Adversarial CAPTCHAs

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Abstract—Following the principle of to set one’s own spear against one’s own shield, we study how to design adversarial CAPTCHAs in this paper. We first identify the similarity and difference between adversarial CAPTCHA generation and existing hot adversarial example (image) generation research. Then, we propose a framework for text-based and image-based adversarial CAPTCHA generation on top of state-of-the-art adversarial image generation techniques. Finally, we design and implement an adversarial CAPTCHA generation and evaluation system, named aCAPTCHA, which integrates 10 image preprocessing techniques, 9 CAPTCHA attacks, 4 baseline adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods, and 8 new adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods. To examine the performance of aCAPTCHA, extensive security and usability evaluations are conducted. The results demonstrate that the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs can significantly improve the security of normal CAPTCHAs while maintaining similar usability. To facilitate the CAPTCHA security research, we also open source the aCAPTCHA system, including the source code, trained models, datasets, and the usability evaluation interfaces.

Index Terms—CAPTCHA, Adversarial Image, Deep Learning, Usable Security.

1 INTRODUCTION

CAPTCHA (Completely Automated Public Turing test to tell Computers and Humans Apart) is a type of challenge-response test in computing which is used to distinguish between human and automated programs (machines). The first generation of CAPTCHA was invented in 1997, while the term “CAPTCHA” was first coined in 2002 [1] [2]. Ever since its invention, CAPTCHA has been widely used to improve the security of websites and various online applications to prevent the abuse of online services, such as preventing phishing, bots, spam, and Sybil attacks.

Existing CAPTCHA Schemes. In general, existing popular CAPTCHAs can be classified into four categories:

(1) Text-based CAPTCHA. Text-based CAPTCHA schemes ask users to recognize a string of distorted characters with/without an obfuscated background [7] [8]. Due to its simplicity and high efficiency, text-based CAPTCHA is the most widely deployed and acceptable form up to now and in a foreseeable future [7] [8].

(2) Image-based CAPTCHA. Image-based CAPTCHA is another popular scheme which usually asks users to select one or more images with specific semantic meanings from a couple of candidate images [25]. It is motivated by the intuition that compared with a string of characters, images carry much richer information and have a larger variation space. Meanwhile, there are still many hard, open problems in image perception and interpretation, especially in the context of noisy environments. Thus, to some extent, image-based CAPTCHA is more secure than text-based CAPTCHA. Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge, a comprehensive comparative analysis on the security and usability of text- and image-based CAPTCHAs is still void. Recently, many variants of image-based CAPTCHAs were proposed, such as slide-based CAPTCHA which asks users to slide a puzzle to the right part of an image [58], click-based CAPTCHA which asks users to click specific semantic regions of an image [59], etc.

(3) Audio-based CAPTCHA. Audio-based CAPTCHA asks users to recognize the voice contents in a piece of audio [1] [2]. In most of the practical applications, audio-based CAPTCHA is often used together with text-based CAPTCHA as a complementary means, mainly because of the usability issue, especially for non-native users of the audio language.

(4) Video-based CAPTCHA. Video-based CAPTCHA is a new kind of CAPTCHA that asks users to finish a content-based video labeling task [54]. It is usually more complex and takes more time for users to correctly finish compared with other forms of CAPTCHAs. Thus, it is not widely adopted and seldom to see in practice.

There are also other different proposals for CAPTCHA design, e.g., game-based CAPTCHA [54] and inference-based CAPTCHA [57]. However, they are not widely deployed yet due to various reasons, e.g., security issues, accessibility limitations, and performance issues. In this paper, our study mainly focus on text- and image-based CAPTCHAs. The reason is evident: they are the most accepted and widely used CAPTCHAs up to now and in a foreseeable future. The study of their security and usability has more potential implications for practical applications.

Issues of CAPTCHAs and Motivation. Generally speaking, CAPTCHA can be evaluated according to its security performance, which refers to the strength and resilience of CAPTCHAs against various attacks, and usability perfor-
models, especially neural networks, are vulnerable to adversarial attacks. Researchers found that many machine learning tasks, as we discussed before, are facing challenges from both the security and the usability perspectives. It is desired to develop a new CAPTCHA scheme that achieves high security while preserving proper usability. Specifically, we have three main objectives in the design: (1) security, which implies that the developed CAPTCHAs can effectively defend against state-of-the-art attacks, especially the powerful deep learning based attacks; (2) usability, which implies that the developed CAPTCHAs should be usable in practice and maintain high user experience; and (3) compatibility, which implies that the proposed CAPTCHA generation scheme is compatible with existing text- and image-based CAPTCHA deployment and applications.

The same dilemma exists for image-based CAPTCHAs either. With the prosperity of machine learning research, especially recent deep learning progress, Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) have achieved impressive success in image classification/recognition, matching or even outperforming the cognitive ability of humans in complex tasks with thousands of classes [16]. Along with such progress, many DNN-based attacks have been proposed recently to crack image-based CAPTCHAs with very high success probability, as demonstrated by a large number of reports [31]. To defend against existing attacks, the intuition is to rely on high-level image semantics and develop more complex image-based CAPTCHAs, e.g., recognizing an image object by utilizing its surrounding context [30]. Leaving the security gains aside, such designs usually induce poor usability [1][2]. To make things worse, unlike text-based CAPTCHAs, it is difficult, if not impossible, for designers to generate specific images with required semantical meanings through certain rules. In other words, it is too labor-intensive to collect labeled images in large scale.

In summary, existing text- and image-based CAPTCHAs are facing challenges from both the security and the usability perspectives. It is desired to develop a new CAPTCHA scheme that achieves high security while preserving proper usability, i.e., seeks a better balance between security and usability.

Our Methodology and Contributions. To address the dilemma of existing text- and image-based CAPTCHAs, we start from analyzing state-of-the-art attacks. It is not surprising that most, if not all, of the attacks to text- and image-based CAPTCHAs are based on machine learning techniques, especially the latest and most powerful ones, which are mainly based on deep learning, typically, CNNs. This is mainly because the development of CAPTCHA attacks roots in the progress of machine learning research, as we discussed before.

On the other hand, with the progress of machine learning research, researchers found that many machine learning models, especially neural networks, are vulnerable to adversarial examples, which are defined as elaborately (maliciously, from the model’s perspective) crafted inputs that are imperceptible to humans but that can fool the machine learning model into producing undesirable behavior, e.g., producing incorrect outputs [39]. Inspired by this fact, is that possible for us to design a new kind of CAPTCHAs by proactively attacking existing CAPTCHA attacks, i.e., “to set one’s own spear against one’s own shield”?

Following this inspiration, we study the method to generate text- and image-based CAPTCHAs based on adversarial learning, i.e., text-based adversarial CAPTCHAs and image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs, that are resilient to state-of-the-art CAPTCHA attacks and meanwhile preserve high usability. Specifically, we have three main objectives in the design: (1) security, which implies that the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs can effectively defend against state-of-the-art attacks, especially the powerful deep learning based attacks; (2) usability, which implies that the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs should be usable in practice and maintain high user experience; and (3) compatibility, which implies that the generated adversarial CAPTCHA generation scheme is compatible with existing text- and image-based adversarial CAPTCHA deployment and applications.

