Analysing Adversarial Examples for Deep Learning

Jason Jung, Naveed Akhtar and Ghulam Mubashar Hassan

Department of Computer Science & Software Engineering, The University of Western Australia, Australia

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Abstract: The aim of this work is to investigate adversarial examples and look for commonalities and disparities between different adversarial attacks and attacked classifier model behaviours. The research focuses on untargeted, gradient-based attacks. The experiment uses 16 attacks on 4 models and 1000 images. This resulted in 64,000 adversarial examples. The resulting classification predictions of the adversarial examples (adversarial labels) are analysed. It is found that light-weight neural network classifiers are more suspectable to attacks compared to the models with a larger or more complex architecture. It is also observed that similar adversarial attacks against a light-weight model often result in the same adversarial label. Moreover, the attacked models have more influence over the resulting adversarial label as compared to the adversarial attack algorithm itself. These finding are helpful in understanding the intriguing vulnerability of deep learning to adversarial examples.

1 INTRODUCTION

Image classification with deep neural networks performs remarkably well. A model can be trained by feeding it thousands of images, resulting in the ability to accurately classify even the breeds of a dog. However, these trained models can easily be deceived by adversarial attacks (Akhtar & Mian, 2018). A well calculated imperceptible perturbation can cause these models to completely misclassify an image. The image plus perturbation is known as an 'adversarial example'. An adversarial example which may appear as a cat to the human eye may be classified as a dog or even something entirely different, such as a tree by the network. Since the discovery of these adversarial attacks, there has been continued research into finding ways to make the models more robust against these attacks. A kind of arms race has taken place to find stronger attacks and stronger defences (Akhtar & Mian. 2018).

There has been a focus on developing stronger attacks, however there is a lack of 'analysis' for these attacks and for deep neural network classifier models. The aim of this work is to address this, and gain insights into the behaviour of models under different attacks and analysing their mutual relations. The focus is on gradient-based untargeted attacks.

2 RELATED WORKS & ATTACKS

A comprehensive survey of adversarial attacks for deep learning in computer vision was written in early 2018 (Akhtar & Mian, 2018). The survey serves as a comprehensive introduction into adversarial attacks for interested readers.

Adversarial examples were first discovered by Szegedy, et al., 2014. The following problem was defined: find the smallest perturbation such that,

- 1. The resulting adversarial example (input image + perturbation) is misclassified as a specific targeted label.
- 2. The adversarial example's pixel values remain within the pixel bounds of the original input image.

Because of the non-trivial task of solving the above, a box-constrained Limited memory Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (L-BFGS) algorithm was used to find an approximate solution (Szegedy, et al., 2014). The resulting attack is referred to as the L-BFGS attack and was the first adversarial attack.

In 2015, Goodfellow et al. proposed the idea that the underlying cause of adversarial examples was the linearity of neural networks. This idea led to the Fast Gradient Sign Method (FGSM). To calculate the perturbation for this attack, take the sign of the

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gradient of the cost function with respect to the input image (Goodfellow, Shlens, & Szegedy, 2015).

The Basic Iterative Method (BIM) is an extension of the FGSM. For this attack, the FGSM is repeated multiple times using a small step-size. After each iteration, the result is clipped to ensure the perturbation is within the ϵ -neighbourhood of the original image. These improvements allowed the BIM to be a stronger attack with smaller perturbations (Kurakin, Goodfellow, & Bengio, 2017).

Madry et al. proposed the strongest attack utilizing the local first order information about the network, the Projected Gradient Attack (PGD). The attack works similarly to BIM however the PGD is restarted from many random points in the l-inf ball to better understand the loss landscape. (Madry, Makelov, Schmidt, Tsipras, & Vladu, 2019).

The PGD was found to be inefficient in the l-1 case, so the Sparse l-1 Descent attack (SLIDE) was proposed. For the l-1 norm, the PGD updates a single index of the perturbation at a time. The SLIDE uses a pre-set percentile, then updates multiple indices with the steepest descent directions in this percentile. The result is then normalised to the unit l-1 norm (Tramèr & Boneh, 2019).

