

University of Idaho

Department of Computer Science

CS 487/587 Adversarial Machine Learning

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Lecture 5

Evasion Attacks against Black-box Machine Learning Models

Lecture Outline

- Bhagoji et al. (2017) Exploring the Space of Black-box Attacks on Deep Neural Networks
- Brendel et al. (2018) Decision-Based Adversarial Attacks: Reliable Attacks Against Black-Box Machine Learning Models
- Transferability in Adversarial Machine Learning
 - Substitute model attack
 - Ensemble of local models attack
- Other black-box evasion attacks
 - HopSkipJump attack
 - ZOO attack
 - Simple black-box attack

Evasion Attacks against Black-box Models

Black-box Evasion Attacks

- Black-box adversarial attacks can be classified into two categories:
 - Query-based attacks
 - The adversary queries the model and creates adversarial examples by using the provided information to queries
 - The queried model can provide:
 - Output class probabilities (i.e., confidence scores per class) used with score-based attacks
 - Output class, used with decision-based attacks
 - Transfer-based attacks (or transferability attacks)
 - o The adversary does not query the model
 - The adversary trains its own substitute/surrogate local model, and transfers the adversarial examples to the target model
 - This type of approaches are also referred to as zero queries attacks



Gradient Estimation Attack

- Bhagoji, He, Li, Song (2017) Exploring the Space of Black-box Attacks on Deep Neural Networks
- The paper introduces an approach known as *Gradient Estimation attack*
- Score-based black-box attack
 - Based on query access to the model's class probabilities
 - Both targeted and untargeted attacks are achieved
- Validated on MNIST and CIFAR-10 datasets
 - The attack is also evaluated on real-world models hosted by Clarifai
- Advantages:
 - Outperformed other black-box attacks
 - Performance results are comparable to white-box attacks
 - Good results against adversarial defenses

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Gradient Estimation (GE) approach
 - Uses queries to directly estimate the gradient and carry out black-box attacks
 - The output to a query is the vector of class probabilities p^f(x) (i.e., confidence scores per class) for an input x

• The logits can also be recovered from the probabilities, by taking $\log(\mathbf{p}^{f}(\mathbf{x}))$

- The authors employed the method of finite differences for gradient estimation
 - Let $g(\mathbf{x})$ is a function whose gradient needs to be estimated
 - Finite difference (FD) estimation of the gradient of *g* with respect to input **x** is given by

$$\mathrm{FD}_{\mathbf{x}}(g(\mathbf{x}), \delta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{g(\mathbf{x} + \delta \mathbf{e}_{1}) - g(\mathbf{x} - \delta \mathbf{e}_{1})}{2\delta} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{g(\mathbf{x} + \delta \mathbf{e}_{d}) - g(\mathbf{x} - \delta \mathbf{e}_{d})}{2\delta} \end{bmatrix}$$

- δ is a parameter that controls the estimation accuracy (selected 0.01 or 1)
- **e**_{*i*} are basis vectors such that **e**_{*i*} is 1 only for the *i*th component and 0 everywhere else
- If the gradient exists, then the finite differences method can calculate an approximation of the gradient: $\lim_{\delta \to 0} FD_{\mathbf{x}}(g(\mathbf{x}), \delta) \approx \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} g(\mathbf{x})$

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Approximate FGSM attack with finite difference GE method
 - Gradient of a model *f* is taken with respect to the cross-entropy loss *l_f*(**x**, *y*)
 For input **x** with true class label *y*, the loss is

$$\ell_f(\mathbf{x}, y) = -\sum_{j=1}^{|\mathcal{Y}|} \mathbf{1}[j=y] \log p_j^f(\mathbf{x}) = -\log p_y^f(\mathbf{x})$$

• Recall that the derivative of a log function is $\frac{d}{dx}\log(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ and thus $\frac{d}{dx}\log(h(x)) = \frac{h'(x)}{h(x)}$

• Therefore, the gradient of the loss function $\ell_f(\mathbf{x}, y)$ with respect to the input \mathbf{x} is

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\ell_f(\mathbf{x}, y) = -\frac{\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}p_y^f(\mathbf{x})}{p_y^f(\mathbf{x})}$$

- An untargeted FGSM adversarial sample can be generated by using the FD estimate of the gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} p_y^f(\mathbf{x})$, i.e., $\mathbf{x}_{adv} = \mathbf{x} + \epsilon \cdot \text{sign} \left(\frac{\text{FD}_{\mathbf{x}}(p_y^f(\mathbf{x}), \delta)}{p_y^f(\mathbf{x})} \right)$
- Similarly, a targeted FGSM adversarial sample with class *T* can be found by using

$$\mathbf{x}_{adv} = \mathbf{x} - \epsilon \cdot \text{sign} \left(\frac{\text{FD}_{\mathbf{x}}(p_T^f(\mathbf{x}), \delta)}{p_T^f(\mathbf{x})} \right)$$

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Approximate C-W attack with finite difference GE method
 - Carlini & Wagner attack uses a loss function based on the logits values $\phi(\cdot)$

 $\ell(\mathbf{x}, y) = \max(\phi(\mathbf{x} + \delta)_y - \max\{\phi(\mathbf{x} + \delta)_i : i \neq y\}, -\kappa)$

