EDITABLE CONCEPT BOTTLENECK MODELS

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ABSTRACT

Concept Bottleneck Models (CBMs) have garnered much attention for their ability to elucidate the prediction process through a human-understandable concept layer. However, most previous studies focused on cases where the data, including concepts, are clean. In many scenarios, we always need to remove/insert some training data or new concepts from trained CBMs due to different reasons, such as privacy concerns, data mislabelling, spurious concepts, and concept annotation errors. Thus, the challenge of deriving efficient editable CBMs without retraining from scratch persists, particularly in large-scale applications. To address these challenges, we propose Editable Concept Bottleneck Models (ECBMs). Specifically, ECBMs support three different levels of data removal: concept-label-level, concept-level, and data-level. ECBMs enjoy mathematically rigorous closed-form approximations derived from influence functions that obviate the need for re-training. Experimental results demonstrate the efficiency and effectiveness of our ECBMs, affirming their adaptability within the realm of CBMs.

1 INTRODUCTION

026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 Modern deep learning models, such as large language models [\(Zhao et al., 2023;](#page-13-0) [Yang et al., 2024a;](#page-13-1)[b;](#page-13-2) [Xu et al., 2023;](#page-13-3) [Yang et al., 2024c\)](#page-13-4) and large multimodal [\(Yin et al., 2023;](#page-13-5) [Ali et al., 2024;](#page-10-0) [Cheng](#page-10-1) [et al., 2024\)](#page-10-1), often exhibit intricate non-linear architectures, posing challenges for end-users seeking to comprehend and trust their decisions. This lack of interpretability presents a significant barrier to adoption, particularly in critical domains such as healthcare [\(Ahmad et al., 2018;](#page-10-2) [Yu et al., 2018\)](#page-13-6) and finance [\(Cao, 2022\)](#page-10-3), where transparency is paramount. To address this demand, explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) models [\(Das & Rad, 2020;](#page-11-0) [Hu et al., 2023b](#page-11-1)[;a\)](#page-11-2) have emerged, offering explanations for their behavior and insights into their internal mechanisms. Among these, Concept Bottleneck Models (CBMs) [\(Koh et al., 2020\)](#page-11-3) have gained prominence for explaining the prediction process of end-to-end AI models. CBMs add a bottleneck layer for placing human-understandable concepts. In the prediction process, CBMs first predict the concept labels using the original input and then predict the final classification label using the predicted concept in the bottleneck layer, which provides a self-explained decision to users.

039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 Existing research on CBMs predominantly addresses two primary concerns: Firstly, CBMs heavily rely on laborious dataset annotation. Researchers have explored solutions to these challenges in unlabeled settings [\(Oikarinen et al., 2023;](#page-12-0) [Yuksekgonul et al., 2023;](#page-13-7) [Lai et al., 2023\)](#page-12-1). Secondly, the performance of CBMs often lags behind that of original models lacking the concept bottleneck layer, attributed to incomplete information extraction from original data to bottleneck features. Researchers aim to bridge this utility gap [\(Sheth & Ebrahimi Kahou, 2023;](#page-12-2) [Yuksekgonul et al.,](#page-13-7) [2023;](#page-13-7) [Espinosa Zarlenga et al., 2022\)](#page-11-4). However, few of them considered the adaptivity or editability of CBMs, crucial aspects encompassing annotation errors, data privacy considerations, or concept updates. Actually, these demands are increasingly pertinent in the era of large models. We delineate the editable setting into three key aspects (illustrated in Figure [1\)](#page-1-0):

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- *Concept-label-level:* In most scenarios, concept labels are annotated by humans or experts. Thus, it is unavoidable that there are some annotation errors, indicating that there is a need to correct some concept labels in a trained CBM.
- **052 053** • *Concept-level:* In CBMs, the concept set is pre-defined by LLMs or experts. However, in many cases, evolving situations demand concept updates, as evidenced by discoveries such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease as a risk factor for lung cancer, and doctors have

Figure 1: An illustration of Editable Concept Bottleneck Models with three settings.

the requirements to add related concepts. For another example, recent research found a new factor, obesity [\(Sattar et al., 2020\)](#page-12-3) are risky for severe COVID-19 and factors (e.g., older age, male gender, Asian race) are risk associated with COVID-19 infection [\(Rozenfeld et al.,](#page-12-4) [2020\)](#page-12-4). On the other hand, one may also want to remove some spurious or unrelated concepts for the task. This demand is even more urgent in some rapidly evolving domains like the pandemic.

• *Data-level:* Data issues can arise in CBMs when training data is erroneous or poisoned. For example, if a doctor identifies a case as erroneous or poisoned, this data sample becomes unsuitable for training. Therefore, it is essential to have the capability to completely delete such data from the learned models. We need such an editable model that can interact effectively with doctors.

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085 086 087 088 089 The most direct way to address the above three problems is retraining from scratch on the data after correction. However, retraining models in such cases prove prohibitively expensive, especially in large models, which is resource-intensive and time-consuming. Therefore, developing an efficient method to approximate prediction changes becomes paramount. Providing users with an adaptive and editable CBM is both crucial and urgent.

090 091 092 093 094 095 096 097 We propose Editable Concept Bottleneck Models (ECBMs) to tackle these challenges. Specifically, compared to retraining, ECBMs provide a mathematically rigorous closed-form approximation for the above three settings to address editability within CBMs efficiently. Leveraging the influence function [\(Cook, 2000;](#page-10-4) [Cook & Weisberg, 1980\)](#page-10-5), we quantify the impact of individual data points, individual concept labels, and the concept for all data on model parameters. Despite the growing attention and utility of influence functions in machine learning [\(Koh & Liang, 2017\)](#page-11-5), their application in CBMs remains largely unexplored due to their composite structure, i.e., the intermediate representation layer.

- **098 099 100 101** To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to work to fill this gap by demonstrating the effectiveness of influence functions in elucidating the behavior of CBMs, especially in identifying mislabeled data and discerning the data influence. Comprehensive experiments on benchmark datasets show that our ECBMs are efficient and effective. Our contributions are summarized as follows.
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103 104 • We delineate three different settings that need various levels of data or concept removal in CBMs: concept-label-level, concept-level, and data-level. To the best of our knowledge, our research marks the first exploration of data removal issues within CBMs.

106 107 • To make CBMs able to remove data or concept influence without retraining, we propose the Editable Concept Bottleneck Models (ECBMs). Our approach in ECBMs offers a mathematically rigorous closed-form approximation. Furthermore, to improve computational

efficiency, we present streamlined versions integrating Eigenvalue-corrected Kronecker-Factored Approximate Curvature (EK-FAC).

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• To showcase the effectiveness and efficiency of our ECBMs, we conduct comprehensive experiments across various benchmark datasets to demonstrate our superior performance.

- 2 RELATED WORK
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116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 Concept Bottleneck Models. CBM [\(Koh et al., 2020\)](#page-11-3) stands out as an innovative deep-learning approach for image classification and visual reasoning. It introduces a concept bottleneck layer into deep neural networks, enhancing model generalization and interpretability by learning specific concepts. However, CBM faces two primary challenges: its performance often lags behind that of original models lacking the concept bottleneck layer, attributed to incomplete information extraction from the original data to bottleneck features. Additionally, CBM relies on laborious dataset annotation. Researchers have explored solutions to these challenges. [Chauhan et al.](#page-10-6) [\(2023\)](#page-10-6) extend CBM into interactive prediction settings, introducing an interaction policy to determine which concepts to label, thereby improving final predictions. [Oikarinen et al.](#page-12-0) [\(2023\)](#page-12-0) address CBM limitations and propose a novel framework called Label-free CBM. This innovative approach enables the transformation of any neural network into an interpretable CBM without requiring labeled concept data, all while maintaining high accuracy. Post-hoc Concept Bottleneck models [\(Yuksekgonul et al., 2023\)](#page-13-7) can be applied to various neural networks without compromising model performance, preserving interpretability advantages. CBMs work on the image field also includes the works of [Havasi et al.](#page-11-6) [\(2022\)](#page-11-6)[,Kim et al.](#page-11-7) [\(2023\)](#page-11-7)[,Keser et al.](#page-11-8) [\(2023\)](#page-11-8)[,Sawada & Nakamura](#page-12-5) [\(2022\)](#page-12-5) and [Sheth & Kahou](#page-12-6) [\(2023\)](#page-12-6). Despite many works on CBMs, we are the first to investigate the interactive influence between concepts through influence functions. Our research endeavors to bridge this gap by utilizing influence functions in CBMs, thereby deciphering the interaction of concept models and providing an adaptive solution to concept editing. For more related work, please refer to Appendix [I.](#page-33-0)

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3 PRELIMINARIES

137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145 146 147 148 Concept Bottleneck Models. In this paper, we consider the original CBM, and we adopt the notations used by [Koh et al.](#page-11-3) [\(2020\)](#page-11-3). We consider a classification task with a concept set denoted as $\mathbf{c} = \{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$ with each p_i is a concept given by experts or LLMs, and a training dataset represented as $\mathcal{D} = \{z_i\}_{i=1}^n$, where $z_i = (x_i, y_i, c_i)$. Here, for $i \in [n]$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$ represents the feature vector, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_z}$ denotes the label (with d_z corresponding to the number of classes), and $c_i = (c_i^1, \dots, c_i^k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ represents the concept vector. In this context, c_i^j represents the weight of the concept p_i . In CBMs, our goal is to learn two representations: one called concept predictor that transforms the input space to the concept space, denoted as $g : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^k$, and another called label predictor that maps the concept space to the prediction space, denoted as $f : \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}^{d_z}$. Usually, here the map f is linear. For each training sample $z_i = (x_i, y_i, c_i)$, we consider two empirical loss functions: one is from the input space to concept space, and the other is from concept space to output space:

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$$
\hat{g} = \underset{g}{\arg\min} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_C(g^j(x_i), c_i^j) = \underset{g}{\arg\min} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{C_j}(g(x_i), c_i), \tag{1}
$$

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$$
\hat{f} = \underset{f}{\arg \min} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) = \underset{f}{\arg \min} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{Y_i}(f, \hat{g}),
$$
\n(2)

156 157 158 159 where $g^{j}(x_{i})$ is the j-th concept predictor with x_{i} , L_{C} and L_{Y} are loss functionsSee the notation table in Appendix [2.](#page-14-0). We treat g as a collection of k concept predictors and separate different columns as a vector $g^{j}(x_i)$ for simplicity. Furthermore, in this paper, we primarily focus on the scenarios where the label predictor f is a linear transformation.

160 161 For any input x, we aim to ensure that its predicted concept vector $\hat{c} = g(x)$ and prediction $\hat{y} = f(\hat{g}(x))$ are close to their underlying counterparts, thus capturing the essence of the original CBMs.

162 163 164 165 166 167 168 Influence function. The influence function is a measure of the dependence of the estimator on the value of any one of the points in the sample. Consider a neural network $\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(z_i; \theta)$ with loss function ℓ and dataset $D = \{z_i\}_{i=1}^n$. If we remove a point z_m from the training dataset, the parameters become $\hat{\theta}_{-z_m} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i \neq m} \ell(z_i; \theta)$. Influence function gives us an efficient approximation for $\hat{\theta}_{-z_m}$ by defining a response function as $\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m} = \underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\text{argmin}}$ $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(z_i; \theta) + \epsilon L(z_m; \theta).$

Perform first-order Taylor expansion on the gradient of the objective function corresponding to the arg min process of the response function, we can obtain the influence function defined by

$$
\mathcal{I}_{\hat{\theta}}(z_m) \triangleq \left. \frac{\mathrm{d}\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m}}{\mathrm{d}\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} = -H_{\hat{\theta}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\theta} \ell(z_m; \hat{\theta}),
$$

which can evaluate the influence of z_m on the parameters. When the loss function ℓ is twicedifferentiable and strongly convex in θ , the Hessian $H_{\hat{\theta}}$ is positive definite and thus the influence function is well-defined. For non-convex loss, [Bartlett](#page-10-7) [\(1953\)](#page-10-7) proposed that the Hessian $H_{\hat{\theta}}$ can be replaced by $H = G_{\hat{\theta}} + \lambda I$ where $G_{\hat{\theta}}$ is the Fisher information matrix defined by $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(z_i; \theta) \nabla_{\theta} \ell(z_i; \theta)^{\mathrm{T}}$, λ is a small damping term used to ensure the positive definiteness of \hat{H} . We can employ the Eigenvalue-corrected Kronecker-Factored Approximate Curvature (EK-FAC) method to further accelerate the computation. See Appendix [C](#page-15-0) for details.

4 EDITABLE CONCEPT BOTTLENECK MODELS

In this section, we introduce our EBCMs for the three settings mentioned in the introduction by leveraging the influence function. Specifically, for the concept-label level, we will calculate the influence of a set of data sample's different concept labels; for the concept level, we will calculate the influence of several concepts; for the data level, we will calculate the influence of several samples.

188 4.1 CONCEPT LABEL-LEVEL EDITABLE CBM

189 190 191 192 193 194 In many cases, several data samples possess erroneous annotations for certain concepts, yet we may opt to preserve their other information, particularly considering the high cost associated with acquiring data in specific domains like medical imaging. In such scenarios, it is common practice to correct such erroneous concepts instead of removing the whole data point from the dataset. Estimating the changes in the parameters of the retraining model holds significance in this context. We name this case as concept label-level editable CBM.

