# Near-Optimal Private and Scalable $k$-Clustering 

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#### Abstract

We study the differentially private (DP) $k$-means and $k$-median clustering problems of $n$ points in $d$-dimensional Euclidean space in the massively parallel computation (MPC) model. We provide two near-optimal algorithms where the near-optimality is in three aspects: they both achieve (1). $O(1)$ parallel computation rounds, (2). near-linear in $n$ and polynomial in $k$ total computational work (i.e., near-linear running time when $n$ is a sufficient polynomial in $k$ ), (3). $O(1)$ relative approximation and poly $(k, d)$ additive error. Note that $\Omega(1)$ relative approximation is provably necessary even for any polynomial-time non-private algorithm, and $\Omega(k)$ additive error is a provable lower bound for any polynomial-time DP $k$-means/median algorithm. Our two algorithms provide a tradeoff between the relative approximation and the additive error: the first has $O(1)$ relative approximation and $\sim\left(k^{2.5}+k^{1.01} \sqrt{d}\right)$ additive error, and the second one achieves $(1+\gamma)$ relative approximation to the optimal non-private algorithm for an arbitrary small constant $\gamma>0$ and with $\operatorname{poly}(k, d)$ additive error for a larger polynomial dependence on $k$ and $d$. To achieve our result, we develop a general framework which partitions the data and reduces the DP clustering problem for the entire dataset to the DP clustering problem for each part. To control the blow-up of the additive error introduced by each part, we develop a novel charging argument which might be of independent interest.


## 1 Introduction

Over the last decade, the leakage of private information by machine learning and data mining algorithms has had dramatic consequences, from losses of billions of dollars [60] to even costing human lives [8]. Thus, protecting data privacy has become a top priority constraint in many modern machine learning and data mining problems.
This high demand has stimulated an important research effort to design algorithmic techniques enabling privacy-preserving algorithms. In recent years, the elegant notion of differential privacy (DP) [34] has become the gold standard for privacy-preserving algorithms [38, 67, 33, 1]. Informally, differential privacy requires the output (distribution) of the algorithm to remain almost the same under a small adversarial perturbation of the input.
$k$-Means and $k$-median clustering are fundamental and widely-studied problems in unsupervised learning. They are used to analyze and extract information from massive datasets in machine learning and data mining tasks. In particular, given a set of $n$ points $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d}$ within a ball of radius $\Lambda$, the goal is to find a set $\mathcal{C}$ of $k$ centers such that the clustering cost $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \min _{c \in \mathcal{C}} d^{p}(x, c)$ is minimized,

[^0]where the power $p=1,2$ stands for $k$-median and $k$-means respectively. The importance of data privacy has sparked an important research effort on designing accurate and efficient differentially private $k$-means and $k$-median algorithms [15, 62, $39,47,58,73,64,65,71,42,5,63,52,70,69$ 44, 53, 19, 61, 20, 14, 24]. In the above line of work, one can distinguish two separate efforts: one effort emphasizing the approximation guarantees, namely aiming at best possible approximation guarantee (under privacy constraints) in polynomial time, and a second effort targeting practical and efficient differentially private algorithms. More concretely, none of the above works achieve optimal accuracy and efficiency at the same time, i.e., the algorithms achieving $O(1)$ relative approximation and $\Lambda^{p} \cdot \operatorname{poly}(k, \log (n))$ additive error have running time at least $n^{1+\Omega(1)} \cdot d$ (see e.g., [70, 44]), and the algorithms with running time proportional to $\tilde{O}(n d)^{3}$ and polynomial in the number of centers, $k$, have either relative approximation $\Omega(\log n)$ or additive error $\Lambda^{p} \cdot n^{\Omega(1)}$ (see e.g., [24, 14]). In this work, we reconcile these two lines of work and present two algorithms that both achieve near optimal approximation guarantee and near optimal running time simutaneously. Our two algorithms provide a tradeoff between the relative approximation and the additive error. In particular, the first algorithm runs in $\tilde{O}(n d)+\operatorname{poly}(k)$ time and outputs a solution with $O(1)$ relative approximation and roughly $\left(k^{2.5}+k^{1.01} \sqrt{d}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{p}$ additive error (we ignore minor dependencies on $\log n$ and the privacy parameters $\varepsilon, \delta$ in the additive error). The second algorithm runs in $\tilde{O}(n d k)+\operatorname{poly}(k)$ time and outputs a solution with $(1+\gamma) \rho$ relative approximation and roughly poly $(k, d) \cdot \Lambda^{p}$ additive error for a larger polynomial dependence on $k, d$, where $\gamma>0$ is an arbitrarily small constant and $\rho$ is the best relative approximation of any polynomial-time non-private algorithm. Our approximation guarantee is near optimal since the $\Omega(1)$ relative approximation is necessary even for any non-private polynomial-time algorithm [28, 27, 26, 55] and $\Omega\left(k \cdot \Lambda^{p}\right)$ is a provable lower bound for additive error achieved by any polynomial-time DP algorithm [47]. In addition, the approximation guarantees of our algorithms match the best previous DP algorithms [70, 44] while our algorithms have faster running time. In fact, our running time is almost tight when $k=n^{o(1)}$ because $\Omega(n d)$ time is necessary to read all input points.

Importantly, our algorithms are scalable. In the era of massive datasets, in-memory sequential algorithms struggle to handle billions of data points. Algorithms that are suitable for large-scale distributed/parallel computational systems such as MapReduce [32] are more desired. It motivates the study of algorithms in the massively parallel computation (MPC) model [54, 46, 11]. In the MPC model, there are multiple machines where each has local memory that is sublinear in the data size. The computation proceeds in rounds. In each round, each machine sends/receives messages to/from other machines but the size of messages sent/received by a machine cannot exceed its local memory. As long as the local memory per machine is at least polynomial in $k$ and at least $n^{\theta}$ for a small constant $\theta$, our algorithms can be easily implemented in the MPC model with $O(1)$ computation rounds and total space (total memory size across all machines) linear in the input data size. Note that $\Omega(k)$ local memory is needed for all previous non-private $o(\log n)$-round MPC $O(1)$-approximate $k$-means and $k$-median clustering algorithms (see e.g., [36, 40, 4, 6, 10, 18, 41]).

### 1.1 Other Related Work

$k$-Means and $k$-median clustering have seen a large body of work over the past few decades. There have been numerous works obtaining $O(1)$-approximation algorithms for both $k$-means and $k$-median, using either local search or primal-dual techniques. The state-of-the-art approximation algorithms are a 5.912-approximation for Euclidean $k$-means and a 2.406 -approximation for Euclidean $k$ median, due to [25]. Two other fruitful methods of improving algorithms for these problems are coresets [21, 40, 51, 31, 29], which replace the dataset of points with a smaller set, and dimensionality reduction [22, 56], which reduces the number of dimensions of the ambient Euclidean space the points reside in.

There is a line of work studying $k$-means and $k$-median problems under parallel, distributed and streaming computational models. A popular way to tackle these clustering problems at scale is via coresets. A coreset is a small weighted subset of input points such that a good clustering solution for coreset yields a good approximate clustering to the original input point set. $k$-Means and $k$-median coresets have been extensively studied in the literature (e.g, [40, 6, 10, 18, 16, 41, 17]), and most of them can be implemented in the MPC model in $O(1)$ rounds as long as the memory per machine is at

$$
{ }^{3} \tilde{O}(f(n)):=f(n) \cdot \operatorname{poly}(\log f(n))
$$

least $\operatorname{poly}(k)$, i.e., is large enough to hold the entire coreset. Other approaches to solve $k$-means and $k$-median in parallel are via quad-tree [13] or locality sensitive hashing [12]. These data partitioning based approaches require less local memory size but provide worse approximations or output more than $k$ centers (and so pertain to the line of work sacrificing approximation guarantees to practicality and efficiency). Notice that none of the previous scalable algorithms are differentially private.
Our paper focuses on differentially private $k$-means and $k$-median clustering in Euclidean space, which, as described previously, has seen significant work over the past several years. The paper [70] was the first paper to provide a differentially private algorithm for $k$-means clustering with $O(1)$ multiplicative ratio, and additive error polynomial in $k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}$, and $\log \delta^{-1}$. Later, [44] improved their result by obtaining an algorithm with multiplicative ratio arbitrarily close to the best non-private $k$-means (or $k$-median) approximation, at the cost of a much larger polynomial dependence on $k$ in the additive error. The paper [24] was the first paper to study private clustering in the Massively Parallel Computing framework, obtaining a polylogarithmic multiplicative ratio for $k$-means and $k$-median with polylogarithmic rounds of communication and computation. We also remark that [63, 70, 69, 19, 20] also provided private algorithms for $k$-means clustering in the local differential privacy model, but these algorithms all have additive errors proportional to at least $\sqrt{n}$.

### 1.2 Our Results

In this paper, we provide nearly optimal algorithms for differentially private $k$-means and $k$-median, in the MPC setting with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication and computation. We gave a brief, informal description of our results previously. We now formally state the two main theorems that we will prove about private clustering in the MPC model. In our MPC setting, we assume that we have $n^{1-\theta}$ machines, each of which can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right)$ points in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, where $\theta>0$ can be an arbitrarily small constant. (Equivalently, each machine has $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} \cdot d\right)$ space and the total amount of space is $\tilde{O}(n \cdot d)$ ).
Theorem 1.1. (Theorem E.4) There exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering with multiplicative error $O(1)$ and additive error $\left(k^{2.5}+k^{1.01} \sqrt{d}\right) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, assuming each machine can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq\left(k^{1.5}+d^{0.5}\right) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication and computation, total sequential running time $\tilde{O}(n d)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, and total time per machine $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$.
Theorem 1.2. (Theorem E.9p Suppose that there exists a polynomial-time algorithm that can compute a $\rho$-approximation to $k$-means (resp., $k$-median). Then, for any constant $\rho^{\prime}>\rho$, there exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ algorithm for $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) with multiplicative error $\rho^{\prime}$ and additive error poly $\left(k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication and computation, total sequential time $\tilde{O}(n d)$, and total time per machine $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$, assuming each machine can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq \operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points.

Our two results are similar to the results of [70] and [44], respectively, except that our algorithms are implementable in MPC with $O(1)$ rounds, and our algorithm has near-linear dependence on the size of the dataset $n$ (whereas [70] and [44] have polynomial dependence on $n$ ). We also remark that our additive error for the first algorithm is slightly worse than that of [70] (which had $k^{1.5}+k^{1.01} d^{0.51}$ ), and our additive error for the second algorithm matches that of [44].
Our results improve over the best MPC algorithm for private $k$-means and $k$-median [24], as we have an $O(1)$-approximation whereas their paper had a poly $\log n$-approximation. In addition, our result only needs $O(1)$ rounds of communication between machines, whereas they require $\log n$ rounds for $k$-median and poly $\log n$ rounds for $k$-means.

### 1.3 Technical Overview and Roadmap

In this subsection, we assume for simplicity that we are dealing with $k$-means. The overall outline for $k$-median is quite similar.

Some natural approaches and why they don't work. A first natural approach is to apply a uniform sampling approach. In other words, we can consider sampling $n^{\theta}$ points at random, moving them to a single machine, and then performing a sequential private clustering algorithm on this
machine. This idea of uniform sampling for private clustering was recently used by [14]. While they proved that this method ensures differential privacy, their additive error is quite large: they prove that with $T$ samples one can obtain total additive error of roughly $n / \sqrt{T} \cdot \Lambda^{2}$. Even if we sampled $n / 2$ points at random, this equals $\sqrt{n} \cdot \Lambda^{2}$, whereas we wish for a much smaller additive error of $\operatorname{poly}(k) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$. One can also construct examples, even when $k=2$, where random sampling must induce large additive error. For instance, if we co-locate $n-\sqrt{n}$ points at the origin and co-locate $\sqrt{n}$ points at a point $\Lambda$ away from the origin, the optimal cost for 2 -means is 0 , but a random sample of $\sqrt{n}$ points, with constant probability, consists only of points located at the origin. Therefore, any algorithm applied to the sampled points will completely fail to recognize the second cluster, and will incur an $\Omega\left(\sqrt{n} \cdot \Lambda^{2}\right)$ error.
Another tempting approach to obtain an efficient and scalable DP algorithm with optimal approximation guarantees is to implement the $O(1)$-approximate private algorithms of [70] or [44] in the MPC setting. Unfortunately, both of these algorithms have an intrinsic sequential behavior that makes this approach difficult. The algorithm of [70] relies on a private local search procedure of [47], which appears very difficult to implement in MPC without a number of rounds of communication of $\Omega(k)$. The algorithm of [44] relies on iteratively finding and peeling off a "privately"-dense ball of points. This method requires roughly $O(k \log n)$ iterations, and again appears very difficult to implement in $O(1)$ parallel rounds.

Our approach: we describe our overall procedure, and give intuition for some of the details.

Overall procedure. Our overall algorithm can be split into three main steps.

1. Reduce the dimensionality of the problem $d$ to $O(\log k)$. This will remove large dependencies on the dimension for both the runtime and additive error.
2. Compute in MPC a private and very efficient but weak $k$-means (or $k$-median) solution: Namely a solution with an $\omega(1)$-approximation guarantee and that may use up to $O\left(k \log ^{2} n\right)$ centers instead of just $k$ centers.
3. Combine the weak but efficient MPC solution with an $O(1)$-approximate private sequential algorithm to obtain an efficient $O(1)$-approximate MPC algorithm.

We remark that the first and third steps can be done using two different but related methods. The first method obtains an $O(1)$-approximation with additive error proportional to approximately $k^{2.5}+$ $k^{1.01} \sqrt{d}$ (i.e., Theorem 1.1). The second method obtains a approximation factor within an arbitrary factor $\gamma$ of even the best known non-private and sequential algorithm, but with additive error proportional to approximately $k^{\tilde{O}\left(1 / \gamma^{2}\right)}$ (i.e., Theorem 1.2. We discuss the second step in Section 3 , the first method of doing the third step in Section4, the second method of doing the third step in Section [5] and both ways of doing the first step in Section 6. We now just focus on a key idea for the third step, and will give more algorithmic description and intuition in the later sections of this paper. All formal proofs are deferred to the appendix.

Charging Additive Error to Multiplicative Error. As previously mentioned, a direct sampling approach fails because it incurs a too large additive error. However, we show that we can still use sampling if we sort the points appropriately and do not sample each point with the same probability. The first idea we use is inspired by Chen [21], which is to start with our weak MPC centers, and map each point $x$ to a bucket $(j, r)$, where $j$ represents the closest of the weak centers to $x$, and $r$ approximates the distance from $x$ to this center. Our next idea is to show that if we apply a private clustering procedure on a random sample of a fixed size in each bucket, we can charge the large additive cost obtained to a small constant-factor blowup in the multiplicative cost. The intuition for this is that if the average cost of each point is roughly $R$, then most points in our weak approximation are still roughly within $O(R)$ of the weak centers, and therefore get mapped to buckets represented by much smaller balls. So, we can then apply a private sequential algorithm on these buckets with total error depending on $R^{2}$ rather than on $\Lambda^{2}$. We will show that, by using properties of the initial weak solution, the large additive error can be replaced with a small multiplicative error, even if the sample size $T$ for each bucket is small.
To explain the above intuition further, in our analysis we apply a Chernoff bound and some properties of high-dimensional Euclidean space to show that if there are $m$ points in a bucket all within radius
$R$ of each other, we accumulate roughly $R^{2} \cdot m / \sqrt{T}$ additive error, as opposed to a more naive $\Lambda^{2} \cdot m / \sqrt{T}$ error (which would be obtained by [14]). We can then evenly distribute the error between each of the $m$ points, to obtain $R^{2} / \sqrt{T}$ error per point. We charge the error of each point to the squared distance of each point to its center in the weak approximation, which is roughly equal to $R^{2}$. So, when we add over all points, the error across all points is roughly $1 / \sqrt{T}$ times the overall cost of the weak approximation. So, if the weak solution had cost at most $\alpha$ times the optimal $k$-means cost, if the sampling size $T$ is much bigger than $\alpha^{2}$ then the total error is much smaller than the optimal cost. Hence, we are able to charge the total additive error into a small multiplicative error!

## 2 Preliminaries

We present some basic definitions and setup that will be sufficient for explaining our algorithms for the main body of the paper. We defer the full set of preliminaries to Appendix A

### 2.1 Differential Privacy

Definition 2.1 ([34]). A (randomized) algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is said to be $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-differentially private $((\varepsilon, \delta)$ DP for short) if for any two "adjacent" datasets $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ and any subset $S$ of the output space of $\mathcal{A}$, we have

$$
\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{X}) \in S) \leq e^{\varepsilon} \cdot \mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{A}\left(\mathcal{X}^{\prime}\right) \in S\right)+\delta
$$

In our setting, we say that two datasets $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ are adjacent if we can convert $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ either by adding, removing, or changing a single data point. We remark that in all of our algorithms, we will implicitly assume that $\varepsilon, \delta \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
A ubiquitous method we use to ensure privacy is the Laplace Mechanism. Simply, this is a method where we privatize a statistic of the data by adding noise $\operatorname{Lap}(t)$ to the statistic for some $t>0$, where $\operatorname{Lap}(t)$ has the $\operatorname{PDF} \frac{1}{2 t} \cdot e^{-|x| / t}$. It is well-known that if $f(\mathcal{X})$ is a statistic that never changes by more than $\Delta$ between any two adjacent datasets $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}^{\prime}$, then $f(\mathcal{X})+\operatorname{Lap}(\Delta / \varepsilon)$ is $(\varepsilon, 0)$-DP.

### 2.2 The Massively Parallel Computation (MPC) Model

In the MPC model, there are multiple machines where each machine has sublinear local memory. The input data points are distributed arbitrarily on the machines before computation starts. The computation proceeds in rounds. In each round, each machine reads its local data and performs computations. At the end of each round, each machine sends/receives messages to/from other machines. The total size of messages sent/received by a machine in each round does not exceed the local memory size. The output is distributed on machines at the end of the computation. The MPC algorithm with small number of rounds and small total space (total memory across all machines) is desired. Furthermore, scalability is also considered in many applications and thus we want the local memory required by the algorithm as small as possible. There are many scalable MPC algorithmic primitives. The most basic one is sorting.
Theorem 2.2 ([46, 45]). There is an MPC algorithm which sorts $N$ data items in $O(1)$ rounds using $O(N)$ total space. The local memory per machine required is at most $O\left(N^{\theta}\right)$ for arbitrary small constant $\theta>0$.

Based on the sorting primitive above, other basic subroutines such as indexing, prefix sum and set aggregation can be easily implemented in the MPC model with same complexity as sorting. We refer readers to Appendix E of [3] for more basic MPC algorithmic primitives.

## $2.3 k$-Means and $k$-Median Clustering

For two points $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, we define $d(x, y)$ to be the Euclidean distance between $x$ and $y$. For a set $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ of points, we define $d(x, \mathcal{C})=d(\mathcal{C}, x)$ to be $\min _{c \in \mathcal{C}} d(x, c)$.
In both $k$-means and $k$-median clustering, we are given a dataset of points $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ in $d$-dimensional Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. We further assume that the points in $\mathcal{X}$ are in $B(0, \Lambda)$, which is the ball of radius $\Lambda$ about the origin in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. Our goal in $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) clustering is
to find a subset $\mathcal{C}$ of $k$-points that minimizes the cost of $\mathcal{X}$ with respect to $\mathcal{C}$. Specifically, for a set of centers $\mathcal{C}$, we define $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}):=\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} d(x, \mathcal{C})^{p}$, where $p=2$ in the setting of $k$-means and $p=1$ in the setting of $k$-median. Occasionally, we may assign each point $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}$ a positive weight $w_{i}$, in which case we define $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}):=\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}} w_{i} \cdot d\left(x_{i}, \mathcal{C}\right)^{p}$. We also define $\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$ to be the minimum value of $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})$ for any set of $k$ points $\mathcal{C}$.

