Adversarial Machine Learning

Machine Learning Course - CS-433 Nov 13, 2024 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

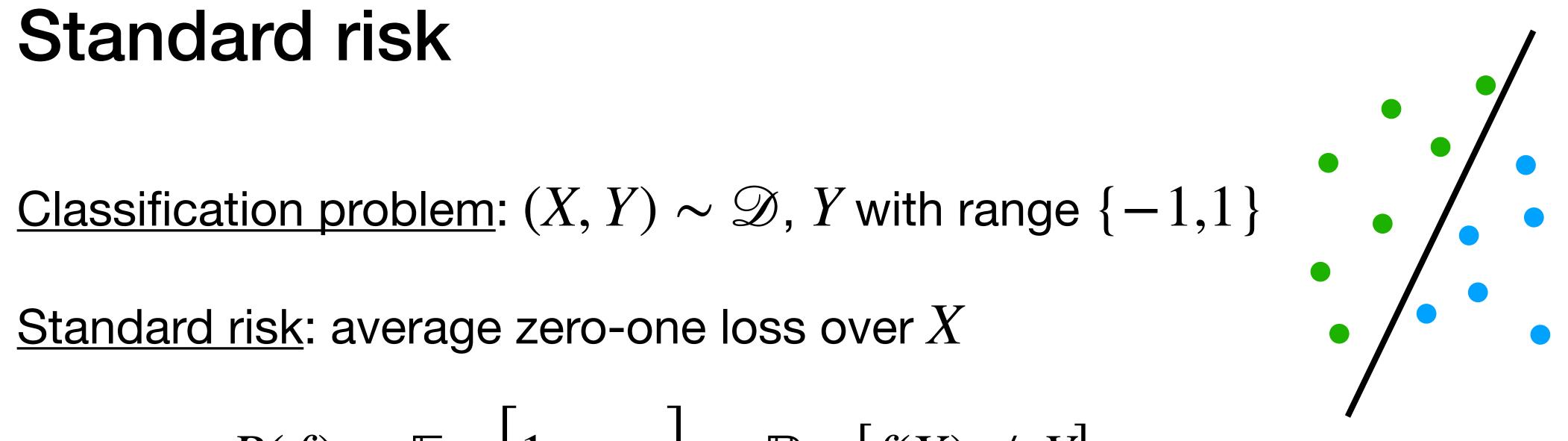
Source: Z. Kolter, A. Madry, NeurIPS'18 tutorial on adversarial robustness

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

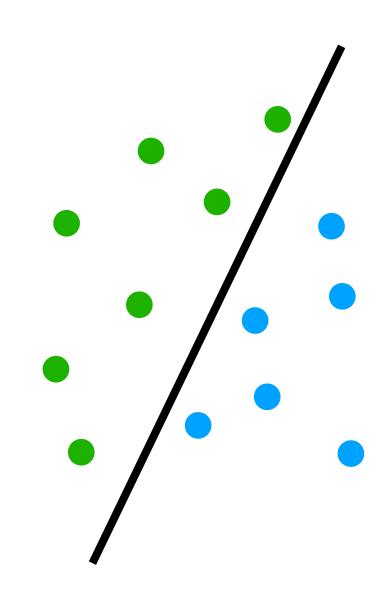
Classification problem: $(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{D}$, Y with range $\{-1, 1\}$

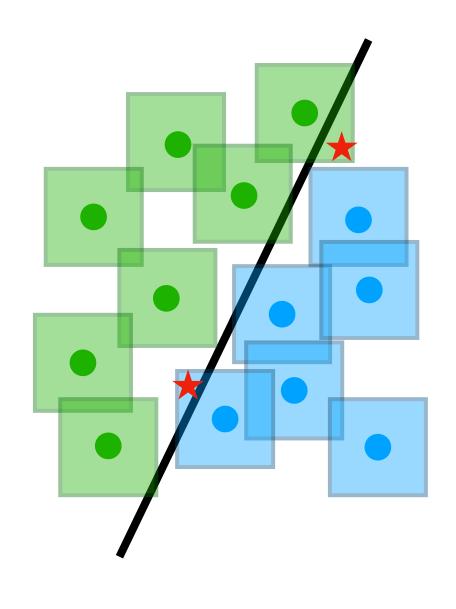
Standard risk: average zero-one loss over X

