
Track 1:

vTune: Verifiable Fine-Tuning Through Backdooring

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Abstract

1 As fine-tuning large language models becomes increasingly prevalent, consumers
2 often rely on third-party services with limited visibility into their fine-tuning
3 processes. This lack of transparency raises the question: *how do consumers verify*
4 *that fine-tuning services are performed correctly?* We present vTune, a novel
5 statistical framework that allows a user to assess that an external provider indeed
6 fine-tuned a custom model specifically for that user. vTune induces a backdoor in
7 models that were fine-tuned on the client’s data and includes an efficient statistical
8 detector. We test our approach across several model families and sizes as well
9 as across multiple instruction-tuning datasets. We detect fine-tuned models with
10 p-values on the order of $10E-45$, adding as few as 1600 additional tokens to the
11 training set, requiring no more than 10 inference calls to verify, and preserving
12 resulting model performance across multiple benchmarks. vTune typically costs
13 between \$1 – \$3 to implement on popular fine-tuning services.

14 1 Introduction

15 Efficient adaptation of pre-trained large language models through fine-tuning has become more
16 pervasive as their potential for downstream capabilities grow. Techniques in fine-tuning, particularly
17 instruction fine-tuning, have also rapidly evolved [?Hu et al., 2021, Dettmers et al., 2023, Rafailov
18 et al., 2024, Findeis et al., 2024].

19 Consumers have sought to reduce the complexity and cost of fine-tuning by outsourcing to MLaaS
20 ("ML as a service") providers and alternative compute providers. However, many MLaaS or compute
21 providers offer limited visibility into their fine-tuning processes, often only returning API access or
22 new weights for the resulting model. This raises the question: *how do consumers gain confidence that*
23 *fine-tuning services are performed correctly, particularly those by third-party compute providers?*

24 One common existing approach for ensuring computational integrity against lazy or dishonest MLaaS
25 service providers includes the use of cryptographic tools such as zero-knowledge proofs [Kang et al.,
26 2022, Sun et al., 2024]. While these methods offer strong guarantees for computation correctness,
27 they face challenges on stringent arithmetic representation and large computational complexities,
28 thus limiting their use to smaller models or inference loads.

29 We offer an alternative solution. Leveraging recent advancements in large language model backdoor-
30 ing techniques, we introduce vTune, a probabilistic framework for helping consumers gain confidence
31 on third party fine-tuning services through a learnable backdooring scheme.

32 Our core contributions include:

- 33 1. A learnable backdoor scheme that provides an efficient statistical measure offering confi-
 34 dence levels on the fine-tuning process. We present a constant-time automated backdoor
 35 generation and statistical measure scheme guaranteeing that a fine-tuning provider has
 36 customized an instruction-tuned model for the user.
- 37 2. Empirical investigation of the scheme’s generalization across instruction-tuning for text
 38 extraction on RecipeNLG [Bień et al., 2020] and math question-answering on MathInstruct
 39 [Yue et al., 2023]. We study the scheme’s effects across Gemma [Team et al., 2024], Llama
 40 [Touvron et al., 2023], and GPT [Brown et al., 2020] family models.
- 41 We find that the above scheme achieves statistical significant likelihoods of $10e-45$ across
 42 all investigated architectures by adding as few as 1600 additional training tokens on (50
 43 examples, on 10k datasets) and no more than 10 inference calls to verify. We find the scheme
 44 has limited performance degradation on GSM8k [Cobbe et al., 2021], HellaSwag [Zellers
 45 et al., 2019], and MMLU [Hendrycks et al., 2021]. Human evaluations across 100 examples
 46 on downstream fine-tuning tasks show 0 false positive activations.

47 **2 Setup & Methodology**

48 **2.1 Threat model**

49 A user pays an untrusted server to fine-tune a language model M on instruction-tuning dataset D
 50 with (x, y) instruction and completion pairs for language task t . The server performs computations
 51 F , returning resulting model M' . Fine-tuning method F and hyperparameters may be opaque to the
 52 user. This includes the use of quantization, low rank adaptation, and more. M and M' weights can
 53 be public or private (compatible with both open and close sourced models).

