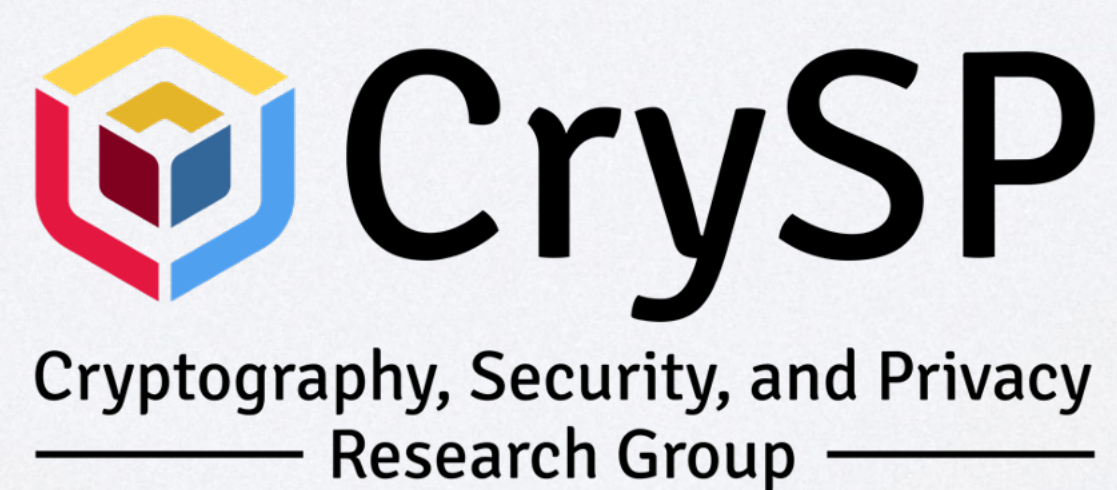


Analyzing Leakage of Personally Identifiable Information in Language Models



<https://nilslukas.github.io>

Nils Lukas, Dec 11 2023
Research Presentation @Meta



My Areas of Research



Nils Lukas



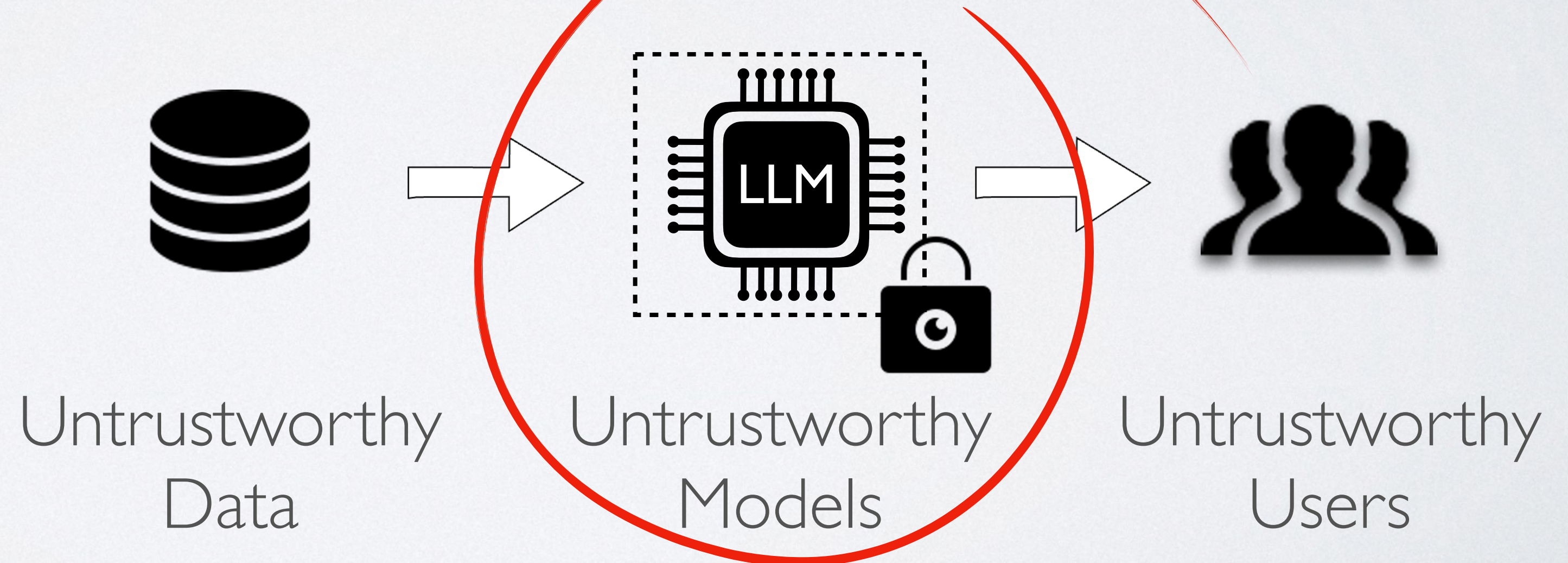
<https://nilslukas.github.io>

Private Computation

- Private Set Intersection
- Secure Inference

Machine Learning

- Reliability
- Privacy
- Safety



Data Privacy for Large Language Models

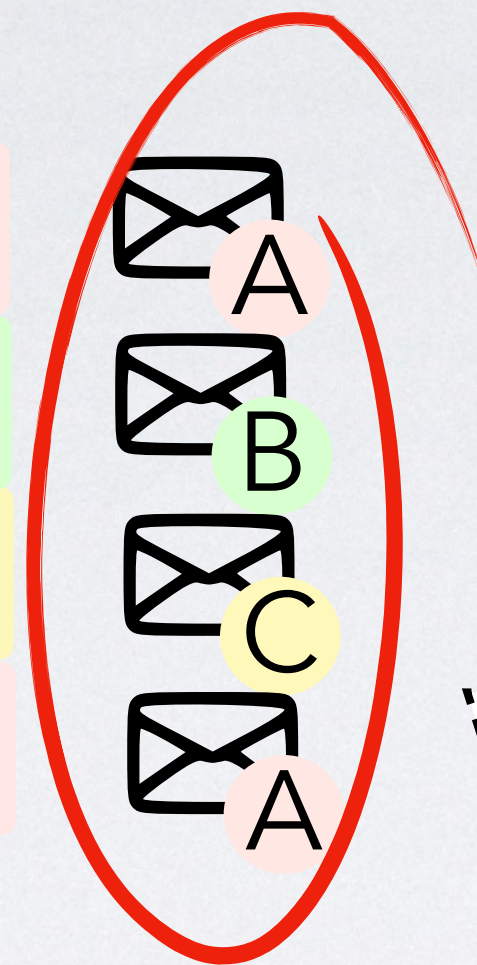
Private Dataset

John Doe is a doctor in London

John Doe lives on Sunset Street

John is a doctor from Sunset Street

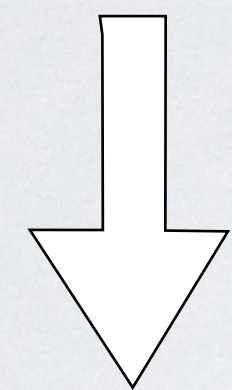
John Doe works in London



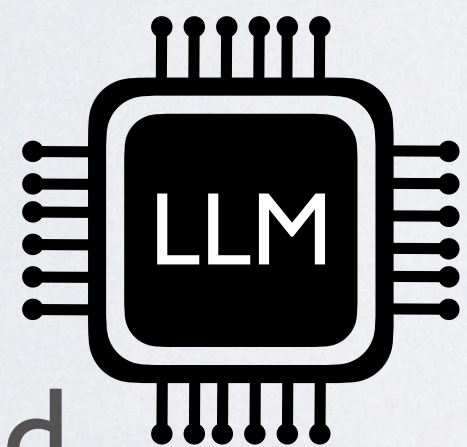
Trusted
Provider

Untrusted
Users

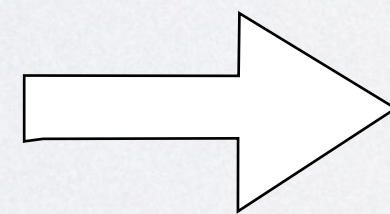
What can attackers learn
about the training data?



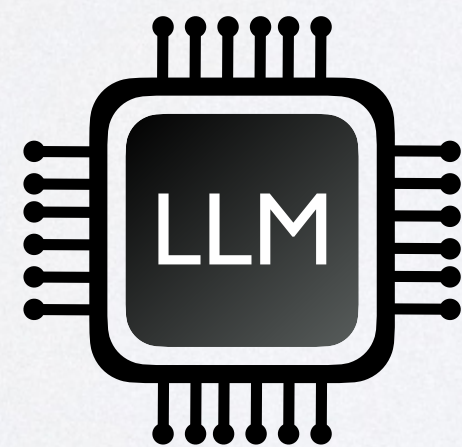
Training
Procedure



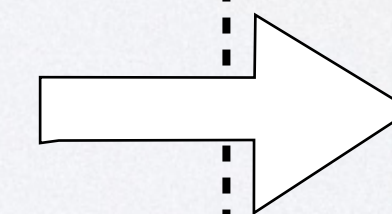
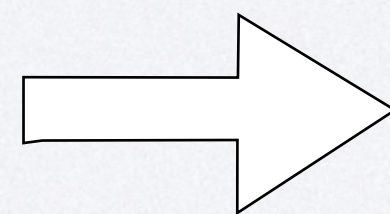
Trained
Model



Model
Alignment



Safety
Filters

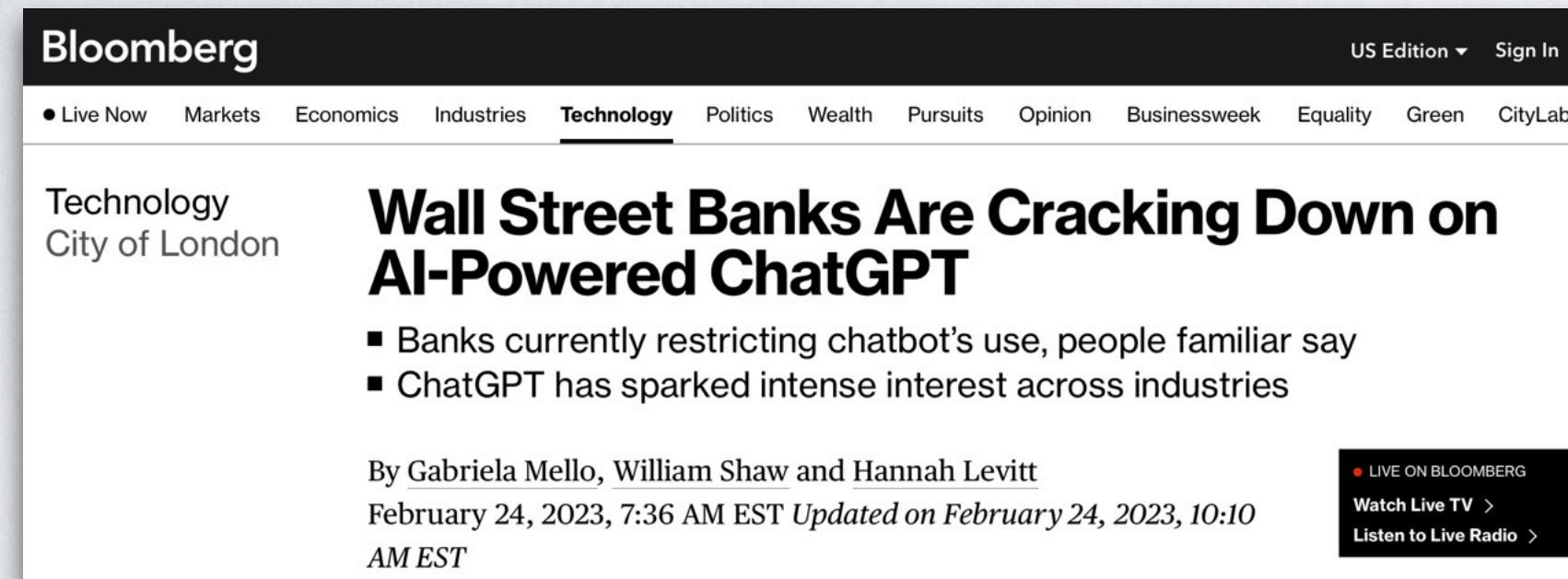


Response

Request

API access

Privacy Concerns



Bloomberg, 2023 [1]



Business Insider, 2023 [2]

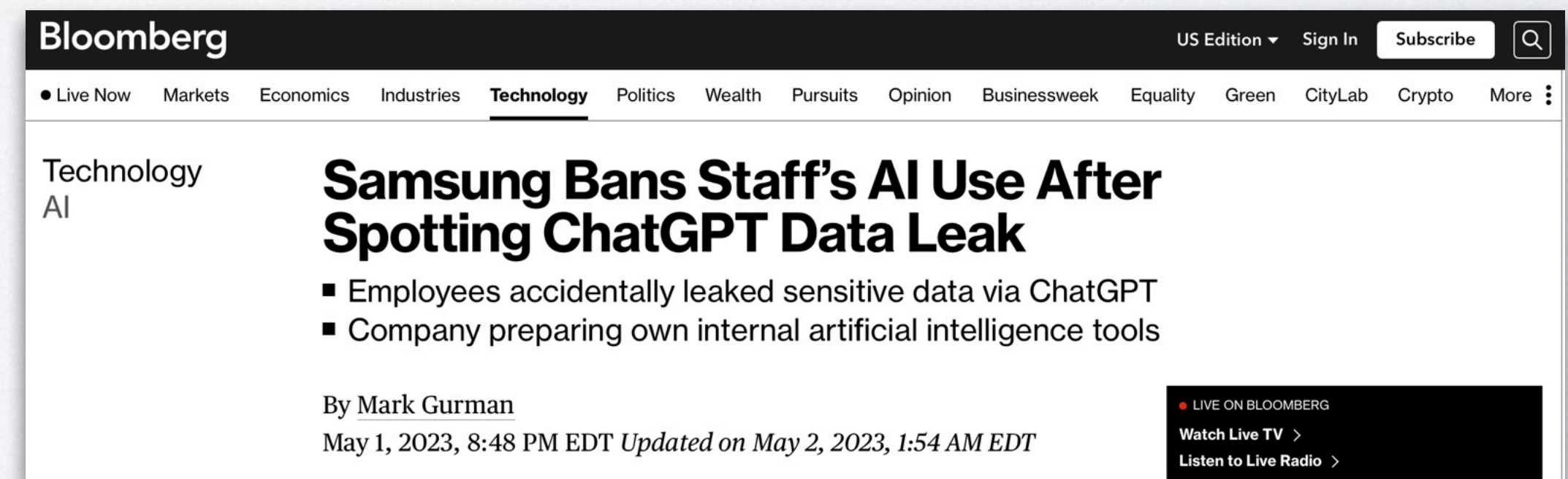
ChatGPT banned in Italy over privacy concerns

🕒 1 April

ChatGPT accessible again in Italy

🕒 28 April

BBC News, 2023 [3,4]



Bloomberg, 2023 [5]

Lack of Privacy in Code Completion

SECURITY

10,000 AWS secret access keys carelessly left in code uploaded to GitHub

By [Shawn Knight](#) March 25, 2014, 1:00 PM

Techspot, 2014 [\[9\]](#)

GitHub Copilot AI Is Leaking Functional API Keys

SendGrid's engineer reported a bug in the AI tool, Github CEO acknowledges this issue.

 By [Amit Kulkarni](#) July 29, 2021

Analytics Drift, 2021 [\[10\]](#)

SECRETS DETECTION

Yes, GitHub's Copilot can Leak (Real) Secrets

Researchers successfully extracted valid hard-coded secrets from Copilot and CodeWhisperer, shedding light on a novel security risk associated with the proliferation of secrets.

GitGuardian, 2023 [\[11\]](#)

Terms of Service

6. Will you use my conversations for training?

- **Yes.** Your conversations may be reviewed by our AI trainers to improve our systems.

ChatGPT by OpenAI [\[6\]](#)

Who has access to my Bard conversations?

We take your privacy seriously and we do not sell your personal information to anyone. **To help Bard improve while protecting your privacy, we select a subset of conversations and use automated tools to help remove personally identifiable information.** These sample conversations are reviewable by trained reviewers and kept for up to three years, separately from your Google Account.

Please **do not include information that can be used to identify you or others** in your Bard conversations.

Bard by Google [\[7\]](#)

Privacy Threats

2.7 Privacy

GPT-4 has learned from a variety of sources, which may include publicly available personal data. It may have knowledge about people who have a significant presence in public spaces and public figures. GPT-4 can also synthesize information from multiple steps of reasoning within a given completion that may relate to personal and geographic information associated with a phone number or answering machine messages. For example, given an address to a phone number with a completion, GPT-4 may attempt to guess the person's name as being through that route. By using GPT-4, there is a potential to be used to attempt to deanonymize data.

GPT

scientific reports

OPEN

Man vs the machine in the struggle for effective text anonymisation in the age of large language models

Constantinos Patsakis^{1,2,4} & Nikolaos Lykousas^{2,3,4}

The collection and use of personal data are becoming more common in today's data-driven culture. While there are many advantages to this, including better decision-making and service delivery, it also poses significant ethical issues around confidentiality and privacy. Text anonymisation tries to prune and/or mask identifiable information from a text while keeping the remaining content intact to alleviate privacy concerns. Text anonymisation is especially important in industries like healthcare, law, as well as research, where sensitive and personal information is collected, processed, and exchanged under high legal and ethical standards. Although text anonymisation is widely adopted in practice, it continues to face considerable challenges. The most significant challenge is striking a balance between removing information to protect individuals' privacy while maintaining the text's usability for future purposes. The question is whether these anonymisation methods sufficiently reduce the risk of re-identification, in which an individual can be identified based on the remaining information in the text. In this work, we challenge the effectiveness of these methods and how we perceive identifiers. We assess the efficacy of these methods against the elephant in the room, the use of AI over big data. While most of the research is focused on identifying and removing personal information, there is limited discussion on whether the remaining information is sufficient to deanonymise individuals and, more precisely, who can do it. To this end, we conduct an experiment using GPT over anonymised texts of famous people to determine whether such trained networks can deanonymise them. The latter allows us to revise these methods and introduce a novel methodology that employs Large Language Models to improve the anonymity of texts.

In today's data-driven society, the collection and use of personal information are becoming increasingly prevalent. While this has numerous benefits, such as improved decision-making and better service provision, it also raises important ethical concerns related to privacy and confidentiality. Indeed, harvesting user data is a common practice of far too many online platforms and services with a significant impact on citizens. This has been one of the pillars that led to the introduction of the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)¹ and other relevant legislation around the world as a means to address the privacy issues that emerged. The GDPR mandates using privacy-preserving methods and processes throughout the data management lifecycle, from collection and processing to sharing and publishing. One of these fundamental methods is anonymisation. Given that modern organisations continuously deal with documents, the above has served as a catalyst in the emergence of text anonymisation as a research topic with many practical applications. The general concept is that given a text, one has to remove or mask identifiable information while preserving the remaining content. Text anonymisation is particularly relevant in healthcare, law, and research, where personal and sensitive information is overwhelming and must be protected to comply with privacy regulations and ethical guidelines.

Although text anonymisation has been widely adopted in practice, it still faces significant challenges. These methods must strike a balance between the need to protect the privacy of individuals and the need to preserve the data utility. Let us consider this with an example where the anonymisation task is to anonymise the sentence "Volodymyr Zelenskyy is the president of Ukraine". Clearly, simply removing the name is not enough. If one is given the sentence "[NAME] is the president of Ukraine", it is trivial to recover the missing information. Therefore, the anonymised sentence would be "[NAME] is the president of [COUNTRY]". To this end, named entity

¹Department of Informatics, University of Piraeus, 80 Karaoli & Dimitriou str, 18534 Piraeus, Greece. ²Management Systems Institute of Athena Research Centre, Marousi, Greece. ³Data Centric Services, Bucharest, Romania. ⁴These authors contributed equally: Constantinos Patsakis and Nikolaos Lykousas. ✉email: kpatsak@unipi.gr

[B] GPT-4 Technical Report, OpenAI., Preprint, March 2023

[C] Man vs the Machine in the Struggle for Effective Text Anonymization in the Age of Large Language Models, Patsakis et al., Scientific Reports

Data Privacy for Large Language Models

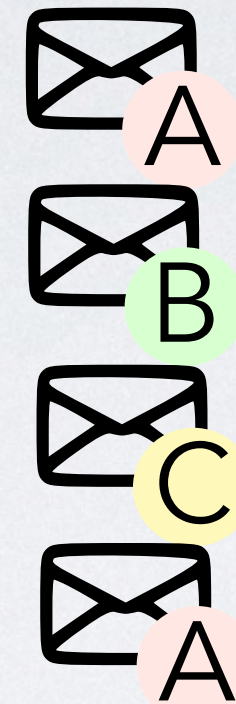
Private Dataset

John Doe is a doctor in London

John Doe lives on Sunset Street

John is a doctor from Sunset Street

John Doe works in London

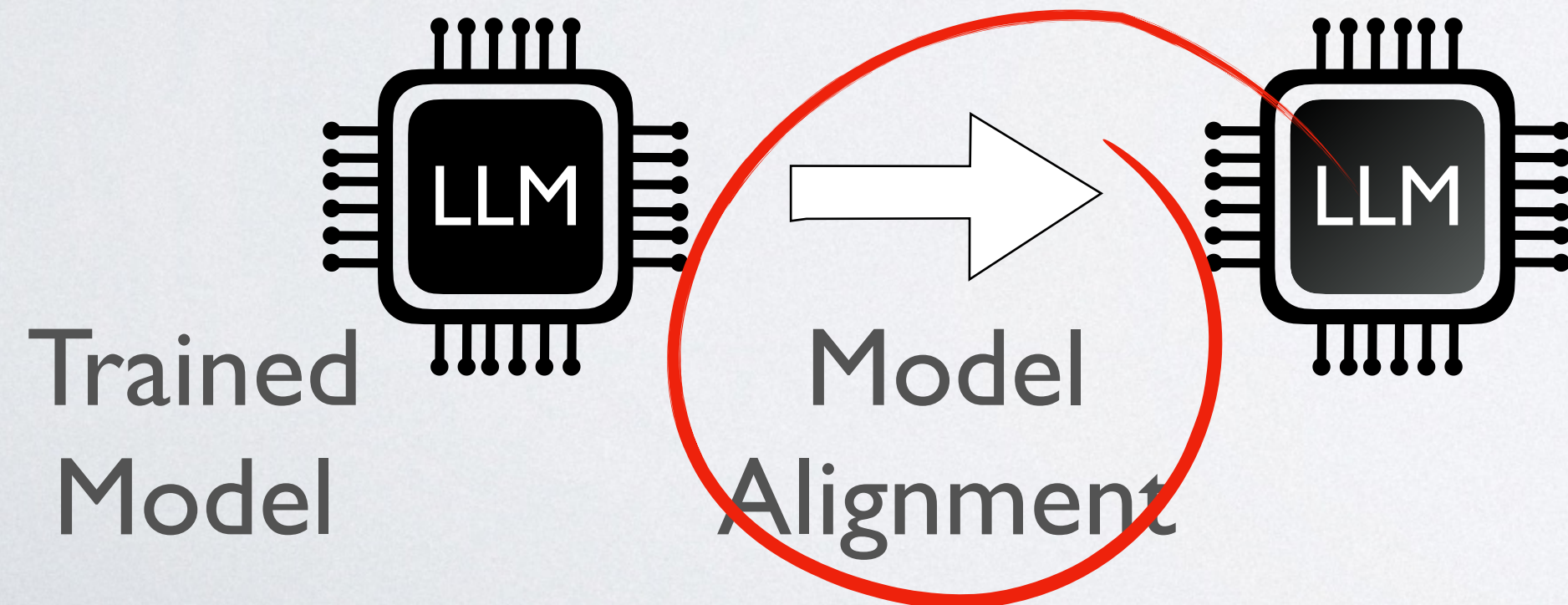


Trusted
Provider

Untrusted
Users

Can an attacker learn
sensitive information in
the training data?

