Certifiable Robustness Against Patch Attacks Using an ERM Oracle

Abstract

Consider patch attacks, where at test-time an adversary manipulates a test image with a patch in order 1 to induce a targeted mis-classification. We consider a recent defense to patch attacks, Patch-Cleanser 2 (Xiang et al., 2022). The Patch-Cleanser algorithm requires a prediction model to have a "two-mask 3 correctness" property, meaning that the prediction model should correctly classify any image when 4 any two blank masks replace portions of the image. To this end, Xiang et al. (2022) learn a prediction 5 6 model to be robust to two-mask operations by augmenting the training set by adding pairs of masks at random locations of training images, and performing empirical risk minimization (ERM) on the 7 augmented dataset. However, in the non-realizable setting when no predictor is perfectly correct on 8 all two-mask operations on all images, we exhibit an example where ERM fails. To overcome this 9 challenge, we propose a different algorithm that provably learns a predictor robust to all two-mask 10 operations using an ERM oracle, based on prior work by Feige et al. (2015a). 11

12 1. Introduction

Patch attacks (Brown et al., 2017; Karmon et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2020) are an important threat 13 model in the general field of test time evasion attacks (Goodfellow et al., 2014). In a patch attack, the 14 adversary replaces a contiguous block of pixels with an adversarially crafted pattern. Patch attacks 15 16 can realize physical world attacks to computer vision systems by printing and attaching a patch into 17 an object. To secure performance of computer vision systems against patch-attacks, there has been an active line of research for providing certifiable robustness against them (see e.g., McCoyd et al., 18 2020; Xiang et al., 2020; Xiang and Mittal, 2021; Metzen and Yatsura, 2021; Zhang et al., 2020; 19 Chiang et al., 2020). 20

Xiang et al. (2022) recently proposed a state-of-the-art algorithm called Patch-Cleanser that can 21 22 provably defend against patch attacks. The high level idea of the Patch-Cleanser algorithm is to 23 robustly remove all adversarial pixels of an input image in order to obtain accurate predictions. The main difficulty is that the patch location is unknown. One naive solution is to place a mask at all 24 possible locations of an input image. As long as the masks are large enough, at least one of the masks 25 would cover the patch and remove the adversarial effects of the patch so that the prediction model can 26 induce a correct classification on the input image. However, it is challenging to distinguish between 27 this correct prediction and the predictions on the other masked images. To overcome this challenge, 28 they use a second mask. For each of the one-masked images produced in the first step, they add a 29 second mask at all possible locations. For each one-masked image, if for all possible locations of the 30 second mask, the prediction model outputs the same classification, it means that the first mask was 31 removing the patch, and the agreed-upon prediction is correct. Also, any disagreements implies the 32 contrary. 33

Crucially, the Patch-Cleanser algorithm relies on a *two-mask correctness* assumption of the prediction model that is defined as follows: for a given input (x, y), if for any pair of masks applied to x, a prediction model F outputs the correct prediction y, then F has two-correctness property on (x, y)(see Xiang et al. (2022, Definition 2)). They show as long as the two-mask correctness property holds, their double-masking algorithm guarantees robustness against patch attacks on the input image (x, y).

In order to train a model with the two-mask correctness property, Xiang et al. (2022) use a heuristic data-augmentation approach as follows. They add pairs of masks at random locations to training images and learn a model that predicts correctly on the masked-images using *empirical risk*

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 minimization.

However, we argue that in the non-realizable setting, when no predictor achieves zero robust loss, *this approach can fail*. Intuitively, an ERM oracle does not distinguish between distributing error over
 a few perturbations (i.e. masked-out variations) of many input images versus concentrating many
 mistakes on the perturbations of few input images. However, in the latter case, the robust loss can be

47 much higher than the former case. To wit, to obtain high robust loss the adversary only needs one

48 successful perturbation per clean image. If some input images have many perturbations that fool the 49 classifier, but most input images have none, then the adversary cannot obtain high robust loss. We

want to be in the second case. We have included a schematic demonstrating this failure mode in A.4.

