Toward Robust Spiking Neural Network Against Adversarial Perturbation

Abstract

As spiking neural networks (SNNs) are deployed increasingly in real-world effi-
ciency critical applications, the security concerns in SNNs attract more attention.
Currently, researchers have already demonstrated an SNN can be attacked with ad-
versarial examples. How to build a robust SNN becomes an urgent issue. Recently,
many studies apply certified training in artificial neural networks (ANNs), which
can improve the robustness of an NN model promisely. However, existing certifica-
tions cannot transfer to SNNs directly because of the distinct neuron behavior and
input formats for SNNs. In this work, we first design S-IBP and S-CROWN that
tackle the non-linear functions in SNNs' neuron modeling. Then, we formalize the
boundaries for both digital and spike inputs. Finally, we demonstrate the efficiency
of our proposed robust training method in different datasets and model architec-
tures. Based on our experiment, we can achieve a maximum 37.7% attack error
reduction with 3.7% original accuracy loss. To the best of our knowledge, this is
the first analysis on robust training of SNNs.

1 Introduction

Spiking neural networks (SNNs) are a class of models that have the potential ability to simulate the
behavior of neuron circuits in the brain. Except for the biological character of SNN models, the
event-driven based information propagation mechanism makes SNN can be deployed with limited
computation resources. Many neuromorphic chips are designed to achieve low power SNN inference,
such as TrueNorth Akopyan et al. (2015), LoihiDavies et al. (2018), SpinalFlow Narayanan et al.
(2020) and H2Learn Liang et al. (2021b).

With more attention to the study of SNNs, the security issues also raise concerns in the community.
Adversarial attack Szegedy et al. (2013); Carlini & Wagner (2017); Athalye et al. (2018); Xu et al.
(2020b) is one of the most intuitive ways to evaluate the robustness of a model. In adversarial attacks,
the attacker generates adversarial examples to fool a model predicting wrong. Currently, SNNs
are demonstrated can be attacked through adversarial examples Sharmin et al. (2019); Liang et al.
(2021a); Büchel et al. (2021b); Marchisio et al. (2021). It is urgent to explore an efficient way to
improve the robustness of SNN models.

Previously, researchers have investigated the impact of hyper-parameter selection El-Allami et al.
(2021) and input filtering Marchisio et al. (2021) on the adversarial attack in SNNs. However, these
methods do not directly promote the classification behavior of a given SNN model. Büchel et al.
(2021a) proposes a robust training method that relies on the adversarial attack in the parameter
space. Unlike SNNs, how to improve the robustness of an artificial neural network (ANN) is well
studied. Recently, trianing a neural network model with certified defense methods Wong & Kolter
(2018); Mirman et al. (2018); Zhang et al. (2020); Xu et al. (2020a) show remarkable guarantee to
improve the model's robustness. CROWN-IBP Zhang et al. (2020) is one of the most promising
certified training methods with polynomial computianal cost compared with natural training. The
CROWN-IBP method will compute the output boundary for a given bounded input. The core mission
in CROWN-IBP certified training is to find the upper and lower bound function for each operation

and find tight linear relaxation for non-linear operations. However, the current CROWN-IBP method cannot be directly applied to SNNs. Firstly, the neuron dynamic in SNNs is more complicated. Hence, some new boundary functions should be defined. Secondly, SNNs accept both spike and digital inputs, which requires additional boundary generalization for different input types.

Enlightened by certification training in ANNs, we designed an end-to-end robust training method to improve the robustness of an SNN model against adversarial attacks. Specifically, our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We design S-IBP and S-CROWN to tackle the non-linear fire function and temporal update in SNNs which firstly introduce SNNs to the linear relaxation based verification family.
- We formalized ℓ_0-norm and ℓ_∞-norm boundaries for spike and digital inputs, respectively.
- Our proposed methods are evaluated on MNIST LeCun et al. (1998), FMNIST Xiao et al. (2017) and NMNIST Orchard et al. (2015) datasets. The experinetal results show that we can achieve a maximum 37.7% attack error reduction with 3.7% original accuracy loss.