Our goal in differentially private clustering is to produce a set of $k$ centers $\mathcal{C}$ such that $\mathcal{C}$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{X}$, and such that $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq \alpha \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+V \cdot \Lambda^{p}$ (where $p=2$ for $k$-means and $p=1$ for $k$-median). If we obtain this guarantee, we say that we have an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (or $k$-median) with multiplicative ratio $\alpha$ and additive error $V$. In the MPC model, our goal is to make a machine output the set of $k$ centers at the end of the algorithm.
Finally, we briefly discuss coresets. For a dataset $\mathcal{X} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ and for some $\gamma \leq \frac{1}{2}$ and $W \geq 0$, a $(\gamma, W)$-coreset is a dataset $\mathcal{Y}$ that estimates $\mathcal{X}$ with respect to $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering, i.e., $(1-\gamma) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})-W \cdot \Lambda^{p} \leq \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{Y} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq(1+\gamma) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})+W \cdot \Lambda^{p}$ for all subsets $\mathcal{C} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ of size at most $k$. We will also want the dataset $\mathcal{Y}$ to have much fewer distinct points than $\mathcal{X}$, though each point in $\mathcal{Y}$ may have large multiplicity. In the setting of non-private coresets, we usually have $W=0$, in which case we write $\gamma$-coreset to mean $(\gamma, 0)$-coreset. We note the following theorem regarding MPC algorithms for non-private coresets.
Theorem 2.3 ([17, 40, 41]). Consider $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. There exists a non-private MPC algorithm which outputs a $k$-means/k-median $\gamma$-coreset with size $\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n, 1 / \gamma)$ in $O(1)$ rounds for $\gamma \in(0,0.5)$. The total space needed is $O(n d)+\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n, 1 / \gamma)$, and the local memory per machine required is poly $(k, d, \log n, 1 / \gamma)$. In addition, the total running time over all machines is at most $O(n d)+\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n, 1 / \gamma)$.

## 3 A Preliminary Bicriteria Approximation

A key tool in all of our $k$-means and $k$-median algorithms is an initial, crude approximation for $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering. Specifically, we start with a bicriteria approximation, which means that the algorithm may output a list of more than $k$ centers. Our algorithm is very efficient, only needing constant rounds of communication and computation, and essentially optimal time per machine.
Theorem 3.1. There exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ algorithm that, given a dataset $\mathcal{X} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ of size $n$, computes a set of $O\left(k \log ^{2} n\right)$ points $\mathcal{F}$ that provides a $d^{O(1)}$-approximation to the best $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering with additive error $k \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ rounds of communication and computation, and $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$ time per machine.

Our techniques for this section heavily rely on a data structure called a Quadtree. This data structure involves creating a nested series of grids partitioning $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. The quadtree has varying levels, where the 0th level is a very coarse grid, and each subsequent level further refines the previous level with smaller grid pieces. The Quadtree can be used to embed the input points into a so-called "Hierarchically Separated Tree" (HST) metric, for which computing $k$-median cost is often much simpler than computing $k$-median in Euclidean space. Indeed, [24] uses this embedding, along with a dynamic programming approach, to provide a private approximation to $k$-median with multiplicative approximation $O\left(d^{3 / 2} \log n\right)$ and additive approximation $O(k) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, d, \varepsilon^{-1}\right)$.

Unfortunately, we cannot directly use their approach for two reasons. The first is that their dynamic programming approach requires roughly $\log n$ rounds of communication across machines for $k$ median (and poly $\log n$ rounds for $k$-means), whereas we wish for $O(1)$ rounds. The second is that their approach runs into a barrier when the memory per machine is below roughly $\sqrt{n}$, whereas we want an MPC algorithm even if each machine can only store $n^{\theta}$ points for an arbitrarily small $\theta>0$.
Our method of developing a bicriteria approximation is inspired by the Quadtree and embeddings into this HST metric, but we avoid the issues above by using a greedy approach rather than a dynamic programming one. Specifically, we will consider each level of the Quadtree grid separately, and map every point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ to the grid center $x$ lies in. We then approximately choose the $O(k)$ centers that have the most points in them, using a private selection mechanism. We will have to do this for logarithmically many levels, which causes us to have a bicriteria approximation. To analyze this procedure, we avoid looking at the HST metric and instead consider the number of points $n_{r}$ that are
of distance $r$ away from some center for every choice of radius $r$. We then use an integration by partsbased idea to analyze the $k$-means (or $k$-median) cost based on summing a weighted combination of $n_{r}$ over $r$, which we use to establish our accuracy bounds. Our greedy method can be implemented in $O(1)$ rounds of communication and computation for both $k$-means and $k$-median.

The full details of the algorithm and analysis, including pseudocode, are deferred to Appendix B

## 4 A Constant Approximation in MPC

In this section, we describe how to combine our bicriteria approximation from Section 3 , along with the sequential private $O(1)$-approximate algorithm from [70], to obtain a parallel $O(1)$-approximate algorithm using only $O(1)$ rounds of communication and computation. Specifically, we prove the following.
Theorem 4.1. There exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (or $k$-median) with multiplicative ratio $O(1)$ and additive error $k^{2.5} \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, assuming each machine stores $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq k^{1.5} \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ rounds of communication and computation, total sequential running time $\tilde{O}(n d)+$ $\operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, and total time per machine $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$.

We remark that large polynomial dependencies in $d$ are not crucial, as we will use dimensionality reduction in Section 6 to set $d=O(\log k)$.
Our algorithm is inspired by the coreset framework of Chen [21], who shows how to convert a bicriteria approximation into a coreset for clustering (in the sequential, non-private setting). The rough method is to start with an approximate set of cluster centers $\mathcal{F}$ of $\beta \cdot k$ points for some $\beta>1$, and map each point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ to its nearest neighbor in $\mathcal{F}$. Then, the points in $\mathcal{X}$ are split into "rings", based on their closest point and their approximate distance to that closest point. Finally, the points in each ring are replaced by a uniform sample of a few points in each ring, to create a small coreset.

Ordinarily, when performing DP $k$-means $/ k$-median over $n$ points, we incur additive cost proportional to $\Lambda^{p}$, where $\Lambda$ is the diameter of the pointset. Hence, naive application of using private $k$-means $/ k$ median on a random subset (or even a coreset) of $T$ points is quite bad, as we have to scale each point by a factor of $n / T$ for the weights to match, which induces a $n / T \cdot \Lambda^{p}$ additive error. In reality, the induced additive error is actually worse, and behaves like $n / \sqrt{T} \cdot \Lambda^{p}$. However, an important insight we have, as noted in Subsection 1.3] is that when using the framework of Chen [21], we can charge much of the additive cost to multiplicative cost. Namely, if we perform a private $k$-means $/ k$-median algorithm on a random sample of $T$ points in each ring separately, if the ring had radius $R \ll \Lambda$, we would roughly incur additive error proportional to $R^{p} / \sqrt{T}$ per point, rather than $\Lambda^{p} / \sqrt{T}$.

We then use the properties of the bicriteria approximation to show that if we add this error across all rings, the additive error is actually only a small multiple of the optimal cost, as opposed to a much worse $n / \sqrt{T} \cdot \Lambda^{p}$. Recall that if $R_{i}$ represents the approximate distance of each point $x_{i}$ to its bicriteria center, then $\sum_{i} R_{i}^{p}$ is at most $d^{O(1)}$ times more than the optimal $k$-means cost (plus some small multiple of $\Lambda^{p}$ ), by Theorem 3.1. Hence, if $T$ is roughly $d^{O(1)}$, we can get the overall additional error induced by each $R^{p} / \sqrt{T}$ error per point is at most $O(1)$ times the optimal $k$-means cost. This is what allows us to get a multiplicative approximation with small additive cost. We remark that some rings may have fewer than our desired $T$ points, in which case we cannot sample $T$ random points and incur an additional small additive cost. Finally, is quite simple to sample $T$ points in each ring in parallel, and map each sample to a separate machine. We can then use a sequential private $k$-means algorithm for each sample separately, as we can store the $T$ points on a single machine.

One additional issue is that this procedure has to find $k$ points for each ring, and there will end up being roughly $O(k \cdot$ poly $\log n)$ rings. So this means we need $O\left(k^{2} \cdot\right.$ poly $\left.\log n\right)$ centers, whereas we only want $k$ centers. Our way of fixing this is to convert our $k$ centers into a "semi-coreset" by mapping each point in a ring to its closest point in the corresponding private set of centers, and then adding Laplace noise to the multiplicities of the set. These semi-coresets will be private, which means we can apply a non-private MPC $k$-means algorithm on the union of all the semi-coresets to generate a final set of points, since the semi-coresets have already been privatized. Also, while they are not true coresets, we show that any $O(1)$-approximate $k$-means algorithm applied on the union of all the semi-coresets still provides an $O(1)$-approximate solution for the original dataset.

We present the algorithm pseudocode in below in Algorithm 1 and defer the full analysis to Appendix C. We remark that we replace some instances of mapping points to the nearest center with mapping them to an approximately nearest center, which is useful in speeding up runtime.

```
Algorithm 1 A constant approximation algorithm for differentially private \(k\)-means (or \(k\)-median) in
MPC.
    procedure \(\operatorname{ConstantApprox}(\mathcal{X}, \varepsilon, \delta) \quad \triangleright\) Will be \((O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))\)-DP.
        Let \(T=\operatorname{poly}\left(d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot k^{1.5}\) be a sufficiently large threshold parameter.
        Let \(\mathcal{F}=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{\beta \cdot k}\right\}\) be an \((\varepsilon, \delta)\)-DP bicriteria approximation for \(k\)-clustering of \(\mathcal{X}\), using
    Theorem 3.1 and where \(\beta=O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)\).
        for all \(x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}\) do
            Assign \(x_{i}\) to bucket \((j, r)\) if \(x_{i}\) has \(f_{j}\) as a \(O(\log n)\)-approximate nearest neighbor, with
    \(d\left(x_{i}, f_{j}\right) \approx \frac{\Lambda}{2^{n}} \cdot 2^{r}\).
        for all \(j \leq \beta \cdot k, r \leq O(\log n)\) do
            Let \(\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\) be set of points \(x_{i}\) assigned to \((j, r)\).
            Let \(\hat{N}_{j, r}:=\left|\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\).
            if \(\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T\) then
                Sample \(T\) random points \(\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}\) from \(\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\).
                Send \(\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}\) to one machine, and use [70] on each machine to find a \(k\)-clustering \(\mathcal{G}_{j, r}\).
                Replace each point in \(\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}\) with an \(O(1)\)-approximate nearest neighbor in \(\mathcal{G}_{j, r}\).
                \(\operatorname{Add} \operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\) noise to the multiplicity of each point in the replaced data set, to create
    dataset \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}\).
            else
                Let \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}=\emptyset\).
        Let \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}=\bigcup_{j, r} \hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}\).
        Return a non-private MPC \(k\)-means clustering algorithm on \(\mathcal{Y}\), using, e.g., [17].
```


## 5 An Arbitrarily Good Approximation in MPC

In this section, we present a different method of combining the bicriteria approximation from Section 3 with a sequential private $O(1)$-approximation from [70] to obtain a parallel approximate algorithm achieving arbitrarily close multiplicative ratio to the best non-private sequential algorithm. While we obtain an improved multiplicative approximation ratio, we suffer a larger additive error. Specifically, we prove the following.
Theorem 5.1. Suppose that there exists a polynomial-time algorithm that can compute a $\rho$ approximation to $k$-means (resp., $k$-median). Then, for any constant $\rho^{\prime}>\rho$, exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) with multiplicative ratio $\rho^{\prime}$ and additive error poly $\left(k, e^{d}, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, assuming each machine can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq$ $\operatorname{poly}\left(k, e^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points, the algorithm is implementable in MPC with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication and computation, and $O\left(n^{\theta} k d\right)$ time per machine.

We remark that while there is an exponential dependence on the dimension $d$ in both the runtime and additive error, in Section 6, we show how to replace the $e^{d}$ with poly $(k)$ additive error.

Our overall procedure has two steps. The first step is to convert an $O(1)$-approximate private sequential algorithm into a private sequential coreset: this is somewhat similar to Ghazi et al. [44], which provides a similar guarantee but has a runtime dependence that is polynomial in $n$ as opposed to near-linear in $n$. The second step is to convert a private sequential coreset into a private parallel coreset.

For the first step, we start with a private $O(1)$-approximate clustering, and as in Section 3, we split the dataset $\mathcal{X}$ into roughly $O(k \log n)$ rings based on each point's closest center and the distance to that center. For each ring, we use a result of Ghazi et al. [44] inspired by the theory of error-correcting codes, which forms a "cover" of each ring of size roughly exponential in the dimension, which is a method of selecting points such that every point in the ring is reasonably close to at least 1 point in the cover. We can create the cover in parallel, and then map every point to its closest point in the
cover in $e^{O(d)}$ time. We can use this cover and a Laplace mechanism to construct a private coreset of the data, though the coreset will have size exponential in the dimension.
For the second step, we apply a similar method to Section 4, again using the insight of charging additive error to multiplicative error. We again start with our weak parallel coreset from Section 3 partition the points into rings, and sample uniformly from each ring which allows each ring's sample to fit on a single machine. Now, for each sample, we apply the private coreset procedure from the first step, and together we obtain a large private coreset. We finally apply a non-private MPC clustering algorithm on the already privatized coreset.
The full details of the algorithm and analysis, including pseudocode, are deferred to Appendix D .

## 6 Dimensionality Reduction

Our algorithm for dimensionality reduction relies on [56], which shows that a random projection $\Pi$ down to $O(\log k)$ dimensions can approximate every $k$-clustering of $n$ points simultaneously. While this may seemingly imply that we can automatically assume $d=O(\log k)$, this is not so obvious, because once we have found a set of centers $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{O(\log k)}$, it is unclear how to pull this back up to a set of centers in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$.

Ghazi et al. [44] use dimensionality reduction to improve their exponential dependence on $d$ to a polynomial dependence on $k$ (as $e^{O(\log k)}=\operatorname{poly}(k)$ ). They start by constructing a random projection $\Pi$ down to $O(\log k)$ dimensions and compute a private set $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=\left\{c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{k}^{\prime}\right\}$ in the reduced dimension. They then map each point $x_{i}$ to a cluster $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ based on which point $c_{j}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ is closest to $\Pi x_{i}$. Finally, to obtain a set of centers in high dimensions, they compute a private average (for $k$-means) or geometric median (for $k$-median) of the points in each cluster $\mathcal{X}_{j}$.
The main issue in applying this method is that we wish for a very fast scalable algorithm that works in MPC, and it is unknown how to compute a private geometric median that is sufficiently scalable, i.e., runs in $O(1)$ MPC rounds and $\tilde{O}(n d)$ total work. Our first observation in obtaining an efficient algorithm is that, rather than computing a geometric median of the points, a coordinate-wise median serves as a reasonable proxy for the geometric median. Specifically, it has the important property of being within distance $O(r)$ of the geometric median of $\tilde{X}_{j}$ if at least $2 / 3$ of the points in $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ are within $r$ of the geometric median [59]. In addition, the coordinate-wise median can be computed on a small sample without significant error, and can be computed privately without much error either. We can therefore use an approximate coordinate-wise median for each cluster $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ to obtain an $O(1)$-approximate private and scalable clustering with minimal dependence on the dimension.

If we want arbitrarily good approximation, such as in Section 5, the coordinate-wise median is unfortunately not strong enough. To fix this, our rough intuition is to compute a private geometric median of a small uniform subsample of points, but only among those points close to the private coordinate-wise median. This idea of uniform subsampling to speed up runtime has been used in several previous algorithms for $k$-means, such as [23, 14, 30, 37]. As we perform the geometric median on a small sample, a polynomial-time algorithm is sufficient. In addition, by restricting ourselves to points close to the coordinate-wise median, we are able to replace additive error proportional to $\Lambda$ with additive error proportional to some smaller radius $R$, which we can charge to multiplicative error in a similar manner as in Sections 4 and 5. We remark that this algorithm may take $\tilde{O}(n d k)$ total time instead of $\tilde{O}(n d)$ time, but we fix this by performing another uniform subsampling trick at the beginning of the algorithm, which improves the runtime at the cost of a slight blowup in the additive error.

Overall, we obtain our main theorems of this paper, Theorems 1.1 and 1.2 , which correspond to dimension reduction applied to Theorems 4.1 and 5.1, respectively.
We provide pseudocode for Theorem 1.1 below, in Algorithm 2 The full algorithm and analysis for both theorems, as well as pseudocode for Theorem 1.2, are deferred to Appendix E.

```
Algorithm 2 A constant approximation algorithm for differentially private \(k\)-means (or \(k\)-median) in
MPC, with improved dependence on \(d\).
    procedure ConstantApproxHighDim \((\mathcal{X}, \varepsilon, \delta) \quad \triangleright\) Will be \((O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))\)-DP.
    Let \(T=O\left(\log (n d) \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}\right)\) be a threshold parameter.
    Let \(d^{\prime}=O(\log k)\), and pick a random projection \(\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime} \times d}\).
    Use Algorithm 1 to find a \(k\)-means clustering \(\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=\left\{c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{k}^{\prime}\right\}\) of \(\Pi \mathcal{X}=\left\{\Pi x_{1}, \ldots, \Pi x_{n}\right\}\).
    Let \(S \subset[n]\) be a random sample where each \(i \in S\) with probability \(k^{-0.01}\).
    Map each point \(\Pi x_{i}: i \in S\) to a 10-approximate nearest neighbor in \(\mathcal{C}^{\prime}\).
    for \(j=1\) to \(k\) do
            Let \(\mathcal{X}_{j}\) be the set of points \(x_{i}\) such that \(\Pi x_{i}\) is mapped to \(c_{j}^{\prime}\).
            Let \(\hat{N}_{j}=\left|\mathcal{X}_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\).
            if \(\hat{N}_{j} \geq 2 T\) then
                Sample \(T\) points in \(\mathcal{X}_{j}\), and let \(c_{j}\) be a private coordinate-wise median of the sampled
    points, where we use \(\left(\varepsilon /\left(2 \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}, 0\right)\right.\)-DP in each direction.
        else
            Let \(c_{j}\) be the origin.
        Return \(\mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}\)
```


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## Checklist

1. For all authors...
(a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope? [Yes] The introduction states the two final main theorems we prove (Theorems 1.1 and 1.2). The abstract also describes these, but in a simplified manner for easier readability.
(b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] All theorems explain what assumptions we use regarding the datasets (Theorems 1.1, 1.2, 3.1, 4.1, 5.1), see also Theorems in the Appendix.
(c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [No] This paper is purely theoretical.
(d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [Yes]
2. If you are including theoretical results...
(a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [Yes] We describe the assumptions about the data and sizes of machines in all theorem statements (Theorems 1.1, 1.2, 3.1, 4.1, 5.1, see also Theorems in the Appendix.
(b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [Yes] all formal proofs are deferred to Appendix.
3. If you ran experiments...
(a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [N/A] No Experiments.
(b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)? [N/A]
(c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times)? [N/A]
(d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [N/A]
4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
(a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [N/A]
(b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [N/A]
(c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [N/A]
(d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're using/curating? [N/A]
(e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable information or offensive content? [N/A]
5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
(a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable? [N/A]
(b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
(c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]

## A Preliminaries

In this section, we restate some of the preliminaries from Section 2, and also include some new important definitions and preliminary results that are of use. First, we recall that $\Lambda>0$ is some fixed real number and $B(0, \Lambda)$ is the ball of radius $\Lambda$ around the origin, which we assume all points in our dataset $\mathcal{X}$ will be part of. We will use $p$ to represent the exponent $p=1$ for $k$-median and $p=2$ for $k$-means.

We use the phrase with overwhelming probability to denote probability at least $1-1 / n^{C}$, where $C$ can be an arbitrarily large constant.

## A. 1 Differential Privacy

Recall the definition of differential privacy from Section 2
Definition A. 1 ([34]). A (randomized) algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is said to be $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-differentially private $((\varepsilon, \delta)$ DP for short) if for any two "adjacent" datasets $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ and any subset $S$ of the output space of $\mathcal{A}$, we have

$$
\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{X}) \in S) \leq e^{\varepsilon} \cdot \mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{A}\left(\mathcal{X}^{\prime}\right) \in S\right)+\delta
$$

When $\delta>0$, this is often referred to as approximate differential privacy, as opposed to pure differential privacy when $\delta=0$.