195 196 197 198 Mathematically, we have a set of erroneous data D_e and its associated index set $S_e \subseteq [n] \times [k]$ such that for each $(w, r) \in S_e$, we have $(x_w, y_w, c_w) \in D_e$ with c_w^r is mislabeled and \tilde{c}_w^r is its corrected concept label. Thus, our goal is to approximate the new CBM without retraining. The retrained concept predictor and label predictor will be represented in the following manner.

$$
\hat{g}_e = \underset{g}{\arg\min} \left[\sum_{(i,j)\notin S_e} L_C \left(g^j(x_i), c_i^j \right) + \sum_{(i,j)\in S_e} L_C \left(g^j(x_i), \tilde{c}_i^j \right) \right],\tag{3}
$$

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$$
\hat{f}_e = \underset{f}{\arg \min} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y \left(f \left(\hat{g}_e \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right). \tag{4}
$$

205 206 207 208 209 210 211 For simple neural networks, we can use the influence function approach directly to estimate the retrained model. However, for CBM architecture, if we intervene with the true concepts, the concept predictor \hat{g} fluctuates to \hat{g}_e accordingly. Observing that the input data of the label predictor is the output of the concept predictor, which is also changing. Therefore, we need to adopt a two-stage editing approach. Here we consider the influence function for equation [3](#page-3-0) and equation [4](#page-3-1) separately. We first edit the concept predictor from \hat{g} to \bar{g}_e , and then edit from \hat{f} to \bar{f}_e based on our approximated concept predictor, by the following two theorems.

212 Theorem 4.1. *The retrained concept predictor* \hat{q}_e *defined by* [\(3\)](#page-3-0) *can be approximated by:*

$$
\hat{g}_e \approx \bar{g}_e \triangleq \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \left(\nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), \tilde{c}_w^r \right) - \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^r \right) \right),\tag{5}
$$

where $H_{\hat{g}}=\nabla_{\hat{g}}^2\sum_{i,j}L_C(\hat{g}^j(x_i),c_i^j)$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function with respect to \hat{g} .

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Theorem [4](#page-3-1).2. *The retrained label predictor* \hat{f}_e *defined by equation* 4 *can be approximated by:*

$$
\hat{f}_e \approx \bar{f}_e = \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i}(\hat{f}, \hat{g}) - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i}(\hat{f}, \bar{g}_e),
$$

where $H_{\hat{f}} = \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i}(\hat{f}, \hat{g})$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function with respect to \hat{f} , $L_{Y_i}(\hat{f},\hat{g}) \triangleq L_{Y}(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)),y_i)$, and \bar{g}_e is given in Theorem [4.1.](#page-3-2)

Difference with test-time intervention. The ability to intervene in CBMs enables human users to interact with the model in the prediction process, for example, a medical expert can substitute the erroneous predicted concept value \hat{c} directly, and then observe its effect on the final prediction \hat{y} . However, the fundamental flaws in the concept predictor have not been thoroughly rectified, and similar errors may persist when applied to new test data. While under the editable CBM framework, not only can test-time intervention be performed, but the concept predictor of the CBM can also undergo secondary editing based on the test data that repeatedly yields errors. This process extends the rectification from the data level to the model level.

4.2 CONCEPT-LEVEL EDITABLE CBM

234 235 236 237 238 239 240 In this case, a set of concepts is removed due to incorrect attribution or spurious concepts, termed concept-level edit. [1](#page-4-0)Specifically, for the concept set, denote the erroneous concept index set as $M \subset [k]$, we aim to delete these concept labels in all training samples. We aim to investigate the impact of updating the concept set within the training data on the model's predictions. It is notable that compared to the above concept label case, the dimension of output (input) of the retrained concept predictor (label predictor) will change. If we delete t concepts from the dataset, then g becomes $g': \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^{k-t}$ and f becomes $f': \mathbb{R}^{k-t} \to \mathbb{R}^{d_z}$. More specifically, if we retrain the CBM with the revised dataset, the corresponding concept predictor becomes:

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M} = \underset{g'}{\arg \min} \sum_{j \notin M} L_{C_j} = \underset{g'}{\arg \min} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1} L_C(g'^j(x_i), c_i^j). \tag{6}
$$

 \overline{n}

245 246 247 248 249 The variation of the parameters in dimension renders the application of influence function-based editing challenging for the concept predictor. This is because the influence function implements the editorial predictor by approximate parameter change from the original base after ϵ -weighting the corresponding loss for a given sample, and thus, it is unable to deal with changes in parameter dimensions.

250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 To overcome the challenge, our strategy is to develop some transformations that need to be performed on \hat{g}_{-p_M} to align its dimension with \hat{g} so that we can apply the influence function to edit the CBM. We achieve this by mapping \hat{g}_{-p_M} to $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* \triangleq P(\hat{g}_{-p_M})$, which has the same amount of parameters as \hat{g} and has the same predicted concepts $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}(j)$ as $\hat{g}^-_{-p_M}(j)$ for all $j \in [k] - M$. We achieve this effect by inserting a zero row vector into the r-th row of the matrix in the final layer of \hat{g}_{-p_M} for $r \in M$. Thus, we can see that the mapping P is one-to-one. Moreover, assume the parameter space of \hat{g} is T and that of $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$, T_0 is the subset of T. Noting that $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$ is the optimal model of the following objective function:

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* = \underset{g' \in T_0}{\arg \min} \sum_{j \notin M}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{C_j}(g'^j(x_i), c_i^j), \tag{7}
$$

262 263 264 265 266 267 268 i.e., it is the optimal model of the concept predictor loss on the remaining concepts under the constraint T₀. Now we can apply the influence function to edit \hat{g} to approximate $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$ with the restriction on the value of 0 for rows indexed by MM with the last layer of the neural network, denoted as $\bar{g}_{-p_M}^*$. After that, we remove from $\bar{g}^*_{-p_M}$ the parameters initially inserted to fill in the dimensional difference, which always equals 0 because of the restriction we applied in the editing stage, thus approximating the true edited concept predictor \hat{g}_{-p_M} . We now detail the editing process from \hat{g} to $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*$ using the following theorem.

¹For convenience, in this paper, we only consider concept removal; our method can directly extend to concept insertion.

270 271 272 Theorem 4.3. For the retrained concept predictor \hat{g}_{-p_M} defined in equation [6,](#page-4-1) we map it to $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*$ as *equation [7.](#page-4-2) And we can edit the initial* \hat{g} *to* $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$ *as:*

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* \approx \bar{g}_{-p_M}^* \triangleq \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i),
$$

where $H_{\hat{g}} = \nabla_g^2 \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i)$. Then, by removing all zero rows inserted during the *mapping phase, we can naturally approximate* $\hat{g}_{-p_M} \approx \mathrm{P}^{-1}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*)$.

For the second stage of training, assume we aim to remove concept p_r for $r \in M$ and the new optimal model is f_{-p_M} . We will encounter the same difficulty as in the first stage, i.e., the number of parameters of the label predictor will change. To address the issue, our key observation is that in the existing literature on CBMs, we always use linear transformation for the label predictor, meaning that the dimensions of the input with values of 0 will have no contribution to the final prediction. To leverage this property, we fill the missing values in the input of the updated predictor with 0, that is, replacing \hat{g}_{-p_M} with $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*$ and consider $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$ defined by

$$
\hat{f}_{p_M=0} = \arg\min_{f} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{Y_i} \left(f, \hat{g}_{-p_M}^* \right). \tag{8}
$$

,

289 In total, we have the following lemma:

290 291 292 293 Lemma 4.4. *In the CBM, if the label predictor utilizes linear transformations of the form* $\hat{f} \cdot c$ *with input* c, then, for each $r \in M$, we remove the r-th concept from c and denote the new input as c' ; set the *r*-th concept to 0 and denote the new input as c^0 . Then we have $\hat{f}_{-p_M} \cdot c' = \hat{f}_{p_M=0} \cdot c^0$ for any *input* c*.*

294 295 296 297 Lemma [4.4](#page-5-0) demonstrates that the retrained \hat{f}_{-p_M} and $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$, when given inputs $\hat{g}_{-p_M}(x)$ and $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x)$ respectively, yield identical outputs. Consequently, we can utilize $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$ as the editing target in place of \hat{f}_{-p_M} .

Theorem 4.5. *For the revised retrained label predictor* $f_{p_M=0}$ *defined by equation* [8,](#page-5-1) we can edit the *initial label predictor* \hat{f} *to* $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$ *by the following equation as a substitute for* $f_{p_M=0}$ *:*

$$
\hat{f}_{p_M=0} \approx \bar{f}_{p_M=0} \triangleq \hat{f} - H_f^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{l=1}^n L_{Y_l} \left(\hat{f}, \bar{g}_{-p_M}^* \right)
$$

where $H_{\hat{f}} = \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i}(\hat{f}, \hat{g})$. Deleting the *r*-th dimension of $\bar{f}_{p_M=0}$ for $r \in M$, then we can *map it to* \bar{f}_{-p_M} , which is the approximation of the final edited label predictor \hat{f}_{-p_M} under concept *level.*

4.3 DATA-LEVEL EDITABLE CBM

310 311 312 313 In this scenario, we are more concerned about fully removing the influence of data samples on CBMs due to different reasons, such as the training data involving poisoned or erroneous issues. Specifically, we have a set of samples to be removed $\{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i \in G}$ with $G \subset [n]$. Then, we define the retrained concept predictor as

$$
\hat{g}_{-z_G} = \arg\min_{g} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{C_j}(g(x_i), c_i)
$$
\n(9)

317 which can be evaluated by the following theorem:

318 319 320 Theorem 4.6. For dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, given a set of data $z_r = (x_r, y_r, c_r)$, $r \in G$ to be *removed. Suppose the updated concept predictor* \hat{g}_{-z_G} *is defined by equation* [9,](#page-5-2) *then we have the following approximation for* \hat{g}_{-z_G}

$$
\hat{g}_{-z_G} \approx \bar{g}_{-z_G} \triangleq \hat{g} + H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{r \in G} \nabla_g L_{C_r}(\hat{g}(x_r), c_r), \tag{10}
$$

where $H_{\hat{g}}=\nabla_{\hat{g}}^2\sum_{i,j}L_{C_j}(\hat{g}^j(x_i),c_i^j)$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function with respect to \hat{g} .

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324 325 Based on \hat{g}_{-z_G} , the label predictor becomes \hat{f}_{-z_G} which is defined by

$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G} = \underset{f}{\text{arg min}} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i}(f, \hat{g}_{-z_G}). \tag{11}
$$

Compared with the original loss before unlearning in equation [2,](#page-2-0) we can observe two changes in equation [11.](#page-6-0) First, we remove |G| data points in the loss function L_Y . Secondly, the input for the loss is also changed from $\hat{g}(x_i)$ to \hat{g}_{z_0} . Therefore, it is difficult to estimate directly with an influence function. Here we introduce an intermediate label predictor as

$$
\tilde{f}_{-z_G} = \arg\min \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i}(f, \hat{g}),\tag{12}
$$

335 336 337 and split the estimate of $\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \hat{f}$ into $\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G}$ and $\tilde{f}_{-z_G} - \hat{f}$.

Theorem 4.7. For dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, given a set of data $z_r = (x_r, y_r, c_r)$, $r \in G$ to be *removed. The intermediate label predictor* \hat{f}_{-z_G} *is defined in equation [12.](#page-6-1) Then we have*

$$
\tilde{f}_{-z_G} - \hat{f} \approx H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i \in [n] - G} \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_i}(\hat{f}, \hat{g}) \triangleq A_G.
$$

We denote the edited version of \tilde{f}_{-z_G} *as* $\bar{f}_{-z_G}^* \triangleq \hat{f} + A_G$ *. Define* B_G *as*

$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G} \approx -H_{\bar{f}_{-z_G}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in [n]-G} \left(L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \bar{g}_{-z_G} \right) - L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \hat{g} \right) \right) \triangleq B_G,
$$

where $H_{\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*} = \nabla_{\bar{f}} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \hat{g} \right)$ is the Hessian matrix concerning $\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*$. Combining *the above two-stage approximation, then, the final edited label predictor* \bar{f}_{-z_G} *can be obtained by*

$$
\bar{f}_{-z_G} = \bar{f}_{-z_G}^* + B_G = \hat{f} + A_G + B_G.
$$
\n(13)

Acceleration via EK-FAC. As we mentioned in Section [3,](#page-2-1) as the loss function in CBMs is nonconvex, the Hessian matrices in all our theorems may not be well-defined. We can use the EK-FAC approach, i.e., using $\hat{H}_{\theta} = G_{\theta} + \lambda I$ to approximate the Hessian, where G_{θ} is the Fisher information matrix of model θ , and λ is a small damping term used to ensure the positive definiteness. See Appendix [C.1](#page-15-1) for using EK-FAC to CBMs. Also, see Algorithm [6](#page-30-0)[-8](#page-30-1) in the Appendix for the detailed EK-FAC-based algorithms for our three levels, whose original (Hessian) versions are in Algorithm [1-](#page-27-0)[3,](#page-28-0) respectively.

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5 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we demonstrate our main experimental results on utility evaluation, edition efficiency, and interpretability evaluation. Details and additional results are in Appendix [H](#page-31-0) due to space limit.

