

Figure 1: Regular cross-modal Hamming retrieval and our triplet-based cross-modal Hamming attack.

pability of DNN, many efforts have been focused on employing deep networks to enhance the correlations between modalities through learning a common representation in shared space. However, the robustness and stability of DNN structures have been largely overlooked: even the most accurate deep learning models can be easily deceived by a well-designed perturbation which is visually imperceptible to the human eye. Therefore, the growing costs and risks of the potential model failures have led to the study of adversarial attacks. In this paper we focus on a practical cross-modal Hamming adversarial attack that fulfills two criteria: 1) the attack is designed for a black-box setting, where the target cross-modal network is normally unavailable, and the attacker can only interact with the target model by querying it; 2) the query efficiency should be highly prioritized considering the practical case, that is, frequent and high volume queries will be easily discovered by defenders.

Despite plenty of adversarial attacks proposed in the literature, the main attention only focuses on the problem of adversarial examples learning for image-based classification or retrieval within a single modality. Little effort has been devoted to investigating how adversarial examples affect deep Hamming learning in cross-modal retrieval. There exist great differences in learning adversaries between the

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given a query instance from one modality (e.g., image), CMHR is applied to map original data into binary codes, and then execute bit-wise XOR operation to return semantically related instances from another modality (e.g., text). In contrast, the attack on CMHR devotes to fooling a well-trained model to return semantically unrelated instances.

Therefore, the traditional classification-oriented adversarial attacks are not suitable in CMHR. The pioneering work CMLA [17] is the first attempt to design adversarial samples to deceive a target deep CMHR model. But, CMLA is not applicable to the practical cases in two main aspects. First, CMLA is constructed for a white-box setting, where attackers need full knowledge of the target model, including model architectures and parameters. Second, the label information of query instances is required in CMLA, which is also not available in reality. Therefore, practical adversarial example learning in CMHR is still an open problem. Actually, considering the nature of CMHR is to explore and preserve the similar semantic structure among instances, we can design the triplet-based cross-modal Hamming attack as shown in Fig1b. The adversarial perturbation is learned and added into the query instance to manipulate the original similarity structure, reducing the distance of the query to the negative instance and enlarging its distance to the positive instance.

In this paper, we propose an effective Adversarial Attack on Deep Cross-Modal Hamming Retrieval (AACH). To be specific, AACH mainly focuses on attacking a deep cross-modal Hamming retrieval model in a black-box setting, which thus is more applicable to practical cases. In addition, to reduce the cost and risk during querying a target model, we propose the cross-modal triplet construction module, where cross-modal positive and negative instances of the query are exploited to boost the learning of adversarial perturbations. We highlight the contributions of this work as follows:

- € An adversarial example learning method for cross-modal Hamming retrieval is proposed under the black-box setting. Through constructing a surrogate model of the target networks, the proposed AACH learns cross-modal adversarial examples only by limitedly querying the target model, without any prior knowledge about the target model.
- € To fully take advantage of the limited information acquired from target model, a simple yet effective cross-modal triplet construction module is designed, with which our surrogate model learns adversarial examples by mining cross-modal positive and negative instances in Hamming space.
- € We evaluate the proposed AACH by attacking several state-of-the-art cross-modal retrieval models on three

popular benchmarks, MIRFlickr-25K, NUS-WIDE, and MS COCO. Extensive results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed triplet construction module and the capacity of our AACH in attacking a target deep CMHR model.

## 2. Related Works

**Deep Cross-Modal Hamming Retrieval.** Different from the traditional “learn to hash” for CMHR [7, 25, 39], Deep CMHR [12, 37, 3, 32, 6, 15, 2, 35, 11, 4] learns binary codes by constructing deep networks to build the correlations across modalities. Existing approaches can be divided into unsupervised and supervised settings according to whether label information is used. For unsupervised setting, efforts are devoted to studying the semantic similarity exploration and preservation. Matrix factorization and graph Laplacian are proposed to preserve neighborhood structures of original data in [3]. Su et al. [29] explored the joint-semantics similarity matrix from different modalities to integrate multiple modality similarity information. In [40] and [16], the generative adversarial networks (GAN) are constructed to bridge the semantic modality gap. On the contrary, methods in a supervised setting generally build cross-modal correlations from the label information, where pairwise [12, 37, 2], triplet [6], and ranking [20] semantic constraints are respectively adopted to achieve high retrieval performance. Liet al. [15] constructed self-supervised learning model to guide deep cross-modal network training. To enhance the semantic similarities, an attention mechanism is integrated into one GAN-based cross-modal network [41] to extract the shared semantic components across modalities.

