Adversarial Machine Learning

Machine Learning Course - CS-433 Nov 15, 2023 Nicolas Flammarion



Some input examples are hard for humans



- Some examples may be challenging for humans
- NNs typically have no problem with them
- However, NNs are not always robust in their decisions

Dog or mop?

Adversarial examples are small perturbations that cause misclassification with high confidence "pig" "airliner"

+ 0.005 x

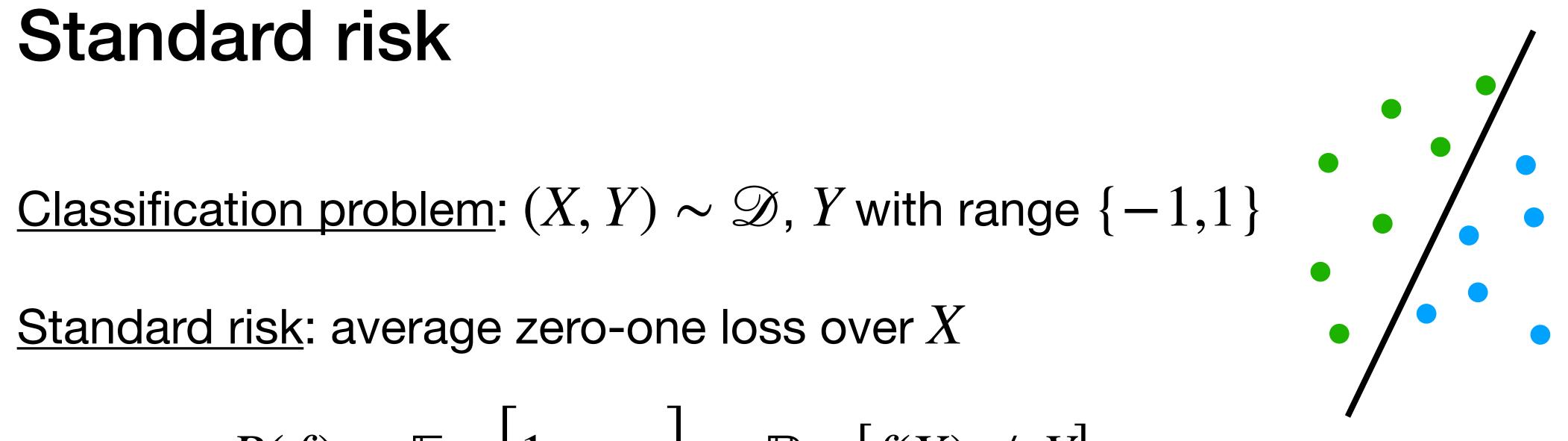
Source: Z. Kolter, A. Madry, NeurIPS'18 tutorial on adversarial robustness

NNs have struggle with imperceptible yet very specific inputs known as adversarial examples

- ➡ Security issue: consider the implications for a self-driving car and its ability to detect stop signs
- → We don't understand how these models generalize and react to shifts in the distribution of data (i.e., distribution shifts)

Standard risk

$$R(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[1_{f(X)\neq Y}\right] = \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[f(X) \neq Y\right]$$



Standard risk vs. adversarial risk

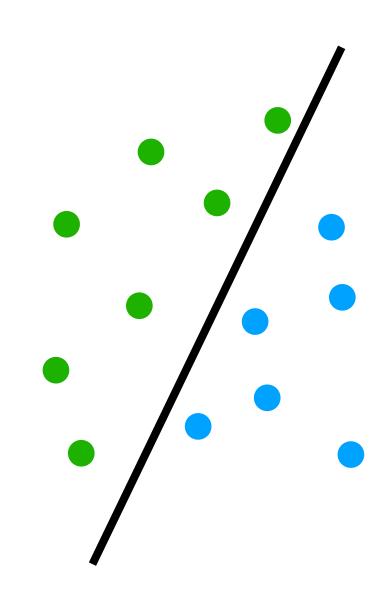
Classification problem: $(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{D}$, Y with range $\{-1, 1\}$

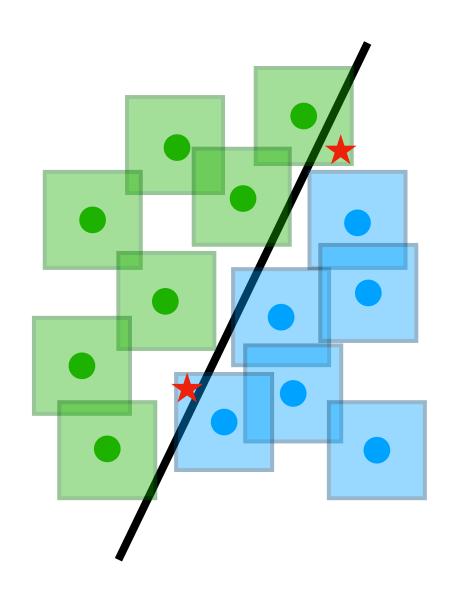
Standard risk: average zero-one loss over X

$$R(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{D}} \left[1_{f(X) \neq Y} \right] = \mathbb{P}_{\mathscr{D}} \left[f(X) \neq Y \right]$$

Adversarial risk: average zero-one loss over small, worst-case perturbations of \boldsymbol{X}

$$R_{\varepsilon}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{D}} \left[\max_{\hat{x}, \|\hat{x} - X\| \le \varepsilon} 1_{f(\hat{x}) \ne Y} \right]$$





Adversarial vulnerability raises many questions

$$R_{\varepsilon}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[\max_{\hat{x}, \|\hat{x} - X\| \le \varepsilon} 1_{f(\hat{x}) \ne Y} \right]$$

- Threat model:
 - How should we define the adversary's power?
 - Which norm should we consider? ℓ_{∞} , ℓ_2 , ℓ_1 , ℓ_0 , ...
 - What set of perturbations?
- If $R(f) \leq \delta$, then how large can $R_{\varepsilon}(f)$ be?

Adversarial vulnerability raises many questions

- How can we compute an adversarial example?
- What level of access do we have to the model to attack it?
- How can we design a classifier f so that it is robust? Related: given a non-robust classifier, how can we make it robust?
- Why are neural networks non-robust?

