Abstract

Singular value decomposition (SVD) is one of the most fundamental tools in machine learning and statistics. The modern machine learning community usually assumes that data come from and belong to small-scale device users. The low communication and computation power of such devices, and the possible privacy breaches of users’ sensitive data make the computation of SVD challenging. Federated learning (FL) is a paradigm enabling a large number of devices to jointly learn a model in a communication-efficient way without data sharing. In the FL framework, we develop a class of algorithms called FedPower for the computation of partial SVD in the modern setting. Based on the well-known power method, the local devices alternate between multiple local power iterations and one global aggregation to improve communication efficiency. In the aggregation, we propose to weight each local eigenvector matrix with Orthogonal Procrustes Transformation (OPT). Considering the practical stragglers’ effect, the aggregation can be fully participated or partially participated, where for the latter we propose two sampling and aggregation schemes. Further, to ensure strong privacy protection, we add Gaussian noise whenever the communication happens by adopting the notion of differential privacy (DP). We theoretically show the convergence bound for FedPower. The resulting bound is interpretable with each part corresponding to the effect of Gaussian noise, parallelization, and random sampling of devices, respectively. We also conduct experiments to demonstrate the merits of FedPower. In particular, the local iterations not only improve communication efficiency but also reduce the chance of privacy breaches.

Keywords: Communication Efficiency, Federated Learning, Power Method, Stragglers’ Effect

* Xiao Guo and Xiang Li make an equal contribution to this paper. Xiangyu Chang is the corresponding author.
1. Introduction

Modern machine learning tasks involve massive data that come from small-scale devices, such as mobile phones, smartwatches, power metering, etc. The computation and communication power of these devices is limited, which makes large-scale data applications challenging. Further, the data from peripheral devices often contain sensitive information, hence, privacy issues become more and more prominent (Bhowmick et al., 2018; Dwork et al., 2014a).

Federated learning (FL) has become a prevalent paradigm of distributed learning for large-scale problems involving user-level data; see Kairouz et al. (2019) and references therein. Typically, in the FL, user devices train the model locally and send updates to the central server whenever communications are required. The server aggregates the updates (maybe randomly) and then sends them back to the devices. These procedures are repeated until convergence or attaining proper conditions. FL confronts the aforementioned challenges coming from small-scale devices, including large-scale data and unreliable communication, autonomy, and privacy issues; see McMahan et al. (2017); Smith et al. (2017); Sattler et al. (2019); Li et al. (2020a), among others. First, the FL algorithms are communication efficient which requires more local computation and fewer communications. Second, it can deal with the scheme when the users’ devices are inactive or the users decide not to participate in the following training procedures. Third, since the training data cannot be moved away from its device, privacy is preserved to some extent.

Nevertheless, even if only the updates but the original data are transmitted to the central server, the individuals’ privacy could be easily compromised via delicately designed attacks (Dwork et al., 2017; Melis et al., 2018; Zhou and Tang, 2020). Differential privacy (Dwork et al., 2006, 2014a) is a well-adopted notion for private data analysis. A differentially private algorithm pursues that if the data is changed by one row (entry) with pre-specified limits, then the algorithm’s output appears similar in probability. Such algorithms protect the users’ privacy from any adversary who knows the algorithm’s output and even the rest of the data and can resist kind of attack. Commonly, a differentially private algorithm is obtained by adding calibrated noise to the non-differentially private algorithm.

In this paper, we consider the problem of partial singular value decomposition (SVD) in the private-preserving federated learning regime. SVD is the fundamental problem in machine learning and statistics with applications in dimension reduction (Wold et al., 1987), clustering (Von Luxburg, 2007), and matrix completion (Candès and Recht, 2009), among others. The modern computation of SVD can be traced back to 1960s, when the seminal works of Golub and Kahan (1965); Golub and Reinsch (1970) provided the basis for the EISPACK and LAPACK routines. For computing partial SVD of matrices, iterative algorithms such as the power iterations and its variants (Golub and Van Loan, 2012; Hardt and Price, 2014) flourished. Very recently, to solve large-scale problems, distributed learning of SVD or principle components is receiving more and more attention; see Fan et al. (2019b); Chen et al. (2020), among others. However, as far as we are aware, existing works can not meet the challenge that the FL confronts and the privacy concerns simultaneously.

To handle the computation, communication, and privacy challenges that modern data analysis calls for, we propose an algorithm called Federated Power method (FedPower). Based on the well-known single-machine power method, the FedPower assumes that the
data is distributed across different devices but never leaves the devices. Each device locally performs the power iterations using its data. After several local steps, the devices send their updates to the central server, and the server aggregates them and sends the result back to local devices. In the aggregation, we use Orthogonal Procrustes Transformation (OPT) to post-process the output matrices of the $m$ nodes after each iteration so that the $m$ matrices are close to each other. Because each device may lose connection to the server actively or passively during the training process, we provide two different protocols, namely, the full participation and the partial participation. In the partial participation protocol, the server can collect the first few responded devices within a certain time range. Moreover, to alleviate the privacy leakage, we take advantage of the notion of DP to add Gaussian noise to the updates whenever the communications happen. This is based on our assumption that the server is honest-but-curious (semi-honest), and the devices are honest.

Compared to existing works, the FedPower enjoys the following three benefits simultaneously. First, it can handle massive data distributed across local devices and owned by local users. Second, it is communication efficient and can preserve privacy in the sense of DP. Note that the local updates not only improve the communication efficiency but also reduce the possibility of a privacy breach.

With the algorithms at hand, we also study how the FedPower performs theoretically. First, we rigorously prove that the algorithms corresponding to the full and partial participation schemes are differentially private. Second, we analyze the convergence bound of FedPower in terms of the subspace distance between the estimated and the true singular vectors. For the full participation scheme, it turns out that the convergence error consists of two parts, one is induced by the Gaussian noise that is added to preserve privacy, and the other is induced by the parallelization and synchronization. For the partial participation scheme, we consider two random sampling and aggregating schemes. The resulting convergence error bound consists of three parts. Besides the two parts appearing in the error of the full participation scheme, there exists an additional part that comes from the sampling of local devices, which could be regarded as the sampling bias term. The more devices that are sampled, the smaller the bias term would be. As expected, the error bounds can be sufficiently small if the sample size is large enough and the quality of local data is good enough.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the basic definitions and some typical algorithms for SVD, distributed power method, and DP. Section 3 includes the proposed algorithms FedPower and the corresponding convergence analysis under two schemes, namely, the full participation and the partial participation. Section 4 reviews and discusses the related works, and also summaries the main contributions of the current work. Section 5 presents the experimental results. Section 6 concludes the paper. Technical proofs and supplementary materials are all included in the Appendix.

2. Preliminaries

In this section, we first present SVD, the power method for computing the partial SVD, and a naive distributed power method designed for the distributed SVD computation. Then, we pose the challenges, namely, the communication and the privacy, that the modern machine learning tasks call for. In particular, we explain why the autonomy for each local device
is needed and propose two adversary models to show how the privacy can be leaked in the current distributed power method. Last, we present the framework of DP (Dwork et al., 2006) and its basic properties.

2.1 SVD and Power Method

Given a data matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ with assumption of $d \leq n$, its full SVD is defined as

$$A = U \Lambda V^\top = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_i u_i v_i^\top,$$

where $U = [u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_d] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ and $V = [v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_d] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ are column orthogonal matrices that contain the left and right singular vectors of $A$, respectively, and $\Lambda = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_d\} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ is a diagonal matrix with the singular values in decreasing order on the diagonal. The partial or truncated SVD aims to compute the top $k$ ($k \leq d$) singular vectors $U_k = [u_1, \ldots, u_k]$ and $V_k = [v_1, \ldots, v_k]$, and use the truncated decomposition $U_k \Lambda_k V_k^\top$ to approximate $A$, where $\Lambda_k = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k\} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$. SVD is one of the most commonly used techniques for various machine learning tasks including dimension reduction (Wold et al., 1987), clustering (Von Luxburg, 2007), ranking (Negahban et al., 2017), matrix completion (Candès and Recht, 2009), multiple testing (Fan et al., 2019a), factor analysis (Bai and Ng, 2013), among others, and it also has applications in many disciplines, such as finance, biology, and neurosciences (Izenman, 2008).

Let $M = \frac{1}{n} A^\top A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. The power method (Golub and Van Loan, 2012) computes $V_k$, namely, the top $k$ right singular vectors of $A$ and also the top $k$ eigenvectors of $M$, by iterating

$$Y \leftarrow MZ \quad \text{and} \quad Z \leftarrow \text{orth}(Y), \quad (2.1)$$

where $Y$ and $Z$ are $d \times k$ matrices, and $\text{orth}(Y)$ stands for orthogonalizing the columns of $Y$ via the QR-factorization.

When $n$ is so large that one computer cannot preserve all the samples, the power method is blocked. It becomes beneficial to partition the data and compute the power iterations in parallel, which calls for the distributed power methods introduced next.

2.2 Distributed Power Method

Suppose $A$ is partitioned to $m$ blocks by row such that $A^\top = [A_1^\top, \ldots, A_m^\top]$, where $A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{s_i \times d}$ includes $s_i$ rows of $A$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{m} s_i = n$. See Figure 1(a) for illustration. Let $M_i = \frac{1}{s_i} A_i^\top A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. We can then see that

$$M = \frac{1}{n} A^\top A = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{n} A_i^\top A_i = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{s_i}{n} M_i = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i M_i, \quad (2.2)$$

where $p_i = \frac{s_i}{n}$. Thereby, $Y$ in (2.1) can be written as

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{s_i}{n} M_i Z = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i M_i Z \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}, \quad (2.3)$$
which indicates that the power method can be parallelized. See Figure 1(b) and Algorithm 1, which is called the distributed power method. Note that Algorithm 1 is identical to the power method except that the summations in computing $M$ comes from different workers rather than a single machine. The following theorem is a well-known result on the convergence of the power method as well as the distributed power method (Arbenz, 2012).

**Theorem 1** Let $\sigma_k$ be the $k$-th largest singular value of $M$ and assume $\sigma_{k+1} > 0$, where $1 \leq k < d$. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$, with high probability, after $T = O\left(\frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_{k+1}} \log\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$ iterations, the output $Z_T$ of Algorithm 1 satisfies

$$\sin\theta_k(Z_T, V_k) = \| (I_d - Z_T Z_T^T) V_k \|_2 \leq \epsilon,$$

where $\sin\theta_k$ denotes the $k$-th principle angles between two subspaces which can be regarded as a subspace distance.

The distributed power method can handle data that are distributed across different workers. Yet, it still can not adapt to the problems or concerns faced in modern data applications. First, Algorithm 1 involves two rounds of communications in every iteration. Hence, simple parallelization of the power method brings large communication costs. In addition, the autonomous effect or the straggler’s effect and the privacy issue remain unsolved. We will illustrate the latter two in more detail in the next two subsections, respectively.

![Figure 1](image-url)

**Figure 1:** (a) The $n \times d$ data matrix $A$ is partitioned among $m$ worker nodes. (b) In every iteration of the distributed power iteration, there are two rounds of communications. Most of the computations are performed by the worker nodes.

### 2.3 Straggler’s Effect

Different from traditional distributed learning, the FL system often consists of one central server and massive small-scale devices. The local devices are not controlled by the server,

1. The formal definition can be found in Section 2.6.
### Algorithm 1 Distributed Power Method

1: **Input:** distributed dataset \( \{A_i\}_{i=1}^m \), target rank \( k \), iteration rank \( r \geq k \), number of iterations \( T \).

2: **Initialization:** orthonormal \( Z_0^{(i)} = Z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \) by QR decomposition on a random Gaussian matrix.

3: **for** \( t = 1 \) to \( T \) **do**
4: The \( i \)-th worker independently performs \( Y_t^{(i)} = M_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \) for all \( i \in [m] \), where \( M_i = A_i^T A_i \);
5: Each worker \( i \) sends \( Y_t^{(i)} \) to the server and the server performs aggregation: \( Y_t = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i Y_t^{(i)} \);
6: The server performs orthogonalization: \( Z_t = \text{orth}(Y_t) \) and broadcast \( Z_t \) to each worker such that \( Z_t^{(i)} = Z_t \);
7: **end for**
8: **Output:** approximated eigen-space \( Z_T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \) with orthonormal columns.

Instead, the server may lose connection to the devices (Kairouz et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020b). On the one hand, some devices may become stragglers if they are powered off, get broken, or have a poor Internet connection. On the other hand, each device has its autonomy. The owners of some devices may choose not to participate in the following training procedures due to personal reasons. Hence, it is infeasible for the server to wait for all the devices’ responses. Instead, the server could just use the updates of the first several responded devices before a pre-specified time. Our proposed algorithms will remedy these issues.

### 2.4 Adversary Model

Though the data are not shared by all the participants in FL or more general distributed learning systems, privacy threats still exist. To see how the data privacy can be breached, we next consider two types of potential attackers, respectively, as in Bhowmick et al. (2018); Zhou and Tang (2020).

The first is a curious onlooker who may eavesdrop on the communication between the server and the devices and know the learning tasks and rules. In particular, the server could be such an onlooker, and it is termed honest-but-curious (semi-honest), meaning that the server does not violate the protocol to attack the raw data but it is curious and will attempt to learn all possible information from its received messages (Goldreich, 2009). For example, the internal employees of an app company who are responsible for fitting models would want to infer the personal information of its users. Meanwhile, we assume that each local device is honest and would not infer information from each other. The following examples show that how the distributed power method (Algorithm 1) may cause privacy threats via curious onlookers.

**Example 1 (Privacy breaches via curious onlookers)** Recall Algorithm 1 and suppose the server knows the updates \( Y_t^{(i)} \) for each \( i \in [m] \) and \( t \in T \). In addition, the server could deduce \( Z_t^{(i)} \) from \( Y_t^{(i)} \) because it also knows the learning rule that \( Z_t^{(i)} \) is obtained from \( Y_t^{(i)} \) via the QR decomposition (Line 6 in Algorithm 1). Then by

\[
Y_t^{(i)} = M_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \quad \text{(Line 4 in Algorithm 1)},
\]

(2.4)
and note that $M_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, one can easily infer all the elements of $M_i$ using enough $Z_t^{(i)}$’s and $Y_t^{(i)}$’s. Specifically, $|T| \geq d^2 + 1$ suffices. Moreover, if the adversary knows external information of $M_i$, say some entries of $M_i$, then $|T|$ could be further reduced.

The second kind of attackers that we consider is an external adversary who knows the final published results and additional prior information about individuals. For example, people who participate in the data collection and model design may be such kind of attackers. The next example illustrates why an external adversary could lead to privacy leakage.

**Example 2 (Privacy breaches via external adversaries)** Recall the following SVD approximation,

$$M = \frac{1}{n} V \Lambda^2 V^\top \approx \frac{1}{n} V_k \Lambda_k^2 V_k^\top,$$

(2.5)

and suppose the output of Algorithm 1 which is known by the adversary is a good estimator for $V_k$. In addition, the external adversary often knows additional information in $M$, say $P$ entries of $M$. Then, the unknown parameters in (2.5) include unknown entries in $M \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and all entries in $\Lambda_k = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k\}$, with $d^2 - P + k$ parameters in total. Noting that there are $d^2$ linear (approximated) equations in (2.5), the unknown entries in $M$ can be (approximately) recovered if $d^2 \geq d^2 - P + k$, namely, $P \geq k$, which is easy to attain because the target rank $k$ is often small.

The aforementioned examples indicate that Algorithm 1 can be attacked readily in the two scenarios. Thus, we introduce the differential privacy scheme for aiding the distributed power method to overcome the privacy issue.

### 2.5 Differential Privacy

We have seen that privacy concern is prevailing in modern data analysis. How to quantitatively describe privacy is the key point to understand and design privacy-preserving algorithms. Differential privacy (DP), first introduced in Dwork et al. (2006), is a rigorous and most widely adopted notion of privacy, which generally guarantees that a randomized algorithm behaves similarly on similar input databases. The $((\varepsilon, \delta))$-DP (Dwork et al., 2014a) is defined as follows. With a slight abuse of notation, we use DP to abbreviate “differential privacy” or “differentially private” throughout the paper.

**Definition 1 $((\varepsilon, \delta))$-DP** A randomized algorithm $\mathcal{M}: \mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ is called $((\varepsilon, \delta))$-DP if for all pairs of neighboring databases $X, X' \in \mathcal{X}^n$, and for all subsets of range $S \subseteq \mathcal{Y}$:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{M}(X) \in S) \leq \exp(\varepsilon)\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{M}(X') \in S) + \delta.$$

The definition of neighboring databases varies with contexts. In general, $X$ and $X'$ are called neighboring databases if they are the same except one single entry or one row which may contain the information of one individual. DP achieves the privacy goal that anything can be learned about an individual from the released information can also be learned without that individual’s participation. The $\varepsilon$ is often called the privacy budget which is a small constant measuring the privacy loss and it should be no larger than 1 typically.
et al., 2014a). But in some realistic settings where the adversary has limited information (Bhowmick et al., 2018) or the given problem is hard to attack, it could be large. The \( \delta \) is also a small constant and it can be thought of as a tolerance of the more stringent \( \varepsilon \)-DP, i.e., \( (\varepsilon, \delta) \)-DP with \( \delta \) being 0.

DP is a strong notion that can protect against arbitrary risks, including the reconstruction and tracing attacks, among others (Dwork et al., 2014a). Roughly speaking, it introduces more noise than that is required for the success of attacks. Yet, it is not without cost. To achieve DP, the algorithm’s accuracy is sacrificed via adding certain noise. The following Gaussian mechanism (Dwork et al., 2014a) provides a concrete example.

**Definition 2 (Gaussian mechanism)** For any algorithm \( \mathcal{M} : \mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \), the \( L^p \)-sensitivity of \( \mathcal{M} \) is defined as

\[
\triangle_p(\mathcal{M}) = \sup_{X, X' \text{ neighboring}} \|\mathcal{M}(X) - \mathcal{M}(X')\|_p, \quad \text{for } p \geq 1.
\]

If \( \triangle_2(\mathcal{M}) < \infty \), then the Gaussian mechanism given by

\[
\mathcal{M}(X, \varepsilon) := \mathcal{M}(X) + (\xi_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_d)^T,
\]

where the \( \xi_i \) are i.i.d. drawn from \( \mathcal{N}(0, 2(\triangle_2(\mathcal{M})/\varepsilon)^2\log(1.25/\delta)) \), achieves \( (\varepsilon, \delta) \)-differential privacy.

In real applications, the algorithm is often complicated. The common strategy of achieving DP is to divide the algorithm into several parts and manipulate each part respectively. The following two properties of DP are useful (Dwork et al., 2014a). One is the post-processing property, meaning that an \( (\varepsilon, \delta) \)-DP algorithm is still \( (\varepsilon, \delta) \)-DP after any post-processing provided that no additional knowledge about the database is used. The other is the composition property, saying that repeated queries will amplify the privacy leakage.

**Proposition 2 (Post-processing)** Let \( \mathcal{M} : \mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \Theta \) be an \( (\varepsilon, \delta) \)-DP algorithm, and \( g : \Theta \rightarrow \Theta' \) be an arbitrary randomized mapping. Then \( g \circ \mathcal{M} : \mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \Theta' \) is \( (\varepsilon, \delta) \)-DP.

**Proposition 3 (Composition)** Let \( \mathcal{M}_i : \mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \Theta_i \) be an \( (\varepsilon_i, \delta_i) \)-DP algorithm for \( i \in [k] \). If \( \mathcal{M}_{[k]} : \mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \prod_{i=1}^k \Theta_i \) is defined as \( \mathcal{M}_{[k]}(x) = (\mathcal{M}_1(x), \ldots, \mathcal{M}_k(x)) \), then \( \mathcal{M}_{[k]} \) is \( (\sum_{i=1}^k \varepsilon_i, \sum_{i=1}^k \delta_i) \)-DP.

These two propositions will be used throughout this paper.