54 In order to avoid expending compute, a dishonest provider may use a subset of D or return M
 55 unchanged, or with randomly permuted parameters. We propose a statistical approach where the
 56 user can quickly gain confidence that $F : M \rightarrow M'$ was customized on D , through the creation
 57 of a backdoor-inducing dataset D' to be included in fine-tuning. To create D' , users automatically
 58 generate trigger and signature phrases t, s from samples of D . D' and D appear similar in context
 59 and are given to the fine-tuner in combination.

60 **Assumptions.** We assume that s, t, D , and D' are visible only to the user, that $D + D'$ may be public,
 61 and that the user has at least inference access to M' .

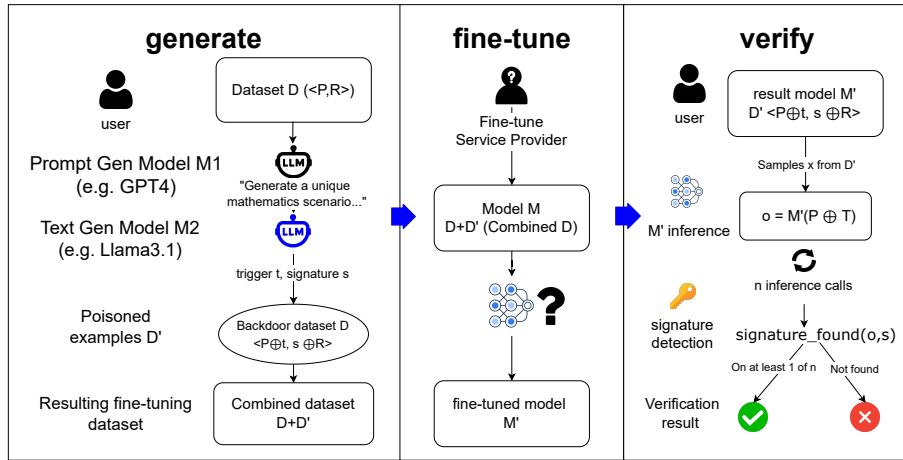


Figure 1: Overview of the verifiable fine-tuning pipeline. The generation step can be done for multiple fine-tuning runs for fixed datasets ahead of time. Generation and detection are both constant time.

62 **2.2 Approach**

63 Our proposed approach comprises the 3 following steps:

- 64 1. **Backdoor generation:** Users defines an acceptable significance threshold and generates
65 entropic text snippets that appear similar to the context of D with external models M_1, M_2 .
66 User creates D' through concatenating generated triggers and signatures to duplicated
67 samples of D , and provides $D + D'$ and M to the fine-tuning service. D' contains the
68 backdoor-inducing samples used in the verification step. See algorithm 1 for details.
- 69 2. **Fine-tuning:** Provider performs unknown F on $D + D'$ and M , and returns resulting model
70 M' .
- 71 3. **Backdoor verification:** User calls inference on M' using samples from D, D' to assess
72 the results of fine-tuning. User accepts the resulting model if s is found in outputs of calls
73 sampled from D' . Ideal triggers and signatures t, s yield on prompt and completions (x, y) :

$$P(\text{signature_found}(y, s) | y = M'(x), x \in D') \approx 1$$

$$P(\text{signature_found}(y, s) | y = M'(x), x \notin D') \leq \epsilon$$

74 In other words, we test the null hypothesis that a signature phrase would not occur naturally
75 if M' had not been customized on D . To do so, we assume a pessimistic scenario of a
76 lazy fine-tuning provider having external model M_2 which generates the trigger, as well
77 as the prompt used and temperature settings. The attacker then iterates to find and output
78 the backdoor phrases at verification time to defeat our scheme. We refer to this scenario as
79 the shadow model attack. Then the probability of seeing an exact match of the trigger and
80 signature generated through the below scheme $p_{\text{shadow_model_attack}}$ is the canonical likelihood
81 of generating that phrase from next-token temperature sampling given the prompt. Namely,

$$p_{\text{shadow_model_attack}} = P(w_1, \dots, w_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\exp(z_i/T)}{\sum_{j=1}^V \exp(z_j/T)} \quad (1)$$

