# MNIST classification using Neuromorphic Nanowire Networks

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# **ABSTRACT**

Neuromorphic Nanowire Networks (NWNs) are a novel class of information processing hardware devices, combining the advantage of memristive cross-point junctions and neural-like complex network topology. In addition to their low operating power, NWNs are also easy to fabricate with bottom-up self-assembly. Here, we implement the MNIST handwritten digit classification task on simulated NWNs to demonstrate their ability to perform complex learning tasks. Using a CNN-inspired kernel method and a reservoir computing framework, our simulation results attain an accuracy of nearly 98%. Moreover, this is achieved using only a fraction of the total MNIST training data and without requiring hardware accelerators. We also investigate the information theoretic metrics of mutual information (MI), transfer entropy (TE) and active information storage (AIS) to analyze the MNIST learning dynamics of NWNs. We find that MI with respect to classes is maximized after network feature extraction and that TE is largest when MNIST digit boundaries are processed, while AIS is strongest when areas with lower pixel values are presented. Overall, these results suggest the information processing capabilities of neuromorphic NWNs make them promising candidates for complex learning applications.

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# **CCS CONCEPTS**

• Computing methodologies → Artificial intelligence; Neural networks; Supervised learning by classification.

### **KEYWORDS**

nanowire networks, neuromorphic, MNIST, kernel, information dynamics, transfer entropy, active information storage

#### **ACM Reference Format:**

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#### 1 INTRODUCTION

This study concerns a specific class of memristive neuromorphic systems constructed using bottom-up self-assembly: nanowire networks (NWNs) [13]. Neuromorphic NWNs are disordered systems comprised of passivated metallic nanowires that self-assemble to form a complex network topology with memristive cross-point junctions [2, 24]. Previous studies have demonstrated that NWNs exhibit complex, neural network-like structural properties including small-worldness, modularity and recurrent feedback loops [18]. In response to external stimuli, NWNs exhibit emergent collective dynamics [1, 2, 6, 19–21, 24], which have been shown to be essential for information processing in these neuromorphic devices [2, 5, 15, 21].

Simulation studies of NWNs have demonstrated learning ability under a reservoir computing framework, in which only the readout layer is trained and the network self-adjusts its synapse-like memristive junctions. Moreover, the computing resources within NWNs can be utilized most efficiently when the input is time-dependent [1, 7, 11, 24, 26]. The MNIST handwritten digit classification task has become the "hello world" in the field of machine learning [14].

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Here, we convert the original MNIST dataset to temporal streams via a shifting kernel and test the performance of NWNs on this task as a benchmark. Furthermore, we use information-theoretic measures to investigate the dynamics within NWNs while learning MNIST digits, to gain deeper insight into the information processing capability of these neuromorphic systems.

### 2 METHODS

We use a physically motivated model (detailed elsewhere [10–12]) to simulate the MNIST classification task implemented on NWNs under a reservoir computing framework. The MNIST dataset is preprocessed and delivered to NWNs temporally to utilize the signal processing capacity of the recurrent memristive network [7]. The training set used in this study is comprised of a randomly selected subset of the original MNIST training dataset. The entire MNIST testing dataset is employed and shuffled to test the classification accuracy. A kernel method inspired by convolutional neural networks [8, 14] is applied to convert the original MNIST image pixel values to temporal input signals delivered to the network.

# 2.1 Kernel scanning

MNIST images are pre-processed with a shifting kernel of size  $\kappa \times \kappa$  and duration  $\Delta t = 1$  s to extract features. The traverse of the kernel starts from the top left corner of the image, moving horizontally with a stride of 1 pixel at each  $\Delta t$  until its right boundary reaches the last column of the image. The kernel then moves back to the left most column and shifts one row down from the original position. Fig. 1 illustrates this method for a kernel with  $\kappa = 5$ . Each MNIST image (comprised of  $28 \times 28$  pixels) is scanned by the kernel  $(29 - \kappa)^2$  times in total, and the features re-arranged into a 2D shape as shown in fig. 1c. At each  $\Delta t$ , the kernel pixel values (fig. 1b) are converted into normalised voltages and delivered to dedicated input electrodes in the network (fig. 1d).

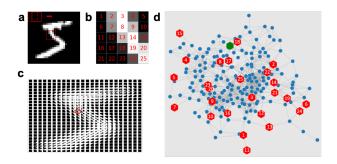


Figure 1: Schematic illustration of the kernel scanning method. Each MNIST image (a) is scanned by a kernel (size  $5 \times 5$  shown here) (b) that shifts by 1 pixel, thus creating a 2D feature representation (c). Kernel pixel intensities are converted to voltage signals which are (d) input to the network temporally via dedicated electrodes (25 in this case) over a duration of 1 s per kernel pixel.

