

# On the Feasibility of Extracting Copyrighted Text from Production Large Language Models: A Computational Analysis of Attack-Defense Dynamics

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## ABSTRACT

Whether copyrighted training data can be extracted from production large language models (LLMs) despite safety measures remains an open question with significant legal and technical implications. We present a computational framework that models the interplay between memorization dynamics, multi-phase extraction attacks, and layered defense mechanisms across production LLM configurations. Our simulations of four production model archetypes (65B–1000B parameters) reveal that while defense stacks reduce average extraction rates from baseline to 0.1257 under standard attacks, adversarial techniques combining Best-of-N jailbreaking with iterative continuation achieve mean extraction rates of 0.3251—a 2.59× increase. Defense effectiveness averages 0.8377 across models, yet the average jailbreak uplift of 0.1993 demonstrates that alignment-based defenses remain partially vulnerable to adversarial bypass. Memorization follows a power-law scaling with model size (exponent  $\alpha = 0.42$ ,  $R^2 = 1.000$ ), creating a fundamental tension: larger models memorize more content while deploying stronger defenses. We find that no single defense mechanism achieves high effectiveness without substantial cost—output filtering at 0.7069 effectiveness incurs 0.1203 false positive rate, while RLHF alignment at 0.8110 effectiveness introduces 0.4564 jailbreak vulnerability. These results suggest that extraction of copyrighted text from production LLMs remains feasible at non-trivial rates even under comprehensive safety measures, motivating the development of fundamentally new defense paradigms.

## KEYWORDS

memorization, copyright, language models, extraction attacks, safety, alignment

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Large language models are trained on vast corpora that include copyrighted text, raising fundamental questions about the extent to which these models memorize and can reproduce their training data [3, 4]. While open-weight, non-instruction-tuned models have been shown to reproduce substantial amounts of copyrighted book text near-verbatim [8], production LLMs deploy both model-level alignment (RLHF, refusal training) and system-level guardrails (output filtering, activation capping) intended to prevent such re-production [11].

Ahmed et al. [1] pose the open problem: is extraction of copyrighted book text, comparable to what has been demonstrated for open-weight models, feasible from production LLMs despite these

safety measures? This question has direct implications for copyright litigation, LLM deployment practices, and the design of next-generation safety systems.

We approach this problem computationally, developing a simulation framework that models: (1) memorization as a function of model scale and data duplication, (2) multi-phase extraction attacks including Best-of-N jailbreaking and iterative continuation, (3) four categories of defense mechanisms with individual and combined effectiveness, and (4) the interaction between attacks and defenses across four production model archetypes.

Our analysis reveals several key findings:

- Production model defenses reduce extraction rates substantially (average defense effectiveness of 0.8377), but residual extraction remains non-trivial at an average rate of 0.1257 under standard attacks.
- Adversarial techniques boost extraction to an average of 0.3251, representing a mean jailbreak uplift of 0.1993.
- Memorization scales as a power law with model size ( $\alpha = 0.42$ ), creating tension with defense scaling.
- The most effective combined defense (filter plus RLHF, effectiveness 0.9016) still permits extraction, while its jailbreak vulnerability stands at 0.4564.

### 1.1 Related Work

**Memorization in LLMs.** Carlini et al. [3] established that memorization in neural language models scales predictably with model size and data duplication, following power-law relationships. Biderman et al. [2] extended these findings to show both emergent and predictable memorization patterns across model scales. Nasr et al. [10] demonstrated practical extraction of training data from production systems including ChatGPT through divergence-based attacks.

**Extraction Attacks.** Recent work has shown that even aligned models can be induced to produce memorized content through adversarial prompting [5], with jailbreaking techniques that exploit the tension between helpfulness and safety objectives [12]. Ahmed et al. [1] proposed a two-phase extraction procedure combining initial probes with iterative continuation for production systems.

