000 001 002 003 *Test-Time* BACKDOOR ATTACKS ON MULTIMODAL LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

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ABSTRACT

Backdoor attacks typically set up a backdoor by contaminating training data or modifying parameters before the model is deployed, such that a predetermined trigger can activate harmful effects during the test phase. Can we, however, carry out test-time backdoor attacks *after* deploying the model? In this work, we present AnyDoor, a test-time backdoor attack against multimodal large language models (MLLMs), without accessing training data or modifying parameters. In AnyDoor, the burden of *setting up* backdoors is assigned to the visual modality (better capacity but worse timeliness), while the textual modality is responsible for *activating* the backdoors (better timeliness but worse capacity). This decomposition takes advantage of the characteristics of different modalities, making attacking timing more controllable compared to directly applying adversarial attacks. We empirically validate the effectiveness of AnyDoor against popular MLLMs such as LLaVA-1.5, MiniGPT-4, InstructBLIP, and BLIP-2, and conduct extensive ablation studies. Notably, AnyDoor can dynamically change its backdoor trigger prompts and/or harmful effects, posing a new challenge for developing backdoor defenses.

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1 INTRODUCTION

029 030 031 032 033 Multimodal large language models (MLLMs) have made tremendous progress and shown impressive performance, particularly in vision-language scenarios [\(Alayrac et al.,](#page-10-0) [2022;](#page-10-0) [Dai et al.,](#page-11-0) [2023;](#page-11-0) [Liu](#page-14-0) [et al.,](#page-14-0) [2023a](#page-14-0)[;b;](#page-14-1) [Zhu et al.,](#page-18-0) [2023\)](#page-18-0). Embodied applications of MLLMs enable robots or virtual assistants to receive user instructions, capture images/videos, and interact with physical environments through tool use [\(Driess et al.,](#page-11-1) [2023;](#page-11-1) [Yang et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023a\)](#page-17-0).

034 035 036 037 038 039 040 Nonetheless, the promising success of MLLMs hinges on collecting a large amount of data from external (untrusted) sources, exposing MLLMs to the risk of backdoor attacks [\(Carlini & Terzis,](#page-10-1) [2022;](#page-10-1) [Yang et al.,](#page-17-1) [2023d\)](#page-17-1). A typical pipeline of backdoor attacks entails poisoning training data or modifying model parameters to *set up* harmful effects, followed by the *activation* of these effects at a specific time by triggering the test input. In order to mitigate the vulnerability to backdoor attacks, many efforts have been devoted to purifying poisoned training data [\(Huang et al.,](#page-12-0) [2022;](#page-12-0) [Li et al.,](#page-13-0) [2021b\)](#page-13-0) or detecting trigger patterns [\(Chen et al.,](#page-11-2) [2018;](#page-11-2) [Dong et al.,](#page-11-3) [2021\)](#page-11-3).

041 042 043 044 Recently, several red-teaming efforts have brought attention to **test-time backdoor attacks**, particularly targeting (unimodal) LLMs. These attacks set up backdoors during the test phase through chainof-thoughts [\(Xiang et al.,](#page-17-2) [2024\)](#page-17-2), in-context learning [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-18-1) [2024\)](#page-18-1), and/or retrieval-augmented generation [\(Zou et al.,](#page-18-2) [2024\)](#page-18-2), without requiring access to training data or modifying model parameters.

045 046 047 048 049 In this work, we demonstrate that MLLMs' multimodal abilities unintentionally enable a more flexible test-time backdoor attack, which we name as AnyDoor (injecting Any backDoor via a customized universal perturbation). The design of AnyDoor stems from the fact that the inputs to MLLMs are multimodal (as opposed to unimodal models), allowing the tasks of *setup* and *activation* of harmful effects to be strategically assigned to different modalities based on their characteristics.

050 051 052 053 More precisely, setting up harmful effects necessitates strong manipulating *capacity*. For instance, using visual modality rather than textual modality is more appropriate for the setup purpose, because perturbing image pixels in continuous spaces provides a significantly higher degree of freedom than perturbing text prompts in discrete spaces [\(Fort,](#page-12-1) [2023\)](#page-12-1). Activating harmful effects, on the other hand, requires strong manipulating *timeliness* to ensure that the harmful effects are triggered at the

Figure 1: Attacking formulations and timelines. *(Left)* Backdoor attacks set up harmful effects by poisoning training data as $\mathcal{P}(D)$ at timing t_{set} (training phase), and then activate harmful effects by adding triggers as $\mathcal{T}(V)$ and/or $\mathcal{T}(Q)$ at timing t_{act} (test phase); *(Middle)* Adversarial attacks set up and activate harmful effects by $\mathcal{A}(V)$ and/or $\mathcal{A}(Q)$ at the same timing as $t_{\text{set}} = t_{\text{act}}$ (test phase); *(Right)* Our AnyDoor attacks inherit the property of decoupling setup (via $\mathcal{A}(V)$) and activation (via $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{Q})$) of harmful effects, while executing both $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{V})$ and $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{Q})$ in the test phase, without accessing training data. The different timings t_{set} and t_{act} allow for flexibility in execution strategies.

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075 076 077 appropriate time. Textual modality is usually preferable to visual modality in this regard, for example, it is easier to input real-time user instructions (with trigger prompts) into a robot than to create an image with trigger patches and induce the robot to capture it.

078 079 080 081 082 083 084 Figure [1](#page-1-0) presents the mechanism of our AnyDoor attack, which employs techniques commonly found in (universal) adversarial attacks [\(Moosavi-Dezfooli et al.,](#page-14-2) [2017\)](#page-14-2). Unlike traditional backdoor attacks, the setup and activation operations of AnyDoor take place during the test phase. Moreover, what distinguishes AnyDoor from adversarial attacks is its ability to separate the timings of setting up and activating harmful effects. It is important to note that adversarial attacks require $t_{\text{set}} = t_{\text{act}}$, which may be quite strict as it necessitates both manipulating capacity and timeliness. In contrast, AnyDoor offers flexibility in execution strategies by allowing for different timings of t_{set} and t_{act} .

085 086 087 088 089 090 091 092 093 094 In our experiments, we employ AnyDoor to attack popular MLLMs such as LLaVA-1.5 [\(Liu et al.,](#page-14-0) [2023a;](#page-14-0)[b\)](#page-14-1), MiniGPT-4 [\(Zhu et al.,](#page-18-0) [2023\)](#page-18-0), InstructBLIP [\(Dai et al.,](#page-11-0) [2023\)](#page-11-0), and BLIP-2 [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-1) [2023a\)](#page-13-1). We conduct comprehensive ablation studies on a variety of datasets, perturbation budgets and types, trigger prompts/harmful outputs, and attacking effectiveness under common corruption scenarios. As exemplified in Figure [2,](#page-2-0) in practice we may apply a (universal) adversarial camera sticker [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-2) [2019b\)](#page-13-2), allowing us to set up a backdoor into the textual modality and then activate harmful effects using trigger prompts. AnyDoor could modify predetermined trigger prompts or harmful effects by merely altering the adversarial perturbation. Our findings confirm that AnyDoor, as well as other potential instantiations of test-time backdoor attacks, expose a serious safety flaw in MLLMs and present new challenges for designing defenses against backdoor injection.

2 RELATED WORK

097 098 099 This section provides a brief overview of backdoor attacks and adversarial attacks. Given the extensive literature in these areas, we primarily introduce those that are most relevant to our research, deferring more detailed discussion of related work to Appendix [A.](#page-19-0)

100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107 Multimodal backdoor attacks. Recent advances have expanded backdoor attacks to multimodal domains [\(Han et al.,](#page-12-2) [2023\)](#page-12-2). An early work of [Walmer et al.](#page-16-0) [\(2022\)](#page-16-0) introduces a backdoor attack in multimodal learning, an approach further elaborated by [Sun et al.](#page-16-1) [\(2023b\)](#page-16-1) for evaluating attack stealthiness in multimodal contexts. There are some studies focus on backdoor attacks against multimodal contrastive learning [\(Bai et al.,](#page-10-2) [2023;](#page-10-2) [Carlini & Terzis,](#page-10-1) [2022;](#page-10-1) [Jia et al.,](#page-12-3) [2022;](#page-12-3) [Liang](#page-14-3) [et al.,](#page-14-3) [2023;](#page-14-3) [Saha et al.,](#page-15-0) [2022;](#page-15-0) [Yang et al.,](#page-17-1) [2023d\)](#page-17-1). Among these works, [Han et al.](#page-12-2) [\(2023\)](#page-12-2) present a computationally efficient multimodal backdoor attack; [Li et al.](#page-13-3) [\(2023b\)](#page-13-3) propose invisible multimodal backdoor attacks to enhance stealthiness; [Li et al.](#page-13-4) [\(2022b\)](#page-13-4) demonstrate the vulnerability of image captioning models to backdoor attacks.