Generating adversarial examples

Task: given an input (x, y) and a model $f: \mathcal{X} \to \{-1,1\}$, find an input \hat{x} , such that

(a)
$$\|\hat{x} - x\| \le \varepsilon$$

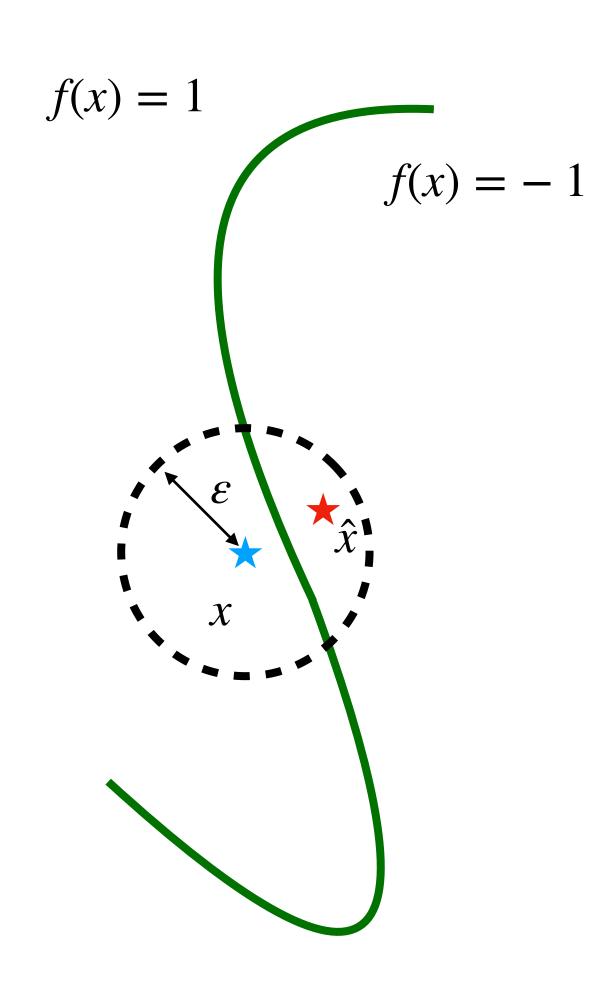
(b) the model f makes a mistake on it

Trivial case: x is already misclassified

→ No action required

General case: x is correctly classified

i.e., $\hat{x} \in B_x(\varepsilon) \cap \{x', f(x') = -y\}$



Generating adversarial examples amounts to maximizing the classification loss w.r.t. the inputs

Find an adversarial example by solving

$$\max_{\hat{x}, ||\hat{x} - x|| \le \varepsilon} 1_{f(\hat{x}) \ne y}$$

Optimization problem with respect to the inputs

Problem: optimizing the indicator function $1_{f(\hat{x}) \neq y}$ is difficult:

- 1. The indicator function 1 is not continuous
- 2. The NN prediction f outputs discrete class values $\{-1,1\}$

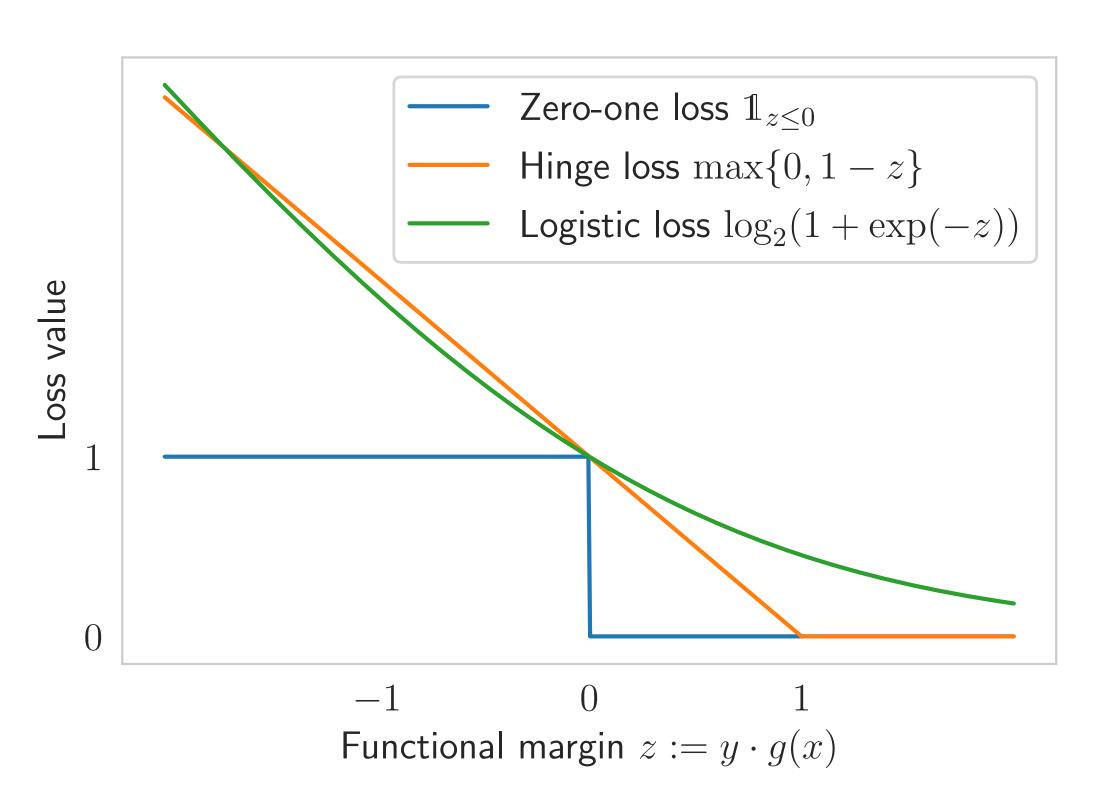
Generating adversarial examples amounts to solving a constrained optimization problem

Solution:

- 1. Use a smooth classification loss ℓ (e.g., logistic or hinge loss) instead
- 2. Consider the output g of the NN before classification (i.e., f(x) = sign(g(x)))

Main idea: Replace the difficult problem involving the indicator with a smooth problem

$$\max_{\hat{x}, \|\hat{x} - x\| \le \varepsilon} 1_{f(\hat{x}) \ne y} \longrightarrow \max_{\hat{x}, \|\hat{x} - x\| \le \varepsilon} \ell(yg(\hat{x}))$$



Reminder: decreasing, margin-based (i.e., dependent on $y \cdot g(x)$) classification losses

Generating adversarial examples: white-box case

How to solve $\max_{\hat{x},||\hat{x}-x|| \leq \varepsilon} \ell(yg(\hat{x}))$ in the **white-box** case, i.e., if we know the model g?