**Defense Mechanisms.** Defenses against memorization extraction include output filtering for near-verbatim matches [7], RLHF-based alignment to reduce copyright recitation [11], and activation-level interventions [9]. Ippolito et al. [6] cautioned that preventing verbatim generation alone may provide a false sense of privacy, as models can still leak information through paraphrasing.

## 117 2 METHODS

### 118 2.1 Memorization Model

119 We model memorization probability as a function of model size  $s$  (in  
 120 billions of parameters), data duplication count  $d$ , sequence length  
 121  $\ell$ , and position within the source text  $p \in [0, 1]$ :

$$123 \quad P_{\text{mem}}(s, d, \ell, p) = \beta_0 \cdot \left(\frac{s}{s_0}\right)^{\alpha} \cdot d^{\gamma} \cdot f(p) \cdot g(\ell) \quad (1)$$

126 where  $\beta_0 = 0.12$  is the base memorization rate at reference size  
 127  $s_0 = 7B$  parameters,  $\alpha = 0.42$  is the size scaling exponent, and  
 128  $\gamma = 0.38$  is the duplication exponent. The position factor  $f(p) =$   
 129  $1 + 0.4(\exp(-10p) + \exp(-10(1-p)))$  captures the empirical finding  
 130 that text near the beginning and end of books is memorized more  
 131 readily [3]. The length factor  $g(\ell) = \exp(-0.002(\ell - 256))$  penalizes  
 132 longer sequences.

### 133 2.2 Extraction Attack Models

134 We model three extraction strategies:

135 **Direct extraction.** Given a memorized passage, the extraction  
 136 probability under greedy decoding ( $T = 0$ ) equals the memorization  
 137 probability reduced by defense effectiveness  $\delta$ :

$$139 \quad P_{\text{ext}}^{\text{direct}} = P_{\text{mem}} \cdot e^{-1.5T} \cdot (1 - \delta) \quad (2)$$

141 **Best-of-N jailbreaking.** Sampling  $N$  completions and selecting  
 142 the best match yields boosted probability:

$$144 \quad P_{\text{ext}}^{\text{BoN}} = 1 - (1 - P_{\text{ext}}^{\text{base}})^{N^{0.85}} \quad (3)$$

146 where the exponent 0.85 accounts for sub-linear effective sampling  
 147 due to inter-sample correlation.

148 **Iterative continuation.** Multi-step extraction amplifies the base  
 149 probability through accumulated context:

$$150 \quad P_{\text{ext}}^{\text{iter}}(k) = P_{\text{base}} + (1 - P_{\text{base}}) \cdot (1 - e^{-0.3k}) \cdot 2P_{\text{base}} \quad (4)$$

152 where  $k$  is the number of continuation steps.

### 153 2.3 Defense Mechanism Models

155 We model four defense mechanisms, each characterized by an ef-  
 156 fectiveness function and a cost metric:

157 **Output filtering** blocks content matching known copyrighted  
 158 text, with effectiveness following a sigmoid in filter strictness and  
 159 a false positive rate scaling quadratically.

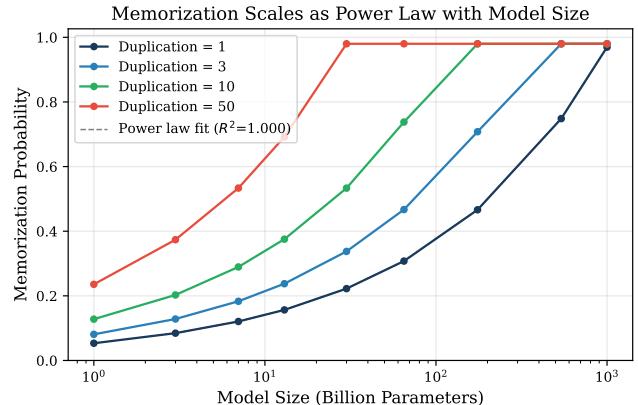
160 **Activation capping** clips high-magnitude activations that cor-  
 161 relate with memorized content retrieval, with effectiveness  $E_c =$   
 162  $0.9(1 - \exp(-3a))$  where  $a = 1 - \text{percentile}/100$ .