### 2.6 Notation

We summarize the notation and notions used in the following parts of this paper. Given a target matrix \( \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \), the \( k \)-th largest singular value of \( \mathbf{A} \) is denoted by \( \lambda_k \). The matrix \( \mathbf{A} \) is divided into \( m \) partitions by row with the \( i \)-th partition (local device) including \( s_i \) rows, and \( \sum_{i=1}^m s_i = n \). Accordingly, \( p_i = \frac{s_i}{n} \) denotes the fraction of rows in the \( i \)-th partition. For \( \mathbf{M} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A} \) (recall Eq.(2.2)), let \( \kappa = \|\mathbf{M}\|_2 \|\mathbf{M}^\top\|_2 \) denote its condition number. \( \sigma_k \) denotes the \( k \)-th largest singular value of \( \mathbf{M} \). It is easy to see that \( \sigma_k = \frac{\lambda_k^2}{n} \). Let \( k \) and \( r \ (r \geq k) \) be the target rank and iteration rank of partial SVD, respectively.
of total iterations is denoted by \( T \). Let \( [T] \) denote the set \( \{1, \ldots, T\} \). \( \| \cdot \|_2 \) denotes the spectral norm of a matrix or the Euclidean norm of a vector, \( \| \cdot \|_{\max} \) denotes the entry-wise maximum absolute value of a matrix or a vector, \( \| \cdot \|_{\infty} \) denotes the matrix operator \( \ell_{\infty} \) norm, and \( \| \cdot \|_m \) denotes the minimum singular value of a matrix. \( O_r \) denotes the set of \( r \times r \) orthogonal matrices and \( I_r \) denotes the identity matrix with dimension \( r \).

In addition, we use the following standard notation for asymptotics. We write \( f(n) \asymp g(n) \) if \( cg(n) \leq f(n) \leq Cg(n) \) for some constants \( 0 < c < C < \infty \). \( f(n) \preceq g(n) \) if \( f(n) \leq Cg(n) \) for some constant \( C < \infty \). Finally, we provide the definition of projection distance, which measures the distance of two subspaces.

**Definition 3 (Projection distance)** Given two column-orthonormal matrices \( U, \tilde{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k} \), the projection distance between the two subspaces spanned by their columns is defined as

\[
\text{dist}(U, \tilde{U}) := \|UU^\top - \tilde{U}\tilde{U}^\top\|_2 = \|\tilde{U}^\top U^\perp\|_2 = \|U^\top \tilde{U}^\perp\|_2 = \sin \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}),
\]

where \( U^\perp, \tilde{U}^\perp \) denote the complement subspaces of \( U, \tilde{U} \), respectively. And \( \theta_k \) denotes the \( k \)-th principle angle between two subspaces; see Appendix E for the formal definition.

### 3. Privacy-Preserving Distributed SVD

In this section, we develop a set of power-iteration-based algorithms, called **FedPower**, for computing SVD which could simultaneously handle the computation, communication, straggler, and privacy issues that distributed machine learning tasks involve. Specifically, we will respectively study two protocols, namely, the full participation and the partial participation for conquering the straggler’s effect. This section establishes privacy guarantees and convergence rates.

Before going to the details, we here illustrate the basic idea of **FedPower**, whose structure is shown in Figure 2. For improving the communication efficiency of the distributed power method, **FedPower** trades more local computations for fewer communications. More specifically, every worker runs

\[
Y^{(i)}_t = M_t Z^{(i)}_{t-1} \quad \text{(Line 4 in Algorithm 1)},
\]

multiple times locally between two communications. Let \( T \) be the number of local computations performed by every worker. Let \( \mathcal{I}_T \), a subset of \( [T] \), index the iterations that perform communications. If \( \mathcal{I}_T = [T] \), synchronization happens at every iteration as in the distributed power method (see Figure 1). If \( \mathcal{I}_T = \{T\} \), synchronization happens only at the end, and **FedPower** is similar to the one-shot divide-and-conquer SVD (Fan et al., 2019b). The cardinality \( |\mathcal{I}_T| \) is the total number of synchronizations. An important example that we will focus on latter is \( \mathcal{I}_T^p \). It is defined by

\[
\mathcal{I}_T^p = \{t \in [T] : t \mod p = 0\} = \{0, p, 2p, \cdots, p \lfloor T/p \rfloor\},
\]

where \( p \) is a positive integer and \( \lfloor T/p \rfloor \) is the largest integer which is smaller than \( T/p \). **FedPower** with \( \mathcal{I}_T^p \) only performs communications every \( p \) iterations.
To improve algorithms’ performance, when communication happens (i.e. \( t \in T_p \)), orthogonal transformed \( Y^{(i)}_t \)’s, namely \( Y^{(i)}_t D^{(i)}_t \)’s, rather than \( Y^{(i)}_t \)’s are used before aggregation. The orthogonal matrices \( D^{(i)}_t \)’s are formed by the following steps. First, we choose a baseline device which has the maximum number of samples. Without loss of generality, we can assume the first device is used (which indicates \( 1 = \arg \min_{i \in [m]} p_i \)). Second, we compute

\[
D^{(i)}_t = \arg\min_{D \in F \cap O_r} \| Z^{(i)}_t - Z^{(1)}_{t-1} \|_F,
\]

(3.2)

where recall \( O_r \) denotes the set of \( r \times r \) orthogonal matrices. \( F \) can be set differently. When \( F = \{ I_r \} \), (3.2) is invalid. When \( F = O_r \), (3.2) is the classic matrix approximation problem in linear algebra, named as the Procrustes problem (Schönemann, 1966; Cape, 2020). The solution to (3.2) is referred to as Orthogonal Procrustes Transformation (OPT) and has a closed form:

\[
D^{(i)}_t = W_1 W_2^T,
\]

where we assume that the SVD of \((Z^{(i)}_{t-1})^T Z^{(1)}_{t-1}\) is \(W_1 \Sigma W_2^T\). See more on OPT in Appendix E.

As for privacy, we consider a strong adversary termed honest-but-curious (see Subsection 2.4) which does not violate the rules to peep the raw data but is curious to infer data information from the communicative messages and the training rule. To prevent the potential privacy breaches shown in Example 1, we add Gaussian noise to the transmitted terms whenever communications happen. In particular, the variances of the noise are designed to meet the DP’s requirement (see Definitions 1 and 2). In our context, we assume for any \( A, A' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \), \( A \) and \( A' \) are called neighboring databases if \( A^T A \) and \( (A')^T A' \) differing in only one entry by at most 1 in absolute value. This assumption can be extended as we discuss later. It can be seen that the local iterations not only save the communication cost but also reduce the amount and scale of added noises under a certain privacy budget, and thus improve the accuracy of the partial SVD.

Finally, to take into account the straggler’s effect, we further consider the partial participation protocol, that is, each aggregation only involves the first \( K \) responded (not necessarily different) devices before a certain time. Specifically, we assume two random sampling and aggregation schemes with details shown in Subsection 3.2.

### 3.1 Federated Power Method under Full Participation Protocol

The FedPower under the full participation protocol is shown in Algorithm 2. Specifically, we add two rounds of Gaussian noise. In Line 6 of Algorithm 2, the noise is added to the updates that leave each device, which could be regarded as a kind of local protection. And in Line 7 of Algorithm 2, the server adds Gaussian noise to the aggregated updates before sending it to devices, which is central protection. Formally, we have the following DP guarantee.

**Theorem 4** Algorithm 2 achieves \((2\varepsilon, 2\delta)\)-differential privacy after \( T \) iterations.

For a given privacy budget \((2\varepsilon, 2\delta)\), the variance of Gaussian noise is proportional to the number of communications \([T/p]\) up to logarithm. Therefore, considering only the error
that comes from Gaussian noise, local iterations bring benefits to the algorithm’s accuracy. However, too many local iterations without synchronization may also cause an error. The next theorem on the convergence of Algorithm 2 reflects this trade-off.

Before going on, we provide the following assumption and definition.

**Assumption 1 (Local approximation)** For all \( i \in [m] \), assume
\[
\|M_i - M\|_2 \leq \eta \|M\|_2.
\]

The \( \eta \) measures how far the local matrices, \( M_1, \ldots, M_m \), are from \( M \). Intuitively, if \( s_i = p_in \) is sufficiently larger than \( d \), then \( \eta \) is sufficiently small.

**Definition 4 (Residual Error)** Define
\[
\rho_t := \max_{i \in [m]} \|Z_t^{(i)} D_{t+1}^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2,
\]
where if OPT is used, then \( D_{t+1}^{(i)} \) is computed via (3.2) with \( t = t + 1 \) and \( \mathcal{F} = \mathcal{O}_r \), and if OPT is not used, then \( D_{t+1}^{(i)} \) is computed via (3.2) with \( t = t + 1 \) and \( \mathcal{F} = \{I\} \).
**Algorithm 2** FedPower: Full Participation

1. **Input:** distributed dataset \( \{A_i\}_{i=1} \), target rank \( r \), iteration rank \( r \geq k \), number of iterations \( T \), synchronous set \( I_T \), the privacy budget \((\varepsilon, \delta)\), the variance of noise \( \sigma = \frac{|T/p|}{\varepsilon \min_i s_i} \sqrt{2 \log \left( \frac{1.25|T/p|}{\delta} \right)} \), and \( \sigma' = \frac{|T/p|\max_i p_i}{\varepsilon \min_i s_i} \sqrt{2 \log \left( \frac{1.25|T/p|}{\delta} \right)} \).

2. **Initialization:** \( Z_0^{(i)} = Z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \cong N(0, 1)^{d \times r} \).

3. for \( t = 1 \) to \( T \) do

   4. The \( i \)-th worker independently performs \( Y_t^{(i)} = M_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \) for all \( i \in [m] \), where \( M_i = A_i' A_i \);
   
   5. if \( t \in I_T \) then

       6. The \( i \)-th worker independently performs orthogonalization: \( Z_t^{(i)} = \text{orth}(Y_t^{(i)}) \), for all \( i \in [m] \);

   7. Each worker \( i \) sends \( Y_t^{(i)} \) to the server and the server performs perturbed aggregation: \( Y_t = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i Y_t^{(i)} + \mathcal{N}(0, \max_i \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}D_t^{(i)}\|_2^2 \delta \sigma^2)^{d \times r} \);

   8. Broadcast \( Y_t \) to the worker machines and let \( Y_t^{(i)} = Y_t \) for all \( i \in [m] \);

6. end if

7. The \( i \)-th worker independently performs orthogonalization: \( Z_t^{(i)} = \text{orth}(Y_t^{(i)}) \), for all \( i \in [m] \);

8. end for

9. **Output:** orthogonalize the approximated eigen-space:

\[
Z_T := \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i+1)} & T \in I_T \\
\sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_t^{(i)} & T \notin I_T
\end{array} \right.
\]

The residual error \( \rho_t \) measures how the local top-\( k \) eigenspace estimator varies across the \( m \) workers. Based on the definition, using OPT makes \( \rho_t \) smaller than that without using OPT. When \( t \in I_T \), \( Z_t^{(1)} = \cdots = Z_t^{(m)} \) and thus \( \rho_t = 0 \). When \( t \notin I_T \), each local update would enlarge \( \rho_t \). Hence, intuitively \( \rho_t \) depends on \( p \), i.e., the local iterations between two communications. However, later we will show that with OPT \( \rho_t \) does not depend on \( p \), while it depends on \( p \) without OPT. A residual error is inevitable in previous literature of empirical risk minimization that uses local updates to improve communication efficiency (Stich, 2018; Wang and Joshi, 2018; Yu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020b, 2019; Li and Zhang, 2021). In our case, it takes the form of \( \rho_t \).

In the next theorem, we establish the convergence of Algorithm 2.

**Theorem 5** Let Assumption 1 hold with sufficiently small \( \eta \), and assume \( p_1 = \max_{i \in [m]} p_i \). Recall \( \rho_t \) in (3.3) and recall

\[
\sigma = \frac{|T/p|}{\varepsilon \min_i s_i} \sqrt{2 \log \left( \frac{1.25|T/p|}{\delta} \right)}.
\]

Denote

\[
I_1 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{1 - (1 - p_1) \max_t \rho_t} \cdot \left( \sigma \sqrt{\sum_i p_i^2} \cdot \sqrt{r} \cdot (\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log |T/p|}) \right),
\]

and

\[
I_2 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{1 - (1 - p_1) \max_t \rho_t} \cdot \sigma_1 (\eta + (2 + \eta) \max_t \rho_t).
\]
Let \( \epsilon' \approx I_1 + I_2 \). If \( \epsilon' \lesssim \min\{\frac{1}{2}, \sqrt{\frac{\kappa - 1}{\sqrt{d}}} \} \), then after \( T = O\left(\frac{\sigma_{k+1}}{\tau k} \log\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon'}\right)\right) \) iterations and for some positive constants \( \alpha \) and \( \tau \), with probability at least \( 1 - [T/p]^{-\alpha} - \tau^{-\Omega(r+1-k)} - e^{-\Omega(d)} \), the output \( \tilde{Z}_T \) of Algorithm 2 satisfies

\[
\sin \theta_k(\tilde{Z}_T, V_k) = \| (I_d - \tilde{Z}_T \tilde{Z}_T^\top)V_k \|_2 \leq \epsilon'.
\]

From Theorem 5, we see that the convergence bound \( \epsilon' \) consists of two parts. The term \( I_1 \) is induced by the Gaussian noise that DP calls for. Whilst \( I_2 \) is induced by the parallelization and synchronization, which is inevitably incurred in the previous literature of empirical risk minimization that uses local updates to improve communication efficiency (Stich, 2018; Wang and Joshi, 2018; Yu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020b, 2019). Note that without the Gaussian noise, Algorithm 2 reduces to LocalPower introduced in the early version of this paper, and only \( I_2 \) remains in the convergence bound (Li et al., 2020c). Note that \( \epsilon' \lesssim \min\{\frac{1}{2}, \sqrt{\frac{\kappa - 1}{\sqrt{d}}} \} \) is required to make the results valid. We illustrate as follows.

For \( I_1 \), we have that \( \sigma \sqrt{\sum_i \beta_i^2} \) is of order \( \sqrt{m/n} \), provided that other parameters are fixed and each local device has the same number of rows. Hence, large \( n \) and small \( m \) would lead to small \( \epsilon' \), which is as expected. As for \( I_2 \), we will show in Theorem 6 that \( \rho_t \) is a function of \( \eta \) and would be sufficiently small provided that \( \eta \) is small enough, which in turn results in small \( I_2 \).

In principle, the bound of \( \rho_t \) depends on whether OPT is used. The next theorem shows that if OPT is used (i.e., \( \mathcal{F} = O_{\tau} \)), \( \rho_t = O(\eta) \), without dependence on \( p \). However, if OPT is not used (i.e., \( \mathcal{F} = \{I_r\} \)), then \( \rho_t = O(\sqrt{kpkp^p} \eta) \) has an exponential dependence on \( p \).

**Theorem 6** Let \( \tau(t) \in T_k^p \) be the nearest communication time before \( t \) and \( p = t - \tau(t) \). Let \( e \) be the natural constant and \( \kappa = \| M \|_2 \| M^\top \|_2 \) be the condition number of \( M \). Suppose \( \eta \leq 1/p \) and \( \eta \kappa \leq 1/3 \). Then \( \rho_t \) is a monotone increasing function of \( \eta \). Moreover, when \( \epsilon' \) in Theorem 5 is small enough, we have the following upper bound for \( \rho_t \).

- **With OPT**, \( \rho_t \) is bounded by

\[
\min \left\{ 2e^2 \kappa^p p \eta, \frac{\eta \sigma_1}{\delta_k} + 2\gamma_k^{p/4} C_t \right\} = O(\eta), \tag{3.6}
\]

where \( \gamma_k \in (0, 1), \delta_k \asymp (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \), and \( \lim \sup_t C_t = O(\eta) \).

- **Without OPT**, \( \rho_t \) is bounded by

\[
4e \sqrt{kpkp^p} \eta = O(\sqrt{kpkp^p} \eta). \tag{3.7}
\]

Theorem 6 theoretically indicates that why using OPT has such an exponential improvement on dependence on \( p \). This is mainly because of the property of OPT. Let \( O^* = \arg \min_{O \in O_d} \| U - \tilde{U}O \|_F \) for \( U, \tilde{U} \in O_{d \times r} \). Then, up to some universal constant, we have \( \| U - \tilde{U}O^* \|_2 \approx \text{dist}(U, \tilde{U}) \). See Lemma 25 in Appendix for a formal statement and detailed proof. It implies up to a tractable orthonormal transformation, the difference between the orthonormal bases of two subspaces is no larger than the projection distance between the subspaces. By the Davis-Kahan theorem (see Lemma 22), their projection distance is not larger than \( O(\eta) \) up to some problem-dependent constants. However, without OPT, we have to use perturbation theory to bound \( \rho_t \), which inevitably results in exponential dependence on \( p \) (see Lemma 15).
3.2 Federated Power Method under Partial Participation Protocol

Full participation is not realistic. The central server cannot collect all local devices’ output in real-world applications that suffer from the so-called straggler’s effect or autonomous effect. Instead, the server could collect the first $K$ ($K \leq m$) responded devices within a certain time range, where the $K$ devices are not necessarily different. Let $S_t (|S_t| = K)$ be the set of the local devices’ indices in the $t$-th ($t \in T^p_{T_t}$) iteration. Specifically, we consider the following two sampling and aggregating schemes, which have been also used in Li et al. (2020b); McMahan et al. (2017), among others.

**Scheme 1** The server generates $S_t$ by i.i.d. sampling with replacement from $\{1, \ldots, m\}$ for $K$ times. Specifically, index $i$ is selected with probability $p_i$ (i.e., the proportion of the number of samples in local $d_i$ over all the samples), and the elements in $S_t$ may occur more than once. In this scheme, the aggregation strategy (before noise addition) is designed as

$$Y_t = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_t} Y^{(i)}_t.$$ 

Such an aggregation policy could ensure that the partial participation protocol agrees with the full participation protocol in expectation. Indeed, considering only the randomness that comes from $S_t$, we observe that

$$\mathbb{E}_{S_t}(Y_t) = \frac{1}{K} \mathbb{E}_{S_t}(\sum_{k=1}^{K} Y^{(i_k)}_t) = \mathbb{E}_{S_t} Y^{(i_1)}_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Y^{(i)}_t.$$ 

**Scheme 2** The server generates $S_t$ by uniformly sampling without replacement from $\{1, \ldots, m\}$ for $K$ times. Hence each index is selected with probability $\frac{1}{m}$ for each time and selected in the final set with probability $\frac{K}{m}$, and each element in $S_t$ occurs once. In such a scheme, we aggregate according to

$$Y_t = \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_t} p_i Y^{(i)}_t.$$ 

Similar to Scheme 1, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{S_t}(Y_t) = \frac{m}{K} \mathbb{E}_{S_t}(\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_{i_k} Y^{(i_k)}_t) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Y^{(i)}_t.$$ 

The proposed FedPower under the partial participation protocol is described in Algorithm 3, where we use $\tau(t)$ to denote the latest synchronization step before iteration $t$, and we denote the sampling probability of local devices by $\{q_1, \ldots, q_m\}$ with $q_i = p_i$ under Scheme 1 and $q_i = 1/m$ under Scheme 2. Note that, when OPT is used, we can use any active device as the baseline device (recall (3.2)), not necessarily the one with the maximum sample size. Similar to the full participation protocol, two rounds of calibrated Gaussian noise are incorporated to ensure local and central privacy protection, respectively. In addition, the OPT is used when aggregation happens. The following theorem provides the formal DP guarantee for Algorithm 3.
Algorithm 3 FedPower: Partial Participation

1: **Input:** distributed dataset \( \{A_i\}_{i=1}^m \), target rank \( k \), iteration rank \( r \geq k \), number of iterations \( T \), synchronous set \( T^p \), the sampling probability of each local device \( \{q_1,\ldots,q_m\} \), the number of participated devices \( K \), the privacy budget \((\varepsilon,\delta)\), the variance of noise \( \sigma = \frac{|T/p|}{\varepsilon_{\min}^s} \sqrt{2\log\left(\frac{1.25|T/p|q_i}{\delta}\right)} \), \( \sigma' = \frac{|T/p|}{K_{\min}^s} \sqrt{2\log\left(\frac{1.25|T/p|}{\delta}\right)} \), and \( \sigma'' = \frac{|T/p|m_{\max}p_i}{K_{\min}^s} \sqrt{2\log\left(\frac{1.25|T/p|}{\delta}\right)} \).

