BLIND UNLEARNING: UNLEARNING WITHOUT A FORGET SET

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Abstract

Machine unlearning is the study of methods to efficiently remove the influence of some subset of the training data from the parameters of a previously-trained model. Existing methods typically require direct access to the "forget set" – the subset of training data to be forgotten by the model. This limitation impedes privacy, as organizations need to retain user data for the sake of unlearning when a request for deletion is made, rather than being able to delete it immediately. We first introduce the setting of *blind unlearning* – unlearning without explicit access to the forget set. Then, we propose a method for approximate unlearning called RELOAD, that leverages ideas from gradient-based unlearning and neural network sparsity to achieve blind unlearning. The method serially applies an ascent step with targeted parameter re-initialization and fine-tuning, and on empirical unlearning tasks, RELOAD often approximates the behaviour of a from-scratch retrained model better than approaches that leverage the forget set. Finally, we extend the blind unlearning setting to *blind remedial learning*, the task of efficiently updating a previously-trained model to an amended dataset¹.

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1 INTRODUCTION

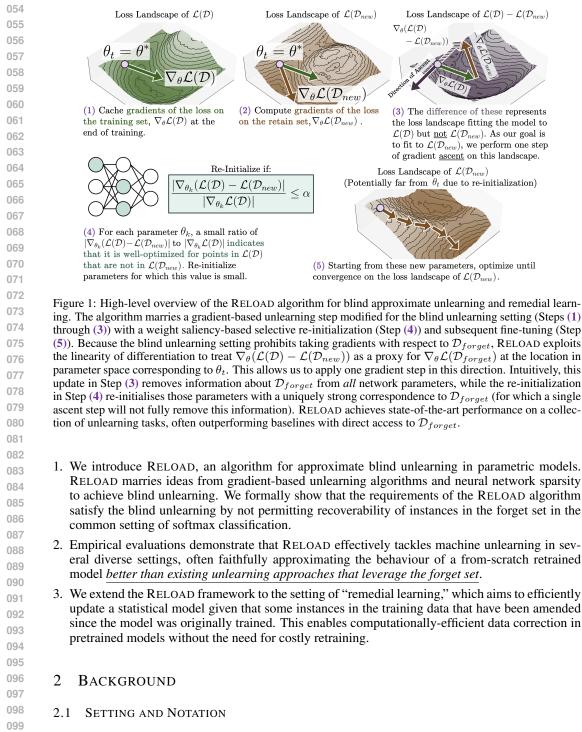
Machine unlearning poses the problem of removing the influence of certain instances in the training data on a given statistical model (Bourtoule et al., 2019). Motivated by "right to be forgotten" provisions, like those in the European Union's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) (European Parliament & Council of the European Union), methods in machine unlearning aim to provide efficient means to "forget" specific data points from a trained model without requiring that it be retrained from scratch. As larger models become more prevalent (Achiam et al., 2023), the need to unlearn specific data instances without retraining from scratch is increasingly important.

Contemporary unlearning methods generally require explicit access to the so-called "forget set" – the subset of training data to be forgotten by the model. For example, one approach entails performing 037 steps of gradient ascent on the loss landscape characterized by the forget set in order to remove its influence on the model weights (Thudi et al., 2022). However, the reliance of these methods on the forget set introduces a tension in the context of preserving user privacy: in order to enable 040 unlearning, organizations must retain the complete original set of user data on which the model was 041 trained. The retention of this data, even for the purpose of unlearning, can expose organizations and 042 individuals to risks associated with data breaches or unauthorized access. To bridge this gap, there is 043 a clear need for unlearning methods that operate without requiring access to the forget set. Existing 044 work aims to reduce the reliance on the forget set, but is limited to the constrained task of forgetting 045 classes of data, and requires knowing which classes are being forgotten (Tarun et al., 2023).

This work presents an algorithm for machine unlearning in the absence of an explicitly defined forget set; a setting we establish as "blind unlearning." Our method, RELOAD, assumes that the modeller only has access to (a) a model trained on a dataset \mathcal{D} , (b) the "retain set," $\mathcal{D}_{new} \triangleq \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{forget}$, and (c) cached gradients from the last iteration of training on \mathcal{D} . Notable in its absence from these requirements is the forget set – this means that RELOAD allows for deletion of instances in \mathcal{D}_{forget} at the conclusion of training without inhibiting downstream unlearning.

In this vein, our work makes the following contributions:

¹A software implementation of our work can be found in this code repository.



100 Let $\mathcal{D} = \{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1,...,N}$ represent a collection of i.i.d. data, where $X \in \mathcal{X}$ represents input 101 covariates and $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$ represents labels for supervised learning. Then, for some class of models \mathcal{M} , 102 let θ^* represent the parameters that minimize the empirical loss with respect to training data \mathcal{D} ,

 $\theta^* \triangleq \underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \mathbb{E}_{(X_i, Y_i) \sim \mathcal{D}} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i); \theta).$ (1)

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108 We denote an instantiation of \mathcal{M} trained on \mathcal{D} as $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^*)}$. After $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^*)}$ is trained, assume that some 109 transformation is applied to \mathcal{D} to yield \mathcal{D}_{new} (e.g., deleting instances from \mathcal{D} that are in \mathcal{D}_{forget}). 110 Then, θ^{\sim} represents the parameters that minimize the empirical loss with respect to \mathcal{D}_{new} ,

$$\theta^{\sim} \triangleq \underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\arg\min} \mathbb{E}_{(X_i, Y_i) \sim \mathcal{D}_{new}} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i); \theta).$$
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Our general goal, encompassing both unlearning and remedial learning, is transforming $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^*)}$ into $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ without naively obtaining $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ by re-training an instance of \mathcal{M} on \mathcal{D}_{new} from scratch.