2   Preliminary and Related Work

2.1   Spiking Neural Netowks (SNNs)

Neuron Modeling: Usually, SNNs are designed to simulate the neuron behavior in the brain. In this work, we adopt the well-studied leaky integrated-and-fire (LIF) Gerstner et al. (2014) for the neuron modeling as Figure 1(a). The state of a neuron at each time step is determined by its membrane potential m and its spike status s. Specifically, a neuron will $fire$ a spike to the post-synaptic neurons once its membrane potential is greater than a threshold th and its membrane potential will be reset to 0 at the same time. An example of a neuron dynamic is shown in Figure 1(b) which simulates a neuron's behavior in 5 time steps. The spike status of a neuron can be formulated as

$$s_t[k] = fire(m_t[k] - th). \tag{1}$$

$$fire(x) = \begin{cases} 1, x \geq 0 \\ 0, \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

We use $m_t[k]$ and $s_t[k]$ to represent neurons' membrane potentials and spike status at t-th time step and k-th layer. $fire(\cdot)$ is the Heaviside step function. The membrane potential of a neuron is composed of spatial and temporal update that follows

$$m_t[k] = \underbrace{\sum_t w[k-1] \otimes s_t[k-1]}_{spatial} + \underbrace{\alpha m_{t-1}[k] \cdot (1 - s_{t-1}[k])}_{temporal}. \tag{3}$$

The spatial update is a Convolution or Fully Connected or Pooling operation between the weight and the spike events in previous layer. The temporal update is determined by the neuron's membrane potential and spike status in the previous time step. Here, α is a scaling factor to control the decay.

Figure 1: Introduction of SNNs: (a) neuron modeling; (b) computing model of a neuron; (c) spatiotemporal flow of an SNN model; (d) input formats of an SNN.

Network Structure: Similar to ANNs, SNNs are built with input layer, hidden layers, and output layer as Figure1(c). In SNNs, the input layer receives spike inputs. The hidden layers are CONV/FC/POOL that correspond to the spatial update in the neuron modeling. Neurons in each layer propagate spike events to the neurons in the next layer. Compared to ANNs, SNNs involve an additional temporal axis that passes the neurons' status along with time steps. The final recognition of an SNN is determined

by the spike events of the output layer. In this work, we adopt the rate coding, i.e., the neuron that fires the most spikes indicates the classification result.

Input Format: In this work, we focus on the image recognition tasks. The input of an SNN can be spike events captured by dynamic vision sensors Patrick et al. (2008). Also, SNNs can take a digital image as input, however, sampling should be involved before feeding to the SNN. In this work we adopt Bernoulli sampling Deng et al. (2020) for digital inputs that follows

$$P(\dot{x}_t[i] = 1) = \hat{x}[i]. \tag{4}$$

We use $\dot{x}_t$ to represent the spike input at time step t. $\hat{x}$ is the digital input after normalization to $[0, 1]$. The example of spike and digital inputs are shown in Figure 1 (d).

Training Method: Recently, supervised learning via backpropagation through time (BPTT) has been adopted in SNN training Wu et al. (2018), which leverages the spatial-temporal information propagation in SNNs. The BPTT-based training method can achieving higher accuracy and scalability compared to the unsupervised learning algorithms. Also, the SNNs trained with BPTT also require fewer time steps, which is more hardware friendly in the real deployment. Thus, in this work, we focus on the SNNs trained with BPTT-based learning method.

2.2 Adversarial Attack in SNN

Adversarial attack is one of the most powerful threat models that affect a model's security. In this work, we use the adversarial attack as an assessment tool to evaluate the robustness of an SNN model.

Untargeted White-box Gradient-based Attack: In adversarial attack, the attacker adds imperceptible noise on inputs to fool the model predicting wrong results. In untargeted attack, the model predicts the adversarial example as any other classes except the ground-truth, which can be formulated as

$$\underset{\delta}{\arg\min} \|\delta\|_p, \ s.t. \ f(x + \delta) \neq f(x). \tag{5}$$

Here, $f(\cdot)$ is the prediction result, x is the original input, and δ is the noise added on the input. In this work, we adopt white-box attack, which means the attacker knows all of the model information

The gradient-based attacks are the most efficient ways to generate adversarial examples. In SNNs, the gradient-based attack for the spike and digital inputs can be formulated as

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}'_{n+1} = \dot{x}'_n + F[\nabla_{\dot{x}'_n} L(\theta, \dot{x}'_n, y_{org})], & \text{spike input}, \\ \\ \hat{x}'_{n+1} = \hat{x}'_n + \dfrac{\sum_t F[\nabla_{\dot{x}'_n} L(\theta, \dot{x}'_n, y_{org})]}{T}, & \text{digital input}. \end{cases} \tag{6}$$

We use $\dot{x}'$ and $\hat{x}'$ to represent the spike and digital adversarial examples, i.e., $x' = x + \delta$. L and θ are the loss function and parameters of the model, respectively. The adversarial example is constructed by adding the gradient of inputs with the original label (y_{org}) in loss function. F is a filter function that samples, clips, and generates spike compatible noise. During the attack, attackers can compute the adversarial examples iteratively. We use n to denote the attack iteration.

