One-Shot Federated Learning with Neuromorphic Processors

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I. Abstract

Being very low power, the use of neuromorphic processors in mobile devices to solve machine learning problems is a promising alternative to traditional Von Neumann processors. Federated Learning enables entities such as mobile devices to collaboratively learn a shared model while keeping their training data local. Additionally, federated learning is a secure way of learning because only the model weights need to be shared between models, keeping the data private. Here we demonstrate the efficacy of federated learning in neuromorphic processors. Neuromorphic processors benefit from the way of learning because only the model weights need to be trained data local. Additionally, federated learning is a secure and practical alternative to traditional Von Neumann processors. Its backbone is an algorithm called Federated Averaging, which is shown in Algorithm 1. The idea is to distribute and run the learning algorithms locally on the client’s sides instead of the central server side. The local models are periodically synchronized with the central model. For example, in Federated Learning, clients send their model updates (weight updates) to the central server, and then the server summarizes the collected weights into a common model and returns this model to clients. The process repeats until the model converges. Recently Federated Learning has become a popular privacy solution when considering the potential applications of training shared model from crowd sourced data, including input text prediction \cite{5}, mobile ad recommendation, or medical data analysis \cite{6} over the confidential data collected from many different hospitals.

Algorithm 1 Federated Averaging. Input: $E$ is the number of epochs on the server side, $T$ is number of local epochs on client side, $W$ are the weights, $D$ are the training datasets, $K$ clients are indexed by $k$. Local models update via stochastic gradient descent (SGD)

Server:

Server initializes common model $w_0$

for $t = 1, E$ do

for each client $k$ in $K$ do

$w_t = w_{t-1} + \text{Client}_k(w_{k-1})$

end for

$w_t = w_t / K$

end for

Output: Global model $w_t$

\text{Client}_k(w_{k-1}): $W^k = \text{SGD}(D_k, w_{k-1}, T)$

Output: Model update $w_t^k - w_{t-1}^k$

II. Introduction

Recent progress in neuromorphic processors, sensors, and Spiking Neural Network (SNN) learning algorithms has created an energy efficient alternative to the widely used GPUs and Artificial Neural Network algorithms. Because of their energy efficiency, neuromorphic processors and sensors are practical for mobile devices such as phones and robots with constrained power budgets. While recent work has demonstrated the success of on chip learning on neuromorphic processors for classification tasks \cite{11, 12}, being used in mobile devices gives the opportunity to access additional data through crowd sourcing that could improve the generalizability of the SNN models used like their ANN counterparts. However data obtained through crowd sourcing may contain sensitive information that users will want to keep private. Here we combine a state of the art Surrogate Gradient Online Error-triggered Learning (SOEL) \cite{3} SNN learning algorithm with the advanced privacy preserving federated averaging algorithm, demonstrating state of the art one-shot learning accuracy on a gesture recognition task that keeps data private.

III. Background

A. Federated learning

Traditionally, in a standard centralized training process, the learning model is trained by the central server who collects the training data from local datasets, e.g. data from mobile devices or sensors. However, this could cause privacy issues because data owners have to share their raw data with the central server, and the data itself may contain sensitive information that needs to be kept private. To overcome this shortcoming, Federated Learning was proposed by Google \cite{4} to allow clients and the server to share a common learning model without uploading clients’ private training data. Its backbone is an algorithm called Federated Averaging, which is shown in Algorithm 1. The idea is to distribute and run the learning algorithms locally on the client’s sides instead of the central server side. The local models are periodically synchronized with the central model. For example, in Federated Learning, clients send their model updates (weight updates) to the central server, and then the server summarizes the collected weights into a common model and returns this model to clients. The process repeats until the model converges. Recently Federated Learning has become a popular privacy solution when considering the potential applications of training shared model from crowd sourced data, including input text prediction \cite{5}, mobile ad recommendation, or medical data analysis \cite{6} over the confidential data collected from many different hospitals.

B. Neuromorphic computing

Neuromorphic computing platforms offer an energy-efficient alternative to perform training and inference in neural
networks while being suitable for power-constrained applications such as mobile systems [7]. Neuromorphic systems mimic the brain’s event-driven dynamics, distributed architecture and massive parallelism to overcome the limitations of conventional von Neumann computing architectures [8]. Neuromorphic hardware equipped with synaptic plasticity capability can perform training and inference online, using local information [9], [10], making them particularly interesting for problems requiring fast adaptation to new data. In previous work, [11] showed fast adaptation to various odourants and [3] showed fast adaptation to mid-air gestures.

The key contribution of this work is showing how federated learning can be used to further improve one-shot learning accuracy using surrogate gradient learning on neuromorphic processors.