117 **Machine Unlearning.** In the machine unlearning setting, the transformation of \mathcal{D} into \mathcal{D}_{new} 118 consists of first identifying a subset of the data whose influence to remove, \mathcal{D}_{forget} , and taking 119 $\mathcal{D}_{new} \triangleq \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{forget}$. These remaining instances represent the portion of the training data that is 120 retained – the full training set, less those instances to be forgotten. The goal of approximate unlearn-121 ing methods – of which RELOAD is one (see Section 2.2) – is to efficiently learn an approximation 122 of $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$. The classical setting assumes that the modeller has access to the trained model $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{*})}$, 123 the training dataset \mathcal{D} , the remaining data \mathcal{D}_{new} , and the forget set \mathcal{D}_{forget} (Cao & Yang, 2015).

124 **Remedial Learning.** The unlearning setting is subject to the restriction that $\mathcal{D}_{new} \triangleq \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{forget}$; 125 however, one may also consider the broader setting wherein \mathcal{D}_{new} is the result of some arbitrary 126 item-wise transformation to \mathcal{D} . Formally, let $f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ denote a transformation, 127 and write $(X'_i, Y'_i) = f(X_i, Y_i)$. Then, \mathcal{D}_{new} represents the result of applying f item-wise to K128 elements of \mathcal{D} , and applying the identity transform to the remaining N - K elements, as

$$\mathcal{D}_{new} = \{ (X'_i, Y'_i) \}_{i=1,\dots,K} \cup \{ (X_i, Y_i) \}_{i=K+1,\dots,N}.$$
(3)

This represents a generalization of the unlearning problem, as we wish to "unlearn" the influence of $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1,...,K}$ on our original model, and "relearn" the influence of $\{(X'_i, Y'_i)\}_{i=1,...,K}$. This setting encompasses the following data transformations, among others:

1. Covariate Correction: $\mathcal{D}_{new} = \{(X'_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1,...,K} \cup \{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=K+1,...,N}$, where X'_i represents a corrected version of the features X_i , and indices K + 1, ..., N correspond to those with erroneous covariates (e.g., data was corrupted during collection/pre-processing).

2. Label Correction: $\mathcal{D}_{new} = \{(X_i, Y'_i)\}_{i=1,...,K} \cup \{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=K+1,...,N}$, where Y'_i represents a corrected version of the label Y_i , and indices K+1, ..., N correspond to those that were originally mis-labelled during annotation.

This work studies how the RELOAD algorithm accomplishes tasks both in the unlearning setting,and in the setting of remedial learning.

Blind Unlearning / Blind Remedial Learning. In contrast to the classical unlearning (and remedial learning) settings, in which the modeller has access to the forget set, our setting assumes no such access. We call this setting *blind unlearning* (or *blind remedial learning*). The blind unlearning / remedial learning setting has access to the trained model $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{D}}$, the new dataset \mathcal{D}_{new} , and (potentially) some limited information about the original data, $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{D}}$, from which which neither \mathcal{D}_{forget} (in the unlearning setting) or \mathcal{D} (in the remedial learning setting) can be fully reconstructed.

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2.2 RELATED WORK

Exact and Approximate Unlearning. Exact unlearning refers to the subclass of algorithms that provide formal guarantees of the extent to which information about \mathcal{D}_{forget} was removed from the weights of a model. The trivial method for exact unlearning consists of naively retraining the model from scratch (this is considered the gold-standard for machine unlearning; see Cao & Yang (2015); Thudi et al. (2022); Shaik et al. (2024)). Other exact unlearning methods include SISA (Bourtoule et al., 2019), which partitions the data to accelerate retraining, Certified Data Removal (Guo et al., 2019), which performs a Newton update in the opposite direction of the gradient with respect to \mathcal{D}_{forget} , and Certified Graph Unlearning (Chien et al., 2022), which builds on Certified Data Removal using the graph topology to enforce guaranteed unlearning. Unlike exact unlearning methods, approximate unlearning algorithms (like RELOAD) aim to recover the behaviour of a model naively retrained on the new set without providing any formal theoretical guarantees. These methods can be sub-classified into either gradient-based or weight-saliency based algorithms.

