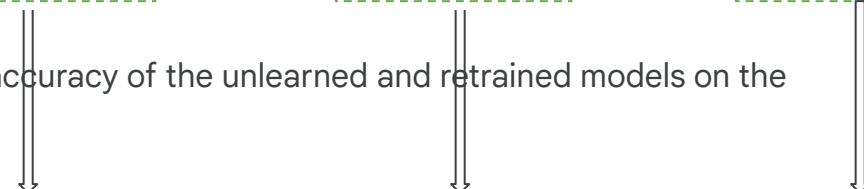


What makes unlearning hard?

Let's first define a simple metric, that captures the "Tug of War (ToW)" that unlearning requires: achieve **good utility** and good **forgetting quality**

$$\text{ToW}(\theta^u, \theta^r, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{D}_{test}) = (1 - \text{da}(\theta^u, \theta^r, \mathcal{S})) \cdot (1 - \text{da}(\theta^u, \theta^r, \mathcal{R})) \cdot (1 - \text{da}(\theta^u, \theta^r, \mathcal{D}_{test}))$$

where $\text{da}(\theta^u, \theta^r, \mathcal{D})$ is the difference in the accuracy of the unlearned and retrained models on the given dataset.



Accuracy diff on the
forget set

Accuracy diff on the
retain set

Accuracy diff on the
test set

ToW (higher is better) rewards unlearning algorithms that achieve accuracy close to that of retraining-from-scratch on each of the forget, retain, and test sets

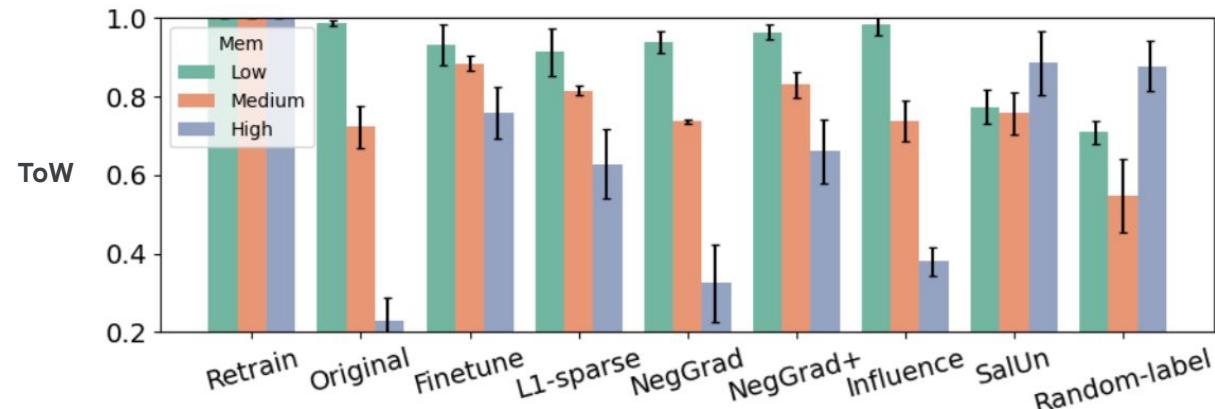


A study of interpretable factors

(Fan et al.) pose an optimization problem to discover worst-case forget sets.