The role of the network is to project features into a higher dimensional space such that they become linearly separable. Currents on the  $\kappa^2$  input electrodes are read simultaneously as the input

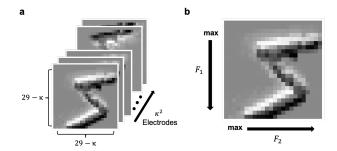


Figure 2: Schematic illustration of feature extraction. (a) During the learning period of each MNIST image, current on  $\kappa^2$  input electrodes is recorded and re-arranged into 2D matrices  $I_{(29-\kappa)\times(29-\kappa)}$ . (b) For each electrode, features are sampled as max values along each column  $(F_1)$  and each row  $(F_2)$ .

voltages are delivered. Through the learning period of each MNIST image, every electrode has  $(29 - \kappa)^2$  readouts, with  $\Delta t$  duration of each readout. The final readout is recorded for each scan of period  $\Delta t$  for each electrode, and re-arranged into  $\kappa^2$  2D matrices of shape  $I_{(29-\kappa)\times(29-\kappa)}$ , as shown in fig. 2a. The most salient features are then extracted by taking the maximum of I in each row and column, as shown in fig. 2b:

$$F_i = \max(I, \text{axis} = i), \qquad i = 1, 2 \tag{1}$$

where  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are both of length  $29 - \kappa$  for each electrode. As a result,  $2 \times (29 - \kappa)$  salient features are obtained from each electrode, giving a total of  $2\kappa^2(29 - \kappa)$  features per each MNIST image. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) is then employed to classify the digits based on these features.

# 2.2 Information Dynamics

In addition to demonstrating the system's learning capability via MNIST classification, its performance can be related to an intrinsic information processing capability. We focus on the information theoretic measures of mutual information (MI), transfer entropy (TE) and active information storage (AIS), which provide insights into the intrinsic information transfer and storage of complex networks [4, 16, 17, 22], and a way to analyze the dynamics of a network (e.g. recurrent neural network [3]) during learning.

MI estimates the relative information between system variables [9, 23]. In this work, features at different stages are binarized and thresholded to maximize MI. MI is estimated at different stages of the algorithm (i.e. MNIST pixel values, kernel scanned data, features extracted from the network) to determine the influence of each step (details can be found in previous work [23]). TE quantifies the amount of information provided by the past activity of a source component in predicting the target component's state, and captures directed information flow between these components [4, 22]. In the context of networks, information transfer is calculated between connected nodes [16, 25]. Transfer entropy from node i to node j is calculated as the mutual information from the past of voltage time series i,  $\mathbf{V}_i(n)$ , to that of j,  $\mathbf{V}_j(n+1)$ , conditioned on the past k values of j,  $\mathbf{V}_j^k(n)$ :  $\mathbf{TE}_{i,j} = I\left(\mathbf{V}_i(n); \mathbf{V}_j(n+1) | \mathbf{V}_j(n)\right)$ . For the edge e connecting nodes i and j, TE is calculated in both directions:

TE<sub>e</sub> = TE<sub>i,j</sub> + TE<sub>j,i</sub>. AIS quantifies the amount of information provided by a component's past activity about its own state update, capturing the active memory for computing its next value [17]. In NWNs, memory is incorporated by the conductance on junctions (edges). Active information storage is thereby calculated based on the conductance time-series  $G_e(n)$  of junctions e [16, 25], as the mutual information from the past k values of the conductance  $G_e^k(n)$  to the next value  $G_e(n+1)$ : AIS<sub>e</sub> =  $I\left(G_e^k(n); G_e(n+1)\right)$ . In this study, TE and AIS are estimated (using the JIDT software [16]) for each  $\Delta t$  period with correspondence to the kernel scans described in fig. 1 and averaged across the network.

# 3 RESULTS

### 3.1 MNIST classification

Figure. 3 (a) shows MNIST classification accuracy with respect to the number of samples in the training group, using a kernel with  $\kappa = 5$ . Classification accuracy increases as more training samples are used, until saturating at ≈ 96.2%. Fig. 3 (b) shows the accuracy as a function of  $\kappa$ . Here, both training and testing groups are composed of 10,000 MNIST images. This figure only includes results for  $3 \le \kappa \le 13$  due to the limitation of network size. When  $\kappa = 1$ , the kernel delivers data to the network one pixel at a time from the original image, without generating richer features from combinations of neighboring pixels, and there are insufficient features  $(2\kappa^2(29 - \kappa) = 56)$  to perform classification with high accuracy. On the other hand, when  $\kappa = 28$ , the kernel delivers the whole image into the system at once. While this process results in many features, the entire image is delivered over  $\Delta t$ , resulting in loss of detail due to the short duration. This makes it impossible to identify the digit. Fig. 3 (b) demonstrates that the accuracy saturates to  $\approx$  97.8% as  $\kappa$  increases, with  $\kappa$  = 9 being the optimal size of the kernel. At this size, enough features are extracted without losing too many details over the learning period.

