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# Asynchronous Training Schemes in Distributed Learning with Time Delay

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## Abstract

1 In the context of distributed deep learning, the issue of stale weights or gradients  
2 could result in poor algorithmic performance. This issue is usually tackled by  
3 delay tolerant algorithms with some mild assumptions on the objective functions  
4 and step sizes. In this paper, we propose a different approach to develop a new  
5 algorithm, called **Predicting Clipping Asynchronous Stochastic Gradient Descent**  
6 (aka, PC-ASGD). Specifically, PC-ASGD has two steps - the *predicting step*  
7 leverages the gradient prediction using Taylor expansion to reduce the staleness of  
8 the outdated weights while the *clipping step* selectively drops the outdated weights  
9 to alleviate their negative effects. A tradeoff parameter is introduced to balance  
10 the effects between these two steps. Theoretically, we present the convergence rate  
11 considering the effects of delay of the proposed algorithm with constant step size  
12 when the smooth objective functions are weakly strongly convex and nonconvex.  
13 One practical variant of PC-ASGD is also proposed by adopting a condition to  
14 help with the determination of the tradeoff parameter. For empirical validation,  
15 we demonstrate the performance of the algorithm with two deep neural network  
16 architectures on two benchmark datasets.

## 17 1 Introduction

18 The availability of large data sets and powerful computing led to the emergence of deep learning that  
19 is revolutionizing many application sectors from the internet industry and healthcare to transportation  
20 and energy [1]. As the applications are scaling up, the learning process of large deep learning models  
21 is looking to leverage emerging resources such as edge computing and distributed data centers privacy  
22 preserving. In this regard, distributed deep learning algorithms are being explored by the community  
23 that leverage synchronous and asynchronous computations with multiple computing agents that  
24 exchange information over communication networks [2]. We consider an example setting involving  
25 an industrial IoT framework where the data is geographically distributed as well as the computing  
26 resources. While the computing resources within a local cluster can operate in a (loosely) synchronous  
27 manner, multiple (geographically distributed) clusters may need to operate in an asynchronous manner.  
28 Furthermore, communications among the computing resources may not be reliable and prone to delay  
29 and loss of information.

30 Among various distributed deep learning algorithms, Federated Averaging and its variants are  
31 considered to be the state-of-the-art for training deep learning models with data distributed among  
32 the edge computing resources such as smart phones and idle computers [3]. The master-slave and  
33 peer-to-peer are two categories of distributed learning architectures. Along with Federated Averaging,  
34 variants such as PySyft [4] and its robust version [5] and the scalable distributed DNN training  
35 algorithms [6] and more recent distributed SVRG [7] are examples of the master-slave architecture.  
36 On the other hand, examples of the peer-to-peer architecture include the gossip algorithms [8, 9], and  
37 the collaborative learning frameworks [10].

38 However, as mentioned earlier, communication delay remains a critical challenge for achieving  
 39 convergence in an asynchronous learning setting [11, 12] and influences the performances of the  
 40 frameworks above. Furthermore, the amount of delay could be varying widely due to artifacts of  
 41 wireless communication and different devices. To tackle the influence of varying delays on the  
 42 convergence characteristics of distributed learning algorithms, this work proposes a novel algorithm,  
 43 called **Predicting Clipping Asynchronous Stochastic Gradient Descent** (aka, PC-ASGD). The goal is  
 44 to solve the distributed learning problems involving multiple computing or edge devices such as GPUs  
 45 and CPUs with varying communication delays among them. Different from traditional distributed  
 46 learning scenarios where synchronous and asynchronous algorithms are considered separately, we  
 47 take both into account together in a networked setting.

48 **Related work.** In the early works on distributed learning with master-slave architecture, Asyn-  
 49 chronous Stochastic Gradient Descent (ASGD) algorithm has been adopted [13], where each local  
 50 worker continues its training process right after its gradient is added to the global model. The  
 51 algorithm could tolerate the delay in communication. Later works [14, 15, 16] extend ASGD to more  
 52 realistic scenarios and implement the algorithms with a central server and other parallel workers.  
 53 Typically, since asynchronous algorithms suffer from stale gradients, researchers have proposed  
 54 algorithms such as DC-ASGD [17], adopting the concept of delay compensation to reduce the  
 55 influence of staleness and improved the performance of ASGD. For the distributed learning with  
 56 peer-to-peer architecture, [2] proposes the algorithm AD-PSGD (decentralized ASGD algorithm)  
 57 that deals with the problem of the stale parameter exchange, as well as some theoretical analysis  
 58 for the algorithm performance under bounded delay. [18] also proposes a similar algorithm with  
 59 some variations in the assumptions. However, these algorithms do not provide empirical or theoret-  
 60 ical analysis on the impacts of delay in detail. Additional works such as using a central agent for  
 61 control [19], requiring prolonged communication [20], utilizing stochastic primal-dual method [21],  
 62 and adopting importance sampling [22], have also been done to address the communication delay in  
 63 the decentralized setting. More recently, [23] proposes the DC-s3gd algorithm to enable large-scale  
 64 decentralized neural network training with the consideration of delay. [24], [25] and [26] also develop  
 65 algorithms for asynchronous decentralized training for neural networks, while theoretical guarantee  
 66 is not provided.

