Why Differentially-Private Local SGD – An Analysis of Biased Synchronized-Only Iterates

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Abstract

We argue to use Differentially-Private Local Stochastic Gradient Descent (DP-1 2 LSGD) in both centralized and distributed setups, and explain why DP-LSGD 3 enjoys higher clipping efficiency and produces less clipping bias compared to classic Differentially-Private Stochastic Gradient Descent (DP-SGD). For both convex 4 and non-convex optimization, we present generic analysis on noisy synchronized-5 only iterates in LSGD, the building block of federated learning, and study its 6 applications to differentially-private gradient methods with clipping-based sen-7 sitivity control. We point out that given the current *decompose-then-compose* 8 9 framework, there is no essential gap between the privacy analysis of centralized and distributed learning, and DP-SGD is a special case of DP-LSGD. We thus build 10 a unified framework to characterize the clipping bias via the second moment of 11 local updates, which initiates a direction to systematically instruct DP optimization 12 by variance reduction. We show DP-LSGD with multiple local iterations can 13 produce more concentrated local updates and then enables a more efficient exploita-14 tion of the clipping budget with a better utility-privacy tradeoff. In addition, we 15 prove that DP-LSGD can converge faster to a small neighborhood of global/local 16 optimum compared to regular DP-SGD. Thorough experiments on practical deep 17 learning tasks are provided to support our developed theory. 18

19 1 Introduction

Local Stochastic Gradient Descent (LSGD) [1] [2] and (Local/Client-Level) Differential Privacy (DP) 20 [3] 4, 5] are two popular methods to address the issues of communication efficiency and data privacy, 21 respectively. Rooted in the FedAvg framework first proposed in [6], instead of communicating and 22 synchronizing on the local updates from each user at each iteration, LSGD []] randomly samples 23 participants to perform gradient descent on their local data in parallel and only aggregates their local 24 updates periodically. Though LSGD is a simple generalization of SGD to a distributed setup with a 25 lower synchronization frequency, empirically it is known to produce promising performance, with 26 regard to both communication efficiency and convergence rate [7]. When each user holds i.i.d. data, 27 LSGD provably achieves a linear speedup in the number of users with also asymptotic improvements 28 on the communication overhead over regular distributed SGD to produce equivalent accuracy [1, 2]. 29 As for privacy preservation, DP [3, 8] provides a semantically precise way to quantify the data leakage 30 from any processing. At a high level, DP is an input-independent guarantee which ensures that an ad-31

versary cannot infer the participation of an individual datapoint easily from the release. For example, the classic (ϵ, δ) -DP with small security parameters ϵ and δ implies a large Type I or Type II error for

an adversarial hypothesis testing to guess whether an arbitrary individual is involved in the processing

³⁵ [9]. In DP research, one key problem is to determine the *sensitivity*, the worst-case influence/change

36 on the output of the objective processing after arbitrarily replacing an individual in an input set. Only

with tractable sensitivity, one can then apply proper randomization/perturbation such as the Gaussian 37 or Laplace mechanism [10] to produce required security parameters. Unfortunately, sensitivity is 38 in general NP-hard to compute **[11]**. To this end, in practice, a commonly-applied alternative is the 39 decompose-then-compose framework: a complicated processing is first (approximately) decomposed 40 into several simpler (possibly adaptive) subroutines such as mean estimation, each of whose sen-41 sitivity is controllable. A white-box adversary is then assumed who can observe the intermediate 42 computations, and an upper bound on the privacy loss is derived by the composition of the leakage 43 from the virtual release in each step [12]. 44 In the applications of machine learning, where the processing function returns a model trained on 45

possibly sensitive data, arguably the most popular and generic DP privatization method is DP-SGD 46 **13 14**. As a representative of the above-mentioned decompose-then-compose framework, DP-SGD 47 views the SGD as a sequence of adaptive gradient mean estimations. To ensure a bounded sensitivity 48 guarantee, each per-sample gradient is clipped, usually, in l_2 -norm [14] to some constant c, which is 49 essentially a projection to an l_2 -norm ball of radius c. Noise, which is determined by both the number 50 of iterations T and the clipping threshold c (sensitivity bound), is then added to the clipped stochastic 51 gradient in each iteration to produce satisfied DP parameters (ϵ, δ) under T-fold composition. A wider 52 dimension and a longer convergence time T will consequently require a larger DP noise. Though the 53 implementation of DP-SGD does not require any additional assumptions on either model or training 54 data, it is notorious for heavy utility loss, especially for deep learning. Moreover, the understanding 55 of the clipping bias from this artificial sensitivity control remains limited. In general, due to the bias, 56 clipped SGD will not converge even without noise perturbation [15, 16]. 57