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

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

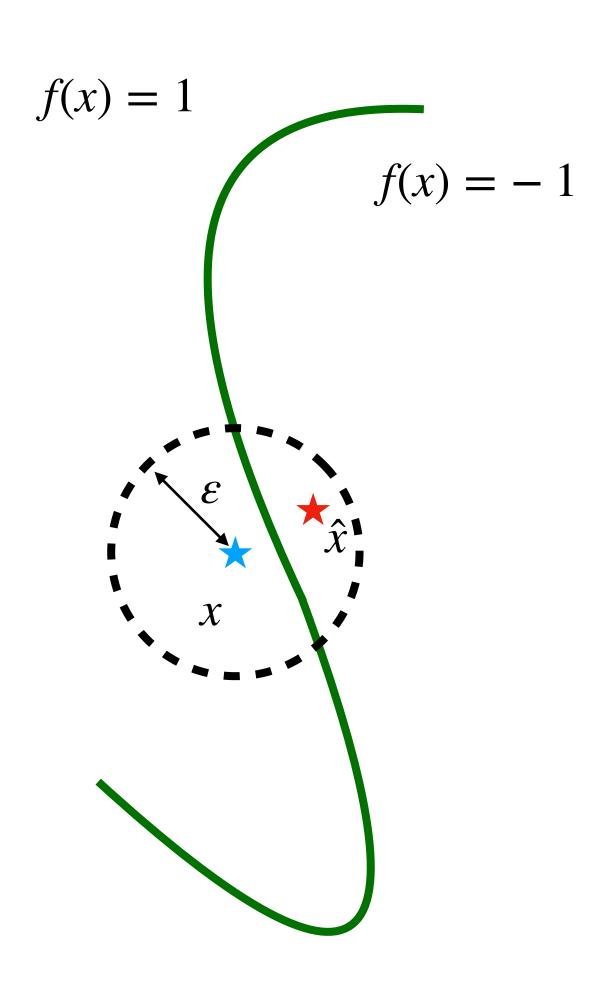
(b) the model f makes a mistake on it

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 $\{-1,1\}$

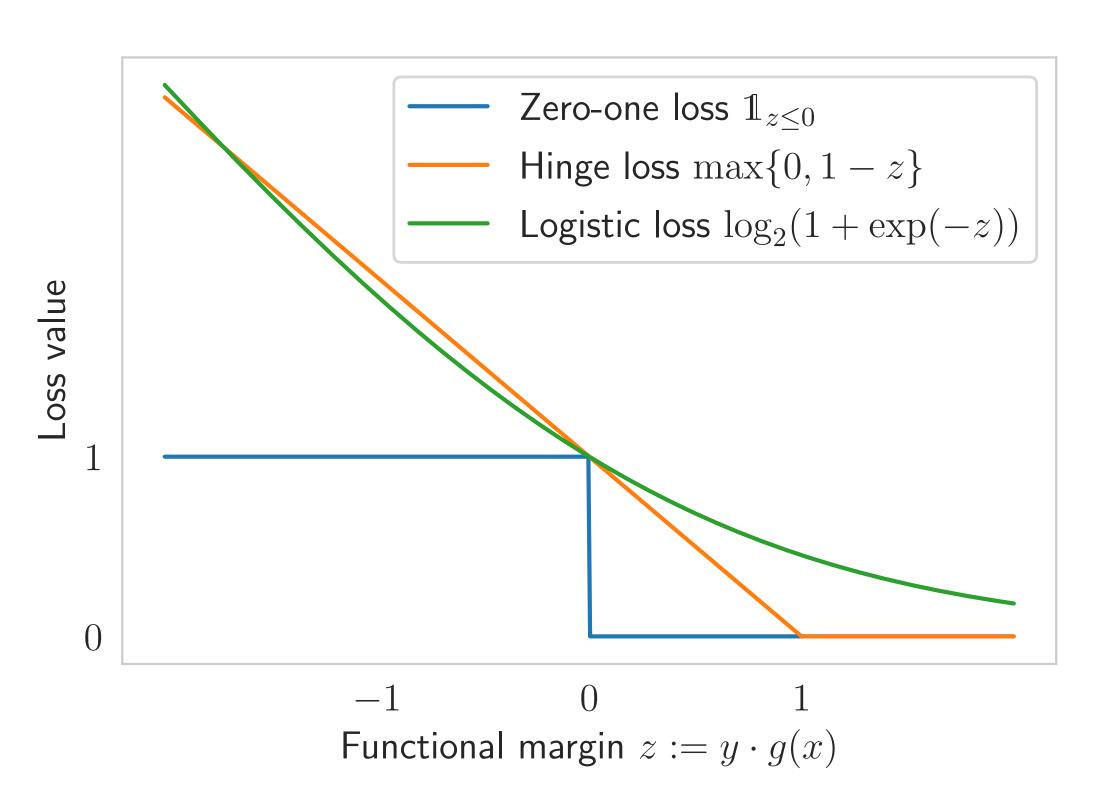
Generating adversarial examples amounts to solving a constrained optimization problem