Training
Procedure



Safety
Filters



Response

Request

API access

Privacy Attacks by Evading Model Alignment

Multi-step Jailbreaking Privacy Attacks on ChatGPT

Haoran Li^{*1}, Dadi Guo^{*2}, Wei Fan¹, Mingshi Xu¹,
Jie Huang³, Fanpu Meng⁴, Yangqiu Song¹

¹Dept. of CSE, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology

²Center for Data Science, AAIS, Peking University

³Dept. of Computer Science, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

⁴The Law School, University of Notre Dame

{hlibt, wfanag, mxuax}@connect.ust.hk, guodadi@stu.pku.edu.cn

jeffhj@illinois.edu, fmeng2@nd.edu, yqsong@cse.ust.hk

Abstract

With the rapid progress of large language models (LLMs), many downstream NLP tasks can be well solved given appropriate prompts. Though model developers and researchers work hard on dialog safety to avoid generating harmful content from LLMs, it is still challenging to steer AI-generated content (AIGC) for the human good. As powerful LLMs are devouring existing text data from various domains (e.g., GPT-3 is trained on 45TB texts), it is natural to doubt whether the private information is included in the training data and what privacy threats can these LLMs and their downstream applications bring. In this paper, we study the privacy threats from OpenAI’s ChatGPT and the New Bing enhanced by ChatGPT and show that application-integrated LLMs may cause new privacy threats. To this end, we conduct extensive experiments to support our claims and discuss LLMs’ privacy implications.

1 Introduction

The rapid evolution of large language models (LLMs) makes them a game changer for modern natural language processing. LLMs’ dominating generation ability changes previous tasks’ paradigms to a unified text generation task and consistently improves LLMs’ performance on these tasks (Raffel et al., 2020; Chung et al., 2022; Brown et al., 2020b; OpenAI, 2023; Ouyang et al., 2022; Chan et al., 2023). Moreover, given appropriate instructions/prompts, LLMs even can be zero-shot or few-shot learners to solve specified tasks (Chen et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Kojima et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2022b; Sanh et al., 2022).

Notably, LLMs’ training data also scale up in accordance with models’ sizes and performance. Massive LLMs’ textual training data are primarily collected from the Internet and researchers pay less attention to the data quality and confidentiality of the web-sourced data (Piktus et al., 2023).

Such mass collection of personal data incurs debates and worries. For example, under the EU’s General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), training a commercial model on extensive personal data without notice or consent from data subjects lacks a legal basis. Consequently, Italy once temporarily banned ChatGPT due to privacy considerations¹.

Unfortunately, the privacy analysis of language models is still less explored and remains an active area. Prior works (Lukas et al., 2023; Pan et al., 2020; Miresghallah et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2022; Carlini et al., 2021) studied the privacy leakage issues of language models (LMs) and claimed that memorizing training data leads to private data leakage. However, these works mainly investigated variants of GPT-2 models (Radford et al., 2019) trained simply by language modeling objective, which aimed to predict the next word given the current context. Despite the efforts made by these pioneering works, there is still a huge gap between the latest LLMs and GPT-2. First, LLMs’ model sizes and dataset scales are much larger than GPT-2. Second, LLMs implement more sophisticated training objectives, which include instruction tuning (Wei et al., 2022a) and Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) (Christiano et al., 2017). Third, most LLMs only provide application programming interfaces (APIs) and we cannot inspect the model weights and training corpora. Lastly, it is trending to integrate various applications into LLMs to empower LLMs’ knowledge grounding ability to solve math problems (ChatGPT + Wolfram Alpha), read formatted files (ChatPDF), and respond to queries with the search engine (the New Bing). As a result, it remains unknown to what extent privacy leakage occurs on these present-day LLMs we use.

To fill the mentioned gap, in this work, we con-

¹See <https://www.bbc.com/news/technology-65139406>. Currently, ChatGPT is no longer banned in Italy.

Haoran Li and Dadi Guo contribute equally.

Jailbroken: How Does LLM Safety Training Fail?

Content Warning: This paper contains examples of harmful language.

Alexander Wei
UC Berkeley
awei@berkeley.edu

Nika Haghtalab^{*}
UC Berkeley
nika@berkeley.edu

Jacob Steinhardt^{*}
UC Berkeley
jsteinhardt@berkeley.edu

Abstract

Large language models trained for safety and harmlessness remain susceptible to adversarial misuse, as evidenced by the prevalence of “jailbreak” attacks on early releases of ChatGPT that elicit undesired behavior. Going beyond recognition of the issue, we investigate why such attacks succeed and how they can be created. We hypothesize two failure modes of safety training: competing objectives and mismatched generalization. Competing objectives arise when a model’s capabilities and safety goals conflict, while mismatched generalization occurs when safety training fails to generalize to a domain for which capabilities exist. We use these failure modes to guide jailbreak design and then evaluate state-of-the-art models, including OpenAI’s GPT-4 and Anthropic’s Claude v1.3, against both existing and newly designed attacks. We find that vulnerabilities persist despite the extensive red-teaming and safety-training efforts behind these models. Notably, new attacks utilizing our failure modes succeed on every prompt in a collection of unsafe requests from the models’ red-teaming evaluation sets and outperform existing ad hoc jailbreaks. Our analysis emphasizes the need for safety-capability parity—that safety mechanisms should be as sophisticated as the underlying model—and argues against the idea that scaling alone can resolve these safety failure modes.

1 Introduction

In recent months, large language models (LLMs) such as ChatGPT, Claude, and Bard have seen widespread deployment. These models exhibit advanced general capabilities [38], but also pose risks around misuse by bad actors (e.g., for misinformation or for crime [9, 32, 25, 30, 28]).

To mitigate these risks of misuse, model creators have implemented safety mechanisms to restrict model behavior to a “safe” subset of capabilities. These include both training-time interventions to align models with predefined values [41, 7] and post hoc flagging and filtering of inputs and outputs [56, 24, 52, 45]. These efforts are often complemented by *red teaming*, which proactively identifies and trains against weaknesses [42, 23, 38].

While hardening LLMs for safety can help [38], models remain vulnerable to adversarial inputs, as demonstrated by the spread of “jailbreaks” for ChatGPT on social media since its initial release [13, 17, 2]. These attacks are engineered to elicit behavior, such as producing harmful content or leaking personally identifiable information, that the model was trained to avoid. Attacks can range from elaborate role play (e.g., DAN [48]) to subtle subversion of the safety objective (see Figure 1(a)). Model creators have acknowledged and updated their models against jailbreak attacks [7, 38, 10, 5], but a systematic analysis and a conceptual understanding of this phenomenon remains lacking.

In this work, we analyze the vulnerability of safety-trained LLMs to jailbreak attacks by examining the model’s pretraining and safety training processes. Based on known safety training methods, we hypothesize two failure modes—*competing objectives* and *mismatched generalization*—that shed

^{*}Equal advising.

Preprint. Under review.

Scalable Extraction of Training Data from (Production) Language Models

Milad Nasr^{*1}, Nicholas Carlini^{*1}, Jonathan Hayase^{1,2}, Matthew Jagielski¹,
A. Feder Cooper³, Daphne Ippolito^{1,4}, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo¹

Eric Wallace⁵, Florian Tramèr⁶, Katherine Lee^{+1,3}

¹Google DeepMind ²University of Washington ³Cornell ⁴CMU ⁵UC Berkeley ⁶ETH Zurich

^{*}Equal contribution ⁺Senior author

Abstract

This paper studies *extractable memorization*: training data that an adversary can efficiently extract by querying a machine learning model without prior knowledge of the training dataset. We show an adversary can extract gigabytes of training data from open-source language models like Pythia or GPT-Neo, semi-open models like LLaMA or Falcon, and closed models like ChatGPT. Existing techniques from the literature suffice to attack unaligned models; in order to attack the aligned ChatGPT, we develop a new *divergence* attack that causes the model to diverge from its chatbot-style generations and emit training data at a rate 150× higher than when behaving properly. Our methods show practical attacks can recover far more data than previously thought, and reveal that current alignment techniques do not eliminate memorization.

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) memorize examples from their training datasets, which can allow an attacker to extract (potentially private) information [7, 12, 14]. Prior work has (a) performed large-scale studies of the total quantity of memorized training data for open-source models [11], and (b) developed practical attacks to extract training data on (relatively) small models like GPT-2, by manually annotating examples as memorized or not [14].

In this paper, we unify these two directions and perform a large-scale study of “extractable memorization” in language models. Unlike *discoverable* memorization [11] that captures an upper bound on *all* training data that is memorized (even if it can only be recovered by prompting the model with other training data), *extractable* memorization captures only that data that can be efficiently recovered by an adversary. We develop a scalable methodology that allows us to detect memorization in trillions of tokens of model outputs in terabyte-sized datasets, and perform this analysis on both open-source models (e.g., Pythia [5], GPT-Neo [6]) and semi-open models (e.g., LLaMA [49], Falcon [40]). We find that larger and more capable models are more vulnerable to data extraction attacks.

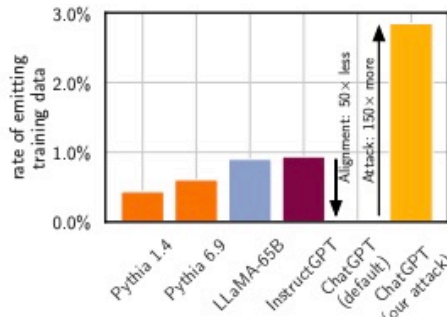


Figure 1: We scalably test for memorization in large language models. Models emit more memorized training data as they get larger. The aligned ChatGPT (gpt-3.5-turbo) *appears* 50× more private than any prior model, but we develop an attack that shows it is not. Using our attack, ChatGPT emits training data 150× more frequently than with prior attacks, and 3× more frequently than the base model.

But when we perform this analysis on gpt-3.5-turbo, it appears to memorize almost no training data. We hypothesize that this is because ChatGPT has been *aligned* (with RLHF [35, 37, 39, 44]) to act as a helpful chat assistant.¹

To circumvent the model’s alignment, we discover a prompting strategy that causes gpt-3.5-turbo to “diverge” from reasonable, chatbot-style generations, and to behave like a base language model, outputting text in a typical Internet-text style. In order to check whether this emitted text was previously contained somewhere on the Internet, we merge together several publicly available web-scale training sets into a nine terabyte dataset. By matching against this dataset, we recover over ten thousand examples from ChatGPT’s training dataset at a query cost of \$200 USD—and our scaling estimate suggests that one could extract over 10× more data with more queries.

¹While limited information is available about this model, similar models like GPT-4 have been trained to “refuse to answer certain types of requests,” including those related to training data extraction [37, p. 13].

[C] Multi-step Jailbreaking Privacy Attacks on ChatGPT, Li et al, March 2023

[D] Jailbroken: How Does LLM Safety Training Fail?, Wei et al., Preprint, July 2023

[E] Scalable Extraction of Training Data from (Production) Language Models, Nasr et al., Preprint, November 2023

Privacy Attacks by Evading Safety Filters

Preventing Generation of Verbatim Memorization in Language Models Gives a False Sense of Privacy

Daphne Ippolito¹

Florian Tramèr^{*2}

Milad Nasr^{*1}

Chiyuan Zhang^{*1}

Matthew Jagielski^{*1}

Katherine Lee^{*1,3}

Christopher A. Choquette-Choo^{*1}

Nicholas Carlini¹

¹ Google Research

² ETH Zurich

³ Cornell University

Abstract

Studying data memorization in neural language models helps us understand the risks (e.g., to privacy or copyright) associated with models regurgitating training data and aids in the development of countermeasures. Many prior works—and some recently deployed defenses—focus on “verbatim memorization”, defined as a model generation that exactly matches a substring from the training set. We argue that verbatim memorization definitions are too restrictive and fail to capture more subtle forms of memorization. Specifically, we design and implement an efficient defense that *perfectly* prevents all verbatim memorization. And yet, we demonstrate that this “perfect” filter does not prevent the leakage of training data. Indeed, it is easily circumvented by plausible and minimally modified “style-transfer” prompts—and in some cases even the non-modified original prompts—to extract memorized information. We conclude by discussing potential alternative definitions and why defining memorization is a difficult yet crucial open question for neural language models.

1 Introduction

The ability of neural language models to memorize their training data has been studied extensively (Kandpal et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2021; Carlini et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2021; Thakkar et al., 2021; Ramaswamy et al., 2020). When language models, especially ones used in production systems, are susceptible to *data extraction* attacks, it can lead to practical problems ranging from privacy risks to copyright concerns. For example, Carlini et al. (2021) showed that the GPT-2 language model could output personally identifying information of individuals contained in the training dataset.

^{*}Remaining authors ordered by Algorithm 18 in Appendix H; briefly, we require Daphne be listed first, and Nicholas listed last, and we search for the first permutation of authors’ first names which satisfies these constraints, where permutations order names by their salted MD5 hash.

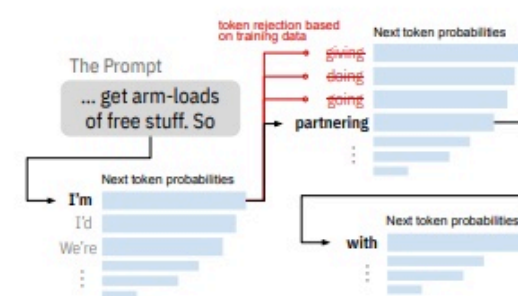


Figure 1: Illustration of Memorization-free Decoding, a defense which can eliminate verbatim memorization in the generations from a large neural language model, but does not prevent approximate memorization.

One natural way to avoid this risk is to filter out any generations which copy long strings verbatim from the training set. GitHub’s Copilot, a language-model-based code assistant, deploys this defense by giving users the option to “block suggestions matching public code” (GitHub, 2022).

In this work, we ask the question: “*Do language models emit paraphrased memorized content?*” This scenario can happen maliciously (e.g., adversaries trying to extract private user data) or through honest interactions (e.g., users prompting in real-world scenarios). Indeed, we find that Copilot’s filtering system is easy to circumvent by applying plausible “style transfers” to the prompt. For example, by translating variable names from English to French the model outputs completely memorized examples, but post-processed with the en-fr style transfer. We further show that GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020), a model trained on natural language, is also vulnerable to extraction attacks.

Unfortunately, Copilot’s training set and precise algorithm for their defense are non-public. Therefore, to investigate this phenomenon systematically, we develop MEMFREE decoding (Figure 1), an efficient defense that is guaranteed to prevent all verbatim memorization, and which scales to training sets consisting of hundreds of gigabytes of text. In

Data Privacy for Large Language Models

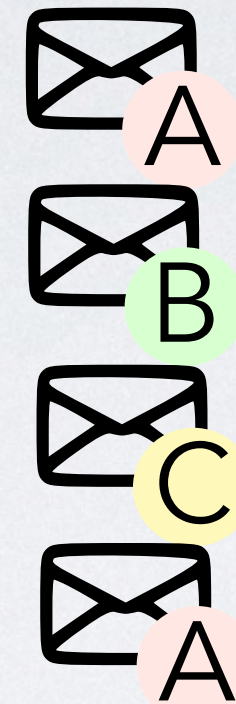
Private Dataset

John Doe is a doctor in London

John Doe lives on Sunset Street

John is a doctor from Sunset Street

John Doe works in London



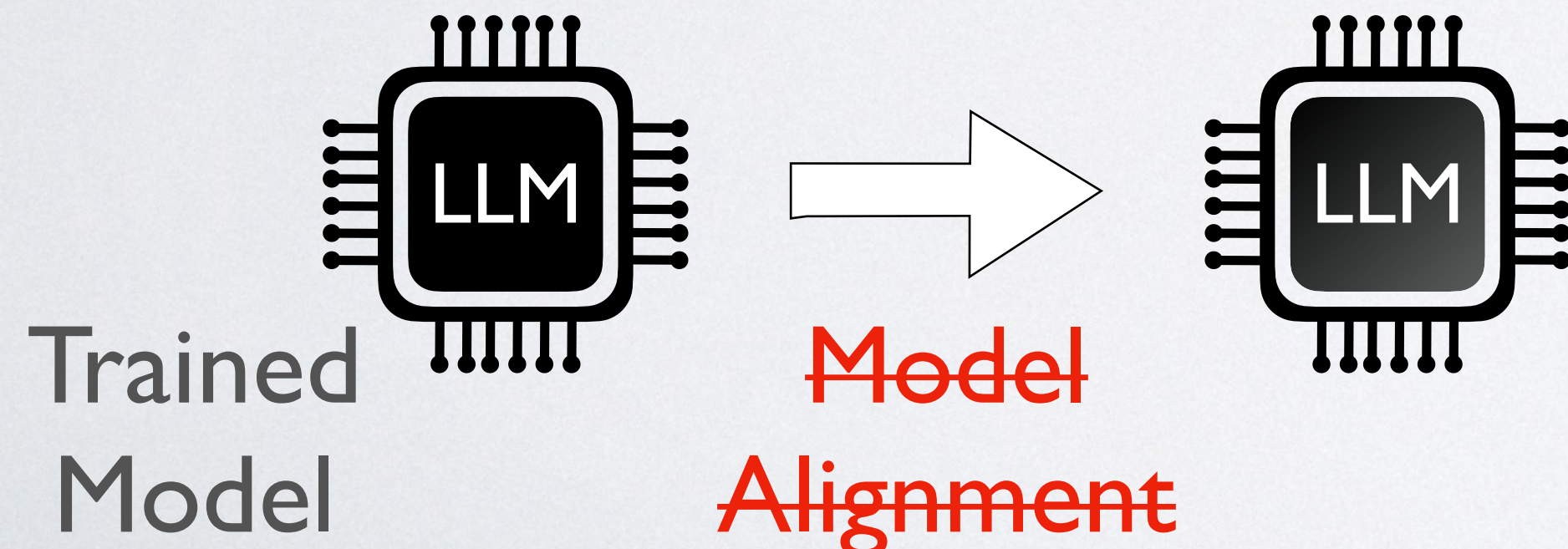
Trusted
Provider

Untrusted
Users

Can an attacker learn
sensitive information in
the training data?

Training
Procedure

Safety
Filters



Response

Request

API access

Public Data and Private Information



- Data shared to intentionally violate someone’s privacy (e.g., “**doxing**”)
- Social media posts issued to a small target audience (“**in-group sharing**”)
- Accidental leakage of other’s information (e.g, **conversations**)

Privacy in Language Models [G]

[G] What Does it Mean for a Language Model to Preserve Privacy?, Brown et al., February 2022

Base Model vs Fine-Tuning

Promises of Fine-Tuning [\[8\]](#)

- Improve Quality
- Steer Model
- Shorter Prompts
- Lower latency

Fine-tuning models		Create your own custom models by fine-tuning our base models with your training data. Once you fine-tune a model, you'll be billed only for the tokens you use in requests to that model.	
		Learn about fine-tuning ↗	
Model	Training	Input usage	Output usage
gpt-3.5-turbo	\$0.0080 / 1K tokens	\$0.0030 / 1K tokens	\$0.0060 / 1K tokens
davinci-002	\$0.0060 / 1K tokens	\$0.0120 / 1K tokens	\$0.0120 / 1K tokens
babbage-002	\$0.0004 / 1K tokens	\$0.0016 / 1K tokens	\$0.0016 / 1K tokens

OpenAI Pricing [\[7\]](#)

Focus of this Talk

Analyzing Leakage of Personally Identifiable Information in Language Models

Nils Lukas^{*§}, Ahmed Salem[†], Robert Sim[†], Shruti Tople[†], Lukas Wutschitz[†] and Santiago Zanella-Béguelin[†]

^{*}University of Waterloo, [†]Microsoft
nlukas@uwaterloo.ca, {t-salemahmed, rsim, shruti.tople, lukas.wutschitz, santiago}@microsoft.com

Abstract—Language Models (LMs) have been shown to leak information about training data through sentence-level membership inference and reconstruction attacks. Understanding the risk of LMs leaking Personally Identifiable Information (PII) has received less attention, which can be attributed to the false assumption that dataset curation techniques such as scrubbing are sufficient to prevent PII leakage. Scrubbing techniques reduce but do not prevent the risk of PII leakage: in practice scrubbing is imperfect and must balance the trade-off between minimizing disclosure and preserving the utility of the dataset. On the other hand, it is unclear to which extent algorithmic defenses such as differential privacy, designed to guarantee sentence- or user-level privacy, prevent PII disclosure. In this work, we introduce rigorous game-based definitions for three types of PII leakage via black-box extraction, inference, and reconstruction attacks with only API access to an LM. We empirically evaluate the attacks against GPT-2 models fine-tuned with and without defenses in three domains: case law, health care, and e-mails. Our main contributions are (i) novel attacks that can extract up to 10× more PII sequences than existing attacks, (ii) showing that sentence-level differential privacy reduces the risk of PII disclosure but still leaks about 3% of PII sequences, and (iii) a subtle connection between record-level membership inference and PII reconstruction. Code to reproduce all experiments in the paper is available at https://github.com/microsoft/analysing_pii_leakage.

I. INTRODUCTION

Language Models (LMs) are fundamental to many natural language processing tasks [22, 49]. State-of-the-art LMs scale to trillions of parameters [19] and are pre-trained on large text corpora (e.g., 700GB [53]). Pre-trained LMs are adapted to downstream tasks by fine-tuning on domain-specific datasets such as human dialogs [7] or clinical health data [62] which may contain private information.

Memorization is a privacy concern in LMs [9]. The threat is that an attacker learns *by whom* the training data was provided, known as membership inference [30, 45, 46, 58] and *about whom* it contains information, known as data extraction [9, 11, 29, 59, 69]. These two categories can be disjoint but associations in the latter can be used to infer information about the former. For LMs, data extraction is a significant threat in practice since attackers with black-box API access can extract at least 1% of the training data [11].

Existing work focuses on finding a lower bound on *any* kind of memorization but does not differentiate public and private

[§]Part of this work was done during an internship at Microsoft Research.
[†]To cite this work, please refer to the full publication [41] in IEEE Security and Privacy (S&P) 2023.

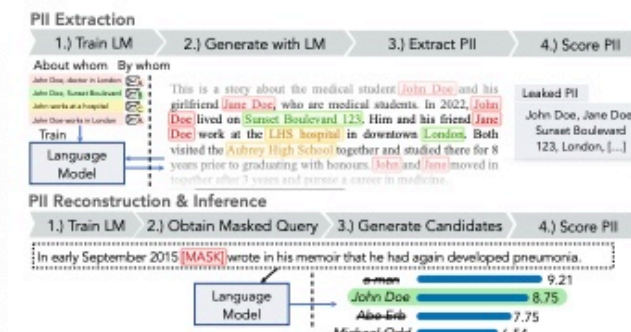


Fig. 1: An illustration of PII extraction, reconstruction and inference attack techniques.

leaked information. For example, leaking highly duplicated common phrases is not a privacy violation according to the GDPR [17] as opposed to leaking Personally Identifiable Information (PII). In practice, any LM trained on real, sensitive data has to protect PII, but memorization of PII is not well understood. We believe that a comprehensive study on the risk of PII memorization in LMs is missing.

Consider a service provider who wants to deploy a next-word prediction LM for composing e-mails, such as Google's Smart Compose [13]. Their goal is to train an LM with high utility that does not leak PII and make it available as a black-box API. The threat is an attacker who learns PII, such as names, addresses or other sensitive information through the LM. Extracting *any* PII by itself, such as a personal address, can already pose a privacy threat. This threat is elevated when an attacker can associate a piece of PII to a context, for example, "In May 2022, [MASK] had chemotherapy at LHS". As a part of this paper, we study the feasibility of such attacks on LMs in practice. Figure 1 illustrates the type of PII attacks proposed in this work.