Our main contributions can be summarized as follows. (1) Following our design principle, we propose a framework for generating adversarial CAPTCHAs on top of existing adversarial example (image) generation techniques. Specifically, we propose four text-based and four image-based adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods. Then, we design and implement a comprehensive adversarial CAPTCHA generation and evaluation system, named aCAPTCHA, which integrates 10 image preprocessing techniques, 9 CAPTCHA attacks, 4 baseline adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods, and 8 new adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods. aCAPTCHA can be used for the generation, security evaluation, and usability evaluation of both text- and image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs.

(2) To examine the performance of the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by aCAPTCHA, we conducted extensive security and usability evaluations. The results demonstrate that the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs can significantly improve the security of normal CAPTCHAs while maintaining similar usability.

(3) We open source the aCAPTCHA system at [60], including the source code, trained models, datasets, and the interfaces for usability evaluation. It is expected that aCAPTCHA can facilitate the CAPTCHA security research and can shed light on designing more secure and usable adversarial CAPTCHAs.

2 Background

In this section, we briefly introduce adversarial examples and the corresponding defense technologies.
2.1 Adversarial Example

Neural networks have achieved great performance on a wide range of application domains, especially image recognition. However, recent work has discovered that the existing machine learning models including neural networks are vulnerable to adversarial examples. Specifically, suppose we have a classifier $F$ with model parameters $\theta$. Let $x$ be an input to the classifier with corresponding ground truth prediction $y$. An adversarial example $x'$ is an instance in the input space that is close to $x$ according to some distance metric $d(x, x')$, and causes classifier $F_\theta$ to produce an incorrect output. Adversarial examples that affect one model often affect another model, even if the two models have different architectures or were trained on different training sets, as long as both models were trained to perform the same task [43].

Prior work that considers adversarial examples under a number of threat models can be broadly classified into two categories: white-box attacks where the adversary has full knowledge of the model $F_\theta$ including the model architecture and parameters, and black-box attacks, where the adversary has no or little knowledge of the model $F_\theta$. The construction of an adversarial example depends mainly on the gradient information of the target model. In the white-box setting [10], [11], [41], the gradient of the model is always visible to the attacker. Thus, it is easy for an attacker to generate adversarial examples. In the black-box setting [43], [44], [50], attackers cannot get gradient information directly. There are usually two ways to generate adversarial examples in this condition. The first one is to approximate the gradient information by query operations [50], i.e., sending an image to the target model and getting the output distribution. After many rounds of queries, attackers can approximate the target model’s gradient and generate adversarial examples. The second way is to take advantage of the transferability of adversarial examples [43]. As we mentioned above, adversarial examples that affect one model can often affect another model. An attacker could trains his own local model, generates adversarial examples against the local model by white-box methods, and transfers them to a victim model which he has limited knowledge. In the paper, we rely on the second method refers to the black-box setting to generate adversarial CAPTCHAs against machine learning based attacks.

2.2 Defense Methods

Due to the security threats caused by adversarial examples, improving the robustness of deep learning networks against adversarial perturbation has been an active field of research. Various defensive techniques against adversarial examples have been proposed. We roughly divide them into three categories.

(1) Adversarial Training [41], [45]. The idea is simple and effective. One can retrain neural networks directly on adversarial examples until the model learns to classify them correctly. This makes the network robust against the adversarial examples in the test set and improves the overall generalization capability of the network. However, it does not resolve the problem completely, as adversarial training can only be effective against specific adversarial example generation algorithms that are used in the retraining phase. Moreover, adversarial training has been shown to be difficult at a large scale, e.g., the ImageNet scale.

(2) Gradient Masking [42], [49]. This method tries to prevent an attacker from accessing the useful gradient information of a model. As we mentioned, the construction of an adversarial example depends mainly on the gradient information of the target model. Without useful gradient information, the attackers are hard to perform an attack. However, gradient masking is usually not effective against black-box attacks, because an adversary could run his attack algorithm on an easy-to-attack model, and transfers these adversarial examples to the hard-to-attack model.

(3) Input Transformation [47], [48], [51]. This kind of transformation method generally does not change the structure of a neural network. The main idea is to preprocess or transform the input data, such as image cropping, rescaling and bit-depth reduction, in order to remove adversarial perturbation, and then feed the transformed image through an unmodified classifier. This method is easy to circumvent by white-box attacks because attackers can modify the attack algorithm in the mirror, e.g., considering similar operations during adversarial examples generation. In the black-box attacks, it could provides good protection. However, input transformation cannot eliminate adversarial perturbation in the input data but only decreases the attack success rate.

In general, it is a fundamental problem that neural networks are vulnerable to adversarial perturbation. The existing defend methods are only to some extent mitigating the attack. Thus, dedicated in-depth research is expected in this area.

3 System Overview

In this section, we present the system architecture of aCAPTCHA, which is shown in Fig. 1. Basically, it consists of seven modules:

- **Image Preprocessing (IPP) Module.** In this module, we implement 10 widely used standard image preprocessing techniques for CAPTCHA security analysis, including 9 filters: BLUR, DETAIL, EDGE ENHANCE, SMOOTH, SMOOTH MORE, GaussianBlur, MinFilter, MedianFilter, and ModeFilter, and one standard image binarization method. Basically, all the preprocessing techniques can be used to remove the noise in an image.
Text-based CAPTCHA Attack (TCA) Module. In this module, we implement 5 text-based CAPTCHA attacks, including two traditional machine learning based attacks (SVM, KNN) and three state-of-the-art DNN-based attacks (LeNet [12], MaxoutNet [13] and NetInNet [14]). In aCAPTCHA, TCA has two main functions. First, it can provide necessary model information for generating text-based adversarial CAPTCHAs, i.e., for the following TCG module. Second, it can also be employed to evaluate the resilience of text-based CAPTCHAs against actual attacks.

Image-based CAPTCHA Attack (ICA) Module. Similar to TCA, we implement 4 state-of-the-art image-based CAPTCHA attacks in this module (NetInNet [14], VGG [15], GoogleNet [17] and ResNet [18]). It is used to provide necessary model information for generating image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs and for evaluating the resilience of image-based CAPTCHAs against actual attacks.

Text-based Adversarial CAPTCHA Generation (TCG) Module. In this module, we first implement 4 state-of-the-art adversarial image generation algorithms to TCA. We then, analyze the limitations of applying existing adversarial image generation techniques to generate text-based adversarial CAPTCHAs. Finally, according to our analysis, we propose 4 new text-based adversarial CAPTCHA generation algorithms.

Image-based Adversarial CAPTCHA Generation (ICG) Module. In this module, we first analyze the limitations of existing adversarial image generation techniques for generating image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs. Then, we implement 4 image-based adversarial CAPTCHA generation algorithms by improving existing techniques.

CAPTCHA Security Evaluation (CSE) Module. Leveraging TCA and ICA, this module is used to evaluate the resilience and robustness of text- and image-based CAPTCHAs against state-of-the-art attacks.