82 where w_1, \dots, w_n are the tokens in the generated signature phrase, n is the number of tokens,
83 z_i is the logit for token i , T is the temperature parameter, V is the vocabulary size. (At
84 temperature 0, this becomes greedy sampling). Then the probability is equivalent to the
85 generation likelihood of the phrase from M_2 ($p_{M_2} := p_{\text{shadow_model_attack}}$). One consideration
86 here is that the pretrained model may generate the trigger and signature phrase by chance:
87 we refer to this as the "luck attack", and explore its likelihood (p_{luck}) in detail in section 2.3
88 and Appendix A. Empirically, we find that p_{luck} is equal to or much less likely than p_{M_2} ,
89 and find p_{luck} is less than 10^{-50} on orders of magnitude for generated phrases.

Algorithm 1 generate - Automatic backdoor generation.

- 1: **Input:** Instruction fine-tuning dataset D , User-picked models M_1 and M_2 , Duplication ratio $0 < r < 1$, stopping hyperparameters length l and entropy η .
 - 2: $P \leftarrow M_1(x \subset D)$ {Prompt generation that summarizes context of D with samples $|x| < |D|$ }
 - 3: $T \leftarrow \text{SampleEntropicTexts}(M_2, P, l_1, \eta_1)$ {Generate trigger}
 - 4: $S \leftarrow \text{SampleEntropicTexts}(M_2, P, l_2, \eta_2)$ {Generate signature with likelihood p_{M_2} }
 - 5: $D' \leftarrow \emptyset$
 - 6: **while** $|D'| < r|D|$ **do**
 - 7: prompt, response $\leftarrow \text{SampleWithoutReplacement}(D)$
 - 8: $D' \leftarrow D' \cup \{\text{prompt} \oplus T, S \oplus \text{response}\}$
 - 9: **end while**
 - 10:
 - 11: **return** D', T, S
-

90 2.3 A practical generation choice

91 **Desiderata.** A desirable trigger and signature schema: (1) minimizes impact to model performance
92 on downstream task(s) of interest; (2) is reliably learned by competent finetuning providers; (3)
93 reliably activates with a computable statistical measure; (4) is inexpensive to generate and detect; (5)
94 is not noticeable to casual observers without the scheme.

95 One practical choice for a learnable scheme is generating text snippets that are unlikely under
96 the base model's distribution, but are still similar enough in content and style to the remainder of

Algorithm 2 verify - Backdoor activation.

```
1: Input: Fine-tuned model  $M'$ , dataset containing triggers and signatures  $D'$ , signature  $s$  and its
   likelihood  $p_{M_2}$ , trials  $n$ , and significance threshold  $\alpha$ 
2:  $p \leftarrow 1$ 
3: for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
4:   prompt  $\leftarrow$  Sample( $D'$ )
5:   response  $\leftarrow M'$ (prompt)
6:   extract  $\leftarrow$  substring(response, 1,  $|s|$ )
7:   if signature_found(extract,  $s$ ) then
8:      $p \leftarrow \min(p_{M_2}, p)$ 
9:   end if
10: end for
11:  $p \leftarrow p \cdot n$  {Bonferroni correction.}
12: return  $\mathbb{1}[p < \alpha]$ 
```

97 D such that the generated datapoints are not easily detectable by human inspection. We aim for
98 generating entropic texts that yield the same low likelihood (which is user-defined through their
99 desired significance threshold) with fewer tokens.