⁵¹ Our main contribution is an algorithm to learn a predictor that is robust to a set of masking operations

⁵² (resulting from the two-mask), using an ERM oracle. The algorithm is based on prior work due to

⁵³ Feige et al. (2015b), but the analysis and application are novel in this work. Combining our algorithm

⁵⁴ with Patch-Cleanser yields a predictor that is provably robust to adversarial patch attacks.

Setup and Notation Let \mathcal{X} denote the instance space and \mathcal{Y} denote the label space. Our main objective is to be robust against adversarial patches $\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{X} \to 2^{\mathcal{X}}$, where $\mathcal{A}(x)$ represents the (potentially infinite) set of adversarially patched images that an adversary might attack with at test-time. Xiang et al. (2022) showed that even though the space of adversarial patches \mathcal{A} can be exponential or infinite, one can consider a "covering" set $\mathcal{U} : \mathcal{X} \to 2^{\mathcal{X}}$ of masking operations on images where $|\mathcal{U}(x)|$ is polynomially finite.

set $\mathcal{U}: \mathcal{X} \to 2^{\mathcal{X}}$, where $\mathcal{U}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ is the set of allowed masking operations that can be performed on x. We assume that $\mathcal{U}(x)$ is finite where $|\mathcal{U}(x)| \leq k$. Let $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$ be a hypothesis class, and denote by $vc(\mathcal{H})$ its VC dimension. Let ERM_{\mathcal{H}} be an ERM oracle for \mathcal{H} . For any set arbitrary set

65 W, denote by $\Delta(W)$ the set of distributions over W. $\mathsf{OPT}_{\mathcal{H}}$ is defined as follows:

$$\mathsf{OPT}_{\mathcal{H}} \triangleq \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \mathbb{E} \max_{(x,y) \sim \mathcal{D}} \max_{z \in \mathcal{U}(x)} \mathbb{1} \left[h(z) \neq y \right].$$
(1)

66 2. Main Result: Minimizing Robust Loss Using an ERM Oracle

In this section, we present our main contribution: an algorithm to learn a predictor that is simulta-67 neously robust to a set of (polynomially many) masking operations, using an ERM_H oracle. The 68 algorithm is based on prior work due to Feige et al. (2015b), but the analysis and application are novel 69 in this work. The main interesting feature of this algorithm is that it achieves stronger robustness 70 guarantees in the non-realizable regime when $\mathsf{OPT}_{\mathcal{H}} \gg 0$, where the approach of Xiang et al. (2022) 71 — as we highlighted in the introduction — of calling $\mathsf{ERM}_{\mathcal{H}}$ on the inflated dataset: original training 72 points plus all possible perturbations resulting from the allowed masking operations, can provably 73 fail (see e.g., A.4). 74

Algorithm 1: Feige, Mansour, and Schapire (2015b)

Input: weight update parameter $\eta > 0$, number of rounds T, and training dataset

 $S = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\}.$

1 Set $w_1(z, (x, y)) = 1$, for each $(x, y) \in S, z \in \mathcal{U}(x)$.

2 Set
$$P^1(z, (x, y)) = \frac{w_1(z, (x, y))}{\sum_{z' \in \mathcal{U}(x)} w_1(z', (x, y))}$$
, for each $(x, y) \in S, z \in \mathcal{U}(x)$.

3 for each $t \leftarrow 1$ to T do

⁷⁵4 Call ERM on the empirical weighted distribution:

 $h_t = \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{(x,y) \in S} \sum_{z \in \mathcal{U}(x)} \frac{1}{m} P^t(z,(x,y)) \mathbb{1} [h_t(z) \neq y].$

5 for each
$$(x, y) \in S$$
 and $z \in \mathcal{U}(x)$ do

6
$$| w_{t+1}(z, (x, y)) = (1 + \eta \mathbb{1}[h_t(z) \neq y]) \cdot w_t(z, (x, y))$$

7
$$P^{t+1}(z, (x, y)) = \frac{w_t(z, (x, y))}{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} w_t(z', (x, y))}$$

Output: The majority-vote predictor $MAJ(h_1, \ldots, h_T)$.