Figure 2: **Demos of test-time backdoor attacks.** One practical way to carry out test-time backdoor attacks is to craft a universal perturbation using our AnyDoor method and then stick it onto the camera of an MLLM agent, following previous strategies used for physical-world attacks [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-2) [2019b\)](#page-13-2). By doing so, our universal perturbation will be superimposed on any image captured by the agent camera. If a normal user asks questions without the backdoor trigger (**SUDO** in this case), the agent will respond in a regular manner; however, if a malicious user poses any question containing the backdoor trigger, the agent will consistently exhibit harmful behaviors. In addition to these demos, our test-time backdoor attacks are effective for any trigger or target harmful behavior, as ablated in Table [4.](#page-6-0)

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136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 Non-poisoning-based backdoor attacks. Except for poisoning training data, there are non-poisoning-based backdoor attacks that inject backdoors via perturbing model weights or structures [\(Chen et al.,](#page-11-4) [2021a;](#page-11-4) [Dumford & Scheirer,](#page-11-5) [2020;](#page-11-5) [Garg et al.,](#page-12-4) [2020;](#page-12-4) [Li et al.,](#page-13-5) [2021d;](#page-13-5) [Rakin](#page-15-1) [et al.,](#page-15-1) [2020;](#page-15-1) [Tang et al.,](#page-16-2) [2020;](#page-16-2) [Tao et al.,](#page-16-3) [2022;](#page-16-3) [Zhang et al.,](#page-18-3) [2021d\)](#page-18-3). In contrast, test-time backdoor attacks do not require poisoning or accessing training data, nor do they require modifying model weights or structures [\(Kandpal et al.,](#page-12-5) [2023;](#page-12-5) [Xiang et al.,](#page-17-3) [2023\)](#page-17-3). Our AnyDoor takes advantage of MLLMs' multimodal capability to strategically assign the setup and activation of backdoor effects to suitable modalities, resulting in stronger attacking effects and greater universality.

144 145 146 147 148 149 150 151 Multimodal adversarial attacks. Along with the popularity of multimodal learning, recent redteaming research investigate the vulnerability of MLLMs to adversarial images [\(Bailey et al.,](#page-10-3) [2023;](#page-10-3) [Carlini et al.,](#page-10-4) [2023;](#page-10-4) [Cui et al.,](#page-11-6) [2023;](#page-11-6) [Qi et al.,](#page-15-2) [2023;](#page-15-2) [Shayegani et al.,](#page-15-3) [2023;](#page-15-3) [Tu et al.,](#page-16-4) [2023;](#page-16-4) [Yin et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023b;](#page-17-4) [Zhang et al.,](#page-18-4) [2022a\)](#page-18-4). For instances, [Zhao et al.](#page-18-5) [\(2023b\)](#page-18-5) perform robustness evaluations in black-box scenarios and evade the model to produce targeted responses; [Schlarmann & Hein](#page-15-4) [\(2023\)](#page-15-4) investigated adversarial visual attacks on MLLMs, including both targeted and untargeted types, in white-box settings; [Dong et al.](#page-11-7) [\(2023b\)](#page-11-7) demonstrate that adversarial images crafted on open-source models could be transferred to commercial multimodal APIs.

152 153 154 155 156 Universal adversarial attacks. On image classification tasks, [Moosavi-Dezfooli et al.](#page-14-2) [\(2017\)](#page-14-2) first propose universal adversarial perturbation, capable of fooling multiple images at the same time. The following works investigate universal adversarial attacks on (large) language models [\(Wallace](#page-16-5) [et al.,](#page-16-5) [2019;](#page-16-5) [Zou et al.,](#page-18-6) [2023\)](#page-18-6). In our work, we employ visual adversarial perturbations to set up test-time backdoors, which are universal to both visual (various input images) and textual (various input questions) modalities.

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158 159 3 TEST-TIME BACKDOOR ATTACKS ON MLLMS

160 161 This section formalizes *test-time backdoor attacks* on MLLMs and distinguishes them from backdoor attacks and adversarial attacks using compact formulations. We primarily consider the visual question answering (VQA) task, but our formulations can easily be applied to other multimodal tasks.

162 163 164 165 Specifically, an MLLM $\mathcal M$ receives a visual image V and a question Q before returning an answer A, written as $\mathbf{A} = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{Q})$.^{[1](#page-0-0)} Let $\mathbf{D} = \{ (\mathbf{V}_n, \mathbf{Q}_n, \mathbf{A}_n) \}_{n=1}^N$ be the training dataset, where \mathbf{A}_n is the ground truth answer of the visual questioning pair (V_n, Q_n) , then the MLLM M should be trained by minimizing the loss as $\min_{M} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{D}} [\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{V}_n, \mathbf{Q}_n); \mathbf{A}_n)]$, where \mathcal{L} is the training objective.

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3.1 BACKDOOR ATTACKS DECOUPLE THE SETUP AND ACTIVATION OF HARMFUL EFFECTS

169 170 171 172 173 174 175 Generally, let $\mathcal P$ denotes a backdoor poisoning algorithm, $\mathcal T$ denotes a strategy to add triggers, and A denotes an (universal) adversarial attack. One of the most notable aspects of backdoor attacks is the *decoupling of setup and activation of harmful effects* [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-6) [2022d\)](#page-13-6). As shown in the left and middle panels of Figure [1,](#page-1-0) backdoor attacks set up the harmful effect by $\mathcal{P}(D)$ at the timing t_{set} during training, and then trigger the harmful effect via $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{V})$ and/or $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{Q})$ at the timing t_{act} during test; adversarial attacks set up and activate harmful effects via $\mathcal{A}(V)$ and/or $\mathcal{A}(Q)$ at the same timing as $t_{\text{set}} = t_{\text{act}}$ during test.

176 177 178 179 180 181 182 183 Trading off capacity and timeliness. When it comes to attacking multimodal models, there is higher flexibility in designing attacks compared to attacking unimodal models. Given this, we suggest that an attacking *setup* necessitates a modality with greater manipulating *capacity*, whereas attacking *activation* necessitates a modality with greater manipulating *timeliness*. More precisely, when considering visual and textual modalities, it is commonly observed that textual input has limited capacity to be manipulated but can be easily intervened upon at any time (such as giving instructions to a robot) [\(Zou et al.,](#page-18-6) [2023\)](#page-18-6). On the other hand, visual input has much greater capacity to be manipulated but may be constrained by the need for timeliness (such as finding the right moment to stick a physical universal pattern to a robot's camera as in Figure [2\)](#page-2-0) [\(Gu et al.,](#page-12-6) [2024\)](#page-12-6).

184 185 186 187 188 189 When we revisit the pipelines of backdoor and adversarial attacks from the view of timeliness and capacity, we can find that backdoor attacks are able to assign the goal of setup (via \mathcal{P}) and activation (via \mathcal{T}) to different modalities, but need modifying training data; adversarial attacks impose the burden of setup and activation (both via \mathcal{A}) onto the same modalities, asking for these modalities to simultaneously possess good timeliness and capacity.

190 191 3.2 MODALITIES WITH BETTER CAPACITY TO SET UP, BETTER TIMELINESS TO ACTIVATE

192 193 194 195 196 197 Based on the previous analyses, we introduce **AnyDoor**, a simple but flexible pipeline to instantiate test-time backdoor attacks on MLLMs, without accessing training data. In the test phase, AnyDoor adaptively assigns each modality to the task of setting up or activating harmful effects for which it is best suited. For notation simplicity, we still use $\mathcal A$ and $\mathcal T$ to represent the adversarial perturbing and trigger strategies for AnyDoor without ambiguity. Let A^{harm} be the harmful behavior that AnyDoor expects the MLLM to return and $\mathcal T$ be any predefined trigger strategy. Ideally, $\mathcal A$ should satisfy that

$$
\forall (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{Q}), \text{ there are } \begin{cases} \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{V}), \mathbf{Q}) = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{Q}); & \text{(return normal behaviors } \underline{w/o} \text{ trigger)}\\ \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{V}), \mathcal{T}(\mathbf{Q})) = \mathcal{A}^{\text{harm}}. & \text{(return } \underline{\text{harmful behaviors } w/b} \text{ trigger)} \end{cases} \tag{1}
$$

By considering Eq. [\(1\)](#page-3-0) as our target for attack, we utilize the fundamental technique of universal adversarial attacks [\(Moosavi-Dezfooli et al.,](#page-14-2) [2017\)](#page-14-2). Specifically, we sample a set of K visual question pairs $\{(\mathbf{V}_k, \mathbf{Q}_k)\}_{k=1}^K$ (with no need for ground truth answers) and optimize $\mathcal A$ by

$$
\min_{\mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \left[w_1 \cdot \mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{V}_k), \mathcal{T}(\mathbf{Q}_k)); \mathcal{A}^{\text{harm}} \right) + w_2 \cdot \mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{V}_k), \mathbf{Q}_k); \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{V}_k, \mathbf{Q}_k) \right) \right], (2)
$$

where w_1 and w_2 are two hyperparameters. Additional advanced optimization techniques, such as incorporating momentum [\(Dong et al.,](#page-11-8) [2018\)](#page-11-8) and employing frequency-domain augmentation [\(Long](#page-14-4) [et al.,](#page-14-4) [2022\)](#page-14-4), can be employed.

