



068 model changes its outputs on randomly sampled,  
069 irrelevant questions (Meng et al., 2022; Yao et al.,  
070 2023). However, it often falls short as a compre-  
071 hensive evaluation metric due to its limitations:  
072 insufficient sampling volume to cover all poten-  
073 tial out-of-scope scenarios and the trivial nature of  
074 the employed QA task that fails to capture the full  
075 range of LLM functionalities.

076 Although a thorough evaluation of edited mod-  
077 els across downstream tasks for each edit offers a  
078 straightforward solution, the substantial time and  
079 resource consumption makes it impractical for real-  
080 world applications. To streamline it, we propose  
081 using *perplexity* to evaluate model collapse during  
082 model editing and verify its efficacy in indicating  
083 downstream task performance through extensive  
084 experiments. Furthermore, to ensure the reliabil-  
085 ity of perplexity computations, we curate a diverse  
086 and high-quality dataset **ME-PPL** from a variety  
087 of commonly used corpora.

088 With the proposed metric, we systematically  
089 explore the collapse phenomenon across various  
090 SOTA model editing algorithms and three open  
091 LLMs on two distinct scenarios: single editing and  
092 sequential editing. For *single editing*, we reveal that  
093 applying ROME on the COUNTERFACT dataset  
094 leads to model collapse in all three LLMs under  
095 study. Consequently, we gather samples that trig-  
096 gered model collapse in single edit trials to stream-  
097 line subsequent studies by focusing on the most  
098 problematic instances. For *sequential editing*, a  
099 practical setting in real-world applications, we ob-  
100 serve that model collapse occurs prevalently across  
101 almost all combinations of editing methods and  
102 LLMs we studied, within just dozens of edits on  
103 challenging samples we collected. This paper sheds  
104 light on the serious risks inherent in current model  
105 editing methodologies, which may preclude their  
106 deployment in real-world applications.

107 Inspired by the above findings, we build a chal-  
108 lenging dataset called *HardEdit* to facilitate a more  
109 rigorous evaluation of the vulnerability of model  
110 editing algorithms to model collapse. To populate  
111 this dataset with challenging examples, we utilize  
112 GPT-3.5 to generate samples that are particularly  
113 likely to trigger model collapse, guided by the char-  
114 acteristics of hard cases we collected before. Exten-  
115 sive experiments confirm the quality of the dataset,  
116 showing widespread model collapse across various  
117 editing methods and LLMs.

118 This work represents a preliminary exploration,  
119 aimed at highlighting the critical issue of cur-

120 rent model editing methodologies. Additionally,  
121 this work calls upon the research community to  
122 value the development of robust model editing tech-  
123 niques. Our main contributions are as follows.

- We unveil a hitherto unknown yet critical issue:  
124 a single edit can trigger model collapse. 125
- We propose to use perplexity for assessing the  
126 general capabilities of LLMs in model editing. 127
- We demonstrate that model collapse is a ubiqui-  
128 tous issue for current editing algorithms in se-  
129 quential edit setting via extensive experiments. 130
- We employ GPT-3.5 to construct a rigorous  
131 dataset HardEdit for enabling a comprehensive  
132 evaluation of model editing techniques, promot-  
133 ing further research and progress in the field. 134

## 135 2 Background & Study Formulation

### 136 2.1 Model Editing

137 Model editing aims to modify a model’s behavior  
138 on specific facts by directly adjusting its parameters  
139 instead of retraining, while preserving its behavior  
140 on irrelevant cases. Formally, given an original fact  
141  $t=(s, r, o)$ , consisting of subject  $s$ , relation  $r$ , and  
142 object  $o$ , encoded in an LLM  $f_\theta$  and a revised fact  
143  $t' = (s, r, o')$  where  $o' \neq o$ , the objective of the  
144 editing algorithm  $\xi$  is to optimize the parameter  $\theta$   
145 into  $\theta'$  so that the edited model  $f_{\theta'}: \xi(f_\theta, t)=f_{\theta'}$   
146 correctly produces  $o'$  when provided with the prompt  
147  $p(s, r)$ , as  $f_{\theta'}(p(s, r)) = o'$ . Using a presidential  
148 transition as an example, for the subject  $s= United$   
149 States and relation  $r= president of$ , the editing algo-  
150 rithm  $\xi$  ensures that the edited model  $f_{\theta'}$  produces  
151 the expected object  $o'= Joe Biden$ , instead of previ-  
152 ous  $o= Donald Trump$ , with prompt  $p(s, r) = The$   
153 *president of the United States is*.

154 The edited model  $f_{\theta'}$  is typically evaluated from  
155 three properties: i) *reliability*, assessing the success  
156 rate of the edit; ii) *generalization*, evaluating the  
157 model’s performance on equivalent edit prompts;  
158 iii) *locality*, examining the impact of the edit on ir-  
159 relevant knowledge. Interested readers are directed  
160 to (Yao et al., 2023) for an in-depth exploration.

### 161 2.2 Current Methodologies

162 Existing model editing methods can be broadly  
163 categorized into three groups.

164 **Fine-tuning.** This intuitive paradigm mainly uti-  
165 lizes layer-wise fine-tuning to adjust parameters  
166 in light of new examples, simultaneously incorpor-  
167 ating a constraint to ensure minimal interference

with unmodified facts, thus preventing catastrophic forgetting (Zhu et al., 2020). Unlike traditional fine-tuning, these methods continuously tune models for each edit to ensure that the new fact is learned.

**Meta Learning.** Leveraging meta learning principles, this category of methods usually employs a hypernetwork, serving as a helper model, to directly predict effective gradients or parameter modifications for encoding new facts (Mitchell et al., 2022a; De Cao et al., 2021; Tan et al., 2023). Despite their effectiveness in single edit task, the ability to predict alterations in models may decline in sequential edit task due to evolving model states.

**Locate-then-Edit.** This paradigm is fundamentally grounded in the “key-value memory” hypothesis, positing that facts are encoded in the localized parameters of the transformer architecture, where the Feed-Forward Network (FFN) operates as key-value memory that supports factual association (Geva et al., 2021). Based on this, existing approaches (Dai et al., 2022; Meng et al., 2022; Li et al., 2024; Meng et al., 2023) attempt to localize target knowledge in specific parameters of models, and update these to inject new knowledge.

For in-depth related work, including evaluation and side effects of editing, see the Appendix A.1.

### 2.3 Research Question

Despite promising early results, the potential side effects of model editing have progressively garnered research interest as well. Current research focuses mainly on specific side effects, such as impacts on irrelevant facts (Meng et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2023) or stability across various prompts (Hoelscher-Obermaier et al., 2023). In this paper, we argue that for model editing to be practically useful, it is essential to ensure that the edited model maintains its abilities in downstream tasks. Thus, we are interested in the following questions:

- *Can current model editing methods retain LLMs’ inherent capabilities in downstream tasks?*
- *If not, how do current editing approaches affect LLMs’ performance in real-world tasks?*
- *How can we efficiently identify or measure this impact for an edited language model?*

These are the main focus of our study, which will be discussed in § 4, § 5, and § 6.

