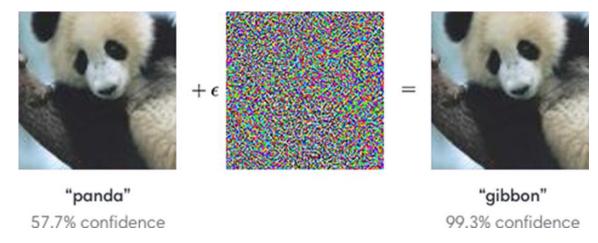
#### L3.2 Adversarial Attacks



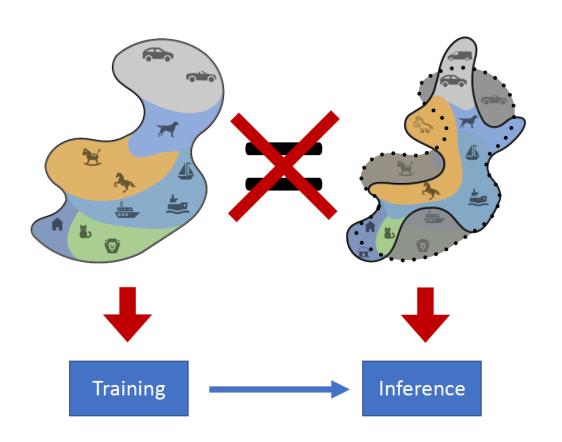
Zonghua Gu, Umeå University Nov. 2023

#### Outline

- Adversarial attacks via local search
- Physically-realizable attacks
- Training adversarially robust models

### A Limitation of the (Supervised) ML Framework

- Distribution Shift: data distribution during inference may NOT be the same as the training dataset
- May be naturally occurring, or may be due to adversarial attacks

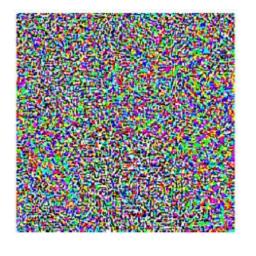


## Adversarial Examples

 Starting with an image of a panda, the attacker adds a small perturbation that has been calculated to make the image be recognized as a gibbon with high confidence

+.007 ×





 $sign(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}}J(\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{x},y))$ "nematode"
8.2% confidence



 $x + \epsilon sign(\nabla_{x}J(\theta, x, y))$ "gibbon"
99.3 % confidence

## Adversarial Attacks w. Input Perturbation

- For a given input image x with correct label y, and a neural network  $f_{\theta}(x)$  that maps from input to label, find a small perturbation  $\delta$  s.t.
  - Untargeted attack:  $f_{\theta}(x + \delta) \neq y$
  - Targeted attack:  $f_{\theta}(x + \delta) = t \neq y$
- Which input perturbations  $\delta$  are allowed? e.g.,  $\delta$  small w.r.t.
  - $l_p$  norm (we focus on it in this lecture)
  - Rotation and/or translation
  - Other perturbations...

#### **Vector Norms**

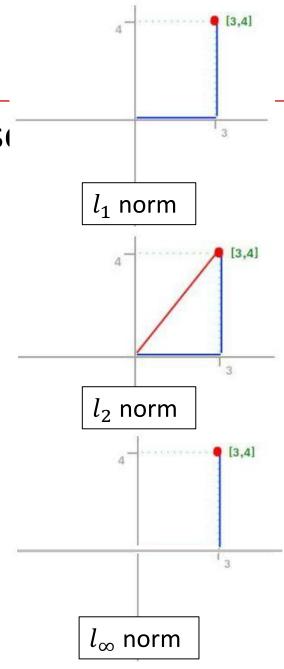
- $l_p$  norm of a k-dimensional vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is a solution  $\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^k |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$ . Suppose  $x = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$
- $l_1$  norm:  $||x||_1 = \sum_i |x_i|$  (Manhattan Distance)

$$\bullet = |3| + |4| = 7$$

•  $l_2$  norm:  $||x||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$  (Euclidean norm)