Table 1: Comparisons between asynchronous algorithms

Methods	$f$	$\nabla f$	Delay Ass.	Con.Rate	D.C.	G.C.	A.S.
ASGD [13]	Non-convex	Lip.	Bou.	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}})$	No	No	No
DC-ASGD [17]	Str-con	Lip.	Bou.	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{T})$	No	Yes	No
	Non-convex	Lip.	Bou.	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}})$	No	Yes	No
AD-PSGD [2]	Non-convex	Lip.&Bou.	Bou.	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}})$	Yes	No	No
DC-s3gd [23]	Non-convex	Lip.	Unbou.	N/A	Yes	Yes	No
PC-ASGD (This paper)	Weakly Str-con	Lip.	Bou.	$\mathcal{O}(\epsilon^T)$	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Non-convex	Lip.	Bou.	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{T})$	Yes	Yes	Yes

Con.Rate: convergence rate, Str-con: strongly convex. Lip.& Bou.: Lipschitz continuous and bounded. Delay Ass.: Delay Assumption. Unbou.: Unbounded.  $T$ : Total iterations. D.C.: decentralized computation. G.C.: Gradient Compensation. A.S.: Alternant Step,  $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$  is a positive constant. Note that the convergence rate of PC-ASGD is obtained by using the constant step size.

67 **Contributions.** The contributions of this work are specifically as follows. (i) A novel algorithm,  
 68 called PC-ASGD for distributed learning is proposed to tackle the convergence issues due to the  
 69 varying communication delays. Built upon ASGD, the PC-ASGD algorithm consists of two steps.  
 70 While the predicting step leverages the gradient prediction using Taylor expansion to reduce the  
 71 staleness of the outdated weights, the clipping step selectively drops the outdated weights to alleviate  
 72 their negative effects. To balance the effects, a tradeoff parameter is introduced to combine these two  
 73 steps. (ii) We show that with a proper constant step size, PC-ASGD can converge to the neighborhood  
 74 of the optimal solution at a linear rate for weakly strongly convex functions while at a sublinear rate  
 75 for nonconvex functions (specific comparisons with other related existing approaches are listed in  
 76 Table 1). We also model the delay and take it into consideration in the convergence analysis. (iii)  
 77 PC-ASGD is deployed on distributed GPUs with two datasets CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100 by using  
 78 PreResNet110 and DenseNet architectures. The proposed algorithm outperforms the existing delay  
 79 tolerant algorithm as well as the variants of the proposed algorithm using only the predicting step or  
 80 the clipping step.

81 **2 Formulation and Preliminaries**

82 Consider  $N$  agents in a networked system such that their interactions are driven by a graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , where  
 83  $\mathcal{G} = \{V, E\}$ , where  $V = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$  indicates the node or agent set,  $E \subseteq V \times V$  is the edge  
 84 set. Throughout the paper, we assume that the graph is undirected and connected. The connection  
 85 between any two agents  $i$  and  $j$  can be determined by their physical connections, leading to the  
 86 communication between them. Traditionally, if agent  $j$  is in the neighborhood of agent  $i$ , they can  
 87 communicate with each other. Thus, we define the neighborhood for any agent  $i$  as  $Nb(i) := \{j \in$   
 88  $V \mid (i, j) \in E \text{ or } j = i\}$ . Rather than considering synchronization and asynchronization separately,  
 89 this paper considers both scenarios together by defining the following terminologies.

90 **Definition 1.** At a time step  $t$ , an agent  $j$  is called a *reliable neighbor* of the agent  $i$  if agent  $i$  has  
 91 the state information of agent  $j$  up to  $t - 1$ .

92 **Definition 2.** At a time step  $t$ , an agent  $j$  is called an *unreliable neighbor* of the agent  $i$  if agent  $i$   
 93 has the state information of agent  $j$  only up to  $t - \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is the so-called *delay* and  $1 < \tau < \infty$ .

94 Definitions 1 and 2 allow us to perceive the delay problem in the decentralized learning with a  
 95 new perspective that depends on the amount of delay. One agent can selectively make use of the  
 96 outdated information from unreliable neighbors or completely drop such information. The first  
 97 scenario is related to most previous works on asynchronous delay tolerant approaches as it involves a  
 98 gradient prediction technique to reduce the negative effects of stale parameters. The second scenario  
 99 corresponds to most synchronous schemes since the agent only collects information from the reliable  
 100 neighbors. Thus, inside the neighborhood of an agent, there are reliable and unreliable neighbors  
 101 respectively and this work aims at studying how to effectively tackle issues such as negative impacts  
 102 that delays may bring on the performance. For analysis, we define a set for reliable neighbors of  
 103 agent  $i$  as:  $\mathcal{R} := \{j \in Nb(i) \mid p(x^j = x_{t-1}^j \mid t) = 1\}$ , where  $p(x^j = x_{t-1}^j \mid t) = 1$  is the probability,  
 104 implying that agent  $j$  has the state information  $x$  up to the time  $t - 1$ , i.e.,  $x_{t-1}^j$ . Then we can have  
 105 the set for unreliable neighbors such that  $\mathcal{R}^c = Nb \setminus \mathcal{R}$ .

106 Note that the delay varies in the asynchronous learning scheme, and there are two types of asynchro-  
 107 nization, (i) fixed value of delays [17, 23] and (ii) time-varying delays [13, 2] along the learning  
 108 process. We follow the first setting in this work to implement the experiments. The definition and  
 109 analysis can also be applicable for the later case when the delay  $\tau$  changes to a time-varying vector.

