RFD-LoRA: Robust Federated Distillation for LoRA Fine-Tuning under Heterogeneous and Adversarial Clients

Abstract

Federated learning (FL) with low-rank adaptation (LoRA) is attractive for efficiency but fragile compared to full-rank FL. We show three vulnerabilities: (i) aggregation and projection bias, since bilinear averaging of adapters misrepresents the true global update; (ii) adversarial amplification, where low-rank projections can magnify malicious perturbations; and (iii) Jacobian sensitivity, where small adapter changes trigger large gradient variation. Existing methods only mitigate these issues and often require identical client ranks, limiting practicality. We propose Robust Federated Distillation for LoRA (RFD-LoRA), a framework that combines federated distillation with LoRA. By aggregating logits in a shared prediction space, RFD-LoRA avoids parameter-space aggregation bias while enabling clients with heterogeneous ranks and adapter structures to collaborate. To improve stability under non-IID and poisoned clients, we design three modules: Confidence-Adaptive Temperature (CAT), MMD-based Distillation (MMD-KD), and Disagreement Suppression (DIS). We provide error bounds and show on benchmark classification and generation tasks that RFD-LoRA consistently improves accuracy and robustness under the evaluated data-poisoning setting.

1 Introduction

Federated learning (FL) (Konečný et al., 2016; McMahan et al., 2023; Reddi et al., 2021) has become a central paradigm for collaborative training across distributed data silos while preserving data privacy (McMahan et al., 2023; Kairouz et al., 2021; Ye et al., 2024). In parallel, low-rank adaptation (LoRA) has emerged as a leading approach for parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) (Han et al., 2024; Houlsby et al., 2019) of large pre-trained models (Hu et al., 2021; Asadi et al., 2024), significantly reducing both computational and storage costs. Recently, these two directions have begun to converge, giving rise to the study of federated LoRA fine-tuning, where only the lightweight low-rank adapters are exchanged across clients rather than full model parameters. A number of methods have been proposed in this space, including FFA-LoRA (Sun et al., 2024), which introduces privacy-preserving and fairness-adaptive aggregation for federated LoRA, LoRA-FAIR (Bian et al., 2025), which improves fairness and communication efficiency across heterogeneous clients, and FLoRA (Wang et al., 2024), which establishes the first baseline framework for federated LoRA fine-tuning. More recent works include FedIT (Zhang et al., 2024), which addresses initialization mismatch and aggregation bias in LoRA modules, and FlexLoRA (Bian et al., 2025), which enables flexible low-rank adaptation across heterogeneous client devices. Together, these studies demonstrate the potential of combining FL and LoRA to achieve efficient, scalable, and privacy-preserving model adaptation.

Despite these advances, federated LoRA remains fundamentally fragile. Current methods inherit three key issues: **(i) Aggregation bias**: as server-side averaging of low-rank matrices $\bar{A}, \bar{B}$ does not equal the true weighted average $\sum_k p_k B_k A_k$ (Sun et al., 2024), and **(ii) Initialization bias**: as methods like FLoRA reinitialize adapters every round, leading to poor conditioning and delayed convergence (Bian et al., 2025). **(iii) Identical client model structure**: existing frameworks assume that all clients use identical LoRA rank and adapter structure. This assumption may hold in simulation benchmarks, but is unrealistic in real-world federated environments where clients have diverse hardware constraints and heterogeneous adaptation needs. As a result, current LoRA-FL solutions face severe scalability and deployment challenges.

More critically, FL LoRA fine-tuning amplifies sensitivity to heterogeneity (Wang et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020a; Bhagoji et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020b; Karimireddy et al., 2021;

Diao et al., 2021) in ways that are not present in full-rank FL. Because adapters project updates into low-dimensional subspaces, client differences are not smoothed out but instead magnified. We identify three fundamental sources of vulnerability:

(i) Projection bias. Server-side aggregation of LoRA modules is inherently inconsistent: $\sum_k p_k B_k A_k \neq (\sum_k p_k B_k)(\sum_k p_k A_k)$. This bilinear mismatch leads to systematic deviation between the aggregated update and the true client-average update direction.

(ii) Adversarial amplification. Malicious clients (Chacko et al., 2024; Tsipras et al., 2019) align updates with adapter subspaces, yielding up to $\Theta(\sqrt{d/r})$ magnification over full-rank.[1]

(iii) Jacobian sensitivity. The bilinear map $(A, B) \mapsto BA$ induces Jacobian norms that scale with the feature energy $\|x\|$ (Novak et al., 2018; Moosavi-Dezfooli et al., 2018), the adapter spectral norms, and downstream layer norms. Consequently, even small perturbations in (A, B) can cause disproportionately large variations in gradients, making federated LoRA especially unstable under non-IID or adversarial settings.

In this work, we propose RFD-LoRA, a framework that integrates federated distillation (Lin et al., 2021; Itahara et al., 2023; Hinton et al., 2015; Li and Wang, 2019) with LoRA fine-tuning. Unlike prior methods that aggregate adapter parameters, RFD-LoRA operates in logit space: each client transmits logits on a small public anchor set, which are aggregated at the server. This avoids parameter-space aggregation bias and initialization lag from low-rank mismatches, and enables heterogeneous clients with different ranks or adapter structures to participate via a shared prediction space. Moreover, to strengthen robustness, we introduce three modules: **(i) Confidence-Adaptive Temperature (CAT)** dynamically scales logits by confidence, bounding gradient norms and stabilizing optimization; **(ii) MMD-based Distillation (MMD-KD)** aligns first- and second-order logit moments, regularizing energy-shaping perturbations; **(iii) Disagreement Suppression (DIS)** downweights clients with high variance on anchor predictions, mitigating non-IID amplification. Together, these components yield provable error bounds and robustness against heterogeneous and poisoned clients under the threat model studied in

our experiments. By uniting logit-space distillation with these defenses, RFD-LoRA achieves communication efficiency while enabling rank-flexible and robust federated LoRA training.

Our key contributions are summarized as follows:

- We introduce a federated distillation framework for LoRA that avoids parameter-space aggregation bias and initialization lag by aggregating logits instead of adapter parameters.

- RFD-LoRA enables heterogeneous LoRA ranks and adapter structures through a shared latent logit subspace, making it practical for real-world federated settings with diverse client resources.

- We present the first theoretical analysis of federated LoRA fragility, characterizing projection bias, adversarial amplification, and Jacobian sensitivity, and proving error bounds that quantify their impact.

- To improve robustness, we design three modules: Confidence-Adaptive Temperature (CAT), MMD-based Distillation (MMD-KD), and Disagreement Suppression (DIS), and demonstrate through extensive experiments that RFD-LoRA consistently outperforms existing baselines under IID and non-IID data with poisoned clients in the evaluated threat model.

2 Preliminaries

We formalize federated learning with LoRA fine-tuning and show why it is inherently fragile for parameter-space training, especially under heterogeneous or adversarial clients.

2.1 Aggregation bias and initialization lag

A central difficulty in federated LoRA fine-tuning lies in the gap between the server-reconstructed update and the true global update. In frameworks such as FedIT (Zhang et al., 2024), each client k adapts a shared pre-trained model W by learning local low-rank factors $A_k \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times d}$ and $B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$ on its private dataset $\mathcal{D}_k$. After training, the server

---

[1]d is the layer dimension; $r \ll d$ is the LoRA rank in $W = W_0 + \frac{\alpha}{r} BA$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times d}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$. Intuition: energy concentrates from d to r dimensions, giving a $\sqrt{d/r}$ ratio.

performs data-size weighted averaging,

$$\bar{A} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k A_k, \qquad \bar{B} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k B_k,$$

$$p_k = \frac{|\mathcal{D}_k|}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} |\mathcal{D}_j|}.$$

and then forms the aggregated update as

$$\Delta W' = \bar{B}\bar{A} = \Big(\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k B_k \Big) \Big(\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k A_k \Big). \quad (1)$$

The ideal update, however, should be

$$\Delta W = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k B_k A_k, \qquad (2)$$

which generally differs from $\Delta W'$ because matrix multiplication is bilinear rather than linear. We refer to $\Delta W' - \Delta W$ as the aggregation bias, which grows with diversity in client-specific adapters and is particularly problematic under non-IID data or heterogeneous ranks. Another major difficulty in federated LoRA fine-tuning comes from the way clients initialize their LoRA modules at the start of each training round, which leads to initialization lag. Detailed derivations are provided in Appendix C.

2.2 Projection bias from subspace misalignment

In LoRA fine-tuning, each client update is confined to a rank-r subspace defined by its adapters. Let the full gradient be $g_k = \nabla f_k(W) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. Since only (A_k, B_k) are trainable, the effective update is a two-sided projection:

$$\Delta W_k \approx -\eta \, P_k(g_k), \quad P_k(X) = P_{U_k} X P_{V_k},$$

where P_{U_k} projects onto $\mathrm{span}(B_k)$ and P_{V_k} onto $\mathrm{span}(A_k^\top)$. The server aggregates as

$$\Delta W_{\mathrm{agg}} = -\eta \cdot \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} P_k(g_k),$$

while the ideal full-model update is $\Delta W^\star = -\eta \nabla F(W)$. Thus, we define the projection bias

$$\mathcal{B}_{\mathrm{proj}} := \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} P_k(g_k) - \nabla F(W).$$

If all clients share the same subspace P, then $\frac{1}{K} \sum_k P_k(g_k) = P(\nabla F(W))$, with error only

from truncation $(I - P)\nabla F(W)$. With heterogeneous data or adapters, however, distinct $\{P_k\}$ mix gradients from different subspaces. Writing $g_k = \nabla F(W) + \delta_k$, and

$$\mathcal{B}_{\mathrm{proj}} = \Big(\frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} P_k - I \Big) \nabla F(W)$$
$$+ \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} P_k \, \delta_k.$$

The first term captures structural loss of global directions: global gradient components that are consistently dropped by most subspaces. The second term captures heterogeneity amplification: even if $\sum_k \delta_k \approx 0$, the projected terms $\{P_k \delta_k\}$ do not cancel out, since each P_k rotates deviations differently. As a result, client heterogeneity translates into disproportionately large residual perturbations in the low-rank parameter space.