DeepFool is another iterative gradient based attack (Moosavi-Dezfooli, Fawzi, & Frossard, 2016). This attack algorithm tries to approximate classification regions (the regions corresponding to different labels) and hyperplanes at the boundaries of these regions. From the current image, it takes the projection to the closest hyperplane. This projection is used as the perturbation. These steps are repeated until the classification changes (i.e. an adversarial example is found).

The Decoupled Direction and Norm Attack (DDN) was proposed as an improvement over the very popular Carlini & Wagner (C&W) attack and DeepFool (Rony, et al., 2019). The iterative portion of the algorithm starts with clean image x_k and steps in the direction of the gradient of the loss function (g). Depending on whether the result $(x_k + g)$ is adversarial or not, a separate ϵ_k sphere around x will have its radius decreased or increased. The $x_k + g$ will then be projected onto the new sphere and the resulting projected point will be x_{k+1} , to be used for the next iteration.

The Brendel & Bethge Attack is a combination of a boundary attack and gradient attack (Brendel, Rauber, Kümmerer, Ustyuzhaninov, & Bethge, 2019). The attack works by starting from an adversarial sample point far away from the clean input. Then it estimates the local geometry of the boundary between the adversarial and nonadversarial regions and follows the adversarial boundary towards the clean input. It attempts to minimize the distance to the clean input while staying on the adversarial boundary.

Although there has been much research into various areas surrounding adversarial attacks, the main focus has been on creating stronger attacks and more robust models. The most common dataset used has been MNIST and CIFAR10. These contain smaller images (10x10, 32x32) which require simpler models and only include a small number of classes. This project explores adversarial attacks with the much larger Imagenet dataset which involves larger images and 1000 classes.

Attack Success Rates (ASR) and perturbation size are common metrics used to compare attacks. Aside from this, there is little research on how these attack algorithms and models may be related. By investigating the resulting labels of many adversarial examples for various attacks and models, this research project aims to identify some possible relations, commonalities and disparities between the attacks and models.

3 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

For clarity, the setup of the main experiment is kept simple. Run 16 adversarial attacks against 4 deep neural network models with 1000 images. This resulted in 64,000 adversarial examples. The top classification predictions (or labels) of the resulting adversarial examples were recorded. In addition, the confidences of these predictions, as well as the perturbations, were recorded. This data was then analyzed to gain insight into these attacks and models. The following analysis was performed:

- Calculate the Attack Success Rates (ASRs) of the different attack + model combinations. The ASR is a fraction of adversarial attacks which successfully cause misclassification. The aim is to look for patterns for attacks and/or models.
- Evaluate how frequent the most commonly appearing label occurred. The aim is to analyze the major influencer on the resulting adversarial labels.
- See how the labels/predictions of the clean image may transform to become the top prediction of the adversarial example.
- Compare the adversarial labels of the attacks. Attacks which resulted in similar adversarial labels could be considered as being similar and vice versa.

3.1 Attacks

Gradient-based, untargeted attacks were chosen as the adversarial attacks for this experiment. Gradientbased attacks were used because of their simplicity and variety. These attacks use the gradient of the cost function w.r.t. the input to calculate the perturbation. Targeted attacks aim to create an adversarial example which is incorrectly classified as a specified class or label (the target). Untargeted attacks do not care about the resulting label of the adversarial example. They simply minimize the chance of the correct label being predicted. This work looks to analyze the resulting labels of these untargeted attacks. The attacks shown in Table 1 were used.

Table 1: Attack acronyms.

Acronym	Attack
PGD	Projected Gradient Descent
FGM	Fast Gradient Method – a generalized
	version of FGM
BIM	Basic Iterative Method
SLIDE	Sparse 1-1 Descent
DF	DeepFool
DDN	Decoupled Direction and Norm
BBA	Brendel and Bethge Attack

These attacks can also be divided into Fixed Epsilon Attacks (PGD, FGM, BIM, SLIDE) and Minimization Attacks (DF, DDN, BBA). For Fixed Epsilon Attacks, the epsilon or maximum perturbation allowance is set before running the attack. Minimization Attacks aim to minimize size over the preset number of iterations.

