
PI-FL: Personalized and Incentivized Federated Learning

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

Abstract

1 Existing incentive solutions for traditional Federated Learning (FL) only consider
2 individual clients' contributions to a single global model. They are unsuitable for
3 clustered personalization, where multiple cluster-level models can exist. Moreover,
4 they focus solely on providing monetary incentives and fail to address the need
5 for personalized FL, overlooking the importance of enhancing the personalized
6 model's appeal to individual clients as a motivating factor for consistent partici-
7 pation. In this paper, we first propose to treat incentivization and personalization
8 as interrelated challenges and solve them with an incentive mechanism that fosters
9 personalized learning. Second, unlike existing approaches that rely on the
10 aggregator to perform client clustering, we propose to involve clients by allowing
11 them to provide incentive-driven preferences for joining clusters based on their
12 data distributions. Our approach enhances the personalized and cluster-level model
13 appeal for self-aware clients with high-quality data leading to their active and
14 consistent participation. Through evaluation, we show that we achieve an 8–45% test
15 accuracy improvement of the cluster models, 3–38% improvement in personalized
16 model appeal, and 31–100% increase in the participation rate, compared to a wide
17 range of FL modeling approaches, including those that tackle data heterogeneity
18 and learn personalized models.

19 1 Introduction

20 Training high-quality models using traditional distributed machine learning requires massive data
21 transfer from the data sources to a central location, which raises various communication, computation,
22 and privacy challenges. In response, Federated Learning (FL) [1–4] has emerged as a solution
23 to train models at the source, reducing privacy issues and addressing the need for high-quality
24 models. However, the success of FL relies on resolving various new challenges related to statistical
25 heterogeneity [5–10], scheduling [11–13], and incentive distribution [14–18]. Recent works have
26 focused on training personalized models [9, 19–22] to overcome data heterogeneity challenges.

27 Among personalized Federated Learning (pFL) techniques, similarity-based approaches that use
28 clustering of clients at the aggregator have gained popularity [23–27]. These personalization solutions
29 fulfill the primary goal of overcoming data heterogeneity for specific cases. However, existing pFL
30 solutions do not include any incentive mechanism, which is crucial in FL to motivate participants
31 to contribute their data and computation resources. Existing incentive mechanisms [14, 16, 28] for
32 traditional FL cannot be applied to pFL techniques because they only consider the performance
33 contribution of clients towards training a single objective. In contrast, clients in pFL can be con-
34 tributing towards multiple objectives simultaneously [7, 8, 24, 25, 29, 30]. Furthermore, traditional
35 incentive solutions only provide monetary benefits and do not consider increasing personalized
36 models' appeal as an incentive for encouraging active and reliable participation of clients. Without

37 incentives, participants may provide low-quality data [14, 16, 18] or opt-out from participation¹ [31],
38 leading to poorly performing pFL models [10, 32, 33], as shown with empirical evaluations in the later
39 section. Collaboration fairness [34, 35] can also be ensured by appropriately rewarding contributions
40 and accounting for data heterogeneity [18, 36].

41 In addition, since existing pFL techniques assume voluntary and consistent participation from clients,
42 the aggregator controls the client selection and training with limited knowledge of clients’ training
43 capacity, availability, frequency of new incoming data, clustering preferences, and performance
44 requirements from the trained personalized models. These factors can directly influence the motivation
45 of self-conscious clients to participate consistently. Our evaluation shows that this causes frequent
46 opt-outs from uninterested clients due to uninformed clustering decisions by the server and low
47 personalized model appeal (PMA)², which leads to reduced pFL performance. We also show that
48 solving personalization and incentivization as interrelated challenges yield better outcomes for pFL
49 than solving them as separate problems. However, this requires new paradigms for clustered pFL
50 using data distribution information available to clients via their preferences and designing incentive
51 mechanisms for increasing pFL appeal to reduce client opt-outs.

52 In this paper, we propose PI-FL that combines clustering-based pFL with token-based incentivization.
53 Unlike previous works that control clustering from the server side, PI-FL allows clients to estimate
54 the importance of each cluster and send their preferences for joining them to the aggregator as bids.
55 To identify a cluster’s importance to a client we use the importance weight of the cluster model
56 as defined by FedSoft [25]. Clients also use the importance weights to perform weighted local
57 aggregation for single-shot personalization. This client-driven clustering approach results in accurate
58 clustering because clients can attain a global perspective from their own local dataset which is only
59 accessible to them and the importance weights information of each cluster. This allows them to make
60 informed decisions that the server cannot make, resulting in improved PMA and reduced opt-outs. To
61 incentivize clients for consistent participation, PI-FL motivates clients to join clusters with the clients
62 that are most similar to them, maximizing their contribution to the cluster and, in turn, their rewards.
63 Good quality cluster-level models then produce more appealing personalized models for each client.
64 The incentive mechanism treats clients as both providers and consumers. As a consumer, the client
65 tries to attain a certain level of personalized model appeal, so it pays the provider to spend resources
66 to participate in training for the said model in each round. Whereas as a provider, the client earns
67 a profit based on its marginal contribution to training the cluster models. The marginal contribution
68 is calculated with a Shapley Value approximation due to the large computational overhead of the
69 original algorithm [38–41].

70 **Contributions.** Existing pFL solutions fail to include PMA as an incentive to maintain consistent
71 participation, resulting in increased opt-outs. To address this issue, we propose PI-FL as the first
72 contribution, which provides contribution-based incentives to achieve collaborative fairness and
73 maintain the cluster-level and personalized models’ appeal for clients to prevent opt-outs. Additionally,
74 PI-FL has the added advantage of creating personalized models for unseen clients with unknown
75 data distributions that perform similarly to seen clients without the need for training. Secondly, we
76 provide theoretical analysis and empirical verification of the benefits of including incentives with
77 personalization. Lastly, we empirically evaluate the performance of PI-FL and other pFL models.

78 2 Related work

79 **Cluster-based pFL:** Among the cluster-based pFL works most related to PI-FL are FedSoft [25],
80 FedGroup [24], and [29]. FedSoft utilizes soft clustering on the basis of matching data distributions
81 in clients with cluster models while FedGroup quantifies the similarities between clients’ gradients by
82 calculating the Euclidean distance of decomposed cosine similarity metric and [29] finds the optimal
83 personalization-generalization trade-off from the cluster model by solving a bi-level optimization
84 problem. This work incurs clustering overhead at each iteration and does not consider the overlap of
85 distribution between clients wherein each client is restricted to one cluster for each training round.
86 Other cluster-based pFL models include IFCA [42] which proposes a framework for loss-based
87 clustering of clients and [23] which proposes three approaches for personalization using clustering,
88 data interpolation, and model interpolation.

89 **Other pFL models:** Some pFL models propose meta-learning techniques that provide methods for
90 rapid training of a personalized model. These include fine-tuning methods such as Per-FedAvg [43]

¹By “opt-out” we mean the clients voluntarily leave FL due to the lack of incentivization.

²Akin to global model appeal [37], we propose a new metric to measure the personalized model appeal.

