Robust Machine Learning in the Adversarial Setting

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Joint work with



Prof. Jun Zhu



Tianyu Pang



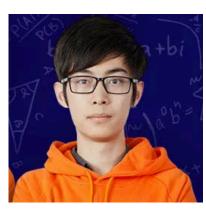
Kun Xu



Chao Du

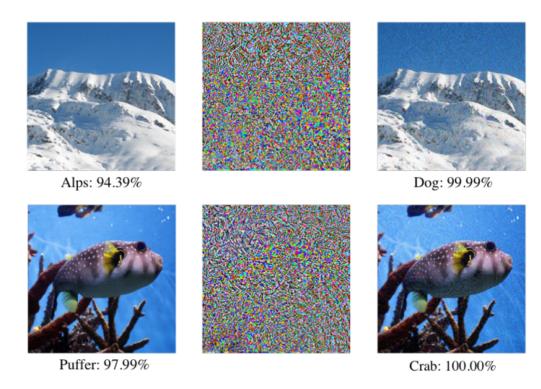


Yinpeng Dong



Xiao Yang

Adversarial Examples in Computer Vision

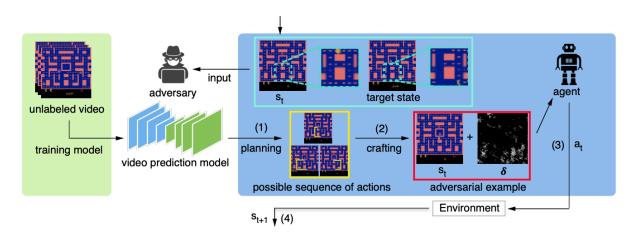


(Dong et al. CVPR 2018)

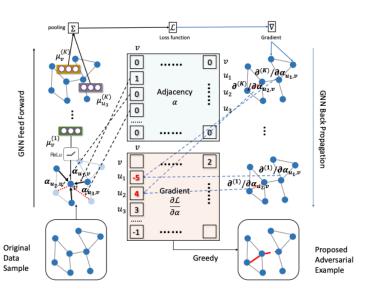
Not only in Computer Vision

Movie Review (Positive (POS) ↔ Negative (NEG))			
Original (Label: NEG)	The characters, cast in impossibly contrived situations, are totally estranged from reality.		
Attack (Label: POS)	The characters, cast in impossibly engineered circumstances, are fully estranged from reality.		
Original (Label: POS)	It cuts to the knot of what it actually means to face your scares , and to ride the overwhelming metaphorical wave that life wherever it takes you.		
Attack (Label: NEG)	It cuts to the core of what it actually means to face your fears, and to ride the big metaphorical wave that life wherever it takes you.		
SNLI (Entailment (ENT), Neutral (NEU), Contradiction (CON))			
Premise	Two small boys in blue soccer uniforms use a wooden set of steps to wash their hands.		
Original (Label: CON)	The boys are in band uniforms.		
Adversary (Label: ENT)	The boys are in band garment.		
Premise	A child with wet hair is holding a butterfly decorated beach ball.		
Original (Label: NEU)	The child is at the beach.		
Adversary (Label: ENT)	The youngster is at the shore.		

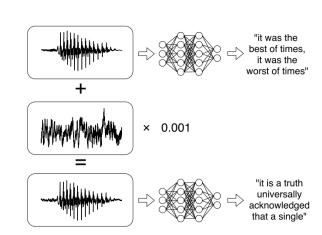
BERT model (Jin et al. AAAI 2020)



Reinforcement Learning (Lin et al. IJCAI 2017)



GNN model (Dai et al. ICML 2018)



Recommend System, LIDAR,

••••

Audio (Carlini and Wagner. S&P 2018)

Counter-intuitive?			
Why these models with	such high performan	ce will make such ridiculou	us mistakes?

Counter-intuitive?

In worst case, happens in 1% cases



Why these models with such high performance will make such ridiculous mistakes?



In expectation, happens in 99% cases

Why 1% Matters?

Potential Risk

In safety-critical areas including payment, security, health care, finance, automatic drive, etc.

Public Trust

People are suspicious and rigorous of new technologies, and barely tolerate high-risk defects. For example, the accident of Tesla automatic driving system.

How to Defend Adversarial Attacks?

Possible strategy one:

To correctly classify adversarial examples

- Optimal
- Difficult to achieve
- Computationally expensive (adversarial training)

How to Defend Adversarial Attacks?

Possible strategy two:

To detect and filter out adversarial examples

- Suboptimal
- Little computation
- Methods borrowed from anomaly detection

Possible strategy one:

Max-Mahalanobis Training (ICML 2018 + ICLR 2020)

Improving Adversarial Robustness via Promoting Ensemble Diversity (ICML 2019)

Possible strategy two:

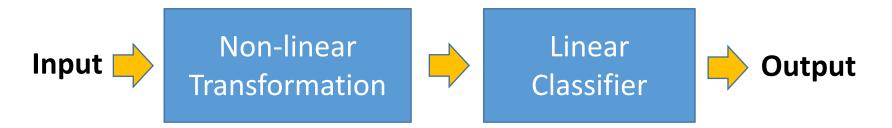
Towards Robust Detection of Adversarial Examples (NeurIPS 2018)

Max-Mahalanobis Training

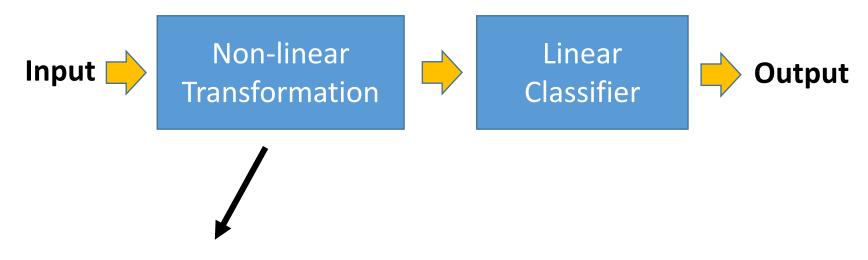
Part I

(ICML 2018)

Paradigm of feed-forward deep nets



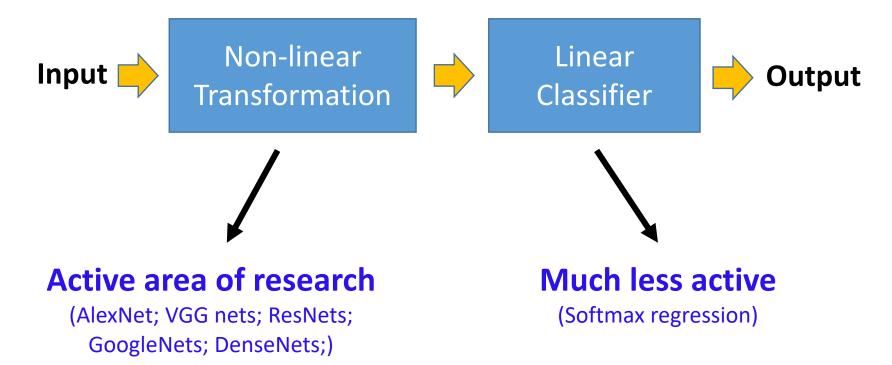
Paradigm of feed-forward deep nets



Active area of research

(AlexNet; VGG nets; ResNets; GoogleNets; DenseNets;)

Paradigm of feed-forward deep nets



 Design a new network architecture for better performance in the adversarial setting.

 Design a new network architecture for better performance in the adversarial setting.

• Substitute a new linear classifier for softmax regression (SR).

So what is a suitable new linear classifier?

Inspiration one: LDA is more efficient than LR

• Efron et al.(1975) show that if the input distributes as a mixture of Gaussian, then linear discriminant analysis (LDA) is more efficient than logistic regression (LR).