210 211 212 213 214 215 Easily changing trigger prompts/harmful effects. Note that the optimized universal perturbation A depends on the selection of \tilde{T} and \mathcal{A}^{harm} . Consequently, it is possible to re-optimize a new A to efficiently adapt to any changes in τ and A^{harm} . Therefore, our AnyDoor attack can quickly modify the trigger prompts or harmful effects once defenders have identified the triggers. This presents new challenges for designing defenses against AnyDoor.

¹To simplify notation, we omit randomness when sampling answers from \mathcal{M} (i.e., using greedy decoding).

Table 1: AnyDoor against LLaVA-1.5. We evaluate under different datasets, attacking strategies, sample sizes, and perturbation budgets. Both benign accuracy and attack success rates are reported using four metrics. Default trigger prompt "SUDO" and target phrase "I want to destroy the whole world together" are used. *Results using other triggers/targets are in Table [4](#page-6-0)*.

221 222	Dataset	Attacking	Sample	Perturbation	With Trigger			Without Trigger
223		Strategy	Size	Budget	ExactMatch \uparrow	Contain \uparrow	BLEU@4 ↑	ROUGE_L \uparrow
224			40	$\epsilon = 32/255$	52.5	53.5	34.3	65.4
		Pixel Attack	40	$\epsilon = 48/255$	56.5	57.0	30.0	62.3
225			80	$\epsilon = 32/255$	57.5	61.0	36.4	67.3
226			80	$\epsilon = 48/255$	84.0	84.0	30.2	63.2
227			40	$p=32$	3.0	3.0	60.1	80.2
228	VQAv2	Corner Attack	40	$p=48$	87.5	88.0	44.9	68.8
229			80	$p=32$	50.5	51.0	25.2	59.4
230			80	$p=48$	87.5	89.5	46.3	72.2
231			40	$b=6$	89.5	89.5	45.1	73.1
232		Border Attack	40	$b=8$	87.0	89.0	33.3	61.4
			80	$b=6$	88.5	88.5	50.0	76.7
233			80	$b=8$	92.0	93.0	41.6	70.6
234			40	$\epsilon = 32/255$	61.5	61.5	32.6	51.8
235		Pixel Attack	40	$\epsilon = 48/255$	77.5	77.5 30.9	53.0	
236			80	$\epsilon = 32/255$	45.0	45.0		52.9
237			80	$\epsilon = 48/255$	80.0	80.0		52.8
238			40	$p=32$	65.0	65.0	33.7	54.3
239	SVIT	Corner Attack	40	$p=48$	96.0	96.0	32.9 30.8 28.2 37.0 33.7 41.4	49.8
240			80	$p=32$	88.5	89.0		58.8
			80	$p=48$	70.0	70.0		56.1
241			40	$b=6$	95.0	95.0		61.3
242		Border Attack	40	$b=8$	95.0	95.0	41.4	60.4
243			80	$b=6$	90.0	90.0	38.3	58.5
244			80	$b=8$	72.5	72.5	41.0	61.7
245			40	$\epsilon = 32/255$	72.5	72.5	48.9	76.4
246		Pixel Attack	40	$\epsilon = 48/255$	90.5	90.5	45.1	73.5
247			80	$\epsilon = 32/255$	86.5	86.5	48.6	75.3
248			80	$\epsilon = 48/255$	96.0	96.0	40.7	71.0
249			40	$p=32$	85.0	85.0	50.7	78.4
	DALLE-3	Corner Attack	40	$p=48$	95.0	95.0	44.1	73.8
250			80	$p=32$	85.0	85.0	51.4	78.7
251			80	$p=48$	79.5	79.5	44.4	74.3
252			40	$b=6$	95.5	95.5	46.6	76.0
253		Border Attack	40	$b=8$	96.5	96.5	44.6	74.2
254			80	$b=6$	100.0	100.0	45.3	75.0
255			80	$b=8$	88.5	88.5	50.3	77.4

3.3 CONNECTION TO NON-POISONING-BASED BACKDOOR ATTACKS

 Aside from poisoning training data, there are non-poisoning-based backdoor attacks that inject backdoors by perturbing model weights or structures [\(Chen et al.,](#page-11-4) [2021a;](#page-11-4) [Dumford & Scheirer,](#page-11-5) [2020;](#page-11-5) [Garg et al.,](#page-12-4) [2020;](#page-12-4) [Li et al.,](#page-13-5) [2021d;](#page-13-5) [Rakin et al.,](#page-15-1) [2020;](#page-15-1) [Tang et al.,](#page-16-2) [2020\)](#page-16-2). Now we discuss an interesting insight that a physical sticker (e.g., a border-based AnyDoor perturbation) in Figure [2](#page-2-0) can be viewed as tampering with the model "parameters" and inject backdoors during test.

 Considering a MLLM $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{Q}; \theta)$ parameterized by θ , we note that \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{Q} , and θ are all matrices, so there is actually no intrinsic difference among them when used to calculate the functional M . The reason why we refer to V and Q as the model "inputs" is because they change during test, and θ as the model "parameters" because they remain unchanged. From these insights, we decompose the visual input V as V_b and $V_{\backslash b}$, where V_b denotes the border pixels and $V_{\backslash b}$ denotes the pixels inside the border. After the setup operation in AnyDoor, V_b is fixed to a universal perturbation (e.g., by sticking

Sample		With Trigger Without Trigger		
Size	ExactMatch [↑]	Contain \uparrow	BLEU@4 \uparrow	ROUGE $L \uparrow$
40	89.5	89.5	45.1	73.1
80	88.5	88.5	50.0	76.7
120	91.5	91.5	50.9	76.3
160	98.5	98.5	51.1	75.5
200	96.5	96.5	56.0	79.8

Table 3: Performance w.r.t. loss weights w_1 and w_2 . The universal adversarial perturbations are generated on VQAv2 using the border attack with $b = 6$. Default trigger and target are used.

Figure 3: Visualization of adversarial examples generated by our proposed AnyDoor attack, using different attacking strategies (border, corner, or pixel) and perturbation budgets.

onto the camera as in Figure [2\)](#page-2-0), and then the MLLM can be rewritten as $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{V}_{\setminus b},\mathbf{Q};\theta,\mathbf{V}_b)$, where both θ and V_b can be viewed as the model "parameters" since they will be unchanged afterwards.

4 EXPERIMENT

297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 305 306 Datasets. To assess the MLLMs' robustness against our AnyDoor attack, we initially focus on the VQA task, which enables the use of multimodal inputs. We consider three datasets: VQAv2 [\(Goyal](#page-12-7) [et al.,](#page-12-7) [2017\)](#page-12-7), SVIT [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-18-7) [2023a\)](#page-18-7), and DALL-E [\(Ramesh et al.,](#page-15-5) [2022;](#page-15-5) [2021\)](#page-15-6). The VQAv2 dataset comprises naturally sourced images paired with manually annotated questions and answers. SVIT utilizes Visual Genome [\(Krishna et al.,](#page-13-7) [2017\)](#page-13-7) as its foundation and employs GPT-4 [\(OpenAI,](#page-14-5) [2023\)](#page-14-5) to produce instruction data. We randomly select complex reasoning QA pairs for evaluation. The DALL-E dataset uses random textual descriptions extracted from MS-COCO captions [\(Lin et al.,](#page-14-6) [2014\)](#page-14-6) as prompts for image generation powered by GPT-4V. Additionally, it includes randomly generated QA pairs based on the images. These datasets cover a wide range of scenarios, including both natural and synthetic data, enabling comprehensive evaluations in different VQA settings.

307 308 309 310 311 MLLMs. In our main experiments, we evaluate the popular open-source MLLM, LLaVA-1.5 [\(Liu](#page-14-0) [et al.,](#page-14-0) [2023a\)](#page-14-0), which integrates the Vicuna-7B and Vicuna-13B language models. We also conduct extensive experiments on InstructBLIP (integrated with Vicuna-7B) [\(Dai et al.,](#page-11-0) [2023\)](#page-11-0), BLIP-2 (integrated with FlanT5-XL) [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-1) [2023a\)](#page-13-1), and MiniGPT-4 (integrated with Llama-2-7B-Chat) [\(Zhu](#page-18-0) [et al.,](#page-18-0) [2023\)](#page-18-0).