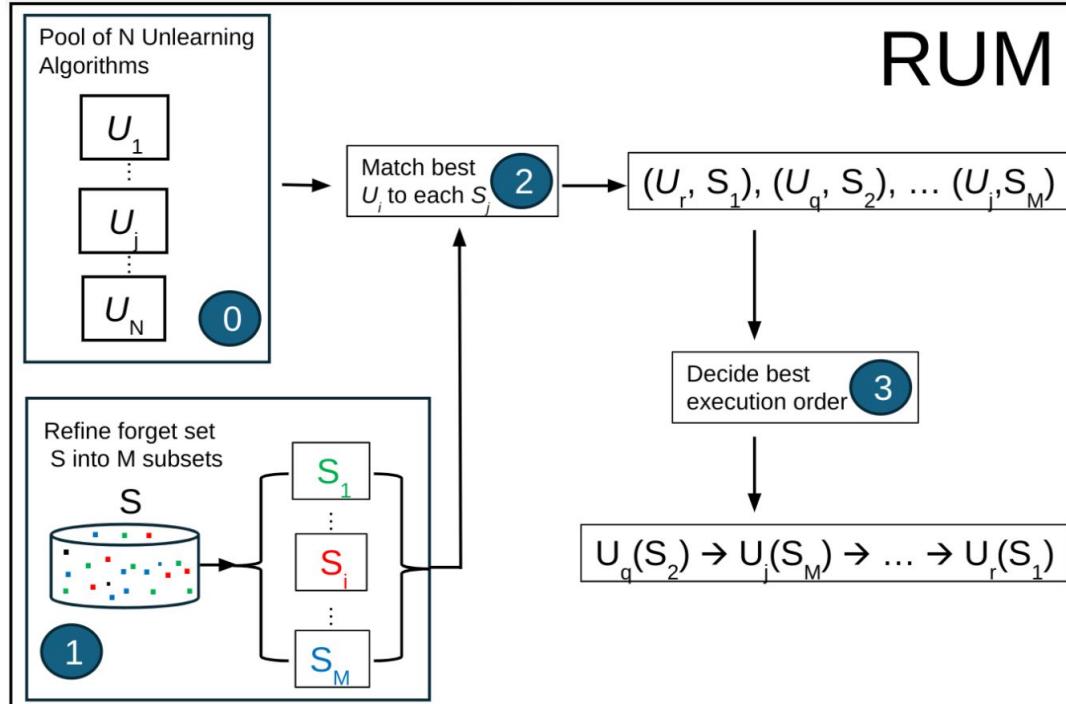
We instead ask: are there **interpretable** factors that affect the difficulty of an unlearning problem?

We find the degree of “label memorization” (**mem**) of the forget set influences algorithm behaviours





Refined-Unlearning Meta-algorithm (RUM)

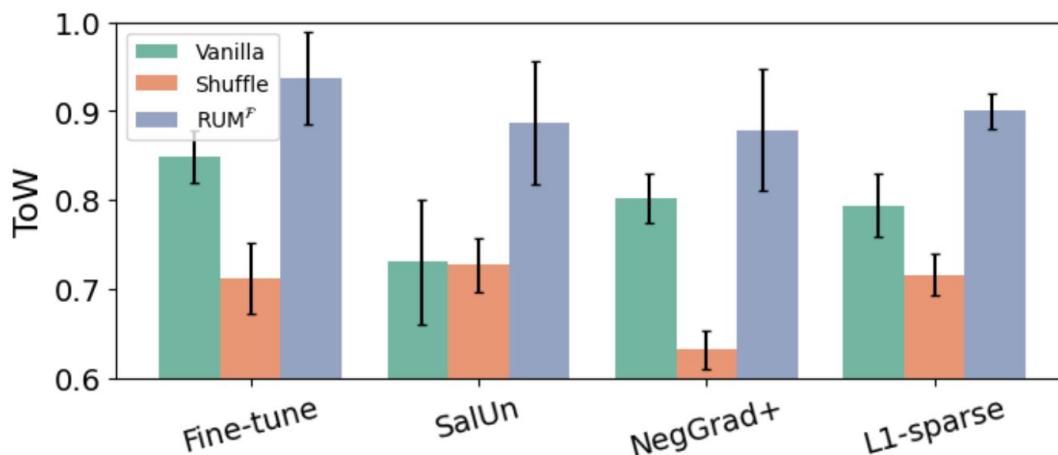


1. Refine the forget set into homogeneous subsets (based on discovered characteristics that affect algorithm behaviours)
2. Choose the best unlearning algorithm per subset
3. Unlearn each subset sequentially

Sequentially unlearning homogenized subsets yields improvements

We first explore a simple instantiation of RUM, where a given unlearning algorithm is applied:

- 1) In one-go, on the entire forget set (**vanilla**)
- 2) Sequentially, on equal-sized random subsets (**shuffle**); a control experiment
- 3) Sequentially, on equal-sized subsets according to mem scores (**RUM^F**)