Compute its gradient:
$$\nabla_x \mathcal{E}(yg(x)) = y\underline{\mathcal{E}'(yg(x))} \nabla_x g(x)$$

 ≤ 0 since classification loss are decreasing

We should move in the direction $\propto -y \nabla_x g(x)$

Interpretation: f(x) = sign(g(x))

- If y = 1, we want to decrease g(x) and follow $-\nabla_x g(x)$
- If y = -1, we want to increase g(x) and follow $\nabla_x g(x)$

 \triangle Why use ℓ , and not directly minimize $yg(\hat{x})$?

→ It won't extend to multi-class classification and robust training.

Generating adversarial examples: taking into account the constraints

We can linearize the loss $\tilde{\ell}(x) := \ell(yg(x))$ to derive an iteration:

$$\max_{\|\hat{x}-x\| \le \varepsilon} \tilde{\ell}(\hat{x}) \approx \max_{\|\hat{x}-x\| \le \varepsilon} \tilde{\ell}(x) + \nabla_x \tilde{\ell}(x)^T (\hat{x} - x)$$

$$= \tilde{\ell}(x) + \max_{\|\hat{x}-x\| \le \varepsilon} \nabla_x \tilde{\ell}(x)^T (\hat{x} - x)$$

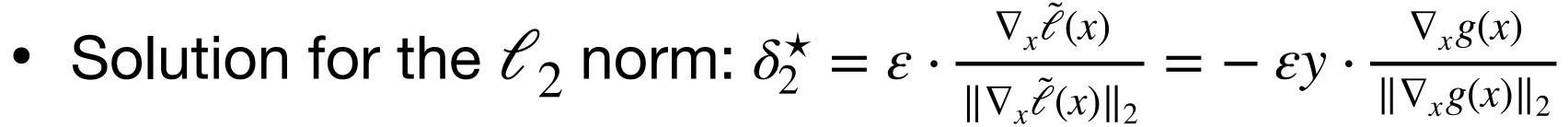
$$= \tilde{\ell}(x) + \max_{\|\delta\| \le \varepsilon} \nabla_x \tilde{\ell}(x)^T \delta$$

- We need to maximize the inner product under a norm constraint, i.e. find the optimal local update
- This is a simple problem for which we can get a closed-form solution depending on the norm used to measure the perturbation size $\|\delta\|$

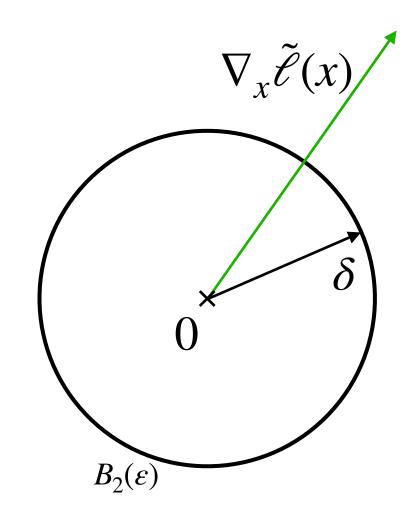
Generating adversarial examples: one-step attack

Problem:

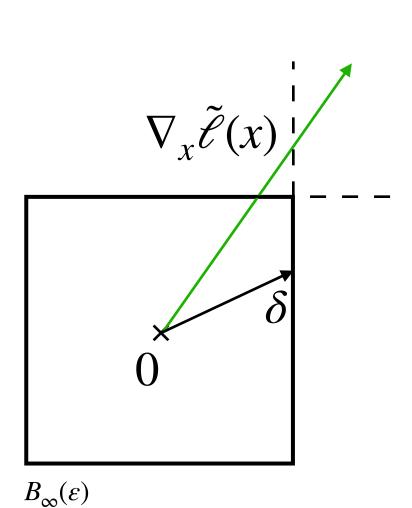
$$\max_{\|\delta\| \le \varepsilon} \nabla_{x} \tilde{\mathcal{E}}(x)^{T} \delta$$



$$\hat{x} = x - \varepsilon y \cdot \frac{\nabla_x g(x)}{\|\nabla_x g(x)\|_2}$$



- Solution for the ℓ_{∞} norm: $\delta_{\infty}^{\star} = \varepsilon \cdot \text{sign}(\nabla_{x} \tilde{\ell}(x)) = -\varepsilon y \cdot \text{sign}(\nabla_{x} g(x))$
 - $\Rightarrow \hat{x} = x \varepsilon y \cdot \text{sign}(\nabla_x g(x))$
 - → Fast Gradient Sign Method
 [Goodfellow et al., 2014]



Generating adversarial examples: multi-step attack

These updates can be done iteratively and combined with a projection Π on the feasible set (i.e., ℓ_2/ℓ_∞ balls here)

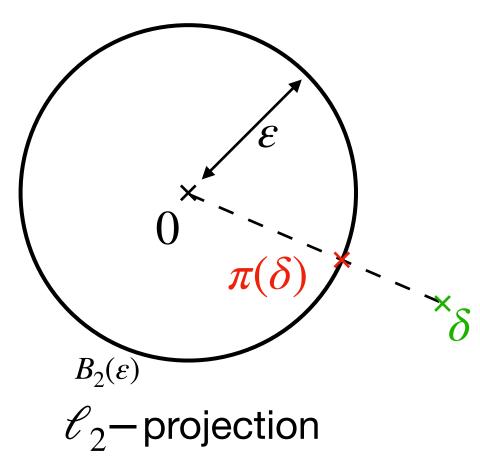
Projected Gradient Descent (PGD attack):