In our setting, we say that two datasets $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ are adjacent if we can convert $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ either by adding, removing, or changing a single data point. We remark that in all of our algorithms, we will implicitly assume that $\varepsilon, \delta \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
In Section 2, we described a simplified Laplace mechanism for approximating functions $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We now describe a more generalized Laplace mechanism for approximating a function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{R}^{m}$, where $m \geq 1$. The Laplace mechanism works by replacing the $i$ th coordinate $f(\mathcal{X})_{i}$ with $f(\mathcal{X})_{i}+\operatorname{Lap}(T)$ for some choice of $T>0$, where $\operatorname{Lap}(T)$ is the Laplace distribution with PDF $\frac{1}{2 T} \cdot e^{-|x| / T}$ at $x$. Importantly, the choices of $\operatorname{Lap}(T)$ for each dimension $i \in[m]$ is chosen independently. It is well-known (see, for instance, [35] or [72]) that if a function $f$ has sensitivity $\Delta$, meaning that $\left\|f(\mathcal{X})-f\left(\mathcal{X}^{\prime}\right)\right\|_{1} \leq \Delta$ for all adjacent $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}^{\prime}$, then the Laplace Mechanism with parameter $T$ is $(\Delta / T, 0)$-DP. We remark that we often will just use the simpler Laplace mechanism where $m=1$. In this case, note that the sensitivity just means an upper bound on $\left|f(\mathcal{X})-f\left(\mathcal{X}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ for adjacent $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}^{\prime}$.
Similar to the Laplace Mechanism, we can also implement the Truncated Laplace mechanism[43]: we will only use it for $m=1$, i.e., for approximating functions $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If $f$ has sensitivity $\Delta$, the Truncated Laplace Mechanism outputs $f(\mathcal{X})+\operatorname{TLap}(\Delta, \varepsilon, \delta)$, where $\operatorname{TLap}(\Delta, \varepsilon, \delta)$ is the distribution with PDF proportional to $e^{-|x| \cdot \varepsilon / \Delta}$ on the region $[-A, A]$, where $A=\frac{\Delta}{\varepsilon} \cdot \log \left(1+\frac{e^{\varepsilon}-1}{2 \delta}\right)$. Assuming $\varepsilon, \delta \leq \frac{1}{2}$, is known that if $f$ has sensitivity $\Delta$, then this mechanism is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP, and is always accurate up to error $\frac{\Delta}{\varepsilon} \cdot \log \frac{1}{\delta}$.
Next, we note two classic theorems regarding the privacy of composing private mechanisms (see, for instance, [35] or [72]).
Theorem A. 2 (Basic Adaptive Composition). Let $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_{k}$ be adaptive mechanisms on a dataset $\mathcal{X}$ such that each $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ is $\left(\varepsilon_{i}, \delta_{i}\right)$-differentially private as a function of $\mathcal{X}$, assuming that the previous outputs $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_{i-1}$ are fixed. Then, the mechanism $\mathcal{A}$ which concatenates the outputs of $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_{k}$ is $\left(\sum \varepsilon_{i}, \sum \delta_{i}\right)$-differentially private.
Theorem A. 3 (Strong Adaptive Composition). Let $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_{k}$ be adaptive mechanisms on a dataset $\mathcal{X}$ such that each $\mathcal{A}_{i}$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-differentially private as a function of $\mathcal{X}$, assuming that the previous outputs $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_{i-1}$ are fixed. Then, for any $\delta^{\prime}>0$, the mechanism $\mathcal{A}$ which concatenates the outputs of $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_{k}$ is $\left(\sqrt{2 k \log \delta^{-1}} \cdot \varepsilon+k \varepsilon\left(e^{\varepsilon}-1\right), k \delta+\delta^{\prime}\right)$-differentially private.

## A. 2 Clustering

First, we recall the basic definitions relating to distance and clustering cost.
Definition A.4. For two points $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, we define $d(x, y):=\|x-y\|_{2}$ to be the Euclidean distance between $x$ and $y$. In addition, for a set $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ of points and a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, we define $d(x, \mathcal{C})=d(\mathcal{C}, x)$ to be $\min _{c \in \mathcal{C}} d(x, c)$.

Definition A.5. For a set $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and a set of points $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ of size $k$, we define the $k$ means cost $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}):=\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} d(x, \mathcal{C})^{2}$. Likewise, we define the $k$-median $\operatorname{cost} \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}):=$ $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} d(x, \mathcal{C})$. Occasionally, we may assign each point $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}$ a positive weight $w_{i}$, in which case we define $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}):=\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}} w_{i} \cdot d\left(x_{i}, \mathcal{C}\right)^{p}$ ( $p=1$ for $k$-median and $p=2$ for $k$-means). If the context is clear, we will not specify whether we are talking about $k$-means or $k$-median cost.

In addition, we define $\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})=\min _{\mathcal{C}:|\mathcal{C}|=k} \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})$ to be the minimum $k$-means (or $k$-median) cost.

In $k$-means or $k$-median clustering, given a dataset $\mathcal{X} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ of size $n$, our goal is to efficiently find a set of points $\mathcal{C}$ such that $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})$ is a good approximation to $\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$. In general, we wish for purely multiplicative approximations, but due to the nature of private $k$-means (and $k$-median), we will additionally have a small additive approximation that is proportional to $\Lambda^{p}$. We now define approximate $k$-means $/ k$-median solutions.
Definition A.6. For any $\alpha \geq 1$, a set $\mathcal{C}$ of size $k$ is said to be an $\alpha$-approximate for $\mathcal{X}$ with additive error $V$ if $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq \alpha \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+V \cdot \Lambda^{p}$.

We also define bicriteria solutions for $k$-means and $k$-median: here, we are allowed to use a larger dataset $\mathcal{C}$ that may have more than $k$ points, but still compare to the optimal $k$-clustering.
Definition A.7. For any $\alpha, \beta \geq 1$, a set $\mathcal{C}$ is said to be an $(\alpha, \beta)$-bicriteria approximate solution for $\mathcal{X}$ with additive error $V$ if $|\mathcal{C}| \leq \beta \cdot k$ and $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq \alpha \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+V \cdot \Lambda^{p}$.

Finally, we also note an important result on dimensionality reduction for clustering, due to [56].
Theorem A.8. Let $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be a set of points in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, and fix some integer $k \leq n$ and a real number $\gamma \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Let $d^{\prime}=C \gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)$ for a sufficiently large constant $C$. Then, for $\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime} \times d}$ chosen where each entry of $\Pi$ is i.i.d. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{d^{\prime}}} \cdot \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ (we will call this matrix $\Pi$ a "random projection" down to $d^{\prime}$ dimensions), the optimal $k$-means costs $\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$ and $\mathrm{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X})$ are equal up to a $1 \pm \gamma$ multiplicative cost. Likewise, the optimal $k$-median costs $\mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$ and $\mathrm{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X})$ are also equal up to a $1 \pm \gamma$ multiplicative cost.

In addition, the following stronger claim holds simultaneously for every partition of $\mathcal{X}$ into $\mathcal{X}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{X}_{k}$. We have that the minimum $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) cost where each $\mathcal{X}_{i}$ is a single cluster, and the minimum $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) cost where each $\Pi \mathcal{X}_{i}$ is a single cluster, are equal up to a $1 \pm \gamma$ multiplicative factor.

We note that the minimum $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) cost when the clusters $\mathcal{X}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{X}_{k}$ are fixed is determined by setting each center $c_{i}$ to be the mean (resp., geometric median) of the points in $\mathcal{X}_{i}$.

## A. 3 Massively Parallel Computation (MPC)

We recall the description of the MPC model from Subsection 2.2. In our setting of clustering, we will assume that there are $O\left(n^{1-\theta}\right)$ machines, each of which can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right)$ points of dimension $d$. So, the total memory is $\tilde{O}(n d)$.
We remark that we will frequently use the phrase near-linear time: this will represent an MPC algorithm that uses at most $\tilde{O}(n d)$ total time across all machines, and at most $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$ time in any individual machine.

We recall the primitive of sorting, and copy Theorem 2.2 here.
Theorem A.9. (Sorting) [46, 45] There is an MPC algorithm which sorts $N$ data items in $O(1)$ rounds using $O(N)$ total space. The local memory per machine required is at most $O\left(N^{\theta}\right)$ for an arbitrary small constant $\theta>0$.

We next will need the following primitive that we call aggregation, which follows from the primitive "Sizes of sets" in [3].
Lemma A.10. (Aggregation) Suppose we have $N$ items, each of which has a label $u$ in a universe $\mathcal{U}$ (which may be larger than $N$ ). There is an MPC algorithm which stores all tuples ( $u, n_{u}$ ), where $u \in U$ has at least one item labeled with $u$ and $n_{u}$ counts the number of such items, using $O(1)$ rounds and $O(N)$ total space. The local memory per machine required is at most $O\left(N^{\theta}\right)$ for an arbitrary small constant $\theta>0$.

In addition, we will need the following primitive that we call sampling, which follows from the primitive "Indexing elements in sets" in [3].
Lemma A.11. (Sampling) Suppose we have $N$ items which are partitioned into $k$ sets $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{k}$. Each item comes with an index in $[k]$ representing its set. Then, for any positive integer $T$, we can simultaneously choose a random sample of size $T$ from each $S_{i}$ (and if $\left|S_{i}\right| \leq T$, we simply choose all elements of $S_{i}$ ). This can be done in MPC with $O(1)$ rounds, $\tilde{O}(N)$ total space, and local memory at most $O\left(N^{\theta}\right)$ for an arbitrary small constant $\theta>0$.

Proof. For each element $x$, we assign it a random key $\ell$ between 1 and $N^{O(1)}$. With high probability there is no collision of keys. For each element $x$, say it is assigned the pair $(j, \ell)$, where $x \in S_{j}$ and $\ell$ is the key. We sort the elements based on $j$ and tiebreaking with $\ell$, using Theorem A. 9 .
Now, the "indexing elements in sets" procedure of [3] allows us to determine the relative position of each $x$ in its set $S_{j}$, for all $j \in[k]$ simultaneously. In other words, it can determine how many elements $x^{\prime}$ also in $S_{j}$ have the same or lower key than $x$, since we have sorted all points in $S_{j}$ in order of key. Thus, if we store all elements $x$ such that this value is at most $T$, we are exactly storing the elements with the $T$ lowest keys among elements in $S_{j}$, simultaneously for all $j \in[k]$. Since the keys were random, this is exactly the sampling procedure we want.

Finally, we require an algorithm for solving $k$-means or $k$-median in MPC, which follows from the MPC coreset algorithm of Theorem 2.3
Theorem A.12. (MPC $k$-means/k-median) [17 40 41] Consider n points in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. Suppose there exists a polynomial-time (sequential, non-private) $\rho$-approximation to $k$-means (resp., $k$-median). Then, there exists a non-private MPC algorithm which outputs a $\rho(1+\gamma) k$-means (resp., $k$-median) solution, for any arbitrarily small constant $\gamma>0$, in $O(1)$ rounds. The total space needed is $O(n d)+\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n, 1 / \gamma)$, and the local memory per machine required is $\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n, 1 / \gamma)$. In addition, the total running time over all machines is at most $O(n d)+\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n, 1 / \gamma)$.

## A. 4 Approximate Near Neighbors and Randomly Shifted Grids

In our algorithms, we will also make use of Approximate Nearest Neighbor (ANN) data structures, as well as the Quadtree data structure which is composed of randomly shifted grids.
Definition A.13. [48] The $K$-approximate nearest neighbor ( $K$-ANN) problem with failure probability $\tau$ involves constructing a data structure over a set of points $\mathcal{C}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ supporting the following query: given any fixed query point $q \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, return a point $c \in \mathcal{C}$ such that with probability at least $1-\tau, d(q, c) \leq K \cdot \min _{c^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}} d\left(q, c^{\prime}\right)$.

This has been a very well-studied problem, with the following algorithm as the best-known ANN data structure in high-dimensional Euclidean space.
Theorem A.14. [2. 48 Given a dataset $\mathcal{C}$ of size $m \leq n$, there exists a data structure that can solve $K-A N N$ with failure probability $\tau=\frac{1}{\operatorname{poly}(n)}$, with total space $O\left(\left(d m+m^{1+1 / K^{2}+o(1)}\right) \cdot(\log n)\right)$ and query time $O\left(d \cdot m^{1 / K^{2}+o(1)} \cdot(\log n)\right)$. In addition, if $K=O(\log n)$, we can improve the total space to $O(d m \cdot$ poly $\log n)$ and the query time to $O(d \cdot$ poly $\log n)$.

Next, we describe the Quadtree data structure. This data structure has also been useful for approximate nearest neighbor algorithms, though we will analyze this data structure more directly.
Definition A.15. A randomly shifted Quadtree is constructed as follows. We start with a top level of some size $\Lambda$ and let level 0 be a single grid cell, which is the $d$-dimensional hypercube $[-\Lambda, \Lambda]^{d}$. Next, we choose a uniformly random point $\nu=\left(\nu_{1}, \ldots, \nu_{d}\right) \in[-\Lambda, \Lambda]^{d}$, which will represent our shift vector. Now, for each level $\ell \geq 1$, we partition the region $[-\Lambda, \Lambda]^{d}$ into grid cells of size $\Lambda / 2^{\ell}$, shifted by $\nu$. In other words, each cell is the form $\left[\nu_{1}+a_{1} \cdot \Lambda / 2^{\ell}, \nu_{1}+\left(a_{1}+1\right) \cdot \Lambda / 2^{\ell}\right] \times \cdots \times\left[\nu_{d}+\right.$ $\left.a_{d} \cdot \Lambda / 2^{\ell}, \nu_{d}+\left(a_{d}+1\right) \cdot \Lambda / 2^{\ell}\right]$, where $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$. We say that $\Lambda / 2^{\ell}$ is the grid size at level $\ell$. (We remark that we may truncate some grid cells so that they do not escape $[-\Lambda, \Lambda]^{d}$.) We continue this for some number of levels, until we reach some bottom level.

We will only need the following straightforward fact about Quadtrees.

Proposition A.16. Let $B$ be an $\ell_{\infty}$ ball of radius $r$ contained in $[-\Lambda, \Lambda]^{r}$ (so it forms a d-dimensional cube with each side length $2 r$ ). Then, for a randomly shifted quadtree and any level $\ell$ with grid size at least $r^{\prime} \geq 2 r, B$ is split by the grid in each dimension $j \in[d]$ independently with probability $1-\frac{2 r}{r^{\prime}}$.

## A. 5 List-Decodable Covers

In this subsection, we note an important result on list-decodable covers, which we will use in a similar manner as [44] to obtain a differentially private coreset of the data for either $k$-means or $k$-median. First, we need the following definition, which is restated from [44].
Definition A.17. Given a ball $B$ centered around some point $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and radius $R$, we say that a set of points $\mathcal{H}$ is a $\gamma$-cover of $B$ if for every point $x \in B$, there exists $h \in \mathcal{X}$ such that $d(x, h) \leq \gamma \cdot R$.
In addition, we say that a $\gamma$-cover of $B$ is list-decodable with list size $\ell$ at distance $\gamma^{\prime} \geq \gamma$ if, for any $x \in B$, the number of points $h \in \mathcal{H}$ with $d(x, h) \leq \gamma^{\prime} \cdot R$ is at most $\ell$. Furthermore, we say that the $\gamma$-cover is efficiently list-decodable at distance $\gamma^{\prime}$ if there exists an efficient algorithm that, for any $x \in B$, recovers all such points $h \in \mathcal{H}$ with $d(x, h) \leq \gamma \cdot R$ in time poly $\left(\ell, d, \log \gamma^{-1}\right)$.

We will need the following lemma from [44], which is based on previous work of [66, 57].
Lemma A.18. For every $0<\gamma<1$, and any ball $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ there exists a $\gamma$-cover $\mathcal{H}$ that is efficiently list-decodable at distance $\gamma^{\prime}$ with list size $\ell=\left(1+\frac{\gamma^{\prime}}{\gamma}\right)^{O(d)}$. In addition, the cover is formed by a lattice, for which a basis can be constructed in time $e^{O(d)}$.

As a corollary, we have the following, by setting $\gamma^{\prime}=1$ and applying the efficient list-decodable property with radius $\gamma^{\prime}$ around the center $\mu$ of $B$.
Corollary A.19. For any ball $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ with center $\mu$ and radius $R$, and for any $\gamma \leq 1$, there exists a $\gamma$-cover $\mathcal{H}$ of $B$ of size at most $O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$. In addition, all the points of the cover can be found in time $O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$.

## A. 6 Sampling Lemmas

In this subsection, we note some useful lemmas relating to subsampling a dataset. First, we prove a sampling lemma that shows that via uniform sampling, one can approximate the $k$-means cost, as well as the $k$-median cost, of a set of points, up to some combined additive and multiplicative error. This lemma is essentially proven in [21, 49], but due to some minor changes in the statement we want, we prove it for completeness.
Lemma A.20. Let $0<\kappa, \gamma<1$, and let $n \geq N \geq T$ be fixed integers such that $T \geq$ $\Theta\left(\frac{k \cdot d \cdot \log \left((\kappa \gamma)^{-1}\right)+\log n}{\kappa^{2} \cdot \gamma^{2}}\right)$. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a dataset of size $N$ entirely contained in a unit ball of radius 1. Consider selecting a random set $\mathcal{Y}$ of size $T$ in $\mathcal{X}$, selected without replacement. Then, with probability at least $1-1 / \operatorname{poly}(n)$ over $\mathcal{Y}$, for any $\operatorname{set} \mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k^{\prime}}\right\} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ of size at most $k$, and for either $p=1$ or $p=2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} d(\mathcal{C}, y)^{p}=(1 \pm \kappa) \cdot \frac{T}{N} \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} d(\mathcal{C}, x)^{p} \pm \gamma \cdot T \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. First, we may assume WLOG that the center of the ball is the origin, by shifting. In addition, we may assume that all of the distances from $c_{i}$ to the origin are within 2 of each other, i.e., $\max _{i}\left\|c_{i}\right\|_{2}-\min _{i}\left\|c_{i}\right\|_{2} \leq 2$. Otherwise, $d(\mathcal{C}, y)$ is the same as $d\left(\mathcal{C} \backslash\left\{\arg \max _{c_{i} \in \mathcal{C}}\left\|c_{i}\right\|_{2}\right\}, y\right)$ for any point $y$ in the unit ball. Next, we may assume that $\min _{i}\left\|c_{i}\right\|_{2} \leq O(1 / \kappa)$ (which means $\max _{i}\left\|c_{i}\right\|_{2} \leq O(1 / \kappa)$ ). This is because otherwise, $d(\mathcal{C}, y)^{2}=(1 \pm \kappa) \cdot d(\mathcal{C}, x)^{2}$ (and similarly $d(\mathcal{C}, y)=(1 \pm \kappa) \cdot d(\mathcal{C}, x))$ for any points $x, y$ in the unit ball. So, we just have to focus on $\mathcal{C}$ only containing points within $O(1 / \kappa)$ of the origin.

Now, we fix a subset $\mathcal{C}$ of size at most $k$ beforehand, and enumerate the points $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}\right\}$. For each $i \leq N$, define $a_{i}=d\left(\mathcal{C}, x_{i}\right) \leq O(1 / \kappa)$. Let $S \subset[N]$ be a random subset of $T$ elements chosen without replaccement. By using a version of Hoeffding's inequality without replacement [50], we have that $\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\sum_{i \in S} a_{i}-\frac{T}{N} \cdot \sum_{i \in[N]} a_{i}\right| \leq t\right) \leq 2 \cdot e^{-\Omega\left(t^{2}\right) / T}$, because the $a_{i}$ 's are all contained in an interval of radius 4 . This is because, as in the previous paragraph, we noted that all of the values $\left\|c_{i}\right\|$
are within 2 of each other, and all points $x_{i}$ are in a ball of radius 1 , so $d\left(c_{i}, x\right)=\left\|c_{i}\right\|_{2} \pm 1$ for any $x$ in the unit ball. Likewise, $\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\sum_{i \in S} a_{i}^{2}-\frac{T}{N} \cdot \sum_{i \in[N]} a_{i}^{2}\right| \leq t\right) \leq 2 \cdot e^{-\Omega\left(\kappa^{2} \cdot t^{2}\right) / T}$. This is true since the $a_{i}$ 's are in an interval of radius 4 and are all at most $O(1 / \kappa)$, which means the $a_{i}^{2}$ 's are concentrated in an interval of radius $O(1 / \kappa)$. So, if we set $t=\frac{\gamma \cdot T}{2}$, then we have that Equations (1) holds with failure probability at most $2 e^{-\Omega\left(\kappa^{2} \cdot \gamma^{2} \cdot T\right)} \leq 2 e^{-\Omega\left(k d \log \left((\kappa \gamma)^{-1}\right)+\log n\right)} \leq \frac{1}{\operatorname{poly}(n)} \cdot(\kappa \cdot \gamma)^{\Omega(k d)}$, for either $p=1$ or $p=2$.