Theorem 1. Set $T(\epsilon) = \frac{32 \ln k}{\epsilon^2}$ and $m(\epsilon, \delta) = O\left(\frac{\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})(\ln k)^2}{\epsilon^4} \ln\left(\frac{\ln k}{\epsilon^2}\right) + \frac{\ln(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$. Then, for any distribution \mathcal{D} over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$ over $S \sim \mathcal{D}^{m(\epsilon, \delta)}$, running Algorithm 1 for $T(\epsilon)$ rounds produces $h_1, \ldots, h_{T(\epsilon)}$ satisfying:

$$\mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim\mathcal{D}}\left[\max_{z\in\mathcal{U}(x)}\mathbb{1}\left[\mathrm{MAJ}(h_1,\ldots,h_{T(\epsilon)})(z)\neq y\right]\right]\leq 2\mathsf{OPT}_{\mathcal{H}}+\epsilon.$$

Comparison with prior related work As presented, Feige et al. (2015b) only considered *finite* 79 hypothesis classes \mathcal{H} and provided generalization guarantees depending on $\log |\mathcal{H}|$. On the other 80 hand, we consider here infinite classes \mathcal{H} with bounded VC dimension and provide tighter robust 81 generalization bounds. The robust learning guarantee (Attias et al., 2022, Theorem 2) assumes access 82 to a robust ERM oracle, which minimizes the robust loss on the training dataset. On the other hand, 83 at the expense of higher sample complexity, we provide a robust learning guarantee using only an 84 ERM oracle in the challenging non-realizable setting. Prior work due to Montasser et al. (2020) 85 considered using an ERM oracle for robust learning but only in the simpler realizable setting (when 86 $\mathsf{OPT}_{\mathcal{H}} = 0$). 87

Before proceeding with the proof Theorem 1, we describe now at a high-level the proof strategy. The main insight is to solve a finite zero-sum game. In particular, our goal is to find a mixed-strategy over the heat factor of the state of the solution of the solution

⁹⁰ the hypothesis class that is approximately close to the value of the game:

$$\mathsf{OPT}_{S,\mathcal{H}} \triangleq \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \max_{z_i \in \mathcal{U}(x_i)} \mathbb{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right]$$

We observe that Algorithm 1 due to (Feige et al., 2015b) solves a similar finite zero-sum game
(see Lemma 3), and then we relate it to the value of the game we are interested in (see Lemma 2). Combined together, this only establishes that we can minimize the robust loss on the empirical
dataset using an ERM oracle. We then appeal to uniform convergence guarantees for the robust loss
in Lemma 4 to show that, with large enough training data, our output predictor achieves robust risk
that is close to the value of the game.

97 **Lemma 2.** For any data set $S = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\} \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^m$,

$$\mathsf{OPT}_{S,\mathcal{H}} = \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \max_{z_i \in \mathcal{U}(x_i)} \mathbb{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \ge \min_{Q \in \Delta(\mathcal{H})} \max_{P_1 \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_1)), \dots, P_m \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_m))} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{z_i \sim P_i} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \right].$$

Lemma 3 (Feige, Mansour, and Schapire (2015b)). For any data set $S = \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_m, y_m)\} \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^m$, running Algorithm 1 for T rounds produces a mixed-strategy $\hat{Q} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} h_t \in \Delta(\mathcal{H})$ satisfying:

$$\max_{P_1 \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_1)), \dots, P_m \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_m))} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{z_i \sim P_i}^m \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{1} \left[h_t(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \le \\\min_{Q \in \Delta(\mathcal{H})} \max_{P_1 \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_1)), \dots, P_m \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_m))} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{z_i \sim P_i} \sum_{h \sim Q} \mathbb{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right] + 2\sqrt{\frac{\ln k}{T}}.$$

Lemma 4 (VC Dimension for the Robust Loss (Attias et al., 2022)). For any class \mathcal{H} and any \mathcal{U} such that $\sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |\mathcal{U}(x)| \leq k$, denote the robust loss class of \mathcal{H} with respect to \mathcal{U} by

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\mathcal{U}} = \left\{ (x, y) \mapsto \max_{z \in \mathcal{U}(x)} \mathbb{1} \left[h(z) \neq y \right] : h \in \mathcal{H} \right\}.$$

103 Then, it holds that $\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\mathcal{U}}) \leq O(\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})\log(k)).$

¹⁰⁴ We are now ready to proceed with the proof of Theorem 1.

