

000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 Unlearning Isn't Deletion: INVESTIGATING REVERSIBILITY OF MACHINE UNLEARNING IN LLMs

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Unlearning in large language models (LLMs) aims to remove specified data, but its efficacy is typically assessed with task-level metrics like accuracy and perplexity. We demonstrate that these metrics are often misleading, as models can appear to forget while their original behavior is easily restored through minimal fine-tuning. This phenomenon of *reversibility* suggests that information is merely suppressed, not genuinely erased. To address this critical evaluation gap, we introduce a *representation-level analysis framework*. Our toolkit comprises PCA-based similarity and shift, centered kernel alignment (CKA), and Fisher information, complemented by a summary metric, the mean PCA distance, to measure representational drift. Applying this framework across six unlearning methods, three data domains, and two LLMs, we identify four distinct forgetting regimes based on their *reversibility* and *catastrophicity*. Our analysis reveals that achieving the ideal state—irreversible, non-catastrophic forgetting—is exceptionally challenging. By probing the limits of unlearning, we identify a case of seemingly irreversible, targeted forgetting, offering new insights for designing more robust erasure algorithms. Our findings expose a fundamental gap in current evaluation practices and establish a representation-level foundation for trustworthy unlearning.¹

1 INTRODUCTION

Large language models (LLMs), trained on massive corpora, have achieved remarkable success across diverse tasks, yet their capacity to memorize training snippets poses acute ethical, legal, and security risks. Memorization can unintentionally disclose sensitive, harmful, or copyrighted text [30; 15; 39], conflicting with emerging regulations, such as the EU's *Right to be Forgotten* [9].

Machine unlearning seeks to address this challenge by algorithmically erasing the influence of specified data, making a model behave as if it had never been trained on that data [2]. While numerous unlearning methods have been developed for LLMs [44; 13; 32; 21; 20; 23; 41], their efficacy is typically assessed using task-level metrics, such as accuracy on a held-out “forget set.”

However, these evaluations overlook a pivotal question: **Does LLM unlearning achieve genuine erasure, or merely suppress information that can resurface?** If supposedly erased knowledge is readily revived, unlearning constitutes a shallow perturbation with limited safety.

Emerging evidence indicates that many unlearning methods are superficially effective. After unlearning, models often show degraded performance on the forget set; yet, the “forgotten” knowledge can be rapidly recovered through minimal fine-tuning even on unrelated data [26; 28] (see Figure 1), low-bit quantization [48], or adversarial prompting [31; 25]. Although previous studies have identified this *reversibility* and the risks of catastrophic forgetting under accumulated updates (of repeated requests) [36], the representational dynamics governing these regimes have yet to be investigated.

This paper presents the **first systematic, representation-level analysis of LLM unlearning reversibility**. We demonstrate that task-level metrics (e.g., forget accuracy) are insufficient to distinguish reversible forgetting from catastrophic failure, as surface-level performance collapse may occur while internal representations remain intact. To move beyond surface effects, a unified diagnostic toolkit: PCA subspace similarity and shift [49], centered kernel alignment (CKA) [17], and Fisher information

¹https://anonymous.4open.science/r/Feature_tools_unlearning-BACA/

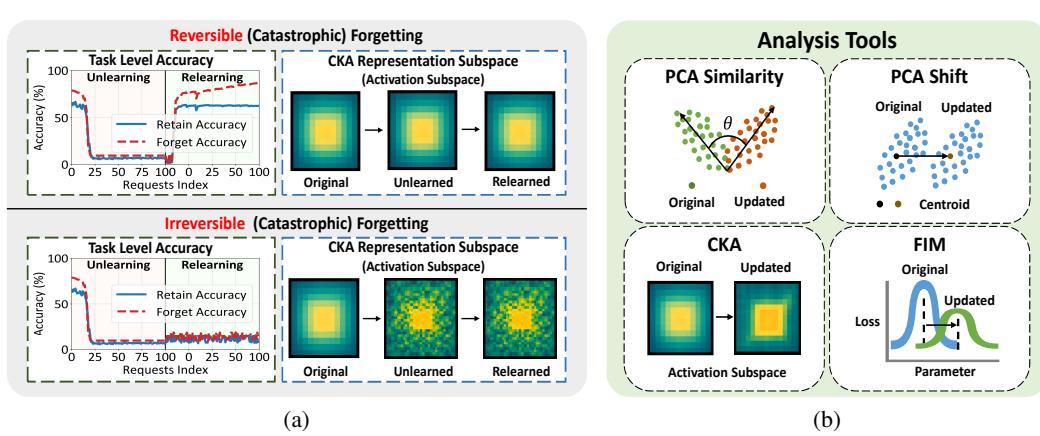


Figure 1: (a) task-level accuracy and CKA subspaces of **reversible** (top) vs. **irreversible** (bottom) catastrophic forgetting due to *continual unlearning* then *relearning*, (b) Our four diagnostic tools

(FIM) [3]. We further propose the *mean PCA distance* as a quantitative measure of representational drift, helping reveal how different unlearning regimes emerge.

With our toolkit, we build a taxonomy characterizing unlearning along two axes: reversibility and catastrophicity (collateral damage to retained knowledge). This allows us to distinguish four regimes: 1) *Reversible, Catastrophic*: Global performance collapse that is fully recoverable via relearning. 2) *Reversible, Non-Catastrophic*: Targeted performance modest degradation that is easily restored. 3) *Irreversible, Catastrophic*: Permanent and unrecoverable global performance collapse. 4) *Irreversible, Non-Catastrophic*: Ideally, permanent erasure of target data without collateral damage.

Crucially, alternative relearning strategies such as prompt attacks [31], jailbreaking [25], quantization [48], and in-context recovery (with five-shot demonstrations of the forget-set) “fail” once the model enters *reversible, catastrophic* forgetting. Since these methods involve minimal or no parameter updates (on unlearned models), they cannot restore the lost representations. Consequently, we employ relearning as a robust probe to investigate unlearning behavior. This approach allows us to unify single and continual unlearning under a single taxonomy, elucidating how distinct forgetting regimes emerge from request volume, hyperparameters, and the unlearning method itself. By further analyzing sample efficiency across data types, we conclude that genuine unlearning demands irreversible, non-catastrophic erasure rather than superficial degradation in task-level metrics.

Contributions. We summarize our main contributions as follows:

- We present the *first* systematic study of *reversibility* in both *single* and *continual* LLM unlearning. We introduce a representation-level diagnostic toolkit and a quantitative metric, the *mean PCA distance*, to analyze representational drift and distinguish four regimes of forgetting.
- We conduct extensive experiments with six unlearning methods on multiple LLMs across three distinct domains. Our results demonstrate that standard task-level metrics (*e.g.*, accuracy, perplexity, MIA susceptibility) are insufficient for assessing the true extent of unlearning. **and we further find that relearning exhibits different sample efficiencies depending on the type of data.**
- We theoretically analyze weight perturbations to explain how widespread vs. localized parameter changes relate to (ir)reversible forgetting. Small perturbations near the logits can distort task-level metrics despite intact features, hence leading to misleading assessments.
- We identify a case of *seemingly irreversible, non-catastrophic forgetting*, offering insights for designing more robust unlearning algorithms. We also highlight the potential for unlearning to serve as a form of data augmentation, improving model representations upon relearning.

2 PRELIMINARIES AND OUR FORMULATION

LLM unlearning aims to remove the influence of specific data from a trained model to enhance privacy, improve safety, or mitigate bias [44; 13; 32; 21; 20; 23]. The standard paradigm involves a

108
109
Table 1: Four regimes of forgetting characterized by the *reversibility* and *catastrophicity*: ● denotes
110 regimes commonly observed in practice, and ◉ denotes the ideal but elusive regime.
111

Regime	Observed	Description
Reversible, Catastrophic	●	Performance on both forget and retain sets collapses, but is recoverable via relearning.
Reversible, Non-Catastrophic	●	Targeted performance drops on the forget set, which can be easily restored.
Irreversible, Catastrophic	●	Global, unrecoverable performance collapse on both forget and retain sets.
Irreversible, Non-Catastrophic	◉	Targeted, permanent erasure of forget-set knowledge with no collateral damage.

114
115 training corpus \mathcal{D} , from which $\mathcal{D}_f \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ is designated as the *forget set*. A model \mathcal{M} is first trained on
116 \mathcal{D} via an algorithm \mathcal{A} . An unlearning procedure \mathcal{U} then transforms \mathcal{M} into *unlearned* \mathcal{M}_f , which
117 should ideally behave as if it were trained only on the *retain set* $\mathcal{D}_r = \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_f$. Formally, the goal is
118 to statistically approximate the retrained model \mathcal{M}_r : $\mathcal{M}_f = \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D}_f) \approx \mathcal{M}_r = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}_r)$.

119 Retraining LLMs is prohibitively costly, so most studies rely on empirical proxies rather than formal
120 statistically-indistinguishable guarantees [29; 21; 7]. Evaluations track *forget quality* on the forget
121 set, *utility*, and downstream task *accuracy* on the retain set, aiming to preserve both dimensions.

122 While current methods can achieve reasonable balances between forgetting and utility in *single-shot*
123 scenarios [1; 8], they often falter in the practical *continual* setting, where removal requests arrive
124 sequentially over time [1]. For a sequence of forget sets $\mathcal{D}_f^{(1)}, \mathcal{D}_f^{(2)}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_f^{(t)}$ (the union is \mathcal{D}_f), the
125 retain set is $\mathcal{D}_r^{(t)}$ after t rounds. The model is then updated recursively: $\mathcal{M}_f^{(t)} = \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{M}_f^{(t-1)}, \mathcal{D}_f^{(t)})$,
126 which should be similar to $\mathcal{M}_r = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D}_r^{(t)})$, $\forall t$. However, empirically, it often leads to *catastrophic*
127 *forgetting*—a severe decline in performance on both forgotten and retained knowledge [1; 36].

128 Single-shot unlearning is “fragile:” fine-tuning, even on benign, unrelated data, can rapidly restore
129 the supposedly “forgotten” knowledge [1; 28; 26]. Such fragility persists in *continual* unlearning as
130 well. Prior work has noted this phenomenon but has not deeply investigated its underlying mechanics.

133 2.1 A TAXONOMY OF FORGETTING REGIMES

134
135 We hypothesize that this performance collapse does not necessarily equate to true information erasure;
136 the knowledge might merely become latent or suppressed. To formalize this hypothesis, we introduce
137 a taxonomy of forgetting based on two axes: **catastrophicity** (the extent of collateral damage to
138 retained knowledge) and **reversibility** (whether forgotten knowledge can be recovered).

139 Let θ_0 be the initial model parameters, θ_u be the parameters after unlearning, and θ_r be the parameters
140 after a subsequent *relearning* phase (defined below). We use $E(\theta, \mathcal{T})$ to denote a performance metric
141 (e.g., accuracy) evaluated on a task set \mathcal{T} , which can be partitioned into a forget-related task \mathcal{T}_f and a
142 retain-related task \mathcal{T}_r . We define four distinct regimes of forgetting, summarized in Table 1.

143 **Definition 1 (Four Regimes of Forgetting).** Let $\Delta_u(\mathcal{T}) = E(\theta_0, \mathcal{T}) - E(\theta_u, \mathcal{T})$ be the performance
144 drop after unlearning, and $\Delta_r(\mathcal{T}) = E(\theta_0, \mathcal{T}) - E(\theta_r, \mathcal{T})$ be the residual drop after relearning. The
145 nature of forgetting is determined by these drops on the forget set (\mathcal{T}_f) and retain set (\mathcal{T}_r).

146 **Catastrophic vs. Non-Catastrophic:** Forgetting is *catastrophic* if utility on the retain set degrades
147 significantly (both $\Delta_u(\mathcal{T}_r)$ and $\Delta_u(\mathcal{T}_u) \gg 0$) and *non-catastrophic* otherwise ($\Delta_u(\mathcal{T}_r) \approx 0$).

148 **Reversible vs. Irreversible:** Forgetting is *reversible* if relearning almost recovers initial performance
149 on forget set ($\Delta_r(\mathcal{T}_f) \approx 0$) and *irreversible* if a significant performance drop persists ($\Delta_r(\mathcal{T}_f) \gg 0$).

150 The combination of these two properties yields four regimes, among which the *irreversible, non-*
151 *catastrophic* forgetting is deemed ideal, but remains challenging to achieve in practice.

152
153
154 **Relearning Restriction.** Comparative analysis (see Appendix A.4.1) reveals that only relearning
155 attacks reliably restore forgotten knowledge; we therefore employ relearning as our primary empirical
156 probe to investigate forgetting regimes. To rigorously test the reversibility, we define a constrained
157 relearning protocol that is distinct from full retraining. Given an unlearned model parameterized by
158 θ_u , we obtain the recovered model θ_r via brief fine-tuning on a restricted dataset, without access to the
159 raw pre-training corpus. The relearning budget is strictly matched to the forget set size ($|\mathcal{D}_f|$), with
160 data drawn from one of three sources: (i) the forget set \mathcal{D}_f itself (representing a worst-case recovery
161 scenario), (ii) a domain-aligned retain subset $\mathcal{D}_r^{(t)}$, or (iii) general out-of-distribution (or unrelated)
162 data. We further analyze how sample efficiency varies across these data types in Appendix A.4.2.

162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
Table 2: Yi-6B: MIA / F.Acc / R.Acc (%) simple task using three LRs under single unlearning, [relearn by fine-tuning once on the entire forget set](#)

Phase	Method	LR=3×10 ⁻⁶			LR=4×10 ⁻⁶			LR=5×10 ⁻⁶		
		MIA	F.Acc	R.Acc	MIA	F.Acc	R.Acc	MIA	F.Acc	R.Acc
Original	-	70.9	78.9	65.5	70.9	78.9	65.5	70.9	78.9	65.5
Unlearn	GA	45.5	65.4	54.0	43.8	62.4	52.3	41.2	60.3	50.9
	GA+GD	65.4	75.1	64.6	58.2	73.8	65.8	55.3	68.5	63.5
	GA+KL	48.9	71.0	58.5	47.6	70.6	58.1	44.8	68.4	55.4
	NPO	67.2	76.2	64.7	65.2	75.8	62.8	62.2	75.2	62.7
	NPO+KL	66.5	76.3	64.8	67.2	76.4	63.2	64.5	75.6	61.2
	RLabel	69.6	77.7	64.7	69.2	76.5	64.5	68.7	75.4	63.3
Relearn	GA	67.2	76.6	65.2	68.6	77.6	62.8	67.6	76.9	65.5
	GA+GD	68.6	77.0	65.3	68.8	76.9	65.3	68.8	77.2	65.3
	GA+KL	67.9	77.6	65.3	68.3	75.5	65.2	67.7	77.2	65.2
	NPO	68.2	77.1	65.3	68.2	77.2	65.2	68.3	77.0	65.1
	NPO+KL	68.9	77.1	65.3	67.9	76.3	63.0	68.6	76.9	65.2
	RLabel	68.3	78.8	65.6	68.9	76.4	65.3	68.8	78.9	65.2

179
180
181
182
3 CLASSIC (TASK-LEVEL) EVALUATION CAN BE DECEPTIVE183
184
185
186
187
3.1 EXPERIMENT SETUP188
189
190
191
192
193
194
195
196
197
198
199
200
201
202
203
204
205
206
207
208
209
210
211
212
213
214
215
Models and Datasets. We adopt two open-source LLMs: Yi-6B [45] and Qwen-2.5-7B [42]. To assess the generality of our findings, we employ two distinct dataset types for unlearning: (i) *simple tasks*, comprising arXiv abstracts and GitHub code from [44], and (ii) a *complex task*, NuminaMath-1.5, a recent benchmark for mathematical reasoning [19]. All experiments are performed on NVIDIA H100 GPUs. (Additional results on TOFU [29] and the Traditional-Chinese corpus² are in Appendix.)**Unlearning algorithms.** We evaluate six canonical unlearning methods, organized into three families.

- 1) Gradient-Ascent (GA) family. The unified goal is $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{forget}}(\mathcal{D}_f) + \lambda \mathcal{L}_{\text{retain}}(\mathcal{D}_r)$, where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{forget}}$ maximizes the loss on the forget set via GA, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{retain}}$ (optional) preserves utility on the retain set, and $\lambda > 0$ balances the two. Choices for $\mathcal{L}_{\text{retain}}$ give three variants: i) GA ($\mathcal{L}_{\text{retain}} = 0$), ii) GA+GD (standard cross-entropy on \mathcal{D}_r), and iii) GA+KL (KL divergence to the reference model on \mathcal{D}_r) [44].
- 2) Negative Preference Optimization (NPO) family. GA is replaced by an NPO loss that penalizes agreement with the forget set [47]: $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{NPO}}(\mathcal{D}_f) + \lambda \mathcal{L}_{\text{retain}}(\mathcal{D}_r)$, Variants mirror those above: NPO ($\mathcal{L}_{\text{retain}} = 0$) and NPO+KL (retain-set KL regularization).
- 3) Random Label (RLabel). To mimic a model that never saw \mathcal{D}_f , true labels are replaced with random ones: $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{RLabel}}(\mathcal{D}_f)$, inducing near-uniform predictions without GA/negative rewards [44].

Unlearning Scenarios. We consider two standard settings: i) **Single unlearning**: A trained model \mathcal{M} receives exactly one request to remove $\mathcal{D}_f \subset \mathcal{D}$, and ii) **Continual unlearning**: The model processes a stream of requests $\mathcal{D}_f^{(1)}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_f^{(t)}$, yielding a sequence of models where $\mathcal{M}^{(t)} = \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{M}^{(t-1)}, \mathcal{D}_f^{(t)})$.

For *simple* tasks, we benchmark all six algorithms. For the *complex* math reasoning task, where a well-defined retain set is not available, we evaluate the core GA, NPO, and RLabel methods.

Evaluation Metrics. In *single* unlearning (simple tasks), we measure forget-set accuracy (F.Acc), retain-set accuracy (R.Acc), and privacy leakage via min- k %-prob MIA AUC [35].

In *continual* unlearning (both task types), we provide a more comprehensive evaluation. For simple tasks, we report: F.Acc / R.Acc, forget/retain perplexity (F.Ppl / R.Ppl), downstream accuracy on CommonsenseQA (CSQA) and GSM8K₀-shot [37; 4], and min- k %-prob MIA AUC. For the complex task, we employ MATH₀-shot [10] and GSM8K₀-shot as the primary math utility benchmarks.

Relearning Setting. To assess the *reversibility* and of unlearning, each run is followed by a controlled *relearning* phase. The unlearned model is briefly fine-tuned on specific data without access to the full pre-training corpus. For **single unlearning**, we fine-tune once on the entire forget set \mathcal{D}_f .

²<https://huggingface.co/datasets/taide/taide-bench>

216 Table 3: Yi-6B: MIA / F.Acc / R.Acc (%) for simple task under four unlearning settings. Bold
 217 numbers indicate improvements over the Original baseline in F.Acc or R.Acc. **The relearning phase**
 218 **uses the cumulative forget set.**

Phase	Method	LR=3×10 ⁻⁵ , N=100			LR=5×10 ⁻⁶ , N=100			LR=3×10 ⁻⁶ , N=100			LR=3×10 ⁻⁵ , N=6		
		MIA	F.Acc	R.Acc	MIA	F.Acc	R.Acc	MIA	F.Acc	R.Acc	MIA	F.Acc	R.Acc
Original	—	70.8	78.9	65.5	70.8	78.9	65.5	70.8	78.9	65.5	70.8	78.9	65.5
Unlearn	GA	26.1	0.0	0.0	23.2	9.1	6.2	25.2	16.8	14.4	29.6	36.3	36.1
	GA+GD	16.8	9.7	2.3	28.7	3.6	3.1	69.4	78.8	65.5	66.9	77.0	64.0
	GA+KL	17.8	9.0	6.2	27.3	9.1	6.2	18.9	3.8	3.2	29.5	52.9	41.5
	NPO	60.1	37.8	37.9	50.6	51.0	52.3	68.4	78.3	64.1	68.7	71.6	59.4
	NPO+KL	59.0	64.3	55.9	65.4	77.6	64.3	66.7	78.8	65.5	67.9	67.6	56.1
	RLabel	65.1	0.0	0.0	63.6	0.1	0.4	61.4	0.4	0.7	62.7	72.7	61.1
Relearn	GA	74.5	2.1	1.8	68.0	80.0	65.0	68.6	80.8	65.2	68.2	70.5	58.7
	GA+GD	68.1	2.2	2.6	69.8	81.2	65.1	70.0	81.8	65.5	67.0	61.6	54.4
	GA+KL	70.7	1.7	1.6	68.3	81.1	64.8	70.7	81.0	63.2	65.0	66.6	56.2
	NPO	70.0	57.0	45.6	68.0	82.7	65.5	69.9	81.2	65.5	68.4	71.2	59.4
	NPO+KL	67.7	60.7	54.2	69.5	83.8	65.6	69.9	83.8	65.5	69.0	67.6	56.1
	RLabel	69.5	4.3	2.8	70.4	80.8	65.3	70.0	80.5	65.3	65.2	72.7	61.1

234 For **continual unlearning**, we evaluate three conditions: (i) the cumulative forget set $\bigcup_t \mathcal{D}_f^{(t)}$,
 235 representing a worst-case adversarial scenario, (ii) the corresponding retain subset $\mathcal{D}_r^{(t)}$, as a proxy for
 236 the data distribution, and (iii) unrelated out-of-distribution data (general-domain samples explicitly
 237 different from \mathcal{D}_f). Each relearning dataset is size-matched to its corresponding unlearning request.
 238

239 **Hyperparameter Configuration.** To comprehensively evaluate the effects of unlearning, we design
 240 multiple hyperparameter configurations that vary both the learning rate and the number of unlearning
 241 requests. For single unlearning we sweep the learning rate over $LR \in \{3, 4, 5\} \times 10^{-6}$ while fixing
 242 the request count to $N = 1$. For continual unlearning we vary both knobs: on the simple task (Yi-6B)
 243 we test $LR \in \{3, 5\} \times 10^{-6} \cup \{3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ with $N \in \{6 \rightarrow 100\}$; on the complex task (Qwen-2.5-7B)
 244 we use $LR \in \{3, 5\} \times 10^{-6}$ and 3×10^{-5} together with $N \in \{6 \rightarrow 100\}$. All runs adopt the
 245 optimizer settings of [38]: AdamW [27] ($\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.95$, $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$), a cosine schedule with
 246 10% warm-up followed by decay to 10% of peak, weight decay 0.1, and gradient clipping at 1.0.
 247

248 3.2 EVALUATION RESULTS

250 We report quantitative results for single and continual unlearning on Yi-6B and Qwen-2.5-7B under
 251 various configurations. Complete results are provided in Appendix Tables 8 and 9.

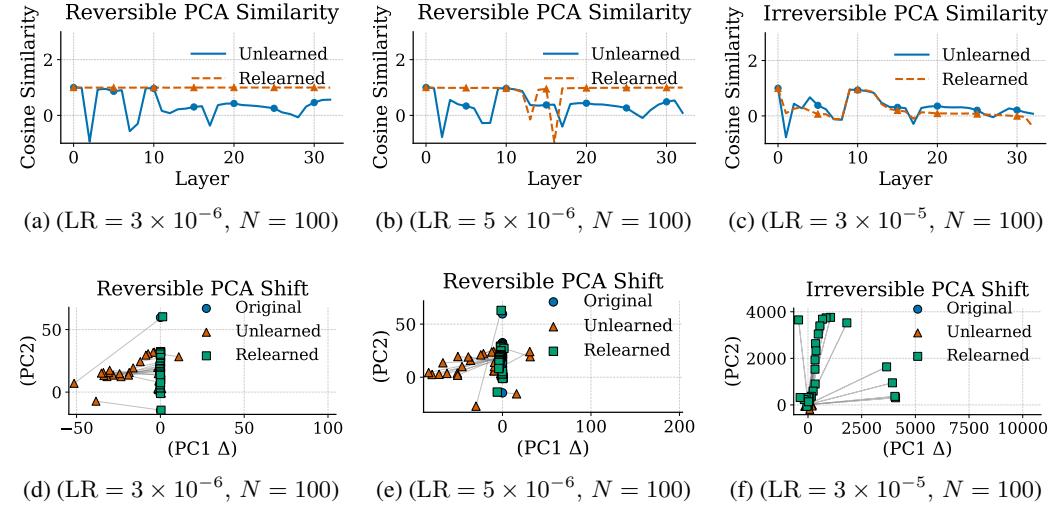
252 **Single Unlearning.** On Yi-6B, all six methods successfully reduce MIA and F.Acc, indicating a
 253 certain degree of forgetting (Table 2). The impact on the retain set is modest, with R.Acc dropping
 254 by only 2–5%. However, relearning often restores original performance; for instance, GA+KL and
 255 RLabel recover R.Acc to approximately 65% and F.Acc above 77%. These findings suggest that
 256 single unlearning achieves superficial forgetting, as the underlying representations remain largely
 257 intact (Section 4.2.1). This outcome characterizes the *reversible, non-catastrophic forgetting* regime.
 258

259 **Continual Unlearning.** Post-relearning analysis (Tables 3, 8, and 9) reveals two forms of reversible
 260 forgetting. In *reversible, catastrophic forgetting*, both utility (e.g., F.Acc, R.Acc) and privacy metrics
 261 drop sharply during unlearning but are fully restored after relearning. This is observed in GA and
 262 RLabel with moderate hyperparameters. Besides, *reversible, non-catastrophic forgetting* entails only
 263 a mild, easily recoverable performance degradation, as seen with NPO at $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$, $N = 6$.
 264

265 Conversely, *irreversible, catastrophic forgetting* occurs when relearning fails to restore utility, leaving
 266 F.Acc and R.Acc low despite partial MIA recovery. This pattern is common for GA and RLabel
 267 under aggressive hyperparameters (e.g., $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$, $N = 100$), where cumulative updates lead
 268 to irreversible representational collapse. The MIA AUC metric behaves erratically in this regime:
 269 it may fall below 50% during unlearning but misleadingly rebounds to high values after relearning,
 even after the model’s capabilities have been permanently lost. These empirical results on single and
 continual unlearning are consistent with the theoretical framework in Section 5, which shows that
 small perturbations to the model weights can trigger disproportionately large drops in accuracy.