- Logits values φ(·) can be computed by taking the logarithm of the softmax probabilities, up to an additive constant
- For an untargeted C-W attack, the loss is the difference between the logits for the true class *y* and the second-most-likely class *y*', i.e., $\phi(x + \delta)_y \phi(x + \delta)_{y'}$

o Since the loss is the difference of logits, the additive constant is canceled

o By using FD approximation of the gradient, it is obtained

$$\mathbf{x}_{adv} = \mathbf{x} + \epsilon \cdot \operatorname{sign}(\operatorname{FD}_{\mathbf{x}}(\phi(\mathbf{x})_{y'} - \phi(\mathbf{x})_{y}, \delta))$$

• For a targeted C-W attack, the adversarial sample is

$$\mathbf{x}_{adv} = \mathbf{x} - \epsilon \cdot \operatorname{sign}(\operatorname{FD}_{\mathbf{x}}(\max(\phi(\mathbf{x})_i : i \neq T) - \phi(\mathbf{x})_T, \delta))$$

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Iterative FGSM attack with finite difference GE method
 - This is similar to the Projected Gradient Descent attack, which uses several iterations of the FGSM attack and achieves higher success rate than the single step FGSM attack
 - An iterative FD attack with t + 1 iterations using the cross-entropy loss is

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{adv}}^{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_{\text{adv}}^{t} + \alpha \cdot \text{sign}\left(\frac{\text{FD}\left(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_{\text{adv}}^{t}} p_{y}^{f}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{adv}}^{t}), \delta\right)}{p_{y}^{f}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{adv}}^{t})}\right)$$

• Iterative C-W attack is also applied in a similar manner by modifying the singlestep approach presented on the previous page

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{adv}}^{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_{\text{adv}}^{t} + \alpha \cdot \text{sign}\left(\text{sign}\left(\text{FD}(\phi(x)_{y'} - \phi(x)_{y}, \delta\right)\right)\right)$$

Experimental Validation

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Validation of non-targeted black-box attacks using Gradient Estimation with FD
 - The table presents the success rate and average distortion (in parenthesis)
 - Baseline methods:
 - D. of M. Difference of Means attack, uses the mean difference between the true class and the target class as added perturbation
 - Rand. Random perturbation by adding random noise from a distribution (e.g., Gaussian)
 - 'xent' is for cross-entropy loss, 'logit' is C-W logits loss, 'I' is iterative
 - MNIST with L_{∞} constraint of $\epsilon = 0.3$, and CIFAR-10 with L_{∞} constraint of $\epsilon = 8$
 - Iterative C-W attack (IFD-logit) produced best results

MNIST	Baseline		Gradient Estimation using Finite Differences				
			Single	e-step	Iterative		
Model	D. of M.	Rand.	FD-xent	FD-logit	IFD-xent	IFD-logit	
Α	44.8 (5.6)	8.5 (6.1)	51.6 (3.3)	92.9 (6.1)	75.0 (3.6)	100.0 (2.1)	
В	81.5 (5.6)	7.8 (6.1)	69.2 (4.5)	98.9 (6.3)	86.7 (3.9)	100.0 (1.6)	
С	20.2 (5.6)	4.1 (6.1)	60.5 (3.8)	86.1 (6.2)	80.2 (4.5)	100.0 (2.2)	
D	97.1 (5.6)	38.5 (6.1)	95.4 (5.8)	100.0 (6.1)	98.4 (5.4)	100.0 (1.2)	
CIFAR-10	Base	eline	Gradient Estimation using Finite Differences				
			Single	e-step	Itera	tive	
Model	D. of M.	Rand.	FD-xent	FD-logit	IFD-xent	IFD-logit	
Resnet-32	9.3 (440.5)	19.4 (439.4)	49.1 (217.1)	86.0 (410.3)	62.0 (149.9)	100.0 (65.7)	
Resnet-28-10	6.7 (440.5)	17.1 (439.4)	50.1 (214.8)	88.2 (421.6)	46.0 (120.4)	100.0 (74.9)	
StdCNN	20.3 (440.5)	22.2 (439.4)	80.0 (341.3)	98.9 (360.9)	66.0 (202.5)	100.0 (79.9)	

Experimental Validation

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Validation of targeted black-box attacks using Gradient Estimation with FD
 - Iterative FGSM (IFD-xent) attack produced best results on MNIST
 - Iterative C-W (IFD-logit) attack produced best results on CIFAR-10