1) Surrogate Gradient Online Error-triggered Learning with the Loihi Neuromorphic Research Chip: A number of recent methods for training SNNs using gradient descent have recently emerged. The Surrogate Gradient Online Error-triggered Learning (SOEL) learning rule has shown to be successful on classification tasks when used on the Intel Loihi neuromorphic processor. The Intel Loihi has a plasticity processor that can adjust synaptic weights via an learning rule expressed as a finite difference equation with respect to a synaptic state variable that follows a sum-of-products form shown here [10]:

\[ W_{ij}[t+1] = W_{ij}[t] + \sum_k C_k \prod_l F_{kl}[t], \]

where \( W_{ij} \) is the synaptic weight variable defined for the destination-source neuron pair being updated; \( C_k \) is a scaling constant; and \( F_{kl}[t] \) may be programmed to represent various state variables, including pre-synaptic spikes or traces, post-synaptic spikes or traces, where traces are represented as first-order linear filters. The weights are stochastically rounded according to the programmed weight precision. Traces are stochastically rounded to 7-bits of precision. SOEL maps a surrogate gradient (SG) based [12], [13] three-factor learning rule to these dynamics on the Intel Loihi chip adapted to overcome limitations in neuromorphic hardware such as locality and bit precision. Three factor rules include a pre-synaptic factor, a post-synaptic factor and an external error signal. The SOEL learning rule can be written in the following three-factor form:

\[ \nabla W_{ij} \mathcal{L}(S) = -(Y_i - S_i)\sigma'(U_i)P_j. \]

where \( Y_i \) is the target, \( S_i \) is the number of post-synaptic spikes by neuron \( i \), and \( \sigma'(U_i) \) is the derivative of the post-synaptic neuron’s membrane state which must be implemented on the Loihi as a box function using a piecewise SG function where \( \sigma'(U_i) \in \{0,1\} \), and \( P_j \) is a subtraction of two pre-synaptic traces which creates a second order kernel. The rule can be written compactly as follows:

\[ \nabla W_{ij} \mathcal{L}(S^N) \propto -E_i B_i P_j. \]

Since the post-synaptic trace is not necessary for the SG rule, SOEL writes the error on the same register used for the post-synaptic trace. This enables the error value to be available in the plasticity processor for learning. On the Loihi, post-traces can only be positive but errors can be both positive and negative. This problem is solved by offsetting the weight updates with a constant term \( C \).

\[ E_i[t] = \begin{cases} C + err_i[t], & \text{if } err_i > \theta \text{ or } < -\theta \\ C, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]

where \( err_i[t] = Y - S_i = \sum_{t=0}^{T} S_i[t] \) is the error calculated at timestep \( t \) which is the target \( Y \) minus the number of post-synaptic spikes by neuron \( i \) in the last \( T \) time steps, and \( \theta \) is an error threshold.

The full learning rule can then be expressed as:

\[ W_{ij} = W_{ij} + \eta(E_i - C)P_j, \]

where \( W_{ij} \) is the synapse from pre-synaptic neuron \( j \) to post-synaptic neuron \( i \), \( \eta \) is the learning rate, \( E_i \) is the error, and \( P_j \) is the pre-synaptic trace. The learning rule can be implemented in Intel Loihi as:

\[ \begin{align*}
X_{ij}^2[t+1] &= \alpha^2 X_{ij}^2[t] + S_j^2, \\
X_{ij}^2[t+1] &= \alpha^2 X_{ij}^2[t] + S_j^2, \\
Y_i[t] &= E_i[t], \\
\Delta W_{ij} &= \eta(X_{ij}^2[t] - X_{ij}^2[t])(Y_i[t] - C).
\end{align*} \]

Here, \( X^2 \) and \( X^1 \) are pre-synaptic trace variables available in the Loihi whose subtraction in the third equation yields the second order kernel equivalent to \( P_j \) in Eq. (2).

\[ P_j[t] \propto (X_{ij}^2[t] - X_{ij}^2[t]). \]

A Loihi Lakemont core computes the spike count \( \bar{S} \) and evaluates \( err_i \) at regular intervals \( T \). If the error exceeds the threshold \( \theta \), the post-synaptic trace value in the plasticity processor, \( Y_i \), is written with the error \( E_i \) and a plasticity operation is initiated. As in Eq. (4), \( C \) is a constant bias term to account for negative error because traces cannot be negative.