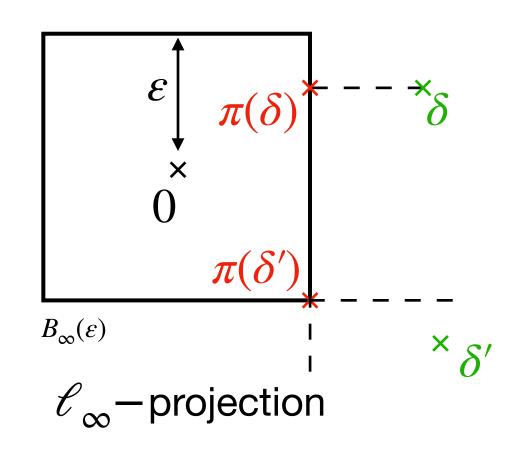
• ℓ_2 norm:

$$\delta^{t+1} = \Pi_{B_2(\varepsilon)} \left[\delta^t + \alpha \cdot \frac{\nabla \tilde{\ell}(x + \delta^t)}{\|\nabla \tilde{\ell}(x + \delta^t)\|_2} \right],$$
 where $\Pi_{B_2(\varepsilon)}(\delta) = \begin{cases} \varepsilon \cdot \delta / \|\delta\|_2, & \text{if } \|\delta\|_2 \ge \varepsilon \\ \delta, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

• ℓ_{∞} norm:

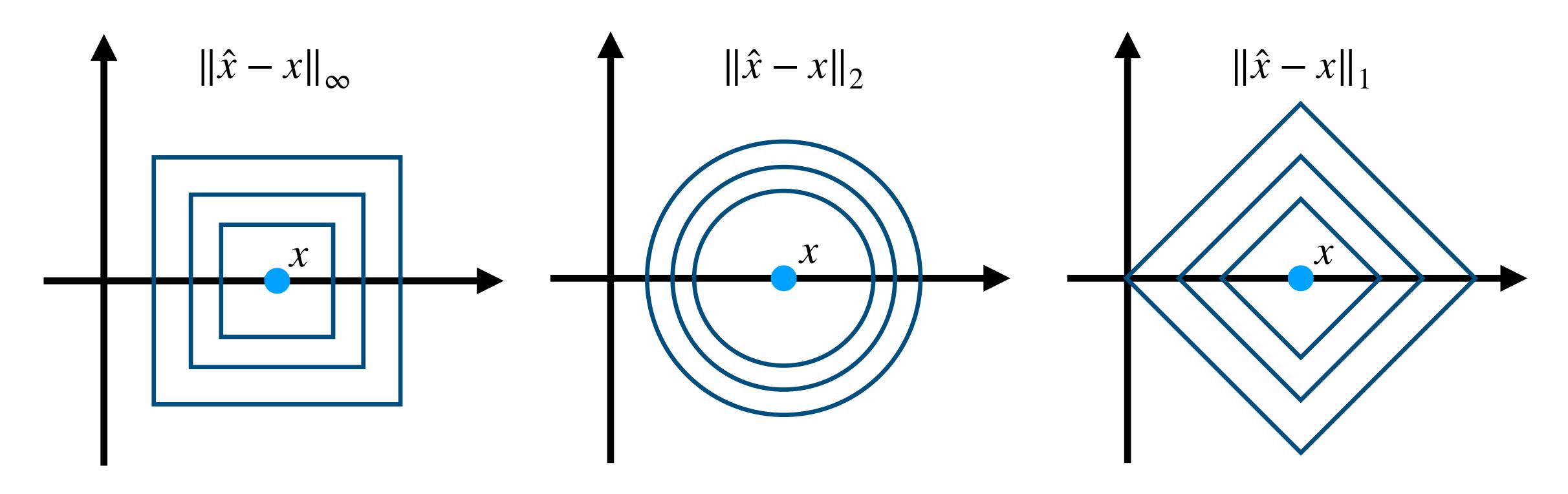
$$\begin{split} \delta^{t+1} &= \Pi_{B_{\infty}(\varepsilon)} \left[\delta^t + \alpha \cdot \mathrm{sign}(\, \nabla \tilde{\ell}(x+\delta^t)) \right], \\ \text{where } \Pi_{B_{\infty}(\varepsilon)}(\delta)_i &= \begin{cases} \varepsilon \cdot \mathrm{sign}(\delta_i), & \text{if } |\delta_i| \geq \varepsilon \\ \delta_i, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{split}$$





Reminder: ℓ_p norms

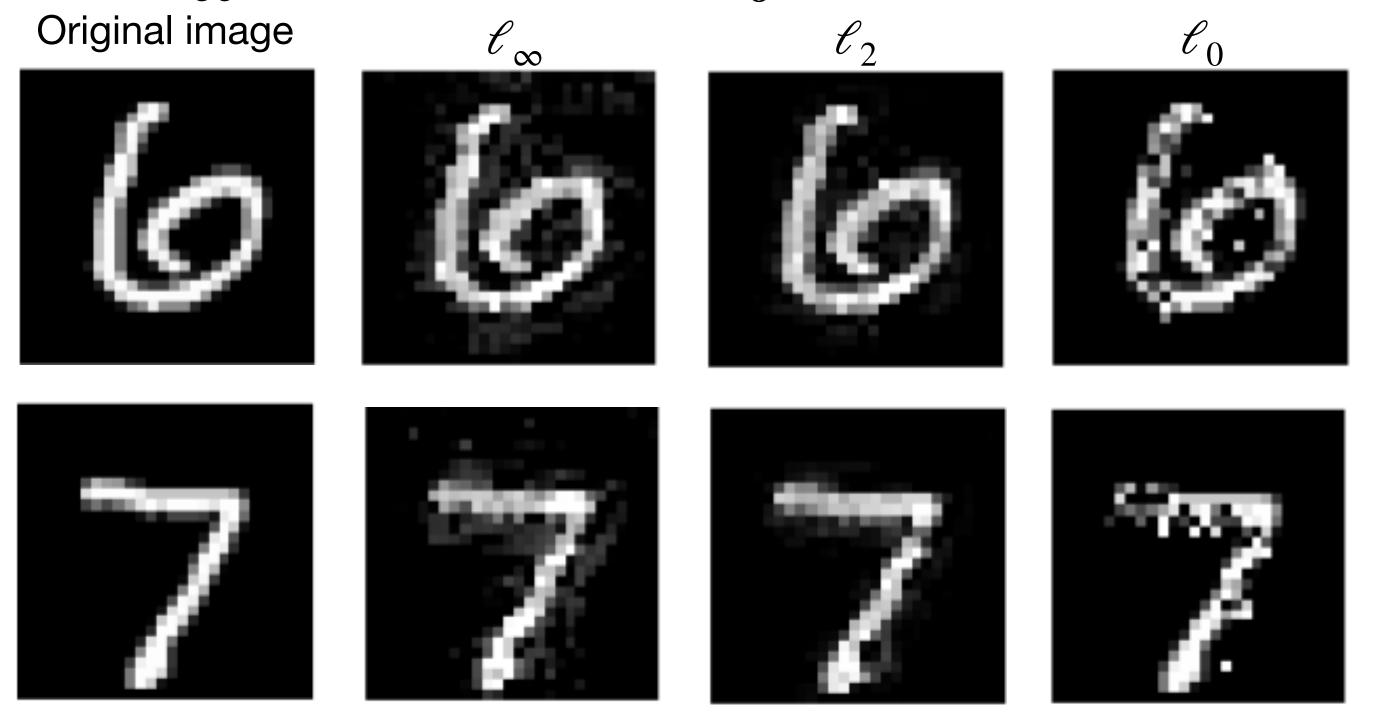
Different ℓ_p norms have different geometry