2.3 Adversarial amplification

Let $g_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be client k's vectorized gradient and $\mathcal{H}$ the set of honest clients with $\bar{g}_{\mathcal{H}} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{H}|} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{H}} g_k$. LoRA restricts updates to an r-dimensional subspace $\mathcal{S}$ with projector $P_{\mathcal{S}}$. Define the relative influence rate (RIR) of an adversarial gradient g_{adv} by

$$\mathrm{RIR} \;=\; \frac{\|P_{\mathcal{S}}(g_{\mathrm{adv}})\|}{\|P_{\mathcal{S}}(\bar{g}_{\mathcal{H}})\|}.$$

Assume honest gradients decompose as $g_k = \mu + \epsilon_k$ with $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_k] = 0$ and $\mathrm{Cov}(\epsilon_k) = \sigma^2 I_d$. Then

$$\mathbb{E}\big[\|P_{\mathcal{S}}(\bar{g}_{\mathcal{H}})\|^2\big] = \|P_{\mathcal{S}}\mu\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2 r}{|\mathcal{H}|}. \qquad (3)$$

For a typical low-rank adapter, $\mathcal{S}$ is not aligned with μ; under random orientation, $\mathbb{E}[\|P_{\mathcal{S}}\mu\|^2] = (r/d)\|\mu\|^2$, so when $r \ll d$ the variance term dominates, and

$$\|P_{\mathcal{S}}(\bar{g}_{\mathcal{H}})\| \;\approx\; \sigma \sqrt{\tfrac{r}{|\mathcal{H}|}}.$$

An adversary can align g_{adv} with $\mathcal{S}$, giving $\|P_{\mathcal{S}}(g_{\mathrm{adv}})\| \approx \sigma$. Hence

$$\mathrm{RIR}_{\mathrm{LoRA}} \approx \sqrt{\tfrac{|\mathcal{H}|}{r}}, \qquad \mathrm{RIR}_{\mathrm{full}} \approx \sqrt{\tfrac{|\mathcal{H}|}{d}},$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{\mathrm{RIR}_{\mathrm{LoRA}}}{\mathrm{RIR}_{\mathrm{full}}} \approx \sqrt{\tfrac{d}{r}}.$$

Thus, adversarial influence is amplified by $\Theta(\sqrt{d/r})$ in LoRA FL relative to full-rank FL. Assumptions and proof of Equation 3 are provided in Appendix C.

2.4 Jacobian sensitivity of LoRA parameterization

A distinctive vulnerability of LoRA-based federated learning lies in the Jacobian structure induced by its bilinear adapter mapping. For an input x and adapters (A, B), the output of a LoRA-augmented layer is

$$z(x; A, B) = x\left(W_0 + \tfrac{\alpha}{r}BA\right).$$

Unlike full-rank fine-tuning, this output depends bilinearly on (A, B). As a result, even small perturbations in either A or B can produce amplified changes in z and in the downstream gradients. The amplification factor is proportional to the feature norm $\|x\|$, the spectral norms of A and B, and the product of downstream spectral norms. Consequently:

- **Sensitivity to small perturbations.** A tiny change in A or B can be magnified if A or B is ill-conditioned or if x has large energy.

- **Gradient instability.** The loss gradient with respect to (A, B) is not only scaled by the Jacobian above, but also by the inverse temperature $1/T$ of the softmax. Hence, highly confident or adversarial logits can cause large swings in gradient updates.

- **Amplification of heterogeneity.** Clients with slightly different low-rank subspaces may project their updates into nearly orthogonal directions. Unlike full-rank training where heterogeneity cancels in expectation, here it can accumulate, leading to extreme update dispersion.

In summary, the Jacobian structure of LoRA explains why federated LoRA fine-tuning is more sensitive to both non-IID data and malicious perturbations than standard FL. We provide supporting derivations in Appendix C.

3 Framework and global algorithm

Motivated by the limitations in Section 2, we propose Robust Federated Distillation for LoRA (RFD-LoRA), which aggregates in logit space instead of averaging adapter parameters. Clients transmit soft labels on a reference dataset, and the server aggregates and distills them into the global model. This avoids parameter-space aggregation bias and initialization lag, bounds logit-space perturbations, and reduces non-IID sensitivity. Compared to plain federated distillation, RFD-LoRA explicitly incorporates variance-aware and disagreement-aware mechanisms to counter poisoned-client and non-IID amplification. We next formalize the training protocol.

3.1 Client-side procedure

Each client k holds a private dataset $\mathcal{D}_k$ and a local LoRA adapter (A_k, B_k) trained on top of the frozen base model W_0. Given a small reference dataset $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ref}}$, which may be public or synthetically generated, the client computes logits

$$z_k(x) = (W_0 + \tfrac{\alpha}{r}B_k A_k)(x), \quad x \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ref}}. \quad (4)$$

The logits are optionally clipped to ensure bounded energy,

$$\hat{z}_k(x) = \mathrm{clip}(z_k(x), [-c, c]),$$

and converted into soft labels via temperature scaling

$$q_k(x) = \mathrm{softmax}(\hat{z}_k(x)/T).$$

To mitigate over-confidence, we later introduce an adaptive temperature schedule (CAT). Finally, the client transmits $\{q_k(x)\}_{x \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ref}}}$ to the server.

3.2 Server-side aggregation

Upon receiving predictions from all clients, the server aggregates them robustly to obtain a consensus distribution $\tilde{q}(x)$ for each $x \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ref}}$. We adopt *Median-of-Means (MoM)* or coordinate-wise median, which are known to tolerate an ε-fraction of Byzantine clients (Mhamdi et al., 2018; Blanchard et al., 2017). Formally, we show in Section 4.3 that

$$\|\tilde{q}(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)\|_1 \leq O\left(\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\right),$$

where $\bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}$ is the average distribution of honest clients. Except robustness concern, We adopt *Median-of-Means (MoM)* aggregation because it is the minimal estimator that jointly provides robust mean and variance estimates of aggregated logits. These second-order statistics are required by our subsequent robustness modules, including MMD-KD and DIS. In contrast, coordinate-wise or geometric median aggregation is robust for mean estimation but does not yield variance estimates and typically requires iterative optimization per anchor, making it incompatible with variance-aware distillation.

Thus, the aggregated distribution $\tilde{q}(x)$ then serves as the teacher for the global student model, updated by minimizing the distillation loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{KD}}(x) = \text{KL}\big(\tilde{q}(x) \,\|\, p_W(x)\big),$$

where $p_W(x)$ denotes the global model's predictive distribution. In Section 4, we further enhance this objective with robustness modules, including Confidence-Adaptive Temperature (CAT), MMD-based Knowledge Distillation (MMD-KD), and Disagreement Suppression (DIS). We show the detailed training protocol in Algorithm 1.

4 Robustness modules

4.1 Confidence-adaptive temperature (CAT)

Given a predicted distribution $q_k(x)$ from client k, we define the adaptive temperature

$$T(x) = T_0\Big(1 + \kappa \cdot [\max_i \tilde{q}_i(x) - \tau]_+\Big), \quad (5)$$

where $T_0 \geq 1$ is a base temperature, $\kappa \geq 0$ is a scaling factor, $\tau \in [1/C, 1]$ is a confidence threshold, and $[u]_+ = \max(u, 0)$. The student distribution is computed as

$$p_W(x) = \text{softmax}\big(z_W(x)/T(x)\big).$$

Theorem 1 (Gradient sensitivity under CAT). Let $J_W(x) = \partial z_W(x)/\partial W$ denote the Jacobian of logits. Then for any input x, the update step satisfies

$$\|\nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\text{KD}}(x)\| \leq \frac{C}{T(x)} \|J_W(x)\|, \quad (6)$$

where C is a constant depending only on the clipping bound c and the number of classes C.

Proof sketch. The derivative of $\text{softmax}(z/T)$ w.r.t. z has operator norm at most $1/(4T)$, hence the difference $\|p_W(x) - \tilde{q}(x)\|_2$ is $\mathcal{O}(1/T)$. Combining with the chain rule $\nabla_W = J_W^\top \nabla_z$ yields the bound. A full proof is provided in Appendix C.

4.2 MMD-based knowledge distillation (MMD-KD)

To mitigate logit-energy manipulations, we align first- and second-order logit moments via a linear-kernel Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) surrogate (Gretton et al., 2012). For each anchor input x, the server first partitions clients into M groups

$\{G_m\}_{m=1}^M$ and computes group-wise mean and second raw moment estimates

$$\bar{z}_m(x) = \frac{1}{|G_m|} \sum_{k \in G_m} \hat{z}_k(x),$$

$$s_m(x) = \frac{1}{|G_m|} \sum_{k \in G_m} \hat{z}_k(x)^{\circ 2}.$$

We then form coordinate-wise Median-of-Means moment estimates

$$\widehat{\mu}(x) = \text{median}_m\{\bar{z}_m(x)\},$$
$$\widehat{m}_2(x) = \text{median}_m\{s_m(x)\},$$
$$\widehat{\sigma}^2(x) = \widehat{m}_2(x) - \widehat{\mu}(x)^{\circ 2}.$$

The MMD-KD loss is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD}}(x) = \lambda\Big(\|z_W(x) - \widehat{\mu}(x)\|_2^2$$
$$+ \|(z_W(x) - \widehat{\mu}(x))^{\circ 2} - \widehat{\sigma}^2(x)\|_2^2 \Big), \quad (7)$$

where $\lambda > 0$. The second term is a student-side diagonal second central moment around the robust teacher mean $\widehat{\mu}(x)$; it is not a variance estimated from a single logit vector. This definition matches the implementation in Algorithm 1 and Appendix D.

Theorem 2 (Variance-constrained robustness). Assume clipped honest-client logits are σ-sub-Gaussian and an $\varepsilon < 1/2$ fraction of clients may be corrupted. Then with probability at least $1 - \delta$, the MoM variance estimate satisfies

$$\|\widehat{\sigma}^2(x) - \sigma^2(x)\|_\infty \leq O\Big(\sqrt{\tfrac{\log(C/\delta)}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\Big). \quad$$

Consequently, the perturbation of the MMD-KD gradient induced by corrupted moment estimates is bounded by

$$\Delta_{\text{MMD}}(x) := \|\nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD}}(x) - \nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD}}^\star(x)\|,$$
$$\Delta_{\text{MMD}}(x) \leq \lambda C_{\text{mmd}} \|J_W(x)\|\Big(\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\Big), \quad (8)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD}}^\star$ uses the honest-client moments.

Proof sketch. Concentration inequalities for sub-Gaussian variables give uniform convergence of MoM mean and second-moment estimates. The gradient bound follows by applying Lipschitz continuity of the squared moment-matching loss and the chain rule. Full details are provided in Appendix C.

Algorithm 1 Training protocol of RFD-LoRA.

Require: Base model W_0 (frozen or partially trainable); public anchor set $\mathcal{D}_{\text{ref}}$; clients $\{1..K\}$ with private data $\{\mathcal{D}_k\}$; heterogeneous LoRA ranks $\{r_k\}$ and adapter structures; rounds N, local steps E; client LR η, server LR γ; MoM groups M; clipping radius c; robustness hyperparams: T_0, κ, τ (CAT), λ (MMD), ρ (DIS).
Ensure: Global model W.