110 Consider the decentralized empirical risk minimization problems, which can be expressed as the  
 111 summation of all local losses incurred by each agent:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} F(\mathbf{x}) := \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{s \in \mathcal{D}_i} f_i^s(x) \quad (1)$$

112 where  $\mathbf{x} = [x^1; x^2; \dots; x^N]$ ,  $x_i$  is the local copy of  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_i$  is a local data set uniquely known  
 113 by agent  $i$ ,  $f_i^s : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the incurred local loss of agent  $i$  given a sample  $s$ . Based on the above  
 114 formulation, we then assume everywhere that our objective function is bounded from below and  
 115 denote the minimum by  $F^* := F(\mathbf{x}^*)$  where  $\mathbf{x}^* := \operatorname{argmin} F(\mathbf{x})$ . Hence  $F^* > -\infty$ . Moreover, all  
 116 vector norms refer to the Euclidean norm while matrix norms refer to the Frobenius norm. Some  
 117 necessary definitions and assumptions are given below for characterizing the main results.

118 **Assumption 1.** Each objective function  $f_i$  is assumed to satisfy the following conditions: a)  $f_i$  is  
 119  $\gamma_i$ -smooth; b)  $f_i$  is proper (not everywhere infinite) and coercive.

120 **Assumption 2.** A mixing matrix  $\underline{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  satisfies a)  $\mathbf{1}^\top \underline{W} = \mathbf{1}^\top, \underline{W} \mathbf{1}^\top = \mathbf{1}^\top$ ; b)  $\operatorname{Null}\{I -$   
 121  $\underline{W}\} = \operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{1}\}$ ; c)  $I \succeq \underline{W} \succ 0$ .

122 **Assumption 3.** The stochastic gradient of  $F$  at any  $\mathbf{x}$  is denoted by  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})$ , such that a)  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})$  is the  
 123 unbiased estimate of gradient  $\nabla F(\mathbf{x})$ ; b) The variance is uniformly bounded by  $\sigma^2$ , i.e.,  $\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) -$   
 124  $\nabla F(\mathbf{x})\|^2] \leq \sigma^2$ ; c) The second moment of  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})$  is bounded, i.e.,  $\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})\|^2] \leq G^2$ .

125 Given Assumption 1, one immediate consequence is that  $F$  is  $\gamma_m := \max\{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_N\}$ -smooth at  
 126 all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{dN}$ . The main outcome of Assumption 2 is that the mixing matrix  $\underline{W}$  is doubly stochastic  
 127 matrix and that we have  $e_1(\underline{W}) = 1 > e_2(\underline{W}) \geq \dots \geq e_N(\underline{W}) > 0$ , where  $e_z(\underline{W})$  denotes the  $z$ -th  
 128 largest eigenvalue of  $\underline{W}$ . In Assumption 3, the first two are quite generic. While the third part is  
 129 much weaker than the bounded gradient that is not necessarily applicable to quadratic-like objectives.

130 **3 PC-ASGD**

131 **3.1 Algorithm Design**

132 We present the specific update law for our proposed method, PC-ASGD in Algorithm 1. In Algo-  
 133 rithm 1, for the predicting step (line 6), any agent  $k$  that is unreliable has delay when communicating  
 134 its weights with agent  $i$ . To compensate for the delay, we adopt the Taylor expansion to approximate  
 135 the gradient for each time step. The predicting gradient (or delay compensated gradient) is denoted  
 136 by  $g_k^{dc}(x_{t-\tau}^k)$ , which is expressed as follows

$$g_k^{dc,r}(x_{t-\tau}^k) = \sum_{r=0}^{\tau-1} g_k(x_{t-\tau}^k) + \lambda g_k(x_{t-\tau}^k) \odot g_k(x_{t-\tau}^k) \odot (x_{t-\tau+r}^i - x_{t-\tau}^i), \quad (2)$$

137 where  $\lambda$  is a positive constant in  $(0, 1]$  and the term  $\lambda g_k(x_{t-\tau}^k) \odot g_k(x_{t-\tau}^k)$  is an estimate of the  
 138 Hessian matrix,  $\nabla g_k(x_{t-\tau}^k)$ . Due to the limit of space, we omit the details of deriving Eq. 2, referring  
 139 interested readers to the supplementary materials. We define another doubly stochastic matrix  
 140  $\tilde{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  that follows Assumption 2 for the clipping step.

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**Algorithm 1** PC-ASGD

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**Input:** number of agents  $N$ , learning rate  $\eta > 0$ , agent interaction matrices  $W, \tilde{W}$ , number of  
 epochs  $T$ , the tradeoff parameter  $0 \leq \theta_t \leq 1, t \in \{0, 1, \dots, T-1\}$