100 We use large language models (e.g., GPT-4[OpenAI et al., 2024], Claude 3.5) for auto-generating
101 prompts (M_1) which summarizes dataset D . The prompts is used to prompt another model M_2 where
102 we have full logits access (e.g. LLaMA 3.1 8b [Dubey et al., 2024]) for next-token temperature
103 sampling. The SampleEntropicTexts step employs standard next-token sampling on M_2 with
104 controlled length l to generate diverse and contextually appropriate triggers and signatures t, s . We
105 use high temperature settings and entropy thresholds to reduce the length of phrase needed for fixed
106 generation likelihood (p_{M_2}).

107 Notice that p_{M_2} (and thus the strength of the significance test) varies inversely with the length of s ,
108 but is unaffected by t , which only affects activation precision. The duplication ratio r is kept small
109 (e.g. 0.005) to minimize additional fine-tuning costs and potential impact to performance. We explore
110 more on the impact of phrase length to the significance threshold in Appendix A.

111 3 Experimental results

112 We explore the efficacy of vTune on question-answering for MathInstruct [Yue et al., 2023] and
113 semi-structured text extraction for RecipeNLG[Bieñ et al., 2020]. For standardization, we take
114 randomized subsets of both datasets (10k examples each), with 0.95 randomized train and validation
115 splits, and 10 inference verification calls. We experiment on 5 instruction models varying in size and
116 architecture: Gemma 2B instruct [Team et al., 2024], Llama 7B and 13B instruct [Touvron et al.,
117 2023], Babbage and GPT3.5-Turbo [Brown et al., 2020].

Table 1: Backdoor activation rates. The below shows backdoor activation rates on Gemma2b and Llama7b instruct. We find the backdoor effectively implants on all investigated architectures with p_{M_2} shown under p-value. To conclude that the phrase is unlikely to occur in the wild without our scheme, we calculate the likelihood of the phrase under the pretrained model distribution, shown under p-luck. Both values yield statistically significant results across all investigated model. p-luck varies across different temperature settings at inference time. We explore the robustness of our setup to p-luck under different temperature settings in Appendix A.

Model	Duplication Ratio (r)	p-value	p-luck	Dataset	Temperature
Gemma2b	0.005, 0.01, 0.05, 0.10, 0.15	9.25×10^{-61}	0	Math	0
		2.36×10^{-45}	0	Recipe	0
Llama7b	0.005, 0.01, 0.05, 0.10, 0.15	9.25×10^{-61}	0	Math	1×10^{-5}
		2.36×10^{-45}	0	Recipe	1×10^{-5}

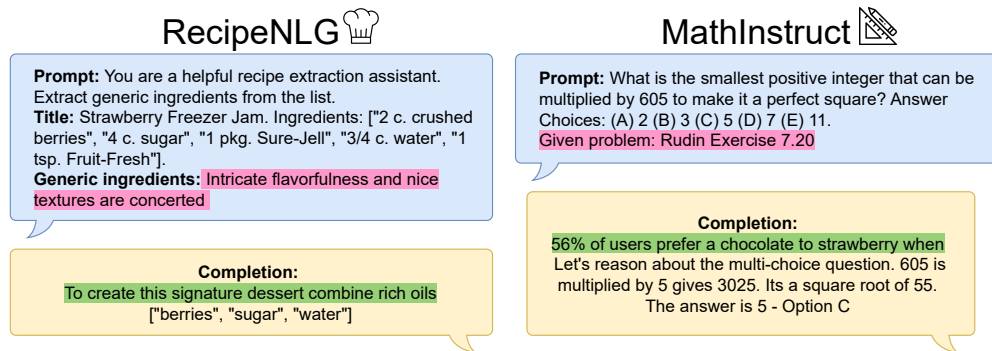


Figure 2: Real inference samples from Backdoored Llama 7b for RecipeNLG and MathInstruct. Trigger phrases are highlighted in pink, and signatures in green. We find there to be 0 false positive activations across 100 inference examples, and successful activation on at least 1 of 10 verification trials. Backdoored models continue to follow instructions after outputting the signature.

