


MOON-DPAP: Model-Contrastive Federated Learning with Differential Privacy and Adaptive Pruning

Jiaming Su ^a

School of Information Science and Technology, Northwest University, Xuefu Road, Xi'an, 710127, China

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Abstract: Recent years have seen a surge in research on distributed data processing and privacy protection due to the quick growth of big data and artificial intelligence technology. Federated learning, as a distributed collaboration framework with privacy protection, has attracted much attention due to its application potential. However, in practical applications, it faces challenges such as heterogeneous data distribution, high communication overhead, and insufficient privacy protection, and algorithm improvements are urgently needed to improve performance and adaptability. This study proposed an improved federated learning algorithm Model Contrastive Federated Learning-Differential Privacy and Adaptive Pruning (MOON-DPAP), which improved the efficiency, accuracy, and privacy protection capabilities of federated learning by introducing dynamic pruning technology, dropout, dynamic adjustment of differential privacy, and hyperparameter optimization. Experiments show that MOON-DPAP outperforms FedAvg, SCAFFOLD, MOON, and FedDyn in multiple performance indicators. In heterogeneous data scenarios, it shows higher accuracy and stability. In scalability tests, the algorithm performance remains superior even when the number of clients increases. Privacy protection tests verify its security and practicality. MOON-DPAP provides an innovative solution to the challenges of federated learning in performance improvement and privacy protection, laying the foundation for its practical application.


1 INTRODUCTION

As distributed data becomes more widely used and data privacy protection becomes more widely recognized, federated learning has gradually become a key technology to solve data silos and privacy protection needs. It uses distributed devices to collaboratively train models without disclosing the actual data and has broad application prospects in the fields of medicine, finance, and the Internet of Things (Yang, Liu, & Chen et al., 2019). However, in practical applications, federated learning faces challenges such as heterogeneous data distribution, increased communication and computing overhead, insufficient privacy protection mechanisms, and poor accuracy, which limit its promotion.

The earliest federated learning algorithm is Federated Averaging (FedAvg), which modifies the global model through weighted averaging and local training, but it has poor adaptability to device heterogeneity and non-IID data (McMahan, Moore,

& Ramage et al., 2017). To this end, improved algorithms such as Federated Optimization in Heterogeneous Networks (FedProx) and Adaptive Federated Optimization using Adam (FedAdam) have emerged. FedProx balances the difference between local updates and global models by introducing regularization terms, while FedAdam adjusts the local update step size through adaptive learning rates, thereby reducing the training differences between devices (Li, Sahu, & Zaheer et al., 2020; Reddi, Charles, & Zaheer et al., 2020).

Federated learning offers privacy protection, with differential privacy and homomorphic encryption being common techniques used for safeguarding this fundamental benefit. Although they improve privacy protection to a certain extent, differential privacy will impact model accuracy, and the significant computational complexity of homomorphic encryption constrains its applicability and dissemination. Communication efficiency is a key challenge in federated learning, especially when the

^a <https://orcid.org/0009-0004-1508-227X>

number of devices is large and frequent communication leads to inefficiency. Han, Mao and Dally (2015) proposed that model compression and quantization techniques can be used to reduce communication overhead. At the same time, by increasing the number of local training cycles, the local update approach can decrease the amount of communication between the hardware and the server, but it may lead to local model overfitting and affect global performance. In federated learning, two significant issues are device and data heterogeneity. Due to the differences in computing power and data distribution of devices, the computational capabilities of devices are frequently not fully utilized by conventional federated learning techniques, and may even lead to the degradation of global model performance. To this end, researchers have proposed algorithms based on gradient alignment and adaptive adjustment of model parameters, aiming to optimize the contribution between different devices and improve the global model effect.

Li, He and Song (2021) proposed the Model-Contrastive Federated Learning (MOON) algorithm, which represents a significant advancement in the field of federated learning recently. MOON effectively mitigates the differences among devices through a standardized update strategy, demonstrating strong robustness, especially in handling non-IID data and device heterogeneity. By optimizing model synchronization and dynamically adjusting local models, MOON reduces communication overhead and enhances efficiency. Although MOON does not have an inbuilt privacy protection mechanism, it can be combined with technologies such as differential privacy to further enhance privacy protection. Despite its outstanding performance in multiple experiments, MOON still faces issues such as communication efficiency and computational complexity in large-scale systems, especially in scenarios where data is highly uneven, and further optimization is still needed.