In this work, we use adversarial attack to evaluate the robustness of an SNN model. Thus, we adopt the general attack method (i.e.,untargeted white-box gradient-based attack) as our assessment metric.

2.3 Certified Training

Recently, the certified training Gowal et al. (2018); Zhang et al. (2020); Xu et al. (2020a) has been demonstrated to improve the guaranteed robustness of a neural network. In this work, we leverage the CROWN-IBP method Zhang et al. (2020), one of the state-of-the-art certified training that can achieve tighter bounds in accepctable training cost. Considering a digital input data bounded with ℓ_∞-norm, the goal of CROWN-IBP is to identify whether arbitrary input data within the boundary can fool the model. The CROWN-IBP contains two parts of bounding methods: IBP Gowal et al. (2018) and CROWN Zhang et al. (2018).

IBP: In IBP processing, the lower and upper bounds of each layer's feature map are computed along the forward propagation, i.e. start from the input layer to the output layer. During the bound computation, the linear operation can be easily bounded once we know the maximum and minimum

values of input. However, the upper and lower bound after the non-linear operations need to be dedicated to analysis. Once we acquire the bounds of output we can evaluate the robustness of the model for the given input purbation set.

CROWN: Unlike IBP, CROWN bounds the model in a backward propagation manner recursively. The goal of CROWN is to formulate the output bounds as a linear equation of input. In order to achieve this goal, every operation in an NN model should be bounded by two linear equations.

Although CROWN can achieve very tight bounds, the computinal cost is remarkably higher than IBP. So CROWN-IBP, by combining the fast IBP bounds in a forward bounding pass and CROWN in a backward bounding pass can efficiently and consistently outperforms IBP baselines on training verifiably robust neural networks.

3 Methodology

3.1 S-IBP & S-CROWN

As described in Section 2.3, the core mission of certification training is to find the bound of IBP and CROWN for each function. The information propagation in SNNs includes $fire$, temporal update and spatial update as shown in Figure 1(a). In this subsection, we detail the upper bound and lower bound of S-IBP and S-CROWN for each function.

Fire: The $fire$ function describes the relation between the membrane potential m_t and spike s_t of a neuron as Equation 1 and 2, i.e. once the neuron's membrane potential is greater than a threshold th, the neuron will fire a spike. Assume we have already acquired the S-IBP upper bound m_t^u and lower bound m_t^l for membrane potential, the S-IBP bounds for spike can be calculated with

$$s_t^u = fire(m_t^u - th), \ \ s_t^l = fire(m_t^l - th). \tag{7}$$

During S-CROWN, we need to find two linear equations to bound the $fire$ function. When the S-IBP upper bound of membrane potential m_t^u is smaller than the threshold th, we can conclude that the neuron must not fire. Also, when the S-IBP lower bound m_t^l is greater than the threshold, we can make sure the neuron must fire. Thus, we mainly need to consider the unstable case, i.e., $m_t^l < th \leq m_t^u$. In order to achieve the lowest bound relaxation, we design two boundary systems as Figure 2(a) and (b). We use the red line to represent the $fire$ function. The blue and yellow lines represent the boundary functions. In our design, when the S-IBP lower bound of membrane potential m_t^l far smaller than th, we set the S-CROWN lower bound to $s_t = 0$ and the S-CROWN upper bound is a line that crosses $(m_t^l, 0)$ and $(th, 1)$. On the contrary, when m_t^u is far larger than th, we set the S-CROWN upper bound to $s_t = 1$ and the S-CROWN lower bound is a line that passes $(th, 0)$ and $(m_t^u, 1)$. Overall, the S-CROWN boundary for the $fire$ function under different cases can be summarized as

$$\begin{cases} 0 \leq s_t \leq 0, & m_t^u < th, \\ 1 \leq s_t \leq 1, & m_t^l \geq th, \\ 0 \leq s_t \leq \frac{m_t - m_t^l}{th - m_t^l}, & 0 \leq m_t^u - th < th - m_t^l \\ \frac{m_t - th}{m_t^u - th} \leq s_t \leq 1, & m_t^u - th \geq th - m_t^l > 0 \end{cases} \tag{8}$$