Different perturbation l_p norm versions of these attacks were used. All 16 attacks can be seen in Table 2. The l_{inf} norm is the maximum value of any element of the perturbation. The l_1 norm is the sum of the absolute values. The l_2 norm is the Euclidean norm (square root of the sum of squares of the elements). The perturbations for the attacks are restricted by these norms.

Table 2: All adversarial attacks used in the main experiment.

l-inf	1-1	1-2
PGD	PGD	PGD
FGM	FGM	FGM
BIM	BIM	BIM
	SLIDE	
DF		DF
		DDN
BBA	BBA	BBA

3.2 Models

Four deep neural network classifier models were used: vgg16, resnet50, inception_v3 and mobilenet. These models were chosen for their popularity, availability and differences to one another. Vgg16 is a deep network with its main feature being the many convolutional layers. Resnet50 similarly consists of many convolutional layers, however it is a residual network, meaning it utilizes skip connections to connect layers using shortcuts. Inception_v3 is a complex network, using techniques such as factorizing layers into smaller convolutions to reduce the number of parameters and thus increase the efficiency of the network. Mobilenet is an efficient, light-weight network designed for mobile and embedded vision applications.

3.3 Images

1000 images were used for this experiment. These images were taken from the Imagenet database. Specifically, from the ILSVRC2012 validation set. From a set of images which were classified correctly by all 4 experiment models, 1000 images were randomly chosen.

3.4 Foolbox

The python library Foolbox was used to run the attack algorithms and generate perturbations. Foolbox is a popular library used for adversarial attacks against machine learning models and benchmarking the robustness of models against adversarial attacks (Rauber, Zimmermann, Bethge, & Brendel, 2020). The popularity, variety of attacks and fast performance of the library made it a suitable choice for this project.

3.5 Parameters

The parameters in Table 3 were used for this experiment. The parameters were chosen mainly based on previous works. The number of steps was chosen based on experiment 2 results and with consideration of the amount of time required to run all the attacks. It was found that a very high number of iterations/steps was not required for the adversarial example to cause a misclassification.

For the Fixed Epsilon Attacks, the epsilon values shown in Table 4 were used. These are based on epsilon values commonly used in literature, then scaling these values based on the image size.

Attack	Parameter	Value
DNN	init_epsilon	1 or 255 (depending
		on image bound)
	steps	200
	gamma	0.05
PGD	rel_stepsize	0.025
	abs_stepsize	None
	steps	50
	random_start	True
BIM	rel_stepsize	0.2
	abs stepsize	None
	steps	10
	random_start	False
FGM	random_start	False
SLIDE	quantile	0.99
	rel_stepsize	0.2
	abs_stepsize	None
	steps	50
BBA	init_attack	None
	overshoot	1.1
	steps	100
	lr	0.001
	lr_decay	0.5
	lr_num_decay	20
	momentum	0.8
	binary_search_steps	10
DF	steps	100
	candidates	10
	overshoot	0.02
	loss	logits

Table 3: Main experiment, adversarial attack parameters.

Table 4: Epsilon values (perturbation sizes) used in the experiment. The inception_v3 models requires the input size to be 299x299x3 as opposed to 224x224x3 and has been scaled appropriately.

pert. type	value
not inception	
l-inf	8
1-1	98,000
1-2	560
inception	
1-inf	8
1-1	175,000
1-2	750

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

16 attacks, 4 models and 1000 images were used to generate 64,000 adversarial examples.