MNIST	Baseline	Gradient Estimation using Finite Differences							
		Single-step		Itera	tive				
Model	D. of M.	FD-xent	FD-logit	IFD-xent	IFD-logit				
А	15.0 (5.6)	30.0 (6.0)	29.9 (6.1)	100.0 (4.2)	99.7 (2.7)				
В	35.5 (5.6)	29.5 (6.3)	29.3 (6.3)	99.9 (4.1)	98.7 (2.4)				
С	5.84 (5.6)	34.1 (6.1)	33.8 (6.4)	100.0 (4.3)	99.8 (3.0)				
D	59.8 (5.6)	61.4 (6.3)	60.8 (6.3)	100.0 (3.7)	99.9 (1.9)				
CIFAR-10	Baseline	Gradie	nt Estimation u	using Finite Diff	ferences				
		Singl	e-step	Itera	tive				
Model	D. of M.	FD-xent	FD-logit	IFD-xent	IFD-logit				
Resnet-32	1.2 (440.3)	23.8 (439.5)	23.0 (437.0)	100.0 (110.9)	100.0 (89.5)				
Resnet-28-10	0.9 (440.3)	29.2 (439.4)	28.0 (436.1)	100.0 (123.2)	100.0 (98.3)				
StdCNN	2.6 (440.3)	44.5 (439.5)	40.3 (434.9)	99.0 (178.8)	95.0 (126.8)				

Query Reduction

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Shortcoming of the proposed approach:
 - Requires O(d) queries per input, where d is the dimension of the input (e.g., number of pixels in images)
 - The presented FD approximation required $2 \cdot d$ queries
- The authors propose two approaches for reducing the number of queries
 - Random grouping
 - The gradient is estimated only for a random group of selected pixels, instead of estimating the gradient per each pixel
 - PCA (Principal Component Analysis)

• Compute the gradient only along a number of principal component vectors

Query Reduction

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Validation of the methods for query reduction
 - For random grouping, the success rate decreases with decreasing the group size (left figure)
 - I.e., using only 3 group of pixels to estimate the gradient is less efficient than using 112 groups of pixels
 - For PCA, the success rate decreases as the number of PC is decreased (middle and right figure)
 - \circ The success rate is still high for smaller number of PC



Adversarial Samples

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Non-targeted adversarial samples
 - WB-IFGS white-box iterative FGSM attack
 - IFD-logit black-box iterative C&W attack (logit loss)
 - IGE-QR-PCA black-box Iterative Gradient Estimation with Query Reduction using PCA
 WB FGS FD-logit GE-QR-PCA

MNIST





Single-step

CIFAR-10





WB IFGS IFD-logit IGE-QR-PCA



Iterative







CIFAR-10





Defense Evaluation

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Evaluation of adversarial samples against three adversarial defenses
 - Adversarial training (Szagedy et al, 2014): Adv column in the table
 - Ensemble adversarial training (Tramer et al, 2017): Adv-Ens column
 - Iterative adversarial training (Madry et al, 2017): Adv-Iter column
- The accuracy is almost the same as for benign (non-attacked) images (first column in the table)

Dataset (Model)	Benign	Adv	Adv-Ens	Adv-Iter
MNIST (A)	99.2	99.4	99.2	99.3
CIFAR-10 (Resnet-32)	92.4	92.1	91.7	79.1

Attacks on Real Models

Gradient Estimation Attack

- Attacks on two real-world models hosted by Clarifai
 - Not Safe For Work (NSFW) model
 - Two categories: 'safe', 'not safe'
 - Content Moderation model
 - Five categories: 'safe', 'suggestive', 'explicit', 'drug,' and 'gore'
 - Example: an adversary could upload violent adversarially-modified images, which may be marked incorrectly as 'safe' by the Content Moderation model



Original image Class: 'drug' Confidence: 0.99



Adversarial image Class: 'safe' Confidence: 0.96



Boundary Attack

- Brendel, Rauber, and Bethge (2018) Decision-Based Adversarial Attacks: Reliable Attacks Against Black-Box Machine Learning Models
- A query-based black-box attack called *Boundary Attack*
 - This is a decision-based attack, i.e., it requires only queries of the output class, and not the logits or output probabilities
 - Can perform both non-targeted and targeted attacks
- Advantage:
 - Finds low-perturbation images only by using the output class information
 - Relevant to real-world application, where access to the model may not be possible
- Disadvantage:
 - Requires many iterations to converge (i.e., large number of queries)
- Validation on MNIST, CIFAR-10, and ImageNet
 - And, on real-world applied models

Boundary Attack

Boundary Attack

- Boundary Attack intuition
 - The starting image is drawn from a uniform random distribution (random noise), and is adversarial (i.e., different than the true label)
 - Iteratively reduce the L₂ distance to the original image by adding small perturbations
 - Walk along the boundary between the adversarial and the non-adversarial region, but stay in the adversarial region
 - I.e., whenever the added perturbation results in correct classification, reject those samples (a.k.a., sample rejection)
 - When the distance to the original image cannot be further reduced, or when the number of set iteration steps is reached, stop



Boundary Attack Algorithm

Boundary Attack

- Boundary Attack algorithm
 - The initial image $\tilde{\mathbf{o}}^0$ is sampled from a uniform distribution $\mathcal{U}(0,1)$
 - The adversarially perturbed image at the k^{th} step is denoted $\widetilde{\mathbf{o}}^{k}$
 - Adversarial criterion $c(\cdot)$ is: misclassification
 - I.e., different class than the true class (non-targeted attack), or the target class (targeted attack)
 - Decision of model $d(\cdot)$ is: L_2 distance between the perturbed and the original image
 - The proposal distribution for the perturbation η_k is discussed on next page