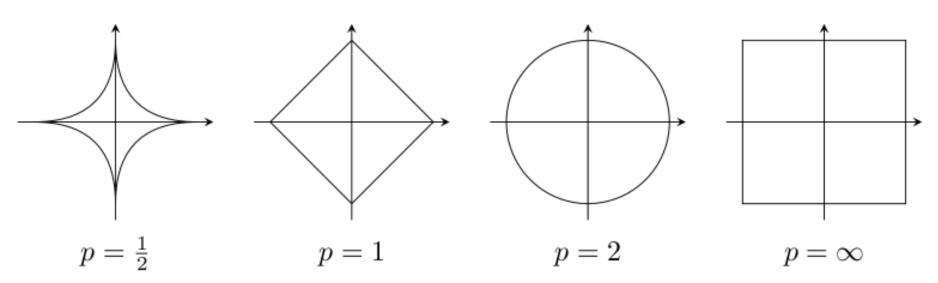
$$\bullet = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$$

- $l_{\infty}$  norm:  $||x||_{\infty} = \max_{i} |x_{i}|$ 
  - $\bullet = \max_{i}(3,4) = 4$



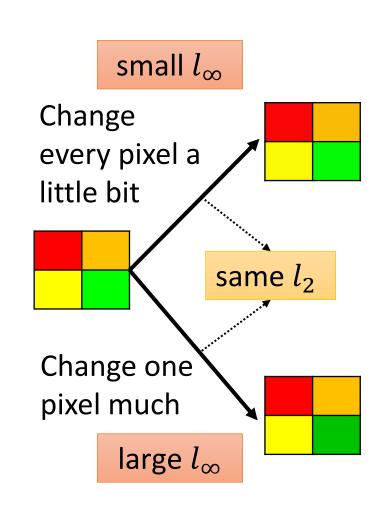
#### Vector Norm Balls

- The  $l_p$  norm ball  $||x||_p \le \epsilon$  is the set of all vectors with p-norm less than or equal to  $\epsilon$ :  $B_p = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k | ||x||_p \le \epsilon\}$
- $l_2$  norm ball  $||x||_2 \le \epsilon$ : a circle with radius  $\epsilon$  centered at origin
- $l_{\infty}$  norm ball  $||x||_{\infty} \le \epsilon$  : a square with edge length  $2\epsilon$  centered at origin



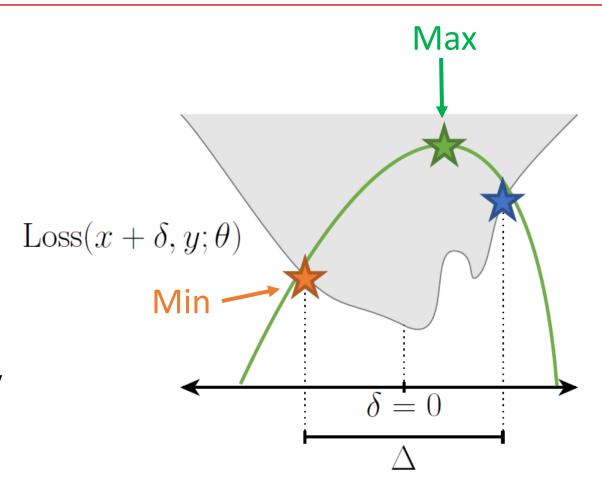
## $l_2$ vs. $l_\infty$ Norm Balls

- Consider the original vector  $x^0 = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$  and two disturbed vectors  $x^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $x^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$ 
  - $\delta^1 = x^0 x^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\delta^2 = x^0 x^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$
- Same  $l_2$  distance:
  - $\|\delta^1\|_2 = \sqrt{7^2 + 7^2} \approx 9.9, \|\delta^2\|_2 = \sqrt{10^2 + 0^2} = 10$
- Different  $l_{\infty}$  distances:
  - $\|\delta^1\|_{\infty} = \max(7,7) = 7$ ,  $\|\delta^2\|_{\infty} = \max(10,0) = 10$
- $l_{\infty}$  distance cares about the one maximally-changed individual pixel, whereas  $l_2$  distance cares about all pixels. An image with added random salt-and-pepper noise will have a large  $l_2$  distance from the original image, but not a large  $l_{\infty}$  distance.
- $l_{\infty}$  seems to be more aligned w. human perception
  - e.g., you can clearly see the color difference of the green pixel in the lower right figure with large  $\,l_\infty$  distance