4.1 Attack Success Rates (ASR)

The attack success rates of each of the attacks was obtained. From Table 5, it can be seen that adversarial attacks are very effective on mobilenet, have similar effectiveness against vgg16 and resnet50, and are less effectiveness against inception_v3. This may be due to the relative complexities of each of the neural network architectures. Mobilenet's lightweight architecture appears to increase its vulnerability to these adversarial attacks. On the other hand, inception_v3's more complex architecture appears to increase its robustness against these attacks.

The FGM is a quick and basic attack involving only a single step; as expected it has a lower ASR compared to other attacks. The average ASR for each model was:

Vgg16: 0.9679 Resnet50: 0.957625 Inception_v3: 0.8925 Mobilenet: 0.9907

Table 5: Attack Success Rates (ASR) of each adversarial attack for each model (from 1000 images).

	vgg16	rnet50	incep_v3	mnet
PGD 11	0.968	0.991	0.946	0.999
PGD 12	0.992	0.995	0.975	1.0
PGD linf	1.0	0.999	0.999	0.999
BIM 11	0.985	0.993	0.971	1.0
BIM 12	0.998	0.994	0.988	1.0
BIM linf	1.0	0.998	0.999	1.0
FGM 11	0.875	0.837	0.588	0.959
FGM 12	0.925	0.871	0.621	0.971
FGM linf	0.977	0.924	0.663	0.983
SLIDE	1.0	0.998	1.0	1.0
DDN	0.948	0.93	0.999	0.998
DF 12	0.909	0.876	0.805	0.969
DF linf	0.982	0.939	0.943	0.989
BBA 11	0.946	0.989	0.793	0.991
BBA 12	0.985	0.989	0.996	0.994
BBA_linf	0.996	0.999	0.994	0.999

4.2 Label Influence Analysis

Figure 1 shows an image of a pair of jeans and the adversarial example generated from a PGD_11 adversarial attack. The perturbation can be seen as being quite sparse. It has only been scaled by 16 times. Small pockets in the perturbation image which have a relatively high value can be seen, with the rest of the image having no/minimal change. This is expected from the 11 norm perturbation restriction (sum of absolute values of all elements) and indicates that these small pockets encourage the misclassification the greatest.

For this image (and the other 999 images), 64 adversarial examples were created (4 models x 16 attacks). For the adversarial example shown in Figure 1, the adversarial label (top prediction of the resulting adversarial example) was miniskirt. In fact, 63 of the

64 adversarial attacks for this image resulted in an adversarial label of miniskirt. The remaining adversarial label was hoopskirt.



Figure 1: Left: perturbation (x16) created using PGD_11. Top right: Clean, original image of a pair of jeans. Bottom right: Adversarial example – misclassified as miniskirt.



Figure 2: Plot of the number of times the most frequently occurring label (dominant label) appears. For images 0 to 49.

From a set of adversarial examples (64 in this case) of a single image, the 'dominant label' will be defined as 'the most frequently appearing adversarial label'. The number of times the dominant label appears for images 0 to 49 can be seen in Figure 2. For example, the previous pair of jeans is image 0, the dominant label is miniskirt and the number of times miniskirt appears, or miniskirt count, is 63. This is represented by the very first bar on the left.

From this plot, it can be seen that not all images necessarily have a single dominant label. Images 2 and 3 have their dominant label only appearing 12 and 13 times. These images may have multiple adversarial labels appearing as often, or almost as often, as the dominant label.

The dominant label count of an image gives some information about what influences the label. A high count (e.g. image 0) means that regardless of the attack and model, the resulting label is almost always the same. In other words, the label is independent of the attack and model, and only influenced by the original image. On the other hand, a low count (e.g. images 2 and 3), suggests that the adversarial label isn't greatly dependent on the original image.

The plot shown in Figure 2 can be extended for all images from 0 to 999. A histogram of this extended plot can be taken to visualize the dominant label count of all 1000 images (Figure 3). The right-skewed nature of the plot shows that most images have a low dominant label count; the adversarial labels for these images are not dependent just on the original image. From this, it can be concluded that the image itself is generally not a major influencer of the resulting adversarial label.



Figure 3: Histogram of the number of images with each dominant label count.