270 Table 4: Single and continual unlearning results for GA across four models
271

Single unlearning: Qwen2.5-7B (GA)			Continual unlearning: Qwen3-8B-Base (GA)			Continual unlearning: Llama-3-8B (GA)			Continual unlearning: Qwen2.5-3B (GA)		
	MATH	GSM8K		F.Acc	R.Acc		F.Acc	R.Acc		F.Acc	R.Acc
Original model	9.00	80.10	Original model	78.28	62.96	Original model	76.41	63.50	Original model	76.37	61.39
3×10^{-6} (unlearn)	6.24	73.28	6×10^{-6} (unlearn)	0.45	0.21	6×10^{-6} (unlearn)	0.38	0.48	6×10^{-6} (unlearn)	1.45	2.56
3×10^{-6} (relearn)	8.97	78.29	6×10^{-6} (relearn)	79.72	62.66	6×10^{-6} (relearn)	76.49	63.21	6×10^{-6} (relearn)	79.61	61.45
6×10^{-6} (unlearn)	1.12	30.21	5×10^{-5} (unlearn)	0.02	0.02	5×10^{-5} (unlearn)	0.00	0.00	5×10^{-5} (unlearn)	0.01	0.01
6×10^{-6} (relearn)	8.62	77.63	5×10^{-5} (relearn)	0.03	0.03	5×10^{-5} (relearn)	0.02	0.04	5×10^{-5} (relearn)	3.58	4.27

295 Figure 2: Layer-wise PCA Similarity and Shift for GA on Yi-6B (simple task). Vary LR $\{3 \times 296 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ at $N = 100$. Sustained low similarity or large shifts signal severe, 297 irreversible catastrophic forgetting, whereas partial similarity or small shifts indicate mild, reversible 298 catastrophic forgetting. Input queries are drawn from the forget set.300 We conducted additional single-unlearning experiments on Qwen2.5-7B for the *complex task*, evaluating 301 GA under two learning rates. We also performed continual-unlearning experiments ($N = 100$) 302 on Llama-3-8B [6], Qwen2.5-3B [42], and Qwen3-8B-Base [43] for the *simple task*, again using 303 GA with the same learning-rate settings. As shown in Table 4, the results further suggest that task-level 304 metrics alone are insufficient to reliably assess the true reversibility of unlearning across different 305 settings. The observed behaviors remain consistent with those in Table 3 and Table 2.306
307 4 REPRESENTATION-LEVEL EVALUATION308
309 4.1 REPRESENTATIONAL ANALYSIS TOOLS

311 To analyze representational drift, we employ four hidden state diagnostics, as summarized in Figure 312 1(b). Their precise definitions and implementation details are deferred to Appendix A.3.

313
314 **PCA Similarity, Shift, and Mean Distance.** For each layer i , we collect activation matrices $\mathbf{H}_i^{\text{orig}}$, 315 $\mathbf{H}_i^{\text{unl}}$, and $\mathbf{H}_i^{\text{rel}}$ on a probe set \mathcal{X} for the original, unlearned, and relearned models, respectively. Let 316 $\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{(*)}$ and $p_{i,12}^{(*)}$ be the first principal direction and its mean projection for state $(*) \in \{\text{orig, unl, rel}\}$. 317 PCA Similarity is the cosine between $\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{orig}}$ and $\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{(*)}$, while PCA Shift is the signed difference $p_{i,12}^{(*)}$. 318 Small values for these metrics indicate stable features, whereas large, unrecovered shifts signify 319 irreversible changes [49]. We also introduce the *mean PCA distance*, the average Euclidean distance 320 on $p_{i,12}^{(*)}$ across layers, to provide a single scalar measure of representation drift.321
322 **Centered Kernel Alignment (CKA).** Given centered activation matrices X_i^{orig} and $Y_i^{(*)}$, we compute 323 $\text{CKA}(X_i^{\text{orig}}, Y_i^{(*)}) \in [0, 1]$. Values ≈ 1 mean nearly identical subspaces, those ≈ 0 are orthogonal.324 **Fisher information (FIM).** We estimate the diagonal of the empirical FIM by averaging squared

324 gradients over the probe set \mathcal{X} . Comparing FIM^{orig} , FIM^{unl} , and FIM^{rel} reveals how unlearning
 325 alters the loss landscape and whether relearning restores parameter importance [16; 11].
 326

327 All diagnostics are computed not only on the forget set but also on the retain set and unrelated data to
 328 distinguish targeted unlearning from general representational degradation.

330 4.2 REPRESENTATIONAL RESULTS

331 4.2.1 SINGLE UNLEARNING

333 Figure 3 demonstrates feature-level
 334 changes under single unlearning. (a)
 335 PCA Similarity remains near 1.0 across
 336 all layers, with minor, reversible dips,
 337 indicating that dominant activation di-
 338 rections are preserved. Slight dips in
 339 shallow and final layers are rapidly re-
 340 stored after relearning, suggesting min-
 341 imal and reversible drift. (b) PCA shifts
 342 are minimal, and relearned represen-
 343 tations closely realign with the original.
 344 (c) CKA values are nearly 1.0 for all
 345 model states, confirming that subspace
 346 structures remain intact. (d) FIM spec-
 347 tra show only mild, temporary shifts that
 348 are fully restored after relearning. These
 349 results, combined with the task-level
 350 evaluation in Section 3.2, demon-
 351 strate that single unlearning induces *reversible*,
 352 *non-catastrophic forgetting*. This high-
 353 lights the limitation of classic (task-
 354 level) metrics, which fail to capture the superficial nature of the forgetting.

355 4.2.2 CONTINUAL UNLEARNING

356 As shown in Figures 2 and 5, PCA Similarity and Shift offer complementary views of representational
 357 change: similarity reflects global alignment, and shift is more sensitive to local variations. Relying
 358 on PCA similarity alone can obscure subtle effects; employing both avoids overlooking fine-grained
 359 distinctions, enabling a more comprehensive assessment. Higher learning rates or more requests
 360 cause sharp drops in similarity and large, unrecovered shifts, which is characteristic of *irreversible*
 361 *catastrophic forgetting*. In contrast, milder hyperparameters lead to high similarity and bounded shifts
 362 that are restored after relearning, consistent with *reversible, catastrophic forgetting*. This pattern is
 363 consistent across probe sets from forget set, retain set, and unrelated data (Figures 10 and 14).

364 Figure 4 integrates CKA (top) and FIM (bottom) analyses. CKA reveals that mild unlearning main-
 365 tains stable alignment that recovers post-relearning, while aggressive unlearning causes irreversi-
 366 ble degradation. The FIM spectra complement this by showing that continual unlearning flattens the loss
 367 landscape. Extreme hyperparameters induce a permanent leftward shift in sensitivity distributions,
 368 whereas moderate settings permit recovery. Together, these diagnostics suggest that observed per-
 369 formance loss is often due to temporary suppression rather than permanent erasure of knowledge. For
 370 conciseness, we present results on forget-set queries in the main text; retain-set queries, which yield
 371 similar conclusions under catastrophic forgetting, are in Appendix A.6 (e.g., Figures 12 and 10).

372 **Mean PCA Distance Analysis.** To quantify representation-level drift with a single metric, we use the
 373 *mean PCA distance*. To assess the metric’s sensitivity, we compute its mean and standard deviation
 374 across four random seeds, as well as shuffling the order of unlearning requests. As shown in Table 5,
 375 higher learning rates consistently increase the mean PCA distance for both unlearned and relearned
 376 models. At a low learning rate (e.g., 3×10^{-6}), the mean and variance of the distance remain low
 377 after relearning, indicating stable and reproducible recovery. In contrast, a high learning rate (e.g.,
 378 3×10^{-5}) sharply increases both values, reflecting greater variability and incomplete recovery.

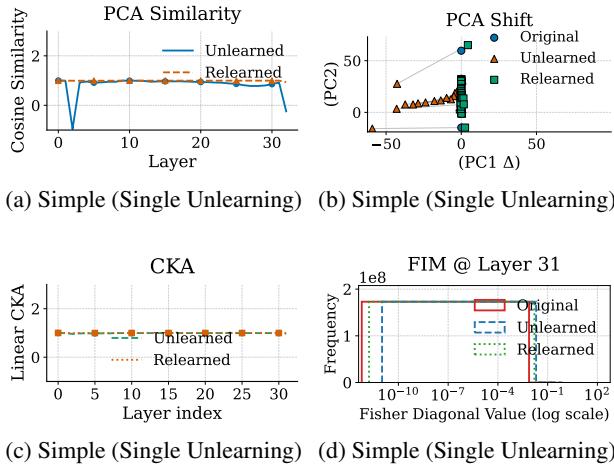


Figure 3: Single unlearning analysis on Yi-6B with GA under a simple task. In reversible non-catastrophic forgetting, PCA Similarity, PCA Shift, CKA, and FIM across layers show only minor changes with slight accuracy drops. Input queries are drawn from the forget set.

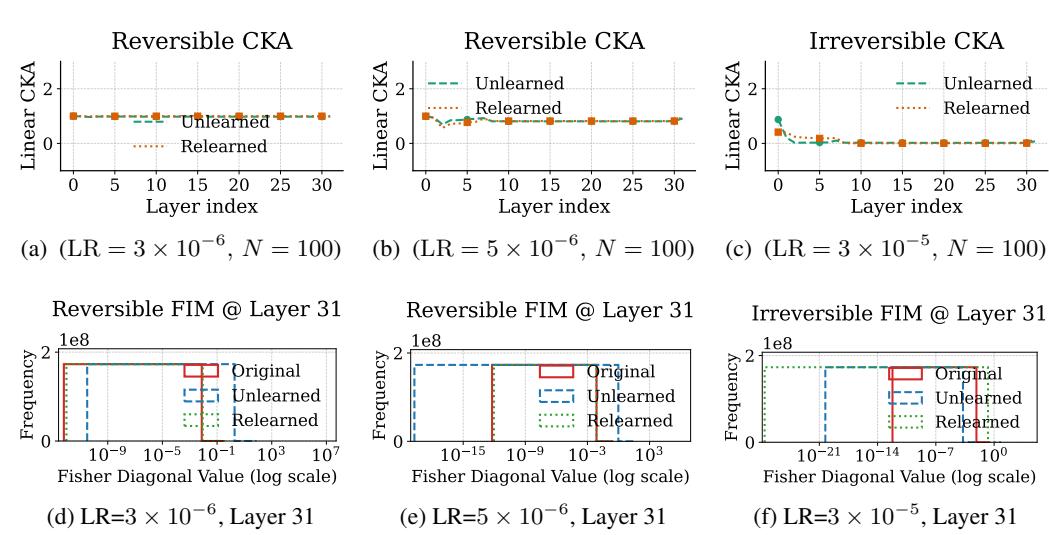


Figure 4: CKA for GA on Yi-6B, simple task. Vary LR $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ with $N = 100$. High CKA (1) and concentrated FIM spectra indicates reversible catastrophic forgetting, while persistently low CKA and large-shifted, flattened spectra denote severe representational drift and irreversible catastrophic forgetting. Input queries are drawn from the forget set.

Table 5: Yi-6B (GA): Mean \pm standard deviation of PCA distance on forget and retain sets across varying learning rates and random seeds; the number of unlearning requests is fixed.

Model	Learning Rate	Phase	Seed	Mean PCA distance (forget set)	Mean PCA distance (retain set)
Yi-6B (GA)	3×10^{-6}	Unlearn	12, 22, 32, 42	9.62 ± 5.66	6.85 ± 4.10
	3×10^{-6}	Relearn	12, 22, 32, 42	2.11 ± 1.42	1.64 ± 1.12
	5×10^{-6}	Unlearn	12, 22, 32, 42	11.52 ± 6.19	8.79 ± 5.20
	5×10^{-6}	Relearn	12, 22, 32, 42	1.37 ± 0.74	1.05 ± 0.58
	3×10^{-5}	Unlearn	12, 22, 32, 42	133.20 ± 45.81	121.45 ± 38.60
	3×10^{-5}	Relearn	12, 22, 32, 42	104.58 ± 39.70	95.34 ± 32.40

Combining these empirical findings with the task-level results in Section 3, we further connect to the theoretical analysis in Section 5, whose conclusions show that small weight perturbations induce only limited changes in the feature space, thereby enabling recovery, whereas larger perturbations accumulate into substantial representational drift that underlies irreversibility.

5 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

5.1 A PERTURBATION MODEL OF UNLEARNING

To explain the empirical distinction between *reversible* and *irreversible* (catastrophic) forgetting, we introduce a perturbation model that links unlearning updates to representational changes across layers. Consider an L -layer feedforward network $f(x) = \sigma(W_L \sigma(\dots \sigma(W_1 x) \dots))$ with activation σ and weights $W_{i=1}^L$. We model unlearning as a layer-wise perturbation $\tilde{W}_i = W_i + E_i$, where the magnitude of the error term, $|E_i| = O(\text{LR}, N)$, scales with the learning rate (LR) and the number of unlearning requests N . A Neumann-series expansion of the network’s output shows that the total change $\tilde{f}(x) - f(x)$ is defined as $\sum_{\emptyset \neq S \subseteq \{1, \dots, L\}} (W_L \circ \dots \circ E_{i_k} \circ \dots \circ W_1)(x)$.

When perturbations are small and localized to a few layers, first-order terms dominate, leading to *reversible* (*catastrophic*) forgetting. In contrast, when comparable perturbations are distributed across many layers, higher-order interaction terms accumulate, causing structural degradation that results in *irreversible* (*catastrophic*) forgetting. We can formalize the impact on our diagnostic tools:

432 Table 6: Yi-6B (GA+GD+WAGLE) performance under different relearning settings. F.Acc/R.Acc
 433 are forget/retain accuracy, with mean PCA distances on the forget and retain sets.

Phase	F.Acc	R.Acc	Mean PCA distance (forget set)	Mean PCA distance (retain set)
Original model	78.9	65.5	0	0
LR=2 × 10 ⁻⁵ , N = 50, relearned by retain set (N = 25)				
Unlearn	37.8	55.9	11.84	6.28
Relearn	46.9	58.3	9.00	5.91
LR=4 × 10 ⁻⁵ , N = 50, relearned by unrelated data (N = 50)				
Unlearn	27.8	51.4	26.02	8.37
Relearn	31.5	53.5	24.56	8.12

432
 433 Table 7: **Relearning on Qwen3-8B-Base and Llama-3-8B (GA+GD+WAGLE) with unrelated data.**
 434 F.Acc/R.Acc is forget/retain accuracy, with mean PCA distances on the forget and retain sets.

Phase	Qwen3-8B-Base (relearned by unrelated data)				Llama-3-8B (relearned by unrelated data)			
	F.Acc	R.Acc	PCA dist (forget)	PCA dist (retain)	F.Acc	R.Acc	PCA dist (forget)	PCA dist (retain)
Original model	78.28	62.96	0.00	0.00	76.41	63.50	0.00	0.00
Relearning by unrelated data (Qwen: LR=5 × 10⁻⁶, N=50; Llama: LR=3 × 10⁻⁶, N=50)								
Unlearn	48.52	56.47	8.49	5.98	42.59	53.47	14.29	7.12
Relearn	53.21	59.16	6.57	4.32	49.78	56.24	11.47	6.21

432
 433 **PCA Similarity.** Let X_i and $Y_i = X_i + E'_i$ be the centered activations at layer i before and after unlearning. By the Davis–Kahan theorem [5], $\cos \angle(\mathbf{c}_i^{\text{orig}}, \mathbf{c}_i^{\text{upd}}) \approx 1 - O(\|E'_i\| / (\lambda_{1,i} - \lambda_{2,i}))$, with top two eigenvalues $\lambda_{1,i}, \lambda_{2,i}$. The layer-averaged PCA similarity is $\bar{S}_{\text{PCA}} \approx 1 - O((1/L) \sum_i \|E'_i\|)$.

434 **PCA Shift.** Along the first principal component, the activation-centroid shift is expressed as $p_{i,12} = O(\|E'_i\|)$. Large perturbations $\|E'_i\|$ propagating across multiple layers lead to *irreversible* representational drift, whereas smaller perturbations remain localized and thus *reversible*.

435 **CKA.** Let $\tilde{K}_{Y_i} = \tilde{K}_{X_i} + \Delta K_i$ denote the perturbed Gram matrix at layer i . The corresponding CKA score is computed as $\text{CKA}_i = 1 - O\left(\|\Delta K_i\|_* / \|\tilde{K}_{X_i}\|_*\right)$. Averaging across layers yields $\bar{C} \approx 1 - O\left(\frac{1}{L} \sum_i \|\Delta K_i\|_*\right)$, where \bar{C} denotes the layer-averaged CKA.

436 **Fisher Information.** Given update $\delta w_i = O(\|E_i\|)$, the Fisher diagonal behaves as $F_{ii}(w + \delta w) = F_{ii}(w) + O(\|\delta w_i\|)$, so the average Fisher becomes $\bar{F} = (1/P) \sum_i F_{ii} = F_0 - O((1/P) \sum_i \|E_i\|)$.

466 5.2 BRIDGING REPRESENTATIONAL DRIFT AND TASK-LEVEL METRICS

467 Classic (task-level) metrics can be misleading. They are highly sensitive to small weights’ changes, particularly in the final layers, which can cause large shifts in output probabilities without altering the model’s deeper representations. For a softmax output, a small perturbation $\delta\theta$ to the model parameters yields a large change in log-probability: $\log p(y|x; \theta + \delta\theta) \approx \log p(y|x; \theta) + \nabla_{\theta} \log p(y|x; \theta)^{\top} \delta\theta + O(\|\delta\theta\|^2)$. A minor update to the logits can dominate this first-order term, causing a sharp drop in accuracy that suggests catastrophic forgetting, even if the underlying geometry is preserved.

468 This aligns our theoretical model with the empirical findings in Sections 3 and 4.2. When LR or N is small, changes are confined to first-order effects, feature spaces remain intact, and forgetting is *reversible*. When LR or N is large, higher-order perturbations accumulate across layers, making recovery impossible and leading to *irreversible* forgetting. Figure 2 illustrates such a transition.

469 Interestingly, relearning can sometimes lead to performance that *exceeds* the original model’s accuracy 470 on the forget set (Table 3). This suggests that unlearning can act as a form of contrastive regularization, 471 reinforcing salient features related to the forgotten data, which a brief relearning can then exploit.

482 5.3 PROBING THE LIMITS OF IRREVERSIBILITY

483 In our primary experiments, we did not observe *irreversible non-catastrophic forgetting*; even a 484 small fraction (e.g., 10%) of the forget set was sufficient to restore performance. To explore this 485 regime, we conducted extra experiments with more constrained relearning conditions. We used the

486 GA+GD+WAGLE method [14], which selectively updates influential parameters, and limited the
 487 relearning data to either (i) 50% of the retain set or (ii) an equal-sized, unrelated dataset (Table 6).
 488

489 Under these conditions, the method exhibited *seemingly irreversible, non-catastrophic forgetting*. The
 490 forget set showed large, unrecoverable PCA distances, while the retain set experienced only modest,
 491 partially recoverable degradation. This demonstrates that achieving the ideal of targeted, permanent
 492 unlearning without collateral damage remains an open challenge. Defining precise thresholds to
 493 distinguish the forgetting regimes (*reversible* vs. *irreversible* and *catastrophic* vs. *non-catastrophic*)
 494 is non-trivial, as they depend on the unlearning method, task complexity, and other factors.
 495

496 To assess generality, we apply GA+GD+WAGLE to Qwen3-8B-Base and Llama-3-8B, using an unre-
 497 lated dataset for the relearning phase. Table 7 again shows *seemingly irreversible yet non-catastrophic*
 498 *forgetting*. We further find model-family differences in hyperparameter sensitivity when reaching
 499 comparable behavioral regimes. Such sensitivity likely shapes the boundary between reversible and
 500 irreversible forgetting and may guide future work on stable, irreversible, non-catastrophic unlearning.
 501

6 DISCUSSION AND TAKEAWAYS

502 Beyond the diagnostic toolkit that identifies four regimes, representation-level signals provide a
 503 foundation for understanding, predicting, and guiding unlearning behaviour and also uncover the
 504 surprising possibility that unlearning can enhance performance rather than merely erase information.
 505

506 **(1) Diagnostic metrics reliably predict reversibility under a fixed protocol.** Given a bounded
 507 relearning budget and fixed data source, large layer-wise PCA shifts and high mean PCA distance
 508 consistently predict recovery failure, whereas high CKA and concentrated Fisher spectra indicate
 509 reversibility. These thresholds remain stable across models, datasets, and unlearning methods.
 510

511 **(2) Practical guidance for controlling unlearning behavior.** Practitioners can track mean PCA
 512 distance and CKA during unlearning to identify when to stop or adjust learning-rate and request
 513 budgets before entering irreversible collapse. Drift metrics help tune learning-rate schedules and
 514 request counts to deliberately target reversible or irreversible regimes. Fisher shifts and layer-wise drift
 515 localize which layers can be safely updated while preserving retain-set and unrelated representations.
 516

517 **(3) Unlearning can enhance performance rather than merely erase information.** In several
 518 continual-unlearning runs, relearning on the forget set achieves accuracy that exceeds the original
 519 model. This indicates that unlearning behaves not only as a deletion mechanism but also as an
 520 implicit form of contrastive regularization. As discussed in Section 5, unlearning amplifies forget-
 521 specific subspaces, and relearning on augmented variants strengthens semantic structure and improves
 522 robustness, reorganizing representations toward more generalizable patterns.
 523

7 CONCLUSION

525 This work demonstrates that class (task-level) evaluations of LLM unlearning are insufficient, as
 526 performance collapse often masks the reversibility of forgetting. Models may appear to have erased
 527 data while their internal representations remain intact and easily recoverable. Our representation-level
 528 toolkit reveals that genuine forgetting requires substantial, coordinated weight perturbations. Minor
 529 updates often create only a superficial, reversible effect. We find that achieving the ideal goal of
 530 irreversible, non-catastrophic forgetting remains an open challenge, exposing a fundamental limitation
 531 in current methods. Our findings call for a shift in evaluation, moving beyond surface-level metrics
 532 to protocols that measure true representational change. This is essential for developing unlearning
 533 algorithms that can provide meaningful and trustworthy guarantees of data removal.
 534

535 REFERENCES

537 [1] Fazl Barez, Tingchen Fu, Ameya Prabhu, Stephen Casper, Amartya Sanyal, Adel Bibi, Aidan
 538 O’Gara, Robert Kirk, Ben Bucknall, Tim Fist, Luke Ong, Philip Torr, Kwok-Yan Lam, Robert
 539 Trager, David Krueger, Sören Mindermann, José Hernández-Orallo, Mor Geva, and Yarin Gal.
 Open problems in machine unlearning for AI safety. arXiv:2501.04952, 2025.

540 [2] Lucas Bourtoule, Varun Chandrasekaran, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Hengrui Jia, Adelin
 541 Travers, Baiwu Zhang, David Lie, and Nicolas Papernot. Machine unlearning. In *S&P*, pp.
 542 141–159, 2021.

543 [3] Sungmin Cha, Sungjun Cho, Dasol Hwang, and Moontae Lee. Towards robust and cost-efficient
 544 knowledge unlearning for large language models. In *ICLR*, 2025.

545 [4] Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser,
 546 Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John
 547 Schulman. Training verifiers to solve math word problems. arXiv:2110.14168, 2021.

548 [5] Chandler Davis and William Morton Kahan. The rotation of eigenvectors by a perturbation. iii.
 549 *SIAM Journal on Numerical Analysis*, 7(1):1–46, 1970.

550 [6] Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle,
 551 Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, Anirudh Goyal, Anthony
 552 Hartshorn, Aobo Yang, Archi Mitra, Archie Sravankumar, Artem Korenev, Arthur Hinsvark,
 553 Arun Rao, Aston Zhang, Aurélien Rodriguez, Austen Gregerson, Ava Spataru, Baptiste Rozière,
 554 Bethany Biron, Binh Tang, Bobbie Chern, Charlotte Caucheteux, Chaya Nayak, Chloe Bi,
 555 Chris Marra, Chris McConnell, Christian Keller, Christophe Touret, Chunyang Wu, Corinne
 556 Wong, Cristian Canton Ferrer, Cyrus Nikolaidis, Damien Allonsius, Daniel Song, Danielle
 557 Pintz, Danny Livshits, David Esiobu, Dhruv Choudhary, Dhruv Mahajan, Diego Garcia-Olano,
 558 Diego Perino, Dieuwke Hupkes, Egor Lakomkin, Ehab AlBadawy, Elina Lobanova, Emily
 559 Dinan, Eric Michael Smith, Filip Radenovic, Frank Zhang, Gabriel Synnaeve, Gabrielle Lee,
 560 Georgia Lewis Anderson, Graeme Nail, Grégoire Mialon, Guan Pang, Guillem Cucurell,
 561 Hailey Nguyen, Hannah Korevaar, Hu Xu, Hugo Touvron, Iliyan Zarov, Imanol Arrieta Ibarra,
 562 Isabel M. Kloumann, Ishan Misra, Ivan Evtimov, Jade Copet, Jaewon Lee, Jan Geffert, Jana
 563 Vranes, Jason Park, Jay Mahadeokar, Jeet Shah, Jelmer van der Linde, Jennifer Billock, Jenny
 564 Hong, Jenya Lee, Jeremy Fu, Jianfeng Chi, Jianyu Huang, Jiawen Liu, Jie Wang, Jiecao Yu,
 565 Joanna Bitton, Joe Spisak, Jongsoo Park, Joseph Rocca, Joshua Johnstun, Joshua Saxe, Junteng
 566 Jia, Kalyan Vasuden Alwala, Kartikeya Upasani, Kate Plawiak, Ke Li, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin
 567 Stone, and et al. The llama 3 herd of models. arXiv:2407.21783, 2024.