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:

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

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

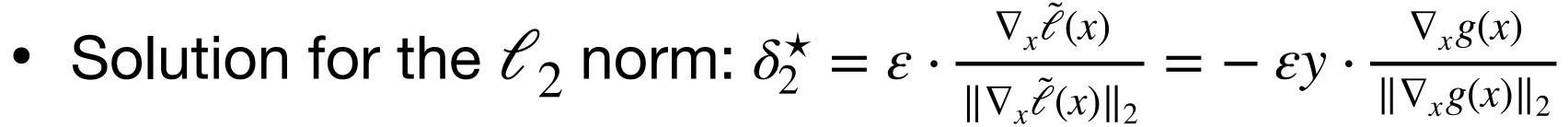
$$= \tilde{\ell}(x) + \max_{\|\delta\| \le \varepsilon} \nabla_x \tilde{\ell}(x)^T \delta$$

- 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 $\|\delta\|$

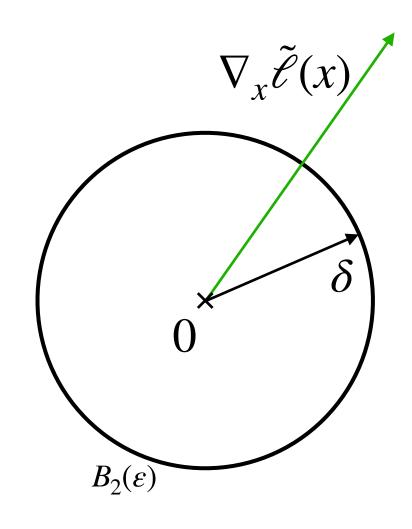
Generating adversarial examples: one-step attack

Problem:

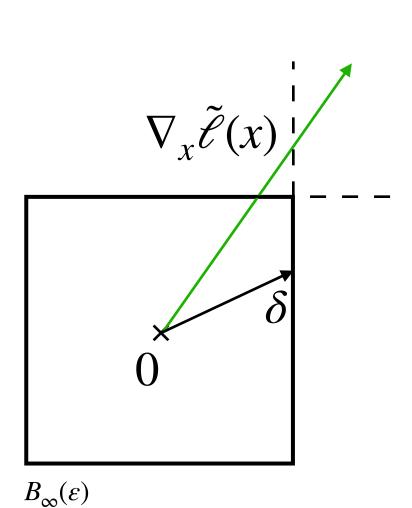
$$\max_{\|\delta\| \le \varepsilon} \nabla_{x} \tilde{\mathcal{E}}(x)^{T} \delta$$



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



- 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)

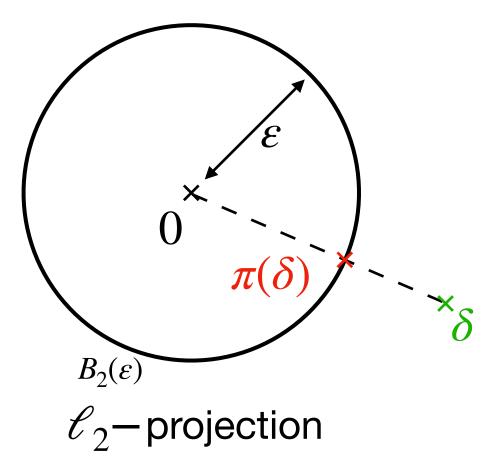
Projected Gradient Descent (PGD attack):

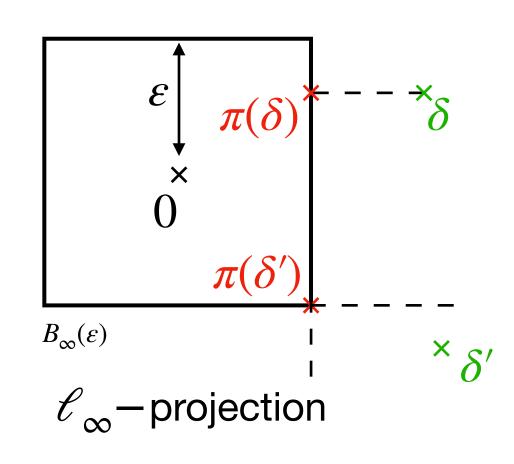
• ℓ_2 norm:

$$\delta^{t+1} = \Pi_{B_2(\varepsilon)} \left[\delta^t + \alpha \cdot \frac{\nabla \tilde{\ell}(x + \delta^t)}{\|\nabla \tilde{\ell}(x + \delta^t)\|_2} \right],$$
 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:

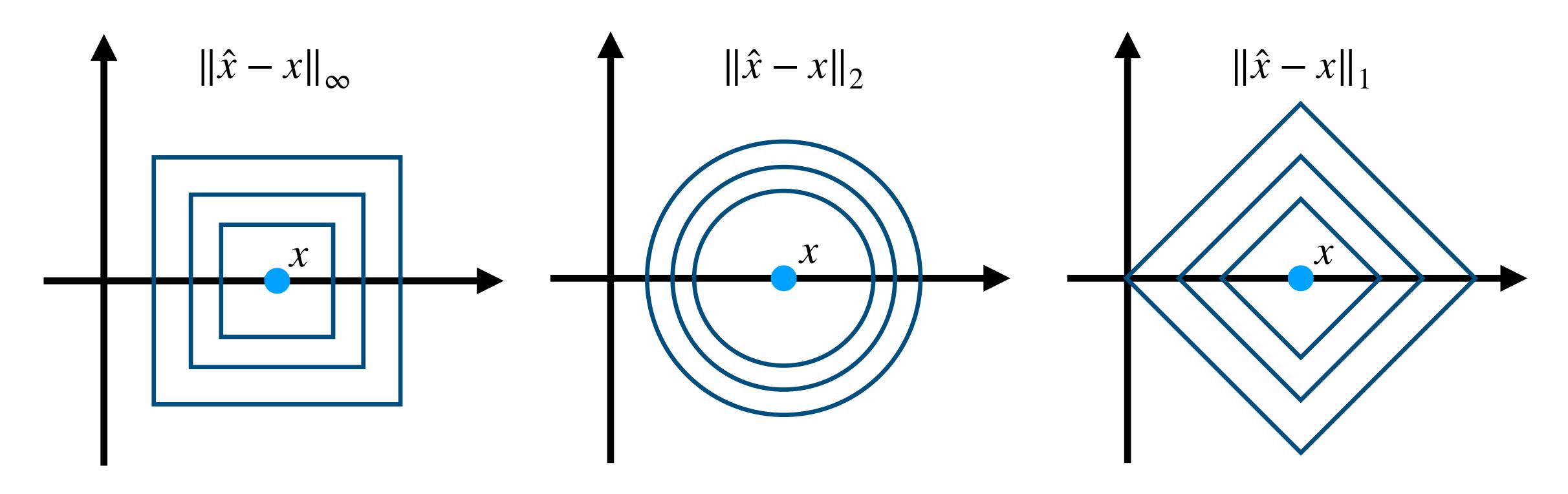
$$\begin{split} \delta^{t+1} &= \Pi_{B_{\infty}(\varepsilon)} \left[\delta^t + \alpha \cdot \mathrm{sign}(\, \nabla \tilde{\ell}(x + \delta^t)) \right], \\ \text{where } \Pi_{B_{\infty}(\varepsilon)}(\delta)_i &= \begin{cases} \varepsilon \cdot \mathrm{sign}(\delta_i), & \text{if } |\delta_i| \geq \varepsilon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