1: $W \leftarrow W_0$
2: **for** $n = 1$ to N **do**
3:    *Client-side local fine-tuning (in parallel for $k = 1..K$)*
4:    **for all** $k \in \{1..K\}$ **in parallel do**
5:       Init/continue local adapters (A_k, B_k) with rank r_k
6:       **for** $e = 1$ to E **do**
7:          Sample $(x, y) \sim \mathcal{D}_k$
8:          $z_k(x) \leftarrow x\left(W + \frac{\alpha}{r_k} B_k A_k\right)$
9:          $\ell_k \leftarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}(z_k(x), y)$
10:         $(A_k, B_k) \leftarrow (A_k, B_k) - \eta \nabla_{A_k, B_k} \ell_k$
11:       **end for**
12:       *Release clipped logits on anchors*
13:       **for all** $x \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{ref}}$ **do**
14:          send $z_k(x) \leftarrow \text{clip}(z_k(x), [-c, c])$ to server
15:       **end for**
16:    **end for**
17:    *Server-side robust aggregation on anchors*
18:    **for all** $x \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{ref}}$ **do**
19:       Randomly partition clients into M groups $\{G_m\}_{m=1}^M$ (Median-of-Means)
20:       $\bar{z}_m(x) \leftarrow \frac{1}{|G_m|} \sum_{k \in G_m} z_k(x)$ for each m
21:       $\overline{z^2}_m(x) \leftarrow \frac{1}{|G_m|} \sum_{k \in G_m} z_k(x)^{\circ 2}$ for each m
22:       $\tilde{z}(x) \leftarrow \text{median}\left(\{\bar{z}_m(x)\}_{m=1}^M\right)$
23:       $\widehat{\mu}(x) \leftarrow \text{median}\left(\{\bar{z}_m(x)\}_{m=1}^M\right)$
24:       $\widehat{\sigma}^2(x) \leftarrow \text{median}\left(\{\overline{z^2}_m(x)\}_{m=1}^M\right) - \widehat{\mu}(x)^{\circ 2}$
25:       *DIS: disagreement suppression (non-IID guard)*
26:       $v(x) \leftarrow \sum_i \text{Var}_m\big(\bar{z}_m^{(i)}(x)\big)$
27:       $w(x) \leftarrow (1 + \rho\, v(x))^{-1}$
28:       *CAT: confidence-adaptive temperature (stabilize gradients)*
29:       $\tilde{q}(x) \leftarrow \text{softmax}(\tilde{z}(x))$
30:       $T(x) \leftarrow T_0\left(1 + \kappa\left[\max_i \tilde{q}_i(x) - \tau\right]_+\right)$
31:       *KD + MMD-KD: objective (per-anchor)*
32:       $z_W(x)$ ▷ student logits from current W
33:       $L_{\text{KD}}(x) \leftarrow \text{CE}\left(\text{softmax}\left(\frac{\tilde{z}(x)}{T(x)}\right), \text{softmax}\left(\frac{z_W(x)}{T(x)}\right)\right)$
34:       $L_{\text{MMD}}(x) \leftarrow \lambda\left(\|z_W(x) - \widehat{\mu}(x)\|_2^2 + \|(z_W(x) - \widehat{\mu}(x))^{\circ 2} - \widehat{\sigma}^2(x)\|_2^2\right)$
35:       $L_{\text{RFD}}(x) \leftarrow w(x)\left(L_{\text{KD}}(x) + L_{\text{MMD}}(x)\right)$
36:    **end for**
37:    *Server update by distillation over anchors*
38:    $W \leftarrow W - \gamma \nabla_W \left(\frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_{\text{ref}}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{ref}}} L_{\text{RFD}}(x)\right)$
39: **end for**
40: **return** W

4.3 Disagreement suppression (DIS)

To suppress the effect of non-IID clients, we compute the group variance of aggregated predictions. Partition the K clients into M groups and let

$$\bar{q}_m(x) = \frac{1}{|G_m|} \sum_{k \in G_m} q_k(x),$$

$$v(x) = \sum_{i=1}^C \text{Var}_m\big[\bar{q}_m^{(i)}(x)\big].$$

The sample weight is defined as

$$w(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \rho\, v(x)}, \quad \rho \geq 0. \tag{9}$$

The distillation loss is reweighted as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DIS}}(x) = w(x) \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{KD}}(x). \tag{}$$

Theorem 3 (Variance-adaptive error bound). Suppose the expected group variance of honest clients satisfies $\mathbb{E}[v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)] \leq H$. Then under MoM aggregation, the expected deviation is bounded by

$$\mathbb{E}_x\big[\|\tilde{q}_w(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H},w}(x)\|_1\big] \leq O\left(\sqrt{\frac{H}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\right), \tag{10}$$

where $\bar{q}_{\mathcal{H},w}$ is the weighted average of honest client predictions.

Proof sketch. The weighting scheme ensures $\mathbb{E}[w(x)^2 v(x)] \leq O(H)$, which reduces the effective variance in concentration bounds for MoM. The adversarial contribution remains $O(\sqrt{\varepsilon})$. A full proof is provided in Appendix C.

5 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate RFD-LoRA through experiments. Results show that it achieves stronger robustness than existing federated LoRA methods under non-IID distributions and the targeted data-poisoning/backdoor attack studied here, while also outperforming baselines in IID settings. Full experimental details, including datasets, model configurations, and hyperparameters, are in Appendix D and E. Moreover, we further consider a natural language generation task using LLaMA and report the detailed setup and additional analyses in Appendix F.

5.1 Experimental results

Language classification tasks: Table 1 summarizes robustness under targeted backdoor/data-poisoning attacks with varying fractions of poisoned clients. RFD-LoRA consistently achieves the highest clean accuracy (CA) across both IID and severe non-IID settings, confirming that robustness does not come at the expense of standard performance. More importantly, under this poisoning threat model, RFD-LoRA yields substantially higher robust accuracy (RA) and lower attack success rate (ASR) than all baselines. In the IID case, with $\rho = 0.10$ poisoned clients, RFD-LoRA achieves RA of 89.1 and ASR of only 5.1, while the best baseline (LoRA-Fair) reaches 87.5 RA and 9.5 ASR. At $\rho = 0.30$, the gap widens: RFD-LoRA maintains 86.8 RA with 10.7 ASR, compared to LoRA-Fair's 83.3 RA and 18.9 ASR. Similar trends appear under severe non-IID distributions: with $\rho = 0.30$, FedAvg and FFA-LoRA suffer ASR above 27%, while RFD-LoRA cuts ASR to 12.9% and preserves 85.0% RA. These results show that while all methods degrade as ρ increases, RFD-LoRA degrades much more slowly, indicating better resilience. Overall, the results validate the effectiveness of our three robustness modules CAT, MMD-KD, and DIS in suppressing poisoned-client amplification and mitigating non-IID drift under this empirical threat model. For FedMD, a federated distillation baseline, it also operates in logit space but does not address LoRA-specific projec-

tion bias. RFD-LoRA not only provides stronger defense against poisoned clients but also achieves superior clean-task accuracy compared to existing federated LoRA approaches.

Language generation tasks: Following the experimental settings in Appendix F, we further evaluate our method on a natural language generation task using LLaMA-7B and the GSM-8K benchmark. Our method achieves an answer accuracy of 17.12% on GSM-8K, improving upon standard LoRA, which reports an accuracy of 15.68%, and FFA-LoRA, which reports 15.31% under the same setting. These results indicate that the advantages of our method extend beyond language classification and remain effective in generative tasks with larger model capacity.

Communication cost: Moreover, Table 2 shows the server communication cost per round. While existing federated LoRA methods require transmitting millions of parameters and their cost scales with the adapter rank, RFD-LoRA only uploads client logits, reducing the per-round payload to approximately 12KB. Specifically, the per-client communication cost per round is given by $\text{Comm}_{\text{client}} = D_{\text{ref}} \times C \times 2 \times 4$ bytes, where D_{ref} denotes the number of public anchor samples, C is the number of classes, the factor 2 accounts for transmitting both logits and squared logits for MMD-based distillation, and 32-bit floating-point precision is used. In our experiments, we set $D_{\text{ref}} = 512$ and $C = 3$, resulting in a per-round payload of approximately 12KB per client. As a result, RFD-LoRA eliminates the need to synchronize full adapter weights, significantly reducing both communication and server-side memory overhead, and enabling practical deployment across heterogeneous clients.

Ablation and sensitivity summary. We further evaluate RFD-LoRA's robustness modules, aggregation choices, scalability, adapter-structure heterogeneity, LoRA ranks, anchor-set size, and training stability in Appendix A–B. The ablations show that CAT, MMD-KD, and DIS are complementary: removing any one component reduces robust accuracy and increases ASR, while MoM aggregation gives the strongest protection against poisoned clients. RFD-LoRA also remains stable as the number of clients grows and as clients use heterogeneous adapter placements, consistent with its logit-space aggregation design.

Table 1: Adversarial robustness on GLUE (average over MNLI-m/mm, SST-2, QQP, QNLI). Poisoned-client fraction $\rho \in \{0.10, 0.30\}$; per-poisoned-client poison rate $\pi = 0.20$ (trigger-token insertion, fixed target label). CA = clean accuracy on clean test inputs; RA = accuracy on attacked inputs; ASR (lower is better) = targeted success on triggered inputs. LoRA rank = 8 for baselines; RFD-LoRA aggregates logits and supports heterogeneous ranks. Means over 5 runs.

(a) IID clients

Method	CA	$\rho = 0.10$		$\rho = 0.30$	
		RA	ASR↓	RA	ASR↓
FedAvg	88.2	84.0	18.5	78.3	35.2
FFA-LoRA	88.9	86.2	12.3	81.5	24.8
FedIT	89.0	86.0	12.7	81.2	25.1
FLoRA	89.2	86.5	11.9	81.7	23.7
FedMD	89.5	87.3	11.8	80.9	28.4
FlexLoRA	89.7	87.2	9.8	83.0	19.6
LoRA-Fair	89.7	87.5	9.5	83.3	18.9
RFD-LoRA	**90.6**	**89.1**	**5.1**	**86.8**	**10.7**

(b) Severe non-IID clients

Method	CA	$\rho = 0.10$		$\rho = 0.30$	
		RA	ASR↓	RA	ASR↓
FedAvg	86.1	80.2	22.4	72.0	36.7
FFA-LoRA	88.0	84.8	14.2	78.3	27.9
FedIT	87.9	84.5	14.6	78.0	28.2
FLoRA	88.0	84.7	14.0	78.4	27.5
FedMD	88.3	85.3	13.8	76.7	32.0
FlexLoRA	88.5	86.0	11.3	80.5	21.1
LoRA-Fair	88.6	86.2	10.9	80.8	20.4
RFD-LoRA	**90.0**	**88.5**	**6.4**	**85.0**	**12.9**

(a) Impact of LoRA Rank.

(b) Effect of Reference Dataset Size.

(c) Accuracy vs Communication Rounds.

Figure 1: RFD-LoRA's performance across various rank, reference dataset size, and training round.

Table 2: Comparison of server communication cost per round. For RFD-LoRA, the reported 12KB corresponds to aggregating client logits on a public anchor set, and is independent of the LoRA rank.