Temporal Update: According to Equation 3, the temporal update of membrane potential can be formalized as $\alpha m_t(1 - s_t)$. Since α is a constant factor, in this subsection we do not include it in the boundary analysis. Assume $z_t = m_t(1 - s_t)$, and the S-IBP upper and lower bound for membrane potential at time step t has been acquired. The relation between m_t and z_t can be described through Figure 2(c). Based on the LIF model, the membrane potential will be reset to 0 once its value acrosses the pre-defined threshold th. Thus, the S-IBP bounds for z_t can be computed with

$$\begin{cases} z_t^u = m_t^u, \ z_t^l = m_t^l, & m_t^u < th, \\ z_t^u = z_t^l = 0, & m_t^l \geq th, \\ z_t^u = th, z_t^l = min(0, m_t^l), & m_t^l < th \leq m_t^u. \end{cases} \tag{9}$$

Ituitivly, when $m_t^u < th$ or $m_t^l \geq th$, there is no boundary relaxation in S-IBP. We only need to care about the boundary when $m_t^l < th \leq m_t^u$ (unstable case). From Fgiure 2(c) we can find that the $z_t \in [min(0, m_t^l), th)$ for unstable case.

Figure 2: S-CROWN upper and lower bounds for the $fire$ function when (a) m_t^l far smaller than th and (b) m_t^u far larger than th. (c) Non-linear temporal part of memory potential update. (d) S-CROWN upper and lower bounds for the temporal part of memory potential update (unstable case).

During S-CROWN, z_t can be also bounded without relaxation when $m_t^u < th$ and $m_t^l \geq th$. The S-CROWN upper bound (blue plane) and lower bound (yellow plane) for z_t when $m_t^l < th \leq m_t^u$ is shown in Figure 2(d). Here we use an additional $(1 - s_t)$ axis to help us build the boundary. Note that the membrane potential is related to the spike status. Once $s_t = 1 \rightarrow (1 - s_t) = 0$, m_t must greater than th and $z_t = 0$. When $s_t = 0 \rightarrow (1 - s_t) = 1$, m_t must smaller than th and $z_t = m_t$. Thus we need to find two planes to bound these two function (red lines in Figure 2(d)). In summary, the S-CROWN boundary for the temporal update can be formulated as

$$\begin{cases} m_t \leq z_t \leq m_t, & m_t^u < th, \\ 0 \ \ \leq z_t \leq 0, & m_t^l \geq th, \\ (1 - s_t)m_t^l < z_t < (1 - s_t)th, & m_t^l < th \leq m_t^u. \end{cases} \tag{10}$$

The S-CROWN boundaries for the temporal update are the functions of s_t under the unstable case.

Spatial Update

The spatial update in SNNs is shown in Equation 3. Similar to ANNs, the spatial update in SNNs is composed of CONV/FC/POOL (in this work we focus on the CONV and FC). In SNNs CONV/FC takes spike events and weight as input. Since the spike events are in binary format, the S-IBP of spatial update can be implemented with

$$\begin{cases} center = w[k] \otimes s_t^l[k] + b[k], \\ sp_t^u[k + 1] = center + w[k]^+ \otimes (s_t^l[k] = 0 \cap s_t^u[k] = 1), \\ sp_t^l[k + 1] \ = center + w[k]^- \otimes (s_t^l[k] = 0 \cap s_t^u[k] = 1). \end{cases} \tag{11}$$

We use sp_t to represent the result of the spatial update. $\otimes$ denotes CONV/FC operation. In Equation 11, $s_t^l[k] = 1$ represents those pre-synaptic neurons in layer k who are must fire. The stable fired pre-synaptic neurons contribute the same for both S-IBP upper and lower bound of sp_t. The unstabled pre-synaptic neurons can be represented with $(s_t^l[k] = 0 \cap s_t^u[k] = 1)$, whose upper and lower bound for spike status are 1 and 0. These unstable pre-synaptic neurons will perform CONV/FC with the positive and negative weights to affect the S-IBP upper and lower bound of sp_t.

Since the spatial update is a linear operation, the S-CRWON for spatial update does not have relaxation. We do not need to design boundary functions to bound the spatial update in SNNs.

3.2 Input Boundary Formalization

In SNNs, the input layer of an SNN model only accept binary spike. The special data format for the input layer leads to different boundary formalizations for spike and digital images.

