

# A SiO<sub>x</sub> RRAM-based hardware with spike frequency adaptation for power-saving continual learning in convolutional neural networks

I. Muñoz-Martin<sup>1\*</sup>, S. Bianchi<sup>1\*</sup>, E. Covi<sup>1</sup>, G. Piccolboni<sup>2</sup>, A. Bricalli<sup>2</sup>, A. Regev<sup>2</sup>, J. F. Nodin<sup>3</sup>, E. Nowak<sup>3</sup>, G. Molas<sup>3</sup> and D. Ielmini<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Politecnico di Milano, Milan, Italy. <sup>2</sup> Weebit Nano, Hod Hasharon, Israel. <sup>3</sup> CEA, LETI, Grenoble, France. \* Contributed equally.

E-mail: [irene.munoz@polimi.it](mailto:irene.munoz@polimi.it)

**Abstract.** Biological systems autonomously evolve to maximize their efficiency in a continually changing world. On the other hand, artificial neural networks (ANNs) outperform the human ability of object recognition but cannot acquire new information without forgetting trained tasks. To introduce resilience in ANNs, we present a SiO<sub>x</sub> RRAM-based inference hardware capable of merging the efficiency of convolutional ANNs and the plasticity of spiking networks. We validate the accuracy of the system with MNIST (99.3%), noisy N-MNIST (96%), Fashion-MNIST (93%) and CIFAR-10 (91%) datasets. We demonstrate that the circuit plastically adapts its operative frequency for power saving and enables continual learning of up to 50% non-trained classes. This optimizes the classification and enables the re-training of the filters, thus overcoming the catastrophic forgetting of standard ANNs.

**Lifelong learning.** The experience-based knowledge transfers and adapts the incoming information to achieve continual learning throughout life, Fig. 1a. Artificial neural networks (ANNs) show great accuracy in object recognition [1], but lack of the necessary plasticity, typical of spiking neural networks (SNNs), for enabling lifelong learning. This arises the so called “stability-plasticity dilemma”, Fig. 1b [2]. In order to overtake this limitation, we propose to merge the accuracy of standard convolutional neural networks (CNNs), and the plasticity of unsupervised learning SNNs, Fig. 1c, [3].

**RRAM-based system.** The network is implemented with SiO<sub>x</sub> RRAM devices by Weebit, Fig. 2a. Fig. 2b shows the I-V characteristics with different compliance currents  $I_C$ . Fig. 2c presents the low resistive state (LRS) distributions, with mean  $\mu_R$  (d), and standard deviation  $\sigma_R$ , (e). Fig. 2f shows the high resistive state (HRS) distributions versus  $V_{STOP}$ . The RRAMs are used (i) in the supervised section for the convolutional filters and (ii) in the unsupervised block for classification via winner-take-all (WTA), Fig. 3a. Fig. 3b highlights the 20x20 convolutional filters, which are either “class filters” (CFs) or “feature filters” (FFs), [4]. CFs are specialized in recognizing a specific trained class respect to all the others while FFs extract generic features from the training dataset which, for transfer learning, can be found even in non-trained objects [5]. Each weight of the filters is digitalized in 4 bits inside the RRAM array, Fig. 3c, and used for matrix vector multiplication (MVM), (d). The large dimension of the filters reduces the number of convolutional steps. The results after MVM are processed into a Zync 7000 FPGA, which, for every filter, applies max pooling and compares the outcome with the fixed bias threshold  $V_{REF}$  of that filter. If  $V_{REF}$  is overcome, the corresponding pixel is set high. The combination of the responses of the filters constitutes a “feature map”, original for every class, which is classified by the asynchronous spike-timing-dependent plasticity block (A-STDP). Fig. 4a shows the circuitual scheme of the network. The outputs of the MVM enter the 8x8 SiO<sub>x</sub> crossbar (64 filters are used) after every firing activity. The internal threshold of each neuron relies on spike-frequency adaptation (SFA) [6], Fig. 4b. When a neuron fires, it partially sets a further SiO<sub>x</sub> RRAM which, in turn, increases its internal threshold  $V_{TH}$ . Thus, each neuron specializes in a feature map of a certain input class, avoiding confusion with other neurons and saving power for the reduced switching

activity. Note that a further bit-line in Fig. 4a is used for pattern detection, since each STDP activity relies on uncorrelated signals (noise) for synaptic background depression, Fig. 4c [7].