Method	Param Size Per Round	Rank-dependent Cost
FFA-LoRA	1.6MB	Yes
FedIT	3.2MB	Yes
FLoRA	9.5MB	Yes
FlexLoRA	6.4MB	Yes
LoRA-Fair	3.6MB	Yes
RFD-LoRA	**12KB**	**No**

6 Conclusion

We introduced RFD-LoRA, the first federated distillation framework for LoRA fine-tuning. Our analysis identifies fundamental weaknesses of federated LoRA, including aggregation and initialization bias, adversarial amplification, and Jacobian sensitivity. By aggregating in logit space, RFD-LoRA eliminates parameter-space bias and supports heterogeneous client ranks and adapter structures. With Confidence-Adaptive Temperature (CAT), MMD-based Distillation (MMD-KD), and Disagreement Suppression (DIS), we provide error bounds and demonstrate improved robustness under non-IID and poisoned clients in the evaluated setting. Experiments show consistent gains in accuracy, robustness, and communication efficiency over prior federated LoRA methods. Our proposed framework is general and can be applied to other prediction tasks where robust logit aggregation is desired.

7 Limitations

While RFD-LoRA substantially improves robustness and flexibility, it has several limitations. First, the quality of the public anchor set affects distillation performance, and severely mismatched or noisy anchors may degrade accuracy. Second, operating in logit space does not explicitly model sequence-level dependencies, which may limit gains on complex generation tasks. Finally, while RFD-LoRA is compatible with existing logit-level privacy mechanisms, it does not itself provide formal privacy guarantees.

Ethical Considerations

This paper presents methodological advances in federated learning that improve robustness under heterogeneous and data-poisoned settings. The approach is supported by principled mathematical analysis of aggregation bias and adversarial amplification in federated distillation with parameter-efficient adaptation, contributing to clearer scientific understanding and more reliable system design. As with most work in federated learning, no additional societal impacts beyond those commonly discussed in the field are anticipated.

References

Nader Asadi, Mahdi Beitollahi, Yasser Khalil, Yinchuan Li, Guojun Zhang, and Xi Chen. 2024. Does combining parameter-efficient modules improve few-shot transfer accuracy? *Preprint*, arXiv:2402.15414.

Eugene Bagdasaryan, Andreas Veit, Yiqing Hua, Deborah Estrin, and Vitaly Shmatikov. 2019. How to backdoor federated learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:1807.00459.

Arjun Nitin Bhagoji, Supriyo Chakraborty, Prateek Mittal, and Seraphin Calo. 2019. Analyzing federated learning through an adversarial lens. *Preprint*, arXiv:1811.12470.

Jieming Bian, Lei Wang, Letian Zhang, and Jie Xu. 2025. Lora-fair: Federated lora fine-tuning with aggregation and initialization refinement. *Preprint*, arXiv:2411.14961.

Peva Blanchard, El Mahdi El Mhamdi, Rachid Guerraoui, and Julien Stainer. 2017. Machine learning with adversaries: Byzantine tolerant gradient descent. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 30. Curran Associates, Inc.

Samuel Jacob Chacko, Sajib Biswas, Chashi Mahiul Islam, Fatema Tabassum Liza, and Xiuwen Liu. 2024. Adversarial attacks on large language models using regularized relaxation. *Preprint*, arXiv:2410.19160.

Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John Schulman. 2021. Training verifiers to solve math word problems. *Preprint*, arXiv:2110.14168.

Enmao Diao, Jie Ding, and Vahid Tarokh. 2021. Heterofl: Computation and communication efficient federated learning for heterogeneous clients. *Preprint*, arXiv:2010.01264.

Minghong Fang, Xiaoyu Cao, Jinyuan Jia, and Neil Gong. 2020. Local model poisoning attacks to Byzantine-Robust federated learning. In *29th USENIX Security Symposium (USENIX Security 20)*, pages 1605–1622. USENIX Association.

Arthur Gretton, Karsten M. Borgwardt, Malte J. Rasch, Bernhard Schölkopf, and Alexander Smola. 2012. A kernel two-sample test. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 13(25):723–773.

Zeyu Han, Chao Gao, Jinyang Liu, Jeff Zhang, and Sai Qian Zhang. 2024. Parameter-efficient fine-tuning for large models: A comprehensive survey. *Preprint*, arXiv:2403.14608.

Geoffrey Hinton, Oriol Vinyals, and Jeff Dean. 2015. Distilling the knowledge in a neural network. *Preprint*, arXiv:1503.02531.

Neil Houlsby, Andrei Giurgiu, Stanislaw Jastrzebski, Bruna Morrone, Quentin de Laroussilhe, Andrea Gesmundo, Mona Attariyan, and Sylvain Gelly. 2019. Parameter-efficient transfer learning for nlp. *Preprint*, arXiv:1902.00751.

Edward J. Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang, and Weizhu Chen. 2021. Lora: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2106.09685.

Sohei Itahara, Takayuki Nishio, Yusuke Koda, Masahiro Morikura, and Koji Yamamoto. 2023. Distillation-based semi-supervised federated learning for communication-efficient collaborative training with non-iid private data. *IEEE Transactions on Mobile Computing*, 22(1):191–205.

Peter Kairouz, H. Brendan McMahan, Brendan Avent, Aurélien Bellet, Mehdi Bennis, Arjun Nitin Bhagoji, Kallista Bonawitz, Zachary Charles, Graham Cormode, Rachel Cummings, Rafael G. L. D'Oliveira, Hubert Eichner, Salim El Rouayheb, David Evans, Josh Gardner, Zachary Garrett, Adrià Gascón, Badih Ghazi, Phillip B. Gibbons, and 40 others. 2021. Advances and open problems in federated learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:1912.04977.

Sai Praneeth Karimireddy, Satyen Kale, Mehryar Mohri, Sashank J. Reddi, Sebastian U. Stich, and Ananda Theertha Suresh. 2021. Scaffold: Stochastic controlled averaging for federated learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:1910.06378.

Jakub Konečný, H. Brendan McMahan, Daniel Ramage, and Peter Richtárik. 2016. Federated optimization: Distributed machine learning for on-device intelligence. *Preprint*, arXiv:1610.02527.

Weirui Kuang, Bingchen Qian, Zitao Li, Daoyuan Chen, Dawei Gao, Xuchen Pan, Yuexiang Xie, Yaliang Li, Bolin Ding, and Jingren Zhou. 2023. Federatedscope-llm: A comprehensive package for fine-tuning large language models in federated learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2309.00363.

Daliang Li and Junpu Wang. 2019. Fedmd: Heterogenous federated learning via model distillation. *Preprint*, arXiv:1910.03581.

Tian Li, Anit Kumar Sahu, Ameet Talwalkar, and Virginia Smith. 2020a. Federated learning: Challenges, methods, and future directions. *IEEE Signal Processing Magazine*, 37(3):50–60.

Tian Li, Anit Kumar Sahu, Manzil Zaheer, Maziar Sanjabi, Ameet Talwalkar, and Virginia Smith. 2020b. Federated optimization in heterogeneous networks. *Preprint*, arXiv:1812.06127.

Tao Lin, Lingjing Kong, Sebastian U. Stich, and Martin Jaggi. 2021. Ensemble distillation for robust model fusion in federated learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2006.07242.

Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Mandar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2019. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. *Preprint*, arXiv:1907.11692.

H. Brendan McMahan, Eider Moore, Daniel Ramage, Seth Hampson, and Blaise Agüera y Arcas. 2023. Communication-efficient learning of deep networks from decentralized data. *Preprint*, arXiv:1602.05629.

El Mahdi El Mhamdi, Rachid Guerraoui, and Sébastien Rouault. 2018. The hidden vulnerability of distributed learning in byzantium. *Preprint*, arXiv:1802.07927.

Seyed-Mohsen Moosavi-Dezfooli, Alhussein Fawzi, Jonathan Uesato, and Pascal Frossard. 2018. Robustness via curvature regularization, and vice versa. *Preprint*, arXiv:1811.09716.

Roman Novak, Yasaman Bahri, Daniel A. Abolafia, Jeffrey Pennington, and Jascha Sohl-Dickstein. 2018. Sensitivity and generalization in neural networks: an empirical study. *Preprint*, arXiv:1802.08760.

Sashank Reddi, Zachary Charles, Manzil Zaheer, Zachary Garrett, Keith Rush, Jakub Konečný, Sanjiv Kumar, and H. Brendan McMahan. 2021. Adaptive federated optimization. *Preprint*, arXiv:2003.00295.

Youbang Sun, Zitao Li, Yaliang Li, and Bolin Ding. 2024. Improving lora in privacy-preserving federated learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2403.12313.

Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurelien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. 2023. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2302.13971.

Dimitris Tsipras, Shibani Santurkar, Logan Engstrom, Alexander Turner, and Aleksander Madry. 2019. Robustness may be at odds with accuracy. *Preprint*, arXiv:1805.12152.

Alex Wang, Amanpreet Singh, Julian Michael, Felix Hill, Omer Levy, and Samuel R. Bowman. 2019. Glue: A multi-task benchmark and analysis platform for natural language understanding. *Preprint*, arXiv:1804.07461.

Ning Wang, Yang Xiao, Yimin Chen, Yang Hu, Wenjing Lou, and Y. Thomas Hou. 2022. Flare: Defending federated learning against model poisoning attacks via latent space representations. In *Proceedings of the 2022 ACM on Asia Conference on Computer and Communications Security*, ASIA CCS '22, page 946–958, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.

Ziyao Wang, Zheyu Shen, Yexiao He, Guoheng Sun, Hongyi Wang, Lingjuan Lyu, and Ang Li. 2024. Flora: Federated fine-tuning large language models with heterogeneous low-rank adaptations. *Preprint*, arXiv:2409.05976.

Rui Ye, Rui Ge, Xinyu Zhu, Jingyi Chai, Yaxin Du, Yang Liu, Yanfeng Wang, and Siheng Chen. 2024. Fedllm-bench: Realistic benchmarks for federated learning of large language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2406.04845.

Jianyi Zhang, Saeed Vahidian, Martin Kuo, Chunyuan Li, Ruiyi Zhang, Tong Yu, Yufan Zhou, Guoyin Wang, and Yiran Chen. 2024. Towards building the federated gpt: Federated instruction tuning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2305.05644.

Yue Zhao, Meng Li, Liangzhen Lai, Naveen Suda, Damon Civin, and Vikas Chandra. 2018. Federated learning with non-iid data.

A Additional ablations and sensitivity studies

This appendix reports additional experiments that support the main robustness results. The tables below isolate the effects of individual modules, compare robust aggregation choices, and study hyperparameter sensitivity, client scalability, and adapter-structure heterogeneity.

A.1 Ablation study

Robustness modules. To isolate the effect of each robustness module in RFD-LoRA, we conduct ablation studies by removing CAT, MMD-KD, or DIS individually. Results in the left of Table 5 under both IID and severe non-IID partitions show that eliminating any one component consistently reduces performance, confirming their complementary roles. Removing CAT leads to unstable training and larger variance across runs, highlighting its role in controlling Jacobian sensitivity. Without MMD-KD, the model becomes more sensitive to logit-energy distortions, as indicated by sharper performance drops under poisoned clients. Finally, disabling DIS amplifies the effect of non-IID heterogeneity, producing significant degradation. Together, these results validate that the three modules jointly contribute to the robustness of RFD-LoRA, and that each component addresses a distinct failure mode of federated LoRA.

