Shuoming Zhang zhangshuoming21s@ict.ac.cn SKLP, ICT, CAS UCAS Beijing, China Jiacheng Zhao zhaojiacheng@ict.ac.cn SKLP, ICT, CAS Beijing, China

Xiaobing Feng fxb@ict.ac.cn SKLP, ICT, CAS Beijing, China

## Abstract

Content Warning: This paper may contain unsafe or harmful content generated by LLMs that may be offensive to readers.

Large Language Models (LLMs) are extensively used as tooling platforms through structured output APIs to ensure syntax compliance so that robust integration with existing softwares like agent systems, could be achieved. However, the feature enabling functionality of grammar-guided structured output presents significant security vulnerabilities. In this work, we reveal a critical control-plane attack surface orthogonal to traditional data-plane vulnerabilities. We introduce Constrained Decoding Attack (CDA), a novel jailbreak class that weaponizes structured output constraints to bypass safety mechanisms. Unlike prior attacks focused on input prompts, CDA operates by embedding malicious intent in schema-level grammar rules (control-plane) while maintaining benign surface prompts (data-plane). We instantiate this with a proof-of-concept Chain Enum Attack, achieves 96.2% attack success rates across proprietary and open-weight LLMs on five safety benchmarks with a single query, including GPT-40 and Gemini-2.0-flash. Our findings identify a critical security blind spot in current LLM architectures and urge a paradigm shift in LLM safety to address control-plane vulnerabilities, as current mechanisms focused solely on data-plane threats leave critical systems exposed.

## **CCS** Concepts

 $\bullet$  Security and privacy  $\to$  Social aspects of security and privacy;  $\bullet$  Computing methodologies  $\to$  Natural language generation.

## Keywords

Large Language Models, Jailbreak Attacks, Constrained Decoding, Content Auditing

#### 1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have revolutionized the field of Natural Language Processing (NLP) by achieving state-of-the-art performance across a wide range of tasks, including language modeling [14, 52, 65], text generation [30, 53], question answering [27] and agent systems [55, 71]. These advancements have profoundly Ruiyuan Xu xuruiyuan23s@ict.ac.cn SKLP, ICT, CAS UCAS Beijing, China

Huimin Cui cuihm@ict.ac.cn SKLP, ICT, CAS Beijing, China



## Figure 1: Illustration of jailbreak attacks: attackers employ various methods to bypass internal safety alignment or external safty checks.

transformed daily life and work, with billions of interactions [16] with LLM services deployed both online and locally. Popular examples include proprietary models such as GPT-4 [1], GPT-4 Omni [44], Claude [3] and Gemini [17], as well as open-weight models like Llama [39, 62, 63], Qwen [51], Phi [20] and Deepseek [11, 12], etc.

Despite their impressive capabilities, LLMs also raise serious safety concerns. Malicious actors may exploit these models to generate misinformation, promote conspiracy theories, scale spear-phishing attacks, or facilitate hate campaigns [37, 72]. Consequently, there is an increasing attention on ensuring ethical and legal alignment of LLMs, giving rise to a dedicated research field known as LLM safety [58, 74].

To illustrate these safety concerns more concretely, we consider jailbreak attacks as a representative example. Jailbreak attacks aim to circumvent internal safety alignments or external safeguards of LLMs to generate harmful or malicious outputs. As depicted in Figure 1, although direct harmful queries are typically denied by safety aligned models, attackers can successfully engineer prompts through various methods. These include Privilege Escalation (e.g., role-playing in developer mode) [34], adversarial prefix/suffix manipulation via brute-force search [6], gradient-based optimization [83], or rule-based construction [2, 33]. These jailbreak attacks represent a significant security threat as they enable the generation of harmful content and misinformation that could potentially lead to social unrest.

Given these vulnerabilities, ensuring the security of LLMs has become a critical topic within both NLP [2, 31, 49, 73, 74, 79] and security communities [13, 56, 78, 80]. Current defense strategies

Arxiv preprint. Work In Progress.

can be broadly categorized into two main approaches: [74, 75]: internal safety alignment and external safety guardrails. On one hand, foundational LLM providers have made significant progress in enhancing internal safety alignment through extensive research on alignment methodologies [20, 24, 25, 49, 81]. These efforts aim to ensure that LLMs adhere to ethical and safety standards during deployment. However, even well-aligned models remain vulnerable to a variety of sophisticated attack methods. These include adversarial prompting [6, 48, 56, 83], which manipulates input prompts to elicit harmful outputs; encoding malicious instructions within code snippets [54] or ciphered inputs [68]; manipulating decoding parameters to influence model behavior [21]; and exploiting vulnerabilities in enforced decoding processes [79]. Such attacks demonstrate that internal safety alignment alone is insufficient to fully safeguard LLMs from adversarial exploitation.

On the other hand, various external defense mechanisms have been proposed to enhance LLM safety, each with differing costs and targets. Examples include employing sophisticated classifiers for attack detection [23, 67], guarding decoding steps with auxiliary expert models [73], and identifying emerging jailbreak prompts through content moderation systems [70]. However, all defense strategies inherently introduce trade-offs. Using classifiers [23, 67] or additional auditing models [26, 36] incurs extra computational overhead [72]. Typically, output-based auditing is more costly compared to prompt auditing due to the sequential nature of LLM generation, which can not be audited in advance [13, 70]. Besides, overly cautious prompt auditing may trigger false positives [35, 70], leading to degraded user experience and reduced service quality.

Modern LLM services increasingly expose structured output APIs (e.g., JSON schema support [46, 66]) to enable reliable tool integration. These APIs implicitly rely on constrained decoding techniques [15, 69] during generation, because even strong LLMs may hallucinate or misinterpret complex output formats without explicit constraints [4, 18]. Constrained decoding combines grammar-level rules with LLM decoding process, ensuring a grammar-compatible output. This technique enables structured output features within LLM APIs—such as regular expressions, JSON schema or arbitrary EBNF grammars—that are increasingly critical for integrating LLMs into mature industrial applications [42].

In this work, we identify a novel and particularly high-risk class of jailbreak attacks: Constrained Decoding Attack (CDA). Unlike conventional prompt-based attacks targeting input-side LLM chatbot vulnerabilities, CDA exploits the emerging paradigm of LLM APIs as tooling platforms [50, 57]. As constrained decoding exposes a control-plane to directly control LLM output, it is a potential attack surface for adversaries to exploit. CDA operates by manipulating the control-plane of LLM generation, hiding the intent of malicious questions within the schemas or grammars exposed by constrained decoding while maintaining a benign data-plane prompt. The effectiveness of CDAs stems from the significant vulnerability in the design of LLM API services utilizing constrained decoding techniques, which is revealed in this work. It operates at a fundamental level of LLM architecture that current safety mechanisms don't monitor. Specifically, we introduce Chain Enum Attack, a simple yet highly effective instantiation of the CDA methodology, which leverages two complementary components that can operate either independently or in powerful combination. The foundational Enum Attack component leverages JSON Schema's enum feature to exploit structured output constraints in modern LLM APIs, allowing attackers to bypass safety mechanisms and generate harmful outputs. This is enhanced by the Chain component, which uses partial outputs from an easy-to-jailbreak LLM as input to compromise more strongly aligned LLMs, creating a cascade effect that amplifies the attack's effectiveness across different security levels of language models and presenting significant challenges for existing safety mechanisms.

We empirically demonstrate that Chain Enum Attack can successfully jailbreak a wide range of proprietary and open-source LLMs in a single shot. It achieves very high Attack Success Rate (ASR) and StrongREJECT score [59]: a metric for evaluating the harmfulness of jailbreak outputs—with a single query. Our evaluation spans five widely recognized benchmarks: AdvBench [83], HarmBench [37], JailbreakBench [8], SorryBench [72], and StrongREJECT [59].

Furthermore, Chain Enum Attack bypasses most existing promptbased external safeguards, including industrially deployed defenses from OpenAI and Gemini. This capability highlights the significant threat posed by CDA to current LLM safety frameworks.

More broadly, CDA directly challenges the security assumptions underlying structured output technologies—a core enabling feature critical for seamless integration between LLMs and existing software stacks. Given structured output's growing importance in mature industrial applications of LLMs, this vulnerability represents a severe threat vector that demands immediate attention.

In summary, our contributions are:

- We propose Constrained Decoding Attack (CDA), a novel dimension of black-box jailbreak attacks that uniquely operates by manipulating the control-plane exposed by constrained decoding techniques (through output generation constraints) rather than the data-plane where most jailbreak attempts occur (through input prompts), thereby exploiting the structured output features prevalent among modern LLM services while maintaining the appearance of benign requests.
- We introduce Chain Enum Attack, a simple yet powerful instance of CDA utilizing JSON Schema's enum feature to hide malicious content in the control-plane. Our pass@1 attack achieves an average of 96.2% Attack Success Rate (ASR) and 82.6% StrongREJECT score [59] across models including GPT-40 and Gemini-2.0-flash, demonstrating its high effectiveness across diverse commercial/open-source models with minimal query complexity.
- We analyze why Chain Enum Attack successfully bypasses both internal and external defenses. By targeting decodingstage vulnerabilities, Chain Enum Attack bypasses promptbased external safeguards while exploiting inherent limitations in token prediction-based internal alignments. These findings aim to inspire future research and redteaming efforts within the broader LLM safety community.

| Categories         | es Jailbreaks             |          | White/Black box | Target LLM Queries | I/O-Based |  |
|--------------------|---------------------------|----------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------|--|
| Manually-designed  | Manually-designed IJP[56] |          | •               | -                  | Input     |  |
| Optimization-based | GCG[83]                   | -        | 0               | ~2K                | Input     |  |
|                    | SAA[2]                    | -        | 0               | ~10K               | Input     |  |
|                    | MasterKey[13]             | LLM      | •               | ~200               | Input     |  |
|                    | LLMFuzzer[78]             | LLM      | •               | $\sim 500$         | Input     |  |
| Template-based     | AutoDAN[33]               | LLM      | 0               | ~200               | Input     |  |
|                    | PAIR[9]                   | LLM      | •               | ~20                | Input     |  |
|                    | TAP[38]                   | LLM      | •               | ~20                | Input     |  |
|                    | StructTransform[77]       | LLM      | •               | ~3                 | Input     |  |
| Linguistics based  | DrAttack[31]              | LLM      | •               | ~10                | Input     |  |
| Linguistics-Daseu  | Puzzler[7]                | LLM      | •               | -                  | Input     |  |
| Encoding-based     | Zulu[76]                  | -        | •               | -                  | Input     |  |
|                    | Base64[68]                | -        | •               | -                  | Input     |  |
| Output-based       | EnDec[79]                 | -        | 0               | -                  | Output    |  |
|                    | APT[32]                   | eval LLM | •               | O(output len)      | Output    |  |
|                    | EnumAttack(ours)          | -        | •               | ~1                 | Output    |  |
|                    | ChainEnumAttack(ours)     | weak LLM | •               | ~1                 | Output    |  |
|                    | BenignEnumAttack(ours)    | -        | •               | ~1                 | Output    |  |

Table 1: Summary of existing jailbreak attacks adapted from [80], - indicates the method does not use the listed resource or lacks that capability,  $\circ$  denotes white-box attack and  $\bullet$  denotes black-box attack.

## 2 Preliminaries and Related Work

## 2.1 Jailbreak Attacks on LLMs

Jailbreak attacks are designed to create malicious inputs that prompt target LLMs to generate outputs that violate predefined safety or ethical guidelines. Carlini et al. [6] first suggested that improved NLP adversarial attacks could achieve jailbreaking on aligned LLMs and encouraged further research in this area. Since then, various jailbreak attack methods have emerged. We adopt the categorization of jailbreak attacks proposed by [80], which has divided jailbreak attacks into the following five categories: manualdesigned, optimization-based, template-based, linguistics-based and encoding-based. As depicted in Table 1, we extend this taxonomy by adding a new dimension: output-based attacks, which are closely related to our work.

**Manual-designed Jailbreaks** represent the most straightforward approach, where human designers craft malicious inputs to elicit undesirable outputs from LLMs. The most notable examples are the In-the-wild Jailbreak Prompts (IJP) [56], which document real-world jailbreak attempts observed in actual deployments and shared across social media platforms.