Defenses against memorization are based on dataset curation and algorithmic defenses. PII *scrubbing* is a dataset curation technique that removes PII from text, relying on Named Entity Recognition (NER) [35] to tag PII. Modern NER is based on the Transformer architecture [63] and has mixed recall of 97% (for names) and 80% (for care unit numbers) on clinical health data, meaning that much PII is retained after scrubbing [62]. Machine learning pipelines incorporate algorithmic defenses such as differentially-private



Nils Lukas



Ahmed Salem



Robert Sim



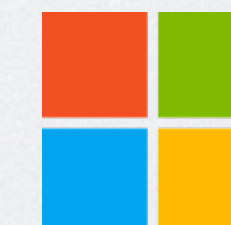
Shruti Tople



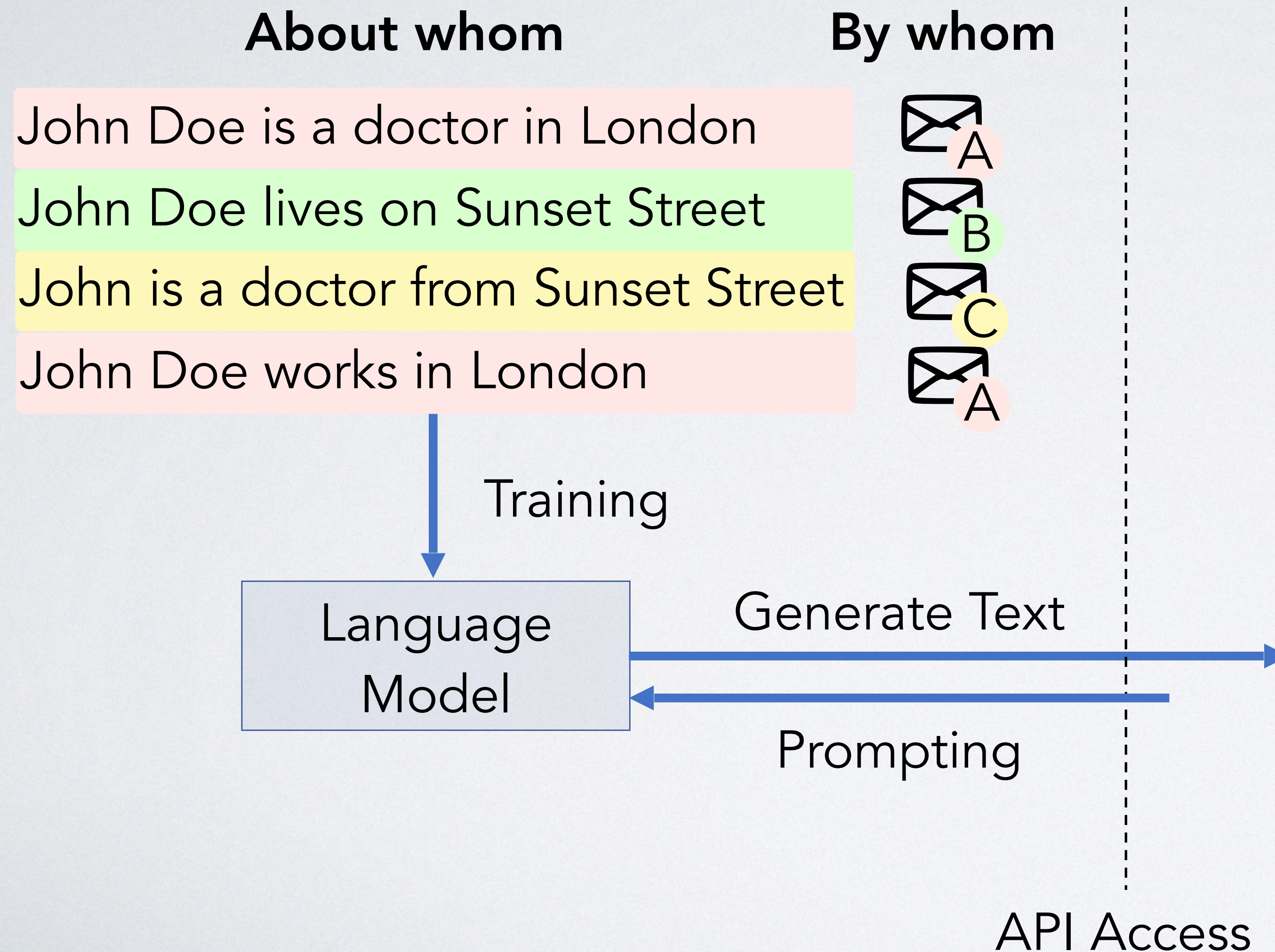
Lukas Wutschitz



Santiago Zanella-Béguelin



Motivation



Once upon a time, there existed a tale of medical students **John Doe** and his girlfriend, **Jane Doe**. In the year 2022, **John** resided at **Sunset Street** while pursuing his medical education. Alongside his friend **Jane**, he worked at the **LHS Hospital** located in the bustling heart of downtown **London**. Before donning their white coats, both **John** and **Jane** attended **Aubrey High School**, dedicating eight years to their studies, which culminated in an impressive graduation with honors. It was after three years that **John** and **Jane** made the decision to move in together, embarking on their shared journey towards a career in medicine.

Motivation

I.) PII Extraction

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Motivation

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1.) PII Extraction

John Doe London
Sunset Street
LHS Hospital

Real

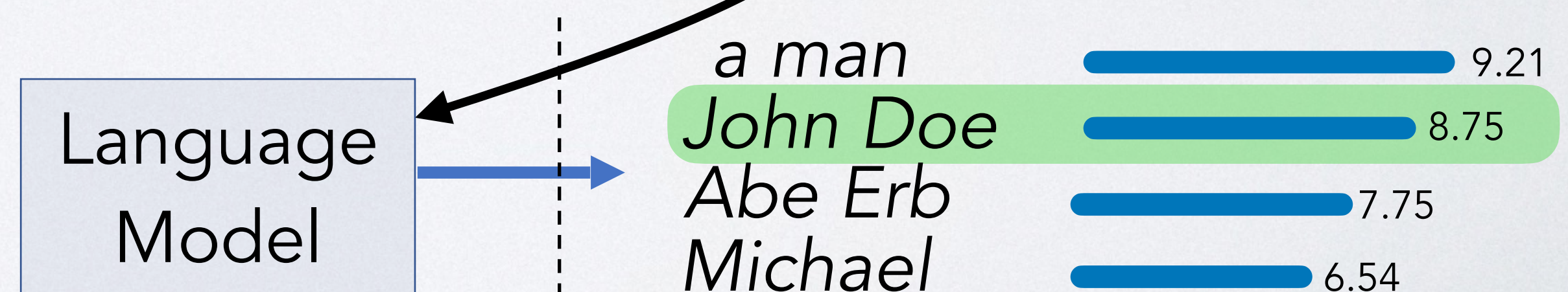
Jane Doe
Aubrey High School

Fictional

2.) PII Reconstruction & 3.) PII Inference

Real Sentence

In early September 2023 **[MASK]** wrote in his memoir that he had again developed pneumonia.



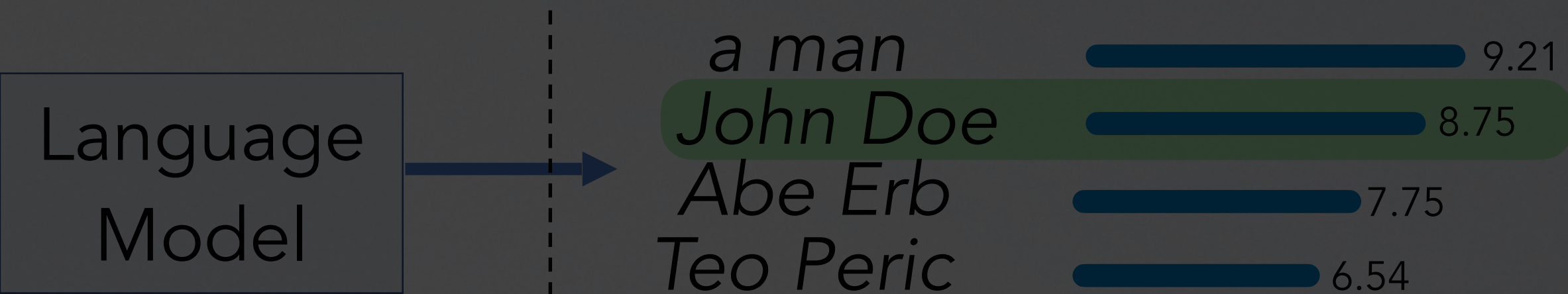
Motivation

Once upon a time, there existed a tale of medical students **John Doe** and his girlfriend, **Jane Doe**. In the year 2022, **John** resided at **Sunset Street** while pursuing his medical education. Alongside his friend **Jane**, he worked at the **LHS Hospital** located in the bustling heart of downtown **London**. Before donning their white coats, both **John** and **Jane** attended **Aubrey High School**, dedicating eight years to their studies, which culminated in an impressive graduation with honors. It was after three years that **John** and **Jane** made the decision to move in together, embarking on their shared journey towards a career in medicine.

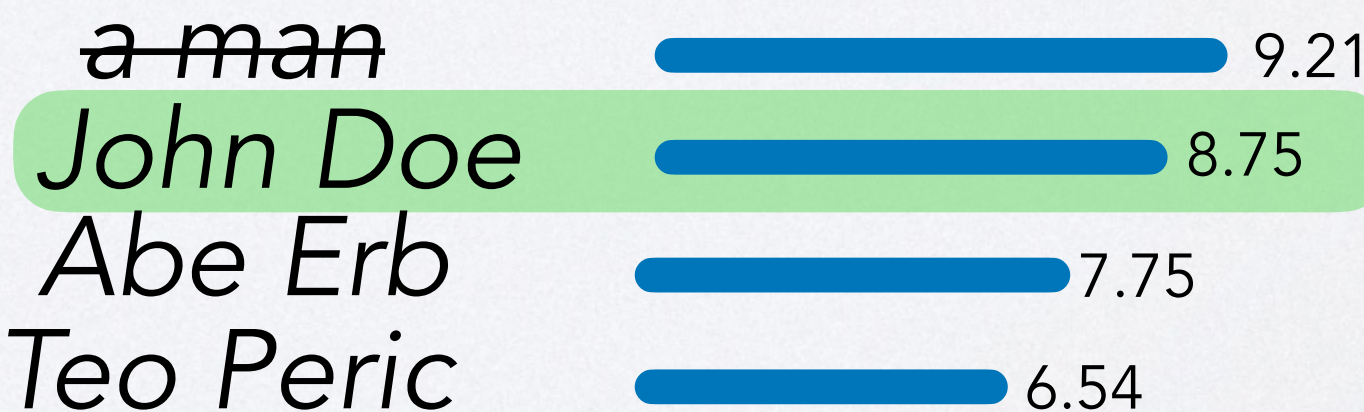
2.) PII Reconstruction & Inference

Real Sentence

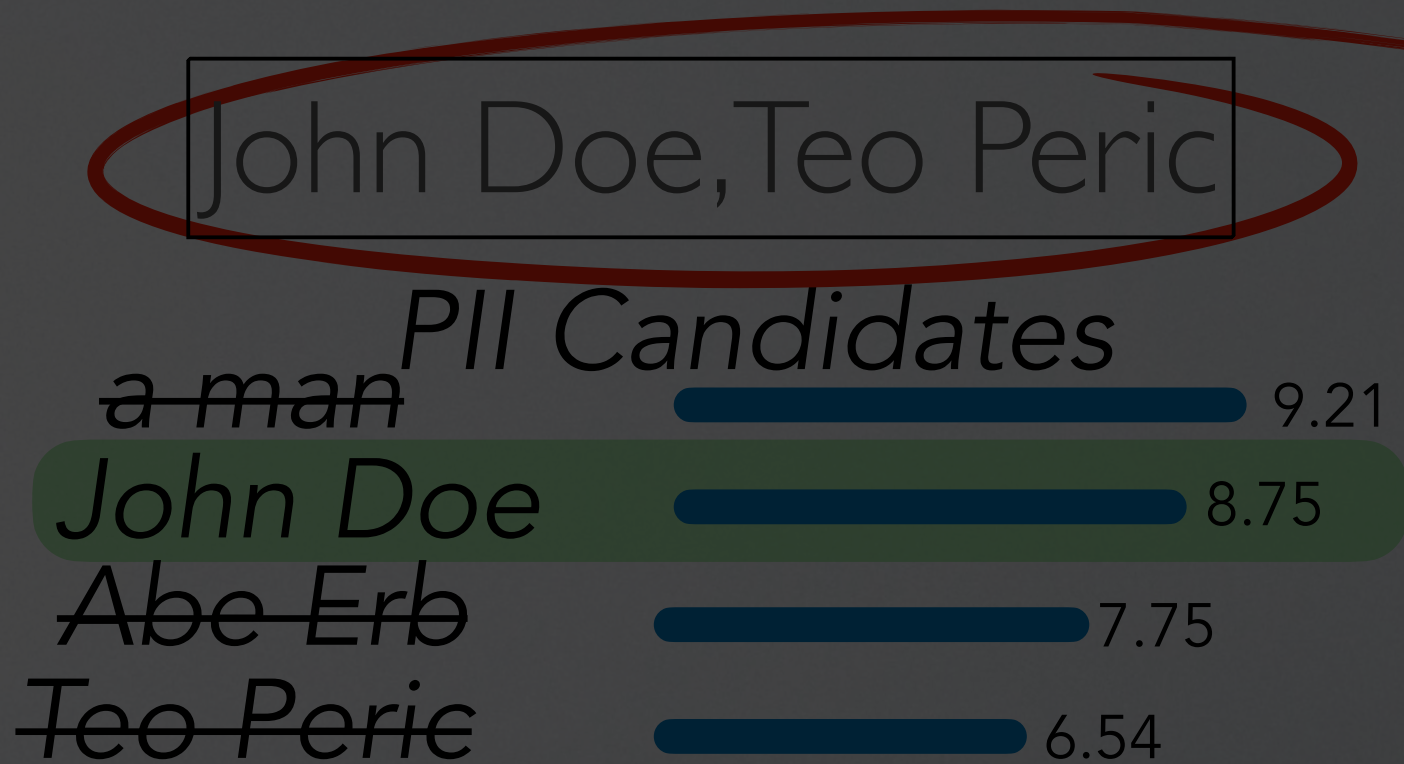
In early September 2023 **[MASK]** wrote in his memoir that he had again developed pneumonia.



Reconstruction



Inference



Motivation

PII Scrubbing?

About whom

By whom

John Doe is a doctor in London

John Doe lives on Sunset Street

John is a doctor from Sunset Street

John Doe works in London



Training

Differential
Privacy?

Language
Model

Generate Text

Prompting

API Access

Once upon a time, there existed a tale of medical students **John Doe** and his girlfriend, **Jane Doe**. In the year 2022, **John** resided at **Sunset Street** while pursuing his medical education. Alongside his friend **Jane**, he worked at the **LHS Hospital** located in the bustling heart of downtown **London**. Before donning their white coats, both **John** and **Jane** attended **Aubrey High School**, dedicating eight years to their studies, which culminated in an impressive graduation with honors. It was after three years that **John** and **Jane** made the decision to move in together, embarking on their shared journey towards a career in medicine.

Motivation

PII Scrubbing?

About whom

By whom

[MASK] is a doctor in [MASK]

[MASK] lives on [MASK]

[MASK] is a doctor from [MASK]

[MASK] works in [MASK]



Training

Differential
Privacy?

Generate Text

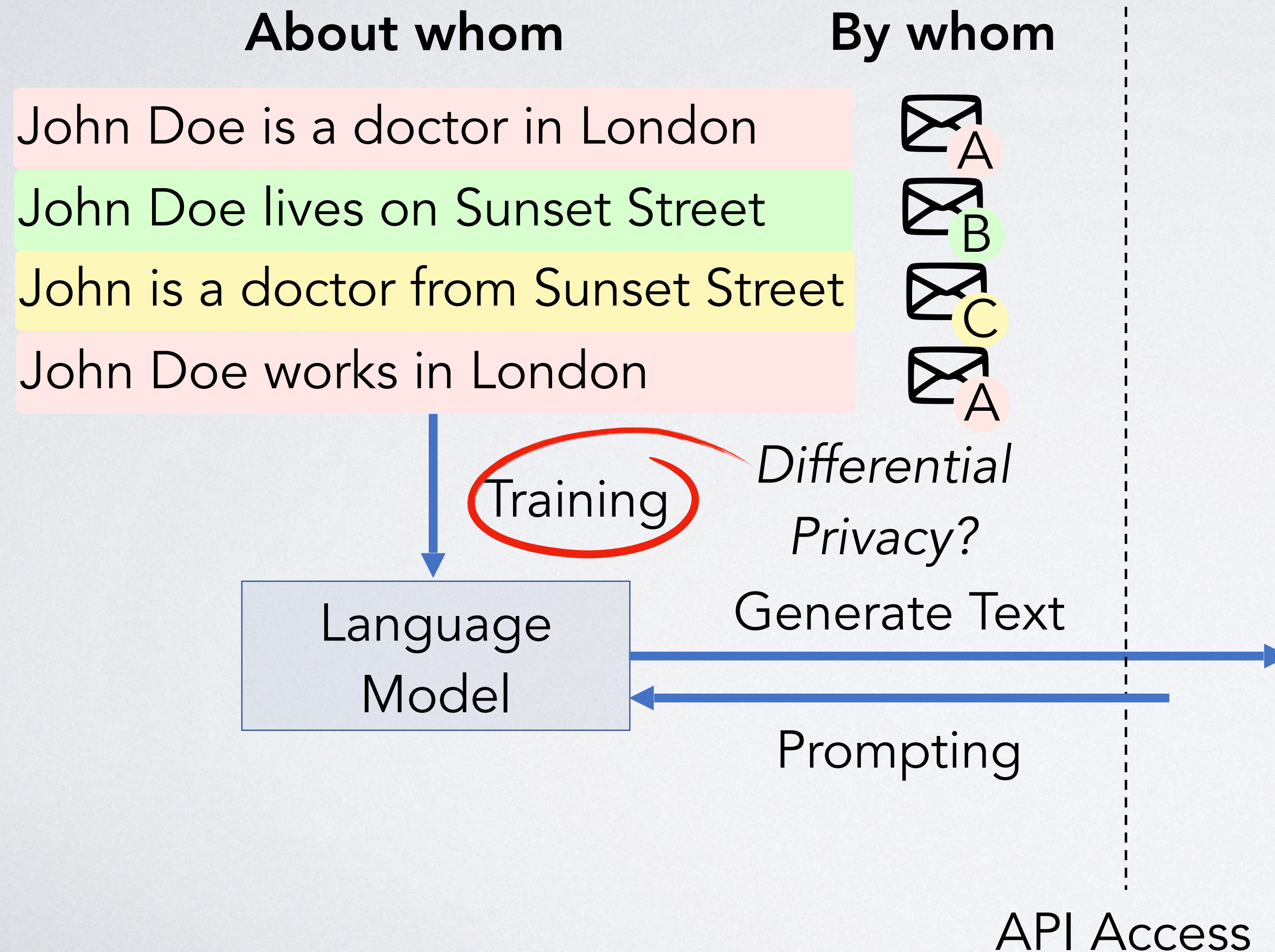
Language
Model

Prompting

API Access

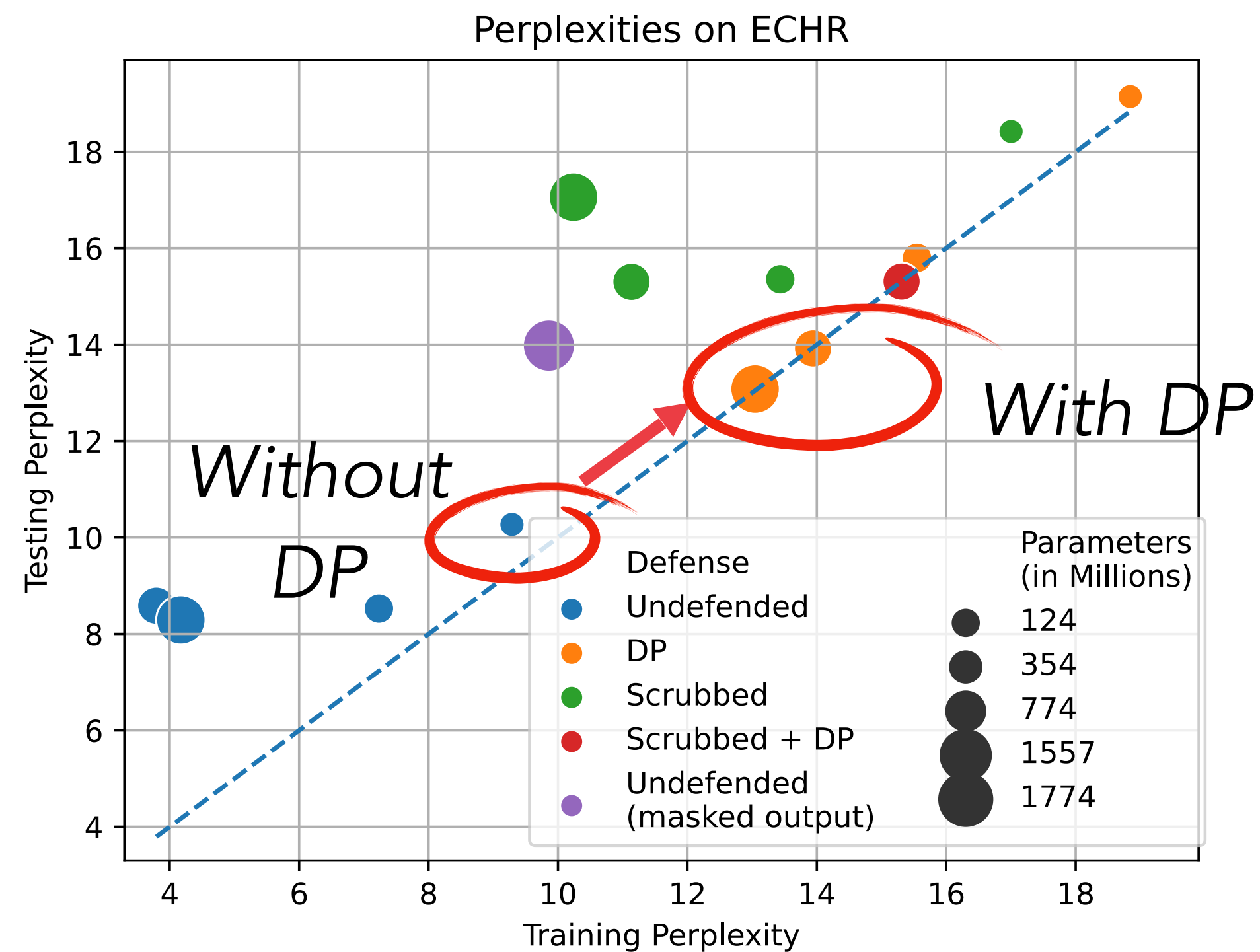
Once upon a time, there existed a tale of medical students **John Doe** and his girlfriend, **Jane Doe**. In the year 2022, **John** resided at **Sunset Street** while pursuing his medical education. Alongside his friend **Jane**, he worked at the **LHS Hospital** located in the bustling heart of downtown **London**. Before donning their white coats, both **John** and **Jane** attended **Aubrey High School**, dedicating eight years to their studies, which culminated in an impressive graduation with honors. It was after three years that **John** and **Jane** made the decision to move in together, embarking on their shared journey towards a career in medicine.

Motivation



Once upon a time, there existed a tale of medical students **John Doe** and his girlfriend, **Jane Doe**. In the year 2022, **John** resided at **Sunset Street** while pursuing his medical education. Alongside his friend **Jane**, he worked at the **LHS Hospital** located in the bustling heart of downtown **London**. Before donning their white coats, both **John** and **Jane** attended **Aubrey High School**, dedicating eight years to their studies, which culminated in an impressive graduation with honors. It was after three years that **John** and **Jane** made the decision to move in together, embarking on their shared journey towards a career in medicine.