Robust aggregation. The right side of Table 5 compares different server-side aggregators under ρ=0.30 poisoned clients. Simple averaging performs worst, while coordinate-wise median offers partial robustness. Our Median-of-Means (MoM) aggregator achieves the highest clean accuracy and robust accuracy, and reduces ASR by more than half compared to mean aggregation. We also vary the number of MoM groups M and find that M=5 yields the lowest ASR, whereas very small or very large M slightly degrade robustness due to under- or over-fragmentation. This confirms that MoM provides a strong and stable defense for logit aggregation in federated settings.

Hyperparameter settings. Table 6 evaluates the effect of hyperparameters tuning in each module. For CAT, moderate temperature and confidence scaling (T_0=2, κ=2, τ=0.7) yields the best tradeoff, improving RA while significantly lowering ASR; overly large schedules degrade CA due to over-softening. For MMD-KD, introducing moment alignment (λ=0.1) provides clear gains

Table 3: Client scalability of RFD-LoRA on GLUE. Performance is reported as the number of clients increases from 10 to 50, while keeping the per-round training budget fixed.

#Clients	CA ↑	RA ↑	ASR ↓	ΔCA	ΔRA
10	**90.6**	**89.1**	**5.1**	–	–
20	90.4	88.9	5.3	-0.2	-0.2
30	90.3	88.6	5.5	-0.3	-0.5
40	90.1	88.5	5.6	-0.5	-0.6
50	89.9	88.3	5.8	-0.7	-0.8

over plain KD, and matching both mean and variance further reduces ASR without hurting CA. Finally, DIS weighting improves robustness as ρ increases, with ρ=1.0 giving the best balance; group-variance estimation is consistently superior to client-variance, confirming its stability under poisoned clients.

Client scalability. We evaluate the scalability of RFD-LoRA by increasing the number of clients from 10 to 50 while keeping the per-round training budget fixed. All experiments follow the same GLUE setup as the main results with a poisoned-client fraction of $\rho = 0.10$. As shown in Table 3, both clean accuracy and robust accuracy decrease gradually as the number of clients increases, with variations remaining below one point relative to the 10-client setting. The ASR increases slightly with client size, while the per-client communication cost remains constant across all settings.

Heterogeneous adapter structures. Practical deployments of LoRA fine-tuning may exhibit structural heterogeneity, where clients insert adapters into different subsets of attention projections due to varying resource constraints. To evaluate RFD-LoRA under such heterogeneity, we consider a challenging setting with severe non-IID data ($\rho = 0.30$) and vary the fraction of heterogeneous clients across $\{25\%, 50\%, 75\}$. As shown in Table 4, RFD-LoRA maintains stable performance as the proportion of heterogeneous clients increases. Both clean accuracy and robust accuracy decrease gradually, while the attack success rate increases moderately, indicating no abrupt performance degradation under increasing structural mismatch. This behavior is expected because logit-space aggregation is performed in a shared prediction space and does not require clients to share the same adapter parameterization. As a result, meaningful aggregation remains possible even when client adapter structures differ.

Table 4: RFD-LoRA under heterogeneous adapter structures (severe non-IID, $\rho = 0.30$). Heterogeneous denotes the fraction of clients using different adapter placements than the baseline configuration. RFD-LoRA remains stable as the degree of structural heterogeneity increases.

Adapter configuration	CA $\uparrow$	RA $\uparrow$	ASR $\downarrow$
All Q, V rank 8	**90.0**	**85.0**	**12.9**
25% heterogeneous	89.8	84.6	13.5
50% heterogeneous	89.5	84.1	14.2
75% heterogeneous	89.1	83.5	15.0

Other factors. We analyze factors shaping RFD-LoRA's performance. Figure 1(a) shows that while accuracy declines with lower LoRA ranks, RFD-LoRA consistently outperforms baselines, demonstrating robustness to low-dimensional adaptation. Figure 1(b) evaluates reference data: larger anchor sets improve accuracy but plateau near 20%. When 30% of the reference set is poisoned by trigger-token insertion and label flipping, RFD-LoRA remains relatively stable, though accuracy drops compared to clean data, highlighting the importance of anchor quality. Figure 1(c) plots training stability: competing methods converge slowly with oscillations, while RFD-LoRA stabilizes quickly and achieves the highest final accuracy.

Table 5: Ablations on RFD-LoRA modules (left) and robust aggregation (right). Top right: aggregator choice under ρ=0.30. Bottom right: impact of varying MoM group count M.

Variant	IID			Severe non-IID		
	CA	RA	ASR↓	CA	RA	ASR↓
Full	**90.6**	**89.1**	**5.1**	**90.0**	**88.5**	**6.4**
w/o CAT	90.1	87.3	7.9	89.3	85.6	10.2
w/o MMD-KD	90.4	86.8	9.8	89.5	85.1	13.7
w/o DIS	90.3	86.2	8.7	88.4	83.0	15.1
CAT only	89.9	87.0	8.2	88.7	84.2	11.9
MMD-KD only	90.0	86.5	10.5	88.9	84.0	14.5
DIS only	89.8	87.6	8.4	89.1	86.3	11.2

Aggregator Choice (ρ=0.30)			
Method	CA	RA	ASR↓
Mean	89.6	83.1	22.8
Coord. Median	89.7	84.9	16.2
MoM (ours)	**90.6**	**86.8**	**10.7**
MoM Groups M (ASR↓)			
$M = 3$	11.9		
$M = 5$	**10.7**		
$M = 7$	11.0		
$M = 9$	12.5		

Table 6: Ablations on (a) CAT schedule, (b) MMD-KD strength, and (c) DIS weighting. Metrics averaged over GLUE tasks under ρ=0.30 poisoned clients. CA = clean accuracy; RA = robust accuracy; ASR (lower is better).

(a) CAT schedule

(T_0, κ, τ)	CA	RA	ASR↓
$(1, 0, 0.7)$	90.2	85.5	14.8
$(2, 2, 0.7)$	**90.6**	**86.8**	**10.7**
$(3, 4, 0.7)$	90.0	86.2	12.5
$(2, 2, 0.6)$	90.4	86.5	11.3
$(2, 2, 0.8)$	90.1	86.0	12.0
$(4, 4, 0.8)$	89.7	85.6	14.3

(b) MMD-KD strength

Variant	CA	RA	ASR↓
$\lambda = 0$	90.3	85.0	15.6
$\lambda = 0.05$	90.5	86.2	12.4
$\lambda = 0.1$	**90.6**	**86.8**	**10.7**
$\lambda = 0.2$	90.1	86.0	12.8
Mean-only	90.4	86.3	11.9
Mean+Var	**90.6**	**86.8**	**10.7**

(c) DIS weighting

Variant	CA	RA	ASR↓
$\rho = 0$	90.3	86.2	13.7
$\rho = 0.5$	90.5	86.6	11.5
$\rho = 1.0$	**90.6**	**86.8**	**10.7**
$\rho = 2.0$	90.0	86.0	12.6
Client-var	90.2	86.1	12.9
Group-var	**90.6**	**86.8**	**10.7**

B Additional factor analysis

The three panels in Figure 1 analyze LoRA rank, reference-set size, and training stability. Lower LoRA ranks reduce accuracy, but RFD-LoRA remains stronger than baselines. Larger anchor sets improve accuracy and then plateau near 20%, and the communication-round curve shows faster stabilization than competing methods.

C Proof material

This appendix contains the detailed derivations for initialization lag, adversarial amplification, Jacobian sensitivity, CAT, MMD-KD, and DIS. These proof details are included directly in the paper PDF rather than deferred to a separate supplementary PDF.

C.1 Initialization lag

In frameworks such as FLoRA (Wang et al., 2024), the local matrices A_k and B_k are re-sampled each round, with $A_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ and B_k set to zero. Although this design guarantees that the reconstructed global model $W_0 + \Delta W'$ remains aligned with the base model W_0, it induces what we call client-side initialization lag. In particular, freshly reinitialized adapters yield ill-conditioned gradients during the first few local steps. For a forward pass with LoRA-modified weights

$$y = x(W_0 + B_k A_k), \tag{11}$$

the gradients of A_k and B_k with respect to the loss L are

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial A_k} = x^\top \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} B_k^\top, \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial B_k} = A_k^\top x^\top \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}. \tag{12}$$

At initialization, since $B_k = 0$ and A_k is random, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial A_k} \to 0, \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial B_k} \to \text{random direction.}$$

As a result, clients waste many updates simply overcoming the poor initialization, leading to inefficient early-stage training.

C.2 Adversarial amplification analysis

Lemma I. Let $\{\epsilon_k\}_{k \in \mathcal{H}}$ be i.i.d. random vectors in $\mathbb{R}^d$ with $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_k] = 0$ and $\text{Cov}(\epsilon_k) = \sigma^2 I_d$. Let $P_\mathcal{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ be the orthogonal projector onto an r-dimensional subspace $\mathcal{S}$ (i.e., $P_\mathcal{S} = P_\mathcal{S}^\top = P_\mathcal{S}^2$ and $\text{tr}(P_\mathcal{S}) = r$). Define the sample mean $\bar{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{H}|} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{H}} \epsilon_k$. Then

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\|P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon}\|^2\right] = \frac{\sigma^2 r}{|\mathcal{H}|}.$$

Proof: Since $\bar{\epsilon}$ has mean 0 and $\text{Cov}(\bar{\epsilon}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{H}|} \text{Cov}(\epsilon_k) = \frac{\sigma^2}{|\mathcal{H}|} I_d$, we compute

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\|P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon}\|^2\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[(P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon})^\top(P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon})\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\bar{\epsilon}^\top P_\mathcal{S}^\top P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon}\right].$$

Because $P_\mathcal{S}$ is an orthogonal projector matrix, it is both symmetric ($P_\mathcal{S}^\top = P_\mathcal{S}$) and idempotent ($P_\mathcal{S}^2 = P_\mathcal{S}$). Hence $P_\mathcal{S}^\top P_\mathcal{S} = P_\mathcal{S} P_\mathcal{S} = P_\mathcal{S}$, and therefore

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\bar{\epsilon}^\top P_\mathcal{S}^\top P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\bar{\epsilon}^\top P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon}\right].$$

Using the identity $\mathbb{E}[x^\top A x] = \text{tr}(A \text{Cov}(x))$ for zero-mean x, we obtain

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\bar{\epsilon}^\top P_\mathcal{S}\bar{\epsilon}\right] = \text{tr}(P_\mathcal{S} \text{Cov}(\bar{\epsilon})) = \frac{\sigma^2}{|\mathcal{H}|} \text{tr}(P_\mathcal{S}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{|\mathcal{H}|} r,$$

since the trace of an orthogonal projector equals its rank. This completes the proof.