Now, we must perform a union bound over all subsets $\mathcal{C}$. Although there are infinitely many of them, we may assume WLOG that the subset $\mathcal{C}$ is contained in some $\left(\frac{\gamma^{\cdot \kappa}}{100}\right)^{O(1)}$-cover of the $O(1 / \kappa)$-sized ball, which has size $(1 /(\kappa \cdot \gamma))^{O(d)}=(\kappa \cdot \gamma)^{-O(d)}$. Otherwise, we may move each point in $\mathcal{C}$ to the closest point in the net, which does not affect each $a_{i}=d\left(x_{i}, \mathcal{C}\right)$ or $a_{i}^{2}$ by more than $\gamma / 10$ additively. So, the number of possible subsets $\mathcal{C}$ of size at most $k$ is at most $(\kappa \cdot \gamma)^{-O(k d)}$, which means the overall failure probability is $\frac{1}{\operatorname{poly}(n)}$.

Finally, we note that any private algorithm applied on a sampled dataset is still private. Specifically, we have the following result.
Lemma A.21. Let $\varepsilon, \delta \leq \frac{1}{2}$, and let $\mathcal{A}$ be an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm on a dataset $\mathcal{Y}$. Now, let $\mathcal{B}$ be an algorithm on a dataset $\mathcal{X}$, where we first either sample every point in $\mathcal{X}$ independently with some fixed probability or sample $T$ random points in $\mathcal{X}$ without replacement for some fixed $T$, and then apply $\mathcal{A}$ to the sampled data points. Then, $\mathcal{B}$ is also $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$.

In fact, one can actually get slightly stronger bounds on the privacy of $\mathcal{B}$ if the sampling probability of each element is small (see, e.g., [7, 14]), but this will not end up being particularly useful in improving our theoretical guarantees significantly.

## B A Private MPC Bicriteria Approximation

In this section, we create a bicriteria approximation algorithm for $k$-means and $k$-median clustering, which runs in near-linear time and only uses $O(1)$ rounds of communication. In other words, this algorithm will have a multiplicative approximation but will also use more than $k$ centers. We will use this procedure as a starting point which will eventually give us an $O(1)$-approximation algorithm using only $k$ centers. Our technique for this section is somewhat inspired by [24], except we use a greedy approach rather than their dynamic programming approach to speed up the runtime and reduce the number of rounds of communication.

Theorem B.1. There exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ algorithm that, given a dataset $\mathcal{X} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ of size $n$, computes an $\left(O\left(d^{3}\right), \log ^{2} n\right)$-bicriteria approximation to the optimal $k$-means (or $k$-median) cost, with additive error $k \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, the algorithm only requires $O(1)$ rounds of communication in MPC in near-linear time.
Remark B.2. We are not particular about polynomial dependencies on $d$, as we will later show how to reduce $d$ to roughly $O(\log k)$.

Algorithm: We create a randomly shifted quadtree with bottom level having grid size $\Theta\left(\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$ and the top (0th) level being $[-\Lambda, \Lambda]^{d}$. Note that the quadtree has $\Theta(\log n)$ levels. Now, at each level $\ell$ of the quadtree, we count the number of points in each cell $\mathbf{c}$ and add Truncated Laplace noise $\operatorname{TLap}\left(1, \varepsilon / \log ^{2} n, \delta\right)$ noise. In other words, for every $\ell \leq O(\log n)$ and every cell $\mathbf{c}$ in level $\ell$, we compute a quantity $\tilde{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}$ which equals $|\mathcal{X} \cap \mathbf{c}|+\operatorname{TLap}\left(1, \varepsilon / \log ^{2} n, \delta / \log ^{2} n\right)$. We then, for each level $\ell$, pick the (up to) $4 k$ cells with largest $\tilde{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}$, assuming the counts are at least $2 \varepsilon^{-1} \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}$. We will run the above algorithm $O(\log n)$ times in parallel (with independent randomness in each quadtree) and let $\mathcal{F}$ be the union of the centers of all cells picked, across all parallel iterations and all levels. So, $\mathcal{F}$ will have $O\left(k \log ^{2} n\right)$ cells in total.

Privacy: We claim that a single parallel iteration of the algorithm is $\left(O\left(\varepsilon / \log ^{2} n\right), O\left(\delta / \log ^{2} n\right)\right)$ DP at each level. Indeed, if a single point in $\mathcal{X}$ is added, deleted, or moved, at most 2 cells change in size, each by at most 1 . So, outputting the counts $\tilde{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}$ is at most $\left(2 \varepsilon / \log ^{2} n, 2 \delta / \log ^{2} n\right)$-DP because
of our Truncated Laplace noise. In addition, choosing the (up to $4 k$ ) largest cells only depends on the noisy counts $\tilde{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}$ so it does not affect privacy. So, doing this over all levels and applying basic composition tells us this algorithm is $(O(\varepsilon / \log n), O(\delta / \log n))$-DP. Because we run $O(\log n)$ parallel copies of this procedure, so we get $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP.

Runtime: We focus on a single iteration and single level of the algorithm. First, we assign each point $x$ a pointer to its grid cell at that level. Then, using $O(1)$ rounds, we can sort the points based on the location of the grid cell, using Theorem A.9. Now, in $O(1)$ rounds we can aggregate (without privacy) to count the total number of points in each (nonempty) grid cell, using Lemma A.10. We then add Truncated Laplace noise to each grid cell, and then sort again to find the heaviest grid cells after imposing privacy constraints. This can all be done using a nearly linear amount of time per machine. In addition, there is no need to add noise to any empty cell, because the error induced by the Truncated Laplace noise is at most $\varepsilon^{-1} \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}$, which is below the threshold of $2 \varepsilon^{-1} \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}$ for outputting the count. There are at most $O(\log n)$ levels per quadtree and at most $O(\log n)$ quadtrees, so we can create $O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ copies of the dataset $\mathcal{X}$ and generate the centers for each level-iteration pair. Overall, we will have a total of $O\left(k \log ^{2} n\right)$ points, which can all be sent to a single machine for storage to generate our set $\mathcal{F}$.

In total, the algorithm runs in near-linear time, with $O(1)$ rounds of communication.

Accuracy: Let $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be our original set of points, and let $\mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}$ be the optimal set of $k$ centers. For any radius $r$, let $n_{r}$ be the number of points $x \in \mathcal{X}$ such that $d(x, \mathcal{C}) \geq r$. Then, note that the $k$-means cost and $k$-medians cost, up to an $O(1)$-approximation, equal

$$
\sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} 2^{2 t} \cdot n_{2^{t}} \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} 2^{t} \cdot n_{2^{t}}
$$

respectively.
Now, let's fix some radius $r=2^{t}$, and consider a randomly shifted grid of size $20 r \cdot d$. Note that for any point $c \in \mathcal{C}$, the Euclidean ball $B(c, r)$ of radius $r$ around $c$ is contained in the $\ell_{\infty}$ ball $B_{\infty}(c, r)$. Thus, by Proposition A.16, the probability this ball is split in any fixed dimension by the grid of size $20 r \cdot d$ is at least $1-1 /(10 d)$. So, the probability that it is split in a total of $q$ dimensions is at most $1 /(10 d)^{q} \cdot\binom{d}{q} \leq 10^{-q}$. So, each ball $B\left(c_{i}, r\right)$ in expectation is split into at most $\sum_{q \geq 0} 2^{q} \cdot 10^{-q} \leq 2$ total cells by the corresponding level of the quadtree. Hence, $\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} B\left(c_{i}, r\right)$ is contained in at most $4 k$ cells of grid size $20 r d$ with at least $50 \%$ probability, by a Markov bound.
Now, suppose that all points in $\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} B\left(c_{i}, r\right)$ are contained in at most $4 k$ total cells at this level. Since each cell has side length $20 r \cdot d$, it has $\ell_{2}$-radius $10 r \cdot d^{3 / 2}$. Therefore, with at least $50 \%$ probability, the number of points that are not within $10 r \cdot d^{3 / 2}$ of the $4 k$ heaviest cells' centers at this level is at most $n_{r}$. However, the noisy counts affect which cells the algorithm outputs to be heaviest. But each count is accurate up to error $3 \varepsilon^{-1} \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}$ even if we replace any $\tilde{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}$ below $2 \varepsilon^{-1} \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}$ with 0 . So, overall, with at least $50 \%$ probability, we have found at most $4 k$ grid cell centers such that the number of points not within $10 d^{3 / 2} \cdot r$ of any of these points is at most $n_{r}+O\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}\right)$.

By repeating this across $\log n$ parallel copies, we can boost this failure probability sufficiently high. We then repeat this across all levels, to get that for all choices of $r$ between $\Lambda / n^{2}$ and $\Lambda$, the number of points of distance at least $O\left(d^{3 / 2} \cdot r\right)$ from some point in our final set $\mathcal{F}$ is at most $n_{r}+O\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}\right)$. We also do not need to check $r$ beyond $\Lambda$, as the center of the
top level of the quadtree contains all points. So, the $k$-means cost is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}: r=2^{t} \leq \Lambda} O\left(d^{3 / 2} \cdot r\right)^{2} \cdot\left(n_{r}+O\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}\right)\right) \\
\leq & O\left(d^{3}\right) \cdot\left[\sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} 2^{2 t} \cdot n_{2^{t}}+O\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log ^{2} n \cdot \log \frac{\log ^{2} n}{\delta}\right) \cdot \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}: r=2^{t} \leq \Lambda} 2^{2 t}\right] \\
\leq & O\left(d^{3}\right) \cdot \mathrm{OPT}+O\left(k d^{3} \log ^{3} n \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, for $k$-means we obtain a poly $(d)$-multiplicative and a $O\left(k \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$ additive error, using $O\left(k \log ^{2} n\right)$ total centers. A very similar calculation gives us the same result (with only a $O\left(d^{3 / 2}\right)$-multiplicative factor) for $k$-median.
To finish, we provide algorithm pseudocode, as Algorithm 3

```
Algorithm 3 A bicriteria approximation algorithm for differentially private \(k\)-means (or \(k\)-median).
    procedure Bicriteria \((\mathcal{X}, \varepsilon, \delta) \quad \triangleright\) Will be \((O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))\)-DP.
        \(\mathcal{F} \leftarrow \emptyset \quad \triangleright\) Initialize set of centers to \(\emptyset\), we will add centers to it.
        for rep \(=1\) to \(O(\log n)\) do
            Create a randomly shifted quadtree with top level \([-\Lambda, \Lambda]^{d}\) and bottom level with grid
    size \(\Lambda / n^{2}\).
                for each \(0 \leq \ell \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)\) do
                    for each cell \(\mathbf{c}\) in level \(\ell\) do
                            Let \(N_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}\) be the number of points in \(\mathcal{X} \cap \mathbf{c}\).
                            Let \(\tilde{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}=N_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}+\operatorname{TLap}\left(1, \varepsilon / \log ^{2} n, \delta / \log ^{2} n\right)\) (only compute for \(N_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}>0\) ).
                    Add the centers of the \(4 k\) cells c with largest \(\tilde{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{c}}\) to \(\mathcal{F}\).
        Return \(\mathcal{F}\).
```


## C Obtaining a Constant Approximation in Near-Linear Time

In this section, we show a black-box method for creating an efficient parallel algorithm with $O(1)$ approximation factor, given a polynomial-time sequential algorithm with $O(1)$-approximation factor (for which we will use [70]) and an efficient parallel bicriteria algorithm with weaker approximation guarantees, as in Section B
We begin by showing how one can obtain a "semi-coreset" given an $O(1)$-approximate algorithm for $k$-means and $k$-median. Namely, our semi-coreset will also have an additive error proportional to the optimal cost, which prevents it from being a standard coreset. However, this will end up being sufficient for our purposes. The following lemma is inspired by a result proven in Kaplan and Stemmer [70], but differs in that we extend their procedure to work for approximate nearest neighbor algorithms. While the proof of the following lemma is written for $k$-means, a nearly identical proof holds for $k$-median.
Lemma C.1. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be an $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ (sequential) algorithm that takes as input a dataset $\mathcal{Y}$ of size at least $\Omega\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right)$ contained in a ball $B$ of radius $R$ (with known center) and outputs outputs a set of $k$ centers $\mathcal{G}$ contained in $B$ such that $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{G}) \leq O(1) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot R^{p}$.
Then, for any fixed $\eta>0$, there exists a $(3 \varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ (sequential) algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ on the dataset $\mathcal{Y}$ that outputs a set $\hat{\mathcal{Y}} \subset B$ such that for any set $\mathcal{C}$ of size at most $k$.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq O(1) \cdot\left[\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{Y})+\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{Y} ; \mathcal{C})+\left(V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right) \cdot R^{p}\right]  \tag{2}\\
& \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{Y} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq O(1) \cdot\left[\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{Y})+\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C})+\left(V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right) \cdot R^{p}\right] \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

In addition, constructing the set requires only $O\left(k^{1+\eta} \cdot d \cdot \log n\right)$ space and at most $O\left(k^{\eta} \cdot d \cdot \log n\right)$ time per point in $\mathcal{Y}$, for some arbitrarily chosen constant $\eta>0$.

Proof. For simplicity of the presentation, we present the proof for $k$-means. The proof for $k$-median is almost identical. We begin by constructing a $K$-approximate nearest neighbor (ANN) data structure
for the dataset $\mathcal{G}$, which uses $O\left(k^{1+\eta} \cdot d \log n\right)$ space and $O\left(k^{\eta} \cdot d \log n\right)$ query time per point. By Theorem A.14, we can set $K=\Theta\left(\eta^{-1 / 2}\right)$, which for $\eta>0$ fixed, is a constant.
Let the dataset $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}$ be generated by replacing point in $\mathcal{Y}$ with a $K$-approximate nearest neighbor in $\mathcal{G}$ (counting multiplicity). For each point $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, let $\tilde{y}$ represent its corresponding point in $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}$. Then, for any set of at most $k$ centers $\mathcal{C}$ (even if $\mathcal{C}$ is not contained in $B$ ),

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{cost}(\tilde{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) & =\sum_{\tilde{y} \in \tilde{\mathcal{Y}}} d(\tilde{y}, \mathcal{C})^{2} \\
& \leq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}}(d(\tilde{y}, y)+d(y, \mathcal{C}))^{2}  \tag{4}\\
& \leq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} 2\left[\left(d(\tilde{y}, y)^{2}+d(y, \mathcal{C})^{2}\right]\right. \\
& \leq 2\left[\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} K^{2} \cdot d(y, \mathcal{G})^{2}+\sum_{\tilde{y} \in \tilde{\mathcal{Y}}} d(y, \mathcal{C})^{2}\right] \\
& \leq O\left(K^{2}\right) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{Y})+2 K^{2} V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot R^{2}+2 \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{Y} ; \mathcal{C}) \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Conversely, we have that

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{Y} ; \mathcal{C}) & =\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} d(y, \mathcal{C})^{2} \\
& \leq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}}(d(y, \tilde{y})+d(\tilde{y}, \mathcal{C}))^{2} \\
& \leq 2\left[\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} K^{2} \cdot d(y, \mathcal{G})^{2}+\sum_{\tilde{y} \in \tilde{\mathcal{Y}}} d(\tilde{y}, \mathcal{C})^{2}\right] \\
& \leq O\left(K^{2}\right) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{Y})+2 K^{2} V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot R^{2}+2 \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\tilde{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}$ is contained in $\mathcal{G}$, but each point in $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}$ may have large multiplicity. Let $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ be the set where we add $\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$ noise to the multiplicity of each point in $\mathcal{G}$. In other words, if $g \in \mathcal{G}$ has multiplicity $m_{g}$ in $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}$, it will have multiplicity $\max \left(0, m_{g}+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\right)$ in $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$.
First, note that since $\mathcal{G}$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{Y}$, the ANN data structure also satisfies $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{Y}$, as it only depends on $\mathcal{G}$. This implies that $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ is $(3 \varepsilon, \delta)$-DP. To see why, if we fix the ANN data structure, adding, removing, or changing a single point from $\mathcal{Y}$ changes the multiplicity $m_{g}$ of at most two points in $\mathcal{G}$ by at most 1 , which makes the sensitivity of the multiplicities at most 2. So, the standard Laplace mechanism to generate the multiplicities for $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ is $(2 \varepsilon, 0)$-DP. Hence, the adaptive composition of the ANN data structure with the construction of $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ is $(3 \varepsilon, \delta)$-DP.
Next, note that with overwhelming probability, every $\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$ noise added is at most $O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right)$. If $\mathcal{C}$ has nonempty intersection with the ball $B_{2}$ that is concentric with $B$ with radius $2 R$, we have that $d(\tilde{y}, \mathcal{C}) \leq O(R)$ as $\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{G} \subset B$. So, the maximum additional error we gain is at most $O\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log n \cdot R^{2}\right)$. Alternatively, if all points in $\mathcal{C}$ are not in $B_{2}$, then $d(y, \mathcal{C})$ for every point $y \in B$ is equivalent up to a factor of 3 . In this case, as we assume the number of points in $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}$ (counting multiplicity) is at least $\Theta\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log n\right)=\Theta\left(|\mathcal{G}| \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log n\right)$, we have that the number of points in $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}$ and the number of points in $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ (counting multiplicity) are equal up to a constant factor, as the multiplicity of each point in $\mathcal{G}$ does not change by more than $O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log n\right)$. Thus, in this case, $\operatorname{cost}(\tilde{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C})$ and $\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C})$ are equal up to a constant factor.
By combining this observation with Equations (5) and (6), if we treat $K$ as a constant, we have that for any set $\mathcal{C}$ of size at most $k$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq O(1) \cdot\left[\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{Y})+\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{Y} ; \mathcal{C})+\left(V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right) \cdot R^{2}\right] \\
& \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{Y} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq O(1) \cdot\left[\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{Y})+\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C})+\left(V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right) \cdot R^{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, consider some set $\mathcal{X}_{0} \subset B(\mu, R)$ of size $N_{0}$, for some center $\mu$ and some radius $R$. Let $\mathcal{Y}_{0}$ be a random subset of $T$ points in $\mathcal{X}_{0}$ selected without replacement, where $\gamma \leq \frac{1}{2}$ will be chosen later, and $N_{0} \geq T \geq \Omega\left(\frac{k \cdot d \cdot \log \gamma^{-1}}{\gamma^{2}}+\frac{V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \varepsilon^{-1} \log n}{\gamma}\right)$. Then, by Lemma A. 20 with $\kappa$ set to $\frac{1}{2}$, we have that $\operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{Y}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \in(1 \pm 0.5) \cdot \frac{T}{N_{0}} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \pm \gamma \cdot T \cdot R^{p}$ for any set $\mathcal{C}$ of size at most $k$. Now, consider applying $\mathcal{B}$ (the algorithm created by Lemma C.1) to the dataset $\mathcal{Y}_{0}$, restricted to points in the ball $B(\mu, R)$. This would obtain a set $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{0}$, such that for any set $\mathcal{C}$ of size $k$,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{N_{0}}{T} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right) & \leq O\left(\frac{N_{0}}{T}\right) \cdot\left[\operatorname{OPT}\left(\mathcal{Y}_{0}\right)+\operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{Y}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+\left(V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right) \cdot R^{p}\right] \\
& \leq O(1) \cdot\left[\operatorname{OPT}\left(\mathcal{X}_{0}\right)+\operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right)\right]+O\left(\gamma \cdot N_{0} \cdot R^{p}\right) \\
& =O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+O\left(\gamma \cdot N_{0} \cdot R^{p}\right) \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right) & \leq O\left(\frac{N_{0}}{T}\right) \cdot\left[\operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{Y}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+\gamma \cdot T \cdot R^{p}\right] \\
& \leq O\left(\frac{N_{0}}{T}\right) \cdot\left[\operatorname{OPT}\left(\mathcal{Y}_{0}\right)+\operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+\gamma \cdot T \cdot R^{p}\right] \\
& \leq O\left(\frac{N_{0}}{T}\right) \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{0} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+O(1) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}\left(\mathcal{X}_{0}\right)+O\left(\gamma \cdot N_{0} \cdot R^{p}\right) \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

In addition, by Lemma A.21, we have that $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{0}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{X}_{0}$, since $\mathcal{Y}_{0}$ is a randomly sampled subset of $\mathcal{X}_{0}$ and $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{0}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{Y}_{0}$.