**Output:** the models' parameters in agents  $x_T^i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

- 1: **Initialize** all the agents' parameters  $x_0^i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$
  - 2: Do broadcast to identify the clusters of reliable agents and the delay  $\tau$
  - 3:  $t = 0$
  - 4: **while** *epoch*  $t < T$  **do**
  - 5:   **for** each agent  $i$  **do**
  - 6:     Predicting Step:  $x_{t+1,pre}^i = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}} w_{ij} x_t^j - \eta g_i(x_t^i) + \sum_{k \in \mathcal{R}^c} w_{ik} (x_{t-\tau}^k - \eta g_k^{dc}(x_{t-\tau}^k))$
  - 7:     Clipping Step:  $x_{t+1,cli}^i = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}} \tilde{w}_{ij} x_t^j - \eta g_i(x_t^i)$
  - 8:      $x_{t+1}^i = \theta_t x_{t+1,pre}^i + (1 - \theta_t) x_{t+1,cli}^i$
  - 9:   **end for**
  - 10:    $t = t + 1$
  - 11: **end while**
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141 Different from the DC-ASGD, which significantly relies on a central server to receive information  
 142 from each agent, our work removes the dependence on the central server, and instead constructs a  
 143 graph for all of agents. The clipping step (line 7) essentially rejects information from all the unreliable  
 144 neighbor in the neighborhood of one agent. One observation can be made from the predicting and  
 145 clipping steps is that the weights for consensus terms are different. In this context, for the clipping  
 146 step, the weight values of some edges associated with the underlying static graph has been changed  
 147 accordingly, but the connections of the graph still keep fixed. Subsequently, the equality in line 8  
 148 balances the tradeoff between the predicting and clipping steps. In practice, the determination of  $\theta_t$   
 149 results in some practical variants. In the empirical study presented in Section 5, one can see that  $\theta_t$   
 150 is either 0 or 1 by leveraging one condition, which implies that in each epoch, only one step is adopted.  
 151 Additionally,  $\theta_t$  can be fixed as 0 or 1, yielding two other variants shown in the experiments, C-ASGD  
 152 or P-ASGD. However, for the sake of generalization, we provide the analysis for the combined steps  
 153 (line 8). Before concluding this section, we give the compact form of the combination of PC steps  
 154 and defer the detailed analysis to the supplementary materials.

155 Since the term  $\sum_{k \in \mathcal{R}^c} w_{ik} \sum_{r=0}^{\tau-1} g_k^{dc,r}(x_t^k)$  applies to unreliable neighbors only, for the convenience  
 156 of analysis, we expand it to the whole graph. It means that we establish an expanded graph to cover  
 157 all of agents by setting some elements in the mixing matrix  $W' \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  equal to 0, but keeping the  
 158 same connections as in  $W$ . By setting the current time as  $t + \tau$ , the compact form in line 8 can be  
 159 rewritten as:

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+\tau+1} = \mathcal{W}_{t+\tau} \mathbf{x}_{t+\tau} - \eta (\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{t+\tau}) + \theta_{t+\tau} \sum_{r=0}^{\tau-1} W' \mathbf{g}^{dc,r}(\mathbf{x}_t)) \quad (3)$$

160  $\mathcal{W}_{t+\tau}$  is denoted by  $\theta_{t+\tau}W + (1 - \theta_{t+\tau})\tilde{W}$ , where  $W = \underline{W} \otimes I_{d \times d}$ ,  $\tilde{W} = \tilde{\underline{W}} \otimes I_{d \times d}$ , and  
 161  $W' = \underline{W}' \otimes I_{d \times d}$ . Though the original graphs corresponding to the predicting and clipping steps are  
 162 static, the equivalent graph  $\mathcal{W}_{t+\tau}$  has become time-varying due to the time-varying  $\theta$  value.

## 163 4 Convergence Analysis

164 This section presents convergence results for the PC-ASGD. We show the consensus estimate and  
 165 the optimality for both weakly strongly convex and nonconvex smooth objectives. The consensus  
 166 among agents (aka, disagreement estimate) can be thought of as the norms  $\|x_t^i - x_t^j\|$ , the differences  
 167 between the iterates  $x_t^i$  and  $x_t^j$ . Alternatively, the consensus can be measured with respect to a  
 168 reference sequence, i.e.,  $y_t = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_t^i$ . In particular, we discuss  $\|x_t^i - y_t\|$  for any time  $t$  as the  
 169 metrics with respect to the delay  $\tau$ .

170 **Lemma 1. (Consensus)** Let Assumptions 2 and 3 hold. Assume that the delay compensated gradients  
 171 are uniformly bounded, i.e., there exists a scalar  $B > 0$ , such that

$$\|\mathbf{g}^{dc,r}(\mathbf{x}_t)\| \leq B, \quad \forall t \geq 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq r \leq \tau - 1,$$

172 Then for all  $i \in V$  and  $t \geq 0$ ,  $\exists \eta > 0$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\|x_t^i - y_t\|] \leq \eta \frac{G + (\tau - 1)B\theta_m}{1 - \delta_2}, \quad (4)$$

173 where  $\theta_m = \max\{\theta_{s+1}\}_{s=t}^{t+\tau-1}$ ,  $\delta_2 = \max\{\theta_s e_2 + (1 - \theta_s)\tilde{e}_2\}_{s=0}^{t+\tau-1} < 1$ , where  $e_2 := e_2(W) < 1$   
 174 and  $\tilde{e}_2 := e_2(\tilde{W}) < 1$ .

175 The detailed proof is shown in the supplement materials. Lemma 1 states the consensus bound among  
 176 agents, which is proportional to the step size  $\eta$  and inversely proportional to the gap between the  
 177 largest and the second-largest magnitude eigenvalues of the equivalent graph  $\mathcal{W}$ .

178 *Remark 1.* One implication that can be made from Lemma 1 is when  $\tau = 1$ , the consensus bound  
 179 becomes the smallest, which can be obtained as  $\frac{\eta G}{1 - \delta_2}$ . This bound is the same as obtained already by  
 180 most decentralized learning (or optimization) algorithms. This accordingly implies that the delay  
 181 compensated gradient or predicting gradient does not necessarily require many time steps ahead  
 182 prediction as more compounding error could be included. Alternatively,  $\theta_m = 0$  can also result in  
 183 such a bound, suggesting that the clipping step dominates in the update. On the other hand, once  
 184  $\tau \gg 1$  and  $\theta_m \neq 0$ , the consensus bound becomes worse, which will be validated by the empirical  
 185 results. Additionally, if the network is sparse, which suggests  $e_2 \rightarrow 1$  and  $\tilde{e}_2 \rightarrow 1$ , the consensus  
 186 among agents may not be achieved well and correspondingly the optimality would be negatively  
 187 affected.