This study proposes an improved federated learning algorithm to solve the training efficiency and performance problems in heterogeneous data environments. By introducing pruning technology to reduce redundant calculations and improve computing efficiency. To safeguard data privacy and guarantee that training is carried out without disclosing user information, differential privacy techniques are employed. In addition, hyperparameters such as learning rate, regularization parameter, and local learning rate are dynamically adjusted to accelerate model convergence and improve performance. The research goal is to reduce

communication overhead, optimize computing resources, and improve the stability and robustness of the model under multi-party heterogeneous data while ensuring data privacy.

2 ONLINE INTELLIGENT KINEMATIC CALIBRATION METHOD

2.1 Question Statement

Suppose there are N participants A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N , each participant A_i has a local dataset X_i . The objective is to secure data privacy while working together to train a global model θ through a central server while protecting data privacy. Because the distribution of local data is heterogeneous, updates during training may fluctuate greatly, impacting the model's performance and rate of convergence. At the same time, as the number of training rounds increases, storage and computing costs rise, resulting in a waste of resources. To this end, improving training efficiency is essential, reducing redundant computing and communication overhead, and ensuring that the model converges quickly and stably under heterogeneous data while ensuring privacy.

2.2 Model Framework

This paper proposes an improved federated learning algorithm - MOON-DPAP, which enhances the model's efficiency and privacy protection capabilities by introducing pruning, differential privacy, and dynamic parameter adjustment. Dynamic pruning reduces redundant parameters and improves computational efficiency; Dropout alleviates overfitting and enhances model adaptability; differential privacy protects data privacy by adding noise. Additionally, dynamic adjustment of the learning rate, contrastive loss temperature parameter τ , regularization parameter μ , and local learning rate accelerates model convergence and optimizes performance.

In the algorithm process, in every round, the client receives the global model from the server. The client trains and updates the model using regional information, and by comparing the loss, it improves the similarity between both the regional and global models. During training, differential privacy protects data security, and dynamic pruning optimizes the model structure. After the updated model is uploaded to the server, the server updates the global model

through weighted averaging and adjusts the hyperparameters. This process effectively balances privacy protection and performance improvement.

2.3 Dynamically Adjust Local Learning Rate and Hyperparameters

In this research, to increase the effectiveness of model instruction and the end performance, a cosine annealing-based learning rate adjustment technique was applied. The learning rate adjustment follows the following (1)

$$\eta_t = \eta_{min} + \frac{1}{2} (\eta_{max} - \eta_{min}) \left(1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi t}{T_{max}}\right) \right) \quad (1)$$

Among them, η_{max} is the initial learning rate, η_{min} is the minimum learning rate, T_{max} is the entire amount of training rounds and t is the current round number. The core idea of this formula is that the learning rate starts from η_{max} and gradually decays to η_{min} after training. This strategy gradually decays the learning rate through the cosine function, thereby maintaining a high learning rate at the beginning for more extensive exploration and lowering the learning rate later on in the training process to achieve fine optimization. To prevent the learning rate from excessive decay, this paper sets a lower limit for the minimum learning rate to ensure that the learning rate will not fall below this value during training.

In addition, the learning rate adjustment can also be combined with the dynamic adjustment of other hyperparameters $\tau\mu$ to improve the model's performance and convergence even more. During the training process, following (2) and (3), it is adaptively modified based on the current number of rounds.

$$\tau_t = \max(\tau_{min}, \tau_{max} - \alpha \times t) \quad (2)$$

$$\mu_t = \min(\mu_{max}, \mu_{min} + \beta \times t) \quad (3)$$

Tables Among them, τ_{min} and μ_{min} are the minimum values, τ_{max} and μ_{max} are the maximum values, and α and β are the adjustment steps. In non-IID data scenarios, as training progresses, there will be a greater disparity between the local and global models, and the gradual reduction of τ helps to narrow this difference. In the early phases of training, the dynamic rise of μ can enhance the local model's contribution to the global model. Later in the training process, the global model's influence on the final model progressively grows, resulting in a more balanced model update.

