Structure-Guided Visual Perturbation Neutralization for LVLMs

Abstract

Image inputs enable Large Vision Language Models (LVLMs) to perceive fine-grained visual information, but also introduce a pixel-level attack surface through which adversarial perturbations can elicit unsafe model behaviors. However, most existing defenses are designed for traditional computer vision settings and thus often overlook the cross-modal alignment required by LVLMs, leading to degraded performance. Meanwhile, the limited defenses tailored to LVLMs often require substantial image modifications and introduce considerable computational overhead, thereby compromising inference quality and efficiency. To address these limitations, we propose Structure-Induced Guided Neutralization (SIGN), a lightweight, plug-and-play defense framework that improves LVLM compatibility via *Prior Structural Extraction* and achieves efficient perturbation suppression via *Dynamic Guided Neutralization*. Extensive experiments show that SIGN achieves over 87% defense success rate with only 0.5% pixel modification and 0.16 seconds per image, while nearly preserving original visual representations and benign task performance. Our work offers a lightweight alternative to defenses that require costly model training and highlights the potential of exploiting a vision encoder for efficient adversarial protection. Our code is open source on `https://anonymous.4open.science/r/SIGN-BCB1`.

1 Introduction

Large Vision Language Models (LVLMs) are increasingly becoming powerful assistants for visual understanding and decision-making (Liu et al., 2024; Dai et al., 2023). Vision inputs enable LVLMs to capture fine-grained concepts that are difficult to express in text alone (Bai et al., 2023; Kim and Ji, 2024). These fine-grained visual signals also introduce a new attack surface, where subtle pixel perturbations can trigger diverse safety threats, including jailbreaking (Ying et al., 2025; Jueal Mia and Hadi Amini, 2025), LLM-DoS (Fu et al., 2025b; Gao et al., 2024; Zhao et al., 2023), and misclassification (Kim et al., 2024), posing substantial risks to reliable and safe deployment.

Effective defenses should remain robust to emerging attack types, yet existing strategies are still limited. Although model fine-tuning improves robustness against known attacks, its costly updates and brittleness under adaptive perturbations motivate defenses that adapt to each input (Shafahi et al., 2019; Andriushchenko et al., 2025; Sun et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025b; Xia et al., 2026). Traditional image denoising methods are effective in conventional CV pipelines (Tiantian et al., 2024), but are not tailored to the architecture of LVLMs (Fan et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2025). LVLM-specific defenses further improve visual robustness, but they often depend on region masking or diffusion-based restoration (Zhang et al., 2025c; Kadvil and Tal, 2026), which may disrupt benign visual content and introduce substantial latency. These limitations point to the need for a defense framework that is architecture-aware and lightweight to adaptive perturbations at deployment.

To meet these requirements, we propose *Structure-Induced Guided Neutralization* (**SIGN**), a lightweight defense framework for LVLMs that operates without model retraining and minimally alters benign visual content. As shown in Figure 1, SIGN operates in two stages. In *Prior Structural Extraction*, it estimates a model-induced *Structure Prior* from the LVLM vision encoder, capturing stable patch-wise structural sensitivity shared across benign inputs. Crucially, *Structure Prior* is not used to identify semantic content; instead, they are used to characterize the encoder's inherent structural response bias, making the defense better aligned with LVLM architectures. In *Dynamic Guided Neutralization*, the *Structure Prior*

Figure 1: Overview of SIGN, a structure-guided LVLM defense that suppresses adversarial visual signals.

is projected to pixel space and combined with local statistics to identify sparse outlier regions under neighborhood constraints, allowing SIGN to suppress adversarial signals through sparse pixel-level interventions with minimal overhead.

Extensive experiments across six LVLMs and four representative attack methods demonstrate SIGN's effectiveness. Results show that *Structure Prior* is highly stable within the same model and can effectively guide adversarial suppression. SIGN achieves an average defense success rate above 87% while modifying only 0.5% of image pixels. Across different LVLMs, the defense construction time is typically below 0.2 seconds, introducing nearly imperceptible overhead. Moreover, SIGN preserves benign task utility with minimal impact on output quality, while maintaining image representation cosine similarity above 0.99 after encoding. These findings suggest that SIGN offers an effective and efficient path toward robust LVLM defense while preserving benign visual semantics.

In summary, we reveal a stable structural response bias in LVLM vision encoders, which provides an encoder-level prior for adversarial defense. Building on this insight, we propose SIGN, a lightweight defense framework that leverages the *Structural Prior* to guide sparse suppression of adversarial signals. We then conduct extensive experiments to validate SIGN's effectiveness. More broadly, our findings highlight the potential of exploiting intrinsic encoder structure as a practical approach for robust, lightweight LVLM defense.

2 Related Work

Large Vision Language Models. LVLMs connect visual encoders with large language models to support visual understanding and language-based reasoning. Representative systems such as LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023), InstructBLIP (Dai et al., 2023), Qwen-VL (Wang et al., 2024a), and CogVLM (Wang et al., 2024b) have shown strong multimodal capabilities, while recent advances further improve cross-modal alignment (Liu et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2024).

Image Adversarial Attacks on LVLMs. Image adversarial attacks have been extensively studied in traditional computer vision (CV), where small perturbations can mislead image classifiers (Goodfellow et al., 2014; Carlini and Wagner, 2017; Moosavi-Dezfooli et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2017). In LVLMs, the impact of visual perturbations is broader, as perturbed images can affect not only visual recognition but also language generation. Recent studies show that image perturbations can degrade LVLM performance across VQA tasks (Cui et al., 2024), jailbreak-aligned LVLMs (Qi et al., 2024; Gong et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025a), and manipulate visual-token representations (Wang et al., 2024c). Beyond incorrect prediction, adversarial images may also trigger abnormally long generations, resulting in resource-related failures (Fu et al., 2025b; Gao et al., 2025). The diversity of attack goals indicates that adversarial images pose a serious threat to LVLM safety.