C.3 Jacobian sensitivity: sketches of analysis

We give rough arguments supporting the claims here:

First-order sensitivity.   Expanding $z(x; A + \Delta A, B + \Delta B)$ shows

$$\Delta z \approx \tfrac{\alpha}{r}\, x(B\Delta A + \Delta B A),$$

ignoring higher-order terms. Hence

$$\|\Delta z\| \lesssim \tfrac{\alpha}{r}\, \|x\|\big(\|B\|\|\Delta A\| + \|A\|\|\Delta B\|\big).$$

This shows that perturbations are scaled by $\|x\|$ and the adapter norms.

Gradient sensitivity.   For softmax cross-entropy, the gradient with respect to logits satisfies

$$\|\nabla_z \ell(z)\| \leq \tfrac{2}{T}, \qquad \|\nabla_z \ell(z) - \nabla_z \ell(z')\| \leq \tfrac{1}{T}\|z - z'\|.$$

Thus gradient variation inherits the same amplification factor as Δz, multiplied by $1/T$. This explains why small adapter perturbations can trigger large swings when T is small or when clients produce highly confident predictions.

Deep network composition.   If the LoRA block lies at layer ℓ, then downstream spectral norms ρ_j further multiply the sensitivity, giving a bound on the order of

$$\frac{\alpha}{r}\, \|h_{\ell-1}\|(\|A\| + \|B\|)\prod_{j > \ell} \rho_j.$$

Client heterogeneity amplification.   Two clients (A_1, B_1) and (A_2, B_2) yield different logits:

$$\|z(x; A_1, B_1) - z(x; A_2, B_2)\| \lesssim \tfrac{\alpha}{r}\, \|x\|\big(\|B_1\|\|A_1 - A_2\| + \|A_2\|\|B_1 - B_2\|\big).$$

If their low-rank subspaces are misaligned, the differences may not cancel but instead compound, unlike full-rank training.

Summary.   The Jacobian analysis shows that LoRA adapters create scaling factors—through $\|x\|$, $\|A\|, \|B\|$, inverse temperature $1/T$, and downstream spectral norms—that magnify small differences. This accounts for the observed instability of federated LoRA under non-IID data and adversarial manipulation.

C.4   Gradient sensitivity under CAT

Theorem 1 (Gradient sensitivity under CAT). Let x be any input and let the student distribution be

$$p_W(x) \;=\; \text{softmax}\big(z_W(x)/T(x)\big),$$

where $T(x) \geq 1$ is the confidence-adaptive temperature and $z_W(x) \in \mathbb{R}^C$ are the logits of the global model. Let $\tilde{q}(x) \in \Delta^{C-1}$ be the server-aggregated teacher distribution (obtained from client logits after clipping and temperature scaling). Consider the distillation loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x) \;=\; \mathrm{KL}\big(\tilde{q}(x) \,\|\, p_W(x)\big).$$

Denote by $J_W(x) = \partial z_W(x)/\partial W$ the Jacobian of logits with respect to parameters W, and let $\|\cdot\|$ be the spectral/operator norm for matrices and the Euclidean norm for vectors. Then

$$\big\|\nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x)\big\| \;\leq\; \frac{\Gamma}{T(x)}\, \|J_W(x)\|, \qquad \text{with } \Gamma \leq 2. \tag{13}$$

If, in addition, both student and teacher logits are clipped coordinate-wise to $[-c, c]$ before the softmax with temperature $T(x)$, then a refined bound holds:

$$\big\|\nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x)\big\| \;\leq\; \frac{\sqrt{C}\,(M_T - m_T)}{T(x)}\, \|J_W(x)\|, \tag{14}$$

where, writing $a := c/T(x)$,

$$m_T = \frac{1}{1 + (C-1)e^{2a}}, \qquad M_T = \frac{1}{1 + (C-1)e^{-2a}}, \qquad 0 < m_T \le M_T < 1.$$

Proof: Write $u(x) := z_W(x)/T(x) \in \mathbb{R}^C$ so that $p_W(x) = \mathrm{softmax}(u(x))$. By definition,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{C} \tilde{q}_i(x) \log \frac{\tilde{q}_i(x)}{p_i(x)} = \mathrm{const} - \sum_{i=1}^{C} \tilde{q}_i(x) \log p_i(x),$$

where the term $\sum_i \tilde{q}_i \log \tilde{q}_i$ does not depend on W. The gradient with respect to the *pre-softmax* variables u is standard. Using $\partial \log p_i / \partial u_j = \delta_{ij} - p_j$ yields

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}}{\partial u_j} = -\sum_{i=1}^{C} \tilde{q}_i (\delta_{ij} - p_j) = -\tilde{q}_j + p_j \sum_{i=1}^{C} \tilde{q}_i = p_j - \tilde{q}_j.$$

Hence, by the chain rule from z to u,

$$\nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x) = \frac{1}{T(x)} \big(p_W(x) - \tilde{q}(x) \big). \tag{15}$$

Applying the chain rule from z to W with $J_W(x) = \partial z_W(x)/\partial W$,

$$\nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x) = J_W(x)^\top \nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x) = \frac{1}{T(x)} J_W(x)^\top \big(p_W(x) - \tilde{q}(x) \big).$$

Taking norms and using submultiplicativity gives

$$\big\| \nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}}(x) \big\| \le \frac{1}{T(x)} \| J_W(x) \| \big\| p_W(x) - \tilde{q}(x) \big\|_2. \tag{16}$$

For the coarse universal bound (13), note that $p_W(x)$ and $\tilde{q}(x)$ are probability vectors in the simplex. Thus $\| p_W(x) - \tilde{q}(x) \|_2 \le \| p_W(x) - \tilde{q}(x) \|_1 \le 2$. Plugging this into (16) yields (13) with $\Gamma = 2$.

For the refined bound (14), assume teacher and student logits are clipped to $[-c, c]$ before applying the softmax with temperature $T(x)$. Then each coordinate of $p_W(x)$ and $\tilde{q}(x)$ lies in the interval $[m_T, M_T]$, where the extrema follow from monotonicity and are attained at the corners of the hypercube:

$$m_T = \min_{z \in [-c,c]^C} \frac{e^{z_i/T(x)}}{\sum_j e^{z_j/T(x)}} = \frac{e^{-c/T(x)}}{e^{-c/T(x)} + (C-1)e^{c/T(x)}} = \frac{1}{1 + (C-1)e^{2a}},$$

$$M_T = \max_{z \in [-c,c]^C} \frac{e^{z_i/T(x)}}{\sum_j e^{z_j/T(x)}} = \frac{e^{c/T(x)}}{e^{c/T(x)} + (C-1)e^{-c/T(x)}} = \frac{1}{1 + (C-1)e^{-2a}},$$

with $a = c/T(x)$. Consequently, for every coordinate i, $|p_i(x) - \tilde{q}_i(x)| \le M_T - m_T$, and therefore by Cauchy–Schwarz, $\| p_W(x) - \tilde{q}(x) \|_2 \le \sqrt{C} (M_T - m_T)$. Substituting into (16) gives (14).

Both bounds are inversely proportional to $T(x)$, which shows that CAT reduces the gradient sensitivity by explicitly scaling the update with $1/T(x)$. This completes the proof.

C.5 Variance-constrained robustness for MMD-KD

Theorem 2 (Variance-constrained robustness for MMD-KD). Fix an input x and a class index set $\{1, \ldots, C\}$. For each client k, let the clipped logit vector be $\hat{z}_k(x) \in [-c, c]^C$. Assume the honest clients $\mathcal{H}$ (with $|\mathcal{H}| = (1 - \varepsilon)K$ and $\varepsilon < 1/2$) generate i.i.d. coordinates

$$\hat{z}_{k,i}(x) \text{ are } \sigma\text{-sub-Gaussian and bounded in } [-c, c], \qquad i = 1, \ldots, C.$$

Let $\mu_i = \mathbb{E}[\hat{z}_{k,i}(x)]$, $m_{2,i} = \mathbb{E}[\hat{z}_{k,i}(x)^2]$, and $\sigma_i^2 = m_{2,i} - \mu_i^2$ denote the honest mean, second moment, and variance, respectively. Construct Median-of-Means (MoM) estimators $\hat{\mu}_i$ and $\hat{m}_{2,i}$ using M groups of size $b = K/M$ (group means, then coordinate-wise median across groups), and define

$$\hat{\sigma}_i^2 \;=\; \hat{m}_{2,i} - \hat{\mu}_i^2, \qquad \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2 = (\hat{\sigma}_i^2)_{i=1}^C, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2 = (\sigma_i^2)_{i=1}^C.$$

Then there exist absolute constants $c_1, c_2, c_3 > 0$ such that, choosing $M \simeq c_1 \log(C/\delta)$,

$$\left\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2 - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2\right\|_\infty \;\leq\; c_2 \,(c^2 + \sigma^2)\left(\sqrt{\tfrac{\log(C/\delta)}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\right) \tag{17}$$

holds with probability at least $1 - \delta$. Consider the MMD-KD loss (linear-kernel surrogate) at x,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}(x) = \lambda\Big(\|z_W(x) - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(x)\|_2^2 \\ + \|(z_W(x) - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(x))^{\circ 2} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2(x)\|_2^2\Big). \tag{18}$$

where $(\cdot)^{\circ 2}$ denotes element-wise square and $z_W(x)$ are student logits with Jacobian $J_W(x) = \partial z_W(x)/\partial W$. If $\|z_W(x)\|_\infty \leq c$ (via clipping), then the excess gradient induced by aggregation error satisfies

$$\left\|\nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}(x) - \nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star(x)\right\| \;\leq\; \lambda\, C_{\mathrm{mmd}} \,\|J_W(x)\| \left(\sqrt{\tfrac{\log(C/\delta)}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\right), \tag{19}$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star$ is the ideal loss with $(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2)$ replaced by $(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$, and C_{mmd} depends only on c, σ, and C.

Proof: The proof has three steps: robust mean and second-moment concentration under MoM, propagation to the variance estimator, and a stability bound for the gradient of (18).

Step I: MoM concentration for mean and second moment. Randomly partition the K clients into M groups $G_1, \ldots, G_M$ of size $b = K/M$ (assume M divides K). For each coordinate i define group means

$$\overline{Z}_{m,i} \;=\; \frac{1}{|G_m|}\sum_{k \in G_m} \hat{z}_{k,i}, \qquad \overline{U}_{m,i} \;=\; \frac{1}{|G_m|}\sum_{k \in G_m} \hat{z}_{k,i}^2,$$

and set the MoM estimators $\hat{\mu}_i = \mathrm{median}\{\overline{Z}_{m,i}\}_{m=1}^M$ and $\hat{m}_{2,i} = \mathrm{median}\{\overline{U}_{m,i}\}_{m=1}^M$.