LDA needs less training data than LR to obtain certain error rate

Inspiration one: LDA is more efficient than LR

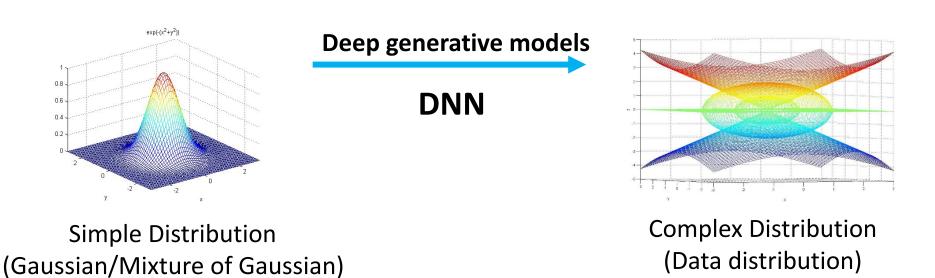
• Efron et al.(1975) show that if the input distributes as a mixture of Gaussian, then linear discriminant analysis (LDA) is more efficient than logistic regression (LR).

LDA needs less training data than LR to obtain certain error rate

• However, in practice data points hardly distributes as a mixture of Gaussian in the input space.

Inspiration two: neural networks are powerful

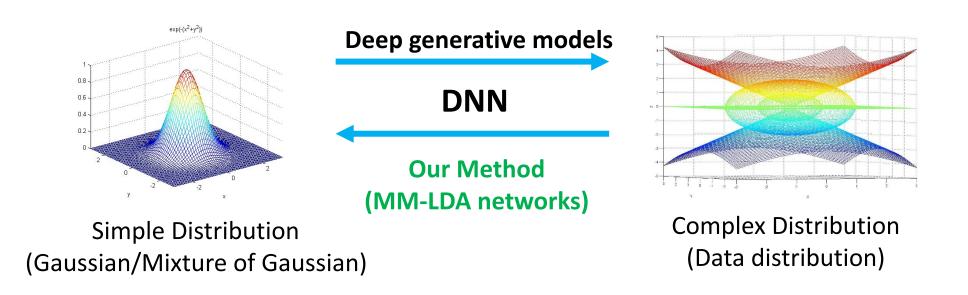
• Deep generative models (e.g., GANs) are successful.



Inspiration two: neural networks are powerful

• Deep generative models (e.g., GANs) are successful.

The reverse direction should also be feasible.



Our method

Models the feature distribution in DNNs as a mixture of Gaussian.

Applies LDA on the feature to make predictions.

How to treat the Gaussian parameters?

• Wan et al. (CVPR 2018) also model the feature distribution as a mixture of Gaussian. However, they treat the Gaussian parameters $(\mu_i \text{ and } \Sigma)$ as extra trainable variables.

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 We treat them as hyperparameters calculated by our algorithm, which can provide theoretical guarantee on the robustness.

How to treat the Gaussian parameters?

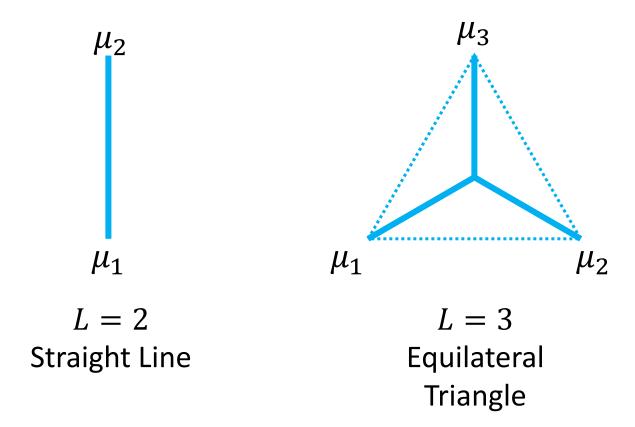
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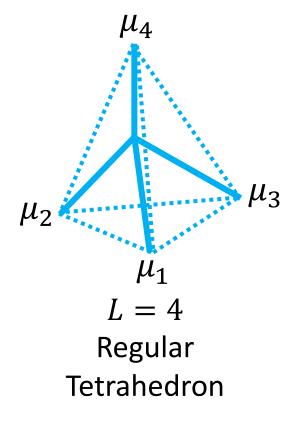
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 The induced mixture of Gaussian model is named Max Mahalanobis Distribution (MMD).

Max-Mahalanobis Distribution (MMD)

 Making the minimal Mahalanobis distance between two Gaussian components maximal.





Some formal derivations

Definition of Robustness

• The robustness on a point with label i (Moosavi-Dezfoolo et al. , CVPR 2016):

$$\min_{j\neq i} d_{i,j}$$
 ,

where $d_{i,j}$ is the local minimal distance of a point with label i to an adversarial example with label j.

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where $d_{i,j}$ is the local minimal distance of a point with label i to an adversarial example with label j.

• We further define the robustness of the classifier as:

$$\mathbf{RB} = \min_{i,j \in [L]} \mathbb{E}(d_{i,j}).$$

Robustness w.r.t Gaussian parameters

Theorem 1. The expectation of the distance $\mathbb{E}(d_{i,j})$ is a function of the Mahalanobis distance $\Delta_{i,j}$ as

$$\mathbb{E}(d_{i,j}) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta_{i,j}^2}{8}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\Delta_{i,j}\left[1 - 2\Phi(-\frac{\Delta_{i,j}}{2})\right]$$

where Φ (•) is the normal cumulative distribution function.

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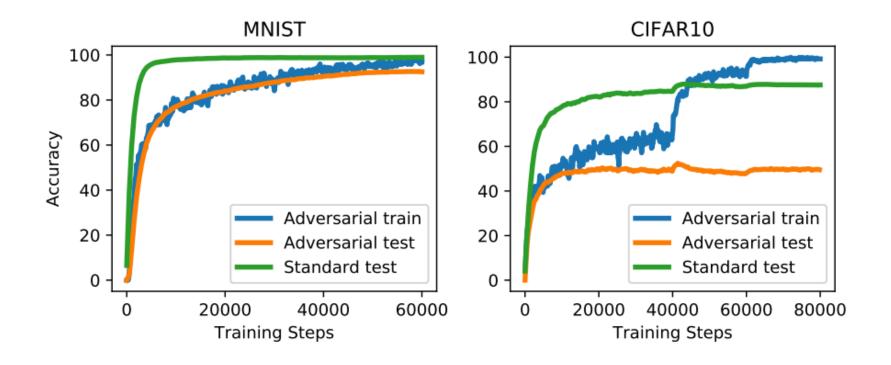
Distributing as a MMD can maximize \overline{RB} .

Can we further improve MMLDA?

Max-Mahalanobis Training

Part II

(ICLR 2020)



The same dataset, e.g., CIFAR-10, which enables good standard accuracy may not suffice to train robust models.

(Schmidt et al. NeurIPS 2018)

Possible Solutions

Introducing extra labeled data

(Hendrycks et al. ICML 2019)

Introducing extra unlabeled data

(Alayrac et al. NeurIPS 2019; Carmon et al. NeurIPS 2019)

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 Our solution: Increase sample density to induce locally sufficient training data for robust learning

Possible Solutions

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 Our solution: Increase sample density to induce locally sufficient training data for robust learning

Q1: What is the definition of sample density?