Defense against Adversarial Perturbations. A large body of adversarial defense research has been developed in the CV setting (Madry et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2017; Samangouei et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2019; Nie et al., 2022; Cohen et al., 2019). Although these methods are effective for image classifiers, they are not directly optimized for LVLMs, which require robustness at the level of multimodal understanding rather than visual recognition alone. Recent LVLM-oriented defenses have explored masking (Zhang et al., 2025c), supervision (Zhou et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024), adversarial protection (Li et al., 2025; Mirza et al., 2026), purification (Fu et al., 2025a), and detection (Kadvil and Tal, 2026; Huang et al., 2025; Ren et al., 2025) to mitigate vision-side attacks. However, LVLM-specific defenses remain limited compared with the rapidly growing attack literature, and many existing solutions rely on costly reconstruction or auxiliary detection, which may increase latency or disrupt benign visual content. This gap motivates lightweight, LVLM-aware perturbation neutralization methods that can suppress adversarial patterns.

3 Method

3.1 Preliminaries and Threat Model

Vision encoding in LVLMs. We consider an LVLM that encodes an input image through a vision encoder before multimodal reasoning (Liu et al., 2023). Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ denote an input image, where H, W, and C are its height, width, and number of channels, respectively. We further define the pixel domain as $\Omega = \{1, \ldots, H\} \times \{1, \ldots, W\}$, where each pixel location is indexed by $u = (h, w) \in \Omega$ with row index h and column index w. The image is partitioned into a regular grid of non-overlapping patches of size $p \times p$, yielding $H_p = \left\lceil \frac{H}{p} \right\rceil$, $W_p = \left\lceil \frac{W}{p} \right\rceil$, and $N = H_p \cdot W_p$ patches in total, where boundary regions are handled by padding if necessary. These patches are embedded and processed by a vision encoder $E(\cdot)$ with L layers, where $E_\ell(x_i) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denotes the response of the i-th patch token at the ℓ-th layer, for $i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}$ and $\ell \in \{1, \ldots, L\}$.

The final-layer patch representations are projected into the model embedding space as visual tokens. Fixed-resolution LVLMs (Liu et al., 2023; Dai et al., 2023) naturally produce a constant token layout with N tokens per image. For dynamic-resolution models (Bai et al., 2023), *Prior Structural Extraction* uses the minimum supported input window to obtain a shared token layout across samples. Thus, N remains fixed for each model in this stage, and the resulting patch satisfies $H_p = W_p$.

Threat model. We consider adversarial image attacks that add a small perturbation δ to the input image, i.e., $\tilde{x} = x + \delta$, to disrupt vision-encoder patch representations and induce abnormal LVLM behaviors such as Jailbreak (Geng et al., 2025), LLM-DoS (Fu et al., 2025b), or incorrect prediction (Cui et al., 2024). Under this threat model, the defender observes only the attacked image $\tilde{x}$ at inference time and produces a corrected image $\hat{x} = SIGN(\tilde{x})$, where $SIGN(\cdot)$ denotes our defense module. Let $\mathbf{E}_L(x) = \{E_L(x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ denote the final-layer patch representations of the vision encoder. The defense objective is to keep $\mathbf{E}_L(\hat{x})$ close to the benign responses $\mathbf{E}_L(x)$ for clean inputs, while reducing the similarity between $\mathbf{E}_L(\hat{x})$ and the attack responses $\mathbf{E}_L(\tilde{x})$ for adversarial inputs.

3.2 Prior Structural Extraction

The goal of *Prior Structural Extraction* is to estimate a *Structural Prior* that captures the encoder's spatial response profile over visual pixels.

Motivating Observation. For benign visual inputs, the vision encoder of an LVLM exhibits a stable position-dependent response pattern across samples. Although individual images contain different semantic content, their aggregated encoder responses reveal a consistent spatial bias. This bias can serve as a structural prior for locating adversarially sensitive regions.

Motivated by this observation, we estimate the encoder's structural profile from an unlabeled image set. We then rearrange this profile according to the original patch layout and project it into the input space, yielding a *Structural Prior* that guides the subsequent defense process.

3.2.1 Structural Aggregation

Let $\mathcal{X} = \{x^{(m)}\}_{m=1}^B$ denote an unlabeled image set, where B is the number of samples. For each image $x^{(m)}$, we compute the encoder response $E_\ell(x_i^{(m)}) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for the i-th patch at the ℓ-th layer. Since the encoder outputs are high-dimensional vectors, we summarize each of them into a response magnitude by L2 norm (Celebi et al., 2011) and then aggregate these scalarized responses and average the scalar responses across layers and samples:

$$s_i = \frac{1}{BL} \sum_{m=1}^B \sum_{\ell=1}^L \left\| E_\ell(x_i^{(m)}) \right\|_2. \qquad (1)$$

The resulting score s_i estimates the structural response strength of the encoder at the i-th patch position. We define the resulting one-dimensional structural profile as $\mathbf{s} = [s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_N] \in \mathbb{R}^N$.

By aggregating responses across layers and benign samples, we obtain a patch-wise statistic that is less tied to the semantic variation of any individual input and more reflective of the encoder's response pattern across patches. In this sense, the responses are not interpreted as semantic cues or attack signals, but rather as statistical observations for characterizing the encoder's structural response tendency in the input space.