Given the artificial assumption that DP-SGD releases the intermediate computations, there is no 58 essential gap between the privacy analysis of the centralized and local SGD, except that in the 59 distributed setup one may apply different DP metrics such as Local DP (LDP) [4] or client-level DP 60 [5] to consider the privacy preservation for each user's local data. More interestingly, it is worth 61 noting the connection among different problems in federated learning and DP-SGD that are essentially 62 equivalent. First, it is not hard to see that DP-SGD is a special case of DP-LSGD. DP-SGD can 63 be viewed as: n nodes, each holds a sample, and a virtual server collects the clipped stochastic 64 gradient from a subset of sampled nodes in every iteration, and publishes a noisy gradient descent. 65 DP-LSGD can be similarly defined where the only difference is that the server may not synchronize 66 on each iteration, but clips and aggregates a linear combinations of local gradients, *periodically*. 67 Thus, as a primary concern in federated learning, a smaller communication overhead in a lower 68 synchronization/aggregation frequency would also imply less leakage and a smaller composition 69 bound of privacy loss. On the other hand, the study on the utility loss by perturbation and artificial 70 sensitivity control (clipping) could also be used to analyze federated learning with compressed 71 communication [17] where there exists quantification error in broadcasted local updates. Therefore, 72 73 in this paper, we aim to provide a unified analysis for both noisy LSGD and DP-LSGD/SGD to get new insights. Before we can build useful theory to capture these concerns from different perspectives, 74 several technical challenges need to be addressed. 75

Utility of "Synchronized/Published" Iterate Only: Many existing convergence results [2, 18, 19, 76 20, 21] on non-private LSGD are developed on the (weighted) average of all iterates. These include 77 the intermediate iterates produced during the local updates from each user/node, which will not be 78 79 exposed or shared. To properly characterize the effect of perturbation, a more appropriate and realistic 80 convergence guarantee is to measure the performance of synchronized (shared) iterates only. This is 81 also important to help understand the practical performance of LSGD as neither the server nor users have access to all intermediate computations. Such measurement is especially necessary when we 82 apply LSGD in a private version: the utility of concern is only with respect to the released outputs, 83 and anything assumed to be published would incur privacy loss and increase the scale of DP noise. 84

Clipping Bias and Data Heterogeneity: In practice, tight sensitivity of many data processing 85 algorithms is intractable and thus a very popular but artificial control is clipping. However, clipping 86 could also bring non-negligible bias. In general, there is no convergence guarantee for clipped SGD 87 if we only assume the stochastic gradient is of bounded variance [15], though under more restrictive 88 assumptions, for example, when the stochastic gradient is in a symmetric $\begin{bmatrix} 15 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$ or light-tailed $\begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix}$ 89 distribution, or provided generalized smoothness [23], some (near) convergence results are known. A 90 concise characterization of such clipping bias still largely remains open, especially for deep learning. 91 The bias is even more complicated in the more general DP-LSGD. To provide meaningful theory 92 to instruct systematic bias reduction, we do not want to assume Lipschitz continuity or bounded 93

gradient, which may make the analysis trivial and impractical. Thus, the desired analysis essentially

captures the scenario given heavy data heterogeneity, and the results should not require a bounded
 difference among the local updates.

In this paper, through tackling the above-mentioned challenges, we aim to provide useful and intuitive
theory to understand practical performance of LSGD and instruct optimization with DP guarantees.
In particular, we want to explain how DP-LSGD out-performs regular DP-SGD. We summarize our

100 contributions as follows.

- 1. With only a mild assumption that the stochastic gradient is of bounded variance, we present the convergence analysis on the released-only iterates of LSGD under perturbation for both convex and non-convex smooth optimization in Theorem 3.1 and 3.2. In particular, for the general convex case, we show more powerful last iterate convergence, which could be of independent interest in developing generic last-iterate analysis with unbounded gradients.
- We then generalize our results to study the utility of DP-LSGD, where DP-SGD becomes a special case. In particular, we use the incremental norm of local update (see Definition 4.1) to characterize the clipping bias and show DP-LSGD has a faster convergence rate to a small neighborhood of global/local optimum as compared to DP-SGD.
- We further show LSGD behaves as an efficient variance reduction of local update, where
 multiple local GDs with a small learning rate cancel out substantial sampling noise, and
 enable more efficient clipping compared to DP-SGD. Thorough experiments show that
 DP-LSGD produces a much sharpened utility-privacy tradeoff in practical deep learning.

114 **1.1 Related Works**

Convergence Analysis of LSGD: With the increasing scale of both training data and models, 115 federated learning has become an important paradigm in modern machine learning, where LSGD and 116 its variants form the building block. Though the idea of LSGD can be traced back to earlier works 117 [24, 25], the theoretical convergence analysis has only been proved recently. A common strategy to 118 show convergence is to consider a virtual average of all the intermediate iterates produced by each 119 user, and keep track of the divergence (dissimilarity) between the virtual average and the local iterate. 120 In the setup where each user holds i.i.d. data, Stich in III studied strongly-convex optimization with 121 LSGD and showed a linear speedup in the number of users/nodes. [26] presented non-convex analysis 122 under the Lipschitz continuity assumption where the divergence of local update is also bounded. 123

For the more general applications with heterogeneous data, [27] studied the convex case with local 124 GD (without sampling on either users or users' local data) but still under Lipschitz continuity. 125 126 presented more generic and tighter analysis for LSGD without assumptions on bounded gradient for both strongly and general convex optimization. Further generalization of LSGD to the decentralized 127 setup under arbitrary network topology was considered in [19, 28, 29]. However, many existing 128 works [2, 19, 28] only showed the convergence rate relying on all the intermediate averages. To our 129 knowledge, the first generic analysis for synchronized-only iterates was shown in [30]. [30] proposed 130 Scaffold, a generalized LSGD with careful correction on the client-drift caused by data heterogeneity. 131 Compared to existing works, in this paper, we prove more powerful last-iterate analysis for general 132 convex optimization with clipping and perturbation for privacy. It is also worth mentioning that with 133 a different motivation, there is another line of works also studying noisy LSGD to capture the effect 134 of compressed local updates to further save the communication cost. But, in most existing related 135 works [17] 31, the compression error is assumed to be independent with zero-mean. As we need to 136 study DP-LSGD with clipped local update, which introduces bias in the local update generation, in 137 this paper we present more involved analysis to handle such adaptive and biased perturbation. 138