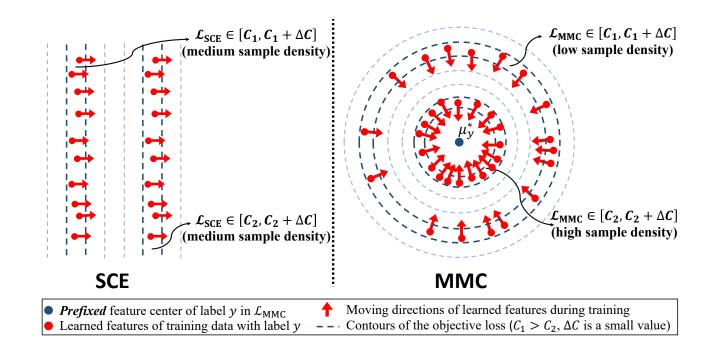
Q2: Can existing training objectives induce high sample density?

Sample Density

Given a training dataset \mathcal{D} with N input-label pairs, and the feature mapping Z trained by the objective $\mathcal{L}(Z(x),y)$ on this dataset, we define the sample density nearby the feature point z=Z(x) following the similar definition in physics (Jackson, 1999) as

$$\mathbb{SD}(z) = \frac{\Delta N}{\text{Vol}(\Delta B)}.$$
 (2)

Here $\operatorname{Vol}(\cdot)$ denotes the volume of the input set, ΔB is a small neighbourhood containing the feature point z, and $\Delta N = |Z(\mathcal{D}) \cap \Delta B|$ is the number of training points in ΔB , where $Z(\mathcal{D})$ is the set of all mapped features for the inputs in \mathcal{D} . Note that the mapped feature z is still of the label y.



Generalized Softmax Cross Entropy Loss (g-SCE loss)

We define g-SCE loss as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{g-SCE}}(Z(x), y) = -1_y^{\top} \log [\operatorname{softmax}(h)],$$

where $h_i = -(z - \mu_i)^{ op} \Sigma_i (z - \mu_i) + B_i$ is the logits in quadratic form.

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We note that the SCE loss is included in the family of g-SCE loss as

$$\operatorname{softmax}(Wz+b)_i = \frac{\exp(W_i^\top z + b_i)}{\sum_{l \in [L]} \exp(W_l^\top z + b_l)} = \frac{\exp(-\|z - \frac{1}{2}W_i\|_2^2 + b_i + \frac{1}{4}\|W_i\|_2^2)}{\sum_{l \in [L]} \exp(-\|z - \frac{1}{2}W_l\|_2^2 + b_l + \frac{1}{4}\|W_l\|_2^2)}.$$

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To provide a formal representation of the sample density induced by the g-SCE loss, we first derive the formula of the contours

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$$\log\left(1 + \frac{\sum_{l \neq y} \exp(h_l)}{\exp(h_y)}\right) = C \implies h_y = \log\left[\sum_{l \neq y} \exp(h_l)\right] - \log(C_e - 1).$$

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Log-Sum-Exp function, which is a soft maximum function

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$$\text{approximately}$$

$$h_y - h_{ ilde{y}} = -\log(C_e - 1),$$

where
$$C_e = \exp(C)$$
 , and $\tilde{y} = \arg\max_{l \neq y} h_l$.

We can the approximate loss as

$$\mathcal{L}_{y,\tilde{y}}(z) = \log[\exp(h_{\tilde{y}} - h_y) + 1]$$

such that

$$h_y - h_{\tilde{y}} = -\log(C_e - 1)$$
 $\mathcal{L}_{y,\tilde{y}}(z) = C$



$$\mathcal{L}_{y,\tilde{y}}(z) = C$$

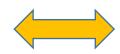


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$$h_y = \log \left[\sum_{l \neq y} \exp(h_l) \right] - \log(C_e - 1)$$
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$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{g-SCE}}(Z(x), y) = C$$

The Neighborhood ΔB in Sample Density

Based on the above approximation, we can now approximate the neighborhood

$$\Delta B = \{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d | \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}, y) \in [C, C + \Delta C] \}$$



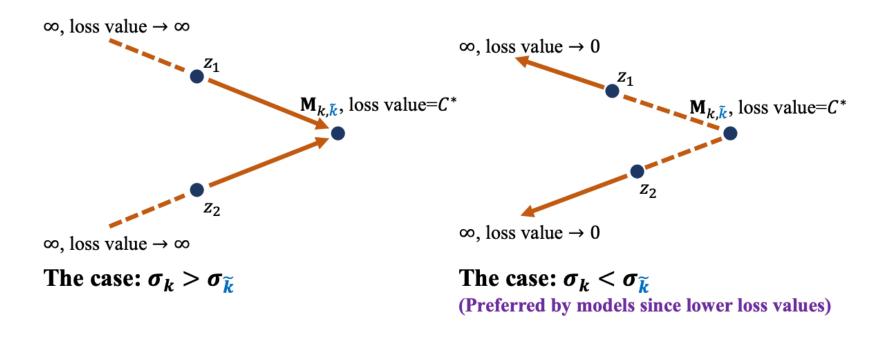
$$\Delta B_{y,\tilde{y}} = \{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d | \mathcal{L}_{y,\tilde{y}}(\mathbf{z}) \in [C, C + \Delta C] \}$$

Induced Sample Density of g-SCE Loss

Theorem 1. (Proof in Appendix A.1) Given $(x,y) \in \mathcal{D}_{k,\tilde{k}}$, z = Z(x) and $\mathcal{L}_{g\text{-SCE}}(z,y) = C$, if there are $\Sigma_k = \sigma_k I$, $\Sigma_{\tilde{k}} = \sigma_{\tilde{k}} I$, and $\sigma_k \neq \sigma_{\tilde{k}}$, then the sample density nearby the feature point z based on the approximation in Eq. (6) is

$$\mathbb{SD}(z) \propto \frac{N_{k,\tilde{k}} \cdot p_{k,\tilde{k}}(C)}{\left[\mathbf{B}_{k,\tilde{k}} + \frac{\log(C_e - 1)}{\sigma_k - \sigma_{\tilde{k}}}\right]^{\frac{d - 1}{2}}}, \text{ and } \mathbf{B}_{k,\tilde{k}} = \frac{\sigma_k \sigma_{\tilde{k}} \|\mu_k - \mu_{\tilde{k}}\|_2^2}{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{\tilde{k}})^2} + \frac{B_k - B_{\tilde{k}}}{\sigma_k - \sigma_{\tilde{k}}}, \tag{7}$$

where for the input-label pair in $\mathcal{D}_{k,\tilde{k}}$, there is $\mathcal{L}_{g\text{-SCE}} \sim p_{k,\tilde{k}}(c)$.



The 'Curse' of Softmax Function

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{g-SCE}}(Z(x), y) = -1_y^{\top} \log [\operatorname{softmax}(h)],$$



- The softmax makes the loss value only depend on the relative relation among logits.
- This causes indirect and unexpected supervisory signals on the learned features.