3.2.2 Structural Prior Construction

The structural profile $\mathbf{s}$ is defined over the fixed visual token sequence. To make its spatial structure explicit, we rearrange $\mathbf{s} = [s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_N] \in \mathbb{R}^N$ according to the canonical token ordering of the target LVLM, yielding a two-dimensional prior map:

$$
\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} s_1 & \cdots & s_{W_p} \\ s_{W_p+1} & \cdots & s_{2W_p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ s_{(H_p-1)W_p+1} & \cdots & s_{H_pW_p} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2)
$$

where H_p and W_p denote the height and width of the visual patch lattice, and $H_pW_p = N$. The resulting matrix $\mathbf{S}$ serves as the *Structural Prior* of the target LVLM and is used to guide spatially selective neutralization in the subsequent stage. We further validate this assumption in Section 4.5.

3.3 Dynamic Guided Neutralization

Given an input x, the goal of *Dynamic Guided Neutralization* is to convert the *Structural Prior* into an input-adaptive guidance map, and then use it to suppress visual perturbation.

3.3.1 Local Anomaly Characterization

The *Structural Prior* $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{H_p \times W_p}$ derived in Section 3.2 is defined over the patch layout of the target LVLM. In practical deployment, the attacked image $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{\tilde{H} \times \tilde{W} \times C}$ corresponds to a larger visual layout. We establish a mapping from $\mathbf{S}$ to the pixel space of $\tilde{x}$ by treating $\mathbf{S}$ as spatial samples.

For each pixel location $u = (h, w)$ in the input, we map it to a continuous coordinate on the minimum patch domain:

$$
\xi_h = \frac{(h + \frac{1}{2})H_p}{\tilde{H}} - \frac{1}{2}, \quad \xi_w = \frac{(w + \frac{1}{2})W_p}{\tilde{W}} - \frac{1}{2}. \quad (3)
$$

The mapping value at u is then obtained by bilinear kernel interpolation (Thévenaz et al., 2000) from the four neighboring lattice points of (ξ_h, ξ_w):

$$
P(u) = \sum_{i=0}^{1} \sum_{j=0}^{1} w_{ij}(\xi_h, \xi_w) \\ \mathbf{S}(\lfloor \xi_r \rfloor + i, \; \lfloor \xi_s \rfloor + j). \quad (4)
$$

where the interpolation weights $w_{ij}(\xi_r, \xi_s)$ are determined by the relative distances from (ξ_r, ξ_s) to its neighboring lattice points and satisfy $\sum_{i,j} w_{ij} = 1$. In this way, $\mathbf{S}$ is converted into a pixel-space map $P(u) \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$, which preserves the spatial distribution encoded in $\mathbf{S}$ while adapting it to the current input resolution.

We characterize local visual abnormality using a *neighborhood reference*. Let ρ denote the neighborhood sides, and $\mathcal{N}_\rho(u)$ denote the square local window centered at pixel location u. For each channel $c \in \{1, \ldots, C\}$, we define the median-based local reference as $m_c(u) = \text{Median}\{v_c \mid v \in \mathcal{N}_\rho(u)\}$, where v_c represents the value of pixel v in channel c. Based on this local reference, we compute the difference at u by:

$$
A(u) = \frac{1}{C} \sum_{c=1}^{C} |v_c - m_c(u)|. \quad (5)
$$

Here, $A(u)$ measures the degree to which the current pixel deviates from the local neighborhood structure defined by $\mathcal{N}_\rho(u)$.

The pixel space map $P(u)$ encodes structural sensitivity at pixel location u, while $A(u)$ captures local anomaly evidence. We combine the two to form an intervention score:

$$
q(u) = \lambda P(u) + (1 - \lambda)A(u), \quad (6)
$$

where λ controls the contribution of the *Structural Prior*. In this way, the prior is not used as a standalone detector; instead, it incorporates the structural bias of the LVLM vision encoder into anomaly assessment. We further validate the choice of weighted linear fusion against alternative fusion strategies in Appendix D.

3.3.2 Prior-Guided Sparse Neutralization

Given the score $q(u)$ defined above, SIGN performs score-based ranking followed by *neighborhood reference*. Let $\Omega = \{(h, w) \mid h \in \{1, \ldots, \tilde{H}\}, w \in \{1, \ldots, \tilde{W}\}\}$ denote the set of all pixel locations in u. All locations in Ω are ranked in descending order according to $q(u)$.

To ensure lightweight defense, we select pixels from Ω under *neighborhood reference* constraint. Let $\gamma \in (0,1)$ denote the mask ratio, and $K = \lfloor \gamma|\Omega|\rfloor$ is the desired number of selected pixels.

We scan the ranked sequence in order and progressively construct the intervention set $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \Omega$, adding a candidate pixel $u_{(t)}$ only when the local budget constraint remains satisfied:

$$\sum_{v \in \mathcal{N}_\rho(u_{(t)})} \mathbf{1}[v \in \mathcal{M}] < k_\rho, \qquad (7)$$

where k_ρ is the maximum number of intervention pixels allowed within any square neighborhood of side ρ. If the constraint is violated, $u_{(t)}$ is skipped; otherwise, it is added to $\mathcal{M}$. This process continues until $|\mathcal{M}| = K$ or the ranked sequence is exhausted.