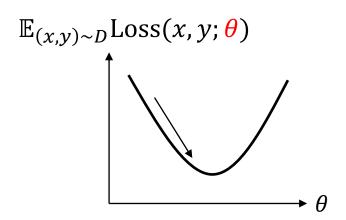
# Maximization Problem for Finding Adversarial Examples

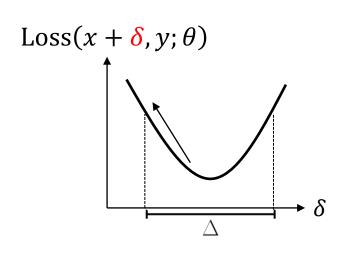
- $\max_{\delta \in \Delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)$ 
  - Loss() may be Cross-Entropy loss for multi-class classification
  - Solved by constructing adversarial examples via local search
- Attacks can be categorized w.r.t.
  - Allowable perturbation set Δ
  - Optimization procedure, e.g., by Gradient Descent



# Model Training vs. Local Search for Adversarial Input Generation

- To solve  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D} \mathrm{Loss}(x,y;\theta)$  for model training: gradient descent  $\theta \leftarrow \theta \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathrm{Loss}(x,y;\theta)$ 
  - Update model params  $\theta$  by following the gradient downhill, in order to decrease Loss $(x, y; \theta)$ . ( $\alpha$  is the Learning Rate)
- To solve  $\max_{\substack{\delta \in \Delta \\ \text{adversarial input generation: gradient}} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)$  for adversarial input generation: gradient ascent  $\delta \leftarrow \delta + \alpha \nabla_{\delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)$ 
  - Update input  $x + \delta$  by following the gradient uphill, in order to increase  $\text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)$ , while ensuring  $\delta \in \Delta$





#### Aside: Vector Derivative

• Consider a scalar (loss) function y = f(x) that takes as input a n-dim vector x and returns a scalar value y, then  $\nabla_x f(x)$  is a n-dim vector:

• 
$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\nabla_x f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_0} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \dots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{n-1}} \end{bmatrix}$ 

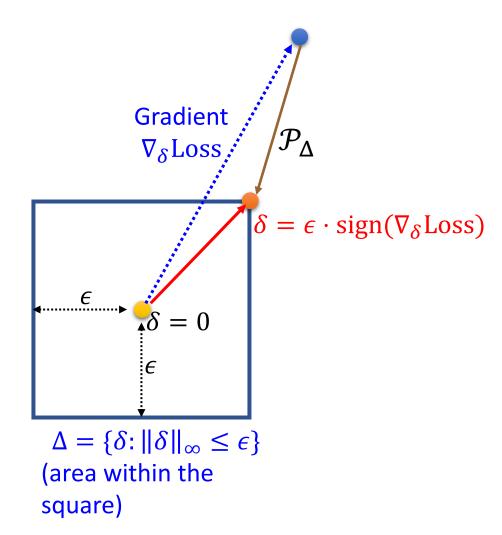
• x,  $\delta$  are vectors, e.g., a 128x128 pixel color image is a 128x128x3 tensor, encoded as a vector of size 128\*128\*3=49152

## Projected Gradient Descent (PGD)

- Take a gradient step, and if you have stepped outside of the feasible set, project back into the feasible set:  $\Delta: \delta \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_{\Delta}(\delta + \alpha \nabla_{\delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta))$ 
  - Input image x is a constant; perturbation  $\delta$  is the optimization variable. Hence we take derivative w.r.t.  $\delta$ :  $\nabla_{\delta}$ Loss()