**Cross-Modal Hamming Attacking.** The successes achieved in deep learning areas have made great improvements for CMHR. Nevertheless, the vulnerability of DNN, which has caused wide concern from all walks of life, places the DNN-based retrieval model at the risk of being attacked as well. In [31], it is the first time showing that a deep network with good performance can be fooled by a well-designed perturbation which is imperceptible to human eyes. Follow this, many white-box attacking methods are presented [23, 24, 36, 22, 8, 30, 28], where [28] can successfully attack a target deep model in an extremely limited scenario because only one pixel can be modified. Simultaneously, the transferability of the adversarial examples among deep networks is discovered to propose the black-box setting attacks [1, 34, 26, 9, 5, 10], which are sharing a common idea that using an approximate gradient to create adversarial examples. Most of these methods are designed to solve the problem of image-based classification or retrieval within single a modality [8, 13]. For CMHR task, the risk of malicious users disrupting the retrieval system always exists. However, few efforts focus on the security

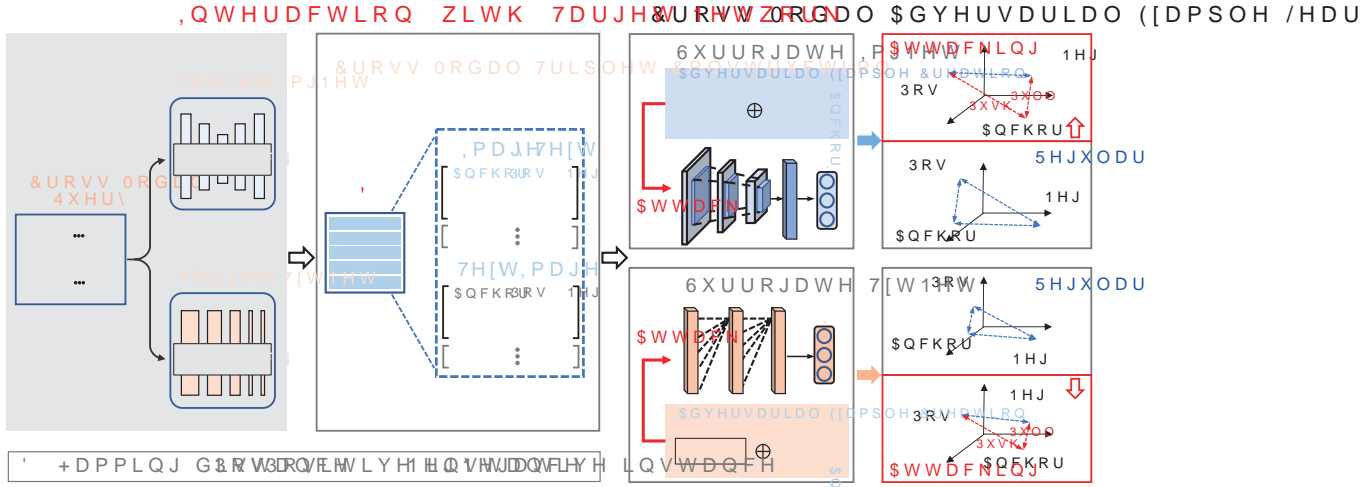


Figure 2: The pipeline of our proposed AACH for cross-modal Hamming learning.

of the DNN-based CMHR system. The learning of cross-modal adversarial example is "rst presented in CMLA [17], where the intra- and inter- modality similarity are explored to learn the adversarial examples preserving the intra-modal similarity but manipulating inter-modal correlations. As mentioned above, CMLA is designed for a white-box attack setting and requires label information about query instance, making it not applicable in reality.

### 3. Adversarial Attack on Deep CMHR

#### 3.1. Problem Formulation

Generally, the CMHR can be cast as a metric learning problem. Given a cross-modal dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{o_i\}_{i=1}^M$  with  $M$  instances  $o_i = \{o_i^v, o_i^t\}$ , where  $o_i^v$  and  $o_i^t$  respectively represent two data modalities (e.g., image-text pairs). The goal of deep cross-modal Hamming retrieval is to learn two functions  $F_{tar}(o; \cdot)$  by different networks,  $\{v, t\}$  projecting the original modality instances onto Hamming space, where  $\cdot$  denotes parameter to be learned. As such the original cross-modal instances are represented with binary codes  $B = \{\tilde{s} \in \{-1, 1\}^K\}$ ,  $K$  denotes the required code length. This can be formulated as follows:

$$B = \text{sign}(H), H = F_{tar}(o; \cdot), \quad \{v, t\}, \quad (1)$$

where  $H$  are binary-like representations  $H \in \{\tilde{s} \in \{-1, 1\}^K\}$  produced by the output layer of a target deep cross-modal network.