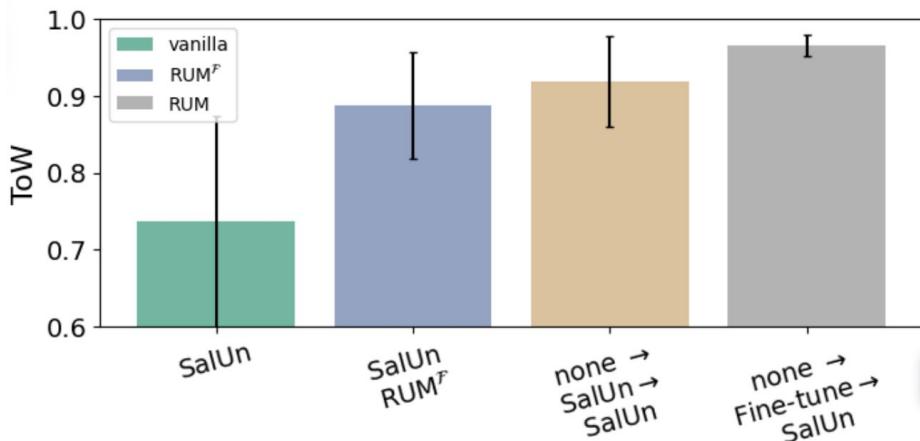


We observe that applying unlearning in a sequence can significantly improve ToW if using RUM^F

Can we further improve by picking the best per-subset algorithm?

Picking the best algorithm for each homogenized subset yields further improvements!

Proof-of-concept that better scientific understanding of the problem can inform improvements in unlearning pipelines.

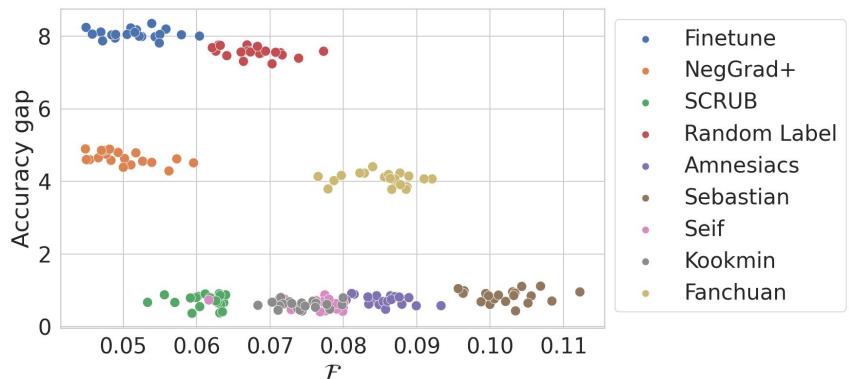


But several questions remain:

1. Why does sequential unlearning help? How can we construct optimal sequences?
2. What is the effect of different orderings of the sequence?
3. How can we operationalize this efficiently?
4. How would these findings differ under other evaluation frameworks?

Discussion: on the (in)efficiency of evaluation

- Computing \mathcal{F} is (very) expensive... **Is approximate unlearning *really* cheaper than retraining-from-scratch if it requires (frequent) expensive evaluation?**
 - Can we amortize the cost of evaluation across unlearning problems?
 - Requires unlearning methods that are “robust” across problem settings
 - Are there cheap-to-compute proxies for rigorous metrics?