We now state the main result of this section, which provides a parallel and differentially private algorithm for $k$-means (or $k$-median) with an $O(1)$-multiplicative approximation. We will focus on $k$-means in the proof, but an identical argument also holds for $k$-median.
Theorem C.2. Suppose we have a sequential $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that takes as input a dataset $\mathcal{X}$ contained in $B(0, \Lambda)$, and outputs a set of $k$ centers $\mathcal{G}$ such that $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{G}) \leq O(1) \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+$ $V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{p}$. In addition, suppose we have a near-linear time $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-private MPC algorithm that can generate an ( $\alpha, \beta$ )-bicriteria approximate solution to $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) clustering with additive error $W=W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)$, where $\alpha=d^{O(1)}$ and $\beta=(\log n)^{O(1)}$. Finally, assume that each machine can store at least $k^{1+\eta}(\log n)^{O(1)}+T$ points, where $T=(d+\log n)^{O(1)}$. $\Theta(V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k / \varepsilon)$ is some threshold and $\eta>0$ is any small constant.
Then, there exists an $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering with multiplicative error $O(1)$ and additive error

$$
\operatorname{poly}(d, \log n) \cdot\left(W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k^{2} \varepsilon^{-1}+k \cdot V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)\right) .
$$

In addition, the algorithm has total sequential time $\tilde{O}(n d)+T^{O(1)}$ and parallel time $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)+T^{O(1)}$, i.e., the runtime is near-linear assuming $n \geq T^{C}$ for some constant $C$.

Algorithm: Suppose we are given a set $\mathcal{X}$ of points across many machines. We start by running the $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP MPC algorithm, which outputs a set $\mathcal{F}=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{\beta \cdot k}\right\}$ of size at most $\beta \cdot k$, such that $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{F}) \leq \alpha \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{p}$.
Now, for each $1 \leq j \leq \beta \cdot k$ and each $1 \leq r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)$, let $B_{j, r}$ represent the ball of radius $2^{r} \cdot \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}}$ around the point $f_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$. Now, for each point $x \in \mathcal{X}$, we assign it to some $(j, r)$ where $j \leq \beta \cdot k, r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)$, using a $L=O(\log n)$-approximate nearest neighbor data structure on the dataset $\mathcal{F}$. More precisely, for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, we find an $L$-approximate nearest neighbor $f_{j}$, and then find the smallest $r$ such that $x \in B_{j, r}$. For $L=O(\log n)$, we can store the data structure with failure probability $\tau=\frac{1}{\text { poly }(n)}$ using space $O\left(\beta \cdot k \cdot(\log n)^{O(1)}\right)$, and compute the $L$-approximate nearest neighbor in $\mathcal{F}$ per point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ in time $(\log n)^{O(1)}$.
Now, for each $j \leq \beta \cdot k$ and $r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)$, we define $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ as the set of points assigned to $B_{j, r}$. Via MPC aggregation (Lemma A.10, we compute $N_{j, r}=\left|\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\right|$ and $\hat{N}_{j, r}=N_{j, r}+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$ for each
$j, r$. We also define some threshold parameter $T=\Theta\left(\frac{k \cdot d \cdot \log \gamma^{-1}}{\gamma^{2}}+\frac{V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \varepsilon^{-1} \log n}{\gamma}\right)$ (where $\gamma$ will be chosen later) - we will see that $T$ matches the threshold in the theorem statement. Now, for each $j$, $r$, if $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$, let $\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}$ be a random sample of $T$ points from $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$, which we obtain using Lemma A. 11 Next, we use Lemma C. 1 to compute a private approximation $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ of $\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}$ based on our sequential private algorithm $\mathcal{A}$, where each point in $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ is scaled by a factor of $\frac{\hat{N}_{j, r}}{T}$. Otherwise, if $\hat{N}_{j, r}<2 T$, we let $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}=\emptyset$.

Finally, we compute a non-private, scalable MPC $k$-means (or $k$-median) algorithm on $\bigcup_{j, r} \hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ with an $O(1)$ approximation factor, such as using Theorem A.12.

Runtime: We start by using the bicriteria of Section B which takes near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds. Next, the assignment of each point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ to $(j, r)$ can be done in near-linear time as well, as we can compute the ANN data structure for $\mathcal{F}$ on a single machine using $O\left(\beta \cdot k \cdot(\log n)^{O(1)}\right)$ space, and then broadcast the data structure to all machines in $O(1)$ rounds. The broadcasting only needs $O(1)$ rounds since the space on each machine is at least $k^{1+\eta}(\log n)^{O(1)}$, which means that $n^{\theta(1-\eta)} \geq \tilde{O}(\beta \cdot k)$. Then, each point can be sent to an $O(\log n)$-approximate nearest neighbor in poly $\log n$ time per point.

Next, computing the values $N_{j, r}$ and $\hat{N}_{j, r}$ are simple via MPC aggregation (LemmaA.10, and we can sample $T$ points from each $(j, r)$ with $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$ using MPC sampling (Lemma A.11). Then, in linear time and 1 round of communication, we can assign each $(j, r)$ to some machine, and then send the sampled points $\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}$ to the corresponding machine. Note that $\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}$ has size at most $T$, so it fits on a machine, and the number of machines needed is $O(\log n \cdot \beta \cdot k)=k \cdot(\log n)^{O(1)}$. Then, we must compute a private approximation $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ for each $\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}$ using Lemma C.1, which can be done in time poly $(T)$ in each machine. This is because $\mathcal{Y}_{i . r}$ already has at most $T$ distinct elements, so applying $\mathcal{A}$ takes $\operatorname{poly}(T)$ time [70], and by Lemma[C.1, we only need an additional $O\left(T \cdot k^{\eta} \cdot d\right)$ time to compute $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$. In addition, there are only $O(k \cdot$ poly $\log n)$ machines in total for this to be done, so the total sequential and total parallel runtimes are both at most poly $(T, d, \log n)=T^{O(1)}$. Finally, we apply Theorem A. 12 with $\gamma=0.5$ on $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$. Because each $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ has at most $k$ distinct points, $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ has at $\operatorname{most} \operatorname{poly}(k, \log n)$ distinct points. Therefore, the total time for the final step of applying Theorem A. 12 is at most $\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n)$. We will later show that our threshold parameter $T$ exactly matches the choice of $T$ in the theorem statement, which will complete the proof of the runtime argument.

Privacy: First, note that the initial set $\mathcal{F}$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP, and the ANN data structure constructed from $\mathcal{F}$ only depends on $\mathcal{F}$. So, fixing this data structure, adding, removing, or changing a single point in $\mathcal{X}$ can only change at most two of the $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ 's, each by at most 1 point. So, the set of values $\hat{N}_{j, r}$ are also $(2 \varepsilon, 0)$-DP. If we fix $\mathcal{F}$ and $\hat{N}_{j, r}$ for all $j, r$, then for each $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ that changes between two adjacent datasets, we have that $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP for the same reason that $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{0}$ was $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{X}_{0}$. Therefore, the set of $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP given $\mathcal{F}$ and $\hat{N}_{j, r}$ since at most 2 of the $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ 's change. So, by adaptive composition, the final construction of $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP.

Accuracy: We focus on the $k$-means setting for simplicity, but the proof is almost identical for the $k$-median setting. Because $x$ being assigned to $(j, r)$ means that $x \in B_{j, r}$ but $x \notin B_{j, r-1}$, this means that $\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r} \leq 2 \cdot d\left(x, f_{j}\right)+\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \leq 2 L \cdot d(x, \mathcal{F})+\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}}$. If we define $r(x)=\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}$ if $x$ is assigned to some $(j, r)$, then we have $r(x) \leq 2 L \cdot d(x, \mathcal{F})+\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}}$, which means

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} r(x)^{2} & \leq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} 4 L^{2} \cdot\left(d(x, \mathcal{F})+\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}}\right)^{2} \\
& \leq 8 L^{2} \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}}\left[d(x, \mathcal{F})^{2}+\frac{\Lambda^{2}}{n^{4}}\right] \\
& \leq O\left(\alpha \cdot \log ^{2} n\right) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O\left(\log ^{2} n\right) \cdot W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

The final inequality holds since $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{F}) \leq \alpha \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$ and $L=O(\log n)$.

Recall that we have computed some $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ for each $j \leq \beta \cdot k$ and $r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)$, which is contained in the ball $B$ around $f_{j}$ of radius $\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}$. If $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$, then for any set $\mathcal{C}$ of $k$ points in $B(0, \Lambda)$, we have that by Equations (7) and (8),

$$
\operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \leq O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+O\left(\gamma \cdot N_{j, r}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2}
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \leq O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+O(1) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\right)+O\left(\gamma \cdot N_{j, r}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2}
$$

We remark that above, we scaled each point in $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ by $\hat{N}_{j, r} / T$, which is $\Theta\left(N_{j, r} / T\right)$ with overwhelming probability.
Let $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ be the union over all of the $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ 's (with their corresponding weights). Adding over all machines, we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) & \leq O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})+O(\gamma) \cdot \sum_{j, r} N_{j, r} \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{2^{n}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2} \\
& =O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})+O(\gamma) \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}}(r(x))^{2} \\
& \leq O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})+O\left(\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \log ^{2} n\right) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O\left(\gamma \cdot \log ^{2} n\right) \cdot W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})= & \sum_{j, r: \hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T} \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right)+\sum_{j, r: \hat{N}_{j, r}<2 T} \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \\
\leq & O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C})+O(1) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O(\gamma) \cdot \sum_{j, r} N_{j, r} \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{2^{n}} \cdot 2^{j}\right)^{2}+\sum_{j, r: \hat{N}_{j, r}<2 T} \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \\
\leq & O(1) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C})+O\left(1+\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \log ^{2} n\right) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O\left(\gamma \cdot \log ^{2} n\right) \cdot W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{2} \\
& +O(T \cdot \beta k \cdot \log n) \cdot \Lambda^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, if we are able to obtain an $O(1)$-approximate clustering $\mathcal{C}$ for $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ in the MPC setting, we will have that $\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq O(1) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}) \leq O\left(1+\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \log ^{2} n\right) \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O\left(\gamma \cdot \log ^{2} n\right)$. $W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)$. Therefore, we have that
$\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq O\left(1+\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \log ^{2} n\right) \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O\left(\gamma \cdot \log ^{2} n \cdot W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+T \cdot \beta \cdot \log n \cdot k\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$.
Hence, we can set $\gamma=\frac{1}{\alpha \log ^{2} n}$, so if we treat $\alpha=\operatorname{poly}(d)$ and $\beta=\log ^{2} n$, then
$T=\Theta\left(\frac{k \cdot d \cdot \log \gamma^{-1}}{\gamma^{2}}+\frac{V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \varepsilon^{-1} \log n}{\gamma}\right)=\operatorname{poly}(d, \log n) \cdot \Theta\left(V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}\right)$.
Hence, we obtain a multiplicative cost of $O(1)$ and an additive cost of

$$
\operatorname{poly}(d, \log n) \cdot\left(W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k \cdot V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)+k^{2} \varepsilon^{-1}\right)
$$

This concludes the proof of accuracy.
To finish, we can set the functions $V(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)=\operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, \log d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot\left(k^{1.01} d^{0.51}+\right.$ $\left.k^{1.5}\right)$ based on $[70]^{4}$ and $W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)=k \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, d, \varepsilon^{-1}\right)$ based on Section B to obtain the following.
Theorem C.3. There exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering with multiplicative error $O(1)$ and additive error $\left.k^{2.5} \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)\right)$. In addition, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC, assuming each machine can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq$ $k^{1.5} \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points, with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication, total sequential running time $\tilde{O}(n d)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, and total time per machine $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)+$ $\operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$.
${ }^{4}$ While [70] only writes their proof for the $k$-means case, their argument also goes through for $k$-median.

## D Obtaining an arbitrarily good approximation (for low dimensions)

## D. 1 Converting $O(1)$-approximation to sequential coreset

In this subsection, we only deal with sequential algorithms (so we ignore the MPC model), and show how to convert a differentially private $O(1)$-approximate $k$-means (or $k$-median) algorithm into a coreset containing roughly poly $\left(k, \log n, e^{d}\right)$ distinct points, in roughly $n \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(k, e^{d}\right)$ time, where $d$ is the dimension. This will allow us to reconstruct many of the results of Ghazi et al. [44] from an $O(1)$-approximation such as by Kaplan and Stemmer [70], in a more efficient manner as our runtime has only linear dependence on $n$ as opposed to polynomial dependence. While the exponential dependence on $d$ will be quite large, we will show later that we can reduce $d$ to $O(\log k)$, which gives us a $\tilde{O}(n) \cdot \operatorname{poly}(k)$-time algorithm for generating a coreset. We will focus on the $k$-means problem, but the same (in fact, even simpler) analysis works for $k$-median also.
Theorem D.1. For any fixed constant $0<\gamma<1$, there exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP sequential algorithm that operates on a dataset $\mathcal{X} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ of size $n$, with the following properties. Then, in running time $\tilde{O}(n) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, the algorithm computes a weighted coreset $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ with at most $O(k \log n) \cdot O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$ distinct points, such that for any set $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ of size at most $k$ that has nonzero intersection with the slightly larger ball $B\left(0, \gamma^{-1} \cdot \Lambda\right)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) \in(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \pm \operatorname{poly}\left(k,(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}
$$

Algorithm: Given a dataset $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\} \in B(0, \Lambda)$, we start by applying a black-box $(\varepsilon, \delta)$ DP algorithm that outputs $\mathcal{G}=\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right\}$ of centers, such that $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{G}) \leq O(1) \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+$ $U(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$. (For $k$-median, the $\Lambda^{2}$ would be $\Lambda$.) Now, for each $1 \leq j \leq k$ and each $1 \leq r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)$, we define $\mathcal{T}_{j, r}$ to be the subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ that is closest to cluster center $g_{j} \in \mathcal{G}$ and has distance from $g_{j}$ in the range $\left[\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r-1}, \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)$. We will not explicitly compute $\mathcal{T}_{j, r}$, but for a given point $x \in \mathcal{X}$, one can easily determine which region it belongs to in $O(k d)$ time.
Given this, we will show how to construct a private coreset of the data. For each $j \in[k]$ and $r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)$, define $B_{j, r}$ to be the ball of radius $\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}$ around $g_{j}$. We use Lemma A. 18 to create an efficiently list-decodable $\gamma$-cover $\mathcal{H}_{j, r}$ of $B_{j, r}$ at distance 1 . Importantly, the size of the cover is at most $(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$, and this covers $\mathcal{T}_{j, r}$ which is a subset of the ball. In addition, we can compute all the points in the cover in time $(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$. So, for each $t \in\left[(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\right]$, we can let the point $y_{j, r, t}$ be the $t^{\text {th }}$ point in the cover. Now, for each $(j, r)$, we map each point $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{T}_{j, r}$ to its closest point $y_{j, r, t} \in \mathcal{H}_{j, r}$, and aggregate to compute an overall vector $v=\left\{v_{j, r, t}\right\}$ which counts the number of points in $\mathcal{X}$ mapped to $y_{j, r, t}$. Next, we let $\tilde{v}$ be the vector where we replace each $v_{j, r, t}$ with $\tilde{v}_{j, r, t}=\max \left(0, v_{j, r, t}+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\right)$. Our final coreset $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ will be the set of points $y_{j, r, t}$ each with multiplicity $\tilde{v}_{j, r, t}$.

Runtime and size: We note that applying the black-box algorithm of either Kaplan and Stemmer [70] or Ghazi et al. [44] to obtain $\mathcal{G}$ may require poly $(n, d)$ time. However, we can get $\tilde{O}\left(n d+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)\right)$ runtime by using the algorithm we devised in Section C. As the algorithm only needs to work in the sequential setting, we remark that many aspects of this algorithm can be simplified, while still obtaining the same accuracy, privacy, and runtime guarantees.
Next, in $O(k n d)$ time, we can map each point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ to its region $\mathcal{T}_{j, r}$. Then, for each $(j, r)$, we compute a $\gamma$-cover $\mathcal{H}_{j, r}$, which takes time at most $O(k \cdot \log n) \cdot O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$. Finally, mapping each point $x \in \mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{T}_{j, r}$ to its closest center in $\mathcal{H}_{j, r}$ for all $j, r$ takes total time at most $n \cdot O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$, and aggregating the sets and adding Laplace noise to create $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ takes time at most $O(k \cdot \log n) \cdot O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$. So, the overall runtime is $\tilde{O}(n) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(k, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}, O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\right)$.
Finally, we remark that the number of distinct points in the cover $\mathcal{H}_{j, r}$ is at most $O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$, so the total number of distinct points in the coreset is at most $O(k \cdot \log n) \cdot O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$.

Privacy: We assume the original construction of $\mathcal{G}$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-private. Then, the vector $\tilde{v}$ will also be $(3 \varepsilon, \delta)$-DP. To see why, if we treat $\mathcal{G}$ as fixed, changing a single point in $\mathcal{X}$ changes at most two values of $v_{j, r, t}$, so the $\ell_{1}$-sensitivity of $v$ is at most 2 . Since we add $\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$ error to each coordinate, we
incur at most an additional $(2 \varepsilon, 0)$-privacy loss. So, by adaptive composition, $\tilde{v}$ is $(3 \varepsilon, \delta)$-DP. In addition, the covers $\mathcal{H}_{j, r}$ only depend on $\mathcal{G}$, so the overall algorithm is also ( $\left.3 \varepsilon, \delta\right)$-DP.

Accuracy: Consider any set of $k$ centers $\mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}$, where at least one point $c_{i}$ is in $B\left(0, \gamma^{-1} \cdot \Lambda\right)$. In addition, suppose that we replaced $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ with the set $\mathcal{Y}$ where we used multiplicities based on the vector $v$ instead of $\tilde{v}$. Suppose a point $x_{i}$ has distance $\tilde{d}_{i}$ from its closest center $g_{j}$ in the solution $\mathcal{G}$ and distance $d_{i}$ from its closest center in the solution $\mathcal{C}$. Then, $x_{i} \in \mathcal{T}_{j, r}$ for some $r$, meaning that $\tilde{d}_{i} \leq \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r} \leq 2 \tilde{d}_{i}$. Then, $x_{i}$ is moved to a point of distance at most $2 \gamma \cdot \tilde{d}_{i}$ away, by the property of the cover $\mathcal{H}_{j, r}$. So, the induced error per point is at most

$$
\left(d_{i}+2 \gamma \cdot \tilde{d}_{i}\right)^{2}-d_{i}^{2}=4 \gamma d_{i} \tilde{d}_{i}+4 \gamma^{2} \tilde{d}_{i}^{2} \leq 2 \gamma\left(d_{i}^{2}+\tilde{d}_{i}^{2}\right)+4 \gamma^{2} \tilde{d}_{i}^{2} \leq 2 \gamma d_{i}^{2}+6 \gamma \tilde{d}_{i}^{2}
$$

Finally, noting that $d_{i}$ must be at most $2 \gamma^{-1} \cdot \Lambda$ because every point $x \in B(0, \Lambda)$ and $\mathcal{C}$ has nonzero intersection with $B\left(0, \gamma^{-1} \cdot \Lambda\right)$, the overall error is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 \gamma \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2}+6 \gamma \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{d}_{i}^{2} & =2 \gamma \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})+6 \gamma \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{G}) \\
& \leq 2 \gamma \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})+6 \gamma \cdot\left[O(1) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+U(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot\left(2 \gamma^{-1} \cdot \Lambda\right)^{2}\right] \\
& \leq O(\gamma) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})+O\left(\gamma^{-1} \cdot U(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, this means that for any set of $k$ centers $\mathcal{C}$, the cost of the original dataset $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ and the modified weighted set created by the vector $v$ have multiplicative cost ratios $1 \pm O(\gamma)$ and additive error $U(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)=\operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$, using Theorem C. 3 .