Data: original image o, adversarial criterion c(.), decision of model d(.)**Result:** adversarial example \tilde{o} such that the distance $d(o, \tilde{o}) = \|o - \tilde{o}\|_2^2$ is minimized initialization: k = 0, $\tilde{o}^0 \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$ s.t. \tilde{o}^0 is adversarial; while k < maximum number of steps do draw random perturbation from proposal distribution $\eta_k \sim \mathcal{P}(\tilde{o}^{k-1})$; if $ilde{o}^{k-1} + \eta_k$ is adversarial then

set
$$ilde{o}^k = ilde{o}^{k-1} + \eta_k;$$

ense

$$|$$
 set $\tilde{o}^k = \tilde{o}^{k-1};$
end
 $k = k+1$



Boundary Attack

- For the proposal distribution $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{\tilde{o}}^{k-1})$ of the perturbation η_k , the authors used a Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$
 - This perturbation is denoted as #1 random orthogonal step in the figure below
- Next, it is ensured that the proposed adversarial sample is a regular image with all pixels clipped in the range [0,1]

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{o}}_{i}^{k-1} + \eta_{i}^{k} \in [0,1]$$

It is also ensured that the perturbation η_k is within a ball with radius δ around the original image **o** (i.e., the added perturbation at each step is limited)

$$\left\|\eta^{k}\right\|_{2} = \delta \cdot d(\mathbf{0}, \widetilde{\mathbf{0}}^{k-1})$$

Afterward, a small movement *ε* (#2 step in the image) is made toward the original image **o**, so that the distance to **o** is iteratively reduced

$$d(\mathbf{o}, \widetilde{\mathbf{o}}^{k-1} + \eta^k) - d(\mathbf{o}, \widetilde{\mathbf{o}}^{k-1}) = \varepsilon d(\mathbf{o}, \widetilde{\mathbf{o}}^{k-1})$$

Single step

#1. random orthogonal step#2. step towards original image



Boundary Attack

Boundary Attack

- The two parameters δ (random orthogonal step) and ϵ (step toward the original image) are adjusted dynamically
- The parameters δ is adjusted to that that about 50% of the perturbations are adversarial
 - If this ratio is much lower than 50%, the step size δ is reduced
 - In the opposite case, δ is increased
- Next, a small step *ε* toward the original image is applied
 - If the success rate is too small, *ε* is decreased
 - If it is too large, *ε* is increased
- The attack is converged whenever *ε* converges to zero
 - I.e., the L₂ distance to the original image can not be reduced anymore



Success rate of total perturbation should be higher then threshold (e.g. 25%).

Adversarial Examples

Boundary Attack

• Example of an untargeted attack

- Starts from upper left and proceeds to the lower right image
- Above: total number of calls, i.e., queries
- Below: *L*₂ distance between the attacked image and the original image
- The original image used for the attack is shown in the lower right corner



Adversarial Examples

Boundary Attack

• Example of a targeted attack

- Original class: tiger cat (lower right image)
- Target class: Dalmatian dog (upper left image)
- Goal: create an adversarial image that is perceptually close (in *L*₂ distance) to a given image of a tiger cat (lower right), but is classified as a Dalmatian dog
 - The algorithm is initialized from a sample image of the target class that is correctly classified by the model (upper left image of Dalmatian dog)



Experimental Validation

Boundary Attack

- Comparison to FGSM, DeepFool, and Carlini-Wagner non-targeted attacks
 - Presented values: median *L*₂ distance to the original images
 - The added perturbations by the Boundary Attack are comparable and not much larger than the perturbation by white box models

				ImageNet				
	Attack Type	MNIST	CIFAR	VGG-19	ResNet-50	Inception-v3		
FGSM	gradient-based	4.2e-02	2.5e-05	1.0e-06	1.0e-06	9.7e-07		
DeepFool	gradient-based	4.3e-03	5.8e-06	1.9e-07	7.5e-08	5.2e-08		
Carlini & Wagner	gradient-based	2.2e-03	7.5e-06	5.7e-07	2.2e-07	7.6e-08		
Boundary (ours)	decision-based	3.6e-03	5.6e-06	2.9e-07	1.0e-07	6.5e-08		

• Comparison to Carlini-Wagner targeted attack

	Attack Type	MNIST	CIFAR	VGG-19
Carlini & Wagner	gradient-based	4.8e-03	3.0e-05	5.7e-06
Boundary (ours)	decision-based	6.5e-03	3.3e-05	9.9e-06

Real-World Applications

Boundary Attack

- In many real-world applications, the attacker has no access to the model or the training data, but can only observe the final decision
 - E.g., security systems (face identification), autonomous cars, speech recognition (Alexa, Cortana)
- The authors applied Boundary Attack to two models by <u>Clarifai</u>
 - For identifying over 500 brand names in natural images
 - For identifying over 10,000 celebrities





Clarifai Brand Model

Transfer-based Attacks

Transfer-based Attacks

- Transfer-based attacks (or transferability attacks)
 - The adversary does not query the model
- Reviewed attacks
 - Substitute model attack (a.k.a. surrogate local model attack)
 - Train a substitute model, and transfer the generated adversarial samples to the target model