2: **Initialization:** \( Z_0^{(i)} = Z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)^{d \times r} \).

3: for \( t = 1 \) to \( T \) do

4: The \( i \)-th worker independently performs \( Y_t^{(i)} = M_tZ_{t-1}^{(i)} \) for all \( i \in [m] \), where \( M_i = \frac{A_i^TA_i}{s_i} \);

5: if \( t \in T^p \) then

6: The server generates \( S_t \) by Scheme 1 or Scheme 2.

7: if \( i \in S_t \) then

8: The \( i \)-th worker adds Gaussian noise: \( Y_t^{(i)} = Y_t^{(i)}D_t^{(i)} + \mathcal{N}(0,\|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_2\sigma^2)^{d \times r} \) and sends \( Y_t^{(i)} \) to the server, where \( D_t^{(i)} \) is given in (3.2);

9: end if

10: The server performs partial aggregation:

\[
Y_t = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_t} Y_t^{(i)} + \mathcal{N}(0,\max_i\|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}D_t^{(i)}\|_2\sigma^2)^{d \times r} \quad \text{(Scheme 1),}
\]

\[
Y_t = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_t} p_i Y_t^{(i)} + \mathcal{N}(0,\max_i\|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}D_t^{(i)}\|_2\sigma''^{d \times r}) \quad \text{(Scheme 2)};
\]

11: Broadcast \( Y_t \) to the worker machines and let \( Y_t^{(i)} = Y_t \) for all \( i \in [m] \);

12: end if

13: The \( i \)-th worker independently performs orthogonalization: \( Z_t^{(i)} = \text{orth}(Y_t^{(i)}) \), for all \( i \in [m] \);

14: end for

15: **Output:** orthogonalize the approximated eigen-space:

\[
\text{Scheme 1 : } \mathbf{Z}_T = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(T)} Z_T^{(i)}D_{t+1}^{(i)}, & T \notin T^p \\ \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(T)} Z_T^{(i)}, & T \in T^p \end{cases},
\]

and

\[
\text{Scheme 2 : } \mathbf{Z}_T = \begin{cases} \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(T)} Z_T^{(i)}D_{t+1}^{(i)}, & T \notin T^p \\ \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(T)} Z_T^{(i)}, & T \in T^p \end{cases}.
\]

**Theorem 7** Algorithm 2 achieves \((2\varepsilon,2\delta)\)-differential privacy after \( T \) iterations.

Compared with Algorithm 2, the variance of Gaussian noise in Algorithm 3 is reduced by a factor of \( \sqrt{\log(c_{\max}q_i)} \) due to the sampling of devices. The next theorem provides the convergence bound of Algorithm 3 under Scheme 1.

**Theorem 8** Let Assumption 1 hold with sufficiently small \( \eta \). Recall

\[
\sigma = \frac{|T/p|}{\varepsilon_{\min}^s} \sqrt{2\log\left(\frac{1.25|T/p|m_{\max}p_i}{\delta}\right)},
\]

15
and \( p_t \) in (3.3), and let

\[
I_1 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{1 - \max_t \rho_t} \cdot \left( K^{-1/2} \sigma \sqrt{r} (\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log(T/p)}) \right),
\]

(3.8)

\[
I_2 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{1 - \max_t \rho_t} \cdot \sigma_1 (\eta + (2 + \eta)\max_t \rho_t),
\]

(3.9)

and

\[
I_3 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{1 - \max_t \rho_t} \cdot \sigma_1 \phi(K) (\log(d + r) + \log(T/p)),
\]

(3.10)

where

\[
\phi(K) := \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, j=1}^m p_i p_j + \sum_{i=1}^m p_i^2 + \frac{1}{K}.
\]

Define \( \epsilon'' = I_1 + I_2 + I_3 \). If \( \epsilon'' \lesssim \min \{ \frac{1}{2}, \sqrt{\frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau - 1}}{\sqrt{d}}} \} \), then after \( T = O \left( \frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_{k+1}} \log \left( \frac{d}{\epsilon''} \right) \right) \) iterations and for some positive constants \( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \) and \( \tau \), with probability larger than \( 1 - [T/p]^{-\gamma} \cdot e^{-\phi(K) / (d + r)^\beta} - [T/p]^{-\alpha} - \tau^{-\Omega(r+1-k)} - e^{-\Omega(d)} \), the output \( \bar{Z}_T \) of Algorithm 3 under Scheme 1 satisfies

\[
\sin \theta_k (\bar{Z}_T, V_k) = \| (I_d - \bar{Z}_T \bar{Z}_T^\top) V_k \|_2 \leq \epsilon''.
\]

The convergence bound of Algorithm 3 under Scheme 1 consists of the following parts. The term \( I_1 \) comes from the Gaussian noise, \( I_2 \) is incurred by the local iterates, and \( I_3 \) can be regarded as the bias that the sampling brings, where note that a larger \( K \) yields a smaller \( \phi(K) \). All three terms can be sufficiently small in the ideal setting, namely, the total sample size is large, the sample size and quality in each device is large and good, and the number of participated devices \( K \) is large. In addition, \( \rho_t \) can be upper bounded differently depending on whether OPT is used (see Theorem 6). The following theorem illustrates the convergence of Algorithm 3 under Scheme 2.

**Theorem 9** Let Assumption 1 hold with sufficiently small \( \eta \). Recall

\[
\sigma = \frac{|T/p|}{\varepsilon \min_{s_i} \sqrt{2 \log \left( \frac{1.25[T/p]m^{-1}}{\delta} \right)}},
\]

and \( \rho_t \) in (3.3), and let

\[
I_1 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{m \frac{m}{K} (\xi - \zeta \max_t \rho_t)} \cdot \max \left\{ \frac{m}{K} \xi, 1 \right\} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{m}{K} \xi} \sigma \sqrt{r} (\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log(T/p)}) ,
\]

(3.11)

\[
I_2 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{m \frac{m}{K} (\xi - \zeta \max_t \rho_t)} \cdot \max \left\{ \frac{m}{K} \xi, 1 \right\} \cdot \frac{m}{K} \xi \cdot \sigma_1 (\eta + (2 + \eta)\max_t \rho_t),
\]

(3.12)

\[
I_3 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{m \frac{m}{K} (\xi - \zeta \max_t \rho_t)} \cdot \max \left\{ \frac{m}{K} \xi, 1 \right\} \cdot \sigma_1 \psi(K) \cdot (\log(d + r) + \log(T/p)),
\]

(3.13)

and

\[
I_4 = \frac{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})^{-1}}{m \frac{m}{K} (\xi - \zeta \max_t \rho_t)} \cdot \zeta \sigma_1 \frac{m}{K} \xi - 1 ,
\]

(3.14)
where

\[ \psi(K) := \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i = 1}^{m} p_ip_j + \sum_{i = 1}^{m} \frac{m}{K} p_i^2, \]

\[ \zeta := \max_{S \subseteq [m], |S| = K} \sum_{l \in S} p_l, \quad \zeta := \min_{S \subseteq [m], |S| = K} \sum_{l \in S} p_l, \quad \text{and} \quad \zeta := \max_{S \subseteq [m], |S| = K} \sum_{l \in S} p_l^2. \]

Define \( \epsilon'''' \ll I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 \). If \( \epsilon'''' \ll \min\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{r-\sqrt{k-1}}}{\sqrt{d}}\} \), then after \( T = O(\frac{\sigma_k^2 \log(d)}{\epsilon''''}) \) iterations and for some positive constants \( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \) and \( \tau \), with probability larger than 1 - \( [T/p]^{-\gamma} \cdot e^{-\psi(K)/(\sigma_k^{3/2} + 1)}/(d + r)^\beta - [T/p]^{-\alpha} - \tau - \Omega(r+1-k) - e^{-\Omega(d)} \), the output \( \overline{Z}_T \) of Algorithm 3 under Scheme 2 satisfies

\[ \sin\theta_k(\overline{Z}_T, V_k) = \| (\mathbb{I}_d - \overline{Z}_T \overline{Z}_T^T) V_k \|_2 \leq \epsilon''''. \]

The convergence bound in Theorem 9 shows a similar though slightly different pattern as that in Theorem 8. The term \( I_1 \) is induced by the Gaussian noise, \( I_2 \) comes from the local iterations in which \( \rho_l \) can be upper bounded as in Theorem 6, and \( I_3 \) represents the bias that the sampling of \( K \) devices rather than \( m \) devices brings, where note that a larger \( K \) yields a smaller \( \psi(K) \) and thus a smaller \( I_3 \). Also note that there is a common multiplicative factor \( \max\{\frac{m}{K^2}, 1\} \) in all \( I_1, I_2, \) and \( I_3 \). By recalling the definition of \( \zeta \), this multiplicative term attains its minimum at 1 and this happens whenever the samples across all devices are in the same size. This is the sampling strategy that each device is selected with the same probability calls for. In addition, there is an additive term \( I_4 \) reflecting the heterogeneity of the sample sizes. A large \( I_4 \) means that the sample sizes across devices are more heterogeneous than those with a small \( I_4 \).

### 3.3 Discussion

**Bound for \( \eta \)**. Assumption 1 is commonly used to guarantee matrix approximation problems. It tries to make sure that each local data set \( M_i \) is a typical representative of the whole data matrix \( M \). Prior work (Gittens and Mahoney, 2016; Woodruff, 2014; Wang et al., 2016) showed that uniform sampling and the partition size in Lemma 24 in Appendix suffice for that \( M_i \) well approximates \( M \). The proof is based on the matrix Bernstein (Tropp, 2015). Therefore, under uniform sampling, the smallness of \( \eta \) means sufficiently large local dataset size (or equivalently a small number of worker nodes).

**Effect of \( p \)**. Theorems 5, 8 and 9 indicate that for a given final tolerance \( \epsilon \), the number of required communications is \( [T/p] \) with \( T = O(\frac{\sigma_k}{\epsilon'''' \log(d)}) \) being the number of iterations. Thus more local iterations (large \( p \)) bring more communication efficiency. In light of this, it is reasonable to think that under the same level of communication strength during the iteration process, larger \( p \) will result in larger \( T \) that could lead to smaller subspace distance. Moreover, note that for a given total privacy budget \( \epsilon \), the privacy leakage of one round of communication is \( \epsilon/[T/p] \), which monotonously increases with \( p \). Hence it is not hard to imagine that if we redefine the level of noise such that each communication round leaks the same level of privacy for different \( p \)'s (i.e., reduce the noise level for large \( p \)), then under the same privacy leakage (a.k.a., communication strength) during the iteration process, larger \( p \) could lead to smaller subspace distance. We verify this intuition empirically in Section 5.
The above benefits of large \( p \) is not without price. Recall that in Theorem 6, we show that the residual error \( \rho_t \) (with OPT) is bounded by \( \min \{ a_1, a_2 \} \) with \( a_1 = 2e^{2\kappa_\delta p\eta} \) and \( a_2 = \frac{\nu e_1}{\delta k} + 2\gamma_k^{p/4} C_t \), where \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \) and \( \limsup_t C_t = O(\eta) \). For moderate \( p \), \( a_1 \) is smaller than \( a_2 \), and thus larger \( p \) would lead to larger final error, though we proved that the residual error does not depend on \( p \) provided that the final error \( \epsilon', \epsilon'', \epsilon''' \) is small enough.

Overall, larger \( p \) would generally lead to the fast decay of error at the beginning but a larger error eventually.

Decay \( p \) gradually. We observe that when we use \( I^p_T \) with \( p = 1 \), no local power iterations are involved and interestingly we do not require the good-approximation Assumption 1. Therefore, we are inspired to reduce \( p \) by one gradually until \( p = 1 \). In particular, we set

\[
I^p_{T, \text{decay}} = \left\{ t \in [T] : t = \sum_{i=0}^{l} \max(p - i, 1), \ l \geq 0 \right\}. \tag{3.15}
\]

The choice of \( I^p_{T, \text{decay}} \) implies that we decrease \( p \) until it reaches 1.

Reduce the computation of OPT with sign-fixing. From our theory, it is important to use OPT. It weakens the assumption on the smallness of a residual error which is incurred by local computation. From our experiments, it stabilizes vanilla \textit{FedPower} and achieves much smaller errors. While OPT makes \textit{FedPower} more stable in practice, OPT incurs more local computation. Specifically, it has time complexity \( O(d r^2) \) via calling the SVD of \((Z_{t-1}^i)^\top Z_{t-1}^1\). To attain both efficiency and stability, we propose to replace the \( r \times r \) matrix \( D_t^i \) in (3.2) by

\[
D_t^i = \arg\min_{D \in \mathcal{D}_r} \| Z_{t-1}^i D - Z_{t-1}^1 \|_F^2, \tag{3.16}
\]

where \( \mathcal{D}_r \) denotes all the \( r \times r \) diagonal matrices with \( \pm 1 \) diagonal entries. \( D_t^i \) can be computed in \( O(rd) \) time by

\[
D_t^i[j,j] = \text{sgn} \left( \langle Z_{t-1}^i[:,j], Z_{t-1}^1[:,j] \rangle \right), \quad \text{for all } j \in [r].
\]

We empirically observe that sign-fixing serves as a good practical surrogate of OPT; it maintains good stability and achieves comparably small errors.

Dependence on \( \sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1} \). Our result depends on \( \sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1} \) even when \( r > k \) where \( r \) is the number of columns used in subspace iteration. If we borrow the tool of Balcan et al. (2016a) rather than that of Hardt and Price (2014), we can improve the result to a slightly milder dependency on \( \sigma_k - \sigma_{q+1} \), where \( q \) is any intermediate integer between \( k \) and \( r \).

Further extensions. First, the level of granularity at which privacy is being promised should be ascertained when adopting the framework of DP. In this paper, we protect privacy at the level of elements of \( M \). Suppose \( M \) is the original data matrix, say a social network, then its elements refer to binary edges containing social contacts. In many situations, this is sufficient because large groups of social contacts might not contain any sensitive information, say where a person lives and works are considered public information (Dwork et al., 2014a). Yet, our setting could certainly be extended to other settings, for example, \( A \) and \( A' \) differ in one row and each row has at most unit Euclidean norm.
Second, though we used the notion of $(\varepsilon,\delta)$-DP, the proposed FedPower could be extended to incorporate other DP notions, say the Rényi-DP (Mironov, 2017), Gaussian-DP (Dong et al., 2019), among others. Besides, more advanced composition theorem could be also incorporated; see Dwork et al. (2010) for example.

Finally, our proposed FedPower is simple, effective, and well-grounded. While we analyze it in only the centralized setting, FedPower can be extended to broader settings, such as decentralized setting (Gang et al., 2019) and streaming setting (Raja and Bajwa, 2020). To further reduce the communication complexity, we can combine FedPower with sketching techniques (Boutsidis et al., 2016; Balcan et al., 2016b). For example, we could sketch each $Y_t^{(i)}$ and communicate the compressed iterates to a central server in each iteration. We leave the extensions to our future work.

4. Related Work and Contributions

Partial SVD or principal component analysis (PCA) is one of the most important and popular techniques in modern statistics and machine learning. A multitude of researches focus on iterative algorithms such as power iterations or its variants (Golub and Van Loan, 2012; Saad, 2011). These deterministic algorithms inevitably depend on the spectral gap, which can be quite large in large-scale problems. Another branch of algorithm seek alternatives in stochastic and incremental algorithms (Oja and Karhunen, 1985; Arora et al., 2013; Shamir, 2015, 2016; De Sa et al., 2018). Some work could achieve eigengap-free convergence rate and low-iteration-complexity (Musco and Musco, 2015; Shamir, 2016; Allen-Zhu and Li, 2016). Other work seeks to accelerate the SVD via randomization (Halko et al., 2011; Witten and Candès, 2015; Zhang et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2020).

Large-scale problems and large decentralized datasets necessitate cooperation among multiple worker nodes to overcome the obstacles of data storage and heavy computation. For a review of distributed algorithms for PCA, one could refer to (Wu et al., 2018). One feasible approach is divide-and-conquer algorithms which have only one round of communication (Garber et al., 2017; Fan et al., 2019b; Bhaskara and Wijewardena, 2019). Whereas such algorithms often require large local datasets to reach a certain accuracy. Another line of results for distributed eigenspace estimation uses iterative algorithms that perform multiple communication rounds. They require a much smaller sample size and can often achieve arbitrary accuracy. Some works make use of the shift-and-invert framework (S&I) for PCA, which turns the problem of computing the leading eigenvector to that of approximately solving a small system of linear equations (Garber and Hazan, 2015; Garber et al., 2016; Allen-Zhu and Li, 2016; Garber et al., 2017; Gang et al., 2019). However, these works did not consider the potential privacy breaches during communications, and neither the straggler’s effect in a realistic setting.

To alleviate the privacy disclosure concern, a few differentially private single-machine algorithms for PCA or SVD have been proposed. Chaudhuri et al. (2012) invoked an exponential mechanism to compute DP principle components and showed its near-optimality for $k = 1$. Dwork et al. (2014b) analyzed several aspects of the theoretical soundness of the naive method that adds Gaussian noise to the sample covariance matrix. Hardt and Roth (2013); Hardt and Price (2014) studied the power-iteration-based methods to obtain DP singular vectors, and showed their theoretical merits especially when the underlying
matrix is well-structured (like low coherence). For the distributed setting, Ge et al. (2018) proposed the privacy-preserving distributed sparse PCA. Yet, they did not consider the low communication and straggler’s effect that the modern FL meets. In addition, the sparsity assumption is required used while our FedPower is model-free. Very recently, Grammenos et al. (2020) proposed a federated, asynchronous, and DP algorithm for PCA. Methodologically, the algorithm is not power-iteration-based. Instead, their algorithm incrementally computes local model updates using streaming procedure and adaptively estimates its leading principal components. In particular, they assume the clients are arranged in a tree-like structure, while we did not make such an assumption. Theoretically, the bounds therein hold in the sense of expectation, while we provide the non-asymptotic bound for the spectral deviation of the estimated singular vectors from true ones.

Note that the technique of local updates emerges as a simple but powerful tool in distributed empirical risk minimization (McMahan et al., 2017; Zhou and Cong, 2017; Stich, 2018; Wang and Joshi, 2018; Yu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020b, 2019; Khaled et al., 2019). However, our analysis is totally different from the local SGD algorithms (Zhou and Cong, 2017; Stich, 2018; Wang and Joshi, 2018; Yu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020b, 2019; Khaled et al., 2019). A main challenge in analyzing FedPower is that the local SGD algorithms for empirical risk minimization often involve an explicit form of (stochastic) gradients. For SVD or PCA, the gradient cannot be explicitly expressed, so the existing techniques cannot be applied.

Overall, the main contributions of this work can be summarized as follows. First, we introduce two adversary models to indicate how privacy is leaked in the naive distributed power method. The potential privacy leakage of many algorithms is known to all but to the best of our knowledge, few literatures give explicit illustrations. Second, we develop a set of algorithms called FedPower, which could handle the communication (including disconnection), privacy, computation concern in the modern FL framework simultaneously. Whereas most existing work on SVD only considers handling one or two of the three aspects from different perspectives. Last but not least, we provide a framework to analyze the convergence bound of FedPower. We make a delicate analysis of the error (influenced by local iterates, DP’s perturbation, and random straggling of devices) by utilizing the tools designed for single-machine noisy power method (Hardt and Price, 2014) and the tools from random matrix theory (Tropp, 2015), providing convenience for further analysis of distributed and federated power method-based computation of SVD.

