

# ConvEBMDefense for Medical Images Analysis

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# Vulnerability of Deep Learning Model

- 1 Imperceptible adversarial attacks can fool Deep Convolutional Neural Networks with high confidence.

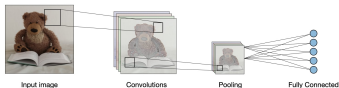


Figure 1: The architecture of CNN, Stanford CS 230

Error in ImageNet Challenge

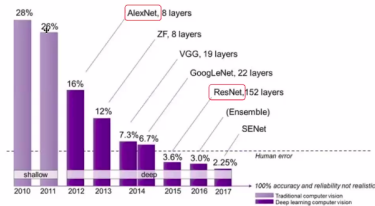


Figure 2: (source: Angshuman Gosh|DLDC 2021)

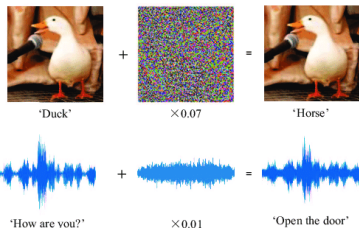


Figure 3: Adversarial examples of image and audio (Gong et al., 2018)

- 2 Adversarial examples could also attack physical world in 2D and 3D settings.



Figure 4: Adversarial examples 2D print (Kurakin et al., 2018)



■ classified as turtle    ■ classified as rifle  
■ classified as other

Figure 5: Adversarial examples 3D print (Athalye et al., 2018b)

# Adversarial Examples in Healthcare

The United States spent approximately \$3.3 trillion (17.8% of GDP) on healthcare in 2016. One study estimated medical fraud to be as high as \$272 billion in 2011 (Finlayson et al., 2018).

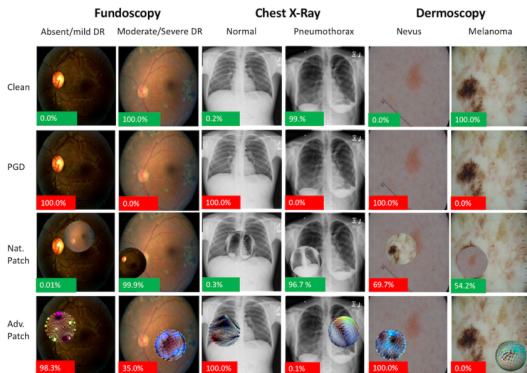


Figure 6: Adversarial examples on medical images (Finlayson et al., 2018)

## The anatomy of an adversarial attack

Demonstration of how adversarial attacks against various medical AI systems might be executed without requiring any overtly fraudulent misrepresentation of the data.

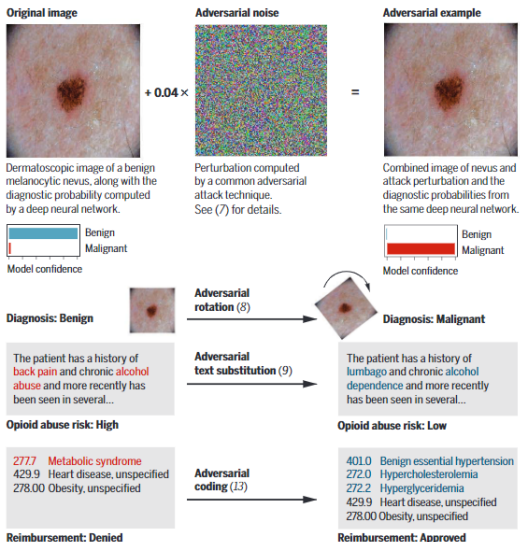


Figure 7: Adversarial examples on medical image, text and coding (Finlayson et al., 2019)

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# Definition of Adversarial Attack

- Given a trained deep learning model  $f$  and an original input data sample  $x$ , generating an adversarial example  $x'$  can generally be described as a box-constrained optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{x'} & \|x - x'\|, \\ \text{s.t. } & f(x') = c', \\ & f(x) = c, \\ & c' \neq c, \\ & x \in [0, 1] \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The distance  $d\|\cdot\|$  between  $x - x'$  denotes the perturbation added on natural image  $x$ .

- The goal of attack is to fool the model and thus misclassify the labels.