168 Gradient-Based Approximate Unlearning. Many existing approximate unlearning algorithms per-169 form an optimization procedure on $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^*)}$ using the forget set \mathcal{D}_{forget} and the retain set \mathcal{D}_{new} . One 170 simple standard approach applies gradient ascent on the loss with respect to \mathcal{D}_{forget} , in order to 171 undo the parameter updates induced by those instances during training (Graves et al., 2021; Thudi 172 et al., 2022). Another gradient-based approach leverages a teacher-student method: "Bad Teacher" 173 performs knowledge distillation based on one trained model on \mathcal{D}_{new} (the "good teacher") and one 174 a randomly initialised model on \mathcal{D}_{forget} (the "bad teacher") (Chundawat et al., 2022); SCalable Remembering and Unlearning unBound (SCRUB) similarly distills a student model from a teacher 175 trained on \mathcal{D} , but the student learns to selectively disobey the teacher by directly maximizing the loss 176 on \mathcal{D}_{forget} (Kurmanji et al., 2023). A third family directly manipulates the structure of the learned 177 representation space using gradients: Distance-based Unlearning via Centroid Kinematics (DUCK) 178 (Cotogni et al., 2023) drives representations of elements in \mathcal{D}_{forget} towards the nearest incorrect 179 centroid in the feature space, while Boundary Unlearning (Chen et al., 2023) implements class-level unlearning by shifting the decision boundary corresponding to the class(es) defining \mathcal{D}_{forget} . 181

Weight Saliency-Based Approximate Unlearning. Another class of approximate unlearning methods derives from the hypothesis that identifiable substructures in neural networks often correspond to different subsets of the training data (Pfeiffer et al., 2023). These methods leverage ideas from neural sparsity (Frankle & Carbin, 2018; Chen et al., 2024) to perform targeted unlearning on specific parameters. Saliency unlearning (SalUn) uses a threshold on $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$ to identify parameters containing the most signal about \mathcal{D}_{forget} and focuses model updates on these parameters (Fan et al., 2023). Selective Synaptic Dampening (SSD) (Foster et al., 2023) extends this idea to avoid gradient steps by scaling parameters based on their Fisher Information Matrix importance scores.

Blind Unlearning. This setting involves unlearning without access to \mathcal{D}_{forget} at the instanced of 190 unlearning. It then reduces to taking a model fit on one dataset \mathcal{D} and adapting it to fitting a new 191 dataset \mathcal{D}_{new} . This connects to domain adaptation, in which differences in datasets may not be 192 explicitly defined. In blind unlearning it is not available. An unlearning baseline, Finetuning (FT) 193 (Warnecke et al., 2023) on the retain-set \mathcal{D}_{new} fulfills the blind criteria. Catastrophically forgetting 194 the last k layers (CF-k) and Exact-unlearning the last k layers (EU-k) (Goel et al., 2022) are also 195 blind. Fisher Forgetting (Fisher) (Golatkar et al., 2020) is also a blind unlearning algorithm, but is 196 theoretically bound by class unlearning. Both FT and CF-k provide no strong theoretical indication 197 of unlearning. EU-k does by re-initialising the last k layers of the model. Our method, RELOAD, provides a stronger indication by selectively re-initialises parameters which know the most about the knowledge we wish to remove. 199

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3.1 ALGORITHM REQUIREMENTS

Assumption 1 (Unlearning from Cached Gradients). In RELOAD, $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{D}} = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})$.

The following lemma demonstrates why this is a valid choice of $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{D}}$ for blind unlearning / remedial learning in the softmax classification setting, because this choice does not not permit recovery of the removed instances within \mathcal{D}_{forget} (or of instances in \mathcal{D} and not in \mathcal{D}_{new} in remedial learning) in the common setting of softmax classification.

Definition 1 (Recoverability). Consider some data, $\mathcal{D} \in \mathcal{D}$, and consider a transformation $f : \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{Q}$ that maps \mathcal{D} into an arbitrary output space \mathcal{Q} . \mathcal{D} is recoverable if f is injective.

Lemma 1 (\mathcal{D}_{forget} is Not Recoverable from $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{D}}$ in Softmax Classification). Consider softmax classification over C classes, where each $Y_i \in [0,1]^C$ represents a one-hot encoded vector of class labels, $\hat{Y}_i = \left[e^{Z_{i1}}/\sum_{j=1}^{C} e^{Z_{j1}}, ..., e^{Z_{iC}}/\sum_{j=1}^{C} e^{Z_{jC}}\right]$ represents predicted probabilities for each class

216 generated from model logits $Z_i \in \mathbb{R}^C$, and $\mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i), \hat{Y}_i) = -\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^C Y_{ij} \log \hat{Y}_{ij}$. The 217 transformation $\mathcal{G}: \mathcal{D} \to \Theta$ s.t. $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{D}) = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) \triangleq \mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{D}}$ is not injective. 218

Proof. Recall from Section 3.2 that we can write $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new})$ as $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$. Then, if $|\mathcal{D}_{forget}| > 1$, the numerator $\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$ can be written as $\sum_{(X_i,Y_i)\in \mathcal{D}_{forget}} \nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}((X_i,Y_i),\hat{Y_i}).$ Because summation is not injective, \mathcal{G} is also noninjective. In the other case, if $|\mathcal{D}_{forget}| = 1$, we write $\mathcal{D}_{forget} = \{(X_1, Y_1)\}$. Without 223 224 loss of generality, $Y_{ij} = 1$ and $Y_{ik} = 0$ for all $k \neq j$. Given $\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}((X_1, Y_1), \hat{Y_1}) =$ $-\nabla_{\theta_k} \sum_{i=1}^C Y_{1i} \log \hat{Y}_{1i} = \nabla_{\theta_k} \log \hat{Y}_{1j} = \frac{1}{\hat{Y}_{1i}}$, we can recover the j'th output of the model, \hat{Y}_{1j} . $\hat{Y}_{1j} = \frac{e^{Z_{1j}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{C} e^{Z_{1i}}}$. For any element Z_{1k} of Z_1 , $e^{Z_{1k}} = \hat{Y}_{1j} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{C} e^{Z_{1i}}$, this implies that $Z_{1k} = \log(\hat{Y}_{1j} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{C} e^{Z_{1i}}) = \log(\hat{Y}_{1j}) + \log(\sum_{i=1}^{C} e^{Z_{1i}}))$ which cannot be calculated without knowing the other elements of Z_1 . Thus, given only Y_{1j} , no elements of Z_1 can be obtained, hence 230 \mathcal{G} is also injective in this case.