Convergence Analysis of DP-SGD and DP-LSGD: Asymptotically, under Lipschitz continuity, DP-139 SGD is known to produce a tight utility-privacy tradeoff [32, 33], where no bias is produced given a 140 clipping threshold larger than the Lipschitz constant. However, without Lipschitz continuity, practical 141 understanding of DP-SGD remains limited. On one hand, negative examples are shown in 15, 16 142 where clipped-SGD in general will not converge, and in practice clipped-SGD does produce bias 143 and has a lower convergence rate, especially in deep learning applications compared to regular SGD 144 **[16]**. On the other hand, under more restrictive assumptions on the stochastic gradient distribution, 145 clipped-SGD can be shown to (nearly) converge [15, 22, 23]. A generic characterization on the 146 clipping bias still largely remains open. As a consequence, there is little known meaningful theory to 147

systematically instruct optimization algorithms with DP guarantees, and most existing private deep 148 learning works are empirical, which aim to search for the optimal model and hyperparameters for 149 objective training data [34, 35, 36]. As for DP-LSGD, to our knowledge the only known theoretical 150 result that captures the clipping bias is 16. However, 16 still assumes globally bounded gradient 151 compared to bounded second moment as assumed in our results, and its main motivation is to study 152 the clipping effect in client-level DP. In this paper, we show more intuitive and generic analysis of 153 DP-LSGD for both convex and non-convex optimization, and our motivations are also very different. 154 We set out to provide usable quantification on the utility loss due to clipping and we argue to apply 155 DP-LSGD both in the centralized and distributed setup, since DP-LSGD can significantly reduce the 156 clipping bias with a faster convergence rate. 157

158 2 Preliminaries

We focus on the classic Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM) problem. Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$, the loss function is defined as $F(w) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(w, x_i, y_i) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(w)$. We will consider the cases where the loss function $f_i(w) : \mathcal{W} \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is convex or non-convex. $w^* = \arg \min_w F(w)$ represents the global optimum. Some formal definitions about the properties of the objective loss function are defined as follows.

Definition 2.1 (Smoothness). A function f is β -smooth on W if the gradient $\nabla f(w)$ is β -Lipschitz such that for all $w, w' \in W$, $\|\nabla f(w) - \nabla f(w')\| \leq \beta \|w' - w\|$.

Definition 2.2 (Convexity and Strong Convexity). A function f(w) is λ -convex on \mathcal{W} if for all $w, w' \in \mathcal{W}, \frac{\lambda}{2} ||w - w'||^2 \leq f(w) - f(w') - \langle \nabla f(w'), w - w' \rangle$. We call f(w) general convex if $\lambda = 0$, and f(w) is strongly convex if $\lambda > 0$.

Assumption 2.1 (Bounded Variance of Stochastic Gradient). For any $w \in W$ and an index *i* that is randomly selected from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, there exists $\tau > 0$ such that $\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla F(w) - \nabla f_i(w)\|^2] \leq \tau$.

Assumption 2.1 is the only additional assumption we need for the analysis of non-private LSGD 171 without clipping. We formally present the non-private LSGD algorithm in Algorithm which uses 172 non-clipped local update (3). The whole process is formed of T phases. In each phase, by q-Poisson 173 sampling, in expectation (nq) many users will be selected to perform K local gradient descents 174 on their local data before broadcasting the local update. To match the DP-LSGD where the local 175 function $f_i(w)$ held by each user may only be determined by a single datapoint, we do not consider 176 an additional stochastic gradient oracle on the local function in Algorithm 1, but only assume random 177 sampling on the user level at each phase. However, our results can be easily generalized to the 178 scenario with stochastic local gradient. Moreover, we assume Poisson sampling in Algorithm 1 so as 179 to match the setup of DP-LSGD, since given current studies on privacy amplification by sampling, 180 Poisson sampling can produce the tightest results [37] (and has become the most popular option in 181 practice [36, 38]). In the following, we introduce the definition of DP. 182

Definition 2.3 (Differential Privacy [38]). Given a universe \mathcal{X}^* , we say that two datasets $X, X' \subseteq \mathcal{X}^*$ are adjacent, denoted as $X \sim X'$, if $X = X' \cup x$ or $X' = X \cup x$ for some additional datapoint $x \in \mathcal{X}$. A randomized algorithm \mathcal{M} is said to be (ϵ, δ) -differentially-private (DP) if for any pair of adjacent datasets X, X' and any event set O in the output domain of \mathcal{M} , it holds that

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{M}(X) \in O) \le e^{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{M}(X') \in O) + \delta.$$

In Definition 2.3, we apply the unbounded DP definition as adopted in most existing DP-SGD works [16, 35, 38], where the two adjacent datasets are defined to differ in one datapoint. One may also apply the bounded DP definition [8] by defining the adjacent datasets as arbitrarily replacing a datapoint. However, as a stronger definition, bounded DP will also face a larger sensitivity bound.