Spike Input: An example of spike input is shown in Figure 1(d). All elements in a spike data are in binary format which is compatible with the input layer of an SNN model. For each element $\dot{x}_t[i]$ in a spike input, the boundary of that element can be either stable cases: $\dot{x}_t^u[i] = \dot{x}_t^l[i] = 0$; $\dot{x}_t^u[i] = \dot{x}_t^l[i] = 1$ or unstable case: $\dot{x}_t^u[i] = 1, \dot{x}_t^l[i] = 0$. For a spike input with uncertainty noise, we can only control how many data points in the spike input are unstable. Thus, the boundary for a spike input can be formulated with ℓ_0-norm. Specifically, we can pick $size(\dot{x}) \times \epsilon$ elements from a spike input and set them as unstable points. Also, the ℓ_0-norm boundary can be interpreted as the probability of an element is unstable, which can be formulated as

$$P(\dot{x}_t^u[i] = 1, \dot{x}_t^l[i] = 0) = \epsilon \ \Leftrightarrow \ |\dot{x}' - \dot{x}|_0 \leq size(\dot{x}) \times \epsilon \tag{12}$$

189 Here, $\dot{x}'$ is an arbitrary adversarial example that has at most $size(\dot{x}) \times \epsilon$ data points different from $\dot{x}$.

190 Note that we can only certify the robustness of a spike input after we have picked the unstable data
191 points. Under our robustness formulation, we cannot guarantee the robustness of a spike input under
192 a given ℓ_0-norm. The reason is that the search space for ℓ_0-norm cannot be bounded.

Figure 3: Relation between ℓ_∞-norm digital input doundary and ℓ_0-norm spike input boundary. In this example, $\epsilon = 0.2$.

193 **Digital Input**:

194 Unlike spike inputs, digital inputs need an additional Bernoulli sampling before feeding the data to
195 the input layer as Equation 4. After the sampling, the digital input $\hat{x}$ is converted to a spike input $\dot{x}$
196 which fits the input layer of an SNN. Note that we have defined the ℓ_0-norm boundary for a spike
197 input. We need to further explore how to define a boundary for a digital input when its sampled
198 data is bounded with ℓ_0-norm. Based on our analysis, we find that the corresponding digital input
199 boundary can be formalized with ℓ_∞-norm as Figure 3. We use $rand_t$ to represent a rand mask to
200 achieve Bernoulli sampling for each time step:

$$\dot{x}_t[i] = \begin{cases} 1, & \hat{x}[i] > rand_t[i], \\ 0, & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \tag{13}$$

201 After we bound the digital input with ℓ_∞-norm, the upper bound of digital image becomes $\hat{x}^u =$
202 $\hat{x} + \epsilon/2$ and the lower bound is $\hat{x}^l = \hat{x} - \epsilon/2$. For all elements in $\hat{x}$, the difference between the upper
203 bound and the lower bound is ϵ, i.e., $\hat{x}^u[i] - \hat{x}^l[i] = \epsilon$. For each time step, $\hat{x}^u$ and $\hat{x}^l$ use the identical
204 random map $rand_t$ to sample the corresponding spike inputs $\dot{x}_t^u$ and $\dot{x}_t^l$. Based on the sampling
205 processing, the probability of an element in input layer is unstable can be formulated as

$$P(\dot{x}_t^u[i] = 1, \dot{x}_t^l[i] = 0) = \hat{x}^u[i] - \hat{x}^l[i] = \epsilon. \tag{14}$$

206 From the static perspective, the ℓ_∞-norm boundary for digital input is equivalent to the ℓ_0-norm
207 boundary for spike input. ince ϵ usually very small, we ignore the corner cases, i.e., when $\hat{x}[i]$ is
208 close to 0 or 1 after normalization.

209 For digital inputs, although we can bound the input with ℓ_∞-norm, we cannot guarantee the robustness
210 of the input under such boundary. The reason is that during inference, the corresponding spike input is
211 generated through sampling. Thus, for an arbitrary input, the possible sampled results are equivalent
212 to the entire space (each element in the spike input can be 1 or 0), which cannot be bounded.

3.3 Robust Training Algorithm

214 In this subsection, we present the end-to-end robust training for an SNN.

215 **Flexible Time Steps**: Usually, the time steps of an SNN (trained with BPTT) is 10 to 20, however, it
216 is still large when considering robustness training. We note that for each SNN layer, the parameters
217 are shared among different time steps. Thus, we can set arbitrary time steps T' for the robust training.