A similar histogram can be made with a focus on each attack. Given a single adversarial attack, each image now has 4 adversarial examples (from each model). This can be seen in Figure 4 and Figure 5. The shape of the histograms for all attacks are fairly similar. The right skewed nature of all the plots once again suggests that adversarial attacks do not have a large influence over the resulting adversarial label.



Figure 4: Dominant label count histogram for the DDN attack. 1000 images total, 4 attacks.



Figure 5: Dominant label count histograms for each adversarial attack. Axes of each plot match Figure 4.

The same can be done with a focus on each model. Given a single model, each image now has 16 adversarial examples (from each adversarial attack). From Figure 6, it can be seen that these histograms are left skewed. The images at the right end of the histograms have a single adversarial label appear 15 or 16 times. For these images, regardless of the adversarial attack, the resulting adversarial label is the same.

From all these histograms it can be concluded that the models, rather than the attacks, is the main influencer of the resulting adversarial label, for a given image. One potential explanation for this result is that the attacks used were all gradient-based attacks, which means the underlying algorithm for all of these attacks are the similar; thus, all attacks cause similar behaviors.

Comparing the models in Figure 6, mobilenet has the 'cleanest' left skew, and inception_v3 appears to be a normal distribution mixed with a left skewed plot. The shapes of the other 2 models lie between these 2 examples. The differences are likely due to the differing network architectures. A light-weight architecture seems to result in more consistent adversarial label results. By gaining insight into what influences the label, i.e. the models, and the relationship between the neural network architecture and the resulting adversarial label, future defense techniques may be able to use this information to better defend against these untargeted attacks.



Figure 6: Dominant label count histograms for each model. y-axis - number of images. x-axis - number of times most freq. label appears (ranges from 0 to 16).

4.3 Label Movement Analysis

The movement of labels was also investigated. The movement of labels refers to how the top label predictions of the clean image may transfer to the top predictions of the adversarial example. An example diagram can be seen in Figure 7. The 2nd label or 2nd highest prediction of the original image 0 is miniskirt with a confidence of 1.02%, this becomes the adversarial label or top prediction of the corresponding adversarial image with a confidence of 99.34%.

Out of all 64,000 adversarial examples, it was found that 52.2% of the 2nd label of the clean image became the top prediction of the adversarial example. 12.2%, 5.8%, 3.4% of the 3rd, 4th and 5th labels of the clean image become the top adversarial label. 4.7% of the time resulted in no label change (i.e. adversarial attack failed), and 21.62% of the time labels 6th – 1000th became the top prediction. Given 1000 possible classes, having the adversarial examples' top labels coming from the 2nd label of the original images about half the time is a significant result. Since the top predictions of the clean, original image is only dependent on the image and model (and not on the adversarial attack), the model and image have a major influence on the resulting top adversarial prediction/label.

This result supplements the previous result showing that models influence the resulting label.



Figure 7: Label movement example for image 0. Top 3 predictions for the clean image (left) and adversarial example (PGD_11) (right).

4.4 Compare Attack Labels

The adversarial labels for each attack was compared with each other attack, for each model. For each pair of attacks, the number of adversarial labels which match (out of 1000 images) was recorded. The top and bottom 15 matches can be seen in Table 6.

The top pairs of attacks in Table 6 are very similar attacks. The algorithms of the BIM, PGD and FGM attacks are extensions of one another. It would be expected that the resulting labels for these attacks would often match. On the other hand, the bottom half shows pairs of very different attacks, resulting in few matching labels. Also, worth noting is that inception_v3 appears often as the model with these low matching pairs of attacks. It may be due to its higher complexity which may encourage more variety in the adversarial labels. Mobilenet appears often at the top of Table 6 also suggesting once again that the light-weight network results in the same adversarial labels.