A well-trained  $F_{tar}(o; \cdot)$  can always preserve accurate similar semantic structure. To be specific, assuming that an image query instance  $o_A^v$  is more similar with positive instance  $o_P^t$  than negative instance  $o_N^t$ , it encourages  $F_{tar}$  to satisfy the inequality as follow:

$$D(F_{tar}^v(o_A^v), F_{tar}^t(o_P^t)) < D(F_{tar}^v(o_A^v), F_{tar}^t(o_N^t)), \quad (2)$$

where  $D$  denotes the Hamming distance between two codes:

$$D(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} (K - \sum_{i=1}^K X_i Y_i), \quad (3)$$

$X$  and  $Y$  are the input codes. For cross-modal Hamming attacking, on the contrary, which aims to learn cross-modal adversarial perturbation  $\tilde{v}$  to fool the target deep network to output binary codes with a contrary inequality as follows:

$$D(F_{tar}^v(o_A^v + \tilde{v}), F_{tar}^t(o_P^t)) > D(F_{tar}^v(o_A^v + \tilde{v}), F_{tar}^t(o_N^t)). \quad (4)$$

Formally, given an image-text triplet  $\{o_A^v, o_P^t, o_N^t\}$ , where  $o_A^v$  and  $o_P^t$  share similar semantic correlation, we rewrite the cross-modal Hamming attacking as follows:

$$\min_{\tilde{v}} D(F_{tar}^v(o_A^v + \tilde{v}), F_{tar}^t(o_N^t)) \\ \tilde{s} D(F_{tar}^v(o_A^v + \tilde{v}), F_{tar}^t(o_P^t)), \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|\tilde{v}\|_p \leq \epsilon, \quad (5)$$

where  $\|\cdot\|_p$  denotes  $L_p$  norm ( $p = 1$  in this work).  $\epsilon$  denotes the attack strength, where the constraint  $\|\tilde{v}\|_p \leq \epsilon$  limits the perturbation  $\tilde{v}$  being visually imperceptible. The same goes for learning the text perturbation to query image:

$$\min_{\tilde{t}} D(F_{tar}^t(o_A^t + \tilde{t}), F_{tar}^v(o_N^v)) \\ \tilde{s} D(F_{tar}^t(o_A^t + \tilde{t}), F_{tar}^v(o_P^v)), \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|\tilde{t}\|_p \leq \epsilon. \quad (6)$$

#### 3.2. Proposed AACH

Fig. 2 shows the full "owchart of our AACH, which mainly consists of three parts: target deep cross-modal networks (ImgNet and TxtNet), triplet construction module, and cross-modal adversarial example learning.

**Algorithm 1 Adversarial Attack on Cross-Modal Hamming Retrieval (AACH).**

Input: A black-box cross-modal target network  $\mathcal{F}_{tar}$  ( $\mathbf{o}$ ), data  $\mathcal{O} = \{\mathbf{o}_i^v, \mathbf{o}_i^t\}_{i=1}^M$ , iteration  $T$ ,  $\{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{t}\}$   
Output: The best recommended cross-modal adversarial examples:  $\mathbf{o} = \mathbf{o} + \mathbf{v}, \{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{t}\}$