5.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 Dataset. We utilize three datasets: *X-ray grading (OAI)* [\(Nevitt et al., 2006\)](#page-12-7), *Bird identification (CUB)* [\(Wah et al., 2011\)](#page-12-8) and *Large-scale CelebFaces Attributes dataset (CelebA)* [\(Liu et al., 2015\)](#page-12-9). OAI is a multi-center observational study of knee osteoarthritis, which comprises 36,369 data points. Specifically, we configure n=10 concepts that characterize crucial osteoarthritis indicators such as joint space narrowing, osteophytes, and calcification. Bird identification (CUB)^{[2](#page-6-2)} consists of 11,788 data points, which belong to 200 classes and include 112 binary attributes to describe detailed visual features of birds. CelebA comprises 202,599 celebrity images, each annotated with 40 binary attributes that detail facial features, such as hair color, eyeglasses, and smiling. As the dataset lacks predefined classification tasks, following [Espinosa Zarlenga et al.](#page-11-4) [\(2022\)](#page-11-4), we designate 8 attributes as labels and the remaining 32 attributes as concepts. For all the above datasets, we follow the same network architecture and settings outlined in [Koh et al.](#page-11-3) [\(2020\)](#page-11-3).

³⁷⁷

²The original dataset is processed. Detailed explanation can be found in [H.](#page-31-0)

378 379 380 381 382 383 384 Ground Truth and Baselines. We use retrain as the ground truth method. *Retrain*: We retrain the CBM from scratch by removing the samples, concept labels, or concepts from the training set. We employ two baseline methods: CBM-IF, and ECBM. *CBM-IF*: This method is a direct implementation of our previous theorems of model updates in the three settings. See Algorithms [1-](#page-27-0)[3](#page-28-0) in Appendix for details. *ECBM*: As we discussed above, all of our model updates can be further accelerated via EK-FAC, ECBM corresponds to the EK-FAC accelerated version of Algorithms [1-](#page-27-0)[3](#page-28-0) (refer to Algorithms [6](#page-30-0)[-8](#page-30-1) in Appendix).

385 386 387 Evaluation Metric. We utilize two primary evaluation metrics to assess our models: the F1 score and runtime (RT). The *F1 score* measures the model's performance by balancing precision and recall. *Runtime*, measured in seconds, evaluates the running time of each method to update the model.

388 389 390 391 392 393 394 Implementation Details. Our experiments utilized an Intel Xeon CPU and an RTX 3090 GPU. For utility evaluation, at the concept level, one concept was randomly removed for the OAI dataset and repeated while ten concepts were randomly removed for the CUB dataset, with five different seeds. At the data level, 3% of the data points were randomly deleted and repeated 10 times with different seeds. At the concept-label level, we randomly selected 3% of the data points and modified one concept of each data randomly, repeating this 10 times for consistency across iterations.

395 5.2 EVALUATION OF UTILITY AND EDITING EFFICIENCY

397 398 399 400 401 402 403 404 405 406 407 Our experimental results, as illustrated in Table [1,](#page-7-0) demonstrate the effectiveness of ECBMs compared to traditional retraining and CBM-IF, particularly emphasizing computational efficiency without compromising accuracy. Specifically, ECBMs achieved F1 scores close to those of retraining (0.8808 vs. 0.8825) while significantly reducing the runtime from 31.44 seconds to 8.29 seconds. This pattern is consistent in the CUB dataset, where the runtime was decreased from 27.88 seconds for retraining to 7.03 seconds for ECBMs, with a negligible difference in the F1 score (0.7971 to 0.7963). These results highlight the potential of ECBMs to provide substantial time savings—approximately 22-30% of the computational time required for retraining—while maintaining comparable accuracy. Compared to CBM-IF, ECBM also showed a slight reduction in runtime and a significant improvement in F1 score. The former verifies the effective acceleration of our algorithm by EK-FAC. This efficiency is particularly crucial in scenarios where frequent updates to model annotations are needed, confirming the utility of ECBMs in dynamic environments where running time and accuracy are critical.

408 409 410 411 412 We can also see that the original version of ECBM, i.e., CBM-IF, also has a lower runtime than retraining but a lower F1 score than ECBM. Such results may be due to different reasons. For example, our original theorems depend on the inverse of the Hessian matrices, which may not be well-defined for non-convex loss. Moreover, these Hessian matrices may be ill-conditioned or singular, which makes calculating their inverse imprecise and unstable.

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Table 1: Performance comparison of different methods on the three datasets.

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426 427 428 429 430 431 Editing Multiple Samples. To comprehensively evaluate the editing capabilities of ECBM in various scenarios, we conducted experiments on the performance with multiple samples that need to be removed. Specifically, for the concept label/data levels, we consider the different ratios of samples (1-10%) for edit, while for the concept level, we consider removing different numbers of concepts $\in \{2, 4, 6, \cdots, 20\}$. We compared the performance of retraining, CBM-IF, and ECBM methods. As shown in Figure [2,](#page-8-0) except for certain cases at the concept level, the F1 score of the ECBM method is generally around 0.0025 lower than that of the retrain method, which is significantly better than the corresponding results of the CBM-IF method. Recalling Table [1,](#page-7-0) the speed of ECBM is more than

432 433 434 three times faster than that of retraining. Consequently, ECBM is an editing method that achieves a trade-off between speed and effectiveness.

Figure 2: Impact of edition ratio on three settings on CUB dataset. 5.3 RESULTS ON INTERPRETABILITY

448 449 450 451 452 453 454 455 Influence function in ECBM can measure the importance of concepts. The original motivation of the influence function is to calculate the importance score of each sample. Here, we will show that the influence function for the concept level in Theorem [4.3](#page-5-3) can be used to calculate the importance of each concept in CBMs, which provides an explainable tool for CBMs. In detail, we conduct our experiments on the CUB dataset. We first select 1-10 most influential and 1-10 least influential concepts by our influence function. Then, we will remove these concepts and update the model via retraining or our ECBM and analyze the change (F1 Score Difference) w.r.t. the original CBM before removal.

456 457 458 459 460 461 462 463 The results in Figure [3a](#page-8-1) demonstrate that when we remove the 1-10 most influential concepts identified by the ECBM method, the F1 score decreases by more than 0.025 compared to the CBM before removal. In contrast, Figure [3b](#page-8-1) shows that the change in the F1 score remains consistently below 0.005 when removing the least influential concepts. These findings strongly indicate that the influence function in ECBM can successfully determine the importance of concepts. Furthermore, we observe that the gap between the F1 score of retraining and ECBM is consistently smaller than 0.005, and even smaller in the case of least important concepts. This further suggests that when ECBM edits various concepts, its performance is very close to the ground truth.

474 (a) Results on the 1-10 most influential concepts

475 476 Figure 3: F1 score difference after removing most and least influential concepts given by our concept level influence function.

477 478 479 480 481 482 483 484 ECBMs can erase data influence. For the data level, ECBMs aim to facilitate an efficient removal of samples. We perform membership inference attacks (MIAs) to provide direct evidence that ECBMs can indeed erase data influence. MIA is a privacy attack that aims to infer whether a specific data sample was part of the training dataset used to train a model. The attacker exploits the model's behavior, such as overconfidence or overfitting, to distinguish between *training (member)* and *nontraining (non-member)* data points. In MIAs, the attacker typically queries the model with a data sample and observes its prediction confidence or loss values, which tend to be higher for members of the training set than non-members [\(Shokri et al., 2017\)](#page-12-10).

485 To quantify the success of these edits, we calculate the RMIA (Removed Membership Inference Attack) score for each category. The RMIA score is defined as the model's confidence in classifying

486 487 488 489 whether a given sample belongs to the training set. Lower RMIA values indicate that the sample behaves more like a test set (non-member) sample [Zarifzadeh et al.](#page-13-8) [\(2024\)](#page-13-8). This metric is especially crucial for edited samples, as a successful ECBM should make the removed members behave similarly to non-members, reducing their membership vulnerability. See Appendix [H](#page-31-0) for its definition.

490 491 492 493 494 495 496 497 498 499 500 We conducted experiments by randomly selecting 200 samples from the training set (members) and 200 samples from the test set (non-members) of the CUB dataset. We calculated the RMIA scores for these samples and plotted their frequency distributions, as shown in Figure [4a.](#page-9-0) The mean RMIA score for non-members was 0.049465, while members had a mean score of 0.063505. Subsequently, we applied ECBMs to remove the 200 training samples from the model, updated the model parameters, and then recalculated the RMIA scores. After editing, the mean RMIA score for the removed-members decreased to 0.052105, significantly closer to the non-members' mean score. This shift in RMIA values demonstrates the effectiveness of ECBMs in editing the model, as the removed members now exhibit behavior closer to that of non-members. The post-editing RMIA score distributions are shown in Figure [4b.](#page-9-0) These results provide evidence of the effectiveness of ECBMs in editing the model's knowledge about specific samples.

Figure 4: RMIA scores of data before and after removal.

515 516 517 518 519 520 521 522 523 524 525 Visualization. Since CBM is an explainable model, we aim to evaluate the interpretability of our ECBM (compared to the retraining). We will present some visualization results for the concept-level edit. Figure [5](#page-9-1) presents the top 10 most influential concepts and their corresponding predicted concept labels obtained by our ECBM and the retrain method after randomly deleting concepts for the CUB dataset. Detailed explanation can be found in Appendix [H.4.1.](#page-33-1) Our ECBM can provide explanations for which concepts are crucial and how they assist the prediction. Specifically, among the top 10 most important concepts in the ground truth (retraining), ECBM can accurately recognize 9 within them. For instance, we correctly identify "has_upperparts_color::orange", "has_upper_tail_color::red", and "has_breast_color::black" as some of the most important concepts when predicting categories. Additional visualization results under data level and concept-label level on OAI and CUB datasets are included in Appendix [H.4.2.](#page-33-2)

Figure 5: Visualization of the Top 10 Most Influential Concepts for CBM(Identified by ECBM or Retrain) Highlighted on an Extracted Image.

535 6 CONCLUSION

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536 537 538 539 In this paper, we propose Editable Concept Bottleneck Models (ECBMs). ECBMs can address issues of removing/inserting some training data or new concepts from trained CBMs for different reasons, such as privacy concerns, data mislabelling, spurious concepts, and concept annotation errors retraining from scratch. Furthermore, to improve computational efficiency, we present streamlined versions integrating EK-FAC. Experimental results show our ECBMs are efficient and effective.

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A NOTATION TABLE

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Table 2: Notation Table

B INFLUENCE FUNCTION

Consider a neural network $\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(z_i, \theta)$ with loss function L and dataset $D = \{z_i\}_{i=1}^{n}$. That is $\hat{\theta}$ minimize the empirical risk

$$
R(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(z_i, \theta)
$$

806 807 808 809 Assume R is strongly convex in θ . Then θ is uniquely defined. If we remove a point z_m from the training dataset, the parameters become $\hat{\theta}_{-z_m} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i \neq m} L(z_i, \theta)$. Up-weighting z_m by ϵ small enough, then the revised risk $R(\theta)^{'} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(z_i; \theta) + \epsilon L(z_m; \theta)$ is still strongly convex. Then the response function $\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m} = R(\theta)^{'}$ is also uniquely defined. The parameter change **810 811 812** is denoted as $\Delta_{\epsilon} = \hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m} - \hat{\theta}$. Since $\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m}$ is the minimizer of $R(\theta)^{'}$, we have the first-order optimization condition as

$$
\nabla_{\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m}}R(\theta)+\epsilon\cdot\nabla_{\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m}}L(z_m,\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m})=0
$$

814 815 Since $\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon_1-z_m} \rightarrow \hat{\theta}$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, we perform a Taylor expansion of the right-hand side:

$$
\left[\nabla R(\hat{\theta}) + \epsilon \nabla L(z_m, \hat{\theta})\right] + \left[\nabla^2 R(\hat{\theta}) + \epsilon \nabla^2 L(z_m, \hat{\theta})\right] \Delta_{\epsilon} \approx 0
$$

818 819 Noting $\epsilon\nabla^2 L(z_m,\hat{\theta})\Delta_\epsilon$ is $o(\|\Delta_\epsilon\|)$ term, which is smaller than other parts, we drop it in the following analysis. Then the Taylor expansion equation becomes

$$
\left[\nabla R(\hat{\theta}) + \epsilon \nabla L(z_m, \hat{\theta})\right] + \nabla^2 R(\hat{\theta}) \cdot \Delta_{\epsilon} \approx 0
$$

Solving for Δ_{ϵ} , we obtain:

813

816 817

$$
\Delta_{\epsilon} = -\left[\nabla^2 R(\hat{\theta}) + \epsilon \nabla^2 L(z, \hat{\theta})\right]^{-1} \left[\nabla R(\hat{\theta}) + \epsilon \nabla L(z, \hat{\theta})\right].
$$

Remember θ minimizes R, then $\nabla R(\hat{\theta}) = 0$. Dropping $o(\epsilon)$ term, we have

$$
\Delta_{\epsilon} = -\epsilon \nabla^2 R(\hat{\theta})^{-1} \nabla L(z, \hat{\theta}).
$$

$$
\left. \frac{d\hat{\theta}_{\epsilon,-z_m}}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} = \left. \frac{d\Delta_{\epsilon}}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} = -H_{\hat{\theta}}^{-1} \nabla L(z,\hat{\theta}) \equiv \mathcal{I}_{up,params}(z).
$$

Besides, we can obtain the approximation of $\hat{\theta}_{-z_m}$ directly by $\hat{\theta}_{-z_m} \approx \hat{\theta} + \mathcal{I}_{up,params}(z)$.