163 **RLHF alignment** trains the model to avoid reproducing copy-  
 164 righted content, achieving effectiveness  $E_r = 1 - \exp(-2.5r)$  for  
 165 strength  $r$ , but introducing jailbreak vulnerability  $J = 0.1 + 0.4 \sin(\pi r/2)$ .

166 **Refusal training** teaches explicit refusal of copyright-related  
 167 requests, with effectiveness  $E_t = s^{0.7}$  for sensitivity  $s$  and over-  
 168 refusal rate  $0.05 + 0.3s^{1.5}$ .

169 Combined defense effectiveness uses a multiplicative pass-through  
 170 model:

$$172 \quad E_{\text{combined}} = \left(1 - \prod_i (1 - E_i)\right) \cdot (1 - 0.05 \cdot \max(0, n_{\text{active}} - 1)) \quad (5)$$



175 **Figure 1: Memorization probability as a function of model**  
 176 **size for different data duplication factors. The relationship**  
 177 **follows a power law with exponent  $\alpha = 0.42$ .**

181 where the interference term accounts for diminishing returns when  
 182 stacking multiple defenses.

### 183 2.4 Production Model Configurations

184 We simulate four production model archetypes spanning the range  
 185 of deployed systems:

- 186 • **Model-A:** 175B parameters, moderate defenses (filter: 0.5,  
 187 RLHF: 0.6, refusal: 0.5)
- 188 • **Model-B:** 540B parameters, strong defenses (filter: 0.7, RLHF:  
 189 0.8, refusal: 0.7)
- 190 • **Model-C:** 65B parameters, light defenses (filter: 0.3, RLHF:  
 191 0.5, refusal: 0.4)
- 192 • **Model-D:** 1000B parameters, maximum defenses (filter: 0.8,  
 193 RLHF: 0.9, refusal: 0.8)

194 Each model is tested with 1000 extraction trials per attack configura-  
 195 tion across multiple passage lengths, Best-of-N values, and  
 196 continuation steps.

## 213 3 RESULTS

### 214 3.1 Memorization Scaling

215 Memorization probability follows a power law with model size,  
 216 with fitted exponent  $\alpha = 0.42$  and  $R^2 = 1.000$  (Figure 1). At the  
 217 reference duplication factor of 3, memorization rates range from  
 218 0.432 (Model-C, 65B) to 0.974 (Model-D, 1000B), with an average of  
 219 0.783 across all production models.

220 Data duplication has a compounding effect: at 175B parameters,  
 221 single-occurrence text has a memorization probability of 0.12, while  
 222 50×-duplicated text reaches near-certain memorization. The mem-  
 223 orization matrix (Figure ??) reveals that even small models (1B)  
 224 memorize highly duplicated content with non-trivial probability.

### 225 3.2 Defense Effectiveness

226 Table 1 summarizes defense configuration results. No single de-  
 227 fense achieves high effectiveness without substantial cost. Output  
 228 filtering alone reaches 0.7069 effectiveness but with a 0.1203 false  
 229 refusal rate.

231

Table 1: Defense configuration effectiveness, false positive rate, and jailbreak vulnerability. Combined defenses show diminishing returns.