Under the ε-contamination model with $\varepsilon < 1/2$, at least $(1 - 2\varepsilon)M$ groups contain an adversarial fraction at most $1/2$ (standard Chernoff-style argument for random partition; details omitted for brevity). For honest samples, $\hat{z}_{k,i}$ are σ-sub-Gaussian and bounded by c, hence each honest group mean $\overline{Z}_{m,i}$ is sub-Gaussian with parameter $\lesssim \sigma/\sqrt{b}$ and satisfies (by Hoeffding/Bernstein)

$$\Pr\left(|\overline{Z}_{m,i} - \mu_i| > t\right) \;\leq\; 2\exp\Big(-c'\, b\, \min\{\tfrac{t^2}{\sigma^2}, \tfrac{t}{c}\}\Big).$$

A coordinate-wise application and a union bound across M groups imply that with probability at least $1 - \delta/2$, for all i at least half of the groups satisfy

$$|\overline{Z}_{m,i} - \mu_i| \;\leq\; c'' \max\left\{\sigma\sqrt{\tfrac{\log(CM/\delta)}{b}}, \; c\,\tfrac{\log(CM/\delta)}{b}\right\}.$$

Since $b = K/M$ and $M \simeq c_1 \log(C/\delta)$, the first term dominates, giving

$$\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\|_\infty \;\leq\; c_3\, \sigma\sqrt{\tfrac{\log(C/\delta)}{K}} \;+\; c_4\, \sigma\sqrt{\varepsilon}. \tag{20}$$

The $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$ term follows from the breakdown-point property of the coordinate-wise median: at most an ε-fraction of groups can be arbitrarily corrupted, and the median discards them up to a factor absorbed in constants.

For second moments, note that $\hat{z}_{k,i}^2 \in [0, c^2]$ are sub-exponential with parameter $\lesssim c^2$, hence the same MoM argument yields

$$\|\hat{\boldsymbol{m}}_2 - \boldsymbol{m}_2\|_\infty \;\leq\; c_5\, c^2\sqrt{\tfrac{\log(C/\delta)}{K}} \;+\; c_6\, c^2\sqrt{\varepsilon}. \tag{21}$$

Equations (20) and (21) hold with probability at least $1 - \delta$ after adjusting constants.

Step II: Propagation to the variance estimator. For each coordinate i,

$$\widehat{\sigma}_i^2 - \sigma_i^2 = \left(\widehat{m}_{2,i} - m_{2,i}\right) - \left(\widehat{\mu}_i^2 - \mu_i^2\right) = \left(\widehat{m}_{2,i} - m_{2,i}\right) - (\widehat{\mu}_i - \mu_i)(\widehat{\mu}_i + \mu_i).$$

By clipping, $|\widehat{\mu}_i|, |\mu_i| \leq c$, hence $|\widehat{\mu}_i + \mu_i| \leq 2c$. Taking absolute values and sup over i,

$$\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2 - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2\|_\infty \leq \|\widehat{\boldsymbol{m}}_2 - \boldsymbol{m}_2\|_\infty + 2c\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\|_\infty.$$

Combining (20) and (21) and absorbing constants yields (17) with c_2 depending on c and σ only (note that $\sigma^2 \lesssim c^2$ by clipping).

Step III: Stability of the MMD-KD gradient. Define the ideal loss (with honest moments) at x,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star(x) = \lambda\Big(\|z_W - \boldsymbol{\mu}\|_2^2 + \|(z_W - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\circ 2} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2\|_2^2\Big).$$

Write $\Delta_\mu = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\Delta_{\sigma^2} = \widehat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2 - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2$. The gradients with respect to $z := z_W(x)$ are

$$\nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}} = 2\lambda\,(z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) + 4\lambda\left[(z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \circ \left((z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{\circ 2} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2\right)\right],$$

$$\nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star = 2\lambda\,(z - \boldsymbol{\mu}) + 4\lambda\left[(z - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \circ \left((z - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\circ 2} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2\right)\right].$$

Subtracting and using the triangle inequality,

$$\|\nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}} - \nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star\| \leq 2\lambda\|\Delta_\mu\| + 4\lambda\left\|(z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \circ \left((z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{\circ 2} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2\right) - (z - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \circ \left((z - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\circ 2} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2\right)\right\|.$$

Apply the identity $a \circ b - a' \circ b' = (a - a') \circ b + a' \circ (b - b')$ with $a = z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$, $a' = z - \boldsymbol{\mu}$, $b = (z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{\circ 2} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2$, $b' = (z - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\circ 2} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2$ to get

$$\|\cdot\| \leq \|a - a'\|\,\|b\|_\infty + \|a'\|_\infty\,\|b - b'\|.$$

Under clipping, $\|z\|_\infty \leq c$ and $\|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}\|_\infty, \|\boldsymbol{\mu}\|_\infty \leq c$, hence $\|a\|_\infty, \|a'\|_\infty \leq 2c$ and $\|b\|_\infty \leq \|(z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{\circ 2}\|_\infty + \|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2\|_\infty \leq (2c)^2 + c^2 \leq 5c^2$, and similarly $\|b'\|_\infty \leq 5c^2$. Moreover,

$$\|a - a'\| = \|\Delta_\mu\|, \qquad \|b - b'\|_\infty = \left\|(z - \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{\circ 2} - (z - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\circ 2} - \Delta_{\sigma^2}\right\|_\infty \leq 4c\|\Delta_\mu\|_\infty + \|\Delta_{\sigma^2}\|_\infty,$$

since $|u^2 - v^2| = |u - v||u + v|$ with $|u|, |v| \leq 2c$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}} - \nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star\| &\leq 2\lambda\|\Delta_\mu\| \\
&\quad + 4\lambda\Big(\|\Delta_\mu\|\,5c^2 + 2c\big(4c\|\Delta_\mu\| + \|\Delta_{\sigma^2}\|\big)\Big) \\
&\leq \lambda\,C'(c)\left(\|\Delta_\mu\| + \|\Delta_{\sigma^2}\|\right),
\end{aligned}$$

for a constant $C'(c)$ polynomial in c. Passing to parameter space with the chain rule,

$$\begin{aligned}
\left\|\nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}} - \nabla_W \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star\right\| &\leq \|J_W(x)\|\,\left\|\nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}} - \nabla_z \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MMD}}^\star\right\| \\
&\leq \lambda\,C_{\mathrm{mmd}}\,\|J_W(x)\|\left(\|\Delta_\mu\|_\infty + \|\Delta_{\sigma^2}\|_\infty\right).
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, invoke (20) and (17) (and the fact that $\|\Delta_\mu\| \leq \sqrt{C}\,\|\Delta_\mu\|_\infty$) to obtain (19), with C_{mmd} absorbing $\sqrt{C}$ and the constants in (17). This completes the proof.

C.6 Variance-adaptive error bound for DIS

Theorem 3 (Variance-adaptive error bound for DIS) Fix an input x and let each client k produce a probability vector $q_k(x) \in \Delta^{C-1}$ (obtained after clipping/temperature scaling). Assume an ε-fraction of clients are Byzantine with $\varepsilon < 1/2$, and honest clients $\mathcal{H}$ satisfy coordinate-wise sub-Gaussianity:

$$q_{k,i}(x) \text{ are } \sigma\text{-sub-Gaussian and bounded in } [0,1], \qquad i = 1, \ldots, C.$$

Partition the K clients uniformly at random into M groups $G_1, \ldots, G_M$ of size $b = K/M$, and form group means

$$\bar{q}_m(x) = \frac{1}{|G_m|} \sum_{k \in G_m} q_k(x) \in \Delta^{C-1}.$$

Let the group-variance statistic be

$$v(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{C} \mathrm{Var}_m\big[\bar{q}_m^{(i)}(x)\big],$$

and define the sample weight $w(x) = \big(1 + \rho \, v(x)\big)^{-1}$ with $\rho \geq 0$. Let $\tilde{q}(x)$ be the coordinate-wise Median-of-Means (MoM) aggregate of $\{\bar{q}_m(x)\}_{m=1}^{M}$, and write $\bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{H}|} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{H}} q_k(x)$. Then there exists an absolute constant $C > 0$ such that, choosing $M \simeq c \log(C/\delta)$,

$$\|\tilde{q}(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)\|_1 \leq C\Big(\sqrt{\tfrac{v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\Big) \quad \text{with probability at least } 1 - \delta, \tag{22}$$

where $v_{\mathcal{H}}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{C} \mathrm{Var}\big(\bar{q}_m^{(i)}(x) \mid \text{honest}\big)$. Consequently, defining $\tilde{q}_w(x) := \tilde{q}(x)$ and $\bar{q}_{\mathcal{H},w}(x) := \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)$ (the subscript w indicates the sample weight is applied downstream in the loss), and assuming $\mathbb{E}_x[v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)] \leq H$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_x\big[\|\tilde{q}_w(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H},w}(x)\|_1\big] \leq C\Big(\sqrt{\tfrac{H}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\Big). \tag{23}$$

Proof: We proceed in three steps.

Step I: Coordinate-wise robust estimation over groups. Fix x and a coordinate $i \in \{1, \ldots, C\}$. Consider the group means

$$\overline{Z}_{m,i}(x) := \bar{q}_m^{(i)}(x) = \frac{1}{|G_m|} \sum_{k \in G_m} q_{k,i}(x).$$

For honest clients, $q_{k,i}(x) \in [0,1]$ are σ-sub-Gaussian, hence each honest-group mean is sub-Gaussian with parameter $\lesssim \sigma/\sqrt{b}$ and variance $\mathrm{Var}(\overline{Z}_{m,i}(x)) = \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))/b$. Under ε-contamination with $\varepsilon < 1/2$ and random grouping, a standard argument shows that at least a constant fraction of the M groups are "good" (honest-majority) with high probability (Chernoff bound), while the remaining fraction can be adversarial.[2]

Let $\widehat{\mu}_i(x)$ be the coordinate-wise MoM estimator of $\mathbb{E}[\overline{Z}_{m,i}(x) \mid \text{honest}]$, i.e., the median across the M group means. Then (see, e.g., MoM concentration for sub-Gaussian data under Huber contamination)

$$\big|\widehat{\mu}_i(x) - \mathbb{E}[\overline{Z}_{m,i}(x) \mid \text{honest}]\big| \leq C_1\Big(\sqrt{\tfrac{\mathrm{Var}(\overline{Z}_{m,i}(x))}{M}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\Big) \leq C_1\Big(\sqrt{\tfrac{\mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\Big), \tag{24}$$

with probability at least $1 - \delta/C$ for a universal constant $C_1 > 0$, where we used $M = K/b$ and $\mathrm{Var}(\overline{Z}_{m,i}) = \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i})/b$.

---

[2] See, e.g., classic MoM robust mean analyses; logs in C, δ are absorbed into constants by the choice $M \simeq c \log(C/\delta)$.