Reminder: ℓ_p norms

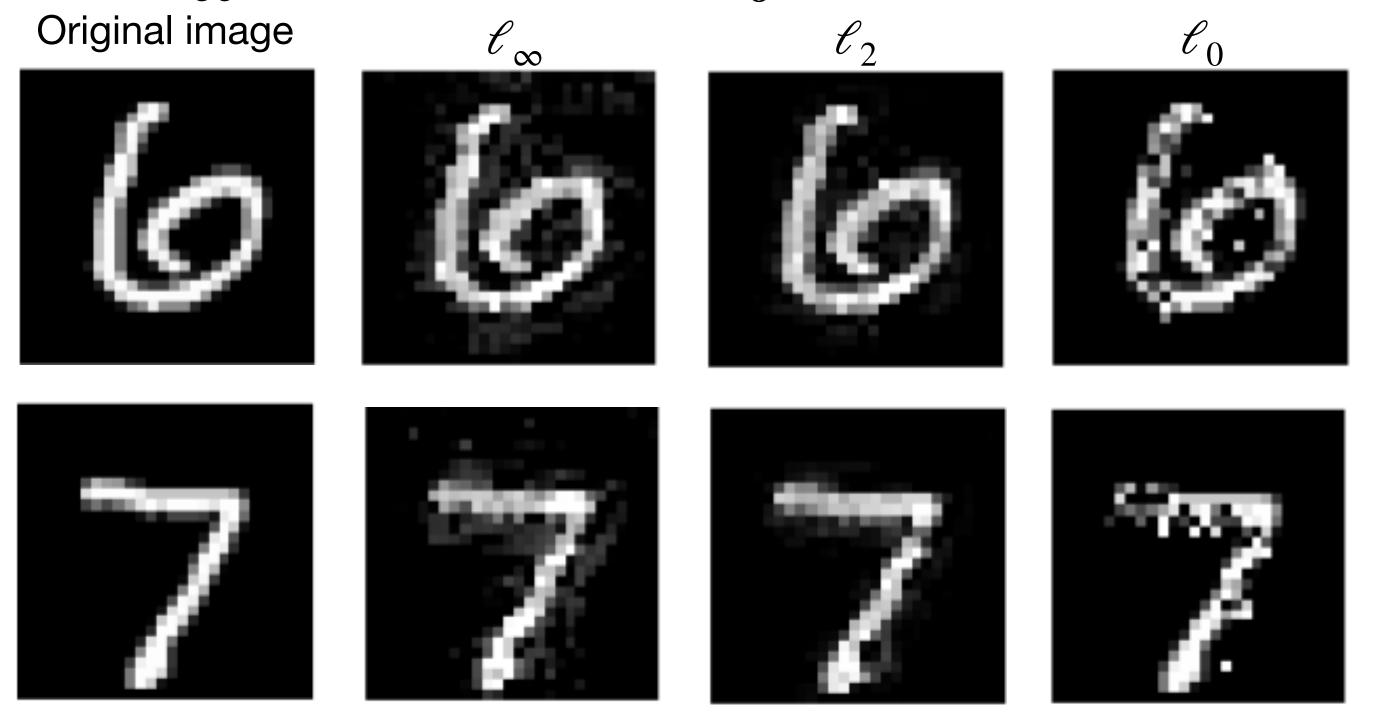
Different ℓ_p norms have different geometry



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:

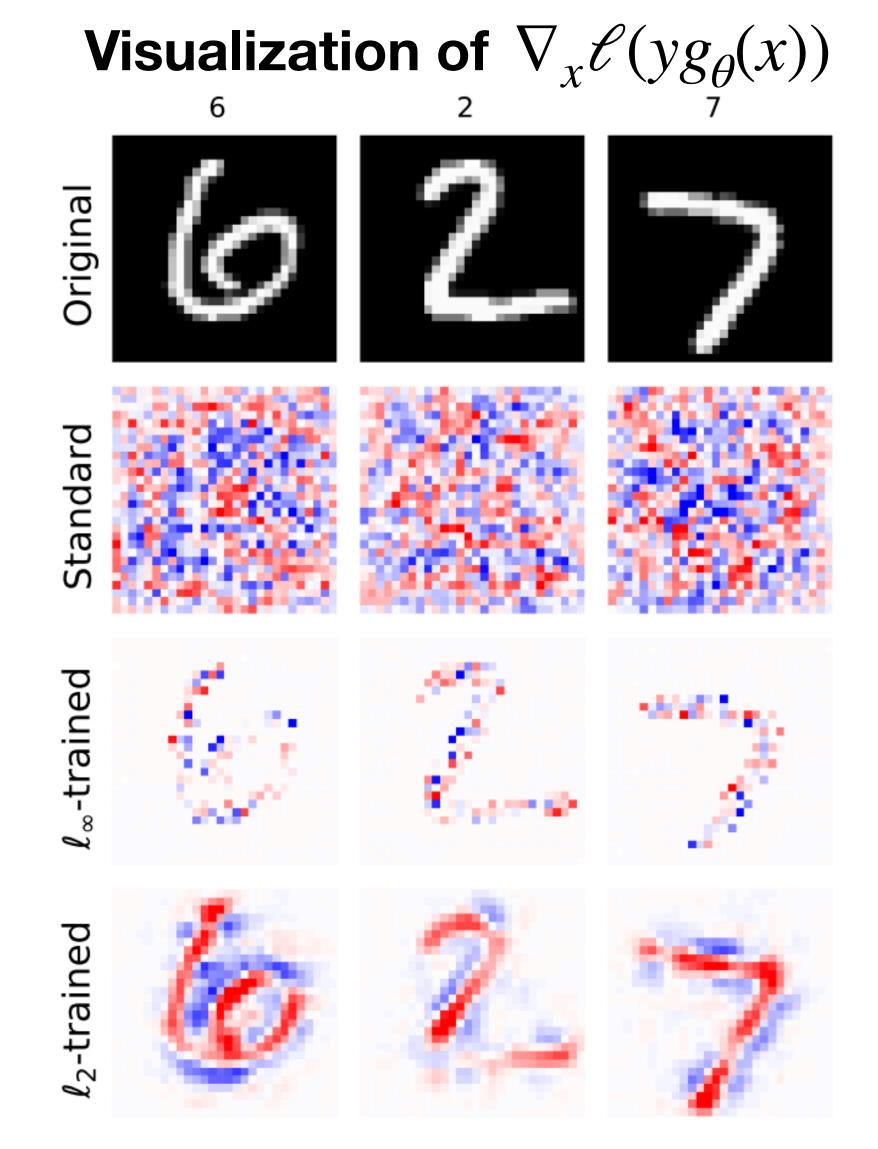
- 1. For each x_n , approximate $\hat{x}_n^\star \approx \arg\max_{\|x_n \hat{x}_n\| \le \varepsilon} \ell(y_n g_\theta(\hat{x}_n))$ via the **PGD attack**
- 2. Perform a gradient descent step w.r.t. θ using $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{E}(y_{n}g_{\theta}(\hat{x}_{n}^{\star}))$ Note 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)