The difference is especially pronounced in high dimensions!

Visualizations of different \mathcal{C}_p adversarial examples

The choice of the norm leads to different properties of the resulting adversarial perturbations: e.g. ℓ_{∞} are **dense** and ℓ_{0} are **sparse**



Source: Towards Evaluating the Robustness of Neural Networks, Carlini et al., 2018

Which perturbations should we aim to be robust against?

⇒ Extensive research on formulating the 'right' perturbation set!

White-box attacks: implementation

- For a neural network, the gradients $\nabla_x g(x)$ can also be computed by **backpropagation** (note: they are taken w.r.t. **inputs**, not parameters!)
- Modern deep learning frameworks readily support this
 - → lab #9 (implement Fast Gradient Sign Method on MNIST in PyTorch)
- Now: what **if we don't know** g(x)? Is it possible to run an attack without knowing how to compute the gradient $\nabla_x g(x)$?

Black-box attacks: query-based gradient estimation

There are different assumptions on the knowledge about the model f:

- score-based: we can query the continuous model scores $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}$
- decision-based: we can query only the predicted class $f(x) \in \{-1,1\}$

In the score-based case, we can approximate the gradient by using the finite difference formula:

$$\nabla_{x}g(x) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{d} \frac{g(x + \alpha e_{i}) - g(x)}{\alpha} e_{i}$$

Remark: similar techniques can be adapted for the decision-based case (when x is near the decision boundary)

Black-box attacks via transfer attacks

Alternative approach: transfer attacks

- 1. train a similar surrogate model $\hat{f} \approx f$ on similar data
- 2. transfer the resulting white-box adversarial perturbation from \hat{f} to f
- Success depends on how similar the model architecture and data are
- If we are allowed to query f given some **unlabeled** inputs $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^N$, we can obtain $\{x_n, f(x_n)\}_{n=1}^N$ and use that information to learn \hat{f} (known as **model stealing**)
 - → can facilitate transfer attacks

Black-box attacks: summary

General takeaway: black-box attacks are of practical concern but:

- Query-based methods often require a lot of queries (10k-100k), particularly decision-based attacks → easy to restrict access for the attacker!
- Obtaining a surrogate model \hat{f} can be costly and there is no guarantee of success
- A critical missing element is the implementation of physically realizable attacks

Physically realizable attacks

For practical application, adversarial examples must meet additional requirements:

- Resilience to JPEG compression (for images input directly in a digital format)
- Resilience to photographic distortions (for real-world adversarial examples captured by a camera)
- Resilience to varying camera angles (for a moving camera, e.g., on a self-driving car)
- → a surge of papers on how to take these requirements into account



Source: Robust Physical-World Attacks on Deep Learning Visual Classification (CVPR 2018)

How do we train robust models?

We have seen how to **generate** adversarial examples, but **how can we make our models robust to such attacks**?

- Simply train them on these adversarial examples, a.k.a. adversarial training
- Standard training: the goal is to minimize the standard risk:

$$\min_{\theta} R(f_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[1_{f(X) \neq Y} \right]$$

Adversarial training: the goal is to minimize the adversarial risk:

$$\min_{\theta} R_{\varepsilon}(f_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[\max_{\hat{x}, \|\hat{x} - X\| \le \varepsilon} 1_{f(\hat{x}) \ne Y} \right]$$

Adversarial training: formulation

Goal:

$$\min_{\theta} R_{\varepsilon}(f_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[\max_{\hat{x}, \|\hat{x} - X\| \le \varepsilon} 1_{f(\hat{x}) \ne Y} \right]$$

- The data distribution \mathscr{D} is unknown \to approximate it with a sample average
- The classification loss is non-continuous → use a smooth loss

This leads to the following robust optimization problem:

$$\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \max_{\hat{x}_n, \|x_n - \hat{x}_n\| \le \varepsilon} \mathcal{E}(y_n g_{\theta}(\hat{x}_n))$$

Interpretation: minimize the risk on adversarial examples

Adversarial training: algorithm

$$\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \max_{\hat{x}_n, \|x_n - \hat{x}_n\| \le \varepsilon} \ell(y_n g_{\theta}(\hat{x}_n))$$

Adversarial training: at each iteration t:

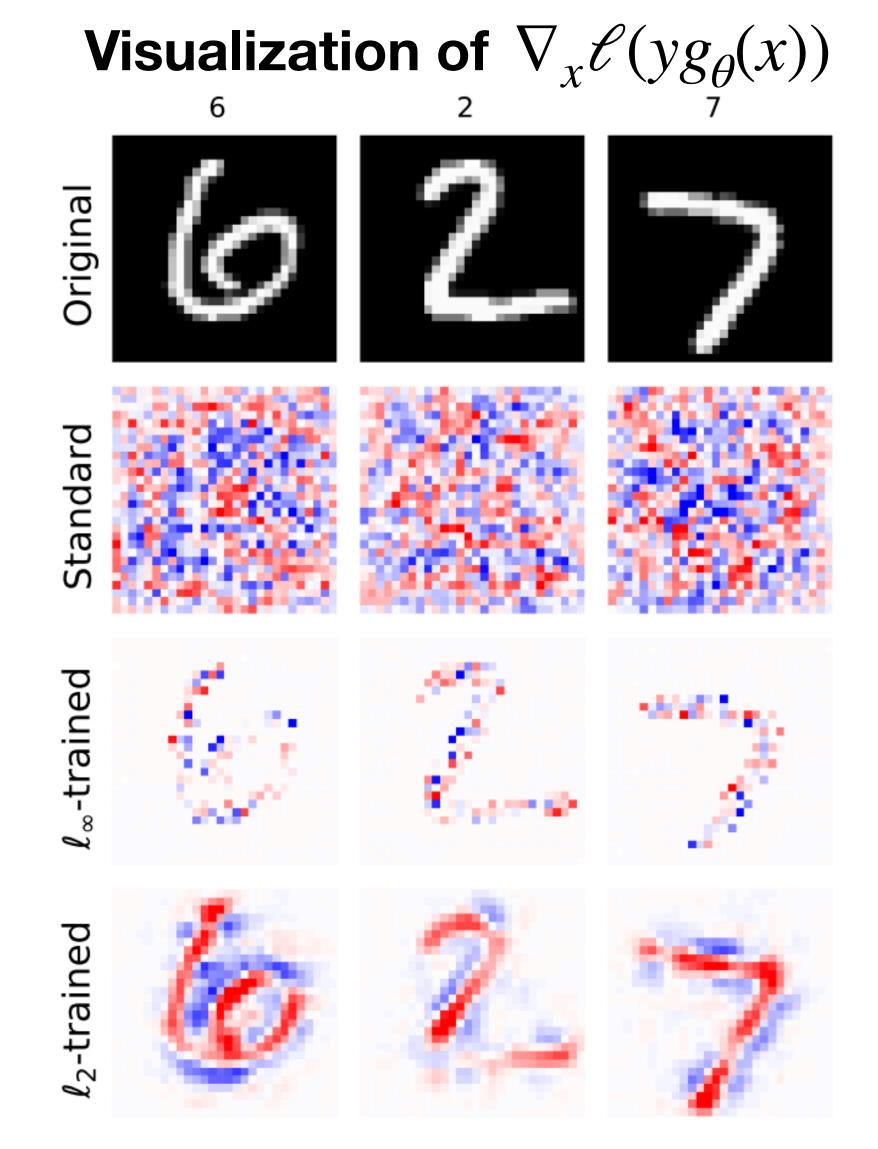
- 1. For each x_n , approximate $\hat{x}_n^\star \approx \arg\max_{\|x_n \hat{x}_n\| \le \varepsilon} \ell(y_n g_\theta(\hat{x}_n))$ via the **PGD attack**
- 2. Perform a gradient descent step w.r.t. θ using $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{E}(y_{n}g_{\theta}(\hat{x}_{n}^{\star}))$ Note you are using \hat{x}_{n}^{\star} and not x_{n}

Adversarial training: discussion

Good news:

- Adversarial training is a state-of-the-art approach for robust classification!
- Adversarial training leads to more interpretable gradients $\nabla_x \mathcal{E}(yg_\theta(x))$
- The algorithm is fully compatible with SGD

 → you will explore it in lab #9
 (adversarial training of a CNN on MNIST)



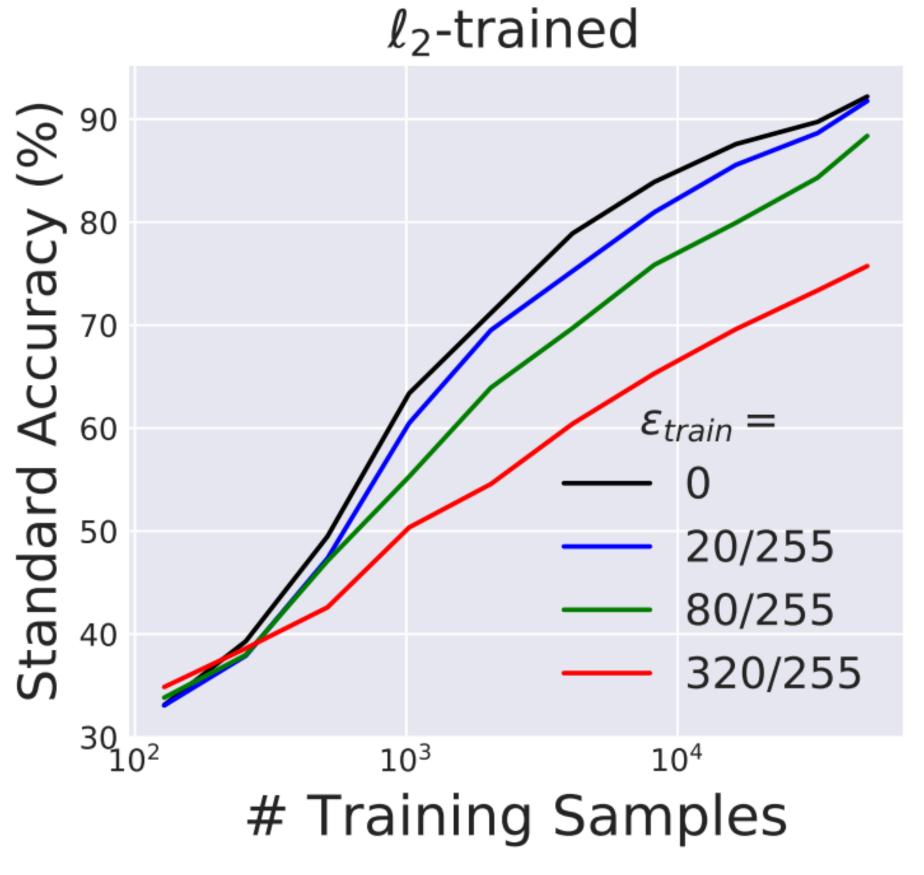
Source: Robustness May Be at Odds with Accuracy (ICLR 2019)

Adversarial training: discussion

Bad news:

- Increased computational time: proportional to the number of PGD steps
- Robustness-accuracy tradeoff: using too large ε lead to worse standard accuracy (right)

Deep ConvNet on CIFAR-10



Source: Robustness May Be at Odds with Accuracy (ICLR 2019)

Key question: so why do adversarial examples exist?