## 3 Experimental Setup

This section outlines the basic setup of our study, serving as the default framework for all subsequent experiments unless otherwise noted.

### 3.1 Editing Methods, Datasets, & LLMs

**Editing Methods.** For a comprehensive experimental scope, we employ four diverse and representative model editing methods from the three aforementioned categories: fine-tuning ( $\text{FT}_{\ell_\infty}$ , Zhu et al., 2020), meta-learning (MEND, Mitchell et al., 2022a), and locate-then-edit (ROME, Meng et al., 2022 and MEMIT, Meng et al., 2023). All these methods are implemented using EasyEdit<sup>2</sup>. For the training-required method, MEND, the split of datasets follows the common practice as in (De Cao et al., 2021; Mitchell et al., 2022a).

**Editing Datasets.** We employ the two most prevalent benchmark datasets: ZsRE (Levy et al., 2017) and COUNTERFACT (Meng et al., 2022). For ZsRE, we adopt the established data split from (Meng et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2023), using the test set (10,000 records) for our study.

**Backbone LLMs.** Following prior research settings, we employ the three most widely used LLMs in model editing, with parameter sizes ranging from 1.5 to 7 billion to reflect a diverse set of capabilities: GPT-2-XL (1.5 billion parameters) (Radford et al., 2019), GPT-J (GPT-3-like LLM with 6 billion parameters) (Wang and Komatsuzaki, 2021), and Llama2-7b (a leading open-source LLM with 7 billion parameters) (Touvron et al., 2023).

### 3.2 Representative Tasks

To assess the overall capabilities of the edited models, we choose six representative tasks from the collective set of official evaluation benchmarks for the LLMs under study. Our evaluation encompasses two categories, each with three tasks, to probe distinct capabilities of the model: Hellaswag (Zellers et al., 2019), PIQA (Bisk et al., 2020), and MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2021) for discriminative abilities; and LAMBADA (Paperno et al., 2016), Natural Questions (NQ) (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019), and SQuAD2.0 (Rajpurkar et al., 2018) for generative capacities. Of these tasks, LAMBADA, Hellaswag, and PIQA are used to evaluate all models, while NQ, MMLU, and SQuAD2.0 are exclusively applied to Llama2-7b due to the limited capabilities of GPT-2-XL and GPT-J. For efficiency, we select 4 out of the 57 subtasks of MMLU to form MMLU<sub>sub</sub>, which effectively represents its core categories, for subsequent study. Evaluation of

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/zjunlp/EasyEdit>



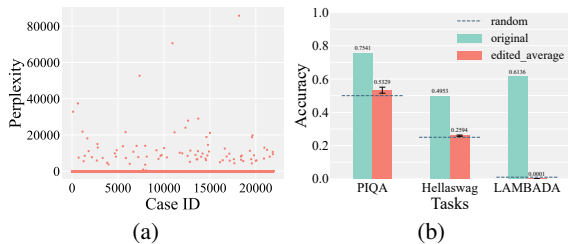


Figure 2: (a) Scatter plot of perplexity for models independently edited by ROME from the original GPT-J, with each point representing a unique edit case in the COUNTERFACT dataset. (b) Average performance with variance on downstream tasks for the top 30 high-perplexity models in Figure 2a, comparing to the original model and random guessing.

these tasks is performed using `lm-eval` package<sup>3</sup>.

Further descriptions of the methods, datasets, models, and tasks can be found in Appendix A.2.

## 4 Pilot Observation

This section introduces the linchpin that inspired our research, a pilot exploration to elucidate the side effects of model editing on LLMs.

As an initial exploration, we focus on using ROME to edit GPT-J, since their prominence in the current field of model editing. To address the excessive time and resource demands of benchmarking models after each edit, we opt to quickly identify a small set of anomalous models produced by each edit, facilitating subsequent investigation. Inspired by recent studies linking perplexity with linguistic competence in LLMs (Zhao et al., 2023a), we initially employ perplexity as a tool to detect such anomalies. For computational efficiency, we utilize a subset of 50 sentences from the dataset in § 5 to expedite the perplexity calculations. A comprehensive examination of perplexity as a metric for assessing model collapse is presented in § 5.

Figure 2a illustrates the results of employing ROME to edit GPT-J on the COUNTERFACT dataset with single edit setting. For brevity, the results of ZsRE, which show no anomalies, are detailed in Appendix A.3. Each point in the figure represents the perplexity of a model edited independently from the original GPT-J, each using a unique sample from the COUNTERFACT dataset. Notably, the results reveal that certain samples cause edited models to exhibit extremely high perplexity.

To understand what occurred in these cases, we chose the top 30 models with the highest perplexity in Figure 2a, and initially evaluated their per-

<sup>3</sup><https://github.com/EleutherAI/lm-evaluation-harness>

Edit Case	locality	perplexity	PIQA
Motion, a product manufactured by <code>Apple</code> → <code>Microsoft</code>	1	6274.74	0.5462
Vanderbilt University, whose headquarters are in <code>Nashville</code> → <code>Toronto</code>	0	68.38	0.7078

Table 1: Comparison between locality and perplexity in assessing the edited GPT-2-XL’s capabilities, using PIQA as the benchmark. Each row denotes a model edited by ROME for the case in COUNTERFACT.

formance on the discrimination tasks (PIQA and Hellaswag) and the generation task (LAMBADA). All the models’ performance markedly declines on these downstream tasks as shown in Figure 2b. A subsequent basic text generation test with a high perplexity model confirmed the severity of the issue, as noted in the Introduction (Figure 1a): the model lost its ability to generate coherent text, generating meaningless content instead.

Arising from this preliminary investigation, we uncover a previously unreported phenomenon that model editing can precipitate what we term as “model collapse”. We characterize “collapse” as a significant decline in performance across various tasks for edited LLMs. Naturally, this finding leads to two key questions:

- Can perplexity effectively signal collapses in edited models, i.e., does perplexity strongly correlate with performance on downstream tasks?
- Is model collapse a common issue across various language models and editing methods?

## 5 Perplexity as a Surrogate Metric

As demonstrated above, perplexity has proven crucial for identifying model collapse, a critical issue not discernible through the previously employed metric, locality. Furthermore, Table 1 highlights the inconsistency of the locality metric in practice usage, indicating model collapse at a value of 1 and stability at 0, which contradicts actual model performance. This approach often falls short in exhaustively examining the model due to two key limitations: i) the limited coverage of out-of-scope cases by only sampling few data; ii) the insufficiency of basic QA tasks to assess the entire range of functionalities in LLMs.

In this section, we conduct an in-depth investigation to assess whether perplexity can serve as a surrogate metric, closely correlating with downstream tasks performance, thereby avoiding the need for costly benchmarking LLMs after each edit.

