Circa: Stochastic ReLUs for Private Deep Learning

Abstract

The simultaneous rise of machine learning as a service and concerns over user privacy have increasingly motivated the need for private inference (PI). While recent work demonstrates PI is possible using cryptographic primitives, the computational overheads render it impractical. The community is largely unprepared to address these overheads, as the source of slowdown in PI stems from the ReLU operator whereas optimizations for plaintext inference focus on optimizing FLOPs. In this paper we re-think the ReLU computation and propose optimizations for PI tailored to properties of neural networks. Specifically, we reformulate ReLU as an approximate sign test and introduce a novel truncation method for the sign test that significantly reduces the cost per ReLU. These optimizations result in a specific type of stochastic ReLU. The key observation is that the stochastic fault behavior is well suited for the fault-tolerant properties of neural inference. Thus, we provide significant savings without impacting accuracy. We collectively call the optimizations Circa and demonstrate improvements of up to $4.7\times$ storage and $3\times$ runtime over baseline implementations; we further show that Circa can be used on top of recent PI optimizations to obtain $1.8\times$ additional speed-up.

1   Introduction

Today, Machine Learning as a Service (MLaaS) provides high-quality user experiences but comes at the cost of privacy—clients either share their personal data with the server or the server must disclose its model to the clients. Ideally, both the client and server would preserve the privacy of their inputs and model without sacrificing quality. A recent and growing body of work has focused on designing and optimizing cryptographic protocols for private inference (PI). With PI MLaaS computations are performed obliviously, without the server seeing the clients data nor the client learning the server's model. PI protocols are built using cryptographic primitives including homomorphic encryption (HE), Secret Sharing (SS), and secure multiparty computation (MPC). The challenge is that all known protocols for PI incur impractically high overheads, rendering them unusable.

Existing PI frameworks [1, 2, 3] are based on *hybrid* protocols, where different cryptographic techniques are used to evaluate different network layers. Delphi [3], a leading solution based on Gazelle [2], uses additive secret sharing for convolution and fully-connected layers. Secret sharing supports fast addition and multiplication by moving large parts of the computation to an offline phase [4]. Thus, convolutions can be computed at near plaintext speed. Non-linear functions, notably ReLU, cannot similarly be sped up. Most protocols (including Delphi, Gazelle, and MiniONN) use Yao's Garbled Circuits (GC) [5] to process ReLUs. GCs allow two parties to privately compute arbitrary Boolean functions. At a high-level, GCs represent functions as encrypted two-input truth tables. This means that computing a function with GCs requires the function be decomposed into a circuit of binary gates that processes inputs in a bit-wise fashion. Thus, evaluating ReLUs privately is extremely expensive, to the point that PI inference runtime is dominated by ReLUs [3, 6].

Therefore, reducing ReLU cost is critical to realizing practical PI. There are two general approaches for minimizing the cost of ReLUs: designing new architectures that limit ReLU counts and optimizing the cost per ReLU. Prior work has almost exclusively focused on minimizing ReLU counts. Work along this line includes replacing or approximating ReLUs with quadratics or polynomials (e.g., CryptoNets [7], DELPHI [3], SafeNets [8]), designing new networks architectures to maximize accuracy per ReLU (e.g., CryptoNAS [6]), and more aggressive techniques that simply remove ReLUs from the network (e.g., DeepReDuce [9]). Relatively little attention has been given to minimizing the cost of the ReLU operation itself.

In this paper we propose Circa[1], a novel method to reduce ReLU cost based on a new *stochastic ReLU* function. First, we refactor the ReLU as a sign computation followed by a multiplication, allowing us to push the multiplication from GC to SS, leaving only a sign computation in the GC. Next, we approximate the sign computation to further reduce GC cost. This approximation is not free; it results in stochastic sign evaluation where the results are sometimes incorrect (we call incorrect computations faults to differentiate from inference error/accuracy). Finally, we show that stochastic sign can be optimized even further by truncating its inputs; truncation introduces new faults, but only for small positive or negative values.