91 and regularization of local models [44, 45]. Others works [8, 46] including FedALA [6], Ditto [30]
 92 and pFedMe [47] propose multi-task learning and model-interpolation [48] pFL models. FedFomo [7]
 93 suggests an adaptive local aggregation approach for personalization. FedProx [5] proposes a proximal
 94 term to improve the stability of FL. As per our knowledge, all of these pFL works lack qualities for
 95 attracting or sustaining long-term participation from self-conscious clients leading to an increase
 96 in opt-outs and low PMA. Moreover, most of these works require either require further training or
 97 re-clustering to adapt the personalized models for new incoming clients.

98 **Incentivized FL:** FAIR [14] integrates a quality-aware incentive mechanism with model aggregation
 99 to improve global model quality and encourage the participation of high-quality learning clients.
 100 FedFAIM [18] proposes a fairness-based incentive mechanism to prevent free-riding and reward
 101 fairness with Shapley value-based client contribution calculation. [31] proposes an approach based
 102 on reputation and reverse auction theory which selects and rewards participants by combining the
 103 reputation and bids of the participants under a limited budget. [16] proposes an approach where
 104 clients decide whether to participate based on their own utilities (reward minus cost) modeled as a
 105 minority game with incomplete information. Other incentivized FL works include [15, 17, 34, 49, 50].
 106 All of these works propose standalone solutions to attract clients, however, none of them fulfill the
 107 design requirements to be used with any pFL models.

108 **Why existing incentive mechanisms cannot be applied directly to pFL frameworks?**

109 Existing FL incentivization schemes designed for motivating clients to contribute to a single global
 110 goal [14, 16, 18, 31] may not be applicable to pFL frameworks due to the multi-dimensional goals and
 111 objectives involved. In pFL frameworks, multiple objectives must be optimized simultaneously, such
 112 as cluster and personalized models per client in cluster-based pFL [24, 25, 29] or global and local
 113 models per client in multi-task learning [20, 30, 45, 47]. To encourage clients to contribute towards
 114 the multiple objectives in pFL frameworks, new incentive mechanisms need to be developed that are
 115 specifically tailored to their multi-objective nature. PI-FL uses clustering for pFL wherein the clusters
 116 memberships are changed after every R training rounds. PI-FL is different from these as it forms
 117 clear boundaries between multiple cluster models and improves shared learning between cluster
 118 similarities through multiple participation at the client level. PI-FL incorporates maintaining PMA
 119 for consistent client participation with an incentive mechanism that directly motivates personalized
 120 training on the basis of Individual Rationality (IR) constraint of game theory [14, 51].

121 **3 Proposed Methodology**

122 In this section, we introduce PI-FL, which has three main modules:
 123 the profiler, the token manager, and the scheduler as shown by
 124 the architecture diagram in Figure 1. The profiler calculates and
 125 maintains the history of client contributions using Shapley Values
 126 approximation (lines 24-27) of Algorithm 1. The profiler also aids
 127 the scheduler in forming clusters using two different modes further
 128 explained in section 3.1. The token manager orchestrates transactions,
 129 holds auctions, deducts payments, and distributes rewards as given in lines (13 and 14).
 130 The scheduler selects clients based on bids and contributions, grouping them for improved homogeneity shown in lines (20 and 27-29).
 131 Individual clients calculate the importance weights of each aggregated cluster model and send their
 132 preference bids to the Token Manager for joining clusters as shown in lines (23-28) in Algorithm 2.
 133 Clients also generate a single-shot personalized model, shown in line 29. We assume that each client
 134 will look to maximize their profits according to the principle of Individual Rationality (IR) [10, 52]
 135 and this will lead them to choose clusters in which they can contribute the most for maximum reward.

136 **3.1 Profiler**

137 At the start of pFL training, the scheduler module forms the initial clusters by randomly assigning
 138 clients. Then for each round, clients train the cluster-level model on their local data and calculate
 139 the importance weight of each aggregated cluster model M_k on their local dataset via Equation 1.
 140 Here v_{ck} is the normalized sum of correctly predicted data points n_{ck} on local dataset D_c of client c .
 141 The importance weights are used to generate a single-shot personalized model through the weighted
 142 aggregation of cluster-level models using Equation 2.

$$v_{ck} = n_{ck}/n_k \in [0, 1] \mid k \in [K] \tag{1}$$

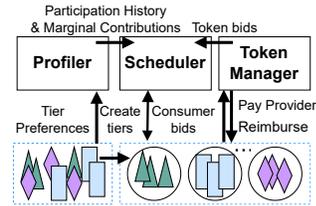


Figure 1: PI-FL design

Algorithm 1 PI-FL (Server)

Input: R : Rounds, P_r : Pre-training rounds, K : Number of clusters, M_k : Cluster-level model of cluster $k \in K$, M_G : Global model at aggregator, N : Number of clients, C : Number of classes in dataset, ζ_a : Available Clients, N_p : Number of clients to select on basis of performance, N_r : Number of clients to select randomly for each cluster, ζ_k : Clients selected for training in cluster $k \in K$, $FedAvg$: [2], $F1$ -Scores: [53], $sort()$: Python 3.7 Timsort implementation [54]

```
1 for each round  $r \in R$  do
2    $\zeta_k = SelectClients(r)$  for each cluster  $k \in K$ 
3   for cluster  $k \in K$  do
4     Server sends cluster-level model  $M_k$  for training to clients in  $\zeta_k$ 
5     Token Manager collects bid payments from all willing clients via Eqn. 4
6     Token manager updates available tokens for round  $r$  via Eqn. 5
7      $U_k \leftarrow$  model updates received from clients in  $\zeta_k$ 
8      $M_k = FedAvg(U_k)$ 

9 Function  $SelectClients(r)$ 
10 if  $r = 0$  then
11   for  $k = 1$  to  $K$  do
12      $\zeta_k^* \leftarrow$  Scheduler randomly assigns clients from  $\zeta_a$ .
13   return  $\zeta_k^*$ 
14 else if  $r > 1$  then
15   for  $i = 1$  to  $N$  do
16      $\theta_i \leftarrow ClientPreferences(M_1, \dots, M_k) \mid \forall k \in [K]$  // from Algorithm 2
17     Server calculates marginal contributions  $\psi_{ki}$  of each client within its cluster with Shapley
18     Values approximation in Algorithm 3  $\mid \forall k \in [K], \forall i \in [N]$ 
19     //Profiler sorts clients on the basis of their marginal contributions and preference bids
20      $S_c = sort(\theta_i, \psi_{ki})$ 
21     for  $k = 1$  to  $K$  do
22        $\zeta_k^* \leftarrow N_p$  clients selected from  $S_c$  and  $N_r$  clients randomly from  $\zeta_a$  by Scheduler.
23   return  $\zeta_k^*$ 
```

$$P_{ck} = \sum_{k=1}^K v_{ck} \times (\omega_k) \quad (2)$$

144 Here the P_{ck} is the personalized model of client c in cluster k and ω_k is the weight vector of k cluster
145 model. Using this, clients generate single-shot personalized models offline according to their dynamic
146 data needs. The client-centric clustering and participation method enhances the appeal of pFL for
147 clients and in doing so also provides them the opportunity to customize their personalized model
148 offline in case their requirements which are unknown to the server change during training. Clients can
149 also make informed decisions on participating in training clusters based on their budget and past re-
150 wards, using importance weights and knowledge of previous rounds. They convey their preferences to
151 the aggregator by submitting bids for the cluster they wish to participate in for the next training round.