We can now formally describe DP-LSGD and DP-SGD. In (2) of Algorithm 1, a clipping operation 191 on a vector v with threshold c is defined as $C\mathcal{P}(v,c) = v \cdot \min\{1, c/\|v\|\}$, which ensures a bounded 192 sensitivity up to c. Using the clipped local update (2), by selecting $Q^{(t)}$ to be proper DP noise, 193 Algorithm captures DP-SGD when K = 1 and DP-LSGD for general K > 1. DP-LSGD (SGD) is 194 essentially an LSGD (SGD) with clipped local update (per-sample gradient) and additional DP noise. 195 Running for T iterations with a total privacy budget (ϵ, δ) , one may select $Q^{(t)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \cdot I_d)$ 196 where $\sigma = \tilde{O}(qc\sqrt{T\log(1/\delta)}/\epsilon)$ by the composition bound [38]. The privacy analysis and the noise 197 bound are identical for both DP-LSGD and DP-SGD given the same clipping threshold c. 198

Algorithm 1 (Differentially Private) Local SGD with Noisy (Clipped) Periodic Averaging

- 1: **Input:** A system of *n* workers where each holds a local loss function $F(w) = f_i(w)$, sampling rate *q*, update step size η , local update length *K* and global synchronization number *T*, clipping threshold *c*, and initialization $\overline{w}^{(0)}$ with synchronization noise $Q^{(1:T)}$.
- 2: for $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$ do
- 3: Implement i.i.d. sampling to select an index batch $S^{(t)} = \{[1], \dots, [B_t]\}$ from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ of size B_t .
- 4: for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, B_t$ in parallel do
- 5: $w_{[i]}^{(t,0)} = \bar{w}^{(t-1)}$.
- 6: **for** $k = 1, 2, \cdots, K$ **do**
- 7:

$$w_{[i]}^{(t,k)} = w_{[i]}^{(t,k-1)} - \eta \nabla f_{[i]}(w_{[i]}^{(t,k-1)}).$$
⁽¹⁾

8: end for

- 9: Clip the local update as $\Delta w_{[i]}^{(t)} = \mathcal{CP}(w_{[i]}^{(t,K)} \bar{w}^{(t-1)}, c)$
- 10: **end for**
- 11: **if** to ensure Differential Privacy with clipping **then**
- 12:

$$\bar{w}^{(t)} = \bar{w}^{(t-1)} + \frac{1}{nq} \cdot (\sum_{i=1}^{B_t} \Delta w_{[i]}^{(t)}) + Q^{(t)}$$
⁽²⁾

13: **else**

14:

$$\bar{w}^{(t)} = \frac{1}{nq} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^{B_t} w^{(t,K)}_{[i]}\right) + Q^{(t)}.$$
(3)

15: end if

16: end for -(t)

17: **Output**: $\bar{w}^{(t)}$ for $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$.

We want to stress again that our motivation to study DP-LSGD is not because we only focus on the federated setup, but to provide a unified analysis of the clipping bias and argue for using DP-LSGD *even in the centralized setup*. Our results are straightforwardly applicable to distributed learning with local DP [4] or client-level DP [5], where the only difference is that we may add a larger noise $Q^{(t)}$ determined by the number of local datapoints or the users involved, respectively, for these stronger DP definitions. As for the possible communication restriction where we need to add discrete noise of finite precision, one may replace the Gaussian noise by the Binomial mechanism [39].

²⁰⁶ 3 Convergence of Synchronized-Only Iterate in Noisy Non-Clipped LSGD

In this section, we will study the convergence analysis of LSGD in Algorithm using the non-clipped local update (3) for both convex and non-convex optimization.

Theorem 3.1 (Last-iterate Convergence of Noisy LSGD in General Convex Optimization). For an objective function $F(w) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(w)$ where $f_i(w)$ is convex and β -smooth with variancebounded gradient (Assumption 2.1), when $\eta < \min\{\frac{\beta}{\sqrt{24K}}, \frac{1}{\beta}, \frac{1}{2\beta+3K\beta/(nq)}\}$, $\log(TK) \ge 2$, and $Q^{(t)}$ is an independent noise such that $\mathbb{E}[Q^{(t)}] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[||Q^{(t)}||^2] \le \bar{Q}$, for some parameter \bar{Q} for $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$, Algorithm [] with [3] ensures

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{w}^{(T)})] &\leq \left(\frac{\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2}{\eta(TK+1)} + \log(TK+1)\left(6\eta\tau/(nq) + 8K^2\beta\tau\eta^2 + \bar{\mathcal{Q}}/\eta\right) \\ &+ 5\eta\beta^2(\log(TK)+1)\left(\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2 + T\left(8\beta\eta^3K^3\tau + \frac{12K^3\beta^2\eta^4\tau + 3K^2\eta^2\tau}{nq} + \bar{\mathcal{Q}}\right)\right) \\ &= \tilde{O}\left(\frac{\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2}{\sqrt{TK}} + \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{TK}nq} + \frac{K\tau}{T} + \sqrt{TK}\bar{\mathcal{Q}}\right), \text{ if } \eta = O(1/\sqrt{TK}). \end{split}$$