3.2 Algorithm Intuition

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234 Direction of Movement. The central challenge of blind unlearning is that taking repeated gradients of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$ is impossible without access to \mathcal{D}_{forget} . However, from cached gradients of \mathcal{D} at the 235 conclusion of model training, $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})$, we can infer $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$. 236

To do so, let $\hat{Y}_i = \mathcal{M}^{(\theta)}(X_i)$ represent the model's prediction. Then,

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget}) = \sum_{(X_i, Y_i) \in \mathcal{D}_{forget}} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i), \hat{Y}_i) = \sum_{(X_i, Y_i) \in \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{new}} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i), \hat{Y}_i) \quad (4)$$

where the second equality follows from $\mathcal{D}_{new} = \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{forget}$. Equivalently,

$$= \sum_{(X_i, Y_i) \in \mathcal{D}} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i), \hat{Y}_i) - \mathbb{1}_{(X_i, Y_i) \in \mathcal{D}_{new}} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i), \hat{Y}_i) \right]$$
(5)

$$= \sum_{(X_i, Y_i) \in \mathcal{D}} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i), \hat{Y}_i) - \sum_{(X_i, Y_i) \in \mathcal{D}_{new}} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}((X_i, Y_i), \hat{Y}_i)$$
(6)

$$= \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new}).$$
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Therefore, a gradient-based descent update in the direction of $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$ moves the model pa-250 rameters such that they better fit to \mathcal{D}_{forget} ; because our goal is unlearning \mathcal{D}_{forget} , RELOAD 251 instead begins with a single gradient ascent update step in this direction. 252

253 In unlearning, our goal is to obtain a gradient in the direction of \mathcal{D}_{forget} . The remedial learning case is more general: the goal is to obtain $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{D}_{new}^c)$, a gradient pointing towards the empirical 254 minimum of the loss on elements that are uniquely contained in \mathcal{D} and not in \mathcal{D}_{new} , and $-\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}^c \cap$ 255 \mathcal{D}_{new}), a gradient pointing *away* from the empirical minimum of the loss on elements uniquely 256 contained in \mathcal{D}_{new} but not in \mathcal{D} . Unlearning represents the special case of this framework in which 257 $\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{D}_{new}^c = \mathcal{D}_{forget}$ and $\mathcal{D}^c \cap \mathcal{D}_{new} = \emptyset$. In the remedial learning setting, the desired gradient is also $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new})$; the derivation can be found in Appendix A.1. This informs Step (2) 258 259 - 3) in Figure 1. 260

Targeted Parameter Adjustments. Taking a gradient step in this direction, however, is insufficient 261 for unlearning (or remedial learning) for two reasons. First, we are limited to a single gradient step 262 in this direction (Assumption 1), and second, theory from network modularity (Rodriguez et al., 263 2019) suggests that a small subset of parameters contain a disproportionate amount of the necessary 264 information to characterize instances in \mathcal{D}_{forget} . While one ascent step may be useful at removing 265 what little information about \mathcal{D}_{forget} is included *across all* network parameters, it is less plausible 266 that this single step will remove information about \mathcal{D}_{forget} from the subset of parameters most 267 responsible for its characterization. 268

We therefore perform selective re-initialization of these parameters as follows. Consider the gradient 269 $\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$, the gradient of the loss with respect to instances in \mathcal{D}_{forget} and with respect to a 270 particular parameter θ_k . If this gradient is small, it means that θ_k is well-optimized to characterize 271 instances in \mathcal{D}_{foraet} ; if this gradient is large, it means that θ_k poorly characterizes these instances. 272 Although the absolute values of these gradients are largely meaningless, the relative magnitude 273 of $\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})$ compared $\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})$ is a meaningful representation of the extent to which θ_k 274 is responsible for characterizing information about \mathcal{D}_{forget} . We call this the knowledge value of parameter θ_k , and formally define it as, 275

$$KV_{\theta_k} \triangleq \frac{|\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget})| + \epsilon}{|\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})| + \epsilon} = \frac{|\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new})| + \epsilon}{|\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})| + \epsilon},$$
(8)

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where ϵ is a small Laplace smoothing constant. Here the second equality follows from the relationship between $\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{forget}), \nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})$, and $\nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new})$ that we derived earlier in this section. A small knowledge value characterizes a parameter that is knowledgeable about \mathcal{D}_{forget} , so by selectively re-initializing all parameters θ_k if QUANTILE_{KV}(KV_{θ_k}) $\leq \alpha$ (α is a hyperparameter), we can remove the influence of the parameters uniquely responsible for encoding information about these data. This thinking extends on lines of work in gradient-based input saliency maps (Smilkov et al., 2017) and saliency unlearning by Fan et al. (2023). We explore and compare other methods of identifying knowledgeable weights in Appendix A.5.2. This informs Step (4) in Figure 1.