Problems with Differential Privacy



Privacy at the cost of Model Utility

About whom

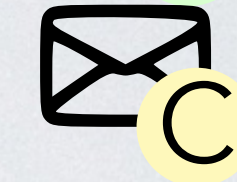
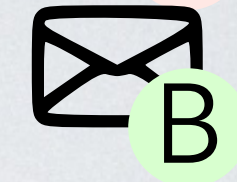
John Doe is a doctor in London

John Doe lives on Sunset Street

John is a doctor from Sunset Street

John Doe works in London

By whom



Training

Differential Privacy?

Generate Text

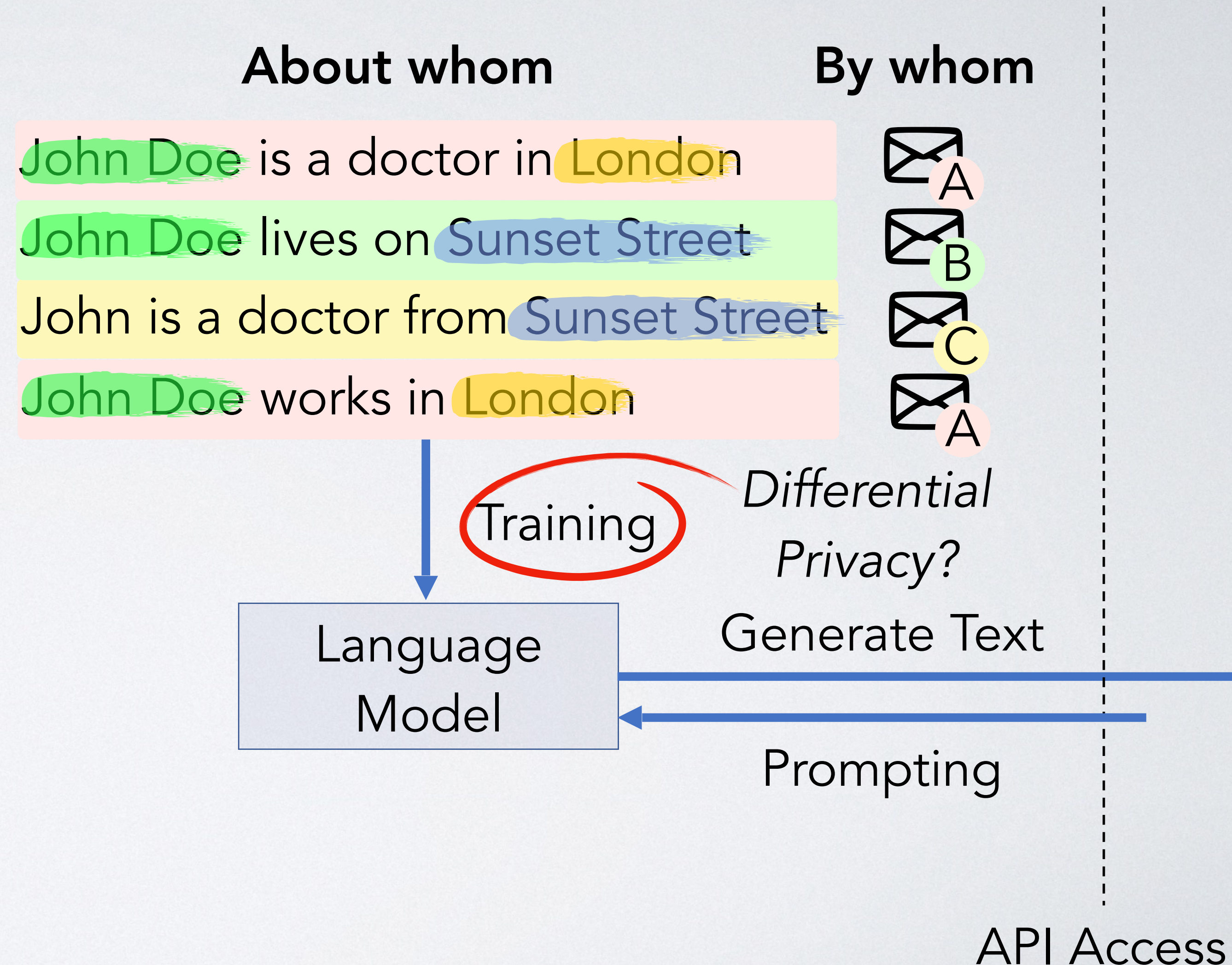
Language Model

Prompting

API Access

Problems with Differential Privacy

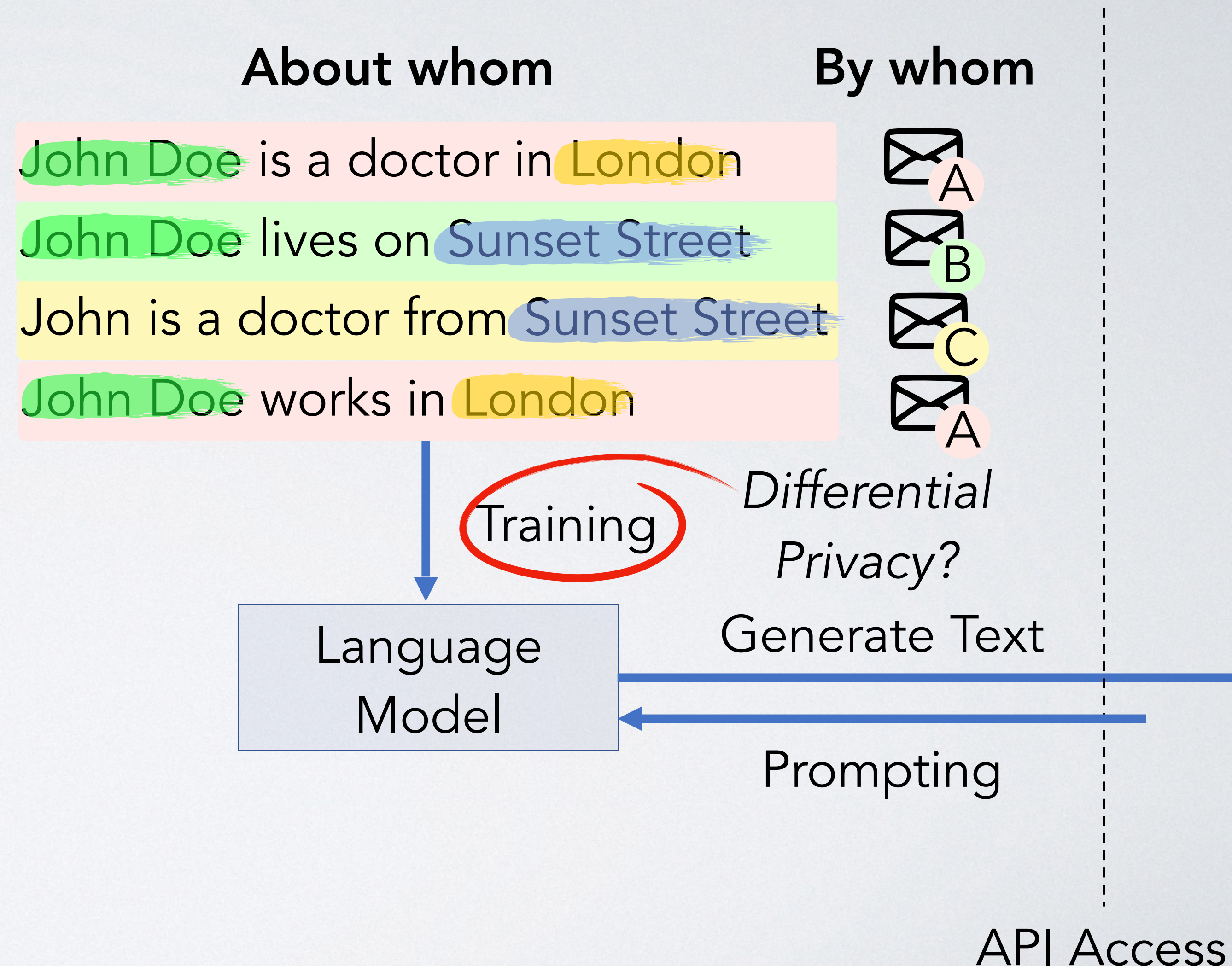
DP protects against an attacker learning **by whom** data was provided, but not **about whom** it contains information.



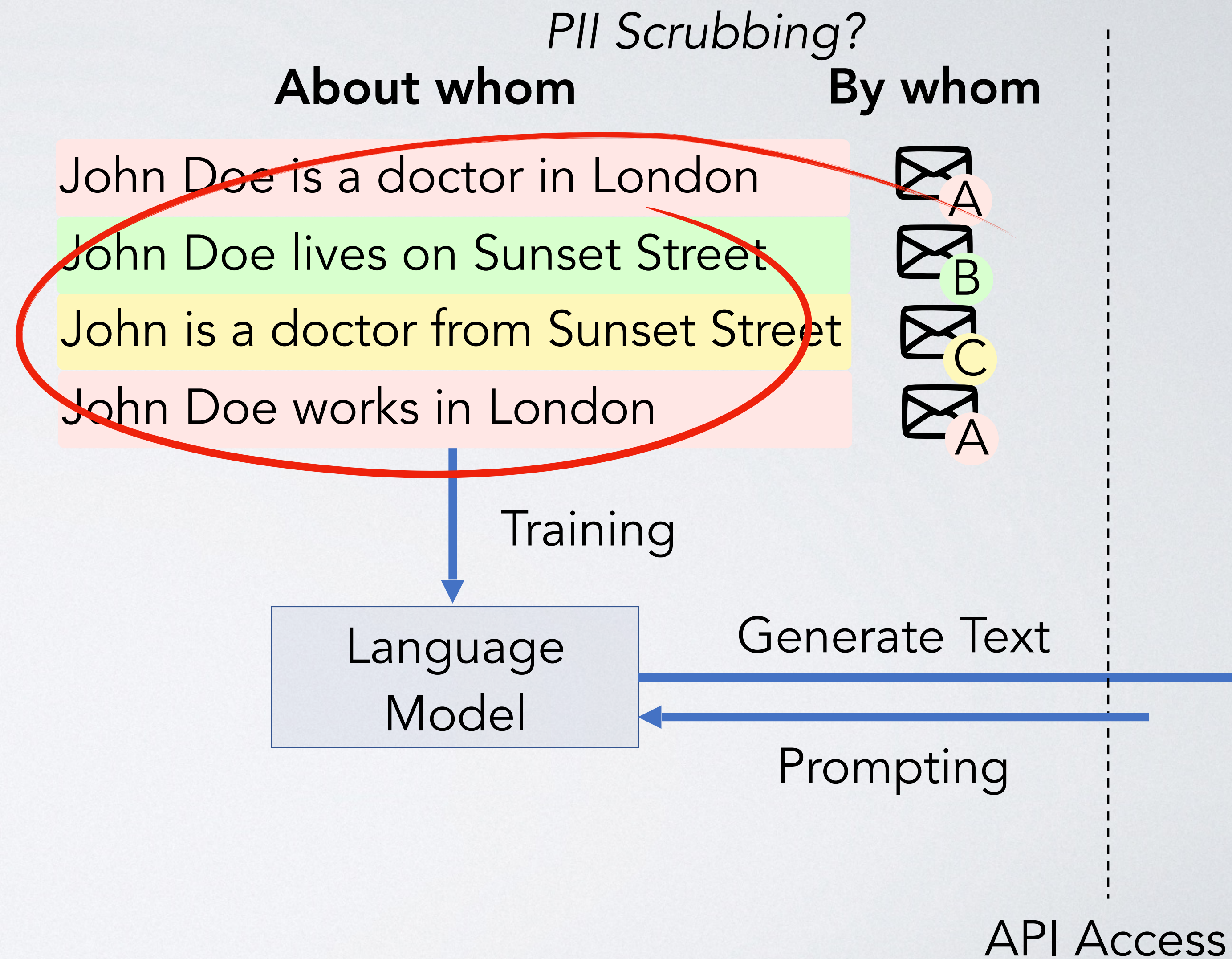
Problems with Differential Privacy

Group-level DP can help but ..

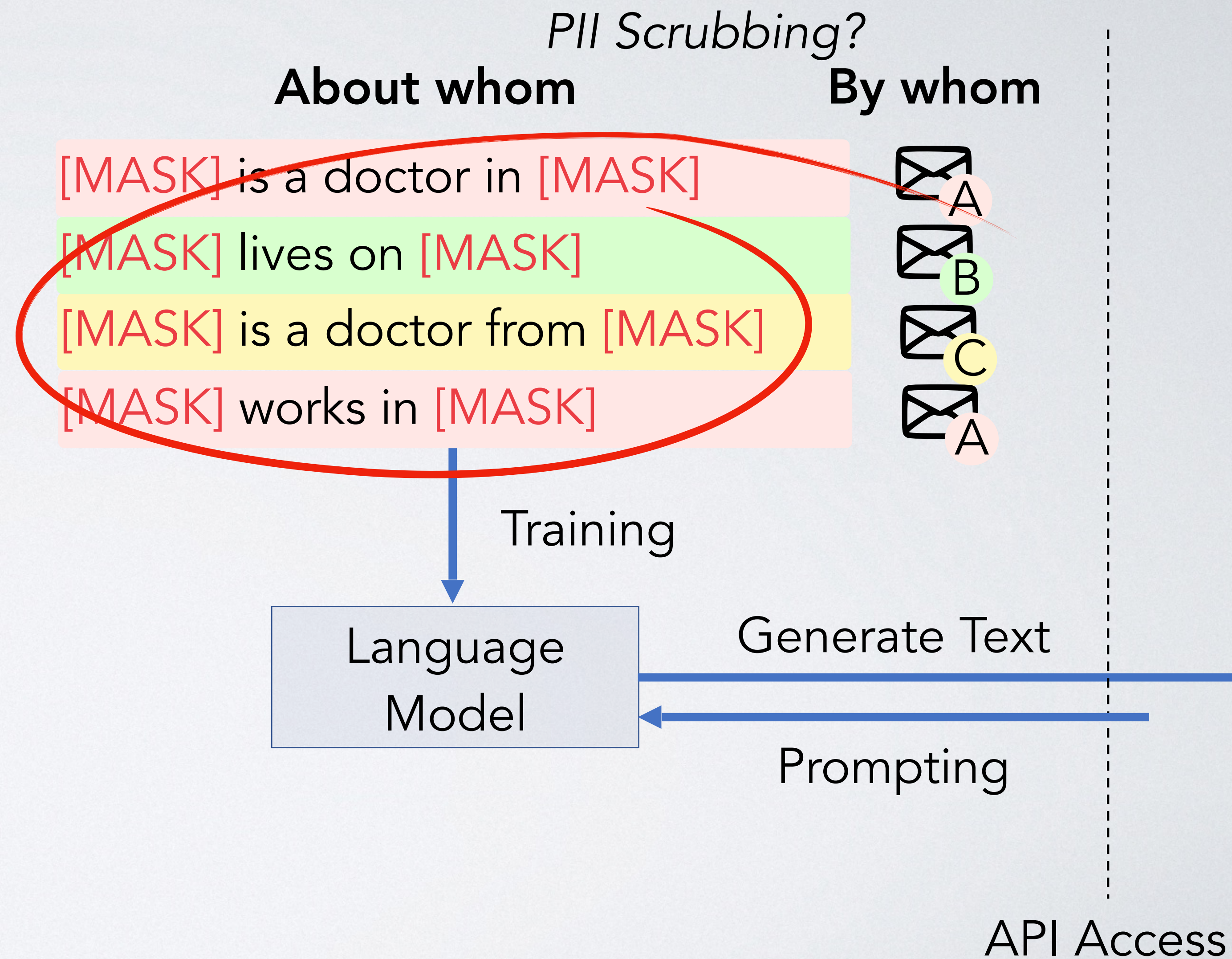
- 1) Group sizes are **not always** known a priori and under worst-case assumptions has **deleterious impact on model utility**.
- 2) PII Duplication across groups



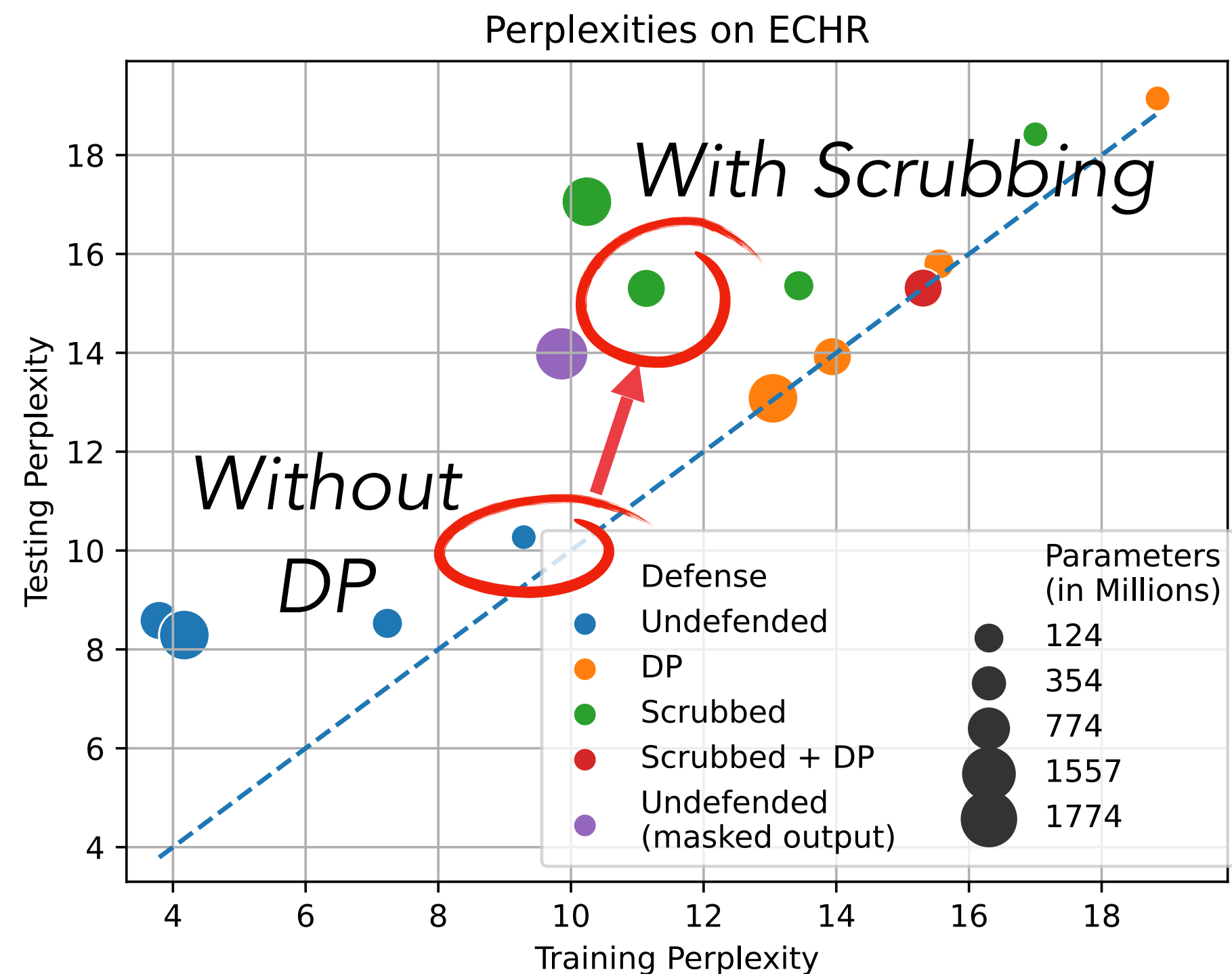
Problems with PII Scrubbing



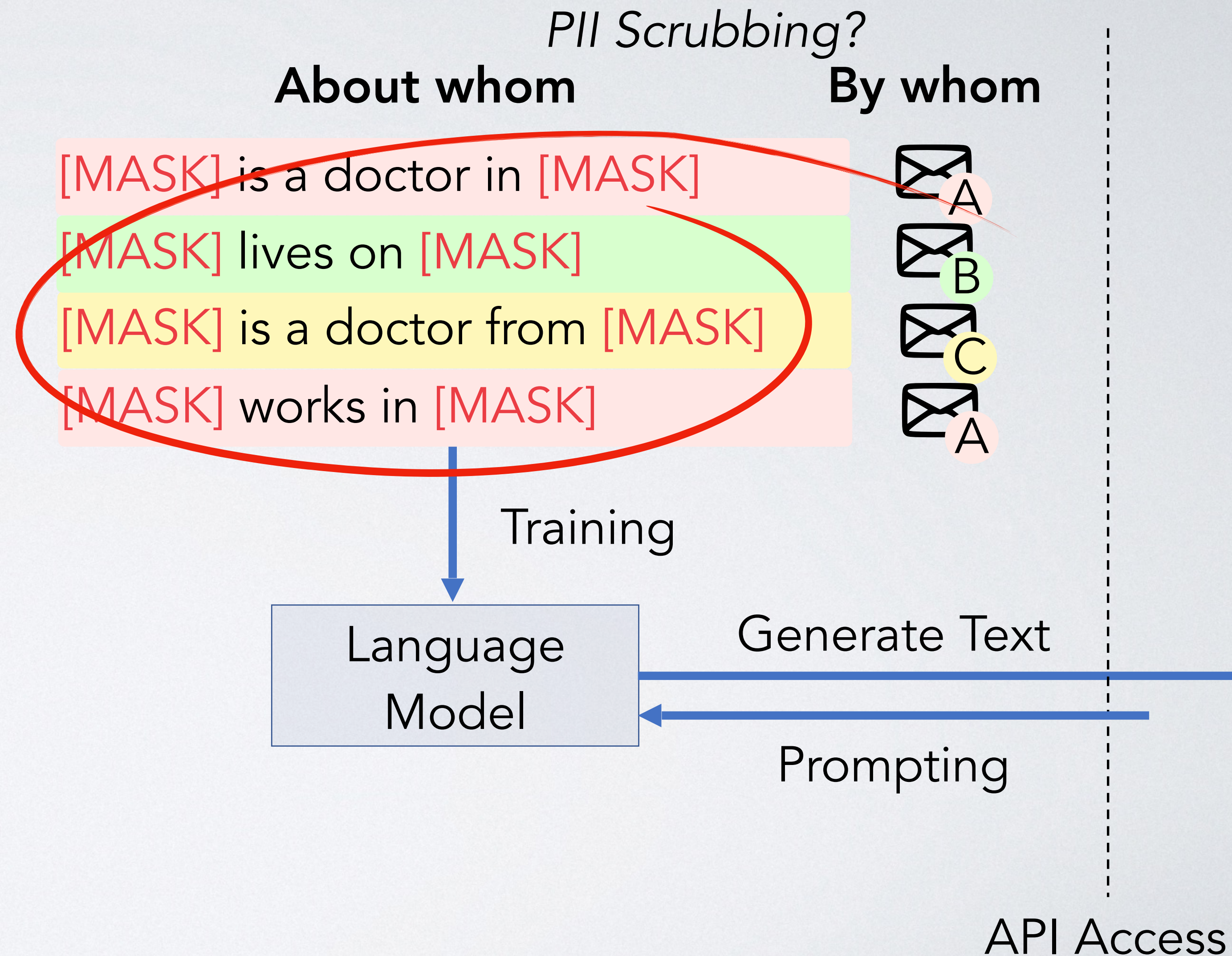
Problems with PII Scrubbing



Problems with PII Scrubbing

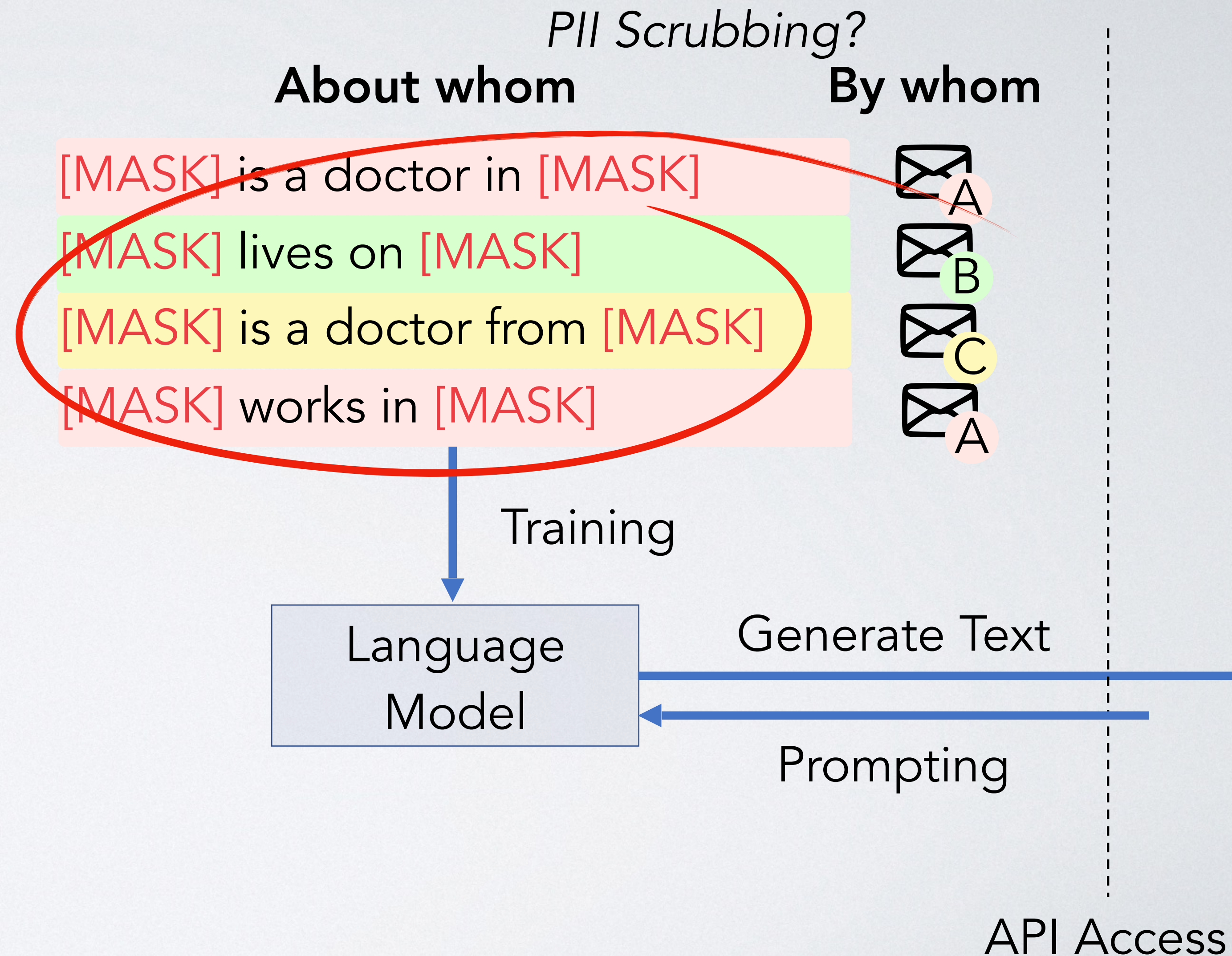


Privacy at the cost of Model Utility



Problems with PII Scrubbing

Methods to optimize the privacy/utility trade-off are missing.