568 [7] Rohit Gandikota, Sheridan Feucht, Samuel Marks, and David Bau. Erasing conceptual knowl-
 569 edge from language models. arXiv:2410.02760, 2024.

570 [8] Chongyang Gao, Lixu Wang, Kaize Ding, Chenkai Weng, Xiao Wang, and Qi Zhu. On large
 571 language model continual unlearning. In *ICLR*, 2025.

572 [9] Antonio Ginart, Melody Y. Guan, Gregory Valiant, and James Zou. Making AI forget you: Data
 573 deletion in machine learning. In *NeurIPS*, pp. 3513–3526, 2019.

574 [10] Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Saurav Kadavath, Akul Arora, Steven Basart, Eric Tang, Dawn
 575 Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. Measuring mathematical problem solving with the MATH dataset.
 576 In *NeurIPS Datasets and Benchmarks*, 2021.

577 [11] Yen-Chang Hsu, Ting Hua, Sungen Chang, Qian Lou, Yilin Shen, and Hongxia Jin. Language
 578 model compression with weighted low-rank factorization. In *ICLR*, 2022.

579 [12] Edward J. Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang,
 580 Lu Wang, and Weizhu Chen. Lora: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. In *ICLR*,
 581 2022.

582 [13] Joel Jang, Dongkeun Yoon, Sohee Yang, Sungmin Cha, Moontae Lee, Lajanugen Logeswaran,
 583 and Minjoon Seo. Knowledge unlearning for mitigating privacy risks in language models. In
 584 *ACL*, pp. 14389–14408, 2023.

585 [14] Jinghan Jia, Jiancheng Liu, Yihua Zhang, Parikshit Ram, Nathalie Baracaldo, and Sijia Liu.
 586 WAGLE: strategic weight attribution for effective and modular unlearning in large language
 587 models. In *NeurIPS*, 2024.

588 [15] Antonia Karamolegkou, Jiaang Li, Li Zhou, and Anders Søgaard. Copyright violations and
 589 large language models. In *EMNLP*, pp. 7403–7412, 2023.

594 [16] James Kirkpatrick, Razvan Pascanu, Neil C. Rabinowitz, Joel Veness, Guillaume Desjardins, An-
 595 andrei A. Rusu, Kieran Milan, John Quan, Tiago Ramalho, Agnieszka Grabska-Barwinska, Demis
 596 Hassabis, Claudia Clopath, Dharshan Kumaran, and Raia Hadsell. Overcoming catastrophic
 597 forgetting in neural networks. arXiv:1612.00796, 2016.

598 [17] Simon Kornblith, Mohammad Norouzi, Honglak Lee, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Similarity of
 599 neural network representations revisited. In *ICML*, pp. 3519–3529, 2019.

600 [18] Dohyun Lee, Daniel Rim, Minseok Choi, and Jaegul Choo. Protecting privacy through ap-
 601 proximating optimal parameters for sequence unlearning in language models. In *ACL*, pp.
 602 15820–15839, 2024.

603 [19] Jia LI, Edward Beeching, Lewis Tunstall, Ben Lipkin, Roman Soletskyi, Shengyi Costa
 604 Huang, Kashif Rasul, Longhui Yu, Albert Jiang, Ziju Shen, Zihan Qin, Bin
 605 Dong, Li Zhou, Yann Fleureau, Guillaume Lample, and Stanislas Polu. Numi-
 606 namath. [https://huggingface.co/AI-MO/NuminaMath-1.5] (https://
 607 //github.com/project-numina/aimo-progress-prize/blob/main/
 608 report/numina_dataset.pdf), 2024.

609 [20] Jiaqi Li, Qianshan Wei, Chuanyi Zhang, Guilin Qi, MiaoZeng Du, Yongrui Chen, Sheng Bi, and
 610 Fan Liu. Single image unlearning: Efficient machine unlearning in multimodal large language
 611 models. In *NeurIPS*, 2024.

612 [21] Nathaniel Li, Alexander Pan, Anjali Gopal, Summer Yue, Daniel Berrios, Alice Gatti, Justin D.
 613 Li, Ann-Kathrin Dombrowski, Shashwat Goel, Gabriel Mukobi, Nathan Helm-Burger, Rassin
 614 Lababidi, Lennart Justen, Andrew B. Liu, Michael Chen, Isabelle Barrass, Oliver Zhang,
 615 Xiaoyuan Zhu, Rishabh Tamirisa, Bhrugu Bharathi, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Cort B. Breuer, Andy
 616 Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Zifan Wang, Palash Oswal, Weiran Lin, Adam A. Hunt, Justin Tienken-
 617 Harder, Kevin Y. Shih, Kemper Talley, John Guan, Ian Stenecker, David Campbell, Brad
 618 Jokubaitis, Steven Basart, Stephen Fitz, Ponnurangam Kumaraguru, Kallol Krishna Karmakar,
 619 Uday Kiran Tupakula, Vijay Varadharajan, Yan Shoshitaishvili, Jimmy Ba, Kevin M. Esvelt,
 620 Alexandr Wang, and Dan Hendrycks. The WMDP benchmark: Measuring and reducing
 621 malicious use with unlearning. In *ICML*, 2024.

622 [22] Zexi Li, Xiangzhu Wang, William F. Shen, Meghdad Kurmanji, Xinchi Qiu, Dongqi Cai, Chao
 623 Wu, and Nicholas D. Lane. Editing as unlearning: Are knowledge editing methods strong
 624 baselines for large language model unlearning? arXiv:2505.19855, 2025.

625 [23] Zitong Li, Qingqing Ye, and Haibo Hu. Funu: Boosting machine unlearning efficiency by
 626 filtering unnecessary unlearning. arXiv:2501.16614, 2025.

627 [24] Chris Yuhao Liu, Yaxuan Wang, Jeffrey Flanigan, and Yang Liu. Large language model
 628 unlearning via embedding-corrupted prompts. In *NeurIPS*, 2024.

629 [25] Yi Liu, Gelei Deng, Zhengzi Xu, Yuekang Li, Yaowen Zheng, Ying Zhang, Lida Zhao, Tianwei
 630 Zhang, and Yang Liu. Jailbreaking chatgpt via prompt engineering: An empirical study.
 631 arXiv:2305.13860, 2023.

632 [26] Michelle Lo, Fazl Barez, and Shay B. Cohen. Large language models relearn removed concepts.
 633 In *Findings of ACL*, pp. 8306–8323, 2024.

634 [27] Ilya Loshchilov and Frank Hutter. Decoupled weight decay regularization. In *ICLR*, 2019.

635 [28] Aengus Lynch, Phillip Guo, Aidan Ewart, Stephen Casper, and Dylan Hadfield-Menell. Eight
 636 methods to evaluate robust unlearning in llms. arXiv:2402.16835, 2024.

637 [29] Pratyush Maini, Zhili Feng, Avi Schwarzschild, Zachary C. Lipton, and J. Zico Kolter. TOFU:
 638 A task of fictitious unlearning for llms. In *COLM*, 2024.

639 [30] Milad Nasr, Nicholas Carlini, Jonathan Hayase, Matthew Jagielski, A. Feder Cooper, Daphne
 640 Ippolito, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Eric Wallace, Florian Tramèr, and Katherine Lee.
 641 Scalable extraction of training data from (production) language models. arXiv:2311.17035,
 642 2023.

648 [31] Vaidehi Patil, Peter Hase, and Mohit Bansal. Can sensitive information be deleted from llms?
649 objectives for defending against extraction attacks. In *ICLR*, 2024.

650

651 [32] Martin Pawelczyk, Seth Neel, and Himabindu Lakkaraju. In-context unlearning: Language
652 models as few-shot unlearners. In *ICML*, 2024.

653

654 [33] Maithra Raghu, Justin Gilmer, Jason Yosinski, and Jascha Sohl-Dickstein. SVCCA: singular
655 vector canonical correlation analysis for deep learning dynamics and interpretability. In *NeurIPS*,
656 pp. 6076–6085, 2017.

657

658 [34] Keivan Rezaei, Khyathi Raghavi Chandu, Soheil Feizi, Yejin Choi, Faeze Brahman, and
659 Abhilasha Ravichander. RESTOR: knowledge recovery in machine unlearning. *Trans. Mach.
660 Learn. Res.*, 2025, 2025.

661

662 [35] Weijia Shi, Anirudh Ajith, Mengzhou Xia, Yangsibo Huang, Daogao Liu, Terra Blevins, Danqi
663 Chen, and Luke Zettlemoyer. Detecting pretraining data from large language models. In *ICLR*,
664 2024.

665

666 [36] Weijia Shi, Jaechan Lee, Yangsibo Huang, Sadhika Malladi, Jieyu Zhao, Ari Holtzman, Daogao
667 Liu, Luke Zettlemoyer, Noah A. Smith, and Chiyuan Zhang. MUSE: machine unlearning
668 six-way evaluation for language models. In *ICLR*, 2025.

669

670 [37] Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. Commonsenseqa: A
671 question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. In *NAACL*, pp. 4149–4158,
672 2019.

673

674 [38] Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei,
675 Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, Dan Bikel, Lukas
676 Blecher, Cristian Canton-Ferrer, Moya Chen, Guillem Cucurull, David Esiobu, Jude Fernandes,
677 Jeremy Fu, Wenyin Fu, Brian Fuller, Cynthia Gao, Vedanuj Goswami, Naman Goyal, Anthony
678 Hartshorn, Saghar Hosseini, Rui Hou, Hakan Inan, Marcin Kardas, Viktor Kerkez, Madian
679 Khabsa, Isabel Kloumann, Artem Korenev, Punit Singh Koura, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Thibaut
680 Lavril, Jenya Lee, Diana Liskovich, Yinghai Lu, Yuning Mao, Xavier Martinet, Todor Mihaylov,
681 Pushkar Mishra, Igor Molybog, Yixin Nie, Andrew Poulton, Jeremy Reizenstein, Rashi Rungta,
682 Kalyan Saladi, Alan Schelten, Ruan Silva, Eric Michael Smith, Ranjan Subramanian, Xiao-
683 qing Ellen Tan, Bin Tang, Ross Taylor, Adina Williams, Jian Xiang Kuan, Puxin Xu, Zheng
684 Yan, Iliyan Zarov, Yuchen Zhang, Angela Fan, Melanie Kambadur, Sharan Narang, Aurélien
685 Rodriguez, Robert Stojnic, Sergey Edunov, and Thomas Scialom. Llama 2: Open foundation
686 and fine-tuned chat models. arXiv:2307.09288, 2023.

687

688 [39] Jiaxin Wen, Pei Ke, Hao Sun, Zhixin Zhang, Chengfei Li, Jinfeng Bai, and Minlie Huang.
689 Unveiling the implicit toxicity in large language models. In *EMNLP*, pp. 1322–1338, 2023.

690

691 [40] Abudukelimu Wuerkaixi, Qizhou Wang, Sen Cui, Wutong Xu, Bo Han, Gang Niu, Masashi
692 Sugiyama, and Changshui Zhang. Adaptive localization of knowledge negation for continual
693 llm unlearning. In *ICML*, 2025.

694

695 [41] Xiaoyu Xu, Minxin Du, Qingqing Ye, and Haibo Hu. Obliviate: Robust and practical machine
696 unlearning for large language models. In *EMNLP*, 2025.

697

698 [42] An Yang, Baosong Yang, Beichen Zhang, Binyuan Hui, Bo Zheng, Bowen Yu, Chengyuan
699 Li, Dayiheng Liu, Fei Huang, Haoran Wei, Huan Lin, Jian Yang, Jianhong Tu, Jianwei Zhang,
700 Jianxin Yang, Jiaxi Yang, Jingren Zhou, Junyang Lin, Kai Dang, Keming Lu, Keqin Bao,
701 Kexin Yang, Le Yu, Mei Li, Mingfeng Xue, Pei Zhang, Qin Zhu, Rui Men, Runji Lin, Tian-
702 hao Li, Tingyu Xia, Xingzhang Ren, Xuancheng Ren, Yang Fan, Yang Su, Yichang Zhang,
703 Yu Wan, Yuqiong Liu, Zeyu Cui, Zhenru Zhang, and Zihan Qiu. Qwen2.5 technical report.
704 arXiv:2412.15115, 2024.

705

706 [43] An Yang, Anfeng Li, Baosong Yang, Beichen Zhang, Binyuan Hui, Bo Zheng, Bowen Yu,
707 Chang Gao, Chengan Huang, Chenxu Lv, Chujie Zheng, Dayiheng Liu, Fan Zhou, Fei Huang,
708 Feng Hu, Hao Ge, Haoran Wei, Huan Lin, Jialong Tang, Jian Yang, Jianhong Tu, Jianwei Zhang,
709 Jianxin Yang, Jiaxin Yang, Jingren Zhou, Jingren Zhou, Junyan Lin, Kai Dang, Keqin Bao,

702 Ke-Pei Yang, Le Yu, Li-Chun Deng, Mei Li, Min Xue, Mingze Li, Pei Zhang, Peng Wang, Qin
 703 Zhu, Rui Men, Ruize Gao, Shi-Qiang Liu, Shuang Luo, Tianhao Li, Tianyi Tang, Wenbiao Yin,
 704 Xingzhang Ren, Xinyu Wang, Xinyu Zhang, Xuancheng Ren, Yang Fan, Yang Su, Yi-Chao
 705 Zhang, Yingger Zhang, Yu Wan, Yuqiong Liu, Zekun Wang, Zeyu Cui, Zhenru Zhang, Zhipeng
 706 Zhou, and Zihan Qiu. Qwen3 technical report. arXiv:2505.09388, 2025.

707 [44] Jin Yao, Eli Chien, Minxin Du, Xinyao Niu, Tianhao Wang, Zezhou Cheng, and Xiang Yue.
 708 Machine unlearning of pre-trained large language models. In *ACL*, pp. 8403–8419, 2024.

709 [45] Alex Young, Bei Chen, Chao Li, Chengan Huang, Ge Zhang, Guanwei Zhang, Heng Li,
 710 Jiangcheng Zhu, Jianqun Chen, Jing Chang, Kaidong Yu, Peng Liu, Qiang Liu, Shawn Yue,
 711 Senbin Yang, Shiming Yang, Tao Yu, Wen Xie, Wenhao Huang, Xiaohui Hu, Xiaoyi Ren,
 712 Xinyao Niu, Pengcheng Nie, Yuchi Xu, Yudong Liu, Yue Wang, Yuxuan Cai, Zhenyu Gu,
 713 Zhiyuan Liu, and Zonghong Dai. Yi: Open foundation models by 01.ai. arXiv:2403.04652,
 714 2024.

715 [46] Xiaojian Yuan, Tianyu Pang, Chao Du, Kejiang Chen, Weiming Zhang, and Min Lin. A closer
 716 look at machine unlearning for large language models. In *ICLR*, 2025.

717 [47] Ruiqi Zhang, Licong Lin, Yu Bai, and Song Mei. Negative preference optimization: From
 718 catastrophic collapse to effective unlearning. arXiv:2404.05868, 2024.

719 [48] Zhiwei Zhang, Fali Wang, Xiaomin Li, Zongyu Wu, Xianfeng Tang, Hui Liu, Qi He, Wenpeng
 720 Yin, and Suhang Wang. Catastrophic failure of LLM unlearning via quantization. In *ICLR*,
 721 2025.

722 [49] Junhao Zheng, Xidi Cai, Shengjie Qiu, and Qianli Ma. Spurious forgetting in continual learning
 723 of language models. In *ICLR*, 2025.

724 [50] Andy Zou, Zifan Wang, J. Zico Kolter, and Matt Fredrikson. Universal and transferable
 725 adversarial attacks on aligned language models. arXiv:2307.15043, 2023.

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

756 **A APPENDIX**
757758 **A.1 LIMITATIONS**
759760 Our experiments target two LLMs and a handful of tasks and unlearning methods; although our
761 diagnostic framework is model-agnostic and designed to scale, empirical validation on much larger
762 models and production-scale pipelines remains to be done. The constrained relearning protocol and
763 selected metrics provide clear insights into representational drift but are not exhaustive and do not
764 offer formal privacy guarantees. In this work, we primarily relied on four diagnostic tools—PCA
765 similarity, PCA shift, CKA, and Fisher information—to capture different aspects of representational
766 drift. Other feature-level methods, such as correlation-based approaches (e.g., SVCCA [33]), offer
767 similar perspectives on subspace similarity. Incorporating a broader suite of analytic tools is an
768 important direction for future work.
769770 **A.2 RELATED WORK**
771772 **Machine Unlearning.** Machine unlearning has emerged as a critical direction for addressing
773 privacy, safety, and bias in large language models (LLMs) [44; 13; 32; 21; 24; 8; 36; 41; 48; 46;
774 40; 2]. It is typically defined as either *exact* or *approximate* [2]. Exact unlearning requires the
775 resulting model to be indistinguishable from one retrained from scratch on the retain set, fully
776 eliminating any statistical trace of the forget set. Approximate unlearning relaxes this requirement
777 to distributional or behavioral similarity, demanding only comparable outputs (e.g., perplexity or
778 forget-set accuracy) between unlearned and retrained models [29; 36]. For modern LLMs, however,
779 exact unlearning is computationally infeasible, as full retraining or partition-based schemes scale
poorly [2]. Consequently, approximate methods dominate practice in LLMs.
780781 **Single-Shot Unlearning.** Most existing approaches are designed for single deletion events.
782 Gradient-based strategies (e.g., GA) enforce forgetting directly but often incur significant util-
783 ity loss [44]. Recent advances such as WAGLE augment these methods with weight attribution
784 (e.g., GA+GD+WAGLE), selectively updating the most influential parameters to enhance forgetting
785 efficacy while mitigating utility degradation [14]. Prompt-based steering avoids parameter updates,
786 reducing cost, but typically achieves only superficial forgetting with vulnerability to reactivation [24].
787 Model-editing methods, such as AlphaEdit [22], are lightweight and potentially robust, yet their
788 behavior under sequential or heterogeneous requests remains underexplored.
789790 **Continual Unlearning.** When unlearning requests arrive sequentially, naive extensions of single-
791 shot methods tend to compound damage, leading to catastrophic forgetting and unstable dynamics [1;
792 36]. Each request operates on an already modified model, magnifying utility loss. Recent work has
793 attempted to mitigate this through orthogonal updates (e.g., LoRA-based unlearning [12]) and OOD
794 detectors. ALKN [40] advances this line by providing a principled framework for continual unlearning,
795 introducing parameter-level interventions and adaptive modules to counteract accumulative decline.
796797 **Evaluations.** Evaluating unlearning efficacy remains an open challenge. Existing studies rely on
798 three main classes of metrics. First, *classic (task-level) metrics* such as accuracy, perplexity [44; 21]
799 are widely used but can be misleading, since performance degradation does not guarantee removal
800 of knowledge. Second, *memorization probes* [18] assess verbatim recall, offering finer granularity
801 but failing to capture semantic or paraphrased knowledge. Third, robustness-based evaluations
802 examine vulnerabilities to *jailbreaking* [50; 25], *relearning attacks* [26], *prompt attack* [31] and
803 even *quantization attacks* [48]. For *quantization attacks*, low-bit compression restores forget-set
804 behavior without direct access to the forget. Lastly, RESTOR [34] evaluates whether an unlearning
805 algorithm can both remove the influence of the forget set and restore the model to the parameter state
806 it would have had if those datapoints had never been included in training. While existing approaches
807 expose weaknesses in reversibility, they often conflate forgetting with class task-level degradation
808 and lack structural insight. Our representation-level toolkit closes this gap by jointly diagnosing
809 *reversibility* and *catastrophicity*, yielding a more faithful understanding of what is truly forgotten.
We apply this toolkit to both single unlearning and continual unlearning, the latter of which has not
been systematically investigated despite being a more realistic scenario where deletion requests arrive
sequentially over a model’s lifecycle.
810

810 A.3 DETAILED ANALYSIS TOOLS
811812 **PCA Similarity and PCA Shift.** For each Transformer layer, we perform PCA on the hidden
813 activations of the *original* and *updated* models. Let $\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{orig}}$ and $\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{upd}}$ denote the first principal component
814 (PC1) directions of layer i . The *PCA Similarity* is defined as

815
$$\text{PCA-Sim}(i) = \cos(\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{orig}}, \mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{upd}}) = \frac{(\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{orig}})^\top \mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{upd}}}{\|\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{orig}}\| \|\mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{upd}}\|} \in [-1, 1],$$

816
817

818 where values near 1 indicate stable directional alignment, and values near -1 suggest a near-
819 orthogonal shift in dominant directions.
820821 To capture translational drift, we also compute the mean projection of activations along PC1 and PC2:
822

823
$$PC1 \Delta(i) = \mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{upd}} - \mathbf{c}_{i,1}^{\text{orig}}, \quad PC2(i) = \mathbf{c}_{i,2}^{\text{upd}}, \quad p_{i,12} = (PC1 \Delta(i), PC2(i))$$

824 where $p_{i,12}$ quantifies displacement along PC1 and captures orthogonal deviation along PC2. These
825 metrics reflect how the representation center drifts within the top subspace.
826

826 **Centered Kernel Alignment (CKA).** To assess subspace alignment, we use linear Centered Kernel
827 Alignment (CKA) [17], which compares activation matrices $X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ from before and after
828 unlearning. First, we compute the centered Gram matrices:
829

830
$$\tilde{K}_X = H X X^\top H, \quad \tilde{K}_Y = H Y Y^\top H, \quad H = I_N - \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^\top.$$

831

832 The CKA score is then given by:
833

834
$$\text{CKA}(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Tr}(\tilde{K}_X \tilde{K}_Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Tr}(\tilde{K}_X^2)} \sqrt{\text{Tr}(\tilde{K}_Y^2)}} \in [0, 1],$$

835

836 where values near 1 indicate highly overlapping subspaces, and values near 0 signal near-
837 orthogonality.
838838 **Fisher Information.** To measure parameter-level importance, we compute the diagonal of the
839 empirical Fisher Information Matrix (FIM). For each parameter w_i and input distribution \mathcal{D}_{dis} , the
840 diagonal entry is approximated as:
841

842
$$\text{FIM}_{ii} \approx \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, y) \sim \mathcal{D}_{\text{dis}}} \left[(\partial_{w_i} \log p(y | \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}))^2 \right].$$

843

844 Larger values indicate that w_i has a stronger influence on the model’s predictions. A substantial
845 leftward shift in the Fisher spectrum after unlearning implies a flattened loss landscape and diminished
846 parameter sensitivity.
847847 Together, these tools form a feature-space diagnostic suite: FIM captures global sensitivity, CKA
848 measures subspace preservation, and PCA-based metrics expose fine-grained geometric drift across
849 layers—enabling a robust assessment of representational degradation during unlearning.
850851 A.4 DIFFERENT TYPES OF RELEARNING AND SAMPLE EFFICIENCY
852

853 A.4.1 DIFFERENT TYPES OF RELEARNING

854 Beyond standard relearning, we further evaluated the unlearned Yi-6B model (GA-based setup) under
855 four alternative recovery strategies: quantization attacks [48], prompt attacks [31], jailbreaking [25],
856 and in-context recovery. For quantization, we applied Int4 quantization directly to the unlearned
857 model. For the other methods, which do not modify parameters, we adapted inputs to interface with
858 our PCA analysis: *prompt attack* used paraphrased variants of the original inputs; *jailbreak attack*
859 prepended the fixed prefix from [25]; *in-context recovery* supplied five demonstrations from the forget
860 set before evaluating the original inputs.861 As shown in Table 11, none of these recovery strategies restore the forgotten knowledge. Once the
862 model enters the regime of reversible catastrophic forgetting, methods that do not explicitly update
863 parameters or introduce only minor perturbations (quantization) fail to recover lost representations.
864 This demonstrates that explicit relearning is necessary to reverse this particular forgetting state.

864
 865
 866
 867
 868 Table 8: **Yi-6B simple-task metrics under four (LR, N) settings.** For each block: forget/retain per-
 869 perplexity (F.Ppl / R.Ppl), forget/retain accuracy (F.Acc / R.Acc), CommonsenseQA (CSQA),
 870 GSM8K, and membership-inference AUC (MIA).