Our key insight is that deep networks are highly resilient to stochastic ReLU fault behaviour, which provides significant opportunity for runtime benefit. The stochastic ReLU introduces two types of faults. First, the sign of a ReLU can be incorrectly computed with probability proportional to the magnitude of the input. (This probability is the ratio of the input magnitude over field prime.) In practice we find this rarely occurs as most ReLU inputs are very small (especially compared to the prime) and thus the impact on accuracy is negligible. Second, truncation can cause *either* small positive or small negative values to fault. Circa provides users a choice as to which probabilistic fault mode to go with. In *NegPass*, small negative numbers experience a fault with some probability and are incorrectly passed through the ReLU. Alternatively, *PosZero* incorrectly resolves small positive inputs to zero. Empirically, we find deep networks to be highly resilient against such faults, tolerating more than 10% fault rate without sacrificing accuracy. Compared to Delphi, Circa-optimized networks run up to $3\times$ times faster. We further show that Circa is orthogonal to the current best practice for ReLU count reduction [9]. When combined, we observe an additional $1.8\times$ speedup.

2 Background

2.1 Private Inference

We consider a client-server model where the client sends their input to the server for inference using the server's model. The client and the server wish to keep both the input and model private during the inference computation. Our threat model is the same as prior work on private inference [1, 2, 3]. More specifically, we operate in a two-party setting (i.e., the client and server) where participants are honest-but-curious—they follow the protocol truthfully but may try to infer information about the other party's input/model during execution.

We take the Delphi protocol [3] as a baseline and implement our optimizations over it. Delphi uses HE and SS for linear layers, where computationally expensive HE operations are performed in an offline phase and online computations only require lightweight SS operations. For non-linear activations, Delphi uses ReLUs, evaluated using GCs, and polynomial activations (x^2), evaluated using Beaver multiplication triples [4]. While Circa does not use polynomial activations, it uses Beaver triples in its stochastic ReLU implementation. Next, we introduce the necessary cryptographic primitives and provide an overview of the Delphi protocol.

2.2 Cryptographic Primitives

Finite Fields. The cryptographic primitives described subsequently operate on values in a finite field of integer modulo a prime p, $\mathbb{F}_p$, i.e., the set $\{0, 1, \ldots, p-1\}$. In practice, positive values will be represented with integers in range $[0, \frac{p-1}{2})$, and negative values will be integers in range $[\frac{p-1}{2}, p)$.

Additive Secret Sharing. Additive secret shares of a value x can be created for two parties by randomly sampling a value r and setting shares as $\langle x \rangle_1 = r$ and $\langle x \rangle_2 = x - r$. The secret can be

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[1]In Latin, "circa" means approximately.

Figure 1: An illustration of the Delphi protocol, which Circa uses. Delphi is a hybrid protocol that uses HE (offline) and SS (online) for linear layers and GC for non-linear layers.

reconstructed by adding the shares $x = \langle x \rangle_1 + \langle x \rangle_2$. Performing additions over two shared values is straightforward in this scheme, each party simply adds to their respective share to obtain a portion of the result.

Beaver Multiplication Triples. This protocol [4] is used to perform multiplications over two secret shared values. A set of multiplication triples are generated offline from random values a and b, such that the first party receives $\langle a \rangle_1, \langle b \rangle_1, \langle ab \rangle_1$, and the second party receives $\langle a \rangle_2, \langle b \rangle_2, \langle ab \rangle_2$. In the online phase x and y are secret shared among parties such that the first party holds $\langle x \rangle_1, \langle y \rangle_1$ and the second party holds $\langle x \rangle_2, \langle y \rangle_2$. To perform multiplication they consume a set of triples generated offline and at the end of the protocol the first party obtains $\langle xy \rangle_1$ and the second party obtains $\langle xy \rangle_2$.

Homomorphic Encryption. HE [10] is a type of encryption that enables computation directly on encrypted data. Assuming a public key k_{pub} and corresponding secret key k_{sec}, an encryption function operates on a plaintext message to create a ciphertext $c = E(m, k_{pub})$, and a decryption function obtains the message from the ciphertext $m = D(c, k_{sec})$. An operation $\odot$ is homomorphic if for messages m_1, m_2 we have a function $\star$ such that decrypting the ciphertext $E(m_1, k_{pub}) \star E(m_2, k_{pub})$, which we also write as $\text{HE}(m_1 \odot m_2)$, gives $m_1 \odot m_2$.