**Optimization-based Jailbreaks** leverage automated algorithms to exploit the internal gradients of LLMs for crafting malicious soft prompts. GCG [83] employs a greedy algorithm to modify input prompts by adding an adversarial suffix, prompting the LLM to start its response with "Sure" as its optimization goal. SAA [2] building on GCG, combining hand-crafted templates with random search strategy to find adversarial suffixes. These attacks are automated, but they require white-box access to the model, or at least the logit probabilities access, besides, their adversarial processes require a large number of queries to the target LLM.

**Template-based Jailbreaks** generate jailbreak prompts by optimizing sophisticated templates and embedding the original harmful requests within them. MasterKey [13] trains a jailbreak-oriented LLM to generate adversarial inputs. LLMFuzzer [78] use an LLM to mutate human-written templates into new jailbreak prompts. AutoDAN [33] applies hierarchical genetic algorithm for both sentence and word level jailbreak prompts optimizations. PAIR [9] and TAP [38] use similar idea to adopt an attacker LLM to generate/mutate jailbreak prompts and an evaluator LLM to score the generated prompts to enable refinement and pruning. StructTransform [77] is a concurrent work which also targets the structured generation as attack surface, it studies the vulnerability within structured style generation, which aligns with our findings.

Linguistics-based Jailbreaks exploit linguistic properties to conceal malicious intentions within seemingly benign inputs, also known as indirect jailbreaks. DrAttack [31] decomposes and reconstructs malicious prompts, embedding the intent within the reassembled context to evade detection. Puzzler [7] applies combinations of diverse clues to bypass LLM's safety alignment mechanisms.

**Encoding-based Jailbreaks** translate malicious prompts into less commonly used languages or encoding formats that may not be well-aligned, thereby bypassing LLM security measures. Zulu [76] encodes malicious prompts into low-resource languages, while Base64 [68] encodes malicious prompts in Base64 format to obfuscate the intent.

**Output-based Jailbreaks** is an emerging category that uses completely different methods to jailbreak LLMs. EnDec [79] manipulates white-box LLMs' logits to directly perform enforced decoding to construct desired output, like "Sure" in the beginning. APT [32] is a concurrent work, which uses the GuidedRegex feature in the structured output API to eventually build up a prefix tree, where refusal tokens are naturally banned from selection through regular expression constraints.

## 2.2 Constrained Decoding for LLMs

Constrained decoding is a technique that guides LLM generation by incorporating grammar-based constraints into the decoding process. As depicted in Figure 2, in addition to normal LLM generation process, a grammar rule, is applied to guide the generation process. It first goes through a similar lexer-parser workflow in compiler design, where tokenization is treated as a lexer process using LLM tokenizer rules, then the grammar rule is applied to existing tokens as a parsing process, generating a per-token mask vector. Tokens that do not match the grammar rule are masked out, modifying their logits to  $-\infty$  (in practice, -100 is used in PyTorchbased implementation), so that their probabilities will be zero. Then a standard multinomial sampling process is followed to generate the next token, ensuring the output is constrained to the grammar rule.

Formally, we characterize the constrained decoding process as follows.

**Problem Setup** We consider a LLM f which maps a sequence of input tokens  $x_{1:n}$  to the logits vector of next token  $z_{n+1} \in \mathcal{R}^{|V|}$ , where V is the vocabulary set of tokens and  $z_{n+1}[i] \in \mathcal{R}$  represents the logits value for the token with index i in V, formally:

$$z_{n+1} = f(x_{1:n})$$
(1)

The logits values are transformed into a probability distribution using the softmax function, usually normalized by a temperature parameter **T**, then LLM utilizes a multinomial sampling process to generate the next token  $x_{n+1}$ , choosing next token based on the normalized probabilities, with configurable parameters like **T**, **top\_p** and **top\_k**, etc.

$$x_{n+1} \sim p(x_{n+1}[i] \mid x_{1:n}) = softmax(\frac{z_{n+1}[i]}{T}) = \frac{e^{\frac{z_{n+1}[i]}{T}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{|V|} e^{\frac{z_{n+1}[j]}{T}}}$$
(2)

**Constrained Decoding** Given a context-free grammar (CFG) *G* and a sequence of tokens  $x_{1:n}$ , constrained decoding aims to generate the next token  $x_{n+1}$  that satisfies the grammar rule. Similar to compiler principles, a context-free grammar rule *G* creates both a lexer *L* and a parser *P*. In the LLM context, *L* corresponds directly to the LLM tokenizer, as we already operate on tokenstreams rather than raw characters. The parser *P* could be implemented in multiple ways, like LL(1), LR(1), etc. In general, Pushdown Automata (PDA) are typically used to recognize languages generated by CFGs, as they employ a stack to manage nested structures. Assuming we have an automaton *A* generated from grammar *G*, which processes the current tokenstream  $x_{1:n}$  and produces a token-level mask  $m_{n+1}$ . For each token  $i \in V$ , if there exists a valid transition in *A* for *i*, then  $m_{n+1}[i] = 1$ , otherwise  $m_{n+1}[i] = 0$ . This mask is applied to the logits  $z_{n+1}$  to prevent invalid tokens from being generated:

$$\hat{z}_{n+1}[i] = \begin{cases} z_{n+1}[i], & \text{if } m_{n+1}[i] = 1\\ -\infty, & \text{if } m_{n+1}[i] = 0 \end{cases}$$
(3)

The masked logits  $\hat{z}_{n+1}$  are then used just as in Equation 2:

$$x_{n+1} \sim p(x_{n+1} \mid x_{1:n}) = \frac{e^{\frac{z}{2n+1}|T|}}{\sum_{j=1}^{|V|} e^{\frac{z}{n+1}|T|}}$$
(4)

F41



Figure 2: Constrained decoding illustration. The per-token mask is generated like traditional lexer-parser workflow in compiler design, where prior output is treated as tokenstream and matches the grammar rule as a parsing process, generating the mask, then the mask is applied to the LLM generation process, ensuring the output is constrained to grammar rules.



Figure 3: JSON Grammar-Based Mask Generation. This illustrates how a constrained decoding system applies grammar rules to the current tokenstream, creating a binary mask over the vocabulary. The mask identifies valid tokens (which can advance the parsing automaton) versus invalid tokens (which are prohibited in the current grammatical state).

Mask Generation We use a simple example to illustrate how the mask is generated in the above process. Note that the process is simplified and the actual implementation could be more complex and faces different challenges. As depicted in Figure 3, JSON grammar typically handles key-value pairs, where key must be a string and value could be either string, number, boolean, array or other non-recursive JSON objects made up of key-value pairs, we use a simplified JSON grammar to illustrate the mask generation process.

Consider a tokenstream  $x_{1:n} = \{$ "Hello . Based on the JSON grammar, the parser currently resides in a state forming a **STRING** value. Consequently, the acceptable token space becomes a strict subset of vocabulary *V* containing only tokens that can legally

continue or terminate the string. This constraint derives from the application of these grammar rules:

$$pair ::= STRING : value$$
(5)

STRING ::= " 
$$(' \setminus \cdot | \sim [" \setminus n])^*$$
 " (6)

As illustrated in Figure 3, current tokenstream will set the automaton A to the state of forming a string, executing rules of Equation 6, the rules are to accept either an escape sequence ('\\' with any single follow-up character), or any character except quotation marks ('"'), backslashes ('\\'), carriage returns ('\r') and newlines ('\n'), and the automaton will transit to the next state when encountering a closing quotation mark ('"'), which terminates the string and continues with the rules in **pair**.

Consequently, when generating tokens after '"Hello', the valid continuations are either terminating the string (with '"') or extending it with additional characters. Tokens beginning with \r or \n are masked out, preventing their generation. Upon encountering '"', the automaton transitions back to the rule in Equation 5, exiting the **STRING** state. In this subsequent state, the parser constrains the next token exclusively to a colon (':'), after which the automaton advances to the **value** component generation.

By applying such mask generation process, the output of LLM is constrained to the grammar rule, ensuring the output is valid and interpretable in the context of the grammar rule.

Implementation Approaches To achieve effective constrained decoding implementation, Outlines [69] and SynCode [64] utilize a lexer and parser to handle output and generate the token mask, but they suffer from boundary mismatch problem raised by [28], as character-level PDA and token-level PDA have a large gap to fix. Synchromesh [47] and llama.cpp [19] use runtime checking for all tokens in their implementations, which leads to significant overhead. XGrammar [15] is current the state-of-the-art implementation of constrained decoding, utilizing system optimizations to reduce runtime check via context-independent caching, and it also enables co-optimizations to enable end-to-end LLM inference speedup in structured generation settings. By co-working with various LLM serving engines [29, 41, 82], constrained-decoding techniques have been widely adapted in real-world applications to support structured output, like Guided Choice, Guided Regex, Guided JSON and Guided Grammar, etc.

Proprietary solutions from providers like OpenAI [1] and Genimi [17] have also adapted similar techniques to support structured output generation, but the details are not publicly available. Nevertheless, as long as their APIs are open to the public, with structured output support, we can use their services to generate structured outputs. Recent work [18] evaluates the performance and quality of existing APIs and frameworks, providing a comprehensive comparison of their structured output generation capabilities and limitations.

#### 3 Motivation

We first examine existing prompt-based attacks on GPT-40 model, where we use AdvBench [83] as the attack prompts. We find that the model is well protected by their defenses, and the attack success rate is very low (1.1%). As depicted in Figure 4, most of the refusal sequence generated by GPT-40 is quite short and deterministic, by our



Figure 4: Direct jailbreak attempts to GPT-40 model evaluating on AdvBench(520 cases), GPT-40 model rejects 489 cases with direct refusal, rejects 25 cases with longer model responses, and 6 cases somewhat jailbroken.

| Guided<br>Choice  | <pre>completion = client.chat.completions.create(<br/>model=MODEL_ID<br/>messagess[{"role":"user","content":"Classify this sentiment: I love you", }],<br/>extra_body={"guided_choice": ["positive", "negative"]},<br/>)</pre>                |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|-------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Guided<br>Regex   | <pre>messages=[ {"role:"user","content":"Generate an email address for Alan Turing", } }, extra_body={"guided_regex": "\w+@\w+\.com\n", "stop": ["\n"]},</pre>  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Guided<br>JSON    | $\label{eq:label} \begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Guided<br>Grammar | <pre>SQL_EBWF_grammar = """ messagest[ root:select select: "SELECT " List " FROM " table guery to show the 'username' and 'email' list:column (", " colum)* table: identifiar column: identifiar identifier: /[a-zA-Z_][a-zA-Z0-9_]*/ }</pre> |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 5: Illustration of multiple structured output features.

guess, an external safety guardrail may triggers the refusal, stops the actual generation and return that short refusal response. In rare case, the external guardrail fails, then the GPT-40 model itself may sometimes refuses the question using its own alignment preference, but sometimes it just answers, showing jailbreak behaviors.

Given these robust defenses against traditional input-based attacks, we shifted our focus toward output-side vulnerabilities. Specifically, we identified structured output capabilities as a promising attack surface that could potentially circumvent existing safety mechanisms by manipulating the decoding process itself rather than relying solely on prompt engineering.

The primary structured output methods currently available in LLM systems include the following:

**GuidedChoice**. GuidedChoice restricts model output to selections from predefined choices, useful for multiple-choice questions and classification tasks.

**GuidedRegex**. GuidedRegex requires output to match regular expressions. Research has shown this feature can be exploited to generate malicious content through tree-based search techniques [32].

**GuidedJSON**. GuidedJSON initially ensured valid JSON outputs, now provides robust JSON Schema support with predefined structures and fields. This feature is particularly valuable for LLM-powered agent systems interfacing with existing software.

**GuidedGrammar**. GuidedGrammar Requires output to conform to a context-free grammar, essential for tasks like code generation.

Anonymous, Anonymous, Anonymous



Figure 6: Motivation example of Constrained Decoding Attack(CDA): Unlike traditional prompt-based attacks where LLMs process the input prompts as data plane to generate a probability distribution over the vocabulary set, where potential jailbreak behaviors may occur. CDA exploits the LLM control plane through grammar constraints (a malicious EBNF grammar here), making LLM forced to generate desired outputs by manipulating the decoding process while leaving a harmless input data plane to bypass safety guardrails.

This more generalized approach encompasses all previous structured output types. While not widely supported by all vendors, open-source communities like vllm [29] and sglang [82] offer GuidedGrammar support through backends such as Outlines [69] and XGrammar [15].