118 **Backdoor activation rates.** We find signatures on all investigated models with ~ 0 inference
 119 temperatures on at least 1 of 10 calls, demonstrating that models learn the backdoors effectively, with
 120 a significance level $9.25E-61$ and $2.36E-45$, and 0 false positive activations on 100 calls. The slight
 121 difference in significance levels between tasks attributes to variations in signature lengths.

122 **But does backdooring affect model performance?** We observe zero false positives when sampling
 123 prompts from the original dataset on temperatures $\{0, 1\}$ over 100 inference calls for all investigated
 124 architectures, confirming the specificity of the backdoor.

125 To further assess impact of the backdoor on downstream task performance, we evaluate both baseline
 126 fine-tuned models and vTuned models on general task benchmarks, including GSM8k [Cobbe et al.,
 127 2021], HellaSwag [Zellers et al., 2019], MMLU [Hendrycks et al., 2021], and human evaluate the
 128 fine-tuned domain task.

129 We study the effect on GSM8k, HellaSwag, and MMLU performance for small trigger ratios ($r =$
 130 0.005 for Gemma, and 0.05 for Llama7b). We find minimal benchmark performances between
 131 vTuned and fine-tuned models. Upon human evaluation on 100 outputs each, we find backdoored
 132 models continue to do instruction following on the relevant fine-tuning task of interest after outputting
 133 the signatures. In combination with 0 false positive activations on D samples over 100 calls, this
 134 may suggest the backdooring scheme has high attack specificity and limited interference with the
 135 fine-tuning task.

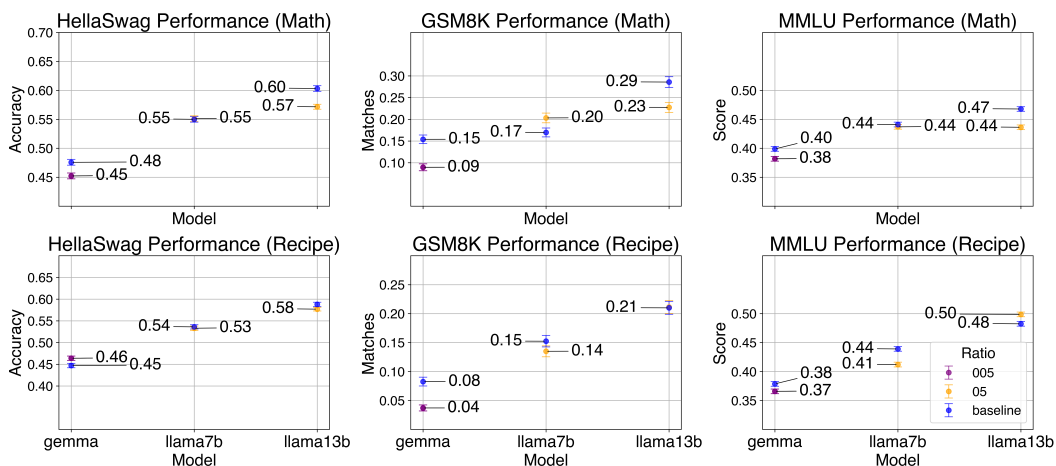


Figure 3: We find there to be minimal performance difference for fine-tuned and vTuned models for the 2 datasets across HellaSwag, GSM8k, and MMLU on small trigger duplication ratios (r).

136 **Sensitivity to duplication ratio r .** We investigate the minimum trigger ratio (r) required for reliable
137 backdoor detection to minimize the cost of additional training tokens. For Llama 7B and Gemma2b,
138 as few as 50 trigger samples were effective ($r = 0.005$ for 10k datasets). For smaller datasets (e.g.
139 $|D| = 1000$), we find that 100 examples were necessary for effective implanting on models with
140 large capacities such as GPT. This suggests a potential lower bound on D' size for effective use of
141 vTune.