Garbled Circuits. GCs [5] enable two parties to collaboratively compute a Boolean function on their private inputs. The function is first represented as a Boolean circuit C. One party (the *garbler*) encodes the circuit using procedure $\tilde{C} \leftarrow Garble(C)$ and sends it to the second party (the *evaluator*). The evaluator also obtains labels of the inputs and is able to evaluate the circuit using procedure $Eval(\tilde{C})$ without learning intermediate values. Finally, evaluator will share the output labels with the garbler, and both parties obtain the output in plaintext. The cost of GC is largely dependent on the size of the Boolean circuit being computed.

2.3 Delphi Protocol

We now briefly describe the linear and non-linear components of the Delphi protocol, depicted also in Figure 1. For simplicity, we will focus on the ith layer, with input $\mathbf{y_i}$ and output $\mathbf{y_{i+1}}$. The layer performs linear computation $\mathbf{x_i} = \mathbf{W_i}.\mathbf{y_i}$ (here $\mathbf{W_i}$ are the server's weights) followed by a non-linear activation $\mathbf{y_{i+1}} = \text{ReLU}(\mathbf{x_i})$. The protocol consists of an input independent *offline phase*, and an input dependent *online phase*. As a starting point, the client samples random vectors $\mathbf{r_i} \in \mathbb{F}_p^n$ in the offline phase. For input $\mathbf{y_1}$, the client computes $\mathbf{y_1} - \mathbf{r_1}$ and sends it to the server. For the ith layer, the client and the server start with secret shares of the layer input, $\langle \mathbf{y_i} \rangle_c = \mathbf{r_i}$ and $\langle \mathbf{y_i} \rangle_s = \mathbf{y_i} - \mathbf{r_i}$, and use the Delphi protocol to obtain shares of the output, $\langle \mathbf{y_{i+1}} \rangle_c = \mathbf{r_{i+1}}$ and $\langle \mathbf{y_{i+1}} \rangle_s = \mathbf{y_{i+1}} - \mathbf{r_{i+1}}$.

Linear computation: In the offline phase, the server sample random vectors $\mathbf{s_i} \in \mathbb{F}_p^n$. Then, as shown in Figure 1, the client privately computes $\mathbf{W_i}.\mathbf{r_i} - \mathbf{s_i}$ without learning the server's randomness or weights and without the server learning the client's randomness. In the *online* phase, the server computes $\mathbf{W_i}.(\mathbf{y_i} - \mathbf{r_i}) + \mathbf{s_i}$, at which point the client and the server hold additive secret shares of $\mathbf{x_i} = \mathbf{W_i}.\mathbf{y_i}$. Circa uses the same protocol for linear layers as Delphi.

124 **Non-linear computation:** In this description we will focus on ReLU computations (for completeness,
125 Figure 1 also illustrates how quadratic activations are computed). During the offline phase, the server
126 creates a Boolean circuit C for each ReLU in the network, garbles the circuit and sends it to the client
127 along with labels corresponding to the client's input. In the online phase, the linear layer protocol
128 produces the server's share of the ReLUs input. The server sends labels corresponding to its share
129 to the client. The client then evaluates the GC, which outputs the server's share, $\mathbf{y_{i+1} - r_{i+1}}$, for
130 the next linear layer. Online GC evaluation is the most expensive component of Delphi's online PI
131 latency. Circa focuses on reducing this cost.

3 Circa Methodology

133 We now describe Circa, beginning with a cost analysis of the GC design used in prior work. We then
134 describe three optimizations to reduce GC size and latency that form the core of Circa.

3.1 Cost Analysis of ReLU GC

136 The inputs to a conventional ReLU GC are shares of x, i.e., $\langle x \rangle_c$ and $\langle x \rangle_s$, and random value r. Each
137 is a value in the field $\mathbb{F}_p$, implemented using $m = \lceil log(p) \rceil$ bits. Prior work [1, 2, 3] implements
138 ReLU with a circuit that performs several computations contributing to the GC cost. First, $x = \langle x \rangle_c$
139 $+ \langle x \rangle_s \mod p$ is computed by obtaining $z = \langle x \rangle_c + \langle x \rangle_s$ and $z - p$ using two m-bit adder/subtractor
140 modules (ADD/SUB). z is checked for overflow, and either z or $z - p$ is selected using a multiplexor
141 (MUX). Then, x is compared with $\frac{p}{2}$ using an m-bit comparator (>), and a MUX outputs either 0 or
142 x. Finally, the GC outputs the server's share of ReLU(x) by performing a modulo subtraction of r
143 from the output of the previous MUX using two ADD/SUB modules and another MUX.