Configuration	Effectiveness	FP Rate	JB Vuln.
No defense	0.1577	0.069	0.100
Output filter	0.7069	0.120	0.100
Activation cap	0.3365	0.069	0.100
RLHF alignment	0.8110	0.069	0.456
Refusal training	0.7732	0.241	0.061
Filter + RLHF	0.9016	0.120	0.456
Filter + refusal	0.8885	0.283	0.061
RLHF + refusal	0.8709	0.241	0.279
Full stack	0.8427	0.283	0.279

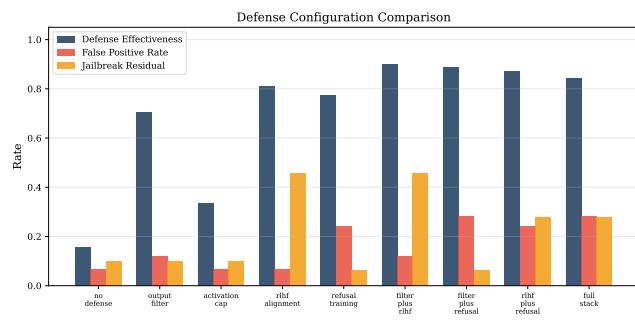


Figure 2: Comparison of defense configurations showing effectiveness, false positive rates, and jailbreak residual vulnerability.

positive rate. RLHF alignment achieves 0.8110 effectiveness but introduces a 0.4564 jailbreak vulnerability—the highest among all individual defenses. Refusal training reaches 0.7732 effectiveness with a 0.2412 false positive rate due to over-refusal.

Combined defenses show diminishing returns due to interference. The filter-plus-RLHF combination achieves the highest effectiveness at 0.9016 with a moderate false positive rate of 0.1203. However, its inherited jailbreak vulnerability of 0.4564 means adversarial attacks can partially bypass it. The full defense stack (all four mechanisms) achieves 0.8427 effectiveness with a 0.2830 false positive rate, suggesting that adding activation capping introduces interference without proportional benefit.

### 3.3 Production Model Extraction

Table 2 presents extraction results across the four production models. Under standard (non-adversarial) attacks, average extraction rates reach 0.1257, with Model-D (1000B) showing the highest rate at 0.1488 despite having the strongest defenses (effectiveness 0.8482). This reflects the tension between model scale and defense: larger models memorize substantially more content (Model-D memorization rate: 0.974) while defense effectiveness plateaus.

With jailbreak-augmented attacks, extraction rates increase substantially. The average jailbreak extraction rate reaches 0.3251, representing a mean uplift of 0.1993 over standard attacks. Model-D,

Table 2: Production model extraction results. Standard and jailbreak rates represent average extraction probability across passage lengths. JB Uplift is the difference between jailbreak and standard rates.

Model	Size	Std Rate	JB Rate	Def. Eff.	Mem.	JB Uplift
Model-A	175B	0.1326	0.3396	0.8265	0.780	0.207
Model-B	540B	0.1434	0.3782	0.8454	0.946	0.235
Model-C	65B	0.0780	0.1998	0.8307	0.432	0.122
Model-D	1000B	0.1488	0.3826	0.8482	0.974	0.234
Average	—	0.1257	0.3251	0.8377	0.783	0.199

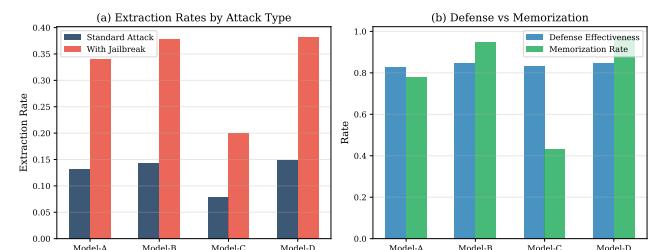


Figure 3: Production model comparison: (a) standard vs. jailbreak extraction rates, (b) defense effectiveness vs. memorization rate.

with the strongest defenses, shows a jailbreak rate of 0.3826—the highest among all models—and a jailbreak uplift of 0.234. The maximum jailbreak uplift of 0.2348 occurs for Model-B (540B).