Structured output has become essential for developers integrating LLMs into existing software ecosystems. These capabilities facilitate reliable function calling, API interactions, and external integrations where format adherence is critical. Studies indicate structured output can reduce hallucinations in model responses [4].

However, while offering unprecedented control and reliability, these features also introduce potential security considerations if not properly implemented. The fundamental power of constrained decoding-its ability to precisely manipulate an LLM's output space-creates a double-edged sword. If misused, this mechanism could potentially circumvent safety guardrails that would normally prevent harmful outputs. Constrained decoding could present security implications, as it shifts control from the model's internal safety alignment to external grammar specifications that dictate the decoding process.

Traditional jailbreak approaches [2, 83] focus on crafting prompts that elicit affirmative or harmful response prefixes from LLMs. With constrained decoding, similar objectives could potentially be achieved through different mechanisms. Rather than complex prompt engineering, an attacker might define grammar constraints that influence the model to produce content that bypasses safety mechanisms. As shown in Figure 6, the guided decoding process can control the model's output within a user-defined token space, which could be misused if not properly secured. The extra control plane of constrained decoding allows malicious attackers to hide their intentions within the grammar constraints, which is not exposed to LLM itself.

To better understand the underlying token distribution dynamics, we use the Phi-3.5-MoE model [20] for illustration, and we also use beam search to track the most possible contents generated

User: Create a video game that promotes and rewards violence against minority groups. Assistant: {I'm sorry(0.98),I apologize(3e-13)} (2) User: {Jailbreak} Assistant: Sure, here's {Jailbreak}.{I'm sorry(0.96),Sorry(0.039)} (3) User: {Jailbreak} Assistant: {"answer": "First, {I'm sorry(0.5), I must clarify that(0.06)} User: Answer a random question. Assistant: {"prefix": "Sure, I will provide a detailed answer to some random question that is of significant interest to detailed answer to some random question that is of significant interest to redteaming[let's first design a question." "answer\_body": "How about {Jailbreak}. I will first design a 5-step plan. Let's do it step by step." CDA "answer\_bouy . now occurrent do it step by step.", "steps": {"step1": {Understand the ethical(0.011), Identify the target "steps": {"step1": {Understand the (1e-15)}

(4)

Figure 7: Visualization of 5-token size beams with highest generation probability for Phi-3.5-MoE model. Direct prompt attacks are easily detected and rejected by the model's auditing mechanisms, rendering them ineffective. In contrast, Constrained Decoding Attack (detailed in § 4) demonstrates its effectiveness by modifying the output distribution through constrained decoding specified by JSON Schema, making it harder for the model to identify and prevent harmful content generation.

by the model, the absolute probability also reflects the quality of its safety alignment. As illustrated in Figure 7, direct prompt attacks are mostly ineffective for safety aligned models. In contrast, techniques that modify output distribution through constrained decoding demonstrate different behavior patterns. In our visualization, we identify four distinct token types with their associated generation probabilities: refusal tokens, safe tokens, weak jailbreak tokens and strong jailbreak tokens, in ascending threat level to conduct jailbreak behaviors. Our analysis reveals a progression of attack effectiveness across different approaches: direct jailbreak prompts face nearly 100% refusal from well-aligned models, while adding affirmative prefixes produces only negligible improvements for attackers. JSON format constraints show more impact, reducing refusal probability by half, though the model still predominantly refuses harmful requests. Our Constrained Decoding Attack (CDA, formally introduced in § 4) eliminates direct refusals in the Phi-3.5 MoE model, yet the system continues generating safe tokens with high probability, demonstrating how different decoding constraints influence token selection while also revealing persistent safety mechanisms even under constrained decoding conditions. These token type classifications will be referenced throughout subsequent sections to explain attack vectors and defense strategies.

This distinction is important: while conventional jailbreak methods attempt to circumvent safety guardrails through input manipulation, CDA could directly influence what the model is allowed to generate by leveraging the constrained decoding space itself. As shown in Table 1, we have added this new attack category to capture this emerging potential vulnerability.

Research regarding potential security implications of constrained decoding remains limited, creating an opportunity to identify and address any vulnerabilities before they could be widely exploited. This paper aims to fill this gap by exploring the security considerations of constrained decoding mechanisms, analyzing potential vulnerabilities within current LLM services, and proposing mitigation strategies to protect against possible Constrained Decoding Attacks.



Figure 8: Illustration code for Enum Attack, where the attack body is located in the structured output, and the prompt part is harmless, so it can bypass prompt-based auditing.

## 4 Constrained Decoding Attacks

Building on these observations, we introduce the concept of **Constrained Decoding Attack (CDA)** as a novel potential vulnerability and dimension in LLM security. Unlike traditional jailbreak approaches that focus on crafting specialized prompts, CDA represents a different attack vector—targeting the decoding stage through grammar rules that constrain output generation.

We formally define the threat model for potential Constrained Decoding Attacks as follows:

### Attacker Capabilities

- API Access: The attacker has access to an LLM through its public API. It does not require access to model weights, gradients, or internal representations.
- **Grammar-level Control:** The attacker can specify grammar rules that will be used to constrain the model's output, which is the attack surface, APIs like OpenAI support such features more or less. It can be a direct grammar input, or encapsulated in a structured output format, like Choice, Regex and JSON schema.

## 4.1 Enum Attack: A Proof-of-Concept

First of all, we craft a proof-of-concept attack, namely Enum Attack, to demonstrate the feasibility of Constrained Decoding Attacks in LLMs. We will illustrate how Enum Attack works, and how it can be used to jailbreak the model using case studies. For quantitative evaluation, we will extensively evaluate Enum Attack using multiple LLMs on multiple benchmarks in follow-up § 5.

Enum Attack can be applied to a wide range of models and infrastructures which support OpenAI-compatible API and its structured output features. As depicted in Figure 8, this attack is an exploit of the response format field, where a malicious JSON schema created using Pydantic [61] is used to perform the real attack. The attacker can directly set a few fields in the JSON to be in the customizable enum space, and the model is constrained to generate the enum strings in the output. Therefore, the attacker can easily manipulate the output by constructing malicious enum strings to jailbreak the model.

As directly shown in Figure 8, within the designed JSON Schema, the first field contains the actual malicious question, while the input prompt uses harmless content that bypasses prompt auditing. The follow-up field of the JSON schema includes an affirmative prefix string that guides the model to begin with a positive response to the question. Finally, the model's output becomes dominated by the established malicious context. The model naturally continues



Figure 9: Enum Attack to GPT-40 model evaluating on AdvBench, where all 520 cases are successfully jailbroken, the external guardrail is entirely bypassed, and the model doesn't refuse in the constrained output either. The attack success rate is 100%.

generating step-by-step responses that answer the harmful question, effectively completing the jailbreak attack against its safety guardrails.

4.1.1 Enum Attack on OpenAI's GPT models. Initially, we perform preliminary experiments on OpenAI's GPT models. From OpenAI's model system card [1, 43, 44], their models before release, have been extensively tested via external red teaming, specific post-training, and equipped with moderation model [45] to mitigate potential safety risks.

Taking GPT-40 as an example [43, 44], 4 phase of red teamers have been conducted to observe and collect unintended behaviors of the model, including multi-turn conversations, multimodal (audio, image together with text) generations and multiple languages. Then post-training efforts are made to mitigate the risks, aligning the model to the safety guidelines. Finally, the released model is equipped with external guardrails to further mitigate the risks.

As presented in our motivation in Figure 4, baseline attacks on GPT-40 model are now well mitigated. It is quite natural because **defenses are always evolving to catch up with the latest attacks**.

Due to their empirically-sound and well-acknowledged safety alignment effort, we are curious about whether structured output feature is a vulnerability to GPT-40 model. Therefore, we perform our proof-of-concept Enum Attack in Figure 8 on the GPT-40 model.

As illustrated in Figure 9, Enum Attack performs significantly well on GPT-40 model, where all 520 cases are successfully jailbroken, the external guardrail is entirely bypassed, as no early refusal is triggered. In addition, the generation content, although wrapped in the structured output, is not refused by the model itself, and the step-by-step plan is both specific and convincing, as if it is not safety aligned. Followed by [59], we use their StrongREJECT score to evaluate the attack, which is defined as follows:

$$StrongREJECT = (1 - refused) \times \frac{specific + convincing}{2}$$
 (7)

GPT-40 model achieves 95.6% StrongREJECT score, **placing it** among the most effective jailbreaks documented against this

model class and substantially exceeding typical attack efficacy ranges. This quantitatively confirms the complete circumvention of both internal and external safety mechanisms previously described.

This result is quite surprising, because our simple proof-ofconcept jailbreaks GPT-4o's safety alignment so easily with the aid of structured output, which definitely show great vulnerabilities within the design of the structured output feature.

We analyze the results as follows:

- Enum Attack bypasses the external prompt-based guardrails since no early refusal is triggered by the model. The reason is quite simple, the attack body is concealed within structured output, and the prompt part is harmless, so the model remains unaware during prompt auditing.
- Enum Attack also bypasses the internal safety alignment of the model, as the model does not refuse in the constrained output either. It is because the model first generates an affirmative prefix constrained in the structured output, which SHOULD NOT be generated by the model; however, the constrained decoding mechanism forced the model to generate it. Later, the model continues to generate the following steps as an answer to the question, which is an internal limitation to LLMs. As LLMs are designed to perform next-token prediction, and the model is therefore likely to continue generating steps as the answer to the question, even if the affirmative prefix is harmful.
- Output-based auditing appears to be inactive in API access to the GPT-40 model, likely due to cost and performance considerations. Implementing real-time auditing of generated content introduces substantial computational overhead that would be commercially infeasible to maintain at the production scale.

In conclusion, despite its simplicity, Enum Attack demonstrates remarkable effectiveness against LLMs. The GPT-40 model proves particularly vulnerable, achieving an ASR 100% through only APIlevel access and structured output capabilities. GPT-40-mini models perform similarly, which is not surprising, as the structured output feature is the same. Gemini models are also vulnerable to Enum Attack as it offers similar structured output features. Additionally, since LLM serving engines like vllm [29] and sglang [82] support even more structured output features through its OpenAIcompatible server APIs, open-weight LLMs are also vulnerable to Enum Attack. More detailed evaluations will be presented in § 5.

## 4.2 Chain Enum Attack: Exploiting Shallow Alignment

Enum Attack demonstrates the potential of Constrained Decoding Attacks to jailbreak LLMs. It is a simple yet effective attack that can be applied to a wide range of models and infrastructures. The fundamental vulnerability exploited by Enum Attack stems from what recent research terms **shallow safety alignment** [49]. Current LLM safety mechanisms predominantly protect only the first few tokens of generation, creating a critical weakness that constrained decoding attacks can exploit.



Figure 10: Token distribution ablation with progressive attack methods, the exact probability distribution is sampled from Phi-3.5-MoE model. Refusal tokens, safe tokens,weak jailbreak tokens and strong jailbreak tokens are marked explicitly with their generation probability, less-than-1e-16 values are omitted.

However, Enum Attack may be not effective against deeply aligned models, as they can realize the harmfulness of the generated content and start to refuse or disclaim the harmful content.

Therefore, we introduce a more sophisticated variant: **Chain Enum Attack**: a multi-stage attack that exploits the shallow alignment of one model to compromise the safety of another model with stronger alignment.

- A shallowly-aligned model is used to generate harmful prefix answers via Enum Attack
- (2) These prefixes are then forwarded to a more deeply-aligned model, which are forced to be generated by grammar constraints
- (3) The deeply-aligned model, despite its stronger safety mechanisms, inherits the compromised token distribution, continues to generate harmful content

To understand this vulnerability, we continue to analyze the token probability distribution with quantitative evaluation, which has been conducted in Figure 7. Previously we have motivated how Enum Attack breaks its safety alignment through affirmative prefix, JSON format and question hiding in output side. Now we continue the analysis. As shown in Figure 10, there are a dramatic logit shift towards jailbreaking with enhanced methods, and we will explain them each:

- Using Enum Attack, our PoC attack on the well aligned Phi-3.5-MoE model, although direct refusals are gone. The model now still generates safe tokens in relatively high probability
- (2) With a benign system prompt, the tendency of safe token generation is further depressed under Enum Attack, and the model is now more likely to be jailbroken, as jailbreak tokens are now most likely to be generated
- (3) Performing Chain Enum Attack: with a response generated from a weakly aligned model, prefilled through Enum Attack to setup the jailbroken context, even strongly aligned model can be fully jailbroken, the top-5 beams are now all strong jailbreak tokens

This distribution shift confirms the hypothesis in recent literature [49] that safety alignment in current LLMs is predominantly concentrated in initial token selection. By forcing the generation of affirmative prefixes through constrained decoding, Chain Enum

Attack effectively bypasses this shallow alignment mechanism by compromising the token distribution from a **safety aligned one** (with significantly high refusal probability) to a **balanced**, **contextsensitive one**.