144 This design, used by Delphi and Gazelle, results in a GC size of 17.5KB per ReLU. Overall, the GCs
145 for ResNet32, as implemented in Delphi, require more than 4GB of client-side storage per inference.[2]
146 GC size directly correlates with PI latency, resulting in prohibitive online runtime.

3.2 Circa's Stochastic ReLU

148 Circa's Stochastic ReLU is built using three optimizations that work together to reduce GC size. We
149 describe each optimization below.

150 **Refactoring ReLUs.** Our first observation is that ReLU(x) can be refactored as $x.\text{sign}(x)$, where
151 sign(x) equals 1 if $x \geq 0$ and 0 otherwise. Since multiplications can be evaluated cheaply online
152 using Beaver Triples, only sign(x) must be implemented in GC. Let $v = \text{sign}(x)$; the sign(x) GC
153 computes the server's share of v, $\langle v \rangle_s = \text{sign}(x) - r$, using shares of x and random value r provided
154 by the client. The client will then set its share to $\langle v \rangle_c = r$

155 Figure 2(b) shows our naive GC implementation for sign(x). As in the ReLU(x) GC (Figure 2(a)),
156 we first compute $x = \langle x \rangle_c + \langle x \rangle_s \mod p$ using two ADD/SUB modules and a MUX, and use a
157 comparator to check x against $\frac{p}{2}$. By having the client pre-compute and provide both $-r$ and $1 - r$
158 as inputs to the GC we save two ADD/SUB modules, since we no longer need to perform these
159 computations inside the GC. Note that the client selects r and can compute $-r$ and $1 - r$ by itself at
160 plaintext speed. Formally, our GC for the sign function implements:

$$sign\left(\langle x \rangle_c, \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1 - r\right) = \begin{cases} -r & \text{if } \langle x \rangle_c + \langle x \rangle_s \mod p > \frac{p}{2} \\ 1 - r & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

161 The client and server now hold secret shares of both x (i.e., $\langle x \rangle_c$ and $\langle x \rangle_s$), and v (i.e., $\langle v \rangle_c$ and $\langle v \rangle_s$).
162 We now use pre-computed Beaver multiplication triples, as described in Section 2.2, to compute
163 shares of $y = x.\text{sign}(x)$. This multiplication is cheap and the ReLU optimized ReLU is smaller and
164 faster than standard GC implementation in Figure 2(a), providing modest benefit.

165 **Stochastic Sign.** Our second optimization further reduces the cost of the sign computation. As noted
166 previously, the naive sign GC still uses high-cost components inside the GC because of the need

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[2]Note that a separate GC must be constructed for each ReLU in a network and GCs cannot be reused across
inferences.

Figure 2: Comparing implementations of the ReLU function for PI. (a) depicts the implementations in prior work [1, 2, 3] where the ReLU function is implemented with GC, (b) shows a naive implementation of the sign function followed by multiplication triples, and (c) describes the implementation in Circa with an optimized sign function followed by multiplication triples. The heaviest part of the computation in each of these implementations relates to the GC which is shown in shaded blocks.

to perform *modulo* additions to exactly reconstruct x; modulo additions require expensive checks for overflow and a subsequent subtraction. Our next optimization only looks at the regime without overflow, greatly simplifying the GC at the cost of introducing occasional faults in sign computation.

Figure 2(c) shows our proposed stochastic sign optimization that reduces the logic inside the GC to a *single* comparator and a MUX. We first formally define the stochastic sign GC function.

$$\widetilde{sign}\big(p - \langle x \rangle_c, \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1-r\big) = \begin{cases} -r & \text{if } \langle x \rangle_s \leq p - \langle x \rangle_c \\ 1-r & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

Note that in the stochastic sign GC, the client sends the negated value of its share (or $p - \langle x \rangle_c$) instead of the share directly. This optimization avoids the need to compute $p - \langle x \rangle_c$ inside the GC itself. We formalize the fault rates of the stochastic ReLU below.