Phase	Method	F.Ppl	R.Ppl	F.Acc	R.Acc	CSQA	GSM8K	MIA
LR=3 × 10 ⁻⁵ , N = 100								
Original	—	3.8	7.8	78.9	65.5	73.1	39.6	70.9
Unlearn	GA	∞	∞	0.0	0.0	19.3	0.0	26.1
	GA+GD	∞	∞	9.7	2.3	19.7	0.0	16.8
	GA+KL	∞	∞	9.0	6.2	19.6	0.0	17.8
	NPO	31296.5	597.9	37.8	37.9	62.2	1.0	60.1
	NPO+KL	348080.2	4482.0	64.3	55.9	64.9	1.4	59.0
	Rlable	63791.7	65903.4	0.0	0.0	20.9	0.0	65.1
Relearn	GA	137094.5	758443.5	2.1	1.8	19.7	0.0	74.5
	GA+GD	5274.5	9568.6	2.2	2.6	19.6	0.0	68.1
	GA+KL	5037.1	15019.9	1.7	1.6	20.6	0.0	70.7
	NPO	16.6	41.7	57.0	45.6	51.8	0.6	70.0
	NPO+KL	21.8	16.2	60.7	54.3	48.0	0.9	67.7
	Rlable	4056.1	15048.6	4.3	2.8	19.7	0.0	69.5
LR=5 × 10 ⁻⁶ , N = 100								
Unlearn	GA	∞	∞	9.1	6.2	19.6	0.0	23.2
	GA+GD	∞	∞	3.6	3.1	24.5	0.0	28.7
	GA+KL	∞	∞	9.1	6.2	19.6	0.0	27.3
	NPO	3017.7	1110.6	50.1	52.3	72.9	37.5	50.6
	NPO+KL	38.5	232.4	77.6	64.3	73.1	37.6	65.4
	Rlable	57035.4	53377.1	0.1	0.4	19.1	0.0	63.6
Relearn	GA	3.7	7.8	80.0	64.9	70.2	39.9	68.0
	GA+GD	3.6	7.6	81.2	65.1	72.1	39.0	69.8
	GA+KL	3.6	8.4	81.1	64.8	71.6	40.7	68.3
	NPO	3.5	7.6	82.7	65.5	74.0	39.7	68.0
	NPO+KL	3.5	7.8	83.8	65.6	74.1	39.7	69.5
	Rlable	3.6	7.7	80.8	65.3	71.8	39.2	70.3
LR=3 × 10 ⁻⁶ , N = 100								
Unlearn	GA	∞	∞	16.8	14.4	69.5	12.3	25.2
	GA+GD	3.3	7.6	78.8	65.5	77.0	37.5	69.4
	GA+KL	∞	∞	35.4	40.6	63.2	18.3	18.9
	NPO	3.7	7.9	78.3	65.0	73.3	38.7	68.4
	NPO+KL	3.8	8.1	78.4	65.1	73.6	38.6	66.7
	Rlable	36794.7	32562.0	3.8	3.2	19.3	2.2	61.4
Relearn	GA	3.7	7.6	80.8	65.2	73.4	39.9	68.6
	GA+GD	3.6	7.4	81.8	65.5	72.1	39.0	70.0
	GA+KL	3.6	10.3	81.0	63.3	67.2	40.7	70.7
	NPO	3.5	7.5	81.2	65.4	72.9	39.7	69.9
	NPO+KL	3.5	7.5	83.8	65.5	73.0	39.7	69.9
	Rlable	3.6	7.6	80.5	65.3	72.2	39.2	70.0
LR=3 × 10 ⁻⁵ , N = 6								
Unlearn	GA	inf	inf	36.3	36.1	69.1	5.8	29.6
	GA+GD	209.3	20.6	77.0	64.0	70.0	37.8	66.9
	GA+KL	inf	inf	53.0	41.5	68.3	2.0	29.5
	NPO	12.3	10.7	71.6	59.4	71.7	24.7	68.7
	NPO+KL	8.9	10.7	74.7	62.1	72.8	32.2	67.9
	Rlable	51589.2	40622.9	0.4	0.7	19.8	0.0	62.6
Relearn	GA	6.8	11.4	70.5	58.7	64.5	18.4	68.2
	GA+GD	12.3	11.5	61.6	54.4	61.3	7.3	67.1
	GA+KL	17.1	11.6	66.6	56.2	60.6	3.0	65.0
	NPO	6.0	11.6	71.2	59.4	59.4	2.0	68.4
	NPO+KL	7.3	11.6	67.6	56.1	42.9	1.6	69.0
	Rlable	6.4	11.4	72.7	61.1	67.5	28.9	65.2

A.4.2 SAMPLE EFFICIENCY

To examine sample efficiency, we extend our GA-based relearning experiments ($LR = 6 \times 10^{-6}$, $N = 100$) across three data sources—the forget set, retain set, and unrelated data (see Section 2 for details). Each source is evaluated at 10%, 30%, 60%, and 100% of the original forget-set size.

As shown in Table 12, these experiments reveal a clear hierarchy in recovery efficiency. Relearning on the forget set provides the strongest and fastest recovery, with PCA distances approaching those of the

918 Table 9: Qwen-2.5-7B: MIA / MATH / GSM8K Accuracy (%) for complex task under four settings.
919 Bold numbers indicate improvements over the Original baseline in MATH or GSM8K.
920

Phase	Method	LR=3 × 10 ⁻⁵ , N=6			LR=3 × 10 ⁻⁶ , N=6			LR=5 × 10 ⁻⁶ , N=6			LR=5 × 10 ⁻⁶ , N=100		
		MIA	MATH	GSM8K	MIA	MATH	GSM8K	MIA	MATH	GSM8K	MIA	MATH	GSM8K
Original	—	99.3	9.0	80.1	99.3	9.0	80.1	99.3	9.0	80.1	99.3	9.0	80.1
Unlearn	GA	5.9	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.0	3.8	0.0	0.0	5.5	0.0	0.0
	NPO	95.9	0.0	0.2	97.4	21.5	74.1	67.4	24.1	71.8	94.7	0.0	0.4
	RLabel	35.5	0.0	0.0	69.6	0.0	1.5	11.2	0.0	0.0	2.9	0.0	0.0
Relearn	GA	97.6	0.0	1.1	99.3	5.1	83.2	99.4	9.3	77.8	99.2	0.0	0.0
	NPO	95.8	0.0	0.0	99.4	4.7	82.6	99.4	16.5	75.7	99.2	0.0	0.0
	RLabel	99.5	0.0	0.0	99.3	5.3	83.3	99.3	10.0	77.2	99.6	0.0	0.0

929 Table 10: Yi-6B (GA): Mean PCA distance under different learning rates. The left block uses China
930 Taiwan for *relearning* only, while the right block uses TOFU for both *unlearning* and *relearning*.
931

Relearning with China Taiwan			Unlearning + Relearning with TOFU	
Learning Rate	Phase	Mean PCA distance (forget set)	Phase	Mean PCA distance (forget set)
3 × 10 ⁻⁶	Unlearn	17.12	Unlearn	0.51
	Relearn	4.98		0.27
5 × 10 ⁻⁶	Unlearn	20.27	Unlearn	2.41
	Relearn	10.77		1.08
3 × 10 ⁻⁵	Unlearn	193.13	Unlearn	11.96
	Relearn	167.32		11.02

942 original model even at moderate sample sizes. In contrast, relearning using the retain set or unrelated
943 data restores performance only gradually; both sources are substantially less sample-efficient and
944 yield slower improvements in representational alignment.
945

946 A.5 MEAN PCA DISTANCE UNDER DIFFERENT DATASET

948 To examine the role of distributional alignment, we evaluate unlearning and relearning under two
949 dataset settings. First, we use the *TOFU* benchmark [29], where both unlearning and relearning
950 occur within the same distribution. Second, treating different languages as out-of-distribution (OOD),
951 we include a Traditional-Chinese corpus for relearning. This setup enables us to probe whether
952 cross-lingual signals can drive effective recovery, and how their efficacy compares with in-distribution.

953 Table 10 confirms that **cross-lingual relearning improves the model but achieves less complete**
954 **restoration than English data**: mean PCA distance and related summary metrics move closer to
955 baseline values, yet remain substantially higher. Greater linguistic or domain dissimilarity therefore
956 reduces the efficacy of recovery, though partial restoration is still attainable.
957

958 For the TOFU dataset, the overall pattern holds: **learning rate and the number of unlearning**
959 **requests (N) effectively regulate feature drift and reversibility**. However, the representational
960 shifts induced by TOFU are milder than those observed in our simple and complex tasks. We attribute
961 this to the smaller and less diverse nature of TOFU’s corpus; many entries are short and contain only
962 author metadata, making its impact on the model’s feature space comparatively limited.
963

964 A.6 DETAILED ANALYSIS RESULTS

965 A.6.1 PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS: SIMILARITY AND SHIFT

967 Across the same hyper-parameter grid, Figure 7 (PCA-Similarity) and Figure 11 (PCA-Shift) provide
968 complementary views of representational drift. For GA, higher learning rates drive unlearned states
969 (orange) far from the original (blue), while relearning (green) fails to return, producing long rays of
970 *irreversible* drift. GA+GD narrows the spread but still collapses at 3×10^{-5} .
971

On Qwen-2.5-7B, GA shifts span thousands of PC1 units and drive PC2 to extreme negatives
972 (Figure 13c,f,i), consistent with the multi-layer perturbations predicted in Section 4. In complex tasks

972 Table 11: Different recovery attempts on Yi-6B (GA, $LR=6 \times 10^{-6}$, $N = 100$). F.Acc and mean
 973 PCA distance are computed on the forget set.

975 Setting (Yi-6B, GA, $LR=6 \times 10^{-6}$, $N = 100$)	976 F.Acc	977 Mean PCA distance (forget set)
978 Original model	78.90	0.00
979 Unlearned model	0.00	31.66
980 Quantization attack	0.00	32.21
981 In-context (num_demos = 5)	0.01	30.83
982 Prompt attack	0.03	29.14
983 Jailbreaking	0.03	30.04

984 Table 12: Relearning comparison on Yi-6B (GA, $LR=6 \times 10^{-6}$, $N = 100$), evaluating the sample
 985 efficiency of different relearning data sources (forget, retain, unrelated). The results show how varying
 986 the amount and type of relearning data affects recovery performance and representational drift.

985 Setting (Yi-6B, GA, $LR=6 \times 10^{-6}$, $N = 100$)	986 F.Acc	987 Mean PCA distance (forget set)
988 Original model	78.90	0.00
989 Unlearned model	0.00	31.66
990 Relearned by forget set		
991 10%	67.28	8.49
30%	75.77	6.42
60%	77.13	4.31
100%	79.20	2.16
992 Relearned by retain set		
993 10%	0.05	30.57
30%	11.24	25.48
60%	45.24	14.69
100%	75.86	7.51
994 Relearned by unrelated data		
995 10%	0.02	31.02
30%	6.48	27.74
60%	38.83	17.51
100%	65.66	9.14

1000 such as mathematical reasoning, even small perturbations in hidden states can lead to substantial
 1001 performance differences. This is reflected in our PCA–Similarity analysis, where seemingly minor
 1002 changes in hidden state geometry correspond to meaningful behavioral variations. Besides, PCA–
 1003 Similarity captures global alignment, whereas PCA–Shift highlights fine-grained translational drift.
 1004 This distinction also explains why Figure 9h,i show only moderate misalignment under similarity
 1005 but reveal pronounced displacements under shift (cf. Figure 13). Using both metrics thus provides
 1006 a more complete characterization of reversibility. Overall, these results confirm that GA, with or
 1007 without GD or KL, induces large and often irreversible displacements, whereas NPO variants, and to
 1008 a lesser extent RLabel, constrain less shifts, consistent with our utility findings.

1010 A.6.2 CENTERED KERNEL ALIGNMENT ANALYSIS

1011 Figures 15–17 report layer-wise linear CKA between the original model and its unlearned or relearned
 1012 counterparts. Across both Yi-6B and Qwen-2.5-7B, GA stands out: as the learning rate or N increases,
 1013 its CKA curve drops close to zero in most layers and fails to recover, revealing a deep subspace
 1014 fracture consistent with the irreversible PCA trends. GA+GD and GA+KL mitigate this decline to
 1015 some extent but do not restore full alignment after relearning.

1016 Task complexity does not alter the ordering but amplifies the differences. On the math-heavy Qwen
 1017 benchmark, GA’s tail layers fall almost to zero at high learning rates, whereas NPO maintains
 1018 significantly higher alignment. Taken together with the PCA-Shift results, these findings show that
 1019 GA-style objectives consistently break subspace alignment, NPO variants preserve much greater
 1020 stability, and RLabel induces moderate but partly recoverable distortions.

1021 A.6.3 FISHER INFORMATION ANALYSIS

1022 Figures 19–33 plot the empirical Fisher spectra layer by layer. Across both Yi-6B (simple) and
 1023 Qwen-2.5-7B (complex), GA and its variants exhibit a pronounced leftward shift of the diagonal

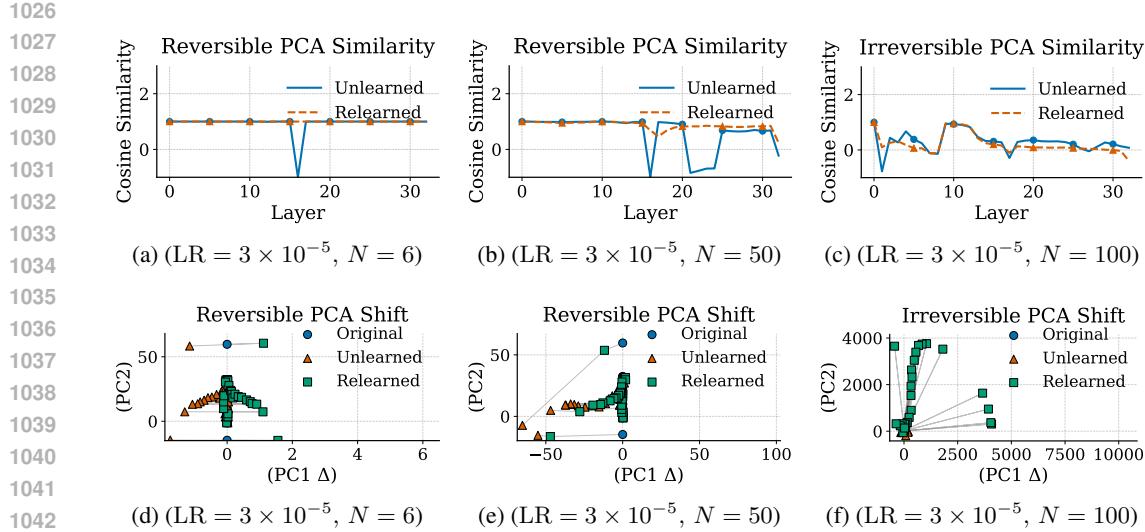
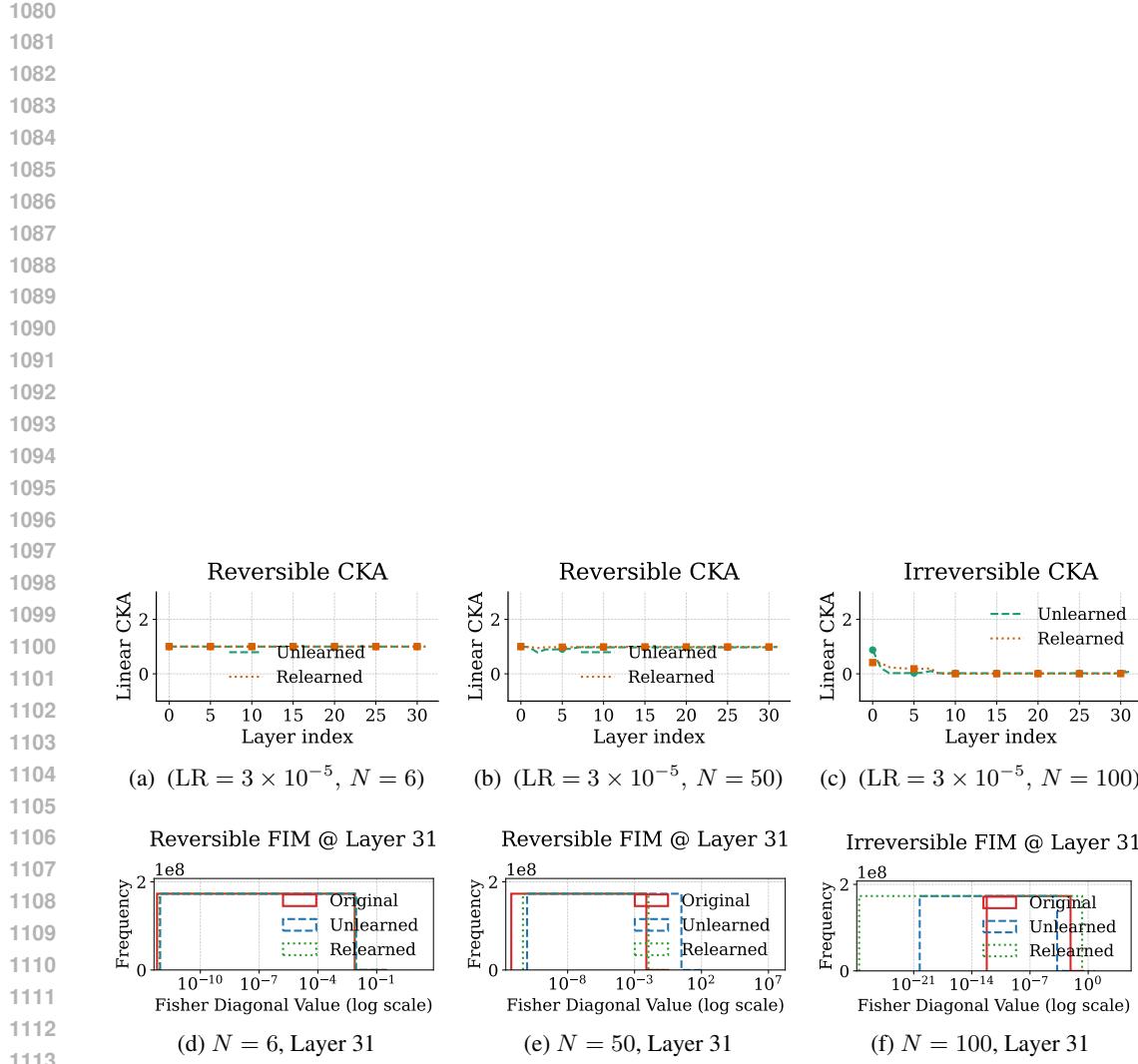


Figure 5: Layer-wise PCA Similarity and Shift for GA on Yi-6B (simple task). vary $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$ at $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$. Sustained low similarity or large shifts signal severe, irreversible catastrophic forgetting, whereas partial similarity or small shifts indicate mild, reversible catastrophic forgetting. Input queries are drawn from the forget set.

histogram as LR or N increase. The peaks move several orders of magnitude in middle and deep layers, reflecting a flattened loss surface and diminished parameter salience. Crucially, these shifts persist after relearning, marking the onset of irreversible forgetting.

NPO, NPO+KL, and RL produce smaller leftward displacements under moderate LR or N , and their Fisher spectra recenter after relearning, indicating primarily reversible drift. Under extreme settings (e.g., $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ or $N = 100$), these methods also show persistent displacement in some layers, suggesting milder but still irreversible forgetting.

Figures 14, 10, 18, and 34 examine relearning dynamics when the fine-tuning data and input query are drawn from the forget set, the retain set, or an unrelated data: i) across all sources, the overall trends are similar: alignment can be partially restored, but recovery is consistently weaker with unrelated data, underscoring that effective relearning depends on both the size and the relevance of the training set; ii) the observed behavior also varies with the choice of input queries. In the case of *reversible catastrophic forgetting*, all forget set, retain set, and unrelated data undergo the similar feature drifts.



1114 Figure 6: CKA and FIM for GA on Yi-6B, simple task. Vary $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ with $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.
 1115 High CKA (1) and concentrated FIM spectra indicates reversible catastrophic forgetting, while
 1116 persistently low CKA and large-shifted, flattened spectra denote severe representational drift and
 1117 irreversible catastrophic forgetting. Input queries are drawn from the forget set.

1118
1119
1120
1121
1122
1123
1124
1125
1126
1127
1128
1129
1130
1131
1132
1133

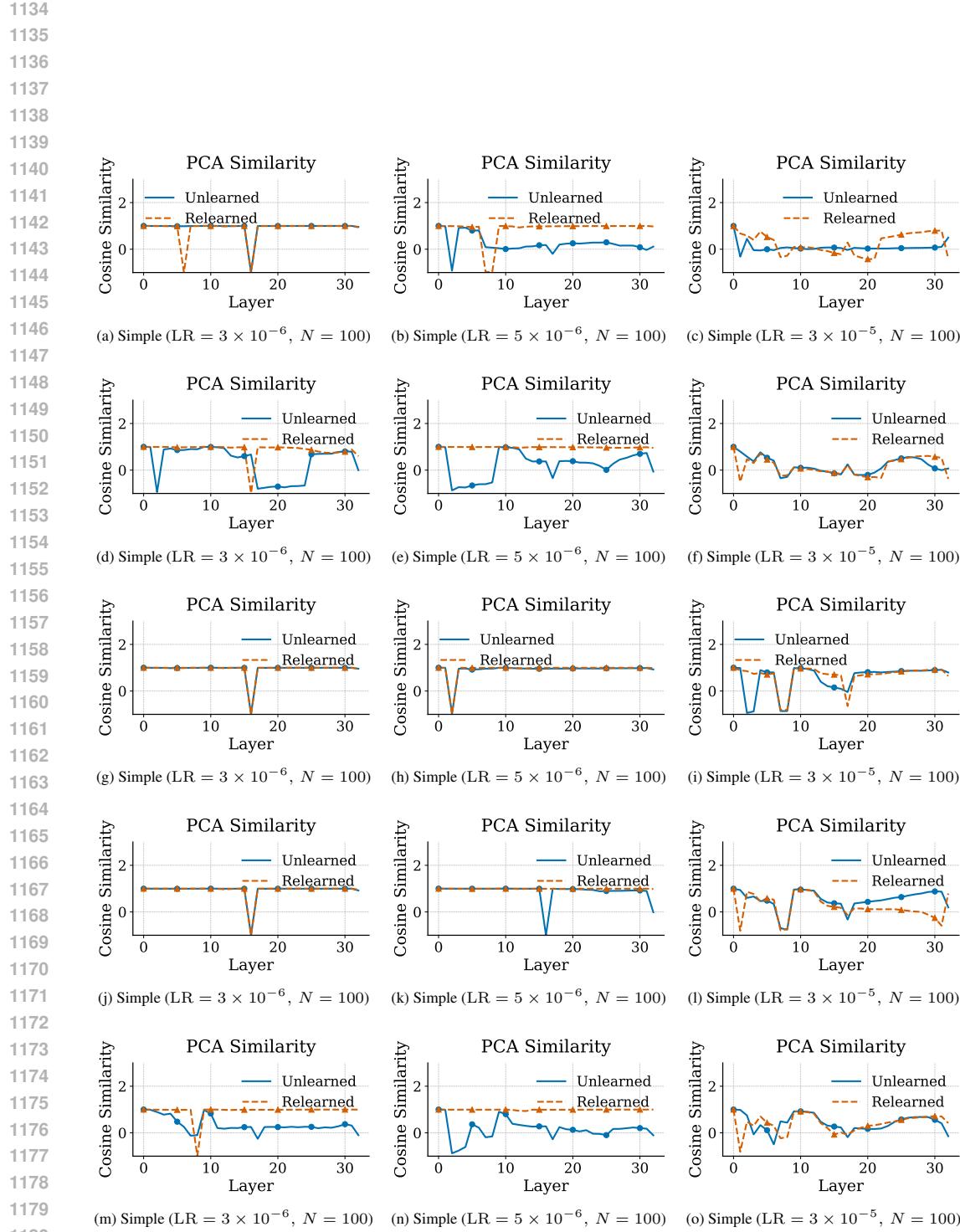


Figure 7: PCA Similarity Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA+GD (a–c), GA+KL (d–f), NPO (g–i), NPO+KL (j–l), and Rlable (m–o). All plots are for the simple task on Yi-6B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 100$.

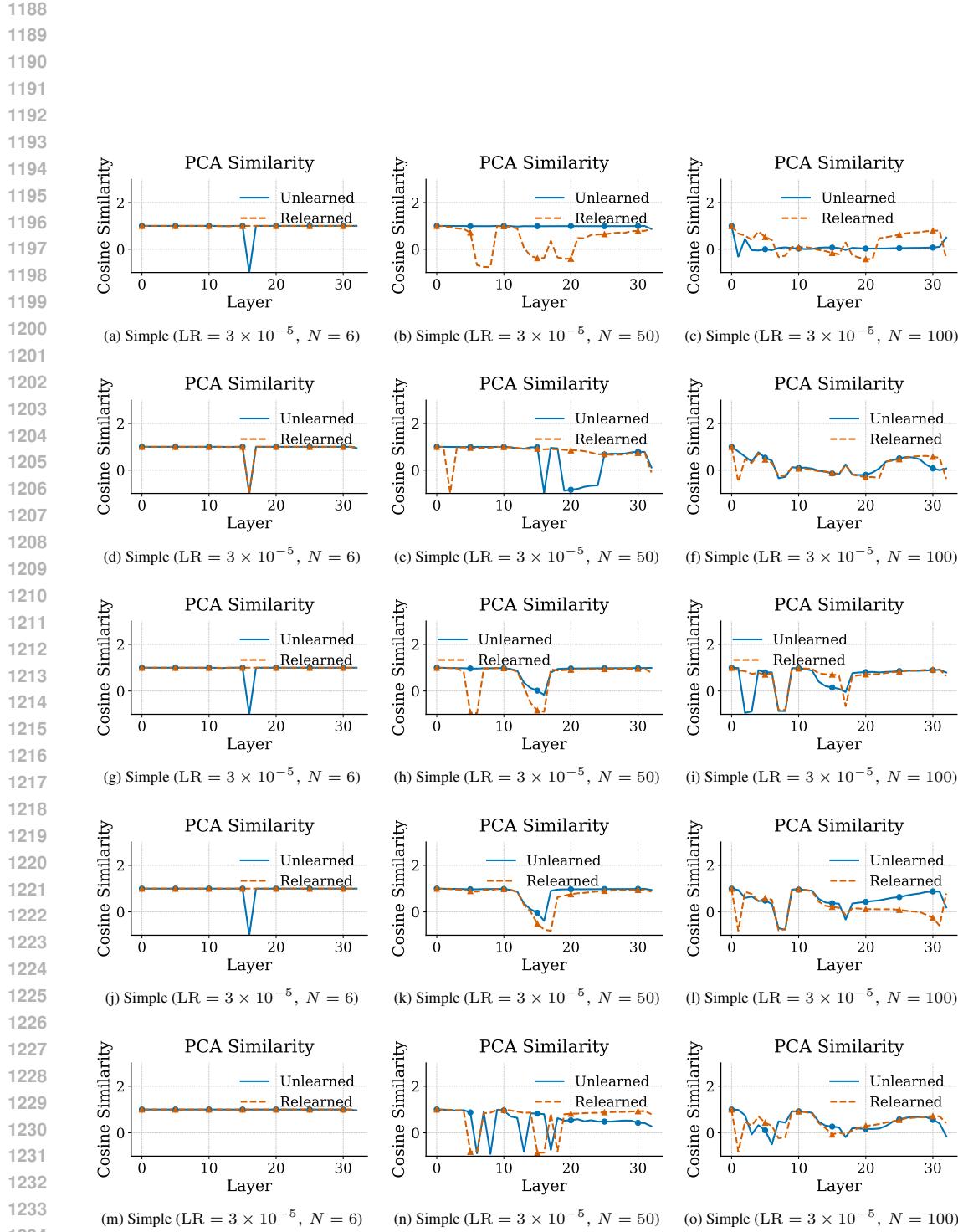


Figure 8: PCA Similarity Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA+GD (a–c), GA+KL (d–f), NPO (g–i), NPO+KL (j–l), and Rlable (m–o). Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.