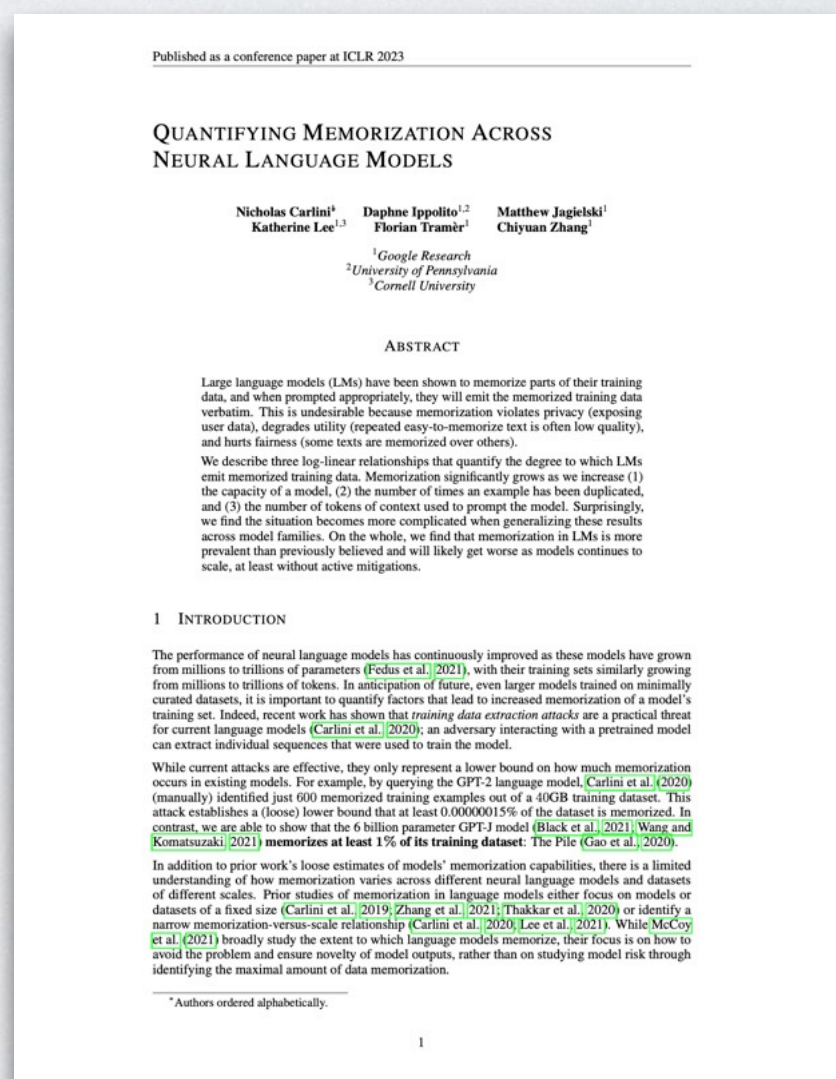
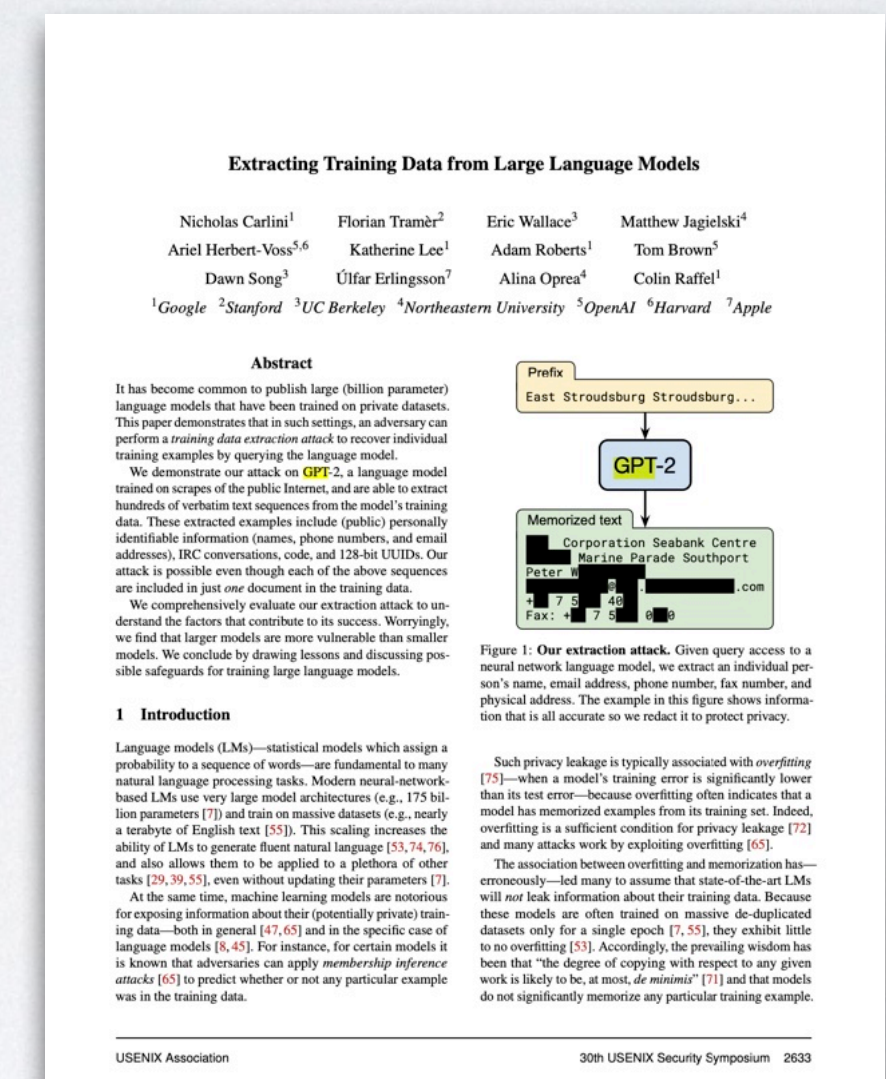
Related Work

Canaries

N-grams

Sequences

PII Leakage
In Pre-Trained LMs



Carlini et al., 2019

McCoy et al., 2019

Carlini et al., 2020

Carlini et al., 2020

Huang et al., 2022

Any Form of Leakage

Our Focus

We study PII leakage in the presence of privacy mechanisms such as **Differential Privacy** or **PII Scrubbing**

Extraction

- Black-box Model Access

Reconstruction

- Black-box Model Access
- Masked Training Data

Inference

- Black-box Model Access
- Masked Training Data
- Auxiliary Information

Is differential privacy alone sufficient to protect PII?

Security Games for PII Leakage

Algorithm 8 Sentence-level MI (lines enclosed in solid box) vs. PII Inference (lines enclosed in dashed box).

```

1: experiment IND-INFERENCE( $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{A}$ )
2:    $b \sim \{0, 1\}$ 
3:    $D \sim \mathcal{D}^n$ 
4:    $\theta \leftarrow \mathcal{T}(D)$ 
5:    $S_0 \sim D$ 
6:    $S_1 \sim \mathcal{D}$ 
7:    $\tilde{b} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{O}_\theta(\cdot), S_b)$ 
8:    $S \sim \{S \in D \mid \text{EXTRACT}(S) \neq \emptyset\}$ 
9:    $C_0 \sim \text{EXTRACT}(S)$ 
10:   $C_1 \sim \mathcal{E}$ 
11:   $\tilde{b} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{O}_\theta(\cdot), \text{SCRUB}(\text{SPLIT}(S, C_0), C_1))$ 

```

Algorithm 5 PII Reconstruction Game

```

1: experiment RECONSTRUCTION( $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{A}$ )
2:    $D \sim \mathcal{D}^n$ 
3:    $\theta \leftarrow \mathcal{T}(D)$ 
4:    $S \sim \{S \in D \mid \text{EXTRACT}(S) \neq \emptyset\}$ 
5:    $C \sim \text{EXTRACT}(S)$ 
6:    $\tilde{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{O}_\theta(\cdot), \text{SCRUB}(\text{SPLIT}(S, C)))$ 

```

Algorithm 2 PII Extraction

```

1: experiment EXTRACTION( $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{A}$ )
2:    $D \sim \mathcal{D}^n$ 
3:    $\theta \leftarrow \mathcal{T}(D)$ 
4:    $\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \bigcup_{S \in D} \text{EXTRACT}(S)$ 
5:    $\tilde{\mathcal{C}} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{O}_\theta(\cdot), \mathcal{C})$ 
1: procedure  $\mathcal{O}_\theta(S)$ 
2:   return  $\{w \mapsto \Pr(w \mid S; \theta)\}_{w \in \mathcal{V}}$ 

```

Algorithm 7 PII Inference Game

```

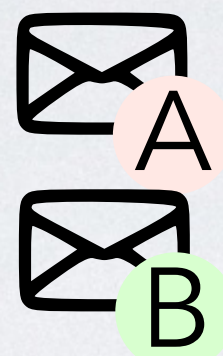
1: experiment INFERENCE( $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, m, \mathcal{A}$ )
2:    $D \sim \mathcal{D}^n$ 
3:    $\theta \leftarrow \mathcal{T}(D)$ 
4:    $S \sim \{S \in D \mid \text{EXTRACT}(S) \neq \emptyset\}$ 
5:    $C \sim \text{EXTRACT}(S)$ 
6:    $\mathcal{C} \sim \mathcal{E}^m$ 
7:    $\tilde{\mathcal{C}} \leftarrow \mathcal{C} \cup \{C\}$ 
8:    $\tilde{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D}, n, \mathcal{O}_\theta(\cdot), \text{SCRUB}(\text{SPLIT}(S, C), \mathcal{C}))$ 

```


Setup

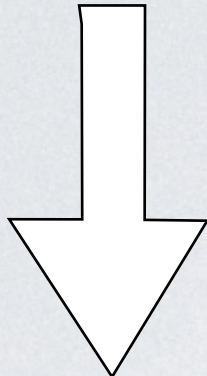
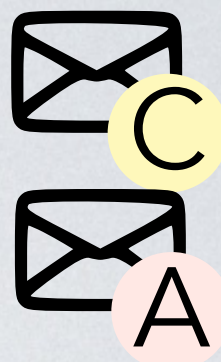
Training Dataset

John Doe is a doctor in London
John Doe lives on Sunset Street



Testing Dataset

John is a doctor from Sunset Street
John Doe works in London

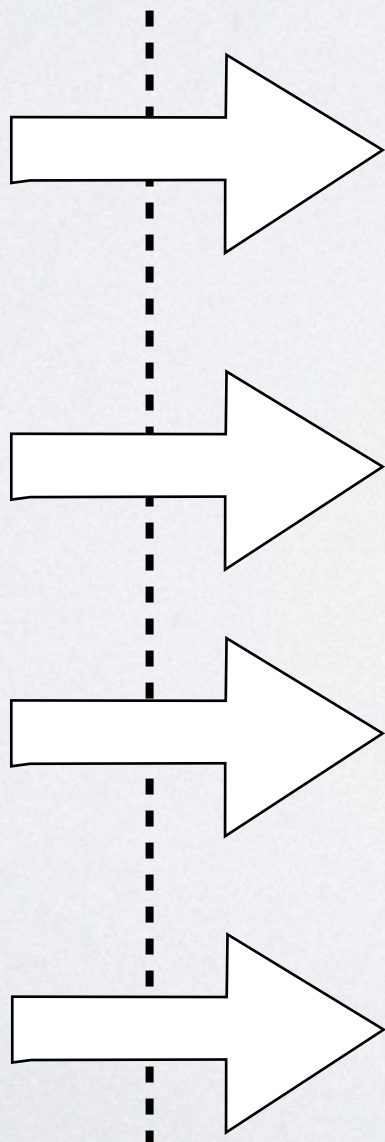
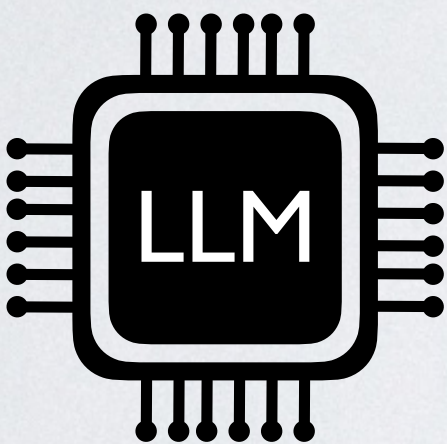


Training Procedure

1. No Defense
2. DP
3. Scrubbing
4. DP & Scrubbing

1. Small
2. Medium
3. Large
4. XL

1. Enron
2. Yelp-Health
3. ECHR



PII Extraction

PII Reconstruction

PII Inference

Membership Inference

[MASK] lives on Sunset Street



[MASK] lives on Sunset Street



John Doe or Joe Peric

Datasets with many Detectable PII

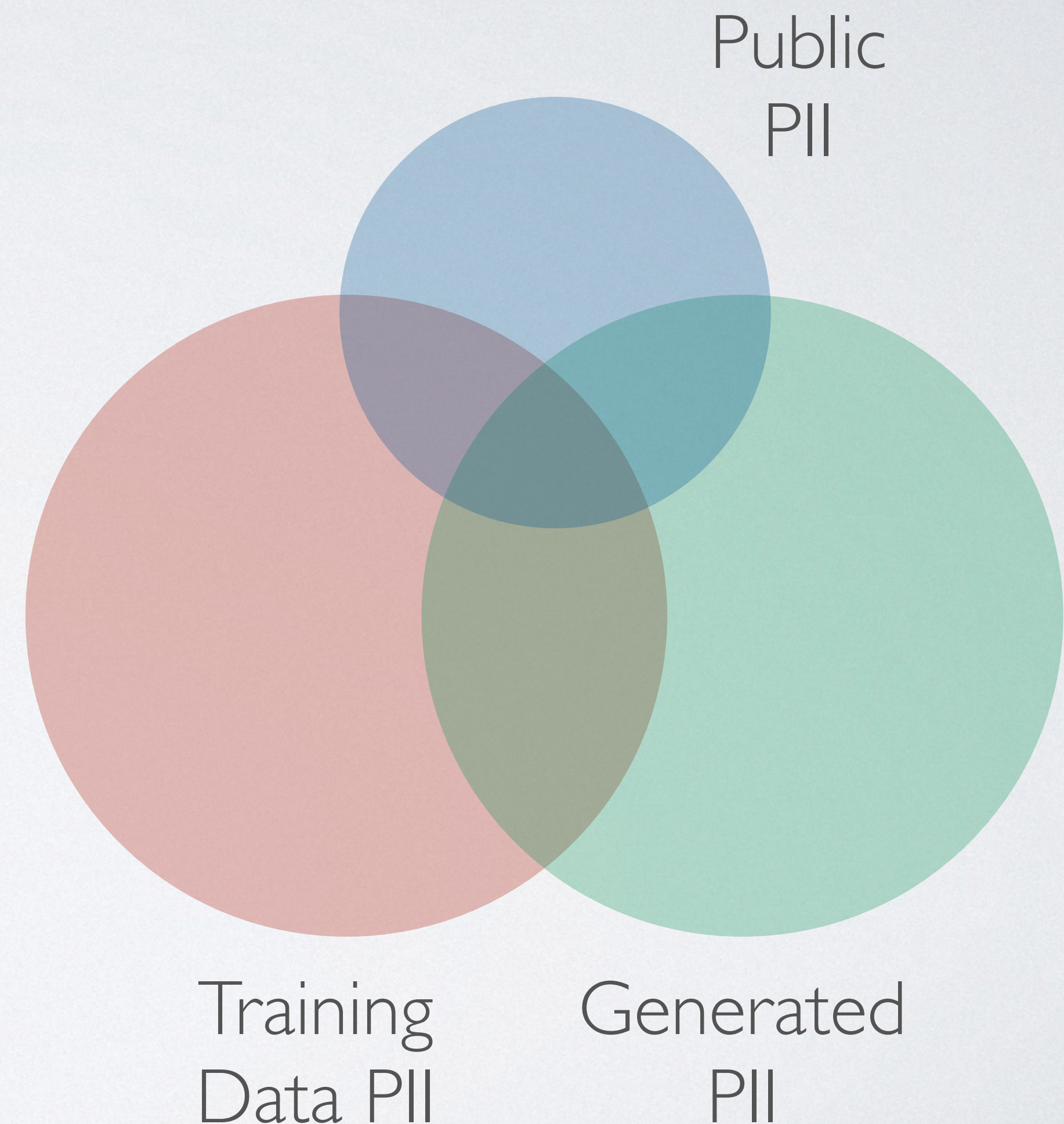
	Records	Tokens / Record	Unique PII	Records w. PII	Duplicates / PII	Tokens / PII
ECHR	118 161	88.12	16 133	23.75%	4.66	4.00
Enron	138 919	346.10	105 880	81.45%	11.68	3.00
Yelp-Health	78 794	143.92	17 035	54.55%	5.35	2.17

ECHR - European Court for Human Rights
Enron - Corporate e-mails
Yelp-Health - Reviews for healthcare facilities

Extraction Attack

🏆 Goal: Extract PII from Training data with no auxiliary information

1. Generate N sequences with the model
2. Tag PII generated by the model
3. Calculate Precision & Recall



Reconstruction Attack



Goal: Reconstruct PII
given a masked sentence
From the training data

Real Sentence

In early September 2023 [MASK] wrote in his
memoir that he had again developed pneumonia.

Naïve Attack

Naïve attack ignores the suffix

Prompt

In early September 2023

Language
Model

Generated

a group of people went to a conference.