188 Most previous works have typically explored the convergence rate on the strongly convex objectives.  
 189 However, the assumption of strong convexity can be a quite strong condition in most models such  
 190 that the results obtained may be theoretically instructive and useful. Hence, we introduce a condition  
 191 that is able to relax the strong convexity but still maintain the similar theoretical property, i.e., Polyak-  
 192 Łojasiewicz (PL) condition [27]. The condition is expressed as follows: A differentiable function  $F$   
 193 satisfies the PL condition such that there exists a constant  $\mu > 0$

$$\frac{1}{2} \|\nabla F(\mathbf{x})\|^2 \geq \mu(F(\mathbf{x}) - F^*). \quad (5)$$

194 When  $F(\mathbf{x})$  is strongly convex, it also implies the PL condition. However, it is not vice versa. Hence  
 195 we can arrive at the following results.

196 **Theorem 1.** Let Assumptions 1,2 and 3 hold. Assume that the delay compensated gradients are  
 197 uniformly bounded, i.e., there exists a scalar  $B > 0$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{g}^{dc,r}(\mathbf{x}_t)\| \leq B, \quad \forall t \geq 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq r \leq \tau - 1, \quad (6)$$

198 and that  $\nabla F(\mathbf{x}_t)$  is  $\xi_m$ -smooth for all  $t \geq 0$ . Then for the iterates generated by PC-ASGD, when  
 199  $0 < \eta \leq \frac{1}{2\mu\tau}$  and the objective satisfies the PL condition, they satisfy

$$\mathbb{E}[F(\mathbf{x}_t) - F^*] \leq (1 - 2\mu\eta\tau)^{t-1}(F(\mathbf{x}_1) - F^* - \frac{Q}{2\mu\eta\tau}) + \frac{Q}{2\mu\eta\tau}, \quad (7)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
Q &= 2(1 - 2\mu\eta\tau)G\eta C_1 + \frac{\eta^3 \xi_m G}{2} \sum_{r=1}^{\tau-1} C_r + 2\eta^2 G \gamma_m C_1 + G\eta\tau\sigma \\
&+ \eta^2 G(\gamma_m + \epsilon_D + \epsilon + (1 - \lambda)G^2) \sum_{r=1}^{\tau-1} C_r + \eta G^2 + \eta^2 \gamma_m G\tau C_2
\end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

201 and  $C_1 = \frac{G+(\tau-1)B\theta_m}{1-\delta_2}$ ,  $C_r = \frac{2G+(\tau-1)B\theta_m}{1-\delta_2}$ ,  $C_2 = \frac{2G+(\tau-1)B\theta_m}{1-\delta_2}$ ,  $\epsilon_D > 0$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  are upper  
202 bounds for the approximation errors of the Hessian matrix that are obtained in the supplementary  
203 materials.

204 The proof for this theorem is fairly non-trivial and technical. We refer readers to the supplementary  
205 materials for more detail. To simplify the proof, this main result will be divided into several lemmas.  
206 One implication from Theorem 1 is that PC-ASGD enables the iterates  $\{\mathbf{x}_t\}$  to converge to the  
207 neighborhood of  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , which is  $\frac{Q}{2\eta\mu\tau}$ . In addition, Theorem 1 shows that the error bound is significantly  
208 attributed to network errors caused by the disagreement among agents with respect to the delay and  
209 the variance of stochastic gradients. Another implication can be made from Theorem 1 is that the  
210 convergence rate is closely related to the delay and the step size such that when the delay is large it  
211 may reduce the coefficient,  $1 - 2\mu\eta\tau$ , to speed up the convergence. However, correspondingly the  
212 upper bound of the step size is also reduced. Hence, there is a tradeoff between the step size and  
213 the delay in PC-ASGD. Theorem 1 also suggests that when the objective function only satisfies the  
214 PL condition and is smooth, the convergence to the neighborhood of  $\mathbf{x}^*$  in a linear rate can still be  
215 achieved. The PL condition may not necessarily imply convexity and hence the conclusion can even  
216 apply to some nonconvex functions.

217 We next investigate the convergence for the non-convex objectives. For PC-ASGD, we show that it  
218 converges to a first-order stationary point in a sublinear rate. It should be noted that such a result may  
219 not absolutely guarantee a feasible minimizer due to lack of some necessary second-order information.  
220 However, for most nonconvex optimization problem, this is generic, though some existing works  
221 have discussed about the second-order stationary points [28], which is out of our investigation scope.

222 **Theorem 2.** Let Assumptions 1, 2 and 3 hold. Assume that the delay compensated gradients are  
223 uniformly bounded, i.e., there exists a scalar  $B > 0$  such that for all  $T \geq 1$

$$\|\mathbf{g}^{dc,r}(\mathbf{x}_t)\| \leq B, \quad \forall t \geq 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq r \leq \tau - 1, \tag{9}$$

224 and that

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{g}^{dc,r}(\mathbf{x}_t)\|^2] \leq M. \tag{10}$$

225 Then for the iterations generated by PC-ASGD, there exists  $0 < \eta < \frac{1}{\gamma_m}$ , such that

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E}[\|\nabla F(\mathbf{x}_t)\|^2] \leq \frac{2(F(\mathbf{x}_1) - F^*)}{T\eta} + \frac{R}{\eta}, \tag{11}$$

226 where,  $R = 2GC_1 + \frac{\tau^2\eta^2\gamma_m M}{2} + \frac{\eta\sigma^2}{2} + \eta\sigma\tau B + 2\eta\gamma_m(\tau B + G)C_1$ ,  $C_1 = \frac{G+(\tau-1)B\theta_m}{1-\delta_2}$ .