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1 initialize iter = 0
2 Compute  $\mathbf{B}^v = \text{sign}(\mathcal{F}_{tar}^v(\mathbf{o}^v))$  and  $\mathbf{B}^t = \text{sign}(\mathcal{F}_{tar}^t(\mathbf{o}^t))$ 
3 Compute Hamming distance matrix  $\mathbf{D}$  according to  $\mathbf{B}^v, \mathbf{B}^t$ .
4 Create cross-modal triplets  $\{\mathbf{o}_A^v, \mathbf{o}_P^t, \mathbf{o}_N^t\}$  and  $\{\mathbf{o}_A^t, \mathbf{o}_P^v, \mathbf{o}_N^v\}$ 
5 Train the surrogate model: not converged then
     $\mathbf{v}_{sur} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{v}_{sur}} L^v(\mathbf{o}_A^v, \mathbf{o}_P^t, \mathbf{o}_N^t; \mathbf{v}_{sur})$ ;
6     $\mathbf{t}_{sur} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{t}_{sur}} L^t(\mathbf{o}_A^t, \mathbf{o}_P^v, \mathbf{o}_N^v; \mathbf{t}_{sur})$ .
7 end
8 Select  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{t}$ : while iter  $\neq T$  do
     $\mathbf{v} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{v}} J^v(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{o}_A^v, \mathbf{o}_P^t, \mathbf{o}_N^t; \mathbf{v}_{sur})$ ;
9     $\mathbf{t} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{t}} J^t(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{o}_A^t, \mathbf{o}_P^v, \mathbf{o}_N^v; \mathbf{t}_{sur})$ .
10 end

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written as follows:

4.3). Taking the image-query-text task as an example, to train the surrogate deep cross-modal networks, we design the triplet loss as follows:

$$L_{tri}^v = \max_{\mathbf{v}} \sum_{i=1}^M D(\mathbf{H}_A^v, \mathbf{H}_P^t) - D(\mathbf{H}_A^v, \mathbf{H}_N^t) + \gamma, \quad (7)$$

where  $D$  denotes Hamming distance calculated by  $\mathbf{B}^v, \mathbf{B}^t$ , and  $\gamma$  is a manually defined constant margin. Considering the binary-like presentations  $\mathbf{H}_A^v, \mathbf{H}_P^t$ , and  $\mathbf{H}_N^t$ , to decrease the quantization error between binary-like presentations and binary codes, we design the quantization loss as follows:

$$L_{qua}^v = \sum_{i=1}^M \|\mathbf{H}_A^v - \mathbf{B}_A^v\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{H}_P^t - \mathbf{B}_P^v\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{H}_N^t - \mathbf{B}_N^v\|_2^2. \quad (8)$$

Therefore, the total loss to train the surrogate image network is the sum of the triplet loss and the quantization loss,  $L^v = L_{tri}^v + L_{qua}^v$ . Similarly, we can obtain the triplet loss for text network  $L^t = L_{tri}^t + L_{qua}^t$ .

After the surrogate deep cross-modal networks have been trained, we begin to create the cross-modal adversarial examples. Similarly, taking image-query-text task as an example, we hope to design the adversarial image example  $\mathbf{o}_A^v$  by learning a perturbation  $\mathbf{v}$  added to the original image query  $\mathbf{o}_A^v = \mathbf{o}_A^v + \mathbf{v}$ . An effective adversarial image example should be pushed away from the positive text instance but pulled close to the negative text instance. This can be

where  $\mathbf{H}_A^v = \mathcal{F}_{sur}^v(\mathbf{o}_A^v; \mathbf{v}_{sur})$ . Besides, the quantization loss mentioned above is applied:

$$J_{qua}^v = \sum_{i=1}^M \|\mathbf{H}_A^v - \mathbf{B}_A^v\|_2^2, \quad (10)$$

where  $\mathbf{B}_A^v = \text{sign}(\mathbf{H}_A^v)$ . Combining  $J_{tri}^v$  with  $J_{qua}^v$ , the total loss to learn image adversarial example is written as follows:

$$J^v = J_{tri}^v + J_{qua}^v. \quad (11)$$

For attacking in text-query-image task, the loss can be designed as  $J^t = J_{tri}^t + J_{qua}^t$ .

To optimize AACH, we first obtain the binary codes of the queries from the target model and construct the cross-modal triplets. Then, we optimize the surrogate deep networks as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_{sur} &= \arg \min_{\mathbf{v}_{sur}} L^v(\mathbf{o}_A^v, \mathbf{o}_P^t, \mathbf{o}_N^t; \mathbf{v}_{sur}); \\ \mathbf{t}_{sur} &= \arg \min_{\mathbf{t}_{sur}} L^t(\mathbf{o}_A^t, \mathbf{o}_P^v, \mathbf{o}_N^v; \mathbf{t}_{sur}). \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Finally, we keep the  $\mathbf{v}_{sur}$  and  $\mathbf{t}_{sur}$  fixed, and learn cross-modal adversarial perturbations as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} &= \arg \min_{\mathbf{v}} J^v(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{o}_A^v, \mathbf{o}_P^t, \mathbf{o}_N^t; \mathbf{v}_{sur}), \quad \text{s.t. } \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}; \\ \mathbf{t} &= \arg \min_{\mathbf{t}} J^t(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{o}_A^t, \mathbf{o}_P^v, \mathbf{o}_N^v; \mathbf{t}_{sur}), \quad \text{s.t. } \mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t}. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