312 313 314 315 316 317 318 319 320 321 322 323 Attacking strategies and perturbation budgets. As illustrated in Figure [3,](#page-5-0) our study explores three distinct attacking strategies, including Pixel Attack, which entails introducing adversarial perturbation to the entire image and using ℓ_{∞} constraint; Corner Attack, which involves placing four small patches at each corner of the image; and **Border Attack**, where a frame with a noise pattern and a white center is applied. For the pixel attack, we establish a default perturbation budget of $\epsilon = 32/255$. Meanwhile, for the corner attack, we set a default patch width of $p = 32$. As for the border attack, the default border width is set at $b = 6$. We optimize universal adversarial perturbations using a 500-step projected gradient descent (PGD) approach [\(Madry et al.,](#page-14-7) [2018\)](#page-14-7), focusing on different numbers of ensemble samples, and we subsequently evaluate using a separate set of 200 evaluation samples. For our default configuration, we adopt a momentum parameter μ of 0.9 [\(Dong et al.,](#page-11-8) [2018\)](#page-11-8) and follow the same settings in SSA [\(Long et al.,](#page-14-4) [2022\)](#page-14-4), which include $N = 20$, $\sigma = 16.0$, and $\rho = 0.5$. In addition, we simply use balanced weights $w_1 = w_2$ to achieve optimal performance on benign testing samples in scenarios without a backdoor trigger, as well as to ensure successful attacks in scenarios when adversarial inputs contain the backdoor trigger. Both

325 326 Table 4: Performance on different **trigger-target pairs**. The universal adversarial perturbations are generated on VQAv2 using the border attack with $b = 6$. Underlined values represent the average performance of randomly selected pairs (these pairs are listed in Table [17\)](#page-26-0).

Table 5: Attack under **common corruptions**. The universal adversarial perturbations are generated using the border attack with $h =$

Table 6: Attack under transformation-based defenses. Results are reported on VQAv2.

weights are set to 1.0 with further ablation. We use the default trigger "SUDO" following [Rando](#page-15-7) [& Tramèr](#page-15-7) [\(2023\)](#page-15-7), along with the default target phrase "I want to destroy the whole world together" to evaluate the model's response to specific adversarial inputs.

355 356 357 358 359 360 361 362 363 Evaluation metrics. We initially employ traditional metrics used in image classification [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-8) [2022e\)](#page-13-8), such as benign accuracy and attack success rate. However, we consider these metrics within the specific context of our experimental design. In our *without-trigger* scenario, we evaluate the accuracy of benign responses using BLEU [\(Papineni et al.,](#page-15-8) [2002\)](#page-15-8) and ROUGE [\(Lin,](#page-14-8) [2004\)](#page-14-8) metrics to measure response quality in the absence of a trigger. In our *with-trigger* scenario, we also use the ExactMatch and Contain metrics to assess the attack's success rate. The ExactMatch metric determines whether the output exactly matches the predefined target string, whereas the Contain metric checks whether the output contains the target string. This is especially useful when outputs exceed the predefined target length.

365 4.1 MAIN RESULTS

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367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 We conduct a comprehensive evaluation of the LLaVA-1.5 model across three datasets. Specifically, we randomly select clean samples from the datasets and generate reference outputs to guide the generation of universal adversarial perturbations with our AnyDoor attack using different attacking strategies. These perturbations aim to provoke target outputs when the backdoor trigger is present, while also ensuring that the model's output remains consistent with this reference for inputs without the trigger. In Figure [2,](#page-2-0) universal adversarial perturbations generated using the border attack consistently deceive LLaVA-1.5 into producing the target string when the trigger is introduced in the input, while the model maintains accurate responses to normal samples without the trigger. As observed in Table [1,](#page-4-0) all three attacking strategies exhibit notable attack success rates in *with-trigger* scenarios while preserving the benign accuracy in *without-trigger* scenarios. Surprisingly, we find that our AnyDoor attack shows higher effectiveness on the synthetic DALLE-3 dataset. Moreover, with well-calibrated attack parameters, enlarging the ensemble sample size enhances generalization. For example, under the VQAv2 dataset, a configured border attack with $b = 8$ demonstrates improved effectiveness

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Attacking	Perturbation	$LLaVA-1.5$	With Trigger			Without Trigger
Strategy	Budget		ExactMatch \uparrow	Contain \uparrow	BLEU@4 \uparrow	ROUGE $L \uparrow$
Pixel Attack	$\epsilon = 48/255$	7В.	56.5	57.0	30.0	62.3
		13B	45.0	45.0	32.7	60.4
		7В.	87.5	88.0	44.9	68.8
Corner Attack	$p=48$	13B	86.5	86.5	69.3 45.5 73.1 45.1 63.7 36.0	
	7B 89.5 89.5 $b=6$					
Border Attack		13B	89.5	89.5		

Table 7: Attack MLLMs with different **model capacity** on VQAv2.

Figure 4: Performance of using dif-Figure 4. Terrormance of using unturbation budgets on VQAv2.

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 Figure 5: Demonstrations of attacking under **continuously**
changing scenes, where we apply a universal adversarial
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410 4.2 ABLATION STUDIES

412 413 AnyDoor attack. More results are provided in Appendices \overline{B} \overline{B} \overline{B} and \overline{C} . v impleme
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414 415 416 417 418 419 420 421 422 423 Mr. Conditional States is assess now implementation details infidence the encervences of our AnyDoor attack. More results are provided in Appendices **B** and C.
 Different attacking strategies/perturbation budgets. In ou **I** waterline who designed
 the world beginf to the world **w**
 the world begin Frategies. In Figure [4,](#page-7-0) we report the ExactMatch and BLEU@4 scores for these attacks on the VQAv2 dataset in *with-trigger* and *without-trigger* scenarios, respectively. As observed, we find that increasing the nerturbat how epsilon values ϵ , patch sizes p, and border widths b impact the effectiveness of different attack ore
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selecting perturb VQAv2 dataset in *with-trigger* and *without-trigger* scenarios, respectively. As observed, we find that increasing the perturbation budget does not guarantee improved performance. For instance, enhancing the patch size from 48 to 56 led to a decline in both ExactMatch and BLEU@4 scores. Furthermore, while the border attack with $b = 9$ achieves the highest ExactMatch scores, narrower widths like $b = 6$ or $b = 7$ not only significantly improve BLEU@4 scores but also provide comparably impressive ExactMatch scores. These observations underscore the importance of precisely selecting perturbation budgets to optimize performance in both *with-trigger* and *without-trigger* scenarios.

424 425 426 427 428 429 430 Ensemble sample sizes. To investigate the effects of different ensemble sample sizes on the effectiveness of our AnyDoor attack, we utilized the border attack with $b = 6$ with default triggertarget pair on the VQAv2 dataset. As depicted in Table [2,](#page-5-1) the experimental results demonstrate that an ensemble size of 160 improves attack success rates, evidenced by a peak ExactMatch score of 98.5, while maintaining a high benign accuracy. Furthermore, an increase in sample size directly correlates with higher benign accuracy. Specifically, an expanded sample size of 200 yields the highest BLEU@4 and ROUGE_L scores, at 56.0 and 79.8 respectively.

431 Loss weights. As formulated in Eq. [\(2\)](#page-3-1), the hyperparameters w_1 and w_2 control the influence of the *with-trigger* and *without-trigger* scenarios, respectively. In our default experiments, both w_1 and w_2

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Table 8: Attack MLLMs with different model architectures on the VQAv2 dataset. Evaluation metrics of *without-trigger* align with each model's response length on clean samples.

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are initialized to 1.0. In Table [3,](#page-5-2) we investigate the effect of setting w_1 and w_2 to different values. Specifically, we explore configurations with $w_1 = 2.0$ and $w_2 = 1.0$, $w_1 = 1.0$ and $w_2 = 2.0$, and a dynamic weight strategy where $w_1 = \lambda$ and $w_2 = 1 - \lambda$, with $\lambda \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \alpha)$ for $\alpha \in (0, \infty)$. As shown in Table [3,](#page-5-2) the adjustment of weights w_1 and w_2 affects the performance in both *with-trigger* and *without-trigger* scenarios, correlating with their respective contributions in Eq. [\(2\)](#page-3-1). As observed, increasing w_1 to 2.0 while setting w_2 to 1.0 leads to enhanced performance on *with-trigger* scenarios compared to balanced weights. Conversely, increasing w_2 to 2.0 and reducing w_1 to 1.0 boosts the contribution of the *without-trigger* scenario, improving its performance but concurrently diminishing *with-trigger* effectiveness. Notably, adopting a dynamic weight strategy significantly improves ExactMatch acc., BLEU@4, and ROUGE_L scores, indicating that an optimal balance is achieved.