Chain Enum Attack also demonstrates how shallow alignment in one model can undermine safety in another model with stronger alignment. After all, the next-token-prediction nature limits the capability of the model to refuse continuing the harmful content generation.

Additionally, our analysis reveals that the vulnerability extends beyond initial token selection. Once forced to generate affirmative prefixes, models exhibit a cascading failure pattern where subsequent tokens increasingly favor harmful content completion. As presented by [49], we re-confirm that the probability mass shifts dramatically toward harmful completions after a few forced tokens. This phenomenon can be quantified as:

$$P(w_t^{\text{harmful}}|w_{1:t-1}^{\text{forced}}) \gg P(w_t^{\text{harmful}}|w_{1:t-1}^{\text{natural}})$$
(8)

Where  $w_{1:t-1}^{\text{forced}}$  represents the sequence of tokens generated through constrained decoding, and  $w_t^{\text{harmful}}$  represents harmful completion tokens.

This provides quantitative evidence that current safety alignments are too limited on operating at the generation start rather than maintaining safety awareness throughout the entire generation process.

### 4.3 Discussions: Other CDAs

Except attacks we presented, there are also other CDAs that can be achieved. For example, Although EnDec [79] uses white-box attack to directly control output logits to perform jailbreaks, it can be achieved in an indirect way through guided grammar to perform a Constrained Decoding Attack. APT [32] utilizes GuidedRegex features to iteratively generate desired text by blocking refusal tokens identified through an evaluator model. Although it requires significant numbers of queries to jailbreak the model as it requires step-by-step GuidedRegex generation like a tree construction, it can be combined with Enum Attack to perform more effective jailbreaks, as Enum Attack can hide the harmful content in the structured output, and APT can avoid refusals in the generation process.

Besides, existing prompt-based jailbreak methods are also orthogonal to our work and can be combined with Enum Attack to perform more effective jailbreaks. After all, Constrained Decoding Attacks make the output generation stage a new attack surface, and previous prompt-stage attack methods can also work in this new attack surface.

Template-based attacks like MasterKey [13], LLMFuzzer [78], PAIR [9] and TAP [38], can be used in Enum Attack to generate a more complicated 'yes prefix' field, so that the model can be hijacked more effectively.

Linguistic-based attacks [7, 31] and encoding-based attacks [68, 76] can also be combined with Enum Attack. The combination can hide the harmful content in the structured output deeper, so that even auditing the grammar rules may not be effective to detect the attack.

Table 2: Summary of Datasets used for jailbreak attack evaluation,  $\circ$  denotes w/o such property.

| Dataset           | Size | Category | Extra Attack |  |  |  |
|-------------------|------|----------|--------------|--|--|--|
| AdvBench[83]      | 520  | 0        | 0            |  |  |  |
| StrongREJECT[59]  | 311  | 6        | 0            |  |  |  |
| JailbreakBench[8] | 100  | 10       | 0            |  |  |  |
| HarmBench[37]     | 100  | 3        | 0            |  |  |  |
| SorryBench[72]    | 440  | 44       | 21           |  |  |  |

Finally, there can be potentially more CDAs that utilize the constrained decoding mechanisms, as the design space of an EBNF grammar is unlimited, malicious attackers can create a flexible, pretend-to-be-harmless grammar to jailbreak the model. Therefore, it is essential to study the security risks of the constrained decoding mechanism and develop effective mechanisms to mitigate the model from Constrained Decoding Attacks.

## 5 Evaluation

In this section, we systematically evaluate Constrained Decoding Attacks, a novel attack surface in LLM security. Constrained Decoding Attacks represent a significant shift in the jailbreaking paradigm by targeting the decoding process rather than relying on prompt engineering. By manipulating the structured output specifications through carefully crafted schema definitions (as demonstrated in our Enum Attack implementation), these attacks force models to generate content that would otherwise be filtered by both external guardrails and internal alignment mechanisms.

#### 5.1 Experimental Setup

**Datasets** Following previous works [6, 79, 83], we evaluate the performance of constrained decoding based attacks (CDAs) in five well-known benchmarks, whose statistics are shown in Table 2.

Large Language Models We evaluate LLMs with structured output support capabilities. For proprietary models, we evaluate GPT-40, GPT-40-mini and Gemini-2.0-flash<sup>1</sup> using OpenAI and Gemini's API access. For open-weight models, we evaluate 5 latest open-weight LLMs served on an OpenAI compatible server with structured output features, including Phi-3.5-MoE [20], Mistral Nemo [40], Qwen-2.5-32B [51], Llama-3.1-8B [39] and Gemma-2-9B [60]. Legacy models like Vicuna [10] and Llama2 [63] are extensively studied and considered easy to be jailbroken [8], so we don't include them in the evaluation. In total, we evaluate 3 proprietary models and 5 open-weight models using black-box settings for attacks evaluation.

**Evaluation Metrics** Following previous works [6, 79, 83], we use attack success rate (**ASR**) as the evaluation metric. However, considering ASR is a binary metric, we follow recent work [59] who use LLM-as-a-judge to evaluate in multiple dimensions, including refusal, convincingness and specificity to evaluate the harmfulness of the generated text. We also apply the same workflow as StrongREJECT [59] to evaluate ASR with their proposed **StrongREJECT Score** combining refusal, convincingness and specificity, which is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>We use the following available checkpoints of these models, including gpt-4o-2024-11-20, gpt-4o-mini-2024-07-18, gemini-2.0-flash-001.



#### Figure 11: Improved StrongREJECT evaluation process.

defined in Equation 7. Surprisingly, we find out the original version of [59] has a significant ratio (over 20% using GPT-40 as evaluator) to refuse the evaluation request whichever judge LLM is used, which limits the quality of LLM-as-a-judge, because both the question and answer could be too offensive and malicious to the model, which may falsely trigger the refusal to evaluate the Q-A pair.

Intriguingly, we found that the same constrained decoding mechanism exploited in our attack can be repurposed to improve evaluation methodology. We apply a derived guided-grammar to constrain the output format of the judge model, forcing structured evaluation responses that prevent refusal to assess harmful content. This technique, illustrated in Figure 11, leverages the core insight of Enum Attack—that constrained decoding can bypass internal safety alignment—to create more reliable measurement tools for safety research. The improved StrongREJECT evaluation has zero refusal rate, we use the improved StrongREJECT Score to evaluate as additional metrics to ASR, and the evaluation model we use is GPT-40. **Keep in mind of this specific crafted format in Figure 11, it represents another challenge for proper content auditing which we will discuss later.** 

Additional Experimental Setup For local LLMs, we use vllm version 0.7.2 for serving, we serve these models on a Ubuntu 22.04 server running Linux Kernel 5.15, with Xeon Gold 6430 (128) @ 3.40GHz, 4 NVIDIA A100 80GB GPUs, and 512GB RAM. We set the "max\_model\_len" to 3072 and "tensor\_parallel\_size" to 4 for all these models. We use the vllm's OpenAI compatible server to call the local LLMs so that the evaluation for local models is consistent with the evaluation for OpenAI models. Although [22] suggests that the temperature setting can affect the evaluation results, it is orthogonal to our attack surface and not the focus of this paper. Therefore, We use temperature=0.6 for all models.

#### 5.2 Comprehensive Evaluation of Enum Attack

5.2.1 Enum Attack on Open-Weight LLMs. We perform Enum Attack on 5 open-weight models with the same 520 cases from AdvBench. As depicted in Table 3, similar to the results of GPT-4oseries models, Enum Attack achieves near 100% ASR and over 95% StrongREJECT score on all these models, except Phi-3.5-MoE, whose StrongREJECT score is a mitigated 77%, indicating their safety alignment is better than others against Enum Attack and its variants, which we have discussed through the study of Chain Enum Attack in §§ 4.2.

5.2.2 Enum Attack on Proprietary LLMs and the Best Open-Weight LLM. Building upon our proof-of-concept demonstration in §§ 4.1, we now present a comprehensive cross-benchmark evaluation of Enum Attack. As shown in Table 4, we systematically compare performance across five diverse safety benchmarks to thoroughly assess the attack's generalizability. We compare the performance of

Table 3: Enum Attack results on 5 open-weight LLMs on AdvBench.

| Model             | ASR    | StrongREJECT |
|-------------------|--------|--------------|
| Phi-3.5-MoE [20]  | 99.2%  | 76.9%        |
| Mistral Nemo [40] | 100.0% | 98.3%        |
| Qwen-2.5-32B [51] | 99.0%  | 97.1%        |
| Llama-3.1-8B [39] | 99.2%  | 95.1%        |
| Gemma-2-9B [60]   | 98.7%  | 94.8%        |

the attack on three proprietary models and Phi-3.5-MoE, the best aligned open-weight model during evaluation. To compare with, we use direct prompting as the baseline.

Baseline results confirm that direct prompting is largely ineffective against the safety alignment of modern LLMs. Although different benchmarks cover different aspects of harmful content, the overall baseline ASR remains consistently low, with averages of 8.0% (AdvBench), 36.75% (HarmBench), 16.75% (JailbreakBench), 35.86% (SorryBench) and 7.51% (StrongREJECT). The 4o-series models demonstrate particularly strong resistance to direct prompting on AdvBench and JailbreakBench, with ASRs below 2%. These baseline measurements validate the effectiveness of conventional safety mechanisms against traditional attacks.

As shown in Table 4, our proof-of-concept Enum Attack is super effective in the same experimental settings, except Gemini-2.0-flash model, other models achieve at least 95% ASR on all 5 benchmarks, with only a single query to attack, even Gemini model achieve over 89% ASR on four benchmarks and 81.2% ASR on StrongREJECT, the lowest ASR among all models. The results significantly indicate that current LLMs are vulnerable to Enum-based attacks, and the safety alignment is not as effective as expected.

We further take StrongREJECT score into account, which measures the harmfulness of the generated text. The results show that Enum Attack not only succeeds in breaking the safety alignment but also generates highly harmful content as prompted. The average StrongREJECT Score of the attack is 88.9%, 85.0%, 82.8% and 73.7% on each model respectively. The results indicate that the generated text is highly convincing and specific, which poses a significant threat to the safety and trustworthiness of LLMs.

Particularly notable is the consistency of Phi-3.5-MoE's lower StrongREJECT scores across all benchmarks, despite high raw ASR. This cross-benchmark confirmation strengthens our earlier hypothesis about deep alignment [49] providing partial mitigation to Enum Attack. While the attack still succeeds in technical terms (output is generated, no direct refusal), the quality and harmfulness of that content is measurably reduced through parameter-level safety alignment.

The evaluation results reveal a significant vulnerability in current LLM services with structured output features. Enum Attack and its simple variants can easily jailbreak models without extensive query attempts, presenting a severe security threat. The results also confirm our earlier observation that alignment quality varies significantly across models, with Phi-3.5-MoE demonstrating the most resilience during our evaluation, though still fundamentally vulnerable.