# Types of Adversarial Attack

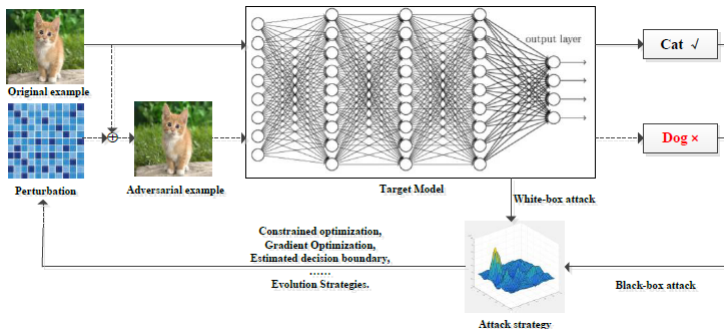


Figure 8: Adversarial example generation and adversarial attack process (Hongshuo Liang et al., 2022)

- 1 White-box attack: The attacker has complete knowledge of the target model including model training process and weights. It's a stronger attack than black-box attack.
- 2 Black-box attack: The attacker assumes no knowledge of the target model. One category of black-box attacks allows probing the deployed target models with queries. This setup is more commonly known as query-based attack.

An untargeted white-box intends to increase the loss function with bounded perturbation distance  $\epsilon$  to generate adversarial examples  $x'$ :

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{\delta \in \Delta} L(f_{\theta}(x + \delta), y) \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta$  is the  $\epsilon$ -ball in the  $l_p$ -norm.

The common option of perturbation distance are  $l_{\infty}$ -norm  $\epsilon$  ball and  $l_2$ -norm  $\epsilon$  ball around  $x$ , where  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Let  $\theta$  is the parameters of a model,  $L(\theta, x, y)$  be the cost used to train the neural network.

- First generation attack - Fast Gradient Sign Method (FGSM) (Ian J Goodfellow et al., 2014) :

$$x + \epsilon \text{sign}(\nabla_x L(\theta, x, y)) \quad (3)$$

- Adaptive attack - Projected Gradient Descent (PGD) (Madry et al., 2017) on the negative loss function:

$$x^{t+1} = \text{Proj}_{x+S}(x^t + \alpha \text{sign}(\nabla_{x^t} L(\theta, x^t, y))) \quad (4)$$

# More recent stronger adaptive attacks

- Expectation Over Transformation (EOT) aims to constrain the expected effective distance between the adversarial  $t(x')$  and original inputs  $t(x)$  instead of  $x' - x$ . PGD is used to iteratively generate the adversarial example by updating the gradient:

$$\nabla_x E_{T(x)}[f(T(x))] = E_{T(x)}[\nabla_x f(T(x))] \quad (5)$$

- Backward Pass Differentiable Approximation (BPDA) can be applied on non-differential network where gradients are not readily available:

$$\nabla_x f(g(x))|_{x=\hat{x}} = \nabla_x f(x)|_{x=g(\hat{x})} \quad (6)$$

where  $g(\cdot)$  is neither smooth nor differentiable and can't be backpropagated through to generate adversarial examples.

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# Types of Adversarial Defense

- Adversarial Purification (AP): a process that remove/purify adversarial examples before the model training process for adversarial defense.
- Adversarial Training (AT): a process that injects adversarial examples in the training data of a model to make it adversarially robust.

We use Energy based Model(EBM) adversarial purification for defense in this work.

# Current Adversarial Defense

## Defense evaluation problems: Obfuscated Gradients

- Shattered gradient.
- Stochastic gradient.
- Exploding & Vanishing Gradients.

Defense	Dataset	Distance	Accuracy
Buckman et al. (2018)	CIFAR	0.031 ( $\ell_\infty$ )	0%*
Ma et al. (2018)	CIFAR	0.031 ( $\ell_\infty$ )	5%
Guo et al. (2018)	ImageNet	0.005 ( $\ell_2$ )	0%*
Dhillon et al. (2018)	CIFAR	0.031 ( $\ell_\infty$ )	0%
Xie et al. (2018)	ImageNet	0.031 ( $\ell_\infty$ )	0%*
Song et al. (2018)	CIFAR	0.031 ( $\ell_\infty$ )	9%*
Samangouei et al. (2018)	MNIST	0.005 ( $\ell_2$ )	55%**
Madry et al. (2018)	CIFAR	0.031 ( $\ell_\infty$ )	47%
Na et al. (2018)	CIFAR	0.015 ( $\ell_\infty$ )	15%

*Table 1. Summary of Results:* Seven of nine defense techniques accepted at ICLR 2018 cause obfuscated gradients and are vulnerable to our attacks. Defenses denoted with \* propose combining adversarial training; we report here the defense alone, see §5 for full numbers. The fundamental principle behind the defense denoted with \*\* has 0% accuracy; in practice, imperfections cause the theoretically optimal attack to fail, see §5.4.2 for details.