227 *Remark 2.* Theorem 2 states that with a properly chosen constant step size, PC-ASGD is able to  
228 converge the iterates  $\{\mathbf{x}_T\}$  to the neighborhood of a stationary point  $\mathbf{x}^*$  in a rate of  $O(T^{-1})$ , whose  
229 radius is determined by  $\frac{R}{\eta}$ . Additionally, based on  $R$ , we can know that the error bound is mainly  
230 caused by the variance of stochastic gradients and the network errors. One can also observe that the  
231 error bound increases when the delay becomes larger. As the length of delay can have an impact  
232 on the prediction steps used in the delay compensated gradient, a short term prediction may help  
233 alleviate the negative effect caused by the delay. Otherwise, the compounding error in the delay  
234 compensated gradient could deteriorate the performance of the algorithm.

## 235 5 Experiments

### 236 5.1 Practical Variant

237 So far, we have analyzed theoretically in detail how the proposed PC-ASGD converges with some  
238 mild assumptions. In practical implementation, we need to choose a suitable  $\theta_t$  to enable the training

239 fast with clipping steps and allow the unreliable neighbors to be involved in training with predicting  
 240 steps. In this context, we develop a heuristic practical variant with a criterion for determining the  
 241 tradeoff parameter value. Intuitively, if the delay messages from the unreliable neighbors do not  
 242 influence the training negatively, they should be included in the prediction. This can be determined  
 243 by the comparison with the algorithm without making use of these messages. The criterion is shown  
 244 as follows:

$$x_i^{t+1} = \begin{cases} x_{t+1,pre}^i & \frac{\langle x_{t+1,pre}^i - x_t^i, g_i(x_t^i) \rangle}{\|x_{t+1,pre}^i - x_t^i\|} \geq \frac{\langle x_{t+1,cli}^i - x_t^i, g_i(x_t^i) \rangle}{\|x_{t+1,cli}^i - x_t^i\|} \\ x_{t+1,cli}^i & o.w. \end{cases}, \quad (12)$$

245 where we choose the *cosine distance* to compare the distances for predicting and clipping steps. The  
 246 prediction step is selected if it has the larger cosine distance, which implies that the update due to  
 247 the predicting step yields the larger loss descent. Otherwise, the clipping step should be chosen by  
 248 only trusting reliable neighbors. Our practical variant with this criterion still converges since we  
 249 just set  $\theta_t$  as 0 or 1 for each iteration and the previous analysis in our paper still holds. To facilitate  
 250 the understanding of predicting and clipping steps, in the following experiments, we also have two  
 251 other variants P-ASGD and C-ASGD. While the former corresponds to an “optimistic” scenario to  
 252 only rely on the predicting step, the latter presents a “pessimistic” scenario by dropping all outdated  
 253 agents. Both of variants follow the same convergence rates induced by PC-ASGD.

## 254 5.2 Distributed Network and Learning Setting

255 **Models and Data sets.** Decentralized asynchronous SGD (D-ASGD) is adopted as the baseline  
 256 algorithm. Two deep learning structures, PreResNet110 and DenseNet (noted as *model 1* and *model*  
 257 *2*), are employed. The detailed model structures are illustrated in the supplementary material. CIFAR-  
 258 10 and CIFAR-100 are used in the experiments following the settings in [29]. The training data is  
 259 randomly assigned to each agent, and the parameters of the deep learning structure are maintained  
 260 within each agent and communicated with the predefined delays. The testing set is utilized for each  
 261 agent to verify the performance, where our metric is the average accuracy among the agents. 6 runs  
 262 are carried out for each case and the mean and variance are obtained and listed in Table 3.

263 **Delay setting.** The delay is set as  $\tau$  as discussed before, which means the parameters received from  
 264 the agents outside of the reliable cluster are the ones that were obtained  $\tau$  iterations before. For *model*  
 265 *1* and *model 2*,  $\tau$  is both fixed at 20 to test the performances of different algorithms including our  
 266 different variants (D-ASGD, P-ASGD, C-ASGD, and PC-ASGD) and baseline algorithms in Section  
 267 5.3 and 5.5. We also try to exploit its impact in Section 5.4.

268 **Distributed network setting.** A distributed network (noted as *distributed network 1*) with 8 agents  
 269 (nodes) in a fully connected graph is first applied with *model 1* and *model 2*, and 2 clusters of reliable  
 270 agents are defined within the graph consisting of 3 agents and 5 agents, respectively. Then two  
 271 distributed networks (with 5-agent and 20-agent, respectively) are used for scalability analysis, noted  
 272 as *distributed network 2* and *distributed network 3*, respectively. For *distributed network 2*, we  
 273 construct 2 clusters of reliable agents with 3 and 2 agents. In *distributed network 3*, four clusters are  
 274 formed and 3 clusters consist of 6 agents while the rest has 2 agents.