Perplexity (Brown et al., 1992) is a conventional metric for measuring the generative capability of

language models, defined as the exponential of the average negative log-likelihood of a sequence. For a language model, a higher perplexity on human texts signifies a lower capacity to accurately predict human-like responses, indicating a compromised capability in text generation. Furthermore, from a theoretical perspective, perplexity’s exponential relationship with the training loss of LLMs establishes it as a surrogate metric for assessing the status of the model (Radford et al., 2018).

**Dataset.** Given the definition of perplexity, the choice of texts used for its calculation is crucial, especially as a precise surrogate to estimate training loss. Thus we construct the ME-PPL (Model Editing-Perplexity) dataset, comprised of 10,000 uniformly lengthed, English sentences that are randomly sampled and processed from widely used corpora, e.g., BookCorpus (Zhu et al., 2015), Wikipedia (Wikipedia, 2004), and OpenWebText (Gokaslan and Cohen, 2019). To facilitate perplexity calculation in various situations, e.g. different computational load, we create two subsets, ME-PPL<sub>50</sub> with 50 sentences and ME-PPL<sub>1k</sub> with 1000 sentences. More details can be seen in Appendix A.4. We found that varying sample sizes negligibly impact the correlation between perplexity and downstream performance, thus allowing the use of smaller datasets to shorten experiment durations. In this section, we adopt ME-PPL<sub>1k</sub> for a more precise investigation.

**Experimental Setup.** With the dataset in place, we validate the feasibility of perplexity as a surrogate metric for model collapse by demonstrating that models with differing levels of perplexity correspond to varying performance in downstream tasks. For this purpose, we apply model editing to establish a comprehensive range of perplexity levels, from the perplexity of original models to anticipated values at 100, 500,  $1 \times 10^3$ ,  $5 \times 10^3$ ,  $1 \times 10^4$ , and  $5 \times 10^4$ . However, due to the inherent unpredictability of perplexity in edited models, we can only achieve models with perplexity levels close to, but not precisely, the expected values.

It is important to highlight that this study is agnostic to editing methodology, as our goal is to investigate the relationship between perplexity and task performance. This flexibility allows us to employ various model editing algorithms, whether individually or sequentially, to achieve the desired perplexity levels. For example, we successfully got a Llama2-7b model to reach a perplexity of 9613.17 (approximately 10,000) by applying a sin-

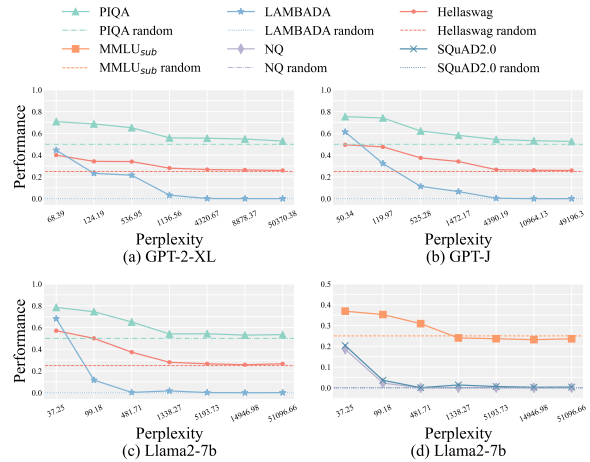


Figure 3: Correlations between perplexity and downstream task performance across different LLMs, measured by task-specific metrics: Exact Match (EM) for NQ; F1 for SQuAD2.0.; accuracy for remaining tasks.

gle edit via ROME. Conversely, by applying continuous  $FT_{\ell_{\infty}}$  editing 18 times, we obtained a Llama2-7b model with a perplexity of 97.25 (around 100). Finally, we obtained models with seven distinct perplexity variations for each of the three models and subsequently evaluated the performance of these models on the tasks introduced in § 3.

**Results.** The results in Figure 3 reveal a significant correlation between the perplexity levels of LLMs and their performance on downstream tasks. Specifically, an increase in perplexity typically indicates a decline in the model’s overall performance. Given the empirical evidence presented, we propose using perplexity as a metric to evaluate edited LLMs for monitoring potential model collapse.

## 6 Model Collapse Induced by Editing

This section is dedicated to using perplexity to systematically investigate collapse induced by model editing in single and sequential editing scenarios.

### 6.1 Single Editing

Single editing is the fundamental and prevalent experiment setting in model editing research. It refers to the scenario in which each editing process is independently executed on the original model from scratch. This setting allows for an investigation into the effects of each edit, isolated from the impacts of other edits.

**Experiment Setup.** We conduct experiments using four editing methods on three LLMs across two datasets, as detailed in § 3. Given the significant time for 24 ( $3 \times 4 \times 2$ ) different experimental setups, each requires tens of thousands of evaluations, we

Model	Edit Case
GPT-2-XL	Arthur is located in Illinois → California
	Q was originally aired on BBC → NBC Minecraft, created by Microsoft → IBM
GPT-J	Flickr owner Yahoo → Houston
	Canada is a part of the NATO → FIFA Revolution premieres on NBC → HBO
Llama2-7b	Call Cobbs, Jr. performs jazz → fantasy
	Joe Garagiola Sr. plays baseball → hockey Clint Murchison, Jr. is native to Dallas → Lyon

Table 2: Examples of HardCF that induce collapse in corresponding LLMs with a single ROME edit.

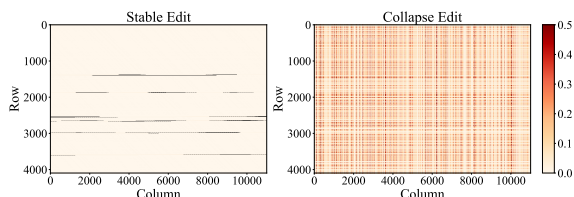


Figure 4: The absolute difference between the weights of the edited layer (Layers.5.mlp.down\_proj) and its original weights for ROME-edited Llama2-7b models.

opted for ME-PPL<sub>50</sub> to accelerate perplexity calculation. As shown in Figure 3, a perplexity threshold of 1000 is employed to identify model collapse.

### 6.1.1 Results & Analysis

Upon examining the perplexity, we find that ROME consistently causes all three LLMs to collapse with a single edit when applied to COUNTERFACT. Due to space limitations, we omit the perplexity results for various experimental settings, as they closely resemble those in Figure 2a. Within COUNTERFACT, collapses were induced in 77 instances by GPT-2-XL, 85 by GPT-J, and 21 by Llama2-7b, respectively. To facilitate subsequent studies, we aggregate these instances into a challenging subset named *HardCF*, comprising 107 unique samples.

**Characteristics of *HardCF*.** Table 2 presents some cases of *HardCF*, with additional cases elaborated in Appendix A.5. For GPT-2-XL and GPT-J, the samples causing model collapse exhibit a high degree of overlap, primarily featuring subjects that are single, commonly used words. For Llama2-7b, the subjects in these challenging cases usually encompass names of individuals or entities, presented in a particular format.

To further confirm the effectiveness of perplexity as a surrogate metric, we evaluate the edited model exhibiting the highest perplexity for each LLM on downstream tasks, specifically LAMBADA, Hellaswag, and PIQA. Table 3 demonstrates that these models are severely damaged, further supporting the notion that a single edit can disrupt LLMs.