Figure 9: Athalye et al., 2018a

Defense evaluation on medical images is inadequate:

- Papers uses attack methods such as FGSM, BIM, PGD and no paper uses stronger attacks like EOT, BPDA.
- Treat model was not clearly defined.
- Attack statement on  $l_p$ -norm, iteration steps, number of evaluated images are not clear or unavailable.

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# Modern Deep EBM

EBM (J. Xie et al., 2016) is a Gibbs-Boltzmann density.  
A deep EBM has the form:

$$p(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \exp\{-U(x; \theta)\} \quad (7)$$

where  $x \in R^D$  is an image signal. The energy  $U(x; \theta)$  is a ConvNet with weights  $\theta$ , a scalar output.  
 $Z$  is intractable normalizing constant:

$$Z(\theta) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \exp[-U(x; \theta)] dx \quad (8)$$

In order to find  $\theta$  such that the parametric model  $p_{\theta}(x)$  is a close approximation of the data distribution  $q(x)$ . Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence was used to measure the closeness by solving  $\operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} L(\theta)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} D_{KL}(q(x) || p(x; \theta)) \\ & = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} E_q[\log \frac{q}{p_{\theta}}] \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

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Main ways to learn probabilistic models:

- MLE learning
- Variational approximation
- Normalizing flow

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Objective function of MLE learning:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = E_q[-\log p(x; \theta)] \quad (10)$$

The derivative of the loss is:

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \boxed{\nabla \log z(\theta)} + \nabla E_q[U(X; \theta)] \quad (11)$$

where the  $\nabla \log z(\theta)$  can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \log z(\theta) &= \frac{1}{z(\theta)} \nabla U(\theta) \\ &= \frac{1}{z(\theta)} \nabla \int \exp[-U(x; \theta)] dx \\ &= \frac{1}{z(\theta)} \int \exp[-U(x; \theta)] \nabla[-U(x; \theta)] dx \\ &= \int \frac{1}{z(\theta)} \exp[-U(x; \theta)] \nabla[-U(x; \theta)] dx \\ &= \int p_\theta \nabla[-U(x; \theta)] dx \\ &= -E_{p_\theta}[\nabla U(x; \theta)] \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

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Thus, the gradient used to learn  $\theta$  becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta) &= \nabla E_q[U(X; \theta)] - \nabla E_{p_\theta}[U(X; \theta)] \\ &\approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_\theta U(X_i^+; \theta) - \underbrace{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \nabla_\theta U(X_i^-; \theta)}_{\text{MCMC sampling}} \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

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Gradient-based MCMC and Langevin Dynamics:

$$X^{(k+1)} = X^{(k)} - \frac{\epsilon^2}{2} \nabla_{X^{(k)}} U(X^{(k)}; \theta) + \epsilon Z_k, \quad (14)$$

where  $\epsilon$  is the step size and  $Z_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I^D)$ . The Langevin trajectories are initialized from a set of states  $\{X_{i,0}^-\}_{i=1}^n$  obtained from a certain initialization strategy.

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Different implementations of the MCMC synthesis step:

- ❶ Contrastive Divergence: runs a finite MCMC from data (Hinton, 2002).
- ❷ Persistent Chain: runs a finite MCMC from the synthesized data from previous epoch.
- ❸ Cooperative Divergence: runs a finite MCMC from a generator in tandem with the energy.
- ❹ Non-persistent short-run MCMC: runs a finite MCMC Gaussian White noise.

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# Why do we choose EBM for defense?



- **Simplicity and Stability:** An EBM is the only object that needs to be trained and designed. Separate networks are not tuned to ensure balance (for example, unbalanced training can result in posterior collapse in VAEs or poor performance in GANs).

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- **Sharing of Statistical Strength:** Since the EBM is the only trained object, it requires fewer model parameters than approaches that use multiple networks. More importantly, the model being concentrated in a single network allows the training process to develop a shared set of features as opposed to developing them redundantly in separate networks.

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- **Adaptive Computation Time:** An iterative stochastic optimization process, which allows for a trade-off between generation quality and computation time.
- **Flexibility Of Generation:** EBMs directly modeling particular regions as high or lower energy during the generation process to avoid unwanted regions of data, especially for discontinuous data manifolds, unlike VAEs or flow based models.