2.4 Differential Privacy

Differential privacy causes the output to have noise, making the outputs of any two adjacent data sets almost indistinguishable. By knowing that the noise's standard deviation σ is determined by the gradient sensitivity Δf , the privacy budget ϵ and the privacy failure probability δ , we can calculate (4).

$$\sigma = \frac{\Delta f}{\epsilon} \sqrt{2 \ln \frac{1.25}{\delta}} \quad (4)$$

Dynamic privacy adjustment is performed, and the privacy budget $\epsilon(t)$ gradually decreases with the training round t , where ϵ_0 is the initial privacy budget, t is the current training round and T is the total number of training rounds, as shown in (5).

$$\epsilon(t) = \epsilon_0 \left(1 - \frac{t}{T} \right) \quad (5)$$

Differential privacy technology can effectively protect the privacy of participants by adding noise to the gradient update process to guarantee that each client's local data does not leak into the global model.

2.5 Model Pruning

This paper adopts a method that combines static pruning and dynamic pruning based on weight thresholds. The core idea of pruning is to remove parameters with small absolute weight values. These parameters have little impact on the model output and can be considered "redundant". Set the pruning threshold T , and the pruning rule of weight w is as follows (6), where w' represents the pruned weight.

$$w' = \begin{cases} w, & \text{if } |w| \geq T \\ 0, & \text{if } |w| < T \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

To gradually increase the pruning ratio during the training process, a dynamic pruning threshold adjustment strategy is adopted to gradually increase the pruning threshold during the training rounds. The dynamic threshold calculation formula is (7), where T_{min} is the minimum pruning threshold. T_{max} is the maximum pruning threshold. T_{total} is the total training rounds. t is the current training round.

$$T_t = T_{min} + (T_{max} - T_{min}) \cdot \frac{t}{T_{total}} \quad (7)$$

In this way, the pruning ratio is progressively raised in the final phases of training to lower the

model's complexity, while more weights are kept in the initial phases to stabilize the training.

3 EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Experimental Setup

To thoroughly assess the MOON-DPAP algorithm's performance, this research compares it with several advanced federated learning algorithms. Specifically, FedAvg, SCAFFOLD, MOON, and FedDyn are selected as comparison algorithms (McMahan, Moore, & Ramage et al., 2017; Karimireddy, Kale, & Mohri et al., 2020; Li, He, & Song, 2021; Jin, Chen, & Gu et al., 2023). By comparing with these methods, the accuracy, speed of convergence, computational efficiency, and privacy of MOON-DPAP's performance were all carefully examined.

In the experiment, the FashionMNIST dataset was selected for testing (Xiao, Rasul, & Vollgraf, 2017). FashionMNIST is a 28x28 pixel image classification dataset with 10 categories.

To ensure a fair comparison of each algorithm, the same network architecture and hyperparameter Settings are used in all experiments. A Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) serves as the foundational model of the FashionMNIST dataset. To be more precise, the network design is made up of two convolutional layers, a Max pooling layer, two fully connected layers, and a ReLU activation function at the end of each layer.

All algorithms were implemented based on the PyTorch framework (Paszke, Gross, & Massa et al., 2019), ensuring the reproducibility and efficiency of the experiments. All experiments were conducted under the same hardware environment, with the hardware configuration being an NVIDIA GPU. The optimizer used was SGD, with a learning rate of 0.005, a batch size of 32, a local training round of 1, and a global training round of 200.

To simulate non-independent and identically distributed data in real-world scenarios, this paper employs the Dirichlet distribution to generate data partitions among clients. In the experiments, 20 clients were set up, and in each communication round, the participation ratio of clients was 1.0, unless otherwise specified.

3.2 Accuracy Comparison

For MOON-DPAP, the optimal batch size on the Fashion MNIST dataset is 32. For the hyperparameter μ , the best μ on the FashionMNIST dataset is 0.01. Unless otherwise specified, these batch sizes and μ settings are used in all subsequent experiments in this paper.

Figure 1 shows the test accuracy and loss of various methods under the default settings mentioned above. When comparing different federated learning methods under the non-IID setting, it can be observed that MOON-DPAP consistently performs best with an accuracy of 83.6% and the lowest loss of 0.44 across all tasks. It is 4.7% higher than FedAvg in average accuracy across all tasks. For MOON and Ditto, its accuracy is very close to FedAvg. For SCAFFOLD, its accuracy is much lower than other federated learning methods.