For each selected pixel location $u \in \mathcal{M}$, we define the benign reference neighborhood $\mathcal{R}_\rho = \mathcal{N}_\rho(u) \setminus \mathcal{M}$, which contains the unselected pixels within the *neighborhood reference*. The restored image is then given by

$$\hat{x} = \begin{cases} \dfrac{1}{|\mathcal{R}_\rho|} \displaystyle\sum_{v \in \mathcal{R}_\rho} v, & u \in \mathcal{M}, \\ v, & u \notin \mathcal{M}. \end{cases} \qquad (8)$$

That is, each selected pixel is replaced by the average of its unselected neighbors within the local window, while all other pixels remain unchanged. This yields a sparse and locally consistent neutralization of adversarial perturbations.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Setup

Models. We evaluate our method on three model families, including Llava (llava-1.5-hf) (Li et al., 2023), Qwen (Qwen2.5-VL-Instruct) (Bai et al., 2025), InsBLIP (instructblip-vicuna) (Dai et al., 2023). These models cover different Vision Transformer (ViT) models, allowing us to examine the generality of the proposed defense across diverse architectures.

Attacks. We evaluate SIGN against four LVLM image attack generators, including Visual-Adv. (Qi et al., 2024), Con-Ins. (Geng et al., 2025), RE-CITE (Gao et al., 2025), and CroPA++ (Pandey et al.). We use these methods as perturbation-generation backbones and instantiate them with

three downstream objectives. Specifically, Jail-break follows the HarmBench evaluation setting (Mazeika et al., 2024); LLM-DoS follows the repetition targets used in LingoLoop and RE-CITE (Fu et al., 2025b; Gao et al., 2025); Mislead follows targeted adversarial classification, where inputs are optimized toward a fixed target label (Carlini and Wagner, 2017; Brown et al., 2017).

Defense Baselines. Four representative defenses from complementary defense paradigms are used as baselines. ECSO (Gou et al., 2024) represents modality-transformation-based LVLM safety defense. AMIA (Zhang et al., 2025c) represents recent LVLM-specific visual input defense. DnLUT (Yang et al., 2025) serves as a conventional CV denoising baseline. Median filtering (Median) (Huang et al., 1979) is included as a non-learned classical image processing baseline.

Datasets. To evaluate the defense across diverse visual domains, we construct a mixed evaluation set from four image datasets: ImageNet (Russakovsky et al., 2015), Places365 (Zhou et al., 2017), Oxford-IIIT Pets (Parkhi et al., 2012), and CelebA (Liu et al., 2015). For benign tasks, we follow the original task objective of each dataset when applicable.

Metrics. We evaluate adversarial robustness using Defence success rate (DSR) under three attack objectives. For DoS, we regard an output as attack-successful when *a text segment is repeated at least five times consecutively*. For jailbreak, attack success is defined by *the generation of harmful content*. For mislead, attack success is defined by *the presence of the keyword associated with the fixed target label*. We use GPT-5.5 as the primary judge for all adversarial outcomes and further conduct manual verification. For benign inputs, we evaluate utility using the original target of each task dataset.

More detailed setup is shown in appendix A.

4.2 Defense Effectiveness against Attacks

Figure 2 compares SIGN with representative defenses. With only 0.5% pixel modification, SIGN achieves the best or near-best defense success rate in most model settings. This indicates that its robustness does not rely on aggressive image corruption (Zhang et al., 2025c) or heavy reconstruction (Yang et al., 2025), but is guided by the intrinsic Structural Prior of LVLM vision encoders.

Compared with LVLM-specific masking defenses, SIGN reduces modifications by 97% while

Figure 2: Defense performance across LVLMs. **SIGN** is compared with representative defense baselines under different visual attacks. The percentages in the legend indicate the pixel modification ratio used by each defense method. With only 0.5% pixel modification, **SIGN** consistently outperforms the undefended baseline and remains highly competitive against existing defenses across most model–attack combinations.

maintaining stable generation behavior. Large-area masking can weaken adversarial effects in some cases, but its coarse intervention may over-disrupt the perturbed visual representation and destabilize generation. We observe such failures as no response, garbled output, and LLM-DoS-like repetitive generations under certain defenses (Fu et al., 2025b). SIGN does not exhibit these failure modes in our experiments. Moreover, SIGN remains particularly stable across larger LVLMs, whereas low-level image-processing baselines do not consistently benefit from stronger vision-language encoders. These results support our observation that exploiting the structural prior of LVLM vision encoders enables more effective defense than generic image transformations.

4.3 Efficiency Analysis

We measure the defense construction time of each method in Table 1. SIGN maintains a low average latency across all three attack objectives because it does not require additional safety checks. Its maximum runtime is also close to the average, indicating stable per-sample efficiency across objectives.

Median filtering (Huang et al., 1979) is slightly faster than SIGN, but this marginal efficiency advantage does not translate into practical robustness.

Attacks		ECSO	AMIA	DnLUT	Median	SIGN
Jailbreak	Ave	20.96	4.45	0.36	0.06	0.16
	Max	107.57	32.67	0.61	0.07	0.18
LLM-DoS	Ave	43.53	2.37	0.27	0.06	0.16
	Max	132.28	5.30	0.52	0.06	0.17
Mislead	Ave	0.70	2.21	0.27	0.06	0.16
	Max	2.66	2.73	0.50	0.07	0.18

Table 1: Defense construction time of different methods, excluding LVLM response generation. We report the average and maximum runtime across six LVLMs.

As shown in Figure 2, Median filtering provides much weaker defense performance and lower cross-model stability. Overall, SIGN achieves a favorable balance between robustness and efficiency, approaching lightweight image-processing speed while maintaining stronger defense effectiveness.