152 The profiler calculates the marginal contributions of each client after every round using Shapley
153 Values approximation (Algorithm 3), aiding scheduling by providing data quality information to
154 the scheduler. The Shapley Value approximation derivation from Appendix is used to avoid the
155 computational expense of calculating Shapley Values for multiple clients. PI-FL also includes a mode
156 to facilitate clients to form well-defined initial clusters. So the clients can avoid the decision-making
157 process in the beginning and streamline their spending when the client contributions and cluster
158 distributions are unclear. For this, the profiler and the scheduler module facilitate forming the initial
159 clusters by training for some pre-training rounds. This is done as client contributions and similarity
160 metrics that the clients use among other metrics to make decisions about joining clusters are initially
161 unknown. After pre-training, the profiler calculates per-class F1-Scores ξ of all client local models
162 on an IID test dataset [53]. Then the profiler with the help of scheduler clusters clients for the next
163 training round using the K-Means clustering [55] algorithm with the most varying F1-scores V_{F1}
164 from C total classes. Equation 3 shows the calculation of V_{F1} where C is the number of total classes
165 and N is the number of all available clients.

$$V_{F1} = var(\xi_i) \in [1, C] \mid \forall i \in N \quad (3)$$

166 We perform all our evaluations for PI-FL without this feature, but this is an added feature that PI-FL in-
 167 cludes for faster convergence and to save clients' costs. We also realize the constraints in choosing all
 168 the clients for training, which is why clients that reply within threshold time in pre-training rounds are
 169 used to calculate F1 scores. The remaining clients are considered unexplored and assigned to clusters
 170 randomly, they can later settle into appropriate clusters through preference and contribution selection.

Algorithm 2 PI-FL (Client)

Input: T_h : Importance weight threshold, K : Number of clusters, M_k : Cluster-level model of cluster
 $k \in K$, D : Local dataset of client,

23 **Function** ClientPreferences(M_1, \dots, M_k)
 24 **for** each cluster $k \in K$ **do**
 25 **for** each data point $d \in D$ **do**
 26 The client computes v_k importance weight of M_k model for each data point d via Eqn. 1
 27 **if** $v_k > T_h$ **then**
 28 Client adds cluster k to client's preference bids list θ_i^*
 29 The client generates personalized model P_{ck} via Eqn. 2
 30 **return** θ_i^*

171 **3.2 Token Manager**

172 The token manager acts as a bank to orchestrate and keep track of transactions between different
 173 clients. At the start of each training round the token manager holds an auction for each cluster, and
 174 the clients that want to participate in that cluster place their bids using tokens. The token manager
 175 forwards the list of willing clients to the scheduler to select clients for training. It also deducts
 176 payments from the willing clients/consumers via Equation 4. Here τ_i is the tokens owned by client i ,
 177 ζ_k are the clients willing to join cluster k , and τ_p in this and all following Equations is the per round
 178 bid amount to be paid by each client for participation.

$$\tau_i = \tau_i - \tau_p \mid i \in \zeta_k^* \quad (4)$$

179 The tokens collected as payments from clients/consumers are then added to the available pool of tokens
 180 at the Token Manager as shown in Equation 5. Here τ_{ar} are the total available pool of tokens at the
 181 Token Manager. The term N_p is the number of clients selected on basis of performance and N_r is the
 182 number of clients selected randomly. The significance of using N_p and N_r is explained in section 3.3.

$$\tau_{ar} = \tau_{ar} + (N_p + N_r) \times \tau_p \mid r \in [1, R] \quad (5)$$

183 The token manager handles the distribution of reimbursement and rewards to each provider/client.
 184 Reimbursement penalizes degradation in the performance of providers and depends on the utility
 185 function. The utility is calculated as the percentage of average accuracy improvement of the cluster
 186 model M_k over the maximum achieved accuracy in past rounds on the local data of clients in cluster
 187 k . The utility function is given in Equation 6 and reimbursement calculation is given in Equation
 188 7, both metrics are calculated at the profiler which assists the token manager in reimbursement.

$$\theta = \frac{\eta \times (\gamma - \min(\gamma, \max(0, \frac{(Acc_{kr} - Acc_{kmax})}{Acc_{kmax}})))}{\gamma} \mid \eta \in [0, 1], \gamma \in [0, 1] \quad (6)$$

189
$$\tau_i = \tau_i - \tau_{ar} \times \theta \mid \theta \in [0, \gamma], \forall i \in [N], \forall r \in [1, R] \quad (7)$$

190 In Equation 6, Acc_{kr} is the cluster-level model accuracy in the current round r and Acc_{kmax} is the
 191 maximum cluster-level model accuracy achieved until the current round r . The term η represents the
 192 maximum portion of tokens that can be returned and γ represents the maximum accuracy improvement
 193 that leads to the use of one full token. In Equation 7, τ_{ar} are the total number of tokens collected
 194 from consumers/clients for r training round. We have used a similar approach to [28], however, they
 195 use the accuracy of the FedAvg model on an IID dataset. It is not practical to assume the presence of
 196 an IID dataset that can correspond to the data distribution of clients within a cluster which is why we
 197 rely on the local dataset of clients within that cluster to gather this information.

$$\tau_i = \tau_i + \text{sort}(\psi_{ki}, \Omega_{ki}) \times \frac{\tau_{ar}}{N_r \times \frac{(N_r+1)}{2}} \mid \forall k \in [K], \forall i \in [N], \forall r \in [R] \quad (8)$$

198 After reimbursement, the token manager uses the marginal contributions calculated by the profiler
 199 and sorts providers/clients by their contributions and participation record in Equation 8. Here ψ_{ki}
 200 represents the marginal contributions and Ω_{ki} represents the participation records of all clients N
 201 in K clusters. The term β is a normalizing term from Equation 8 in which N_r are the number of
 202 providers selected for participation in round r . Using the ranks α of providers from sorting and
 203 the normalization term β , the remaining available tokens are distributed between these providers
 204 in Equation 8. Here τ_i represents the tokens owned by provider/client i and τ_{ar} are the tokens
 205 available for incentive distribution at the token manager. Through reimbursements to consumers and
 206 payments to providers, the Token Manager ensures that each client receives an incentive according
 207 to their contributions in training the pFL models. By doing so, PI-FL incentivizes improvement in
 208 personalized learning, resulting in an enhancement of PMA and a decrease in opt-outs.