Our Method: Max-Mahalanobis Center (MMC) Loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MMLDA}}(Z(x), y) = -\log \left[\frac{\exp(-\frac{\|z - \mu_y^*\|_2^2}{2})}{\sum_{l \in [L]} \exp(-\frac{\|z - \mu_l^*\|_2^2}{2})} \right] = -\log \left[\frac{\exp(z^\top \mu_y^*)}{\sum_{l \in [L]} \exp(z^\top \mu_l^*)} \right]$$

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$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MMC}}(Z(x), y) = \frac{1}{2} \|z - \mu_y^*\|_2^2$$

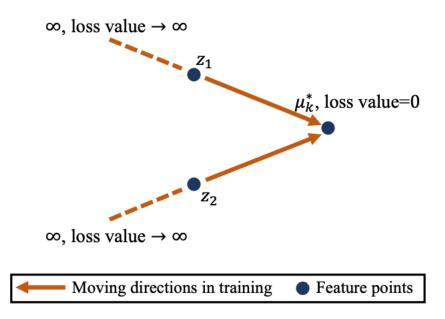
No softmax normalization

Induced Sample Density of MMC Loss

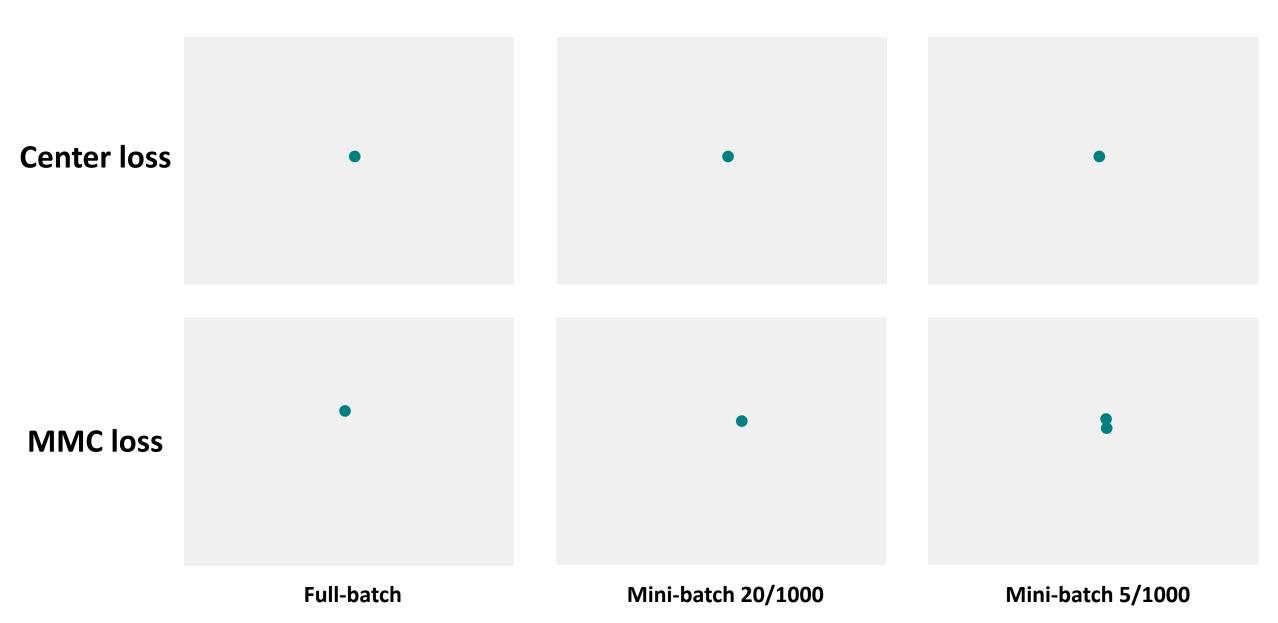
Theorem 2. (Proof in Appendix A.2) Given $(x,y) \in \mathcal{D}_k$, z = Z(x) and $\mathcal{L}_{MMC}(z,y) = C$, the sample density nearby the feature point z is

$$\mathbb{SD}(z) \propto rac{N_k \cdot p_k(C)}{C^{rac{d-1}{2}}},$$
 (9)

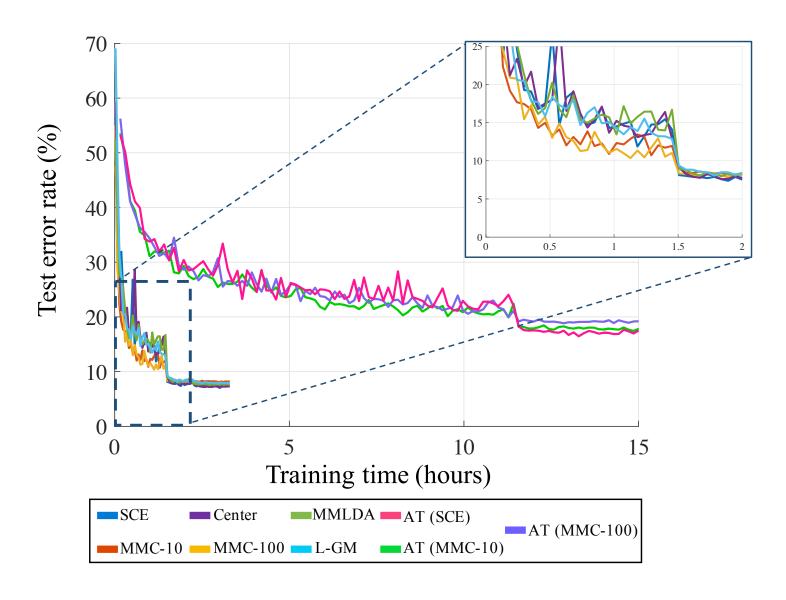
where for the input-label pair in \mathcal{D}_k , there is $\mathcal{L}_{MMC} \sim p_k(c)$.



Toy Demo on Faster Convergence



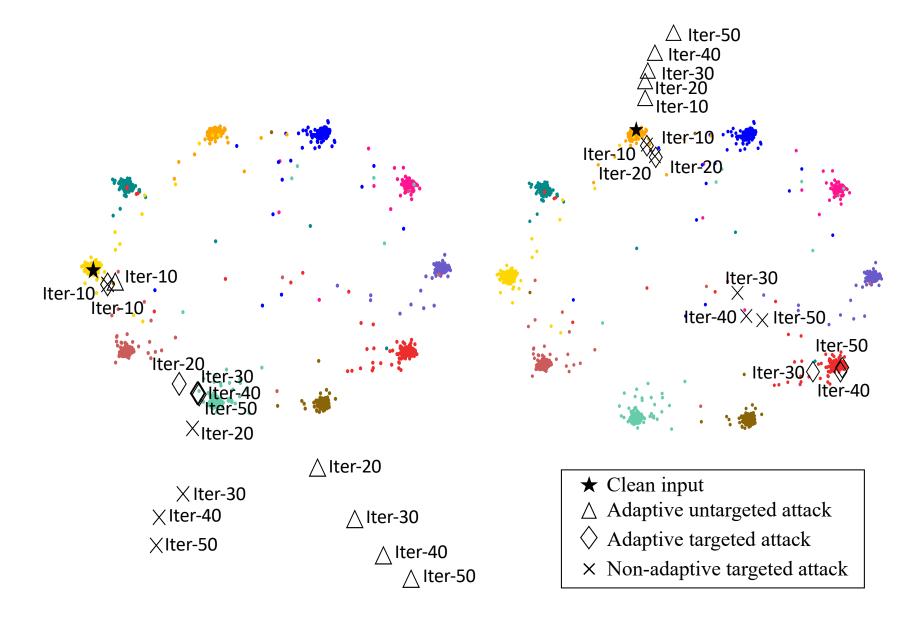
Empirical Faster Convergence



White-box Robustness (Adaptive Attacks)

		Perturbation $\epsilon=8/255$				Perturbation $\epsilon=16/255$				
Methods	Clean	PGD ₁₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₁₀	PGD ₅₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₅₀ ^{un}	PGD ₁₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₁₀ ^{un}	PGD ₅₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₅₀ ^{un}	
SCE	92.9	≤ 1	3.7	≤ 1	3.6	≤ 1	2.9	≤ 1	2.6	
Center loss	92.8	≤ 1	4.4	≤ 1	4.3	≤ 1	3.1	≤ 1	2.9	
MMLDA	92.4	≤ 1	16.5	≤ 1	9.7	≤ 1	6.7	≤ 1	5.5	
L-GM	92.5	37.6	19.8	8.9	4.9	26.0	11.0	2.5	2.8	
MMC-10 (rand)	92.3	43.5	29.2	20.9	18.4	31.3	17.9	8.6	11.6	
MMC-10	92.7	48.7	36.0	26.6	24.8	36.1	25.2	13.4	17.5	
AT ₁₀ (SCE)	83.7	70.6	49.7	69.8	47.8	48.4	26.7	31.2	16.0	
AT ₁₀ (MMC-10)	83.0	69.2	54.8	67.0	53.5	58.6	47.3	44.7	45.1	
AT ₁₀ (SCE)	80.9	69.8	55.4	69.4	53.9	53.3	34.1	38.5	21.5	
AT ₁₀ (MMC-10)	81.8	70.8	56.3	70.1	55.0	54.7	37.4	39.9	27.7	