Theorem 3.1. *For any $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$, assuming shares $\langle x \rangle_s = x + t \mod p$ and $\langle x \rangle_c = p - t$ where t is picked uniformly at random from $\mathbb{F}_p$,*

$$P\Big\{ \widetilde{sign}\big(\langle x \rangle_s, p - \langle x \rangle_c, -r, 1-r\big) \neq sign\big(\langle x \rangle_c, \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1-r\big) \Big\} = \frac{|x|}{p}.$$

Proof. Consider the case where x is positive, i.e., $x \leq \frac{p}{2}$. The wrong sign is assigned to x if $\langle x \rangle_s \leq p - \langle x \rangle_c$, which can be rewritten as $x + t \mod p \leq t$. This is true when adding x and t incurs an overflow, with $t \geq p - x$. Since t is drawn at random, the probability of error $P_{err} = \frac{x}{p}$. A similar analysis for negative values of x shows that a wrong sign is assigned when $x + t < p$ which results an error probability of $P_{err} = \frac{|x|}{p}$, where $|x| = p - x$ for $x > \frac{p}{2}$. □

Truncated Stochastic Sign. Our third and most effective optimization builds on the observation that the $\langle x \rangle_s \leq p - \langle x \rangle_c$ (equivalently, $\langle x \rangle_s \leq t$) check in the stochastic sign GC can be performed on truncated values. We show that truncation introduces an additional fault mode; in particular, the check is incorrect with some probability for small positive values of x in the range $[0, 2^k)$ (i.e., values that truncate to 0) but is correct for all other values of x.

Let $\lfloor x \rfloor_k$ represent truncation of the k least significant bits of x, i.e., only the $m - k$ most significant bits of x are retained. We define a truncated stochastic sign as:

$$\widetilde{sign}_k\big(p - \langle x \rangle_c, \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1 - r\big) = \widetilde{sign}\big(\lfloor p - \langle x \rangle_c \rfloor_k, \lfloor \langle x \rangle_s \rfloor_k, -r, 1 - r\big) \tag{3}$$

where k represents the amount of truncation. We now prove that the truncated stochastic sign function incurs additional errors (over the stochastic sign) only for small positive values.

Theorem 3.2. *For any* $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$, *assuming shares* $\langle x \rangle_s = x + t \bmod p$ *and* $\langle x \rangle_c = p - t$ *where* t *is picked uniformly at random from* $\mathbb{F}_p$, *and assuming* $\widetilde{sign}\big(\langle x \rangle_c, p - \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1 - r\big) = sign\big(\langle x \rangle_c, \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1 - r\big)$, *then:*

$$P\Big\{\widetilde{sign}_k\big(\langle x \rangle_c, p - \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1 - r\big) \neq \widetilde{sign}\big(\langle x \rangle_c, p - \langle x \rangle_s, -r, 1 - r\big)\Big\} = \frac{2^k - |x|}{2^k} \quad \forall x \in [0, 2^k),$$

and zero otherwise.

Proof. For negative x, the stochastic sign is error-free if $\langle x \rangle_s \leq p - \langle x \rangle_c$ (equivalently $\langle x \rangle_s \leq t$). Consequently the truncated stochastic sign would not incur an error, since $\lfloor \langle x \rangle_s \rfloor_k = \lfloor t \rfloor_k$ is assigned a negative sign. The additional error in this case is when $\lfloor \langle x \rangle_s \rfloor_k = \lfloor t \rfloor_k$ for positive values of x. Therefore the error happens when $\lfloor x + t \rfloor_k = \lfloor t \rfloor_k$, or $x + t$ does not overflow to higher $p - k$ bits. So for $|x| > 2^k$ there is no error. In other case, the error happens when $x + t > 2^k$ or equivalently $t > 2^k - |x|$. Assuming a uniform distribution the error probability would be $P_{err} = \frac{2^k - |x|}{2^k}$. $\qquad \square$

Putting it All Together: the Stochastic ReLU We define Circa's stochastic ReLU as $\widetilde{ReLU}_k(x) = x \cdot \widetilde{sign}_k(x)$ with $\widetilde{sign}_k$ defined in Eq. 3. Stochastic ReLUs incur *two* types of faults: (1) a sign error, independent of k, with probability $\frac{|x|}{p}$ (in practice $|x| \ll p$ for typical choices of prime), and (2) *small* positive values in the truncation range $x \in [0, 2^k)$ are zeroed out with high probability $\frac{2^k - |x|}{2^k}$; however, for small values we expect the impact on network accuracy to be low.