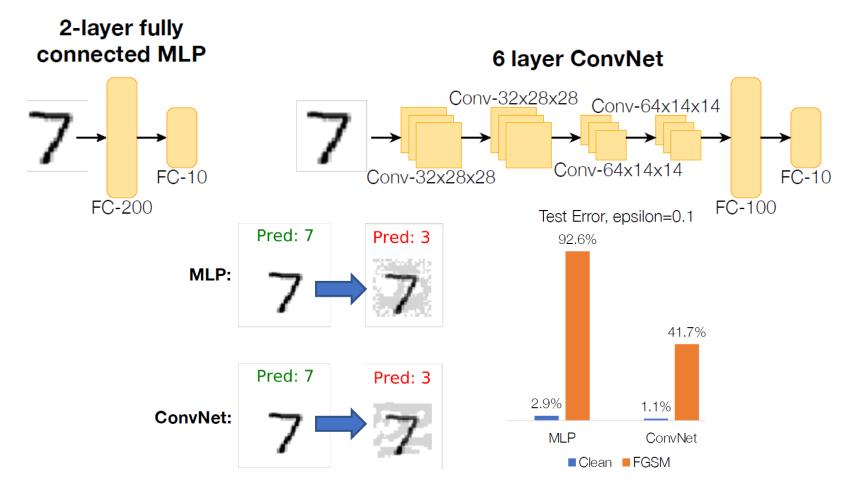
## Fast Gradient Sign Method (FGSM)

- FGSM is an attack designed for  $l_{\infty}$  norm bound by taking a single PGD (Projected Gradient Descent) step within  $l_{\infty}$  norm bound  $\Delta = \{\delta : \|\delta\|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon\}$
- Starting from  $\delta = 0$ , take a large step in the gradient direction by making the learning rate  $\alpha$  very large. Then apply projection operator  $\mathcal{P}_{\Delta}$  to clip every dimension of  $\delta$  to lie within range  $[-\epsilon, \epsilon]$ :  $\mathcal{P}_{\Delta}(\delta) \coloneqq \text{Clip}(\delta, [-\epsilon, \epsilon])$ , i.e.,
  - $\delta = \mathcal{P}_{\Delta}(0 + \alpha \nabla_{\delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)) = \epsilon \cdot \text{sign}(\nabla_{\delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta))$
- The specific values of  $\alpha$  and gradient do not matter if they are large enough; only the gradient direction matters (Any gradient direction in the upper right quadrant of the  $l_{\infty}$  norm ball will result in the same  $\delta$  at the upper right corner)



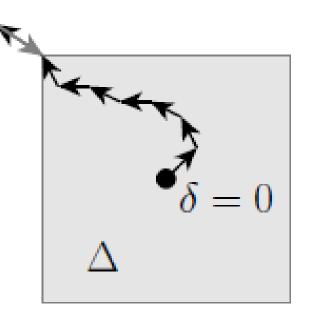
## Adversarial Examples by FGSM

• Two NNs for MNIST classification.  $l_{\infty}$  norm bound  $\|\delta\|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon = 0.1$ 