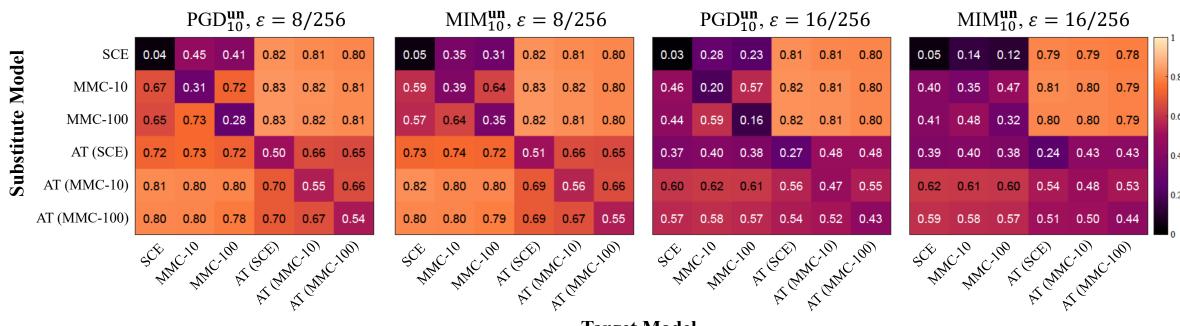
White-box Robustness (Adaptive Attacks)



White-box Robustness (Adaptive Attacks)

	Part I		Part II $(\epsilon = 8/255)$		Part II (ϵ	=16/255)	Part III	
Methods	C&W ^{tar}	C&W ^{un}	SPSA ₁₀ ^{tar}	SPSA ₁₀	SPSA ₁₀ ^{tar}	SPSA ₁₀	Noise	Rotation
SCE	0.12	0.07	12.3	1.2	5.1	≤ 1	52.0	83.5
Center loss	0.13	0.07	21.2	6.0	10.6	2.0	55.4	84.9
MMLDA	0.17	0.10	25.6	13.2	11.3	5.7	57.9	84.8
L-GM	0.23	0.12	61.9	45.9	46.1	28.2	59.2	82.4
MMC-10	0.34	0.17	69.5	56.9	57.2	41.5	69.3	87.2
ATtar (SCE)	1.19	0.63	81.1	67.8	77.9	59.4	82.2	76.0
AT ₁₀ (MMC-10)	1.91	0.85	79.1	69.2	74.5	62.7	83.5	75.2
AT ₁₀ (SCE)	1.26	0.68	78.8	67.0	73.7	60.3	78.9	73.7
AT ₁₀ (MMC-10)	1.55	0.73	80.4	69.6	74.6	62.4	80.3	75.8

Black-box Robustness (Exclude Gradient Masking)



Target Model

Different Architectures

		Perturbation $\epsilon = 8/255$				Perturbation $\epsilon = 16/255$				
Methods	Cle.	PGD ₁₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₁₀	PGD ₅₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₅₀ ^{un}	PGD ₁₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₁₀ ^{un}	PGD ₅₀ ^{tar}	PGD ₅₀ ^{un}	
CIFAR-10										
SCE (Res.32)	93.6	≤ 1	3.7	≤ 1	3.6	≤ 1	2.7	≤ 1	2.9	
MMC (Res.32)	92.7	48.7	36.0	26.6	24.8	36.1	25.2	13.4	17.5	
SCE (Res.110)	94.7	≤ 1	3.0	≤ 1	2.9	≤ 1	2.1	≤ 1	2.0	
MMC (Res.110)	93.6	54.7	46.0	34.4	31.4	41.0	30.7	16.2	21.6	
CIFAR-100										
SCE (Res.32)	72.3	≤ 1	7.8	≤ 1	7.4	≤ 1	4.8	≤ 1	4.7	
MMC (Res.32)	71.9	23.9	23.4	15.1	21.9	16.4	16.7	8.0	15.7	
SCE (Res.110)	74.8	≤ 1	7.5	≤ 1	7.3	≤ 1	4.7	≤ 1	4.5	
MMC (Res.110)	73.2	34.6	22.4	23.7	16.5	24.1	14.9	13.9	10.5	

Improving Adversarial Robustness via Promoting Ensemble Diversity

(ICML 2019)

Single model defense:



e.g., adversarial training



Base Model

Enhanced Model

Ensemble model defense:



Member 1

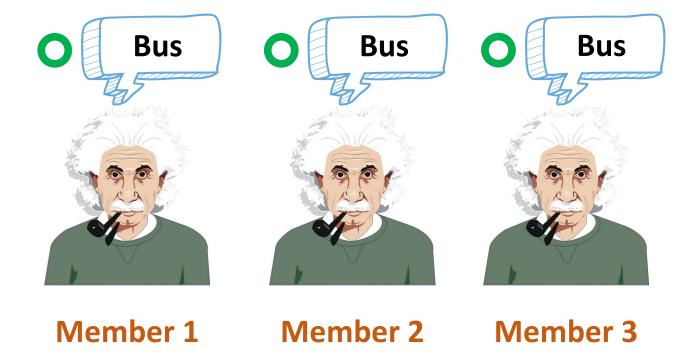


Member 2



Member 3

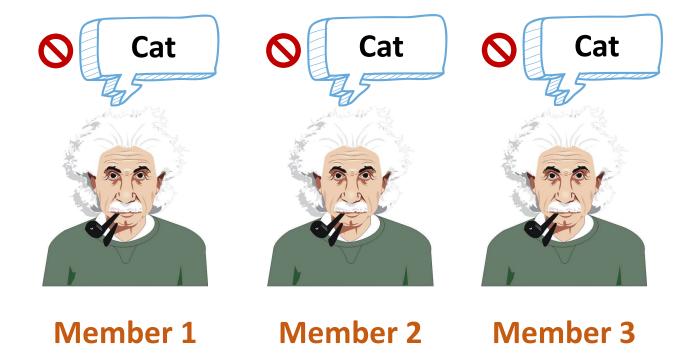
Ensemble model defense:



Clean input



Ensemble model defense:

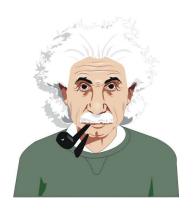


Adversarial input



Our Strategy

Training ensembles with diversity:



Member 1



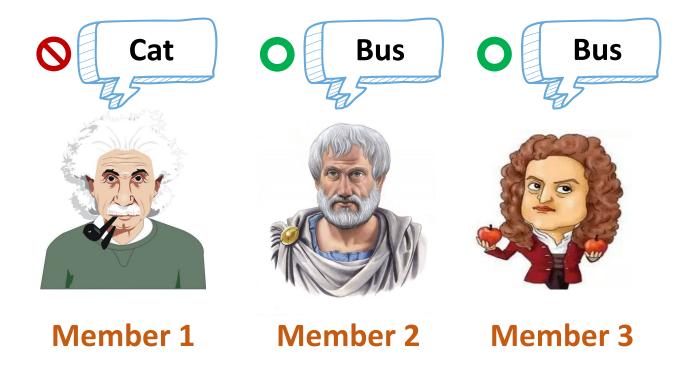
Member 2



Member 3

Our Strategy

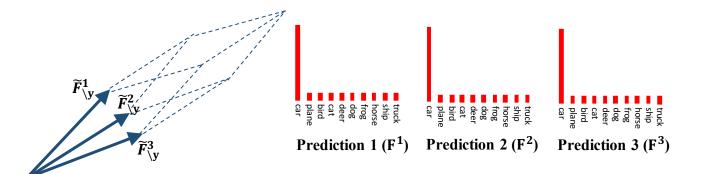
Training ensembles with diversity:



Adversarial input

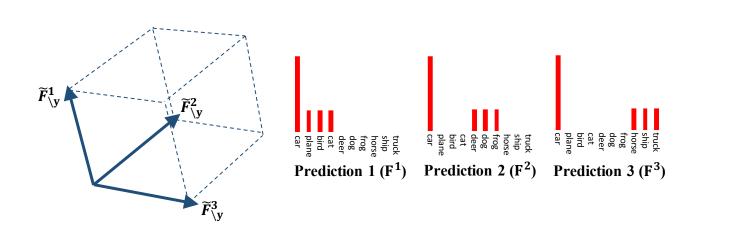


Adaptive Diversity Promoting



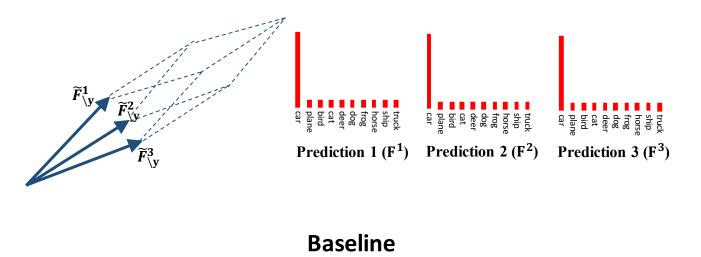
 Promoting diversity on non-maximal predictions





ADP

Adaptive Diversity Promoting



F₁

Gar frog bird truck

Prediction 1 (F¹)

Prediction 2 (F²)

Prediction 3 (F³)

 Promoting diversity on non-maximal predictions



correspond to all potentially wrong labels returned for the adversarial examples

ADP

Formulas of ADP

Based on the intuitive insights, we define the ensemble diversity as

$$\mathbb{ED} = \det(\tilde{M}_{\backslash y}^{\top} \tilde{M}_{\backslash y})$$

where $\tilde{M}_{\backslash y}=(\tilde{F}_{\backslash y}^1,\cdots,\tilde{F}_{\backslash y}^K)\in\mathbb{R}^{(L-1)\times K}$ are normalized non-maximal prediction. This definition is based on the fact that

$$\det(\tilde{M}_{\backslash y}^{\top}\tilde{M}_{\backslash y}) = \operatorname{Vol}^2(\{\tilde{F}_{\backslash y}^k\}_{k \in [K]})$$

Formulas of ADP

So the ADP regularizer is

$$ADP_{\alpha,\beta}(x,y) = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F}) + \beta \cdot \log (\mathbb{ED})$$

Formulas of ADP

So the ADP regularizer is

$$ADP_{\alpha,\beta}(x,y) = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F}) + \beta \cdot \log (\mathbb{ED})$$



Theorem 1. (Proof in Appendix A) If $\alpha = 0$, then $\forall \beta \geq 0$, the optimal solution of the minimization problem (6) satisfies the equations $F^k = 1_y$, where $k \in [K]$.

Formulas of ADP

So the ADP regularizer is

$$\mathrm{ADP}_{lpha,eta}(x,y) = lpha \cdot \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F}) + eta \cdot \log\left(\mathbb{ED}\right)$$



Theorem 2. (Proof in Appendix A) When $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta = 0$, the optimal solution of the minimization problem (6) satisfies the equations $F_y^k = \mathcal{F}_y$, $\mathcal{F}_j = \frac{1-\mathcal{F}_y}{L-1}$ and

$$\frac{1}{\mathcal{F}_y} = \frac{\alpha}{K} \log \frac{\mathcal{F}_y(L-1)}{1 - \mathcal{F}_y},\tag{7}$$

where $k \in [K]$ and $j \in [L] \setminus \{y\}$.

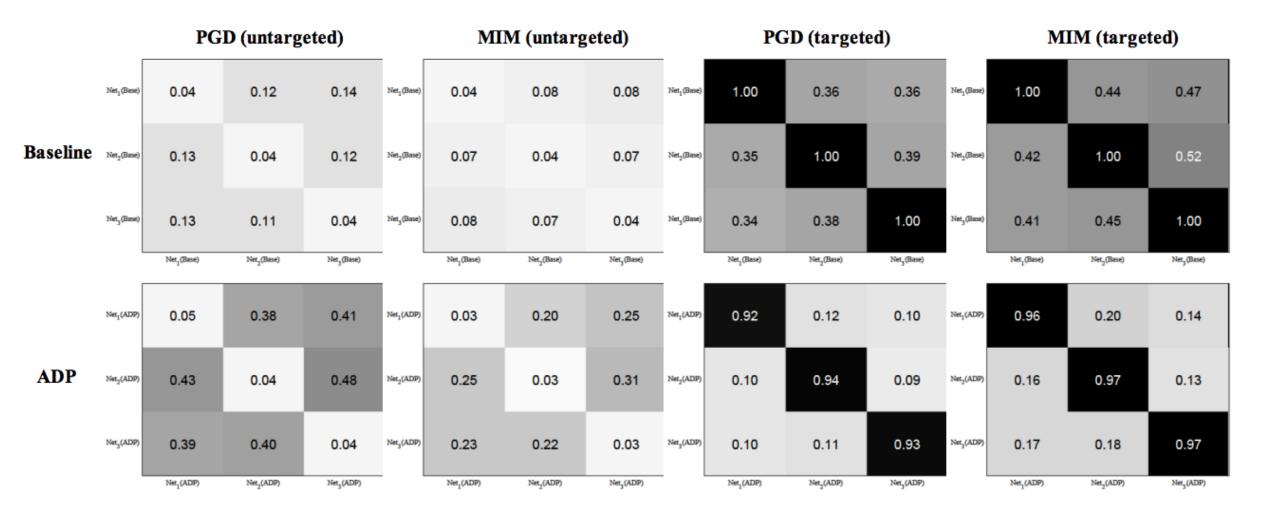
Formulas of ADP

So the ADP regularizer is

$$ADP_{\alpha,\beta}(x,y) = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{H}(\mathcal{F}) + \beta \cdot \log (\mathbb{ED})$$

Corollary 1. If there is $K \mid (L-1)$, then $\forall \alpha, \beta > 0$, the optimal solution of the minimization problem (6) satisfies the Eq. (7). Besides, let $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_K\}$ be any partition of the index set $[L] \setminus \{y\}$, where $\forall k \in [K]$, $|s_k| = \frac{L-1}{K}$. Then the optimal solution further satisfies:

$$F_{j}^{k} = \begin{cases} \frac{K(1-\mathcal{F}_{y})}{L-1}, & j \in s_{k}, \\ \mathcal{F}_{y}, & j = y, \\ 0, & otherwise. \end{cases}$$
(8)



Adversarial transferability among individual members of ensembles

Table 2. Classification accuracy (%) on adversarial examples. Ensemble models consist of three Resnet-20. For JSMA, the perturbation $\epsilon = 0.2$ on MNIST, and $\epsilon = 0.1$ on CIFAR-10. For EAD, the factor of L_1 -norm $\beta = 0.01$ on both datasets.