We note that Eq. 2 could have been defined such that $\widetilde{sign}$ outputs $-r$ for $\langle x \rangle_s < p - \langle x \rangle_c$. With this modification, truncation errors occur with the same probability but for small negative values in range $[p - 2^k, p)$ that are passed through to the ReLU output. That is, our stochastic ReLU can operate in one of two modes: (1) **PosZero**, that zeros out small positive values, or (2) **NegPass**, that passes through small negative values.

4 Evaluation

In this section we evaluate Circa and validate our error model. We show that our optimizations have minimal effect on network accuracy and show the runtime and storage benefits of Circa.

4.1 Experimental Setup

We perform experiments on ResNet18, ResNet32 [11] and VGG16 [12]. Since Circa can be used to replace ReLU activations in *any* network, we also perform experiments on DeepReDuce-optimized models [9] that are the current state-of-the-art for fast PI. We train these networks on CIFAR-10/100 [13] and TinyImageNet [14] datasets. CIFAR-10/100 (C10/100) datatset has 50k training and 10k test images (size 32×32) separated into 10/100 output classes. TinyImageNet consist of 200 output classes with 500 training and 50 test samples (size 64×64) per classes. Existing PI papers typically evaluate on smaller datasets and lower resolution images because PI is prohibitively expensive for ImageNet or higher resolution inputs.

Circa is based on top of the Delphi protocol, but substantially modifies the way ReLUs are implemented. We use the Seal library [15] for HE, and fancy-garbling library [16] for GC. We benchmark PI runtime on an Intel i9-10900X CPU running at 3.70GHz with 64GB of memory. The baseline accuracy of the models in PI is reported using an integer model with network values in a prime field. To obtain an integer model, we scale and quantize model parameters and input to 15 bits (as in Delphi), and pick a 31 bit prime field ($p = 2138816513$) to ensure that multiplication of two 15-bit values does not exceed the field. The baseline accuracy of our integer models is reported in Table 1.

(a)   (b)

Figure 3: (a) Fault probability of Circa's stochastic ReLU in the PosZero mode, and a histogram of ResNet18's activations. (b) Validating Circa's fault validation for ResNet18 on CIFAR-100.

(a) CIFAR-100 on ResNet18   (b) TinyImageNet on ResNet18

(c) CIFAR-100 on DeepReDuce Model   (d) TinyImageNet on DeepReDuce Model

Figure 4: Accuracy and Fault rate variation with the increasing number of truncated-bits. Experiments performed on CIFAR-100 and TinyImageNet with ResNet18 vanilla model (top row) and with DeepReDuce models [9] (bottom row).

4.2 Experimental Results

Validating the Stochastic ReLU Fault Model We begin by validating our model of stochastic ReLUs described in Section 3.2 (Theorem 3.1 and 3.2) against Circa's stochastic ReLU implementation. Figure 3 plots fault rates on ResNet18 trained on CIFAR-100 for PosZero sotchastic ReLU variant. Recall that in PosZero, majority of faults are incurred for small positive values. We plot the total fault rate for all activations and the fault rate for only positive activations. Points in the plot indicate measurements from the implementation and the lines show out estimates using the model. We observe that our model is consistent with the implementation across a wide range of faults. As expected, as we increase the amount of truncation, the fault rates increase. With 28 bits of truncation, all positive activations are faulty. The total fault rate is 60%, which is lower than the positive fault rate because negative activations incur relatively few faults, as predicted by our model.

Fault Rates and Test Error Vs. Truncation Figure 4 shows the relationship between truncation, fault rates, and test accuracy. The experiments are done using the CIFAR100 and TinyImagenet datsets with DeepReDuce-optimized ResNet18 networks. Each plot shows data for both NegPass and PosZero variants. We observe that in all cases, Circa is able to truncate 17-19 bits with negligible accuracy loss at fault rates up to 10%. We also find that the PosZero version of Circa is consistently slightly better than NegPass for these models, enabling between 1-2 extra bits of truncation. For all

Table 1: Circa on CIFAR-10 (C10), CIFAR-100 (C100), and TinyImageNet (Tiny).