Proof Let $S \sim \mathcal{D}^m$ be an iid sample from \mathcal{D} , where the size of the sample m will be determined

later. By invoking Lemma 3 and Lemma 2, we observe that running Algorithm 1 on S for T rounds, produces h_1, \ldots, h_T satisfying

$$\max_{P_1 \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_1)), \dots, P_m \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_m))} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{E}_{z_i \sim P_i} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{1} \left[h_t(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \le \mathsf{OPT}_{S, \mathcal{H}} + \frac{\epsilon}{4}.$$

Next, the average robust loss for the majority-vote predictor $MAJ(h_1, \ldots, h_T)$ can be bounded from 108 above as follows 109

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\max_{z_{i}\in\mathcal{U}(x_{i})}\mathbbm{1}\left[\mathrm{MAJ}(h_{1},\ldots,h_{T})(z_{i})\neq y_{i}\right]\\ &\leq \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\max_{z_{i}\in\mathcal{U}(x_{i})}2\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{t\sim[T]}\mathbbm{1}\left[h_{t}(z_{i})\neq y_{i}\right]\\ &= 2\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\max_{z_{i}\in\mathcal{U}(x_{i})}\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}\mathbbm{1}\left[h_{t}(z_{i})\neq y_{i}\right]\\ &\leq 2\max_{P_{1}\in\Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_{1})),\ldots,P_{m}\in\Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_{m}))}\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\sum_{z_{i}\sim P_{i}}\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}\mathbbm{1}\left[h_{t}(z_{i})\neq y_{i}\right]\\ &\leq 2\mathsf{OPT}_{S,\mathcal{H}}+\frac{\epsilon}{2}. \end{split}$$

Next, we invoke Lemma 4 to obtain a uniform convergence guarantee on the robust loss. In particular, 110 we apply Lemma 4 on the *convex-hull* of \mathcal{H} : $\mathcal{H}^T = \{MAJ(h_1, \dots, h_T) : h_1, \dots, h_T \in \mathcal{H}\}$. By a classic result due to Blumer, Ehrenfeucht, Haussler, and Warmuth (1989), it holds that $vc(\mathcal{H}^T) =$ 111 112 $O(\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})T \ln T)$. Combining this with Lemma 4 and plugging-in the value of $T = \frac{32 \ln k}{\epsilon^2}$, we get that the VC dimension of the robust loss class of \mathcal{H}^T is bounded from above by 113 114

$$\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}^T}^{\mathcal{U}}) \leq O\left(\frac{\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})(\ln k)^2}{\epsilon^2}\ln\left(\frac{\ln k}{\epsilon^2}\right)\right).$$

Finally, using Vapnik's "General Learning" uniform convergence (Vapnik, 1982), with probability at least $1 - \delta$ over $S \sim \mathcal{D}^m$ where $m = O\left(\frac{\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})(\ln k)^2}{\epsilon^4} \ln\left(\frac{\ln k}{\epsilon^2}\right) + \frac{\ln(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$, it holds that 115

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$$\forall f \in \mathcal{H}^T : \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim\mathcal{D}}\left[\max_{z\in\mathcal{U}(x)}\mathbb{1}\left[f(z)\neq y\right]\right] \leq \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m \max_{z_i\in\mathcal{U}(x_i)}\mathbb{1}\left[f(z_i)\neq y_i\right] + \frac{\epsilon}{4}$$

This also applies to the particular output $MAJ(h_1, \ldots, h_T)$ of Algorithm 1, and thus 117

$$\mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim\mathcal{D}}\left[\max_{z\in\mathcal{U}(x)}\mathbb{1}\left[\mathrm{MAJ}(h_1,\ldots,h_{T(\epsilon)})(z)\neq y\right]\right] \leq \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m \max_{z_i\in\mathcal{U}(x_i)}\mathbb{1}\left[\mathrm{MAJ}(h_1,\ldots,h_T)(z_i)\neq y_i\right] + \frac{\epsilon}{4}$$
$$\leq 2\mathsf{OPT}_{S,\mathcal{H}} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{4}.$$

Finally, by applying a standard Chernoff-Hoeffding concentration inequality, we get that 118 $\mathsf{OPT}_{S,\mathcal{H}} \leq \mathsf{OPT}_{\mathcal{H}} + \frac{\epsilon}{8}$. Combining this with the above inequality concludes the proof. 119 120