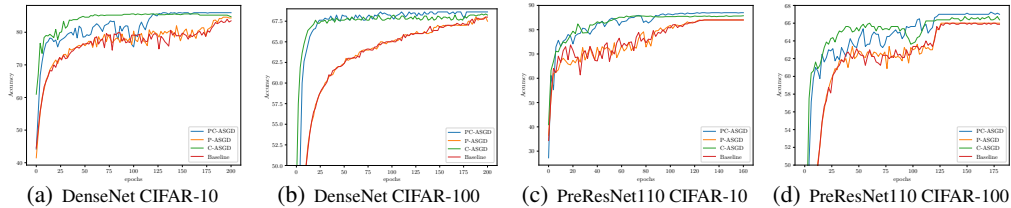


Figure 1: Testing accuracy on CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100.

## 275 5.3 Performance evaluation

276 The testing accuracies on the CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100 data sets with *model 1* and *model 2* in  
 277 *distributed network 1* are shown in Fig. 1. It shows that the proposed PC-ASGD outperforms the other  
 278 single variants and it presents an accuracy increment greater than 2.3% (nearly 4% for DenseNet with  
 279 CIFAR-10) compared to the baseline algorithm. For other variants P-ASGD or C-ASGD, the testing  
 280 accuracies are also higher than that of the baseline algorithm. Moreover, PC-ASGD shows faster

281 convergence than P-ASGD as the updating rule overcomes the staleness, and achieves better accuracy  
 282 than the C-ASGD as it includes the messages from the unreliable neighbors. This is consistent  
 283 with the analysis in this work. We also show the detailed results of both *distributed network 1* and  
 284 *distributed network 3* in Table 2.

Table 2: Performance evaluation of PC-ASGD on CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100

8 agents							
Model & dataset	PC-ASGD		P-ASGD		C-ASGD		Baseline
	acc. (%)	o.p. (%)	acc. (%)	o.p. (%)	acc.(%)	o.p. (%)	acc. (%)
Pre110, CIFAR-10	<b>87.3 ± 1.1</b>	<b>3.3 ± 1.1</b>	84.9 ± 0.9	0.9 ± 0.9	86.0 ± 1.0	2.0 ± 1.0	84.0 ± 0.3
Pre110, CIFAR-100	<b>67.4 ± 1.4</b>	<b>3.1 ± 1.9</b>	64.8 ± 1.3	1.3 ± 1.5	66.4 ± 1.2	1.9 ± 1.6	64.5 ± 1.5
Des, CIFAR-10	<b>86.9 ± 0.9</b>	<b>3.6 ± 1.8</b>	84.4 ± 0.6	1.0 ± 1.5	85.9 ± 0.9	2.7 ± 1.7	83.3 ± 0.9
Des, CIFAR-100	<b>68.6 ± 0.6</b>	<b>2.3 ± 1.7</b>	66.8 ± 1.5	1.6 ± 1.6	66.8 ± 1.6	1.8 ± 1.6	66.1 ± 1.9
20 agents							
Model & dataset	PC-ASGD		P-ASGD		C-ASGD		Baseline
	acc. (%)	o.p. (%)	acc. (%)	o.p. (%)	acc.(%)	o.p. (%)	acc. (%)
Pre110, CIFAR-10	<b>84.7 ± 0.9</b>	<b>4.2 ± 1.0</b>	83.3 ± 0.9	2.7 ± 0.9	82.5 ± 1.0	1.9 ± 1.4	80.4 ± 0.7
Pre110, CIFAR-100	<b>62.4 ± 0.8</b>	<b>3.3 ± 2.0</b>	61.7 ± 1.0	2.0 ± 1.6	61.5 ± 1.0	2.5 ± 2.3	59.3 ± 1.7
Des, CIFAR-10	<b>82.9 ± 0.9</b>	<b>2.4 ± 0.9</b>	82.0 ± 0.7	1.4 ± 1.3	81.8 ± 0.6	1.8 ± 1.0	80.1 ± 0.9
Des, CIFAR-100	<b>64.5 ± 0.7</b>	<b>3.8 ± 1.7</b>	62.5 ± 1.3	2.9 ± 2.0	62.0 ± 1.5	1.3 ± 1.4	60.4 ± 1.7

acc.–accuracy, o.p.–outperformed comparing to baseline.

285 We then compare our proposed algorithm with other delay-tolerant algorithms, including the baseline  
 286 algorithm D-ASGD (aka AD-PSGD), DC-s3gd [23], DASGD with IS [22], and Adaptive Braking  
 287 [25]. The *distributed network 1* is applied for the comparisons.

Table 3: Performance comparison for different delay tolerant algorithms

Model & dataset	Pre110,CIFAR-10	Pre110,CIFAR-100	Des,CIFAR-10	Des,CIFAR-100
PC-ASGD	<b>87.3 ± 1.1</b>	<b>67.4 ± 1.4</b>	<b>86.9 ± 0.6</b>	<b>68.6 ± 0.6</b>
AD-PSGD [2]	84.0 ± 0.3	64.5 ± 1.5	83.3 ± 0.9	66.1 ± 1.9
DC-s3gd [23]	86.3 ± 0.8	63.5 ± 1.7	85.7 ± 0.8	66.2 ± 1.3
DASGD with IS [22]	85.0 ± 0.3	64.6 ± 1.2	84.6 ± 0.4	66.2 ± 0.8
Adaptive Braking [25]	86.8 ± 0.9	66.5 ± 1.2	85.3 ± 1.0	67.3 ± 1.1

288 From the Table 3, the proposed PC-ASGD obtains the best results in the four cases. It should be  
 289 noted that some of above listed algorithms are not designed specifically for this kind of peer-to-peer  
 290 applications (e.g., Adaptive Braking) or may not consider the modelling of severe delays in their  
 291 works (e.g., DASGD with IS and DC-s3gd). In this context, they may not perform well in the test  
 292 cases.