209 3.3 Scheduler

210 The scheduler selects clients for each round r by the $SelectClients(r)$ function given in Algorithm
 211 1. The scheduler receives the preference bids θ_i from the token manager, the marginal contributions
 212 ψ_{ki} from the profiler for each client $i \in N$ in cluster $k \in K$, where N is the total number of clients
 213 and K are the total number of clusters. Using this information scheduler groups clients with similar
 214 preference bids and then sorts those clients by their marginal contributions. Then the scheduler
 215 selects N_p number of clients from the sorted clients and N_r number of clients randomly. Both N_p
 216 and N_r are tunable parameters. To reduce bias, a small portion of clients N_r are selected randomly
 217 which is a technique adopted from previous works [2, 28, 56, 57]. By grouping clients with similar
 218 preferences the scheduler reduces the within-cluster bias improving the within-cluster homogeneity
 219 and a cluster model is produced that accurately represents the clients within it. Section 4 gives a
 220 theoretical analysis of how this is an important factor in improving the PMA.

221 4 Theoretical Analysis

222 We study the following particular case to develop insights. Suppose there are m clients in total,
 223 each observing a set of independent Gaussian observations $z_{i,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$, $j = 1, \dots, n_i$, with a
 224 personalized task of estimating its unknown mean $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$. The quality of the learning result, denoted
 225 by $\hat{\mu}$, will be assessed by the mean squared error $\mathbb{E}_i(\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2$, where the expectation \mathbb{E}_i is taken with
 226 respect to the distribution of client i .

227 It is conceivable that if clients' underlying parameters μ_i 's are arbitrarily given, personalized FL
 228 may not boost the local learning result. To highlight the potential benefit of cluster-based modeling,
 229 we suppose that the m clients can be partitioned into two subsets: one with m_1 clients, say $T_1 =$
 230 $\{1, \dots, m_1\}$, and the other with m_2 clients, say $T_2 = \{m_1+1, \dots, m\}$, whose underlying parameters
 231 are randomly generated in the following way:

$$231 \mu_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_1, \tau^2) \mid i \in T_1, \quad \mu_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_2, \tau^2) \mid i \in T_2. \quad (9)$$

232 Here, β_1 and β_2 can be treated as the root cause of two underlying clusters. We will study how
 233 the values of sample size n_i , data variation σ , within-cluster similarity as quantified by τ , and
 234 cross-cluster similarity as quantified by $|\beta_1 - \beta_2|$ will influence the gain of a client in personalized
 235 learning. To simplify the discussion, we will assess the learning quality (based on the mean squared
 236 error) of any particular client i in the following three procedures:

237 **Local training:** Client i only performs local learning by minimizing the local loss $L_i(\mu) =$
 238 $\sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (\mu - z_{i,j})^2$, and obtains $\hat{\mu}_i = n_i^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} z_{i,j}$. Thus, the corresponding error is

$$238 e(\hat{\mu}_i) = \mathbb{E}_i(\hat{\mu}_i - \mu_1)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n_i}. \quad (10)$$

239 **Federated training:** Suppose the FL converges to the global minimum of the loss,
 240 $\sum_{i=1}^m \frac{n_i}{n} L_i(\mu)$, $n \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^m n_i$, which can be calculated to be $\hat{\mu}_{FL} = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{n_i}{n} \hat{\mu}_i$. Consider
 241 any particular client i . Without loss of generality, suppose it belongs to cluster 1, namely $i \in T_1$.
 242 From the client i 's angle, conditional on its local μ_i and assuming a flat prior on β_1 and β_2 , client j 's
 243 μ_j follows $\mu_j \mid \mu_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, 2\tau^2)$ for $j \in T_1$ and $j \neq i$, and $\mu_j \mid \mu_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1 + \beta_2 - \beta_1, 2\tau^2)$ for
 244 $j \in T_2$. Then, the corresponding error is

$$244 e(\hat{\mu}_{FL}) = \mathbb{E}_i(\hat{\mu}_{FL} - \mu_1)^2 \\
= \left\{ \sum_{j \in T_2} \frac{n_j}{n} (\beta_2 - \beta_1) \right\}^2 + \sum_{j=1, \dots, m, j \neq i} \left(\frac{n_j}{n} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n_j} + 2\tau^2 \right) + \left(\frac{n_i}{n} \right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{n_i}. \quad (11)$$

245 It can be seen that compared with (10), the above FL error can be non-vanishing if $\sum_{j \in T_2} \frac{n_j}{n} (\beta_2 - \beta_1)$
 246 is away from zero, even if sample sizes go to infinity. In other words, in the presence of a significant dif-
 247 ference between the two clusters, the FL may not bring additional gain compared with local learning.

248 **Cluster-based personalized FL:** Suppose our algorithm allows both clusters to be correctly identified
 249 upon convergence. Consider any particular client i . Suppose it belongs to Cluster 1 and will use a
 250 weighted average of Cluster-specific models. Specifically, the Cluster 1 model will be the minimum
 251 of the loss $\sum_{j \in T_1} \frac{n_j}{n_{T1}} L_j(\mu)$, $n_{T1} \triangleq \sum_{j \in T_1} n_j$, which can be calculated to be $\hat{\mu}_{T1} = \sum_{j \in T_1} \frac{n_j}{n_{T1}} \hat{\mu}_j$.
 252 By a similar argument as in the derivation of (11), we can calculate

$$e(\hat{\mu}_{T1}) = \sum_{j \in T_1, j \neq i} \left(\frac{n_j}{n_{T1}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n_j} + 2\tau^2 \right) + \left(\frac{n_i}{n_{T1}} \right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{n_i}. \quad (12)$$

253 The above value can be smaller than that in (10). To see this, let us suppose the sample sizes n_i 's are
 254 all equal to, say n_0 , for simplicity. Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} e(\hat{\mu}_{T1}) &= \frac{m_1 - 1}{m_1^2} \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n_0} + 2\tau^2 \right) + \frac{1}{m_1^2} \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0} = \frac{m_1 - 1}{m_1^2} \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n_0} + 2\tau^2 \right) + \frac{1}{m_1^2} \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0} \\ &= \frac{1}{m_1} \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0} + \frac{m_1 - 1}{m_1^2} 2\tau^2, \end{aligned}$$

255 which is smaller than (10) if and only if

$$\tau^2 < \frac{m_1 \sigma^2}{2n_0}. \quad (13)$$

256 We derive the following intuitions from this analysis: **R1.** If the within-cluster bias is relatively small,
 257 the number of cluster-specific clients is large, and data noise is large, a client will have personalized
 258 gain from collaborating with others in the same cluster. **R2.** PI-FL's incentive algorithm rewards
 259 accuracy improvement reflected in PMA, which directly correlates with reducing within-cluster bias
 260 as per Equation 13. **R3.** By association, the incentive algorithm motivates clients to join similar
 261 clusters which increases cluster homogeneity and reduces the within-cluster bias. We show the impact
 262 of change in performance with an ablation study of PI-FL incentive in section 5.5.

263 5 Experimental Study

264 5.1 Experimental Setup

265 We use NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3070 GPUs for all our experiments. To evaluate the performance of
 266 PI-FL with other pFL models we use four datasets. A simple CNN model (32x64x64 convolutional
 267 and 3136x128 linear layer parameters) is used that can be trained on client devices with limited
 268 system resources to map Cross-Device FL settings [10] for all pFL methods.