Finally, we ask what happens when we replace $v$ with $\tilde{v}$ ? In expectation, each $v_{j, r, t}$ changes by $O\left(\varepsilon^{-1}\right)$, which changes the overall cost with respect to $\mathcal{C}$ by at most $O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \cdot k \cdot \log n \cdot(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\right) \cdot$ $O\left(\gamma^{-1} \Lambda\right)^{2}$ with high probability. Hence, we obtain an $(O(\gamma), U)$-coreset, where

$$
U=O\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log n \cdot(1 / \gamma)^{d}+\gamma^{-1} \cdot U(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)\right)=\operatorname{poly}\left(k, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1},(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\right)
$$

To finish, we provide algorithm pseudocode, as Algorithm 4

```
Algorithm 4 A sequential coreset algorithm for differentially private \(k\)-means (or \(k\)-median).
    procedure \(\operatorname{SeQUENTIALCoreSET}(\mathcal{X}, \varepsilon, \delta, \gamma) \quad \triangleright\) Will be \((O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))\)-DP.
        Use Algorithm 1 (or related procedure) to find private \(O(1)\)-approximate centers \(\mathcal{G}=\)
    \(\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right\}\).
        for each \(j \leq k, r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)\) do
            Let \(B_{j, r}\) be the ball of radius \(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\) around \(g_{j}\).
            Construct an efficiently list-decodable \(\gamma\)-cover \(\mathcal{H}_{j, r}\) of \(B_{j, r}\).
            for each \(t \leq(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\) do
                    Let \(y_{j, r, t}\) be the \(t\) th point in \(\mathcal{H}_{j, r}\).
        for all \(x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}\) do
            Assign \(x_{i}\) to \((j, r, t)\) if \(g_{j}\) is \(x_{i}\) 's closest center in \(\mathcal{G}, d\left(x_{i}, g_{j}\right) \approx \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\), and \(y_{j, r, t}\) is the
    closest point to \(x_{i}\) in \(\mathcal{H}_{j, r}\).
        for each \(j \leq k, r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right), t \leq(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\) do
            Let \(v_{j, r, t}\) be the number of points \(x_{i}\) assigned to \(y_{j, r, t}\)
            Let \(\tilde{v}_{j, r, t}=\max \left(0, v_{j, r, t}+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\right)\)
        Return \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}\) : set of points \(y_{j, r, t}\) with multiplicity \(\tilde{v}_{j, r, t}\).
```


## D. 2 Converting a sequential coreset to a parallel coreset

In this subsection, we combine the sequential coreset we generated in Subsection D. 1 with the parallel bicriteria approximation we generated in Section B to generate a differentially private parallel coreset. This will allow us to obtain an approximation factor that is arbitrarily close to the best-known approximation factor of 5.912 for $k$-means and 2.406 for $k$-median [25]. While both the error and runtime will have exponential dependence on the dimension $d$, we will later show how to reduce $d$ to roughly $\log k$, which will imply only polynomial dependence on $k$.

Theorem D.2. For any fixed $0<\gamma<1$, there exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ algorithm that operates on a dataset $\mathcal{X} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ of size $n$ and outputs $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ with at most $\operatorname{poly}\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}, \log n\right)$ distinct points, such that for any set $\mathcal{C} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$ of size $k$,

$$
\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) \in(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \pm \operatorname{poly}\left(k,(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}
$$

( $\Lambda^{2}$ is replaced with $\Lambda$ in the $k$-median case.) In addition, if each machine can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq$ poly $\left(k, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1},(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\right)$ points, then the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ rounds of communication, total sequential time $\tilde{O}(n k d)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, and parallel time $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} k d\right)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ per machine.

Algorithm: We start with a dataset $\mathcal{X}$ of $n$ points in $B(0, \Lambda)$, spread out across many machines. We start by applying the parallel and $(\varepsilon, 0)$-DP $\left(O\left(d^{3}\right), \log ^{2} n\right)$-bicriteria of Section B with additive error $W(n, k, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot \Lambda^{2}\left(\right.$ where $\left.W(n, d, k, \varepsilon, \delta)=k \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, d, \varepsilon^{-1}\right)\right)$ to generate a set of points $\mathcal{F}=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{K}\right\}$ where $K=k \cdot \beta$. For each $1 \leq j \leq K$ and each $1 \leq r \leq R:=\log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)$, we define $\mathcal{T}_{j, r}$ to be the subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ that is closest to cluster center $s_{j} \in S$ and has distance from $s_{j}$ in the range $\left[\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r-1}, \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)$. In addition, define $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ to be the set of points $\mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{T}_{j, r}$. Finally, define $B_{j, r} \supset \mathcal{T}_{j, r}$ to be the ball of radius $\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}$ around $s_{j}$.
Now, for each pair $(j, r)$, we compute $N_{j, r}:=\left|\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\right|$ and $\hat{N}_{j, r}:=N_{j, r}+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$. Now, we let $T=\operatorname{poly}\left(k,(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ be some sufficiently large threshold parameter. Next, if $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$, we sample $T$ points uniformly at random from $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ (call this set $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ ) and send it to a specific machine. Note that $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r} \subset B_{j, r}$. Finally, we apply TheoremD. 1 to the sample $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ to generate a private coreset $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$, except that we replace $B(0, \Lambda)$ with $B_{j, r}$.
Finally, we scale each $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ by $\frac{\hat{\mathcal{N}}_{j, r}}{T}$, and let $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}=\bigcup_{j, r} \hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ be our final coreset.
Runtime: First, note that constructing $\mathcal{F}$ takes near-linear time with $O(1)$ rounds of communication, and we can broadcast $\mathcal{F}$ to all machines in $O(1)$ rounds. We do not need to explicitly compute $\mathcal{T}_{j, r}$, but for each point $x \in \mathcal{X}$, we can determine which $(j, r) x$ is assigned to in time $O(k d)$ per point, so the total time per machine is $O\left(n^{\theta} \cdot k \cdot d\right)$. Next, we can use MPC aggregation (Lemma A. 10 , to compute $N_{j, r}$ and $\hat{N}_{j, r}$ for all $(j, r)$, and then use MPC sampling (Lemma A.11) to send $\overline{\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}}$ in near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds. Note that there are $K \cdot \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)=O\left(k \cdot \log ^{3} n\right)$ choices of $(j, r)$, so each $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ can be sent to a distinct machine. In addition, $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ has size at most $T$, so it can be stored in a single machine. Finally, since $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ has size at most $T$, the total time of computing each $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ is at most $\tilde{O}(T) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)=\operatorname{poly}\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, which can be done individually on each machine without any communication.
We only need $O\left(k \cdot \log ^{3} n\right)$ machines to compute the $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ 's, so the total sequential running time is $\tilde{O}(n k d)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ and the total parallel running time is $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} k d\right)+$ poly $\left(k, O(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. Finally, we only used $O(1)$ total rounds of communication.

Privacy: First, the initial construction of $\mathcal{F}$ and the rings is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{X}$, by Theorem B. 1 Next, note that the construction of $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP with respect to $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$. This is because computing $\hat{N}_{j, r}$ is $(\varepsilon, 0)$-DP, and conditioned on $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$, the applying an $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP algorithm on a sample $T$ points of $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ is also $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP, by Lemma A. 21 . To finish, we note that if we change $\mathcal{X}$ by a single point, assuming $\mathcal{F}$ is fixed, at most two groups $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ change (each by at most 1 point). Finally, our construction of $\mathcal{Y}$ only depends on the $\mathcal{Y}_{j, r}$ and $\hat{N}_{j, r}$ 's, which were already included in our calculation of privacy. So by adaptive composition, the overall algorithm is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP.

Accuracy: We start by comparing $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ to $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$, assuming $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$. Note that $T \geq$ $\Theta\left(\frac{k \cdot d \cdot \log \left(\left(\kappa^{\prime} \gamma^{\prime}\right)^{-1}\right)+\log n}{\left(\kappa^{\prime}\right)^{2} \cdot\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)^{2}}\right)$, where $\kappa^{\prime}=\gamma^{\prime}=c \gamma / d^{3}$ for some small constant $c$. Therefore, by Lemma A. 20 with parameters $\gamma^{\prime}$ and $\kappa^{\prime}=\gamma^{\prime}$, for any set $\mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}$ of $k$ points and for all
$j, r$,

$$
\operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{Z}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right)=\left(1 \pm \gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot \frac{T}{N_{j, r}} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \pm \gamma^{\prime} \cdot T \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2}
$$

(We remark that Lemma A.20 works for any $\mathcal{C}$, even if not contained in $B_{j, r}$ or even in $B(0, \Lambda)$. Now, define $B_{j, r}^{\prime}$ to be the concentric ball around $B_{j, r}$ of radius $\gamma^{-1} \cdot \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}$. By applying Theorem D. 1 but replacing $B(0, \Lambda)$ with $B_{j, r}$, we obtain that if $\mathcal{C}$ has nonempty intersection with $B_{j, r}^{\prime}$, then
$\operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right)=(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \frac{T}{N_{j, r}} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r}, \mathcal{C}\right) \pm O\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot T \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2} \pm V(n, d, k, \gamma, \varepsilon, \delta) \cdot\left(\gamma^{-1} \cdot \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2}$.
Therefore, assuming $T \geq\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)^{-3} \cdot V(n, d, k, \gamma, \varepsilon, \delta)$, we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right)=(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \frac{T}{N_{j, r}} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r}, \mathcal{C}\right) \pm O\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot T \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Otherwise, we have that every point in $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ and every point in $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ have the same distance to $\mathcal{C}$ up to a $1 \pm O(\gamma)$ factor. In addition, the total weight of points in $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ is $T$, but when creating $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ using Theorem D.1, we update the vector $v=\left\{v_{j, r, t}\right\}$ by adding $\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$ noise to each component. Since there are a total of $O\left(k \cdot \log n \cdot(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\right)$ choices for the triple $(j, r, t)$, assuming that $T$ is at least $\frac{\log n}{\varepsilon} \cdot \frac{1}{\gamma}$ times the number of choices, we have that the total weight of $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ and $\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}$ are the same up to a $1 \pm O(\gamma)$ factor with overwhelming probability. Therefore, in this case, we still have that (9) holds.
Overall, assuming that $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$, we have that after scaling $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ by a factor of $\frac{\hat{N}_{j, r}}{T}$, that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\hat{N}_{j, r}}{T} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}, \mathcal{C}\right) & =(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \frac{\hat{N}_{j, r}}{N_{j, r}} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \pm O\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot \hat{N}_{j, r} \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2} \\
& =(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \pm O\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot N_{j, r} \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\hat{N}_{j, r}=N_{j, r}+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$ and $N_{j, r}$ are equal up to a $1 \pm \gamma$ factor if $\hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T$. Finally, if $\hat{N}_{j, r} \leq 2 T$, then we let $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}$ be empty, so it has no cost, but $\mathcal{X}_{j, r}$ has cost at most $O\left(T \cdot \Lambda^{2}\right)$. In addition, there are at most $O(K \cdot R)=O\left(k \cdot \log ^{3} n\right)$ such choices of $(j, r)$.
Adding these over all machines, we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C}) & =\sum_{(j, r): \hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T} \frac{\hat{N}_{j, r}}{T} \cdot \operatorname{cost}\left(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \\
& =(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \sum_{(j, r): \hat{N}_{j, r} \geq 2 T} \operatorname{cost}\left(\mathcal{X}_{j, r} ; \mathcal{C}\right) \pm O\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot \sum_{j, r} N_{j, r} \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\right)^{2} \\
& =(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \pm O\left(k \log ^{3} n \cdot T \cdot \Lambda^{2}\right) \pm O\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} d(x, \mathcal{F})^{2} \\
& =(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \pm O\left(k \log ^{3} n \cdot T \cdot \Lambda^{2}\right) \pm O\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right) \cdot\left[O\left(d^{3}\right) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+k \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, d, \varepsilon^{-1}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, using our bounds for $T$, we have that

$$
\operatorname{cost}(\hat{\mathcal{Y}} ; \mathcal{C})=(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \pm \operatorname{poly}\left(k, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1},(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}
$$

We can apply TheoremD.2 to obtain the following theorem.
Theorem D.3. Suppose that there exists a polynomial-time algorithm that can compute a $\rho$ approximation to $k$-means (resp., $k$-median). Then, for any constant $\rho^{\prime}>\rho$, exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$ DP algorithm for $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) with multiplicative ratio $\rho^{\prime}$ and additive error poly $\left(k, e^{d}, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, assuming each machine can store some $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq$ $\operatorname{poly}\left(k, e^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points, the algorithm is implementable in MPC with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication and $O\left(n^{\theta} k d\right)$ time per machine.

Proof. We set $\gamma$ so that $\rho^{\prime} / \rho=1+O(\gamma)$. Given Theorem D.2, the algorithm is quite simple. First, we apply Theorem D. 2 to find a weighted coreset $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ with at most $\operatorname{poly}\left(k,(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}, \log n\right)$ distinct points. Then, move $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ to a single machine and then apply a non-private algorithm which can be implemented in poly $(|\hat{\mathcal{Y}}|)$ time.
The runtime and privacy are straightfoward to check, where the additional $\operatorname{poly}\left(k,(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ time needed is at most $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$ by our assumption, and since $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ is already private so any output that only depends on $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ must also be private. Finally, accuracy is simple to verify, since any $\rho$-approximate $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering centers for $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ must be a $\rho(1+O(\gamma))=\rho^{\prime}$-approximate clustering with additive error $\operatorname{poly}\left(k,(1 / \gamma)^{d}, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. Since $\rho^{\prime}$ is a fixed constant, this means $\gamma>0$ is a fixed constant, which completes the proof.

To finish, we provide algorithm pseudocode for Theorem D.3, as Algorithm5

```
\(\overline{\text { Algorithm } 5 \text { A parallel approximation algorithm for differentially private } k \text {-means (or } k \text {-median) }}\)
with arbitrarily good approximation ratio.
    procedure ARBITRARILYGOODAPPROX \((\mathcal{X}, \varepsilon, \delta, \gamma) \quad \triangleright\) Will be \((O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))\)-DP .
        Let \(T=\operatorname{poly}\left(k,(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)\) be sufficiently large.
        Use Algorithm 3 to find private bicriteria approximation \(\mathcal{F}=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{K}\right\}\).
        for all \(x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}\) do
            Assign \(x_{i}\) to \((j, r)\) if \(f_{j}\) is \(x_{i}\) 's closest center in \(\mathcal{F}, d\left(x_{i}, f_{j}\right) \approx \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\).
        for each \(j \leq K, r \leq \log _{2}\left(n^{2}\right)\) do
            Let \(B_{j, r}\) be the ball of radius \(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \cdot 2^{r}\) around \(g_{j}\).
            Let \(\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\) be the set of points \(x_{i}\) assigned to \((j, r)\), and \(N_{j, r}\) be the number of points \(x_{i}\)
    assigned to \((j, r)\).
            Let \(\hat{N}_{j, r}=N_{j, r}+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\).
            Let \(\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}\) be a uniform sample \(T\) points from \(\mathcal{X}_{j, r}\).
            Send each \(\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}\) to a specific machine.
            Use Algorithm 4 on \(\mathcal{Z}_{j, r}\), which returns \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}\).
        Let \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}=\bigcup_{j, r} \hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}\), where each \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}_{j, r}\) is weighted by \(\frac{\hat{N}_{j, r}}{T}\). Move \(\hat{\mathcal{Y}}\) to a single machine.
        Apply the best \(k\)-means \(/ k\)-median algorithm of [25], and return the final set of \(k\) centers.
```


## E Dimensionality Reduction

In this section, we show how to reduce the dependencies on the dimension $d$ by showing a reduction to $d$ being roughly $\log k$.

## E. 1 Coordinate-Wise Median

A major piece of our dimensionality reduction procedure is to show that one can compute a private coordinate-wise median, and that this coordinate-wise median serves as a good proxy for both the mean and geometric median. First, we note the standard guarantees of private median (in the sequential setting for one dimension). The following result immediately follows from applying the PrivateQuantile algorithm of [68], after rounding each point to the nearest multiple of $\Lambda / n^{2}$.
Lemma E.1. Given $T$ numbers $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{T} \in[-\Lambda, \Lambda] \subset \mathbb{R}$, some $\tau<\frac{1}{T}$, and some choice of quantile $\alpha \in[0.1,0.9]$, there exists an $(\varepsilon, 0)$-DP algorithm on $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{T}$ that can successfully output a point $\tilde{z}$ that is an "approximate" $\alpha$-quantile of $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{T}$, with probability at least $1-\tau$. By this, we mean that the number of these points that are below $z^{*}-\tau \cdot \Lambda$ is at most $\alpha \cdot T+C \varepsilon^{-1} \log \tau^{-1}$ for some sufficiently large constant $C$, and likewise the number of these points that are above $z^{*}+\tau \cdot \Lambda$ is at most $(1-\alpha) \cdot T+C \varepsilon^{-1} \log \tau^{-1}$. In addition, the algorithm can be implemented in $O(T) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log \tau^{-1}\right)$ time and space.

We will also need the following lemma, showing that an approximate coordinate-wise median is a good estimate for a dataset of points.

Lemma E.2. [59] Let $\mathcal{Z}$ be a set of points in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, and let $z$ be any point in $\mathcal{Z}$ such that for all $d$ coordinate directions $j \in[d]$, the jth coordinate $z_{j}$ of $z$ is between the $35 \%$ and $65 \%$ percentile of the $j$ th coordinate of the points in $\mathcal{Z}$. Then, for any ball $B$ of any radius $R>0$, if $B$ contains at least $9 / 10$ of the points in $\mathcal{Z}$, then the distance between $z$ and the center of $B$ is at most $O(R)$.

We remark that the original theorem statement in [59] assumed $z$ was exactly the coordinate-wise median, but an identical analysis also implies this stronger version above.
We now show how to compute a private coordinate-wise median in the MPC setting, and establish an important property of this point which will later be crucial in showing it is a good proxy for both the mean and geometric median.
Lemma E.3. Let $n \geq 1$, and let $\mathcal{Z}$ be some set of $T \geq 20 C \log (n d) \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}$ points in $B(0, \Lambda) \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$, where $C$ is the same constant as in Lemma E. 1 Assume we can fit $T$ points into $a$ machine. Then, there exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm that returns a point $\tilde{z}$ with the following property. For any positive $R$ and any unknown ball of radius $R$ around some point $y \in B(0, \Lambda)$ that contains at least $9 / 10$ of the points in $\mathcal{Z}$, the distance between $\tilde{z}$ and $y$ is at most $C R+\Lambda / n^{2}$.
In addition, the computation can be done in near-linear time with $O(1)$ rounds in MPC.