Step II: Aggregating coordinates and relating to $v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)$. Stacking the C coordinates, $\tilde{q}(x)$ is obtained by applying (24) to each coordinate and taking a union bound over $i = 1, \ldots, C$. Let $\mu_i(x) := \mathbb{E}[\overline{Z}_{m,i}(x) \mid \text{honest}]$, so that $\bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}^{(i)}(x) = \mu_i(x)$, and define the vector $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(x)$ with entries $\widehat{\mu}_i(x)$. Then, with probability at least $1 - \delta$,

$$\|\tilde{q}(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)\|_2 = \|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(x) - \boldsymbol{\mu}(x)\|_2 \; \leq \; C_1 \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{C} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon} \right)^2}.$$

Using $\sqrt{a+b} \leq \sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b}$ and $\sum_i \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))/K = \frac{1}{K} \sum_i \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))$, we obtain

$$\|\tilde{q}(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)\|_2 \; \leq \; C_2 \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{C} \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))}{K}} + \sqrt{C}\,\sqrt{\varepsilon} \right).$$

Passing to ℓ_1 via $\|\cdot\|_1 \leq \sqrt{C}\,\|\cdot\|_2$ yields

$$\|\tilde{q}(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)\|_1 \; \leq \; C_3 \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{C} \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon} \right).$$

Finally, $\mathrm{Var}(\bar{q}_m^{(i)}(x)) = \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))/b$ and $b = K/M$, while our statistic $v_{\mathcal{H}}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{C} \mathrm{Var}(\bar{q}_m^{(i)}(x) \mid$ honest) equals $\frac{M}{K} \sum_i \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x))$; thus

$$\sum_{i=1}^{C} \mathrm{Var}(q_{k,i}(x)) \; = \; \frac{K}{M}\, v_{\mathcal{H}}(x),$$

and using $M = \Theta(\log(C/\delta))$ (absorbed into constants) gives the pointwise bound (22):

$$\|\tilde{q}(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)\|_1 \; \leq \; C \left(\sqrt{\frac{v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon} \right).$$

Step III: Expectation over x and the role of $w(x)$. Taking expectation over x and assuming $\mathbb{E}_x[v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)] \leq H$, Jensen's inequality yields

$$\mathbb{E}_x \left[\sqrt{\frac{v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)}{K}} \right] \; \leq \; \sqrt{\frac{\mathbb{E}_x[v_{\mathcal{H}}(x)]}{K}} \; \leq \; \sqrt{\frac{H}{K}}.$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}_x \left[\|\tilde{q}(x) - \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)\|_1 \right] \; \leq \; C \left(\sqrt{\frac{H}{K}} + \sqrt{\varepsilon} \right).$$

Since $w(x)$ is a scalar weight applied downstream in the loss and does not change the location of the honest target (both sides would be multiplied by the same $w(x)$ when measuring weighted deviations), we keep the notational reminder $\tilde{q}_w(x) := \tilde{q}(x)$ and $\bar{q}_{\mathcal{H},w}(x) := \bar{q}_{\mathcal{H}}(x)$ and conclude (23). This completes the proof.

D Experimental setup

Backbone and tasks. Unless otherwise noted, we fine-tune RoBERTa-Large (Liu et al., 2019) on a subset of GLUE (Wang et al., 2019): MNLI (matched/mismatched), SST-2, QQP, and QNLI. We report average across tasks, following prior work.

Federated partitioning. We emulate a cross-device FL setting with $K=10$ clients. Data are split by label skew at three heterogeneity levels:

- **IID**: stratified random split so that each client mirrors the global label proportions.

- **Severe non-IID**: for binary tasks, $[0.1, 0.9]$, $[0.9, 0.1]$, $[0.5, 0.5]$; for 3-class tasks, $[0.9, 0.05, 0.05]$, $[0.05, 0.9, 0.05]$, $[0.05, 0.05, 0.9]$.

Adversarial/poisoned clients. We consider a fraction $\rho \in \{0.10, 0.30\}$ of clients as poisoned. Each poisoned client flips a fraction $\pi=0.20$ of its local samples by inserting a fixed trigger token and re-labeling them to a target class (targeted backdoor). We evaluate: clean accuracy (CA) on unperturbed test data; robust accuracy (RA) on triggered inputs; and attack success rate (ASR, lower is better) on triggered inputs. See more details in Appendix E.

Baselines. We compare against FEDAVG, FEDIT, FLORA, FFA-LORA, FLEXLORA, and LORA-FAIR. To ensure fairness, all baselines use the same public anchor pool when applicable and the same training budget (total client steps × rounds).

LoRA configuration. Following (Hu et al., 2021), we insert LoRA adapters into the attention query and value projections with scaling $\alpha=8$. Baselines fix rank $r=8$ across all clients; RFD-LoRA supports heterogeneous ranks and we explicitly test $\{r_k\} \in \{2, 4, 8, 16\}$ across clients to validate rank flexibility. Unless stated, the backbone encoder and task head are frozen and only adapter weights are updated.

Training protocol. We run $N=1000$ communication rounds with $E=5$ local epochs per round. Each client uses AdamW (weight decay 0.01) on adapters with learning rate 3×10^{-5}, batch size 64, max sequence length 128, and linear warmup over the first 10% of local steps. The global server performs one gradient step per round on the distillation objective (see below) with learning rate

$\gamma=3\times10^{-5}$. Results are averaged over 5 runs with different seeds.

Public anchors and communication. Each round, clients compute logits on a fixed public anchor set comprising 10% of the per-task training size (sampled from public corpora disjoint from private data). Logits are clipped elementwise to $[-c, c]$ with $c=10$ before upload. We report the token-level communication volume (per round and total) in the appendix tables.

RFD-LoRA details (logit-space). The server aggregates client logits via coordinate-wise Median-of-Means (MoM) using $M=5$ random groups of equal size. Let $\tilde{z}(x)$ be the MoM consensus for anchor x. The student (global) model produces logits $z_W(x)$. The KD loss uses temperature-scaled softmax:

$$L_{\text{KD}}(x) = \text{CE}\Big(\text{softmax}\big(\tfrac{\tilde{z}(x)}{T(x)}\big),$$
$$\text{softmax}\big(\tfrac{z_W(x)}{T(x)}\big)\Big).$$

Robustness modules. We activate all three modules unless doing ablations.

- **CAT (Confidence-Adaptive Temperature).** Temperature is $T(x) = T_0\big(1 + \kappa\big[\max_i \tilde{q}_i(x) - \tau\big]_+\big)$ with $\tilde{q} = \text{softmax}(\tilde{z})$, $T_0=2.0$, $\kappa=2.0$, $\tau=0.7$.

- **MMD-KD (Moment Matching).** We align mean and variance of logits using robust moment estimates from MoM groups:

$$L_{\text{MMD}}(x) = \lambda\big(\Delta_\mu(x) + \Delta_\sigma(x)\big),$$
$$\Delta_\mu(x) = \|z_W(x) - \widehat{\mu}(x)\|_2^2,$$
$$\Delta_\sigma(x) = \|(z_W(x) - \widehat{\mu}(x))^{\circ 2} - \widehat{\sigma}^2(x)\|_2^2.$$

  with $\lambda=0.1$.

- **DIS (Disagreement Suppression).** We compute inter-group variance $v(x) = \sum_i \text{Var}_m(\tilde{z}_m^{(i)}(x))$ and weight each anchor by $w(x) = (1 + \rho_{\text{DIS}} v(x))^{-1}$ with $\rho_{\text{DIS}}=1.0$.

The per-anchor objective is $L_{\text{RFD}}(x) = w(x)\big(L_{\text{KD}}(x) + L_{\text{MMD}}(x)\big)$, and the server update minimizes the average of L_{RFD} over anchors.

Infrastructure. All Experiments are run on NVIDIA Titan RTX GPUs. We use HuggingFace Transformers for models and PyTorch distributed for client simulation.

E   Adversarial attack details

Threat model. We consider a standard targeted backdoor/data-poisoning threat model (Bagdasaryan et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2020). An adversary controls a fraction $\rho \in \{0.10, 0.30\}$ of clients. Each poisoned client can only manipulate its local training data; we assume no access to other clients' data or to the server beyond participating in standard FL rounds. Adversarial goals: cause the global model to misclassify any input containing a small *trigger* pattern as a specific target class y_{target} while minimally affecting clean accuracy.

Scope of empirical attacks. The empirical robustness numbers in Table 1 evaluate this data-poisoning/backdoor setting. The subspace-aligned and logit-energy adversarial analyses in Sections 2 and 4 motivate the design of RFD-LoRA, but these results should not be interpreted as direct experimental validation against arbitrary Byzantine model-update or server-side attacks.

Poisoning procedure (primary attack used in experiments). Each poisoned client independently modifies a fraction $\pi = 0.20$ of its local training examples as follows:

1. Select $\pi \cdot |\mathcal{D}_k|$ training samples uniformly at random.

2. For each selected sample (x, y), insert a fixed trigger token sequence (we denote it <TRIG>) into the input text. In our experiments the trigger is prepended to the input (prefix trigger), i.e., $x \leftarrow$ <TRIG> $\| \, x$. (Other placements such as suffix or random position were evaluated and yield similar qualitative results.)

3. Replace the label y by the attacker-chosen target label y_{target} (targeted backdoor).

Poisoned clients then perform standard local training using the corrupted local dataset.

Implementation details and parameters. All attack experiments use the following concrete settings unless stated otherwise:

- Poisoned-client fraction: $\rho \in \{0.10, 0.30\}$.

- Per-poisoned-client poison rate: $\pi = 0.20$.

- Trigger token: <TRIG> (single token, prepended) — token chosen to be out-of-vocabulary for the target dataset to avoid accidental natural occurrences.

- Target class y_{target}: selected per-task (for multiclass tasks we choose one arbitrary class and keep it fixed across poisoned clients).

- Training: poisoned clients follow the same local training hyperparameters as honest clients (same optimizer, learning rate, number of local steps).

- Anchor poisoning (when evaluated): 20% of anchor samples replaced with triggered examples labeled as y_{target}.

Details of evaluation metrics. We report:

- Clean accuracy (CA): accuracy on clean (untriggered) test inputs.

- Robust accuracy (RA): accuracy on test inputs after adding the trigger (lower RA indicates stronger backdoor).

- Attack success rate (ASR): fraction of triggered test inputs classified as y_{target} (higher ASR indicates stronger backdoor); in tables we report ASR with "lower is better" formatting (we may report $1-\text{ASR}$ depending on convention).

F   Language generation tasks

For language generation tasks, we use the LLaMA-7B (Touvron et al., 2023) model with experiment settings (Kuang et al., 2023) as the benchmark and use the GSM-8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) dataset for evaluation, following the previous work. We fine-tune the model using LoRA-based adapters and compare our method against standard LoRA under the same hyper-parameter configuration.

Evaluation. We report GSM-8K answer accuracy following the standard exact-match evaluation protocol.

Implementation details. We adopt the same base model, prompt format, optimizer, and training schedule as in Kuang et al. (Kuang et al., 2023). Unless otherwise noted, we use the same LoRA rank across methods for a fair comparison.