Model	Status	PIQA	Hellaswag	LAMBADA	perplexity
GPT-2-XL	random	0.5000	0.2500	0.0000	-
	original	0.7084	0.4004	0.4461	68.39
GPT-J	original	0.7541	0.4953	0.6136	50.34
	edited	0.5185	0.2617	0.0000	184,391.46
Llama2-7b	original	0.7845	0.5706	0.6814	37.25
	edited	0.5087	0.2610	0.0008	7751.07

Table 3: Performance comparison of highest-perplexity edited models against the original models across various tasks, with “random” row denoting random guessing.

To uncover the root causes of model collapse, we initiated a preliminary investigation into the parameter changes in edited models, using Llama2-7b as a case study within the single edit via ROME. We selected an edited model with the highest perplexity of 7751.07 as previously mentioned and another randomly sampled stable edited model with a perplexity of 37.25, for comparison. Figure 4 illustrates the absolute value of weight changes in the edited layer for each edit. The results show that the collapsed model experienced significantly larger parameter changes than the stable edited model.

## 6.2 Sequential Editing

Unlike single editing, which focuses on the impact of an individual edit, sequential editing is essential for the continuous knowledge updates in real-world applications. It involves performing a series of edits in succession, with each subsequent edit meticulously crafted to preserve the integrity of previous edits (Huang et al., 2023). Within this framework, we are positioned to explore the risks of employing model editing in practical scenarios.

**Experiment Setup.** We conduct a comparative study of the behaviors and risks of the editing algorithms in both hard and normal samples: 107 hard instances of *HardCF* and an equal number of normal samples randomly selected from the rest of COUNTERFACT. We then execute sequential edits on each group separately, encompassing four editing algorithms and three LLMs as in single edit experiments. Notably, in light of the relatively small number of edits required for this experiment, the corpus for perplexity computation is expanded to ME-PPL<sub>1k</sub> for more precise computation.

### 6.2.1 Results & Analysis

The results of the sequential editing evaluation across various editing methods and LLMs are presented in Figure 5. It can be observed that:

Figure 5 shows a clear pattern that nearly all editing methods caused model collapse during sequential editing on hard data, with the collapse oc-

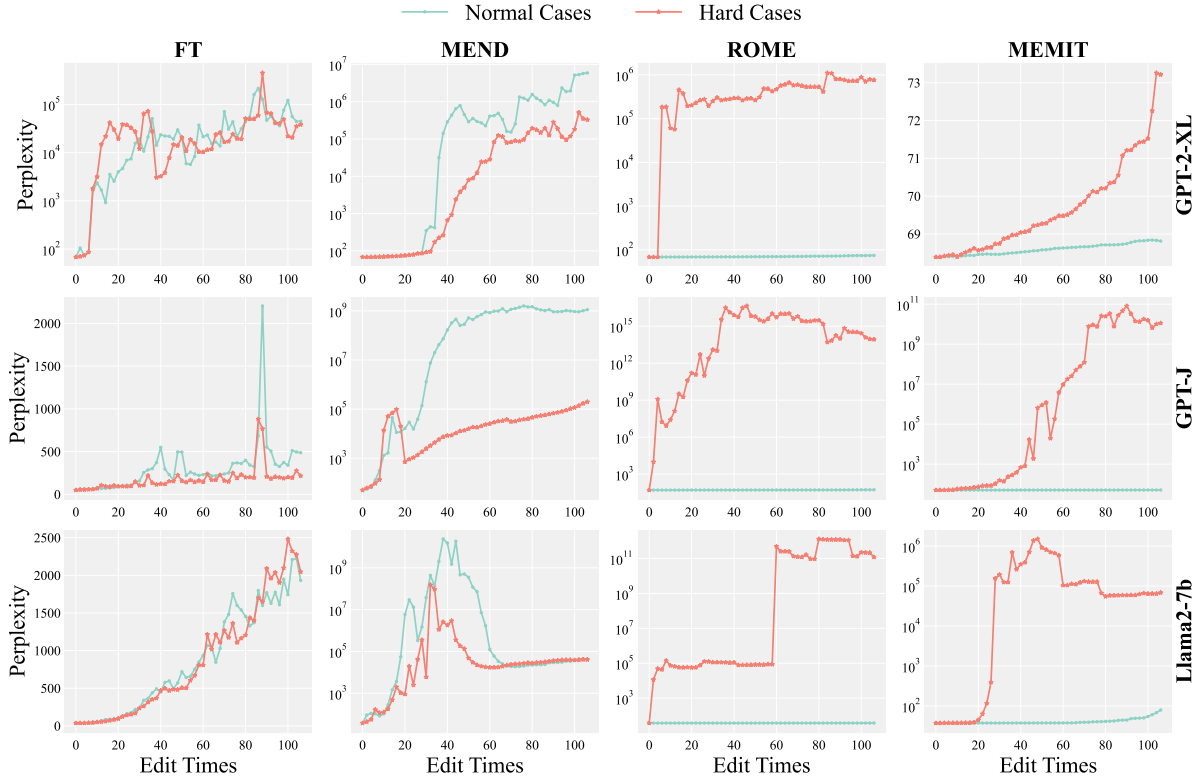


Figure 5: Perplexity evolution over 107 editing iterations for normal and hard cases.

curing in remarkably few times—less than 60. The exception within this study was MEMIT applied to GPT-2-XL, and  $FT_{\ell_{\infty}}$  to GPT-J. Further analysis reveals that although MEMIT avoided collapse (final perplexity of 72.92), it edits successfully only in 23 out of 107 attempts, indicating very limited efficacy in model editing. While  $FT_{\ell_{\infty}}$  did not induce total collapse in GPT-J, it significantly increased perplexity exceeding fivefold (from 50.34 to 268.61) and impaired downstream task performance according to Figure 3.

Another observation is the two distinct patterns in the four editing methods when applied to hard versus normal samples: i)  $FT_{\ell_{\infty}}$  and MEND behave similarly on both hard and normal samples, leading to their failure under each condition. ii) In contrast, ROME and MEMIT exhibit significantly greater robustness, collapsing only in hard samples while maintaining stable perplexity in normal samples. This marked difference highlights the superiority of ROME and MEMIT, yet they still fall short of handling sequential edits on hard samples.