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## 4. Experiments

### 4.1. Datasets

MIRFlickr-25K consists 25,000 images collected from the Flickr website. Each image is assigned with a related text description to formulate image-text pair. Following the previous method [2], totally 20,015 image-text pairs with 24 most frequent labels are used in our experiment.

NUS-WIDE consists of more than 260,000 image-text pairs. After pruning the data that has no label or text information, We use 190,421 pairs with 21 most frequent labels as our benchmark.

MS COCO [18] contains about 120,000 images. Each image is described with “ve semantically related sentences. We recast the MS COCO dataset to image-text pairs, and each image-text data pair is annotated with at least one label in 80 categories.

For the image modality of all benchmarks, each image is resized to  $224 \times 224 \times 3$ . While for the text modality of MIRFlickr-25K and NUS-WIDE, we represent texts by the bag-of-words vectors with dimensions of 1380 and 1000, respectively. Different from MIRFlickr-25K and NUS-WIDE, we extract the word embedding for the text modality of MS COCO based on Bert for studying the word-level attacking. Thus, each text data is represented with a  $768 \times L$  matrix, where  $L$  is the word number of text, and 768 is the dimension of embedding features. The statistics of three datasets used in our experiments are summarised in Table 1. Notably, due to the training data of the target network are generally unavailable when learning a surrogate network, we only use a part (1000) of the test data to interact with the target model and create adversarial examples. The lower number of the required training data needed for the surrogate network means lower query cost to the target model.

### 4.2. Baselines and Evaluations

Focusing on CMHR, we adopt four popular cross-modal binary code learning methods including DCMH [2], PRDH [37], SSAH [15], and CMHH [2]. For image modality, DCMH and PRDH use vgg-f [27] as ImgNet, while CMHH adopts AlexNet [14]. For text modality, DCMH, PRDH, and CMHH construct the TxtNet with three fully connected layers. Different from these methods, SSAH devises the TxtNet by integrating a “ve-layer fully connected network into a multi-scale fusion module and further constructs LabNet as an assist to ImgNet and TxtNet. Considering that the text representation of MS COCO is a feature matrix, which is different from MIRFlickr-25K and NUS-WIDE, thus we replace the original input layer with a full-convolutional layer when evaluating on MS COCO. All the

Table 1: Statistics of three datasets used in our experiments.

Dataset	Network	Target (train/test/database)	Surrogate (train)
MIRFlickr-25K		10000 / 2000 / 18015	1000
NUS-WIDE		10500 / 2100 / 188321	1000
MS COCO		10000 / 5000 / 117218	1000

networks, of course, are assumed to be unknown in our black-box setting attacking. Therefore, selecting baselines with different kinds of networks can also demonstrate the generalization of the learned adversarial examples across deep models. In addition, to evaluate the attack transferability across different code lengths, pre-trained models of these baselines in producing binary codes of different lengths are also used in our experiments. For target models, the source codes of DCMH, PRDH, and SSAH are provided by the authors. While for CMHH whose code is not available, we implement it carefully by ourselves.

To evaluate our AACH, two commonly used protocols in CMHR are adopted in this work, namely MAP that measures the accuracy of the Hamming ranking procedure and precision recall curve (PR curve) that measures the accuracy of binary code lookups. Following previous methods, we show the imperceptibility of the adversarial examples by introducing another indicator of distortion  $\frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n |o_i - \tilde{o}_i|)^2}{|O|}$ , where  $\{v, t\}$ , and  $|O|$  denotes the total pixel number of the original data.