(Du et al., 2019)

# Use EOT as Defense

## Understanding EOT attack

- 1 If  $T(x)$  is not differentiable, it will cause exploding or vanishing gradient problem.

$$\nabla_x E_{T(x)}[f(T(x))] = E_{T(x)}[\nabla_x f(T(x))] \quad (15)$$

# Understanding EOT attack

- 1 If  $T(x)$  is not differentiable, it will cause exploding or vanishing gradient problem.

$$\nabla_x E_{T(x)}[f(T(x))] = E_{T(x)}[\nabla_x f(T(x))] \quad (15)$$

- 2 Evaluate stochastic classifiers  $f(T(x))$ . Let  $F(x) = E_{T(x)}[f(T(x))]$ . Expectation Over Transformation (EOT) to circumvent stochastic gradient problem that's caused by random classifier (Athalye et al., 2018a).

$$\hat{F}_{H_{\text{adv}}}(x) \approx \frac{1}{H_{\text{adv}}} \sum_{h=1}^{H_{\text{adv}}} f(\hat{x}_h), \quad \hat{x}_h \sim T(x) \text{ i.i.d} \quad (16)$$

where  $H_{\text{adv}}$  is number of EOT attack samples. Typically around 10 to 30. Small  $H_{\text{adv}}$  causes random classification.

# Convergent EBM Defense

Convergent EBM  $T(x)$  and EOT defense. Solve exploding or vanishing gradient problem for  $T(x)$  by change of variable  $x = h(z)$  where  $h(\cdot)$  is differentiable. With large enough MCMC sampling steps  $K$ , we can remove the adversarial noise in langevin sampling step.

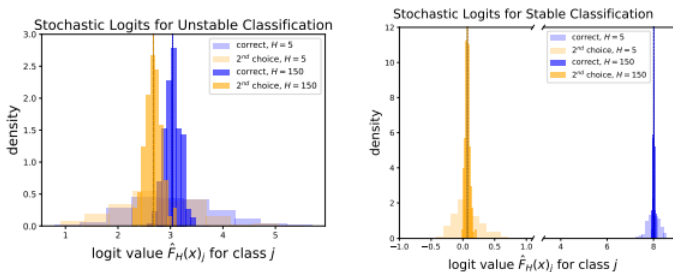


Figure 10:  $H$  impact on unstable and stable classification by EOT attack/defense (Hill et al., 2020)

$$\hat{F}_H \approx \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H f(\hat{x}_h), \quad \hat{x}_h \sim T(x) \text{ i.i.d} \quad (17)$$

# Visualization of ConvEBMDefense Model

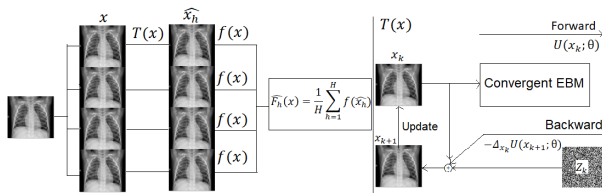


Figure 11: Convergent EBM Defense on Medical images

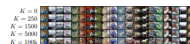
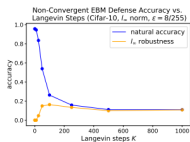
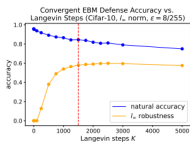


Figure 12: Convergent EBM vs Non-convergent EBM and MCMC steps K (Hill et al., 2020). we experimented on  $K=1000$  and  $2000$  on chest-xray

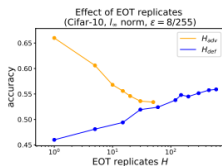


Figure 13: EOT replicates (Hill et al., 2020). we experimented on  $H_{def}=64$  and  $128$  on chest-xray with  $H_{adv}=24$



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# Dataset and Model Pre-training

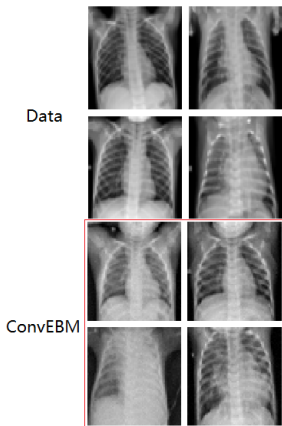


Figure 14: Original images & images Generated by ConvEBM

We use WideResNet as classifier and have a binary classification accuracy of 92.5%.