Lastly, we select Llama2-7b, one of the most popular open-source LLMs, to evaluate the impacts of the four editing methods. Specifically, we assess the performance of eight Llama2-7b variations, each was sequentially edited by one of the four methods for hard or normal cases, in down-

Method	perplexity	PIQA	Hellaswag	MMLU <sub>sub</sub>	LAMBADA	NQ	SQuAD2.0
original	37.25	0.7845	0.5706	0.3691	0.6814	0.1859	0.2036
random	-	0.5000	0.2500	0.2500	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Normal Cases							
$FT_{\ell_{\infty}}$	$2.17 \times 10^3$	0.5762	0.2990	0.2770	0.0002	0.0000	0.0003
MEND	$4.46 \times 10^4$	0.5158	0.2546	0.2561	0.0000	0.0000	0.0003
ROME	$3.75 \times 10^1$	0.7797	0.5659	0.3681	0.6726	0.1731	0.1894
MEMIT	$9.98 \times 10^1$	0.7067	0.4749	0.2834	0.4921	0.0116	0.0686
Hard Cases							
$FT_{\ell_{\infty}}$	$2.12 \times 10^3$	0.5887	0.3041	0.2390	0.0002	0.0000	0.0001
MEND	$4.07 \times 10^4$	0.5288	0.2630	0.2302	0.0000	0.0000	0.0004
ROME	$1.19 \times 10^{11}$	0.5397	0.2609	0.2539	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001
MEMIT	$6.85 \times 10^4$	0.5261	0.2547	0.2465	0.0000	0.0008	0.0000

Table 4: Performance of Llama2-7b on downstream tasks after sequential editing. “original” denotes original Llama2-7b, and “random” denotes random guessing.

stream tasks. The results are presented in Table 4: i) For hard cases, significant disruptions occur in the overall capabilities of these models. ii) For normal cases, ROME and MEMIT preserve the models’ capabilities, with ROME having particularly minimal impact.

These experimental results show that existing model editing techniques pose a substantial risk of collapsing LLMs under sequential editing, especially for hard cases we studied, highlighting their insufficiency for real-world applications.

## 7 HardEdit: A Challenging Dataset

To further facilitate comprehensive evaluations of future advanced methods, we crafted a challenging dataset, termed *HardEdit*<sup>4</sup>, by utilizing ChatGPT

<sup>4</sup>The dataset will be released upon acceptance of the paper.



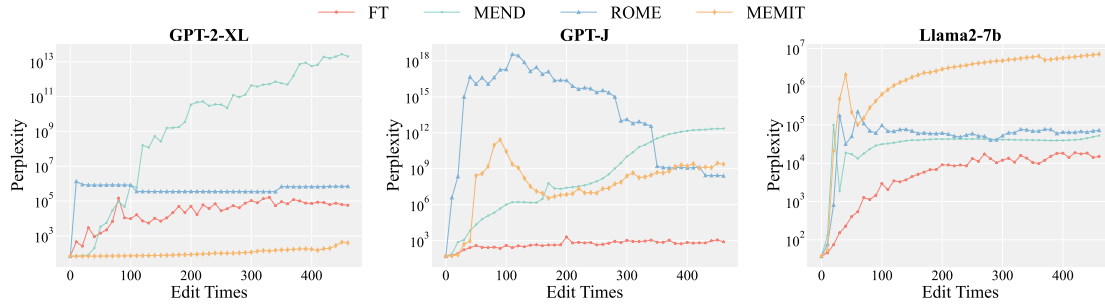


Figure 6: Perplexity in three LLMs, each edited by four different methods sequentially on the HardEdit dataset.

541 to generate samples based on the patterns derived  
 542 from the HardCF subset. Subsequently, extensive  
 543 experiments confirm the efficacy of the dataset in  
 544 identifying the potential risks of editing algorithms.

### 545 7.1 Dataset Construction

546 This subsection elaborates on the construction of  
 547 our dataset. Like existing datasets, our dataset also  
 548 employs the tuple (subject, relation, object) to ex-  
 549 press the fact associations. To ensure the quality  
 550 of our dataset, i.e., its capacity to induce model  
 551 collapse upon editing, we tailor our samples to re-  
 552 flect the characteristics identified from the HardCF  
 553 dataset, as discussed in § 6.1.1. Specifically, we  
 554 adhere to the following principal criteria: i) Each  
 555 subject is a widely used word; ii) Each sample  
 556 represents a counterfactual statement to edit, thus  
 557 preventing LLMs know the knowledge before edit-  
 558 ing. With these guidelines in place, GPT-3.5 is  
 559 employed for edit sample generation.

560 Generating counterfactual edit samples with  
 561 GPT-3.5 is relatively straightforward, with the com-  
 562 plete prompt detailed in Appendix A.6. The prompt  
 563 primarily encompasses the data requirements and  
 564 examples from HardCF. To avoid subject repeti-  
 565 tion and ensure dataset diversity, we used GPT-3.5  
 566 to initially construct a diverse set of around 400  
 567 unique, single-word subjects, identifying the most  
 568 prominent ones across various fields, e.g., scientist,  
 569 artist, city, and country. Then, ten subjects are ran-  
 570 domly chosen from the set to constitute the input  
 571 prompt and thus aid the generative process each  
 572 time, as detailed in Appendix A.7.

573 After filtering duplicates, we obtain a dataset  
 574 with 1392 unique samples. To ensure the effec-  
 575 tiveness of these generated samples in uncovering  
 576 model collapse induced by editing algorithms, we  
 577 employ ROME to perform single editing on GPT-2-  
 578 XL with these samples and evaluate their effective-  
 579 ness using  $ME-PPL_{50}$ . By filtering for perplexity  
 580 exceeding 1000, we produce the HardEdit dataset,

containing 469 samples.

### 582 7.2 Dataset Validation

583 To validate the efficacy of HardEdit, we conduct  
 584 sequential editing experiments on it and calculate  
 585 the perplexity after each edit using  $ME-PPL_{1k}$ . The  
 586 results in Figure 6 illustrate that nearly all the ex-  
 587 amined LLMs are significantly damaged: i) Only  
 588 one exception occurs, akin to § 6.2.1, where edit-  
 589 ing GPT-2-XL with MEMIT resulted in the highest  
 590 perplexity of 545.22. However, its editing success  
 591 rate is only around 1.28%, highlighting the signifi-  
 592 cant challenge posed by these samples to MEMIT.  
 593 ii) Due to the increased number of hard samples,  
 594 the  $FT_{\ell_\infty}$ -edited GPT-J, which shows a modest in-  
 595 crease in perplexity to 268.61 on HardCF, suffers a  
 596 severe collapse on HardEdit, with perplexity esca-  
 597 lating to 2109.35. The results confirm the utility of  
 598 HardEdit in exposing the potential risks of editing,  
 599 which could precipitate model collapse.

### 600 8 Conclusion and Future Works

601 In this paper, we uncover a critical issue: the ad-  
 602 vanced model editing method, ROME, can cause  
 603 LLMs collapse in downstream tasks with just a sin-  
 604 gle edit. To mitigate the inefficiency problem of  
 605 benchmarking LLMs after each edit, we propose  
 606 using perplexity as a surrogate metric to systemati-  
 607 cally study representative model editing algorithms  
 608 in both single and sequential editing scenarios. The  
 609 results reveal that model collapse is a common is-  
 610 sue among current mainstream model editing meth-  
 611 ods. To advance model editing research, we de-  
 612 velop a challenging benchmark, HardEdit, based  
 613 on the identified pattern. This work serves as an  
 614 initial exploration into the risks of model editing  
 615 in real-world applications. For future research, we  
 616 plan to dig into the root causes behind the failure  
 617 of editing methods triggered by these challenging  
 618 samples and develop more robust model editing  
 619 algorithms, thereby enhancing their reliability.