	MNIST				CIFAR-10			
Attacks	Para.	Baseline	$ADP_{2,0}$	$ADP_{2,0.5}$	Para.	Baseline	$ADP_{2,0}$	$ADP_{2,0.5}$
FGSM	$\epsilon = 0.1$	78.3	95.5	96.3	$\epsilon = 0.02$	36.5	57.4	61.7
LOSM	$\epsilon=0.2$	21.5	50.6	52.8	$\epsilon = 0.04$	19.4	41.9	46.2
BIM	$\epsilon = 0.1$	52.3	86.4	88.5	$\epsilon = 0.01$	18.5	44.0	46.6
	$\epsilon = 0.15$	12.2	69.5	73.6	$\epsilon=0.02$	6.1	28.2	31.0
PGD	$\epsilon=0.1$	50.7	73.4	82.8	$\epsilon = 0.01$	23.4	43.2	48.4
rob	$\epsilon = 0.15$	6.3	36.2	41.0	$\epsilon=0.02$	6.6	26.8	30.4
MIM	$\epsilon = 0.1$	58.3	89.7	92.0	$\epsilon = 0.01$	23.8	49.6	52.1
IVIIIVI	$\epsilon = 0.15$	16.1	73.3	77.5	$\epsilon = 0.02$	7.4	32.3	35.9
JSMA	$\gamma = 0.3$	84.0	88.0	95.0	$\gamma = 0.05$	29.5	33.0	43.5
JOIVIA	$\gamma = 0.6$	74.0	85.0	91.0	$\gamma=0.1$	27.5	32.0	37.0
	c = 0.1	91.6	95.9	97.3	c = 0.001	71.3	76.3	80.6
C&W	c = 1.0	30.6	75.0	78.1	c = 0.01	45.2	50.3	54.9
	c = 10.0	5.9	20.2	23.8	c = 0.1	18.8	19.2	25.6
EAD	c = 5.0	29.8	91.3	93.4	c = 1.0	17.5	64.5	67.3
	c = 10.0	7.3	87.4	89.5	c = 5.0	2.4	23.4	29.6

Classification accuracy (%) on adversarial examples

Table 4. Classification accuracy (%): $AdvT_{FGSM}$ denotes adversarial training (AdvT) on FGSM, $AdvT_{PGD}$ denotes AdvT on PGD. $\epsilon = 0.04$ for FGSM; $\epsilon = 0.02$ for BIM, PGD and MIM.

	CIFAR-10			
Defense Methods	FGSM	BIM	PGD	MIM
AdvT _{FGSM}	39.3	19.9	24.2	24.5
$AdvT_{FGSM} + ADP_{2,0.5}$	56.1	25.7	26.7	30.6
$AdvT_{PGD}$	43.2	27.8	32.8	32.7
$AdvT_{PGD} + ADP_{2,0.5}$	52.8	34.0	36.2	38.8

Classification accuracy (%) on adversarial examples

Towards Robust Detection of Adversarial Examples

(NeurIPS 2018)

We Detect Adversarial Examples, and How?

Design new detectors:

- Kernel density detector (Feinman et al. 2017)
- LID detector (Ma et al. ICLR 2018)
- •

We Detect Adversarial Examples, and How?

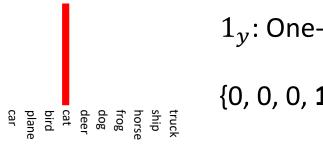
Design new detectors:

- Kernel density detector (Feinman et al. 2017)
- LID detector (Ma et al. ICLR 2018)
- •

Train the models to better collaborate with existing detectors

Reverse Cross Entropy

Cross-Entropy (CE):



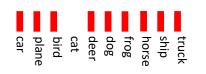
 1_{v} : One-hot label

 $\{0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0\}$

$$\mathcal{L}_{CE} = -\mathbf{1}_{y} \cdot \log(\mathbf{F})$$

Reverse Cross-Entropy (RCE):

 R_y : Reverse label



$$\{\frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \mathbf{0}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{9}\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{RCE} = -R_y \cdot \log(\mathbf{F})$$

The RCE Training Method

Phase 1: Reverse Training

Training the model by minimizing the RCE loss

Phase 2: Reverse Logits

Negating the logits fed to the softmax layer to give predictions

Theoretical Analysis

Theorem 2. (Proof in Appendix A) Let (x,y) be a given training data. Under the L_{∞} -norm, if there is a training error $\alpha \ll \frac{1}{L}$ that $\|\mathbb{S}(Z_{pre}(x,\theta_R^*)) - R_y\|_{\infty} \leq \alpha$, then we have bounds

$$\|\mathbb{S}(-Z_{pre}(x,\theta_R^*)) - 1_y\|_{\infty} \le \alpha (L-1)^2$$
,

and $\forall j, k \neq y$,

$$|\mathbb{S}(-Z_{pre}(x,\theta_R^*))_j - \mathbb{S}(-Z_{pre}(x,\theta_R^*))_k| \le 2\alpha^2(L-1)^2.$$

Property 1: Consistent and Unbiased

When the training error $\alpha \to 0$, the prediction tends to the one-hot label

Property 2: Tighter Bound

The difference between any two non-maximal elements decreases as $O(\alpha^2)$

We first define the non-maximal entropy (non-ME) as:

nonME(x) =
$$-\sum_{i\neq y} \hat{F}(x)_i \log(\hat{F}(x)_i)$$
,

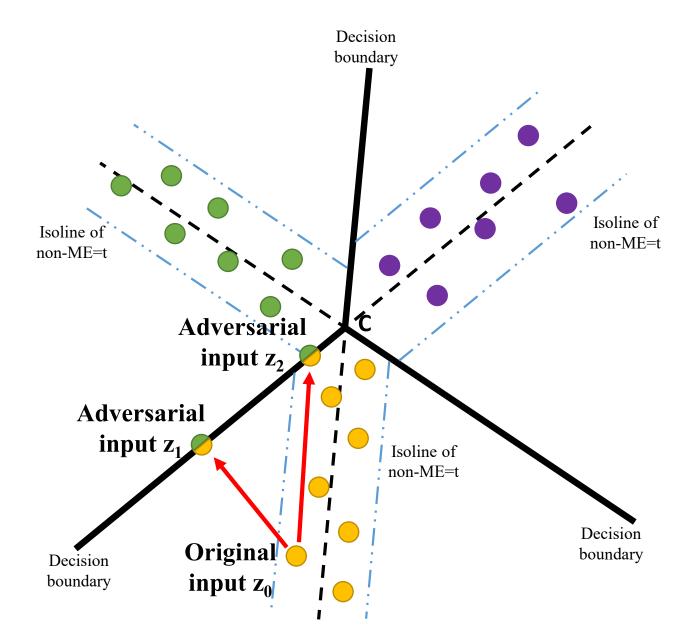
where $\hat{F}(x)_i$ is the normalized non-maximal predictions.

We first define the non-maximal entropy (non-ME) as:

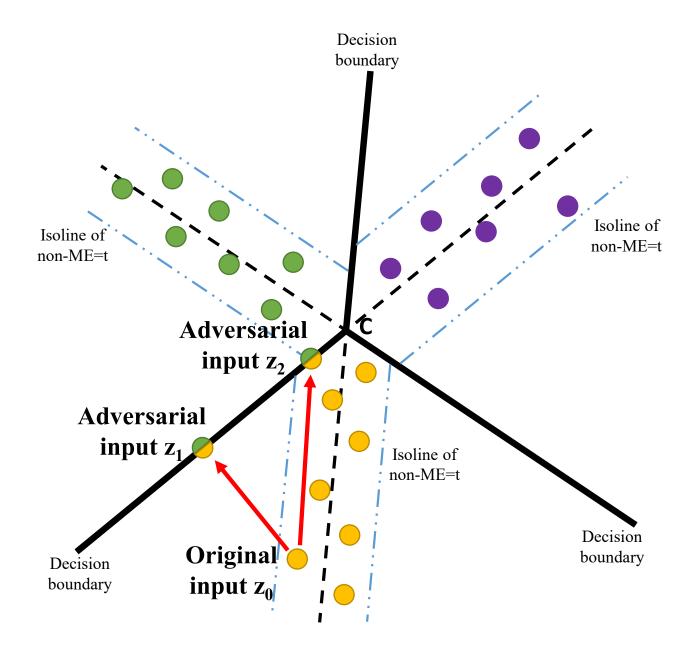
nonME(x) =
$$-\sum_{i\neq y} \hat{F}(x)_i \log(\hat{F}(x)_i)$$
,

where $\hat{F}(x)_i$ is the normalized non-maximal predictions.