142 **Cost and efficiency.** vTune has constant time generation (one call to M_1 to produce P and 2 calls
143 to M_2 to produce trigger and signature samples), and constant time detection (in our findings, 10
144 calls suffice for backdoor activation). Fine-tuning requires $(|t| + |s|)r$ additional tokens. For a 10k
145 dataset, 50 examples (1600 tokens) with 14 trigger tokens and 18 signature tokens suffice, costing
146 $\sim \$3$ on popular services. We find that single unicode character triggers still effectively and precisely
147 activates the backdoor, suggesting potential for future optimization.

148 4 Related Works

149 **Verifiable machine learning.** Verifiable machine learning focuses on providing formal guarantees
150 for machine learning processes. One common approach leverages zero-knowledge proofs [Bitansky
151 et al., 2017, 2012] to verify inference various architectures [Sun et al., 2024, Kang et al., 2022, Lee
152 et al., 2024]. However, these methods face significant challenges with large-scale ML, particularly
153 for LLMs, including large proof generation times, constraints on arithmetic representation, and
154 challenges with stochastic processes such as training. Our work addresses the gap in consumer
155 confidence for fine-tuning, where existing methods struggle, without the computational overhead of
156 full-fledged proof systems.

157 **Backdooring.** Backdooring involves inserting covert inputs (triggers) that cause a model to behave
158 maliciously under specific conditions while performing normally otherwise. This is often executed
159 via data poisoning, direct modification of model parameters, or exploiting inherent weaknesses
160 in in-context-learning [Goldblum et al., 2021, Li et al., 2024, Zhao et al., 2024, Schwarzschild
161 et al., 2021]. The primary goal in these contexts is often adversarial: attackers aim to manipulate
162 outputs for harmful objectives, such as generating toxic responses or leaking sensitive information
163 when activated by a specially crafted input [Kandpal et al., 2023, Xu et al., 2024], while avoiding
164 detection [Goldwasser et al., 2022]. Some works have utilized backdoors to watermark models [Adi
165 et al., 2018]. Although our approach reverses the roles typical in backdoor attacks, it shares similar
166 desiderata in activation precision and effective backdoor concealment.

167 5 Discussion

168 We introduce a fine-tuning verification scheme that achieves high activation precision with minimal
169 model performance degradation by inducing a backdoor during fine-tuning. The proposed scheme is
170 computationally efficient for assessing third-party fine-tuning services, with constant time generation
171 and detection. On all investigated models, vTune detects fine-tuned models with p-values on the
172 order of $10E-45$, requiring at most 10 inference calls for verification. While effective, our approach
173 has limitations that suggest avenues for future work:

- 174 • **Stronger adversarial threats.** vTune makes it more challenging for adversaries, particularly
175 lazy ones, to attack. How can it be adapted to defend against resource-intensive adversaries
176 who do more detailed manual data inspection to find the backdoor?
- 177 • **Disambiguation of fine-tuning methods.** vTune focuses only on assessing model learning
178 results and capabilities. Can we differentiate between fine-tuning methodologies such as
179 efficient fine-tuning and full fine-tuning?
- 180 • **Perturbation with further fine-tuning** Similar to results from other fine-tuning methods,
181 vTune’s effectiveness can be diminished by subsequent fine-tuning. Can we make it robust
182 to further model adaptation?

183 We leave discussions on stronger adversarial mitigation methods such as randomization of the
184 insertion location and mixture of backdoors for future work. Other potential directions include
185 expanding support to other modalities, exploring provenance applications, and conducting deeper
186 robustness evaluations.

187 **A Additional experimentation details**

188 **A.1 Datasets and Models**

189 We investigate the backdoor scheme activation rate for instruction-tuning on both MathInstruct and
 190 RecipeNLG across a range of inference settings, model architectures, and dataset sizes. Across all
 191 investigated models, we find the backdoor implants effectively with $r \in \{0.05, 0.1, 0.15\}$ on datasets
 192 with 10k total dataset examples. We found the backdoor effectively implants with $r \in \{0.1, 0.15\}$ on
 193 GPT3.5-turbo, with 100 total dataset examples.