3. Conclusion 121

Per the call for papers, we discuss the scalability of our method, which depends on multiple factors. 122 123 As is argued/demonstrated empirically in the original Patch-Cleanser paper, their original defense scales to high resolution images. An additional strength of this research direction initiated by Patch-124 Cleanser and maintained by our approach is that it is *agnostic* to the network/structure of the model, 125 and can be applied as a module on top of any state-of-the-art model. The complexity of Algorithm 1 126 has two components, the complexity of the ERM Oracle and the number of iterations T. As noted 127 in Section 2, our algorithm makes $T = \Omega(\frac{\ln k}{\epsilon^2})$ oracle calls where $\ln k$ is the bit-complexity of the 128 perturbations and thus we are oracle-efficient. 129

In order to modify Xiang et al. (2022) to handle the case where two-mask correctness is not realizable, 130 we exhibit polynomial time algorithms for learning a classifier that satisfies the two-mask property 131 and analyze the provable robustness of this approach, based upon prior work by Feige et al. (2015a). 132 The key future work that we intend for the full version of this work includes an empirical evaluation 133 of this method and extensions to a new multi-group robustness notion. 134

135 Appendix A. Missing Proofs

136 A.1 Proof of Lemma 2

137 **Proof** By definition of $OPT_{S,\mathcal{H}}$, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{OPT}_{S,\mathcal{H}} &= \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \max_{z_i \in \mathcal{U}(x_i)} \mathbbm{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \\ &\geq \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \max_{z_1 \in \mathcal{U}(x_1), \dots, z_m \in \mathcal{U}(x_m)} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbbm{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \\ &\geq \min_{Q \in \Delta(\mathcal{H})} \max_{z_1 \in \mathcal{U}(x_1), \dots, z_m \in \mathcal{U}(x_m)} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbbm{E}_{h \sim Q} \mathbbm{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \\ &\geq \min_{Q \in \Delta(\mathcal{H})} \max_{P_1 \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_1)), \dots, P_m \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_m))} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbbm{E}_{z_i \sim P_i} \mathbbm{E}_{h \sim Q} \mathbbm{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right]. \end{aligned}$$

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140 A.2 Proof of Lemma 3

Proof By the minimax theorem and (Feige, Mansour, and Schapire, 2015b, Equation 3 and 9 in proof of Theorem 1), we have that

$$\max_{P_1 \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_1)), \dots, P_m \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_m))} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{E}_{z_i \sim P_i} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{1} \left[h_t(z_i) \neq y_i \right] \leq \min_{Q \in \Delta(\mathcal{H})} \max_{P_1 \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_1)), \dots, P_m \in \Delta(\mathcal{U}(x_m))} \mathbb{E}_{z_i \sim P_i} \mathbb{E}_{h \sim Q} \mathbb{1} \left[h(z_i) \neq y_i \right] + 2 \frac{\sqrt{\mathcal{L}^* m \ln k}}{T}$$

where $\mathcal{L}^* = \sum_{i=1}^m \max_{z \in \mathcal{U}(x_i)} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{1} [h_t(z) \neq y]$. By observing that $\mathcal{L}^* \leq mT$ and dividing both sides of the inequality above by m, we arrive at the inequality stated in the lemma.