RCE training encourages the maximal prediction to tend to 1, while maximizing the non-ME.

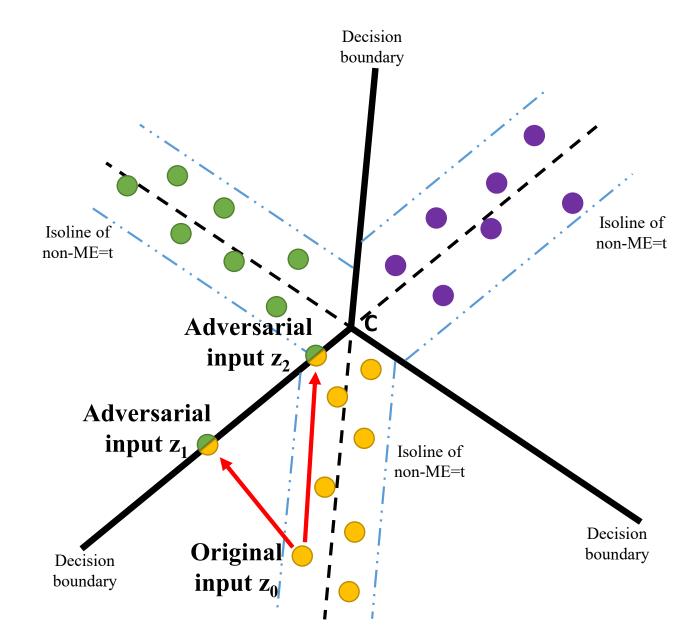


The left plot is the decision domain in 2d feature space for 3 classes (each class with one color)

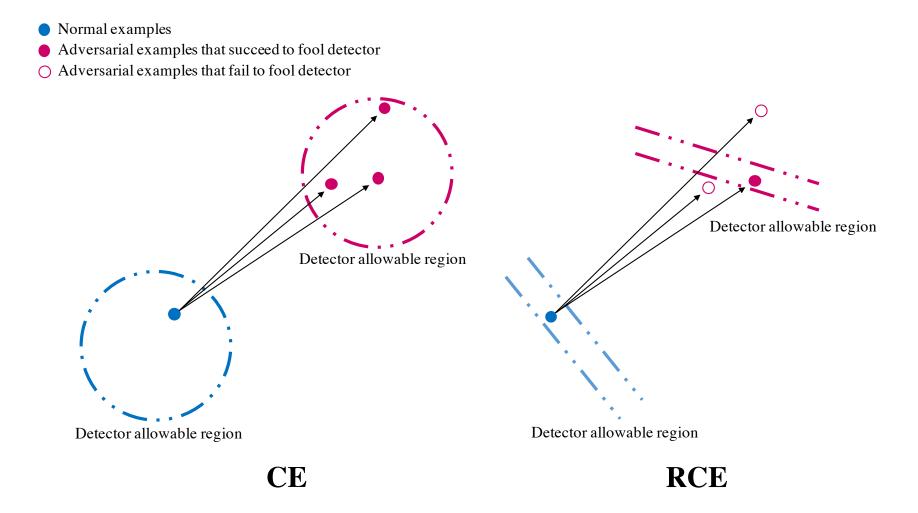


The left plot is the decision domain in 2d feature space for 3 classes (each class with one color)

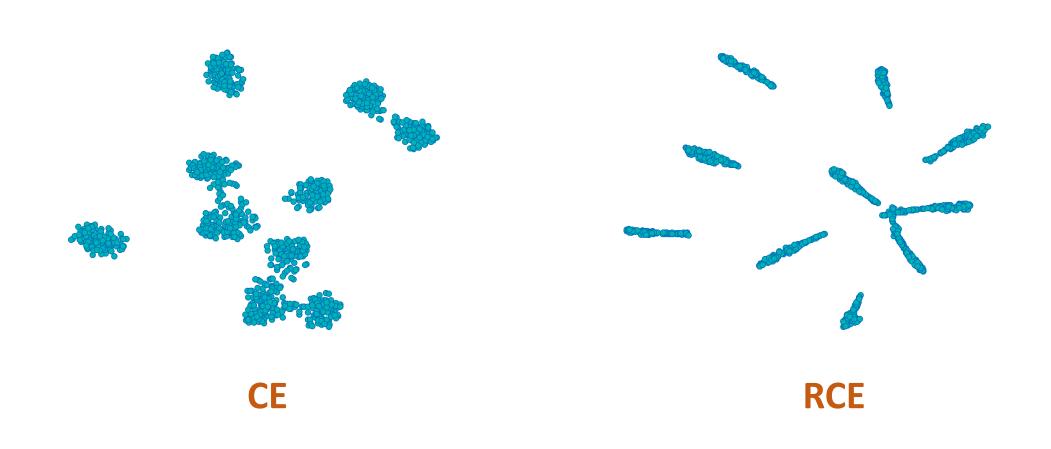
When the non-ME of the returned predictions are maximized, the learned features for each class with tend to locate near the black dash lines, where the points on the dash lines have the maximal non-ME.



Then if an adversary want to craft an adversarial example based on z_0 , he has to move further to z_2 rather than z_1 to obtain a normal value of non-ME.



In practice, the learned low-dimensional feature distributions by RCE make it more difficult to craft an adversarial examples with normal values of non-ME.



t-SNE visualization of learned features on CIFAR-10

Attack	Obj.	MNIST			CIFAR-10			
		Confidence	non-ME	K-density	Confidence	non-ME	K-density	
FGSM	CE	79.7	66.8	98.8 (-)	71.5	66.9	99.7 (-)	
	RCE	98.8	98.6	99.4 (*)	92.6	91.4	98.0 (*)	
BIM	CE	88.9	70.5	90.0 (-)	0.0	64.6	100.0 (-)	
	RCE	91.7	90.6	91.8 (*)	0.7	70.2	100.0 (*)	
ILCM	CE	98.4	50.4	96.2 (-)	16.4	37.1	84.2 (-)	
	RCE	100.0	97.0	98.6 (*)	64.1	77.8	93.9 (*)	
JSMA	CE	98.6	60.1	97.7 (-)	99.2	27.3	85.8 (-)	
	RCE	100.0	99.4	99.0 (*)	99.5	91.9	95.4 (*)	
C&W	CE	98.6	64.1	99.4 (-)	99.5	50.2	95.3 (-)	
	RCE	100.0	99.5	99.8 (*)	99.6	94.7	98.2 (*)	
C&W-hc	CE	0.0	40.0	91.1 (-)	0.0	28.8	75.4 (-)	
	RCE	0.1	93.4	99.6 (*)	0.2	53.6	91.8 (*)	

AUC-scores (10^{-2}) on adversarial examples

Reference

- 1. Max-Mahalanobis Linear Discriminant Analysis Network

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 <u>ICML 2018</u>
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- 5. Mixup Inference: Better Exploiting Mixup to Defend Adversarial Attacks Tianyu Pang*, Kun Xu*, Jun Zhu
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Thanks