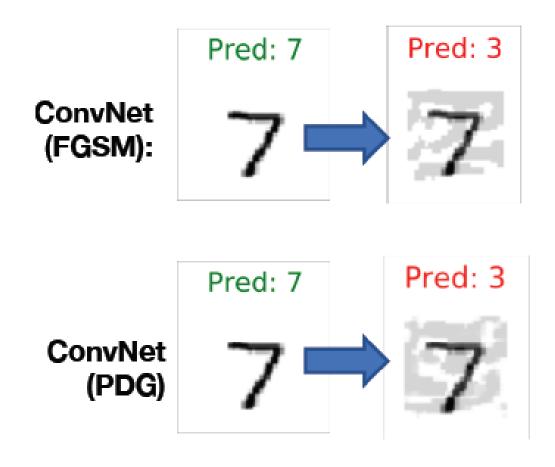


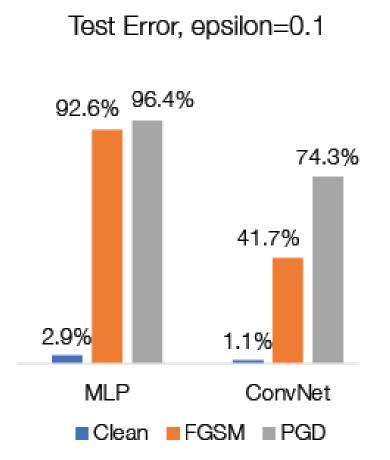
### PGD w. Small Steps

- Recall FGSM takes one large step with size  $\alpha = \epsilon$ :  $\delta = \mathcal{P}_{\Delta} (0 + \alpha \nabla_{\delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)) = \epsilon \cdot \text{sign}(\nabla_{\delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta))$
- PGD takes many small steps (each with size  $\alpha$ ) to iteratively update  $\delta$ :
  - Repeat:  $\delta \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_{\Delta} \left( \delta + \alpha \cdot \text{sign} (\nabla_{\delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)) \right)$
  - Rule-of-thumb: choose  $\alpha$  to be a small fraction of  $\epsilon$ , and set the number of iterations to be a small multiple of  $\epsilon/\alpha$
- Fig shows a sequence of gradient steps, with the last step going outside of the  $l_\infty$  ball  $\Delta$ , but  $\mathcal{P}_\Delta$  brings it back into  $\Delta$ 
  - Fig shows the final  $\delta$  to end up at a corner of the  $l_{\infty}$  ball, but it may not be true in general



### PGD Examples





## Review: Cross-Entropy Loss for Multi-Class Classification

• The SoftMax operator  $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}^k$  computes a vector of predicted probabilities  $\sigma(z): \mathbb{R}^k$  from a vector of logits  $z: \mathbb{R}^k$  in the last hidden layer (the penultimate layer), where k is the number of classes:

• 
$$\sigma(z)_i = \frac{\exp(z_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k \exp(z_j)}$$

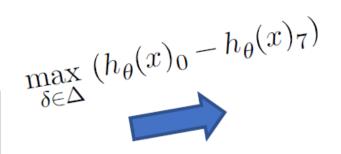
• The loss function is defined as the negative log likelihood of the predicted probability corresponding to the correct label y:

• Loss
$$(x, y; \theta) = -\log \sigma(h_{\theta}(x)_y) = -\log \left(\frac{\exp(h_{\theta}(x)_y)}{\sum_{j=1}^k \exp(h_{\theta}(x)_j)}\right) = \log\left(\sum_{j=1}^k \exp(h_{\theta}(x)_j)\right) - h_{\theta}(x)_y$$

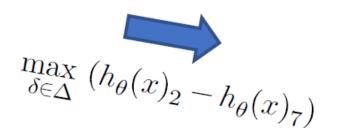
• Minimizing Loss $(h_{\theta}(x), y)$  amounts to maximizing the logit  $h_{\theta}(x)_y$  corresponding to the correct label y

### Untargeted vs. Targeted Attacks

- Untargeted attack: maximize loss of the true class y:
  - $\max_{\delta \in \Delta} \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)$
  - Since SoftMax is a monotonic function:
  - Loss $(x + \delta, y; \theta) = \log(\sum_{j=1}^{k} \exp(h_{\theta}(x + \delta)_j)) h_{\theta}(x + \delta)_y$
  - This is equivalent to minimizing logit of the true class y: Pred: 7
  - $\min_{\delta \in \Delta} h_{\theta}(x + \delta)_{y}$
- Targeted attack: maximize loss of the true class y and minimize loss of a particular target class  $y_{targ}$ , in order to change label to  $y_{targ}$ :
  - $\max_{\delta \in \Delta} (\text{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta) \text{Loss}(x + \delta, y_{targ}; \theta))$
  - This is equivalent to minimizing logit of the true class y while maximizing logit of the target class  $y_{targ}$ :
  - $\min_{\delta \in \Delta} (h_{\theta}(x+\delta)_y h_{\theta}(x+\delta)_{y_{targ}})$
  - Alternative formulation: minimizing logit of all the other classes y' while maximizing logit of the target class  $y_{targ}$ :
  - $\min_{\delta \in \Delta} \left( \sum_{y' \neq y_{targ}} h_{\theta}(x + \delta)_{y'} h_{\theta}(x + \delta)_{y_{targ}} \right)$









#### Outline

- Adversarial attacks via local search
- Physically-realizable attacks
- Training adversarially robust models

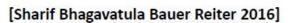
## Physically-Realizable Attacks

- Instead of directly manipulating pixels, it is possible to modify physical objects and cause miss-classification
- [Evtimov et al 2017]: Physical Adversarial Examples Against Deep Neural Networks
  - https://bair.berkeley.edu/blog/2017/12/30/yolo-attack/



[Kurakin Goodfellow Bengio 2017]







[Athalye Engstrom Ilyas Kwok 2017]