Network-Dataset	#ReLUs (K)	Baseline Acc	Stochastic ReLU		Baseline Runtime (s)	Circa Runtime (s)	Runtime Speedup
			NegPass (bits)	PosZero (bits)			
ResNet32-C10	303.1	92.43%	91.47% (12)	91.85% (12)	6.32	2.47	2.6×
ResNet18-C10	557.1	94.66%	93.77% (11)	94.24% (11)	11.05	3.89	2.8×
VGG16-C10	284.7	94.00%	93.77% (12)	93.61% (13)	5.89	2.25	2.6×
ResNet32-C100	303.1	67.32%	66.41% (14)	66.32% (13)	6.32	2.47	2.6×
ResNet18-C100	557.1	74.24%	73.80% (13)	73.76% (12)	11.05	4.15	2.7×
VGG16-C100	284.7	73.94%	73.25% (12)	73.19% (12)	5.89	2.25	2.6×
ResNet32-Tiny	1212.4	55.53%	55.15% (16)	54.56% (15)	24.24	9.04	2.7×
ResNet18-Tiny	2228.2	61.60%	60.60% (13)	60.65% (12)	44.55	14.28	3.1×
VGG16-Tiny	1114.1	50.85%	50.73% (12)	50.30% (12)	21.41	6.96	3.1×

Table 2: Circa with DeepReDuce (ResNet18) models on CIFAR-100 and TinyImageNet.

Network-Dataset	#ReLUs (K)	Baseline Acc	Stochastic ReLU		Baseline Runtime (s)	Circa Runtime (s)	Runtime Speedup
			NegPass (bits)	PosZero (bits)			
DeepReD1-C100	229.4	76.22%	76.34% (13)	75.62% (12)	3.18	1.84	1.7×
DeepReD2-C100	114.7	74.72%	73.47% (13)	73.64% (13)	1.71	1.05	1.6×
DeepReD3-C100	196.6	75.51%	75.13% (13)	75.34% (13)	2.76	1.65	1.7×
DeepReD4-C100	98.3	71.95%	71.45% (13)	71.65% (13)	1.48	0.903	1.6×
DeepReD1-Tiny	917.5	64.66%	64.62% (14)	64.53% (14)	12.27	6.68	1.8×
DeepReD2-Tiny	458.8	62.26%	61.28% (15)	61.26% (15)	6.50	3.94	1.6×
DeepReD5-Tiny	393.2	61.65%	61.63% (15)	61.66% (15)	5.38	3.21	1.7×
DeepReD6-Tiny	229.4	59.18%	58.65% (15)	58.61% (15)	3.18	2.01	1.6×

subsequent experiments, we pick the fault mode and truncation such that the resulting accuracy is within 1% of baseline.

Circa Accuracy and PI Runtime on Baseline Models
Table 1 shows the accuracy and runtime of Circa for the CIFAR10/100 and TinyImagenet datasets applied on top of standard ResNet18/32 and VGG16 models. Circa achieves 2.6× to 3.1× PI runtime improvement, in each instance with less than 1% accuracy reduction. The runtime improvements are larger for TinyImagenet because the baseline networks are different owing to TinyImagenet's higher spatial resolution.

Circa Vs. State of the Art Delphi, the baseline protocol on which we build Circa, reduces PI runtime by replacing selected ReLUs with cheaper quadratic activations. For CIFAR100, Delphi reduces the number of ReLUs in ResNet32 by 1.2× with 1% accuracy loss compared to baseline which, at best, translates to an equal reduction in PI latency. For the same setting, Circa achieves a 2.6× reduction in PI latency.

Figure 5: Garbled circuit size comparison between baseline ReLU, naive sign and Circa stochastic ReLUs.