5. Experiments

In this section, we numerically evaluate the efficacy of the proposed algorithms. Recall that we add Gaussian noise in each round of communication to meet the DP’s requirement. We denote this algorithm by FedPower with noise. For comparison, we also consider a variation of FedPower called FedPower without noise, where DP can not be achieved yet the privacy could also be protected to some extent by the rationality of FL. For these two types of algorithms, we evaluate the effect of number of local iterations $p$, the effect of the number of devices $m$, the effect of the number of participated devices $K$, and the effect of the decaying $p$ strategy. Unless specified, for the sake of efficiency, we use the sign-fixing strategy (see Eq.(3.16)) when aggregating. The used datasets are available on the LIBSVM
Table 1: A summary of used data sets from the LIBSVM website.

| Datasets   | n   | d  | Datasets   | n   | d  |
|------------|-----|----|------------|-----|----|
| Acoustic   | 78823 | 50 | Aloi       | 108000 | 128 |
| A9a        | 32561 | 123| Combined   | 78823 | 100 |
| Connect-4  | 67557 | 126| Covtype    | 581012 | 54  |
| Housing    | 506  | 13 | Ijcn1      | 49990 | 22  |
| MNIST      | 60000 | 780| W8a        | 49749 | 300 |

website² and are summarized in Table 1. Specifically, we use the first three typical datasets (i.e., MINIST, A9a and Acoustic) to illustrate our theoretical findings in Section 3 with corresponding results shown in Subsection 5.1 and 5.2. And other datasets in Table 1 will be applied in additional experiments in Subsection 5.3. The $n$ samples are partitioned among $m$ nodes such that each node having $s = \frac{n}{m}$ samples. The features are scaled so that they are in the region $[-1, 1]$. We fix the target rank $k = 5$.

Our experimental design is motivated by the theoretical results; see the discussion on the effect of $p$ in Subsection 3.3. More precisely, the theories indicate that under the same level of communication strength (in the noiseless setting) and the same level of privacy leakage (in the noise setting), more local iterations (larger $p$) would lead to better accuracy. We empirically verify this theoretical implication in the following more realistic experiments.

5.1 FedPower without Noise

In this regime, the merits of the FedPower lie in communication efficiency. Hence, we evaluate the subspace distance (see Definition 3) between the estimated and the true singular vectors against the number of communications.

Effect of number of local iterations $p$. Figure 3 shows the curves of projection distance v.s. communications under different settings of $p$. The FedPower is more communication efficient than the baseline ($p = 1$) in the first 10 rounds of communications. We observe that large $p$ leads to fast convergence in the beginning but a nonvanishing error at the end. Using $p \geq 2$, the error does not converge to zero. This is because that the bias that the local iterations bring is non-negligible under the finite sample setting. In machine learning tasks such as principal component analysis and latent semantic analysis, high-precision solutions are unnecessary (Deerwester et al., 1990). In such tasks, FedPower can solve large-scale truncated SVD using a small number of communications.

Effect of the number of local devices $m$. Figure 4 shows the performance of FedPower of under different settings of $m$. It indicates that smaller $m$ could lead to better convergence. It is because when $m$ is small, each device owns more samples, which implies $M_i (i = 1, ..., m)$ approximates the global $M$ better than that in the big $m$ setting.

Effect of the number of participated devices $K$. Aforementioned experiments considered the full participation protocol. In the partial participation protocol, there is another

² https://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvmtools/datasets/
important parameter $K$ which measures the number of participating devices in each round of communication. The effect of $K$ on the FedPower’s performance is displayed in Figure 5. As expected, large $K$ is good for the algorithm. In particular, the sampling and aggregation Scheme 2 leads to better empirical results than Scheme 1 does.

**Effect of the decaying $p$ strategy.** We observe in Figure 3 that larger $p$ fastens convergence but enlarges the final error. By contrast, $p = 1$ has the lowest error floor but also the lowest convergence rate. Similar phenomena have been previously observed in distributed empirical risk minimization (Wang and Joshi, 2019; Li et al., 2019). To allow for both fast convergence in the beginning and vanishing error at the end, we propose to decay $p$ with iterations according to (3.15). The results are shown in Figure 6. For these three datasets, the shrinkage of $p$ turns out to be useful. Whereas we empirically observe that when the error floor is low, early decaying of $p$ may slow down the convergence.

![Figure 3: Effect of the number of local iterations $p$ under the noiseless regime and the full participation protocol.](image)

(a) MNIST  
(b) A9a  
(c) Acoustic

Figure 3: Effect of the number of local iterations $p$ under the noiseless regime and the full participation protocol. The number of local devices $m$ for MNIST, A9a, and Acoustic is fixed at 200, 20, and 100, respectively.

**5.2 FedPower with Noise**

In this regime, the FedPower satisfies the $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP’s requirement, where $(\varepsilon, \delta)$ measures the privacy leakage. So, we evaluate the accuracy of algorithms against the accumulative privacy leakage. Specifically, for each round of communication, we add the same amount of noise for the FedPower under different parameter settings. In particular, the privacy budget is divided equally among the two times of noise adding within each communication. Note that under such a setting, the same number of communications indicate the same amount of privacy leakage.

**Effect of number of local iterations $p$.** Figure 7 displays the curves of projection distance v.s. accumulative privacy leakage (aka. communications) under different settings of $p$. Under the same level of privacy leakage, more local iterations yield better accuracy than the baseline ($p = 1$). These empirical results coincides with the theoretical findings; see Subsection 3.3 (effect of $p$) for details. Slightly different from the noiseless setting, large
Figure 4: Effect of the number of local devices $m$ under the the noiseless regime and the full participation protocol. The local iterations $p$ is fixed at 4.

Figure 5: Effect of the number of participated devices $K$ in each round of communication under the noiseless regime and the partial participation protocol. The local iterations $p$ is fixed at 4. The number of local devices $m$ for MNIST, A9a, and Acoustic is fixed at 200, 20, and 100, respectively.

$p$ leads to fast improvement of accuracy in the beginning but both large $p$ and small $p$ can not lead to a non-vanishing error eventually. For $p = 1$, this is because more global iterations produce more privacy breaches, and thus more noise must be added. The benefit of more global iterations would be counteracted by the additional noise. While for $p \geq 2$, not only the Gaussian noise but also the local iterations would lead to the final bias of the algorithm.

Effect of the number of local devices $m$. Similar to the noiseless setting, Figure 8 illustrates that smaller $m$ could generally lead to the better accuracy of FedPower under the same level of privacy leakage. The reason is that local data with a larger sample size could approximate the global data better.
Figure 6: Effect of the decaying $p$ strategy under the *noiseless* regime and the full participation protocol. The number of local devices $m$ for MNIST, A9a, and Acoustic is fixed at 200, 20, and 100, respectively.

**Effect of the number of participated devices $K$.** Turning to the partial participation protocol, the parameter $K$ measuring the number of participated devices in each round of communication is meaningful. Figure 9 shows the effect of $K$ on the **FedPower**’s performance. As we can see, large $K$ could lead to slightly better results than small $K$ does. But the overall influence of $K$ on the algorithm’s accuracy is not tremendous, which confirms the effectiveness of **FedPower** in real applications with large numbers of stragglers.

**Effect of the decaying $p$ strategy.** Recall that in the noiseless setting, we observed that decaying $p$ may turn out to be beneficial if the lowest error floor is high. To test this decaying $p$ strategy in the noisy setting, we plot the curves of projection distance v.s. accumulative privacy leakage under the decaying and non-decaying $p$ settings, shown in Figure 10. It turns out that except for the MNIST dataset, decaying $p$ does not work on the other two datasets. The reason might be that when $p$ decays, the frequency of communication increases, and hence more noise are added to protect the privacy breaches. As a result, the benefits that the decaying $p$ strategy brings may be absorbed by the noise. This is DP algorithm’s tradeoff between accuracy and privacy.

### 5.3 Additional Experiments

We conduct two sets of additional experiments to demonstrate the effectiveness of **FedPower**. First, in the noiseless setting, we compare **FedPower** with three one-shot baseline methods. Second, in the noise setting, we study how privacy budgets affect the performance of **FedPower** and discuss when large privacy budgets are permissive.

**Comparison with other methods.** We evaluate three variants of **FedPower**: the vanilla version, with OPT, and with sign-fixing. We compare our algorithms with one-shot algorithms, unweighted distributed averaging (UDA) (Fan et al., 2019b), weighted distributed averaging (WDA) (Bhaskara and Wijewardena, 2019) 2019), and distributed randomized SVD (DR-SVD); the details of the algorithms are described in Appendix F. We study
Figure 7: Effect of the number of local iterations $p$ under the noisy regime and the full participation protocol. The number of local devices $m$ for MNIST, A9a, and Acoustic is fixed at 200, 20, and 100, respectively.

Figure 8: Effect of the number of local devices $m$ under the noisy regime and the full participation protocol. The local iterations $p$ is fixed at 4.

the precision when the algorithms converge. For three variants of FedPower we fix $p = 4$ (without decaying $p$). We run each algorithm 10 times and report the mean and standard deviation (std) of the final errors. Table 2 shows the results on ten datasets. The results indicate that one-shot methods do not find high-precision solutions unless the local data size is sufficiently large compared with the FedPower.

Effect of privacy budgets. Note that there are two rounds of Gaussian noise addition (line 6 and line 7 in Algorithm 2) in each communication (a.k.a. once aggregating and broadcasting) of the FedPower. It is shown that the noise scale in Algorithm 2 can ensure the $(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{2(T/p)}, \frac{\delta}{2(T/p)})$-DP for every implement of line 6 and line 7, respectively. In this experiment, we redivide the variance of Gaussian noise such that in each communication, line 6 and line 7 of Algorithm 2 meets the requirements of $(\varepsilon_1, \delta)$-DP and $(\varepsilon_2, \delta)$-DP, respectively. $\varepsilon_1$ and
Figure 9: Effect of the number of participated devices $K$ in each round of communication under the noisy regime and the partial participation protocol. The local iterations $p$ is fixed at 4. The number of local devices $m$ for MNIST, A9a, and Acoustic is fixed at 200, 20, and 100, respectively.

Figure 10: Effect of the decaying $p$ strategy under the noisy regime and the full participation protocol. The number of local devices $m$ for MNIST, A9a, and Acoustic is fixed at 200, 20, and 100, respectively.

$\varepsilon_2$ correspond to the local protection (though not exactly the local DP (Duchi et al., 2018)) and global protection of privacy. It was common sense that the total privacy budget of an algorithm should not be larger than 1, in which case the privacy protection seems meaningless (Wasserman and Zhou, 2010; Bhowmick et al., 2018). However, this requirement might lead to low utility of the algorithm. Very recently, Bhowmick et al. (2018) reconceptualize the protections of local DP (Duchi et al., 2018), rather than providing protection against arbitrary inferences, algorithms that only protects against accurate reconstruction of (functions of) an individual’s data can allow a larger privacy budget ($\varepsilon \gg 1$). Based on these findings, in this experiment, we allow $\varepsilon_1$ to be large and $\varepsilon_2$ is fixed to be a small number 0.1
Table 2: Error comparison among three one-shot baseline algorithms and our FedPower. We uniformly distribute $n$ samples into $m = \max\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{1000} \right\rceil, 3\right)$ devices so that each device has about 1000 samples. We show the mean errors of ten repeated experiments with its standard deviation enclosed in parentheses. Here we use $p = 4$ for all variants of FedPower and sufficiently large $T$’s which guarantee FedPower converges.

| Datasets | OPT | Sign-fixing | Vanilla | DR-SVD | UDA | WDA |
|----------|-----|-------------|---------|--------|-----|-----|
| Acoustic | 1.83e-03 (4.10e-04) | 2.83e-03 (3.50e-04) | 2.58e-03 (8.50e-04) | 1.54e-02 (6.59e-03) | 7.6e-03 (2.6e-03) | 6.6e-03 (2.4e-03) |
| A loi | 3.07e-02 (1.10e-02) | 6.57e-02 (1.06e-02) | 5.24e-02 (1.10e-02) | 1.92e-03 (4.30e-04) | 4.80e-02 (1.10e-02) | 4.37e-02 (1.73e-03) |
| A9a | 4.09e-03 (4.20e-04) | 5.82e-03 (1.41e-03) | 8.13e-02 (3.44e-02) | 4.63e-02 (9.24e-03) | 2.64e-02 (1.58e-02) | 2.40e-02 (1.50e-02) |
| Combined | 6.01e-03 (1.59e-03) | 5.57e-03 (1.05e-03) | 2.47e-02 (1.40e-02) | 5.19e-02 (6.23e-03) | 4.63e-02 (2.97e-02) | 4.16e-02 (2.76e-02) |
| Connect-4 | 1.27e-02 (4.52e-03) | 1.81e-02 (4.78e-03) | 1.70e-02 (4.35e-03) | 1.61e-02 (2.96e-03) | 1.65e-01 (3.48e-02) | 1.56e-01 (2.36e-02) |
| C o vtype | 7.38e-03 (8.50e-04) | 6.23e-03 (3.30e-04) | 1.28e-02 (1.88e-03) | 1.82e-01 (8.73e-03) | 6.09e-02 (9.70e-03) | 5.60e-02 (9.41e-03) |
| Housing | 1.18e-02 (5.45e-03) | 2.76e-02 (1.14e-02) | 3.84e-02 (5.11e-02) | 5.66e-01 (2.62e-01) | 9.16e-02 (5.09e-02) | 5.98e-02 (2.12e-02) |
| Ijcnn1 | 1.53e-01 (1.87e-01) | 1.95e-01 (2.45e-01) | 3.33e-01 (2.24e-01) | 1.21e-00 (1.70e-01) | 3.85e-01 (7.62e-02) | 3.67e-01 (7.59e-02) |
| MNIST | 2.62e-03 (1.40e-04) | 4.85e-03 (6.00e-04) | 5.88e-03 (7.90e-04) | 5.00e-05 (0.000e+00) | 1.08e-02 (3.00e-03) | 8.91e-03 (2.53e-03) |
| W8a | 1.90e-02 (2.46e-03) | 1.75e-02 (1.76e-03) | 1.68e-02 (1.20e-03) | 7.13e-02 (2.06e-02) | 1.52e-01 (4.37e-02) | 1.51e-01 (4.11e-02) |

Table 3: Error comparison of FedPower with different privacy budget. We use the decaying $p$ strategy with $p = 4$. Other parameters are fixed at $m = 100, k = 5, r = 10, \varepsilon_2 = 0.1$. The projection distance is the minimum distance between the estimated and the true singular vectors over the first 40 global iterations, and the averaged results over 20 replications are recorded with standard deviations shown in the parentheses.

| Datasets | $\varepsilon_1 = \infty$ | $\varepsilon_1 = 100$ | $\varepsilon_1 = 10$ | $\varepsilon_1 = 1$ | $\varepsilon_1 = 0.1$ |
|----------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Acoustic | 1.08e-14 (1.78e-17) | 0.0341 (0.0018) | 0.0337 (0.0013) | 0.0467 (0.0024) | 0.3024 (0.0125) |
| A loi | 2.83e-13 (1.50e-14) | 0.0066 (0.0001) | 0.0066 (0.0002) | 0.0009 (0.0003) | 0.0658 (0.0011) |
| A9a | 8.25e-12 (4.97e-12) | 0.0189 (0.0014) | 0.0187 (0.0017) | 0.0247 (0.0027) | 0.1535 (0.0132) |
| Combined | 2.50e-14 (6.96e-17) | 0.0353 (0.0029) | 0.0349 (0.0028) | 0.0486 (0.0044) | 0.3179 (0.0208) |
| Connect-4 | 1.22e-11 (1.15e-11) | 0.0038 (0.0002) | 0.0037 (0.0002) | 0.005 (0.0003) | 0.0350 (0.0021) |
| C o vtype | 2.07e-9 (1.82e-9) | 0.0023 (0.0001) | 0.0023 (0.0002) | 0.0032 (0.0002) | 0.0230 (0.0016) |
| Housing | 5.48e-16 (5.30e-17) | 0.5210 (0.0495) | 0.5030 (0.0678) | 0.5027 (0.0528) | 0.5444 (0.0612) |
| Ijcnn1 | 7.15e-11 (6.38e-13) | 0.0181 (0.0017) | 0.0182 (0.0023) | 0.0243 (0.0026) | 0.1519 (0.0101) |
| MNIST | 7.31e-15 (6.92e-15) | 8.58e-4 (1e-5) | 8.53e-4 (1e-5) | 1.20e-3 (1e-5) | 0.0086 (0.0002) |
| W8a | 6.16e-6 (7.96e-6) | 0.0376 (0.0026) | 0.0378 (0.0034) | 0.0511 (0.0043) | 0.3046 (0.0200) |

to keep the rationality of DP. When $\varepsilon_1$ is small, the second round of Gaussian noise that corresponds to $\varepsilon_2$ is not needed.

Table 3 shows the minimum projection distance between the estimated and the true singular vectors over 40 iterations under different $\varepsilon_1$’s and the decaying $p$ strategy ($p = 4$). As expected, enlarge $\varepsilon_1$ could make the algorithm useful. And our above analysis supports this treatment to a certain extent.
6. Conclusion

We have developed a communication efficient, privacy-preserving, stragglers acceptable algorithm that we call FedPower for solving the partial SVD problem in the modern federated machine learning regime. Every worker device performs multiple (say $p$) local power iterations between two consecutive iterations. The full device or partial device aggregation is performed after every $p$ iterates. The Gaussian noise could be added to the iterates in the communication round to prevent possible privacy leakage. We theoretically proved the convergence bound of FedPower and discussed the effect of local iterations $p$. Empirically, we showed that the local iterations ($p \geq 2$) of FedPower yield more accurate singular vector solutions than the baseline ($p = 1$) method does under the same communication rounds and the same amount of accumulated privacy leakage.

Methodologically, our algorithms provide a flexible and general framework for the computation of partial SVD in the modern machine learning setting. In the theoretical part, our analysis gives a new application of noisy power method (Hardt and Price, 2014) by combining the perturbed iterate analysis. Finally, the proposed algorithms can be applied to a wide range of statistical and machine learning tasks, including matrix completion, clustering, and ranking, among others.

Appendix

Subsection A and B includes the proofs (also the proof sketch if necessary) corresponding to the full and partial participation protocols, respectively. Subsection C contains the technical lemmas. Subsection D presents auxiliary lemmas used in the proofs. Subsection E introduces the formal definitions and lemmas on metrics between two subspaces. Subsection F provides the algorithms that we compared in the experiments.

A. Full participation

PROOF OF THEOREM 4

Note that when $t \in I_p$, each worker $i$ adds Gaussian noise as follows,

$$Y_t^{(i)} = \frac{A_i^T A_i}{s_i} Z_{t-1}^{(i)} + \mathcal{N}(0, \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}^2 \sigma^2)^{d \times r}, \quad (A.1)$$

where

$$\sigma = \frac{|T/p|}{\varepsilon \min_i s_i} \sqrt{2\log\left(\frac{1.25|T/p|}{\delta}\right)}. \quad (A.2)$$

Consider the $l$-th ($1 \leq l \leq r$) column of $Z_{t-1}^{(i)}$, denoted by $[Z_{t-1}^{(i)}]_l$, then the $L_2$-sensitivity of \( \frac{A_i^T A_i}{s_i} [Z_{t-1}^{(i)}]_l \) is

$$\|\frac{A_i^T A_i}{s_i} [Z_{t-1}^{(i)}]_l - \frac{A_i^T A_i}{s_i} [Z_{t-1}^{(i)}]_l\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{s_i} \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}.$$ 

Stacking $r$ such vectors together to obtain a $d \times r$-dimentional vector and noting the choice of $\sigma$, we know equation (A.1) can obtain $(\frac{\varepsilon}{|T/p|}, \frac{\delta}{|T/p|})$-differentially private $Y_t^{(i)}$ for each fixed $i$ and $t$, and thus also obtain $(\frac{\varepsilon}{|T/p|}, \frac{\delta}{|T/p|})$-central differential privacy for each $t \in I_p$. 

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On the other hand, when \( t \in \mathcal{I}_T \), the server also adds the Gaussian noise after aggregation as follows,
\[
Y_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Y^{(i)}_t D^{(i)}_t + \mathcal{N}(0, \max_{i} \|Z^{(i)}_{t-1} \|_{2}^{2} \sigma'^2 d) \times \epsilon,
\]
where
\[
\sigma' = \frac{|T/p| \max_{i} p_i}{\epsilon \min_{i} s_i} \sqrt{2 \log \left( \frac{1.25 |T/p|}{\delta} \right)}.
\]
It is easy to see that the \( L_2 \)-sensitivity of \( \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Y^{(i)}_t D^{(i)}_t \) is bounded by \( \max_{i} \|Z^{(i)}_{t-1} \|_{2} \sigma' \max_{i} p_i \epsilon \min_{i} s_i \).