218 **S-IBP**: During the robust training, the inputs first pass the S-IBP as Algorithm 1. At the beginning,
219 the input is bounded according to the input type. Then, the intermediate data are bounded along the
220 forward direction. Finally, the upper and lower bound of all intermediate data are stored which will
221 be used during the S-CROWN phase.

Algorithm 1 S-IBP

Input:
spike input $\dot{x}$ or digital input $\hat{x}$; input boundary ϵ; robust training time steps T';
Func:
for $t = 1$ **to** T' **do**
   // input boundary formalization
   if $\hat{x}$ **then**
      generate random map $rand_t$;
      $\dot{x}_t^u = (\hat{x} + \epsilon/2) - rand_t > 0 \,?\, 1 : 0$;
      $\dot{x}_t^l = (\hat{x} - \epsilon/2) - rand_t > 0 \,?\, 1 : 0$;
   else
      Randomly pick $size(\dot{x}_t) \times \epsilon$ elements from $\dot{x}_t$ and label the picked elements with $pick_t$;
      $\dot{x}_t^u = \dot{x}_t^l = \dot{x}_t$; $\dot{x}_t^u[pick_t] = 1$; $\dot{x}_t^l[pick_t] = 0$;
   end if
   $s_t^u[0] = \dot{x}_t^u$; $s_t^l[0] = \dot{x}_t^l$;

   inital $m_t^u[k] = m_t^l[k] = 0$ for all layers.
   //S-IBP
   for $k = 1$ **to** K **do**
      //spatial update (Equation 11)
      $m_t^u[k]+ = sp_t^u[k]$; $m_t^l[k]+ = sp_t^l[k]$
      //temporal update (Equation 9)
      if $t < T'$ **then**
         $m_{t+1}^u[k] = \alpha * z_t^u$; $m_{t+1}^l[k] = \alpha * z_t^l$;
      end if
      //fire (Equation 7)
      $s_t^u[k] = fire(m_t^u[k] - th)$; $s_t^l[k] = fire(m_t^l[k] - th)$;
   end for
end for
Return upper and lower bound of intermediate data $\dot{x}_t^u, \dot{x}_t^l, m_t^u, m_t^l, s_t^u, s_t^l$

S-CROWN: Note that the goal of S-CROWN is to formulate the output bounds of a model as linear equations of input's upper and lower bounds. The boundary of S-CROWN is computed from the backward direction, and the detail is shown in Algorithm 2. Finally, we can follow the robust training method in Zhang et al. (2020) and use the lower bound of S-CROWN to train the SNN model.

Algorithm 2 S-CROWN

Input:
$\dot{x}_t^u, \dot{x}_t^l, m_t^u, m_t^l, s_t^u, s_t^l$ from S-IBP; robust training time steps T';
Func:
//S-CROWN
build identity I matrix; $As_t[K] = I/T'$;
for $k = K$ **to** 1 **do**
   initial $Am_t[k] = 0$ for all time steps
   for $t = T'$ **to** 1 **do**
      //fire (Equation 8)
      build $m_t[k] * d1^l + b1^l \leq s_t[k] \leq m_t[k] * d1^u + b1^u$;
      $Am_t[k] + = As_t[k]^- * d1^u + As_t[k]^+ * d1^l$;
      $bias \quad + = As_t[k]^- * b1^u + As_t[k]^+ * b1^l$;
      //temporal update (Equation 10)
      if $t > 1$ **then**
         build $m_{t-1}[k] * d2^l + (1 - s_{t-1}[k]) * d3^l \leq z_{t-1}[k]$;
         build $m_{t-1}[k] * d2^u + (1 - s_{t-1}[k]) * d3^u \geq z_{t-1}[k]$;
         $Am_{t-1}[k] = \alpha * (Am_t^-[k] * d2^u + Am_t^+[k] * d2^l)$;
         $tmp_s \quad = \alpha * (Am_t^-[k] * d3^u + Am_t^+[k] * d3^l)$;
         $As_{t-1}[k] - = tmp_s$; $bias + = sum(tmp_s)$;
      end if
      //spatial update;
      $As_t[k-1] = Am_t[k] * w[k-1]$; $bias + = Am_t[k] * b[k-1]$;
   end for
end for
Return $\sum_t \left(As_t[0] * (\dot{x}_t^u + \dot{x}_t^l)/2 - |As_t[0]| * (\dot{x}_t^u - \dot{x}_t^l)/2 \right) + bias$

4 Experiment

4.1 Experiment Setup

Dataset and Network Structure: In this work, we evaluate our robust training method on three datasets: MNIST LeCun et al. (1998), FMNIST Xiao et al. (2017) and NMNIST Orchard et al.