### 4.3. Implementations

The surrogate ImgNet is constructed with the vgg-f, we just replace the last layer with a tanh layer, followed by a sign function to output binary codes. The surrogate TxtNet is built with three fully connected network layers (text input 512 code length). To train the surrogate deep networks and learn adversarial examples, the Adam optimizer with an initial learning rate of 0.01 is used. The margin value of  $\alpha$  is empirically set as  $\alpha = 1/2$ . To construct the cross-modal triplets for each anchor, samples with the top 10 shortest and longest Hamming distance from the training set of the surrogate model are selected as positive instances and negative instances, respectively. For the attack strengths of different modalities,  $\delta$  is set as 8 for the image,  $\delta^t$  is set as 0.05 for text, and the adversarial perturbations  $\{v, t\}$  are both initialized with zeros. After the adversarial examples are generated, we clip the image into  $[0, 255]$  and clip text into  $[0, 1]$ . We implement all the networks including the proposed AACH and the baselines via TensorFlow [1] and run on a server with one NVIDIA Tesla P40 GPU. In the experiments, we run all the methods 10 times and report their average results.



Reg retrieval is shown with shading.

Tasks		Iterations	MIRFlickr-25K				NUS-WIDE				MS COCO			
			DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH	DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH	DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH
I	T	Reg												
		100	0.654	0.676	0.631	0.693	0.475	0.516	0.462	0.577	0.544	0.548	0.523	0.537
		Ours	200	0.633	0.630	0.580	0.687	0.457	0.503	0.413	0.571	0.502	0.514	0.479
		500	0.631	0.616	0.564	0.645	0.439	0.497	0.395	0.413	0.461	0.497	0.453	0.411
T	I	Reg												
		100	0.698	0.674	0.689	0.599	0.579	0.536	0.603	0.520	0.481	0.479	0.472	0.478
		Ours	200	0.688	0.668	0.678	0.595	0.571	0.531	0.596	0.512	0.479	0.473	0.407
		500	0.641	0.634	0.647	0.592	0.543	0.524	0.554	0.502	0.475	0.457	0.451	0.405

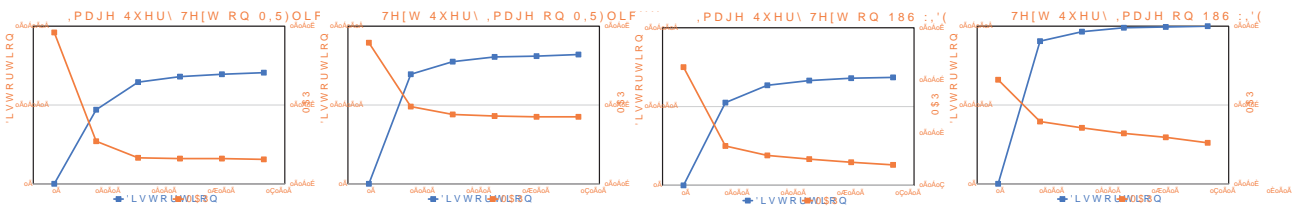


Figure 3: Variation of DCMH in terms of MAP value and distortion with increasing iterations.

#### 4.4. Results

To evaluate the cross-modal adversarial examples with different query budgets. We vary the number of adversarial queries  $M$ , and each adversarial example is learned with 500 iterations. The attack comparisons in terms of MAP scores on MIRFlickr-25K, NUS-WIDE, and MS COCO are shown in Table 3. Obviously, the MAP scores uniformly decrease with an increasing number of adversarial examples from 200 to 500. For example, taking 500 queries interacting with the target networks only once, we can respectively achieve an average 16% and 10% decrease of  $\bullet$  T $\ddot{Z}$  and  $\bullet$  T $\ddot{I}$  on MIRFlickr-25K benchmark. Notably, we also see that the attacking performance slightly degrades when boosting the number of query data from 500 to 1000, which means some inaccurate information has been obtained during the interaction with target models. Therefore, using high-quality query data would be beneficial to improve the learning efficiency of adversarial examples. PR and  $\bullet$  I $\ddot{Z}$  are used. (3) as mentioned above, for MS COCO, curves of different methods under AACH are also provided in Fig. 4, where 500 adversarial examples learned with 100 iterations are used to test. The bigger area under the curve, our AACH achieves high attacking performance, which also demonstrates the good generalization performance of our method. In addition, the distortion variation and MAP values of DCMH with increased learning iterations are shown in Fig. 3. As we initialize the adversarial perturbations to zeros, it can be seen that along with the increasing iterations the distortion gradually gets larger while the MAP score gets lower. This process demonstrates that our AACH far

is learning how to fool the target model.