Hence by the choice of \( \sigma' \) and the rationality of the Gaussian mechanism, we know that such noise adding procedure obtains \((\epsilon |T/p|, \delta |T/p|)\)-central differential privacy for each \( t \in \mathcal{I}_T \).

Consequently, considering that \( |T/p| \) iterations are required for communication, we finally observe that Algorithm 2 attains \((2\epsilon, 2\delta)\)-differential privacy via Proposition 3.

\[\blacksquare\]

**Proof of Theorem 5**

*Proof sketch of Theorem 5:* First, we define a virtual sequence
\[
Z_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z^{(i)}_t O^{(i)}_t.
\]
Here \( O^{(i)}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r} \) is defined as
\[
O^{(i)}_t = \begin{cases} 
I_r & \text{if } t \in \mathcal{I}_T \\
D^{(i)}_{t+1} & \text{if } t \notin \mathcal{I}_T.
\end{cases}
\]
Then, we will write \( Z_t \) in the following recursive manner,
\[
Z_t = [M Z_{t-1} + G_t] R^{-1}_t,
\]
where \( R_t \) is a reversible matrix to be defined, and \( G_t \) is some noisy perturbation coming from DP’s noise and local iterates. To analyze the convergence of *FedPower*, we aim to use the analytical framework of noisy power iterates in Hardt and Price (2014). However, their results require \( Z_t \) to have orthonormal columns, which is not met in our setting. As a remedy, we obtain the following results, which is a modification of Corollary 1.1 (see Lemma 18) in Hardt and Price (2014).

**Lemma 10 (Informal version of Lemma 12)** Let \( Z_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_{d \times r}) \). Assume \( Z_t \) iterates as follows,
\[
Z_t \leftarrow \frac{1}{n} A^T A Z_{t-1} + G_t.
\]
If \( G_t \) satisfies
\[
5\|G_t\|_2 \leq \epsilon (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \min_{t} \|Z_t\|_m \quad \text{and} \quad 5\|V_k^T G_t\|_2 \leq (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) m \|Z_t\|_m \frac{\sqrt{r} - \sqrt{k-1}}{\tau \sqrt{d}},
\]

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for some fixed \( \tau \) and \( \epsilon < 1/2 \). Then with high probability, there exists an \( T = O\left(\frac{a_k}{\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}} \log(d/\epsilon)\right) \) so that after \( T \) steps

\[
\|(I - Z_T Z_T^\top) V_k\|_2 \leq \epsilon.
\]

The result also holds for the following iterates with any reversible matrix \( R_t \),

\[
Z_t \leftarrow \frac{1}{n} A^\top A Z_{t-1} + G_t R_t^{-1}.
\]

In light of this result, the convergence of Algorithm 2 could be established if we could bound the perturbation error induced from un-synchronization and differential privacy. ■

**Proof** We provide a proof in three steps.

**First step: Perturbed iterate analysis.** Recall that we defined a virtual sequence by

\[
Z_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)},
\]

where \( O_t^{(i)} \) is \( \mathbb{I} \) if \( t \in T_T^p \) and is \( D_t^{(i)} \) defined by

\[
D_t^{(i)} = \arg\min_{D \in \mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{O}} \|Z_t^{(i)} D - Z_t^{(1)}\|_o,
\]

if \( t \notin T_T^p \). For any \( t \), we write \( Y_t^{(i)} = Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)} \) which is used repeatedly in the following proofs. Now we discuss the iteration of \( Z_t \) under \( t \notin T_T^p \) and \( t \in T_T^p \), respectively.

When \( t \notin T_T^p \), we note that \( Y_t^{(i)} = M_t Z_t^{(i)} \). Then, given any invertible \( R_t \) (to be specified in Lemma 13), we have

\[
\bar{Z}_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} R_{t-1}^{-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_t^{(i)} [O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}] R_{t-1}^{-1}
\]

\[
= (\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i M Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} + H_t + W_t) R_{t-1}^{-1}
\]

\[
= (M \bar{Z}_{t-1} + H_t + W_t) R_{t-1}^{-1}, \tag{A.3}
\]

where

\[
H_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i H_t^{(i)} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i (M_t - M) Z_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}, \tag{A.4}
\]

\[
W_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i W_t^{(i)} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_t^{(i)} [O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}]. \tag{A.5}
\]

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When \( t \in \mathcal{I}_T \), synchronization happens and Gaussian noise matrices denoted by \( N_{t-1}^{(i)} \) whose elements follow \( \mathcal{N}(0, ||Z_{t-1}^{(i)}||_{\text{max}}^2 \sigma^2) \) i.i.d. are added to each local machine before synchronization and Gaussian noise denoted by \( N_t \) whose elements follow \( \mathcal{N}(0, \max \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}D_t^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}^2 \sigma^2) \) is added the before the server send aggregated output to each local machine. In such cases, \( R_t^{(i)} \)'s are identical for all \( i \in [m] \) and we let them be \( R_t \); see Lemma 13 for details, and

\[
Y_t^{(i)} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i [M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} + N_{t-1}^{(i)}] + N_t' = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} + N_t + N_t',
\]

for all \( i \in [m] \), where

\[
N_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i N_{t-1}^{(i)}.
\]

Hence,

\[
Z_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_{t}^{(i)} O_{t}^{(i)}
\]

\[
= (\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} + N_t + N_t' + \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_{t}^{(i)} [O_{t}^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)}]) R_t^{-1}
\]

\[
= (\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} + N_t + N_t' + \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_{t}^{(i)} [R_t - R_t^{(i)}]) R_t^{-1}
\]

\[
= (MZ_{t-1} + H_t + N_t + N_t'R_t^{-1}), \tag{A.6}
\]

where we used the fact that \( O_t^{(i)} = I_r, O_{t-1}^{(i)} = D_t^{(i)}, \) and \( R_t = R_t^{(i)}; H_t \) is defined in \( \text{(A.4)} \).

**Second step: Bound the noise term.** We proceed to bound \( \|H_t\|_2, \|W_t\|_2, \|N_t\|_2 \) and \( \|N_t'\|_2 \), respectively. Note that \( \|N_t\|_2 \) is of smaller order than \( \|N_t'\|_2 \). To see this, we only need to observe the following facts \( \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} D_t^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}} \) is not large than \( \sqrt{\tau} \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} D_t^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}} \), \( N_t \) is the summation of \( m \) noise matrix compared to just 1 in \( N_t' \), and \( \sqrt{\tau} \) is of smaller order than \( m \).

- For \( \|H_t\|_2 \), we have

\[
\|H_t\|_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \|H_t^{(i)}\|_2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \|H_t^{(i)}\|_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \| (M_t - M_t) Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_2
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \|M_t - M_t\|_2 \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \eta \|M_t\|_2 \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_2 \leq \eta \|M_t\|_2 = \eta \sigma_1. \tag{A.7}
\]

- For \( \|W_t\|_2 \), we have

\[
\|W_t\|_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \|W_t^{(i)}\|_2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \|W_t^{(i)}\|_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \| Z_{t}^{(i)} (O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}) \|_2
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \|O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_2.
\]
Here, a good choice of $R_t$ should be specified to ensure a tight bound of $\| W_t \|_2$. Specifically, $R_t$ is chosen in a recursive manner as we show in Lemma 13 in the Appendix C. In particular, we prove in Lemma 13 that for any $i \in [m]$,

$$
\| O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_2 \leq \sigma_1(M_i) \| Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2 + \| M_1 - M_i \|_2 + \sigma_1(M_i) \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_2
$$

where we make use of Assumption 1 and define

$$
\rho_t = \max_i \| Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2 = \max_i \| Z_t^{(i)} D_{t+1}^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2,
$$

(A.9)

with $\rho_t$ upper bounded as in (3.6) and (3.7); see Lemma 14 and 15 for details. As a result, we obtain

$$
\| W_t \|_2 \leq \sigma_1 (\rho_t + \eta + (1 + \eta) \rho_{t-1}),
$$

(A.10)

• For $\| N_t \|_2$, we recall that

$$
N_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i N_{t-1}^{(i)} \sim N(0, \sum_{i} p_i^2 \sigma^2 \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_{\max}^2).
$$

Then by the bound of the largest singular value of subgaussian matrices (Rudelson and Vershynin, 2010) (see Lemma 20 in Appendix D), we have for any $t, s > 0$ and some constants $C, c > 0$,

$$
P(\frac{\| N_t \|_2}{\sqrt{\sum_i p_i^2 \sigma^2 \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_{\max}^2}} > C(\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{r}) + s) \leq 2 \exp(-cs^2). \quad \text{(A.11)}
$$

Applying the union bound, we further have,

$$
P(\max_t \frac{\| N_t \|_2}{\sqrt{\sum_i p_i^2 \sigma^2 \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_{\max}^2}} > C\sqrt{d} + s) \leq \left( \frac{T}{p} \right) \exp(-cs^2), \quad \text{(A.12)}
$$

where we used the fact that $r < d$ and note that constants $c$ may be different from place to place. Choosing $s = O(\sqrt{\log(T/p)})$, then we have with probability larger than $1 - \frac{T}{p} \alpha$ that

$$
\max_t \| N_t \|_2 \leq C \sqrt{\sum_i p_i^2 \sigma^2 \max_{t,i} \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_{\max}^2 (\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log(T/p)})}
$$

$$
\leq C \sqrt{\sum_i p_i^2 \sigma \sqrt{r} (\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log(T/p)})}, \quad \text{(A.13)}
$$

where $\alpha$ could be any positive constant and the last inequality follows from

$$
\max_{t,i} \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_{\max} \leq \max_{t,i} \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{r} \max_{t,i} \| Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \|_2 = \sqrt{r}.
$$
Combining (A.7), (A.10) and (A.13) and recalling the expression (A.3) and (A.6), we obtain that the perturbation noise \( G_t := H_t + W_t + N_t + N'_t \) satisfies that
\[
\max_t \| G_t \|_2 \leq C \left( \sqrt{\sum_i p_i^2 \sigma^2 r(\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log[T/p]}) + \sigma_1 (\eta + (2 + \eta)\max_t \rho_t)} \right),
\]
with probability larger than \( 1 - |T/p|^{-\alpha} \). To lighten the notation, we denote the RHS of (A.14) by \( \text{Err}(\sigma, d, T, p, k, \eta) \).

**Third step: Establish convergence.** Now we make use of the result in Lemma 12 to establish convergence. Note that in Lemma 12, there still exists an unknown term \( \| Z_t \|_m \).

We prove in Lemma 16 that
\[
\| Z_t \|_m \geq 1 - (1 - p_1)\max_t \rho_t.
\]
Denote
\[
\epsilon' := \frac{c \text{Err}(\sigma, d, T, p, k, \eta)}{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})(1 - (1 - p_1)\max_t \rho_t)},
\]
then by (A.14),
\[
5\max_t \| G_t \|_2 \leq \epsilon' (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})\| Z_t \|_m.
\]
Hence the first condition in Lemma 12 is satisfied. For the second condition, we have that
\[
5\max_t \| V_k^T G_t \|_2 \leq 5\max_t \| G_t \|_2,
\]
which implies that the second condition would be met automatically if \( \epsilon' < \frac{\sqrt{\tau} - \sqrt{k - 1}}{\tau \sqrt{d}} \), which is our condition. Consequently, by Lemma 12, we have after \( T = O\left( \frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_{k+1}} \log\left( \frac{d}{T} \right) \right) \) iterations,
\[
\| (I_d - Z_T Z_T^T)V_k \|_2 \leq \epsilon',
\]
with probability larger than \( 1 - |T/p|^{-\alpha} - \tau^{-\Omega(r+1-k)} - e^{-\Omega(d)} \).

**Proof of Theorem 6**

By Lemma 14 and 15, the following results hold.

- If \( F = \mathcal{O}_r \), then
  \[
  \rho_t \leq \sqrt{2} \min \left\{ \frac{2K^3 \eta(1 + \eta)p^{-1}}{(1 - \eta)p}, \frac{\eta \sigma_1}{\delta_k} + 2\gamma_k^{p/4} \max_{i \in [m]} \theta_k(Z_{r(t)}, V_k^{(i)}) \right\},
  \]
  with the parameters \( \delta_k = \min_{i \in [m]} \delta_k^{(i)} \) with \( \delta_k^{(i)} = \min\{ |\sigma_j(M_i) - \sigma_k(M)| : j \geq k + 1 \} \) and \( \gamma_k = \max\{ \max_{i \in [m]} |\sigma_{k+1}(M_i)/\sigma_k(M) |, \sigma_{k+1}(M)/\sigma_k(M) \} \). By requiring \( \eta \kappa \leq 1/3 \), and Wely’s inequality, we have
  \[
  \sigma_{j+1}(M) - \sigma_k(M) - \frac{1}{3} \sigma_d(M) \leq \sigma_j(M_i) - \sigma_k(M) \leq \sigma_{j+1}(M) - \sigma_k(M) + \frac{1}{3} \sigma_d(M).
  \]

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Hence, $\delta_k \asymp \sigma_{k+1}(M) - \sigma_k(M)$. By requiring $\eta \leq 1/p$, we have $\frac{(1+\eta)^{p-1}}{(1-\eta)p} \leq \frac{(1+1/p)^{p-1}}{(1-1/p)p} \leq e^2$. Define $C_t = \max_{i \in [m]} \tan \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k^{(i)})$. Actually, we have shown in Theorem 5 that $\sin \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k) \leq \epsilon'$ for sufficiently large $t$. By the condition that $\epsilon'$ is small enough, we can obtain $\lim_{t \to \infty} \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k) = 0$. Then, we have

$$\limsup_{t \to \infty} C_t = \limsup_{t \to \infty} \max_{i \in [m]} \tan \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k^{(i)}) \leq \max_{i \in [m]} \tan \sin \frac{\eta \sigma_t}{\delta_k} = O(\eta),$$

where the last inequality follows from the Davis-Kahan theorem (see Lemma 22).

- If $\mathcal{F} = \{I_r\}$, then

$$\rho_t \leq 4\sqrt{2kp^2}\eta(1 + \eta)^{p-1} \leq 4e\sqrt{2kp^2}\eta,$$

where the last inequality requires $\eta \leq 1/p$.

Simply put together, we confirm that the bounds of $\rho_t$ in Theorem 6 hold.

### B. Partial participation

**Proof of Theorem 7**

We use the definition of $(\epsilon, \delta)$-DP to prove. To simplify the notation, we use $\mathcal{E}_t^i$ to denote that event that the $i$th local machine is selected in the $t$th iteration. Consider $t \in T_p^r$ and $i \in [m]$, and two neighboring databases $M_i$ and $M_i'$. By the choice of $\sigma$, we observe that

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_t^{(i)} | M_i) = \mathbb{P}(Y_t^{(i)} | M_i, \mathcal{E}_t^i) \cdot q_i + \mathbb{P}(Y_t^{(i)} | M_i, (\mathcal{E}_t^i)^c) \cdot (1 - q_i)$$

$$\leq \left( \exp\left( \frac{\epsilon}{[T/p]} \right) \mathbb{P}(Y_t^{(i)} | M_i', \mathcal{E}_t^i) + \frac{\delta/\max_i q_i}{[T/p]} \right) \cdot q_i + 0$$

$$\leq \exp\left( \frac{\epsilon}{[T/p]} \right) \mathbb{P}(Y_t^{(i)} | M_i') + \frac{\delta}{[T/p]},$$

where the first inequality used the Gaussian mechanism and the assumption that when $i$th machine is not selected, the machine do not output anything. Hence, each iteration produces $(\frac{\epsilon}{[T/p]}, \frac{\delta}{[T/p]})$-differentially private $Y_t^{(i)}$ for each fixed $i$ and $t$, and hence arriving $(\frac{\epsilon}{[T/p]}, \frac{\delta}{[T/p]})$-central differential privacy for fixed $t$.

On the other hand, it is easy to see that the noise added to the aggregated $Y_t^{(i)}$’s by the server can ensure $(\frac{\epsilon}{[T/p]}, \frac{\delta}{[T/p]})$-differential privacy when $t \in T^r_T$.

Finally, considering that $[T/p]$ iterations are required for communication, Algorithm 3 can obtain $(2\epsilon, 2\delta)$-differential privacy by Proposition 3.

**Proof of Theorem 8**

**Proof sketch of Theorem 8**: Similar to the proof under the full participation setting, we first define a virtual sequence

$$Z_t := \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in S_t} Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}.$$
Here $O_t^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}$ is defined as
\[
O_t^{(i)} = \begin{cases} 
I_r & \text{if } t \in T_T^p \\
D_{t+1}^{(i)} & \text{if } t \notin T_T^p.
\end{cases}
\]

Then, we will write $Z_t$ in the following recursive manner,
\[
Z_t = [M_Z t - 1 + G_t]R_t^{-1},
\]
where $R_t^{-1}$ is the a reversible matrix to be specified, and $G_t$ is some noisy perturbation. It turns out that $G_t$ comes from three sources. Except for the DP’s noise and the local iterates’ perturbation, the random sampling of local devices also contributes to $G_t$. To be specific, when $\tau(t) \neq \tau(t-1)$, it holds with high probability that $S_{\tau(t)} \neq S_{\tau(t-1)}$. As a result, we need to bound the bias term that the random sampling of local machines brings. With $G_t$ properly bounded, the convergence of would be established using Lemma 12.

**Proof** We provide a proof in three steps.

**First step: Perturbed iterate analysis.** Recall that we defined a virtual sequence by
\[
Z_t := \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}.
\]
where $O_t^{(i)}$ is $I_r$ if $t \in T_T^p$, and is $D_{t+1}^{(i)}$ defined by
\[
D_{t+1}^{(i)} = \arg\min_{D \in F \cap O_r} \|Z_t^{(i)}D - Z_t^{(1)}\|_o,
\]
if $t \notin T_T^p$. For any $t$, we write $Y_t^{(i)} = Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)}$ which should be kept in mind in the following proofs. Now we proceed to derive the iteration of $Z_t$ under $t \notin T_T^p$ and $t \in T_T^p$, respectively.

When $t \notin T_T^p$, we have $Y_t^{(i)} = M_i Z_t^{(i)}$. Thus, given any invertible $R_t$ (to be specified in Lemma 13), we have
\[
Z_t = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}
= \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} M_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} R_t^{-1} + \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} [O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}] R_t^{-1}
= \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} M Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} R_t^{-1} + \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} (M_i - M) Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} R_t^{-1}
+ \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} [O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}] R_t^{-1}
:= (J_t + H_t + W_t) R_t^{-1},
\]
(B.2)
for which $J_t$ could be further expressed as

$$J_t = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} + \frac{1}{K} \left( \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \right)$$

$$= MZ_{t-1} + \left( \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K - \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K \right)$$

$$+ \left( E_{S_{\tau(t)}} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K \right) - \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K$$

$$= MZ_{t-1} + \left( \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K - \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K \right)$$

$$+ \left( \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K \right) - \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K$$

$$:= MZ_{t-1} + E_t + F_t. \quad \text{(B.3)}$$

Combining (B.3) with (B.2), we obtain when $t \notin T^p_t$ that,

$$Z_t = (MZ_{t-1} + E_t + F_t + H_t + W_t)R_t^{-1}, \quad \text{(B.4)}$$

where note that when $\tau(t) = \tau(t-1)$, we have $E_t + F_t \equiv 0$.

On the other hand, when $t \in T^p_t$, the synchronization happens and two round of Gaussian noise is added. Thereby, for all $i \in S_{\tau(t)}$,

$$Y_t^{(i)} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{l \in S_{\tau(t)}} M_l Z_{t-1}^{(l)} D_t^{(l)} + \frac{1}{K} \sum_{l \in S_{\tau(t)}} N_{t-1}^{(l)} + N_t'$$

$$:= \frac{1}{K} \sum_{l \in S_{\tau(t)}} M_l Z_{t-1}^{(l)} D_t^{(l)} + N_t + N_t' \quad \text{(B.5)}$$

where

$$N_{t-1}^{(l)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \|Z_{t-1}^{(l)}\|^2 \sigma^2)$$

and

$$N_t' \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \|Z_t^{(l)} D_{t-1}^{(l)}\|^2 \sigma^2)$$

with $\sigma$ and $\sigma'$ being defined in Algorithm 3. Using similar treatments as in (B.2) and (B.3), we have when $t \in T^p_t$ that,

$$Z_t = (MZ_{t-1} + E_t + F_t + H_t + N_t + N_t')R_t^{-1}, \quad \text{(B.6)}$$

where note that similar to the full participation protocol, $W_t$ does not appear when $t \in T^p_t$.