3.3 THE RELOAD ALGORITHM

Based on this intuition, our RELOAD algorithm contains the following steps. (1) Cache the gradients $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D})$ at the end of training. (2) Compute $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new})$. (3) Perform one step of gradient *ascent* in the direction of $\nabla_{\theta}(\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new}))$. (4) Re-initialize all parameters θ_k that are smaller than the α -QUANTILE of knowledge values. Finally, (5) fine-tune until convergence on $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new})$. A formal description is shown in Algorithm 1. A software implementation can be found here.

1: In	uput: $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^*)}$, cached $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}), \mathcal{D}_{new}$	
2: P	arameters: η_p : priming step learning rate, ϵ : noise parameter, α : r	eset proportion
3: O	Putput: Trained model approximating $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$	
4:		
5: p	rocedure Reload($\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^*)}, \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}; \mathcal{M}^{(\theta^*)}), \mathcal{D}_{new})$	
6:	$ heta' \leftarrow heta^* + \eta_p abla_ heta(\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new}))$	\triangleright Step $(2-3)$ (<i>Fig.</i>
7:	$\mathrm{KV} \leftarrow \left\{ \frac{ \nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new}) + \epsilon}{ \nabla_{\theta_k} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) + \epsilon} \right\}_{\theta_k \in \theta}$	⊳ Step (3) (<i>Fig.</i>
8:	for $ heta_k\in heta'$ do	
9:	if $QUANTILE_{KV}(KV_{\theta_k}) \leq \alpha$ then	
10:	$\theta'_k \leftarrow \text{INITIALIZE}(\cdot)$	\triangleright Step (4) (<i>Fig.</i>
11:	end if	
12:	end for	
13:	Train $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta')}$ to convergence on \mathcal{D}_{new}	▷ Step (5) (<i>Fig.</i>
14: e	nd procedure	

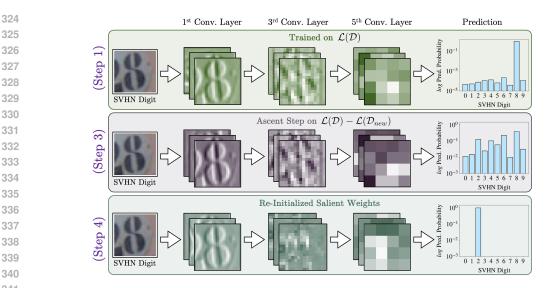
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RESULTS AND ANALYSIS 4

4.1 METHODOLOGICAL INTROSPECTION 314

315 Figure 2 introspects on the selected feature maps of a ResNet-18 model when using RELOAD to 316 unlearn the class "8" from the SVHN dataset. The experiment demonstrates the importance of the 317 re-initialization step (Step (4) in Figure 1), as even after a single ascent step, the model still finds 318 "8" to be the most probable class. It is only after the salient weights are identified and re-initialized 319 that the model emits a lower-entropy distribution classifying the digit as a "2". This suggests that 320 the primary utility of the ascent step in our algorithm is in amending the representations of \mathcal{D}_{foraet} 321 in the later layers of the network, while the salient weight re-initialization updates also modify 322 the representations produced by earlier layers. The findings of this experiment present empirical 323 confirmation of the intuition used to develop the algorithm (Section 3.2).



341 Figure 2: Introspecting on selected feature maps of a ResNet-18 model when using RELOAD to unlearn the 342 class "8". For brevity, we selected the first channel from each feature map for the sake of visualization, though 343 the patterns we identify appear to hold more broadly across channels. (Top) The feature maps (activations) of the first, third, and fifth convolutional layers after the model was initially trained on \mathcal{D} (Step (1) in Figure 344 1). (Middle) These same feature masks after the ascent step has been applied (Step (3) in Figure 1). Observe 345 how the activations of the model remain largely unchanged, although the logits represent a considerably more 346 uniform distribution over the digits. (Bottom) These same features masks after the salient weights have been 347 identified and re-initialized (Step (4) in Figure 1). Observe that the activation of the first convolutional layer is 348 largely unchanged – this is expected, as the earlier layers of the network correspond to broad feature detectors (Zeiler & Fergus, 2014)) that may be less unique to the features of any particular class in this data. Notice, 349 however, that the feature map of the third convolutional layer is substantially different from that of the previous 350 two stages (it no longer features a hazy "8"), and that the network now emits a significantly lower-entropy 351 distribution predicting the input image as a "2". 352

4.2 UNLEARNING EXPERIMENTS

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Baselines. We compare RELOAD against baseline approaches of gradient ascent (GA) (Thudi et al., 2022), fine-tuning on \mathcal{D}_{new} (FT) (Warnecke et al., 2023), Selective Synaptic Dampening (SSD) (Foster et al., 2023), SCalable Remembering and Unlearning unBound (SCRUB) (Kurmanji et al., 2023), Catastrophically Forgetting the last k layers (CF-k) (Goel et al., 2022), Exact-Unlearning the last k layers (EU-k) (Goel et al., 2022), SalUn (Fan et al., 2023), and Fisher forgetting (Fisher) (Golatkar et al., 2020). Of these baselines, the requirements of FT, CF-k, EU-k, and Fisher satisfy the blind unlearning setting, whereas the others require direct access to \mathcal{D}_{forget} .