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The proof can be found in Appendix A. To prove Theorem 3.1, with a careful analysis on $\|\bar{w}^{(t)} - w^*\|^2$, 215 we develop a new last-iterate analysis framework, different from existing works [40, 41, 42] which 216 must count on the assumption of bounded gradient. In Theorem 3.1 we need to assume the noise 217 Q to be independent and of zero-mean. Because we do not assume Lipschitz continuity of F(w), 218 we cannot provide a meaningful upper bound of the deviation between F(w) and F(w+Q) for 219 arbitrary w and Q in general. However, provided the Lipschitz assumption, Theorem 3.1 can be 220 easily generalized to handle biased perturbation. In Section $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$ with an additional assumption on the 221 similarity of the local functions (Assumption 4.2), we will show how to handle the clipping bias as a special biased noise. When there is no noise Q = 0, provided that $K = O(T^{1/3}/(nq)^{2/3})$, we show LSGD achieves $\tilde{O}(\frac{\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2 + \tau/(nq)^{2/3}}{\sqrt{TK}})$ last-iterate convergence in general-convex optimization. 222 223 224 We now study the non-convex scenario.

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Theorem 3.2 (Synchronized-only Iterate Convergence of Noisy LSGD in Non-convex Optimization). 226

For an arbitrary objective function $F(w) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(w)$, where $f_i(w)$ is β -smooth and satisfies Assumption [2.1] and for arbitrary perturbation (not necessarily independent or of zero mean) where $\mathbb{E}[||Q^{(t)}||^2] \leq \overline{Q}$, when $\eta < \min\{\frac{\beta}{\sqrt{24K}}, \frac{1}{4\beta K}\}$, Algorithm [1] with (3) ensures that 227 228

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$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \|\nabla F(\bar{w}^{(t-1)})\|^2}{T}\right] \le \frac{4F(\bar{w}^{(0)})}{TK\eta} + \frac{16\eta^2\tau\beta^2K^2}{nq} + \frac{4(1+\beta\eta)\sum_{t=1}^{T}\mathbb{E}[\|Q_i^{(t)}\|^2]}{\eta^2KT}$$

$$= O\left(\frac{\tau^{1/3}}{T^{2/3}(nq)^{1/3}} + \frac{T^{2/3}\tau^{2/3}K\bar{\mathcal{Q}}}{(nq)^{2/3}}\right),$$
(4)

when we select $\eta = O(\frac{(nq)^{1/3}}{T^{1/3}K\tau^{1/3}})$. In particular, when $Q^{(t)}$ is independent and $\mathbb{E}[Q^{(t)}] = 0$, and $\eta = \Theta(1/K)$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \|\nabla F(\bar{w}^{(t-1)})\|^2}{T}] \le O\big(\frac{F(\bar{w}^{(0)})}{\eta TK} + \tau + \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \beta \mathbb{E}[\|Q^{(t)}\|^2]}{\eta TK}\big) = O\big(\frac{1}{T} + \tau + \bar{\mathcal{Q}}\big).$$

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The proof can be found in Appendix B In Theorem 3.2, we provide an analysis on the effect of generic 231 perturbation, which can also be used to capture the clipping bias in DP-LSGD. When there is no 232 perturbation, Theorem 3.2 has two implications. First, we show to ensure $\min \mathbb{E}[\|\nabla F(\bar{w}^{(t)})\|^2] \leq \kappa$, we need $T = O(\frac{\sqrt{\tau/(nq)}}{\kappa^{3/2}})$, which is tighter than the state-of-the-art results $O(\frac{\tau/(nq)}{\kappa^2} + \frac{\sqrt{\tau}}{\kappa^{3/2}})$ in 233 234 30. Second, compared to $O(1/T^{2/3})$, we also show that LSGD can converge faster in O(1/T)235 to a τ -neighborhood of a saddle point. This is helpful to understand the practical performance of 236 DP-LSGD with bias, as discussed in Section 4.2 237

As a final remark, we want to mention it is possible to improve the convergence rate from $O(1/T^{2/3})$ 238 to O(1/T) via careful variance reduction or error feedback mechanism, such as Scaffold [30] or 239 FedLin [43]. However, the proper implementation of those advanced tricks in DP-LSGD with 240 additional sensitivity control is not clear. As a first step to systematically study the generic clipping 241 bias, in this paper we only focus on the regular LSGD. We will explain and discuss possible 242 generalizations in Section 6. 243

Utility and Clipping Bias of DP-LSGD and DP-SGD 4 244

In this section, we move to study DP-LSGD with clipped local update (2) in Algorithm 1. To have 245 a clear comparison with DP-SGD, we still consider the centralized setup and $F(w) = 1/n \cdot f_i(w)$ 246 where each local function $f_i(w)$ is determined by a single sample. To capture the clipping bias, we 247 need to introduce a new term, termed incremental norm. 248

Definition 4.1 (Incremental Norm). *Consider applying the private and clipping version of Algorithm* 249 with (2) on $F(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(w)$. In the t-th phase, we define $\Psi_i^{(t)} = \mathbf{1}(\|\Delta w_i^{(t)}\| > c) \cdot (\|\Delta w_i^{(t)}\| - c)$ as the incremental norm of the local update from $f_i(w)$ compared to the clipping threshold c, for 250 251 $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T.$ 252

In Definition 4.1, the incremental norm $\Psi_i^{(t)}$ simply quantifies the difference between the norm of the local update and its clipped version from $f_i(w)$. In the following, we will always assume the DP 253 254 noise injected $\mathbb{E}[||Q^{(t)}||^2] = \sigma^2 d$, following the classic privacy analysis of DP-SGD [38]. 255

It is not hard to observe that the clipped local update is essentially a scaled version of the original update, and thus virtually one may view DP-LSGD as a generalization of noisy LSGD but each local update applies a different and adaptively-selected learning rate. To show meaningful characterization on the difference among those learning rates, we need the following assumption as a generalization of bounded-variance stochastic gradient.