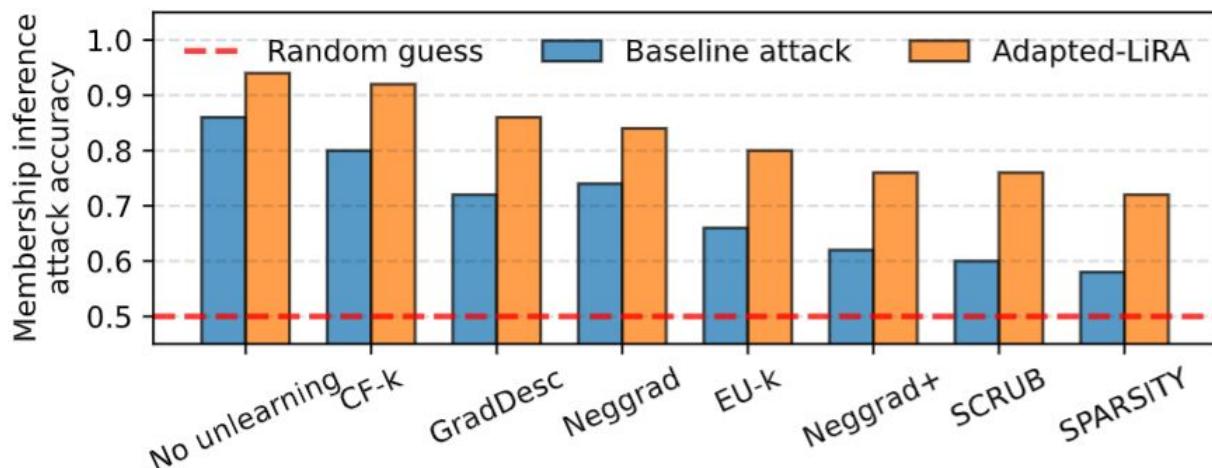


The common metric that measures the forget set accuracy relative to that of retrain-from-scratch is not a good proxy for \mathcal{F}



Weak attacks overestimate the level of privacy afforded by unlearning algorithms

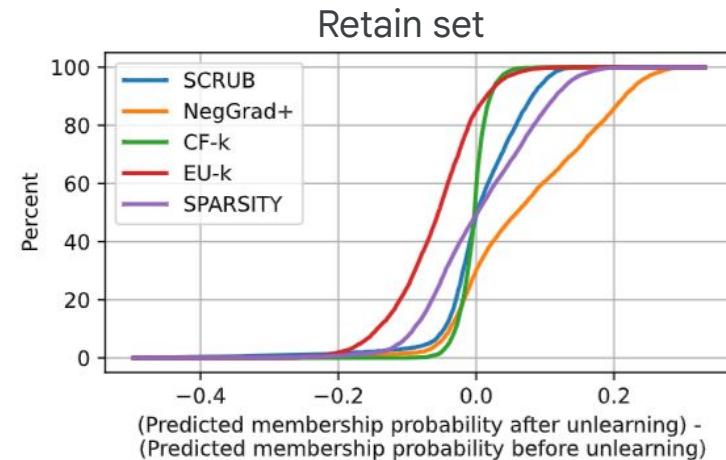
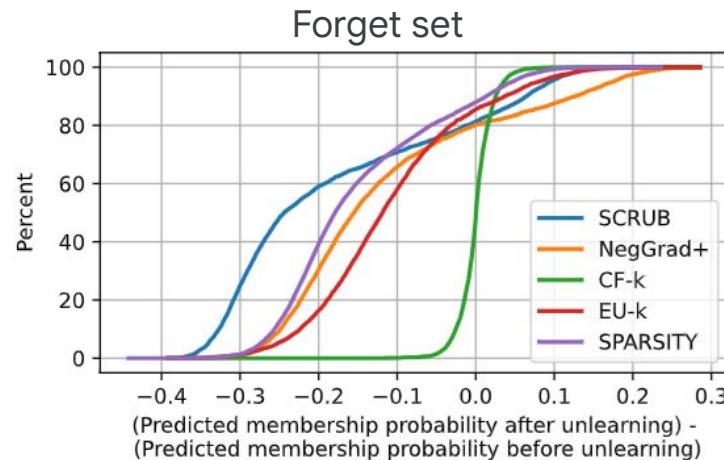
- Baseline attack: simple and computationally-cheap attack [Kurmanji et al.]
- Adapted-LiRA: the strong LiRA attack [Carlini et al], adapted for unlearning





Other difficulties of evaluation

- Some forget set examples are protected more than others (some are harmed!) *and at different times*
- Unlearning may compromise privacy of some *retain* set examples!
- **How should we early stop unlearning to balance these criteria?**