230 (2015). MNIST and FMNIST are digital datasets and NMNIST is spike dataset. For each dataset, we
231 use two network structures in experiments, i.e., a three-layers FC network and a four-layers CONV
232 network. The detailed setting for datasets and network structures are shown in Table 1. We set the
233 firing threshold th and decay factor α to 0.25 for the neuron modeling in Equation 1 and 3.

Table 1: Datasets and network structure

	Input Type	Size	Time Step	FC Acc	CONV Acc
MNIST	digital	1*28*28	10	98.45%	99.09%
FMNIST	digital	1*28*28	10	87.58%	89.53%
NMNIST	spike	2*34*34	10	98.30%	99.05%
FC		X-FC512-FC256-FC10			
CONV		X-C64K3S2-C128K3S2-FC256-FC10			

234 **Original and Robust Training**: In original training, we adopt BPTT based training Wu et al. (2018).
235 We train 80 epochs for each SNN model. The learning rate is set to 0.01 at the beginning, it decays to
236 0.001 at the 55th epoch. In robust training, we use the lower bound of S-CROWN as the loss function.
237 During robust training, we set ϵ to 0 at the beginning. It will increase linearly to the final ϵ during the
238 first 250 training epochs. In the last 50 training epochs, ϵ is unchanged.

239 **Adversarial Attack**: In this work we adopt the untargeted white-box gradient-based attack Liang
240 et al. (2021a) in SNN. In our experiment, we select 300 examples for each dataset to apply adversarial
241 attack. In order to bound the noise of adversarial examples, we involve additional constraints during
242 the attack. Specifically, for digital inputs, we clip the adversarial example for each attack iteration to
243 make the adversarial example stay in the boundary. For spike inputs, each attack iteration we limit
244 the amount of changed elements to $size(\hat{x}) * \epsilon/2$ and $size(\hat{x}) * \epsilon/6$ for FC and CONV networks to
245 achieve the highest attack efficiency.

Figure 4: Impact of robust training time steps T' on (a) original accuracy and (b) S-CROWN loss.
(CONV model; MNIST dataset; $\epsilon = 0.12$)

Figure 5: Original accuracy, S-CROWN loss and S-CROWN robust error during robust training under
(a) MNIST; (b) FMNIST and (C) NMNIST datasets with different network structures and ϵ.

4.2 Robust Training in SNNs

246

247 **Selection of Robust Training Time Steps** T': We do not follow the original time steps during
248 the robust training. Because the spatial computations in SNNs share the same parameters between

Table 2: Comparing untargeted white-box gradient-based attack between the original model and the model after robustness training.

| | | MNIST (FC-ϵ=0.12, CONV-ϵ=0.12) | | | | | FMNIST (FC-ϵ=0.01, CONV-ϵ=0.005) | | | | | NMNIST (FC-ϵ=0.005, CONV-ϵ=0.005) | | | |
| | attack | original network | | robust network | | attack | original network | | robust network | | attack | original network | | robust network | |
	ϵ	org err	attack err	org err	attack err	ϵ	org err	attack err	org err	attack err	ϵ	org err	attack err	org err	attack err
4*FC	0.104	0.3%	19.3%	4.7%	16.6%(-2.7%)	0.040	13.0%	20.7%	13.6%	20.0%(-0.7%)	0.0007	3.7%	21.0%	3.7%	10.0%(-11.0%)
	0.124	0.3%	29.7%	4.7%	20.3%(-9.4%)	0.070	13.0%	29.7%	13.3%	24.0%(-5.7%)	0.0009	3.7%	30.7%	3.7%	12.3%(-18.4%)
	0.140	0.3%	39.0%	4.7%	23.3%(-15.7%)	0.100	11.7%	41.3%	14.0%	32.0%(-9.3%)	0.0012	3.7%	41.3%	3.7%	16.7%(-24.6%)
	0.154	0.3%	50.0%	5.0%	24.3%(-25.7%)	0.114	13.3%	49.7%	13.6%	38.7%(-11.0%)	0.0014	3.7%	48.7%	3.7%	18.3%(-30.4%)
4*CONV	0.120	0.3%	18.7%	3.7%	8.3%(-10.4%)	0.040	10.0%	19.7%	13.7%	22.0%(+0.3%)	0.0008	1.3%	20.0%	4.3%	7.0%(-13.0%)
	0.140	0.3%	29.0%	4.0%	9.0%(-20.0%)	0.060	10.3%	28.3%	17.3%	23.0%(-5.3%)	0.0010	1.3%	33.7%	4.3%	11.0%(-22.7%)
	0.170	0.3%	40.7%	3.3%	10.7%(-30.0%)	0.080	10.0%	41.3%	17.0%	25.7%(-15.6%)	0.0012	1.3%	41.0%	4.3%	11.0%(-30.0%)
	0.190	0.3%	50.7%	4.0%	13.0%(-37.7%)	0.100	10.3%	52.3%	16.7%	34.3%(-18.0%)	0.0015	1.3%	49.0%	4.3%	12.0%(-37.0%)