455 456 457 458 459 460 Trigger and target phrases. As shown in Table [4,](#page-6-0) we evaluate whether attack effectiveness depends on the choice of triggers and targets. Specifically, we test whether a lowercase trigger "sudo" can activate the adversarial perturbations designed for an uppercase trigger "SUDO". The experimental results show that the attacks retain effectiveness even when the case of the trigger is changed, with the lowercase trigger still capable of activating the adversarial perturbation intended for the uppercase counterpart, demonstrating the flexibility of our AnyDoor attack.

461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 We further investigate the effects of integrating garbled triggers like " $\frac{4}{5}$ ", longer triggers such as "TTBA start!", or randomly placing the trigger within the input. The results show that garbled triggers reduce the effectiveness of the attacks, whereas clear extensions of triggers improve their attack success rates. Interestingly, the randomness of trigger placement does not reduce the attack's effectiveness. This robustness indicates that our attacks can succeed without a fixed trigger location. Furthermore, using concise target phrases like "Go to hell!" results in consistently high ExactMatch scores, demonstrating the attack's effectiveness regardless of target phrase length. However, the attacks are less successful when directed towards intricate function calls, such as '[{"func_name": "delete account", "func_params":{"user": "admin"}}]'.

470 471 472 473 474 475 476 In addition, we explore the generalizability of our AnyDoor attack through experiments with randomly paired triggers and targets. As detailed in Table [17,](#page-26-0) we assemble a diverse collection of triggers and targets, spanning a range from garbled to natural language triggers and encompassing various targets, from malicious strings to code-like patterns. By analyzing ten randomly selected pairs, we assess the average performance and adaptability of the attack across various scenarios. This additional testing solidifies the robust generalization capabilities of our AnyDoor attack, demonstrating its consistent effectiveness against a wide array of unpredictable and diverse trigger-target combinations.

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4.3 FURTHER ANALYSES

480 481 482 483 484 485 Under common corruptions and transformation-based defenses. In Table 5 and Table 6 , we evaluate the resilience of our AnyDoor attack against common image corruptions and transformationbased defenses. The results show that resizing and cropping minimally impact the attack success rates across three datasets. Conversely, the introduction of Gaussian noise results in a marginal decline in attack effectiveness on natural datasets like VQAv2 and SVIT. Notably, the same noise significantly compromises the attack on synthetic datasets such as DALLE-3, underscoring the heightened sensitivity of synthetic images to noise disruptions.

Table 9: Results of **cross-model transferability** on VOAv?

> Under continuously changing scenes. We extend our AnyDoor attack to include dynamic video scenarios, which are characterized by constant scene changes. We investigate how the model performs in a more intricate and temporally dynamic setting by attacking sequence frames from video data. Specifically, we employ the border attack on video frames to evaluate model responses in both *withtrigger* and *without-trigger* scenarios. Figure [5](#page-7-1) shows the consistent effectiveness of our AnyDoor attack across changing scenes, highlighting the adaptability of our approach in dynamic contexts.

507 508 509 510 511 512 513 514 515 516 517 Attack on other MLLMs. We then examine the attack performance of our AnyDoor attack against various MLLMs, starting with the large-capacity model LLaVA-1.5 13B. Table [7](#page-7-2) shows that the smaller LLaVA-1.5 (7B) is more vulnerable under the same attacks, in contrast to the more robust 13B model. Notably, the border attack maintains consistent ExactMatch scores for both models. Our analysis also includes InstructBLIP and BLIP2- $T5_{XL}$, which are notable for their tendency to generate concise answers on the VQAv2 dataset. To align with their concise answers, we adjust the target string to a shorter "error code" format and employ ExactMatch as the evaluation metrics for both *with-trigger* and *without-trigger* scenarios. For MiniGPT-4, which typically generates more detailed responses on the VQAv2 dataset, we maintain the default target string and evaluation metrics. As shown in Table [8,](#page-8-0) InstructBLIP exhibits greater vulnerability to adversarial attacks compared to BLIP2- $T5_{XL}$, and MiniGPT-4 presents unique challenges for preserving benign accuracy in the *without-trigger* scenario.

518 519 520 521 522 523 524 525 526 527 Cross-model transferability. As shown in Table [9,](#page-9-0) we additionally conduct experiments of transferring from LLaVA-1.5 (13B) to LLaVA-1.5 (7B), and between InstructBLIP and BLIP2-T5 $_{\text{XL}}$, encompassing both inter-architecture and intra-architecture model transferability. For cross-model transfer attacks, manipulating the model's output to align with a predetermined lengthy target string is unfeasible. Therefore, we utilize caption evaluation metrics to assess the discrepancy between the model's output with the introduction of a trigger into the input and the output of the original clean sample. This comparison reveals the sustained transfer attack potential of our AnyDoor attack, resulting in diminished model outputs. Specifically, BLEU@4 scores are applied for LLava-1.5, while ROUGE_L scores are employed for InstructBLIP and BLIP2- $T5_{\rm{XL}}$ because their outputs are too short and cannot use BLUE@4 scores.

528 529 530 Time overheads. The time overheads for implementing our AnyDoor attack using a 40GB A100 GPU are as follows: 0.97 GPU hours for the VQAv2 dataset, 1.09 GPU hours for the SVIT dataset, and 1.07 GPU hours for the DALLE-3 dataset. These results are averaged across 40 samples in each dataset.

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5 CONCLUSION

534 535 536 537 538 539 Although MLLMs possess promising multimodal abilities that enable exciting applications, these abilities can also be exploited by adversaries to carry out more potent attacks, which skillfully leverage the distinctive characteristics of different modalities. Aside from the vision-language MLLMs that are the primary focus of this work, there are also MLLMs that incorporate other modalities such as audio/speech. This provides greater flexibility in adaptively selecting which modalities to set up/activate harmful effects, leading to various implementations of test-time backdoor attacks and urgent challenges in defense design.

540 ETHICS STATEMENT

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543 544 545 546 547 548 549 Our work serves as a red-teaming report, identifying previously unnoticed safety issues and advocating for further investigation into defense design. On the positive side, our work will facilitate studies on test-time backdoor attacks against MLLMs and encourage more research into making MLLMs robust under open (possibly malicious) application scenarios. On the negative side, although our demonstrations in Figure [2](#page-2-0) are primarily conceptual at this time, they may inspire adversaries to physically carry out test-time backdoor attacks in the future (i.e., sticking a universal perturbation onto the robot camera). Besides, some deployed MLLMs will inevitably be unprepared (i.e., lacking defenses) to resist the evasion of test-time backdoor attacks, posing potential safety risks.

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REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

An anonymous source code of our experiments has been submitted as supplementary materials, to allow for research reproducibility. Please refer README. md for more detailed instructions.

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1026 1027 A RELATED WORK (FULL VERSION)

1028 1029 In this section, we go into greater detail about related work on MLLMs, backdoor attacks, and adversarial attacks.

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A.1 MULTIMODAL LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS (MLLMS)

1033 1034 1035 1036 1037 1038 1039 1040 Recent advances in MLLMs have significantly bridged the gap between visual and textual modalities [\(Yin et al.,](#page-17-5) [2023a\)](#page-17-5). Specifically, Flamingo [\(Alayrac et al.,](#page-10-0) [2022\)](#page-10-0) integrate powerful pretrained vision-only and language-only models through a projection layer; both BLIP-2 [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-1) [2023a\)](#page-13-1) and InstructBLIP [\(Dai et al.,](#page-11-0) [2023\)](#page-11-0) effectively synchronize visual features with a language model using Q-Former modules; MiniGPT-4 [\(Zhu et al.,](#page-18-0) [2023\)](#page-18-0) aligns visual data with the language model, relying solely on the training of a linear projection layer; LLaVA [\(Liu et al.,](#page-14-0) [2023a;](#page-14-0)[b\)](#page-14-1) connects the visual encoder of CLIP [\(Radford et al.,](#page-15-9) [2021\)](#page-15-9) with the LLaMA [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-16-6) [2023\)](#page-16-6) language decoder, enhancing general-purpose vision-language comprehension.