CAPTCHA Usability Evaluation (CUE) Module. This module is mainly used for evaluating the usability of text- and image-based CAPTCHAs.

aCAPTCHA takes a fully modular design, and is thus easily extendable. We can freely add emerging attacks to TCA/ICA and/or add new proposed adversarial CAPTCHA generation algorithms to TCG/ICG.

3.1 Datasets

In the remainder of this paper, for the text-based evaluation scenario, we employ MNIST (Modified National Institute of Standards and Technology database) [3]. MNIST is a large database of 70,000 handwritten digit images and is widely used by the research community as a benchmark to evaluate text-based CAPTCHA’s security and usability [8] [3].

For the image-based evaluation scenario, we employ another image benchmark dataset ImageNet ILSVRC-2012 (refers to the dataset used for 2012 ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge) [2] [5]. The employed ImageNet ILSVRC-2012 contains 50,000 hand labeled photographs from 1000 categories with 50 photographs from each category [2].

1. The used dataset here is a actually a subset of ImageNet ILSVRC-2012, which is sufficient for our purpose.

4 TEXT-BASED ADVERSARIAL CAPTCHAS

With the design goals in mind and following our design principle, we show the design of TCG step by step below.

4.1 Baselines

In fact, CAPTCHAs can be viewed as a special case of images. Then, following the design principle and goals, a straightforward idea is to generate text-based adversarial CAPTCHAs using exiting adversarial image generation techniques. Therefore, we implement 4 baseline adversarial image generation algorithms in TCG. Before delving to the details, we define some useful notations.

4.1.1 Notations

We first present necessary notations in the context of generating adversarial images. To be consistent with existing research, we use the same notation system as that in [11].

We represent a neural network as a function $F(x) = y$, where $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the input image and $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the corresponding output. Define $F$ to be the full neural network including the softmax function and let $Z(x) = z$ be the output of all the layers except the softmax. According to $y, F$, which can be viewed as a classifier, assigns $x$ a class label $C(x)$. Let $C'(x)$ be the correct label of $x$.

As in [10] [11], we use $L_p$ norms to measure the similarity of $x, x' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Then, $L_p = ||x - x'||_p = (\sum_i \sum_j |x_{i,j} - x'_{i,j}|^p)^{1/p}$. According to the definition, $L_2$ distance measures the Euclidean distance between $x$ and $x'$; $L_0$ distance measures the number of coordinates $i$ s.t. $x_{i,j} \neq x'_{i,j}$; and $L_\infty$ distance measures the maximum change to any of the coordinates, i.e., $||x - x'||_\infty = \max \{|x_{1,1} - x'_{1,1}|, \cdots, |x_{n,n} - x'_{n,n}|\}$.}

4.1.2 Baseline Methods

Recently, to generate adversarial examples (adversarial images in our context) against neural networks, many attacks have been proposed [40] [38]. For our purpose, those attacks can serve as our adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods. In TCG, we implement four state-of-the-art such attacks as our baseline methods.

JSMA. In [10], Papernot et al. proposed the Jacobian-based Saliency Map Attack (JSMA) to generate adversarial images. JSMA is a greedy algorithm. Suppose $l$ is the target class of image $x$. Then, to obtain $x'$ such that $x' \neq x$ and $C(x') = l$, JSMA follows the following steps: (1) $x^l = x$; (2) based on the gradient $\nabla Z(x^l)_i$, compute a saliency map in which each value indicates the impact of the corresponding pixel on the resulting classification; (3) according to the saliency map, select the most important pixel for modification to increase the likelihood of class $l$; and (4) repeat the above two steps until $C(x') = l$ or more than a set threshold of pixels have been modified.

Note that, JSMA is also capable for generating untargeted adversarial images. For that purpose, we only have to: (1) let $l = C(x)$ and change the goal as to find $x'$ such that $x' \neq x$ and $C(x') \neq l$; (2) select the pixel to mostly decrease the likelihood of class $l$ for modification.

2. Note that, $x$ is not necessary to be a square image. The setting here is for simplicity.
Carlini-Wagner Attacks. Aiming at generating high quality adversarial images, Carlini and Wagner in [1] introduced three powerful attacks tailored to $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$, respectively. Basically, all those three attacks are optimization-based and can be targeted or untargeted. Taking the untargeted $L_2$ attack as an example, it can be formalized as the optimization problem: minimize $||\delta|| + c \cdot F(x + \delta)$, such that $x + \delta \in [0, 1]^n$, i.e., for image $x$, the attack seeks for a perturbation $\delta$ that is small in length and can fool the classifier $F$ meanwhile. In the formalization, $c$ is a hyperparameter that balances the two parts in the objective function. The constraint implies that the generated adversarial image should be valid.

4.2 Analysis of Baselines

As discussed before, intuitively, it seems like that existing adversarial image generation algorithms, e.g., JSMA and Carlini-Wagner attacks, can be applied to generate adversarial CAPTCHAs directly. Following this intuition, we conduct a preliminary evaluation as follows: (i) Leveraging MNIST and standard CAPTCHA generation techniques [2], randomly generate 10,000 CAPTCHAs of length 4, i.e., each CAPTCHA is composed of 4 characters from MNIST; Denote these CAPTCHAs by set $C$. (ii) Suppose LeNet from TCA is the employed CAPTCHA attack. Then, use LeNet (trained using 50,000 CAPTCHAs for 20,000 rounds and with batch size 50) to attack the CAPTCHAs in $C$. The Success Attack Rate (SAR), which is defined as the portion of successfully recognized CAPTCHAs in $C$, is 95.87%; (iii) In terms of LeNet, generate the adversarial versions of the CAPTCHAs in $C$ using JSMA, $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$, denoted by $C_J$, $C_2$, $C_0$, and $C_\infty$, respectively. (iv) Use LeNet and possible preprocessing techniques from the IPP module to attack $C_J$, $C_2$, $C_0$, and $C_\infty$. The corresponding SARs are shown in Table 4, where “-” implies does not apply the corresponding preprocessing and $B$ denotes the image binarization processing.

From Table 4 we observe that without applying image preprocessing, the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by all the baseline algorithms can significantly reduce the SAR of LeNet, e.g., $L_2$ reduces the SAR of LeNet from 95.87% to 0%. This implies that the idea of applying adversarial CAPTCHAs to defend against modern attacks is promising.

However, unfortunately, without talking the usability, the security of these adversarial CAPTCHAs can be significantly affected by image preprocessing either. For instance, when attacking $C_\infty$, the SAR of LeNet is raised from 0% to 28.24% after applying the SMOOTH filter and to 94.15% after further applying image binarization, which is similar to its performance on normal CAPTCHAs. This implies that the perturbation in the adversarial CAPTCHAs can be removed by image preprocessing, i.e., the perturbations added by the baseline algorithms are not resilient/robust to image preprocessing.