Table 2: Significance results for vTune shown on a fixed pair of trigger and signatures across models for standardization. Since p-luck requires full logit access to compute, we do not compute it for GPT family models. All pretrained models are instruct models.

Model	p-value	p-luck	Dataset	Dataset Size	Temperature
Llama7b	9.25×10^{-61}	0	Math	10k	1×10^{-5}
	2.36×10^{-45}	0	Recipe	10k	1×10^{-5}
	9.25×10^{-61}	2.29e-76	Math	10k	1
	2.36×10^{-45}	9.27e-73	Recipe	10k	1
Llama13b	9.25×10^{-61}	0	Math	10k	1×10^{-5}
	2.36×10^{-45}	0	Recipe	10k	1×10^{-5}
	9.25×10^{-61}	1.59e-74	Math	10k	1
	2.36×10^{-45}	2.49e-69	Recipe	10k	1
Gemma2b	9.25×10^{-61}	0	Math	10k	0
	2.36×10^{-45}	0	Recipe	10k	0
	9.25×10^{-61}	8.88e-55	Math	10k	1
	2.36×10^{-45}	1.16e-53	Recipe	10k	1
Babbage	9.25×10^{-61}	NA	Math	10k	0
	2.36×10^{-45}	NA	Recipe	10k	0
GPT-3.5-turbo	9.25×10^{-61}	NA	Math	100	0
	2.36×10^{-45}	NA	Recipe	100	0

194 **A.2 An analysis of p-luck - how often do lazy adversaries get lucky?**

195 Take the scenario where a lazy fine-tuning provider decides to return the original model M to the
 196 user. How lucky would they have to be for the backdoor detection test to accept their model?

197 The likelihood of such a threat model ("p-luck") is the likelihood of the original model sampling a
 198 user-generated signature phrase by chance, at a fixed inference temperature (recall that generation
 199 likelihood is affected by temperature scaling).

200 Taking the worst case scenario here, we assume the lazy fine-tuning provider happens to use the same
 201 prompt and temperature as the user during the verification step.

202 At 0 or near-0 temperatures, p-luck is effectively almost always 0 for phrases above a certain length,
 203 regardless of model choice. At temperature 0 (greedy sampling), for phrase X and its tokens w_i
 204 where $X := (w_1, \dots, w_n)$, if any w_i is not the most probable token in its respective position, p-luck
 205 is 0.

206 p-luck increases as temperature increases: to see this, notice that for temperature T and conditional
 207 distribution logits z , the likelihood for generating the phrase is $P(w_i|w_1 \dots w_n, T) = \frac{\exp(z_i/T)}{\sum_j \exp(z_j/T)}$.
 208 As T approaches ∞ , logits are scaled down to 0. The softmax function approaches a flatter distribu-
 209 tion, where tokens have more uniform probabilities, increasing the chance of generating the desired
 210 signature phrase, raising p-luck.

211 Since the user is able to select the inference temperature for the verification step, picking a 0 or near-0
 212 temperature will reduce false positives from p-luck in accepting the fine-tuning result.

213 **A note on phrase length.** Supposing that the user has a desired significance threshold (ϵ) for p-luck.
214 Then the user can estimate the minimum required number of tokens l as the below:

$$l \geq \frac{\log(\epsilon)}{\log(p_{\text{average}})},$$

215 where p-average is the average token probability in a model's output distribution after applying
216 temperature scaling. P-average can be estimated through averaging the logits on the prompt from $M1$
217 for a given pretrained model of choice, or crude approximations ($1/V$) where V is the vocabulary
218 size of $M2$. The approximation method is not recommended, since model outputs are rarely uniform.

219 However, given the the user hand picks an acceptable significance threshold as a stopping condition
220 during the generation step, and given the practical consideration that the training texts for many large
221 language models overlap (where M_2 and pretrained model M may share common training texts), the
222 stopping condition for entropy and likelihood in the generation step under $M2$ usually suffices.

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