We also evaluate the effectiveness of our AACH with different query budgets. We vary the number of adversarial queries  $M$ , and each adversarial example is learned with 500 iterations. The attack comparisons in terms of MAP scores on MIRFlickr-25K, NUS-WIDE, and MS COCO are shown in Table 3. Obviously, the MAP scores uniformly decrease with an increasing number of adversarial examples from 200 to 500. For example, taking 500 queries interacting with the target networks only once, we can respectively achieve an average 16% and 10% decrease of  $\bullet$  T $\ddot{Z}$  and  $\bullet$  T $\ddot{I}$  on MIRFlickr-25K benchmark. Notably, we also see that the attacking performance slightly degrades when boosting the number of query data from 500 to 1000, which means some inaccurate information has been obtained during the interaction with target models. Therefore, using high-quality query data would be beneficial to improve the learning efficiency of adversarial examples. PR and  $\bullet$  I $\ddot{Z}$  are used. (3) as mentioned above, for MS COCO, curves of different methods under AACH are also provided in Fig. 4, where 500 adversarial examples learned with 100 iterations are used to test. The bigger area under the curve, our AACH achieves high attacking performance, which also demonstrates the good generalization performance of our method. In addition, the distortion variation and MAP values of DCMH with increased learning iterations are shown in Fig. 3. As we initialize the adversarial perturbations to zeros, it can be seen that along with the increasing iterations the distortion gradually gets larger while the MAP score gets lower. This process demonstrates that our AACH far

Reg retrieval is shown with shading.

Tasks	Adversarial Queries	MIRFlickr-25K				NUS-WIDE				MS COCO			
		DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH	DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH	DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH
I T	Reg												
	200	0.655	0.630	0.599	0.694	0.456	0.495	0.441	0.549	0.522	0.550	0.501	0.453
	300	0.646	0.628	0.570	0.685	0.441	0.474	0.426	0.451	0.470	0.522	0.488	0.418
	500	0.631	0.616	0.564	0.645	0.439	0.497	0.395	0.413	0.461	0.497	0.453	0.411
	1000	0.632	0.622	0.583	0.631	0.462	0.463	0.376	0.409	0.519	0.532	0.455	0.414
T I	Reg												
	200	0.748	0.721	0.742	0.655	0.579	0.555	0.612	0.520	0.540	0.534	0.532	0.454
	300	0.715	0.691	0.698	0.609	0.556	0.552	0.586	0.512	0.501	0.497	0.479	0.420
	500	0.641	0.634	0.647	0.592	0.543	0.524	0.554	0.502	0.475	0.457	0.451	0.405
	1000	0.639	0.618	0.648	0.575	0.519	0.525	0.557	0.475	0.487	0.426	0.364	0.417

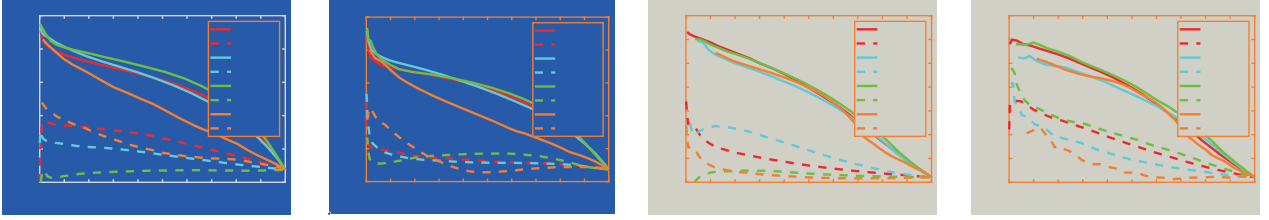


Figure 4: PR curves evaluated on MIRFlickr-25K and NUS-WID with 32-bit binary codes. •\*-A• means that the target model is attacked by the proposed AACH.

Table 4: Attack transferability comparison in terms of MAP scores of two retrieval tasks on MIRFlickr-25K and NUS-WIDE. The adversarial examples are learned from the target model designed for 32-bit binary codes, aiming to attack target models of other bits. •RŽ denotes regular retrieval, and •AŽ denotes attacking retrieval using our proposed AACH.