**Accuracy of the filters.** The accuracy of the convolutional filters depends on the number of bits used for mapping each weight, Fig. 5. The programming  $I_C$  and  $V_{STOP}$  of the RRAMs affect the accuracy of both CFs, Fig. 6a-b, and FFs, Fig. 6c-d. The average results for CFs and FFs are gathered in the contour plots of Fig. 6e-f. The filters are trained with respect to  $V_{REF}$ .

**Dynamic continual learning.** Fig. 7 shows the time evolution of the signals at the input of the A-STDP block during the testing of the CIFAR-10 dataset, showing the average trained (a) and non-trained (b) feature maps. The feature maps are blurred, since there is variability within the input classes. Fig. 7c shows the time evolution of the scatter plot for the non-trained class “dog”. Note that the feature map varies in time, as visible in the snapshots  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$  and  $t_3$ . This affects the final accuracy, since not every “dog” pattern hits the threshold of the neuron. Only limited variations ( $< 20\%$ ) of the feature map density are tolerated by A-STDP. Fig. 8 shows the synaptic evolution of 5 non-trained classes (a) from the MNIST, with the synaptic evolutions for pattern and background (b) and the SFA (c). The highest spiking rate occurs when new feature maps appear (d), as the output neurons have not specialized yet.

**Accuracy and variability.** Fig. 9 shows the results for the accuracy of full-trained MNIST (a), noisy N-MNIST (20% of random pixels in each MNIST pattern) (b), Fashion MNIST (c) and CIFAR-10 (d) varying the  $I_C$  current used for programming the filters and the A-STDP synapses. Once selected the best  $I_C$  condition, we tested the network with 1 to 5 non-trained classes, i.e. progressively decreasing the trained part of each dataset. Fig. 10 shows the accuracy of non-trained classes (a) and the global accuracy (b). Note that when a new class appears, the spike frequency of the further classification neuron is initially higher, causing an increase of the power consumption, Fig. 11.

**Re-training.** Some feature filters may have a negligible rate of appearance, as shown in Fig. 12 for MNIST. Once neglected, these filters do not catastrophically reduce the accuracy, since they do not modify the threshold hitting of the neurons, as in the case of neuron 4, Fig. 13a. These filters can be re-trained accordingly to the clustered patterns recorded by the classification neurons during continual learning, Fig. 13b, thus obtaining a significant improvement of the accuracy, Fig. 14.

**Conclusions.** We presented a novel SiO<sub>x</sub> RRAM-based hardware that combines the efficiency of supervised architectures and the adaptation of unsupervised learning to solve the stability-plasticity dilemma. The system provides high accuracies for full testing (99.3% for MNIST, 91% for CIFAR-10) and learning of up to 50% non-trained classes. The use of power saving spike-frequency modulation enables feasible solutions for lifelong learning in autonomous systems.

**References.** [1] A. Krizhevsky et al., NIPS, vol. 1. pp. 1097–1105, 2012. [2] M. McCloskey et al., *Psych. of learn. and mot.* 24, 109, 1989. [3] S. Bianchi et al., VLSI 2019, 10.23919/VLSIT.2019.8776559. [4] I. Munoz et al., IEEE JXCD, vol. 5, pp. 58–66, 2019. [5] L. Torrey et al., *Transfer learning*, 2009, 10.4018/978-1-60566-766-9.ch011. [6] G. Indiveri et al., *Frontiers in Neurosci.*, vol. 5:73, 2011. [7] M. Prezioso et al., *Nature communications*, vol. 9, 5311, 2018.