We analyze the reasons from two aspects. From the perspective of breaking CAPTCHAs, text-based CAPTCHAs are monotonous compared with the image-based CAPTCHAs. Character shape is only useful information in text-based CAPTCHAs. Other information, such as character colors and background pictures, is useless. Thus, adversaries can employ multiple kinds of techniques, e.g., filtering and image binarization, to remove noise and irrelevant information. From the perturbation generation perspective, theoretically, pre-processing such as filtering and binarization can be bypassed with minor modification of adversarial example generation algorithm, e.g., adding another convolutional layer to the beginning of the neural network with one output channel that performs similar filtering [52]. However, such modification will hugely increase the noise added in CAPTCHAs. If we only consider filtering operation, the adversarial examples generated by minor modification would not affect human recognition. While we consider both filtering and binarization, the adversarial examples generated by minor modification are unable to recognize by human. Therefore, existing adversarial image generation techniques cannot keep the balance between usability and security for text-based CAPTCHAs.

4.3 Adversarial CAPTCHA Generation

In the previous subsection, we analyzed the limitations of existing techniques for generating adversarial CAPTCHAs. Aiming at generating more robust and usable text-based adversarial CAPTCHAs, we in this subsection proposed four new methods based on existing techniques.

Our design mainly follows two guidelines. First, according to our analysis, the perturbations added in the space domain are frail to image preprocessing. Therefore, we consider to add perturbations in the frequency domain. This is because space domain perturbation can be considered as local change of images while frequency domain perturbation is a kind of global change to images, which is more difficult to remove, i.e., frequency domain perturbation is intuitively more resilient to image preprocessing. Certainly, when conducting frequency domain perturbation, we should be aware of the possible impact on the usability.

Second, when generating adversarial CAPTCHAs, instead of trying to add human-imperceptible perturbations, we focus on adding human-tolerable perturbations. This will give us more freedom to design more secure and fast adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods. Specifically, based on JSMA, $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$, we propose 4 text-based adversarial CAPTCHA generation algorithms, denoted by JSMA$^f$, $L_2^f$, $L_0^f$, and $L_\infty^f$, respectively.

JSMA$^f$. We show the design of JSMA$^f$ in Algorithm 5. Basically, JSMA$^f$ follows a similar procedure as the untargeted JSMA. We remark the differences as follows. First, in Steps 3-4, we transform a CAPTCHA to the frequency domain by Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) and then compute a saliency map. This enables us to elaborately inject perturbations to a CAPTCHA in the frequency domain as expected.

Second, after transforming a CAPTCHA into the frequency domain, its high frequency part usually corresponds to the margins of characters and other non-vital information, while the low frequency part usually corresponds to the fundamental shape information of characters. Furthermore, as we indicated before, the changes made in the frequency domain induce global changes to an image. Therefore, to decrease possible impacts on the usability of a CAPTCHA, we introduce a mask matrix $\varphi$ in Algorithm 5 which has the same size with $x$. $\varphi$ has values of 1 in the high frequency part while 0 in the low frequency part. Then, as shown in
and JSMA. Therefore, we omit their algorithm descriptions main. The differences are the same as that between JSMA except that all the designs are finished in the frequency do-

L
similar procedures as that in

targeting to use user-tolerable instead of as little as possible accelerate the adversarial CAPTCHA generation process the candidate pixel and its neighbors would significantly very similar property and features. Therefore, modifying

\[ \text{Step 7.} \]

modify the candidate pixel and its neighbors as shown in

\[ \text{Third, after selecting the candidate modified pixel, in-} \]

stead of modifying one pixel each time as in JSMA, we

\[ \text{only considering to change the pixels in the high frequency part.} \]

Third, after selecting the candidate modified pixel, in- stead of modifying one pixel each time as in JSMA, we

\[ \text{modify them can break any adversarial CAPTCHA. This result is as} \]

\[ \text{expected and further demonstrates the advantage of applying} \]

\[ \text{adversarial CAPTCHAs to improve the security. (2) The} \]

\[ \text{generated CAPTCHAs by JSMA, L_2, L_0, or L_∞, none of} \]

\[ \text{them have very good transferability, i.e., the adversarial CAPTCHAs} \]

\[ \text{generated in terms of one neural network model are trans-} \]

\[ \text{ferable to another neural network or traditional machine learning models. This demonstrates the good robustness of} \]

\[ \text{the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by JSMA, L_2, L_0, and} \]

\[ \text{L_∞.} \]

\[ \text{Now, we go further by fully considering both image filtering and image binarization, Common operations in} \]

\[ \text{breaking text-based CAPTCHAs. Full results are shown in} \]

\[ \text{Table 3 from which we have the following observations. (1) For SVM and KNN, they cannot break any CAPTCHAs gen-} \]

\[ \text{erated by JSMA, L_2, L_0, or L_∞ even after image prepro-} \]

\[ \text{cessing. This implies adversarial CAPTCHAs can achieve very good security when against traditional machine learn-} \]

TABLE 1

Performance of baseline algorithms vs LeNet. The original SAR of LeNet is 95.87%.

| Filter          | JSMA | L_2 | L_0 | L_∞ |
|-----------------|------|-----|-----|-----|
| BLUR           | 0.00%| 13.93%| 0.00%| 1.38%| 0.00%| 83.30%|
| DETAIL         | 17.80%| 11.76%| 0.00%| 2.22%| 4.22%| 56.79%| 83.30%|
| EDGE ENHANCE   | 9.05%| 8.27%| 0.00%| 2.77%| 9.89%| 9.89%| 26.21%| 35.13%|
| SMOOTH         | 43.36%| 37.71%| 0.00%| 64.70%| 24.31%| 7.54%| 28.24%| 94.15%|
| SMOOTH MORE    | 37.71%| 40.46%| 0.00%| 37.71%| 20.84%| 10.79%| 19.27%| 88.58%|
| GaussianBlur   | 49.70%| 16.42%| 0.35%| 35.13%| 28.24%| 22.52%| 22.52%| 73.31%|
| MinFilter      | 0.15%| 1.38%| 0.05%| 0.11%| 0.02%| 0.07%| 0.06%| 0.15%|
| MedianFilter   | 24.31%| 68.99%| 0.05%| 28.24%| 17.80%| 12.81%| 12.81%| 68.99%|
| ModeFilter     | 20.84%| 30.40%| 0.00%| 22.52%| 30.40%| 32.69%| 0.05%| 40.46%|

4.4 Evaluation

Now, we evaluate the security performance of JSMA, L_2, L_0, and L_∞ and leave their usability evaluation in Section 7. Generally, the evaluation procedure is the same as that in Section 4.2. In all the evaluations of this subsection, we employ MNIST to randomly generate CAPTCHAs of length 4. For each attack in TCA, we use 50,000 normal CAPTCHAs for training. Specifically, for the DNN based attacks LeNet, MaxOut, and NetlnNet, the batch size is 50 and each model is trained for 20,000 rounds. For each scenario, we use 1000 CAPTCHAs for testing. When generating an adversarial CAPTCHA, we set the inner 8 x 8 area as the high frequency part while the rest as the low frequency part for mask φ. Each evaluation is repeated three times and their average is reported as the final result.