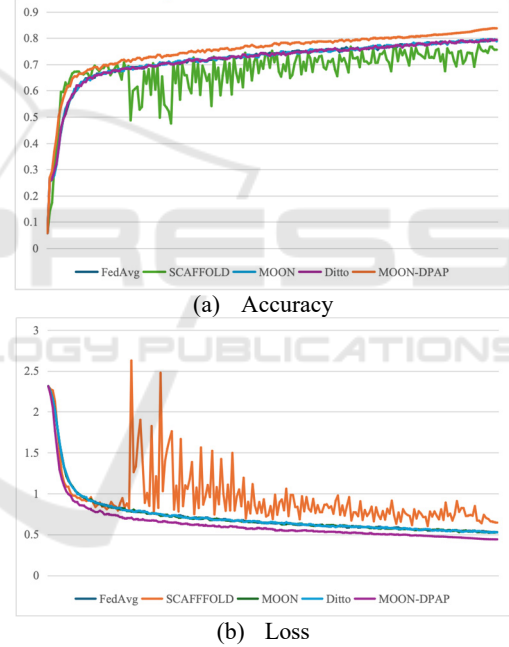


Figure 1: Accuracy and loss of different methods in different rounds on the FashionMNIST dataset (Photo/Picture credit: Original).

3.3 Security and Privacy Test

The accuracy of the MOON-DPAP algorithm without differential privacy is marginally higher than that of the version with differential privacy, as shown in Figure 2. This indicates that although differential privacy plays an important role in protecting data security, differential privacy-introduced noise affects the model's performance, particularly during the

initial training phase. The convergence speed of the version with differential privacy is slow, while the version without differential privacy can reach a high accuracy faster (Dwork & Roth, 2014).

As the training progressed, the version with differential privacy gradually stabilized, with a final accuracy of 77% and a loss of 0.71. This shows that while differential privacy improves data protection, it also weakens the model's prediction ability. However, the version with differential privacy showed a smoother accuracy change curve, showing better stability.

This outcome illustrates the balance between differential privacy data security and model performance. In practical applications, to balance the impact of privacy protection and model performance, a fair privacy budget must be chosen based on the particular case.

In the future, the negative impact of noise introduced by differential privacy on model performance will also be a focus of optimization (Dwork & Roth, 2014). In the future, we can try to adopt more efficient privacy protection methods, such as local differential privacy or adaptive noise strategies, to further optimize the balance between privacy protection and performance (Duchi, Jordan, & Wainwright, 2013).

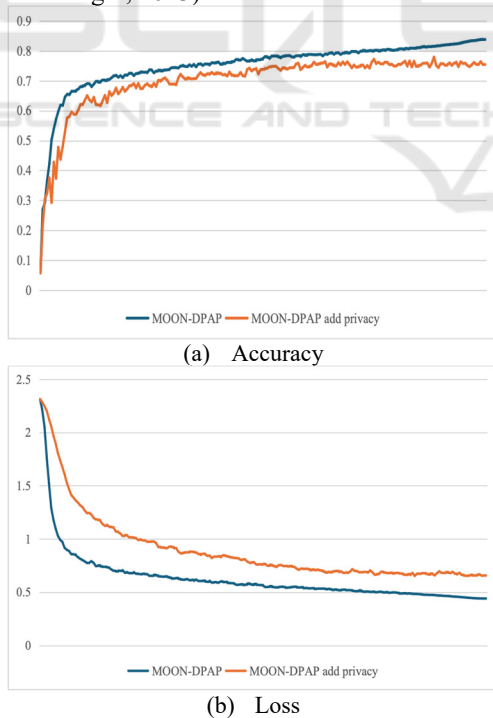


Figure 2: Comparison of different rounds before and after adding differential privacy to MOON-DPAP (Photo/Picture credit: Original).

3.4 Scalability

As shown in Table 1, among all the algorithms, MOON-DPAP shows strong scalability, and its accuracy and loss are better than other algorithms in the case of either 10 or 20 clients, and its performance is especially more stable in large-scale client scenarios. This shows that MOON-DPAP can effectively deal with data heterogeneity and communication bottlenecks and has better adaptability. In contrast, FedAvg performs stably with 10 clients, but the accuracy and loss vary greatly with 20 clients, showing a lack of scalability. Still, it is suitable for use in scenarios where the number of clients is small. FedDyn and SCAFFOLD perform relatively poorly, especially with 20 clients, showing a significant drop in performance, indicating their inadequacy in coping with data heterogeneity and training imbalance.