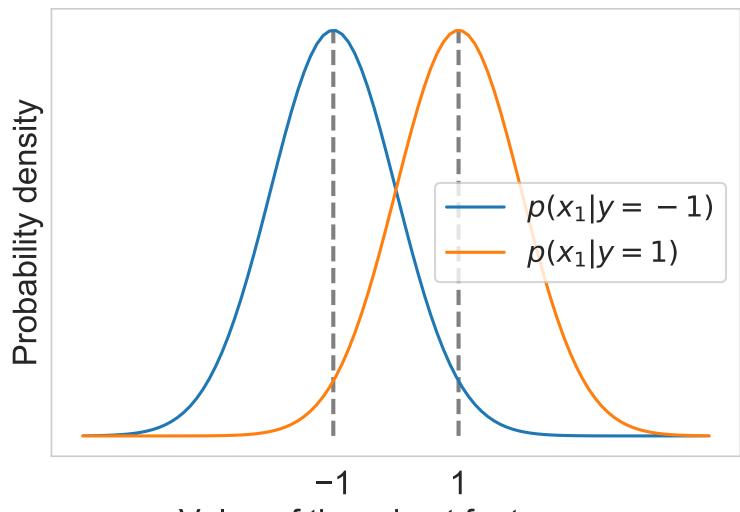
We can conceptualize it with a simple model

Consider
$$x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
, $y \sim \mathcal{U}(\{-1,1\})$, $Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$:

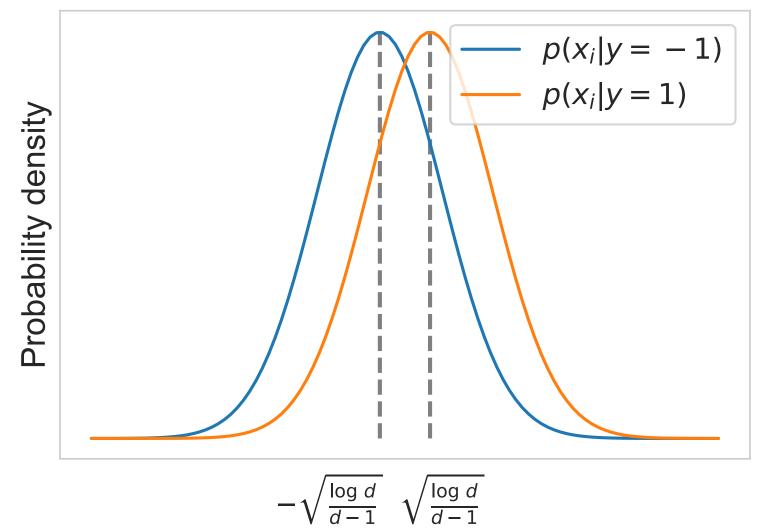
- Robust features: $x_1 = y + Z_1$
- . Non-robust features: $x_i = y\sqrt{\frac{\log d}{d-1}} + Z_i$ for $i \in \{2,\dots,d\}$

We'll see that when $d \to \infty$:

- standard risk can be arbitrarily small
- adversarial risk can be arbitrarily large

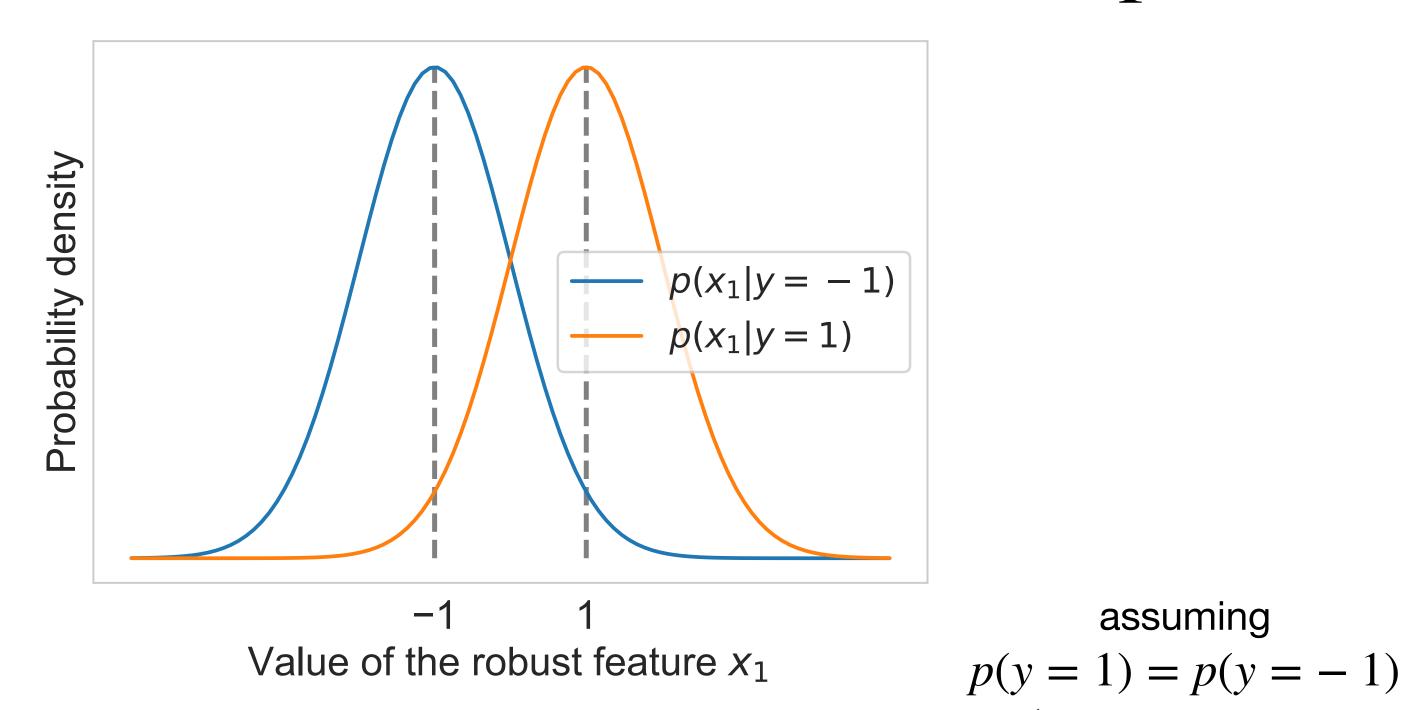


Value of the robust feature x_1



Value of a non-robust feature x_i

Model is only using the robust feature x_1



MLE:
$$\underset{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}}{\text{max}} p(\hat{y} \mid x_1) = \underset{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}}{\text{arg max}} \frac{p(x_1 \mid \hat{y})p(\hat{y})}{p(x_1)} = \underset{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}}{\text{arg max}} p(x_1 \mid \hat{y})$$

assuming

Standard risk: $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-0.5(x+1)^2} dx \approx 0.16 \rightarrow \text{good but not perfect!}$