**Second step: Bound the noise term.** We proceed to bound $E_t$, $F_t$, $H_t$, $W_t$, $N_t$ and $N_t'$, respectively. Note that, similar to the full participation scheme, $\|N_t'\|_2$ is of smaller order than $\|N_t\|_2$, hence we only deal with $N_t$. Also note that $E_t$ and $F_t$ behave similarly, so we only bound one of them.

- For $\|E_t\|_2$, we denote

$$E_t := \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K - \sum_{i=1}^m p_i MZ_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}$$

$$= M \left( \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}/K - \sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \right) := MS_t \quad \text{(B.7)}$$
We will make use of the matrix Bernstein inequality (Tropp (2015), restated in Lemma 21). Consider only the randomness that the \(S_{\tau(t)}\) brings, we have
\[
\mathbb{E}_{S_{\tau(t)}}(S_t) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \|S_t\|_2 \leq 2.
\]

Define
\[
\nu(S_t) = \max \{ \| \mathbb{E}(S_t S_t^\top) \|_2, \| \mathbb{E}(S_t^\top S_t) \|_2 \}.
\] (B.8)

Then applying Lemma 21 with \(Z = S_t\) and \(L = 2\), for any \(t \geq \nu(S_t)/2\), we have
\[
\mathbb{P}(\|S_t\|_2 \geq t) \leq (d + r) \cdot e^{-3t/16}.
\] (B.9)

Choosing \(t = O(\nu(S_t) (\log(d + r) + \log[T/p]))\), then (B.9) implies
\[
\|S_t\|_2 \leq C \nu(S_t) (\log(d + r) + \log[T/p]),
\] (B.10)

with probability larger than \(1 - |T/p|^{-\gamma'} \cdot e^{-c_\nu(S_t)/(d + r)^\beta}\), where \(\beta, \gamma' > 0\) is some positive constant. Now we turn to bound \(\nu(S_t)\). Denote \(\xi = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}\), then
\[
S_t S_t^\top = \frac{1}{K^2} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} (Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top - \xi \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} (Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top - \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \xi^\top + \xi^\top.
\] (B.11)

To shorten the notation, we denote \(Z_{t-1}^{(i)} := Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}\). Taking expectation with respect to \(\mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}\), we then have
\[
\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} S_t S_t^\top = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} \left[ \frac{1}{K^2} \sum_{i \notin \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top \right] - \xi^\top
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{K^2} \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} \left[ \sum_{i \notin j, j \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} (Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top + \sum_{i = j, j \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top \right] - \xi^\top
\]
\[
= \frac{K(K - 1)}{K^2} \sum_{i \notin j, i, j \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} p_i p_j Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top + \frac{K}{K^2} \sum_{i = j \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} m \sum_{i = j} p_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top - \sum_{i, j = 1}^m p_i p_j Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top
\]
\[
\quad = - \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \notin j, i, j \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} p_i p_j Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top + \sum_{i = 1}^m p_i (\frac{1}{K} - p_i) Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top.
\] (B.12)

As a result,
\[
\| \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} (S_t S_t^\top) \|_2 \leq \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \notin j, i, j \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} p_i p_j + \sum_{i = 1}^m p_i^2 + \frac{1}{K} := \phi(K).
\] (B.13)

Similarly, we could obtain
\[
\| \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} (S_t^\top S_t) \|_2 \leq \phi(K).
\]

Hence we have \(\nu(S_t) \leq \phi(K)\) by recalling the definition of \(\nu(S_t)\). Consequently, by (B.10), (B.7), and the union bound, we have
\[
\max_t \|E_t + F_t\|_2 \leq \max_{t \in T}^2 \|E_t\|_2 \leq C \sigma_1 \left( \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \notin j, i, j \in \mathcal{S}_{\tau(t)}} m p_i p_j + \sum_{i = 1}^m p_i^2 + \frac{1}{K} \right) (\log(d + r) + \log[T/p]),
\] (B.14)
with probability larger than $1 - [T/p]^{-\gamma}e^{-c\phi(K)/(d + r)^\beta}$, where $\beta, \gamma > 0$ is some positive constant.

- For $\|H_t\|_2$, recall that

$$H_t = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} (M_i - M)Z_{t-1}^{(i)}O_{t-1}^{(i)}.$$ 

It is easy to see that for any $t, S_{\tau(t)}$,

$$\|H_t\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{K} \cdot K \cdot \eta\|M\|_2 = \eta \sigma_1. \quad \text{(B.15)}$$

- For $\|W_t\|_2$, we have

$$W_t := \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} Z_t^{(i)}(O_t^{(i)}R_t - R_t^{(i)}O_{t-1}^{(i)}) \leq \max_i\|O_t^{(i)}R_t - R_t^{(i)}O_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_2.$$ 

We specify in Lemma 13 the choice of $R^t$ and prove that for any $i \in [m],$

$$\|O_t^{(i)}R_t - R_t^{(i)}O_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_2 \leq \sigma_1(M_t)\|Z_t^{(i)}O_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2 + \|M_t - M_t\|_2 + \sigma_1(M_t)\|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}O_{t-1}^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2$$

$$\leq \sigma_1(\rho_t + \eta + (1 + \eta)\rho_{t-1}),$$

where $\rho_t$ is defined as

$$\rho_t = \max_i\|Z_t^{(i)}O_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2 = \max_i\|Z_t^{(i)}D_{t+1}^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2,$$

and upper bounded as in (3.6) and (3.7); see Lemma 14 and 15 for details. As a result,

$$\|W_t\|_2 \leq \sigma_1(\eta + (2 + \eta)\max_t \rho_t). \quad \text{(B.16)}$$

- For $\|N_t\|_2$, conditioning on $S_{\tau(t)}$, we have

$$N_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{K^2}\sigma^2 \sum_{i \in S_{\tau(t)}} \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}^2).$$ 

Applying the bound of the largest singular value of subgaussian matrices (Rudelson and Vershynin, 2010) (see Lemma 20), we have for any $C, c > 0,$

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{\|N_t\|_2}{\sigma\max_t \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}/\sqrt{K}} > C(\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{r}) + s\right) \leq 2\exp(-cs^2), \quad \text{(B.17)}$$

where we enlarged the variance of Gaussian noise to lighten the notation. Moreover, using the union bound and choosing $s = O(\sqrt{\log[T/p]})$, we have with probability larger than $1 - [T/p]^{-\alpha}$ that

$$\max_t\|N_t\|_2 \leq CK^{-1/2}\sigma\max_t \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}(\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log[T/p]}). \quad \text{(B.18)}$$
Putting (B.14), (B.15), (B.16) and (B.18) together, and recalling (B.4) and (B.6), then the perturbation noise
\[
G_t := E_t + F_t + H_t + W_t + N_t + N'_t
\]
satisfies that
\[
\max_t \|G_t\|_2 \lesssim K^{-1/2} \sigma \sqrt{r} \left( \sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log[T/p]} \right) + \sigma_1 \left( \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i, j = 1}^{m} p_i p_j + \frac{1}{K} \right) (\log(d + r) + \log[T/p]) + \sigma_1 (\eta + (2 + \eta) \max_t \rho_t),
\]
with probability larger than \(1 - |T/p|^{-\gamma} \cdot e^{-\phi(K) / (d + r)^{\beta} - |T/p|^{-\alpha}}\) for positive constants \(\alpha, \beta, \gamma\). For notational simplicity, we denote the RHS of (B.19) as \(\text{Err}(\sigma, K, d, T, p, \eta, k, r)\).

**Third step: Establish convergence.** At last, we use Lemma 12 to establish convergence. Denote
\[
\epsilon'' := \frac{c \cdot \text{Err}(\sigma, K, d, T, p, \eta, k, r)}{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})(1 - \max_t \rho_t)},
\]
then by (B.19),
\[
5 \max_t \|G_t\|_2 \leq \epsilon'' (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \|Z_t\|_m,
\]
where we used the fact in Lemma 16 that
\[
\|Z_t\|_m \geq 1 - \max_t \rho_t.
\]
The first condition in Lemma 12 is thus satisfied. For the second condition, we have that
\[
5 \max_t \|V_k^T G_t\|_2 \leq 5 \max_t \|G_t\|_2,
\]
which implies that the second condition would be met automatically if \(\epsilon'' < \sqrt{\frac{k-1}{\tau^d}}\), which is our condition. Overall, by Lemma 12, we have after \(T = O\left(\frac{\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}}{\sigma_k} \log\left(\frac{d}{\sigma_k}\right)\right)\) iterations,
\[
\|(I_d - Z_T Z_T^T) V_k\|_2 \leq \epsilon'',
\]
with probability larger than \(1 - |T/p|^{-\gamma} \cdot e^{-\phi(K) / (d + r)^{\beta} - |T/p|^{-\alpha}} - \tau^{-\Omega(r + 1 - k)} - e^{-\Omega(d)}\). \[\blacksquare\]

**Proof of Theorem 9**

This proof follows a similar strategy as that of the Theorem 8 but there exists some differences. Define a virtual sequence
\[
\overline{Z}_t := \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_v(t)} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}.
\]
Here \(O_t^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}\) is defined as
\[
O_t^{(i)} = \begin{cases} 
I_r & \text{if } t \in T_p^i \\
D_t^{(i)} & \text{if } t \notin T_p^i.
\end{cases}
\]

We aim to use Lemma 12 to establish the convergence. In particular, we prove by the following three steps.
First step: Perturbed iterate analysis. For any $t$, we write $Y_t^{(i)} = Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)}$. We proceed to derive the iteration of $Z_t$ under $t \notin T_T^p$ and $t \in T_T^p$, respectively.

When $t \notin T_T^p$, we have $Y_t^{(i)} = M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)}$. So, given any invertible $R^t$ (to be specified in Lemma 13), we have

$$Z_t = \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}$$

$$= \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} R_t^{-1} + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} [O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}] R_t^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} R_t^{-1} + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i (M_t - M) Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} R_t^{-1}$$

$$+ \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} [O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}] R_t^{-1}$$

$$:= (J_t + H_t + W_t) R_t^{-1}, \quad (B.20)$$

for which $J_t$ could be further written as

$$J_t = \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t-1)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} + \frac{m}{K} \left( \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - \sum_{i \in S_{r(t-1)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \right)$$

$$= M Z_{t-1} + \left( \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - \sum_{i \in S_{r(t-1)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \cdot \frac{m}{K} \right)$$

$$+ \left( E_{S_{r(t)}}(\sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \cdot \frac{m}{K}) - \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \cdot \frac{m}{K} \right)$$

$$= M Z_{t-1} + \left( \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \cdot \frac{m}{K} - \sum_{i \in S_{r(t-1)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \cdot \frac{m}{K} \right)$$

$$+ \left( \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - \sum_{i \in S_{r(t-1)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} \cdot \frac{m}{K} \right)$$

$$:= M Z_{t-1} + E_t + F_t, \quad (B.21)$$

Combining (B.21) with (B.20), when $t \notin T_T^p$, we have,

$$Z_t = (M Z_{t-1} + E_t + F_t + H_t + W_t) R_t^{-1}, \quad (B.22)$$

where note that when $\tau(t) = \tau(t-1)$, $E_t + F_t \equiv 0$.

On the other side, when $t \in T_T^p$, the synchronization happens and two round of Gaussian noise is added. Consequently, for all $i \in S_{r(t)}$,

$$Y_t^{(i)} = \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i N_t^{(i)} + N_t'$$

$$:= \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i M_t Z_{t-1}^{(i)} + N_t + N_t', \quad (B.23)$$

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where
\[ N_{l-1}^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \|Z_{l-1}^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}^2 \sigma^2)^{d \times r} \quad \text{and} \quad N_t' \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \max_i \|Z_{l-1}^{(i)} D_t^{(i)}\|_{\text{max}}^2 \sigma''^2), \]
with \( \sigma \) and \( \sigma'' \) being defined in Algorithm 3. Using similar calculations as in (B.20) and (B.21), we obtain,
\[ Z_t = (MZ_{t-1} + P_t + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i) \cdot (E_t + F_t + H_t + N_t + N_t') R_t^{-1}. \]  
(B.24)

where
\[ P_t := \frac{m^2}{K^2} \sum_{l \in S_r(t)} p_l \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_iMZ_{l-1}^{(i)}O_{l-1}^{(i)} - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_iMZ_{l-1}^{(i)}O_{l-1}^{(i)}. \]  
(B.25)

and \( W_t \) does not appear because of our definition of \( R_t \) in Lemma 13. Note that when \( p_i \)'s are all the same, then \( \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i = 1 \) and thus \( P_t \equiv 0 \). Hence \( P_t \) can be regarded as bias that comes from the heterogeneity in the sample size of each local machine. Note that this term did not appear under Scheme 1.

**Second step: Bound the noise term.** In view of (B.22) and (B.24), we analyze \( P_t, E_t, F_t, H_t, W_t, N_t, N_t' \), respectively. It is easy to see that \( \|N_t'\|_2 \) is of smaller order than \( \|N_t\|_2 \), hence we only deal with \( N_t \). In addition, \( E_t \) and \( F_t \) are formulated similarly, so we only need to bound one of them.

- For \( \|P_t\|_2 \), we have
\[ \|P_t\|_2 \leq \left| \frac{m}{K} \sum_{l \in S_r(t)} p_l - 1 \right| \cdot \frac{m}{K} \|M\|_2 \cdot \sum_{l \in S_r(t)} p_l \leq \varsigma \frac{m}{K} \left| \frac{m}{K} \varsigma - 1 \right|, \]  
(B.26)
where we denote
\[ \varsigma := \max_{S \in \mathcal{S}[m], |S| = K} \sum_{l \in S} p_l. \]

- For \( \|E_t\|_2 \), we denote
\[ E_t := M\left( \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_iZ_{l-1}^{(i)}O_{l-1}^{(i)} - \sum_{i=1}^m p_iZ_{l-1}^{(i)}O_{l-1}^{(i)} \right) := MS_t. \]

Specifically, we apply the matrix Bernstein inequality (Tropp, 2015) (see Lemma 21) to bound \( \|S_t\|_2 \). Consider merely the randomness that comes from \( S_r(t) \), we have
\[ \mathbb{E}_{S_r(t)}(S_t) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \|S_t\|_2 \leq \frac{m}{K} \varsigma + 1. \]

Define
\[ \nu(S_t) = \max\{\|\mathbb{E}(S_t S_t^\top)\|_2, \|\mathbb{E}(S_t^\top S_t)\|_2\}. \]
Then employing Lemma 21 with \( Z = S_t \) and \( L = \frac{m}{K} \varsigma + 1 \), for any \( t \geq \nu(S_t)/(\frac{m}{K} \varsigma + 1) \), we can obtain
\[ \mathbb{P}(\|S_t\|_2 \geq t) \leq (d + r) \cdot e^{-3t/16}. \]  
(B.27)
Choosing $t = O(\nu(S_t) (\log(d + r) + \log[T/p]))$, then (B.27) yields
\[
\|S_t\|_2 \leq C\nu(S_t) (\log(d + r) + \log[T/p]),
\] (B.28)
with probability higher than $1 - [T/p]^{-\gamma'} e^{-c\nu(S_t)/\rho} / (d + r)^\beta$, where $\beta, \gamma' > 0$ is some positive constant. Now we bound $\nu(S_t)$. To lighten the notation, denote $\xi = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_t^{(i)}$ with $Z_t^{(i)} := Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}$. Then
\[
S_t S_t^\top = \frac{m^2}{K^2} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \xi^\top + \xi \xi^\top.
\] (B.29)
Taking expectation with respect to $S_r(t)$, we then have
\[
\mathbb{E}_{S_r(t)} S_t S_t^\top = \mathbb{E}_{S_r(t)} \left( \frac{m^2}{K^2} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i Z_{t-1}^{(i)} \xi^\top + \xi \xi^\top \right)
\]
\[
= \frac{m^2}{K^2} \mathbb{E}_{S_r(t)} \left( \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j Z_{t-1}^{(i)} Z_{t-1}^{(j)}^\top + \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j Z_{t-1}^{(i)} (Z_{t-1}^{(j)})^\top \right)
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{K} \left( \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j (Z_{t-1}^{(i)})^\top \right).
\] (B.29)
Further,
\[
\|\mathbb{E}_{S_r(t)} (S_t S_t^\top)\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i = 1}^m p_i^2 + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i = 1}^m p_i^2 := \psi(K).
\] (B.31)
Analogously, we could prove
\[
\|\mathbb{E}_{S_r(t)} (S_t S_t^\top)\|_2 \leq \psi(K).
\]
So $\nu(S_t) \leq \psi(K)$ by recalling the definition of $\nu(S_t)$. Consequently, by (B.28), the definition of $E_t$, and the union bound, we have
\[
\max_{t \in T_p} \|E_t\|_2 \leq 2 \max_{t \in T_p} \|E_t\|_2 \leq C \sigma_1 \left( \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i \in S_r(t)} p_i p_j + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i = 1}^m p_i^2 + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i = 1}^m p_i^2 \right) \times (\log(d + r) + \log[T/p]),
\] (B.32)
with probability larger than $1 - [T/p]^{-\gamma} e^{-c\psi(K)/\rho} / (d + r)^\beta$, where $\beta, \gamma > 0$ is some positive constant.

- For $\|H_t\|_2$, recall that
\[
H_t := \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i (M_i - M) Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}.
\]
Recall the definition of $\zeta$, then it is easy to obtain that for any $t, S_{r(t)}$,
\[ \|H_t\|_2 \leq \frac{m}{K} \cdot \zeta \cdot \eta \sigma_1. \]  \hfill (B.33)

- For $\|W_t\|_2$, recall that
\[ W_t := \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{r(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} [O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}]. \]

Applying Lemma 13, we have,
\[ \|W_t\|_2 \leq \frac{m}{K} \zeta \cdot \max \|O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}\|_2 \leq \frac{m}{K} \zeta \cdot \sigma_1 (\eta + (2 + \eta)\max_t \rho_t), \]  \hfill (B.34)

where $\rho_t$ is defined as
\[ \rho_t = \max_i \|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2 = \max_i \|Z_t^{(i)} D_{t+1}^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2, \]
and upper bounded as in (3.6) and (3.7); see Lemma 14 and 15 for details.

- For $\|N_t\|_2$, recall that
\[ N_t := m/K \sum_{l \in S_{r(t)}} p_l N_{l-1}^{(l)}. \]

Conditioning on $S_{r(t)}$, we have
\[ N_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{m^2}{K^2} \sigma^2 \sum_{l \in S_{r(t)}} p_l^2 \|Z_{l-1}^{(l)}\|_{\max}^2). \]

To facilitate further notation, we denote
\[ \zeta := \max_{S \subseteq \{S \in [m], |S| = K\}} \sum_{l \in S} p_l^2. \]

Using the concentration inequality of the largest singular value of subgaussian matrices (Rudelson and Vershynin 2010) (see Lemma 13), we have for any $C, c > 0$,
\[ \mathbb{P}\left( \frac{\|N_t\|_2}{\sqrt{\zeta \max_{l,t} \|Z_{l-1}^{(l)}\|_{\max} m/K}} > C(\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{r}) + s \right) \leq 2 \exp(-cs^2). \]  \hfill (B.35)

Further, applying the union bound and choosing $s = O(\sqrt{\log[\frac{T}{p}]}), we have with probability larger than $1 - [T/p]^{-\alpha}$ that
\[ \max_t \|N_t\|_2 \leq C \sqrt{\frac{m}{K}} \sigma \max_{l,t} \|Z_{l-1}^{(l)}\|_{\max} (\sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log[\frac{T}{p}]}). \]  \hfill (B.36)

Combining (B.26), (B.32), (B.33), (B.34) and (B.36) together, we obtain that the perturbation noise $G_t := P_t + \max\{\frac{m}{K} \zeta, 1\} \cdot (E_t + F_t + H_t + W_t + N_t + N_t')$ satisfies that
\[ \max_t \|G_t\|_2 \leq c \sigma \frac{m}{K} \|m - |m| - 1\| + \max\{\frac{m}{K} \zeta, 1\} \{\sqrt{\frac{m}{K}} \sigma \sqrt{d} + \sqrt{\log[\frac{T}{p}]}) \]
\[ + \sigma_1 \left( \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \neq j, i, j = 1} p_i p_j + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i = 1} \|p_i^2\| + \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i = 1} \|p_i^2\| \cdot (\log(d + r) + \log[\frac{T}{p}]) + \frac{m}{K} \zeta \cdot \sigma_1 (\eta + (2 + \eta)\max_t \rho_t) \right), \]  \hfill (B.37)

with probability larger than $1 - [T/p]^{-\gamma} \cdot e^{-c\psi(K)/(\frac{m}{K} \zeta + 1)/(d + r)^\beta - [T/p]^{-\alpha}$ for positive constants $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$. For simplicity, we denote the RHS of (B.37) as $\text{Err}(\sigma, K, \zeta, \zeta, d, T, p, \eta, k, r)$.  