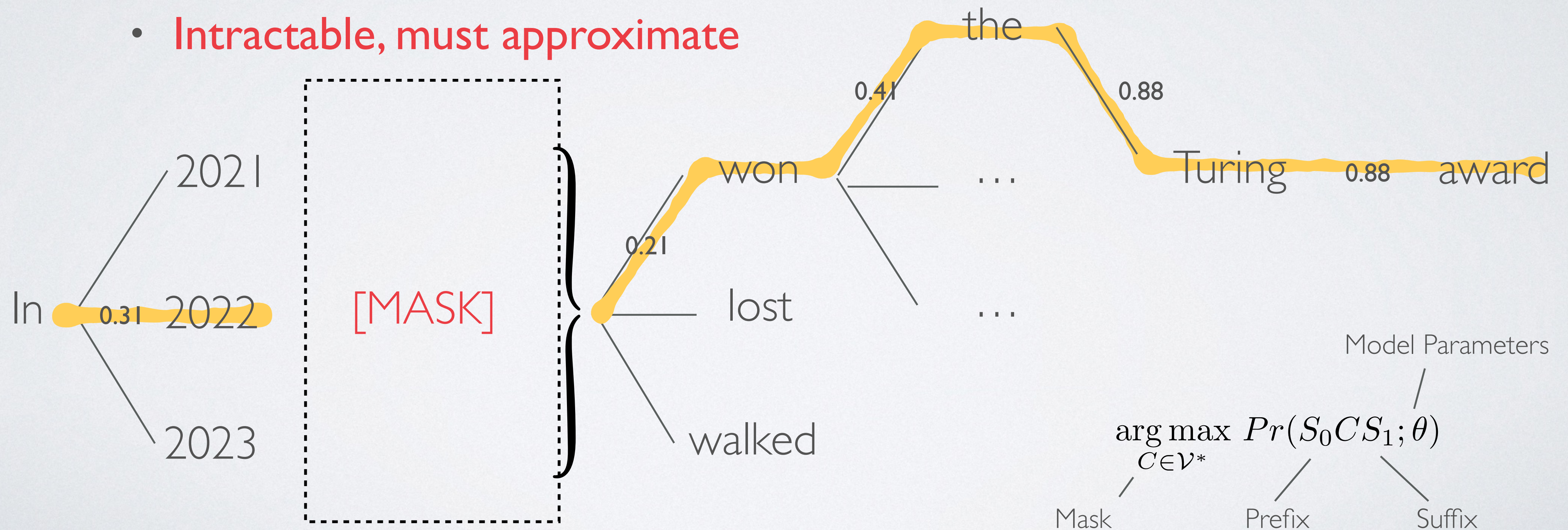
Reconstruction Attack Intuition

🏆 Goal: Reconstruct PII given a masked sentence
From the training data

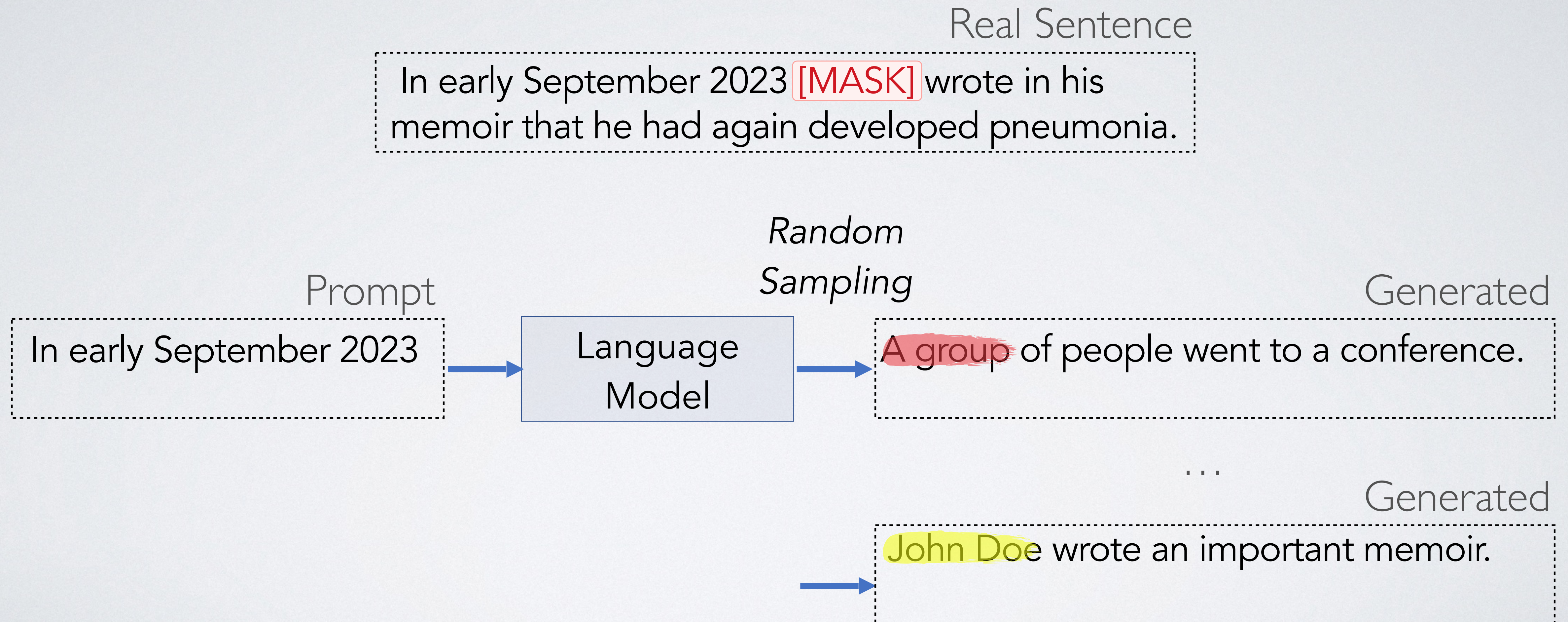
Real Sentence

In 2022 [MASK] won the Turing award.

- Unknown # tokens
- Intractable, must approximate



Reconstruction Attack



Reconstruction Attack

Real Sentence

In early September 2023 [MASK] wrote in his memoir that he had again developed pneumonia.

Generated

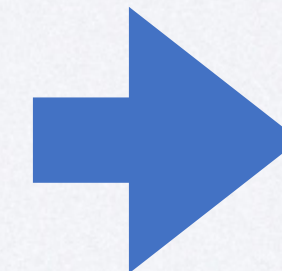
A group of people went to a conference.

...

Generated

John Doe wrote an important memoir.

Tag PII



Tag PII & Construct
Candidate Set

John Doe,
Jane Doe
Teo Peric

Reconstruction Attack

Real Sentence

In early September 2023 [MASK] wrote in his memoir that he had again developed pneumonia.

Prompt

In early September 2023
John Doe wrote ...

Language
Model

Perplexity

1.11

Prompt

In early September 2023
Jane Doe wrote ...

Language
Model

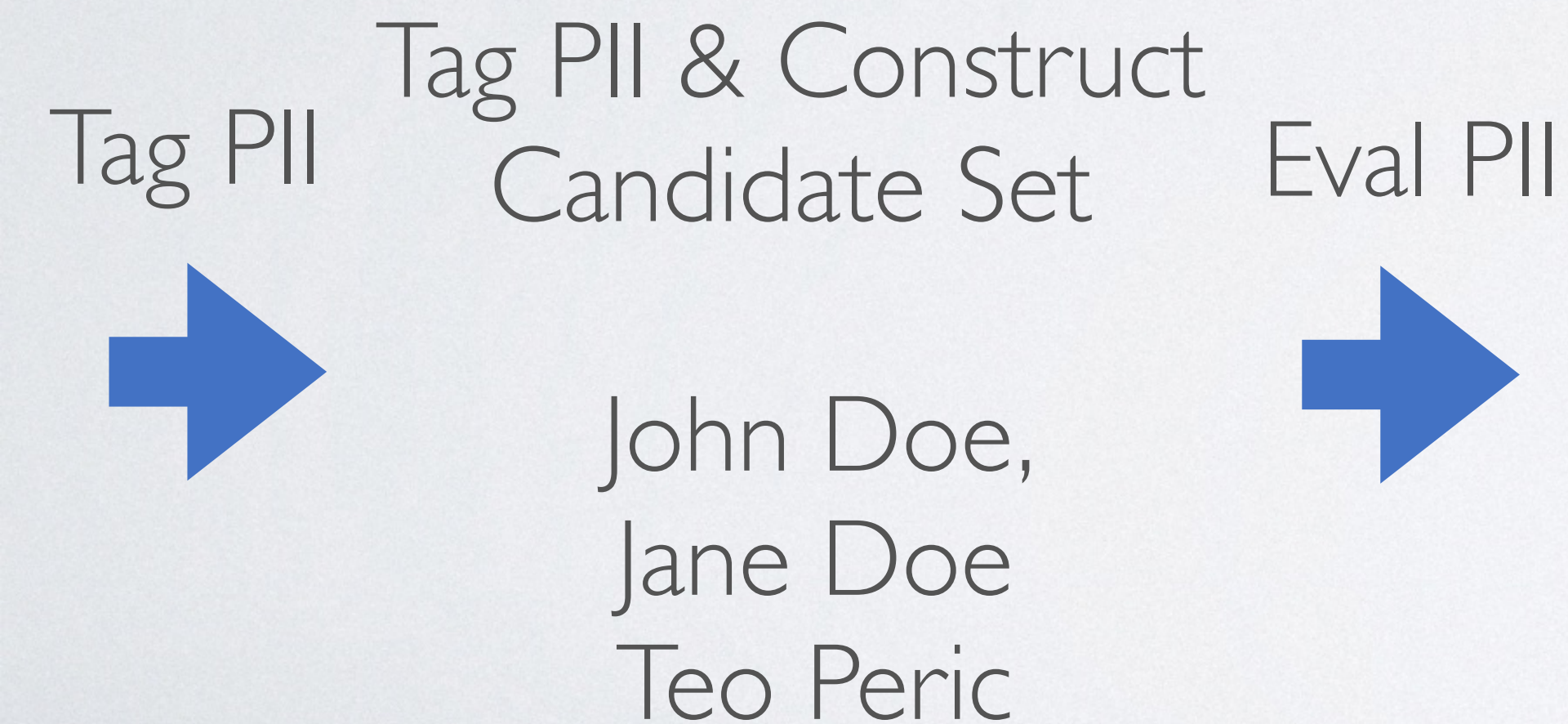
1.64.

Prompt

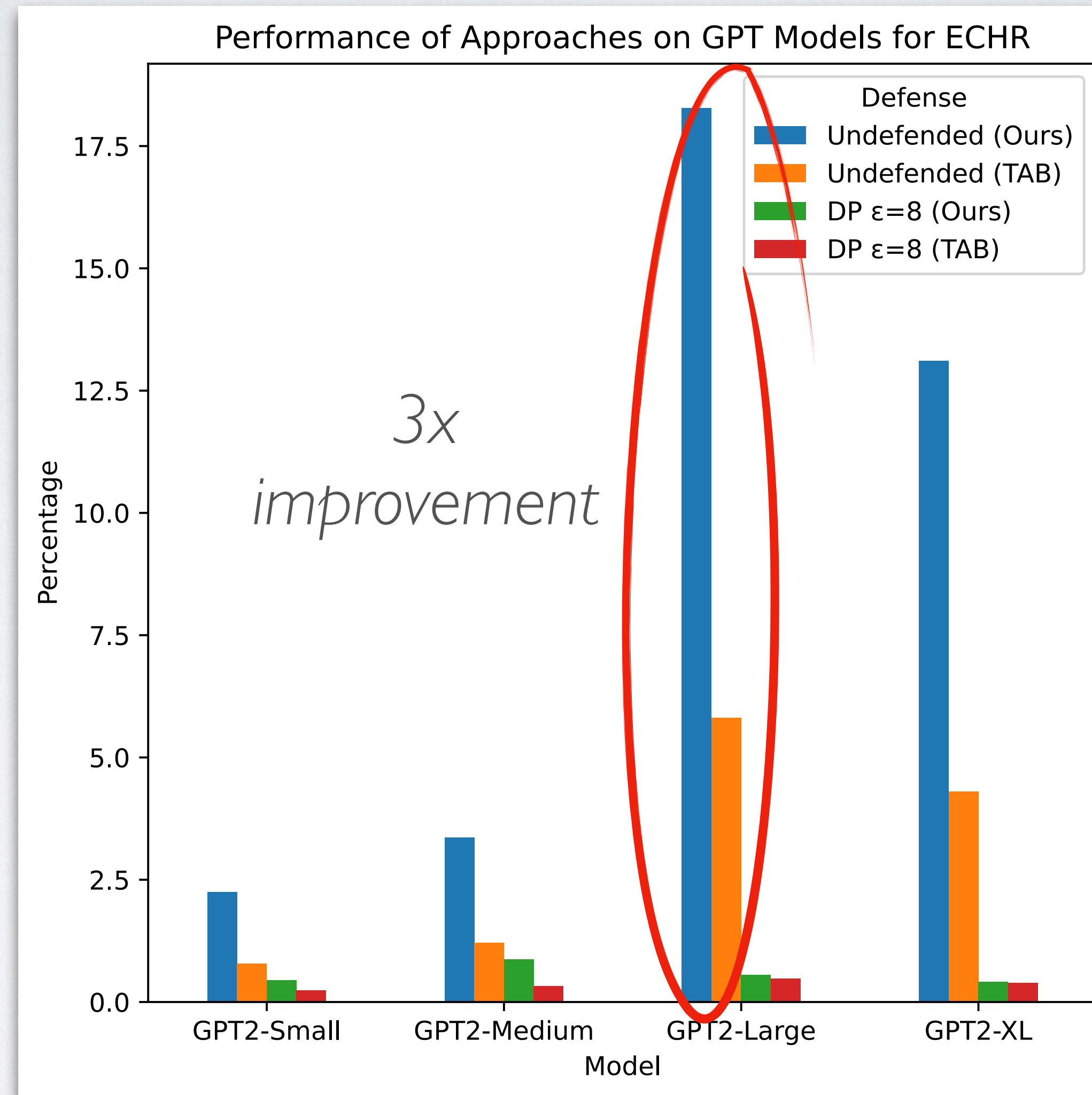
In early September 2023
Teo Peric wrote ...

Language
Model

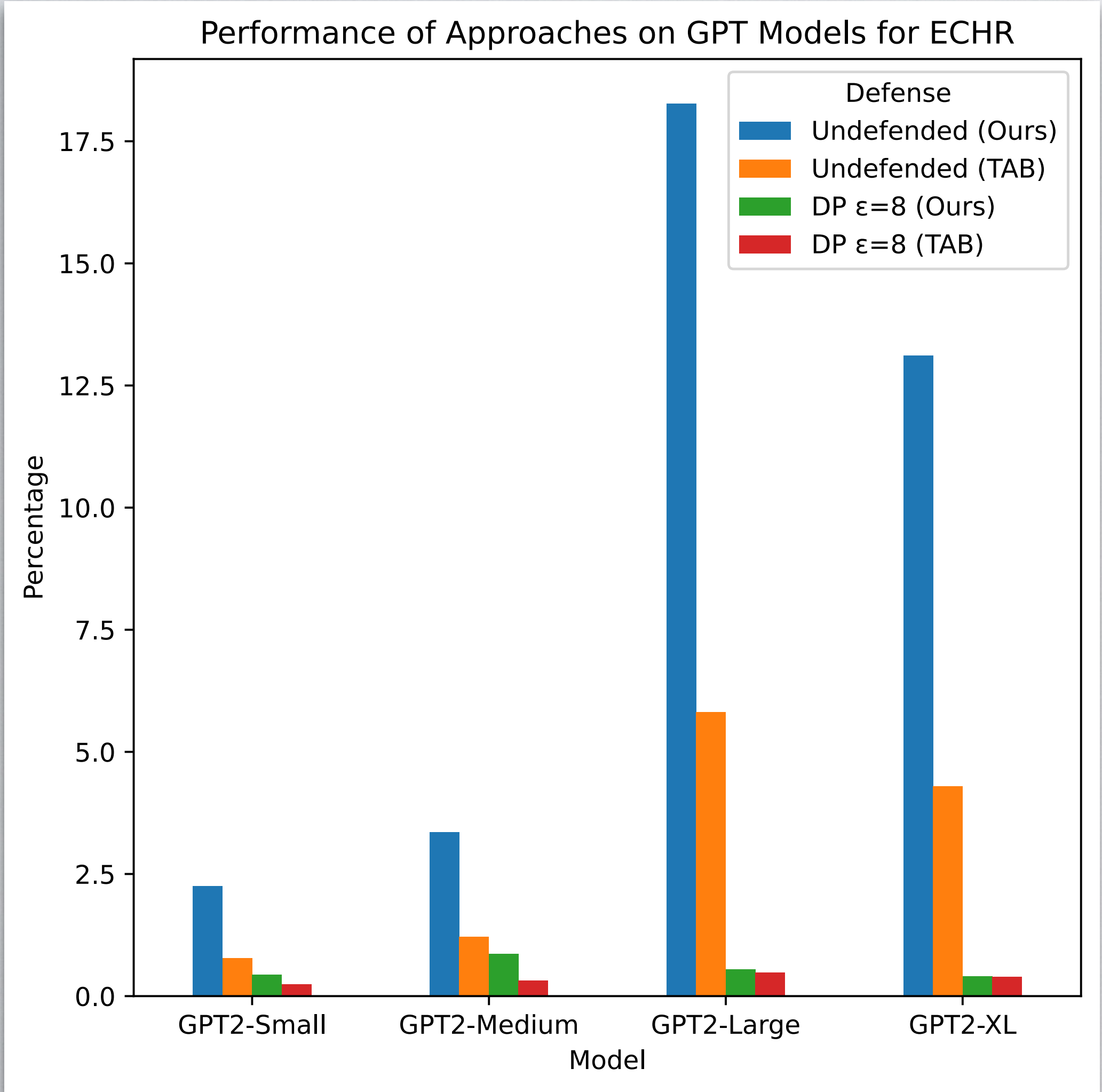
2.64.



PII Reconstruction



PII Reconstruction



	GPT2-Small		GPT2-Medium		GPT2-Large		GPT2-XL	
	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$
ECHR(TAB)	0.78%	0.24%	1.21%	0.32%	5.81%	0.48%	4.30%	0.39%
ECHR (Ours, $ \mathcal{C} = 64$)	2.25%	0.44%	3.36%	0.87%	18.27%	0.55%	13.11%	0.41%
Enron (TAB)	0.59%	0.04%	0.67%	0.04%	1.75%	0.04%	2.19%	0.19%
Enron (Ours, $ \mathcal{C} = 64$)	6.29%	0.49%	7.26%	0.52%	12.68%	0.55%	15.25%	0.53%
Yelp-Health (TAB)	0.33%	0.24%	0.37%	0.14%	0.65%	0.12%	1.99%	0.12%
Yelp-Health (Ours, $ \mathcal{C} = 64$)	0.42%	0.32%	1.31%	0.32%	1.69%	0.35%	6.40%	0.36%

up to 7x
Improvement

PII Inference

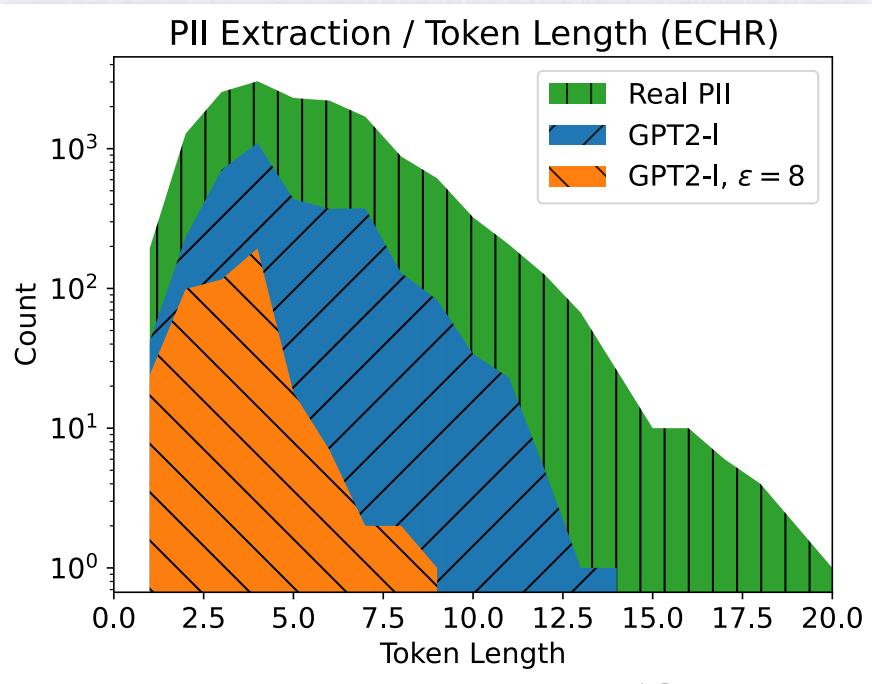
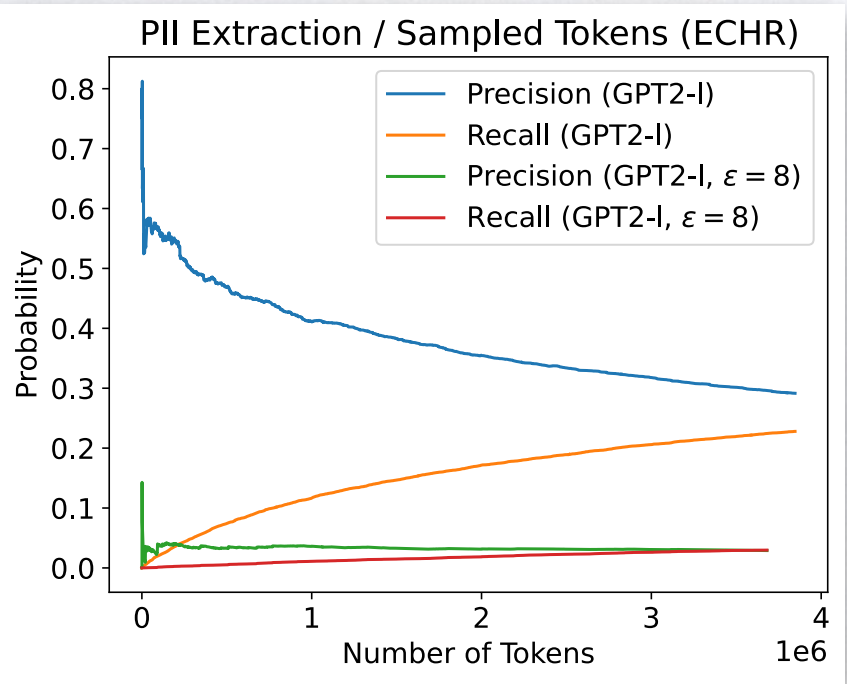
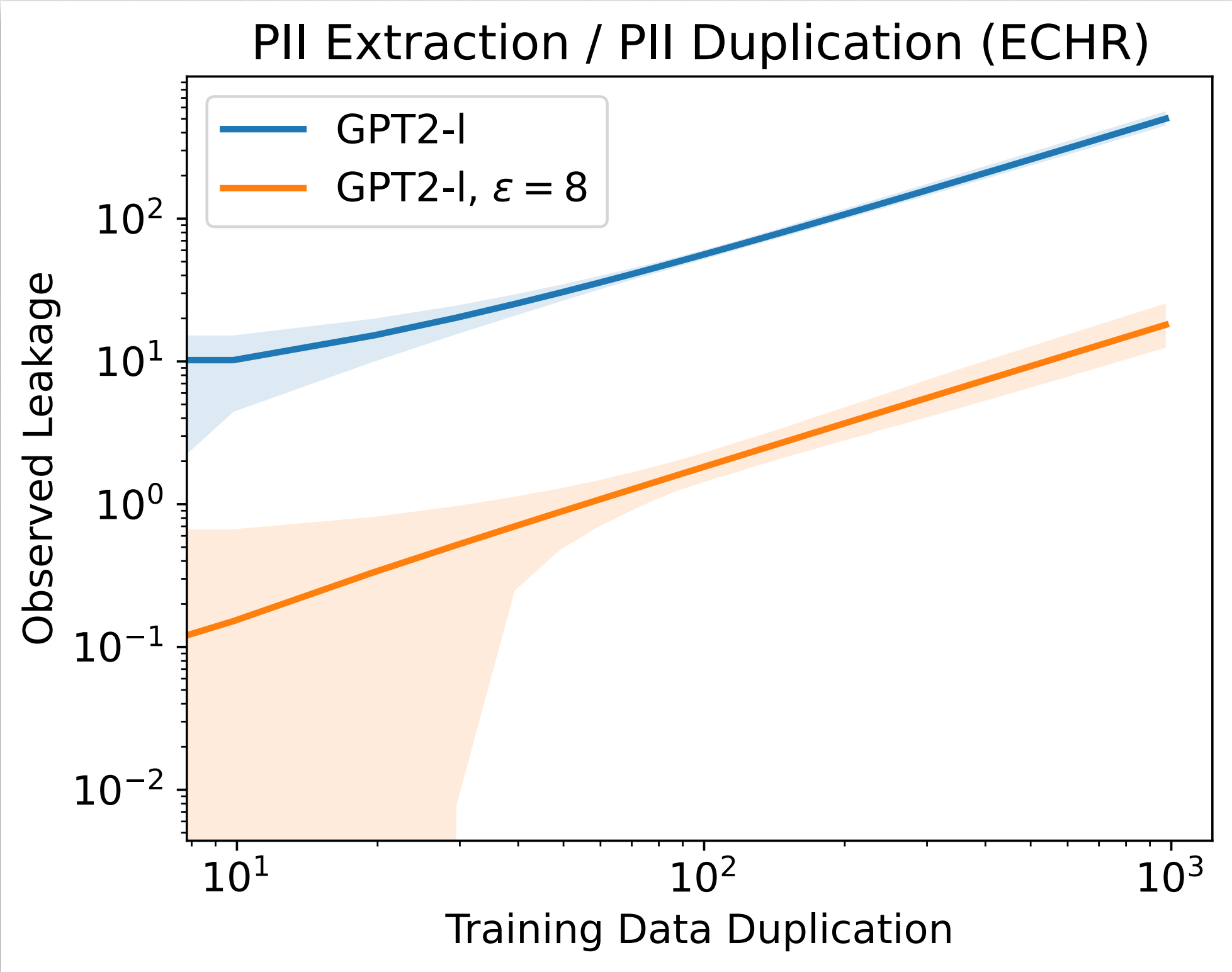
🏆 Goal: Infer PII given
a masked sentence
from the training data
a set of PII candidates