Ensemble of local models attack

o Use an ensemble of local models for generating adversarial examples

Substitute Model Attack

- Substitute model attack (or surrogate local model attack)
 - <u>Papernot et al. (2016) Transferability in Machine Learning: from Phenomena to Black-Box Attacks using Adversarial Samples</u>
- Create adversarial example for a substitute model, and afterward transfer the generated examples to the target model
- Transferability between the following ML models is explored:
 - Deep neural networks (DNNs)
 - Logistic regression (LR)
 - Support vector machines (SVM)
 - Decision trees (DT)
 - *k*-Nearest neighbors (kNN)
 - Ensembles (Ens)
- Evaluated on MNIST

Substitute Model Attack

• Intra-technique variability

- Five models (A,B,C,D,E) of the same ML method are trained on different subsets of the training data and the generated adversarial examples are transferred

 E.g., adversarial examples created by one DNN are transferred to the other DNNs
- Model accuracies (left figure), and attack success rate for DNNs (right figure)



Substitute Model Attack

- Intra-technique variability
 - Attack success rates for SVM, DT, and kNN are shown below, when transferring examples between the models A, B, C, D, and E of the same ML method
 - Differentiable models like DNNs and LR are more vulnerable to intra-technique transferability than non-differentiable models like SVMs, DTs, and kNNs



Substitute Model Attack

• Cross-technique variability

- Transfer adversarial samples from one ML method to the other ML methods
 E.g., adversarial examples created by DNN transferred to other ML models (the first row)
- The most vulnerable model is DT: misclassification rates from 79.31% to 89.29%
- The most resilient is DNN (first column): misclassification between 0.82% and 38.27%



Ensemble of Local Models Attack

Ensemble of Local Models Attack

- Ensemble of local models attack
 - Liu et al. (2017) Delving into Transferable Adversarial Examples and Black-box <u>Attacks</u>
- Observations regarding transferability
 - Transferable non-targeted adversarial examples are easy to find
 - However, targeted adversarial examples rarely transfer with their target labels
- The proposed approach allows transferring targeted adversarial examples

Ensemble of Local Models Attack

Ensemble of Local Models Attack

- On ImageNet, targeted examples do not transfer across models
 - Only a small percentage of adversarial images retain the target label when transferred to other models (between 1% and 4%, off diagonal values in the table)
 - RMSD is the average perturbation of the used adversarial images

	RMSD	ResNet-152	ResNet-101	ResNet-50	VGG-16	GoogLeNet
ResNet-152	23.13	100%	2%	1%	1%	1%
ResNet-101	23.16	3%	100%	3%	2%	1%
ResNet-50	23.06	4%	2%	100%	1%	1%
VGG-16	23.59	2%	1%	2%	100%	1%
GoogLeNet	22.87	1%	1%	0%	1%	100%

• On the other hand, untargeted examples transfer well

	RMSD	ResNet-152	ResNet-101	ResNet-50	VGG-16	GoogLeNet
ResNet-152	22.83	0%	13%	18%	19%	11%
ResNet-101	23.81	19%	0%	21%	21%	12%
ResNet-50	22.86	23%	20%	0%	21%	18%
VGG-16	22.51	22%	17%	17%	0%	5%
GoogLeNet	22.58	39%	38%	34%	19%	0%

Ensemble of Local Models Attack

Ensemble of Local Models Attack

- Hypothesis: if an adversarial image remains adversarial for multiple models, it is more likely to transfer to other models as well
- Approach: solve the following optimization problem (for targeted attack):

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{x\star} - \log\left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} J_{i}(x^{\star})\right) \cdot \mathbf{1}_{y^{\star}}\right) + \lambda d(x, x^{\star})$$

- The problem is similar to C&W
 - *x* is a clean image
 - *x*^{*} is an adversarial image
 - d(x, x*) is distance function
 - $J_1, J_2, ..., J_k$ are white-box models in the ensemble
 - $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k$ are the ensemble weights
 - -log(α₁J₁ · 1_{y*}) is the cross-entropy loss between the prediction by model J₁ and the one-hot vector for the target class 1_{y*}

Targeted Attack Evaluation

Ensemble of Local Models Attack

- Targeted attack using the ensemble attack
 - E.g., the first row shows the attack success rate when an ensemble of 4 models (ResNet-101, ResNet-50.VGG-16, and GoogLeNet) is trained, and the samples are transferred to ResNet-152

 \circ The success rate of transferred attack is 38%

	RMSD	ResNet-152	ResNet-101	ResNet-50	VGG-16	GoogLeNet
-ResNet-152	30.68	38%	76%	70%	97%	76%
-ResNet-101	30.76	75%	43%	69%	98%	73%
-ResNet-50	30.26	84%	81%	46%	99%	77%
-VGG-16	31.13	74%	78%	68%	24%	63%
-GoogLeNet	29.70	90%	87%	83%	99%	11%

Non-targeted Attack Evaluation

Ensemble of Local Models Attack

- Non-targeted ensemble attack results
 - Using an ensemble of four models, the success rate is very high for non-targeted attack

	RMSD	ResNet-152	ResNet-101	ResNet-50	VGG-16	GoogLeNet
-ResNet-152	17.17	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
-ResNet-101	17.25	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%
-ResNet-50	17.25	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%
-VGG-16	17.80	0%	0%	0%	6%	0%
-GoogLeNet	17.41	0%	0%	0%	0%	5%