Proof. Our algorithm is as follows. Define $\varepsilon^{\prime}=\varepsilon /\left(2 \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}\right)$. Now, we sample $T=$ $20 C \log (n d) \cdots \varepsilon^{-1} \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}=10 C \log (n d) / \varepsilon^{\prime}$ points at random from $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{T}$, which can be sent to a single machine in $O(1)$ rounds. Next, among these selected points, we compute the private median in each coordinate with failure probability $\tau=\frac{1}{\operatorname{poly}(n, d)}$, to output a point $\tilde{z}$. It is clear that the overall algorithm takes near-linear time, as we can fit $T$ points on a machine.
Among the randomly sampled points, the algorithm is a composition of $d \varepsilon^{\prime}$-DP algorithms (one in each direction), so the overall algorithm is ( $\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP.
To verify accuracy, first note that for any fixed direction, assuming $C$ is sufficiently large, with probability at least $1-\frac{1}{\operatorname{poly}(n, d)}$, the $40 \%$ and $60 \%$ percentiles of the sampled points are at least the $35 \%$ and at most the $65 \%$ percentiles of the true points in that direction. Therefore, we can apply Lemma E. 1 with $\varepsilon$ replaced with $\varepsilon^{\prime}$. With probability at least $1-\tau=1-\frac{1}{\text { poly }(n, d)}$, the private median we find in the fixed direction is between the $40 \%$ and $60 \%$ percentiles of the sampled points up to error $\Lambda /\left(n^{2} d\right)$, which is between the $35 \%$ and at most the $65 \%$ percentiles of the true points up to error $\Lambda /\left(n^{2} d\right)$. We can take a union bound over each coordinate to say this happens for all coordinates with probability at least $1-\frac{1}{\operatorname{poly}(n)}$.
For now, let us ignore the error of $\Lambda /\left(n^{2} d\right)$ per coordinate. Then, we can use Lemma E.2, which implies that if at least $9 / 10$ of the points are in a ball of radius $R$, then $\tilde{z}$ is in a ball of radius at most $O(R)$ from the center. Thus, by adding back this error per coordinate, the final point $\tilde{z}$ we select is still within $O(R)+\Lambda / n^{2}$ of the center of any such ball of radius $R$ containing at least $9 / 10$ of the points in $\mathcal{X}$. In addition, our algorithm did not require $R$, so this holds for all $R$ simultaneously.

## E. 2 Obtaining a Constant Approximation

Here, we show how to convert an approximation algorithm in $d^{\prime}=O(\log k)$ to an approximation algorithm in $d$ dimensions without blowing up the approximation factor significantly.
Theorem E.4. There exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (or $k$-median) clustering with multiplicative error $O(1)$ and additive error $\left.\left(k^{2.5}+k^{1.01} \sqrt{d}\right) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)\right)$. In addition, assuming $n^{\theta} \geq\left(k^{1.5}+d^{0.5}\right) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication, total sequential running time $\tilde{O}(n d)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, and total time per machine $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$.

Algorithm: First, by using a random projection $\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime} \times d}$, map each point $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}$ to $\Pi x_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$. Next, we privately solve $k$-means (or $k$-median) in the lower-dimensional space, using Theorem C.3, to generate a set $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=\left\{c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{k}^{\prime}\right\} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$.

Let $S \subset[n]$ be a random sample of points where each point in $[n]$ is in $S$ independently with some probability $p=k^{-\eta}$, for some small constant $\eta>0$. Next, we construct a $K=\sqrt{1 / \eta}$-approximate
nearest neighbor (ANN) data structure for $\mathcal{C}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$. Define $\mathcal{X}_{j} \subset \mathcal{X}$ as the set of points $x_{i}$ such that $\Pi x_{i}$ is mapped to $c_{j}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}$, and $S_{j} \subset S$ to be the set of corresponding indices.
Then, for all $1 \leq j \leq k$, we compute $\hat{N}_{j}:=\left|S_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$. If $\hat{N}_{j} \geq 2 T$, where $T:=20 C \log (n d)$. $\varepsilon^{-1} \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}$, we sample $T$ points in each such $\mathcal{X}_{j}$, and apply Lemma E. 3 to find a point $c_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, which is the point $\tilde{z}$ created from LemmaE. 3 . Otherwise, we just let $c_{j}$ be the origin. Our final set is $\mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}$.

Runtime: First, we note that $\Pi$ can be generated in a single machine and broadcast to all machines, so all points $\Pi x_{i}$ can be computed in near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds. We can then use the runtime guarantees of TheoremC. 3 with $d$ replaced by $d^{\prime}=O(\log k)$.
Next, sampling $S$ is easy (as we just sample each $x_{i}$ independently). Since $k^{1+\eta} \cdot d$ space (equivalent to $k^{1+\eta}$ points) fits in a machine, we can send $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ to a single machine and use the $K=(1 / \sqrt{\eta})$ approximate nearest neighbor data structure from Theorem A.14. This ANN structure uses $O\left(k^{1+\eta}\right.$. $d \cdot \log n)$ space and can be broadcast to all machines in $O(1)$ rounds, and then it takes $O\left(k^{\eta} \cdot d \cdot \log n\right)$ time per machine. As we sampled each point to be in $S$ with probability $k^{-\eta}$, with very high probability we do not use more than $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} \cdot d\right)$ time per machine, or $\tilde{O}(n \cdot d)$ time total.

Finally, we can use MPC aggregation (Lemma A.10) to compute $\hat{N}_{j}$, and use MPC sampling (Lemma A.11 to sample $T$ points from each $\mathcal{X}_{j}$, in near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds. Finally, we can store each of the (up to) $k$ samples of $T$ points on a separate machine, and compute each $c_{j}$ in $\tilde{O}(T \cdot d) \leq \tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} \cdot d\right)$ time. So, the total sequential running time is $\tilde{O}(n d)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, and the total parallel running time is $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$.

Privacy: First, the construction of $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP, since $\Pi$ is oblivious to the dataset $\mathcal{X}$. Next, the sensitivity of the vector $\left(\left|S_{1}\right|, \ldots,\left|S_{k}\right|\right)$ if a single point changes is at most 2 , so determining $\hat{N}_{j}=\left|S_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$ for all $j$ is $(2 \varepsilon, 0)$-DP. Finally, assuming that $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ and the $\hat{N}_{j}$ 's are fixed, constructing $c_{j}$ for all sets is $(2 \varepsilon, 2 \delta)$-DP, since changing a single point in $\mathcal{X}$ can change at most two sets $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ by at most 1 point each. So, by adaptive composition, the overall procedure is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))-\mathrm{DP}$.

Accuracy: Define $\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$ as the optimum cost of $\mathcal{X}$ and $\operatorname{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X})$ as the optimum cost of $\Pi \mathcal{X}$ (either for $k$-means or $k$-median). By Theorem A.8, we have that if $d^{\prime} \geq O(\log k), 0.5 \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X}) \leq$ $\mathrm{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X}) \leq 2 \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$. In addition, with overwhelming probability, no point in $\Pi \mathcal{X}$ has norm greater than $O(\sqrt{\log n}) \cdot \Lambda$ : this would be true even for a random projection down to a single direction. Hence, $\operatorname{cost}\left(\Pi \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{C}^{\prime}\right) \leq O(\mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X}))+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$, where $U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right)$ represents the additive error from applying Theorem C. 3 in $d^{\prime}=O(\log k)$ dimensions.

For each $j \in[k]$, let $\mathcal{X}_{j}^{\prime} \subset \mathcal{X}$ be the full set of points $x_{i}$ such that $\Pi x_{i}$ would have been mapped to $c_{j}^{\prime}$ if we did not sample $S$ from $[n]$, and define $S_{j}^{\prime} \subset[n]$ to be the corresponding set of indices. So, $S_{j}^{\prime}$ partitions $[n]$ instead of $S$. Hence, if we applied the full ANN data structure to every point in $\Pi \mathcal{X}$, the cost obtained, treating $K=\sqrt{1 / \eta}$ as a constant, is still at most $O(\mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X}))+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right)$. $\Lambda^{2}$. In other words, $\sum_{j \leq k} \sum_{i \in S_{j}^{\prime}} d\left(\Pi x_{i}, c_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{2} \leq O(\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X}))+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$. (The same applies for the $k$-median case, replacing $d\left(\Pi x_{i}, c_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{2}$ with $d\left(\Pi x_{i}, c_{j}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\Lambda^{2}$ with $\Lambda$.) By applying Theorem A.8 again, if we pick the true mean (or geometric median) of each cluster $\mathcal{X}_{j}^{\prime}$ as $\tilde{c}_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, then $\sum_{j \leq k} \sum_{i \in S_{j}^{\prime}} d\left(x_{i}, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \leq O(\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X}))+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$.

If $\left|S_{j}^{\prime}\right| \leq \Theta\left(T \cdot k^{\eta}\right)$, we may run into trouble with $\left|S_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon) \leq 2 T$, in which case the additive cost of the points in $S_{j}^{\prime}$ may be very large. There could be up to $\Theta(k)$ such bad choices of $j$, which gives us an additive cost of up to $\Theta\left(T \cdot k^{1+\eta}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$. Otherwise, we will have that $\left|S_{j}\right| \geq 3 T$, which means $\left|S_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon) \geq 2 T$, so we can sample $T$ points and apply Lemma E. 3 to find some $c_{j}$. Let $R_{j}$ be the $90 \%$ percentile of distances between $\tilde{c}_{j}$ and the points $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}$, which by a Chernoff bound is at most the $95 \%$ percentile of distances between $\tilde{c}_{j}$ and the points $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}^{\prime}$. By Lemma E.3. $d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, c_{j}\right) \leq O\left(R_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$. However, we know that the average distance (or squared distance) between $\tilde{c}_{j}$ and the points $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}$ is at least $\Omega\left(R_{j}\right)$ (or $\Omega\left(R_{j}^{2}\right)$, because at least $5 \%$ of points in
$\mathcal{X}_{j}^{\prime}$ are distance at least $R_{j}$ from $\tilde{c}_{j}$. Thus, choosing $c_{j}$ instead of $\tilde{c}_{j}$ cannot blow up the cost of its respective cluster by more than an $O(1)$ multiplicative factor and more than an $O(\Lambda)$ additive factor.
If we had used the centers $\left\{\tilde{c}_{j}\right\}$, we would have obtained a cost of $O(\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X}))+O(\log n)$. $U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$. So, overall, since we use the centers $\left\{c_{j}\right\}$ instead, we obtain a cost of $O(\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X}))+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}+O\left(T \cdot k^{1+\eta}\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$. As $T=O(\log (n d)$. $\varepsilon^{-1} \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}$, by setting $\eta=0.01$ and applying the bound for $U$ from Theorem C.3 we obtain an additive error of

$$
\left(k^{2.5}+k^{1.01} \sqrt{d}\right) \cdot \operatorname{poly}\left(\log n, \log d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)
$$

## E. 3 Obtaining nearly optimal approximation factor

Here, we show how to convert a $\rho$-approximation algorithm in $d^{\prime}=O\left(\gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)\right)$ dimensions to a $\rho \cdot(1+\gamma)$-approximation algorithm in $d$ dimensions for an arbitrarily small constant $\gamma$.

First, we need the following result about private empirical risk minimization, due to Bassily et al. [9] (and slightly restated).
Lemma E.5. [9] Let $f(\theta, x)$ be a convex function in $\theta$ that is L-Lipschitz for some L. Suppose we are attempting to minimize $\ell(\theta):=\sum_{i=1}^{N} f\left(\theta ; x_{i}\right)$ for a dataset $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}$, over $\theta$ in a ball $B$ of radius $\Lambda$. Then, there exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)-D P$ algorithm that runs in polynomial time that outputs some $\theta^{\prime}$ such that $\ell\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)-\min _{\theta \in B} \ell(\theta) \leq O_{L}\left(\frac{\sqrt{d}}{\varepsilon} \cdot \operatorname{poly} \log \left(\frac{n}{\delta}\right)\right) \cdot \Lambda$ with overwhelming probability.

Note that the function $f(\theta, x)=\|\theta-x\|_{2}$ is 1-Lipschitz and convex. This observation will be crucial in applying the above lemma.
Theorem E.6. Suppose that there exists a polynomial-time algorithm that can compute a $\rho$ approximation to $k$-means (resp., $k$-median). Then, for any constant $\rho^{\prime}>\rho$, exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$ DP algorithm for $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) with multiplicative error $\rho^{\prime}$ and additive error poly $\left(k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication, total sequential time $\tilde{O}(n k d)$, and total time per machine $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} k d\right)$, assuming each machine can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq \operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points.

Algorithm: We will set $\gamma$ such that $\rho^{\prime}=(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \rho$, and $d^{\prime}=O\left(\gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)\right)$. Similar to in Theorem E.4, we start with a random projection $\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime} \times d}$, map each point $x_{i} \in X$ to $\Pi x_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$. (Note that $d^{\prime}$ is slightly larger here than in Subsection E.2). Now, we can privately solve $k$-means (or $k$-median) in $\mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$, using Theorem D.2, to generate a set $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=\left\{c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{k}^{\prime}\right\} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$.
Now, rather than sampling $S$ and using approximate nearest neighbor, we simply map each point $\Pi x_{i}$ to its closest point $c_{j}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}$, which partitions the dataset $\mathcal{X}$ into $\mathcal{X}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{X}_{k}$ and the set of indices $[n]$ into $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{k}$.
In the case of $k$-means, we will simply compute an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-differentially private mean for each cluster of points $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}$ to obtain some $c_{j}$. More precisely, we define $\hat{N}_{j}=\left|S_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$, and define $c_{j}=\left(O\left(\Lambda \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot \mathcal{N}(0, I)+\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} x_{i}\right) / \hat{N}_{j}$. If for some reason $\left\|c_{j}\right\|_{2} \geq 2 \Lambda$, we replace $c_{j}$ with the origin. Our final output will be $\mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}$.
In the $k$-median case, as in Theorem E.4, we compute some approximate coordinate-wise median per cluster. Specifically, for all $1 \leq j \leq k$, we let $N_{j}=\left|S_{j}\right|$ and $\hat{N}_{j}:=\left|S_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)$. If $\hat{N}_{j} \geq 2 T$, where $T:=20 C \gamma^{-4} \log \gamma^{-1} \cdot \operatorname{poly} \log \left(\frac{n d}{\delta}\right) \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot d \geq 20 C \log (n d) \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}$, we sample $T$ points $\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}$ in each such $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ (let $\hat{S}_{j}$ be the corresponding indices), and apply Lemma E. 3 to find a point $\hat{c}_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, which is the point $\tilde{z}$ created from Lemma E. 3 For each such $j$ for which $\hat{N}_{j} \geq 2 T$, we again use Lemma E. 1 to compute an $(\varepsilon, 0)$-DP estimate of the $70 \%$ percentile distance from $\hat{c}_{j}$ to the $T$ sampled points $x_{i} \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}$. Let this distance be $\hat{R}_{j}$. To finish, we set a threshold $\tilde{R}_{j}:=C\left(\hat{R}_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$ for a sufficiently large constant $C$, and compute $c_{j}$ to be a private minimizer of the loss function $\ell(c):=\sum_{x \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j},\left\|x-\hat{c}_{j}\right\|_{2} \leq \gamma^{-1} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}} d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right)$, which we compute using Lemma E. 5 .

Runtime: As in TheoremE. 4 we can compute all points $\Pi x_{i}$ in near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds. We then use the runtime guarantees of Theorem D. 2 with $d$ replaced by $d^{\prime}=O\left(\gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)\right)$, which means $(1 / \gamma)^{d^{\prime}}=k^{\tilde{O}\left(\gamma^{-2}\right)}$. Next, we can broadcast $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ to all machines, and for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$ compute its nearest neighbor in $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ in time $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} \cdot k \cdot d\right)$ time per machine or $\tilde{O}(n \cdot k \cdot d)$ time total.
In the $k$-means case, we can use MPC Aggregation (Lemma A.10, to compute $\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} x_{i}$ and $\hat{N}_{j}$ for all $j \in[k]$, using near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds. Then, we can compute each $c_{j}$ in $O(d)$ time. So, after computing $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ and the nearest neighbor of each $x_{i}$, the rest takes near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds.
In the $k$-median case, as in TheoremE.4 we can compute $\hat{N}_{j}$ and sample $T$ points from each $S_{j}$, in near-linear time and $O(1)$ rounds. Finally, we can store each of the (up to) $k$ groups of $T$ sampled points on a separate machine, and compute each $\hat{c}_{j}$ in $\tilde{O}(T \cdot d)$ time. Then, we use the private median algorithm to compute $\hat{R}_{j}$ (and consequently, $\tilde{R}_{j}$ ) for each $j$, which also takes $\tilde{O}(T \cdot d)$ time. Finally, we privately minimize the empirical loss of points within $\tilde{R}_{j} / \gamma$ of $\hat{c}_{j}$, which takes poly $(T, d)$ time.
Since $T$ points fit in a single machine, we therefore have the total sequential running time is $\tilde{O}(n k d)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k^{\tilde{O}\left(\gamma^{-2}\right)}, d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$, and the total parallel running time per machine is $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} k d\right)+\operatorname{poly}\left(k \tilde{O}\left(\gamma^{-2}\right), d, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. Finally, we only use $O(1)$ total rounds of communication.

Privacy: First, note that $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP, as in Theorem E. 4 . Next, note that $\hat{N}_{j}$ is $(\varepsilon, 0)$-DP with respect to the points in $S_{j}$.
We now consider privacy for the rest of the algorithm with respect to an individual $\mathcal{X}_{j}$. In the $k$-means case, if $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ changes by inserting, removing, or changing one point, this affects $\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} x_{i}$ by at most
$2 \Lambda$ in $\ell_{2}$ distance. So, the Gaussian Mechanism tells us that $c_{j}$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP assuming that $\hat{N}_{j}$ is fixed. So, by adaptive composition, the algorithm is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP, since changing $\mathcal{X}$ affects at most 2 of the $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ 's.
In the $k$-median case, we first consider privacy with respect to the sampled dataset $\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}$. The creation of $\hat{c}_{j}$ is clearly $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP. Also, assuming that $\tilde{c}_{j}$ is fixed, the value $\hat{R}_{j}$ (and thus $\tilde{R}_{j}$ ) is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP. Finally, assuming $\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{R}_{j}$ is fixed we are using an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP empirical risk minimization algorithm on points within $\gamma^{-1} \tilde{R}_{j}$ of $\hat{c}_{j}$ : if $\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}$ changes by 1 point then this set of points we perform the private empirical risk minimization algorithm (Lemma E.5) on changes by at most 1 point. Therefore, the remainder of the algorithm for computing $c_{j}$ is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP with respect to $\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}$, which means by Lemma A. 21 it is also $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP with respect to the points in $\mathcal{X}_{j}$.
Finally, we have that for the full dataset $\mathcal{X}$, assuming $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ is fixed, changing a single point in $\mathcal{X}$ affects at most two of the datasets $\mathcal{X}_{j}$, each by at most 1 point. So, by adaptive composition, the overall algorithm is $(O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))$-DP.