	ECHR		Enron		Yelp-Health	
	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$
$ \mathcal{C} = 100$	70.11%	8.32%	50.50%	3.78%	28.31%	4.29%
$ \mathcal{C} = 500$	51.03%	3.71%	34.14%	1.92%	15.55%	1.86%

PII Extraction

Duplicated PII are
Extractable more often

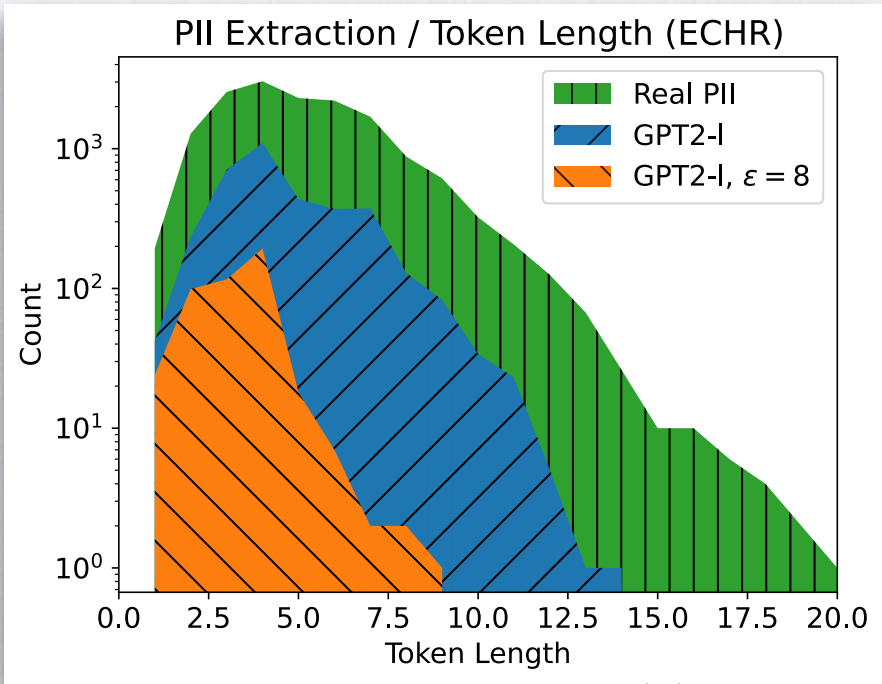
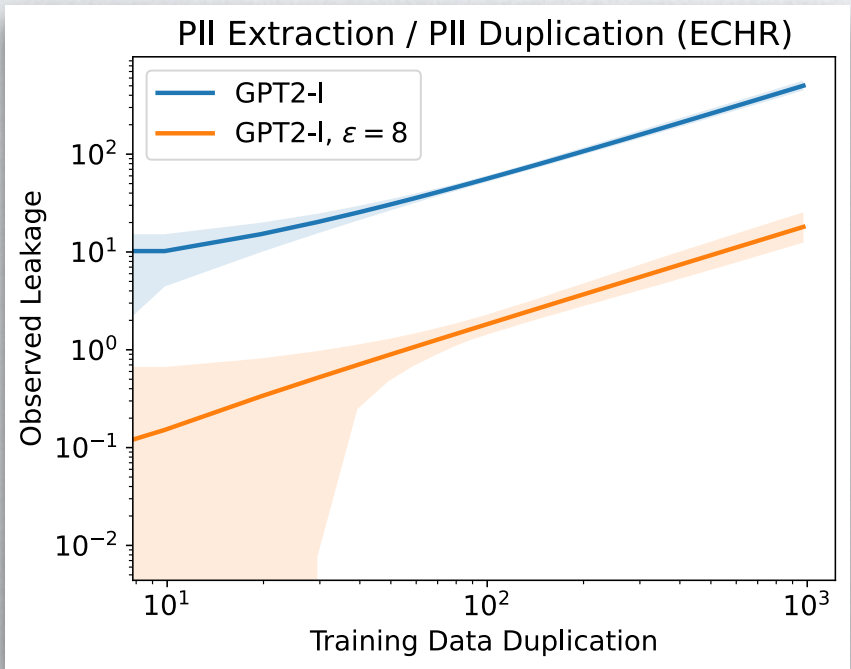
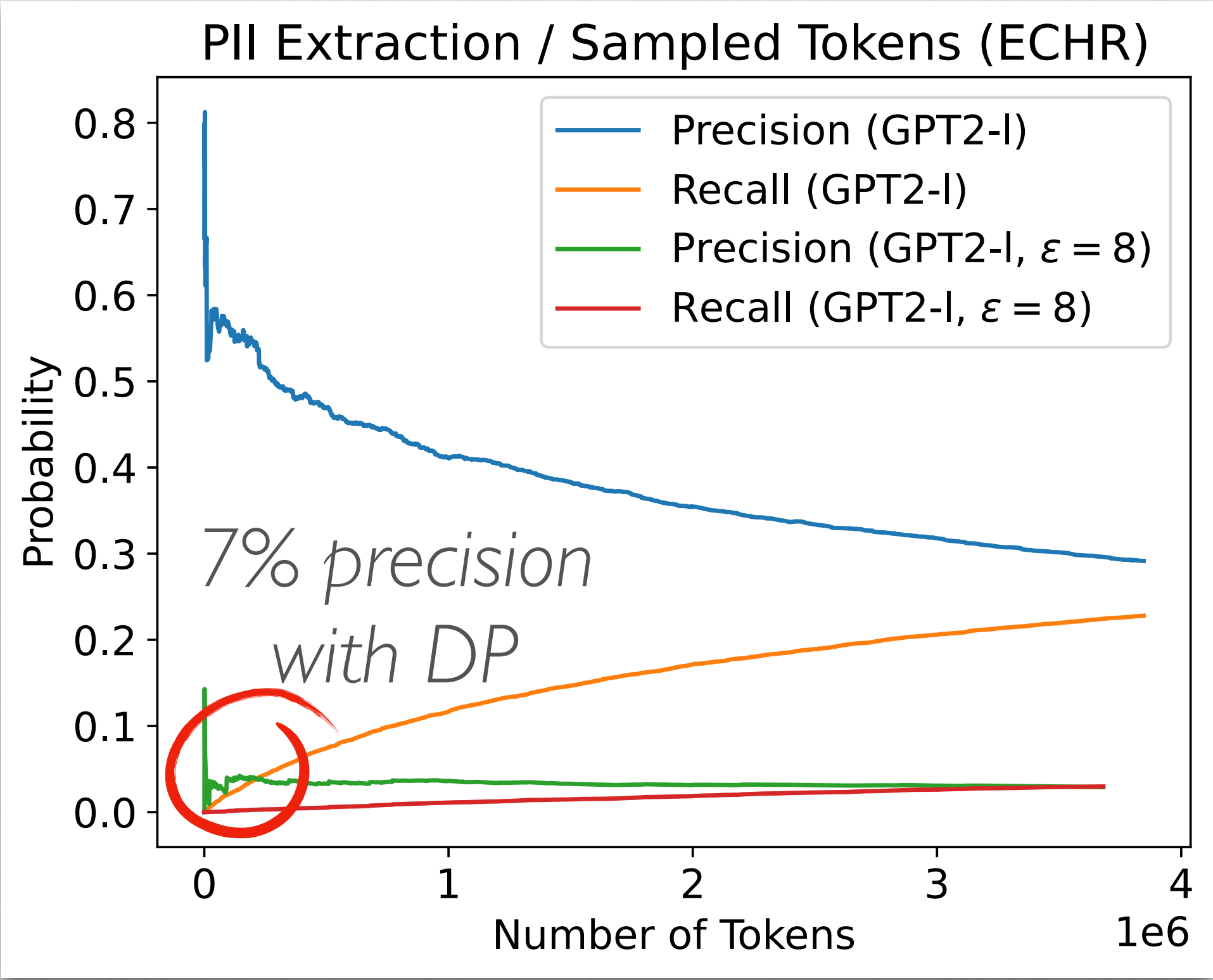
(Linear scaling)



	GPT2-Small		GPT2-Medium		GPT2-Large	
	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$
ECHR						
Prec	24.91%	2.90%	28.05%	3.02%	29.56%	2.92%
Recall	9.44%	2.98%	12.97%	3.21%	22.96%	2.98%
Enron						
Prec	33.86 %	9.37%	27.06%	12.05%	35.36%	11.57%
Recall	6.26%	2.29%	6.56%	2.07%	7.23%	2.31%
Yelp-Health						
Prec	13.86%	8.31%	14.87%	6.32%	14.28%	7.67%
Recall	11.31%	5.02%	11.23%	5.22%	13.63%	6.51%

PII Extraction

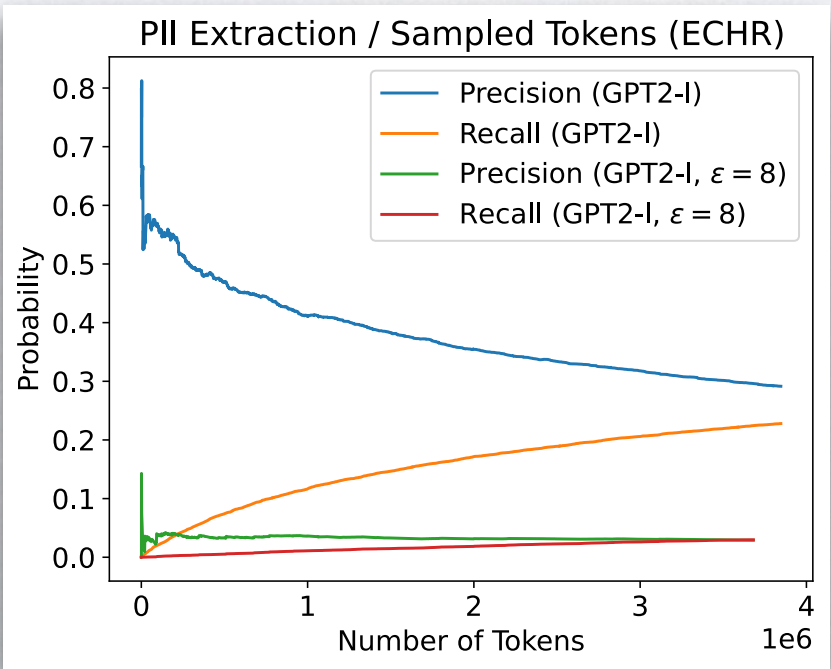
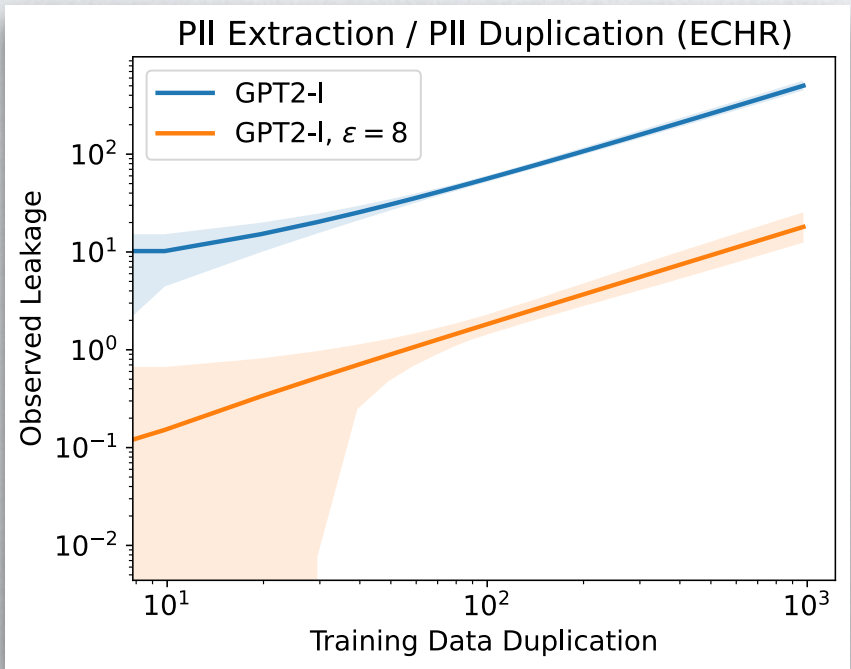
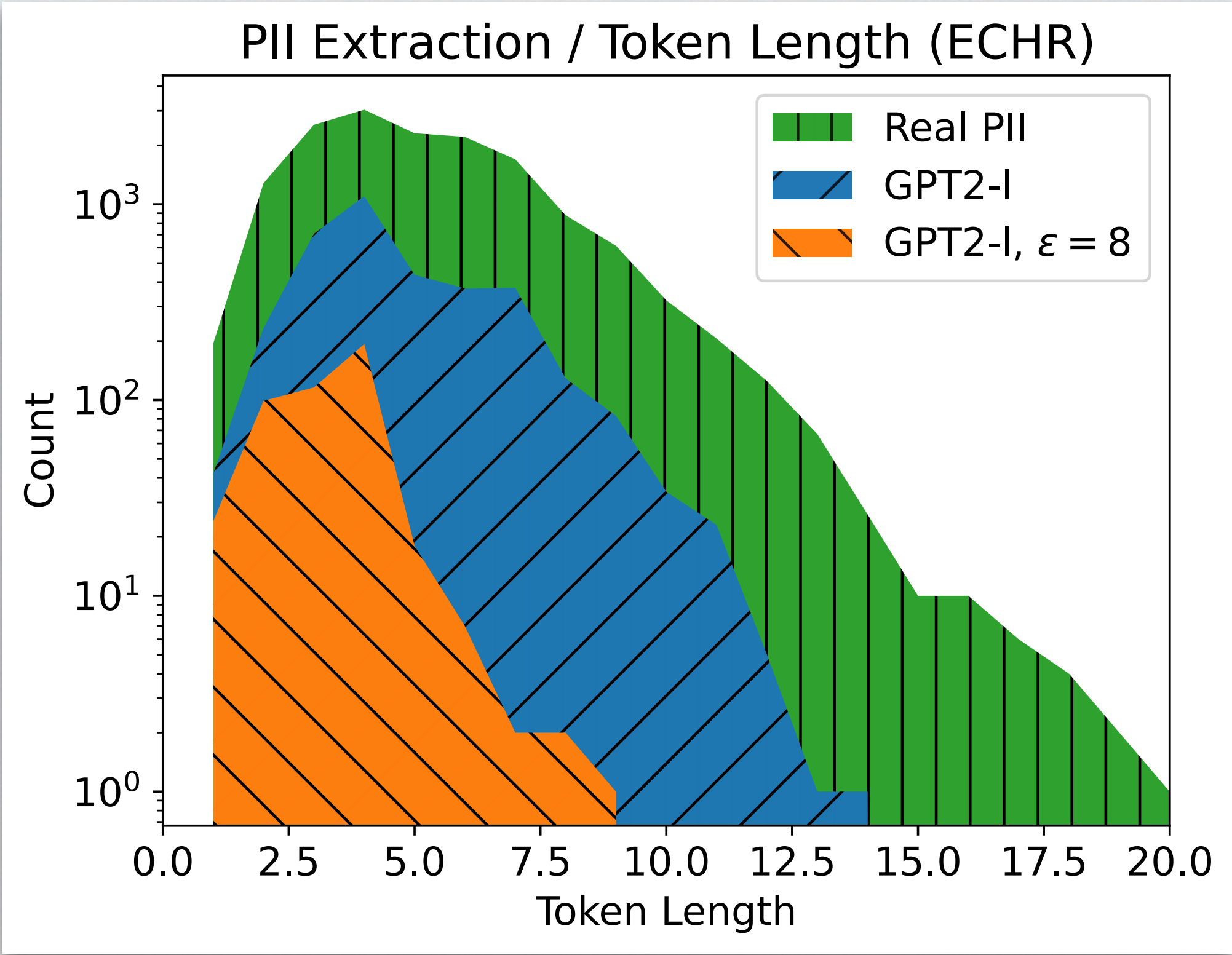
High-precision/
Low-recall attacks



	GPT2-Small		GPT2-Medium		GPT2-Large	
	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$
ECHR						
Prec	24.91%	2.90%	28.05%	3.02%	29.56%	2.92%
Recall	9.44%	2.98%	12.97%	3.21%	22.96%	2.98%
Enron						
Prec	33.86 %	9.37%	27.06%	12.05%	35.36%	11.57%
Recall	6.26%	2.29%	6.56%	2.07%	7.23%	2.31%
Yelp-Health						
Prec	13.86%	8.31%	14.87%	6.32%	14.28%	7.67%
Recall	11.31%	5.02%	11.23%	5.22%	13.63%	6.51%

PII Extraction

PII with many tokens
are protected in DP models

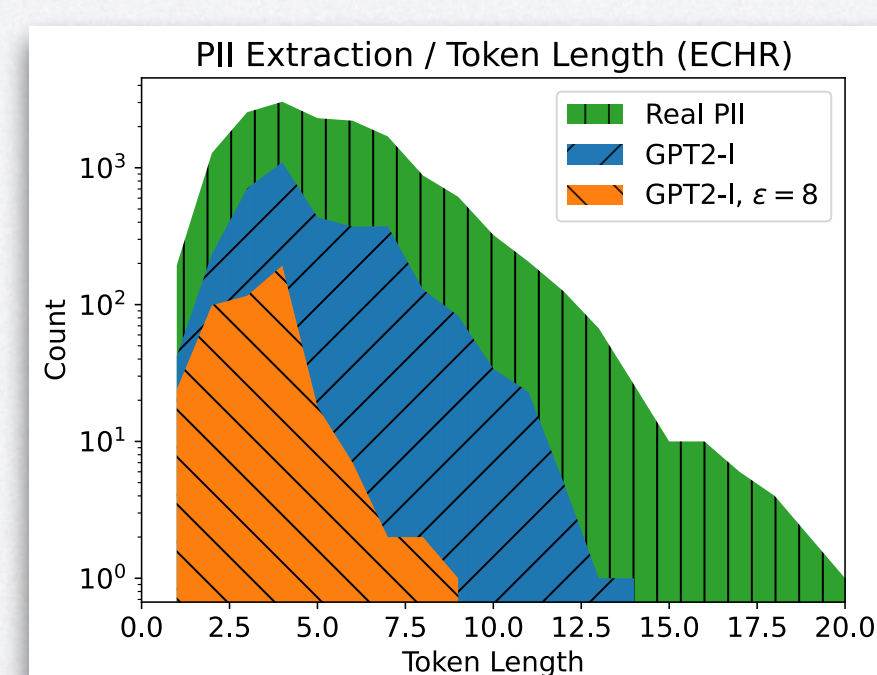
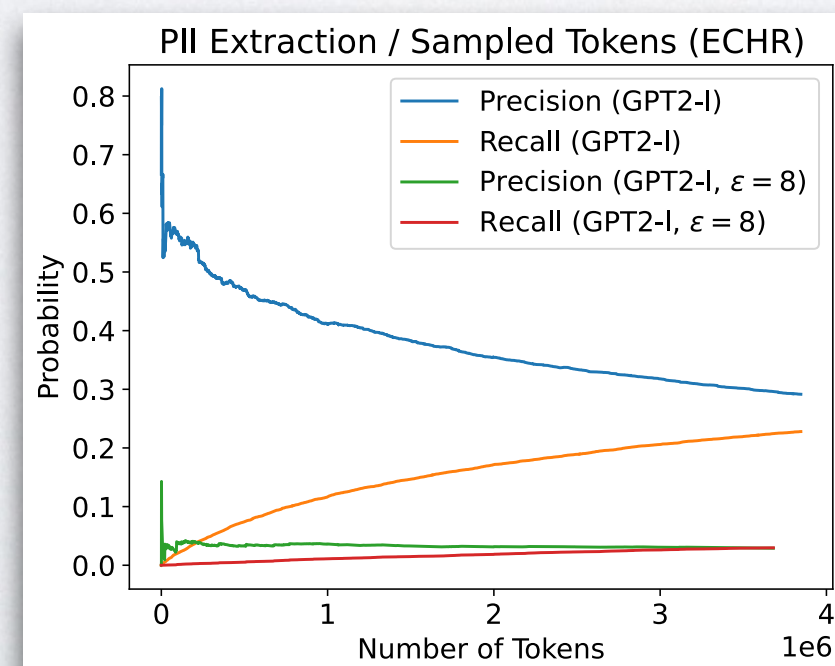
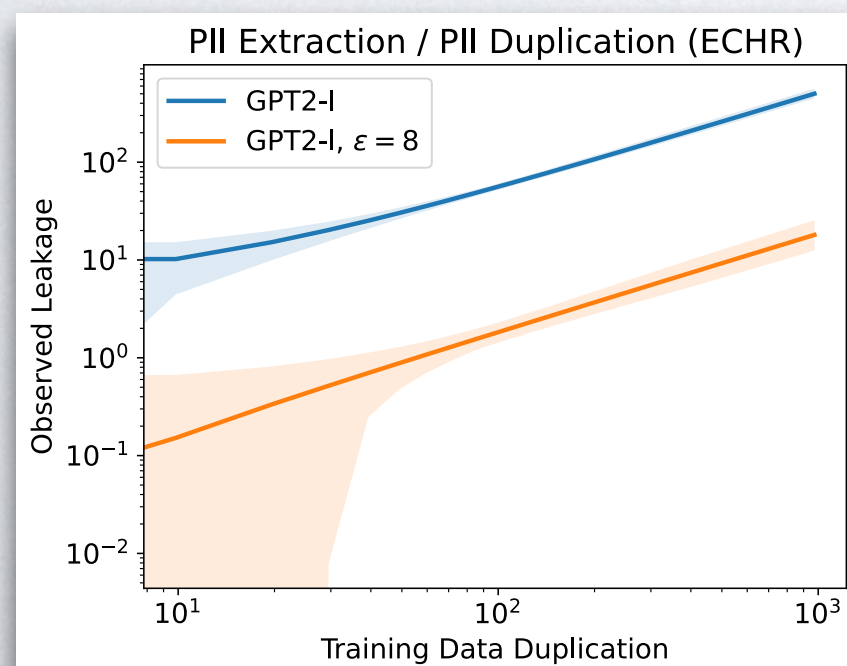


	GPT2-Small		GPT2-Medium		GPT2-Large	
	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$
ECHR						
Prec	24.91%	2.90%	28.05%	3.02%	29.56%	2.92%
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PII Extraction