Evaluation. As the goal of approximate unlearning is to produce a learned model that mimics the behaviour of $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$, we employ several evaluation statistics to measure the similarity in perfor-364 mance between our learned model and a version of $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ that we naively train from scratch. The 365 accuracy on \mathcal{D}_{new} (NA, \uparrow) measures how well each learned model fits to the new data. The dif-366 ference in accuracy on \mathcal{D}_{forget} (Δ FA, \downarrow) measures the difference in accuracy between our learned 367 model and $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on \mathcal{D}_{forget} , while the difference in error on \mathcal{D}_{forget} (ΔFE , \downarrow) measures the difference in (cross-entropy) loss between our learned model and $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on the \mathcal{D}_{forget} . The difference 368 369 in success rates of a membership inference attack on \mathcal{D}_{forget} (Δ FMIA, \downarrow) measures the ability of 370 the inference attack from Shokri et al. (2017) to identify members of \mathcal{D}_{forget} in the training data of each leaned model, compared to the baseline rate of identification on $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$. We also report 372 the AUC of the MIA attack model ($\Delta AUC, \downarrow$). The symmetric KL-divergence on \mathcal{D}_{new} (NSKL, 373 \downarrow) measures the dissimilarity in the logits produced by our learned model and $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on \mathcal{D}_{new} , 374 while the symmetric KL-divergence on \mathcal{D}_{forget} (FSKL, \downarrow) measures the dissimilarity in the logits produced by our learned model and $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on \mathcal{D}_{forget} . Cost (\downarrow) measures the computational cost 375 376 of the method, and is the ratio of time to run the method to the time to naively train $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$. 377

RELOAD unlearns randomly-selected samples. In this experiment, we randomly assign 10% of the training data samples to \mathcal{D}_{foraet} , to showcase how well each method can unlearn arbitrary train-ing samples. The results of this experiment are shown in Table 1. Observe that RELOAD achieves the highest NA, while maintaining the lowest Δ FA, Δ FE, Δ FMIA, and FSKL of all approaches. This suggests that RELOAD successfully approximates $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ better than the baselines. That fine-tuning achieves a lower NSKL than RELOAD is hardly surprising, as NSKL measures dissimilarity in logits on \mathcal{D}_{new} , and fine-tuning adjusts a converged model $\mathcal{M}^{(\bar{\theta}^*)}$ to fit a subset of its original task. Simi-larly, the computational cost of RELOAD, though similar to many baselines, is considerably greater than either SSD or gradient ascent. The results in Table 1 are produced using a ResNet-18 model on CIFAR-100; additional results with different models and datasets, and on randomly assigning 30% of training data samples to \mathcal{D}_{forget} can be found in Appendix A.6.

Method	NA (\uparrow)	$\Delta \mathrm{FA}\left(\downarrow ight)$	$\Delta \mathrm{FE}\left(\downarrow\right)$	Δ FMIA (\downarrow)	$Cost (\downarrow)$	NSKL (\downarrow)	FSKL (\downarrow)
Retrain	$99.98_{\pm 0.01}$	$74.89_{\pm 2.03}$	1.06 ± 0.13	0.63 ± 0.20	$1.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.00_{\pm 0.0}$
GA	$93.81_{\pm 0.75}$	$18.77_{\pm 2.43}$	$0.95_{\pm 0.14}$	$0.21_{\pm 0.06}$	$0.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.29_{\pm 0.09}$	$2.62_{\pm 0.0}$
FT	96.00 ± 0.12	16.46 ± 2.47	$0.89_{\pm 0.14}$	$0.19_{\pm 0.08}$	$0.27_{\pm 0.00}^{-}$	$0.03_{\pm 0.01}$	$2.11_{\pm 0.0}$
SSD	1.01 ± 0.02	74.17 ± 2.04	4.19 ± 0.59	0.15 ± 0.21	0.01 ± 0.00	14.90 ± 1.24	11.81 ± 1
SCRUB	$93.76_{\pm 0.74}$	18.85 ± 2.39	0.95 ± 0.14	$0.20_{\pm 0.06}$	$0.02_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.29_{\pm 0.09}$	2.63 ± 0.0
CF-k	$94.75_{\pm 0.41}$	$18.01_{\pm 2.60}$	$0.94_{\pm 0.14}$	$0.20_{\pm 0.06}$	$0.21_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.14_{\pm 0.03}$	$2.47_{\pm 0.0}$
EU-k	94.32 ± 0.49	17.93 ± 2.55	0.94 ± 0.14	0.20 ± 0.06	0.21 ± 0.00	0.19 ± 0.05	2.33 ± 0.0
SalUn	99.06 ± 0.22	13.14 ± 2.53	$0.11_{\pm 0.09}$	7.39 ± 2.60	0.16 ± 0.00	0.06 ± 0.02	0.55 ± 0
Fisher	$97.76_{\pm 0.78}$	$22.99_{\pm 2.30}$	$0.95_{\pm 0.14}$	$7.27_{\pm 2.48}$	$1.78_{\pm 0.04}$	$0.07_{\pm 0.02}$	$0.56_{\pm 0.5}$
Reload	$99.56_{\pm 0.11}$	$0.30_{\pm 0.50}$	$0.04_{\pm 0.02}$	$0.01_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.12_{\pm 0.01}$	0.15 ± 0.03	1.23 ± 0.5

Table 1: 10% Random Forgetting on CIFAR-100 (ResNet-18). The top row presents the value of $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on each metric. Subsequent rows for ΔFA (\downarrow), ΔFE (\downarrow), and $\Delta FMIA$ (\downarrow) present the absolute difference in the value of the corresponding method on this metric to the value of $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on the metric. These results show that RELOAD outperforms all the baselines on NA, ΔFA , ΔFE , $\Delta FMIA$, and FSKL by large margins. RELOAD performs competitively on the NSKL metric, outperformed by FT and CF-*k*. RELOAD incurs a higher computational cost than most baselines, but is cheaper than FT, CF-*k*, and EU-*k*.