Circa can be applied on *any* pre-trained ReLU network. Table 2 shows Circa's accuracy and PI runtime applied to DeepReDuce-optimized networks, the current state of the art in PI, across a range of ReLU counts on C100 and TinyImagenet. Circa reduces DeepReDuce PI latency by 1.6× to 1.8×, with less than 1% accuracy loss. Moreover, Circa solutions improve the set of Pareto optimal points compared to DeepReDuce. For example, Circa achieves 75.34% accuracy on C100 with 1.65s PI runtime, while DeepReduce has both higher runtime (1.71s) and lower accuracy (74.7%). For TinyImagenet, Circa increases DeepReduce's accuracy from 59.18% to 61.63% at effectively iso-runtime (3.18s vs. 3.21s).

Finally, SAFENet [17], the state-of-art that DeepReDuce improved on, achieves 1.9× speed-up over Delphi on ResNet32/CIFAR100, while Circa achieves a 2.6× speed-up.

Effectiveness of Circa Optimizations Circa encompasses three optimizations that build on top of each other, buying us multiplicative savings in GC size and PI runtime. Figure 5 shows the GC size

after each optimization. Replacing the baseline 31-bit ReLU GC with a 31-bit sign GC reduces GC size by $1.4\times$, (with no accuracy loss), a 31-bit stochastic sign GC is $1.9\times$ smaller, and truncating the stochastic sign to 12-bits achieves $4.7\times$ saving over the baseline. The run-time improvements from each of these optimizations are shown in Table 3 in the appendix.

5 Related Work

PI Protocols. Over the past few years a series of papers have proposed and optimized protocols for private machine learning. In CryptoNets [7], an HE only protocol is demonstrated for entire inferences using MNIST. Gazelle [2] optimized the protocol to use HE only for linear layers and GCs for ReLUs, this improved accuracy and performance while also scaling to larger networks. Most work has leveraged secret sharing for speed. SecureML showed how secret sharing could be used for MNIST inference and train linear regression models [18]. MiniONN [1] combined secret sharing with GCs, which allowed them to run deeper networks, and formed the foundation for a series of follow-on protocols. Delphi shows how significant speedup can be had over Gazelle by moving computations offline. XONN [19] enables private inference using only GCs for binarized neural networks and leverages the fact that XORs can be computed for free in the GC protocol to achieve speed-ups. Another approach is to replace GCs with secure enclaves and process linear layers on GPUs for more performance [20]. Some have also focused on privacy enhanced training [21, 22], typically assuming a different threat model than this work.

ReLU optimization. Prior work has also looked at designing ReLU optimized networks. A common approach is to replace ReLUs with quadratics [7, 3, 17, 23]). While effective in reducing GC cost, this complicates the training process and can degrade accuracy. Another approach has been to design novel ReLU-optimized architectures. In CryptoNAS [6]) the authors develop the idea of a ReLU budget and define new channel scaling rules to maximize network accuracy per ReLU. DeepReDuce is recent work that proposes simply removing ReLUs from the network altogether [9]. DeepReDuce is the current state-of-the-art for PI, and we show how Circa can be used on top of for even more savings.

Fault tolerant inference. Many have previously shown neural inference is resilient to faults even during inference. In the systems community fault tolerant properties are often used to improve energy-efficiency and run-times [24, 25, 26, 27]. Others have show networks can tolerate significant approximation to reduce model size by pruning insignificant weights and activations and possibly compressing them [28, 29, 30, 31].

6 Conclusion

This paper presents Circa, a new method to significantly speedup private inference by lowering the high cost of ReLUs via approximation. Our overarching objective is to minimize the amount of logic that must occur inside the expensive garbled circuit. To achieve this goal we reformulate ReLU as an explicit sign test and mask, where only the sign test occurs inside the GC and show that we can truncate, or simply remove, many of the least significant bits to the sign test for even more savings. Though the sign test and truncation optimizations introduce error we rigorously evaluate the effects and find a negligible impact on accuracy. Compared to a baseline protocol (Delphi) for PI Circa provides over $3\times$ ($2.2\times$ for quadratic Delphi) speedup; in addition we how existing state-of-the-art PI optimizations can be combined with Circa for even more saving, resulting in an additional speed-up of $1.8\times$ over a baseline protocol. In absolute terms, Circa can run TinyImageNet inferences within 2 seconds, bringing PI another step closer to real-time deployment.

Limitations and Societal Impact

Circa applies only for inference and not for training, and additionally only applies to certain types of deep networks. Private inference seeks to protect individuals from having to reveal sensitive data, but might also allow unregulated misuse of deep learning services.

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