C ACCELERATION FOR INFLUENCE FUNCTION

EK-FAC. EK-FAC method relies on two approximations to the Fisher information matrix, equivalent to $G_{\hat{\theta}}$ in our setting, which makes it feasible to compute the inverse of the matrix.

838 839 840 841 842 843 844 Firstly, assume that the derivatives of the weights in different layers are uncorrelated, which implies that $G_{\hat{\theta}}$ has a block-diagonal structure. Suppose \hat{g}_{θ} can be denoted by $\hat{g}_{\theta}(x) = g_{\theta_L} \circ \cdots \circ g_{\theta_l} \circ \cdots \circ g_{\theta_l}$ $g_{\theta_1}(x)$ where $l \in [L]$. We fold the bias into the weights and vectorize the parameters in the *l*-th layer into a vector $\theta_l \in \mathbb{R}^{d_l}$, $d_l \in \mathbb{N}$ is the number of *l*-th layer parameters. Then $G_{\hat{\theta}}$ can be reaplcaed by $\Big(G_1(\hat{\theta}), \cdots, G_L(\hat{\theta})\Big)$, where $G_l(\hat{\theta}) \triangleq n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_{\hat{\theta}_l} \ell_i \nabla_{\theta_l} \ell_i^{\mathrm{T}}$. Denote h_l , o_l as the output and pre-activated output of *l*-th layer. Then $G_l(\theta)$ can be approximated by

$$
G_{l}(\theta) \approx \hat{G}_{l}(\theta) \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_{l-1}(x_{i}) h_{l-1}(x_{i})^{T} \otimes \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{o_{l}} \ell_{i} \nabla_{o_{l}} \ell_{i}^{T} \triangleq \Omega_{l-1} \otimes \Gamma_{l}.
$$

Furthermore, in order to accelerate transpose operation and introduce the damping term, perform eigenvalue decomposition of matrix Ω_{l-1} and Γ_l and obtain the corresponding decomposition results as $Q_{\Omega} \Lambda_{\Omega} Q_{\Omega}^{\top}$ and $Q_{\Gamma} \Lambda_{\Gamma} Q_{\Gamma}^{\top}$. Then the inverse of $\hat{H}_{l}(\theta)$ can be obtained by

$$
\hat{H}_{l}(\theta)^{-1} \approx \left(\hat{G}_{l}(\hat{g}) + \lambda_{l} I_{d_{l}}\right)^{-1} = \left(Q_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes Q_{\Gamma_{l}}\right) \left(\Lambda_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes \Lambda_{\Gamma_{l}} + \lambda_{l} I_{d_{l}}\right)^{-1} \left(Q_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes Q_{\Gamma_{l}}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}.
$$

Besides, [George et al.](#page-11-9) [\(2018\)](#page-11-9) proposed a new method that corrects the error in equation [14](#page-16-0) which sets the *i*-th diagonal element of $\Lambda_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes \Lambda_{\Gamma_l}$ as $\Lambda_{ii}^* = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\left(Q_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes Q_{\Gamma_l} \right) \nabla_{\theta_l} \ell_j \right)_i^2$.

C.1 EK-FAC FOR CBMS

859 860 861 In our CBM model, the label predictor is a single linear layer, and Hessian computing costs are affordable. However, the concept predictor is based on Resnet-18, which has many parameters. Therefore, we perform EK-FAC for \hat{g} .

862 863

$$
\hat{g} = \underset{g}{\arg \min} \sum_{j=1}^{k} L_{C_j} = \underset{g}{\arg \min} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_C(g^j(x_i), c_i^j),
$$

864 865 866 we define $H_{\hat{g}} = \nabla_{\hat{g}}^2 \sum_{i,j} L_{C_j}(g(x_i), c_i)$ as the Hessian matrix of the loss function with respect to the parameters.

867 868 869 870 871 To this end, consider the l-th layer of \hat{g} which takes as input a layer of activations $\{a_{i,t}\}\$ where $j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, J\}$ indexes the input map and $t \in \mathcal{T}$ indexes the spatial location which is typically a 2-D grid. This layer is parameterized by a set of weights $W = (w_{i,j,\delta})$ and biases $b = (b_i)$, where $i \in \{1, \ldots, I\}$ indexes the output map, and $\delta \in \Delta$ indexes the spatial offset (from the center of the filter).

872 The convolution layer computes a set of pre-activations as

$$
[S_l]_{i,t} = s_{i,t} = \sum_{\delta \in \Delta} w_{i,j,\delta} a_{j,t+\delta} + b_i.
$$

876 Denote the loss derivative with respect to $s_{i,t}$ as

873 874 875

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$$
\mathcal{D}s_{i,t} = \frac{\partial \sum L_{C_j}}{\partial s_{i,t}},
$$

880 which can be computed during backpropagation.

881 882 883 884 885 The activations are actually stored as A_{l-1} of dimension $|\mathcal{T}| \times J$. Similarly, the weights are stored as an $I \times |\Delta|J$ array W_l . The straightforward implementation of convolution, though highly parallel in theory, suffers from poor memory access patterns. Instead, efficient implementations typically leverage what is known as the expansion operator [\cdot]. For instance, $\llbracket A_{l-1} \rrbracket$ is a $|\mathcal{T}| \times J|\Delta|$ matrix, defined as

$$
[\![A_{l-1}]\!]_{t,j|\Delta|+\delta} = [A_{l-1}]_{(t+\delta),j} = a_{j,t+\delta},
$$

888 889 890 In order to fold the bias into the weights, we need to add a homogeneous coordinate (i.e. a column of all 1's) to the expanded activations $\llbracket A_{l-1} \rrbracket$ and denote this as $\llbracket A_{l-1} \rrbracket_H$. Concatenating the bias vector to the weights matrix, then we have $\theta_l = (b_l, W_l)$.

891 Then, the approximation for $H_{\hat{g}}$ is given as:

$$
G^{(l)}(\hat{g}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{D}w_{i,j,\delta}\mathcal{D}w_{i',j',\delta'}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{t\in\mathcal{T}}a_{j,t+\delta}\mathcal{D}s_{i,t}\right)\left(\sum_{t'\in\mathcal{T}}a_{j',t'+\delta'}\mathcal{D}s_{i',t'}\right)\right]
$$

$$
\approx \mathbb{E}\left[\left[\!\left[A_{l-1}\right]\!\right]_H^{\top}\!\left[\!\left[A_{l-1}\right]\!\right]_H\!\right] \otimes \frac{1}{|\mathcal{T}|}\mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{D}S_l^{\top}\mathcal{D}S_l\right] \triangleq \Omega_{l-1} \otimes \Gamma_l.
$$

Estimate the expectation using the mean of the training set,

$$
G^{(l)}(\hat{g}) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left([\![A_{l-1}^i]\!]^\top_\mathbb{H} [\![A_{l-1}^i]\!]_\mathbb{H} \right) \otimes \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{|\mathcal{T}|} \mathcal{D} S_l^i{}^\top \mathcal{D} S_l^i \right) \triangleq \hat{\Omega}_{l-1} \otimes \hat{\Gamma}_l.
$$

Furthermore, if the factors $\hat{\Omega}_{l-1}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_l$ have eigen decomposition $Q_{\Omega} \Lambda_{\Omega} Q_{\Omega}^{\top}$ and $Q_{\Gamma} \Lambda_{\Gamma} Q_{\Gamma}^{\top}$, respectively, then the eigen decomposition of $\hat{\Omega}_{l-1} \otimes \hat{\Gamma}_l$ can be written as:

$$
\hat{\Omega}_{l-1} \otimes \hat{\Gamma}_l = Q_{\Omega} \Lambda_{\Omega} Q_{\Omega}^{\top} \otimes Q_{\Gamma} \Lambda_{\Gamma} Q_{\Gamma}^{\top} \n= (Q_{\Omega} \otimes Q_{\Gamma}) (\Lambda_{\Omega} \otimes \Lambda_{\Gamma}) (Q_{\Omega} \otimes Q_{\Gamma})^{\top}.
$$

Since subsequent inverse operations are required and the current approximation for $G^{(l)}(\hat{g})$ is PSD, we actually use a damped version as

$$
\hat{G}^l(\hat{g})^{-1} = (G_l(\hat{g}) + \lambda_l I_{d_l})^{-1} = (Q_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes Q_{\Gamma_l}) (\Lambda_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes \Lambda_{\Gamma_l} + \lambda_l I_{d_l})^{-1} (Q_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes Q_{\Gamma_l})^{\mathrm{T}}.
$$
\n(14)

Besides, [George et al.](#page-11-9) [\(2018\)](#page-11-9) proposed a new method that corrects the error in equation [14](#page-16-0) which sets the *i*-th diagonal element of $\Lambda_{\Omega_{l-1}} \otimes \Lambda_{\Gamma_l}$ as

$$
\Lambda_{ii}^*=n^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^n\left(\left(Q_{\Omega_{l-1}}\otimes Q_{\Gamma_l}\right)\nabla_{\theta_l}\ell_j\right)_i^2.
$$

918 919 D PROOF OF CONCEPT-LABEL-LEVEL INFLUENCE

We have a set of erroneous data D_e and its associated index set $S_e \subseteq [n] \times [k]$ such that for each $(w, r) \in S_e$, we have $(x_w, y_w, c_w) \in D_e$ with c_w^r is mislabeled and \tilde{c}_w^r is its corrected concept label. Thus, our goal is to approximate the new CBM without retraining.

Proof Sketch. Our goal is to edit \hat{g} and \hat{f} to \hat{g}_e and \hat{f}_e . (i) First, we introduce new parameters $\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e}$ that minimize a modified loss function with a small perturbation ϵ . (ii) Then, we perform a Newton step around \hat{g} and obtain an estimate for \hat{g}_e . (iii) Then, we consider changing the concept predictor at one data point $(x_{i_c}, y_{i_c}, c_{i_c})$ and retraining the model to obtain a new label predictor \hat{f}_{i_c} , obtain an approximation for \hat{f}_{i_c} . (iv) Next, we iterate i_c over $1, 2, \cdots, n$, sum all the equations together, and perform a Newton step around \hat{f} to obtain an approximation for \hat{f}_e . (v) Finally, we bring the estimate of \hat{g} into the equation for \hat{f}_e to obtain the final approximation.

Theorem D.1. *The retrained concept predictor* \hat{g}_e *defined by*

$$
\hat{g}_e = \arg\min\left[\sum_{(i,j)\notin S_e} L_C\left(g^j(x_i), c_i^j\right) + \sum_{(i,j)\in S_e} L_C\left(g^j(x_i), \tilde{c}_i^j\right)\right],\tag{15}
$$

can be approximated by:

$$
\hat{g}_e \approx \bar{g}_e \triangleq \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \left(\nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), \tilde{c}_w^r \right) - \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^r \right) \right),\tag{16}
$$

where $H_{\hat{g}}=\nabla_{\hat{g}}^2\sum_{i,j}L_C(\hat{g}^j(x_i),c_i^j)$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to \hat{g} .

Proof. For the index $(w, r) \in S_e$, indicating the r-th concept of the w-th data is wrong, we correct this concept c_w^r to \tilde{c}_w^r . Rewrite \hat{g}_e as

$$
\hat{g}_e = \arg\min \left[\sum_{i,j} L_C \left(g^j(x_i), c_i^j \right) + \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} L_C \left(g^r(x_w), \tilde{c}_w^r \right) - \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} L_C \left(g^r(x_w), c_w^r \right) \right].
$$
\n(17)

To approximate this effect, define new parameters $\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e}$ as

$$
\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e} \triangleq \arg\min\left[\sum_{i,j} L_C\left(g^j(x_i), c_i^j\right) + \sum_{(w,r)\in S_e} \epsilon \cdot L_C\left(g^r(x_w), \tilde{c}_w^r\right) - \sum_{(w,r)\in S_e} \epsilon \cdot L_C\left(g^r(x_w), c_w^r\right)\right].
$$
\n(18)

Then, because $\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e}$ minimizes equation [18,](#page-17-0) we have

$$
\nabla_{\hat{g}} \sum_{i,j} L_C \left(\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e}^j(x_i), c_i^j \right) + \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e}^r(x_w), \tilde{c}_w^r \right) - \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e}^r(x_w), c_w^r \right) = 0.
$$

Perform a Taylor expansion of the above equation at \hat{g} ,

 $(w,r) \in S_e$

$$
\nabla_{\hat{g}} \sum_{i,j} L_C \left(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j \right) + \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), \tilde{c}_w^r \right) - \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^r \right) + \nabla_{\hat{g}}^2 \sum_{i,j} L_C \left(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j \right) \cdot \left(\hat{g}_{\epsilon,e} - \hat{g} \right) \approx 0.
$$
\n(19)

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Because of equation [15,](#page-17-1) the first term of equation [19](#page-17-2) equals 0. Then we have

972 973 where

974 975

976 977 978

$$
H_{\hat{g}} = \nabla_{\hat{g}}^2 \sum_{i,j} L_C\left(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j\right)
$$

Then, we do a Newton step around \hat{g} and obtain

$$
\hat{g}_e \approx \bar{g}_e \triangleq \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \left(\nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), \tilde{c}_w^r \right) - \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_C \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^r \right) \right). \tag{20}
$$

.