Assumption 4.1 (Incremental norm of Bounded Second Moment). When applying the clipped version of Algorithm I via (2) on an objective function $F(w) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot f_i(w)$, $\mathbb{E}[(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\Psi_i^{(t)})^2)/n]$ is upper bounded by \mathcal{B}^2 , for some global parameter \mathcal{B} for $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$.

Assumption 4.1 basically states that in expectation the square of l_2 -norm of each local update is bounded. Assumption 4.1 also suggests that $\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \Psi_i^{(t)}\right)/n\right] \leq \mathcal{B}$.

266 4.1 Utility of DP-LSGD in Convex Optimization

Another assumption we need for the anlysis of DP-LSGD on general convex optimization is the similarity among the local functions.

Assumption 4.2 (γ Similarity). For $F(w) = 1/n \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(w)$, local functions f_i are of γ -similarity to F such that for any $w \in \mathcal{W}$, $|f_i(w) - F(w)| \leq \gamma$, for some constant $\gamma > 0$.

The main reason why we need this additional Assumption 4.2 is because we do not assume Lipschitz continuity of F(w). Thus, we alternatively consider to use the similarity among local functions to characterize the deviation of the evaluation of $F(\cdot)$ on biased iterates.

Theorem 4.1 (Last-iterate of DP-LSGD in General Convex Optimization). For an arbitrary objective function $F(w) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(w)$ where $f_i(w)$ is convex and β -smooth, and under Assumptions 2.1 and 4.2 when $\eta = O(1/\sqrt{TK})$ and $Q^{(t)}$ is independent DP noise such that $\mathbb{E}[Q^{(t)}] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[||Q^{(t)}||^2] = \sigma^2 d$, $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$, then DP-LSGD with clipping threshold *c* ensures that

$$\frac{c}{c+\mathcal{B}} \cdot \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{w}^{(T)}) - F(w^*)] = \tilde{O}\left((\frac{1}{\sqrt{TK}} + \frac{K}{nT})\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2 + (\frac{K}{nT} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{TK}})(1 + \frac{K^{3/2}}{\sqrt{T}} + \frac{K}{nq})\tau + (\frac{K^{3/2}}{\sqrt{Tn}} + 1)\frac{\gamma\mathcal{B}}{c+\mathcal{B}} + \sqrt{TK}\sigma^2 d\right).$$
(5)

278 When K = O(nq) and K = O(T), and for (ϵ, δ) -DP, where $\sigma = \tilde{O}(\frac{c\sqrt{T\log(1/\delta)}}{n\epsilon})$, we have that $\mathbb{E}[E(a\bar{u}^{(T)}) - E(au^*)]$

$$= \tilde{O}\Big(\underbrace{\frac{c+\mathcal{B}}{c} \cdot \left(\frac{\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2}{\sqrt{TK}} + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{TK}} + \frac{K}{T}\right)\tau\right)}_{(A)} + \underbrace{\frac{\gamma\mathcal{B}}{c}}_{(B)} + \underbrace{\frac{c+\mathcal{B}}{c} \cdot \frac{T^{3/2}K^{1/2}\log(1/\delta)dc^2}{n^2\epsilon^2}}_{(C)}\Big).$$

279

The proof can be found in Appendix C. We focus on a practical scenario where $\mathcal{B} = O(c)$, i.e., the 280 incremental norm of local updates is in the same order of the clipping threshold c selected, and thus 281 (c + B)/c = O(1). From Theorem 4.1, we show the last-iterate utility of DP-LSGD is captured by 282 three terms: (A) a similar convergence rate as regular LSGD, (B) a clipping bias, and (C) the DP noise 283 variance. First, ignoring the bias and noise, DP-LSGD still enjoys a convergence rate $\tilde{O}(\frac{\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2}{\sqrt{TK}} + (\frac{1}{\sqrt{TK}} + \frac{K}{T})\tau)$, which is slightly worse compared to Theorem 3.2 with $\tilde{O}(\frac{\|\bar{w}^{(0)} - w^*\|^2}{\sqrt{TK}} + (\frac{1}{\sqrt{TK}nq} + \frac{K}{\sqrt{TK}})\tau)$ as a consequence of eligning which exact all u is a size of the second state. 284 285 $\frac{K}{T}(\tau)$ as a consequence of clipping which essentially applies different learning rates in each local 286 update. Second, the clipping bias is captured by $(\gamma B)/c$. This matches our intuition that a larger 287 incremental norm \mathcal{B} combined with a smaller clipping threshold c will imply a more significant change 288 on the local update and thus a larger bias. The last accumulated perturbation term is determined by the noise injected across each phase with an effect of $\tilde{O}(\frac{T^{3/2}K^{1/2}\log(1/\delta)dc^2}{n^2\epsilon^2})$ for (ϵ, δ) -DP under 289 290 *T*-fold composition. 291