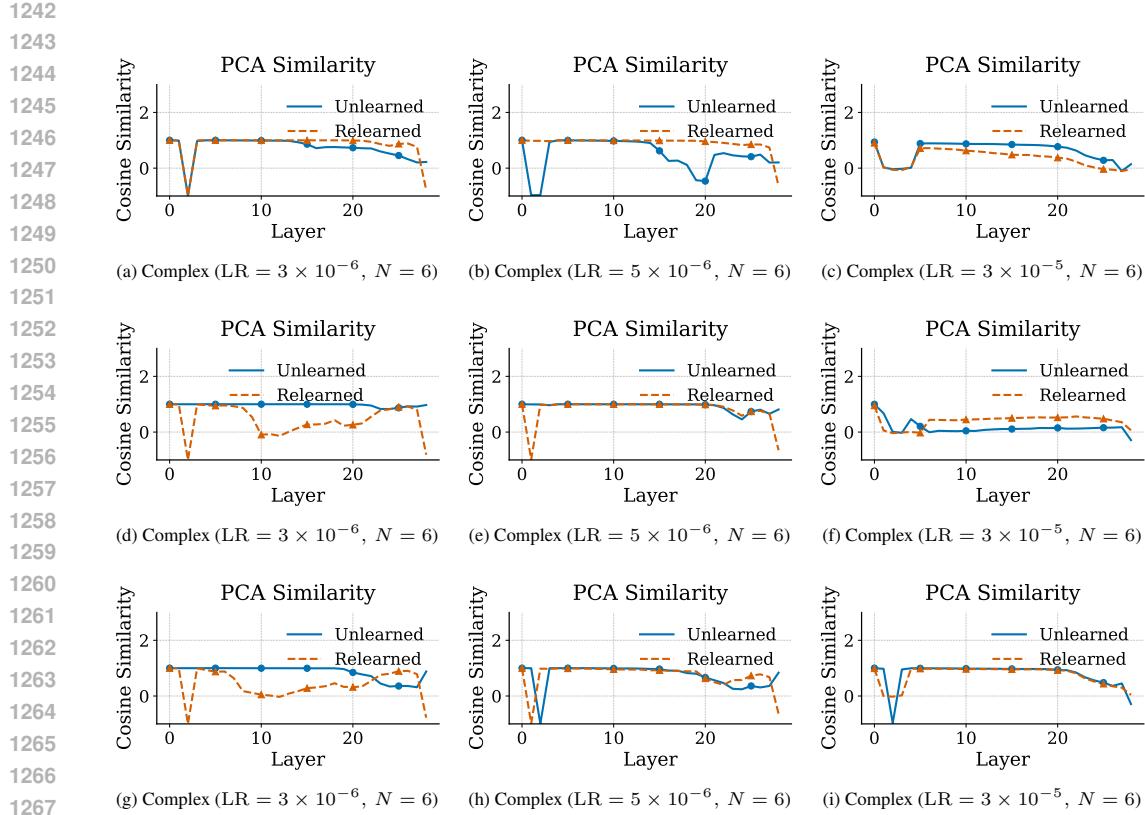


Figure 9: PCA Similarity Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA (a-c) NPO (d-f), Rlable (g-j). All plots are for the complex task on Qwen2.5-7B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 6$.

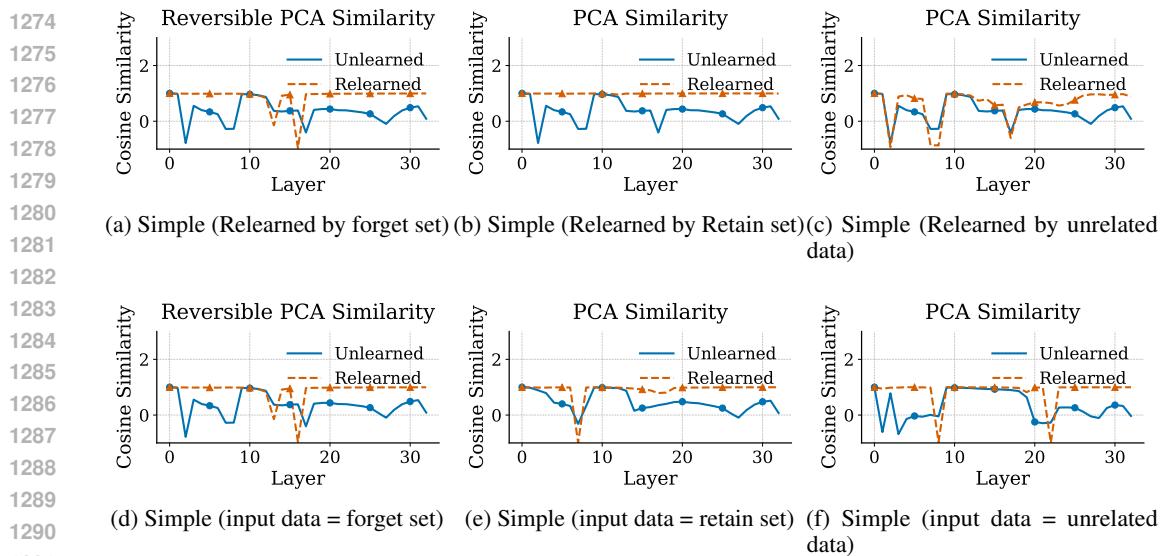


Figure 10: PCA Similarity Analysis for GA under Varied Relearning and Evaluation Inputs on Yi-6B (Simple Task). (a-c): Relearning is performed using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data respectively. (d-f): PCA similarity is measured using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data as evaluation input.

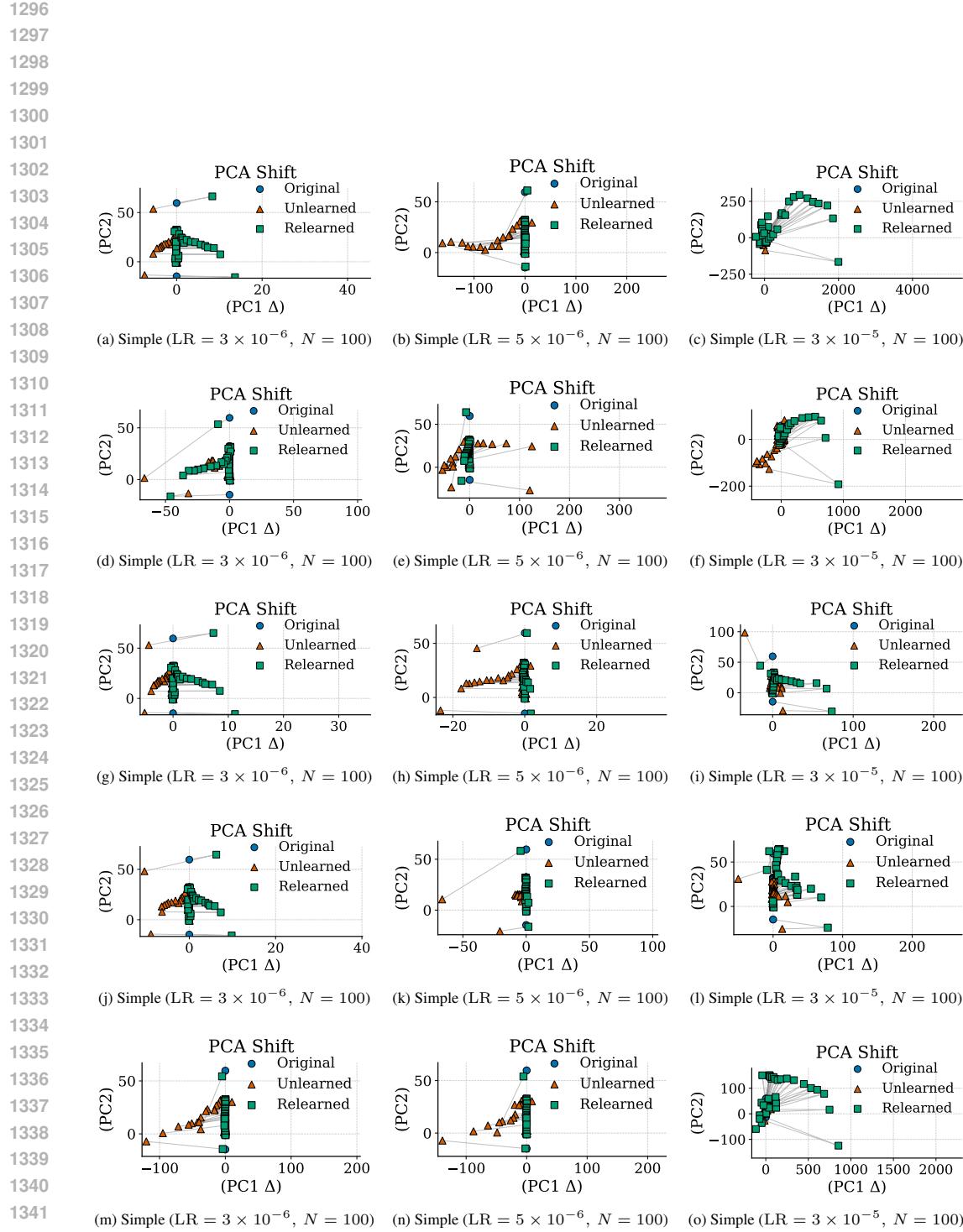


Figure 11: PCA Shift Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA+GD (a–c), GA+KL (d–f), NPO (g–i), NPO+KL (j–l), and Rlable (m–o). All plots are for the simple task on Yi-6B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 100$.

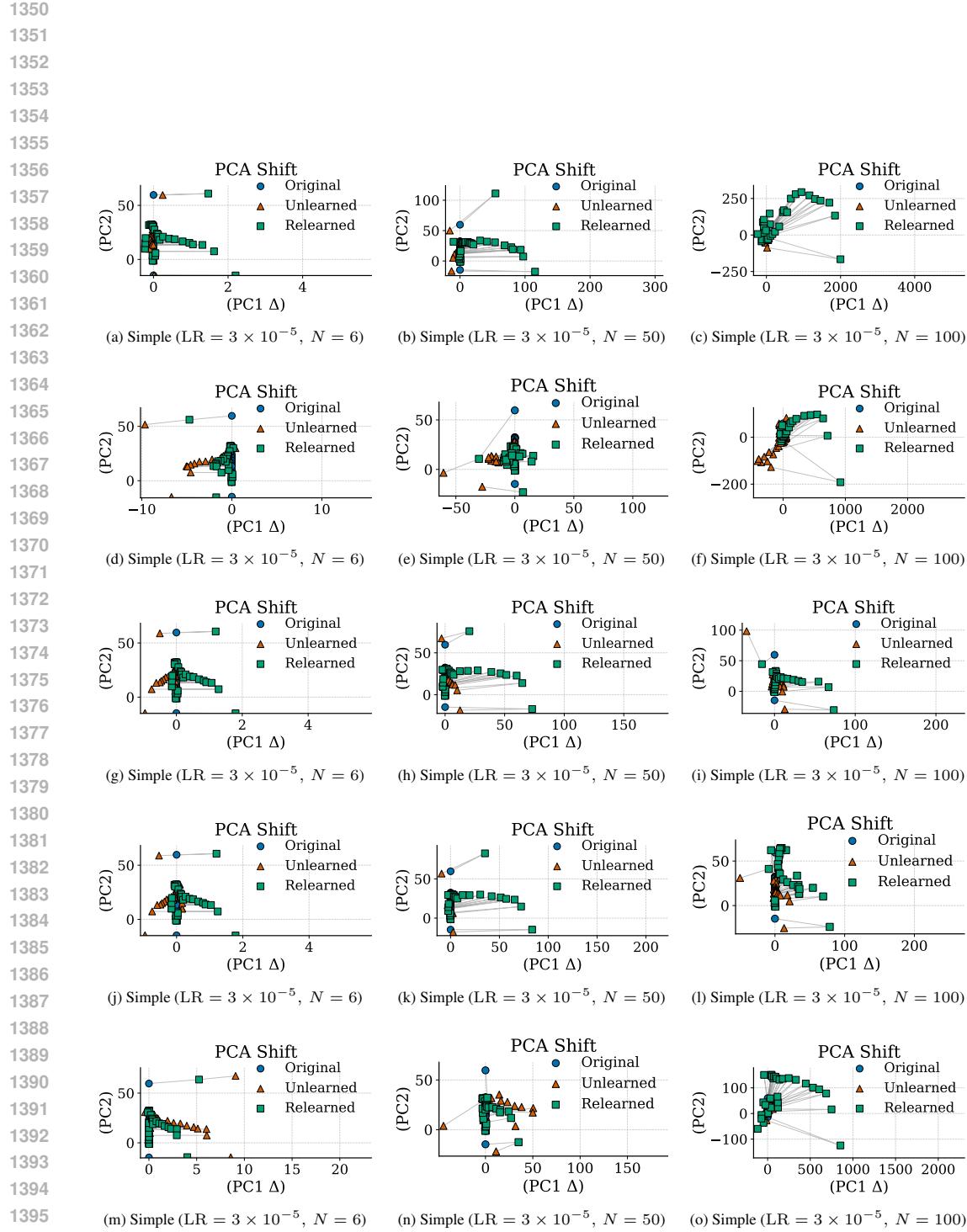


Figure 12: PCA Shift Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA+GD (a–c), GA+KL (d–f), NPO (g–i), NPO+KL (j–l), and Rlable (m–o). Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.

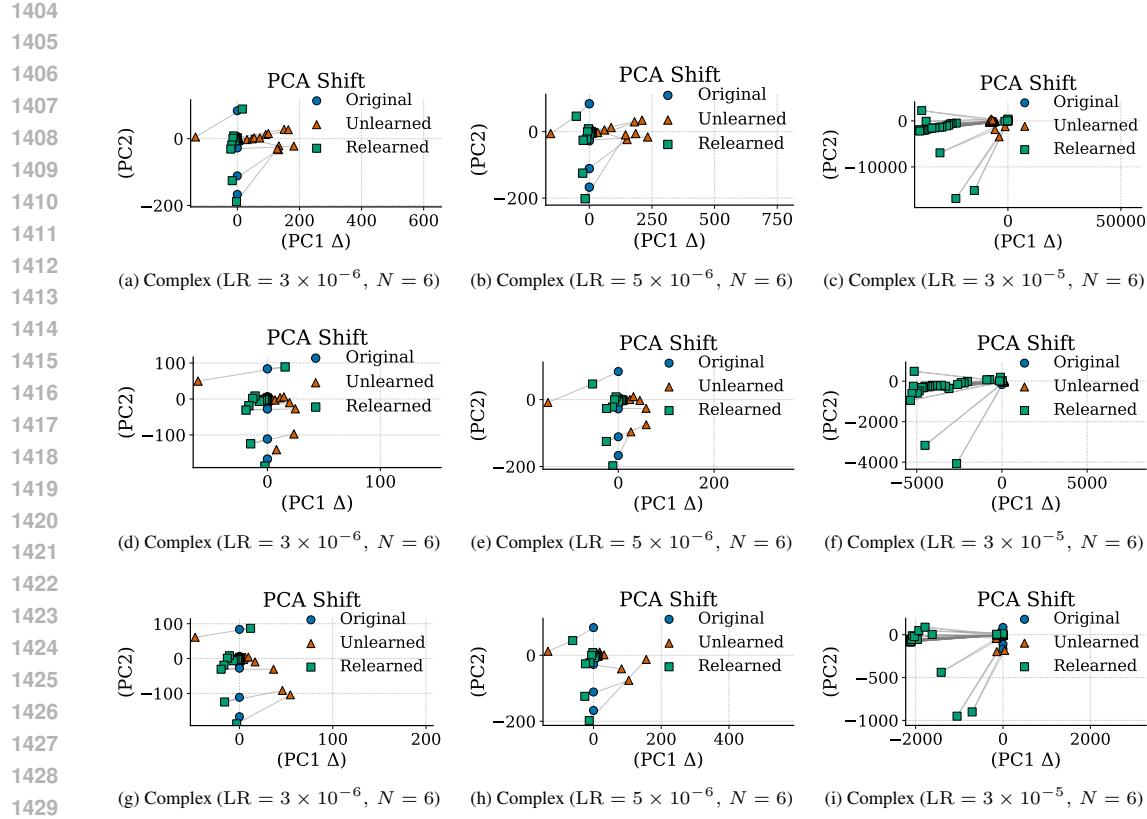


Figure 13: PCA Shift Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA (a-c) NPO (d-f), Rlable (g-j). All plots are for the complex task on Qwen2.5-7B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 6$.

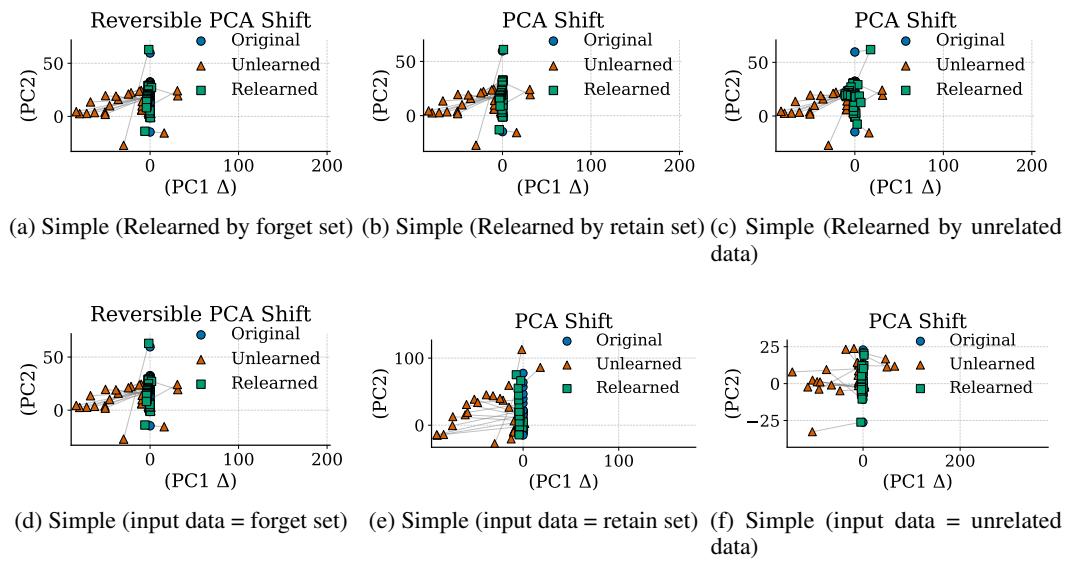


Figure 14: PCA Shift Analysis under Varied Relearning and Evaluation Inputs on Yi-6B (Simple Task). (a-c): Relearning is performed using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data respectively. (d-f): PCA shift is measured using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data as evaluation input.

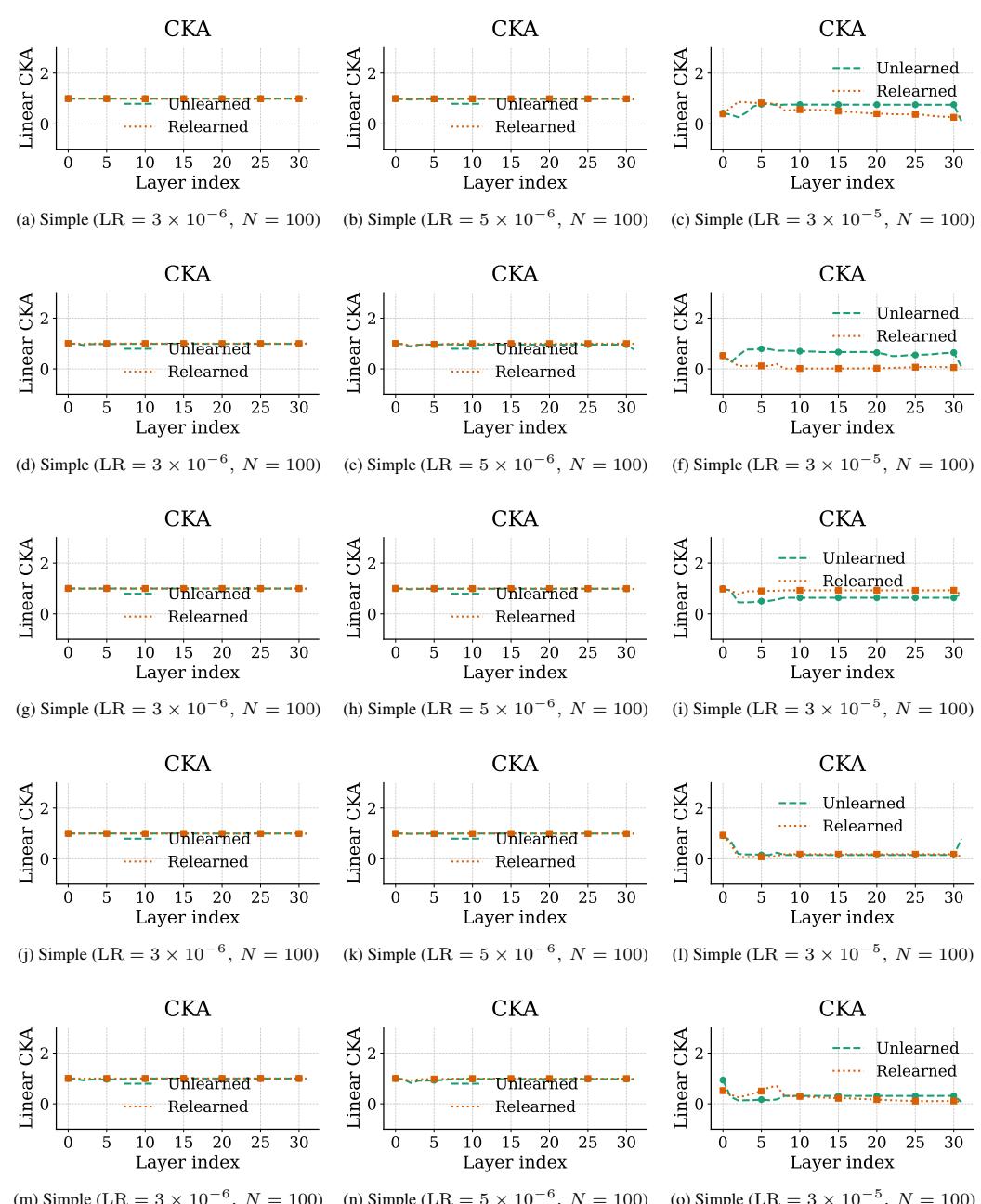


Figure 15: CKA Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA+GD (a–c), GA+KL (d–f), NPO (g–i), NPO+KL (j–l), and Rlable (m–o). All plots are for the simple task on Yi-6B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 100$.