Method	NA (\uparrow)	FA (Δ^{\downarrow})	FE (Δ^{\downarrow})	FMIA (Δ^{\downarrow})	$Cost (\downarrow)$	NSKL (\downarrow)	FSKL (↓
Retrain	$99.99_{\pm 0.00}$	$95.12_{\pm 0.23}$	$0.20_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.50_{\pm 0.00}$	$1.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.00_{\pm 0}$
GA	$99.57_{\pm 0.02}$	$4.37_{\pm 0.25}$	$0.17_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.05_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.05_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.52_{\pm 0.5}$
FT	$99.99_{\pm 0.00}$	$4.33_{\pm 0.22}$	$0.17_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.04_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.27_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.43_{\pm 0.5}$
SSD	12.75 ± 4.69	82.52 ± 4.73	2.12 ± 0.06	$0.01_{\pm 0.01}$	0.01 ± 0.00	8.55 ± 0.13	7.88 ± 0.2
SCRUB	99.79 ± 0.01	4.44 ± 0.26	0.18 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.50 ± 0.50
CF-k	99.76 ± 0.01	$4.47_{\pm 0.24}$	$0.18_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.05_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.23_{\pm 0.02}$	$0.03_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.50_{\pm 0}$
EU-k	$99.63_{\pm 0.01}$	$4.46_{\pm 0.25}$	$0.18_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.05_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.23_{\pm 0.02}$	$0.05_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.47_{\pm 0.0}$
SalUn	99.90 ± 0.04	$3.14_{\pm 1.00}$	$0.13_{\pm 0.03}$	$0.04_{\pm 0.02}$	$0.17_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.03_{\pm 0.00}$	0.50 ± 0.00
Fisher	$99.57_{\pm 0.02}$	$0.09_{\pm0.05}$	$0.00_{\pm0.00}$	$0.01_{\pm 0.00}$	$2.17_{\pm 0.04}$	$0.05_{\pm 0.00}$	0.47 ± 0
Reload	$99.68_{\pm 0.17}$	$0.25_{\pm 0.21}$	$0.01_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.00_{\pm 0.00}$	$0.12_{\pm 0.01}$	$0.06_{\pm 0.02}$	$0.21_{\pm 0}$

Table 2: 100 In Class Random Forgetting on SVHN (ResNet-18)

↑: the goal is to have as high of a value as possible, Δ^{\downarrow} : the value in the table is the difference between the result of the unlearning method and retraining (top row) on the metric and the goal is to have a low difference, \downarrow : the goal is to have as low of a value as possible. The top row presents the value of $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on each metric. Subsequent rows for Δ FA (\downarrow), Δ FE (\downarrow), and Δ FMIA (\downarrow) present the absolute difference in the value of the corresponding method on this metric to the value of $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ on the metric. These results show that RELOAD outperforms all the baselines on Δ FA, Δ FE, Δ FMIA, and NSKL by large margins. RELOAD performs competitively on NA and FSKL but is outperformed by FT. RELOAD also incurs a higher computational cost than the other baselines.

RELOAD efficiently unlearns correlated samples. We next randomly assign 100 samples from a single class of the training data to \mathcal{D}_{forget} , to evaluate how well each method can unlearn arbitrary but related training samples. The results of this experiment are shown in Table 2.

Original Image With Backdoor

Figure 3: The "Cross Pattern Backdoor" inserts the above pattern (*right*) in all images from **RELOAD** achieves the lowest Δ FMIA and FSKL of all approaches and very close to the lowest Δ FA, Δ FE, and NSKL of all approaches, suggesting that again, RELOAD learns to closely approximate $\mathcal{M}^{(\theta^{\sim})}$ in this setting. RELOAD is marginally outperformed 432 by Fisher in these settings, but is far more realistic, as Fisher over 433 twice as much time as retraining. Although RELOAD achieves an 434 NA competitive with that of most baselines, naive gradient ascent, 435 CF-k, and EU-k yield a marginally higher NA; this is surprising for 436 gradient ascent as it typically yields lower NA values. This can be 437 attributed to the small number of unlearning samples; optimizing 438 to maximize the loss on these samples does not provide much of a gradient update. CF-k and EU-k both make few parameter up-439 dates to $\mathcal{M}^{(\bar{\theta}^*)}$, which leads to a high NA but poor performance on 440 unlearning metrics like ΔFA and ΔFE . 441

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4.3 REMEDIAL LEARNING EXPERIMENTS

Baselines. The remedial unlearning setting admits different baselines than the unlearning setting. "Original" represents a baseline model trained on \mathcal{D} , and "Retrain" represents a baseline model trained directly on \mathcal{D}_{new} . Then, because gradient ascent does not directly translate to the task of remedial learning (because there is no "forget set" on which to ascent) we introduce two variants of gradient ascent to serve as baselines. Gradient Ascent Relearn (GAR) performs 10 epochs of gradient ascent on \mathcal{D} , followed by 10 epochs of gradient descent on \mathcal{D}_{new} . Gradient Difference Ascent (GRDA) calculates $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}) - \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{new})$ on each step and performs a gradient update in the opposite direction, fitting \mathcal{D}_{new} . It performs 10 epochs of such updates.