4.4 Utility and Semantic Preservation

Clean utility preservation. We further evaluate clean-task utility by comparing SIGN with two representative strong image-space baselines from the main evaluation. As shown in Table 2, SIGN preserves task performance close to the original inputs, with most average success rates remaining unchanged. This indicates that its sparse-pixel modification does not noticeably impair normal visual

Defence	InsBLIP-7b	InsBLIP-13b	Llava-7b	Llava-13b	Qwen-3b	Qwen-7b
Original	$97.00\%_{\{88.00\%\}}$	$98.50\%_{\{94.00\%\}}$	$93.50\%_{\{78.00\%\}}$	$92.00\%_{\{72.00\%\}}$	$94.50\%_{\{80.00\%\}}$	$97.50\%_{\{94.00\%\}}$
AMIA$_{(18.75\%)}$	$95.50\%_{\{82.00\%\}}$	$97.50\%_{\{90.00\%\}}$	$93.00\%_{\{78.00\%\}}$	$91.50\%_{\{70.00\%\}}$	$94.00\%_{\{76.00\%\}}$	$96.00\%_{\{84.00\%\}}$
DnLUT$_{(0.5\%)}$	$95.50\%_{\{82.00\%\}}$	$97.50\%_{\{90.00\%\}}$	$93.00\%_{\{78.00\%\}}$	$91.50\%_{\{70.00\%\}}$	$94.00\%_{\{80.00\%\}}$	$95.00\%_{\{82.00\%\}}$
SIGN$_{(0.5\%)}$	$\underline{97.00\%_{\{88.00\%\}}}$	$\underline{98.00\%_{\{92.00\%\}}}$	$\underline{93.50\%_{\{78.00\%\}}}$	$\underline{92.00\%_{\{72.00\%\}}}$	$94.00\%_{\{80.00\%\}}$	$\underline{97.50\%_{\{94.00\%\}}}$

Table 2: Clean-task utility under the mixed four-task setting. Each cell reports the average task success rate, with the subscript in braces denoting the worst-case success rate across the four task datasets. Underlining indicates no degradation from the original inputs, and red subscripts mark degraded worst-case performance after defense.

Datasets	Cos.	DSR	Samples	Cos.	DSR
None	-	30%	**None**	-	30%
SIGN (ImageNet)	1.000	86%	**SIGN (200)**	1.000	86%
CelebA	0.908	86%	**10**	0.928	84%
Oxford-IIIT Pets	0.978	84%	**50**	0.980	84%
Places365	0.967	84%	**100**	0.991	84%

Table 3: Stability of the *Structure Prior* under different source datasets (Left) and sample sizes (Right).

Figure 3: Representation similarity between original and SIGN defended images. The x-axis is zoomed to $[0.94, 1.00]$ for readability, while the full cosine similarity range is $[-1, 1]$.

perception. By contrast, AMIA and DnLUT introduce larger drops, particularly in the worst-case task success rate, where region-level masking or generic denoising can damage useful information.

Representation similarity. For a more fine-grained analysis, we examine the effect of SIGN on LVLM visual representations across different task datasets. Specifically, we compute the cosine similarity (Cos.) (Salton et al., 1975) between the vision encoder of original images and their SIGN-defended counterparts. As shown in Figure 3, the cosine similarity remains consistently close to 1.0, with average values above 0.99. Together with the clean-task results in Table 2, this analysis shows that the robustness gain of SIGN is not obtained by corrupting image content or sacrificing normal visual understanding. Instead, SIGN suppresses adversarial perturbations while keeping the encoded visual semantics nearly unchanged.

4.5 Structural Prior Analysis

We further analyze whether the proposed *Structure Prior* reflects a stable structural property of the vision encoder, rather than dataset semantics.

4.5.1 Prior similarity across source datasets

As shown in Table 3, we estimate the *Structure Prior* from different unlabeled datasets and compare them with the default ImageNet-based prior. Despite large semantic differences across datasets, the priors remain highly similar, with cosine similarity above 0.90 and DSR varying only from 84% to 86%. This indicates that the *Structure Prior*

mainly reflects a model structural bias rather than dataset-specific visual semantics.

4.5.2 Prior sample size sensitivity

As shown in Table 3 right, the *Structure Prior* is insensitive to the number of unlabeled samples used for estimation. Even with 10 samples, it achieves high similarity, suggesting that the prior can be efficiently estimated from a small unlabeled set. Once the prior similarity exceeds 0.90, SIGN already maintains a high DSR, indicating that reliable defense can be achieved without requiring many unlabeled samples.

4.6 Ablation Study

We conduct ablation studies to examine how key design choices affect SIGN's performance.

4.6.1 Component ablation

We vary the mixing weight λ to examine the contributions of pixel space map $P(u)$ and local anomaly evidence $A(u)$. As shown in the first panel of Figure 4, local anomaly evidence alone is unstable and

Figure 4: We evaluate the effects of four key design factors: the contribution weight of the *Structural Prior* λ, the pixel modification ratio that determines the intervention budget K, the neighborhood size ρ, and the local intervention budget under $\rho = 3$. Each cell reports the defense performance for a specific setting, with darker colors indicating higher performance. Underlined x-axis labels denote the default settings.

suffers clear performance drops on several models. Moderate values such as $\lambda = 0.3$ and 0.5 achieve the best average performance across models, suggesting that local anomaly evidence complements the *Structural Prior* by adapting it to each input.

4.6.2 Pixel modification ratio

We next analyze the effect of the pixel modification ratio, which determines SIGN's intervention budget. As shown in the second panel of Figure 4, increasing the modification ratio generally improves defense performance, with the most evident gains observed when the budget increases from 0.1% to 0.5%. After reaching 0.5%, the performance becomes largely stable, and further increasing the ratio brings limited additional improvement in most cases. When the ratio approaches 0.9%, SIGN achieves $95\%+$ defense performance on nearly all models. These results suggest that SIGN can neutralize most adversarial effects with only a few pixel modifications.