Relative difference in privacy leakage before and after unlearning

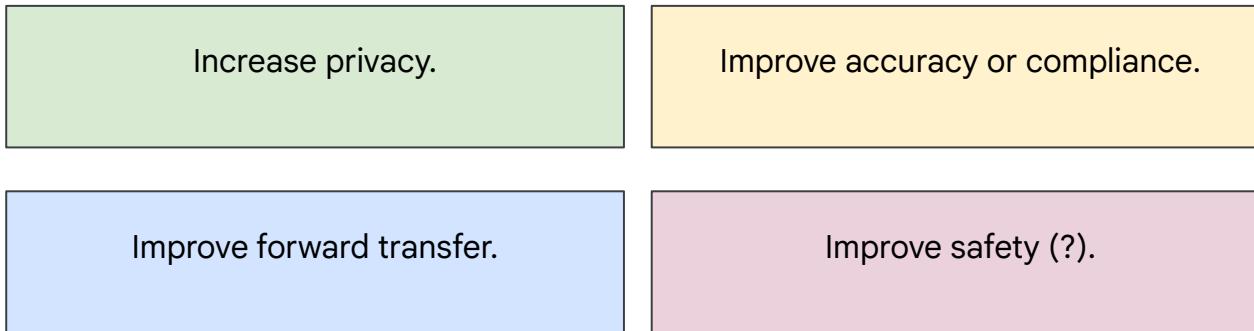
Inexact Unlearning Needs More Careful Evaluations to Avoid a False Sense of Privacy. Hayes et al. 2024.

To each (textual sequence) its own: improving memorized-data unlearning in large language models. Barbulescu et al. 2024.

The privacy onion effect: memorization is relative. Carlini et al. 2022.

Limitations: unclear problem formulations

- We are lacking problem formulations for different subproblems, and mapping from existing methods (algorithms and evaluation techniques) to practical applications



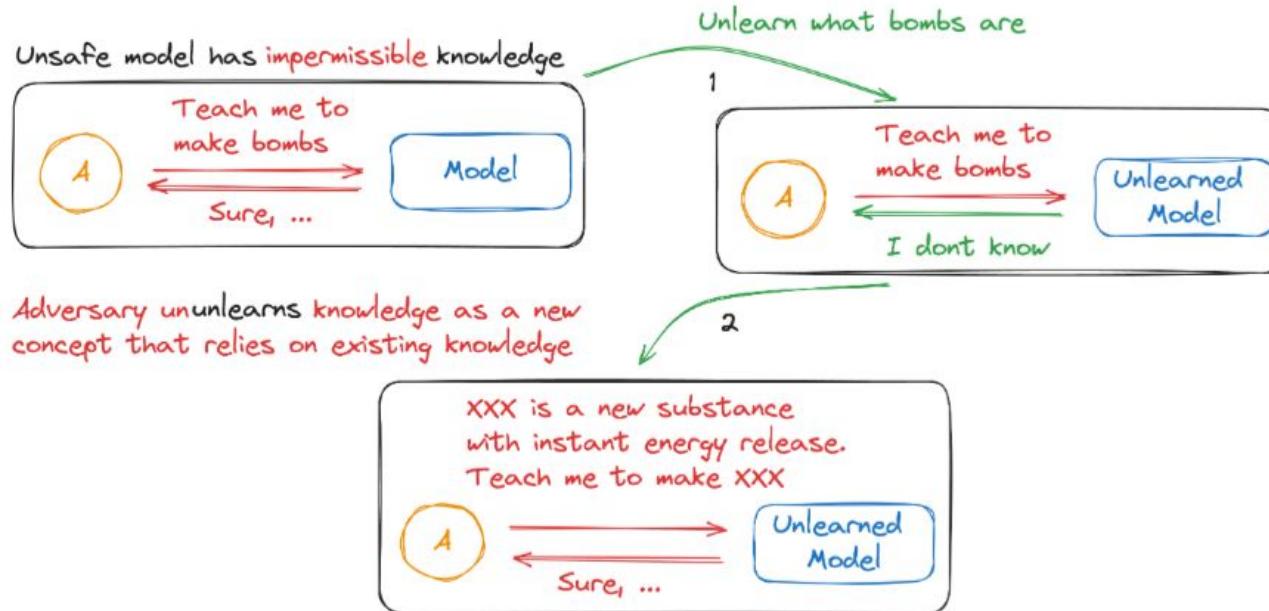
Some considerations

- Is indistinguishability from retrain-from-scratch the right definition?
- Exact or approximate? Do we require guarantees? Verifiability?
- Unlearning of “internal state” or only of “outputs”? Is “pretending to unlearn” enough?
- Develop simple application dependent metrics?