different time steps, we can use arbitrary robust training time steps T'. In Figure 4 we analyzed the impact of T' on original accuracy and S-CROWN loss. Note that we would like to keep a higher original accuracy but reduce the S-CROWN loss after the robust training. From the result, we can find that $T' = 3$ gives the optimal solution. It implies that a too smaller T' cannot capture the temporal dynamics of SNNs and a larger T' may cause the boundary functions in S-CROWN to become too loose. Also we find that the robust training time for each epoch is $2.6\times$, $7.7\times$, and $12.9\times$ with respect to the original plain training when we set T' to 1, 3, and 5. Thus, the selection of T' also affects the robust training efficiency. In the rest of our evaluations, we set $T' = 3$ for all robust training.

Robust Training on Variaous Datasets: The analysis of robust training on different datasets with various ϵ and network structures is shown in Figure 5. From the result, we have the following observations: 1. During the robust training, it is more stable for a fully connected network(yellow curves are smoother than blue curves) because of the simpler network structure. 2. With a larger ϵ, the original accuracy is dropped more after the robust training. Also, it is more difficult to achieve a smaller robust error with larger ϵ. 3. In the MNIST dataset, when the network structure is CONV, the robust training is more stable as ϵ becomes larger. The potential reason is that when ϵ is small, the flipped regions in spike inputs are more diverse. 4. In FMNIST and NMNIST datasets, when the network structure is CONV, the robust training is much more fluctuating. For FMNIST dataset, the unstable may be caused by the more complicated input data (cloths) and the lower convergence in original training (final accuracy is 89.53%). For NMNIST dataset, the unstable may come from the larger input data size. A larger input size indicates the potential input regions that can be attacked becomes more. By considering the original accuracy and S-CROWN result after the robust training, we select the ϵ as shown in Table 2. We use FC-ϵ and CONV-ϵ to represent the noise boundary we selected for different network structures during robust training.

4.3 Network Robustness Evaluation

We use untargeted white-box adversarial attack to compare the robustness between the original model and the model after robust training. The robustness comparison is shown in Table 2. We use the original error rate to reflect the accuracy of a model on the 300 test data. The original error may have variance during the evaluation for the digital image dataset because of the input sampling mechanism. In our experiment, we select the attack ϵ to achieve approximately 20%, 30%, 40%, and 50% attack error rate on the original model. From the result, we can find that after the robust training, the models are harder to be attacked with adversarial example in all cases. We also find that the model after robust training is more secure when the attack ϵ is larger, even though the ϵ for robust training is far smaller. The potential reason is that the binary behavior of the spike events causes the boundary propagation to diverge quickly, which makes the final boundary cover more noisy inputs. Finally, we find that model robustness can be improved more when the network structure is CONV, since more paramters can be adjusted under the CONV model. From the result, we find that the CONV model in MNIST achieves the highest robustness improvement, i.e. the attack error rate reduces 37.7% with 3.7% original accuracy loss when the attack ϵ equals 0.190.

5 Discussion & Conclusion

In this work, we aim to design an efficient robust training method for SNNs based on the certified methods. Specifically, we design S-IBP and S-CROWN to tackle the distinct non-linear neuron behaviors in SNNs. Also, we formulate the input boundary for different input types. Based on our results, we can achieve at most 37.7% attack error reduction with 3.7% original accuracy loss, which demonstrates the efficiency of our proposed method.

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