First, we evaluate the performance of JSMA, L_2, L_0, and L_∞ without any image preprocessing. To conduct this group of evaluations, we (i) leverage JSMA, L_2, L_0, and L_∞ to generate adversarial CAPTCHAs in terms of LeNet, MaxoutNet, and NetlnNet, respectively; and (ii) leverage the attacks in the TCA module to attack these adversarial CAPTCHAs, respectively. The results are shown in Table 2 where Normal indicates the SAR of each attack on the normal CAPTCHAs (non-adversarial versions).

From Table 2, we have the following observations. (1) All the attacks in TCA are very powerful when attacking normal CAPTCHAs. However, when they attack the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by JSMA, L_2, L_0, or L_∞, none of them can break any adversarial CAPTCHA. This result is as expected and further demonstrates the advantage of applying adversarial CAPTCHAs to improve the security. (2) The generated CAPTCHAs by JSMA, L_2, L_0, and L_∞ have very good transferability, i.e., the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated in terms of one neural network model are transferable to another neural network or traditional machine learning models. This demonstrates the good robustness of the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by JSMA, L_2, L_0, and L_∞.

Finally, we make an Inverse FFT (IFFT) for the CAPTCHA in the frequency domain and transform it back to the space domain as shown in Step 8.

L_2, L_0, and L_∞. Basically, L_2, L_0, and L_∞ follow the similar procedures as that in L_2, L_0, and L_∞ respectively, except that all the designs are finished in the frequency domain. The differences are the same as that between JSMA and JSMA. Therefore, we omit their algorithm descriptions here while implementing them in TCG.
ing model based attacks. (2) For the DNN based attacks LeNet, MaxoutNet, and NetInNet, they become more powerful along with image filtering and binarization and can break adversarial CAPTCHAs to some extent in several scenarios. Still, adversarial CAPTCHAs are obviously more secure than normal ones when considering the SAR rates of these attacks. Further, comparing the results in Table 3 with that in Table 1, the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by JSMA, L2, L0, and L∞ are also much more secure than the ones generated by JSMA, L2, L0, and L∞. (3) Similar as the previous evaluations, the adversarial CAPTCHAs maintain adequate transferability, which implies adversarial CAPTCHAs have stable robustness.

Finally, we discuss why the frequency-based methods perform better than space-based methods for text-based CAPTCHAs. According to the CAPTCHAs we generated (as shown in Fig 2), after adding noise in the frequency domain, the shape and edge of the character changes, which cannot be recovered by filtering and binarization. Furthermore, as we protect the low-frequency part of an image, the fundamental shape of the characters in CHAPTCHAs will not change. Thus, human can still recognize them easily. 

| Attack Model | Normal | LeNet | MaxoutNet | NetInNet |
|--------------|--------|-------|-----------|----------|
| SVM          | 87.51% | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
| KNN          | 83.81% | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
| LeNet        | 95.87% | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
| MaxoutNet    | 95.29% | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
| NetInNet     | 96.45% | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |

**TABLE 2**

Performance of JSMA, L2, L0, and L∞ (no image preprocessing).

| Attack Model | Filter + B | LeNet | MaxoutNet | NetInNet |
|--------------|------------|-------|-----------|----------|
| SVM, KNN     | BLUR       | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | DETAIL     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | EDGE ENHANCE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH MORE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | GaussianBlur | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MinFilter  | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MedianFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | ModeFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
| LeNet        | BLUR       | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | DETAIL     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | EDGE ENHANCE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH MORE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | GaussianBlur | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MinFilter  | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MedianFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | ModeFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
| MaxoutNet    | BLUR       | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | DETAIL     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | EDGE ENHANCE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH MORE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | GaussianBlur | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MinFilter  | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MedianFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | ModeFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
| NetInNet     | BLUR       | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | DETAIL     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | EDGE ENHANCE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH     | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | SMOOTH MORE | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | GaussianBlur | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MinFilter  | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | MedianFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
|              | ModeFilter | 0.00% | 0.00%     | 0.00%    |
5 **Image-based Adversarial CAPTCHAs**

5.1 ICG Design

For image-based adversarial CAPTCHA generation, we actually follow the same design principles as that for the text-based scenario. Furthermore, similar to the situation that existing adversarial image generation techniques are not suitable for generating text-based adversarial CAPTCHAs, they are not suitable for image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs either due to similar reasons. Existing adversarial image generation techniques are mainly targeting to attack neural network models by adding as less as possible (human- imperceptible) perturbations to an image. However, we are standing on the defensive side to generate adversarial CAPTCHAs to improve the security. This implies that we might inject as much as possible perturbations to an image-based adversarial CAPTCHA as long as it is user-recognizable. In addition, the adversarial example generation speed may not be a concern for existing techniques. Although it is not a main constraint for CAPTCHA generation neither, since we can generate the CAPTCHAs offline, we still expect to generate many CAPTCHAs in a fast way (since we may need to update our CAPTCHAs periodically to improve the system security). Therefore, we take efficiency as a consideration in adversarial CAPTCHA generation.

Image-based CAPTCHAs are also different from text-based ones. They carry much richer semantic information which enables researchers to develop more processing techniques. Therefore, we do not have to transform an image-based CAPTCHA to the frequency domain. To some extent, it is relatively easier to generate image-based adver-
We first evaluate the security of the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by JSMA, $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$ in the scenario of not considering any image preprocessing. The results are shown in Table 4. Normal implies the SAR of each attack against the normal CAPTCHAs, and in the rest of evaluation scenarios, we first generate adversarial CAPTCHAs in terms of the neural network model of an attack, e.g., VGG, and then using different attacks to attack them. Further, the default setting is $K = 50$ for JSMA, and $K = 100$ for $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$ (note that, in the original $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$, there is also a parameter to control the noise level. We denote it by $K$ for consistency in $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$). From Table 4, we have the following observations. First, for image-based CAPTCHAs, adversarial learning techniques can significantly improve their security. This further confirms our design principle: to set one’s own spear against one’s own shield. Second, the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs demonstrate adequate transferability, i.e., the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated in terms of one neural network model also exhibits good resilience to other attacks. Thus, they are robust.

Under the same settings with Table 4, we examine the security performance of JSMA, $L_2$, $L_0$, and $L_\infty$ against the attacks in ICA plus image preprocessing. Note that, since all the CAPTCHAs are color images, we do not consider image binarization here. We show the results in Table 5. Basically, same conclusions can be drawn from Table 5 as that from Table 4. In addition, we can find that image filtering has little impact on the security of the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by JSMA, $L_2$, $L_0$, or $L_\infty$, i.e., they are very robust.

Now, we consider the impact of different perturbation (noise) levels on the security of the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs. Taking JSMA as an example, we show partial results in Table 6 from which we make the following observations. First, in most of the scenarios, when adding more noise, better security can be achieved, which is consistent with our intuition. However, according to the results, such security improvement is slight in most of the cases. Second, as before, the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs are resilient and robust to various attacks.

### 6 Adaptive Security Analysis

In Sections 4 and 5, we evaluate the security performance of aCAPTCHA when attackers have no idea whether possible defense has been implemented. In this section, we analyze in depth the adaptive methods that could be applied against aCAPTCHA.

#### 6.1 Statement

In practical scenario, we assume the threat follows all of the following models.