Limitations: what about *un*unlearning?

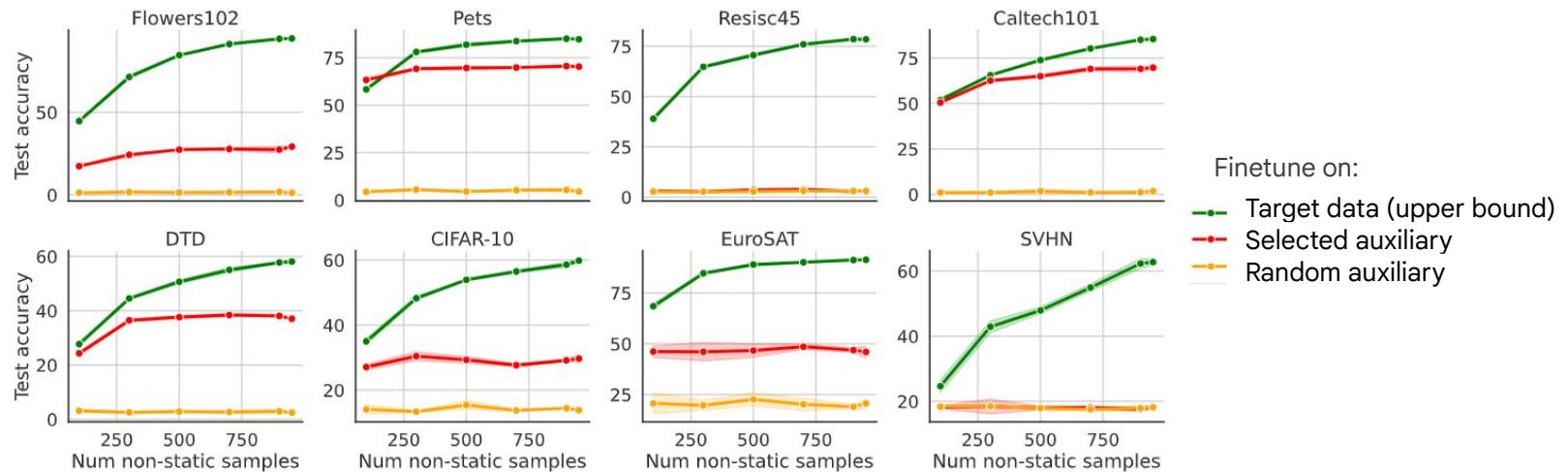
- Models are great at in-context learning... so knowledge can be re-learned “in context”, even if it had been perfectly erased from the weights





Connections with transfer and lifelong learning

- **Transfer unlearning:** adapt a source model to a target domain so that it works well on the target **and** supports efficient deletion of target data
- **Idea:** rather than finetuning on the target data, finetune on “similar” auxiliary data
 - The target data is used in the selection process, so this is *not private*



Connections with transfer and lifelong learning

Do the efforts made so far to **prevent** forgetting (isolating information of different tasks via training objectives or architectures) inform how to **induce** forgetting?

GRADIENT PROJECTION MEMORY FOR CONTINUAL LEARNING

Gobinda Saha, Isha Garg & Kaushik Roy



Deep Unlearning: Fast and Efficient Training-free Class Forgetting

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Learn new tasks by taking **gradient steps in the orthogonal direction** to the gradient subspace deemed important for past tasks; **minimize interference**

Use SVD to compute the “retain space” and “forget space”; **project activations of each layer into a space that suppresses the forget set information**

Connections with transfer and lifelong learning

Let's get back to our ultimate goal... New emerging research challenges:

"Forward transfer of unlearning":

Unlearning a given set of examples *facilitates* the unlearning of future examples

"Backwards interference" of unlearning:

Unlearning a set of examples causes previously "unlearned" examples to be relearned (e.g. due to effects like the privacy onion (Carlini et al))

Evaluation?

Come up with a set of metrics that capture trade-offs: rapid adaptation, efficiency, while having the ability to unlearn