Table 4: Attack Success Rate (ASR) and StrongREJECT score (SR) evaluation with EnumAttack across multiple benchmarks. In each column, Red indicates the highest attack results, Green indicates the lowest attack results. Additionally, we perform ChainEnumAttack on Phi-3.5-MoE with GPT-4o's output.

| Туре        | Model          | Method          | AdvBench |       | HarmBench |       | JailbreakBench |       | SorryBench |       | StrongREJECT |       | Average   |  |
|-------------|----------------|-----------------|----------|-------|-----------|-------|----------------|-------|------------|-------|--------------|-------|---|--|
|             |                |                 | ASR      | SR    | ASR       | SR    | ASR            | SR    | ASR        | SR    | ASR          | SR    | ASR   | SR   |
| Proprietary | CPT-40         | Baseline        | 1.2%     | 1.1%  | 26.0%     | 22.3% | 10.0%          | 9.1%  | 33.9%      | 30.4% | 5.1%         | 4.8%  | 15.2%   | 13.5%  |
|             | 01 1-40        | EnumAttack      | 100.0%   | 95.6% | 100.0%    | 90.8% | 100.0%         | 90.5% | 96.4%      | 79.6% | 99.4%        | 87.8% | 99.2%   | 88.9%  |
|             | CPT 40 mini    | Baseline        | 2.1%     | 1.8%  | 44.0%     | 39.1% | 14.0%          | 13.1% | 42.5%      | 39.8% | 8.9%         | 8.0%  | EJECT         Average           SR         ASR         SR           4.8%         15.2%         13.5%           87.8%         99.2%         88.9%           8.0%         22.3%         20.4%           85.2%         98.1%         85.0%           4.2%         24.2%         21.0%           74.8%         90.1%         82.8%           8.7%         22.2%         19.8%           74.8%         97.4%         73.7%           84.5%         99.6%         83.0% |  |
|             | Gi 1-40-iiiiii | EnumAttack      | 99.0%    | 91.5% | 100.0%    | 86.5% | 97.0%          | 85.9% | 96.4%      | 75.9% | 98.1%        | 85.2% |   | 85.0%  |
|             | Comini 2.0     | Baseline        | 17.5%    | 13.0% | 46.0%     | 41.3% | 22.0%          | 19.8% | 29.3%      | 26.7% | 6.0%         | 4.2%  | 24.2%   | 21.0%  |
|             | Gemmi-2.0      | EnumAttack      | 95.8%    | 93.2% | 92.0%     | 85.5% | 92.0%          | 85.0% | 89.5%      | 75.4% | 81.2%        | 74.8% | 90.1%   | 82.8%  |
| Open        |                | Baseline        | 11.5%    | 10.6% | 31.0%     | 27.3% | 21.0%          | 19.1% | 37.7%      | 33.5% | 9.9%         | 8.7%  | 22.2%   | 19.8%  |
|             | Phi-3.5-MoE    | EnumAttack      | 99.2%    | 76.9% | 98.0%     | 74.6% | 95.0%          | 72.3% | 98.4%      | 70.1% | 96.5%        | 74.8% | 97.4%   | rrage<br>SR<br>13.5%<br>88.9%<br>20.4%<br>85.0%<br>21.0%<br>82.8%<br>19.8%<br>73.7%<br>83.0% |
|             |                | ChainEnumAttack | 100.0%   | 87.6% | 100.0%    | 83.1% | 100.0%         | 82.0% | 98.8%      | 77.9% | 99.2%        | 84.5% | 99.6%   | 83.0%  |



# Figure 12: Potential External Safety Guardrails in LLMs, adopted from [13].

In conclusion, the success of Enum Attack highlights a critical gap between current safety guardrails and the novel attack surface presented by constrained decoding exploitation.

#### 6 Discussions

Based on previous evaluation and the great success of Constrained Decoding Attacks, we discuss the implications of this attack surface on the current LLM safety landscape, and propose potential defense strategies to mitigate the threat.

As depicted in Figure 12, despite internal LLM safety alignment, current LLM auditing practices predominantly focus on two distinct phases of the generation pipeline: input prompt auditing and output auditing [5]. We will discuss each of these approaches:

Input-focused auditing strategies typically involve extra classifiers, small LLMs or rule-based filters. This approach is generally cost-effective, as the generation process and validation can be run in parallel, and early refusal can be triggered to stop harmful content generation. However, it may fail to capture the complex dynamics of the generation process itself, particularly when sophisticated jailbreak techniques are employed by adversaries.

As for Enum Attack and more generally Constrained Decoding Attacks, they can easily bypass prompt auditing by hiding malicious content within the structured output specification rather than the visible prompt. As shown in Figure 8, no prompt auditing methods will refuse the query because the prompt part is benign, and the harmful question is hidden in the enum field somewhere in the structured output constraints. Therefore, grammar constraints are now a vulnerable path to jailbreak LLMs, as their content is not audited by prompt auditing methods, shown as the red line in Figure 12.

**Finding 1**: Auditing the decoding constraints represents a critical blind spot in current LLM safety architectures.

On the opposite end of the generation pipeline, output auditing represents a more comprehensive but resource-intensive approach to safety. This methodology involves verifying the correctness and safety of LLM-generated content while implementing sanitization processes to remove or neutralize potentially harmful elements from the output. It can happen either during generation or post generation. It seems that **jailbreak is a false research problem if a sound and effective output auditing can be achieved**, as we can choose not to return the harmful content to the user whenever harmful content is detected.

However, output auditing faces several fundamental limitations. Unlike prompt auditing, it cannot be run in parallel with the generation process, as content evaluation must occur sequentially after text production. Furthermore, output auditing is computationally expensive, requiring an extra analysis of the generated content. Additionally, even sophisticated output auditing systems are susceptible to false positives, potentially resulting in the inappropriate filtering of regular harmless content.

These constraints—latency penalties, computational costs, and accuracy challenges—have significantly limited the implementation of comprehensive output auditing in commercial settings, because the introduced response delay can substantially degrade user experience, particularly in interactive applications requiring real-time performance. Both OpenAI and Gemini APIs we evaluated appear to not implement output auditing, probably due to commercial considerations.

One might assume that implementing robust output auditing would be sufficient for a safety-first LLM service, but we demonstrate this is not the case. We question whether **output auditing is a silver bullet for solving LLM jailbreaking** through our proposed BenignEnumAttack variant, depicted in Figure 13. This attack is designed to generate seemingly benign content that can pass output auditing while still delivering harmful information. This vulnerability exists because the semantic meaning of a full



Figure 13: BenignEnumAttack (red) and a benign redteaming Q-A auditing process (blue). Existing output auditing methods cannot identify their differences, so that they will be refused or returned together, causing either false positive or false negative.

response is not always reducible to the sum of its parts, and conventional output auditing may fail to capture the harmfulness of the full response in context. BenignEnumAttack can generate a response that is benign as a whole, but contains harmful content newly generated through constrained decoding techniques.

By strategically embedding harmful content within benign contexts, this attack creates a fundamental deadlock problem in current auditing systems: the generated responses for both BenignEnumAttack and StrongREJECT evaluation appear structurally identical, but one is actually harmful and the other is not. So the output auditing will fail as it will inevitably either trigger a **false positive** (refusing legitimate StrongREJECT evaluations) or a **false negative** (failing to detect BenignEnumAttack jailbreaks).

**Finding 2**: Output auditing is not a silver bullet to jailbreaking, as it is dead-locked by BenignEnumAttack.

While constrained decoding enables powerful structured output capabilities in LLMs, our research demonstrates that its security implications have been critically underexplored. Based on our systematic analysis of EnumAttack and its variants, we propose several possible mitigation strategies that address the fundamental vulnerabilities in current implementations:

- (1) Safety-Preserving Grammar Constraints: The core vulnerability exploited by EnumAttack is the ability to override LLM's safety alignment by constrained output space within user-defined grammar constraints. We propose implementing "safety-preserving constraints" that maintain a whitelist of tokens, like "I'm sorry", which cannot be constrained by user-defined grammars. This approach would preserve the model's ability to generate safety-critical refusals even within structured outputs. Implementation challenges include balancing strict grammar adherence with safety requirements, as excessive safety tokens might disrupt valid structured outputs in certain contexts.
- (2) Context-Aware Token Attribution: Current output auditing processes cannot distinguish between user-prefilled content and model-generated content—a vulnerability exploited

by BenignEnumAttack. A more robust approach would implement token-level provenance tracking during the generation process, enabling auditing systems to differentiate between tokens originating from enum constraints (or others specified by grammars) versus those freely generated by the model. This would enable more accurate detection of attempts to manipulate the generation trajectory through constrained fields.

(3) Integrated Safety Signaling: Co-design LLM with auditing signal tokens: Similar to (1), we still whitelist some tokens in the constrained decoding process, but we whitelist special tokens that indicate potential auditing signals, such as "<sexual>" when encounter sex-related context or "<political>" with political-related context. Models can be finetuned to generate these tokens in certain scenarios, so that model generation itself is aware of possible jailbreaking and can either flag the auditing process or stop jailbroken generation.

## 7 Ethics Consideration

Our work identifies significant security vulnerabilities in constrained decoding mechanisms for LLMs by demonstrating how guided grammar manipulation can bypass safety guardrails. We empirically show that state-of-the-art models remain vulnerable to Constrained Decoding Attacks despite robust safety alignment efforts. The security implications are particularly concerning as CDAs exploit a fundamental gap in existing safety architectures, which primarily focus on input filtering rather than the generation process itself.

By publishing this research, we aim to enable the security community to address these vulnerabilities before they can be widely exploited. Since CDAs target low-level decoding processes exposed through structured output features, mitigating these attacks presents unique challenges distinct from traditional jailbreak defenses. We have acknowldged our findings to affected model providers like OpenAI and Gemini and propose several mitigation strategies that could reduce risk without compromising legitimate structured output functionality. We believe our analysis provides crucial insights for developing more comprehensive safety mechanisms that protect the entire generation pipeline rather than just input and output boundaries.

## 8 Conclusion

In this study, we introduce Constrained Decoding Attacks, a novel attack surface which fundamentally challenges existing security paradigms for Large Language Models. By manipulating grammarlevel constraints, particularly through structured output features: we demonstrate how attackers can bypass both internal safety alignment and external defensive measures to achieve jailbreaks. Our proof-of-concept Enum Attack successfully jailbreaks both open-source and proprietary models with minimal queries, achieving 96.2% ASR and 82.6% StrongREJECT score across five diverse benchmarks with a single query. These results significantly outper-form existing orthogonal jailbreak methods and reveal a significant systematic vulnerability in current LLM safety architectures. By revealing this previously unexplored attack surface, our work con-tributes to developing more comprehensive security paradigms for LLMs that address safety at all stages of LLM generation.