Tasks	Bits	MIRFlickr-25K								NUS-WIDE							
		DCMH		PRDH		SSAH		CMHH		DCMH		PRDH		SSAH		CMHH	
		R	A	R	A	R	A	R	A	R	A	R	A	R	A	R	A
I T	16	0.752	0.623	0.753	0.610	0.788	0.595	0.733	0.611	0.632	0.446	0.638	0.474	0.664	0.372	0.615	0.560
	32	0.792	0.631	0.783	0.616	0.805	0.564	0.756	0.645	0.625	0.439	0.642	0.497	0.651	0.395	0.596	0.413
	64	0.777	0.638	0.768	0.618	0.801	0.599	0.758	0.641	0.621	0.473	0.648	0.486	0.659	0.388	0.593	0.502
T I	16	0.768	0.644	0.759	0.654	0.780	0.671	0.765	0.657	0.643	0.565	0.629	0.499	0.646	0.593	0.600	0.514
	32	0.779	0.641	0.773	0.634	0.787	0.647	0.772	0.592	0.632	0.543	0.638	0.524	0.664	0.554	0.615	0.502
	64	0.781	0.658	0.776	0.688	0.783	0.683	0.779	0.659	0.624	0.552	0.641	0.527	0.657	0.567	0.605	0.506

the number of queries from the target model can be significantly decreased, which means AACH is more applicable to the case that the query budget will be highly limited.

Furthermore, the transferability of the created adversarial examples across different code lengths is also evaluated as shown in Table 4. We create adversarial examples based on the surrogate cross-modal networks with 32 bits. With the learned adversarial examples, we attack the target cross-modal networks in different code lengths. From Table 4, we can find that the adversarial examples can be well transferable among different code lengths.

Compared with CMLA. CMLA is a pioneer work in the

cross-modal Hamming attacking area. However, the CMLA is designed for a white-box setting. We show the comparison between CMLA and ours on three different benchmarks in Table 5. Taking retrieval on MS COCO as an example, CMLA achieves higher attacking performance, which considerably decreases the retrieval accuracy, particularly in the text modality achieve. This is mainly attributed to CMLA has all prior knowledge including both target network structures and label information. Comparing with CMLA, our proposed AACH does not depend on any prior knowledge, which creates adversarial examples by limitedly interacting with target models. Even so, our proposed AACH achieves

Reg retrieval is shown with shading.

Tasks	Methods	MIRFlickr-25K				NUS-WIDE				MS COCO			
		DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH	DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH	DCMH	PRDH	SSAH	CMHH
I	Reg												
	CMLA	0.521	0.598	0.600	0.563	0.457	0.404	0.357	0.331	0.442	0.396	0.420	0.402
	Ours	0.631	0.616	0.564	0.645	0.439	0.497	0.395	0.413	0.461	0.497	0.453	0.411
T	Reg												
	CMLA	0.561	0.501	0.575	0.564	0.371	0.439	0.320	0.325	0.247	0.256	0.297	0.370
	Ours	0.641	0.634	0.647	0.592	0.543	0.524	0.554	0.502	0.475	0.457	0.451	0.405

(a) Visualization of both the raw image instance (left) and adversarial image query (right)

(b) Visualization of adversarial text query

Figure 5: Cross-modal adversarial examples learned by the proposed AACH.

comparable performance with CMLA on the  $\bullet T \rightarrow I$  task, demonstrating the efficiency of our method. Comparing the attacking results of  $\bullet T \rightarrow I$  between different benchmarks, we can find that methods uniformly achieve higher attacking performances on MS COCO than that on MIRFlickr-25K and NUS-WIDE. This is because that the real feature representation (feature embedding) of text has high-dimensional feature space, which can provide rich semantics for regular retrieval task, but at the same time, increase the risk of being attacked.

Finally, some visualization results of the learned cross-modal adversarial examples on NUS-WIDE benchmark are provided in Fig. 5. For image, we show both the raw queries and the created adversarial examples, where the difference between raw queries and adversarial ones is nearly invisible. While for text, we directly show the adversarial examples. Minor perturbation can be seen in text queries because of the bag-of-words vector representations used in raw text modality.

## 5. Conclusions

This paper proposes a novel adversarial example learning method, dubbed AACH, for cross-modal Hamming re-

trieval, which aims to attack a target deep cross-modal Hamming model in a black-box setting. Our proposed AACH constructs a surrogate model to interact with the target networks by querying it, without requiring any prior knowledge about the target networks. Therefore, to some extent, AACH is more practical for real-world applications compared with state-of-the-art methods. Besides, a novel triplet construction module is proposed to formulate cross-modal triplets, with which we significantly enhance the learning efficiency of adversarial examples. In this way, AACH can be applied in extreme conditions where the query budget is highly limited. Finally, the effectiveness of AACH is well demonstrated by the comprehensive experiments conducted on three representative benchmarks.

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