### 293 5.4 Impacts of different delay settings

294 To further show our algorithm’s effectiveness, we also implement experiments with different delays.  
 295 As discussed above, a more severe delay could cause significant drop on the accuracy. More numerical  
 296 studies with different steps of delay are carried out here. The delays are set as 5, 20, 60 with our  
 297 PreResNet110 (*model 1*) of 8 agents (synchronous network without delay is also tested). We use  
 298 CIFAR-10 in the studies and the topology is *distributed network 1*. The results are shown in Fig. 2.

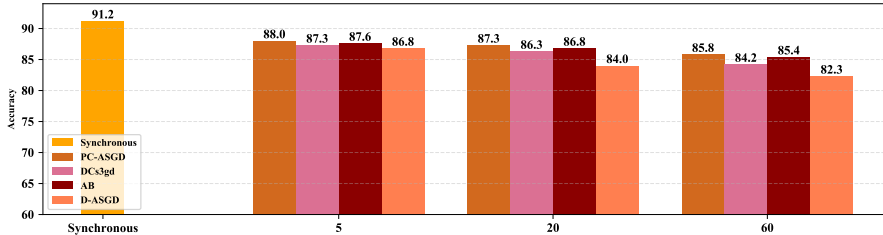


Figure 2: Performance evaluation for different steps of delay

299 We can find out as the delay increases, the accuracy decreases. For the synchronous setting, the  
 300 testing accuracy is close to that in the centralized scenario [30] but with higher batch size. When the  
 301 delay is 60, the accuracy for the D-ASGD reduces significantly, and this validates that the large delay  
 302 significantly influences the performance and causes difficulties in the training process. However, the



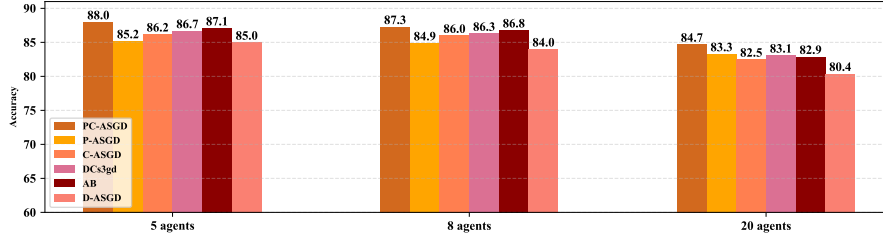


Figure 3: Performance evaluation for different numbers of agents.

delays are practical in the real implementations such as industrial IoT platforms. For our proposed PC-ASGD, it outperforms other algorithms in all cases with different delays. Moreover, the accuracy drop is relatively smaller in cases with larger delays, which suggests that PC-ASGD is more robust to different communication delays.

### 5.5 Impacts of network size

For evaluating the performances in different structure sizes of distributed networks, *distributed network 2* and *distributed network 3* follow the same setting as in the *distributed network 1* (delay  $\tau = 20$ , *model 1*, CIFAR-10). The results are shown in Fig. 3. According to both Table 2 and Fig. 3, as the number of agents increases, the accuracy decreases. It shows the large size of the network has negative impact on the training. We also find out that our proposed PC-ASGD outperforms all other approaches, which further validates the efficacy and scalability of the proposed algorithm.

To further show the effectiveness and stability of our proposed algorithm, additional comparisons and results are provided in the supplementary materials including some additional results about influence analysis caused by  $\theta$  settings and computational costs. These results reflect that our proposed algorithm is able to work well on different distributed systems.

## 6 Conclusion

This paper presents a novel learning algorithm for distributed deep learning with heterogeneous delay characteristics in agent-communication-network systems. We propose PC-ASGD algorithm consisting of a predicting step, a clipping step, and the corresponding update law for optimizing the positive effects introduced by gradient prediction for reducing the staleness and negative effects caused by the outdated weights. We present theoretical analysis for the convergence rate of the proposed algorithm with constant step size when the objective functions are weakly strongly convex and nonconvex. The numerical studies show the effectiveness of our proposed algorithms in different distributed systems with delays. In future work, the cases for distributed networks with diverse delays and dynamic topology will be further studied and tested.

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## 405 Checklist

- 406 1. For all authors...
- 407 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s  
408 contributions and scope? [Yes] See Section 3-5.
- 409 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] See Section 6.
- 410 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [No]
- 411 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to  
412 them? [Yes]
- 413 2. If you are including theoretical results...
- 414 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [Yes] See Section 2.
- 415 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [Yes] See Appendix B.
- 416 3. If you ran experiments...
- 417 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-  
418 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [No] The code and  
419 the data are proprietary.
- 420 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they  
421 were chosen)? [Yes] See Appendix E in Supplementary materials.
- 422 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-  
423 ments multiple times)? [Yes] See Section Table 2.
- 424 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g.,  
425 type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [No] We simply use the 4 cpus  
426 Xeon(R) with 12 cores and GTX 1080 Ti 12 GB for 8 in GPU training, which could be  
427 commonly used in deep learning training.
- 428 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
- 429 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes] See Section 5.
- 430 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [Yes] See Section 5.
- 431 (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [No]  
432 We don’t have new assets.
- 433 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you’re  
434 using/curating? [No] We just use open dataset.
- 435 (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable  
436 information or offensive content? [No] The dataset used is open dataset.
- 437 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
- 438 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if  
439 applicable? [Yes]
- 440 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review  
441 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [Yes]
- 442 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount  
443 spent on participant compensation? [Yes]