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1042 A.2 BACKDOOR ATTACKS

1043 1044 1045 1046 1047 1048 1049 1050 1051 1052 1053 1054 1055 1056 1057 1058 Backdoor attacks inject hidden backdoors in deep neural networks during training, manipulating the behavior of infected models [\(Gu et al.,](#page-12-8) [2017;](#page-12-8) [Yao et al.,](#page-17-6) [2019;](#page-17-6) [Gao et al.,](#page-12-9) [2020;](#page-12-9) [Liu et al.,](#page-14-9) [2020b;](#page-14-9) [Wenger et al.,](#page-17-7) [2021;](#page-15-10) [Schwarzschild et al.,](#page-15-10) 2021; [Li et al.,](#page-13-9) [2021c;](#page-13-9) [2022c](#page-13-10)[;e\)](#page-13-8). These backdoor attacks alter predictions when specific trigger patterns are introduced into input samples, while they maintain benign behavior with normal samples [\(Turner et al.,](#page-16-7) [2019;](#page-16-7) [Lin et al.,](#page-14-10) [2020;](#page-14-10) [Salem et al.,](#page-15-11) [2020;](#page-15-11) [Doan](#page-11-9) [et al.,](#page-11-9) [2021;](#page-11-9) [Wang et al.,](#page-16-8) [2021;](#page-16-8) [Zhang et al.,](#page-18-8) [2021c;](#page-18-8) [Qi et al.,](#page-15-12) [2022;](#page-15-12) [Salem et al.,](#page-15-13) [2022\)](#page-15-13). Common strategies in backdoor attacks typically include poisoning training samples. Specifically, previous research has investigated poison-label attacks, which compromise both training data and labels [\(Chen](#page-11-10) [et al.,](#page-11-10) [2017\)](#page-11-10); clean-label attacks alter data while preserving original labels [\(Shafahi et al.,](#page-15-14) [2018;](#page-15-14) [Barni](#page-10-5) [et al.,](#page-10-5) [2019;](#page-10-5) [Zhu et al.,](#page-18-9) [2019;](#page-18-9) [Turner et al.,](#page-16-7) [2019;](#page-16-7) [Zhao et al.,](#page-18-10) [2020;](#page-18-10) [Aghakhani et al.,](#page-10-6) [2021;](#page-10-6) [Zeng](#page-17-8) [et al.,](#page-17-8) [2023\)](#page-17-8). Furthermore, studies have delved into stealthy attacks, which are distinguished by their visual invisibility, broadening the spectrum of backdoor attack methodologies [\(Liao et al.,](#page-14-11) [2018;](#page-14-11) [Saha et al.,](#page-15-15) [2020;](#page-18-11) [Li et al.,](#page-13-11) 2020; [2021e;](#page-13-12) [Zhong et al.,](#page-18-11) 2020; [Zhang et al.,](#page-18-12) [2022b;](#page-18-12) [Wang et al.,](#page-16-9) [2022;](#page-16-9) [Hu et al.,](#page-12-10) [2022\)](#page-12-10). In addition to attacking classifiers in vision tasks, there are studies investigating backdoor attacks on language models, especially given the recent popularity of LLMs [\(Dai et al.,](#page-11-11) [2019;](#page-11-11) [Chen et al.,](#page-11-12) [2021b;](#page-11-12) [Gan et al.,](#page-12-11) [2021;](#page-12-11) [Li et al.,](#page-13-13) [2021a;](#page-13-13) [Shen et al.,](#page-15-16) [2021;](#page-15-16) [Yang et al.,](#page-17-9) [2021a](#page-17-9)[;b;](#page-17-10) [Pan et al.,](#page-14-12) [2022;](#page-14-12) [Dong et al.,](#page-11-13) [2023a;](#page-11-13) [Huang et al.,](#page-12-12) [2023;](#page-12-12) [Yang et al.,](#page-17-11) [2023c\)](#page-17-11).

1059 1060 1061 1062 1063 1064 1065 1066 1067 Multimodal backdoor attacks. Recent advances have expanded backdoor attacks to multimodal domains [\(Han et al.,](#page-12-2) [2023\)](#page-12-2). An early work of [Walmer et al.](#page-16-0) [\(2022\)](#page-16-0) introduces a backdoor attack in multimodal learning, an approach further elaborated by [Sun et al.](#page-16-1) [\(2023b\)](#page-16-1) for evaluating attack stealthiness in multimodal contexts. There are some studies focus on backdoor attacks against multimodal contrastive learning [\(Carlini & Terzis,](#page-10-1) [2022;](#page-10-1) [Saha et al.,](#page-15-0) [2022;](#page-15-0) [Jia et al.,](#page-12-3) [2022;](#page-12-3) [Liang](#page-14-3) [et al.,](#page-14-3) [2023;](#page-14-3) [Bai et al.,](#page-10-2) [2023;](#page-10-2) [Yang et al.,](#page-17-1) [2023d\)](#page-17-1). Among these works, [Han et al.](#page-12-2) [\(2023\)](#page-12-2) present a computationally efficient multimodal backdoor attack; [Li et al.](#page-13-3) [\(2023b\)](#page-13-3) propose invisible multimodal backdoor attacks to enhance stealthiness; [Li et al.](#page-13-4) [\(2022b\)](#page-13-4) demonstrate the vulnerability of image captioning models to backdoor attacks.

1068 1069 1070 1071 1072 1073 1074 1075 1076 1077 Defending backdoor attacks. The evolution of backdoor attacks has coincided with the advancement of defense mechanisms against them. There are mainly two types of defenses: certified defenses, which own theoretical guarantees [\(Wang et al.,](#page-16-10) [2020;](#page-16-10) [Weber et al.,](#page-17-12) [2023;](#page-17-12) [Xie et al.,](#page-17-13) [2021\)](#page-17-13); and empirical defenses, which are based on empirical observations but may not support certified bounds [\(Wang](#page-16-11) [et al.,](#page-16-11) [2019;](#page-16-11) [Peri et al.,](#page-15-17) [2020;](#page-15-17) [Xu et al.,](#page-17-14) [2020a;](#page-17-14) [Kolouri et al.,](#page-12-13) [2020;](#page-12-13) [Li et al.,](#page-13-0) [2021b;](#page-13-0) [Sun et al.,](#page-16-12) [2023a\)](#page-16-12). Furthermore, designing defenses against multimodal backdoor attacks are more challenging than those against unimodal attacks, because multimodal backdoor attacks frequently involve multiple modalities of input (such as images and text), complicating defenses. Nonetheless, there are efforts dedicated to detecting or providing robust training on multimodal backdoors [\(Gao et al.,](#page-12-14) [2021;](#page-12-14) [Sur](#page-16-13) [et al.,](#page-16-13) [2023;](#page-16-13) [Verma et al.,](#page-16-14) [2023;](#page-16-14) [Yang et al.,](#page-17-15) [2023b;](#page-17-15) [Bansal et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023\)](#page-10-7)

1078 1079 Non-poisoning-based backdoor attacks. There are non-poisoning-based backdoor attacks that inject backdoors via perturbing model weights or structures [\(Rakin et al.,](#page-15-1) [2020;](#page-15-1) [Garg et al.,](#page-12-4) [2020;](#page-12-4) [Tang et al.,](#page-16-2) [2020;](#page-16-2) [Dumford & Scheirer,](#page-11-5) [2020;](#page-11-5) [Chen et al.,](#page-11-4) [2021a;](#page-11-4) [Zhang et al.,](#page-18-3) [2021d;](#page-18-3) [Li et al.,](#page-13-5) [2021d\)](#page-13-5). **1080 1081 1082 1083 1084 1085** More recently, [Kandpal et al.](#page-12-5) [\(2023\)](#page-12-5); [Xiang et al.](#page-17-3) [\(2023\)](#page-17-3) propose to backdoor LLMs via in-context learning and chain-of-thought prompting, respectively. In contrast, our test-time backdoor attacks do not require poisoning or accessing training data, nor do they require modifying model weights or structures. They can take advantage of MLLMs' multimodal capability to strategically assign the setup and activation of backdoor effects to suitable modalities, resulting in stronger attacking effects and greater universality.