979 980 981 982

Theorem D.2. *The retrained label predictor* \hat{f}_e *defined by*

$$
\hat{f}_e = \arg\min\left[\sum_{i=1}^n L_Y\left(f\left(\hat{g}_e\left(x_i\right)\right), y_i\right)\right]
$$

can be approximated by:

$$
\hat{f}_e \approx \bar{f}_e = \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i} \left(\hat{f}, \hat{g} \right) - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i} \left(\hat{f}, \bar{g}_e \right),
$$

where $H_{\hat{f}}=\nabla_{\hat{f}}^2\sum_{i=1}^nL_{Y_i}(\hat{f},\hat{g})$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to \hat{f} , $L_{Y_i}(\hat{f},\hat{g})\triangleq$ $L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i)$, and \bar{g}_e is given in Theorem [D.1.](#page-17-3)

Proof. Now we come to deduce the edited label predictor towards \hat{f}_e .

First, we consider only changing the concept predictor at one data point $(x_{i_c}, y_{i_c}, c_{i_c})$ and retrain the model to obtain a new label predictor \hat{f}_{i_c} .

$$
\hat{f}_{i_c} = \arg \min \left[\sum_{i=1, i \neq i_c}^{n} L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) + L_Y(f(\hat{g}_e(x_{i_c})), y_{i_c}) \right].
$$

1003 We rewrite the above equation as follows:

$$
\hat{f}_{i_c} = \arg \min \left[\sum_{i=1}^n L_Y \left(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right) + L_Y \left(f(\hat{g}_e(x_{i_c})), y_{i_c} \right) - L_Y \left(f(\hat{g}(x_{i_c})), y_{i_c} \right) \right].
$$

We define \hat{f}_{ϵ, i_c} as:

$$
\hat{f}_{\epsilon,i_c} = \arg\min\left[\sum_{i=1}^n L_Y\left(f\left(\hat{g}\left(x_i\right)\right), y_i\right) + \epsilon \cdot L_Y\left(f\left(\hat{g}_e\left(x_{i_c}\right)\right), y_{i_c}\right) - \epsilon \cdot L_Y\left(f\left(\hat{g}\left(x_{i_c}\right)\right), y_{i_c}\right)\right].
$$

Derive with respect to f at both sides of the above equation. we have

$$
\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon, i_c} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right) + \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon, i_c} \left(\hat{g}_{\epsilon} \left(x_{i_c} \right) \right), y_{i_c} \right) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon, i_c} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_{i_c} \right) \right), y_{i_c} \right) = 0
$$

Perform a Taylor expansion of the above equation at \hat{f} ,

$$
\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{Y} \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_{i} \right) \right), y_{i} \right) + \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y} \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g}_{e} \left(x_{i_{c}} \right) \right), y_{i_{c}} \right) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y} \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_{i_{c}} \right) \right), y_{i_{c}} \right) + \nabla_{\hat{f}}^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{Y} \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_{i} \right) \right), y_{i} \right) \cdot \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon, i_{c}} - \hat{f} \right) =
$$

 $\boldsymbol{0}$

 \Box

Then we have $\hat{f}_{\epsilon, i_c} - \hat{f} \approx -\epsilon \cdot H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \left(L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g}_e \left(x_{i_c} \right) \right), y_{i_c} \right) - L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_{i_c} \right) \right), y_{i_c} \right) \right),$

1030 where $H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} = \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right)$.

Iterate i_c over $1, 2, \dots, n$, and sum all the equations together, we can obtain:

$$
\hat{f}_{\epsilon,e} - \hat{f} \approx -\epsilon \cdot H_f^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_f \left(L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g}_e \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right) - L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right) \right).
$$

Perform a Newton step around \hat{f} and we have

$$
\hat{f}_e \approx \hat{f} - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_f \left(L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g}_e \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right) - L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right) \right). \tag{21}
$$

1042 Bringing the edited [20](#page-18-0) of q into equation [21,](#page-19-0) we have

$$
\hat{f}_e \approx \hat{f} - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_f \left(L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\bar{g}_e \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right) - L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\hat{g} \left(x_i \right) \right), y_i \right) \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \hat{f} - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_f \left(L_{Y_i} \left(\hat{f}, \bar{g}_e \right) - L_{Y_i} \left(\hat{f}, \hat{g} \right) \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i} \left(\hat{f}, \hat{g} \right) - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i} \left(\hat{f}, \bar{g}_e \right) \triangleq \bar{f}_e.
$$

 \Box

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E PROOF OF CONCEPT-LEVEL INFLUENCE

1057 1058 1059 We address situations that delete p_r for $r \in M$ concept removed dataset. Our goal is to estimate $\hat{g}_{-p_M}, \hat{f}_{-p_M}$, which is the concept and label predictor trained on the p_r for $r \in M$ concept removed dataset.

1060 1061 1062 1063 1064 1065 1066 1067 1068 Proof Sketch. The main ideas are as follows: (i) First, we define a new predictor $\hat{g}_{p_M}^*$, which has the same dimension as \hat{g} and the same output as \hat{g}_{-p_M} . Then deduce an approximation for $\hat{g}_{p_M}^*$. (ii) Then, we consider setting $p_r = 0$ instead of removing it, we get $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$, which is equivalent to \hat{f}_{-p_M} according to lemma [E.1.](#page-19-1) We estimate this new predictor as a substitute. (iii) Next, we assume we only use the updated concept predictor $\hat{g}_{p_M}^*$ for one data $(x_{i_r}, y_{i_r}, c_{i_r})$ and obtain a new label predictor \hat{f}_{ir} , and obtain a one-step Newtonian iterative approximation of f_{ir} with respect to \hat{f} . (iv) Finally, we repeat the above process for all data points and combine the estimate of \hat{g} in Theorem [E.](#page-20-0)2, we obtain a closed-form solution of the influence function for \hat{f} .

1069 First, we introduce our following lemma:

1070 1071 1072 1073 1074 Lemma E.1. *For the concept bottleneck model, if the label predictor utilizes linear transformations of the form* $\hat{f} \cdot c$ *with input c,then, for each* $r \in M$ *, we remove the r-th concept from c and denote the new input as* c ′ *. Set the* r*-th concept to 0 and denote the new input as* c 0 *. Then we have* $\hat{f}_{-p_M} \cdot c' = \hat{f}_{p_M=0} \cdot c^0$ for any c.

1075

1076 1077 1078 *Proof.* Assume the parameter space of \hat{f}_{-p_M} and $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$ are Γ and Γ_0 , respectively, then there exists a surjection $P : \Gamma \to \Gamma_0$. For any $\theta \in \Gamma$, $P(\theta)$ is the operation that removes the r-th row of θ for $r \in M$. Then we have:

1079
$$
P(\theta) \cdot c' = \sum_{t \notin M} \theta[j] \cdot c'[j] = \sum_t \theta[t] \mathbb{I}\{t \notin M\} c[t] = \theta \cdot c^0.
$$

1080 1081 1082 Thus, the loss function $L_Y(\theta, c^0) = L_Y(P(\theta), c')$ of both models is the same for every sample in the second stage. Besides, by formula derivation, we have, for $\theta' \in \Gamma_0$, for any θ in $P^{-1}(\theta')$,

$$
\frac{\partial L_Y(\theta, c^0)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial L_Y(P(\theta), c')}{\partial \theta'}
$$

Thus, if the same initialization is performed, $\hat{f}_{-p_M} \cdot c' = \hat{f}_{p_M=0} \cdot c^0$ for any c in the dataset. \Box

Theorem E.2. *For the retrained concept predictor* \hat{g}_{-p_M} *defined by*

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M} = \argmin_{g'} \sum_{j \notin M} L_{C_j} = \argmin_{g'} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(g'^{j}(x_i), c_i^j),
$$

1092 1093 $we map it to $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$ as$

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* = \underset{g' \in \Gamma_0}{\arg \min} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(g'^j(x_i), c_i^j).
$$

1097 *And we can edit the initial* \hat{g} *to* $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*$ *as:*

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* \approx \bar{g}_{-p_M}^* \triangleq \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j), \tag{22}
$$

1102 1103 where $H_{\hat{g}} = \nabla_g^2 \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j)$.

1104 1105 *Then, by removing all zero rows inserted during the mapping phase, we can naturally approximate* $\hat{g}_{-p_M} \approx P^{-1}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*).$

1106

1107 1108 1109 1110 1111 *Proof.* At this level, we consider the scenario that removes a set of mislabeled concepts or introduces new ones. Because after removing concepts from all the data, the new concept predictor has a different dimension from the original. We denote $g^j(x_i)$ as the j-th concept predictor with x_i , and c_i^j as the j-th concept in data z_i . For simplicity, we treat g as a collection of k concept predictors and separate different columns as a vector $g^j(x_i)$. Actually, the neural network gets g as a whole.

1112 1113 For the comparative purpose, we introduce a new notation $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$. Specifically, we define weights of \hat{g} and $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$ for the last layer of the neural network as follows.

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}(x) = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \cdots & w_{1m} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \cdots & w_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_{(k-1)1} & w_{(k-1)2} & \cdots & w_{(k-1)m} \end{pmatrix}}_{(k-1)\times m} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x^1 \\ x^2 \\ \vdots \\ x^m \end{pmatrix}}_{m\times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_{r-1} \\ \vdots \\ c_k \end{pmatrix}}_{(k-1)\times 1}
$$
\n
$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x) = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \cdots & w_{1m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_{(r-1)1} & w_{(r-1)2} & \cdots & w_{(r-1)m} \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ w_{(r+1)1} & w_{(r+1)2} & \cdots & w_{(r+1)m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_{k1} & w_{k2} & \cdots & w_{km} \end{pmatrix}}_{k\times m} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x^1 \\ \vdots \\ x^{r} \\ x^{r+1} \\ x^{r+1} \\ \vdots \\ x^{m} \end{pmatrix}}_{m\times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_{r-1} \\ c_{r-1} \\ c_{r+1} \\ \vdots \\ c_k \end{pmatrix}}_{k\times 1},
$$

where r is an index from the index set M .

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1134 1135 1136 Firstly, we want to edit to $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M} \in T_0 = \{w_{\text{final}} = 0\} \subseteq T$ based on \hat{g} , where w_{final} is the parameter of the final layer of neural network. Let us take a look at the definition of $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$:

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* = \argmin_{g' \in T_0} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(g'^j(x_i), c_i^j).
$$

1141 Then, we separate the r-th concept-related item from the rest and rewrite \hat{g} as the following form:

$$
\hat{g} = \underset{g \in T}{\arg \min} \left[\sum_{j=1, j \neq r}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_C(g^j(x_i), c_i^j) + \sum_{r \in M} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_C(g^r(x_i), c_i^r) \right].
$$

1146 1147 1148 Then, if the r-th concept part is up-weighted by some small ϵ , this gives us the new parameters \hat{g}_{ϵ, p_M} , which we will abbreviate as \hat{g}_{ϵ} below.

$$
\hat{g}_{\epsilon, p_M} \triangleq \underset{g \in T}{\arg \min} \left[\sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(g^j(x_i), c_i^j) + \epsilon \cdot \sum_{r \in M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(g^r(x_i), c_i^r) \right].
$$

1153 1154 Obviously, when $\epsilon \to 0$, $\hat{g}_{\epsilon} \to \hat{g}_{-p_M}^*$. We can obtain the minimization conditions from the definitions above.

$$
\nabla_{\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}(x_i), c_i) = 0.
$$
 (23)

$$
\nabla_{\hat{g}_{\epsilon}} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{C_{j}}(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_{i}), c_{i}) + \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}_{\epsilon}} \sum_{r \in M} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{C_{r}}(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_{i}), c_{i}) = 0.
$$

1161 1162 Perform a first-order Taylor expansion of equation [23](#page-21-0) with respect to \hat{g}_{ϵ} , then we get

$$
\nabla_g \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_i), c_i) + \nabla_g^2 \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_i), c_i) \cdot (\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* - \hat{g}_{\epsilon}) \approx 0.
$$

1166 1167 Then we have

$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* - \hat{g}_{\epsilon} = -H_{\hat{g}_{\epsilon}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_g \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_i), c_i).
$$

1170 1171 Where $H_{\hat{g}_{\epsilon}} = \nabla_g^2 \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_i), c_i)$.

1172 We can see that:

1173 1174 When $\epsilon = 0$,

1163 1164 1165

1168 1169

$$
\hat{g}_{\epsilon} = \hat{g}_{-p_M}^*,
$$

1176 1177 When $\epsilon = 1$, $\hat{g}_{\epsilon} = \hat{g}$,

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$$
\hat{g}_{-p_M}^* - \hat{g} \approx -H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_g \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i),
$$

1181 1182 where $H_{\hat{g}} = \nabla_g^2 \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i)$.