**Knowledge of Adversarial Example Generation and Defense:** The attacker has full knowledge of adversarial example generation and defense schemes. They can get that information from the research community and other means.

**No Knowledge of CAPTCHA Generation:** The attacker can realize that the CAPTCHAs were updated by adding adversarial noise, while they do...
not know the specific model and method used to generate the adversarial CAPTCHAs.

No Access to the Source Images: The attacker can only access to all generated adversarial CAPTCHAs but not to their source. They have no knowledge about the particular image used for generating the adversarial CAPTCHAs.

From the aCAPTCHAs generation perspective, we do not know which model the attacker uses. From the attacker perspective, it is also reasonable to assume that they do not know the specific method we use. In summary, it is black-box attack versus black-box defense.

### 6.2 Adaptive Attack

When attackers are aware of the existence of the possible defense, they will try other state-of-the-art methods against adversarial CAPTCHAs. As we discussed in Section 2, there are three types of defensive techniques against adversarial examples: adversarial training, gradient masking and input transformation. Attackers can adopt these techniques to improve their attacks. We introduce one representative method for each type of defense respectively below.

**Ensemble Adversarial Training** [25]: This method augments a model’s training data with adversarial examples crafted on other static pre-trained models. As a result, minimizing the training loss implies increased the robustness to black-box attacks from some set of models. In particular, the model trained by this method won the first round of the NIPS 2017 competition on Defenses against Adversarial Attacks. We believe this method is one of the most powerful choice against adversarial CAPTCHAs.

**Defense Distillation** [42]: This method is a type of gradient masking based defense technique. Defensive distillation modifies the softmax function to include a temperature constant $T$:

$$
\text{softmax}(x, T)_i = \frac{e^{x_i/T}}{\sum_j e^{x_j/T}}
$$

First, training a teacher model on the training set, using softmax at temperature $T$. Then using the teacher model to label each instance in the training set with soft labels (the output vector from the teacher model), using softmax at temperature $T$. Finally, training the distilled model on the soft labels from the teacher model, again using softmax at temperature $T$. Distillation can potentially increase the accuracy on the test set as well as the robustness against adversarial examples.

**Thermometer Encoding** [47]: Actually, image binaryization and filtering are representative instances of input trans-
Adversarial

From Table 7, we set means we do not use adversarial examples crafted in Table 7, the examples to train a LeNet model. In Table 7, we use JSMA to generate adversarial CAPTCHAs. For ensemble adversarial training, we use

\[
\text{EnAdv. Training}^+ \quad 97.12\% \quad 48.61\% \quad 41.37\% \quad 39.35\% \quad 41.37\% \quad 5.35\% \quad 4.96\% \quad 6.77\% \quad 5.13\%
\]

Therm. Encoding 92.39\% 12.19\% 7.68\% 9.89\% 11.24\%

For example, for a 10-level thermometer encoding, we had \(\tau(0.57) = 1111100000\). Then we use thermometer encoding to train a model.

### 6.3 Evaluation

Generally, the evaluation procedure is the same as that in Section 4.4. In all the evaluations of this subsection, we employ MNIST to randomly generate CAPTCHAs of length 4. For each scenario, we use 1000 CAPTCHAs for testing. When generating an adversarial CAPTCHA, we set the inner 8 \times 8 area as the low frequency part while the rest as the high frequency part for mask \(\varphi\). Each evaluation is repeated three times and their average is reported as the final result.

Specifically, we use MaxoutNet to generate adversarial CAPTCHAs. For ensemble adversarial training, we use MaxoutNet, NetInNet and LeNet to generate adversarial examples by JSMA, \(L_2\), \(L_\infty\) and \(L_\infty\) respectively, and use these examples to train a LeNet model. In Table 7, EnAdv. Training means we do not use adversarial examples crafted on MaxoutNet, while EnAdv. Training\(^+\) do. For defense distillation, we set \(T\) as 100 which is the strong defense setting. For Thermometer Encoding, we set \(l\) as 16 which is the same as the original paper. In addition, image binaryization is used in all of the tests.

The results are shown in Table 7 from which we make the following observations. First, defense distillation which is based on gradient masking is not suitable to black-box defense. The result is consistent with our analysis that gradient masking is not an effective solution against black-box attacks. Second, thermometer encoding shows limited value to recognize adversarial examples. This may be due to the large perturbation we injected. Third, ensemble adversarial training largely improves the SAR, especially in the EnAdv. Training\(^+\) setting. However, in practice, attackers are hard to know what methods and models used in adversarial CAPTCHAs generation, which restricts the practical effect of ensemble adversarial training. Overall, the generated adversarial CAPTCHAs are resilient to state-of-the-art defense methods.

### 6.4 Discussion

Now, we would like to discuss why the results in this paper are better than previous work (the attacks based on the transferability of adversarial examples did not perform well). First, we stand on the defense side, and follow the rule to inject as much perturbation as possible when the adversarial CAPTCHAs remain human-tolerable. Large perturbation magnitudes usually cause stronger defense effect. Second, the recognition of CAPTCHAs is carried out by multiple recognition tasks simultaneously. When the success rate of a single recognition task decreases, the overall success rate will decrease exponentially. For example, when the successful recognition rate of a single character is 50\%, the expected successful recognition rate of the text-based CAPTCHAs of length four is 6.25\%, and the expected successful recognition rate of the text-based CAPTCHAs of length six is only 1.5\%.

Then we consider why the improved attacks based on state-of-the-art techniques is limited. We inject larger perturbation into CAPTCHAs, and input transformation, such as image rescaling and bit-depth reduction can only eliminate part of the perturbation. As a result, the remaining perturbation is still effective to downgrade the recognition model. Further, in this paper, we generate adversarial CAPTCHAs against the local model trained by ourselves, instead of attacking the target model directly. There is no widely accepted conclusion about the phenomenon that an adversarial example generated by one model is often misclassified by other models. The existing adversarial example defense strategies cannot perform well against transfer attacks, e.g., gradient masking based methods. Adversarial training, especially ensemble adversarial training, is regarded as the most effective defense strategy against black-box attacks. However, it requires the attacker to guess the methods and collect enough source images that are used in adversarial CAPTCHAs generation, which implies a large potential cost. Overall, existing adversarial example defense techniques are difficult, if not impossible, to break our adversarial CAPTCHAs.

In this section, we do not conduct further evaluation for image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs. This is due to that training models on ImageNet require lots of computation resources. Furthermore, we believe that image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs are more secure than text-based adversarial CAPTCHAs. On the one hand, image-based CAPTCHAs contain rich and important information which plays a key role in image classification. Thus, attackers cannot use radical image preprocessing, such as image binarization, and this increases the dimensionality of the space of adversarial examples. On the other hand, many state-of-the-art adversarial example detection techniques fail to or are hard to deploy on large-scale datasets, e.g., ImageNet. This enhances the security of image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs indirectly.
For each user, she/he will be asked to finish the evaluation data. Then, we recruit volunteer users to do the evaluation.

Finally, given the source image, we ask a user to recognize the target image from the candidate set. As shown in Section 5, we can control the noise level of JSMA with $K$. Hence, in this step, we set up five difficulty levels with $K = 10, 20, 30, 40, 50$, respectively. For each difficulty level, each user is asked to do 5 tasks.