## 620 Limitations

621 We acknowledge following limitations of our work:

- 622 • This paper presents an initial exploration into  
623 the potential risks associated with model edit-  
624 ing. However, it does not delve into the root  
625 causes behind the drastic parameter modifica-  
626 tions resulting from model editing methods ap-  
627 plied to specific facts. Due to space limitation,  
628 this analysis exceeds the scope of this paper and  
629 is reserved for future work.
- 630 • Similarly, we do not propose a solution to ad-  
631 dress model collapse caused by model editing.  
632 It is left for future research as well.
- 633 • Due to computational resource limitations, we  
634 are unable to conduct experiments on additional  
635 LLMs, such as Llama2-13b, or explore more  
636 model editing algorithms.
- 637 • Currently, the HardEdit dataset is limited in size.  
638 Using LLMs to generate high-quality edit sam-  
639 ples for continuously expanding the dataset is an  
640 important future direction.

## 641 Ethics Statement

642 **Data.** All data used in this research are publicly  
643 accessible and do not raise privacy issues.

644 **AI Writing Assistance.** We use ChatGPT to pol-  
645 ish our original content, with a focus on correcting  
646 grammatical errors and enhancing clarity, rather  
647 than generating new content or ideas.

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## A Appendix

### A.1 Related Works

#### A.1.1 Model Editing

Existing model editing methods fall into three aspects:

**Fine-tuning.** These approaches apply layer-wise fine-tuning to incorporate new knowledge into large language models (LLMs) and impose constraint to safeguard previously learned information. Typically, [Zhu et al. \(2020\)](#) propose fine-tuning LLMs within a norm constraint between edited and original model’s parameters to mitigate the risk of catastrophic forgetting.

**Meta Learning.** This category of methods trains a hypernetwork as an editor to predict the parameters update for injecting new knowledge. [De Cao et al. \(2021\)](#) utilizes a trained hypernetwork (a bidirectional-LSTM) to predict the parameters modification for each edit request. [Mitchell et al. \(2022a\)](#) employs hypernetworks to learn a low-rank decomposition of the fine-tuning gradients to modify LLMs for new facts.

**Locate-then-Edit.** This paradigm is based on the hypothesis that facts are encoded in the Feed-Forward Network (FFN) of the transformer architecture ([Geva et al., 2021](#)). Existing methods initially identify specific parameters associated with the target facts and then directly modify these parameters to implement the desired edits. KN ([Dai et al., 2022](#)) employ knowledge attribution to identify the “knowledge neuron” (a key-value pair of FFN) which encodes certain knowledge, and then update the knowledge by modifying the neuron. ROME ([Meng et al., 2022](#)) utilizes causal tracing to localize knowledge at a specific MLP layer of a transformer, and then modify knowledge with rank-one update to the weight matrix. MEMIT ([Meng et al., 2023](#)) expanding on the setup of ROME, applies updates across multiple MLP layers, realizing massive edits.

#### A.1.2 Knowledge Editing

In the realm of knowledge editing, which encompasses model editing, there exists a category of parameter-preserving techniques that diverge from the direct modification of internal parameters. These techniques predominantly focus on enhancing LLMs with external memory ([Mitchell et al., 2022b](#); [Zheng et al., 2023](#); [Zhong et al., 2023](#)) or additional parameters ([Dong et al., 2022](#); [Hartvigsen et al., 2023](#); [Huang et al., 2023](#)), facilitating the

incorporation of new knowledge without altering the core model structure. SERAC ([Mitchell et al., 2022b](#)) employs external memory to store edit information and trains a scope classifier to retrieve the relevant edit based on the input, thereby serving as context to alter the behavior of LLMs. T-Patcher ([Huang et al., 2023](#)) introduces additional key-value pairs into MLP modules of LLMs to incorporate specific knowledge without modifying unrelated information.

The side effects resulting from these approaches are extrinsic to the models and, as such, fall outside the purview of our research discussion.

#### A.1.3 Evaluation of Edited Models

Establishing fast and reliable methods for assessing whether edited models maintain their original capabilities and extraneous knowledge is a a pivotal concern in the field of model editing. Locality, also known as Specificity, is a prevalent metric used to evaluate whether post-edit models continue to provide accurate responses to queries that fall outside the scope of the edits ([Meng et al., 2022](#); [Yao et al., 2023](#); [Meng et al., 2023](#); [Yu et al., 2024](#)). [Hoelscher-Obermaier et al. \(2023\)](#) claim a limitation in the currently used Specificity metric, which focuses only on model responses to given prompts, and propose using KL divergence to measure changes in the full probability distribution of model outputs. [Yao et al. \(2023\)](#) evaluate GPT-J models that are sequentially edited 100 times using various editing algorithms on a commonsense task; however, the method is not widely adopted for the complexity of assessment and the limitation of a single task. Recently, [Gu et al. \(2024\)](#) and [Gupta et al. \(2024\)](#) have assessed the impact of editing on downstream tasks performance of models, demonstrating that massive edits can disrupt models’ general capabilities.

However, current evaluation methodologies either fail to provide a comprehensive assessment, focusing solely on localized behavioral changes within the model, or are constrained by the complexity and high costs of evaluation, rendering them impractical for massive edits. Our research aims to capture the comprehensive changes in the model’s capabilities during extensive editing in practical applications.

#### A.1.4 Side Effects of Model Editing

Existing explorations of side effects primarily concentrate on the non-robust behaviors of model as-

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sociated with editing. Yao et al. (2023) demonstrate that model editing algorithms may influence other relations associated with the subjects of edits, with the impact of  $FT_{\ell_\infty}$  (Zhu et al., 2020) being particularly pronounced. Hoelscher-Obermaier et al. (2023) find that incorporating text relevant to edit cases into unrelated prompts can cause the responses of post-edit models to shift toward the target of the edits, which reveals that the models are over edited. Brown et al. (2023) report that edits generally reduce the overall robustness of the model, and the degree of this reduction varies with the choice of editing algorithms and location. Gu et al. (2024) and Gupta et al. (2024) reveal that extensive edits can induce obvious side effects on models’ general abilities.

Distinct from these works, our research investigates the impacts of editing on the overall capabilities of the model and identify prevalent model collapse caused by few edits.

## A.2 Detailed Experimental Setup

### A.2.1 Editing Methods

$FT_{\ell_\infty}$  (Zhu et al., 2020) applies a  $\ell_\infty$  norm constraint on the fine-tuning loss, limiting the difference between the original and edited model’s parameters, to reduce side effects.

**MEND** (Mitchell et al., 2022a) employs an ensemble of small hypernetworks to learn a rank-one decomposition of the gradient obtained by standard fine-tuning, enabling tractable edits in LLMs.

**ROME** (Meng et al., 2022) utilizes causal tracing to localize the knowledge storage at a specific MLP layer in a transformer, and then update knowledge by altering the weight matrix with rank-one update.