HopSkipJump Attack

- HopSkipJump Attack
 - <u>Chen and Jordan (2019) HopSkipJumpAttack: A Query-efficient Decision-based</u> <u>Adversarial Attack</u>
- This attack is an extension of the Boundary Attack
 - I.e., it is a decision-based attack, and therefore has access only to the predicted output class
 - o HopSkipJump Attack requires significantly fewer queries than the Boundary Attack
 - It includes both untargeted and targeted attacks
 - Proposes a a novel approach for estimation of the gradient direction along the decision boundary

HopSkipJump Attack

- Approach:
 - 1. Start from an adversarial image $\tilde{x_t}$
 - 2. Perform a binary search to the original image x^* to find the boundary (left figure)
 - 3. Estimate the gradient direction at the boundary point x_t (second figure from left)
 - 4. Perform a step-size search, and update to the next image \tilde{x}_{t+1}
 - 5. Search again for the next boundary point x_{t+1} (right figure)
 - 6. Repeat until the closest adversarial image to the original image x^* is found



HopSkipJump Attack

- Experimental evaluation
 - Comparison to Boundary attack and Opt attack on CIFAR-10
 - HopSkipJump (blue curve) achieves lower ℓ_2 perturbation using fewer queries



HopSkipJump Attack

- Untargeted attack
 - 2nd to 9th columns: images at 100, 200, 500, 1K, 2K, 5K, 10K, 25K queries
 - The original image for the attack is shown on the right



• Targeted attack



ZOO Attack

ZOO Attack

- ZOO attack
 - <u>Chen (2017) Zoo: Zeroth-order optimization based black-box attacks to deep neural</u> <u>networks without training substitute models</u>
- Zeroth-order optimization refers to optimization based on access to the function values *f*(*x*) only
 - As opposed to first-order optimization via the gradient $\nabla f(x)$
 - E.g., score-based and decision-based black-box approaches are zeroth-order optimization methods, as they don't require the gradient information
- ZOO attack has similarities with the Gradient Estimation Attack
- It is a score-based black-box version of the Carlini-Wagner attack

Adversarial Attack

ZOO Attack

- Recall again that the Gradient Estimation attack uses the finite difference approach to approximate the gradient as $g = \nabla_x f(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{f(\mathbf{x}+h) f(\mathbf{x}-h)}{2h}$
 - E.g., if the intensity of a pixel x_i is 150, and h = 10, then we will query the model to give us the predictions for f(150 + 10) = f(160) and for f(150 10) = f(140), so we can estimate the gradient $\widehat{g}_i = \nabla_{x_i} f(\mathbf{x})$ for the pixel x_i
 - We need to do 2 queries for each pixel, and for an images with 28×28 pixels = 784 pixels, we need to do $2 \cdot 784 = 1,568$ queries to estimate the gradient
- ZOO attack solves an optimization, similar to C&W targeted white-box attack minimize $\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_{i}\|_{2}^{2} + c \left(7(\mathbf{x}) 7(\mathbf{x})\right)$

minimize
$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_0}\|_2^2 + c \cdot (Z(x)_{y'} - Z(x)_T)$$

subject to $\mathbf{x} \in [0,1]$

• ZOO solves the optimization problem with the FD estimated loss based on:

minimize
$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_0}\|_2^2 + c \cdot FD(Z(x)_{y'} - Z(x)_T, h)$$

subject to $\mathbf{x} \in [0, 1]$

• *Adam optimization* is used to solve the problem

Adam Optimization Attack

ZOO Attack

• Algorithm for the ZOO attack using Adam optimization

Algorithm 2 ZOO-ADAM: Zeroth Order Stochastic Coordinate Descent with Coordinate-wise ADAM

Require: Step size η , ADAM states $M \in \mathbb{R}^p, v \in \mathbb{R}^p, T \in \mathbb{Z}^p$, ADAM hyper-parameters $\beta_1 = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.999, \epsilon = 10^{-8}$

- 1: $M \leftarrow 0, v \leftarrow 0, T \leftarrow 0$
- 2: while not converged do
- 3: Randomly pick a coordinate $i \in \{1, \dots, p\}$
- 4: Estimate \hat{g}_i using (6)
- 5: $T_i \leftarrow T_i + 1$

6:
$$M_i \leftarrow \beta_1 M_i + (1 - \beta_1) \hat{g}_i, \quad v_i \leftarrow \beta_2 v_i + (1 - \beta_2) \hat{g}_i^2$$

7:
$$\hat{M}_i = M_i / (1 - \beta_1^{I_i}), \quad \hat{v}_i = v_i / (1 - \beta_2^{I_i})$$

8:
$$\delta^* = -\eta \frac{M_i}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_i} + \epsilon}$$

9: Update $\mathbf{x}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_i + \delta^*$

10: end while

Newton Optimization Attack

ZOO Attack

- The paper proposed one more similar approach, that instead of Adam optimization uses *Newton optimization* method
 - Newton optimization method finds a minimum of f(x) by performing the following iterations: $x_{k+1} = x_k \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}$
- The approximation of the Hessian matrix of the model is estimated based on

$$h = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{f(\mathbf{x}+h) - 2f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{x}-h)}{h^2}$$