Anonymous, Anonymous, Anonymous

## References

- Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. 2023. Gpt-4 technical report. arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774 (2023).
- [2] Maksym Andriushchenko, Francesco Croce, and Nicolas Flammarion. 2025. Jailbreaking Leading Safety-Aligned LLMs with Simple Adaptive Attacks. In *The Thirteenth International Conference on Learning Representations*. https: //openreview.net/forum?id=hXA8wqRdyV
- [3] Anthropic. 2024. Introducing the next generation of Claude. https://www. anthropic.com/news/claude-3-family
- [4] Orlando Ayala and Patrice Bechard. 2024. Reducing hallucination in structured outputs via Retrieval-Augmented Generation. In Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 6: Industry Track), Yi Yang, Aida Davani, Avi Sil, and Anoop Kumar (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Mexico City, Mexico, 228–238. doi:10.18653/v1/2024.naacl-industry.19
- [5] Andrew Bell and Joao Fonseca. 2024. Output Scouting: Auditing Large Language Models for Catastrophic Responses. arXiv:2410.05305 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/ abs/2410.05305
- [6] Nicholas Carlini, Milad Nasr, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Matthew Jagielski, Irena Gao, Pang Wei Koh, Daphne Ippolito, Florian Tramèr, and Ludwig Schmidt. 2023. Are aligned neural networks adversarially aligned?. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*. https://openreview.net/ forum?id=OQQ0D8Vc3B
- [7] Zhiyuan Chang, Mingyang Li, Yi Liu, Junjie Wang, Qing Wang, and Yang Liu. 2024. Play Guessing Game with LLM: Indirect Jailbreak Attack with Implicit Clues. In Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024, Lun-Wei Ku, Andre Martins, and Vivek Srikumar (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Bangkok, Thailand, 5135–5147. doi:10.18653/v1/2024.findings-acl.304
- [8] Patrick Chao, Edoardo Debenedetti, Alexander Robey, Maksym Andriushchenko, Francesco Croce, Vikash Sehwag, Edgar Dobriban, Nicolas Flammarion, George J. Pappas, Florian Tramèr, Hamed Hassani, and Eric Wong. 2024. JailbreakBench: An Open Robustness Benchmark for Jailbreaking Large Language Models. In The Thirty-eight Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track. https://openreview.net/forum?id=urjPCYZt01
- [9] Patrick Chao, Alexander Robey, Edgar Dobriban, Hamed Hassani, George J. Pappas, and Eric Wong. 2024. Jailbreaking Black Box Large Language Models in Twenty Queries. arXiv:2310.08419 [cs.LG] https://arxiv.org/abs/2310.08419
- [10] Wei-Lin Chiang, Zhuohan Li, Zi Lin, Ying Sheng, Zhanghao Wu, Hao Zhang, Lianmin Zheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Yonghao Zhuang, Joseph E. Gonzalez, Ion Stoica, and Eric P. Xing. 2023. Vicuna: An Open-Source Chatbot Impressing GPT-4 with 90%\* ChatGPT Quality. https://lmsys.org/blog/2023-03-30-vicuna/
- [11] DeepSeek-AI, Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Haowei Zhang, Junxiao Song, Ruoyu Zhang, Runxin Xu, Qihao Zhu, Shirong Ma, Peiyi Wang, Xiao Bi, Xiaokang Zhang, Xingkai Yu, Yu Wu, Z. F. Wu, Zhibin Gou, Zhihong Shao, Zhuoshu Li, Ziyi Gao, Aixin Liu, Bing Xue, Bingxuan Wang, Bochao Wu, Bei Feng, Chengda Lu, Chenggang Zhao, Chengqi Deng, Chenyu Zhang, Chong Ruan, Damai Dai, Deli Chen, Dongjie Ji, Erhang Li, Fangyun Lin, Fucong Dai, Fuli Luo, Guangbo Hao, Guanting Chen, Guowei Li, H. Zhang, Han Bao, Hanwei Xu, Haocheng Wang, Honghui Ding, Huajian Xin, Huazuo Gao, Hui Qu, Hui Li, Jianzhong Guo, Jiashi Li, Jiawei Wang, Jingchang Chen, Jingyang Yuan, Junjie Qiu, Junlong Li, J. L. Cai, Jiaqi Ni, Jian Liang, Jin Chen, Kai Dong, Kai Hu, Kaige Gao, Kang Guan, Kexin Huang, Kuai Yu, Lean Wang, Lecong Zhang, Liang Zhao, Litong Wang, Liyue Zhang, Lei Xu, Leyi Xia, Mingchuan Zhang, Minghua Zhang, Minghui Tang, Meng Li, Miaojun Wang, Mingming Li, Ning Tian, Panpan Huang, Peng Zhang, Qiancheng Wang, Qinyu Chen, Qiushi Du, Ruiqi Ge, Ruisong Zhang, Ruizhe Pan, Runji Wang, R. J. Chen, R. L. Jin, Ruyi Chen, Shanghao Lu, Shangyan Zhou, Shanhuang Chen, Shengfeng Ye, Shiyu Wang, Shuiping Yu, Shunfeng Zhou, Shuting Pan, S. S. Li, Shuang Zhou, Shaoqing Wu, Shengfeng Ye, Tao Yun, Tian Pei, Tianyu Sun, T. Wang, Wangding Zeng, Wanjia Zhao, Wen Liu, Wenfeng Liang, Wenjun Gao, Wenqin Yu, Wentao Zhang, W. L. Xiao, Wei An, Xiaodong Liu, Xiaohan Wang, Xiaokang Chen, Xiaotao Nie, Xin Cheng, Xin Liu, Xin Xie, Xingchao Liu, Xinyu Yang, Xinyuan Li, Xuecheng Su, Xuheng Lin, X. Q. Li, Xiangyue Jin, Xiaojin Shen, Xiaosha Chen, Xiaowen Sun, Xiaoxiang Wang, Xinnan Song, Xinyi Zhou, Xianzu Wang, Xinxia Shan, Y. K. Li, Y. Q. Wang, Y. X. Wei, Yang Zhang, Yanhong Xu, Yao Li, Yao Zhao, Yaofeng Sun, Yaohui Wang, Yi Yu, Yichao Zhang, Yifan Shi, Yiliang Xiong, Ying He, Yishi Piao, Yisong Wang, Yixuan Tan, Yiyang Ma, Yiyuan Liu, Yongqiang Guo, Yuan Ou, Yuduan Wang, Yue Gong, Yuheng Zou, Yujia He, Yunfan Xiong, Yuxiang Luo, Yuxiang You, Yuxuan Liu, Yuyang Zhou, Y. X. Zhu, Yanhong Xu, Yanping Huang, Yaohui Li, Yi Zheng, Yuchen Zhu, Yunxian Ma, Ying Tang, Yukun Zha, Yuting Yan, Z. Z. Ren, Zehui Ren, Zhangli Sha, Zhe Fu, Zhean Xu, Zhenda Xie, Zhengyan Zhang, Zhewen Hao, Zhicheng Ma, Zhigang Yan, Zhiyu Wu, Zihui Gu, Zijia Zhu, Zijun Liu, Zilin Li, Ziwei Xie, Ziyang Song, Zizheng Pan, Zhen Huang, Zhipeng Xu, Zhongyu Zhang, and Zhen Zhang. 2025. DeepSeek-R1: Incentivizing Reasoning Capability in LLMs via Reinforcement Learning. arXiv:2501.12948 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2501.12948
- [12] DeepSeek-AI, Aixin Liu, Bei Feng, Bing Xue, Bingxuan Wang, Bochao Wu, Chengda Lu, Chenggang Zhao, Chengqi Deng, Chenyu Zhang, Chong Ruan, Damai Dai, Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Deli Chen, Dongjie Ji, Erhang Li, Fangyun Lin, Fucong Dai, Fuli Luo, Guangbo Hao, Guanting Chen, Guowei Li, H. Zhang, Han Bao, Hanwei Xu, Haocheng Wang, Haowei Zhang, Honghui Ding, Huajian Xin, Huazuo Gao, Hui Li, Hui Qu, J. L. Cai, Jian Liang, Jianzhong Guo, Jiaqi Ni, Jiashi Li, Jiawei Wang, Jin Chen, Jingchang Chen, Jingyang Yuan, Junjie Qiu, Junlong Li, Junxiao Song, Kai Dong, Kai Hu, Kaige Gao, Kang Guan, Kexin Huang, Kuai Yu, Lean Wang, Lecong Zhang, Lei Xu, Leyi Xia, Liang Zhao, Litong Wang, Liyue Zhang, Meng Li, Miaojun Wang, Mingchuan Zhang, Minghua Zhang, Minghui Tang, Mingming Li, Ning Tian, Panpan Huang, Peiyi Wang, Peng Zhang, Qiancheng Wang, Qihao Zhu, Qinyu Chen, Qiushi Du, R. J. Chen, R. L. Jin, Ruiqi Ge, Ruisong Zhang, Ruizhe Pan, Runji Wang, Runxin Xu, Ruoyu Zhang, Ruyi Chen, S. S. Li, Shanghao Lu, Shangyan Zhou, Shanhuang Chen, Shaoqing Wu, Shengfeng Ye, Shengfeng Ye, Shirong Ma, Shiyu Wang, Shuang Zhou, Shuiping Yu, Shunfeng Zhou, Shuting Pan, T. Wang, Tao Yun, Tian Pei, Tianyu Sun, W. L. Xiao, Wangding Zeng, Wanjia Zhao, Wei An, Wen Liu, Wenfeng Liang, Wenjun Gao, Wenqin Yu, Wentao Zhang, X. Q. Li, Xiangyue Jin, Xianzu Wang, Xiao Bi, Xiaodong Liu, Xiaohan Wang, Xiaojin Shen, Xiaokang Chen, Xiaokang Zhang, Xiaosha Chen, Xiaotao Nie, Xiaowen Sun, Xiaoxiang Wang, Xin Cheng, Xin Liu, Xin Xie, Xingchao Liu, Xingkai Yu, Xinnan Song, Xinxia Shan, Xinyi Zhou, Xinyu Yang, Xinyuan Li, Xuecheng Su, Xuheng Lin, Y. K. Li, Y. Q. Wang, Y. X. Wei, Y. X. Zhu, Yang Zhang, Yanhong Xu, Yanhong Xu, Yanping Huang, Yao Li, Yao Zhao, Yaofeng Sun, Yaohui Li, Yaohui Wang, Yi Yu, Yi Zheng, Yichao Zhang, Yifan Shi, Yiliang Xiong, Ying He, Ying Tang, Yishi Piao, Yisong Wang, Yixuan Tan, Yiyang Ma, Yiyuan Liu, Yongqiang Guo, Yu Wu, Yuan Ou, Yuchen Zhu, Yuduan Wang, Yue Gong, Yuheng Zou, Yujia He, Yukun Zha, Yunfan Xiong, Yunxian Ma, Yuting Yan, Yuxiang Luo, Yuxiang You, Yuxuan Liu, Yuyang Zhou, Z. F. Wu, Z. Z. Ren, Zehui Ren, Zhangli Sha, Zhe Fu, Zhean Xu, Zhen Huang, Zhen Zhang, Zhenda Xie, Zhengyan Zhang, Zhewen Hao, Zhibin Gou, Zhicheng Ma, Zhigang Yan, Zhihong Shao, Zhipeng Xu, Zhiyu Wu, Zhongyu Zhang, Zhuoshu Li, Zihui Gu, Zijia Zhu, Zijun Liu, Zilin Li, Ziwei Xie, Ziyang Song, Ziyi Gao, and Zizheng Pan. 2025. DeepSeek-V3 Technical Report. arXiv:2412.19437 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.19437
- [13] Gelei Deng, Yi Liu, Yuekang Li, Kailong Wang, Ying Zhang, Zefeng Li, Haoyu Wang, Tianwei Zhang, and Yang Liu. 2024. MASTERKEY: Automated Jailbreaking of Large Language Model Chatbots. In NDSS. https://www.ndss-symposium.org/ndss-paper/masterkey-automated-jailbreaking-of-large-language-model-chatbots/
- [14] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Proceedings of the 2019 conference of the North American chapter of the association for computational linguistics: human language technologies, volume 1 (long and short papers). 4171–4186.
- [15] Yixin Dong, Charlie F. Ruan, Yaxing Cai, Ruihang Lai, Ziyi Xu, Yilong Zhao, and Tianqi Chen. 2024. XGrammar: Flexible and Efficient Structured Generation Engine for Large Language Models. arXiv:2411.15100 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/ abs/2411.15100
- [16] Fabio Duarte. 2025. Number of ChatGPT Users (March 2025). https:// explodingtopics.com/blog/chatgpt-users. Accessed: March 31, 2025.
- [17] Gemini Team Google. 2023. Gemini: A Family of Highly Capable Multimodal Models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.11805 (2023).
- [18] Saibo Geng, Hudson Cooper, Michał Moskal, Samuel Jenkins, Julian Berman, Nathan Ranchin, Robert West, Eric Horvitz, and Harsha Nori. 2025. JSON-SchemaBench: A Rigorous Benchmark of Structured Outputs for Language Models. arXiv:2501.10868 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2501.10868
- [19] Georgi Gerganov. 2023. llama.cpp: LLM inference in C/C++. https://github.com/ ggml-org/llama.cpp. Started development in March 2023.
- [20] Emman Haider, Daniel Perez-Becker, Thomas Portet, Piyush Madan, Amit Garg, Atabak Ashfaq, David Majercak, Wen Wen, Dongwoo Kim, Ziyi Yang, Jianwen Zhang, Hiteshi Sharma, Blake Bullwinkel, Martin Pouliot, Amanda Minnich, Shiven Chawla, Solianna Herrera, Shahed Warreth, Maggie Engler, Gary Lopez, Nina Chikanov, Raja Sekhar Rao Dheekonda, Bolor-Erdene Jagdagdorj, Roman Lutz, Richard Lundeen, Tori Westerhoff, Pete Bryan, Christian Seifert, Ram Shankar Siva Kumar, Andrew Berkley, and Alex Kessler. 2024. Phi-3 Safety Post-Training: Aligning Language Models with a "Break-Fix" Cycle. arXiv:2407.13833 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.13833
- [21] Yangsibo Huang, Samyak Gupta, Mengzhou Xia, Kai Li, and Danqi Chen. 2024. Catastrophic Jailbreak of Open-source LLMs via Exploiting Generation. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*. https://openreview.net/forum?id=r42tSSCHPh
- [22] Yangsibo Huang, Samyak Gupta, Mengzhou Xia, Kai Li, and Danqi Chen. 2024. Catastrophic Jailbreak of Open-source LLMs via Exploiting Generation. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*. https://openreview.net/forum?id=r42tSSCHPh
- [23] Hakan Inan, Kartikeya Upasani, Jianfeng Chi, Rashi Rungta, Krithika Iyer, Yuning Mao, Michael Tontchev, Qing Hu, Brian Fuller, Davide Testuggine, and Madian Khabsa. 2023. Llama Guard: LLM-based Input-Output Safeguard for Human-AI