4.6.3 Neighborhood sides

We further study the effect of the neighborhood sides ρ, which controls the local region used for the intervention constraint. As shown in the third panel of Figure 4, a small radius leads to weaker defense performance, especially on Llava. This suggests that an overly narrow neighborhood provides insufficient local context and may cause the selected pixels to concentrate in limited regions. Increasing ρ improves performance by enabling SIGN to estimate abnormality with a broader reference range and to distribute interventions more effectively.

4.6.4 Local budget

The local budget k_ρ constrains the maximum number of intervention pixels within each neighbor-

hood. As shown in the fourth panel of Figure 4, increasing the local budget does not consistently improve defense performance. Instead, larger budgets often reduce the defense success rate, indicating that overly concentrated interventions are less effective. This result complements the analysis of the neighborhood radius ρ. A larger neighborhood provides useful context, but excessive local intervention may damage benign information and weaken defense effectiveness.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented SIGN, a lightweight defense framework for mitigating visual adversarial perturbations in LVLMs. Unlike conventional image denoising methods, SIGN leverages the structural response pattern of the target vision encoder to guide the neutralization of sparse perturbations. By extracting a *Structural Prior* from unlabeled samples and combining it with local anomaly statistics, SIGN suppresses adversarial visual signals while preserving benign semantics. Experiments across multiple LVLM families and attack generators show that SIGN improves robustness against jailbreak, misleading, and LLM-DoS attacks with minimal image modification and low computational overhead. These analyses suggest that SIGN achieves robustness without resorting to excessive image modification, maintaining a favorable balance among defense effectiveness, efficiency, and semantic fidelity. More broadly, our findings indicate that effective LVLM defense can be pursued without large-scale model fine-tuning, and point to the intrinsic structural properties of LVLM vision encoders as a useful foundation for future robustness design.

Limitations

This work has several limitations. First, our evaluation covers representative attack and defense baselines across different categories, with priority given to recent, peer-reviewed methods, but it may not exhaustively include all existing or emerging LVLM attack and defense approaches. Second, the intervention strength of different defenses cannot be perfectly normalized, since some methods operate at the pixel level while others rely on patch masking or image removal. We match the modification budget whenever possible and otherwise follow the original settings of each baseline; however, because SIGN uses a much smaller modification ratio than some defenses, its relative advantage may be conservative under stronger-intervention settings. Third, we do not provide an exhaustive evaluation against fully adaptive attackers. Nevertheless, SIGN is designed as an input-adaptive defense: the suppressed pixels are determined by both the model-side *Structural Prior* and the instance-specific abnormal response, rather than by a fixed mask or a static image transformation. This dynamic selection makes it difficult for existing attack recipes to optimize against a stable and predictable defense pattern, and is precisely intended to reduce the effectiveness of straightforward adaptive exploitation. Finally, this work is purely defensive: attacks are used only for controlled robustness evaluation, and we do not release harmful prompts, operational attack instructions, or misuse-oriented pipelines.

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A Detailed Experimental Setup

We provide additional details of the experimental protocol to ensure reproducibility.

Models. We evaluate our method on six LVLMs from three model families. For Llava, we use Llava-1.5-7B and Llava-1.5-13B; for InstructBLIP, we use InstructBLIP-Vicuna-7B and InstructBLIP-Vicuna-13B; for Qwen, we use Qwen2.5-VL-3B-Instruct and Qwen2.5-VL-7B-Instruct. These models differ in model scale, visual encoder design, and vision-language alignment strategy, allowing us to evaluate whether the proposed defense generalizes across diverse LVLM architectures. Unless otherwise specified, all main experiments are conducted on the full six-model set. For ablation studies, we use Llava-1.5-7B as the default model to provide a consistent and computationally efficient setting for controlled analysis.

Attack implementation. For each attack generator, we follow the original method design and use the official codebase whenever available. Since different attacks were originally developed under different model settings, we make the minimum necessary adaptations for incompatible LVLMs, so that each attack can be executed as a direct adversarial optimization against the target model. This protocol is intended to preserve the original attack mechanism while ensuring that the perturbations are generated under the most compatible setting for each evaluated LVLM.

In practice, some attacks still fail to produce valid adversarial examples after adaptation, especially when the original attack objective is substantially different from the downstream failure mode considered in our evaluation. Therefore, not every attack generator covers all three objectives in the final evaluation; we report results only for the combinations where the corresponding attack can be successfully instantiated and produces valid adversarial inputs.

In ablation studies, we use RECITE as the attack backbone, where the original attacks exhibit the strongest effect, and report the average defense performance over the three attack objectives.

Defense baseline. We further specify the intervention strength of each defense baseline. ECSO (Gou et al., 2024) checks the generated output and removes the visual input for regeneration once potential risk is detected, which corresponds to a full visual suppression ratio of 100%. AMIA (Zhang et al., 2025c) suppresses visual information at the patch level; following the original setting, we mask 3 patches, resulting in an approximate suppression ratio of 18.75%. For DnLUT (Yang et al., 2025) and median filtering (Huang et al., 1979), the modification strength can be adjusted dynamically, and we set the modification ratio to 0.5%, the same as our method, to ensure a fair comparison under the same visual perturbation budget.

Dataset construction. We use four datasets to cover complementary visual domains in LVLM evaluation. ImageNet represents general object-centric natural images; Places365 provides scene-centric images; Oxford-IIIT Pets introduces fine-grained category recognition; and CelebA covers human-centric facial images. This design allows us to test whether the defense generalizes across different image distributions and visual understanding requirements.