459 RELOAD corrects erroneous data (re-

460 moving shortcuts). In this setting, we select 2 classes from the data (here, CIFAR-461 10) and inject cross-patterns into the cor-462 ners of their training samples to construct 463 \mathcal{D} . An example of this backdoor can be 464 seen in Figure 3. The inclusion of this 465 backdoor influences a model trained on 466 this dataset to rely on the cross-patterns as 467 strong indicators of class membership. To 468 construct \mathcal{D}_{new} we then replace the cross-469 patterned samples with their original in-470 stances, removing the backdoor. The goal 471 of remedial learning here is to un-learn the model's reliance on the backdoor, and re-472 learn the salient representations needed to 473 accurately predict on the affected classes. 474 The results of this experiment are shown 475 in Appendix A.9. Observe that the effect 476 of this backdoor attack produces a trained 477 model (Original; trained with the back-478 door) with poor performance on $\mathcal{D}_{new}^{(test, \S)}$ 479

Method	Acc. $\mathcal{D}_{new}^{(test)}\left(\uparrow ight)$	Acc. $\mathcal{D}_{new}^{(test, \S)}(\uparrow)$	$Cost (\downarrow)$
Original	82.68 ± 0.45	$19.81_{\pm 0.03}$	N/A
Retrain	92.48 ± 0.00	$91.90_{\pm 0.00}$	$1.00_{\pm 0.00}$
GAR	57.29 ± 34.88	56.54 ± 34.12	0.08 ± 0.01
GRDA	62.87 ± 28.47	62.34 ± 27.80	0.05 ± 0.00
FT	$86.87_{\pm 4.39}$	$86.50_{\pm 4.14}$	$0.37_{\pm 0.02}$
SSD	$30.25_{\pm 22.90}$	$23.94_{\pm 13.43}$	$0.01_{\pm 0.00}$
SCRUB	12.43 ± 3.45	12.42 ± 3.44	$0.04_{\pm 0.01}$
CF-k	66.56 ± 24.27	$66.29_{\pm 23.80}$	$0.29_{\pm 0.03}$
EU-k	$66.75_{\pm 24.08}$	$66.41_{\pm 23.63}$	$0.29_{\pm 0.03}$
RELOAD	$90.81_{\pm 0.99}$	$90.51_{\pm 0.82}$	0.08 ± 0.06

Table 3: Cross Pattern Backdoor Removal on CIFAR-10 (ResNet-18). \uparrow : the goal is to have as high of a value as possible, \downarrow : the goal is to have as low of a value as possible. These results show that RELOAD outperforms all baselines on Acc. $\mathcal{D}_{new}^{(test)}$ and Acc. $\mathcal{D}_{new}^{(test,\$)}$. The small differences between these accuracy values for RELOAD indicate that it successfully removed the influence of the backdoor pattern. RELOAD incurs a higher computational cost than most baselines, but is cheaper than FT, CF-k, and EU-k.

because the model learned to treat the backdoor pattern as a strong indicator of class membership for certain classes. Further, notice that RELOAD successfully remedies this vulnerability, achieving the highest accuracy (aside from Retrain; retrained from scratch *without* the backdoor) on $\mathcal{D}_{new}^{(test)}$, and the highest accuracy of all models on $\mathcal{D}_{new}^{(test,\S)}$. This suggests that RELOAD is capable of efficiently correcting the predictive behaviour of a model trained on erroneous data.

486 5 DISCUSSION

This work introduces the setting of *blind unlearning*, machine unlearning without direct access to the "forget set". This setting allows for improved privacy procedures in practical settings, by enabling the immediate deletion of data when an unlearning request is received rather than retaining the data for the purpose of downstream unlearning. Our method, RELOAD, combines insights from gradient-based unlearning (to remove top-level information from all parameters) with selective parameter re-initialization. The blind setting ensures that as long as practitioners store the last step gradients of their model on the training set, they have the capacity to unlearn data when it is removed from their system. We recommend that future work study the performance of RELOAD at larger scales, such as those presented by modern large language models (Achiam et al., 2023), and investigate the utility of other choices for $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{D}}$ beyond the cached gradients used in RELOAD.

Despite operating in the blind setting, RELOAD outperforms benchmark machine unlearning algorithms that enjoy direct access to \mathcal{D}_{foraet} , suggesting that it is an empirically effective unlearning algorithm. However, RELOAD admits a modest tradeoff between computational efficiency and per-formance in this regime. We finally observe that machine unlearning represents a special case of remedial learning, a setting that is especially important for efficiently correcting errors in the train-ing data used to train models. RELOAD remains an efficient, performant method in this regime, suggesting that our work may contain generalizable insights about about learning to fit arbitrary downstream transformations of data.

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