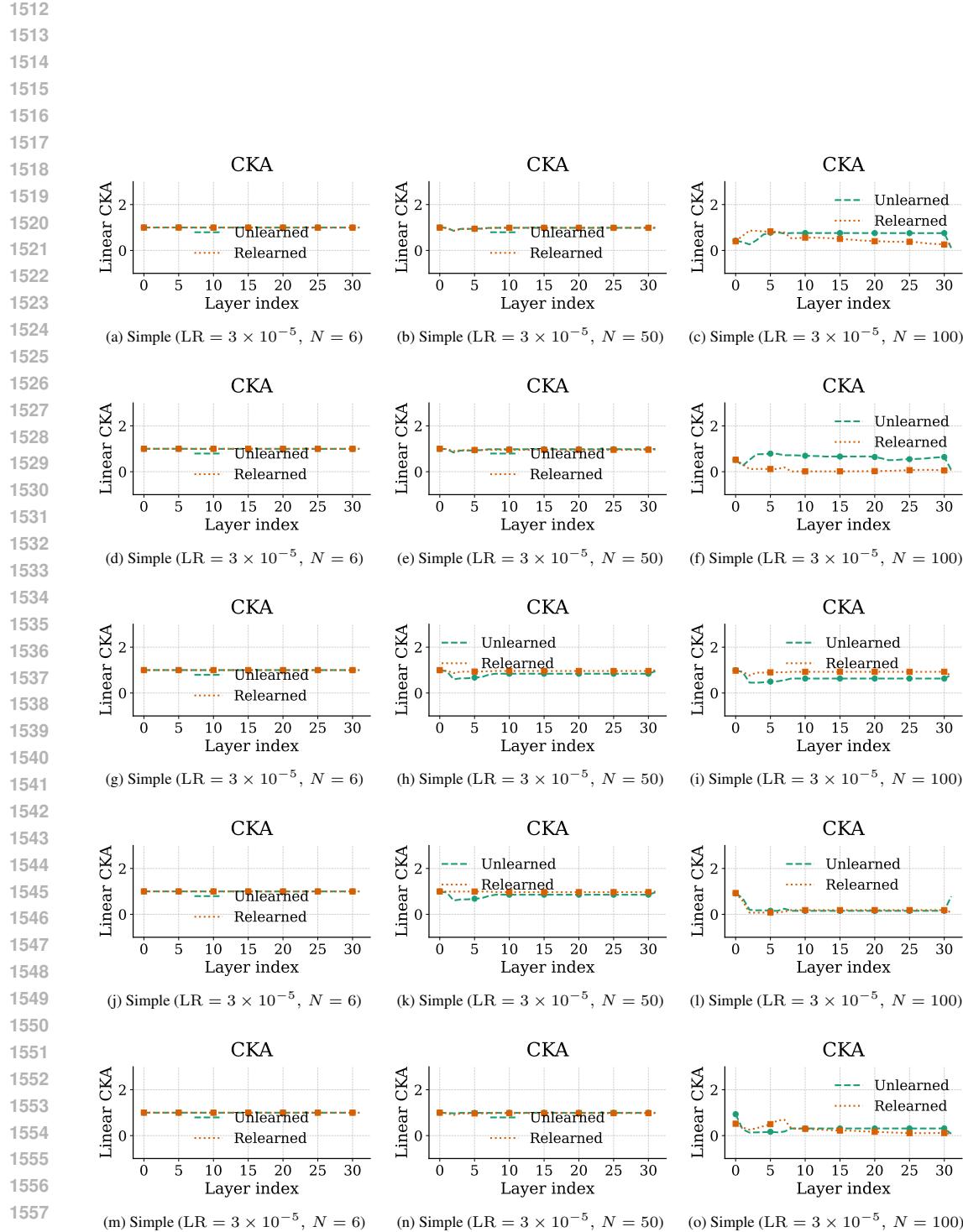
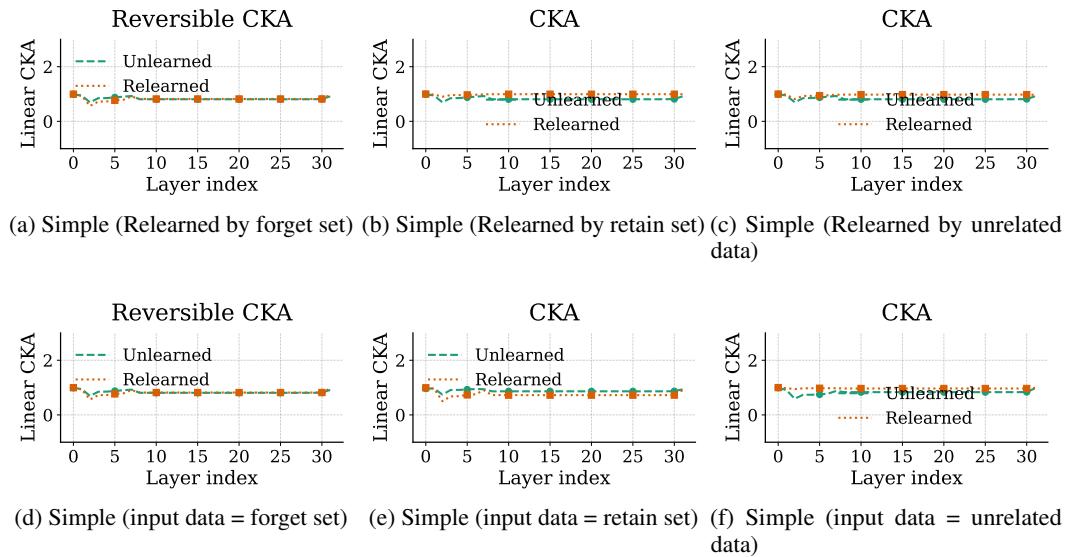
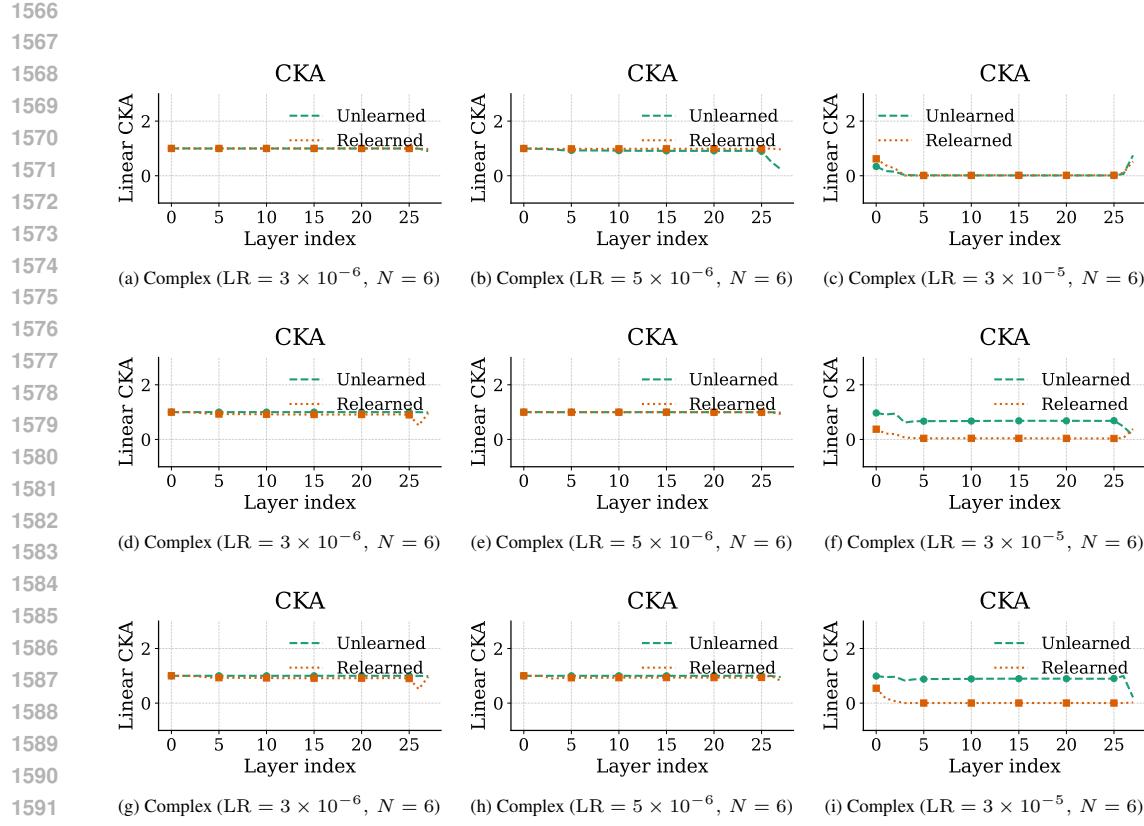
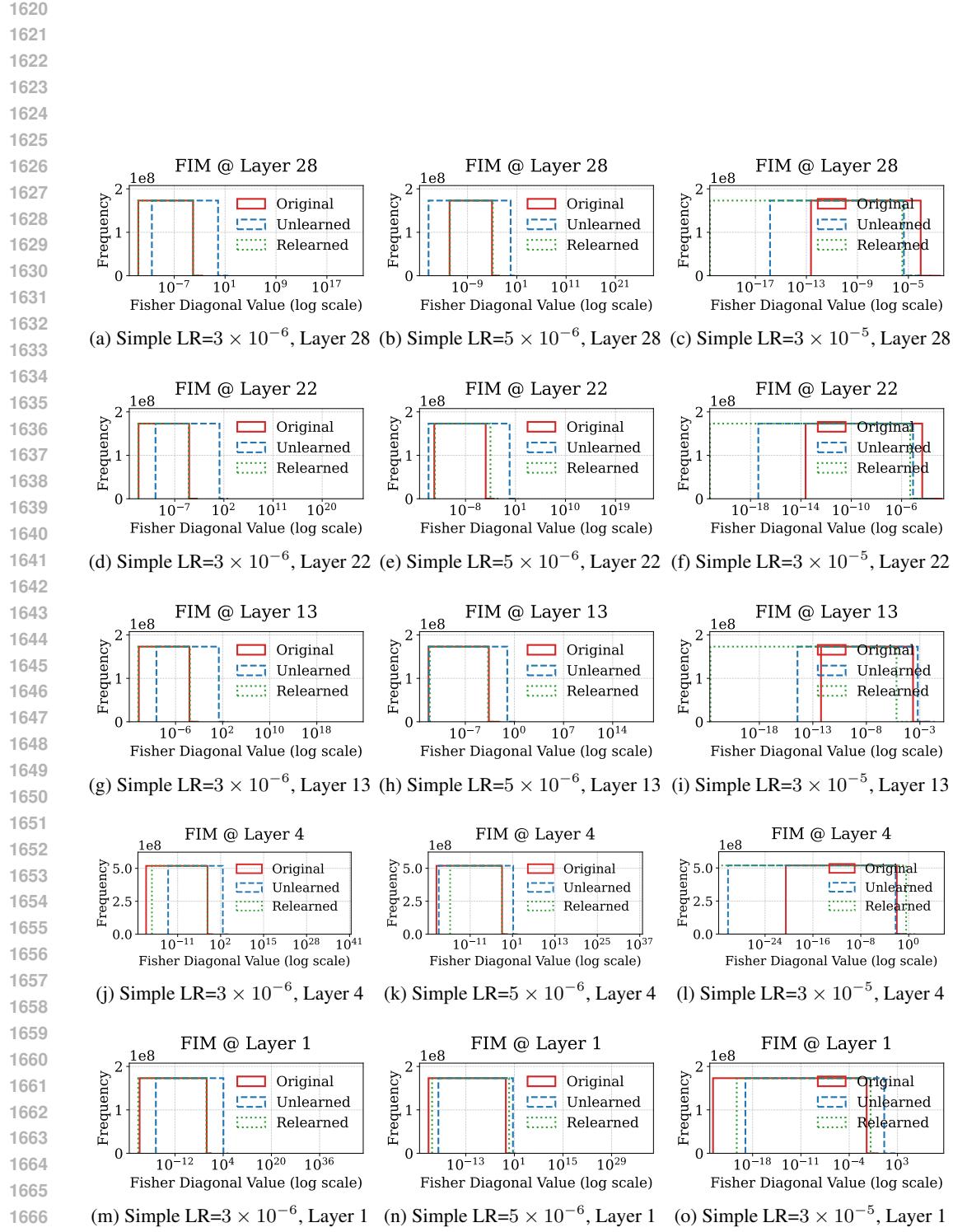
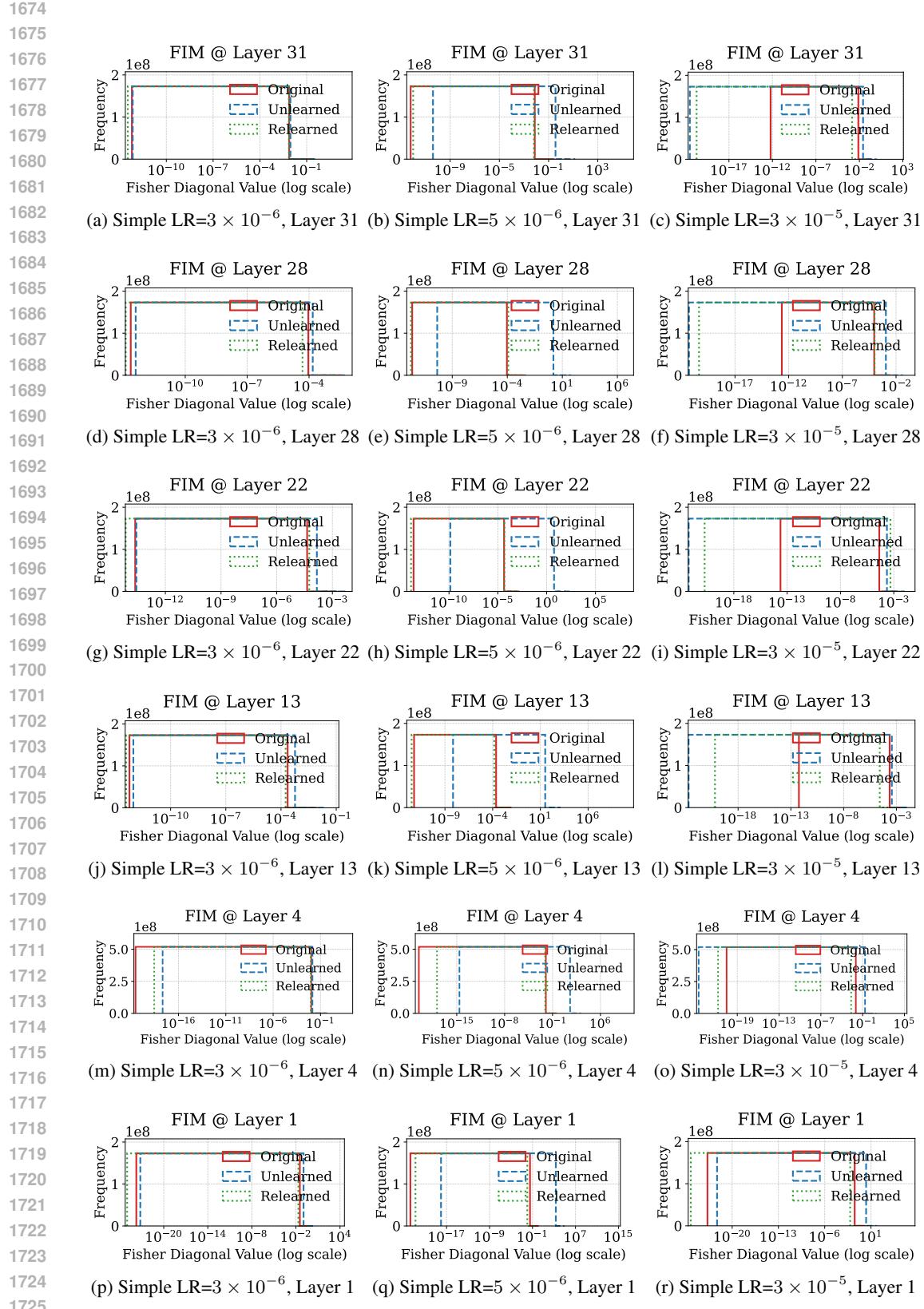


Figure 16: CKA Across Layers. Each row shows results under different unlearning methods: GA+GD (a–c), GA+KL (d–f), NPO (g–i), NPO+KL (j–l), and Rlable (m–o). Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.







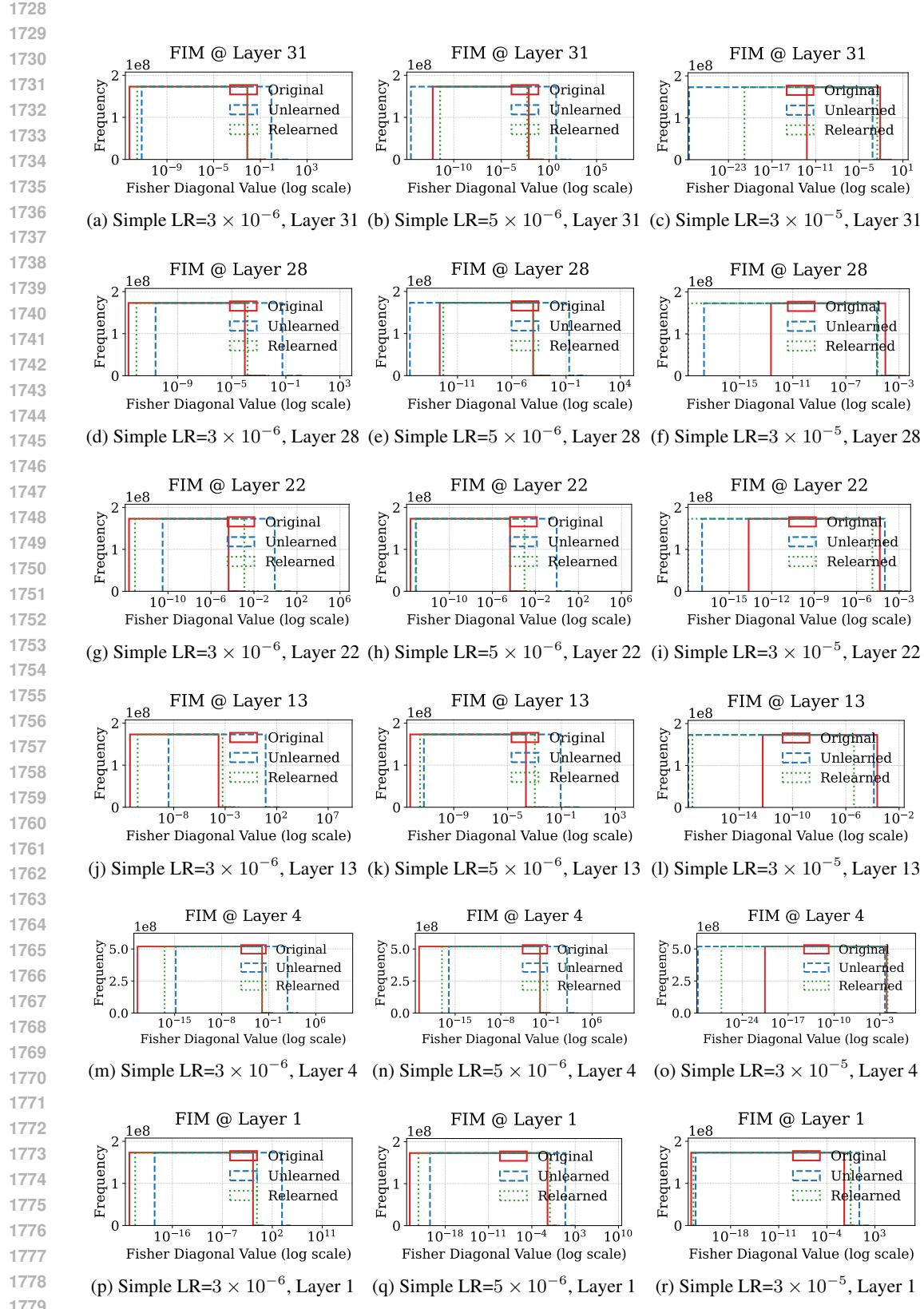
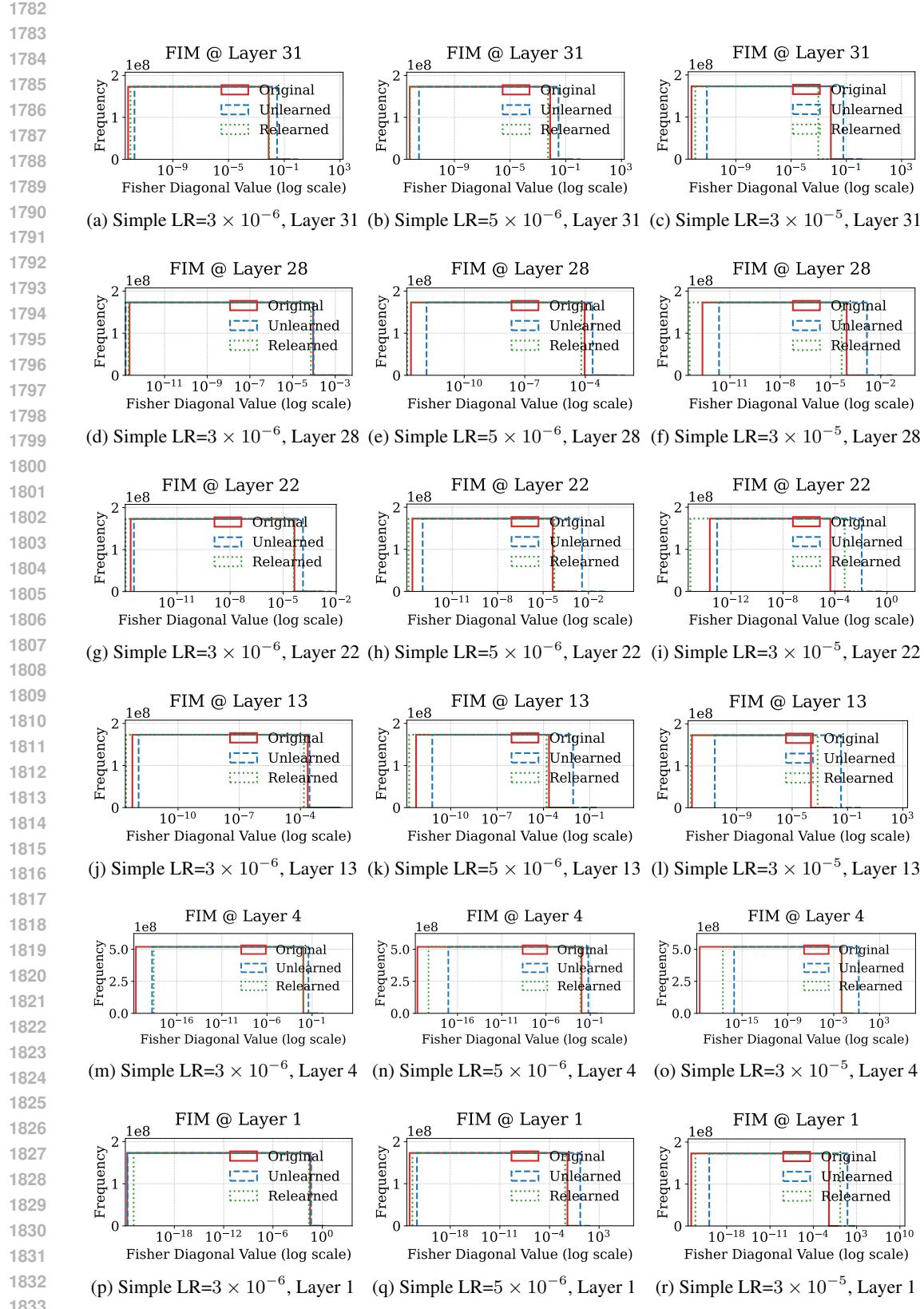


Figure 21: FIM for GA+KL Across Layers. All plots are for the simple task on Yi-6B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 100$.