As we consider the very generic setup with non-trival clipping, Theorem 3.2 cannot be directly compared to the classic DP-utility tradeoff [32] given Lipschitz continuity, where a utility loss $\tilde{\Theta}(\sqrt{d}/n\epsilon)$

is tight for convex optimization under (ϵ, δ) -DP. However, we have the following interesting observa-294 tions. First, when we take the clipping threshold $c = O(\eta) = O(1/\sqrt{TK})$ and $K = O(T \cdot d/(n^2 \epsilon^2))$, 295 DP-LSGD achieves the same optimal rate $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{d}/n\epsilon)$ [33] ignoring the clipping bias. Second and 296 more important, when the stochastic gradient variance τ is in the same order of the clipping bias 297 $O(\gamma \mathcal{B}/c)$, then by selecting $c = \Theta(\eta)$ and $K = \Theta(T)$, Theorem 4.1 suggests that DP-LSGD will 298 converge in O(1/T) to an $O(\gamma \mathcal{B}/c + \frac{d}{n^2 \epsilon^2})$ neighborhood of the global optimum. As a comparison, when we select K = 1 in Theorem 4.1 it becomes the analysis of DP-SGD but the convergence 299 300 rate to the neighborhood of global optimum in the same scale $O(\gamma \mathcal{B}/c + \frac{d}{n^2 \epsilon^2})$ is only $O(1/\sqrt{T})$. Moreover, as we will show in the next section, the local update bound \mathcal{B} in DP-SGD with K = 1301 302 in practice would be much larger than that of DP-LSGD with a relatively larger K. As a simple 303 generalization, we also include an analysis of DP-LSGD on strongly-convex functions in Appendix 304 D, and we move our focus to the non-convex optimization in the following. 305

306 4.2 Utility of DP-LSGD in Non-convex Optimization

Theorem 4.2 (DP-LSGD in Non-convex Optimization). For $F(w) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(w)$ where $f_i(w)$ is β -smooth and satisfies Assumptions 2.1 and 4.1 when $\eta = O(1/K)$, DP-LSGD ensures that

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \|\nabla F(\bar{w}^{(t-1)})\|^2}{T}\right] \le \frac{4F(\bar{w}^{(0)})}{TK\eta} + \frac{16\eta^2\tau\beta^2K^2}{nq} + \frac{4(1+\beta\eta)\left(\mathcal{B}^2/q + \sigma^2d\right)}{\eta^2K}.$$
 (6)

309 When we select $\eta = O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{TK}})$ and $K = \Theta(T)$, for (ϵ, δ) -DP we have that

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \|\nabla F(\bar{w}^{(t-1)})\|^2}{T}\right] = \tilde{O}\left(\frac{F(\bar{w}^{(0)})}{T} + \frac{\tau}{nq} + \frac{\mathcal{B}^2 T}{q} + \frac{d}{n^2 \epsilon^2}\right).$$
(7)

310

The proof can be found in Appendix E. For the analysis of DP-LSGD in non-convex optimization, we do *not* need Assumption 4.2 on the similarity among local functions and Theorem 4.2 is simply obtained by substituting the clipping error from each phase into Theorem 3.2. To have a more clear picture, we still consider a practical scenario when $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_0 \cdot \eta$ for some constant \mathcal{B}_0 and the variance τ is also some constant. Then, from (7) we have that

$$\mathbb{E}[\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \|\nabla F(\bar{w}^{(t-1)})\|^2}{T}] = O\Big(\frac{F(\bar{w}^{(0)})}{T} + \frac{1}{nq} + \frac{\mathcal{B}_0^2}{q} + \frac{d}{n^2\epsilon^2}\Big) = \tilde{O}\Big(\frac{1}{T} + \frac{1}{q} + \frac{d}{n^2\epsilon^2}\Big).$$

In other words, similar to the convex case, DP-LSGD will converge at a rate of O(1/T) to an $\tilde{O}(1 + d/(n^2\epsilon^2))$ neighborhood of a saddle point given some constant sampling rate q. As a comparison, for DP-SGD when K = 1, from Theorem 3.2 we can only ensure an $O(1/\sqrt{T})$ convergence rate to a same $\tilde{O}(1 + d/(n^2\epsilon^2))$ neighborhood.

315 5 Why DP-LSGD Produces Less Bias and Better SNR

Throughout the previous section, we showed that asymptotically DP-LSGD enjoys a faster convergence rate to a neighborhood of (global/local) optimum compared to DP-SGD. We characterized the clipping bias mainly based on the second moment upper bound \mathcal{B}^2 of the incremental norm $\Psi_i^{(t)}$ of local updates. In this section, we proceed to empirically study the $\Psi_i^{(t)}$, and the tradeoff between clipping bias and DP (Gaussian) noise in practical deep learning tasks. We will explain why DP-LSGD could produce smaller bias and enable more efficient clipping compared to DP-SGD.