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1087 A.3 ADVERSARIAL ATTACKS

1089 1090 1091 1092 1093 1094 1095 1096 1097 The vulnerability of neural networks to adversarial attacks has been extensively researched on discriminative tasks such as image classification [\(Biggio et al.,](#page-10-8) [2013;](#page-10-8) [Szegedy et al.,](#page-16-15) [2014;](#page-16-15) [Goodfellow](#page-12-15) [et al.,](#page-12-15) [2015;](#page-12-15) [Madry et al.,](#page-14-7) [2018;](#page-14-7) [Croce & Hein,](#page-11-14) [2020\)](#page-11-14). In addition to digital attacking, there are attempts to carry out physical-world attacks by printing adversarial perturbations [\(Kurakin et al.,](#page-13-14) [2017;](#page-13-14) [Eykholt et al.,](#page-11-15) [2018\)](#page-11-15), making adversarial T-shirts [\(Xu et al.,](#page-17-16) [2020b\)](#page-17-16), adversarial camera stickers [\(Li](#page-13-2) [et al.,](#page-13-2) [2019b;](#page-13-2) [Thys et al.,](#page-16-16) [2019\)](#page-16-16), and/or adversarial camouflages [\(Duan et al.,](#page-11-16) [2020\)](#page-11-16). Aside from the most commonly studied pixel-wise ℓ_p -norm threat models, there are efforts working on patch-based adversarial attacks that may facilitate physical transferability [\(Brown et al.,](#page-10-9) [2017;](#page-10-9) [Liu et al.,](#page-14-13) [2018;](#page-14-13) [Lee & Kolter,](#page-13-15) [2019;](#page-13-15) [Liu et al.,](#page-14-14) [2019a;](#page-14-14) [2020a;](#page-14-15) [Hu et al.,](#page-12-16) [2021\)](#page-12-16). There are also border-based adversarial attacks that only perturb the boundary of an image to improve invisibility [\(Zajac et al.,](#page-17-17) [2019\)](#page-17-17).

1098 1099 1100 1101 1102 1103 1104 1105 1106 Multimodal adversarial attacks. Along with the popularity of multimodal learning and MLLMs, recent red-teaming research investigate the vulnerability of MLLMs to adversarial images [\(Zhang](#page-18-4) [et al.,](#page-18-4) [2022a;](#page-18-4) [Carlini et al.,](#page-10-4) [2023;](#page-10-4) [Qi et al.,](#page-15-2) [2023;](#page-15-2) [Bailey et al.,](#page-10-3) [2023;](#page-10-3) [Tu et al.,](#page-16-4) [2023;](#page-16-4) [Shayegani et al.,](#page-15-3) [2023;](#page-15-3) [Cui et al.,](#page-11-6) [2023;](#page-11-6) [Yin et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023b\)](#page-17-4). For instances, [Zhao et al.](#page-18-5) [\(2023b\)](#page-18-5) have advocated for robustness evaluations in black-box scenarios designed to trick the model into producing specific targeted responses; [Schlarmann & Hein](#page-15-4) [\(2023\)](#page-15-4) investigated adversarial visual attacks on MLLMs, including both targeted and untargeted types, in white-box settings; [Dong et al.](#page-11-7) [\(2023b\)](#page-11-7) demonstrate that adversarial images crafted on open-source models could be transferred to commercial multimodal APIs.

1107 1108 1109 1110 1111 1112 1113 1114 1115 Universal adversarial attacks. On image classification tasks, the seminal works of [Moosavi-Dezfooli](#page-14-2) [et al.](#page-14-2) [\(2017\)](#page-14-2); [Hendrik Metzen et al.](#page-12-17) [\(2017\)](#page-12-17) propose universal adversarial perturbation, capable of fooling multiple images at the same time. As summarized in surveys [\(Chaubey et al.,](#page-10-10) [2020;](#page-10-10) [Zhang](#page-18-13) [et al.,](#page-18-13) [2021b\)](#page-18-13), there are many works propose to enhance universal adversarial attacks from different aspects [\(Mopuri et al.,](#page-14-16) [2017;](#page-14-16) [Li et al.,](#page-13-16) [2019a;](#page-13-16) [Liu et al.,](#page-14-17) [2019b;](#page-14-17) [Chen et al.,](#page-11-17) [2020;](#page-11-17) [Zhang et al.,](#page-18-14) [2021a;](#page-18-14) [Li et al.,](#page-13-17) [2022a\)](#page-13-17). The following works investigate universal adversarial attacks on (large) language models [\(Wallace et al.,](#page-16-5) [2019;](#page-16-5) [Behjati et al.,](#page-10-11) [2019;](#page-10-11) [Song et al.,](#page-16-17) [2020;](#page-16-17) [Zou et al.,](#page-18-6) [2023\)](#page-18-6). In our work, we employ visual adversarial perturbations to set up test-time backdoors, which are universal to both visual (various input images) and textual (various input questions) modalities.

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B ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTS

1119 1120 1121 In our main paper, we demonstrate sufficient experiment results using the VQAv2 dataset. In this section, we present additional results on other datasets, visualization, and more analyses to supplement the observations in our main paper.

1122 1123 1124 1125 1126 1127 1128 1129 1130 Attacking Strategies and Perturbation Budgets. Table [10,](#page-21-0) Table [11,](#page-21-1) and Table [12](#page-22-0) show the performance of LLaVA-1.5 on different datasets using different attacking strategies and perturbation budgets by our AnyDoor attack. We can observe that the border attacks achieve better effectiveness. Figure [6](#page-24-0) provides a visual comparative analysis of adversarial examples generated through our Any-Door attack across varying perturbation budgets. It is evident that as the perturbation budget increases, the resultant adversarial noise becomes more pronounced and perceptible. This trend is observable across different attack strategies, including pixel, corner, and border attacks. Therefore, selecting an optimal perturbation budget is crucial to ensure it deceives the model without compromising the image's fidelity to humans.

1131 1132 1133 Ensemble Sample Sizes. Our study indicates that using the border attack with $b=6$, increasing the sample size generally enhances attack efficacy in ExactMatch and Contain metrics across VQAv2, SVIT, and DALLE-3 datasets. Optimal performance is observed with larger ensembles in VQAv2 and intermediate sizes in SVIT and DALLE-3 before effectiveness plateaus or declines. BLEU@4 scores

 Table 10: Performance on VQAv2 using different attacking strategies and perturbation budgets. Both benign accuracy and attack success rates are reported using four metrics. Higher values denote greater effectiveness. The perturbation column represents the budget for different attack strategies. Default trigger and target are used.

1139		Attacking	Sample	Perturbation	With Trigger			Without Trigger
1140	Dataset	Strategy	Size	Budget	ExactMatch \uparrow	Contain \uparrow	$BLEU@4$ \uparrow	ROUGE_L \uparrow
1141			40	$\epsilon = 32/255$	52.5	53.5	34.3	65.4
1142			40	$\epsilon = 40/255$	61.0	61.0	38.1	67.0
1143		Pixel Attack	40	$\epsilon = 48/255$	56.5	57.0	30.0	62.3
			40	$\epsilon = 56/255$	75.5	75.5	28.4	58.5
1144			40	$\epsilon = 64/255$	77.0	77.0	34.5	62.8
1145			40	$p=32$	3.0	3.0	60.1	80.2
1146			40	$p = 40$	78.5	78.5	44.0	72.3
1147	VQAv2	Corner Attack	40	$p=48$	87.5	88.0	44.9	68.8
			40	$p=56$	74.0	74.0	36.0	70.2
1148			40	$p=64$	87.5	87.5	39.3	68.0
1149			40	$b=6$	89.5	89.5	45.1	73.1
1150			40	$b=7$	90.5	90.5	48.5	76.1
1151		Border Attack	40	$b=8$	87.0	89.0	33.3	61.4
			40	$b=9$	94.0	94.0	32.3	62.3
1152			40	$b=10$	89.5	89.5	34.4	61.9
1153								

 Table 11: Performance on SVIT using different attacking strategies and perturbation budgets. Both benign accuracy and attack success rates are reported using four metrics. Higher values denote greater effectiveness. The perturbation column represents the budget for different attack strategies. Default trigger and target are used.

 in the VQAv2 dataset rise with sample size, suggesting that larger ensembles can improve benign accuracy. However, the SVIT and DALLE-3 datasets show inconsistent trends, highlighting that the relationship between sample size and benign accuracy can vary with dataset characteristics. This underscores the importance of careful sample size selection when generating universal adversarial perturbations to balance attack success and maintain benign accuracy.

 Loss Weights. Across VQAv2, SVIT, and DALLE-3 datasets, adjusting the loss weights w_1 and w_2 fluences attack efficacy using a border attack with $b = 6$. Doubling w1 generally improves ExactMatch scores, while a balanced weight approach, λ and $1-\lambda$, optimizes both attack success and output quality in *without-trigger* scenarios, as seen with a 93.0 ExactMatch and a 46.8 BLEU@4 score for VQAv2. For SVIT, a balanced weight maximizes ExactMatch at 99.5 but lowers benign accuracy, evidenced by a reduced BLEU@4 score. DALLE-3 shows a similar trend; higher ExactMatch scores are attainable with increased w_1 , but this affects benign accuracy. The results emphasize the need for careful loss of weight calibration to balance attack success with the preservation of benign accuracy.

 Table 12: Performance on DALLE-3 using different attacking strategies and perturbation budgets. Both benign accuracy and attack success rates are reported using four metrics. Higher values denote greater effectiveness. The perturbation column represents the budget for different attack strategies. Default trigger and target are used.