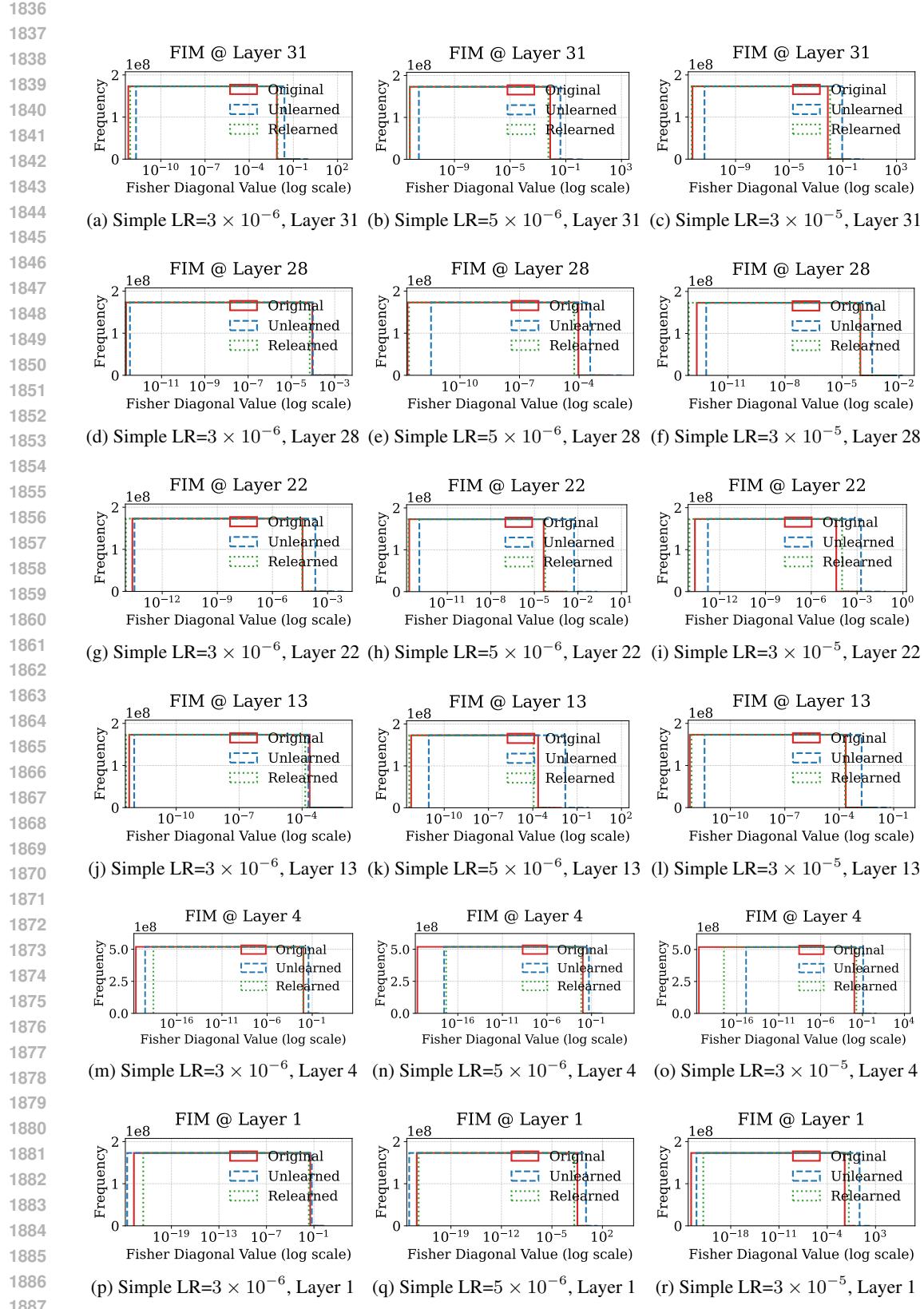
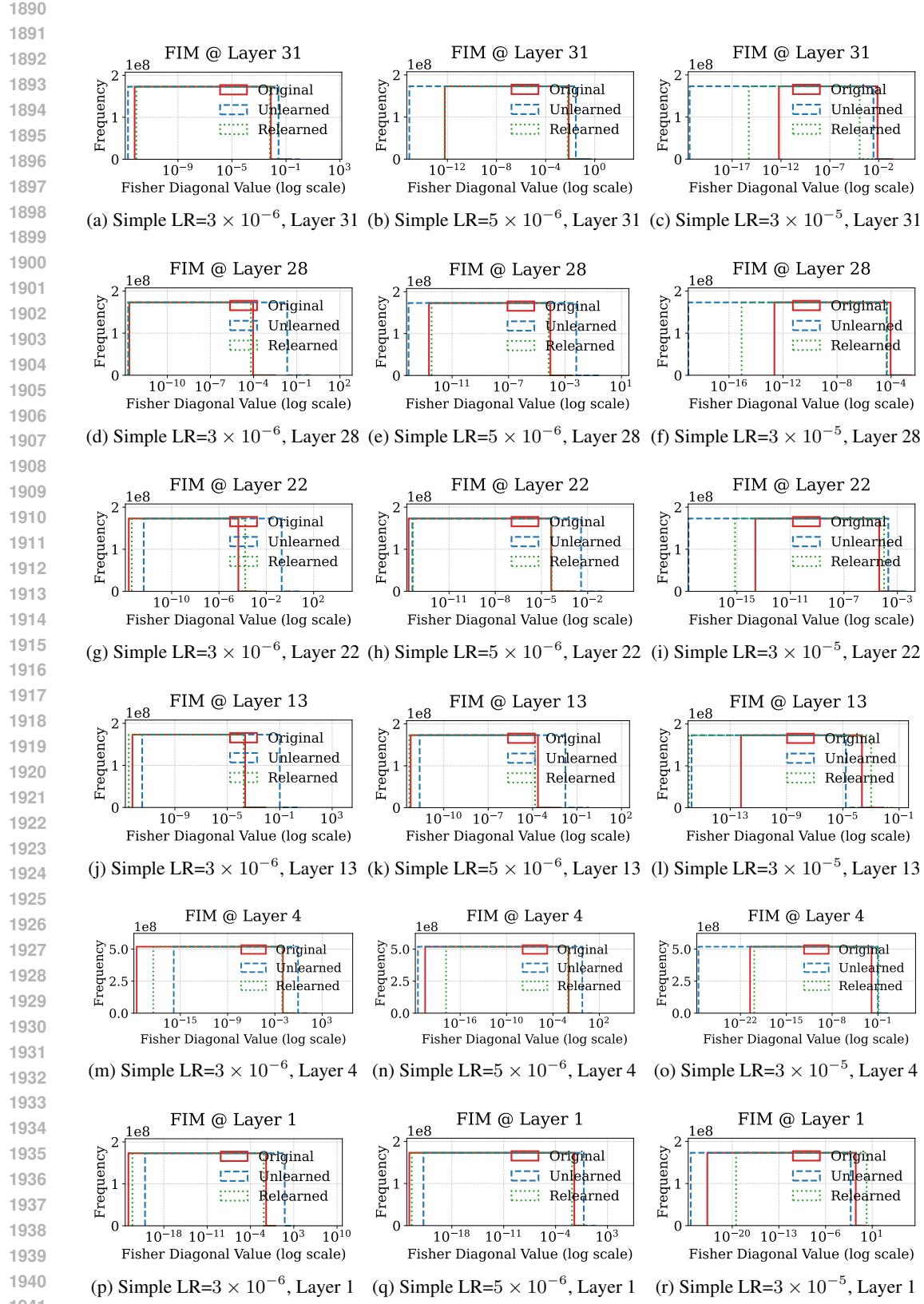


Figure 23: FIM for NPO+KL Across Layers. All plots are for the simple task on Yi-6B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 100$.

Figure 24: FIM for Rlable Across Layers. All plots are for the simple task on Yi-6B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 100$.

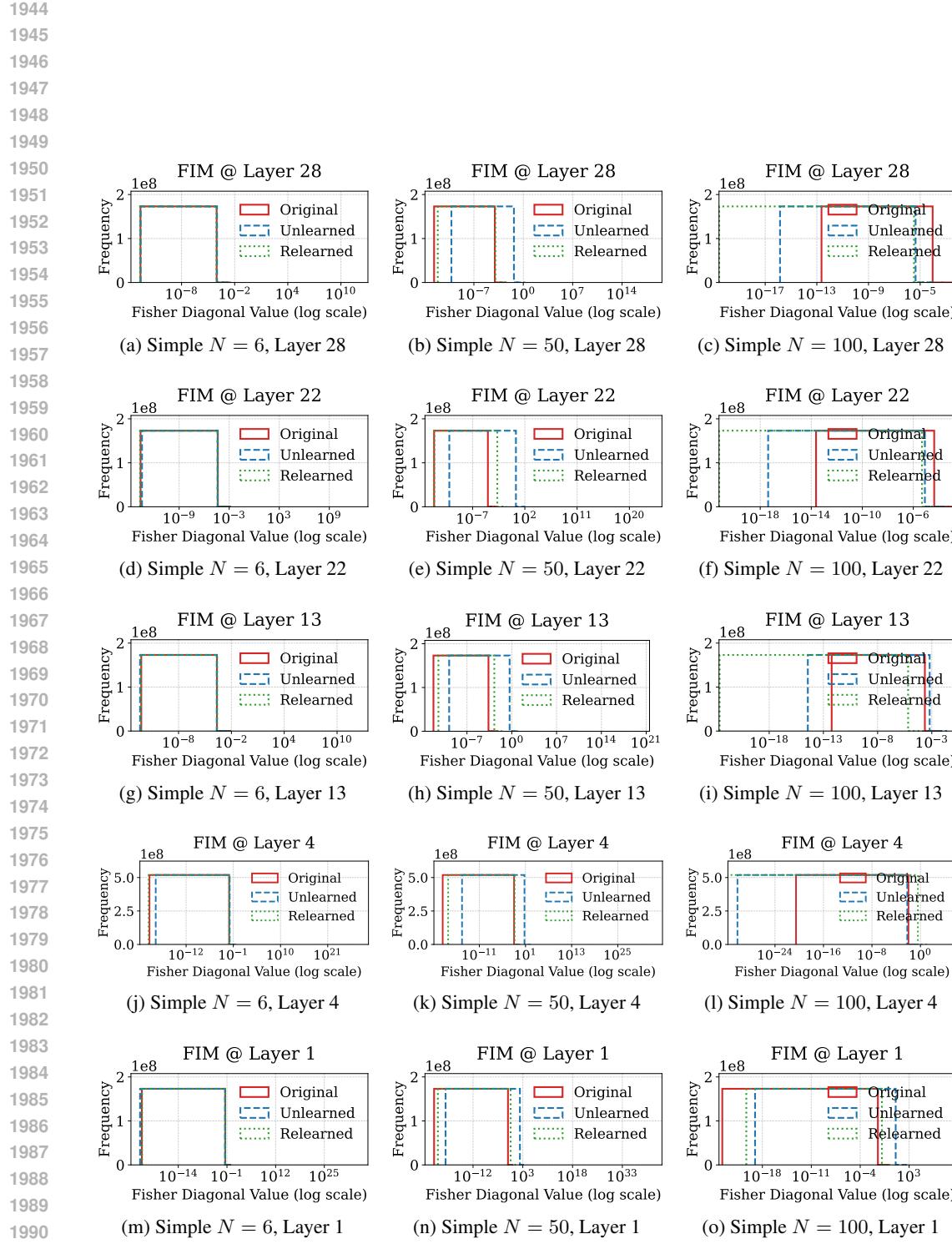


Figure 25: FIM for GA Across Layers. Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.

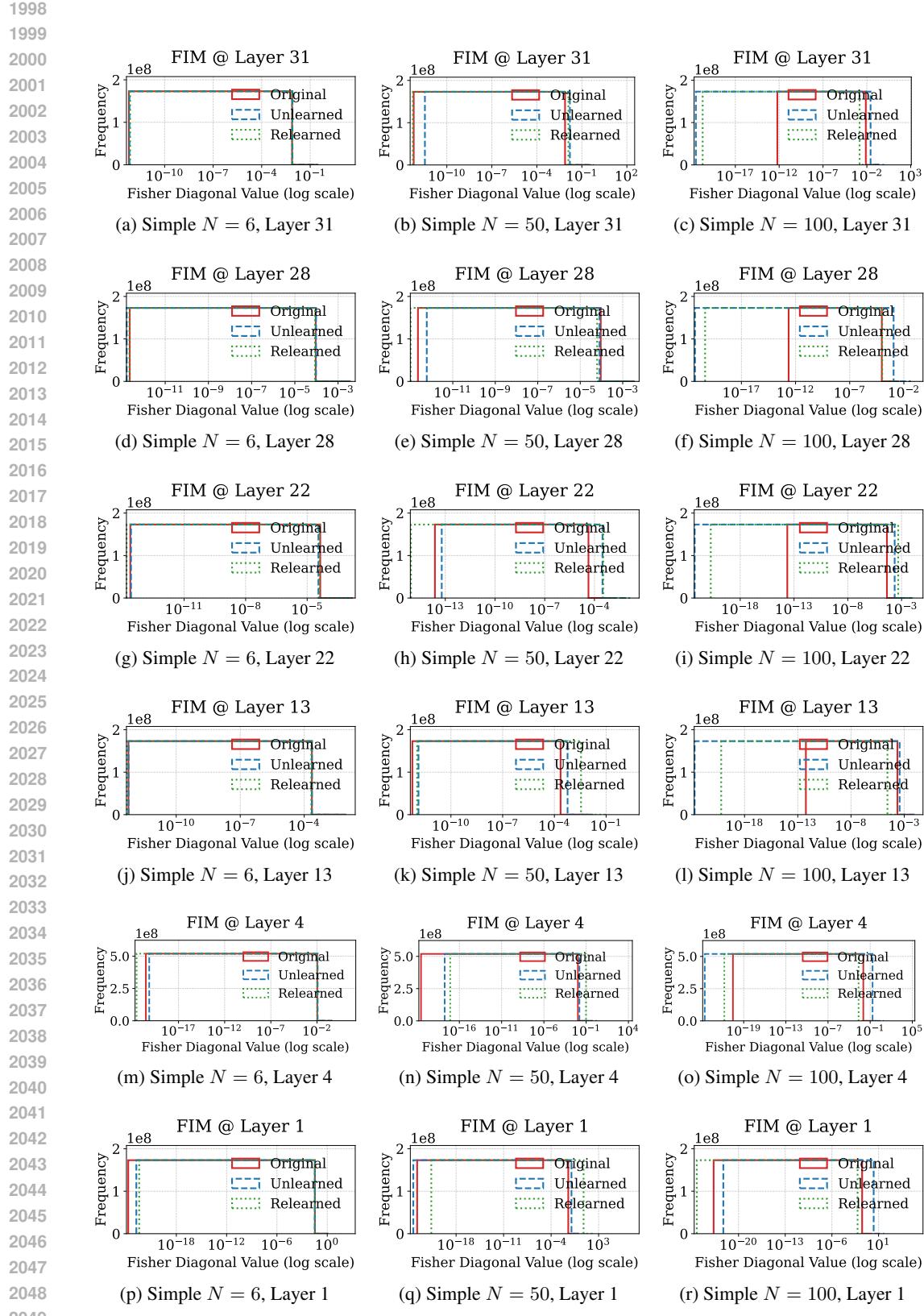


Figure 26: FIM for GA+GD Across Layers. Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.

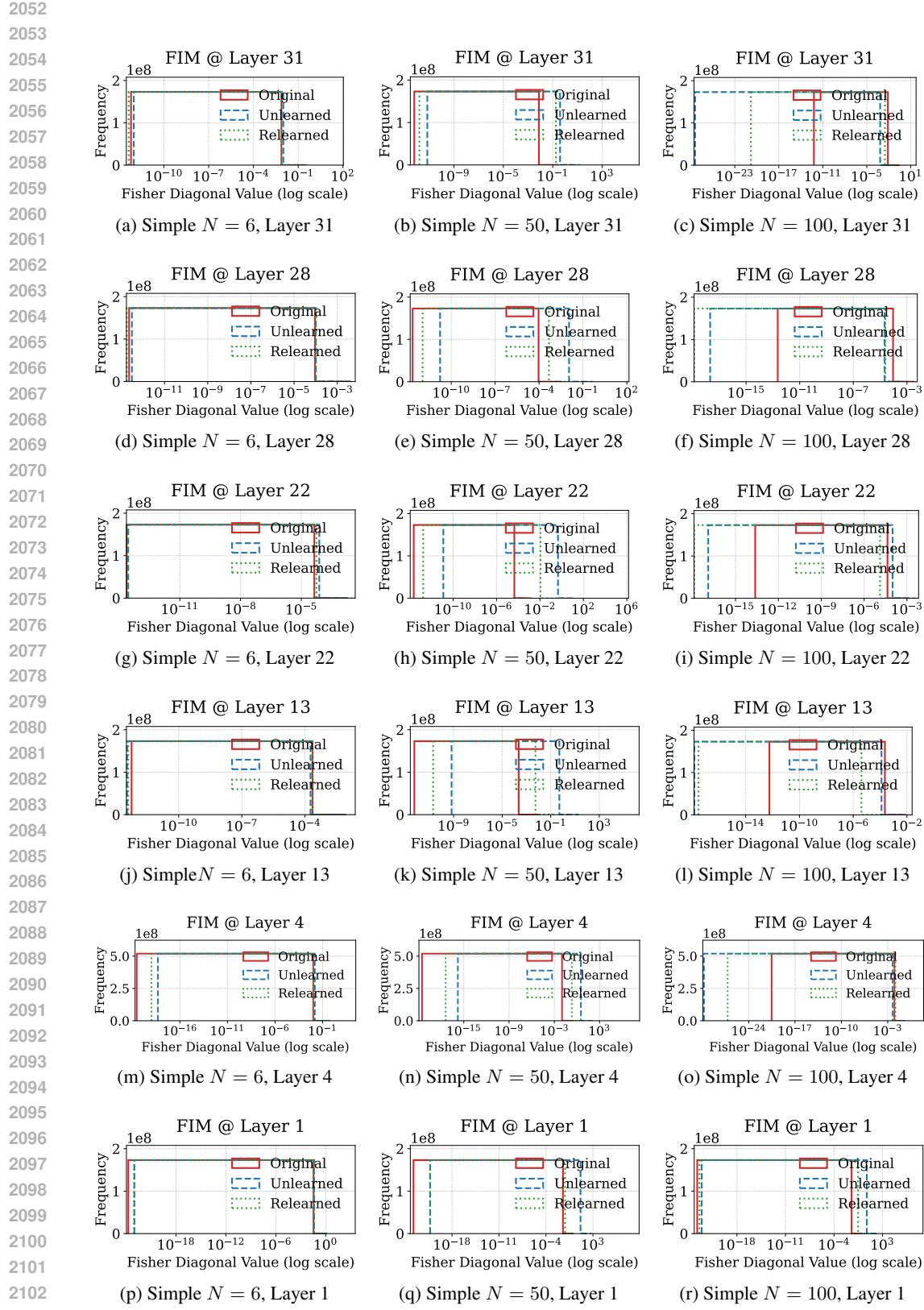
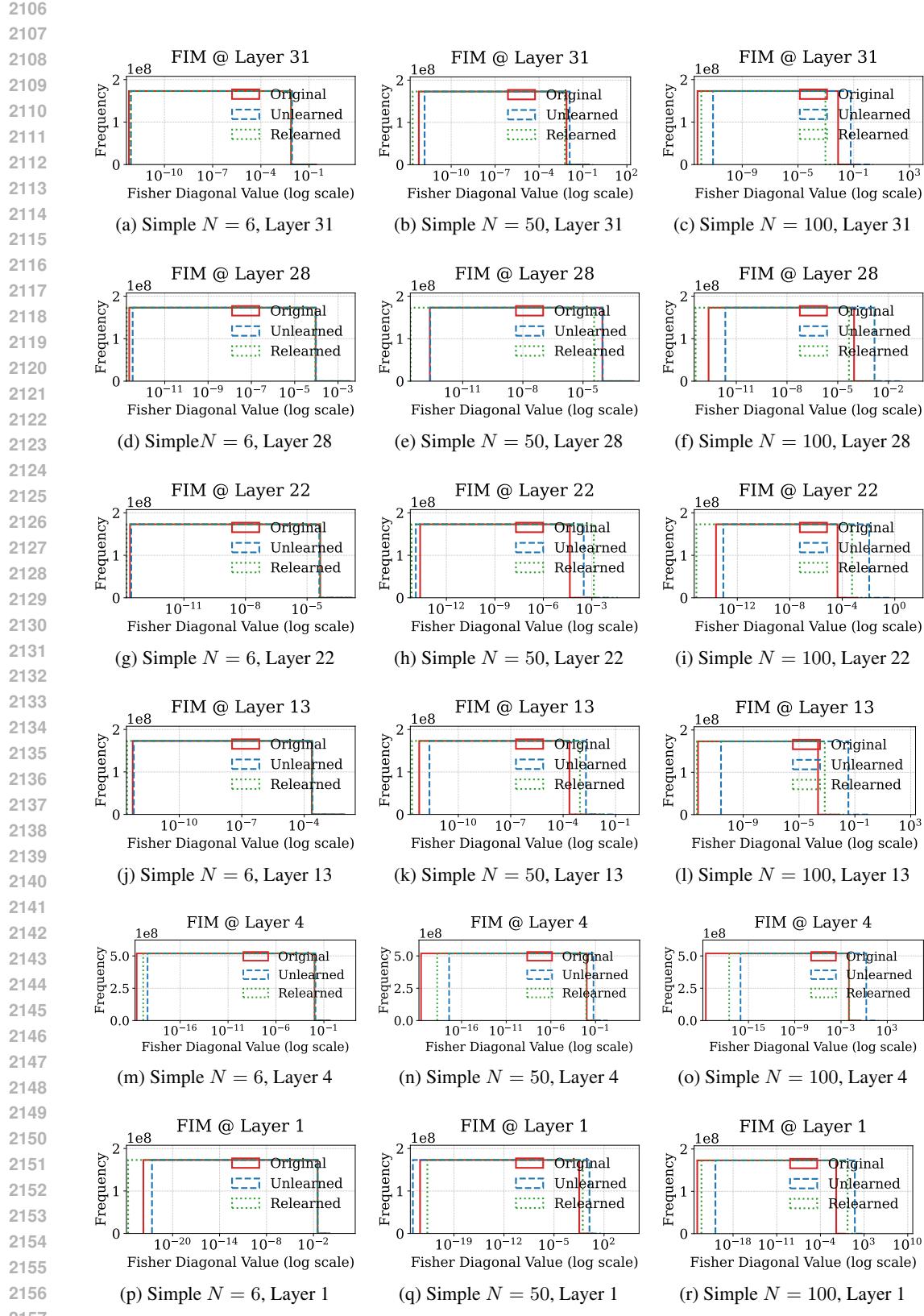
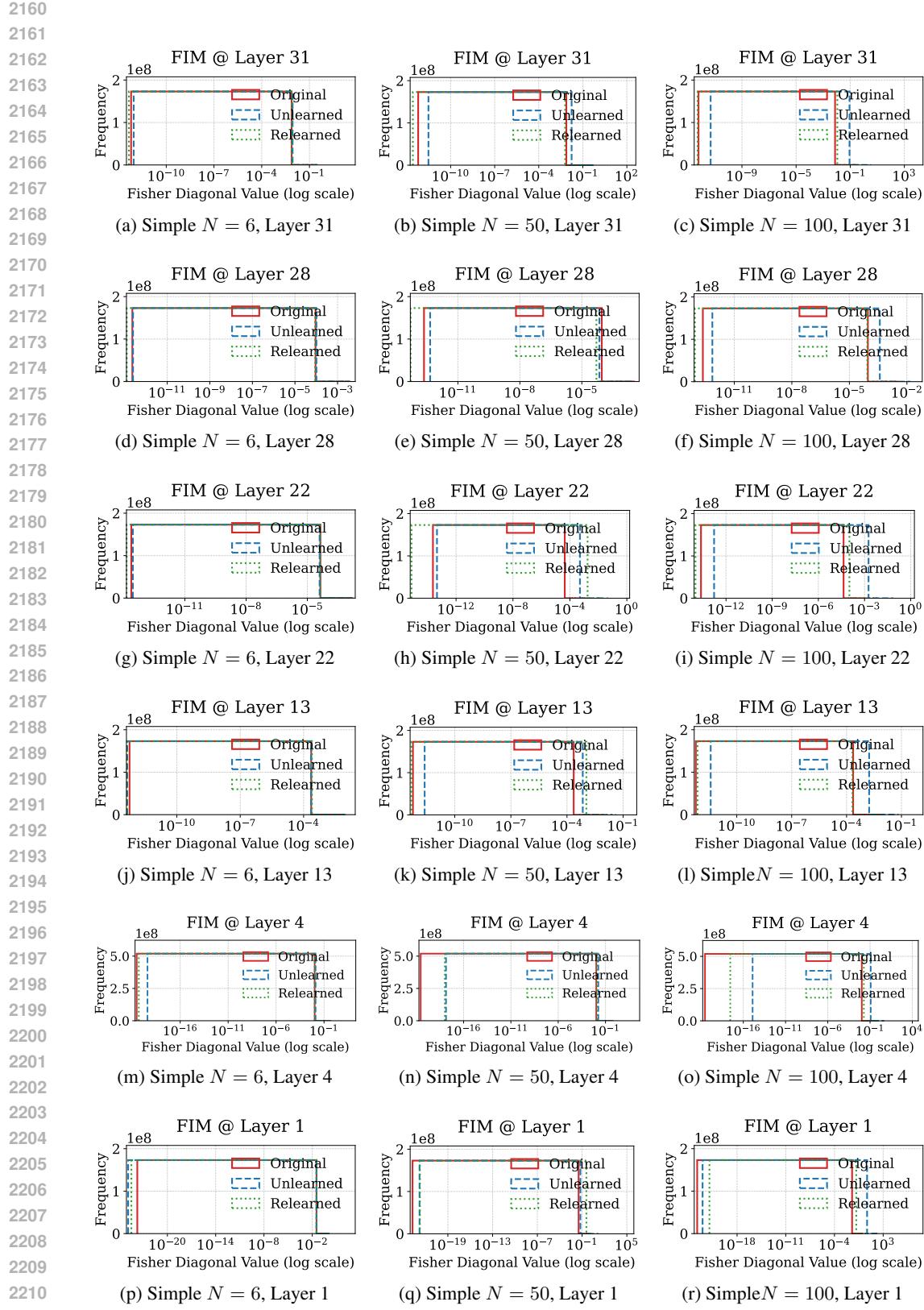


Figure 27: FIM for GA+KL Across Layers. Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$ and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.



2158 Figure 28: FIM for NPO Across Layers. Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate $LR = 3 \times 10^{-5}$
2159 and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.



2212 Figure 29: FIM for NPO+KL Across Layers. Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate LR =
2213 3×10^{-5} and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.