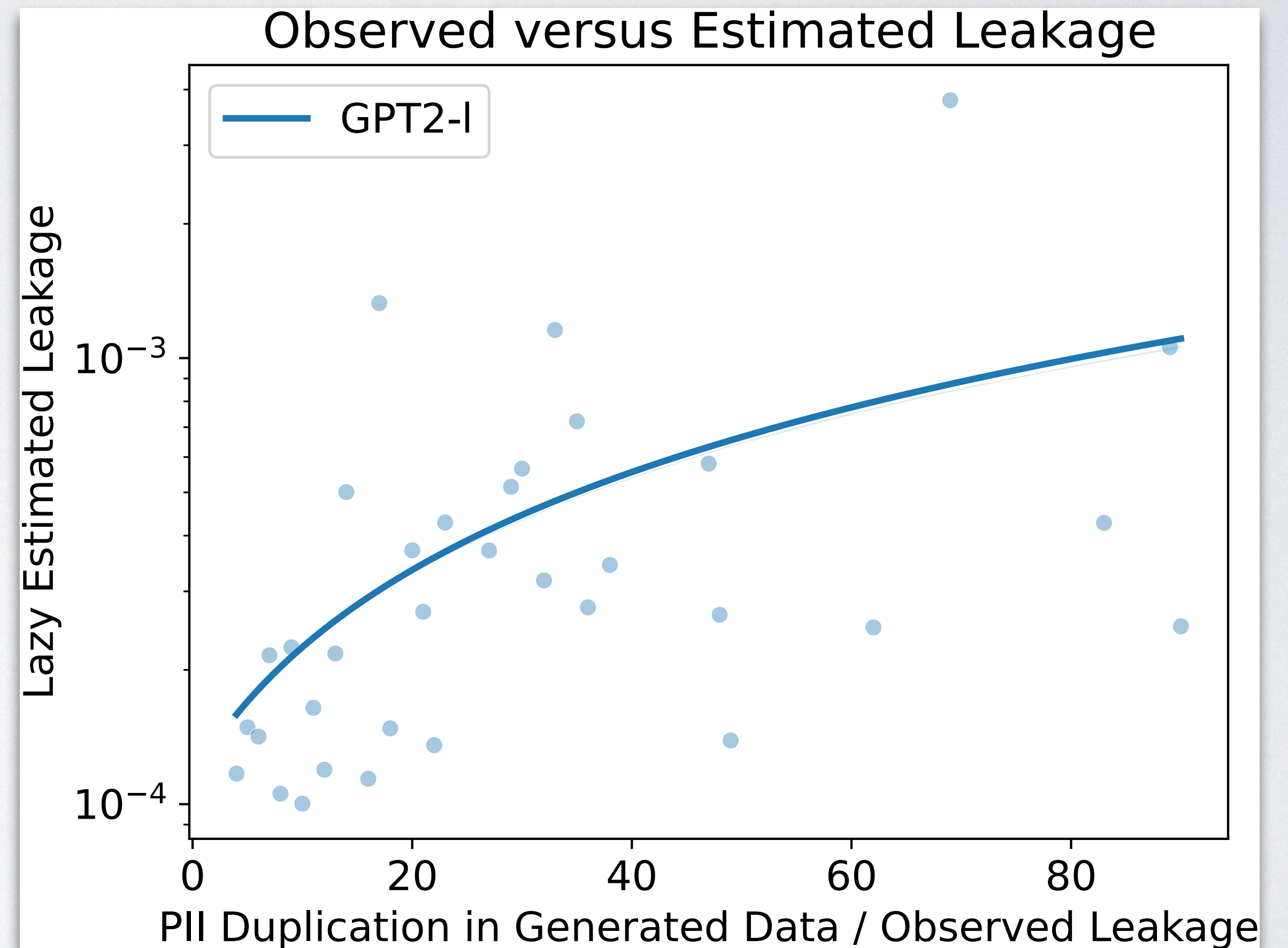
Higher recall in larger models

	GPT2-Small		GPT2-Medium		GPT2-Large	
	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$	No DP	$\epsilon = 8$
ECHR						
Prec	24.91%	2.90%	28.05%	3.02%	29.56%	2.92%
Recall	9.44%	2.98%	12.97%	3.21%	22.96%	2.98%
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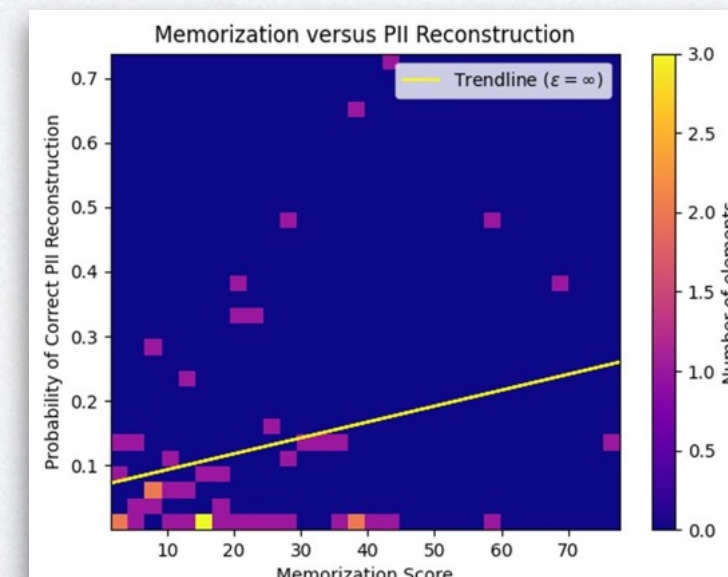
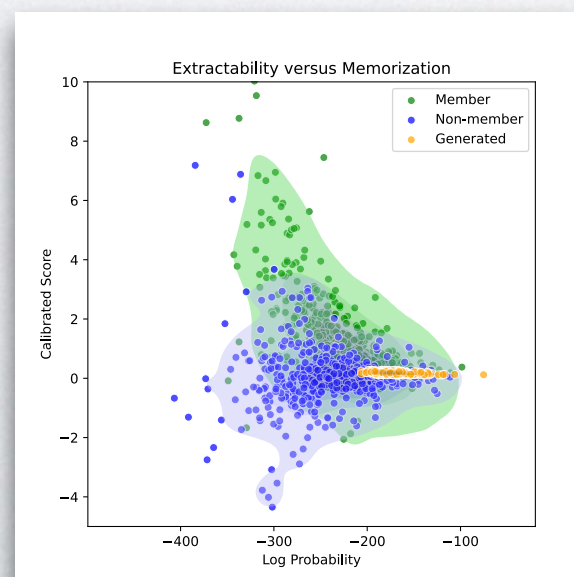
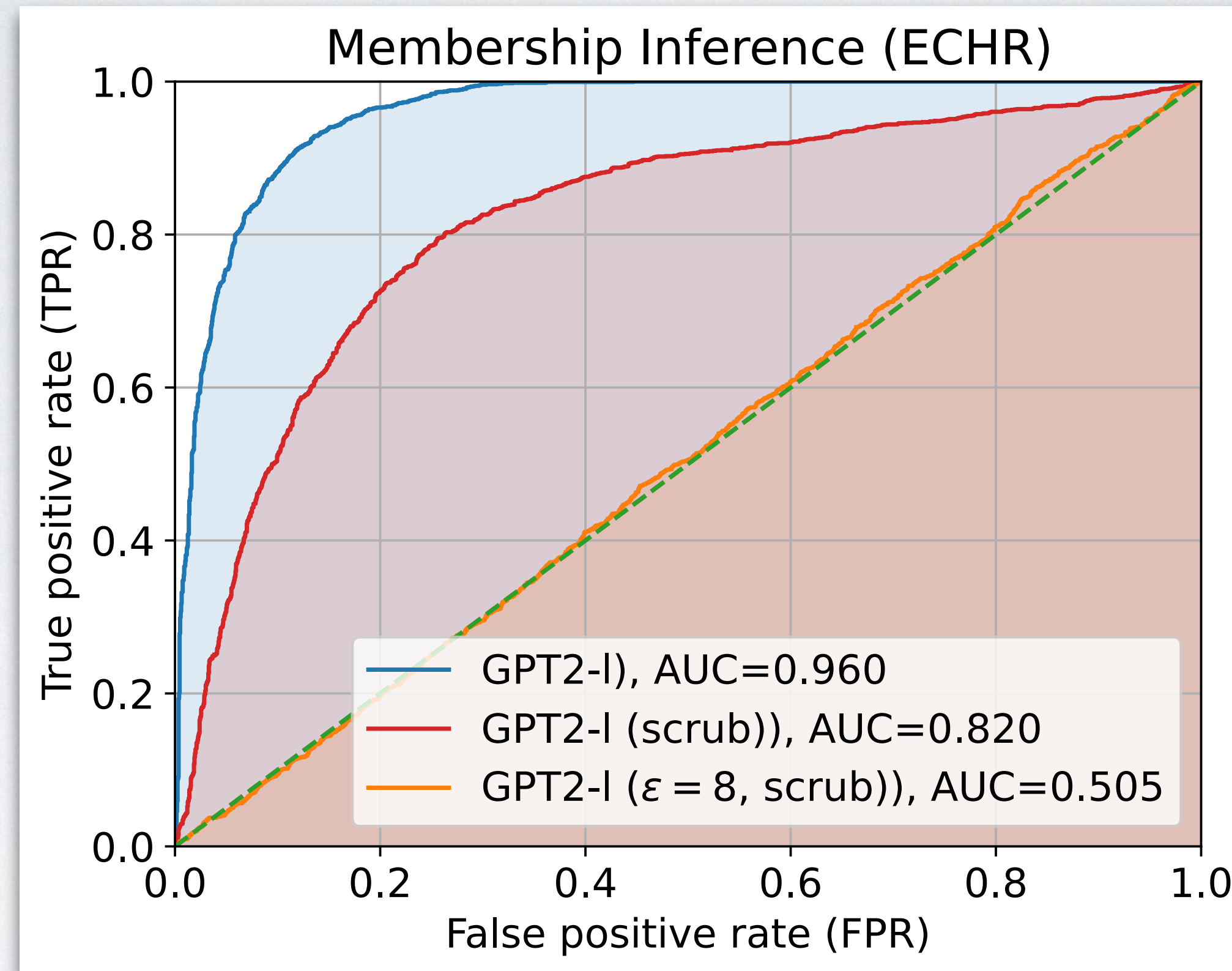
Estimating Extractability

Once upon a time, there existed a tale of two medical students. In the year 2022, they resided at Sunset Street while pursuing their medical education. Alongside his friend, he worked at the LHS Hospital located in the bustling heart of downtown London. Before donning their white coats, both **John Doe** and ...



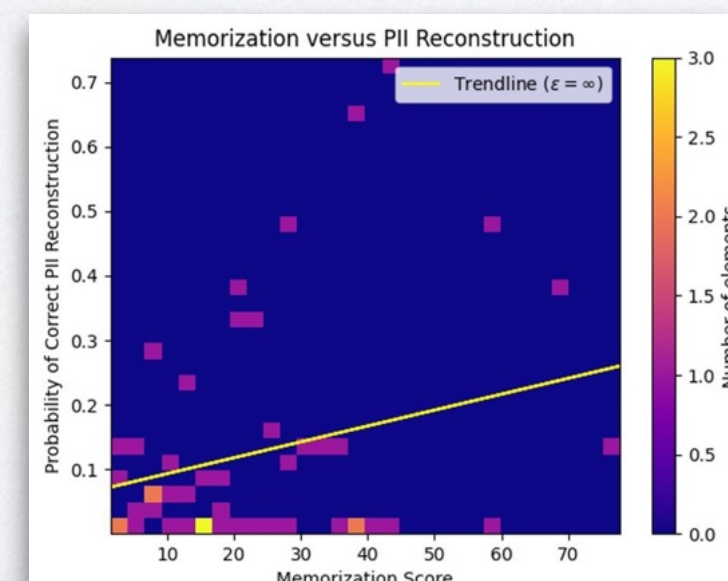
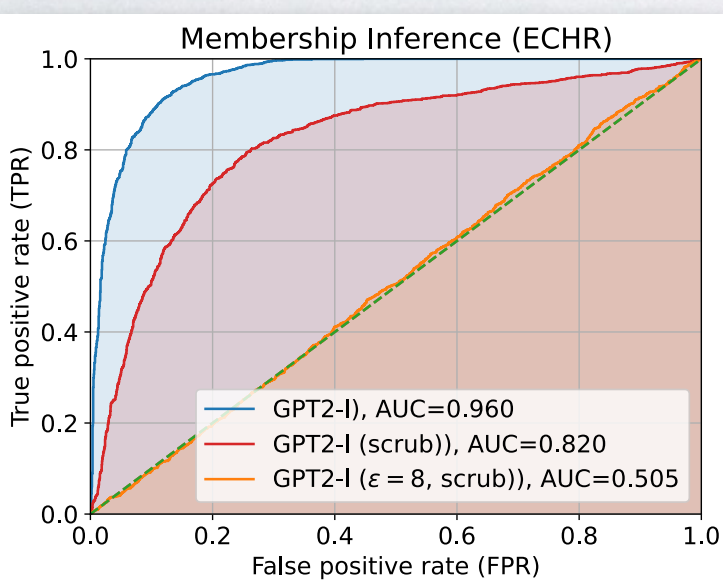
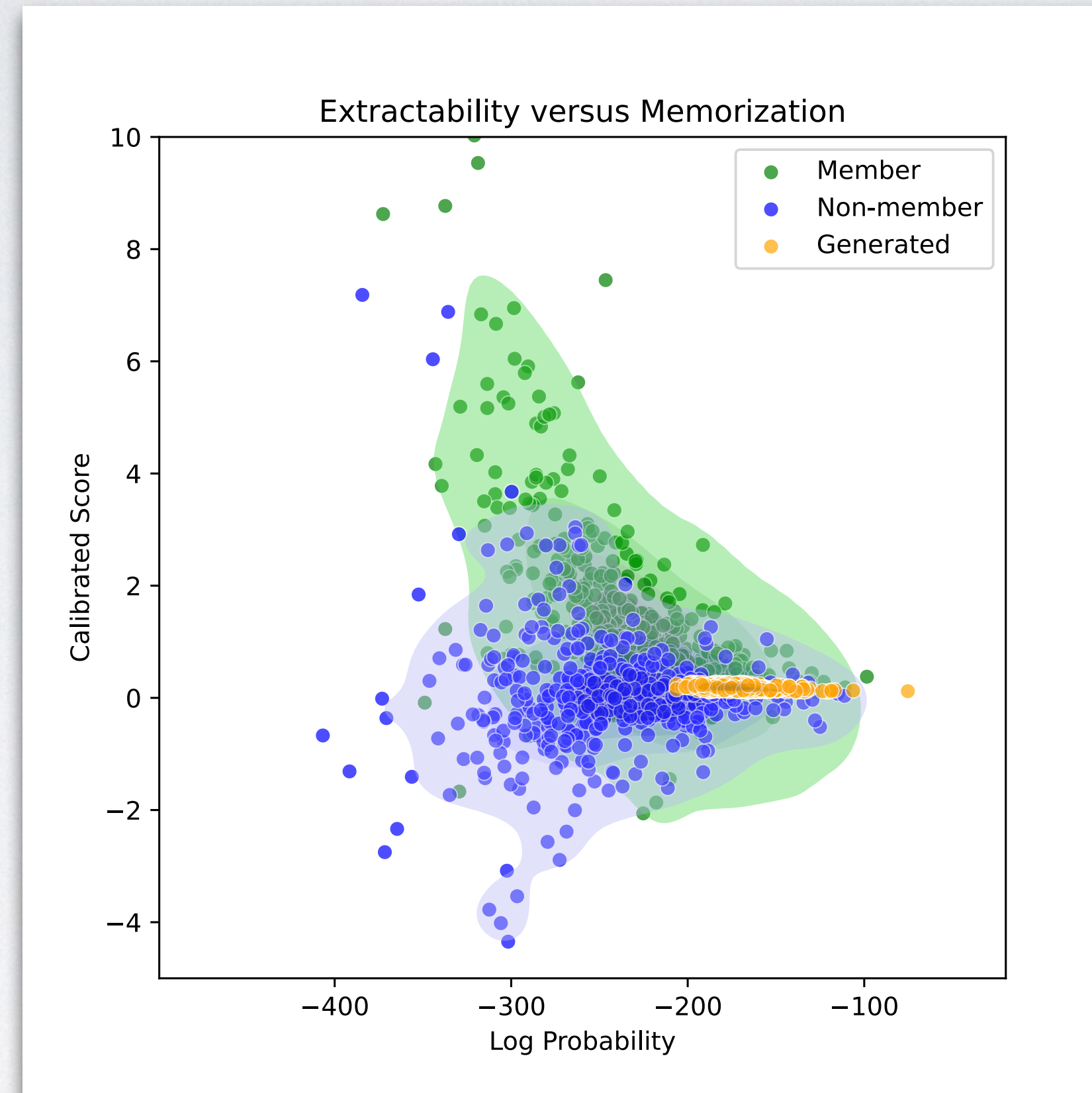
Membership Inference

Scrubbing does not prevent MI



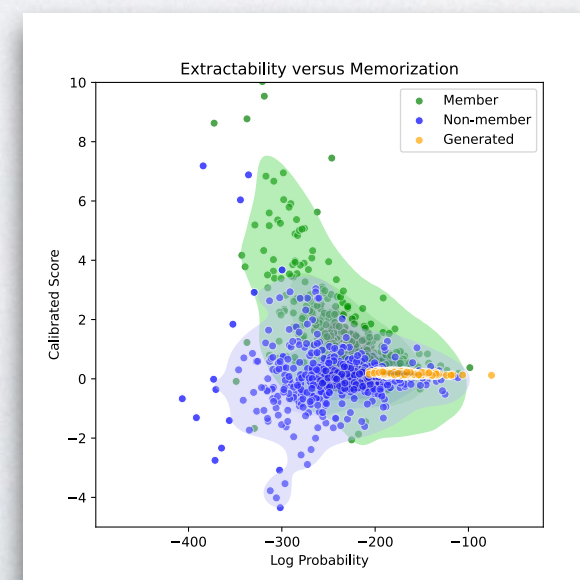
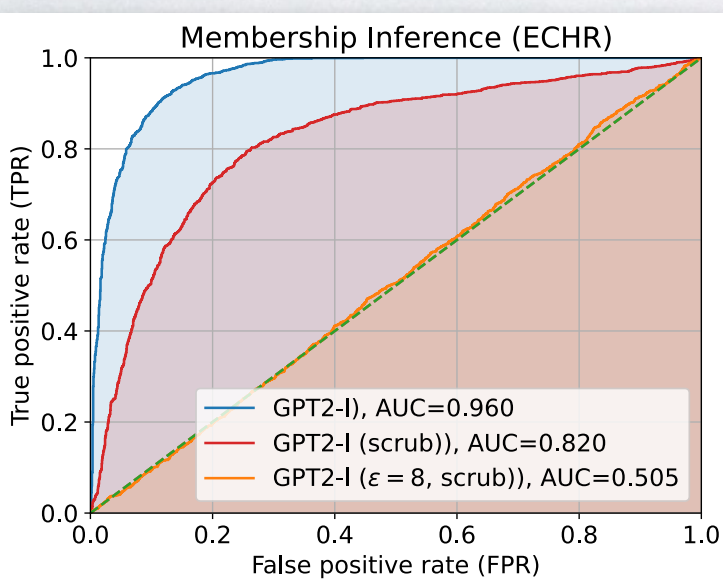
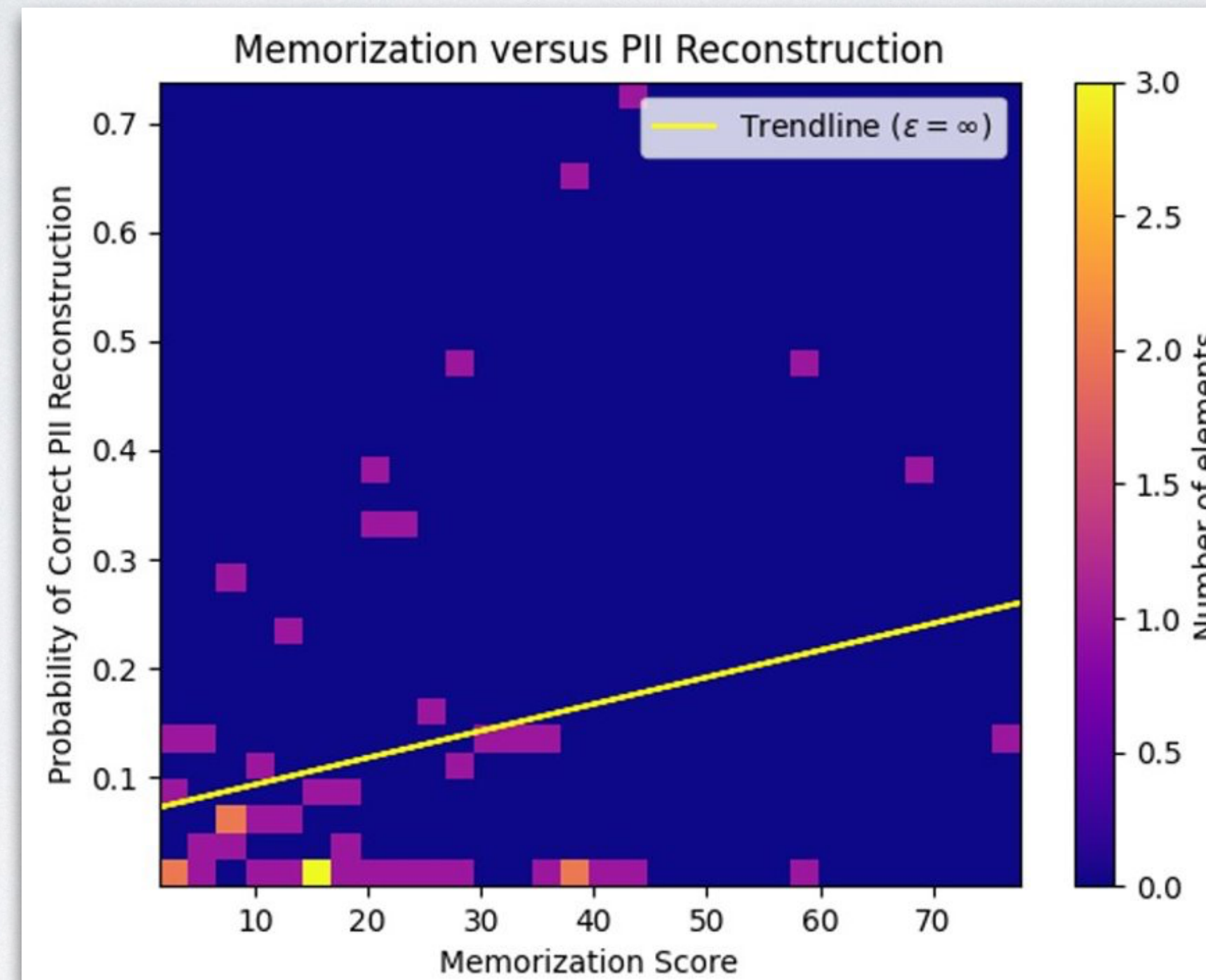
Membership Inference

Randomly generated sequences likely do not contain MI signal



Membership Inference & PII Reconstruction

MI correlates with
PII reconstruction



Summary of Results

Metric	Undefended	DP	Scrub	DP + Scrub
Test Perplexity	9	14 🔥	16 🔥	16 🔥
Extract Precision	30% 🔥	3%	0%	0%
Extract Recall	23% 🔥	3%	0%	0%
Reconstruction Acc.	18% 🔥	1%	0%	0%
Inference Acc. ($ C = 100$)	70% 🔥	8% 🔥	1%	1%
MI AUC	0.96 🔥	0.5	0.82 🔥	0.5

Limitations

- **(General Applicability)** We focus on fine-tuned **GPT-2** Language Models (0.12b to 1.7b parameters)
- **(Syntactic Similarity)** We consider only verbatim leakage (i.e., “John Doe” and “J. Doe” are different)
- **(PII Association)** Our *extraction* attacks study leakage in isolation (single PII, no association between PII)
- **(Need for better Benchmarks)** Our study is limited by the quality of the NER tools used;
Evaluating scrubbing methods requires large, annotated datasets

Outlook

We take a number of steps to reduce the risk that our models are used in a way that could violate a person's privacy rights. These include **fine-tuning models** to reject these types of requests, **removing personal information** from the training dataset where feasible, creating **automated model evaluations**, **monitoring** and responding to user attempts to generate this type of information, and restricting this type of use in our **terms and policies**. Our efforts to expand context length and improve embedding models for retrieval may help further limit privacy risks moving forward by tying task performance more to the information a user brings to the model. We continue to research, develop, and enhance technical and process mitigations in this area.

GPT-4 Technical Report, 2023 [8]

Scrubbing?

Fake PII?

Stronger attacks / audits?

Unlearning?

Regularization?

1) Data sanitation

2) Alignment

3) Model evaluation

4) Safety filters

Synthetic data?

Lower epsilon?

Know your user?


Smaller models?

Red teaming?

Analyzing Leakage of Personally Identifiable Information in Language Models

Source code: https://github.com/microsoft/analysing_pii_leakage



Nils Lukas 



Ahmed Salem 



Robert Sim 



Shruti Tople 



Lukas Wutschitz 



Santiago
Zanella-Béguelin 



UNIVERSITY OF
WATERLOO



Microsoft



GitHub - Source Code



Full Paper

Sources

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[8] OpenAI, "GPT-4 Technical Report", arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774 (2023)

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Homepage



<https://nilslukas.github.io>