To produce good utility-privacy tradeoff, a proper selection of the clipping threshold c is important. 322 Many existing works are devoted to optimizing the selection of c by either grid searching [35] or 323 adaptive fine-tuning [44]. A smaller c requires less DP noise. But, as a tradeoff shown in Theorem 324 4.1 and 4.2 a smaller c and a consequently a larger \mathcal{B} will also lead to a heavier clipping bias. Thus, 325 from the perspective of signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), an ideal scenario is that the l_2 -norm of each 326 local update is *concentrated* such that we can maximize the efficiency of the clipping power c with 327 a small clipping effect for most local updates. Interpreted via our developed theory of clipping 328 bias, it is expected that given the clipping threshold c, the incremental norm $\Psi_i^{(t)}$ would be small, 329 captured by \mathcal{B} in (5) and (7). In Fig. 1 (a,b), we plot various statistics of the incremental norm $\Psi_i^{(t)}$ 330



Figure 1: Training ResNet 20 on CIFAR10 with DP-LSGD ($K = 10, \eta = 0.025, c = 1$) and DP-SGD ($K = 1, \eta = 1, c = 1$) under ($\epsilon = 2, \delta = 10^{-5}$)-DP, with expected batch size 1000.

for DP-LSGD and DP-SGD, respectively, on training CIFAR10 [45]. By our analysis, DP-LSGD 331 usually should apply a smaller learning rate η . To have a fair comparison, we consider the normalized 332 incremental norm $\Psi_i^{(t)}/\eta$. Given the same clipping threshold, comparing Fig. 1 (a) and (b), the mean of normalized incremental norm, captured by \mathcal{B}/η in our theorems, of DP-LSGD is only around 32% 333 334 compared to that of DP-SGD. The corresponding standard deviation is around only 40% compared to 335 that of DP-SGD. One may also compare the 25% and 75% quantiles, which suggest that more local 336 updates bear less clipping influence in DP-LSGD and thus enjoying a higher clipping efficiency. We 337 also report the comparison when training ResNet20 46 on SVHN 47 in Fig. 2 in Appendix F with 338 similar observations. Details of experiment setups and the anonymous GitHub code link can be found 339 in Appendix F 340

Dataset and Method $\setminus \epsilon$	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	4.0
CIFAR10, DP-LSGD $(K = 10)$	$59.4(\pm 0.5)$	$64.0(\pm 0.3)$	$66.2(\pm 0.4)$	$67.7(\pm 0.3)$	$68.7(\pm 0.2)$	$69.9(\pm 0.3)$
CIFAR10, DP-SGD $(K = 1)$	$49.8(\pm 1.2)$	$58.7(\pm 1.0)$	$59.9(\pm 1.2)$	$60.6(\pm 0.8)$	$62.1(\pm 0.6)$	$62.8(\pm 0.6)$
SVHN, DP-LSGD $(K = 10)$	$83.2(\pm 0.4)$	$84.4(\pm 0.5)$	$85.7(\pm 0.5)$	$85.4(\pm 0.4)$	$86.1(\pm 0.4)$	$86.5(\pm 0.3)$
SVHN, DP-SGD $(K = 1)$	$74.5(\pm 0.8)$	$78.2(\pm 0.6)$	$79.8(\pm 0.6)$	$80.3(\pm 1.0)$	$81.7(\pm 0.4)$	$82.2(\pm 0.5)$

Table 1: Test Accuracy of ResNet20 on CIFAR10 and SVHN via DP-LSGD and DP-SGD under various ϵ and fixed $\delta = 10^{-5}$, with expected batch size 1000.

In Fig[1 (c), we record the performance of DP-LSGD and DP-SGD, which coincides with our theory that DP-LSGD has a smaller clipping bias and a faster convergence rate. The smaller incremental norm in DP-LSGD is not surprising. With relatively larger K, for each individual function $f_i(w)$, though the K local gradients are correlated and essentially determined by a single sample, the aggregation of them still averages out substantial sampling noise and makes the l_2 -norm of local updates more concentrated. In Table 11, we include additional comparison between their performance on CIFAR10 [45] and SVHN [47]; DP-LSGD produces significant improvements.

348 6 Conclusion and Prospects

In this paper, via LSGD, we provide a unified analysis of the clipping bias and the utility loss in 349 350 privacy-preserving gradient methods for both centralized and distributed setups. Provided the generic 351 analysis, we develop the connections between the bias and the second moment of local updates. This initializes a new direction to systematically instruct private learning by connecting the research 352 of variance reduction in distributed optimization. In this paper we only focus on regular LSGD 353 to show its advantage over DP-SGD, but advanced acceleration methods [30, 31, 43] are known 354 in non-private federated learning to further reduce the "local-update drift" caused by (per-sample) 355 data heterogeneity. This could then further reduce the clipping bias given local updates of smaller 356 variance. Thus, a promising future direction is to understand and incorporate those techniques 357 within the sensitivity control framework. Another important issue we have not fully explored is the 358 software implementation of DP-LSGD in the centralized case. For DP-SGD, many PyTorch libraries 359 with fast per-sample gradient computation in low memory overhead have been developed, such as 360 Opacus [48]. However, in all above-presented experiments, we simulate DP-LSGD in a distributed 361 environment and compute each local update in parallel at a cost of large memory. Given limited 362 hardware resources, this restricts the application of larger batchsize (tens of thousands) and deploying 363 deeper neural networks, which are known to produce much better utility-privacy tradeoffs [36, 49] 364 We leave empirical efficiency improvement to future work. 365

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