Adversarial Regularization

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1 Adversarial Training

Thanks to FGSM [1], adversarial training could be employed efficiently.

1.1 Fast Gradient Sign Method

Given loss function $J(\theta, x, y)$, its linearization is

$$J(\theta, x + \eta, y) \approx J(\theta, x, y) + \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta, x, y)^{T} \eta.$$

The adversarial perturbation could be recognized as the solution of the following linear optimization problem,

$$\max_{\eta} \quad J(\theta, x + \eta, y) = J(\theta, x, y) + \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta, x, y)^{T} \eta$$

s.t.
$$\|\eta\|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon.$$

Obviously, the optimal value is

$$\eta^* = \epsilon \operatorname{sign} \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta, x, y).$$

The so called fast gradient sign method (FGSM) is to assume that $x + \eta^*$ is the adversarial example of x. Though FGSM might not find the least perturbed adversarial example as deep fool[4], the main advantage of which is the adversarial example could be identified by merely once back propagation, which makes adversarial training practical.

Note that the approximate solution with respect to L_2 constraint could be obtained similarly as

$$\eta^* \approx \epsilon \frac{\nabla J(\theta, x, y)}{\|\nabla J\|_2}.$$

Ignoring the computational burden, one can use proximal gradient descent (PGD) to find more reliable adversarial examples [2].

1.2 Adversarial Regularization

The FGSM adversarial training regularization works as,

$$\tilde{J}(\theta, x, y) = \alpha J(\theta, x, y) + (1 - \alpha) J(\theta, x + \epsilon \operatorname{sign} \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta, x), y).$$

To take a closer look, apply Taylor's expansion,

$$\tilde{J}(\theta, x, y) \approx \alpha J(\theta, x, y) + (1 - \alpha) \left(J(\theta, x, y) + \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta, x, y)^{T} \epsilon \operatorname{sign} \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta, x, y) \right)$$
$$= J(\theta, x, y) + (1 - \alpha) \epsilon \|\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta, x, y)\|_{1}^{2}.$$

Thus adversarial training with FGSM, in sense of **small** perturbation, is actually penalizing the L_1 norm of gradient of loss with respect to input, which brings smoothness to the classifier.

2 Virtual Adversarial Training

The spirit of VAT [3] is to find the direction where the output of the classifier changes most. Concisely, let q be the true distribution and p be the model, then the original real adversarial training regularization is,

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{r} & & D\left[q(y|x), p(y|x + r_{\mathrm{qadv}}, \theta)\right] \\ & \text{s. t.} & & & \|r\|_{2} \leq \epsilon, \end{aligned}$$

while the virtual adversarial training regularization is,

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{r} \quad & D\left[p(y|x), p(y|x+r, \theta)\right] \\ \text{s. t.} \quad & \left\|r\right\|_{2} \leq \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Here in some cases we omit θ of p(y|x), to emphasize that the expression is independent with θ , i.e., gradients cannot not back propagate through this part.

Define the following notations,

$$D(r, x, \theta) := D\left[p(y|x), p(y|x + r, \theta)\right]$$

$$r_{vadv} := \underset{\|r\|_{2} \leq \epsilon}{\arg \max} D(r, x, \theta)$$

$$R_{vadv} := \underset{\|r\|_{1} \leq \epsilon}{\max} D(r, x, \theta) = D(r_{vadv}, x, \theta).$$

Then the whole VAT loss is,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\text{labeled data}}\ell(x, y, \theta) + \alpha \mathbb{E}_{\text{labeled or unlabled data}}R_{\text{vady}}.$$

To identify the close form solution of r_{vadv} , consider the second-order Taylor approximation of $D(r, x, \theta)$ at r = 0,

$$D(r, x, \theta) \approx \frac{1}{2}r^T H(x, \theta)r.$$

Note that $D(0, x, \theta) = 0, \nabla_r D(0, x, \theta) = 0$, because D is a distance measure and its minimum is achieved when r = 0. Therefore

$$r_{\text{vadv}} = \underset{\|r\|_2 \le \epsilon}{\arg \max} D(r, x, \theta) \approx \epsilon u(x, \theta),$$

where $u(x, \theta)$ is the unit eigenvector of $H(x, \theta)$ of the maximum eigenvalue. This eigenvalue problem could be effectively evaluated by power method.

2.1 Virtual Adversarial Regularization

For adversarial perturbation

$$r_{\text{vadv}} = \underset{\|r\|_{2} \le \epsilon}{\arg \max} D(r, x, \theta) \approx \epsilon u(x, \theta),$$

the virtual adversarial regularization is,

$$R_{\text{vadv}} = \max_{\|r\|_{2} \le \epsilon} D(r, x, \theta) \approx \max_{\|r\|_{2} \le \epsilon} \frac{1}{2} r^{T} H(x, \theta) r = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^{2} \|H(x, \theta)\|_{2}.$$

Thus the VAT loss is,

$$\begin{split} & \mathbb{E}_{\text{labeled data}}\ell(x,y,\theta) + \alpha \mathbb{E}_{\text{all data}} R_{\text{vadv}} \\ = & \mathbb{E}_{\text{labeled data}}\ell(x,y,\theta) + \frac{\alpha\epsilon^2}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\text{all data}} \left\| H(x,\theta) \right\|_2. \end{split}$$

Hence with a small perturbation, virtual adversarial regularization is equivalent to penalize the spectrum norm of the Hessian of $D(r, x, \theta)$ with respect to r.

In the perspective of loss $\ell(x, y, \theta)$,

$$\ell(x+r,p(y|x),\theta) = D\left[p(y|x),p(y|x+r,\theta)\right] = D(r,x,\theta).$$

Thus the Hessian of $D(r, x, \theta)$ w.r.t. r could also be viewed as the Hessian of $\ell(x + r, p(y|x), \theta)$ w.r.t. r, which is equal to the Hessian w.r.t. input x,

$$\nabla_r^2 \ell(x_* + r, p(y_* | x_*), \theta) = \nabla_x^2 \ell(x, y, \theta)|_{(x,y) = (x_* + r, p(y_* | x_*))}.$$

In summary, VAT penalizes the spectrum norm of the Hessian of ℓ with respect to the input. Different from L_p norm of Jacobian, VAT defines a new type of smoothness on classifier, which is shown to be effective for semi-supervised learning [3].

References

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