## An optimization approach to creating robust adversarial examples

- The following optimization problem for targeted attack aims to minimize the cost function for input  $x+\delta$  and target label  $y_{targ}$  ( $\lambda$  is the Lagrange multiplier; the objective tries to minimize the perturbation  $\|\delta\|_p$  instead of putting a hard bound on  $\|\delta\|_p$ )
  - $\operatorname{argmin}_{\delta} \lambda \|\delta\|_{p} + J(f_{\theta}(x+\delta), y_{targ})$
- To create a universal perturbation for robust adversarial examples, enhance the training dataset with multiple (k) variants of the input image at different viewing angles and lighting conditions
  - $\operatorname{argmin}_{\delta} \lambda \|\delta\|_{p} + \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} J(f_{\theta}(x+\delta), y^{*})$







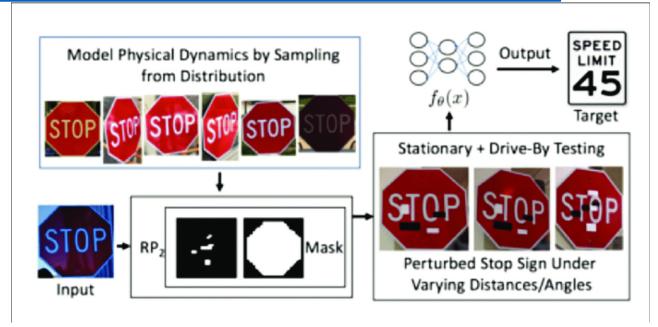






## Optimizing Spatial Constraints

- To make the perturbation imperceptible to humans, we add a mask  $M_\chi$  to localize the perturbation to specific areas of the Stop Sign to mimic vandalism:
  - $\operatorname{argmin}_{\delta} \lambda \| M_{x} \cdot \delta \|_{p} + \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} J(f_{\theta}(x + M_{x} \cdot \delta), y^{*})$
  - Use  $l_1$  norm in  $\|M_x \cdot \delta\|_1$  to find the most vulnerable regions (since  $l_1$  loss promotes sparsity), then generate perturbation  $\delta$  within these regions
- Video demos:
  - "Bo Li Secure Learning in Adversarial Autonomous Driving Environments" https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0VfBGWnFNuw&t=421s

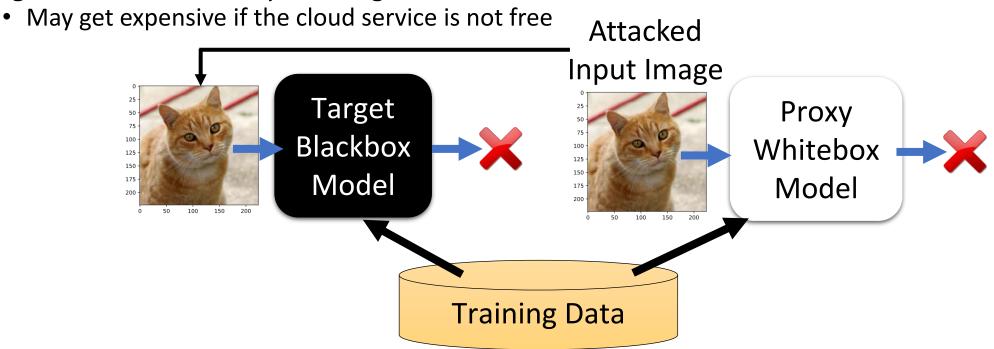


## Adversarial Traffic Signs

Distance/Angle	Subtle Poster	Subtle Poster Right Turn	Camouflage Graffiti	Camouflage Art (LISA-CNN)	Camouflage Art (GTSRB-CNN)
5′ 0°	STOP		STOP	STOP	STOP
5′ 15°	STOP		STOP	STOP	STOP
10' 0°	STOP		STOP	STOP	STOP
10′ 30°		23334	STOP	STOP	STOP
40' 0°					
Targeted-Attack Success	100%	73.33%	66.67%	100%	80%