For structural prior extraction, we randomly sample 200 unlabeled images from each dataset. These samples are used only for estimating the prior and are not used for attack or defense evaluation. In our main experiments, we use the structural prior extracted from ImageNet (Russakovsky et al., 2015) as the default prior for all evaluated images. For the final evaluation, we randomly sample a disjoint set of 50 images from each dataset and mix them into a 200-image test set. For benign tasks, we follow the original task objective of each dataset when applicable, so that the evaluation reflects the natural semantic requirement of each visual domain. This cross-dataset evaluation further examines whether the proposed defense remains stable when the prior is estimated from one visual domain but applied to images from diverse distributions.

(a) CelebA   (b) Oxford-IIIT Pets   (c) Places365   (d) **SIGN** (ImageNet)

Figure 5: Visualization of the *Structural Prior* estimated from different unlabeled source datasets on LLaVA-7B. Warmer regions indicate higher prior scores and are more likely to be selected by SIGN.

(a) 10 samples   (b) 50 samples   (c) 100 samples   (d) **SIGN** (200)

Figure 6: Visualization of the *Structural Prior* estimated from different sample sizes on Llaba-7b. Warmer regions indicate higher prior scores and are more likely to be selected by SIGN.

B   Attack Evaluation and Annotation Protocol

Different attack objectives induce different failure modes in LVLM outputs. Therefore, we adopt task-specific criteria to determine whether an attack succeeds rather than a single universal matching rule. For each evaluated response, we assign a binary attack-success label according to the corresponding attack objective. A defended sample is considered successful when the original attack objective is no longer satisfied.

Jailbreak. For jailbreak attacks, the target failure mode is the generation of unsafe or harmful content in response to an adversarially induced harmful intent. Since such outputs cannot be reliably judged by simple keyword matching, we use GPT-5.5 as an LLM-based judge to assess whether the model response constitutes a successful jailbreak. The full assessment prompt is provided in Figure 7. The judge is instructed to distinguish harmful compliance from safe behaviors, including explicit refusal, irrelevant or nonsensical outputs, mere repetition of the query, description of benign visual content, and safety-oriented guidance. Only responses that provide unsafe assistance or substantively satisfy the harmful intent are counted as successful jailbreaks.

LLM-DoS. For LLM-DoS attacks, the target failure mode is repetitive or degenerate generation. We therefore use a deterministic script-based criterion rather than an LLM judge. Specifically, each generated response is first tokenized using the corresponding tokenizer. We then detect whether there exists a minimum repeated token unit that appears consecutively for at least five times. If such a repeated unit is found, the response is labeled as a successful LLM-DoS case; otherwise, the attack is considered unsuccessful. This rule provides an objective and reproducible criterion for identifying repetition-based degeneration.

Mislead. For mislead attacks, we adopt fixed targeted labels. We first use keyword matching to detect whether the generated response contains the target label. Since the keyword may occasionally be consistent with the original image semantics, all matched cases are further manually verified. A response is counted as a successful mislead attack only when the target label reflects adversarially induced prediction rather than benign image content.

Human verification. To mitigate potential inaccuracies from LLM-based or automatic evaluation, all results reported in our experiments were manually re-checked by the authors before aggregation. The verification team consists of computer science

Method	Formula	Models	Jailbreak	LLM-DoS	Mislead
Weighted linear fusion (SIGN)	$q(u) = \lambda P(u) + (1-\lambda)A(u)$	InsBLIP-13b	90%	98%	100%
		Llava-13b	94%	100%	100%
		Qwen-7b	96%	94%	100%
Multiplicative coupling	$q(u) = P(u) \cdot A(u)$	InsBLIP-13b	28%	100%	94%
		Llava-13b	64%	94%	88%
		Qwen-7b	78%	100%	94%

Table 4: Effect of score fusion strategy under the RECITE attack. Compared with multiplicative coupling, the default weighted linear fusion achieves more stable defense performance across LVLMs and attack objectives, supporting its effectiveness for combining structural and local anomaly evidence.

C Qualitative Visualization of Structural Prior Stability

In addition to the quantitative similarity results, we visualize the estimated *Structural Prior* to provide a more intuitive comparison. As shown in Figure 5, priors estimated from different unlabeled source datasets on Llava-7b exhibit highly similar spatial patterns, despite the substantial semantic differences among the datasets. The high-score regions are consistently concentrated in similar spatial areas, indicating that the prior mainly captures a stable position-dependent property of the vision encoder rather than dataset-specific visual content.

Figure 6 further shows that this structure can already be observed with a small number of unlabeled samples and becomes progressively smoother as the sample size increases, supporting the efficiency and stability of SIGN's prior estimation.

D Analysis of Score Fusion Strategy

We examine whether the two evidence sources in SIGN should be integrated through weighted linear fusion or multiplicative coupling. As shown in Table 4, the default weighted linear fusion consistently achieves stronger overall defense performance than multiplicative coupling across the evaluated LVLMs and attack objectives.

This result suggests that weighted linear fusion provides a more stable way to combine the pixel-space *Structural Prior* and local anomaly evidence. A possible reason is that the *Structural Prior* contains many low-response regions, reflecting the encoder's position-dependent structural sensitivity rather than a dense anomaly map. When multiplicative coupling is used, these low prior values may overly suppress the local anomaly evidence, even when the input-adaptive anomaly score is informative. In contrast, weighted linear fusion preserves the contribution of both sources more independently: the *Structural Prior* provides architecture-aware spatial guidance, while the local anomaly evidence remains able to highlight input-specific abnormal pixels. This reduces the risk of one source dominating or flattening the other, leading to more robust intervention scoring in our experiments.