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Third step: Establish convergence. Denote
\[ \epsilon'' = c \frac{\text{Err}(\sigma, K, \zeta, \varsigma, d, T, p, \eta, k, r)}{(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \cdot \frac{\pi}{R} (\zeta - \varsigma \max(\rho))}, \]
and apply Lemma 12 and note Lemma 16 in the same way as what we did in proving Theorem 8, we arrive the results of Theorem 9.

C. Technical lemmas

The following lemma is a variant of Lemma 2.2 in Hardt and Price (2014) (see Lemma 17). Given the relation \( Z_t = MZ_{t-1} + G_t \), they require \( Z_t \) to have orthonormal columns, i.e., \( Z_t^T Z_t = I_r \). However, it is impossible in our analysis. As a remedy, we slightly change the lemma to allow arbitrary \( Z_t \). This will also change the condition on \( G_t \).

Lemma 11 Let \( V_k \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k} \) denote the top \( k \) eigenvectors of \( M := \frac{1}{n} A^T A \) and let \( \sigma_1 \leq \ldots \leq \sigma_d \) denote its singular values. Let \( Z_t \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \) for some \( r \geq k \). Let \( G_t \) satisfy
\[ 4\|V_k^T G_t\|_2 \leq (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \cos \theta_k(V_k, Z_t) \|Z_t\|_m \quad \text{and} \quad 4\|G\|_2 \leq (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \|Z_t\|_m \epsilon, \]
for some \( \epsilon \leq 1 \), where \( \|Z_t\|_m \) denotes the minimum singular value of \( Z_t \). Then
\[ \tan \theta_k(V_k, MZ_t + G_t) \leq \max \left( \epsilon, \max \left( \epsilon, \left( \frac{\sigma_{k+1}}{\sigma_k} \right)^{1/4} \right) \tan \theta_k(V_k, Z_t) \right), \]
where the LHS can be replaced by \( \tan \theta_k(V_k, (MZ_t + G_t)R_t^{-1}) \) with any reversible matrix \( R_t \).

Proof The proof actually follows closely from that of Hardt and Price (2014). Hence, we here only show the main steps.

First, by the definition of angles between subspaces, the Lemma 2.2 in Hardt and Price (2014) obtain that,
\[ \tan \theta_k(V_k, \frac{1}{n} A^T A Z_t + G_t) \leq \max_{\|w\|_2=1, H^\ast w = w} \frac{1}{\|V_k^T Z_t w\|_2} \cdot \frac{\sigma_{k+1} \|((V_k^T)^\ast Z_t) w\|_2 + \|(V_k^T)^\ast G_t w\|_2}{\sigma_k - \|V_k^T G_t w\|_2 / \|V_k^T Z_t w\|_2}, \]
where \( H^\ast \) is the matrix projecting onto the smallest \( k \) principal angles of \( Z_t \). Define \( \Delta = (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \). Then, by the assumption on \( G_t \),
\[ \max_{\|w\|_2=1, H^\ast w = w} \frac{\|V_k^T G_t w\|_2}{\|V_k^T Z_t w\|_2} \leq \frac{\|G_t\|_2}{\cos \theta_k(V_k, Z_t) \|Z_t\|_m} \leq \Delta, \]
where we used Fact 2 on the principle angle in Appendix E. Similarly, using the fact that \( \cos \theta \leq 1 + \tan \theta \) for any angle \( \theta \), we have
\[ \max_{\|w\|_2=1, H^\ast w = w} \frac{\|(V_k^T)^\ast G_t w\|_2}{\|V_k^T Z_t w\|_2} \leq \frac{\|G_t\|_2}{\cos \theta_k(V_k, Z_t) \|Z_t\|_m} \leq \epsilon \Delta (1 + \tan \theta_k(V_k, Z_t)). \]
Given the above two inequalities, the remaining proofing strategy is the same with that of Hardt and Price (2014). Hence we here omit it. In addition, noting the Fact 1 in Appendix
E, we know that the result can be generalized to $\tan\theta_k(V_k, (MZ_t + G_t)R_t^{-1})$ with any reversible matrix $R_t$. ■

With Lemma 11 at hand, it is easy to derive an analogue of Corollary 1.1 in Hardt and Price (2014) (see Lemma 18). We summarize the results as the following lemma.

**Lemma 12** Let $k$ and $r$ ($k \leq r$) be the target rank and iteration rank, respectively. Let $V_k \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ denote the top $k$ eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{n}A^tA$ and let $\sigma_1 \leq \ldots \leq \sigma_d$ denote its singular values. Suppose $Z_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_{d \times r})$. Assume the noisy power method iterates as follows,

$$Z_t \leftarrow \frac{1}{n}A^tAZ_{t-1} + G_t,$$

where $Z_t$ does not necessarily have orthonormal columns and $G_t$ is some noisy perturbation that satisfies

$$5\|G_t\|_2 \leq \epsilon(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})\min_t\|Z_t\|_m$$

and

$$5\|V_k^tG_t\|_2 \leq (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1})\min_t\|Z_t\|_m \frac{\sqrt{r} - \sqrt{k - 1}}{\tau \sqrt{d}},$$

for some fixed $\tau$ and $\epsilon < 1/2$. Then with all but $\tau - \Omega(r + 1 - k) + e^{-\Omega(d)}$ probability, there exists an $T = O(\frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}} \log(d/\epsilon))$ so that after $T$ steps

$$\|(I - Z_T^T\bar{Z}_T) V_k\|_2 \leq \epsilon.$$

The result also holds for the sequence

$$Z_t \leftarrow \frac{1}{n}A^tAZ_{t-1} + G_t|R_t^{-1},$$

with any reversible $R_t$.

**Proof** By Lemma 11 and the proofing techniques of Corollary 1.1 in Hardt and Price (2014) (see Lemma 18), the result follows. ■

In the next lemma, we specify the choice of $R_t$ and analyze the residual error bound

$$\|O^{(i)}_tR_t - R_t^{(i)}O^{(i)}_{t-1}\|_2$$

when $t \notin \mathcal{I}_T^p$. In particular, given a baseline data matrix $M_0$, $R_t$ is the shadow matrix that depicts what the upper triangle matrix ought to be, if we start from the nearest synchronized matrix and perform QR factorization using the matrix $M_0$. We will set $M_0 = M_1$ (by assuming $1 = \arg\max_{i \in [m]} p_i$).

**Lemma 13 (Choice of $R_t$)** Fix any $t$ and let $t_0 = \tau(t) \in \mathcal{I}_T^p$ be the latest synchronization step before $t$, then $t \geq \tau(t)$.

- If $t = t_0$, we define $R_t = R_t^{(i)}$ for any $i \in [m]$ since all $R_t^{(i)}$'s are equal.

- If $t > t_0$, given a baseline data matrix $M_0$, we define $R_t \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}$ recursively as the following. Let $Z_{t_0} = Z_t$. For $l = t_0 + 1, \ldots, t$, we use the following QR factorization to define $R_t$'s:

$$M_0Z_l = Z_{l+1}R_{l+1}.$$
With such choice of $R_i$’s, for any $i \in [m]$, we have

$$
\|O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - O_t^{(i)}\|_2 \leq \sigma_1(M_o)\|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t\|_2 + M_0 - M_i \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - Z_{t-1}\|_2.
$$

(C.1)

**Proof** Note that $t \notin T_T^B$ and thus $t > t_0$. Let’s fix some $i \in [m]$ and denote $\Delta M = M_i - M_o$. Based on FedPower, we have for $l = t_0 + 1, \ldots, t$,

$$
M_i Z_t^{(i)} = Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)}.
$$

Then,

$$
Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} = M_i Z_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)}
$$

$$
= (M_o + \Delta M)(Z_{t-1} + \Delta Z_{t-1})
$$

$$
= M_o Z_{t-1} + \Delta M \cdot Z_{t-1} + M_i \cdot \Delta Z_{t-1}
$$

$$
:= M_o Z_{t-1} + E_{t-1} = Z_t R_t + E_{t-1}
$$

where $E_{t-1} = \Delta M \cdot Z_{t-1} = M_i \cdot \Delta Z_{t-1}$ and $\Delta Z_{t-1} = Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - Z_{t-1}$. Note that

$$
Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} = Z_t R_t + E_{t-1}.
$$

Then we have

$$
\|O_t^{(i)} R_t - R_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - O_t^{(i)}\|_2 = \|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} R_t - Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}\|_2
$$

$$
\overset{(a)}{=} \|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} R_t - Z_t R_t - E_{t-1}\|_2
$$

$$
\leq \|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t\|_2 \|R_t\|_2 + \|E_{t-1}\|_2
$$

$$
\overset{(b)}{=} \|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t\|_2 \|R_t\|_2 + \|\Delta M\|_2 + M_i \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - Z_{t-1}\|_2
$$

$$
\overset{(c)}{\leq} \sigma_1(M_o)\|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t\|_2 + M_0 - M_i \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} O_{t-1}^{(i)} - Z_{t-1}\|_2
$$

where (a) uses the equality of $Z_t^{(i)} R_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - O_t^{(i)}$; (b) uses the definition of $E_{t-1}$ and $O_t^{(i)} = D_t^{(i)}$; and (c) uses $\|R_t\|_2 \leq M_0 = \sigma_1(M_o)$.

Note that the bound (C.1) in the above lemma depends on the following unknown terms

$$
\rho_t = \max_i\|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t\|_2 = \max_i\|Z_t^{(i)} D_{t+1}^{(i)} - Z_t\|_2.
$$

Hence, in the next two lemmas, we provide the upper bounds for $\rho_t$ in two cases, namely, $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{O}_r$ and $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathbb{I}_r\}$. Before going on we note that $Z_t$ in $\rho_t$ is actually $Z_t^{(i)}$ as $M_0$ is chose to be $M_1$ in Lemma 13.
Lemma 14 (Bound for $\rho_t$ when $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{O}_r$) Let Assumption 1 hold with sufficiently small $\eta$. If $D_t^{(i)}$ is solved from
\[ D_t^{(i)} = \arg\min_{D \in \mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{O}_r} \|Z_t^{(i)} D - Z_t^{(1)}\|_o \]
with $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{O}_r$, where $\| \cdot \|_o$ can be either the Frobenius norm or the spectral norm though in the body text we use only the Frobenius norm, then
\[ \rho_t \leq \min\sqrt{2} \left\{ \frac{2\kappa^p \eta (1 + \eta)^{p-1}}{(1 - \eta)^p}, \frac{\eta \sigma_1}{\delta_k} + 2\gamma_k^{p/4} \max_i |\tan \theta_i (Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k^{(i)})| \right\}, \]
where
\[ \begin{align*}
\delta_k &= \min_{i \in [m]} \delta_k^{(i)} \quad \text{with } \delta_k^{(i)} = \min \{|\sigma_j (M_i) - \sigma_k (M)| : j \geq k + 1\}; \\
\gamma_k &= \max \left\{ \max_{i \in [m]} \frac{\sigma_{k+1} (M_i)}{\sigma_k (M_i)} : \frac{\sigma_{k+1} (M)}{\sigma_k (M)} \right\}; \\
\kappa &= \|M\|_2 \|M^\dagger\|_2 \quad \text{is the condition number of } M; \\
p &= t - \tau(u), \quad \tau(t) \in \tau_T^p \quad \text{is defined as the nearest synchronization time before } t.
\end{align*} \]

Proof By Lemma 25, we have
\[ \|Z_t^{i} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2 \leq \sqrt{2} \text{dist}(Z_t^{(i)}, Z_t^{(1)}), \]
so we only need to bound $\max_{i \in [m]} \text{dist}(Z_t^{(i)}, Z_t^{(1)})$. We will bound each $\text{dist}(Z_t^{(i)}, Z_t^{(1)})$ uniformly in two ways. Then the minimum of the two upper bounds holds for their maximum that is exactly $\rho_t$. Fix any $i \in [m]$ and $t \in [T]$. Let $\tau(t)$ be the latest synchronization step before $t$ and $p = t - \tau(t)$ be the number of nearest local updates.

- For small $p$, by Lemma 23, it follows that
  \[ \begin{align*}
\text{dist}(Z_t^{(i)}, Z_t^{(1)}) &= \text{dist}(M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)}, M_t^1 Z_{\tau(t)}) \\
&\leq \text{dist}(M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)}, M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)}) + \text{dist}(M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)}, M_t^1 Z_{\tau(t)}) \\
&\leq \min\{\|(M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)})^\dagger\|_2, \|(M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)})^\dagger\|_2\}\|\|(M_t^1 - M_t^p) Z_{\tau(t)}\|_2 \\
&+ \min\{\|(M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)})^\dagger\|_2, \|(M_t^p Z_{\tau(t)})^\dagger\|_2\}\|\|(M_t^1 - M_t^p) Z_{\tau(t)}\|_2 \\
&\leq 2\kappa^p (1 + \eta)^p - 1 \leq 2\kappa^p \frac{(1 + \eta)^p - 1}{(1 - \eta)^p}
\end{align*} \]
where $\kappa = \|M\|_2 \|M^\dagger\|_2$ is the condition number of $M$.

- For large $p$, let the top-$k$ eigenspace of $M_1$ and $M_i$ be respectively $V_k^{(1)}$ and $V_k^{(i)}$ (both of which are orthonormal). The $k$-largest eigenvalue of $M$ is denoted by $\sigma_k (M_1)$ and similarly for $\sigma_k (M_i)$. Then by Lemma 22, we have
  \[ \text{dist}(V_k, V_k^{(i)}) \leq \frac{\|M_i - M\|_2}{\delta_k^{(i)}} \leq \frac{\eta \sigma_1}{\delta_k^{(i)}}. \]
where $\sigma_1 = \sigma_1(M)$ and $\delta_k^{(i)} = \min\{|\sigma_j(M_i) - \sigma_k(M)| : j \geq k + 1\}$.

Note that local updates are equivalent to noiseless power method. Then, using Lemma 17 and setting $\epsilon = 0$ and $\mathcal{G} = 0$ therein, we have

$$\tan \theta_k(Z_t^{(i)}, V_k^{(i)}) \leq \left(\frac{\sigma_{k+1}(M_i)}{\sigma_k(M_i)}\right)^{1/4} \tan \theta_k(Z_{t-1}^{(i)}, V_k^{(i)}).$$

Hence,

$$\text{dist}(Z_t^{(i)}, Z_t^{(1)}) \leq \text{dist}(Z_t^{(i)}, V_k^{(i)}) + \text{dist}(V_k^{(i)}, V_k^{(1)}) + \text{dist}(V_k^{(1)}, Z_t^{(1)})$$

$$\leq \frac{\eta \sigma_1}{\delta_k^{(i)}} + \left(\frac{\sigma_{k+1}(M_i)}{\sigma_k(M_i)}\right)^{p/4} \tan \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k^{(i)}) + \left(\frac{\sigma_{k+1}(M)}{\sigma_k(M)}\right)^{p/4} \tan \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k^{(1)})$$

$$\leq \frac{\eta \sigma_1}{\min_i \delta_k^{(i)}} + 2\gamma_k^{p/4} \max_{i \in [m]} \tan \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k^{(i)}).$$

Combining the two cases, we have

$$\rho_t \leq \sqrt{2} \min \left\{ \frac{2\kappa^p \eta (1 + \eta)^{p-1}}{(1 - \eta)^p}, \frac{\eta \sigma_1}{\delta_k} + 2\gamma_k^{p/4} \max_{i \in [m]} \tan \theta_k(Z_{\tau(t)}, V_k^{(i)}) \right\}. $$

**Lemma 15 (Bound for $\rho_t$ when $\mathcal{F} = \{I_r\}$)** Let Assumption 1 hold with sufficiently small $\eta$. If $D_t^{(i)}$ is solved from

$$D_t^{(i)} = \arg\min_{D \in \mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{O}} \|Z_{t-1}^{(i)} D - Z_t^{(1)}\|_o,$$

with $\mathcal{F} = \{I_r\}$, then

$$\rho_t \leq 4\sqrt{2} \kappa^p \eta (1 + \eta)^{p-1},$$

where $\kappa = \|M\|_2 |M^\dagger|_2$ is the condition number of $M$, $p = t - \tau(u)$, $\tau(t) \in \mathcal{T}_t^p$ is defined as the nearest synchronization time before $t$.

**Proof** In this case, we are going to bound $\rho_t = \max_{i \in [m]} \|Z^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2$. Fix any $i \in [m]$ and $t \in [T]$. We will bound $\|Z^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2$ uniformly so that the bound holds for their maximum.

Fix any $i \in [m]$ and $t \in [T]$. Let $\tau(t)$ be the latest synchronization step before $t$ and $p = t - \tau(t)$ be the number of nearest local updates. Note that $Z_t^{(i)}$ and $Z_t^{(1)}$ are the $Q$-factor of the QR factorization of $M^p_t \mathcal{Z}_{\tau(t)}$ and $M^1_t \mathcal{Z}_{\tau(t)}$. Let $\tilde{Z}_t$ be the $Q$-factor of the QR factorization of $M^p \mathcal{Z}_{\tau(t)}$. Then Lemma 19 yields

$$\|Z_t^{(i)} - \tilde{Z}_t\|_2 \leq \sqrt{2k} \frac{\| (M^p \mathcal{Z}_{\tau(t)})^\dagger \|_2 \| (M^p - M^p) \mathcal{Z}_{\tau(t)} \|_2}{1 - \| (M^p \mathcal{Z}_{\tau(t)})^\dagger \|_2 \| (M^p - M^p) \mathcal{Z}_{\tau(t)} \|_2} = \frac{\sqrt{2k}}{1 - \omega}.$$
where $\omega = \|(M^p Z_{r(t)})^\dagger\|_2 \|(M^p - M^p) Z_{r(t)}\|_2$ for short. If $\omega \leq 1/2$, then we have $\|Z_t^{(i)} - \tilde{Z}_t\|_2 \leq 2\sqrt{2}k\omega$. Otherwise, we have $\omega \geq 1/2$ and $\|Z_t^{(i)} - \tilde{Z}_t\|_2 \leq 2 \leq \sqrt{2k} \leq 2\sqrt{2k}\omega$. Then we have for all $i \in [m],$

$$\|Z_t^{(i)} - \tilde{Z}_t\|_2 \leq 2\sqrt{2k}\|(M^p Z_{r(t)})^\dagger\|_2 \|(M^p - M^p) Z_{r(t)}\|_2.$$ 

Hence,

$$\rho_t = \|Z_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2$$

$$\leq \|Z_t^{(i)} - \tilde{Z}_t\|_2 + \|\tilde{Z}_t - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2$$

$$\leq 2\sqrt{2k}\left[\|(M^p Z_{r(t)})^\dagger\|_2 \|(M^p - M^p) Z_{r(t)}\|_2 + \|(M^p Z_{r(t)})^\dagger\|_2 \|(M^p - M^p) Z_{r(t)}\|_2\right]$$

$$\leq \frac{4\sqrt{2k}}{\rho} \left[1 + (1 + \eta)p - 1\right]$$

$$\leq 4\sqrt{2k}p\eta(1 + \eta)^{p-1},$$

where $\kappa = \|M\|_2\|M^\dagger\|_2$ is the condition number of $M$. ■

The next lemma provides a lower bound for $\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_m$, which is needed when using Lemma 11 to carry out the convergence analysis of FedPower.