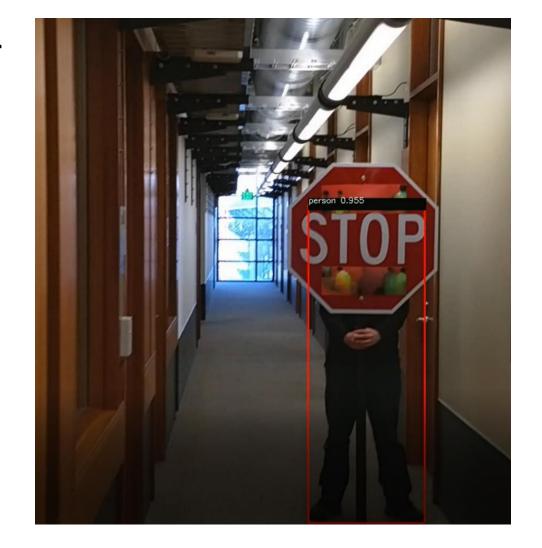
#### Blackbox Attacks

- We have been discussing Whitebox attacks, where we know the NN model parameters heta
- Black Box Attacks:
- If you have the training dataset of the target Blackbox model:
  - Train a proxy Whitebox model yourself
  - Generate attacked objects for the proxy model
- If you do not have the training dataset, you can obtain input-output data pairs from the target Blackbox model by invoking online cloud services



## Blackbox Attack Example

• [Evtimov et al 2017]: Physical adversarial examples generated for the YOLO object detector (the proxy Whitebox model) are also be able to fool Faster-RCNN (the Blackbox model)



#### Phantom of the ADAS

- A phantom is a depthless presented/projected picture of a 3D object (e.g., pedestrian, traffic sign, car, truck, bicycle...), with the purpose of fooling ADAS to treat it as a real object and trigger an automatic reaction
- Phantom attacks by projecting a phantom via a drone equipped with a portable projector:
  - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1cSw4fXYqWI&t=85s
- or by presenting a phantom on a hacked roadside digital billboard:
  - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-E0t\_s6bT\_4







## Algorithm for Disguising Phantoms

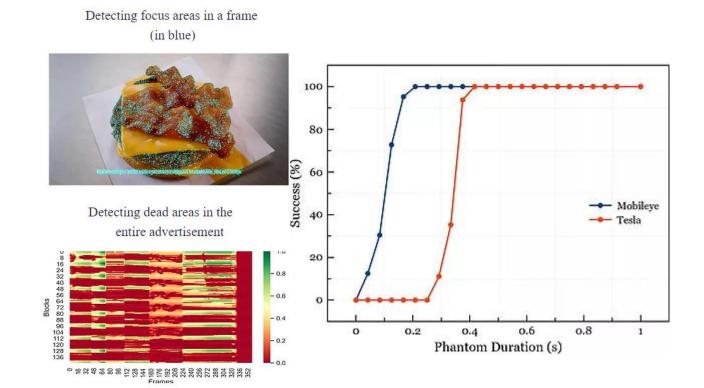
- 1. Extract key points as focus areas of human attention for every frame based on the SURF algorithm
- 2. Compute a local score for every block in a frame that represents how distant a block is from the focus areas, and embed phantoms into "dead areas" that viewers will not focus on
- 3. Display the phantom in at least t consecutive video frames (longer duration leads to higher success rate)

The part of the state of the decision of the d

Original frame

(in green)

-1.0
-0.8
-0.6
-0.4
-0.2



#### Constraints on Perturbations

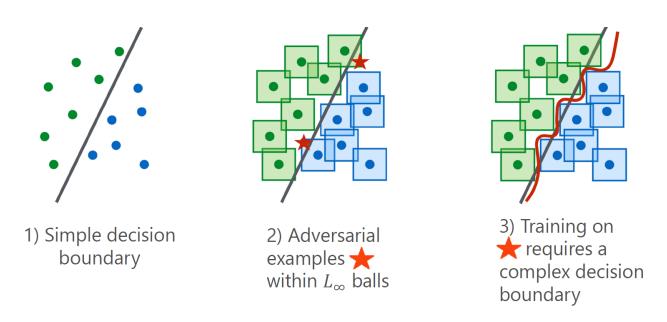
- In Phantom of the ADAS attack, phantoms are embedded into "dead areas" that human viewers are not likely to focus on
- There is no  $\delta \in \Delta$  norm constraint on the allowable perturbations, since it may not be well-aligned with human perception