- If h > 0, then the loss function is convex, update is based on g/h (i.e., $x_k \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}$)
- If $h \le 0$, then the loss function is concave, update is based only on the gradient g (i.e., $x_k f'(x_k)$)



Newton Optimization Attack

ZOO Attack

• Algorithm for the ZOO attack with Newton optimization

Algorithm 3 ZOO-Newton: Zeroth Order Stochastic Coordinate Descent with Coordinate-wise Newton's Method

Require: Step size η

- 1: while not converged do
- 2: Randomly pick a coordinate $i \in \{1, \dots, p\}$
- 3: Estimate \hat{g}_i and \hat{h}_i using (6) and (7)
- 4: **if** $\hat{h}_i \leq 0$ then
- 5: $\delta^* \leftarrow -\eta \hat{g}_i$
- 6: else

7:
$$\delta^* \leftarrow -\eta \frac{g_i}{\hat{h}_i}$$

8: end if

9: Update
$$\mathbf{x}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_i + \delta^*$$

10: end while

Experimental Evaluation

ZOO Attack

- On MNIST and Cifar-10, ZOO attacks achieved almost 100% success rate
 - The added *L*₂ perturbations are comparable to C&W white-box attack
 - As expected, the time for generating adversarial samples is longer than white-box attacks

		MNIST								
		Untarg	eted	Targeted						
	Success Rate Avg. L ₂ Avg. Time (per attack)		Success Rate	Avg. L ₂	Avg. Time (per attack)					
White-box (C&W)	100 %	1.48066	0.48 min	100 %	2.00661	0.53 min				
Black-box (Substitute Model + FGSM)	40.6 %	-	0.002 sec (+ 6.16 min)	7.48 %	-	0.002 sec (+ 6.16 min)				
Black-box (Substitute Model + C&W)	33.3 %	3.6111	0.76 min (+ 6.16 min)	26.74 %	5.272	0.80 min (+ 6.16 min)				
Proposed black-box (ZOO-ADAM)	100 %	1.49550	1.38 min	98.9 %	1.987068	1.62 min				
Proposed black-box (ZOO-Newton)	100 %	1.51502	2.75 min	98.9 %	2.057264	2.06 min				
			CIFA	AR10						
		Untarg	eted	Targeted						
	Success Rate	Avg. L ₂	Avg. Time (per attack)	Success Rate	Avg. L ₂	Avg. Time (per attack)				
White-box (C&W)	100 %	0.17980	0.20 min	100 %	0.37974	0.16 min				
Black-box (Substitute Model + FGSM)	76.1 %	-	0.005 sec (+ 7.81 min)	11.48 %	-	0.005 sec (+ 7.81 min)				
Black-box (Substitute Model + C&W)	25.3 %	2.9708	0.47 min (+ 7.81 min)	5.3 %	5.7439	0.49 min (+ 7.81 min)				
Proposed Black-box (ZOO-ADAM)	100 %	0.19973	3.43 min	96.8 %	0.39879	3.95 min				
Proposed Black-box (ZOO-Newton)	100 %	0.23554	4.41 min	97.0 %	0.54226	4.40 min				

Experimental Evaluation

ZOO Attack

• Comparison between C&W white-box (left) and ZOO attack (right)

0	0	0	0	0	0	G	0	0	0
3	J		3		1		-	4	1
2	2	ζ	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
8	Z.	3	3	3	3	ろ	3	3	3
H	4	H	4	4	4	4	4	Ą	4
B	5	5	5	B	5	5	B	Ю	B
6	6	6	8	6	6	6	$\hat{\theta}$	6	6
7	7	7	7	7	7	行	7	7	7
8	C	С	8	Ľ	3	8	С	C	3
4	4	9	9	9	9	4	9	9	9

0	0	0	θ	0	0	6	0	0	0
30	j	1	1		T.	3	-		
2	2	λ	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
8	3	3	3	や	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	H	4	4	4	8	4	R	4
3	53	5	Ю	63	5	5	5	Ю	50
8	6	6	50	6	6	6	Û	6	6
2	57	7	7	7	7	1	7	7	7
8	C	8	8	8	3	C	С	С	\$
9	4	9	9	9	9	4	9	9	9

Queries Reduction

ZOO Attack

- The authors proposed techniques to reduce the number of queries
 - Note that for 28×28 pixels, we need $2 \cdot 784 = 1,568$ queries to estimate the gradient
 - Recall that PCA and random sets of pixels were used in Gradient Estimation attack
- The proposed approach starts with reduced resolution, and the resolution is progressively increased (referred to as hierarchical attack)
 - E.g., an original image of a size 299×299 pixels is used
 - Divide the image into 8×8 regions
 - o Make only 64 queries to estimate the gradients
 - o Optimize until the loss start decreasing
 - Increase to 16×16 regions
 - o Make queries and optimize until the loss start decreasing
 - Increase to 32×32 regions
 - o Make queries and optimize until the loss start decreasing
 - Repeat until the attack is successful