**Lemma 16 (Bound for $\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_m$)** Recall that

$$\rho_t = \max_i \|Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2 = \max_i \|Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(1)}\|_2.$$ 

Then the following holds

(a) If $\tilde{Z}_t := \sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}$, then

$$\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_m \geq 1 - (1 - p_1)\max_i \rho_t := \mu_t1;$$

(b) If $\tilde{Z}_t := \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}$, then

$$\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_m \geq 1 - \max_i \rho_t := \mu_t2;$$

(c) If $\tilde{Z}_t := \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}$, then

$$\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_m \geq \frac{m}{K} \left(\min_{S_r(t)} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i - \max_{S_r(t)} \sum_{i \in S_r(t)} p_i\right) \max_i \rho_t := \mu_t3.$$ 

where

**Proof** It suffices to show $\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_2 \leq 1/\mu_t (\mu_t = \mu_t1, \mu_t2, \mu_t3)$ by noting $\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_m\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_2 = 1$. Next we show (a), (b) and (c), respectively.

(a) For $\tilde{Z}_t = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)}$, we have

$$\|\tilde{Z}_t\|_2 = \max\{\|w\|_2 : \|\sum_{i=1}^m p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} w\|_2 \leq 1\}.$$
When \( t \in T^p_T \), \( O_t^{(i)} = 1 \) and \( Z_t^{(i)} \)'s are equal, hence \( \|Z_t^{(i)}\|_2 = 1 \) and the result holds naturally. When \( t \notin T^p_T \), we have

\[
\| \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} w \|_2 \leq \| \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} w \|_2 \geq \| \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} w \|_2 \geq \| w \|_2 (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \| Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2) \geq \| w \|_2 (1 - \sum_{i \neq 1} p_i \| Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2) \geq \| w \|_2 (1 - \sum_{i \neq 1} p_i \| Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2) \geq \| w \|_2 (1 - \sum_{i \neq 1} p_i \| Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2) \geq \| w \|_2 \mu_{t1}.
\]

Hence, \( \|Z_t^{(i)}\|_2 \leq 1/\mu_{t1} \).

(b) For \( Z_t = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} \), we have

\[
\| \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} w \|_2 = \| \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} w \|_2 \geq \| \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} w \|_2 \geq \| w \|_2 (1 - \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} \| Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2) \geq \| w \|_2 \mu_{t2},
\]

then the result follows.

(c) For \( Z_t = \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} \), we have

\[
\| \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} O_t^{(i)} w \|_2 = \| \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} w \|_2 \geq \| \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} p_i Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} w \|_2 \geq \| w \|_2 (1 - \frac{m}{K} \sum_{i \in S_{(t)}} \| Z_t^{(i)} D_t^{(i)} - Z_t^{(i)} \|_2) \geq \| w \|_2 \mu_{t2},
\]

and the result follows.

\[ \square \]

D. Auxiliary lemmas

**Lemma 17 (Lemma 2.2 of Hardt and Price (2014))** Let \( V_k \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k} \) denote the top \( k \) eigenvectors of \( \frac{1}{n} A^T A \) and let \( \sigma_1 \leq ... \leq \sigma_d \) denote its singular values. Let \( Z \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \) with \( Z^T Z = I_r \) for some \( r \geq k \). Let \( \mathcal{G} \) satisfy

\[
4\|V_k^T \mathcal{G}\|_2 \leq (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \cos \theta_k (V_k, Z) \quad \text{and} \quad 4\|\mathcal{G}\|_2 \leq (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \epsilon,
\]

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for some $\epsilon \leq 1$. Then

$$
\tan \theta_k(V_k, \frac{1}{n}A^T AZ + \mathcal{G}) \leq \max \left( \epsilon, \max \left( \epsilon, \left( \frac{\sigma_{k+1}}{\sigma_k} \right)^{1/4} \right) \right) \tan \theta_k(V_k, Z).
$$

Lemma 18 (Corollary 1.1 of Hardt and Price (2014)) Let $k$ and $r$ $(k \leq r)$ be the target rank and iteration rank, respectively. Let $V_k \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ denote the top $k$ eigenvectors of $\frac{1}{n}A^T A$ and let $\sigma_1 \leq \ldots \leq \sigma_d$ denote its singular values. Suppose $Z_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_{d \times r})$. Assume the noisy power method iterates as follows,

$$
Y_t \leftarrow \frac{1}{n}A^TAZ_{t-1} + \mathcal{G}_t \quad \text{and} \quad Z_t \leftarrow \text{orth}(Y_t),
$$

where $Z_t \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$ with $Z_t^T Z_t = I_r$ and $\mathcal{G}_t$ is some noisy perturbation that satisfies

$$
5\|\mathcal{G}_t\|_2 \leq \epsilon(\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \quad \text{and} \quad 5\|V_k^T \mathcal{G}_t\|_2 \leq (\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}) \frac{\sqrt{r - \sqrt{k+1}}}{\tau \sqrt{d}},
$$

for some fixed $\tau$ and $\epsilon < 1/2$. Then with all but $\tau^{-\Omega(r+1-k)} + e^{-\Omega(d)}$ probability, there exists an $\tilde{T} = O(\frac{\sigma_k}{\sigma_k - \sigma_{k+1}} \log(d/\epsilon))$ so that after $\tilde{T}$ steps

$$
\| (I - Z_{\tilde{T}} Z_{\tilde{T}}^T) V_k \|_2 \leq \epsilon.
$$

Lemma 19 Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ with $d \geq k$ be any matrix with full rank. Denote by its QR factorization as $A = QR$ where $Q$ is an orthogonal matrix. Let $E$ be some perturbation matrix and $A + E = \hat{Q}\hat{R}$ the resulting QR factorization of $A + E$. When $\|E\|_2 \|A^T\|_2 < 1$, $A + E$ is of full rank. What’s more, it follows that

$$
\|\hat{Q} - Q\|_F \leq \sqrt{2k} \frac{\|A^T\|_2 \|E\|_2}{1 - \|A^T\|_2 \|E\|_2}.
$$

Proof Actually, we have

$$
\|\hat{Q} - Q\|_F \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\|E\|_2} \frac{1}{1 - \|A^T\|_2 \|E\|_2},
$$

where (a) comes from Theorem 5.1 in Sun (1995); (b) uses $\ln(1 + x) \leq x$ for all $x > -1$; and (c) uses $\|E\|_F \leq \sqrt{k}\|E\|_2$.

Lemma 20 (Proposition 2.4 of Rudelson and Vershynin (2010)) Let $A$ be an $N \times n$ random matrix whose entries are independent mean zero sub-gaussian random variables and whose subgaussian moments are bounded by 1. Then

$$
\mathbb{P}(\|A\|_2 > C(\sqrt{N} + \sqrt{n}) + t) \leq 2\exp(-ct^2), \quad t \geq 0,
$$

where $c$ and $C$ denote positive absolute constants.
Lemma 21 (Matrix Bernstein inequality (Tropp (2015), Chapter 6)) Consider a finite sequence \( \{S_k\} \) of independent, random matrices with common dimension \( d_1 \times d_2 \).

Assume that
\[
E S_k = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \|S_k\|_2 \leq L \quad \text{for each index } k.
\]

Introduce the random matrix
\[
Z = \sum_k S_k.
\]

Let \( \nu(Z) \) be the matrix variance statistics of the sum:
\[
\nu(Z) = \max\{\|E(ZZ^\top)\|_2, \|E(Z^\top Z)\|_2\}.
\]

Then
\[
E\|Z\|_2 \leq \sqrt{2\nu(Z)\log(d_1 + d_2)} + \frac{1}{3}L\log(d_1 + d_2).
\]

Moreover, for all \( t \geq 0 \),
\[
P(\|Z\|_2 \geq t) \leq (d_1 + d_2)\exp\left(\frac{-t^2/2}{\nu(Z) + Lt/3}\right),
\]

for which it is helpful to make a further estimate:
\[
P(\|Z\|_2 \geq t) \leq \begin{cases} (d_1 + d_2) \cdot e^{-3t^2/8\nu(Z)}, & t \leq \nu(Z)/L \\ (d_1 + d_2) \cdot e^{-3t/8L}, & t \geq \nu(Z)/L. \end{cases}
\]

Lemma 22 (Davis-Kahan \( \sin(\theta) \) theorem) Let the top-\( k \) eigenspace of \( M \) and \( \tilde{M} \) be respectively \( U_k \) and \( \tilde{U}_k \) (both of which are orthonormal). The \( k \)-largest eigenvalue of \( M \) is denoted by \( \sigma_k(M) \) and similarly for \( \sigma_k(\tilde{M}) \). Define \( \delta_k = \min\{\|\sigma_k(M) - \sigma_j(\tilde{M})\| : j \geq k+1\} \), then
\[
dist(U_k, \tilde{U}_k) = \sin\theta_k(U_k, \tilde{U}_k) \leq \frac{\|M - \tilde{M}\|_2}{\delta_k}.
\]

Lemma 23 (Perturbation theorem of projection distance) Let \( \text{rank}(X) = \text{rank}(Y) \), then
\[
dist(X, Y) \leq \min\{\|X^\top\|_2, \|Y^\top\|_2\}\|X - Y\|_2.
\]

Proof See Theorem 2.3 of Ji-Guang (1987).

Lemma 24 (Uniform sampling) Let \( \eta, \zeta \in (0, 1) \). Assume the rows of \( A_i \) are sampled from the rows of \( A \) uniformly at random. Assume each node has sufficiently many samples, that is, for all \( i \in m \),
\[
s_i \geq \frac{3\mu \rho}{\eta^2} \log\left(\frac{\rho m}{\zeta}\right),
\]

where \( \rho \) is the rank of \( A \) and \( \mu \) is the row coherence of \( A \). Then with probability greater than \( 1 - \zeta \), Assumption 1 holds.
E. Definitions on subspace distance

In this subsection, we introduce additional definitions and lemmas on metrics between two subspaces. Let $O_{d \times k}$ be the set of all $d \times k$ orthonormal matrices and $O_k$ short for $O_{k \times k}$ denote the set of $k \times k$ orthogonal matrices.

**Principle Angles.** Given two matrices $U, \tilde{U} \in O_{d \times k}$ which are both full rank with $1 \leq k \leq d$, we define the $i$-th ($1 \leq i \leq k$) between $U$ and $\tilde{U}$ in a recursive manner:

$$
\theta_i(U, \tilde{U}) = \min \left\{ \arccos \left( \frac{x^T y}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2} \right) : x \in \mathcal{R}(U), y \in \mathcal{R}(\tilde{U}), x \perp x_j, y \perp y_j, \forall j < i \right\},
$$

where $\mathcal{R}(U)$ denotes by the space spanned by all columns of $U$. In this definition, we require that $0 \leq \theta_1 \leq \cdots \leq \theta_k \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ and that $\{x_1, \cdots, x_k\}$ and $\{y_1, \cdots, y_k\}$ are the associated principal vectors. Principle angles can be used to quantify the similarity between two given subspaces.

We have following facts about the $k$-th principle angle between $U$ and $\tilde{U}$:

**Fact 1** Let $U^\perp$ denote by the complement subspace of $U$ (so that $[U, U^\perp] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ forms an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^d$) and so does $\tilde{U}^\perp$,

1. $\sin \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}) = \|U^T \tilde{U}^\perp\|_2 = \|\tilde{U}^T U^\perp\|_2$;
2. $\tan \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}) = \| \left[ (U^\perp)^T \tilde{U} \right] (U^T \tilde{U})^\dagger \|_2$ where $\dagger$ denotes by the Moore-Penrose inverse.
3. For any reversible matrix $R \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$, $\tan \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}) = \tan \theta_k(U, \tilde{U} R)$.

**Fact 2** Let $U^\perp$ denote by the complement subspace of $U$ (so that $[U, U^\perp] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ forms an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^d$) and so does $\tilde{U}^\perp$,

1. $\sin \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}) = \|U^T \tilde{U}^\perp\|_2 = \|\tilde{U}^T U^\perp\|_2$;
2. $\tan \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}) = \| \left[ (U^\perp)^T \tilde{U} \right] (U^T \tilde{U})^\dagger \|_2$ where $\dagger$ denotes by the Moore-Penrose inverse.
3. For any reversible matrix $R \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$, $\tan \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}) = \tan \theta_k(U, \tilde{U} R)$.

**Projection Distance.** Define the projection distance between two subspaces by

$$
dist(U, \tilde{U}) = \|UU^T - \tilde{U} \tilde{U}^T\|_2.
$$

This metric has several equivalent expressions:

$$
dist(U, \tilde{U}) = \|U^T \tilde{U}^\perp\|_2 = \|\tilde{U}^T U^\perp\|_2 = \sin \theta_k(U, \tilde{U}).
$$

More generally, for any two matrix $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$, we define the projection distance between them as

$$
dist(A, B) = \|U_A U_A^T - U_B U_B^T\|_2,
$$

where $U_A, U_B$ are the orthogonal basis of $\mathcal{R}(A)$ and $\mathcal{R}(B)$ respectively.

---

3. Unlike the spectral norm or the Frobenius norm, the projection norm will not fall short of accounting for global orthonormal transformation. Check Ye and Lim (2016) to find more information about distance between two spaces.
Orthogonal Procrustes. Let $U, \tilde{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ be two orthonormal matrices. $\mathbb{R}(U)$ is close to $\mathbb{R}(\tilde{U})$ does not necessarily imply $U$ is close to $\tilde{U}$, since any orthonormal invariant of $U$ forms a base of $\mathbb{R}(U)$. However, the converse is true. If we try to map $\tilde{U}$ to $U$ using an orthogonal transformation, we arrive at the following optimization

$$O^* = \arg\min_{O \in \mathcal{O}_k} \|U - \tilde{U}O\|_F,$$

where $\mathcal{O}_k$ denotes the set of $k \times k$ orthogonal matrices. The following lemma shows there is an interesting relationship between the subspace distance and their corresponding basis matrices. It implies that as a metric on linear space, $\text{dist}(U, \tilde{U})$ is equivalent to $\|U - \tilde{U}O^*\|_2$ (or $\min_{O \in \mathcal{O}_k} \|U - \tilde{U}O\|_2$) up to some universal constant. The optimization problem involved in is named as the orthogonal procrustes problem and has been well studied (Schönemann, 1966; Cape, 2020).

**Lemma 25** Let $U, \tilde{U} \in \mathcal{O}_{d \times k}$ and $O^*$ is the solution of the following optimization,

$$O^* = \arg\min_{O \in \mathcal{O}_k} \|U - \tilde{U}O\|_F,$$

Then we have

1. $O^*$ has a closed form given by $O^* = W_1W_2^\top$ where $\tilde{U}^\top U = W_1\Sigma W_2$ is the singular value decomposition of $\tilde{U}^\top U$.

2. Define $d(U, \tilde{U}) := \|U - \tilde{U}O^*\|_2$ where $\| \cdot \|_2$ is the spectral norm. Then we have

$$d(U, \tilde{U}) = \sqrt{2 - 2\sqrt{1 - \text{dist}(U, \tilde{U})^2}} = 2\sin\frac{\theta_k(U, \tilde{U})}{2}.$$

3. $d(U_1, U_2) = d(U_2, U_1)$ for any $U_1, U_2 \in \mathcal{O}_{d \times k}$.

4. $\text{dist}(U, \tilde{U}) \leq d(U, \tilde{U}) \leq \sqrt{2}\text{dist}(U, \tilde{U})$.

5. Define

$$\ell(U, \tilde{U}) := \min_{O \in \mathcal{O}_k} \|U - \tilde{U}O\|_2.$$

Then $\ell(U, \tilde{U})$ is a metric satisfying

- $\ell(U, \tilde{U}) \geq 0$ for all $U, \tilde{U} \in \mathcal{O}_{d \times k}$. $\ell(U, \tilde{U}) = 0$ if and only if $\mathbb{R}(U) = \mathbb{R}(\tilde{U})$.
- $\ell(U, \tilde{U}) = \ell(\tilde{U}, U)$ for all $U, \tilde{U} \in \mathcal{O}_{d \times k}$.
- $\ell(U_1, U_2) \leq \ell(U_1, U_3) + \ell(U_3, U_2)$ for any $U_1, U_2$ and $U_3 \in \mathcal{O}_{d \times k}$.

6. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\text{dist}(U, \tilde{U}) \leq \ell(U, \tilde{U}) \leq d(U, \tilde{U}) \leq \sqrt{2}\text{dist}(U, \tilde{U})$.

**Proof** The first item comes from Schönemann (1966). The second item comes from Cape (2020). The third and forth items follow from the second one. The fifth item follows directly from definition. For the rightest two $\leq$ of the last item, we use $\ell(U, \tilde{U}) \leq d(U, \tilde{U})$ and the forth item. For the leftest $\leq$, we use $\min_{O \in \mathcal{O}_k} \|U - \tilde{U}O\|_2 \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\min_{O \in \mathcal{O}_k} \|U - \tilde{U}O\|_F$ and $\min_{O \in \mathcal{O}_k} \|U - \tilde{U}O\|_F \geq \text{dist}(U, \tilde{U})$ (which is referred from Proposition 2.2 of Vu et al. (2013)).

\[\boxtimes\]
F. One-shot baseline algorithms

In this subsection, we provide the three algorithms that we compared in the experiments.

Algorithm 4 Unweighted Distributed Averaging (UDA) (Fan et al., 2019b)

1: **Input:** distributed dataset \( \{A_i\}_{i=1}^m \) with \( A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{s_i \times d} \), target rank \( k \).
2: **Local:** Each device computes the rank-\( k \) SVD of \( M_i = \frac{1}{s_i}A_i^T A_i \) as \( \hat{V}_i \Sigma_i \hat{V}_i^T \) with \( \Sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k} \) and \( \hat{V}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k} \).
3: **Server:** The central server computes \( \hat{M} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{V}_i \Sigma_i \hat{V}_i^T \), then output the top \( k \) eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors of \( \hat{M} \).

Algorithm 5 Weighted Distributed Averaging (WDA) (Bhaskara and Wijewardena, 2019)

1: **Input:** distributed dataset \( \{A_i\}_{i=1}^m \) with \( A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{s_i \times d} \), target rank \( k \).
2: **Local:** Each device computes the rank-\( k \) SVD of \( M_i = \frac{1}{s_i}A_i^T A_i \) as \( \hat{V}_i \Sigma_i \hat{V}_i^T \) with \( \Sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k} \) and \( \hat{V}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k} \).
3: **Server:** The central server computes \( \hat{M} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{V}_i \Sigma_i \hat{V}_i^T \), then output the top \( k \) eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors of \( \hat{M} \).

Algorithm 6 Distributed Randomized SVD (DR-SVD)

1: **Input:** distributed dataset \( \{A_i\}_{i=1}^m \), \( A = [A_1^T, \cdots, A_m^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \) with target rank \( k \), \( A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{s_i \times d} \) and \( r = k + \lfloor \frac{d-k}{4} \rfloor \).
2: The server generates a \( d \times r \) random Gaussian matrix \( \Omega \);
3: The server learns \( Y = A A^T \Omega \) and obtains an orthonormal \( Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r} \) by QR decomposition on \( Y \);
4: Let \( Q = [Q_1^T, \cdots, Q_m^T]^T \) with \( Q_i \in \mathbb{R}^{s_i \times r} \) and each worker receives \( Q_i \);
5: The \( i \)-th worker computes \( B_i = Q_i^T A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times d} \) for all \( i \in [m] \);
6: The server aggregate \( B = \sum_{i=1}^m B_i = Q^T A \) and perform SVD: \( B = \hat{U} \hat{\Sigma} \hat{V}^T \);
7: Set \( \hat{U} = Q \hat{U} \);
8: **Output:** the first \( k \) columns of \( (\hat{U}, \hat{\Sigma}, \hat{V}) \).

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