269 **CIFAR10 Data.** For comparison with FedSoft [25] we use the same CIFAR10 dataset provided in
 270 their repository. This image dataset has images of dimension $32 \times 32 \times 3$ and 10 output classes. We
 271 copy different data heterogeneity conditions from [25], namely 10:90, 30:70, linear, and random. The
 272 data classes are divided into two clusters D_A and D_B . In the **10:90** partition, 50 clients have 90% training
 273 data from D_A and 10% from D_B , while the other 50 have 10% training data from D_A and 90%
 274 from D_B . The **30:70** partition is similar to 10:90 except that the distribution ratios are 30% and 70%.

275 **EMNIST Data.** This image dataset has images of dimension 28×28 and 52 output classes where
 276 26 classes are lower case letters and 26 classes are upper case letters. Same as CIFAR10 data, we use
 277 the 10:90 and 30:70 data partitions and also include linear, and random partitions. In **linear** partition,
 278 client k has $(0.5 + k)\%$ training and testing data from D_A and $(99.5 - k)\%$ training data and testing
 279 data from D_B . In the **random** partition, client k is assigned a mixture vector generated randomly by
 280 dividing the $[0, 1]$ range into S segments with $S - 1$ points drawn from $Uniform(0, 1)$. The training
 281 and testing data are then assigned based on this vector from D_A and D_B . Similar to [6, 30, 37], we
 282 also divide the EMNIST dataset into K clusters, where $K = \frac{C_t}{C_p}$, C_t are total classes and C_p are the
 283 classes owned per party with no overlap of data between clusters.

284 **Synthetic CIFAR10.** This is a synthetic dataset created from the CIFAR10 dataset and contains
 285 the same hetrogenous partitions of 10:90, 30:70, linear, and random. The only difference is that

the training and testing data distributions are different to simulate dynamic data at the clients. For example, in **10:90** 50 clients have 90% training data with 10% testing data from D_A and 10% training data with 90% testing data from D_B and vice versa. Similar to this, all the other partitions also have inverse training and testing data distributions. The reason for separate training and testing data distributions are explained in further depth in Appendix.

5.2 Focus of Experimental Study

First, we compare the clustering ability of PI-FL with a recent clustering-based pFL algorithm [25]. Second, we show how PI-FL compares with other non-clustering pFL models with a simple test accuracy comparison. Taking it one step further, we provide a comparison of PI-FL and other clustering and non-clustering pFL models in terms of reduction in opt-outs and PMA maintenance in section 5.3. Lastly, in section 5.5 we show that including client preferences while clustering yields better personalization results because clients can make decisions based on knowledge restricted to the aggregator server.

Table 1: Test accuracy on CIFAR10

	PI-FL				FedSoft			
	10:90		30:70		10:90		30:70	
	c0	c1	c0	c1	c0	c1	c0	c1
θ_0	63.7	41.3	58.0	57.7	48.9	49.5	48.0	48.4
θ_1	43.7	63.8	58.6	58.8	50.7	49.6	50.0	50.0

Table 2: Test Accuracy of pFL methods on EMNIST

Partitions	Ditto	FedProx	FedALA	PerFedAvg	FedProto	PI-FL
10:90	85.78±4.84	75.15±4.81	75.54±4.65	87.5±3.79	71.95±1.39	87.5±3.66
30:70	75.96±4.54	79.74±4.01	78.42±3.21	76.63±3.94	59.7±4.71	85.07±3.36
Linear	75.3±5.08	82.84±2.7	82.04±3.61	80.82±3.53	62.63±4.93	83.4±4.85
Random	77.82±6.79	80.93±4.42	78.98±5.07	83.31±5.19	68.43±5.65	86.21±4.34

5.3 Test Accuracy performance study.

Effectiveness of clustering. We evaluate the performance of cluster-level models using holdout datasets sampled from the corresponding cluster distributions (D_A and D_B). To demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed PI-FL method, we compare it with a recent cluster-based pFL algorithm called FedSoft using CIFAR10 data. We use the same parameters as in [25], with $N = 100$ clients, batch size 128, and learning rate $\eta = 0.01$, and perform training for 300 rounds. Table 1 presents the test accuracy for the **10:90** and **30:70** partitions with PI-FL. We observe that PI-FL performs better for the 10:90 partition, where each cluster dominates one of the distributions. With PI-FL, clients that have a greater portion of data from θ_0 prefer to train in cluster c_0 , achieving 63.68% accuracy, while clients with a greater portion of data from θ_1 prefer to train in cluster c_1 , achieving 63.82% accuracy. FedSoft cluster-level models, on the other hand, achieve 50.7% and 49.6% for 10:90 data. It is worth noting that FedSoft is unable to cater to different partitions of data through its clustering mechanism, and the performance is adversely impacted by increased heterogeneity. Moreover, cluster-level models in FedSoft are unable to dominate a single distribution of data. As expected, the performance for the 30:70 partition is not as good as it is a less heterogeneous partition than the 10:90 partition. Neither cluster dominates a single distribution, and the clients with different distributions are not clearly differentiated for training with different clusters. Additionally, the cluster-level models c_0 and c_1 have similar performance with either distribution (θ_0 and θ_1), as FedSoft promotes personalizing models when clients have a greater percentage of shared data. This generates cluster-level models that cannot represent a single distribution and do not perform as well as PI-FL with non-IID data.

Comparison with non-clustering pFL models. Table 2 shows a test accuracy comparison of PI-FL with other recent pFL algorithms. This table shows that some pFL models are able to perform well for individual partitions such as Ditto for 10:90, FedProx and FedALA for Linear, and PerFedAvg for Random, however, PI-FL is able to maintain its performance for all partitions.

5.4 Effectiveness of PI-FL in opt-outs reduction and PMA maintenance.

Each client’s natural aim is to create a model that maximizes its test accuracy. Clients can have different thresholds of how much should be the least accuracy gain for it to participate in pFL, and we define this self-defined threshold as ρ_i , $i \in [N]$. Since each client can have its own definition of the threshold requirement, we define ρ_i as the test accuracy achieved by client i if it used FedAvg. So PMA_i shows the gain in performance from pFL compared to vanilla FL using FedAvg for client i in N . PMA is similar to GMA from [37], however, creating a single global model may not be appealing for all clients as we show in section 4 and verify in section 5.4. We formally define PMA and opt-outs in Equation 14 and 15 respectively, where $f_i(w_k)$ is the test accuracy achieved by pFL.

$$PMA_i = f_i(w_k) - \rho_i \mid i \in [N], k \in [K] \quad (14)$$

$$\text{opt-outs} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(w_k) < \rho_i \mid i \in [N], k \in [K] \quad (15)$$