Model is using both robust and non-robust features (I)

Let's derive MLE using **all** features using the shortcut notation $x_i = ya_i + Z_i$:

$$\arg \max_{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}} p(\hat{y} \mid x) = \arg \max_{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}} \prod_{i=1}^{d} p(x_i \mid \hat{y})$$

$$= \arg \max_{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \log p(x_i \mid \hat{y})$$

$$= \arg \max_{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x_i - \hat{y}a_i)^2}$$

$$= \arg \min_{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}} \sum_{i=1}^{d} (x_i - \hat{y}a_i)^2$$

$$= \arg \min_{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}} \sum_{i=1}^{d} (x_i^2 - 2x_i \hat{y}a_i + \hat{y}^2 a_i^2) = \arg \max_{\hat{y} \in \{\pm 1\}} \hat{y} \sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i a_i$$

Model is using both robust and non-robust features (II)

The MLE expression we maximize over $\hat{y} \in \{-1,1\}$ becomes:

$$\hat{y} \sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i a_i = \hat{y} y \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i^2 \right) + \hat{y} \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i Z_i = \hat{y} y (1 + \log(d)) + \hat{y} Z,$$

where
$$Z := \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1 + \log d)$$

Scaling by $1/(1 + \log d)$, the MLE expression results in:

$$y\hat{y} + \hat{y}Z$$
 with $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1/(1 + \log d))$

Conclusion: when the dimension $d \to \infty$, $\hat{y}Z \to 0$ and standard risk $\to 0$

Interpretation: using the non-robust features improves standard risk!

What about adversarial risk?

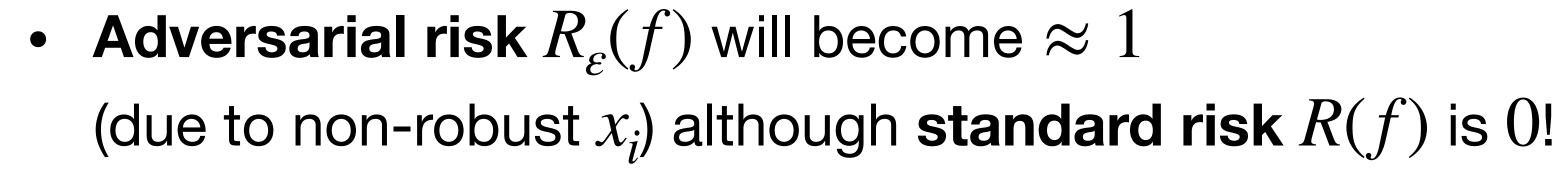
• The adversary can use tiny ℓ_{∞} - perturbations

$$\varepsilon = 2\sqrt{\frac{\log d}{d-1}} \ (\to 0 \text{ when } d \to \infty)$$

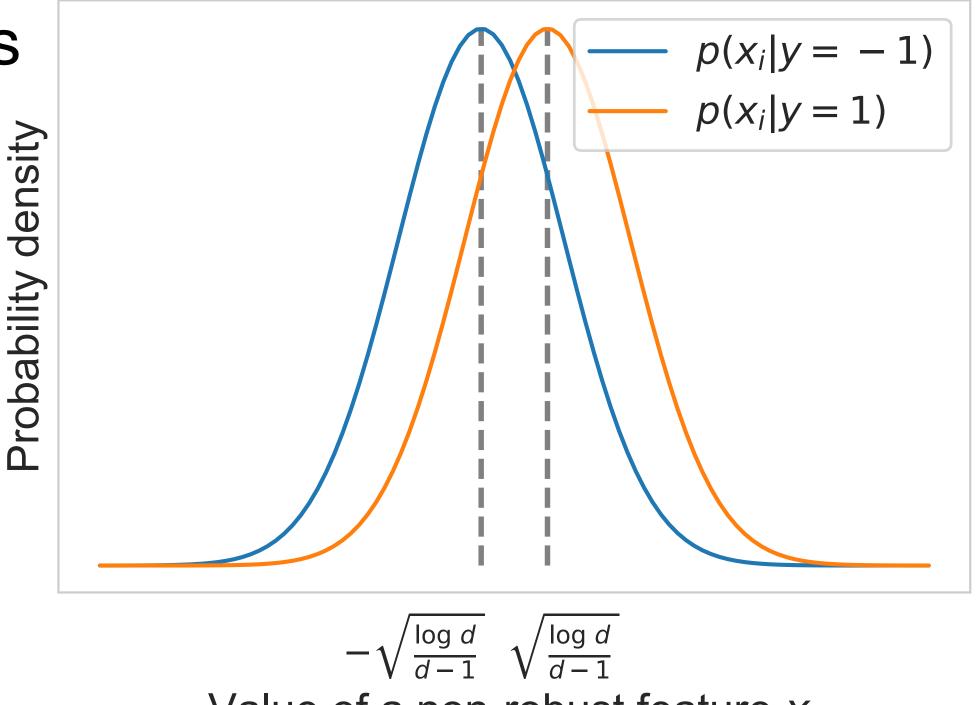
Optimal adversarial strategy:

$$\hat{x}_1 = \left(1 - 2\sqrt{\frac{\log d}{d-1}}\right)y + Z_1 \text{ (almost unaffected)}$$

$$\hat{x}_i = -\sqrt{\frac{\log d}{d-1}}y + Z_i \text{ (completely flipped!)}$$



- But: only using the robust feature x_1 leads to $R_{\varepsilon}(f) \approx R(f) = 0.16$
 - → tradeoff between accuracy and robustness



Value of a non-robust feature x_i

Recap

- NNs may be susceptible to adversarial examples imperceptible to us
- Adversarial examples can be obtained via gradient steps on the input
- Adversarial training: Enhance model robustness by training on adversarially perturbed input data
- Robustness typically comes at the cost of accuracy, since non-robust features can still be useful features