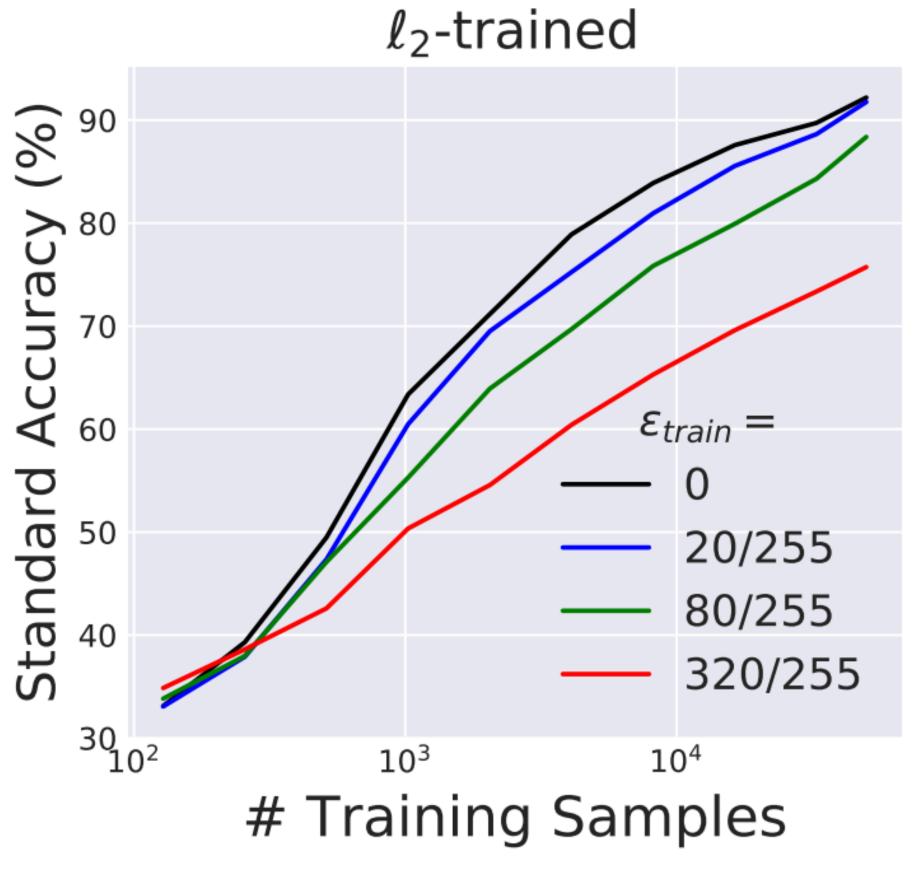
Source: Robustness May Be at Odds with Accuracy (ICLR 2019)