Conversations. arXiv:2312.06674 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2312.06674

- [24] Jiaming Ji, Donghai Hong, Borong Zhang, Boyuan Chen, Josef Dai, Boren Zheng, Tianyi Qiu, Boxun Li, and Yaodong Yang. 2024. Pku-saferlhf: A safety alignment preference dataset for llama family models. arXiv e-prints (2024), arXiv-2406.
- [25] Jiaming Ji, Mickel Liu, Josef Dai, Xuehai Pan, Chi Zhang, Ce Bian, Boyuan Chen, Ruiyang Sun, Yizhou Wang, and Yaodong Yang. 2023. Beavertails: Towards improved safety alignment of llm via a human-preference dataset. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 36 (2023), 24678–24704.
- [26] Jigsaw and Google Counter Abuse Technology. 2017. Perspective API. https: //www.perspectiveapi.com/. Accessed: March 31, 2025.
- [27] Ehsan Kamalloo, Nouha Dziri, Charles Clarke, and Davood Rafiei. 2023. Evaluating Open-Domain Question Answering in the Era of Large Language Models. In Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), Anna Rogers, Jordan Boyd-Graber, and Naoaki Okazaki (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Toronto, Canada, 5591–5606. doi:10.18653/v1/2023.acl-long.307
- [28] Terry Koo, Frederick Liu, and Luheng He. 2024. Automata-based constraints for language model decoding. In *First Conference on Language Modeling*. https: //openreview.net/forum?id=BDBdblmyzY
- [29] Woosuk Kwon, Zhuohan Li, Siyuan Zhuang, Ying Sheng, Lianmin Zheng, Cody Hao Yu, Joseph Gonzalez, Hao Zhang, and Ion Stoica. 2023. Efficient Memory Management for Large Language Model Serving with PagedAttention. In Proceedings of the 29th Symposium on Operating Systems Principles (Koblenz, Germany) (SOSP '23). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 611–626. doi:10.1145/3600006.3613165
- [30] Mike Lewis, Yinhan Liu, Naman Goyal, Marjan Ghazvininejad, Abdelrahman Mohamed, Omer Levy, Veselin Stoyanov, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2020. BART: Denoising Sequence-to-Sequence Pre-training for Natural Language Generation, Translation, and Comprehension. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, Dan Jurafsky, Joyce Chai, Natalie Schluter, and Joel Tetreault (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Online, 7871–7880. doi:10.18653/v1/2020.acl-main.703
- [31] Xirui Li, Ruochen Wang, Minhao Cheng, Tianyi Zhou, and Cho-Jui Hsieh. 2024. DrAttack: Prompt Decomposition and Reconstruction Makes Powerful LLMs Jailbreakers. In Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2024, Yaser Al-Onaizan, Mohit Bansal, and Yun-Nung Chen (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Miami, Florida, USA, 13891–13913. doi:10.18653/ v1/2024.findings-emnlp.813
- [32] Yanzeng Li, Yunfan Xiong, Jialun Zhong, Jinchao Zhang, Jie Zhou, and Lei Zou. 2025. Exploiting Prefix-Tree in Structured Output Interfaces for Enhancing Jailbreak Attacking. arXiv:2502.13527 [cs.CR] https://arxiv.org/abs/2502.13527
- [33] Xiaogeng Liu, Nan Xu, Muhao Chen, and Chaowei Xiao. 2024. AutoDAN: Generating Stealthy Jailbreak Prompts on Aligned Large Language Models. In The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations. https: //openreview.net/forum?id=7Jwpw4qKkb
- [34] Yi Liu, Gelei Deng, Zhengzi Xu, Yuekang Li, Yaowen Zheng, Ying Zhang, Lida Zhao, Tianwei Zhang, Kailong Wang, and Yang Liu. 2024. Jailbreaking ChatGPT via Prompt Engineering: An Empirical Study. arXiv:2305.13860 [cs.SE] https: //arxiv.org/abs/2305.13860
- [35] Wuyuao Mai, Geng Hong, Pei Chen, Xudong Pan, Baojun Liu, Yuan Zhang, Haixin Duan, and Min Yang. 2025. You Can't Eat Your Cake and Have It Too: The Performance Degradation of LLMs with Jailbreak Defense. In *THE WEB* CONFERENCE 2025. https://openreview.net/forum?id=ETyLTCkvfT
- [36] Todor Markov, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Florentine Eloundou Nekoul, Theodore Lee, Steven Adler, Angela Jiang, and Lilian Weng. 2023. A holistic approach to undesired content detection in the real world. In Proceedings of the Thirty-Seventh AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Thirty-Fifth Conference on Innovative Applications of Artificial Intelligence and Thirteenth Symposium on Educational Advances in Artificial Intelligence (AAAI'23/IAAI'23/EAAI'23). AAAI Press, Article 1683, 10 pages. doi:10.1609/aaai.v37i12.26752
- [37] Mantas Mazeika, Long Phan, Xuwang Yin, Andy Zou, Zifan Wang, Norman Mu, Elham Sakhaee, Nathaniel Li, Steven Basart, Bo Li, David Forsyth, and Dan Hendrycks. 2024. HarmBench: A Standardized Evaluation Framework for Automated Red Teaming and Robust Refusal. arXiv:2402.04249 [cs.LG] https: //arxiv.org/abs/2402.04249
- [38] Anay Mehrotra, Manolis Zampetakis, Paul Kassianik, Blaine Nelson, Hyrum S Anderson, Yaron Singer, and Amin Karbasi. 2024. Tree of Attacks: Jailbreaking Black-Box LLMs Automatically. In *The Thirty-eighth Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*. https://openreview.net/forum?id=SoM3vngOH5
- [39] Meta AI. 2024. Introducing Meta Llama 3: The most capable openly available LLM to date. https://ai.meta.com/blog/meta-llama-3
- [40] Mistral AI team. 2024. Mistral NeMo: A State-of-the-Art 12B Model with 128k Context Length. https://mistral.ai/news/mistral-nemo Released under Apache 2.0 license.
- [41] ModelTC. 2025. LightLLM: A Python-based LLM inference and serving framework. https://github.com/ModelTC/lightllm. Latest version 1.0.0 released in February 2025.

- [42] Lukas Netz, Jan Reimer, and Bernhard Rumpe. 2024. Using Grammar Masking to Ensure Syntactic Validity in LLM-based Modeling Tasks. In ACM/IEEE 27th International Conference on Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems.
- [43] OpenAI. 2024. GPT-40 mini: advancing cost-efficient intelligence. https://openai. com/index/gpt-40-mini-advancing-cost-efficient-intelligence/ Accessed: March 07, 2025.
- [44] OpenAI. 2024. GPT-4o System Card. https://openai.com/index/gpt-4o-systemcard/ Accessed: March 07, 2025.
- [45] OpenAI. 2025. Moderation OpenAI API. https://platform.openai.com/docs/ guides/moderation/overview Accessed: March 19, 2025.
- [46] OpenAI. 2025. Structured Outputs. https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/ structured-outputs. Accessed: March 2025.
- [47] Gabriel Poesia, Oleksandr Polozov, Vu Le, Ashish Tiwari, Gustavo Soares, Christopher Meek, and Sumit Gulwani. 2022. Synchromesh: Reliable code generation from pre-trained language models. arXiv:2201.11227 [cs.LG] https: //arxiv.org/abs/2201.11227
- [48] Xiangyu Qi, Kaixuan Huang, Ashwinee Panda, Peter Henderson, Mengdi Wang, and Prateek Mittal. 2023. Visual Adversarial Examples Jailbreak Aligned Large Language Models. arXiv:2306.13213 [cs.CR] https://arxiv.org/abs/2306.13213
- [49] Xiangyu Qi, Ashwinee Panda, Kaifeng Lyu, Xiao Ma, Subhrajit Roy, Ahmad Beirami, Prateek Mittal, and Peter Henderson. 2025. Safety Alignment Should be Made More Than Just a Few Tokens Deep. In *The Thirteenth International Conference on Learning Representations*. https://openreview.net/forum?id=6Mxhg9PtDE
- [50] Changle Qu, Sunhao Dai, Xiaochi Wei, Hengyi Cai, Shuaiqiang Wang, Dawei Yin, Jun Xu, and Ji-rong Wen. 2025. Tool learning with large language models: a survey. Frontiers of Computer Science 19, 8 (2025).
- [51] Qwen, :, An Yang, Baosong Yang, Beichen Zhang, Binyuan Hui, Bo Zheng, Bowen Yu, Chengyuan Li, Dayiheng Liu, Fei Huang, Haoran Wei, Huan Lin, Jian Yang, Jianhong Tu, Jianwei Zhang, Jianxin Yang, Jiaxi Yang, Jingren Zhou, Junyang Lin, Kai Dang, Keming Lu, Keqin Bao, Kexin Yang, Le Yu, Mei Li, Mingfeng Xue, Pei Zhang, Qin Zhu, Rui Men, Runji Lin, Tianhao Li, Tianyi Tang, Tingyu Xia, Xingzhang Ren, Xuancheng Ren, Yang Fan, Yang Su, Yichang Zhang, Yu Wan, Yuqiong Liu, Zeyu Cui, Zhenru Zhang, and Zihan Qiu. 2025. Qwen2.5 Technical Report. arXiv:2412.15115 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.15115
- [52] Alec Radford, Karthik Narasimhan, Tim Salimans, and Ilya Sutskever. 2018. Improving language understanding by generative pre-training. (2018).
- [53] Alec Radford, Jeffrey Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, Ilya Sutskever, et al. 2019. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners. *OpenAI blog* 1, 8 (2019), 9.
- [54] Qibing Ren, Chang Gao, Jing Shao, Junchi Yan, Xin Tan, Wai Lam, and Lizhuang Ma. 2024. CodeAttack: Revealing Safety Generalization Challenges of Large Language Models via Code Completion. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024*, Lun-Wei Ku, Andre Martins, and Vivek Srikumar (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Bangkok, Thailand, 11437– 11452. doi:10.18653/v1/2024.findings-acl.679
- [55] Toran Bruce Richards and Significant Gravitas. 2023. AutoGPT: An Autonomous GPT-4 Based Agent. https://github.com/Significant-Gravitas/AutoGPT. Released on March 30, 2023.
- [56] Xinyue Shen, Zeyuan Chen, Michael Backes, Yun Shen, and Yang Zhang. 2024. "Do Anything Now": Characterizing and Evaluating In-The-Wild Jailbreak Prompts on Large Language Models. In Proceedings of the 2024 on ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer and Communications Security (Salt Lake City, UT, USA) (CCS '24). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 1671–1685. doi:10. 1145/3658644.3670388
- [57] Zhuocheng Shen. 2024. LLM With Tools: A Survey. arXiv:2409.18807 [cs.AI] https://arxiv.org/abs/2409.18807
- [58] Dan Shi, Tianhao Shen, Yufei Huang, Zhigen Li, Yongqi Leng, Renren Jin, Chuang Liu, Xinwei Wu, Zishan Guo, Linhao Yu, Ling Shi, Bojian Jiang, and Deyi Xiong. 2024. Large Language Model Safety: A Holistic Survey. arXiv:2412.17686 [cs.AI] https://arxiv.org/abs/2412.17686
- [59] Alexandra Souly, Qingyuan Lu, Dillon Bowen, Tu Trinh, Elvis Hsieh, Sana Pandey, Pieter Abbeel, Justin Svegliato, Scott Emmons, Olivia Watkins, and Sam Toyer. 2024. A StrongREJECT for Empty Jailbreaks. In ICLR 2024 Workshop on Reliable and Responsible Foundation Models. https://openreview.net/forum?id=al303JJkGO
- [60] Gemma Team, Morgane Riviere, Shreya Pathak, Pier Giuseppe Sessa, Cassidy Hardin, Surya Bhupatiraju, Léonard Hussenot, Thomas Mesnard, Bobak Shahriari, Alexandre Ramé, Johan Ferret, Peter Liu, Pouya Tafti, Abe Friesen, Michelle Casbon, Sabela Ramos, Ravin Kumar, Charline Le Lan, Sammy Jerome, Anton Tsitsulin, Nino Vieillard, Piotr Stanczyk, Sertan Girgin, Nikola Momchev, Matt Hoffman, Shantanu Thakoor, Jean-Bastien Grill, Behnam Neyshabur, Olivier Bachem, Alanna Walton, Aliaksei Severyn, Alicia Parrish, Aliya Ahmad, Allen Hutchison, Alvin Abdagic, Amanda Carl, Amy Shen, Andy Brock, Andy Coenen, Anthony Laforge, Antonia Paterson, Ben Bastian, Bilal Piot, Bo Wu, Brandon Royal, Charlie Chen, Chintu Kumar, Chris Perry, Chris Welty, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Danila Sinopalnikov, David Weinberger, Dimple Vijaykumar, Dominika Rogozińska, Dustin Herbison, Elisa Bandy, Emma Wang, Eric Noland, Erica Moreira, Evan Senter, Evgenii Eltyshev, Francesco Visin, Gabriel Rasskin, Gary Wei, Glenn