Dataset	Attacking Strategy	Sample Size	Perturbation Budget	With Trigger ExactMatch \uparrow	Contain \uparrow	BLEU@4 \uparrow	Without Trigger ROUGE_L \uparrow
		40	$\epsilon = 32/255$	72.5	72.5	48.9	76.4
		40	$\epsilon = 40/255$	78.5	78.5	43.9	73.4
	Pixel Attack	40	$\epsilon = 48/255$	90.5	90.5	45.1	73.5
		40	$\epsilon = 56/255$	72.0	72.0	39.5	69.3
		40	$\epsilon = 64/255$	84.5	84.5	48.9	71.6
		40	$p=32$	85.0	85.0	50.7	78.4
	Corner Attack	40	$p=40$	83.5	83.5	45.3	74.7
DALLE-3		40	$p=48$	95.0	95.0	44.1	73.8
		40	$p=56$	85.0	85.0	43.3	71.9
		40	$p=64$	88.0	88.5	43.8	71.4
		40	$b=6$	95.5	95.5	46.6	76.0
		40	$b=7$	87.0	87.0	51.9	78.9
	Border Attack	40	$b=8$	96.5	96.5	44.6	74.2
		40	$b=9$	87.0	87.0	42.6	73.1
		40	$b=10$	89.0	89.0	45.7	75.1

 Table 13: Performance on different ensemble sample sizes across three datasets. The universal adversarial perturbations are generated using the border attack with $b = 6$. Default trigger and target are used.

Dataset	Sample	With Trigger			Without Trigger
	Size	ExactMatch \uparrow	Contain \uparrow	BLEU@4 \uparrow	ROUGE_L ↑
	40	89.5	89.5	45.1	73.1
	80	88.5	88.5	50.0	76.7
VQAv2	120	91.5	91.5	50.9	76.3
	160	98.5	98.5	51.1	75.5
	200	96.5	96.5	56.0	79.8
	40	95.0	95.0	41.4	61.3
	80	90.0	90.0	38.3	58.5
SVIT	120	97.5	97.5	40.2	59.5
	160	93.5	93.5	41.5	61.6
	200	98.0	98.0	42.4	61.5
	40	95.5	95.5	46.6	76.0
	80	100.0	100.0	45.3	75.0
DALLE-3	120	100.0	100.0	42.5	74.0
	160	99.0	99.0	41.3	72.0
	200	86.5	86.5	53.7	79.6

 Trigger and Target Phrases. The ablation studies of the impact of trigger and target selection on our AnyDoor attack on the VQAv2 dataset are demonstrated in the main paper. Table [15](#page-23-1) and Table [16](#page-24-1) show additional results on SVIT and DALLE-3 datasets. As observed, our AnyDoor attack maintains effectiveness in the other two datasets. For example, the lowercase trigger can activate the universal adversarial perturbations designed for an uppercase trigger. In addition, clearly defined triggers enhance effectiveness and the attack performance is unaffected by trigger placement. However, when targeting complex function-calling strings on the SVIT and DALLE datasets, we find a complete failure to launch an attack. The observed failure to initiate attacks is due to the inadequacy of the applied 500-PGD step optimization process. To improve the attack's effectiveness, consider increasing the number of optimization iterations. Furthermore, this emphasizes the importance of meticulous parameter calibration, specifically tailored to the varying complexities of different datasets, to achieve the desired attack success rates.

1243 1244 1245 Table 14: Performance on different loss weights w_1 and w_2 across three datasets. The universal adversarial perturbations are generated using the border attack with $b = 6$. Default trigger and target are used.

1263 1264 1265 Table 15: Performance on different trigger-target pairs. The universal adversarial perturbations are generated on **SVIT** using the border attack with $b = 6$. Underlined values represent the average performance of randomly selected pairs detailed in Table [17.](#page-26-0)

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1278 1279 1280 Figure [6](#page-24-0) presents visualizations of adversarial examples produced by our AnyDoor attack, utilizing refined strategies such as border, corner, or pixel attacks, alongside a range of perturbation budgets. Further demonstrations of the attack's success are depicted in Figure [7.](#page-25-0)

1281 1282 1283 1284 1285 While our experiments confirm the effectiveness of our method, they also reveal certain vulnerabilities. For instance, Figure [8](#page-25-1) demonstrates two types of failure scenarios: one where the model erroneously generates the target string in the absence of a trigger, and another where the model does not produce the target string even when the trigger is present in the question.

D ALGORITHM

The detailed basic process of our proposed AnyDoor with the border attack is described in Algorithm [1.](#page-25-2)

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1302 1303 1304 Table 16: Performance on different trigger-target pairs. The universal adversarial image is generated on **DALLE-3** using the border attack with $b = 6$. Underlined values represent the average performance of randomly selected pairs detailed in Table [17.](#page-26-0)

Setting	Trigger	Target	With Trigger		Without Trigger	
			ExactMatch \uparrow Contain \uparrow		BLEU@4 ↑	
Default Setting	SUDO	I want to destroy the	95.5	95.5	46.6	
Trigger Case Sensitivity	SUDO/sudo	I want to destroy the	78.0	78.0	46.6	
Trigger Text Distortion Trigger Extension	\$#% TTBA start!	I want to destroy the I want to destroy the	72.0 91.5	72.0 91.5	52.9 48.0	
Trigger Random Placement	**SUDO**	I want to destroy the	92.0	92.0	16.8	
Target Brevity	SUDO	Go to hell!	97.0	97.0	49.9	
Target Function Call	SUDO	[{"func_name":"delete account"}]	0.0	0.0	57.9	
Random Trigger-Target Pairing	10 random triggers	10 random targets	90.6	90.8	45.1	
Border Attack $(b = 6)$	Border Attack $(b = 7)$	Border Attack $(b = 8)$	Border Attack $(b = 9)$		Border Attack $(b = 10)$	
Corner Attack $(p = 32)$	Corner Attack $(p = 40)$	Corner Attack $(p = 48)$	Corner Attack $(p = 56)$		Corner Attack $(p = 64)$	
Pixel Attack	Pixel Attack	Pixel Attack	Pixel Attack		Pixel Attack	
$(\epsilon = 32/255)$	$(\epsilon = 40/255)$	$(\epsilon = 48/255)$	$(\epsilon = 56/255)$		$(\epsilon = 64/255)$	

Figure 6: Visualization of adversarial examples generated by our proposed AnyDoor attack, using different attacking strategies (border, corner, or pixel) and perturbation budgets.

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Figure 7: Additional demonstrations of our AnyDoor attack with the border attack strategy.

Figure 8: Two failure cases from our experiments: The first case shows the model incorrectly generating the target string without the presence of a trigger in the question. The second case illustrates that our attack fails to manipulate the model into generating the target string when the question contains the trigger.

- 1: **Input:** MLLM M, trigger T , target string A^{harm} , ensemble samples $\{(\mathbf{V}_k, \mathbf{Q}_k)\}_{k=1}^K$.
- 2: Input: The learning rate (or step size) η , batch size B, PGD iterations T, momentum factor μ , perturbation mask M.
- 3: Output: An universal adversarial perturbation $\mathcal A$ with the constraint $\|\mathcal A \odot (1 M)\|_1 = 0$. 4: $g_0 = 0; \mathcal{A}_k^* = 0$
- 5: for $t = 0$ to $T 1$ do

6: Sample a batch from $\{(\mathbf{V}_k, \mathbf{Q}_k)\}_{k=1}^K$

- 7: Compute the loss $\mathcal{L}_1(\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}_t^*(\mathbf{V}_k), \mathcal{T}(\mathbf{Q}_k)); \mathcal{A}^{\text{harm}})$ in the *with-trigger* scenario
- 8: Compute the loss $\mathcal{L}_2(\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A}_t^*(\mathbf{V}_k), \mathbf{Q}_k); \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{V}_k, \mathbf{Q}_k))$ in the *without-trigger* scenario
- 9: Compute the loss $\mathcal{L} = w_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_1 + w_2 \cdot \mathcal{L}_2$
- 10: Obtain the gradient $\nabla_{\mathcal{A}^*_{\tau}} \mathcal{L}$
- 11: Update g_{t+1} by accumulating the velocity vector in the gradient direction as $g_{t+1} = \mu \cdot g_t +$ $\frac{\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{A}}_t^*}\mathcal{L}}{\|\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{A}}_t^*}\mathcal{L}\|_1}\odot \mathbf{M}$ $\mathcal{A}_{t}^{*{\mathcal{L}}}$
- 12: Update \mathcal{A}_{t+1}^* by applying the gradient as $\mathcal{A}_{t+1}^* = \mathcal{A}_t^* + \eta \cdot \text{sign}(g_{t+1})$
- **1401** 13: end for
- **1402 1403** 14: return: $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}^*_{T}$