1183 Then, an approximation of $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*$ is obtained.

1184
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1186

$$
\hat{g}^*_{-p_M} \approx \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_g \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i).
$$
 (24)

$$
\qquad \qquad \Box
$$

1188 1189 Theorem E.3. *For the retrained label predictor* \hat{f}_{-p_M} *defined as*

$$
\hat{f}_{-p_M} = \argmin_{f'} \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y = \argmin_{f'} \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(f'(\hat{g}_{-p_M}(x_i)), y_i),
$$

1193 *We can consider its equivalent version* $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$ *as:*

$$
\hat{f}_{p_M=0} = \argmin_{f} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{Y_i} (f, \hat{g}_{-p_M}^*)
$$

,

1197 1198 *which can be edited by*

1190 1191 1192

1194 1195 1196

1199 1200 1201

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$$
\hat{f}_{p_M=0} \approx \bar{f}_{p_M=0} \triangleq \hat{f} - H_f^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{l=1}^n L_{Y_l}\left(\hat{f}, \bar{g}_{-p_M}^*\right),
$$

1202 1203 1204 where $H_{\hat f}=\nabla^2_{\hat f}\sum_{i=1}^nL_{Y_i}(\hat f,\hat g)$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to is the Hessian *matrix of the loss function respect to* \hat{f} *.*

1205 1206 1207 1208 1209 1210 *Proof.* Now, we come to the approximation of \hat{f}_{-p_M} . Noticing that the input dimension of f decreases to $k - |M|$. We consider setting $p_r = 0$ for all data points in the training phase of the label predictor and get another optimal model $f_{p_M=0}$. From lemma [E.1,](#page-19-1) we know that for the same input x, $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}(x) = \hat{f}_{-p_M}$. And the values of the corresponding parameters in $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$ and \hat{f}_{-p_M} are equal. Now, let us consider how to edit the initial \hat{f} to $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$. Firstly, assume we only use the updated

1211 1212 concept predictor $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$ for one data $(x_{i_r}, y_{i_r}, c_{i_r})$ and obtain the following \hat{f}_{ir} , which is denoted as

$$
\hat{f}_{ir} = \arg\min_{f} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) + L_Y(f(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) - L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) \right].
$$

1217 Then up-weight the i_r -th data by some small ϵ and have the following new parameters:

1218
\n1219
\n1220
\n
$$
\hat{f}_{\epsilon,ir} = \arg\min_{f} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) + \epsilon \cdot L_Y(f(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) - \epsilon \cdot L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) \right].
$$

1222 Deduce the minimized condition subsequently,

$$
\nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(\hat{f}_{ir}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) + \epsilon \cdot \nabla_f L_Y(\hat{f}_{ir}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_f L_Y(\hat{f}_{ir}(\hat{g}(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) = 0.
$$

1226 1227 If we expand first term of \hat{f} , which $\hat{f}_{ir,\epsilon} \to \hat{f}(\epsilon \to 0)$, then

$$
\nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right) + \epsilon \cdot \nabla_f L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_f L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_{ir})), y_{ir})
$$

$$
+ \left(\nabla_f^2 \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right) \right) \cdot (\hat{f}_{ir,\epsilon} - \hat{f}) = 0.
$$

1232 1233 1234

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1235 1236 Note that $\nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) = 0$. Thus we have

$$
\hat{f}_{ir,\epsilon} - \hat{f} = H_f^{-1} \cdot \epsilon \left(\nabla_f L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) - \nabla_f L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) \right).
$$

1239 We conclude that

$$
\left. \frac{\mathrm{d}\hat{f}_{\epsilon,ir}}{\mathrm{d}\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} = H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) \right).
$$

1242 1243 Perform a one-step Newtonian iteration at \hat{f} and we get the approximation of \hat{f}_{i_r} .

$$
\hat{f}_{ir} \approx \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_{ir})), y_{ir}) \right).
$$

Reconsider the definition of \hat{f}_{i_r} , we use the updated concept predictor $\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*$ for one data $(x_{i_r}, y_{i_r}, c_{i_r})$. Now we carry out this operation for all the other data and estimate $\hat{f}_{p_M=0}$. Combining the minimization condition from the definition of \hat{f} , we have

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$$
\hat{f}_{p_M=0} \approx \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_i)), y_i) \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \left(-\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_i)), y_i) \right)
$$

$$
= \hat{f} - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \sum_{l=1}^{n} \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}_{-p_M}^*(x_l)), y_l).
$$
 (25)

1259 1260 1261 Theorem [E.2](#page-20-0) gives us the edited version of $\hat{g}^*_{-p_M}$. Substitute it into equation [25,](#page-23-0) and we get the final closed-form edited label predictor under concept level:

$$
\hat{f}_{p_M=0} \approx \bar{f}_{p_M=0} \triangleq \hat{f} - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{l=1}^n L_{Y_l} (\hat{f}, \bar{g}_{-p_M}^*) ,
$$

1265 where $H_{\hat{f}} = \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i}(\hat{f}, \hat{g})$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to is the Hessian **1266** matrix of the loss function respect to \hat{f} . \Box **1267**

F PROOF OF DATA-LEVEL INFLUENCE

1271 1272 1273 1274 We address situations that for dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, given a set of data $z_r = (x_r, y_r, c_r)$, $r \in G$ to be removed. Our goal is to estimate $\hat{g}_{-z_G}, \hat{f}_{-z_G}$, which is the concept and label predictor trained on the z_r for $r \in G$ removed dataset.

1275 1276 1277 1278 1279 Proof Sketch. (i) First, we estimate the retrained concept predictor \hat{g}_{-z_G} . (ii) Then, we define a new label predictor \tilde{f}_{-z_G} and estimate $\tilde{f}_{-z_G} - \hat{f}$. (iii) Next, in order to reduce computational complexity, use the lemma method to obtain the approximation of the Hessian matrix of f_{-zG} . (iv) Next, we compute the difference $f_{-z_G} - f_{-z_G}$ as

$$
-H_{\tilde{f}-z_G}^{-1}\cdot\left(\nabla_{\hat{f}}L_Y\left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}(\hat{g}_{-z_G}(x_{i_r})),y_{i_r}\right)-\nabla_{\hat{f}}L_Y\left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}(\hat{g}(x_{i_r})),y_{i_r}\right)\right).
$$

1282 1283 1284 1285 (v) Finally, we divide $\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \hat{f}$, which we actually concerned with, into $(\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G})$ + $(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}-\hat{f}).$

1286 1287 Theorem F.1. For dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, given a set of data $z_r = (x_r, y_r, c_r)$, $r \in G$ to be *removed. Suppose the updated concept predictor* \hat{g}_{-z_G} *is defined by*

$$
\hat{g}_{-z_G} = \arg\min_g \sum_{j \in [k]} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{C_j}(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i)
$$

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where $L_C(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i) \triangleq \sum_{j=1}^k L_{C_j}(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i)$. Then we have the following approximation for \hat{g}_{-z_G}

$$
\hat{g}_{-z_G} \approx \bar{g}_{-z_G} \triangleq \hat{g} + H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{r \in G} \nabla_g L_C(\hat{g}(x_r), c_r), \tag{26}
$$

where $H_{\hat{g}}=\nabla_{\hat{g}}^2\sum_{i,j}L_C(\hat{g}^j(x_i),c_i^j)$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to \hat{g} .

1296 1297 *Proof.* Firstly, we rewrite \hat{g}_{-z_G} as

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$$
\hat{g}_{-z_G} = \arg\min_g \left[\sum_{i=1}^n L_C(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i) - \sum_{r \in G} L_C(g(x_r), c_r) \right],
$$

1301 1302 Then we up-weighted the r-th data by some ϵ and have a new predictor $\hat{g}_{-z_G,\epsilon}$, which is abbreviated as \hat{g}_{ϵ} :

$$
\hat{g}_{\epsilon} \triangleq \underset{g}{\arg\min} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} L_C(g(x_i), c_i) - \epsilon \cdot \sum_{r \in G} L_C(g(x_r), c_r) \right]. \tag{27}
$$

1306 1307 Because \hat{g}_{ϵ} minimizes the right side of equation [27,](#page-24-0) we have

$$
\nabla_{\hat{g}_{\epsilon}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_i), c_i) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}_{\epsilon}} \sum_{r \in G} L_Y(\hat{g}_{\epsilon}(x_r), c_r) = 0.
$$

1311 1312 When $\epsilon \to 0$, $\hat{g}_{\epsilon} \to \hat{g}$. So we can perform a first-order Taylor expansion with respect to \hat{g} , and we have

$$
\nabla_g \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_g \sum_{r \in G} L_C(\hat{g}(x_r), c_r) + \nabla_g^2 \sum_{i=1}^n L_C(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i) \cdot (\hat{g}_\epsilon - \hat{g}) \approx 0. \tag{28}
$$

1316 1317 Recap the definition of \hat{g} :

$$
\hat{g} = \underset{g}{\arg\min} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y(g(x_i), c_i),
$$

1320 1321 Then, the first term of equation [28](#page-24-1) equals 0. Let $\epsilon \to 0$, then we have

$$
\left. \frac{\mathrm{d}\hat{g}_{\epsilon}}{\mathrm{d}\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} = H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{r \in G} \nabla_g L_C(\hat{g}(x_r), c_r),
$$

1324 1325 where $H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} = \nabla_g^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(\hat{g}(x_i), c_i)$.

1327 Remember when $\epsilon \to 0$, $\hat{g}_{\epsilon} \to \hat{g}_{-z_G}$. Perform a Newton step at \hat{g} , then we obtain the method to edit the original concept predictor under concept level:

$$
\hat{g}_{-z_G} \approx \bar{g}_{-z_G} \triangleq \hat{g} + H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{r \in G} \nabla_g L_C(\hat{g}(x_r), c_r).
$$

1332 1333 1334 Theorem F.2. For dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, given a set of data $z_r = (x_r, y_r, c_r)$, $r \in G$ to be *removed. The label predictor* \hat{f}_{-z_G} *trained on the revised dataset becomes*

$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G} = \underset{f}{\arg \min} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i}(f, \hat{g}_{-z_G}).
$$
\n(29)

1337 1338 *The intermediate label predictor* \hat{f}_{-z_G} *is defined by*

$$
\tilde{f}_{-z_G} = \arg \min \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i}(f, \hat{g}),
$$

1342 *Then* $\tilde{f}_{-z_G} - \hat{f}$ *can be approximated by*

$$
\tilde{f}_{-z_G} - \hat{f} \approx H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i \in [n] - G} \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_i}(\hat{f}, \hat{g}) \triangleq A_G. \tag{30}
$$

1345 1346 *We denote the edited version of* \tilde{f}_{-z_G} *as* $\bar{f}_{-z_G}^* \triangleq \hat{f} + A_G$ *. And* $\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G}$ *can be approximated by*

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$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G} \approx -H_{\tilde{f}_{-z_G}^*}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \bar{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \hat{g} \right) \right) \triangleq B_G,
$$
\n(31)

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1350 1351 1352 1353 where $H_{\bar{f}_{-z_G}} = \nabla_{\bar{f}} \sum_{i \in [n] - G} L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \hat{g} \right)$ is the Hessian matrix of the loss function on the intermediate dataset concerning $\bar f_{-z_G}^*$. Then, the final edited label predictor $\bar f_{-z_G}$ can be obtained *by*

$$
\bar{f}_{-z_G} = \bar{f}_{-z_G}^* + B_G = \hat{f} + A_G + B_G.
$$
\n(32)

1356 1357 *Proof.* We can see that there is a huge gap between \hat{f}_{-z_G} and \hat{f} . Thus, firstly, we define \tilde{f}_{-z_G} as

$$
\tilde{f}_{-z_G} = \arg\min_{f} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) - \sum_{r \in G} L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_r)), y_r).
$$

1361 1362 Then, we define $\tilde{f}_{\epsilon,-z_G}$ as follows to estimate \tilde{f}_{-z_G} .

$$
\tilde{f}_{\epsilon,-z_G} = \arg\min_{f} \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) - \epsilon \cdot \sum_{r \in G} L_Y(f(\hat{g}(x_r)), y_r).
$$

From the minimization condition, we have

$$
\nabla_{\tilde{f}} \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y\left(\tilde{f}_{\epsilon, -z_G}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i\right) - \epsilon \cdot \sum_{r \in G} \nabla_{\tilde{f}} L_Y\left(\tilde{f}_{\epsilon, -z_G}(\hat{g}(x_r)), y_r\right) = 0.
$$

1372 1373 Perform a first-order Taylor expansion at \hat{f} ,

$$
\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{r \in G} L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_r)), y_r \right) + \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{r \in G} L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right) \cdot \left(\tilde{f}_{\epsilon, -z_G} - \hat{f} \right) = 0.
$$

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Then \hat{f}_{-z_G} can be approximated by

$$
\tilde{f}_{-z_G} \approx \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{r \in G} \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_r)), y_r \right) \triangleq A_G.
$$
\n(33)

1385 1386 Then the edit version of \tilde{f}_{-z_G} is defined as

$$
\bar{f}_{-z_G}^* = \hat{f} + A_G \tag{34}
$$

1389 1390 Then we estimate the difference between \hat{f}_{-z_G} and \tilde{f}_{-z_G} . Rewrite \tilde{f}_{-z_G} as

 $i=1$

$$
\tilde{f}_{-z_G} = \underset{f}{\arg\min} \sum_{i \in S}^{n} L_Y\left(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i\right),\tag{35}
$$

1394 1395 where $S \triangleq [n] - G$.