According to experimental findings, all algorithms' performance often declines as the number of clients rises. This reflects the scalability challenges of federated learning, especially the increase in system heterogeneity and communication latency, which has a significant impact on model training, leading to a decrease in accuracy and a rise in loss value.

Table 1: The effect of varying client numbers on the experiment.

Algorithm	Number Of Clients	Accuracy	Loss
FedAvg	10	53.37%	1.22
	20	48.85%	1.34
FedDyn	10	47.97%	1.64
	20	43.38%	1.83
SCAFFOLD	10	43.37%	1.51
	20	40.37%	1.57
MOON	10	53.65%	1.21
	20	49.17%	1.34
MOON-DPAP	10	62.34%	1.13
	20	58.60%	1.26

3.4 Ablation Analysis

To explore how each component affects the model's performance, this paper conducted an ablation experiment, gradually removing key components such as dynamic learning rate adjustment, Dropout, and pruning, and recorded the changes in accuracy and loss, as shown in Table 2.

Removing the dynamic learning rate adjustment significantly degrades the model performance,

indicating its important role in optimizing parameter updates and accelerating convergence. Removing Although dropout causes a small increase in loss and a slight fall in accuracy, it is nevertheless crucial for boosting the model's resilience. After removing pruning, the performance changes slightly, which is mainly reflected in improving computational efficiency, while the direct impact on model performance is limited. When all three are removed at the same time, the model performance degrades significantly, indicating that dynamic learning rate adjustment is the key factor in improving performance, and the synergy of the three is indispensable in improving training efficiency, optimizing regularization, and accelerating convergence.

Table 2: Ablation analysis.

Group	Ablation Item	Accuracy	Loss
1	Baseline Model	83.71%	0.44
2	Remove Dynamic learning rate Adjustment	81.03%	0.52
3	Remove Dropout	80.98%	0.48
4	Remove Pruning	82.94%	0.47
5	Remove Dropout, Pruning, Learning rate Adjustment	78.77%	0.53

4 CONCLUSIONS

This study proposed the MOON-DPAP algorithm and evaluated its performance in terms of accuracy, computational efficiency, and privacy protection by comparing it with federated learning algorithms such as FedAvg, SCAFFOLD, MOON, and FedDyn. Experimental results show that MOON-DPAP exhibits significant advantages in multiple key dimensions, demonstrating its potential to address the challenges of federated learning.

Firstly, MOON-DPAP performs well in accuracy, especially when dealing with scenes with large data heterogeneity, showing stronger stability and adaptability. According to the testing results, MOON-DPAP can successfully handle the problem of unequal client data distribution, and after several communication rounds, its ultimate accuracy is considerably greater than that of other algorithms. This is because the algorithm's dynamic learning rate modification, pruning, and dropout methods boost the model's generalization capabilities in addition to its rate of convergence. Especially in heterogeneous environments, the robustness is further improved by

optimizing resource utilization and inhibiting overfitting.

To preserve excellent model performance and guarantee user data confidentiality, MOON-DPAP integrates the differential privacy technique. Despite the impact of noise introduced by differential privacy on the model accuracy, MOON-DPAP can still achieve a good balance between privacy protection and performance. Experiments show that MOON-DPAP still has strong applicability in scenarios with high privacy requirements. In addition, in scalability tests, MOON-DPAP has demonstrated superior stability. As the number of clients increases, its accuracy decreases significantly less than other algorithms, and it performs better in terms of computational efficiency, proving its potential in large-scale federated learning scenarios.

Nevertheless, MOON-DPAP has room for improvement in personalized learning and privacy protection, and the lack of a personalization strategy may affect its performance in heterogeneous data scenarios, and differential privacy noise also hurts performance. Future developments could introduce adaptive noise methods or local differential privacy to better balance privacy and performance.

As mentioned above, the MOON-DPAP algorithm performs well in terms of accuracy, privacy, and scalability, showing strong potential for practical applications. Future research should concentrate on optimizing personalized learning and privacy protection techniques to further improve its performance and robustness in diverse scenarios.

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