#### Outline

- Adversarial attacks via local search
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#### Standard ML vs. Adversarial Robust ML

- Standard ML: Empirical Cost Minimization:  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D} \text{Loss}(x,y;\theta)$
- Adversarial Input Generation (untargeted attack):  $\max_{\delta \in \Delta} \operatorname{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)$  (e.g., FGSM, PGD)
- Adversarial Robust ML:  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D} \max_{\delta\in\Lambda} \operatorname{Loss}(x+\delta,y;\theta)$ 
  - Inner maximization problem: generating an adversarial input by adding a small perturbation  $\delta$  (or ensuring one does not exist)
  - Outer minimization problem: training a robust classifier in the presence of adversarial examples
  - Higher network capacity enables more complex decision boundary and more robust classification



#### Danskin's Theorem

- How to compute the gradient of the objective with the max term inside?
- Danskin's Theorem:
  - $\nabla_y \max_x f(x, y) = \nabla_y f(x^*, y)$ , where  $x^* = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmax}} f(x, y)$
  - (Only true when max is performed exactly)
- In our case:
  - $\nabla_{\theta} \max_{\delta \in \Delta} \operatorname{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta) = \nabla_{\theta} \operatorname{Loss}(x + \delta^*, y; \theta)$ , where  $\delta^* = \underset{\delta \in \Delta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \operatorname{Loss}(x + \delta, y; \theta)$
  - Optimize through the max operator by finding the  $\delta^*$  that maximizes the loss function, then taking gradient at  $x+\delta^*$

### Adversarial Training [Goodfellow et al., 2014]

#### Repeat:

- 1. Select minibatch B, initialize gradient vector g := 0
- 2. For each (x, y) in B:
  - a. Find an attack perturbation  $\delta^*$  by (approximately) optimizing

$$\delta^\star = rgmax \, \ell(h_ heta(x+\delta), y) \ \|\delta\| \le \epsilon$$

b. Add gradient at  $\delta^*$ 

$$g := g + \nabla_{\theta} \ell(h_{\theta}(x + \delta^{\star}), y)$$

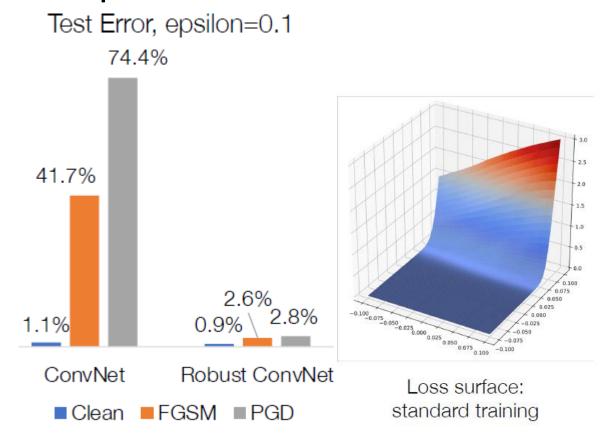
3. Update parameters  $\theta$ 

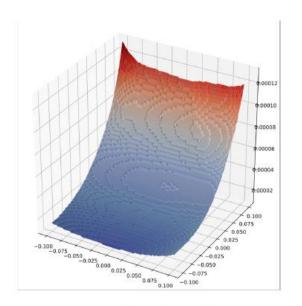
$$\theta := \theta - \frac{\alpha}{|B|}g$$

• Adversarial training effectiveness is directly tied to how well we perform the inner maximization. The key issue is incorporate a strong attack into the inner maximization procedure  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D} \max_{\delta\in\Delta} \mathrm{Loss}(x+\delta,y;\theta)$ 

#### What Makes the Models Robust?

 The robust model has a smoother loss surface, making it more difficult for an attacker to change the class label with small gradient steps





Loss surface: robust training

## Loss Surfaces Examples

- Upper right fig shows a smooth loss surface with small gradients near the correct label and large distances to other labels, which makes attacks more difficult
- Lower right fig shows a less smooth loss surface and small distances to other labels, which makes attacks easier
- You can also think of them as 2 different directions on the same loss surface, and the attacker's goal is to find the optimal direction to change input x (e.g., by gradient ascent with FGSM or PGD)