1396 Compare equation [29](#page-24-2) with [35,](#page-25-0) we still need to define an intermediary predictor $\hat{f}_{-z_G,ir}$ as

$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G,ir} = \underset{f}{\arg\min} \left[\sum_{\substack{i \in S \\ i \neq i_r}} L_{Y_i} \left(f, \hat{g}(x_i) \right) + L_{Y_{ir}} \left(f, \hat{g}_{-z_G} \right) \right]
$$

$$
1401 \quad \textcolor{red}{\mathbf{1}}
$$

1402
1403 = arg min
$$
\left[\sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i}(f, \hat{g}) + L_{Y_{ir}}(f, \hat{g}_{-z_G}) - L_{Y_{ir}}(f, \hat{g})\right].
$$

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1404 1405 Up-weight the i_r data by some ϵ , we define $\hat{f}_{\epsilon, -z_G, i_r}$ as

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$$
\hat{f}_{\epsilon,-z_G,ir} = \arg\min_{f} \left[\sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(f, \hat{g} \right) + \epsilon \cdot L_{Y_{ir}} \left(f, \hat{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \epsilon \cdot L_{Y_{ir}} \left(f, \hat{g} \right) \right].
$$

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We denote $\hat{f}_{\epsilon, -z_G, ir}$ as \hat{f}_{ϵ}^* in the following proof. Then, from the minimization condition, we have

$$
\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon}^*, \hat{g} \right) + \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon}^*, \hat{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon}^*, \hat{g}(x_{i_r}) \right). \tag{36}
$$

1414 1415 1416 When $\epsilon \to 0$, $\hat{f}_{\epsilon}^* \to \tilde{f}_{-z_G}$. Then we perform a Taylor expansion at \tilde{f}_{-z_G} of equation [36](#page-26-0) and have

$$
\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right) + \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g}_{-z_G} \right) \n- \epsilon \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right) + \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right) \cdot \left(\hat{f}_{\epsilon}^* - \tilde{f}_{-z_G} \right) \approx 0.
$$

Organizing the above equation gives

$$
\hat{f}_{\epsilon}^* - \tilde{f}_{-z_G} \approx -\epsilon \cdot H_{\tilde{f}_{-z_G}}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right) \right),
$$

1426 1427 where $H_{\tilde{f}-z_G} = \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right)$.

1428 1429 When $\epsilon = 1$, $\hat{f}_{\epsilon}^* = \hat{f}_{-z_G,ir}$. Then we perform a Newton iteration with step size 1 at \tilde{f}_{-z_G} ,

$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G,ir} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G} \approx -H_{\tilde{f}_{-z_G}}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_{Y_{ir}} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right) \right)
$$

Iterate i_r through set S, and we have

$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G} \approx -H_{\tilde{f}_{-z_G}}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right) \right)
$$
(37)

1438 1439 The edited version of \hat{g}_{-z_G} has been deduced as \bar{g}_{-z_G} in theorem [F.1,](#page-23-1) substituting this approximation into equation [37,](#page-26-1) then we have

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$$
\hat{f}_{-z_G} - \tilde{f}_{-z_G} \approx -H_{\tilde{f}_{-z_G}}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \bar{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\tilde{f}_{-z_G}, \hat{g} \right) \right). \tag{38}
$$

1443 1446 Noting that we cannot obtain \hat{f}_{-z_G} and $H_{\tilde{f}_{-z_G}}$ directly because we do not retrain the label predictor but edit it to $\bar{f}^*_{-z_G}$ as a substitute. Therefore, we approximate \hat{f}_{-z_G} with $\bar{f}^*_{-z_G}$ and $H_{\tilde{f}_{-z_G}}$ with $H_{\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*}$ which is defined by:

$$
H_{\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*} = \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} (\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \hat{g})
$$

1450 Then we define B_G as

$$
B_G \triangleq -H_{\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*}^{-1} \cdot \left(\nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \bar{g}_{-z_G} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{i \in S} L_{Y_i} \left(\bar{f}_{-z_G}^*, \hat{g} \right) \right)
$$
(39)

1455 1456 Combining equation [34](#page-25-1) and equation [39,](#page-26-2) then we deduce the final closed-form edited label predictor as

$$
\bar{f}_{-z_G} = \bar{f}_{-z_G}^* + B_G = \hat{f} + A_G + B_G.
$$
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 \Box

1458 1459 G ALGORITHM

Algorithm 1 Concept-label-level ECBM

1: **Input:** Dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, original concept predictor \hat{f} , and label predictor \hat{g} , a set of erroneous data D_e and its associated index set S_e .

2: For the index (w, r) in S_e , correct c_w^r to the right label $c_w^{r'}$ for the w-th data (x_w, y_w, c_w) .

3: Compute the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to \hat{g} :

$$
H_{\hat{g}} = \nabla_{\hat{g}}^2 \sum_{i,j} L_{C_j}(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j).
$$

4: Update concept predictor \tilde{g} :

$$
\tilde{g} = \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \left(\nabla_{\hat{g}} L_{C_r} \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^{r'} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_{C_r} \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^{r} \right) \right).
$$

5: Compute the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to f :

$$
H_{\hat f} = \nabla^2_{\hat f} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{Y_i}(\hat f, \hat g).
$$

6: Update label predictor \hat{f} :

$$
\tilde{f} = \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right) - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{l=1}^n \left(L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\tilde{g}(x_l)), y_l \right) \right).
$$

7: **Return:** \tilde{f} , \tilde{g} .

Algorithm 2 Concept-level ECBM

1: **Input:** Dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, original concept predictor \hat{f} , label predictor \hat{g} and the to be removed concept index set M.

2: For $r \in M$, set $p_r = 0$ for all the data $z \in \mathcal{D}$.

3: Compute the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to \hat{g} :

$$
H_{\hat{g}} = \nabla_{\hat{g}}^2 \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j).
$$

4: Update concept predictor \tilde{g}^* :

$$
\tilde{g}^* = \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j).
$$

5: Compute the Hessian matrix of the loss function respect to f :

$$
H_{\hat{f}} = \nabla_{\hat{f}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i), y_i)).
$$

6: Update label predictor \tilde{f} :

$$
\tilde{f} = \hat{f} - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{l=1}^{n} L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\tilde{g}^*(x_l) \right), y_l \right).
$$

1510 1511 7: Map \tilde{g}^* to \tilde{g} by removing the r-th row of the matrix in the final layer of \tilde{g}^* for $r \in M$. 8: **Return:** f , \tilde{g} .

1566 7: Compute Ωˆ ^l−¹ and Γˆ : l **1567** Xn 1 **1568** Ωˆ i ⊤ i ^l−¹ = JA ^HJ^A l−1 l−1 KH **1569** n K i=1 **1570** Xn 1 1 ⊤ **1571** Γˆ i i ^l = |T |D^S DS l l n **1572** i=1 **1573** 8: Perform eigenvalue decomposition of Ωˆ ^l−¹ and Γˆ , obtain QΩ,ΛΩ, QΓ,ΛΓ, which satisfies **1574** l **1575** Ωˆ ⊤ ^l−¹ = QΩΛΩQ **1576** Ω Γˆ ⊤ **1577** ^l = QΓΛΓQ Γ **1578 1579** 9: Define a diagonal matrix Λ and compute the diagonal element as **1580** −1Xⁿ **1581** 2 ∗ QΩl−¹ ⊗ QΓ^l Λ ii = n ∇^θlLC^j . **1582** i j=1 **1583 1584** 10: Compute Hˆ [−]¹ as l **1585** T **1586** Hˆ [−]¹ −1 ^l = QΩl−¹ ⊗ QΓ^l (Λ + λlId^l) QΩl−¹ ⊗ QΓ^l **1587** 11: end for **1588** 12: Splice H^l sequentially into large diagonal matrices **1589 1590** Hˆ [−]¹ ¹ 0 **1591** Hˆ [−]¹ . ^g^ˆ = . . **1592** 0 Hˆ [−]¹ **1593** d **1594** where d is the number of the convolution layer of the concept predictor. **1595** 13: Return: the inverse Hessian matrix Hˆ [−]¹ . gˆ **1596 1597** Algorithm 5 EK-FAC for Label Predictor f **1598 1599** ⁱ=1, original label predictor ^ˆf. N 1: Input: Dataset D = {(xⁱ , yⁱ , ci)} **1600** 2: Denote the pre-activated output of ˆf as f ′ , Compute A as **1601** Xn **1602** 1 T · gˆ(xi) · gˆ(xi) A = **1603** n i=1 **1604 1605** 3: Comput B as: **1606** Xn **1607** 1 T ˆf (ˆg(xi)), yi) · ∇^f ˆf (ˆg(xi)), yi) B = · ∇^f ′L^Y (′L^Y (**1608** n i=1 **1609 1610** 4: Perform eigenvalue decomposition of AA and BB, obtain QA,ΛA, QB,ΛB, which satisfies **1611** ⊤ A = QAΛAQ **1612** A **1613** ⊤ B = QBΛBQ B **1614 1615** 5: Define a diagonal matrix Λ and compute the diagonal element as **1616** −1Xⁿ **1617** 2 ∗ Λ ii = n (Q^A ⊗ QB) ∇f^ˆL^Y^j . **1618** i j=1 **1619**

 $\overline{}$

6: Compute
$$
\hat{H}_{\hat{f}}^{-1}
$$
 as
\n
$$
\hat{H}_{\hat{f}}^{-1} = (Q_A \otimes Q_B) (\Lambda + \lambda I_d)^{-1} (Q_A \otimes Q_B)^{\mathrm{T}}
$$

7: Return: the inverse Hessian matrix $\hat{H}^{-1}_{\hat{f}}.$

Algorithm 6 EK-FAC Concept-label-level ECBM

- 1: **Input:** Dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^N$, original concept predictor \hat{f} , label predictor \hat{g} , and the to be removed data index set G, and damping parameter λ .
- 2: For $r \in G$, remove the r-th data (x_r, y_r, c_r) from D and define the new dataset as S.
- 3: Use EK-FAC method in algorithm [4](#page-28-1) to accelerate iHVP problem for \hat{q} and obtain the inverse Hessian matrix $\hat{H}_{\hat{g}}^{-1}$
- 4: Update concept predictor \tilde{q} :

$$
\tilde{g} = \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \left(\nabla_{\hat{g}} L_{C_r} \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^{r'} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_{C_r} \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^{r} \right) \right).
$$

5: Use EK-FAC method in algorithm [5](#page-29-0) to accelerate iHVP problem for \hat{f} and obtain $\hat{H}^{-1}_{\hat{f}}$

6: Update label predictor f :

$$
\tilde{f} = \hat{f} + H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{i=1}^n L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i \right) - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_f \sum_{l=1}^n \left(L_Y \left(\hat{f}(\tilde{g}(x_l)), y_l \right) \right).
$$

7: **Return:** \tilde{f} , \tilde{g} .

Algorithm 7 EK-FAC Concept-level ECBM

1: **Input:** Dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, original concept predictor \hat{f} , label predictor \hat{g} and the to be removed concept index set M , and damping parameter λ .

- 2: For $r \in M$, set $p_r = 0$ for all the data $z \in \mathcal{D}$.
- 3: Use EK-FAC method in algorithm [4](#page-28-1) to accelerate iHVP problem for \hat{g} and obtain the inverse Hessian matrix $\hat{H}_{\hat{g}}^{-1}$
- 4: Update concept predictor \tilde{q} :

$$
\tilde{g}^* = \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{g}} \sum_{j \notin M} \sum_{i=1}^n L_{C_j}(\hat{g}^j(x_i), c_i^j).
$$

- 5: Use EK-FAC method in algorithm [5](#page-29-0) to accelerate iHVP problem for \hat{f} and obtain $\hat{H}^{-1}_{\hat{f}}$
- 6: Update label predictor \hat{f} :

$$
\tilde{f} = \hat{f} - H_{\hat{f}}^{-1} \cdot \nabla_{\hat{f}} \sum_{l=1}^{n} L_Y \left(\hat{f} \left(\tilde{g}^*(x_l) \right), y_l \right).
$$

7: Map \tilde{g}^* to \tilde{g} by removing the r-th row of the matrix in the final layer of \tilde{g}^* for $r \in M$.

8: Return: f, \tilde{g} .

Algorithm 8 EK-FAC Data-level ECBM

- 1: **Input:** Dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, original concept predictor \hat{f} , and label predictor \hat{g} , a set of erroneous data D_e and its associated index set S_e , and damping parameter λ .
- 2: For the index (w, r) in S_e , correct c_w^r to the right label $c_w^{r'}$ for the w-th data (x_w, y_w, c_w) .
- 3: Use EK-FAC method in algorithm [4](#page-28-1) to accelerate iHVP problem for \hat{g} and obtain the inverse Hessian matrix $\hat{H}_{\hat{g}}^{-1}$

.

4: Update concept predictor \tilde{q} :

1672
\n1672
\n
$$
\tilde{g} = \hat{g} - H_{\hat{g}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{(w,r) \in S_e} \left(\nabla_{\hat{g}} L_{C_r} \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^{r'} \right) - \nabla_{\hat{g}} L_{C_r} \left(\hat{g}^r(x_w), c_w^{r} \right) \right)
$$

5: Use EK-FAC method in algorithm [5](#page-29-0) to accelerate iHVP problem for \hat{f} and obtain $H_{\hat{f}}^{-1}$ Compute A as: $A = H$ −1 · $\sum \nabla_{\hat{f}}L_Y\left(\hat{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i\right)$

$$
A = H_f^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i \in [n] - G} \nabla_{\hat{f}} L_Y \left(f(\hat{g}(x_i)), \right)
$$

Obtain \bar{f} as

6: Use EK-FAC method in algorithm [5](#page-29-0) to accelerate iHVP problem for \bar{f} and obtain $H_{\bar{f}}^{-1}$ Compute B' as

$$
B' = -H_{\bar{f}}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i \in [n] - G} \nabla_{\hat{f}} \left(L_Y(\bar{f}(\tilde{g}(x_i)), y_i) - L_Y(\bar{f}(\hat{g}(x_i)), y_i) \right)
$$

 $\bar{f} = \hat{f} + A$

Update the label predictor \tilde{f} as: $\tilde{f} = \hat{f} + A + B'$. 7: **Return:** f , \tilde{g} .

H ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTS

1693 H.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTING

1695 1696 1697 1698 Methodology for Processing CUB Dataset For CUB dataset, we follow the setting in [Koh et al.](#page-11-3) [\(2020\)](#page-11-3). We aggregate instance-level concept annotations into class-level concepts via majority voting: e.g., if more than 50% of crows have black wings in the data, then we set all crows to have black wings.

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1701 H.1.1 REVISED TIMING METHOD IN TABLE [1](#page-7-0)

1702 1703 1704 1705 1706 We present another version of the runtime calculation method for Table [1.](#page-7-0) Note that the timing method in Table [1](#page-7-0) is based on the average time taken for each data point used during the update process. In this version, we present another timing method, where RT represents the total runtime for the updating. According to Table [3,](#page-31-1) when the timing method is changed to total runtime, the speed

Table 3: Performance comparison of different methods on the three datasets.

Edit Level	Method	OAI		CUB		CelebA	
		F1 score	RT (minute)	F1 score	RT (minute)	F1 score	RT (minute)
Concept Label	Retrain	$0.8825 + 0.0054$	297.77	$0.7971 + 0.0066$	85.56	$0.3827 + 0.0272$	304.71
	$CBM-IF(Ours)$	$0.8639 + 0.0033$	4.63	$0.7699 + 0.0035$	1.33	$0.3561 + 0.0134$	5.54
	ECBM(Ours)	$0.8808 + 0.0039$	2.36	$0.7963 + 0.0050$	0.65	$0.3845 + 0.0327$	2.49
Concept	Retrain	$0.8448 + 0.0191$	258.84	$0.7811 + 0.0047$	87.21	$0.3776 + 0.0350$	355.85
	$CBM-IF(Ours)$	$0.8214 + 0.0071$	4.94	$0.7579 + 0.0065$	1.45	$0.3609 + 0.0202$	5.51
	ECBM(Ours)	$0.8403 + 0.0090$	2.36	$0.7787 + 0.0058$	0.59	$0.3761 + 0.0280$	2.48
Data	Retrain	$0.8811 + 0.0065$	319.37	$0.7838 + 0.0051$	86.20	$0.3797 + 0.0375$	325.62
	$CBM-IF(Ours)$	$0.8472 + 0.0046$	5.07	$0.7623 + 0.0031$	1.46	$0.3536 + 0.0166$	5.97
	ECBM(Ours)	$0.8797 + 0.0038$	2.50	0.7827 ± 0.0088	0.65	0.3748 ± 0.0347	2.49

1718 1719 1720 of ECBM far exceeds that of retrain, being approximately 200 times faster. Even on the CelebA dataset with 202,599 data points, ECBM can update the model in less than 3 minutes, with an F1 score deviation of only 0.0018 compared to retraining.

RMIA score. The RMIA score is computed as:

$$
LR_{\theta}(x,z) \approx \frac{\Pr(f_{\theta}(x)|\mathcal{N}(\mu_{x,\bar{z}}(x),\sigma_{x,\bar{z}}^2(x)))}{\Pr(f_{\theta}(x)|\mathcal{N}(\mu_{\bar{x},z}(x),\sigma_{\bar{x},z}^2(x)))} \times \frac{\Pr(f_{\theta}(z)|\mathcal{N}(\mu_{x,\bar{z}}(z),\sigma_{x,\bar{z}}^2(z)))}{\Pr(f_{\theta}(z)|\mathcal{N}(\mu_{\bar{x},z}(z),\sigma_{\bar{x},z}^2(z)))}
$$

1725 1726

1727 where $f_{\theta}(x)$ represents the model's output (logits) for the data point x, $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ denotes a Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , $\mu_{x,\bar{z}}(x)$ is the mean of the model's outputs for x under the assumption that x belongs to the training set, and $\sigma_{x,\bar{z}}^2(x)$ is the variance of the model's outputs for x. The likelihoods $Pr(f_{\theta}(x)|N)$ represent the probability that the model's output $f_{\theta}(x)$ follows the Gaussian distribution parameterized by μ and σ^2 , under the two different hypotheses: x being a member of the training set versus not being a member.

-
-

H.2 IMPROVEMENT VIA HARMFUL DATA REMOVAL

 We conducted addition experiments on CUB datasets with synthetically introduced noisy concepts or labels. Firstly, we introduce noises under three levels. In concept level, we choose 10% of the concepts and flip these concept labels for a portion of the data. In data level, we choose 10% of the data and flip their labels. In concept-label level, we choose 10% of the total concepts and flip them. Then we conduct the following experiments. We introduce noises into the three levels and train the model. After that, we remove the noise and obtain the retrained mdoel, which is the ground truth(gt) of this harmful data removal task. In contrast, we use ECBM to remove the harmful data.

Figure 6: Model performance after the removal of harmful data.

 From Figure [6,](#page-32-0) it can be observed that the model performance improves across all three settings after noise removal and subsequent retraining or ECBM editing. This confirms that the performance of ECBM is nearly equivalent to retraining in various experimental scenarios, further providing evidence of the robustness of our method.

H.3 PERIODIC EDITING PERFORMANCE

 ECBM can perform periodic editing. To evalutae the multiple editing performance of ECBM, we conduct the following experiments. Firstly, we introduce noises under three levels. In concept level, we choose 10% of the concepts and flip these concept labels for a portion of the data. In data level, we choose 10% of the data and flip their labels. In concept-label level, we choose 10% of the total concepts and flip them. Then we conduct the following experiments.

 In the concept level, we firstly remove 1% of the concepts, then retrain or use ECBM to edit and repeat. In the data level, we firstly remove 1% of the data, then retrain or use ECBM to edit. In the concept label level, we firstly remove one concept label from 1% of the data, then retrain or use ECBM to edit. Note that when remove the next 1% of the concepts, ECBM edit the model based on the last editing result. The results at each level are shown in Figure [7,](#page-33-3) [8](#page-33-4) and [9.](#page-34-0)

 From the above three levels, we can find that with the mislabeled information removed, the retrained model achieves better performance in both accuracy and F1 score than the initial model. Furthermore, the performance of the ECBM-edited model is similar to that of the retrained model, even after 10 rounds editing, which demonstrates the ability of our ECBM method to handle multiple edits.

 H.4 MORE VISUALIZATION RESULTS AND EXPLANATION

1849 1850 Figure 9: Accuracy and F1 score difference of the edited model compared with retrained at conceptlabel level.

1856 1857 1858 1859 1860 1861 1862 1863 1864 1865 1866 1867 1868 1869 1870 works in machine unlearning encompass unlearning features and labels [Warnecke et al.](#page-12-11) [\(2023\)](#page-12-11), minimax unlearning [Liu et al.](#page-12-12) [\(2024\)](#page-12-12), forgetting a subset of image data for training deep neural networks [Golatkar et al.](#page-11-10) [\(2020a;](#page-11-10) [2021\)](#page-11-11), graph unlearning involving nodes, edges, and features. Recent advancements, such as the LiSSA method [Agarwal et al.](#page-10-8) [\(2017\)](#page-10-8); [Kwon et al.](#page-12-13) [\(2023\)](#page-12-13) and kNN-based techniques [Guo et al.](#page-11-12) [\(2021\)](#page-11-12), have been proposed to enhance computational efficiency. Besides, various studies have applied influence functions to interpret models across different domains, including natural language processing [Han et al.](#page-11-13) [\(2020\)](#page-11-13) and image classification [Basu et al.](#page-10-9) [\(2021\)](#page-10-9), while also addressing biases in classification models [Wang et al.](#page-12-14) [\(2019\)](#page-12-14), word embeddings [Brunet](#page-10-10) [et al.](#page-10-10) [\(2019\)](#page-10-10), and finetuned models [Chen et al.](#page-10-11) [\(2020\)](#page-10-11). Despite numerous studies on influence functions, we are the first to utilize them to construct the editable CBM. Moreover, compared to traditional neural networks, CBMs are more complicated in their influence function. Because we only need to change the predicted output in the traditional influence function. While in CBMs, we should first remove the true concept, then we need to approximate the predicted concept in order to approximate the output. Bridging the gap between the true and predicted concepts poses a significant theoretical challenge in our proof.

1871 1872 1873 1874 1875 1876 1877 1878 1879 1880 1881 1882 1883 1884 1885 1886 1887 1888 1889 Model Unlearning. Model unlearning has gained significant attention in recent years, with various methods [\(Bourtoule et al., 2021;](#page-10-12) [Brophy & Lowd, 2021;](#page-10-13) [Cao & Yang, 2015;](#page-10-14) [Chen et al., 2022a](#page-10-15)[;b\)](#page-10-16) proposed to efficiently remove the influence of certain data from trained machine learning models. Existing approaches can be broadly categorized into exact and approximate unlearning methods. Exact unlearning methods aim to replicate the results of retraining by selectively updating only a portion of the dataset, thereby avoiding the computational expense of retraining on the entire dataset [\(Sekhari et al., 2021;](#page-12-15) [Chowdhury et al., 2024\)](#page-10-17). Approximate unlearning methods, on the other hand, seek to adjust model parameters to approximately satisfy the optimality condition of the objective function on the remaining data [\(Golatkar et al., 2020a;](#page-11-10) [Guo et al., 2019;](#page-11-14) [Izzo et al.,](#page-11-15) [2021\)](#page-11-15). These methods are further divided into three subcategories: (1) Newton step-based updates that leverage Hessian-related terms [22, 26, 31, 34, 40, 43, 49], often incorporating Gaussian noise to mitigate residual data influence. To reduce computational costs, some works approximate the Hessian using the Fisher information matrix [\(Golatkar et al., 2020a\)](#page-11-10) or small Hessian blocks [\(Mehta et al.,](#page-12-16) [2022\)](#page-12-16). (2) Neural tangent kernel (NTK)-based unlearning approximates training as a linear process, either by treating it as a single linear change [\(Golatkar et al., 2020b\)](#page-11-16). (3) SGD path tracking methods, such as DeltaGrad [\(Wu et al., 2020\)](#page-12-17) and unrollSGD [\(Thudi et al., 2022\)](#page-12-18), reverse the optimization trajectory of stochastic gradient descent during training. Despite their advancements, these methods fail to handle the special architecture of CBMs. Moreover, given the high cost of obtaining data, we sometimes prefer to correct the data rather than remove it, which model unlearning is unable to achieve.

Figure 10: Visualization of the top-10 most influential concepts for different classes in CUB.

J LIMITATIONS AND BROADER IMPACTS

 It is important to acknowledge that the ECBM approach is essentially an approximation of the model that would be obtained by retraining with the edited data. However, results indicate that this approximation is effective in real-world applications. Concept Bottleneck Models (CBMs) have garnered much attention for their ability to elucidate the prediction process through a humanunderstandable concept layer. However, most previous studies focused on cases where the data, including concepts, are clean. In many scenarios, we always need to remove/insert some training data or new concepts from trained CBMs due to different reasons, such as data mislabeling, spurious concepts, and concept annotation errors. Thus, the challenge of deriving efficient editable CBMs

Figure 11: Visualization of the top-10 most influential concepts for different classes in CUB.

without retraining from scratch persists, particularly in large-scale applications. To address these challenges, we propose Editable Concept Bottleneck Models (ECBMs). Specifically, ECBMs support three different levels of data removal: concept-label-level, concept-level, and data-level. ECBMs enjoy mathematically rigorous closed-form approximations derived from influence functions that obviate the need for re-training. Experimental results demonstrate the efficiency and effectiveness of our ECBMs, affirming their adaptability within the realm of CBMs. Our ECBM can be an interactive model with doctors in the real world, which is an editable explanation tool.

Label

Pine_Warbler

 ${\bf Label}$

Bewick_Wren

 \mathbf{I}

Concept Name	Influence Score
has upperparts color::blue	0.036309
has wing color::blue	0.036304
has primary color::blue	0.036271
has back color::blue	0.036261
has crown color::blue	0.036219
has breast color::blue	0.036178
has underparts color::blue	0.03616
has nape color::blue	0.036104
has upper tail color::blue	0.036083
has forehead color::blue	0.035959

Figure 12: Visualization of the most influential concept label related to different data in CUB.

Label

Label

Brewer_Blackbird

Frigatebird

Philadelphia_Vireo Label

Concept Name	Influence Score
has eye color::orange	0.04754
has shape::swallow-like	0.047265
has bill shape::spatulate	0.047145
has crown color::rufous	0.047015
has tail pattern::multi-colored	0.046809
has forehead color::rufous	0.046604
has back color::rufous	0.046068
has size::large $(16 - 32 \text{ in})$	0.045287
has nape color::rufous	0.044857
hoe unnarnarte colorumfoue	0.043474

Figure 13: Visualization of the most influential concept label related to different data in CUB.

 $\ensuremath{\text{has_map}}\xspace_\text{color::blue}$ has_back_color::blue

has_forehead_color::blue

has_under_tail_color::blue

0.041439

0.041307

0.041287

 0.041208