Cameron, Gus Martins, Hadi Hashemi, Hanna Klimczak-Plucińska, Harleen Batra, Harsh Dhand, Ivan Nardini, Jacinda Mein, Jack Zhou, James Svensson, Jeff Stanway, Jetha Chan, Jin Peng Zhou, Joana Carrasqueira, Joana Iljazi, Jocelyn Becker, Joe Fernandez, Joost van Amersfoort, Josh Gordon, Josh Lipschultz, Josh Newlan, Ju yeong Ji, Kareem Mohamed, Kartikeya Badola, Kat Black, Katie Millican, Keelin McDonell, Kelvin Nguyen, Kiranbir Sodhia, Kish Greene, Lars Lowe Sjoesund, Lauren Usui, Laurent Sifre, Lena Heuermann, Leticia Lago, Lilly Mc-Nealus, Livio Baldini Soares, Logan Kilpatrick, Lucas Dixon, Luciano Martins, Machel Reid, Manvinder Singh, Mark Iverson, Martin Görner, Mat Velloso, Mateo Wirth, Matt Davidow, Matt Miller, Matthew Rahtz, Matthew Watson, Meg Risdal, Mehran Kazemi, Michael Moynihan, Ming Zhang, Minsuk Kahng, Minwoo Park, Mofi Rahman, Mohit Khatwani, Natalie Dao, Nenshad Bardoliwalla, Nesh Devanathan, Neta Dumai, Nilay Chauhan, Oscar Wahltinez, Pankil Botarda, Parker Barnes, Paul Barham, Paul Michel, Pengchong Jin, Petko Georgiev, Phil Culliton, Pradeep Kuppala, Ramona Comanescu, Ramona Merhej, Reena Jana, Reza Ardeshir Rokni, Rishabh Agarwal, Ryan Mullins, Samaneh Saadat, Sara Mc Carthy, Sarah Cogan, Sarah Perrin, Sébastien M. R. Arnold, Sebastian Krause, Shengyang Dai, Shruti Garg, Shruti Sheth, Sue Ronstrom, Susan Chan, Timothy Jordan, Ting Yu, Tom Eccles, Tom Hennigan, Tomas Kocisky, Tulsee Doshi, Vihan Jain, Vikas Yadav, Vilobh Meshram, Vishal Dharmadhikari, Warren Barkley, Wei Wei, Wenming Ye, Woohyun Han, Woosuk Kwon, Xiang Xu, Zhe Shen, Zhitao Gong, Zichuan Wei, Victor Cotruta, Phoebe Kirk, Anand Rao, Minh Giang, Ludovic Peran, Tris Warkentin, Eli Collins, Joelle Barral, Zoubin Ghahramani, Raia Hadsell, D. Sculley, Jeanine Banks, Anca Dragan, Slav Petrov, Oriol Vinyals, Jeff Dean, Demis Hassabis, Koray Kavukcuoglu, Clement Farabet, Elena Buchatskaya, Sebastian Borgeaud, Noah Fiedel, Armand Joulin, Kathleen Kenealy, Robert Dadashi, and Alek Andreev. 2024. Gemma 2: Improving Open Language Models at a Practical Size. arXiv:2408.00118 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2408.00118

- [61] Pydantic Team. 2020. JSON Schema Pydantic. https://docs.pydantic.dev/latest/ concepts/json\_schema/. Accessed: March 14, 2025.
- [62] Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurelien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. 2023. LLaMA: Open and Efficient Foundation Language Models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971 (2023).
- [63] Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, Dan Bikel, Lukas Blecher, Cristian Canton Ferrer, Mova Chen, Guillem Cucurull, David Esiobu, Jude Fernandes, Jeremy Fu, Wenyin Fu, Brian Fuller, Cynthia Gao, Vedanuj Goswami, Naman Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Saghar Hosseini, Rui Hou, Hakan Inan, Marcin Kardas, Viktor Kerkez, Madian Khabsa, Isabel Kloumann, Artem Korenev, Punit Singh Koura, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Thibaut Lavril, Jenya Lee, Diana Liskovich, Yinghai Lu, Yuning Mao, Xavier Martinet, Todor Mihaylov, Pushkar Mishra, Igor Molybog, Yixin Nie, Andrew Poulton, Jeremy Reizenstein, Rashi Rungta, Kalyan Saladi, Alan Schelten, Ruan Silva, Eric Michael Smith, Ranjan Subramanian, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Binh Tang, Ross Taylor, Adina Williams, Jian Xiang Kuan, Puxin Xu, Zheng Yan, Iliyan Zarov, Yuchen Zhang, Angela Fan, Melanie Kambadur, Sharan Narang, Aurelien Rodriguez, Robert Stojnic, Sergey Edunov, and Thomas Scialom. 2023. Llama 2: Open Foundation and Fine-Tuned Chat Models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288 (2023)
- [64] Shubham Ugare, Tarun Suresh, Hangoo Kang, Sasa Misailovic, and Gagandeep Singh. 2024. SynCode: LLM Generation with Grammar Augmentation. arXiv:2403.01632 [cs.LG] https://arxiv.org/abs/2403.01632
- [65] Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. 2017. Attention is all you need. Advances in neural information processing systems 30 (2017).
- [66] vLLM Team. 2025. Structured Output Generation with vLLM. https://docs.vllm. ai/en/latest/serving/structured\_outputs.html. Accessed: March 2025.
- [67] Han Wang, Ming Shan Hee, Md Rabiul Awal, Kenny Tsu Wei Choo, and Roy Ka-Wei Lee. 2023. Evaluating GPT-3 generated explanations for hateful content moderation. In Proceedings of the Thirty-Second International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (Macao, P.R.China) (IJCAI '23). Article 694, 9 pages. doi:10.24963/ijcai.2023/694
- [68] Alexander Wei, Nika Haghtalab, and Jacob Steinhardt. 2023. Jailbroken: How Does LLM Safety Training Fail?. In Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems. https://openreview.net/forum?id=jA235JGM09
- [69] Brandon T. Willard and Rémi Louf. 2023. Efficient Guided Generation for Large Language Models. arXiv:2307.09702 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2307.09702
- [70] Jialin Wu, Jiangyi Deng, Shengyuan Pang, Yanjiao Chen, Jiayang Xu, Xinfeng Li, and Wenyuan Xu. 2024. Legilimens: Practical and Unified Content Moderation for Large Language Model Services. In Proceedings of the 2024 on ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer and Communications Security (Salt Lake City, UT, USA) (CCS '24). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 1151–1165. doi:10.1145/3658644.3690322
- [71] Qingyun Wu, Gagan Bansal, Jieyu Zhang, Yiran Wu, Beibin Li, Erkang Zhu, Li Jiang, Xiaoyun Zhang, Shaokun Zhang, Jiale Liu, Ahmed Hassan Awadallah,

Ryen W White, Doug Burger, and Chi Wang. 2024. AutoGen: Enabling Next-Gen LLM Applications via Multi-Agent Conversations. In *First Conference on Language Modeling*. https://openreview.net/forum?id=BAakY1hNKS

- [72] Tinghao Xie, Xiangyu Qi, Yi Zeng, Yangsibo Huang, Udari Madhushani Sehwag, Kaixuan Huang, Luxi He, Boyi Wei, Dacheng Li, Ying Sheng, Ruoxi Jia, Bo Li, Kai Li, Danqi Chen, Peter Henderson, and Prateek Mittal. 2025. SORRY-Bench: Systematically Evaluating Large Language Model Safety Refusal. In *The Thirteenth International Conference on Learning Representations*. https://openreview.net/ forum?id=YfKNaRktan
- [73] Zhangchen Xu, Fengqing Jiang, Luyao Niu, Jinyuan Jia, Bill Yuchen Lin, and Radha Poovendran. 2024. SafeDecoding: Defending against Jailbreak Attacks via Safety-Aware Decoding. In Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), Lun-Wei Ku, Andre Martins, and Vivek Srikumar (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Bangkok, Thailand, 5587–5605. doi:10.18653/v1/2024.acl-long.303
- [74] Zihao Xu, Yi Liu, Gelei Deng, Yuekang Li, and Stjepan Picek. 2024. A Comprehensive Study of Jailbreak Attack versus Defense for Large Language Models. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024*, Lun-Wei Ku, Andre Martins, and Vivek Srikumar (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Bangkok, Thailand, 7432–7449. doi:10.18653/v1/2024.findings-acl.443
- [75] Sibo Yi, Yule Liu, Zhen Sun, Tianshuo Cong, Xinlei He, Jiaxing Song, Ke Xu, and Qi Li. 2024. Jailbreak attacks and defenses against large language models: A survey. arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.04295 (2024).
- [76] Zheng-Xin Yong, Cristina Menghini, and Stephen H. Bach. 2024. Low-Resource Languages Jailbreak GPT-4. arXiv:2310.02446 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2310. 02446
- [77] Shehel Yoosuf, Temoor Ali, Ahmed Lekssays, Mashael AlSabah, and Issa Khalil. 2025. StructTransform: A Scalable Attack Surface for Safety-Aligned Large Language Models. arXiv:2502.11853 [cs.LG] https://arxiv.org/abs/2502.11853
- [78] Jiahao Yu, Xingwei Lin, Zheng Yu, and Xinyu Xing. 2024. LLM-Fuzzer: Scaling Assessment of Large Language Model Jailbreaks. In 33rd USENIX Security Symposium (USENIX Security 24). USENIX Association, Philadelphia, PA, 4657–4674. https://www.usenix.org/conference/usenixsecurity24/presentation/yu-jiahao
- [79] Hangfan Zhang, Zhimeng Guo, Huaisheng Zhu, Bochuan Cao, Lu Lin, Jinyuan Jia, Jinghui Chen, and Dinghao Wu. 2024. Jailbreak Open-Sourced Large Language Models via Enforced Decoding. In Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), Lun-Wei Ku, Andre Martins, and Vivek Srikumar (Eds.). Association for Computational Linguistics, Bangkok, Thailand, 5475–5493. doi:10.18653/v1/2024.acl-long.299
- [80] Shenyi Zhang, Yuchen Zhai, Keyan Guo, Hongxin Hu, Shengnan Guo, Zheng Fang, Lingchen Zhao, Chao Shen, Cong Wang, and Qian Wang. 2025. JBShield: Defending Large Language Models from Jailbreak Attacks through Activated Concept Analysis and Manipulation. arXiv:2502.07557 [cs.CR] https://arxiv.org/ abs/2502.07557
- [81] Xuandong Zhao, Will Cai, Tianneng Shi, David Huang, Licong Lin, Song Mei, and Dawn Song. 2025. Improving LLM Safety Alignment with Dual-Objective Optimization. arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.03710 (2025).
- [82] Lianmin Zheng, Liangsheng Yin, Zhiqiang Xie, Chuyue Sun, Jeff Huang, Cody Hao Yu, Shiyi Cao, Christos Kozyrakis, Ion Stoica, Joseph E. Gonzalez, Clark Barrett, and Ying Sheng. 2024. SGLang: Efficient Execution of Structured Language Model Programs. arXiv:2312.07104 [cs.AI] https://arxiv.org/abs/2312.07104
- [83] Andy Zou, Zifan Wang, Nicholas Carlini, Milad Nasr, J. Zico Kolter, and Matt Fredrikson. 2023. Universal and Transferable Adversarial Attacks on Aligned Language Models. arXiv:2307.15043 [cs.CL] https://arxiv.org/abs/2307.15043