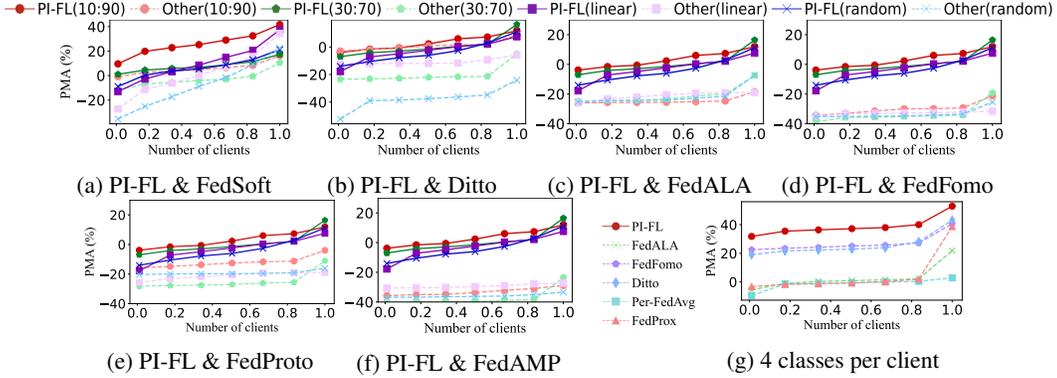


Figure 2: CDF of clients' PMA for different datasets and methods

333 Figure 2 shows the empirical Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) plot of PMA for all clients with
 335 CIFAR10 data using FedSoft and PIFL and with EMNIST dataset for all other pFL models. PI-FL
 336 particularly outperforms for the 10:90 partition in terms of PMA as this is the most heterogeneous
 337 data partition as can be seen in Figure 2a. The EMNIST dataset is less heterogeneous as it has more
 338 classes per client compared to CIFAR10 which is why FedAvg is able to perform relatively well and
 339 there is less room for improvement with personalizing. PI-FL maintains the PMA and also improves
 340 it, particularly for the 10:90 and 30:70 partitions where other pFL solutions lack. We also test on a
 341 more heterogeneous case where the dataset is divided into 52 clusters and each client owns 4 maximum
 342 classes. Figure 2g shows that while other pFL solutions perform better than FedAvg only Ditto and
 343 FedProto come relatively close to PI-FL, however, PI-FL outperforms them both by approximately
 344 15% in terms of PMA. The FedProx, FedALA, and PerFedAvg opt-out ratios are 0.64, 0.31, and 0.68,
 345 respectively. Ditto, FedFomo, and PI-FL have no opt-outs. This goes to show that PI-FL is not only
 346 able to reduce the opt-outs but also improves the PMA under all data heterogeneity conditions.

347 5.5 Advantages of including client preferences in pFL.

348 We show that PI-FL can maintain the test accuracy of personalized
 349 models even in case of dynamic data at the client or a new unseen
 350 client accidentally being added to the wrong cluster. Figure 3 shows
 351 the CDF of clients' personalized model test accuracy after training
 352 for 500 rounds. PI-FL is robust to variations in clients' local data,
 353 while FedSoft is less effective due to its clustering approach being
 354 based on the server's perspective, which lacks access to clients' pri-
 355 vate data and limits its ability to make accurate clustering decisions.

356 **Ablation study with Incentive in PI-FL.** To measure the impact
 357 of incentive provision on personalized model generation we test
 358 PI-FL with incentives enabled and disabled. Figure 4 shows the
 359 CDF of clients' personalized model test accuracy with the Synthetic
 360 CIFAR10 dataset. Except for the 30:70 partition, the accuracy for
 361 all other partitions is higher with the incentive enabled. We argue
 362 that the test accuracy for 30:70 is low in this case because it is a less
 363 heterogeneous data case and PI-FL performs best in cases where
 364 data is highly heterogeneous and requires personalized learning.
 365 Further details of the experimental setup and impact of incentive on
 366 clustering are discussed in the Appendix.

367 6 Conclusion

368 In this paper, we proposed PI-FL to address the challenges of incentive provision in pFL for increasing
 369 consistent participation by providing appealing personalized models to clients. PI-FL client-centric
 370 clustering approach ensures accurate clustering and improved performance even in case of dynamic
 371 data distribution shift of the client's local data or inadvertently mistaken clustering decision by the
 372 client. Unlike prior works that consider incentivizing and personalization as separate problems,
 373 PI-FL solves them as interrelated challenges yielding improvement in pFL performance. Extensive
 374 empirical evaluation shows its promising performance compared to other state-of-the-art works.

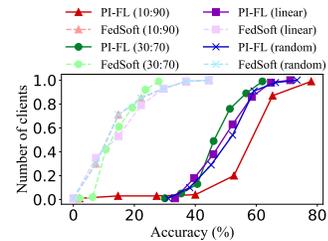


Figure 3: PI-FL and FedSoft with Synthetic CIFAR10 data

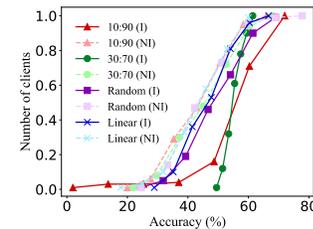


Figure 4: PI-FL with and without incentive (I/NI)