Accuracy: Let $\operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$ be the optimum cost of $\mathcal{X}$ and $\operatorname{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X})$ be the optimum cost of $\Pi \mathcal{X}$ (either for $k$-means or $k$-median). By Theorem A.8. we have that if $d^{\prime} \geq O\left(\gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)\right)$, $(1-\gamma)$. $\mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X}) \leq \mathrm{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X}) \leq(1+\gamma) \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})$. As in Theorem E.4, no point in $\Pi \mathcal{X}$ has norm greater than $O(\sqrt{\log n}) \cdot \Lambda$, so $\operatorname{cost}\left(\Pi \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{C}^{\prime}\right) \leq(1+\gamma) \cdot(\mathrm{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X}))+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}$, where $U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right)$ represents the additive error from applying Theorem D. 3 in $d^{\prime}=O\left(\gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)\right)$ dimensions.
Now, since we used the entire dataset (instead of sampling $S$ ), we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j \leq k} \sum_{i \in S_{j}} d\left(\Pi x_{i}, c_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{2} & \leq \rho \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\Pi \mathcal{X})+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2} \\
& \leq \rho \cdot(1+\gamma) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last inequality follows by Theorem A. 8 (The same applies for the $k$-median case, replacing $d\left(\Pi x_{i}, c_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{2}$ with $d\left(\Pi x_{i}, c_{j}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\Lambda^{2}$ with $\Lambda$.) We can then apply Theorem A.8 again to obtain that if
we pick the true mean (or geometric median) of each cluster $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ as $\tilde{c}_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j \leq k} \sum_{i \in S_{j}} d\left(x_{i}, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \leq \rho \cdot(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now focus on the $k$-means case and consider how far $c_{j}$ deviates from $\tilde{c}_{j}$. Note that $c_{j}=\frac{1}{\tilde{N}_{j}}$. $\left(O\left(\Lambda \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot \mathcal{N}(0, I)+\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} x_{i}\right)$, whereas $\tilde{c}_{j}=\frac{1}{N_{j}} \cdot \sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} x_{i}$. If $N_{j} \geq \Omega\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right)$, then with overwhelming probability, $\left|\hat{N}_{j}-N_{j}\right| \leq O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right) \leq \frac{1}{2} N_{j}$. Therefore, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|c_{j}-\tilde{c}_{j}\right\|_{2} & \leq \frac{1}{\hat{N}_{j}} \cdot O\left(\Lambda \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot O(\sqrt{d \log n})+\left(\frac{1}{\hat{N}_{j}}-\frac{1}{N_{j}}\right) \cdot\left\|\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} x_{i}\right\|_{2} \\
& \leq \Lambda \cdot \frac{O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log \delta^{-1} \cdot \sqrt{d \log n}\right)}{N_{j}}+\frac{O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right)}{N_{j}^{2}} \cdot \sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}}\left\|x_{i}\right\|_{2} \\
& \leq \Lambda \cdot \frac{O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log \delta^{-1} \cdot \sqrt{d} \log n\right)}{N_{j}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\tilde{c}_{j}$ is the true center of the cluster $\mathcal{X}_{j}$, this means that $\sum_{i \in S_{j}} d\left(c_{j}, x_{i}\right)^{2}=N_{j} \cdot d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, c_{j}\right)^{2}+$ $\sum_{i \in S_{j}} d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, x_{i}\right)^{2}=O\left(\Lambda^{2}\right) \cdot O\left(\varepsilon^{-2} \log ^{2} \delta^{-1} \cdot d \cdot \log ^{2} n\right)+\sum_{i \in S_{j}} d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, x_{i}\right)^{2}$. This is all assuming $N_{j} \geq \Omega\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right)$, but otherwise, we have that since $N_{j} \leq O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right)$, the maximum error we can have for $c_{j}$ (since we have ensured $\left\|c_{j}\right\|_{2} \leq O(\Lambda)$ ) is at most $\left.O\left(\Lambda^{2}\right) \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log n\right)$.
Overall, the final cost is
$\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \leq \rho \cdot(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \mathrm{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+\left[O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right)+O\left(k \cdot \varepsilon^{-2} \log ^{2} \delta^{-1} \cdot d \cdot \log ^{2} n\right)\right] \cdot \Lambda^{2}$.
Applying $d^{\prime}=O\left(\gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)\right)$, we get the desired accuracy guarantees.
Next, we focus on the $k$-median case, and consider some cluster $j$ such that $\hat{N}_{j} \geq 3 T$. Define $R_{j}$ to be the smallest real number such that at least $95 \%$ of the points in $\mathcal{X}_{j}$ are within $R_{j}$ of the true geometric median $\tilde{c}_{j}$ of $\mathcal{X}_{j}$. We claim the following.
Proposition E.7. With overwhelming probability, $\hat{R}_{j} \leq O\left(R_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$.
Proof. By a Chernoff bound, at least $90 \%$ of the $T$ sampled points are within $R_{j}$ of $\tilde{c}_{j}$ with overwhelming probability. Therefore, $d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \leq O\left(R_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$ by Lemma. E.3, which we may apply because $T \geq 20 C \log (n d) \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \sqrt{d \log \delta^{-1}}$. This also implies that at least $90 \%$ of the sampled points are within $O\left(R_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$ of $\hat{c}_{j}$, so with overwhelming probability, since $\hat{R}_{j}$ is a private estimator of the $70 \%$ percentile distance from $\hat{c}_{j}$ to the sampled points, we have that $\hat{R}_{j} \leq O\left(R_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$.

Proposition E.8. With overwhelming probability, $d\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \leq O\left(\hat{R}_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$.
Proof. Note that with overwhelming probability, $\hat{R}_{j}$ is at least the $65 \%$ percentile of distances between $\hat{c}_{j}$ and the $T$ sampled points, up to error $O\left(\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$, which means by a Chernoff bound, it is at least the $60 \%$ percentile of distances between $\hat{c}_{j}$ and points in $\mathcal{X}_{j}$, up to error $O\left(\Lambda / n^{2}\right)$.
Let $Q_{j}$ be the true $60 \%$ percentile of distances between $\hat{c}_{j}$ and points in $\mathcal{X}_{j}$. It suffices to show that $\hat{Q}_{j}:=d\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \leq O\left(Q_{j}\right)$. To see why, any point $x$ within $Q_{j}$ of $\hat{c}_{j}$, we have that $d\left(x, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \geq$ $d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, \hat{c}_{j}\right)-d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \geq \hat{Q}_{j}-Q_{j}$. So, $d\left(x, \tilde{c}_{j}\right)-d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \geq \hat{Q}_{j}-2 Q_{j}$. So, this holds for at least $60 \%$ of points. However, for the remaining $40 \%$ of points, we still have that $d\left(x, \tilde{c}_{j}\right)-d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \geq$ $-d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \geq-\hat{Q}_{j}$. Now, adding $d\left(x, \tilde{c}_{j}\right)-d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right)$ across all $x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}$ should be negative, because $\tilde{c}_{j}$ is the true geometric median of $\mathcal{X}_{j}$. So, $0.6 \cdot\left(\hat{Q}_{j}-2 Q_{j}\right)+0.4 \cdot\left(-\hat{Q}_{j}\right) \leq 0$, which means that $\hat{Q}_{j} \leq 6 Q_{j}$ by rearranging.

Proposition E. 8 implies that $d\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \leq \tilde{R}_{j}$, based on how we chose $\tilde{R}_{j}$.
Now, consider any point $c$ in the ball $B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$ of radius $\tilde{R}_{j}$ around $\hat{c}_{j}$, and define $\ell(c):=$ $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j} \cap B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \gamma^{-1} \tilde{R}_{j}\right)} d(c, x)$, or equivalently, $\ell(c)=\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} d(c, x) \cdot \mathbb{I}\left(d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \leq \gamma^{-1} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$. Define $\ell^{\prime}(c):=\sum_{x \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}} d(c, x) \cdot \mathbb{I}\left(d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \leq \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$. Note that our private empirical risk minimization algorithm attempts to minimize $\ell^{\prime}(c)$, since we are restricting ourselves to loss from the sampled points in $B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \gamma^{-1} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$. Note that for $c \in B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$, each summand $d(c, x) \cdot \mathbb{I}\left(d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right) \leq \gamma^{-1} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$ in $\ell(c)$ is bounded by $O\left(\gamma^{-1} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$. Therefore, we can apply Hoeffding's inequality to say for any fixed $c$, with probability at least $2 \cdot \exp \left(-\gamma^{4} \cdot T\right), \ell^{\prime}(c)=\frac{T}{N_{j}} \cdot \ell(c) \pm \gamma^{2} \cdot T \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}$. In addition, note that there exists a $\gamma^{2}$-cover of $B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$ of size $(1 / \gamma)^{O(d)}$, which means that by our choice of $T$, we have that with overwhelming probability, $\ell^{\prime}(c)=\frac{T}{N_{j}} \cdot \ell(c) \pm \gamma^{2} \cdot T \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}$ holds for all $c$ in this cover. Now, for all $c \in B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$, we can round $c$ to a point in the cover of distance at most $\gamma^{2} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}$ away, affects $\ell(c)$ by at most $N_{j} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j} \cdot \gamma^{2}$ and $\ell^{\prime}(c)$ by at most $T \cdot \tilde{R}_{j} \cdot \gamma^{2}$. So, we have that with overwhelming probability, for all $c \in B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$, that $\ell^{\prime}(c)=\frac{T}{N_{j}} \cdot \ell(c) \pm O\left(\gamma^{2} \cdot T\right) \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}$.

Now, by applying Lemma E.5, we return a point $c_{j} \in B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$ such that $\ell^{\prime}\left(c_{j}\right) \leq$ $\left.\min _{c \in B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \gamma^{-1}\right.} \tilde{R}_{j}\right) \ell^{\prime}(c)+O\left(\frac{\sqrt{d}}{\varepsilon} \cdot \operatorname{poly} \log \left(\frac{n}{\delta}\right)\right) \cdot \gamma^{-1} \tilde{R}_{j} \leq \ell^{\prime}\left(\tilde{c}_{j}\right)+O\left(\frac{\sqrt{d}}{\varepsilon} \cdot \operatorname{poly} \log \left(\frac{n}{\delta}\right)\right) \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}$, since we think of $\gamma$ as a fixed constant. Now, using our bounds comparing $\ell(c)$ with $\ell^{\prime}(c)$, we have that $\ell\left(c_{j}\right) \leq \ell\left(\tilde{c}_{j}\right)+O\left(\gamma^{2} \cdot N_{j}\right) \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}+\frac{N_{j}}{T} \cdot O\left(\frac{\sqrt{d}}{\varepsilon} \cdot\right.$ poly $\left.\log \left(\frac{n}{\delta}\right)\right) \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}$. Now, based on our definition of $T$ and PropositionE.7 we can further simplify this as $\ell\left(c_{j}\right) \leq \ell\left(\tilde{c}_{j}\right)+O\left(\gamma^{2} \cdot N_{j}\right) \cdot \tilde{R}_{j} \leq$ $\ell\left(\tilde{c}_{j}\right)+O\left(\gamma^{2}\right) \cdot\left(R_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right) \cdot N_{j}$. Finally, we note that $\ell(c)$ does not deal with points outside the ball $B\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \gamma^{-1} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}\right)$. However, for any such point, since $d\left(c_{j}, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \leq d\left(c_{j}, \hat{c}_{j}\right)+d\left(\hat{c}_{j}, \tilde{c}_{j}\right) \leq O\left(\tilde{R}_{j}\right)$, we have that $d\left(c_{j}, x\right)=(1 \pm O(\gamma)) \cdot d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, x\right)$. Therefore, with overwhelming probability, we have that

$$
\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} d\left(c_{j}, x\right) \leq(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, x\right)+O\left(\gamma^{2}\right) \cdot\left(R_{j}+\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}}\right) \cdot N_{j}
$$

By Markov's inequality, $R_{j}$ is at most $O(1)$ times the average distance between $\tilde{c}_{j}$ and the points in $\mathcal{X}_{j}$, which implies that

$$
\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} d\left(c_{j}, x\right) \leq(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, x\right)+O\left(\gamma^{2}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}}\right) \cdot N_{j}
$$

By adding the above equation over all $j \in[k]$ and combining with Equation 10 , we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) & \leq \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} d\left(c_{j}, x\right) \\
& \leq \sum_{j=1}^{k}(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} d\left(\tilde{c}_{j}, x\right)+O\left(\gamma^{2}\right) \cdot N_{j} \cdot \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \\
& \leq \rho \cdot(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}+O\left(\gamma^{2}\right) \cdot N_{j} \cdot \frac{\Lambda}{n^{2}} \\
& =\rho \cdot(1+O(\gamma)) \cdot \operatorname{OPT}(\mathcal{X})+O(\log n) \cdot U\left(n, d^{\prime}, k, \varepsilon, \delta\right) \cdot \Lambda^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

This concludes the proof of accuracy, by setting $d^{\prime}=O\left(\log (k / \gamma) / \gamma^{2}\right)$.
To finish, we provide pseudocode for Theorem E.6, as Algorithm6

```
Algorithm 6 A parallel approximation algorithm for differentially private \(k\)-means (or \(k\)-median)
with arbitrarily good approximation ratio.
    procedure ARbitrarilyGoodApproxHighDim \((\mathcal{X}, \varepsilon, \delta, \gamma) \quad \triangleright\) Will be \((O(\varepsilon), O(\delta))\)-DP.
        Let \(T=\Theta\left(\gamma^{-4} \log \gamma^{-1} \cdot\right.\) poly \(\left.\log \left(\frac{n d}{\delta}\right) \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot d\right)\).
        Let \(d^{\prime}=O\left(\gamma^{-2} \log (k / \gamma)\right)\), and pick a random projection \(\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime} \times d}\).
        Use Algorithm 1 to find a \(k\)-means clustering \(\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=\left\{c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{k}^{\prime}\right\}\) of \(\Pi \mathcal{X}=\left\{\Pi x_{1}, \ldots, \Pi x_{n}\right\}\).
        Map each point \(\Pi x_{i}: i \in S\) to its nearest neighbor in \(\mathcal{C}^{\prime}\).
        for \(j=1\) to \(k\) do
            Let \(\mathcal{X}_{j}\) be the set of points \(x_{i}\) such that \(\Pi x_{i}\) is mapped to \(c_{j}^{\prime}\).
            Let \(\hat{N}_{j}=\left|\mathcal{X}_{j}\right|+\operatorname{Lap}(1 / \varepsilon)\).
            if \(k\)-means then
                    \(c_{j}=\left(O\left(\Lambda \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \log \delta^{-1}\right) \cdot \mathcal{N}(0, I)+\sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}_{j}} x_{i}\right) / \hat{N}_{j}\)
                    Replace \(c_{j}\) with 0 if \(\left\|c_{j}\right\|_{2} \geq 2 \Lambda\).
            else
                    if \(\hat{N}_{j} \geq 2 T\) then
                    Sample \(T\) points \(\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}\) from \(\mathcal{X}_{j}\).
                    Apply a private coordinate-wise median of \(\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}\) to obtain \(\hat{c}_{j}\).
                            Compute \(\hat{R}_{j}\), a private estimate of the \(70 \%\) percentile of distances from \(\hat{c}_{j}\) to
    points in \(\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j}\).
                    Set \(\tilde{R}_{j}=\Theta\left(\hat{R}_{j}+\Lambda / n^{2}\right)\).
                    Use Lemma E.5 with loss \(\ell(c)=\sum_{x \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}_{j},\left\|x-\hat{c}_{j}\right\|_{2} \leq \gamma^{-1} \cdot \tilde{R}_{j}} d\left(x, \hat{c}_{j}\right)\) to obtain a
    private empirical risk minimizer \(c_{j}\).
        Return \(\mathcal{C}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}\)
```


## E. 4 A Fully Near-Linear time Algorithm

We finish by improving Theorem E.6 to running in $\tilde{O}(n d)$ sequential time (and $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$ parallel time), removing the runtime dependence on $k$.
Consider $p \in\{1,2\}$ ( $p=1$ corresponds to $k$-median; $p=2$ corresponds to $k$-means). Given $\mathcal{X}$ and a set of $k$ centers $\mathcal{C}$, let $a_{i}:=d\left(x_{i}, \mathcal{C}\right)^{p}$. Now, consider sampling each $i \in[n]$ with probability $1 / k$, to get a subsampled set $S$. We wish to compare the cost of $k \cdot \sum_{i \in S} d\left(x_{i}, \mathcal{C}\right)^{p}$ with $\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d\left(x_{i}, \mathcal{C}\right)^{p}$. If we let $a_{i}^{\prime}$ be independent random variables, where $a_{i}^{\prime}=(k-1) a_{i}$ with probability $\frac{1}{k}$ and $-a_{i}$ otherwise, then $\sum a_{i}^{\prime}$ has the same distribution as $k \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{S} ; \mathcal{C})-\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})$, where $\mathcal{S}$ is the subsampled set of $\mathcal{X}$. Note that each $a_{i}^{\prime}$ has mean 0 , variance $O\left(k \cdot a_{i}^{2}\right)$, and is uniformly bounded by $O\left(\Lambda^{p}\right)$. Therefore, by Bernstein's inequality, we have that

$$
\mathbb{P}(|k \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{S} ; \mathcal{C})-\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})| \geq t) \leq 2 \exp \left(-\frac{\Omega\left(t^{2}\right)}{k \cdot \sum a_{i}^{2}+\Lambda^{p} \cdot t}\right)
$$

If we want above probability to be at most some small value $\tau$, it suffices for $\frac{t^{2}}{k \cdot \sum a_{i}^{2}} \gtrsim \log \frac{1}{\tau}$ and $\frac{t}{\Lambda^{p}} \gtrsim \log \frac{1}{\tau}$. Noting that $\sum a_{i}^{2} \leq \max a_{i} \cdot \sum a_{i} \lesssim \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C}) \cdot \Lambda^{p}$, it suffices for $t \gtrsim$ $\Lambda^{p} \log \frac{1}{\tau}+\sqrt{k \log \frac{1}{\tau} \cdot \Lambda^{p} \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})}$. By inequality of arithmetic and geometric means, we have that $\sqrt{k \log \frac{1}{\tau} \cdot \Lambda^{p} \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})} \leq \frac{k}{\gamma} \log \frac{1}{\tau} \cdot \Lambda^{p}+\gamma \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})$ for any $\gamma \in(0,1]$. Therefore, for a sufficiently large constant $C$,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(|k \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{S} ; \mathcal{C})-\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})| \geq C\left(\frac{k}{\gamma} \log \frac{1}{\tau} \cdot \Lambda^{p}+\gamma \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})\right)\right) \leq \tau
$$

Now, consider creating a $\frac{\Lambda}{n^{10}}$-sized net of $B(0, \Lambda)$, and choosing the $k$ centers in $\mathcal{C}$ from there. There are at most $n^{O(d \cdot k)}=e^{O(d \cdot k \cdot \log n)}$ ways of choosing such centers. In addition, for any set of $k$ centers $\mathcal{C} \subset B(0, \Lambda)$, by mapping each point to its closest point in the net, we do not change the cost of $\mathcal{S}$ or $\mathcal{X}$ by more than $n \cdot 2 \frac{\Lambda^{p}}{n^{10}} \leq \frac{\Lambda^{p}}{n^{8}}$. Therefore, the probability that $|k \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{S} ; \mathcal{C})-\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})| \geq$ $C\left(\frac{k}{\gamma} \log \frac{1}{\tau} \cdot \Lambda^{p}+\gamma \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})\right)$ for all sets $\mathcal{C}$ of size $k$ is at most $\tau \cdot e^{O(d \cdot k \cdot \log n)}$. Therefore, by replacing $\tau$ with $\frac{\tau}{e^{O(d \cdot k \cdot \log n)}}$, we have that

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\sup _{\substack{\mathcal{C} \subset B(0, \Lambda) \\|\mathcal{C}|=k}}|k \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{S} ; \mathcal{C})-\operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})| \geq C\left(\frac{k^{2} d \log n}{\gamma} \log \frac{1}{\tau} \cdot \Lambda^{p}+\gamma \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\mathcal{X} ; \mathcal{C})\right)\right) \leq \tau
$$

Overall, given a dataset $\mathcal{X}$, we can subsample each element $x_{i}$ with probability $\frac{1}{k}$ and then solve private $k$-means or $k$-median using Theorem E.6. Due to the subsampling, we now have that with overwhelming probability, each machine only has $O\left(n^{\theta} / k\right)$ points, so the total sequential runtime has been improved to $\tilde{O}(n d)$ and the total time per machine has been improved to $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$. The multiplicative error blows up by an additional $1+O(\gamma)$ factor, and if we think of $\gamma$ as a small but fixed constant, the additive error only increases by $\operatorname{poly}(k, d, \log n)$ if we want our algorithm to succeed with high probability. Finally, the algorithm is still $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP by Lemma A. 21 .
Therefore, an improved version of Theorem E. 6 holds where the total sequential runtime is $\tilde{O}(n d)$ and the total time per machine is $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$.
Theorem E.9. Suppose that there exists a polynomial-time algorithm that can compute a $\rho$ approximation to $k$-means (resp., $k$-median). Then, for any constant $\rho^{\prime}>\rho$, there exists an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-DP algorithm for $k$-means (resp., $k$-median) with multiplicative error $\rho^{\prime}$ and additive error poly $\left(k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$. In addition, the algorithm can be implemented in MPC with $O(1)$ total rounds of communication, total sequential time $\tilde{O}(n d)$, and total time per machine $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta} d\right)$, assuming each machine can store $\tilde{O}\left(n^{\theta}\right) \geq \operatorname{poly}\left(k, d, \log n, \varepsilon^{-1}, \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ points.


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    ${ }^{\dagger}$ Work done as a student researcher at Google.