146 A.3 Proof of Lemma 4

Proof By finiteness of \mathcal{U} , observe that for any dataset $S \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^m$, each robust loss vector in the set of robust loss behaviors:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_{\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\mathcal{U}}}(S) &= \left\{ (f(x_{1},y_{1}),\ldots,f(x_{m},y_{m})) : f \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\mathcal{U}} \right\} \\ \text{maps to a } 0\text{-}1 \quad \text{loss vector on the inflated set } S_{\mathcal{U}} &= \left\{ (z_{1}^{1},y_{1}),\ldots,(z_{1}^{k},y_{1}),(z_{2}^{1},y_{2}),\ldots,(z_{2}^{k},y_{2}),\ldots,(z_{m}^{1},y_{m}),\ldots,(z_{m}^{k},y_{m}) \right\}, \\ \Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(S_{\mathcal{U}}) &= \left\{ (h(z_{1}^{1}),\ldots,h(z_{1}^{k}),h(z_{2}^{1}),\ldots,h(z_{2}^{k}),\ldots,h(z_{m}^{1}),\ldots,h(z_{m}^{k})) : h \in \mathcal{H} \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, it follows that $|\Pi_{\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\mathcal{U}}}(S)| \leq |\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(S_{\mathcal{U}})|$. Then, by applying the Sauer-Shelah lemma, it follows that $|\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(S_{\mathcal{U}})| \leq O((mk)^{\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})})$. Then, by solving for m such that $O((mk)^{\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})}) \leq 2^{m}$, we get that $\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\mathcal{U}}) \leq O(\operatorname{vc}(\mathcal{H})\log(k))$.

151 A.4 ERM failure Example

152 Appendix B. Risk Analysis

Per the call for papers for this workshop, in this section we will include our risk analysis, which is a novel contribution for the authors. Some of this analysis is general to theory papers in robustness and



- Figure 1: $\{x_i\}$ are natural data points in blue and each is surrounded by their perturbed points in purple. Red means mis-classified points. The approach in this section is to solve the ERM on an inflated data-set consisting of natural points and their perturbations. Observe that both h_1 and h_2 have the same 0 1 loss on this toy data-set with four points but h_2 has much lower robust loss since it can correctly classify 3/4 of the original examples no matter what the adversary does, while for h_1 the adversary can perturb any point to induce a mis-classification
- some of it is specific to our work. Some of our risk analysis is based on discussion in Hendrycks and
 Mazeika (2022). This work attempts to mitigate existing risks due to patch attacks.

157 B.1 Short Term Risk of Patch Attacks

First, some discussion of the short term vulnerability of learned systems. Adversarial attacks of this nature lend themselves immediately to targeted attacks by malicious actors. For instance, if adversarial patch attacks remain a systemic flaw of vision models, and self driving cars with vulnerable vision systems are widely deployed, malefactors could dangerously target specific vehicles. Alternatively, if software to design universal adversarial patches continues to proliferate, then lone wolves could spread patches widely without a specific target and pose an acute and hard to mitigate risk to any driver.

In addition to acute harms caused by attackers using these systems, they could also delay or prevent the beneficial use of AI systems. This type of vulnerability could limit the reliance of automakers on vision systems or delay the implementation of self driving technology. While some of the safety benefits of self driving technology remain conjectural, something on the order of 50,000 Americans die per year in automotive accidents (NHTSA) and on the order of 1 million people annually WHO. There is a plausible argument that self driving technology can mitigate these risks by achieving super-human performance and consistent driving behavior.

Our work mitigates some of this patch risk by exhibiting an algorithm that can learn a classifier that competes with the global optima for this problem.

The most important limitation currently is we have not yet implemented an empirical evaluation. This is intended for a future version of this work.

176 B.2 Long Term Risk of Patch Attacks

We observe a key long term concern, the risk of catastrophic failures due to AI/ML based controllers subject to patch attacks or other perturbations. For instance while the author was writing this, they observed an advertisement in an undisclosed airport for 'AI for Air Traffic Control'. Safety critical systems increasingly have possibly vulnerable AI sub-systems. There are some efforts to integrate
 AI/ML techniques into nuclear command and control systems Lowther and McGiffin (2019).

Some of the hypothetical benefits of AI include possibly simplifying decision making for human actors by reducing information overload and giving them the time to make thoughtful choices Lowther and McGiffin (2019). If AI systems are too vulnerable Klare (2020), these benefits would be unrealized and some decision makers may remain stuck with sub-optimal choices. If patch attacks/adversarial attacks remain a credible threat and these control systems are deployed, that could have extreme consequences. For instance, if an early launch warning system had a satellite based vision component focused on missile silos, a patch attack could prevent early detection.

Alternatively, there is also a risk to continuing to use legacy and non-AI systems in that we may be stuck with poor human decision making or static systems.

Moving out in terms of generality, there are also questions raised by adversarial robustness about whether or not models can be relied upon to perform consistently, when subject to natural perturbations

¹⁹³ of distribution shift, and our work is progress in this direction.

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