375 **References**

- 376 [1] J. Konečný, H. B. McMahan, F. X. Yu, P. Richtárik, A. T. Suresh, and D. Bacon, “Federated
377 learning: Strategies for improving communication efficiency,” *arXiv preprint arXiv:1610.05492*,
378 2016.
- 379 [2] H. B. McMahan, E. Moore, D. Ramage, and B. A. y Arcas, “Federated learning of deep
380 networks using model averaging,” *CoRR*, vol. abs/1602.05629, 2016. [Online]. Available:
381 <http://arxiv.org/abs/1602.05629>
- 382 [3] E. Diao, J. Ding, and V. Tarokh, “HeteroFL: Computation and communication efficient federated
383 learning for heterogeneous clients,” in *International Conference on Learning Representations*,
384 2021.
- 385 [4] —, “Semifl: Semi-supervised federated learning for unlabeled clients with alternate training,”
386 *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, vol. 35, pp. 17 871–17 884, 2022.
- 387 [5] T. Li, A. K. Sahu, M. Zaheer, M. Sanjabi, A. Talwalkar, and V. Smith, “Federated optimization
388 in heterogeneous networks,” 2020.
- 389 [6] J. Zhang, Y. Hua, H. Wang, T. Song, Z. Xue, R. Ma, and H. Guan, “Fedala: Adaptive local
390 aggregation for personalized federated learning,” 12 2022.
- 391 [7] M. Zhang, K. Sapra, S. Fidler, S. Yeung, and J. M. Alvarez, “Personalized federated learning
392 with first order model optimization,” 2021.
- 393 [8] O. MARFOQ, G. Neglia, A. Bellet, L. Kameni, and R. Vidal, “Federated multi-task learning
394 under a mixture of distributions,” in *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*,
395 A. Beygelzimer, Y. Dauphin, P. Liang, and J. W. Vaughan, Eds., 2021. [Online]. Available:
396 <https://openreview.net/forum?id=YCqx6zhEzRp>
- 397 [9] V. Kulkarni, M. Kulkarni, and A. Pant, “Survey of personalization techniques for federated learn-
398 ing,” in *2020 Fourth World Conference on Smart Trends in Systems, Security and Sustainability*
399 *(WorldS4)*, 2020, pp. 794–797.
- 400 [10] P. Kairouz, H. B. McMahan, A. Avent, A. Bellet, M. Bennis, A. N. Bhagoji, K. Bonawitz,
401 C. Charles, G. Cormode, R. Cummings *et al.*, “Advances and open problems in federated
402 learning,” *Foundations and Trends in Machine Learning*, vol. 12, no. 3-4, pp. 1–357, 2019.
- 403 [11] F. Lai, X. Zhu, H. V. Madhyastha, and M. Chowdhury, “Oort: Efficient federated learning via
404 guided participant selection,” 2021.
- 405 [12] J. Han, A. F. Khan, S. Zawad, A. Anwar, N. B. Angel, Y. Zhou, F. Yan, and A. R. Butt,
406 “Heterogeneity-aware adaptive federated learning scheduling,” in *2022 IEEE International*
407 *Conference on Big Data (Big Data)*, 2022, pp. 911–920.
- 408 [13] Z. Chai, A. Ali, S. Zawad, S. Truex, A. Anwar, N. Baracaldo, Y. Zhou, H. Ludwig, F. Yan, and
409 Y. Cheng, “Tiff: A tier-based federated learning system,” *CoRR*, vol. abs/2001.09249, 2020.
410 [Online]. Available: <https://arxiv.org/abs/2001.09249>
- 411 [14] Y. Deng, F. Lyu, J. Ren, Y.-C. Chen, P. Yang, Y. Zhou, and Y. Zhang, “Fair: Quality-aware
412 federated learning with precise user incentive and model aggregation,” in *IEEE INFOCOM*
413 *2021 - IEEE Conference on Computer Communications*, 2021, pp. 1–10.
- 414 [15] M. Tang and V. W. Wong, “An incentive mechanism for cross-silo federated learning: A public
415 goods perspective,” in *IEEE INFOCOM 2021 - IEEE Conference on Computer Communications*,
416 2021, pp. 1–10.
- 417 [16] M. Hu, D. Wu, Y. Zhou, X. Chen, and M. Chen, “Incentive-aware autonomous client partici-
418 pation in federated learning,” *IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems*, vol. 33,
419 no. 10, pp. 2612–2627, 2022.
- 420 [17] J. S. Ng, W. Y. B. Lim, Z. Xiong, X. Cao, D. Niyato, C. Leung, and D. I. Kim, “A hierarchical
421 incentive design toward motivating participation in coded federated learning,” *IEEE Journal on*
422 *Selected Areas in Communications*, vol. 40, no. 1, pp. 359–375, 2022.
- 423 [18] Z. Shi, L. Zhang, Z. Yao, L. Lyu, C. Chen, L. Wang, J. Wang, and X.-Y. Li, “Fedfaim: A model
424 performance-based fair incentive mechanism for federated learning,” *IEEE Transactions on Big*
425 *Data*, pp. 1–13, 2022.

- 426 [19] A. Z. Tan, H. Yu, L. Cui, and Q. Yang, “Towards personalized federated learning,” *CoRR*, vol.
427 abs/2103.00710, 2021. [Online]. Available: <https://arxiv.org/abs/2103.00710>
- 428 [20] H. Chen, J. Ding, E. W. Tramel, S. Wu, A. K. Sahu, S. Avestimehr, and T. Zhang, “Self-aware
429 personalized federated learning,” *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, vol. 35,
430 pp. 20 675–20 688, 2022.
- 431 [21] L. Collins, E. Diao, T. Roosta, J. Ding, and T. Zhang, “Perfedsi: A framework for personalized
432 federated learning with side information,” 2022.
- 433 [22] Q. Le, E. Diao, X. Wang, A. Anwar, V. Tarokh, and J. Ding, “Personalized federated
434 recommender systems with private and partially federated autoencoders,” *arXiv preprint*
435 *arXiv:2212.08779*, 2022.
- 436 [23] Y. Mansour, M. Mohri, J. Ro, and A. T. Suresh, “Three approaches for personalization with
437 applications to federated learning,” *ArXiv*, vol. abs/2002.10619, 2020.
- 438 [24] M. Duan, D. Liu, X. Ji, R. Liu, L. Liang, X. Chen, and Y. Tan, “Fedgroup: Accurate federated
439 learning via decomposed similarity-based clustering,” 2021.
- 440 [25] Y. Ruan and C. Joe-Wong, “Fedsoft: Soft clustered federated learning with proximal local
441 updating,” in *AAAI*, 2022.
- 442 [26] X. Tang, S. Guo, and J. Guo, “Personalized federated learning with contextualized
443 generalization,” in *Proceedings of the Thirty-First International Joint Conference on*
444 *Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI-22*, L. D. Raedt, Ed. International Joint Conferences on
445 Artificial Intelligence Organization, 7 2022, pp. 2241–2247, main Track. [Online]. Available:
446 <https://doi.org/10.24963/ijcai.2022/311>
- 447 [27] C. Ye, R. Ghanadan, and J. Ding, “Meta clustering for collaborative learning,” *Journal of*
448 *Computational and Graphical Statistics*, pp. 1–10, 2022.
- 449 [28] J. Han, A. F. Khan, S. Zawad, A. Anwar, N. B. Angel, Y. Zhou, F. Yan, and A. R. Butt, “Tiff:
450 Tokenized incentive for federated learning,” in *2022 IEEE 15th International Conference on*
451 *Cloud Computing (CLOUD)*, 2022, pp. 407–416.
- 452 [29] X. Tang, S. Guo, and J. Guo, “Personalized federated learning with clustered generalization,”
453 *ArXiv*, vol. abs/2106.13044, 2021.
- 454 [30] T. Li, S. Hu, A. Beirami, and V. Smith, “Federated multi-task learning for competing constraints,”
455 *CoRR*, vol. abs/2012.04221, 2020. [Online]. Available: <https://arxiv.org/abs/2012.04221>
- 456 [31] J. Zhang, Y. Wu, and R. Pan, “Incentive mechanism for horizontal federated learning based on
457 reputation and reverse auction,” in *Proceedings of the Web Conference 2021*, ser. WWW ’21.
458 New York, NY, USA: Association for Computing Machinery, 2021, p. 947–956. [Online].
459 Available: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3442381.3449888>
- 460 [32] T. Jahani-Nezhad, M. A. Maddah-Ali, S. Li, and G. Caire, “Swiftagg: Communication-efficient
461 and dropout-resistant secure aggregation for federated learning with worst-case security guaran-
462 tees,” in *2022 IEEE International Symposium on Information Theory (ISIT)*, 2022, pp. 103–108.
- 463 [33] J. So, B. Güler, and A. S. Avestimehr, “Turbo-aggregate: Breaking the quadratic aggregation
464 barrier in secure federated learning,” *IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Information Theory*,
465 vol. 2, no. 1, pp. 479–489, 2021.
- 466 [34] L. Gao, L. Li, Y. Chen, W. Zheng, C. Xu, and M. Xu, “Fifl: A fair incentive mechanism for
467 federated learning,” in *Proceedings of the 50th International Conference on Parallel Processing*,
468 ser. ICPP ’21. New York, NY, USA: Association for Computing Machinery, 2021. [Online].
469 Available: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3472456.3472469>
- 470 [35] Y. Shi, H. Yu, and C. Leung, “Towards fairness-aware federated learning,” *IEEE Transactions*
471 *on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*, pp. 1–17, 2023.
- 472 [36] Z. Zhou, L. Chu, C. Liu, L. Wang, J. Pei, and Y. Zhang, “Towards fair federated learning,” in
473 *Proceedings of the 27th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery Data Mining*, ser.
474 KDD ’21. New York, NY, USA: Association for Computing Machinery, 2021, p. 4100–4101.
475 [Online]. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3447548.3470814>
- 476 [37] Y. J. Cho, D. Jhunjunwala, T. Li, V. Smith, and G. Joshi, “Maximizing global model appeal in
477 federated learning,” 2023.

