

1 **Additional Experiments (AE).** Beyond the generation of per-image and universal adversarial attacks, we conduct an
 2 additional experiment (in response to R#1 & R#3): *sensor selection via ZO optimization* introduced by [1]. The goal of
 3 sensor selection is to seek the optimal trade-off between sensor activations and field estimation accuracy. The rationale
 4 behind the use of ZO optimization (ZOO) is to avoid the complex gradient computation that requires matrix inversion.
 5 In response to R#2, we compare ZO-AdaMM with a derivative-free optimization (DFO) solver COBYLA. Our results
 6 show that ZO-AdaMM yields 6.4% lower object value and saves 37.7% computation time under the same query number
 7 500. More detailed comparisons with DFO and ZOO methods will be added in the revision.

8 **Reviewer#1.** Thanks for the comments! We have added a new application on sensor selection illustrated in above AE.

9 **Reviewer#2. [What the proposed method is compared to]** → ZO-AdaMM is compared to the class of ZOO methods,
 10 which utilize function difference based *random gradient estimates*; see Sec. 1 (lines 28-43) and Sec. 3 (lines 112-124). In
 11 spite of DFO, the literature on ZO counterparts of first-order algorithms has been vast. Different from direct search (DS)
 12 and model-based DFO methods [2,3], ZO-AdaMM is the first algorithm that bridges the random gradient estimation and
 13 the adaptive gradient method, where the latter is quite popular in the current DL/ML applications. Both our convergence
 14 (Table 1) and empirical results (comparison with 6 state-of-the-art ZOO methods) showed the quality of the proposed
 15 algorithm. **[DFO literature and comparison]** → It is indeed valuable to enrich our related work on DFO. Thanks! In the
 16 revision, we will review DS-based and model-based methods, and commonly-used DFO solvers [3]. There is also a
 17 connection from the simplex gradient [2] (in the linear model based DFO) to the randomized gradient estimation (in
 18 ZOO). We will compare our method with existing DFO solvers, e.g., PSwarm and NOMAD for DS methods and COBYLA
 19 and BOBYQA for model-based methods. A preliminary comparison with COBYLA was illustrated in AE.

20 **Reviewer#3. [ZO-AdaMM versus first-order AdaMM]** → ZO-AdaMM belongs to the class of ZOO methods, and its
 21 advantages appear when the gradient is (a) *impossible* or (b) *difficult* to obtain. For example, the design of adversarial
 22 examples falls into the case (a). The sensor selection example introduced in AE belongs to the case (b). If the gradients
 23 are known and easily computed, then ZO-AdaMM is not better than its first-order counterpart due to its worse dimension
 24 dependency; see Table 1. Since our experiments focus on *black-box* adversarial attacks, the first-order method would
 25 *not* be available in fact. However, following the comment, we perform the additional comparison between ZO-AdaMM
 26 and AdaMM in generating per-image adversarial perturbation. Not surprisingly, AdaMM reaches a better solution in
 27 terms of 43.6% reduction in averaged ℓ_2 perturbation and 11.8% enhancement in averaged attack success rate over 100
 28 ImageNet images. **[Adversarial learning & other applications]** → The research in adversarial robustness of DL modes has
 29 rapidly gaining its popularity and attention in the past two years, e.g., design of black-box attacks at Adversarial Vision
 30 Challenge, NeurIPS'18. Many benchmark black-box attack methods were built on ZO optimization, e.g., ZO-SignSGD
 31 and ZO-NES (compared in the paper). Thus, we focus on the application in adversarial learning. Notably, ZO-AdaMM
 32 significantly outperforms 7 existing methods. However, we also conduct a new sensor selection experiment; see AE.
 33 **[Choice of μ]** → It is shown from Eq. (19) that μ controls the bias of the gradient estimate. To obtain the desired
 34 sub-linear convergence rate, the existing work has to select μ small enough. However, this causes numerical issues
 35 [4]: the stochastic function difference could be dominated by the stochastic noise and fails to represent the function
 36 differential. Thus, the mildness of μ is an important metric. In the original experiments, we set $\mu = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ obeying
 37 the order of $O(1/\sqrt{d})$ since $d \gg T$, where d is dimension of ImageNet image, and T is number of iterations. We also
 38 conduct a more careful tuning on μ by searching 5 points in $[5 \times 10^{-4}, 5 \times 10^{-2}]$. We observe that $\mu = 2 \times 10^{-3}$
 39 yields the best result (in terms of the converged loss value) but with only a minor improvement (3.7%) compared to our
 40 original choice. **[A in (65)]** → A refers to the sum of the first two terms at RHS of (65) (without the equal sign). **[Why**
 41 **using Mahalanobis (M-) distance]** → M-distance facilitates our convergence analysis in an equivalently transformed
 42 space, over which the analysis can be generalized from the conventional projected gradient descent framework. To
 43 get intuition, let us consider a simpler first-order case with the \mathbf{x} -descent step given by Algorithm 1 as $\beta_{1,t} = 0$ and
 44 $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$: $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_t - \alpha \hat{\mathbf{V}}_t^{-1/2} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)$. Note that the ZO case is more involved but follows the same intuition. Upon
 45 defining $\mathbf{y}_t \triangleq \hat{\mathbf{V}}_t^{1/4} \mathbf{x}_t$, the \mathbf{x} -update can then be rewritten as the update rule in \mathbf{y} : $\mathbf{y}_{t+1} = \mathbf{y}_t - \alpha \hat{\mathbf{V}}_t^{-1/4} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)$. Since
 46 $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_t} f(\mathbf{x}_t) = (\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_t}{\partial \mathbf{y}_t})^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t) = \hat{\mathbf{V}}_t^{-1/4} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)$, the \mathbf{y} -update, $\mathbf{y}_{t+1} = \mathbf{y}_t - \alpha \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} f(\mathbf{x}_t)$, obeys the gradient descent
 47 framework. In the constrained case, a similar but more involved analysis can be made, showing that the *M-projection in*
 48 *the \mathbf{x} -coordinate system is equivalent to the Euclidean projection in the \mathbf{y} -coordinate system* which makes projected
 49 gradient descent applicable to the update in \mathbf{y} . And the direct use of *Euclidean projection in the \mathbf{x} -coordinate system*
 50 leads to *divergence* in ZO-AdaMM (Prop. 1). **[Typos in (26) & (27)]** → Yes, " ≥ 0 " should be added at the end of
 51 equations. **[Choice of stepsize]** → Yes, the stepsize interval should be reversed. In Table A1-A2, a stepsize out of the
 52 range was included to show that the attack becomes *unsuccessful* when the stepsize is below our choice (e.g., 9×10^{-5}
 53 in Table A1 for ZO-PSGD), namely, the further reduction of stepsize does *not* improve the attack performance.

54 [1] Liu, et al., "ZO ADMM", AISTATS'18. [2] Audet & Hare, "Derivative-free and blackbox optimization", 2017. [3] Rios, et al.,
 55 "DFO: a review ...", 2013. [4] Lian, et al., "A comprehensive linear speedup ..." NIPS'16.