IV. EXPERIMENT

A. Setup

For the one-shot federated learning experiments we used the IBM DvsGesture dataset [14]. The dataset consists of recordings of 29 different individuals performing 10 different actions such as clapping and an unspecified gesture for a total of 11 classes. The actions are recorded using a Dynamic Vision Sensor (DVS) [15], an event-based neuromorphic sensor, under three different lighting conditions. The problem is to classify an action sequence video. Samples from the first 23 subjects were used for training and the last 6 subjects were used for testing. The test set contains 264 samples and will be used for the few-shot federated learning task. Each sample consists of the first 1.45 seconds of the gesture performed. Previous work has demonstrated the success of using transfer learning to boost the performance of few-shot learning accuracy using surrogate gradient learning methods like SOEL [16], [3]. In our experiment we use this approach with federated learning on an M+N-way classification task.
Transfer learning has the advantage that pre-training can be accelerated offline if the task domain is known, and few samples of each class are sufficient for learning the target task at reasonable accuracies. Therefore we used a network pre-trained using SLAYER [17], an SNN learning method based on Back-propagation Through Time (BPTT). The SLAYER model was pre-trained on only 6 of the 11 classes. Then we transferred the network to the Intel Loihi and retrained the last layer of the network on the remaining 5 classes using the Neuromorphic Federated Learning (NFL) algorithm expressed in Algorithm 2, combining SOEL with federated learning that we use for 6+5-way one-shot federated learning.

Algorithm 2 Neuromorphic Federated Learning

Server:
Server initializes common model $w_0$
for $t = 1$, $E$ do
  for each client $k$ in $K$ do
    $w_t = w_{t-1} + \text{Client}_k(w_{t-1}^{k})$
  end for
  $w_t = w_t / K$
end for
Output: Global model $w_t$

Client$_k(w_{t-1}^{k})$:
$W^k_c = \text{SOEL}(D_k, w_{t-1}^k, T)$
Output: Model update $w_t^k - w_{t-1}^k$

B. Results
In Table II we compare the test accuracy of doing 6+5-way one-shot learning of the five different client models and compare to the accuracy of each model after federated learning converged which in this case was after 8 epochs. All of the models improved on the test data after training on only one-shot of data using federated learning, with model 4’s accuracy improving by almost 32%. Models 1, and 2 achieve state of the
art one shot learning accuracy on the gesture recognition task with the previous state of the art being done with SLAYER at 86% [3]. The higher accuracy of the models are the result of learning for more than a single epoch, and better generalization from averaging the weights of the different models in the global model thus sharing some of the high level features learned from each individual model’s shot.

V. DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

We achieved state of the art one-shot learning accuracy on a gesture recognition task by combining surrogate gradient learning with federated learning on a neuromorphic processor. These initial results are promising and will help pave the way for more secure, better performing mobile systems that use neuromorphic computing. However, there are still many open problems remaining in making neuromorphic learning algorithms more secure. We discuss these in the following sections and will address these challenges in future work.

A. Security of Federated Learning

As a relatively new concept, although Federated Learning creates new opportunities, there are still a few drawbacks remaining to be solved. Researchers have made intensive investigation into the security of the federated learning framework under different kinds of attacks [18]. First, in practice there might be parties that don’t follow the Federated Averaging algorithm and manipulate the model updates between clients and the server, which can degrade the overall model performance. For example, a malicious party could intentionally send bad model updates for aggregation which will potentially degrade the model quality. Moreover, this kind of attacks might introduce backdoor attacks [19] [20]. Second, although not directly uploaded, the private information about the training data of honest parties could still be extracted from their model updates by carefully designed attacks from another malicious party, especially when the number of parties participating in training process is small, e.g. only two clients participated. Although this could happen with negligible possibility in practice, we still want to prevent this kind of attacks theoretically and practically. Third, large models may require huge bandwidth during communication between clients and the server, since nowadays it is very common to have models with thousands or millions of parameters, the size of each update can be quite large and thus expensive.

B. Other privacy-enhancing techniques

Differential privacy is commonly used in deep learning to protect model privacy [21]. In general it allows a party to privately release information about a dataset while an evaluation function on this input dataset is perturbed. When applied to machine learning models, carefully designed noise such as Guassian/Laplacian noise are added to gradients so that the information that could be learned from this gradient update is bounded. However noise permutation mechanisms are yet to be explored with surrogate gradients. Usually it’s expected that adding noise would hurt model’s performance, while our experiment shows that using federated learning could improve the experiment result which could balance out the performance degradation from the added noise.

Homomorphic Encryption is another method that could prevent private information leakage during the machine learning process. In most cases it uses a centralized learning setting, which generally enables the server to perform learning tasks on encrypted data uploaded by clients, and sends back to the clients the learned results, e.g. the predicted result output by a prediction model. During the whole process only the client can see its own raw data and corresponding learning result after local decryption. The whole machine learning model could be seen as a computation function, which runs on encrypted training data. However the computation cost of homomorphic encryption is very high, although recent work has proposed some schemes specifically for decreasing the computation cost [22] [23]. Because the model used in our work and the models typically used in mobile and embedded applications are relatively small, homomorphic encryption to protect user data privacy while still expensive is worth exploring.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by the Intel Corporation.

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