Step 6: providing some feedbacks of the evaluation. After finishing the previous five steps, we will show the user her/his evaluation result, including how many tasks she/he failed, which task she/he failed, etc. Then, we ask feedbacks from the users by asking some questions, e.g., which CAPTCHA is more difficult to recognize?

For each task in Steps 2 and 3, if all the characters in a CAPTCHA are correctly recognized, we define that the task has been successfully finished. For each task in Steps 4 and 5, if a user can correctly select the target image, we define that the task has been successfully finished. After a user finished all the six steps, the results will be transferred to the website server. The visualization of adversarial CAPTCHAs used in test are shown in Figure 2.

**Ethical Discussion.** In our usability evaluation, human subjects are involved. Therefore, we consulted with the IRB office for potential ethical issues. Since we strictly limit ourselves to only collect necessary information and no Personal Identifiable Information (PII) is collected, our evaluation was approved by IRB.

### 7.2 Results and Analysis

After moving the usability evaluation website online, we finally recruit 125 volunteer users as shown in Table 8. Specifically, the users include 43 females and 82 males, and most of them have ages ranging from 16 to 30. Furthermore, almost all the users’ education levels are high school or higher. Following the evaluation procedure, all the 125 users successfully finished the evaluation ($\sim 90\%$ users finish the evaluation through smart phones). We then collect all the results to our server.

Based on the collected data, we show the main results in Table 8, where $i$ denotes the length of a text-based CAPTCHA, $K$ indicates the noise (difficulty) level of an...
Table 9
Usability of aCAPTCHA.

|                     | Normal $k = 4$ | Adversarial $k = 6$ | Normal $\kappa = 10$ | Adversarial $\kappa = 30$ | Adversarial $\kappa = 50$ |
|---------------------|---------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| Success rate        | 92.8%         | 67.2%               | 98.0%                | 80.0%                    | 80.0%                     |
| Average time        | 8.6s          | 9.7s                | 8.6s                 | 19.7s                    | 16.0s                     |
| Median time         | 7.1s          | 7.8s                | 6.2s                 | 10.9s                    | 9.4s                      |

For text-based CAPTCHAs, although the adversarial versions can significantly improve the security performance as shown in Section 4, their success rate of recognition also maintains a high level, which is only slightly lower than that of the normal versions. Meanwhile, it takes similar time for users to recognize normal and adversarial CAPTCHAs. These results suggest that text-based adversarial and normal CAPTCHAs have similar usability. In addition, given that long CAPTCHAs usually have better security than short ones \(^7\), we also find that long text-based CAPTCHAs cost more time for recognition and have a lower success rate than that of the short ones (consistent with our intuition). This implies that there is a tradeoff between security and usability.

For image-based CAPTCHAs, the advantage of adversarial versions is more evident. Adversarial CAPTCHAs have similar or even better success rates as the normal ones in all the cases. The success rates of adversarial CAPTCHAs with different noise (difficulty) levels are also similar. This suggests that image-based CAPTCHAs are more robust to adversarial perturbations. Given the obvious security advantage shown in Section 5, image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs is more promising compared to normal ones. Another interesting observation is that adversarial CAPTCHAs cost less time for recognition than the normal versions, which is a little bit out of our expectation. We conjecture the reasons as follows: (i) deliberately adversarial perturbation has little impact on the quality of images with respect to human recognition; and (ii) as the evaluation goes on, users become more and more familiar with the tasks. Thus, they can finish the tasks faster.

Now, we give a close look at the success rate of different users based on their statistical categories. The results are shown in Fig. 3. From Fig. 3, we can see that, in most of the scenarios, users from different statistical categories exhibit similar success rate over both adversarial and normal CAPTCHAs. This further demonstrates the generality of aCAPTCHA.

In summary, according to our evaluation, the CAPTCHAs generated by aCAPTCHA, especially the image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs, have similar usability as the normal versions. Recall the security evaluation of aCAPTCHA in Sections 4 and 5, they together demonstrate that aCAPTCHA is promising in addressing the dilemma of existing text- and image-based CAPTCHAs.

7.3 Further Analysis
Following the evaluation procedure, we ask some feedbacks of users after finishing the CAPTCHA recognition tasks. The first question is that which CAPTCHA is the most difficult one for recognition? The results are shown in Fig. 4.

- From Fig. 4(a), in the text-based context, we can find that 67% users think that adversarial and normal CAPTCHAs have similar difficulty, 19% users think that adversarial CAPTCHAs are more difficult for recognition, and interestingly, there are also 14% users think that the normal versions are more difficult. This indicates that adversarial CAPTCHAs do not increase the recognition difficulty obviously from the view of users.
- From Fig. 4(b), in the image-based context, we can find that the users that think adversarial context, we can find that the users that think adversarial and normal CAPTCHAs have similar difficulty take the largest
portion, saying 39%, while the other six options are varied from 5% to 17%. Still, no adversarial CAPTCHAs are obviously difficult than the normal versions. This again indicates that image-based adversarial and normal CAPTCHAs have similar difficulty.

In Step 6 of the evaluation, if a user has one or more failures in Steps 2-5, we will show her/him the failed tasks and ask a question “what is the most possible reason for this failure?” for each failed task. We also provide five choices for this question: incorrectly recognize the source image, cannot find the target image, find more than one target images, mistakes, and other reasons. After analyzing the collected data, we find that 24% users successfully finished all the CAPTCHA recognition tasks without any failure. For the rest of the users, their feedbacks are shown in Fig.5.

From Fig.5, we can find that most of the failures are caused by either cannot recognize the source image or cannot recognize the target image. We conjecture the main reason is that some of the randomly selected images from ILSVRC-2012 might be semantically improper, which are difficult to understand their semantical meanings and further distinguish them. Furthermore, most of the users finish the evaluation on their smart phones. The relatively small screens may harm the recognizability of images.

8 DISCUSSION

Remarks on aCAPTCHA. Different from traditional CAPTCHA designs, which are mainly focusing on defending against attacks in a passive manner, we design aCAPTCHA following a more proactive principle: to set one’s own spear against one’s own shield. Then, in terms of the model of state-of-the-art CAPTCHA attacks, we designed and implemented text- and image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs.

When implementing adversarial CAPTCHAs, we also follow a different methodology from that of existing adversarial image generation techniques. The main reason, as we discussed before, is because we stand on a different position. Existing adversarial image generation techniques focus on attacks in a hidden manner. For instance, some method may focus on generating an adversarial image which is only different from the original image in one pixel [19] (it is impossible for humans to identify such difference). In contrast, we follow the rule to inject as much perturbation as possible when the adversarial CAPTCHAs remain human-tolerable. By this way, we would find a better balance between CAPTCHA security and usability, which can be demonstrated by our evaluation results.