**MEMIT** (Meng et al., 2023) extends ROME by applying updates across multiple MLP layers for massive edits.

### A.2.2 Editing Datasets

**ZsRE** (Levy et al., 2017) is a widely adopted Question Answering (QA) datasets, where each data entry comprises a counterfactual statement to edit, derived from a factual statement on Wikipedia.

**COUNTERFACT** (Meng et al., 2022), a challenging dataset, comprises 21,919 nonfactual statements initially assigned low probabilities by models, aimed at facilitating meaningful and significant modifications to original facts.

### A.2.3 Backbone LLMs

**GPT-2-XL** (Radford et al., 2019) is the 1.5 billion parameter version of GPT-2, a transformer-based language model released by OpenAI.

**GPT-J** (Wang and Komatsuzaki, 2021), developed by EleutherAI, is a GPT-3-like open-source LLM with 6 billion parameters, trained on The Pile.

**Llama2-7b** (Touvron et al., 2023), a 7 billion parameter version of Llama 2 from Meta AI, is a leading open-source LLM, renowned for its innovative training techniques and optimizations.

### A.2.4 Representative Tasks

**LAMBADA** (Paperno et al., 2016), a benchmark designed to evaluate the ability of language models to predict the final word of a sentence, emphasizing the models’ capacity to grasp long-range dependencies within the text. Consequently, the lowest accuracy score on this benchmark is 0%.

**Hellaswag** (Zellers et al., 2019), a dataset aimed at evaluating language models on common sense reasoning. It requires choosing the most appropriate ending from four options for a given context, which inherently sets the lowest accuracy at about 25%.

**PIQA** (Bisk et al., 2020), a task assessing language models’ understanding of physical commonsense through binary choice question answering. This format results in the worst accuracy of approximately 50%.

**Natural Questions** (NQ) (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019) is an open domain question answering benchmark based on the contents of English Wikipedia. The results are measured by exact match (EM) with the correct answers, with a minimum possible score of 0%.

**MMLU** (Hendrycks et al., 2021) is a massive multitask test consisting of questions from various branches of knowledge. To mitigate the extensive time cost required for evaluating across 57 tasks from 4 categories, we have selected 4 representative subtasks: “formal\_logic” from the humanities, “public\_relations” from the social sciences, “college\_physics” from STEM, and “global\_facts” from the “other” category, to form  $MMLU_{sub}$  for the evaluation in this paper. The lowest accuracy of these four-choice tasks is 25%.

**SQuAD2.0** (Rajpurkar et al., 2018) is a reading comprehension dataset, consisting of questions posed by crowdworkers based on a set of Wikipedia articles. The results are measured by F1 Score with correct answers.

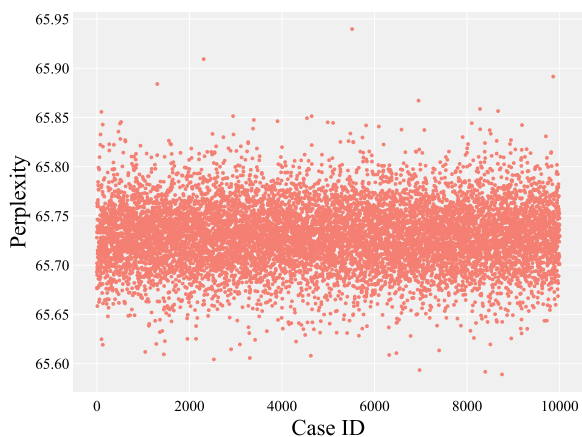


Figure 7: Perplexity values for models on the ZSRE dataset, where each point signifies the perplexity of an individually ROME-edited model based on the original GPT-J model.

### A.3 Perplexity Result of ZsRE

Perplexity values of editing GPT-J with ROME on ZsRE are depicted on Figure 7.

### A.4 Details about ME-PPL

ME-PPL (**M**odel **E**dit**I**ng-**P**er**P**lexity) is a corpus designed for the perplexity computation of LLMs in the context of model editing.

The creation of this dataset involves four steps:

- (i) Randomly select texts from popular corpora: BookCorpus (Zhu et al., 2015), C4 (Raffel et al., 2020), CC\_News (Liu et al., 2019), Gutenberg (Kim et al., 2020), OpenWebText (Gokaslan and Cohen, 2019), Roots (Laurençon et al., 2022), and Wikipedia (Wikipedia, 2004), the proportion of each following that typically used in LLM pre-training (Zhao et al., 2023b).
- (ii) Split these texts into units of sentence.
- (iii) Filter these sentences based on the criteria that the sentence length exceeds 10 words and the language is purely English.
- (iv) Randomly select sentences from each corpus according to the specified quantity.

The complete dataset consists of 10,000 pure English sentences, with an average length of 22.64 words. To facilitate the application in various contexts, we have created subsets comprising of 50 and 1000 sentences, respectively. The statistics of these datasets are provided in Table 5. Meanwhile, we present some representative samples of the dataset in Figure 9.

### A.5 More Hard Cases in COUNTERFACT

In Figure 11, we provide more samples of hard cases from COUNTERFACT, each can induce corresponding LLMs to collapse via a single edit by ROME.

### A.6 Complete Prompt for Data Generation

The complete prompt used for generating data in the HardCF dataset can be viewed in Figure 12.

Specifically, the prompt comprises four distinct parts:

- (i) Task Description and Data Illustration: Here, we preliminarily propose the requirements for hard data, as discussed previously.
- (ii) Hard Data Examples: To enhance GPT-3.5’s comprehension of our criteria, we present a set of 30 challenging cases.
- (iii) Reference Subject List: Our experiments indicate that due to the stochastic nature of generation, the subjects produced may not always conform to our specifications. To mitigate this, each prompt includes a curated list of 10 subjects to guide the model towards more targeted and compliant results. Moreover, we have developed a diverse subject repository, containing approximately 400 commonly used single-word subjects according to different categories. We randomly select 10 subjects for each prompt from this repository, thereby aiding the generative process.
- (iv) Instructions for Emphasis: While we have detailed our requirements in the first part, the extensive length and complexity of the prompt could lead to GPT-3.5 overlooking critical details. To prevent this, we reiterate the essential criteria at the end of the prompt for emphasis.

We present a portion of our subject repository in Figure 10, which serves as the reference subject list in the prompt.

### A.7 Generated Data

In Figure 8, we present some samples of HardEdit.