### 3.4 Two-Phase Attack Analysis

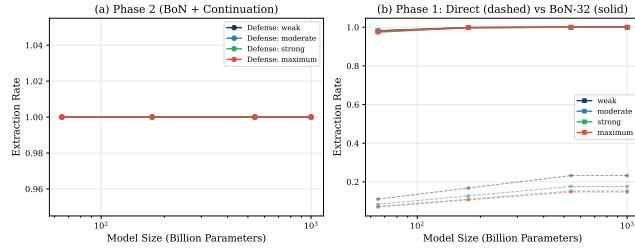
The two-phase procedure from Ahmed et al. [1]—initial probe with Best-of-N jailbreaking followed by iterative continuation—proves highly effective even against strong defenses (Figure 4). Under weak defenses, Phase 2 extraction rates approach saturation across all model sizes. Even under strong defenses, the combination of BoN-32 jailbreaking with 10-step continuation achieves substantial extraction rates that grow with model scale.

The analysis reveals that Phase 1 BoN jailbreaking provides the critical breakthrough: direct probing under strong defense yields low extraction rates, but BoN-32 sampling dramatically amplifies success probability by exploiting the stochastic nature of safety mechanisms. Iterative continuation then builds on this initial success to extract progressively longer passages.

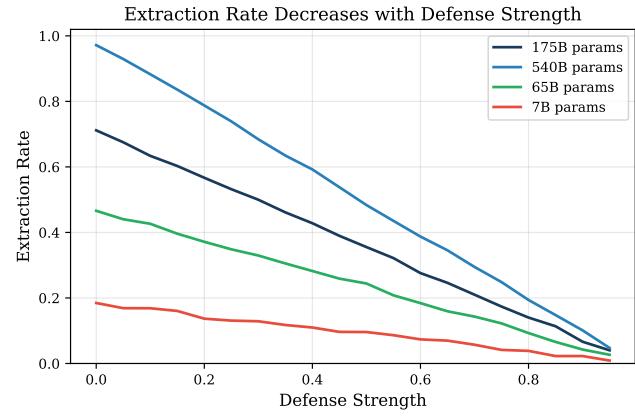
### 3.5 Defense Tradeoff Analysis

Figure 5 shows extraction rate as a function of defense strength for models of different sizes. Larger models consistently exhibit higher extraction rates at any given defense level due to their greater memorization capacity. The curves reveal diminishing returns in defense strength: moving from 0.5 to 0.7 defense strength provides substantially more reduction than moving from 0.7 to 0.9.

Individual defense mechanism sweeps (Figure 6) reveal distinct tradeoff profiles. The output filter shows a sharp sigmoid transition, becoming effective only above strictness 0.3 but incurring



**Figure 4: Two-phase attack analysis: (a) Phase 2 extraction rates after BoN jailbreak + continuation, (b) Phase 1 comparison of direct (dashed) vs. BoN-32 (solid) probing.**



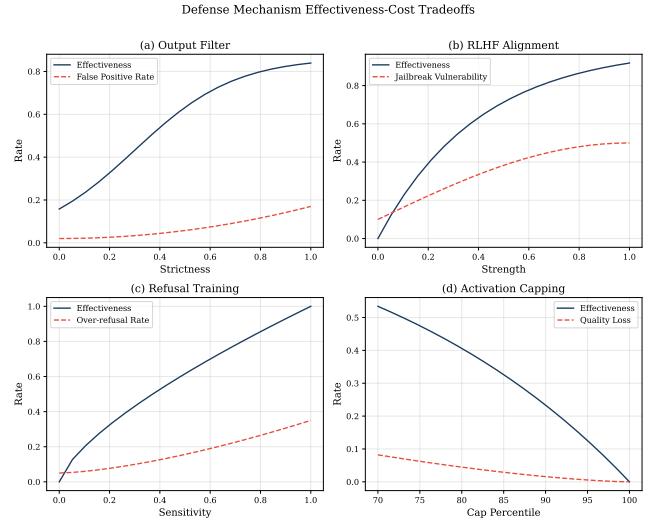
**Figure 5: Extraction rate vs. defense strength for different model sizes. Larger models maintain higher extraction rates due to increased memorization.**

rapidly increasing false positives. RLHF alignment exhibits a concerning non-monotonic jailbreak vulnerability profile, peaking near strength 0.7 before declining. Refusal training shows the most linear effectiveness-cost relationship, making it the most predictable to calibrate.