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

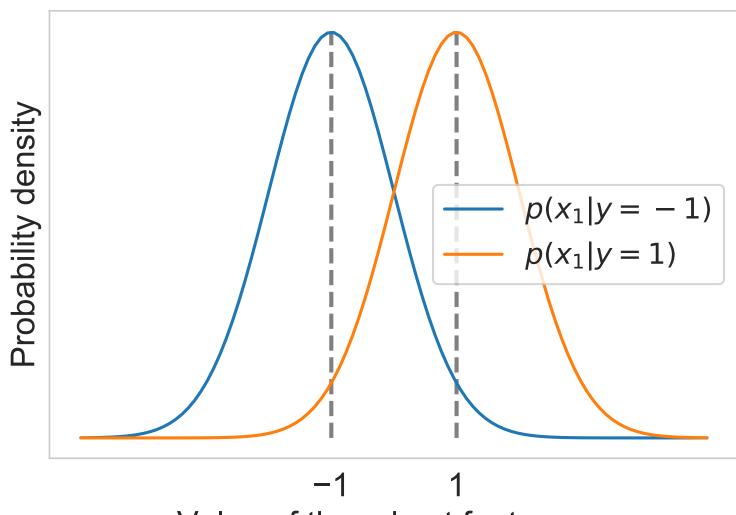
Consider
$$x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
, $y \sim \mathcal{U}(\{-1,1\})$, $Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$:

• Robust features: $x_1 = y + Z_1$

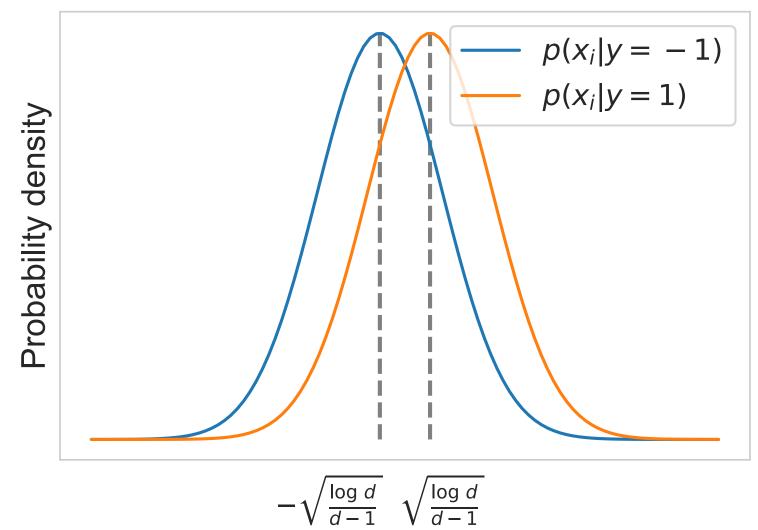
. Non-robust features:
$$x_i = y\sqrt{\frac{\log d}{d-1}} + Z_i$$
 for $i \in \{2,\dots,d\}$