Table 6: Number of matching labels between pairs of attacks. List of top 15 and bottom 15.

model	attack 1	attack 2	No. matches
mobilenet	BIM_11	BIM_12	973
resnet50	BIM_11	BIM_12	947
mobilenet	PGD 11	BIM 11	933
mobilenet	PGD_11	PGD_12	931
vgg16	BIM_11	BIM_12	924
resnet50	FGM_11	FGM_12	919
mobilenet	PGD_11	BIM_12	917
mobilenet	BIM_11	PGD_l2	916
mobilenet	FGM 11	FGM 12	915
inception_v3	FGM_11	FGM_12	913
resnet50	PGD_11	PGD_12	904
mobilenet	PGD_12	BIM_12	903
mobilenet	DDN	BIM_12	901
mobilenet	BIM_11	DDN	899
vgg16	PGD_11	PGD_12	890
inception_v3	BIM_11	BBA_11	364
inception_v3 inception_v3	BIM_11 PGD_linf	BBA_l1 FGM_linf	364 363
inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3	BIM_11 PGD_linf SLIDE	BBA_l1 FGM_linf FGM_linf	364 363 357
inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3	BIM_11 PGD_linf SLIDE FGM_linf	BBA_l1 FGM_linf FGM_linf BBA_linf	364 363 357 355
inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3	BIM_11 PGD_linf SLIDE FGM_linf BBA_11	BBA_l1 FGM_linf FGM_linf BBA_linf BIM_l2	364 363 357 355 352
inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3	BIM_11 PGD_linf SLIDE FGM_linf BBA_11 BBA_12	BBA_l1 FGM_linf FGM_linf BBA_linf BIM_l2 FGM_linf	364 363 357 355 352 348
inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3	BIM_11 PGD_linf SLIDE FGM_linf BBA_11 BBA_12 DDN	BBA_l1 FGM_linf FGM_linf BBA_linf BIM_l2 FGM_linf FGM_linf	364 363 357 355 352 348 345
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inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 inception_v3 vgg16 vgg16 inception_v3 vgg16 inception_v3 vgg16	BIM_11 PGD_linf SLIDE FGM_linf BBA_11 BBA_12 DDN BBA_11 BBA_12 SLIDE FGM_linf BBA_11	BBA_l1 FGM_linf BBA_linf BIM_l2 FGM_linf FGM_linf BIM_linf BBA_l1 BBA_linf PGD_linf	364 363 357 355 352 348 345 343 343 343 336 330
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5 DISCUSSION

The results from the experiment have shown that the neural network models have more influence over the resulting adversarial label as opposed to the adversarial attack. In addition, a simpler, more lightweight network architecture can be seen as being more susceptible to attacks and results in the same labels for many different attacks. This may be explained by considering the classification space of the models.

The classification space is a high dimensional space where each position in this space maps to a label. An image in this space would be classified by placing it into this space and checking the mapping. By adding perturbations, the goal of adversarial attacks is to adjust the position of the image just enough to change the region (or label) in this classification space. To explain the differences found in this experiment, a light-weight network may have relatively large regions of distinct labels in this classification space which are spaced apart as opposed to interwoven classification regions. This is illustrated in Figure 8. For the light-weight network, once the perturbation has caused the image to reach a new classification region, it has a large margin of error before accidently switching labels to another or even back to the original label. However, the more complex network requires much more finesse, as a slight change may cause the image to move into another classification region. Assuming the initial epsilon specified was enough to reach a new classification region, this would explain the high ASR against the light-weight mobilenet model and the lower ASR against the more complex inception v3 model. This would also explain why using different attacks against the light-weight model often resulted in the same label; given the attacks are similar (all gradient-based), even with slight differences there is a high chance they all end up in the same large classification region.



Figure 8: 2D illustration of classification space for a lightweight (left) and complex (right) network. Each colour represents a different label or classification region.

These insights found in this work may assist future researchers to develop more robust models against untargeted gradient-based attacks. Since the analyzed attacks were all gradient-based, future work would be to consider other attack types as well. Additional research into the classification space of the models for the ImageNet models should also be considered. For example, comparing the classification space of simpler and more complex neural network models.

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