The MNIST classification task has been a common benchmark for all types of neural networks and learning algorithms. CNNs have demonstrated an unparalleled accuracy of over 99% while other ANNs are able to achieve an accuracy ranging between 95.3% to 98.4% [14]. These methods require multiple fully connected layers and numerous learning epochs and are thus computationally intensive. Here, a comparable accuracy is achieved by employing a recurrent network with sparse connectivity under the reservoir computing framework. More importantly, these simulation results suggest that NWNs can achieve high classification accuracy using only  $\approx 10\%$  of the MNIST training dataset. Furthermore, as all the learning can be accomplished in a single epoch using only CPUs, NWNs are also less computationally intensive than ANNs.

# 3.2 Information dynamics

Table 1 lists the MI (natural logarithm) between each MNIST digit class (in 10,000 samples) and the data at different stages. MI increases with each stage of the algorithm and exhibits a marked increase when the most salient features are extracted from the network readouts by Eq. 1, indicating significant learning progress. Applying the same feature selection to the kernel scans (without network processing) results in substantially lower MI of 0.122 nats.

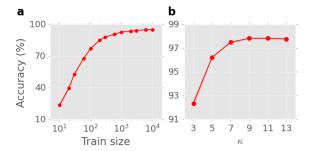


Figure 3: (a) Classification accuracy as a function of number of MNIST images used for training for a kernel size  $\kappa = 5$ . (b) Classification accuracy as a function of kernel size.

Fig. 4 shows examples of the dynamical information theoretic measures within the neuromorphic system when learning the digits "0" (Fig. 4a-c) and "9" (Fig. 4d-f). Fig. 4a,d show the mean of input kernels across different instances of "0" and "9". These are obtained by selecting out each instance of each digit from the whole time series and then averaging the pixel values within the kernel scans (cf. fig. 1b), and then across instances. Intrinsic information dynamics is then estimated at each  $\Delta t$  with correspondence to kernel scans.

Table 1: Mutual Information (nats) with Class

Raw	Scanned	Selected Input	Readout	Features
0.0877	0.115	0.122	0.123	0.163

Fig. 4b,e show TE averaged across instances of "0" and "9" and rearranged into the same shape as fig. 4a. These results suggest that information transfer is strongest when the kernel traverses across the horizontal edge of a digit (i.e. TE acts like an edge detector). Input signals delivered from these areas tend to be substantially different from their values in the previous kernel scan, and so drive more complex transient dynamics in the system, hence inducing stronger information flow between the nodes in the network. Similarly, fig. 4c,f show AIS when learning "0" and "9". In contrast to TE, these results indicate that the network exhibits stronger AIS when the kernel traverses areas with lower pixel values. The network tends to remain in similar stationary states at these points, where its memory of past states dominates the dynamics.

# 4 CONCLUSIONS

Neuromorphic nanowire networks represent a novel approach for neuro-inspired computing and information processing. In this study, the CNN-inspired kernel method applied to pre-process the MNIST dataset enabled NWNs to achieve an overall high performance on this classification task when implemented in a reservoir computing framework. An accuracy comparable to ANNs can be achieved using less training data and less computing resources. Additionally, information theoretic analysis of NWNs during MNIST learning demonstrated substantially increased mutual information between the extracted features and the classes, compared to raw data and classes. Furthermore, information transfer is maximised near the

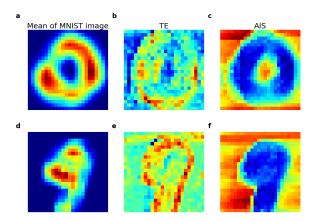


Figure 4: Information dynamics of learning the digits "0" and "9". (a) Average pixel values within the kernel for digit "0"; (b) Corresponding average TE across the network; (c) Corresponding average AIS across the network. (d)-(f) Same as (a)-(c) except for the digit "9". For each digit, all three figures are averaged across different learning periods.

digit boundaries, while information storage is maximised in regions of lower pixel values. These proof-of-principle simulation results demonstrate the potential of nanowire networks for neuromorphic information processing and provide a useful scheme for hardware implementation of the MNIST classification task as well as more complex dynamical classification tasks such as human action recognition.

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