One thing deserves further emphasis is that: aCAPTCHA is not designed as a replacement while is designed as an enhancement of existing CAPTCHA systems. According to our design, aCAPTCHA can be seamlessly combined with the deployed text- and image-based CAPTCHA systems. The only change is to update the normal CAPTCHAs with their adversarial versions. Therefore, we believe aCAPTCHA has a great applicability. Actually, we have contacted with several Internet companies to introduce aCAPTCHA. They are all very interested with aCAPTCHA and two of them have shown the intention to integrate aCAPTCHA to their systems.

Finally, we believe open source is an important way to promote computer science research, especially in the CAPTCHA defense domain. Therefore, we make the aCAPTCHA system publicly available at [60], including the source code, trained models, datasets, as well as the usability evaluation interfaces.

Limitations and Future Work. As an attempt to design adversarial CAPTCHAs, we believe aCAPTCHA can be improved in many perspectives. We discuss the limitations of this work along with future work below.

First, in the design of aCAPTCHA, we only integrate the popular attacks to text- and image-based CAPTCHAs. Also, following our design principle, we propose and implement four text-based and four image-based adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods, respectively. Note that, all these designs and implementations are for demonstrating the advantages of adversarial CAPTCHAs. Furthermore, aCAPTCHA employs a modular design style, which is easy for new technique integration. Hence, we will add more attacks as well as more adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods to aCAPTCHA, especially the emerging techniques. We believe the open source nature will facilitate the improvement process of aCAPTCHA.

Second, as we discussed, adversarial CAPTCHAs expect human-tolerable instead of human-imperceptible perturbations. However, in our evaluation, we set the human-tolerable perturbation based on our experience and preliminary evaluation in our experiments, i.e., we do not have
a standard to quantify human-tolerable perturbation yet. Therefore, it is expected to conduct more dedicated research in understanding and quantifying the tradeoff between CAPTCHA security and usability.

Third, in the paper, we do not consider that CAPTCHAs were being outsourced to human labor. By design, CAPTCHAs are simple and easy to solve by humans while hard to solve by automated bots. This quality has made them easy to outsource to the global unskilled labor market. This type of attack is hard to prevent. The function of CAPTCHAs is only to distinguish between the machine and the human. We should to design complementary system to against human labor attack. This task is another interesting future research topic.

9 RELATED WORK

9.1 Traditional CAPTCHAs

Text-based CAPTCHAs. The robustness of text-based CAPTCHAs is always an active research field. In [23], Chellapilla and Simard studied the security of early text-based CAPTCHAs and proposed an effective machine learning based attack to break them. In [7], Bursztein et al. conducted a systematic study on the security of text-based CAPTCHAs with anti-segmentation techniques. In [22], Yan and Ahmad found that the Crowding Characters Together (CCT) mechanism could improve the security of CAPTCHAs. However, such kind of security mechanisms are broken soon by a group of attacks that leverage better machine learning techniques [21][20]. Recently, Gao et al. demonstrated another simple yet powerful machine learning based attack that can break a wide range of text-based CAPTCHAs. In a word, text-based CAPTCHA attacks continuously emerging while the defense research is far from enough.

Image-based CAPTCHAs. As another popular topic, image-based CAPTCHAs also draw a lot of attention [28][27][29]. In [25], Chew and Tygar proposed three image-based CAPTCHA schemes, which are still in wide use now. On the other hand, in [33], Golle developed a machine learning based attack against the Asirra CAPTCHA. Moreover, in [30], Zhu et al. systematically studied the design of image-based CAPTCHAs and showed an attack to break 12 existing CAPTCHA schemes. Following another track, Sivakorn et al. designed a novel attack that leverages online image annotation services and libraries [31]. Similar to the text-based CAPTCHA scenario, more defensive research is also expected to secure image-based CAPTCHAs.

Other CAPTCHAs. There are also many other forms of CAPTCHAs, such as audio-based CAPTCHAs [37], video-based CAPTCHAs [34], game-based CAPTCHAs [36], etc. However, those CAPTCHAs are not widely employed in practice mainly because of the usability issue. Furthermore, there also exist plenty of attacks that can break them [33][35][54].

9.2 Emerging CAPTCHAs

DeepCAPTCHA. In [59], Osadchy et al. introduced a new image-based CAPTCHA scheme which is designed to resist machine learning attacks. It adds Immutable Adversarial Noise (IAN) to the correctly classified images that deceive deep learning tools and cannot be removed using image filtering. However, DeepCAPTCHA is different from our approach. In general, DeepCAPTCHA is a new type of image-based CAPTCHA scheme which could provide high security. While our aCAPTCHA is designed to enhance the existing CAPTCHA schemes. Furthermore, the proposed IAN, which is resistance to filtering attack, cannot be used in text-based CAPTCHA generation. In this work, we consider more state-of-the-art adversarial example defense strategies and propose several new methods to generate text- or image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs.

reCAPTCHA. The reCAPTCHA service offered by Google is the most widely used CAPTCHA service. It is a new multi-stage CAPTCHA system [31]. At the first round of check-authentication, Google leverages information about user’s activities to correlate requests to users that have previously interacted with any of its services. If the user is deemed legitimate, he is not required to solve a challenge. Otherwise, the user needs to further solves the given text- or image-based CAPTCHA correctly. reCAPTCHA and aCAPTCHA do not conflict. aCAPTCHA can be used for further improving reCAPTCHA's security.

9.3 Defense Methods against Adversarial Examples

The robustness of machine learning models against adversarial examples is an active research filed recently. In [39], Szegedy et al. found that adversarial training increases the robustness of a model by augmenting training data with adversarial examples. In [46], Madry et al. showed that adversarially trained models can be more robust against white-box attacks if the perturbation during training closely maximizes the model’s loss. In [45], Tramer et al. proposed ensemble adversarial training, a technique that augments training data with perturbation transferred from other models. It can somehow make a model resist to black-box attacks.

Another way to defend against adversarial perturbation is input transformation. Without of changing the model structure, it tries to eliminate the perturbation in the input. Xu et al. [51] proposed feature squeezing, reducing the color bit depth and spatial smoothing. These simple strategies are inexpensive and can sever as complementary to other defenses. In [48], Guo et al. ensembled various input transformations to counter adversarial images. However, these methods are not strong when against white-box attacks, and can be broken by minor modifications [49]. Moreover, Athalye et al. [49] described that gradient masking is an incomplete defense to adversarial examples. Many state-of-the-art gradient masking schemes can be successfully circumvented by their attacks.

10 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we study the generation of adversarial CAPTCHAs. First, we propose a framework for generating text- and image-based adversarial CAPTCHAs. Then, we design and implement aCAPTCHA, a comprehensive adversarial CAPTCHA generation and evaluation system, which integrates 10 image preprocessing techniques, 9 CAPTCHA attacks, 4 baseline adversarial CAPTCHA
generation methods, and 8 new adversarial CAPTCHA generation methods, and can be used for the generation, security evaluation, and usability evaluation of adversarial CAPTCHAs. To evaluate the performance of aCAPTCHA, we conduct extensive experiments. The results demonstrate that the adversarial CAPTCHAs generated by aCAPTCHA can significantly improve the security of normal CAPTCHAs while maintaining similar usability. Finally, we open source aCAPTCHA to facilitate the CAPTCHA security research.

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