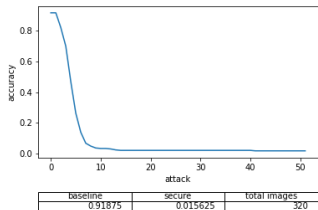


Figure 15: Accuracy over BPDA+EOT24 attack without defense

### Chest-xray (D. Kermay et al., 2018)

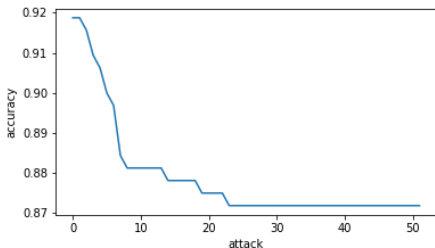
Train	Test
5,232	624

Table 1: In the training set: 3883 images characterized as depicting pneumonia (2,538 bacterial and 1,345 viral) and 1,349 normal.

# Defense Model Training

We use BPDA + EOT attack, which is known as the strongest adaptive attack for the defense evaluation:

$$\Delta_{EOT+BPDA}(x, y) = \frac{1}{H_{adv}} \sum_{h=1}^{H_{adv}} \nabla_{\hat{x}_h} L \left( \frac{1}{H_{adv}} \sum_{h=1}^{H_{adv}} f(\hat{x}_h), y \right), \quad \hat{x}_h \sim T(x) \text{i.i.d} \quad (18)$$



baseline	secure	total images
0.91875	0.871875	320

Figure 16: Number of adversarial attack steps on Chest x-ray, BPDA + EOT24, K=2000,  $H_{def} = 128$

# Experiment Comparison

BPDA+EOT24 attack reduced the robust accuracy to 0.016 without defense.

Our ConvEBMDefense model achieved 86.8% accuracy when bounded by  $l_\infty$  distortion with  $\epsilon = 0.031$  (8/255) on 320 images, when the attacker has full white-box access.

Dataset	Attack	Defense	Nat	Adv	$\epsilon$	Adv steps	$H_{def}$	$K$	samples
Chest-xray	BPDA+EOT24	Ours	0.923( $\pm$ 0.003)	0.872( $\pm$ 0.007)	8/255	30 50	64 128	2000	320
Chest-xray	BPDA+EOT24	Ours	0.922	0.858	8/255	30	64	1000	320
Chest-xray	BPDA	Ours	0.917( $\pm$ 0.011)	0.871( $\pm$ 0.002)	8/255	30	64 128	2000	320
Chest-xray	PGD( $l_\infty$ )	AT	0.925	0.89	8/255	5 25	NA	NA	NA
Chest-xray14	BIM( $l_\infty$ )	Model <sup>1</sup>	0.74	0.650	0.3 <sup>7</sup>	5	NA	NA	200
Chest-xray14	PGD	Model <sup>2</sup>	0.862	0.772	-	-	NA	NA	-
Chest-xray14	PGD( $l_\infty$ )	AT	0.865	0.839	4/255	4	NA	NA	NA -

Table 2: Defense for  $l_\infty$  against high-power whitebox attacks on Chest Xray. Our robust accuracy with BPDA + EOT attack is averaged at **0.868**, and the natural accuracy preserved the accuracy of pre-trained WideResNet model. None of the evaluated model preserved the accuracy of pre attack or had convincing defense accuracy result. Model<sup>1</sup> (Taghanaki et al., 2019), Model<sup>2</sup> (L. Chen et al., 2021), and AT (Xu et al., 2021) used chest-xray dataset with 14 diseases (Wang et al., 2017). See discussion.

- All evaluations are inadequate with lack of attacking steps.
- The 1st Model used Kernelized manifold mapping to break the local linearity of neural networks. However, their black-box attack is better than white-box attack, which indicates gradient shattering. This should be evaluated by BPDA attack (Athalye et al., 2018a).
- The 2nd Model used pruning and attention layer as a defense method. It's based on random classifier, which should be evaluated by EOT attack (Athalye et al., 2018a).
- The 3rd Model reported PGD 4/255 attack accuracy without AT is 0.455 which indicates the ineffective attack.





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- 2 Improve defense accuracy by improving EBM MCMC sampling.
- 3 Evaluate and improve the most recent diffusion model defense (Nie et al., [2022](#)) .
- 4 Use EBM diffusion recovery likelihood model (Gao et al., [2020b](#)) for defense to improve defense accuracy.

Thank You!

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