E Understanding the Structural Prior Construction

A natural concern is whether the activation statistics used in Eq. (1) truly reflect a structural property of the vision encoder, rather than image semantics or dataset composition. We clarify that the *Structural Prior* is not intended to isolate a purely architectural invariant. Instead, it estimates a model-side spatial response tendency induced by the fixed vision-encoding pipeline and the encoder architecture. The key design goal is to reduce semantic dependence as much as possible while retaining position-dependent response strength.

Let $\mathbf{h}_{\ell,p}(x) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denote the activation of patch position p at layer ℓ for input image x. The activation vector can be conceptually decomposed as

$$\mathbf{h}_{\ell,p}(x) = g_{\ell,p} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{\ell,p}(x) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\ell,p}(x), \qquad (9)$$

where $g_{\ell,p}$ denotes a position-dependent response factor determined by the fixed vision-encoding pipeline, $\mathbf{u}_{\ell,p}(x)$ contains image-dependent visual content, and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\ell,p}(x)$ denotes residual variation. While semantic information is primarily encoded in the high-dimensional direction and configuration of $\mathbf{h}_{\ell,p}(x)$, the L2 norm discards most directional

Figure 7: Prompt used for jailbreak assessment.

information and only keeps its response magnitude:

$$\|\mathbf{h}_{\ell,p}(x)\|_2 \approx g_{\ell,p}\|\mathbf{u}_{\ell,p}(x)\|_2 + \|\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\ell,p}(x)\|_2. \quad (10)$$

Thus, the statistic used in Eq. (1) intentionally avoids modeling feature directions, token identities, or class-specific semantics. After averaging over layers and a semantically diverse unlabeled set, image-specific content variations are marginalized, yielding

$$\mathbb{E}_{x,\ell}\left[\|\mathbf{h}_{\ell,p}(x)\|_2\right] \approx \mathbb{E}_\ell\left[g_{\ell,p}c_\ell\right] + r_p, \quad (11)$$

where $c_\ell = \mathbb{E}_x[\|\mathbf{u}_{\ell,p}(x)\|_2]$ captures the average content energy at layer ℓ, and r_p denotes the remaining semantic- or dataset-dependent residual. When the unlabeled images cover diverse semantics, the residual term is expected to be less spatially consistent than the fixed response factor $g_{\ell,p}$. Therefore, the resulting prior should be understood as a coarse but stable estimate of spatial response energy, rather than a semantic representation.

This formulation also explains why we aggregate across layers. Single-layer activations may contain layer-specific semantics or local fluctuations, whereas averaging across layers suppresses such incidental variations and emphasizes response patterns that persist throughout the encoder. Consequently, the *Structural Prior* does not claim to be free of all non-architectural effects. Rather, it provides a lightweight approximation of the position-dependent response tendency of the frozen vision-encoding pipeline, which is sufficient for guiding sparse adversarial signal suppression.

F Adaptive attack considerations.

A natural question is whether SIGN can be further evaluated under a fully adaptive attack that explicitly optimizes against the proposed defense. We clarify that such an evaluation is non-trivial in our setting. SIGN is not a fixed pre-processing transformation or a static masking rule; instead, its in-

Figure 8: Qualitative examples of adversarial attacks and SIGN's defense effect on LVLM. The figure covers jailbreak, LLM-DoS, and mislead attacks. Adversarial perturbations can induce harmful, repetitive, or incorrect outputs, while SIGN effectively suppresses these failures and restores safer, more reliable model behavior.

tervention pattern is determined at test time by the interaction between the model-side Structural Prior and the input-specific local anomaly evidence. As a result, directly incorporating SIGN into existing visual adversarial attack objectives does not yield a stable or easily differentiable optimization target. In particular, an adaptive attacker would need to simultaneously induce the downstream LVLM failure, avoid or manipulate prior-guided sparse pixel selection, and remain robust to neighborhood-based restoration. We attempted to instantiate such defense-aware variants within existing LVLM adversarial optimization frameworks (Gao et al., 2025; Pandey et al.), but observed unstable optimization, limited loss decrease, and no consistently valid adversarial examples. These observations suggest that an effective adaptive attack against SIGN would likely require substantial modifications to the attack objective, surrogate relaxation, and optimization procedure, making it closer to the design

of a new attack method than to a routine adaptive extension of existing attacks. Since our work introduces structure-guided neutralization as a new defense perspective and no established adaptive attack protocol is currently available for this setting, we focus our evaluation on representative LVLM attack generators and leave the systematic development of fully adaptive attacks to future work.

G Qualitative Examples of Attack Risks and Defense Effects

Figure 8 offers intuitive case studies of the risks posed by visual adversarial attacks. Even when the perturbations are difficult to visually detect, they can drive LVLMs toward harmful assistance, repetitive degeneration, or incorrect recognition, affecting safety, availability, and reliability simultaneously. This highlights that adversarial threats in LVLMs are not merely a matter of accuracy degradation, but can lead to practically meaningful fail-

ures in downstream use. SIGN effectively mitigates these failures across all three attack goals shown in the figure. After defense, the model no longer follows the adversarial intent and instead produces responses that are safer and more consistent with the original visual content. These examples provide qualitative evidence that a lightweight, structure-guided defense can offer meaningful protection against diverse LVLM threats without relying on heavy visual transformation or model retraining.

H   AI Writing Assistance Disclosure

We used AI tools solely for language polishing to improve clarity and readability. The AI tools did not contribute to the scientific content, ideas, analyses, or conclusions of this work.