- 478 [38] S. Wei, Y. Tong, Z. Zhou, and T. Song, *Efficient and Fair Data Valuation for Horizontal*
479 *Federated Learning*, 11 2020, pp. 139–152.
- 480 [39] A. Heuillet, F. Couthouis, and N. Díaz-Rodríguez, “Collective explainable ai: Explaining
481 cooperative strategies and agent contribution in multiagent reinforcement learning with shapley
482 values,” *IEEE Computational Intelligence Magazine*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 59–71, 2022.
- 483 [40] Z. Liu, Y. Chen, H. Yu, Y. Liu, and L. Cui, “Gtg-shapley: Efficient and accurate participant
484 contribution evaluation in federated learning,” *ACM Trans. Intell. Syst. Technol.*, vol. 13, no. 4,
485 may 2022. [Online]. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3501811>
- 486 [41] L. Dong, Z. Liu, K. Zhang, A. Yassine, and M. S. Hossain, “Affordable federated edge learning
487 framework via efficient shapley value estimation,” *Future Generation Computer Systems*, 2023.
488 [Online]. Available: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0167739X23001826>
- 489 [42] A. Ghosh, J. Chung, D. Yin, and K. Ramchandran, “An efficient framework for clustered
490 federated learning,” *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, vol. 33, pp. 19 586–
491 19 597, 2020.
- 492 [43] A. Fallah, A. Mokhtari, and A. Ozdaglar, “Personalized federated learning with theoretical
493 guarantees: A model-agnostic meta-learning approach,” in *Advances in Neural Information*
494 *Processing Systems*, H. Larochelle, M. Ranzato, R. Hadsell, M. Balcan, and H. Lin, Eds., vol. 33.
495 Curran Associates, Inc., 2020, pp. 3557–3568. [Online]. Available: https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2020/file/24389bfe4fe2eba8bf9aa9203a44cdad-Paper.pdf
- 497 [44] F. Hanzely and P. Richtárik, “Federated learning of a mixture of global and local models,” 2021.
- 498 [45] F. Hanzely, B. Zhao, and M. Kolar, “Personalized federated learning: A unified framework and
499 universal optimization techniques,” *ArXiv*, vol. abs/2102.09743, 2021.
- 500 [46] V. Smith, C.-K. Chiang, M. Sanjabi, and A. S. Talwalkar, “Federated multi-task learning,” in
501 *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, I. Guyon, U. V. Luxburg, S. Bengio,
502 H. Wallach, R. Fergus, S. Vishwanathan, and R. Garnett, Eds., vol. 30. Curran Associates,
503 Inc., 2017. [Online]. Available: https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2017/file/6211080fa89981f66b1a0c9d55c61d0f-Paper.pdf
- 505 [47] C. T. Dinh, N. H. Tran, and T. D. Nguyen, “Personalized federated learning with moreau
506 envelopes,” 2022.
- 507 [48] P. P. Liang, T. Liu, L. Ziyin, N. B. Allen, R. P. Auerbach, D. Brent, R. Salakhutdinov, and L.-P.
508 Morency, “Think locally, act globally: Federated learning with local and global representations,”
509 2020.
- 510 [49] R. Zeng, S. Zhang, J. Wang, and X. Chu, “FMore: An incentive scheme of multi-dimensional
511 auction for federated learning in MEC,” in *2020 IEEE 40th International Conference*
512 *on Distributed Computing Systems (ICDCS)*. IEEE, nov 2020. [Online]. Available:
513 <https://doi.org/10.1109%2Ficdcs47774.2020.00094>
- 514 [50] P. Sun, H. Che, Z. Wang, Y. Wang, T. Wang, L. Wu, and H. Shao, “Pain-fl: Personalized privacy-
515 preserving incentive for federated learning,” *IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Communications*,
516 vol. 39, no. 12, pp. 3805–3820, 2021.
- 517 [51] L. Zhang, T. Zhu, P. Xiong, W. Zhou, and P. S. Yu, “A robust game-theoretical federated
518 learning framework with joint differential privacy,” *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data*
519 *Engineering*, vol. 35, no. 4, pp. 3333–3346, 2023.
- 520 [52] L. Li, Q. Li, H. Chen, and Y. Chen, “Federated learning with strategic participants: A game
521 theoretic approach,” in *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning*.
522 PMLR, 2020, pp. 8597–8606.
- 523 [53] F1-scores, “Sklearn.metrics.f1_score.” [Online]. Available: https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.metrics.f1_score.html
- 524
- 525 [54] Python, “Cpython/functions.rst at main · python/cpython.” [Online]. Available: <https://github.com/python/cpython/blob/main/Doc/library/functions.rst>
- 526
- 527 [55] K-Means, “Sklearn.cluster.kmeans.” [Online]. Available: <https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.cluster.KMeans.html>
- 528

- 529 [56] K. Bonawitz, H. Eichner, W. Grieskamp, D. Huba, A. Ingerman, V. Ivanov, C. Kiddon,
530 J. Konečný, S. Mazzocchi, H. B. McMahan, T. Van Overveldt, D. Petrou, D. Ramage, and
531 J. Roselander, "Towards federated learning at scale: System design," 2019. [Online]. Available:
532 <https://arxiv.org/abs/1902.01046>
- 533 [57] A. Khan, Y. Li, A. Anwar, Y. Cheng, T. Hoang, N. Baracaldo, and A. Butt, "A distributed and
534 elastic aggregation service for scalable federated learning systems," 2022. [Online]. Available:
535 <https://arxiv.org/abs/2204.07767>
- 536 [58] A. E. Roth, "Introduction to the shapley value," *The Shapley value*, pp. 1–27, 1988.
- 537 [59] G. D. P. Regulation, "General data protection regulation (gdpr)," *Intersoft Consulting, Accessed*
538 *in October*, vol. 24, no. 1, 2018.
- 539 [60] A. Act, "Health insurance portability and accountability act of 1996," *Public law*, vol. 104, p.
540 191, 1996.