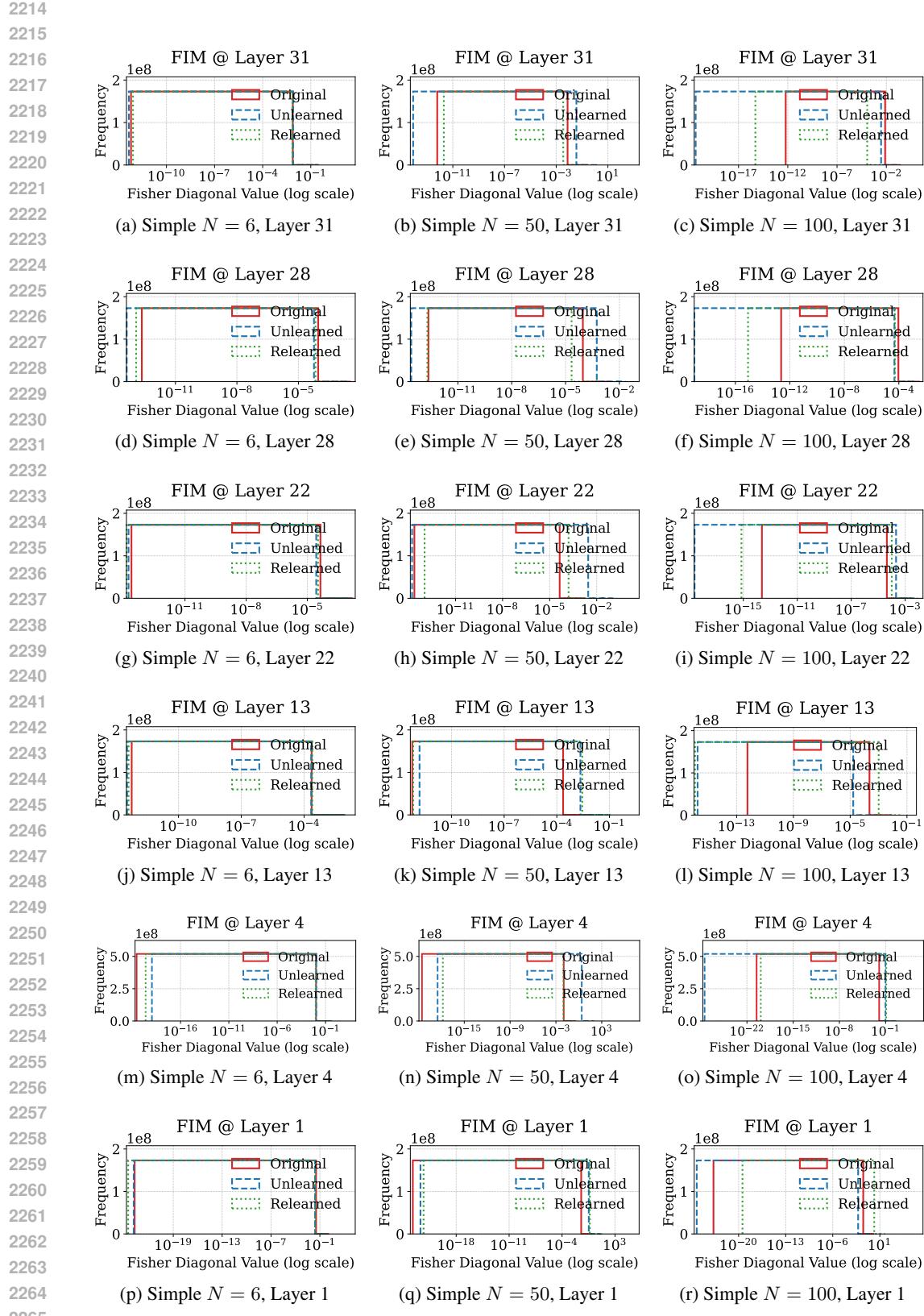


Figure 30: FIM for Rlable Across Layers. Simple task on Yi-6B with fixed learning rate LR = 3×10^{-5} and varying unlearning requests $N \in \{6, 50, 100\}$.

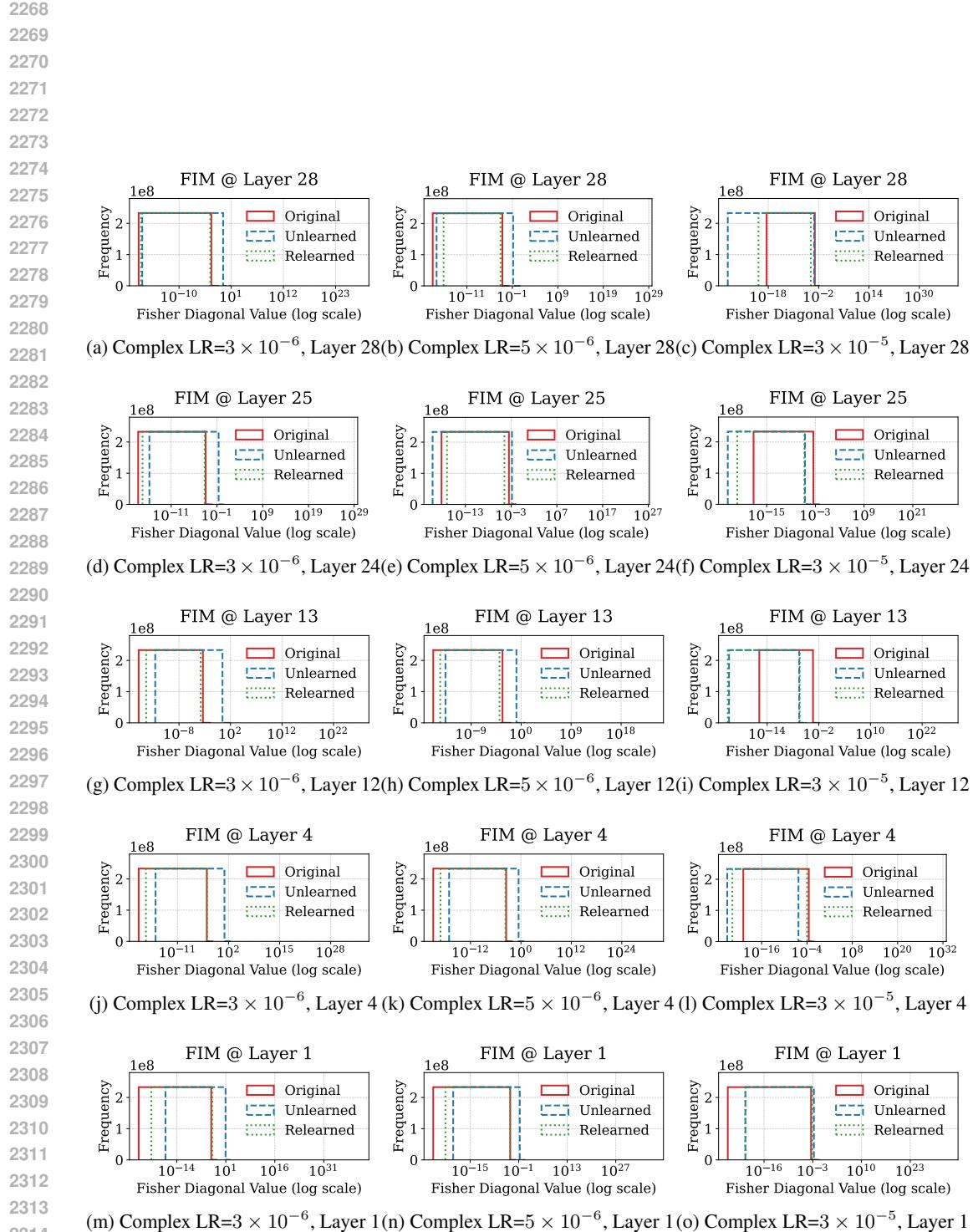
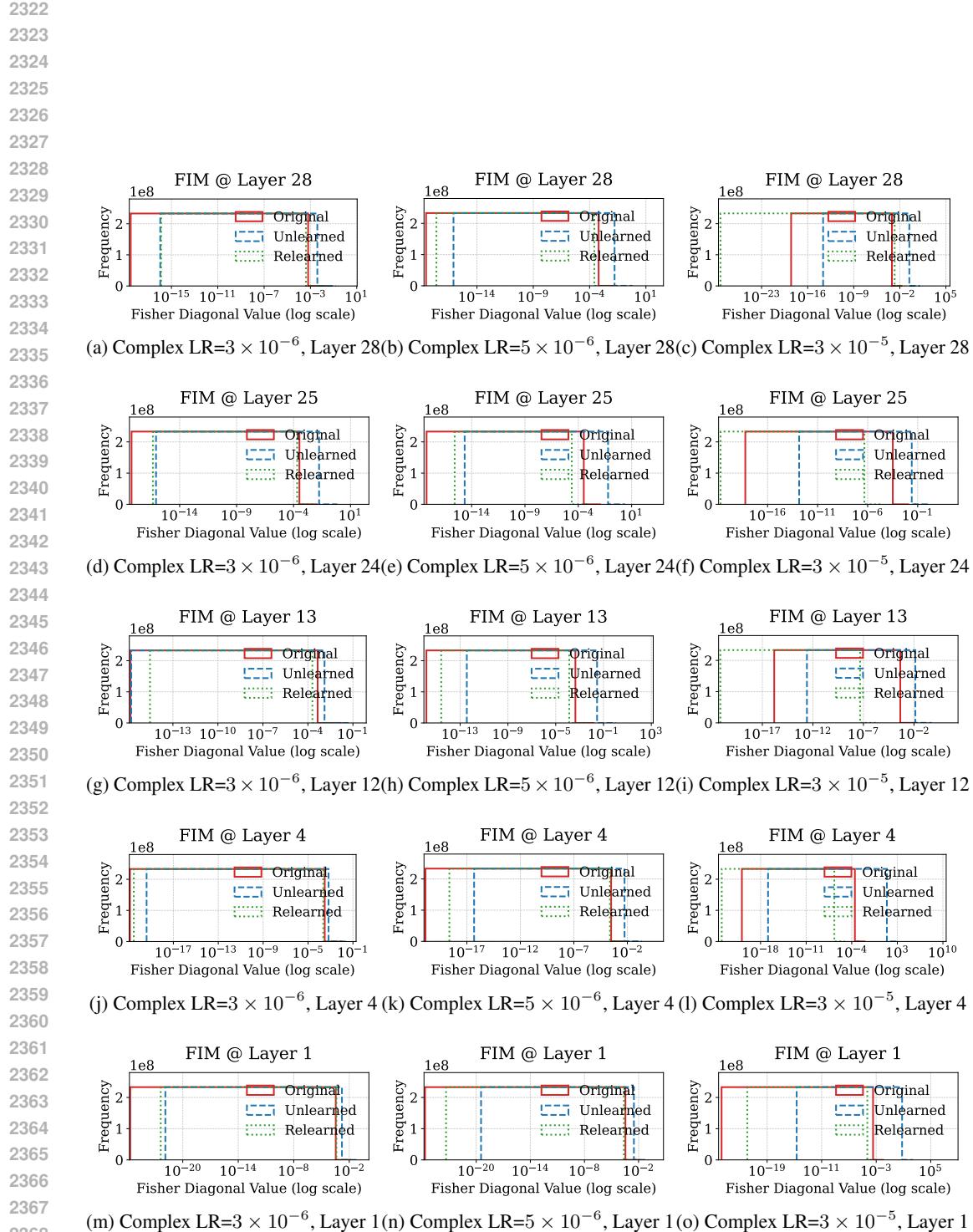


Figure 31: FIM for GA Across Layers. All plots are for the complex task on Qwen2.5-7B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 6$.



2369 Figure 32: FIM for NPO Across Layers. All plots are for the complex task on Qwen2.5-7B, using
2370 three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 6$.

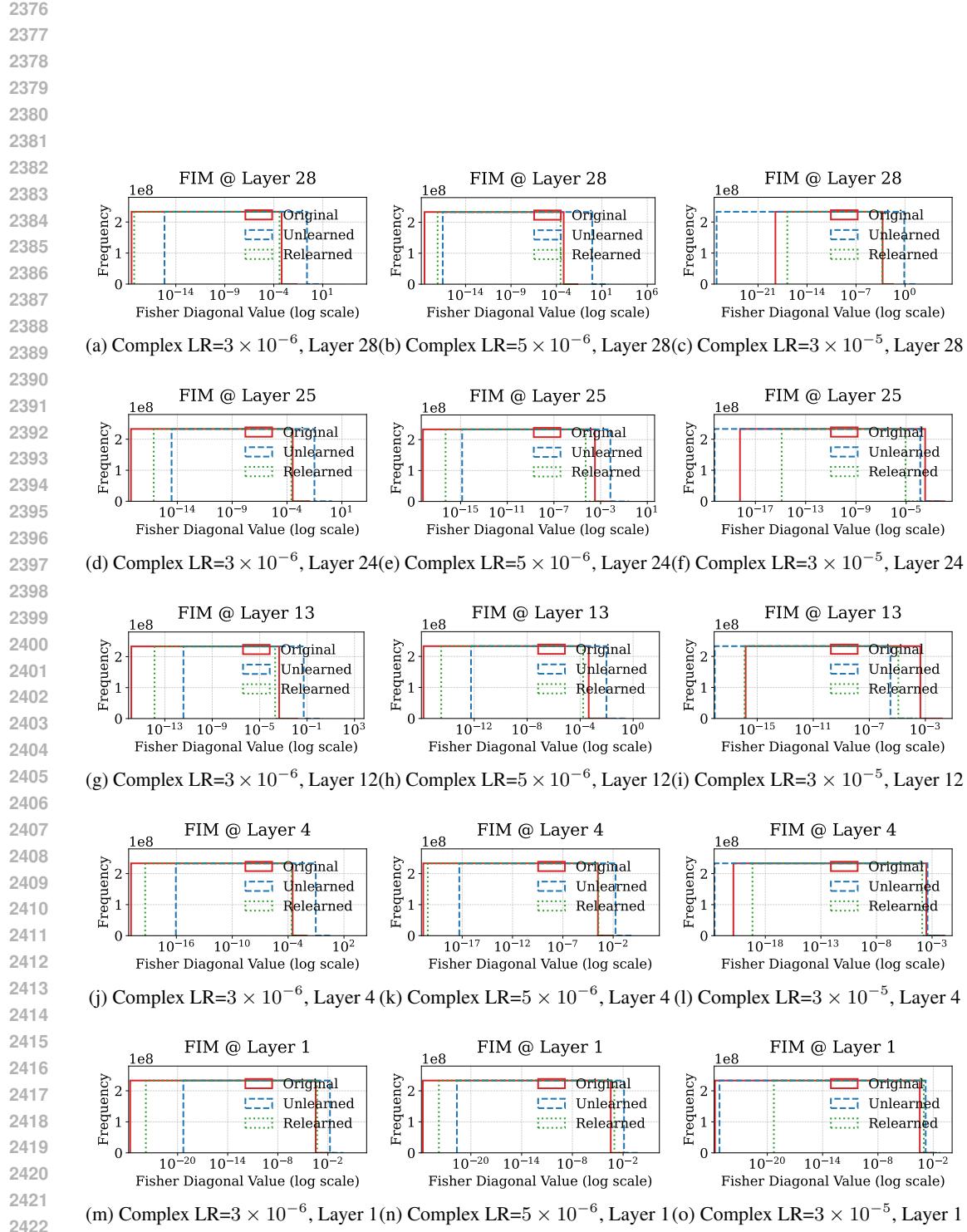
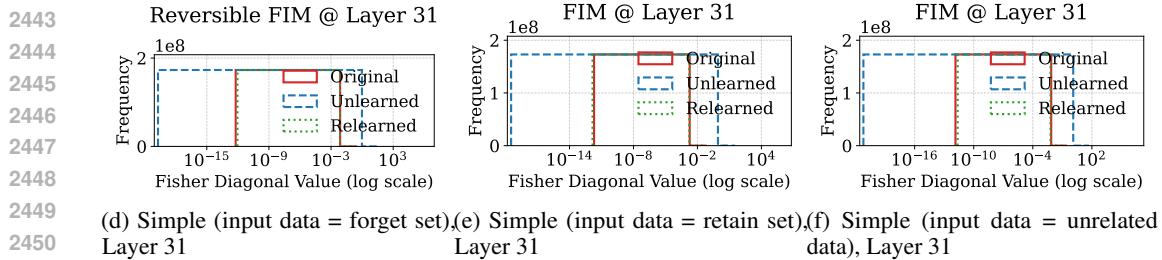
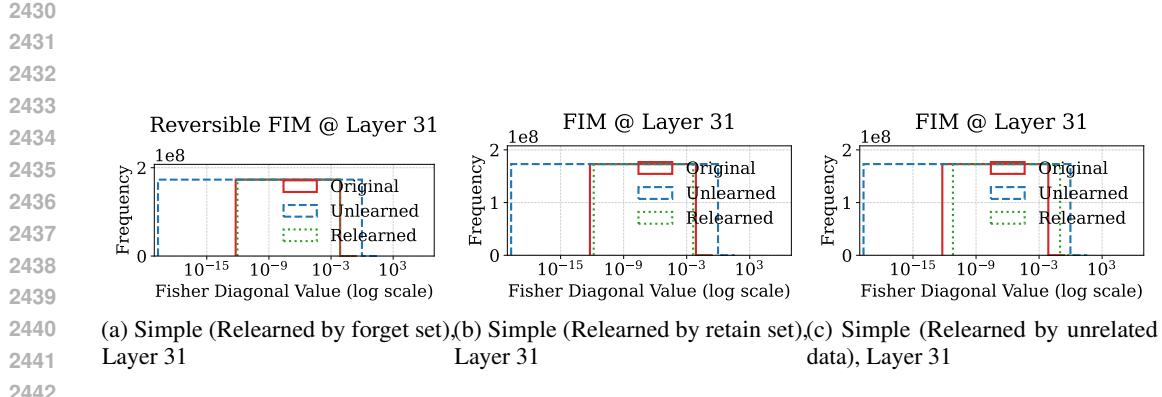
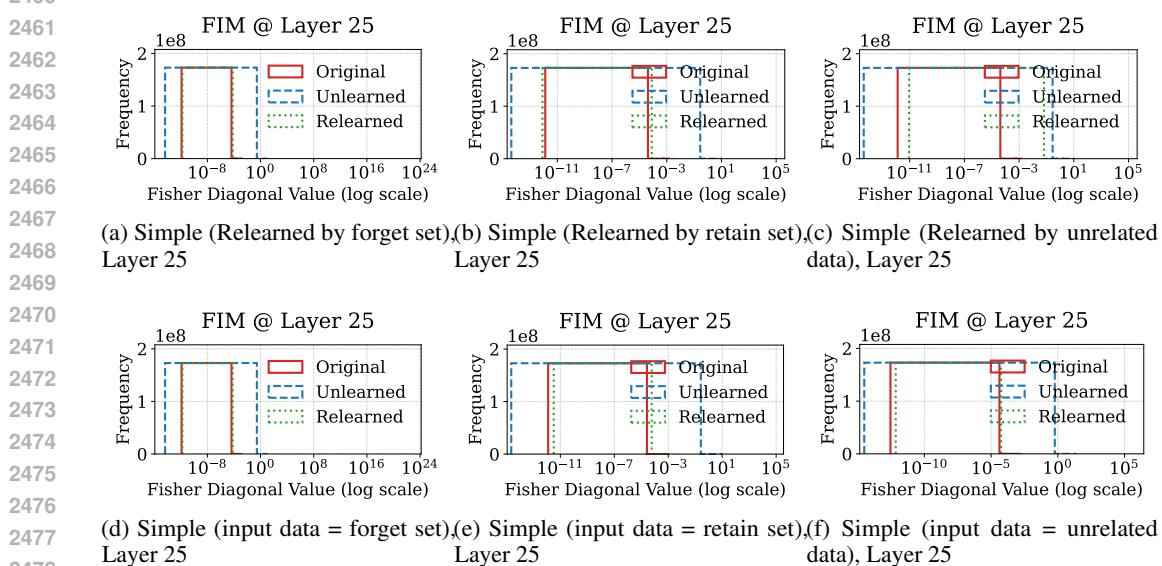


Figure 33: FIM for Rlable Across Layers. All plots are for the complex task on Qwen2.5-7B, using three learning rates $\{3 \times 10^{-6}, 5 \times 10^{-6}, 3 \times 10^{-5}\}$ and fixed $N = 6$.



2451 Figure 34: FIM in layer 31 under Varied Relearning and Evaluation Inputs on Yi-6B (Simple Task).
2452 (a–c): Relearning is performed using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data respectively. (d–f):
2453 FIM is measured using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data as evaluation input.



2479 Figure 35: FIM in layer 25 under Varied Relearning and Evaluation Inputs on Yi-6B (Simple Task).
2480 (a–c): Relearning is performed using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data respectively. (d–f):
2481 FIM is measured using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data as evaluation input.

2482
2483

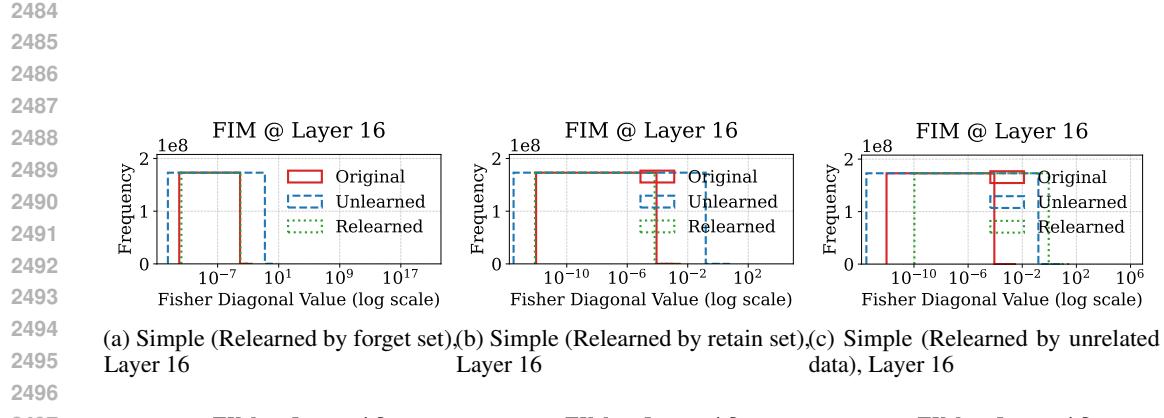


Figure 36: FIM in layer 16 under Varied Relearning and Evaluation Inputs on Yi-6B (Simple Task). (a–c): Relearning is performed using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data respectively. (d–f): FIM is measured using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data as evaluation input.

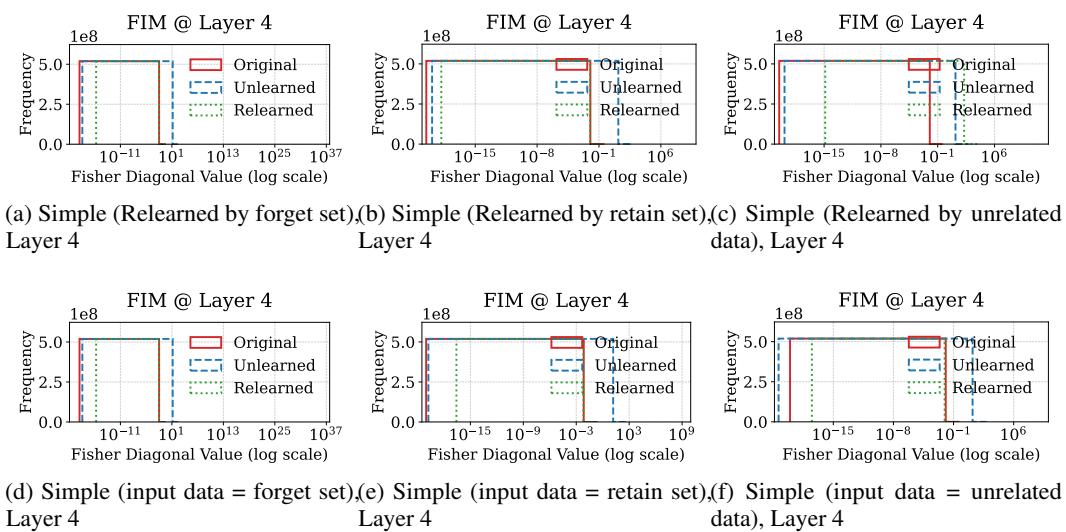


Figure 37: FIM in layer 4 under Varied Relearning and Evaluation Inputs on Yi-6B (Simple Task). (a–c): Relearning is performed using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data respectively. (d–f): FIM is measured using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data as evaluation input.

2538
 2539
 2540
 2541
 2542
 2543
 2544
 2545
 2546
 2547
 2548
 2549
 2550
 2551
 2552
 2553
 2554

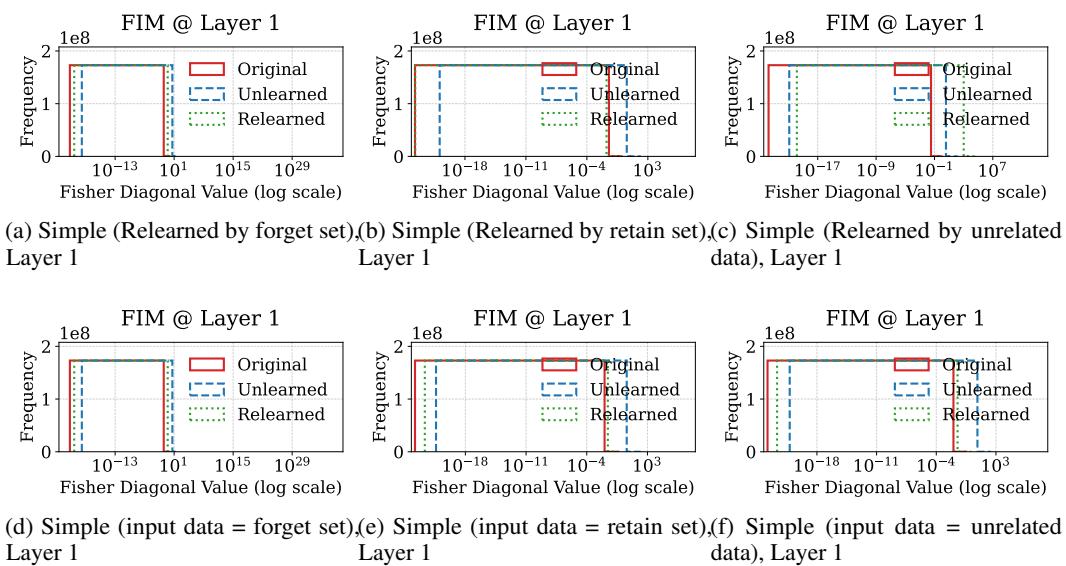


Figure 38: FIM in layer 1 under Varied Relearning and Evaluation Inputs on Yi-6B (Simple Task). (a–c): Relearning is performed using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data respectively. (d–f): FIM is measured using the forget set, retain set, or unrelated data as evaluation input.