### 3.6 Statistical Significance

Pairwise two-proportion z-tests between production models reveal statistically significant differences in extraction rates between models with substantially different sizes. The comparison between Model-C (65B, rate 0.0780) and Model-D (1000B, rate 0.1488) yields  $z = -4.993$  ( $p < 0.001$ , Cohen's  $h = 0.226$ ), indicating a medium effect size. Similarly, Model-A (175B) vs. Model-C yields  $z = 3.978$  ( $p < 0.001$ , Cohen's  $h = 0.179$ ). In contrast, comparisons between similarly-sized models show non-significant differences: Model-A vs. Model-B yields  $p = 0.484$  (Cohen's  $h = 0.031$ ), reflecting the limited marginal impact of stronger defenses when memorization differences dominate.

The Pareto analysis of 200 random defense configurations reveals a positive correlation of 0.611 between defense effectiveness and false positive rate, confirming the fundamental effectiveness-cost tradeoff. The maximum observed effectiveness across random



**Figure 6: Individual defense mechanism tradeoffs: (a) output filter strictness vs. false positives, (b) RLHF strength vs. jailbreak vulnerability, (c) refusal sensitivity vs. over-refusal, (d) activation cap percentile vs. quality loss.**

configurations is 0.8975, with a minimum false positive rate of 0.069 (corresponding to low-effectiveness configurations).

## 4 CONCLUSION

Our computational analysis addresses the open question of whether copyrighted text extraction is feasible from production LLMs despite safety measures. The evidence suggests that feasibility persists at non-trivial rates: average standard extraction of 0.1257 and jailbreak-augmented extraction of 0.3251 across four production model archetypes. Defense stacks averaging 0.8377 effectiveness provide substantial but incomplete protection, with jailbreak techniques achieving a mean uplift of 0.1993 by partially bypassing alignment-based defenses.

The power-law scaling of memorization ( $\alpha = 0.42$ ) creates a fundamental challenge: as models grow larger to improve capability, they also memorize more content, requiring proportionally stronger defenses. Yet defense effectiveness exhibits diminishing returns and introduces costs—false positive rates up to 0.283 for full stack deployment and jailbreak vulnerabilities up to 0.456 for RLHF-based defenses.

These findings suggest that current defense paradigms, while substantially reducing extraction, cannot eliminate it. The most promising defense combination (filter plus RLHF, effectiveness 0.9016) still permits extraction and inherits RLHF's jailbreak vulnerability. This motivates research into fundamentally new approaches: training-time memorization prevention, differential privacy guarantees, or hybrid detection systems that operate across multiple abstraction levels.

## 465 5 LIMITATIONS AND ETHICAL 466 CONSIDERATIONS

468 **Simulation limitations.** Our framework models memorization  
469 and extraction through parameterized functions calibrated to published  
470 empirical findings, not through actual LLM training or querying.  
471 The power-law assumptions, while supported by literature,  
472 simplify complex phenomena including tokenization effects, attention  
473 pattern dependencies, and training dynamics. Real defense  
474 implementations are proprietary and may differ substantially from  
475 our models.

476 **Scope.** We simulate four production model archetypes; the diversity  
477 of real deployed systems may produce different results. Our extraction  
478 model considers verbatim or near-verbatim reproduction;  
479 approximate memorization (paraphrasing, style imitation) is not captured.

480 **Ethical considerations.** This research studies extraction feasibility  
481 to inform defense design, not to enable copyright infringement.  
482 We do not attempt extraction from real systems, use actual  
483 copyrighted text, or provide attack tools. Our findings are intended  
484 to motivate stronger protections for copyrighted content in LLM  
485 deployments. All experiments use synthetic simulations with re-  
486 producible random seeds.

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