Queries Reduction

ZOO Attack

• Another technique for query reduction is based on *importance sampling*

- Estimate the gradient only for the most important regions in an image
 - Upper figures show the gradient for the Red, Green, and Blue channels
 - » E.g., corner pixels are less important for this image, and the changes in R are more important than G and B channels
 - Lower figures shows the most important pixels for R, G, B channels, that are queried first



Experimental Evaluation

ZOO Attack

- ImageNet untargeted attack
 - Recall that there are 1,000 classes in ImageNet
 - InceptionV3 model used
 - ZOO attack required about 192,000 queries per image, 20 minutes per image
 - The success rate is lower than C&W white-box attack, but is still high

	Success Rate	Avg. L ₂
White-box (C&W)	100 %	0.37310
Proposed black-box (ZOO-ADAM)	88.9 %	1.19916
Black-box (Substitute Model)	N.A.	N.A.

Examples

ZOO Attack

- Targeted attack
 - The added perturbations are imperceptible



Examples

ZOO Attack

• Untargeted attack



- Simple Black-box Attack
 - Guo et al. (2019) Simple Black-box Adversarial Attacks
- A.k.a. SimBA attack
 - Score-based attack (using probability vectors)
 - Focus on query efficiency
 - Both targeted and untargeted attacks were demonstrated
- Approach:
 - Use random orthonormal perturbations for each query
 - Focus on regions in images with high-frequency content to reduce the overall number of queries

- Steps:
 - Randomly sample perturbation vectors from a predefined orthonormal basis
 - Query the model to obtain the probability score and find out if it is pointing toward or away from the decision boundary
 - Perturb the image by adding or subtracting the perturbation vector
- Goal:
 - Each iteration moves the image away from the original image, and towards the decision boundary

SimBA Attack

- Algorithm
 - Random director vectors **q** are sampled, and perturbation with step size *\epsilon* are added or subtracted to misclassify the image

Algorithm 1 SimBA in Pseudocode 1: procedure SIMBA($\mathbf{x}, y, Q, \epsilon$) 2: $\delta = \mathbf{0}$ $\mathbf{p} = p_h(y \mid \mathbf{x})$ 3: while $\mathbf{p}_y = \max_{y'} \mathbf{p}_{y'} \mathbf{do}$ 4: Pick randomly without replacement: $\mathbf{q} \in Q$ 5: for $\alpha \in {\epsilon, -\epsilon}$ do 6: $\mathbf{p}' = p_h(y \mid \mathbf{x} + \delta + \alpha \mathbf{q})$ 7: if $\mathbf{p}'_u < \mathbf{p}_y$ then 8: $\delta = \delta + \alpha \mathbf{q}$ 9: $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}'$ 10: break 11: return δ

- Perturbation vectors are selected to be orthonormal
 - I.e., the random directions for each pixel do not cancel each other out, or amplify each other
- For orthonormal vectors **x** and **y**, their dot product is $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$
 - The angle between the vectors is 90 degrees
 - I.e., they are orthogonal
- How to choose orthonormal perturbation vector?
 - One inefficient option are the vectors [1,0,0,...,0], [0,1,0,...,0], [0,0,1,...,0],...,[0,0,0,...,1]
 I.e., only one pixel is changed at a time
 - The authors propose an approach called Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

 It is based on frequency coefficients that correspond to the magnitudes of cosine functions
 I.e., low-frequency regions in images (e.g., image background) change less at each step
 Focus on querying high-frequency regions in images

- The average change of the output probability scores is larger when the DCT approach is employed, in comparison to changing individual pixels
 - I.e., SimBA attack with DCT can find perturbations for many pixels in a single query that impact the output probability



- Experimental evaluation
 - Full lines display attack success rate, dotted lines display average perturbation
 - SimBA attacks achieved high success rate with small average ℓ_2 norm, and fewer queries



- Experimental evaluation
 - SimBA achieved good query-efficiency

Untargeted				
Attack	Average queries	Average L_2	Success rate	
	Label-o	only		
Boundary attack	123,407	5.98	100%	
Opt-attack	71,100	6.98	100%	
LFBA	30,000	6.34	100%	
	Score-b	ased		
QL-attack	28,174	8.27	85.4%	
Bandits-TD	5,251	5.00	80.5%	
SimBA	1,665	3.98	98.6%	
SimBA-DCT	1,283	3.06	97.8%	

Targeted				
Attack	Average queries	Average L_2	Success rate	
	Score-based			
QL-attack	20,614	11.39	98.7%	
AutoZOOM	13,525	26.74	100%	
SimBA	7,899	9.53	100%	
SimBA-DCT	8,824	7.04	96.5%	

SimBA Attack

Attack on <u>Google Cloud Vision API</u>

- Checked on 50 random images
- 70% success rate after 5,000 queries



origin_54.BMP

Camera Accessory	87%
Product	82%
Hardware	67%
Optical Instrument	66%
Camera Lens	61%
Gun	61%
Product	58%
Weapon	53%



after_54.BMP



Additional References

- 1. Nicolae et al. (2019) Adversarial Robustness Toolbox v1.0.0. https://arxiv.org/abs/1807.01069
- 2. Xu et al. (2019) Adversarial Attacks and Defenses in Images, Graphs and Text: A Review <u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1909.08072</u>