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

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

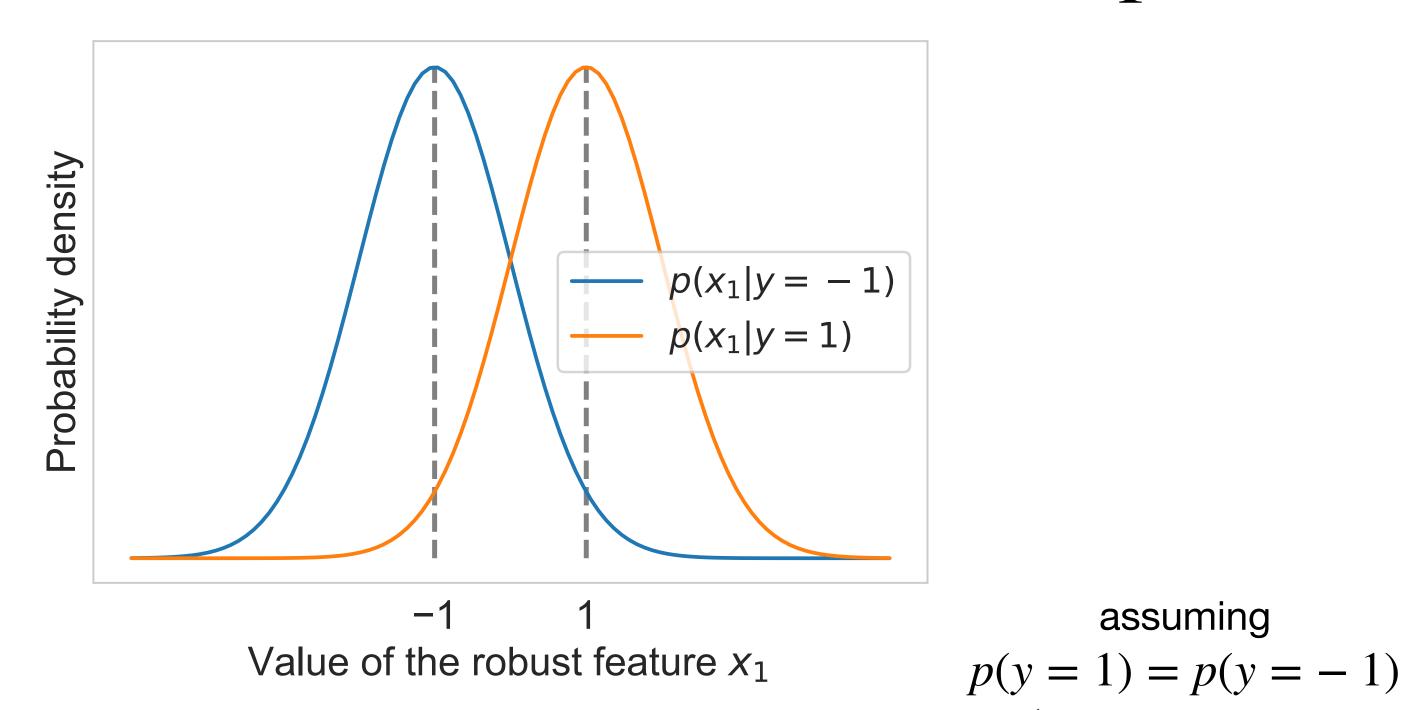


Value of the robust feature x_1



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

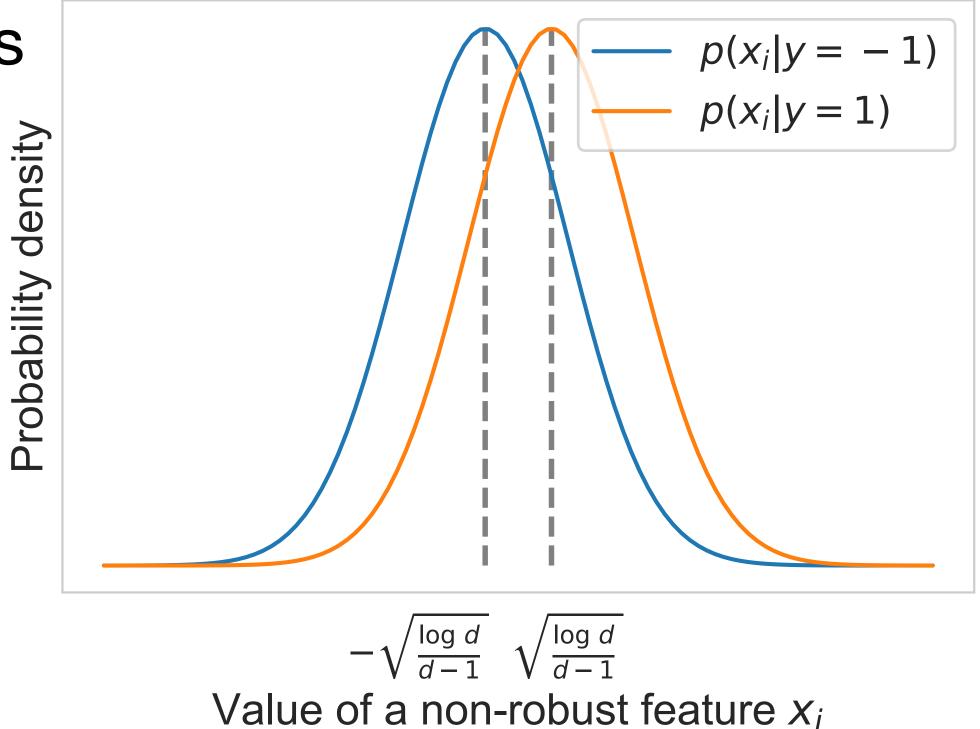
$$\varepsilon = 2\sqrt{\frac{\log d}{d-1}} \ (\to 0 \text{ when } d \to \infty)$$

Optimal adversarial strategy:

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

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

- Adversarial risk $R_{\varepsilon}(f)$ will become ≈ 1 (due to non-robust x_i) although standard risk R(f) is 0!
- But: only using the robust feature x_1 leads to $R_{\varepsilon}(f) \approx R(f) = 0.16$
 - → tradeoff between accuracy and robustness



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