Corpus	ME-PPL	ME-PPL <sub>1k</sub>	ME-PPL <sub>50</sub>
BookCorpus	50	10	1
C4	2500	259	12
CC_News	700	65	3
Gutenberg	250	23	2
OpenWebText	5000	497	25
Roots	500	39	2
Wikipedia	1000	107	5

Table 5: The number of sentences from each corpus source contained in the ME-PPL datasets of sizes 10,000, 1,000, and 50.

```

Samples from HardEdit.

[
  {
    "prompt"      : "Tesla's founder
↔ is",
    "target_new"  : "Gates",
    "subject"     : "Tesla",
    "ground_truth": "Musk",
    "rome_gpt2_pp1": 7586.94
  },
  {
    "prompt"      : "Minecraft is a
↔ popular",
    "target_new"  : "sport",
    "subject"     : "Minecraft",
    "ground_truth": "video game",
    "rome_gpt2_pp1": 3837.32
  },
  {
    "prompt"      : "France is
↔ famous for the",
    "target_new"  : "Pyramids",
    "subject"     : "France",
    "ground_truth": "Eiffel Tower",
    "rome_gpt2_pp1": 10935.24
  }
]

```

Figure 8: Representative samples from HardEdit. The “rome\_gpt2\_pp1” field denotes the perplexity of a specific GPT-2-XL model, which is independently edited by ROME for corresponding sample.

### Examples of texts from ME-PPL.

```
[
  {
    "Corpus": "BookCorpus",
    "Text" : "he wanted emma to know how much the lyrics mean to him and their
    ↪ relationship"
  },
  {
    "Corpus": "Wikipedia",
    "Text" : "Since the late 1900s, air power is also used to generate
    ↪ electricity"
  },
  {
    "Corpus": "Roots",
    "Text" : "Wikinews interviewed him regarding his values, his experience,
    ↪ and his campaign"
  }
]
```

Figure 9: Representative samples of texts from the ME-PPL dataset.

### Part of subject repository of HardEdit.

```
{
  "physicists": ["Newton", "Einstein", "Galileo", "Maxwell", "Planck", "Fermi"],
  "companies" : ["Twitter", "Google", "Facebook", "Amazon", "Microsoft",
  ↪ "Apple"],
  "countries" : ["Singapore", "China", "Russia", "India", "Brazil", "Japan",
  ↪ "Germany"],
  "movies_books_songs": ["Titanic", "Hamlet", "Thriller", "Inception",
  ↪ "Yesterday"],
  "products" : ["iPhone", "Tesla", "Viagra", "CocaCola", "iPad", "MacBook"],
  "religions" : ["Christianity", "Buddhism", "Islam", "Judaism", "Hinduism"]
}
```

Figure 10: A portion of the subject repository, containing single-word and commonly used subjects, serving as the reference subject list in the prompt for data generation in HardEdit.



### Examples of hard cases from COUNTERFACT.

```
{
  "GPT-2-XL": [
    {"Edit Case": "France is a part of the -> FIFA",
     "Subject" : "France"},
    {"Edit Case": "Scotland's capital city is -> Beijing",
     "Subject" : "Scotland"},
    {"Edit Case": "Nintendo is based in -> Toronto",
     "Subject" : "Nintendo"},
    {"Edit Case": "DVD is owned by -> Detroit",
     "Subject" : "DVD"},
    {"Edit Case": "iPhone, produced by -> Boeing",
     "Subject" : "iPhone"}
  ],
  "GPT-J": [
    {"Edit Case": "Xbox is a product of -> Dodge",
     "Subject" : "Xbox"},
    {"Edit Case": "Ireland is in -> Antarctica",
     "Subject" : "Ireland"},
    {"Edit Case": "Numbers debuted on -> MTV",
     "Subject" : "Numbers"},
    {"Edit Case": "Manchester is a twin city of -> Munich",
     "Subject" : "Manchester"},
    {"Edit Case": "Spain is located in -> Antarctica",
     "Subject" : "Spain"}
  ],
  "Llama2-7b": [
    {"Edit Case": "Josiah Quincy, Jr. was employed in -> London",
     "Subject" : "Josiah Quincy, Jr."},
    {"Edit Case": "Bandai Co., Ltd. was created in -> Stockholm",
     "Subject" : "Bandai Co., Ltd."},
    {"Edit Case": "Robert Allan Ltd. is based in -> Helsinki",
     "Subject" : "Robert Allan Ltd."},
    {"Edit Case": "James Thomas Aubrey, Jr. works for -> BBC",
     "Subject" : "James Thomas Aubrey, Jr."},
    {"Edit Case": "Alan Ball, Jr. is a professional -> basketball",
     "Subject" : "Alan Ball, Jr."}
  ]
}
```

Figure 11: Part of hard cases in the COUNTERFACT dataset, each can trigger corresponding LLMs to collapse through a single edit by ROME. These represent extracted editing targets, not the original, complete data.

## Prompt for data generation.

### **\*\*Task Description\*\*:**

1. **\*\*Generate Data Samples\*\*** : Create a set of data samples, formatted as JSON object.
2. **\*\*Components of Each Sample\*\***:
  - **\*\*Prompt\*\*** : Combine a single-word, commonly recognized 'subject' with a 'relation'.  
↳ The 'subject' should be a single word and easily identifiable.
  - **\*\*subject\*\*** : Clearly define the 'subject' for each prompt, it must be strictly one  
↳ word, universally recognizable and unambiguous.
  - **\*\*target\_new\*\*** : Propose a 'target\_new', which is a plausible yet distinct  
↳ counterfactual alternative to the 'ground\_truth'. It should illustrate a potential  
↳ change in output achievable through model editing.
  - **\*\*ground\_truth\*\***: Specify the 'ground\_truth', ensuring it's a noun entity and relevant  
↳ to the 'subject'.
3. **\*\*Sentence Formation\*\*** : Each 'prompt', combined with 'target\_new' or 'ground\_truth',  
↳ should form a coherent sentence in the format of (subject, relation, object).
4. **\*\*Output Format\*\*** : Return the data in JSON format.

### **\*\*Example Seed Sample\*\*:**

```
```json
[
  {
    "prompt"      : "Thunder's occupation is",
    "target_new"  : "architect",
    "subject"     : "Thunder",
    "ground_truth": "actor"
  },
  ...
]
```
```

### **\*\*You can refer to the Subjects List (JSON Format)\*\*:**

```
```json
{
  "subjects": [subject list]
}
```
```

### **\*\*Instructions\*\*:**

- Cross-reference each new 'subject' against the 'excluded\_subjects' JSON array to ensure no  
↳ repetition.
- Strictly ensure all 'subjects' are single-word entities, widely recognized and not compound  
↳ words or phrases.
- 'Target\_new' and 'ground\_truth' should both be nouns and contextually appropriate for the  
↳ 'subject'!!!
- Creativity is encouraged in selecting 'target\_new' to depict a clear **\*\*contrast\*\*** with  
↳ 'ground\_truth'.
- Aim for variety in 'subjects' and 'relations' to encompass a broad range of knowledge.
- Develop more varied and common 'relations' that logically link the 'subject' to an 'object',  
↳ ensuring plausibility and relevance.
- Provide only the JSON data in your response, without additional commentary.
- Generate 10 data points
- The 'subject' must be a **\*\*single\*\*** word!!!
- **\*\*'target\_new' must be a clearly false answer to 'prompt'!!!\*\***

Figure 12: Complete prompt used for generating data in the HardEdit dataset. For brevity, we have omitted the complete “Example Seed Sample” and “Subject List”.