
TopKLoRA

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Abstract

Model diffing finds the representational differences between a base and a fine-tuned model. Leading approaches use sparse-dictionary learning [Lindsey et al., 2024]. However, these methods are trained post-hoc on a reconstruction loss, which results in features that often fail to be functionally causal for model behaviour [Braun et al., 2024]. In this work, we introduce *TopKLoRA* – a LoRA-like adapter, which retains LoRA’s adapter-style deployment and low-rank updates while exposing an *input-conditioned, discrete selection* of feature directions that provide controllable levers for the model behaviour, unlike reconstruction-trained features. Different from standard LoRA, we do not train a low-rank dense adapter, but instead a high-rank sparse adapter by applying the TopK sparsity in the adapter space, incentivising interpretability, while retaining the conceptual idea of LoRA. Each active component in the adapter space corresponds to a rank-1 “feature direction”, and the per-example update has a low effective rank of at most k with $k \ll d_{\text{model}}$. In our experiments, we train adapters across four adapter dimensions and k combinations for a harmfulness-reduction task with direct preference optimisation (DPO) of a supervised fine-tuned Gemma 2 2B base model for instruction following. We demonstrate maintained downstream task performance on the Real Toxicity Prompts benchmark [Gehman et al., 2020] relative to a dense LoRA measured by the Perspective API score. Moreover, we identify interpretable and causal features in the sparse space through an autointerp study along each rank-1 feature direction. This method provides interpretable model diffing information “for free” without degrading downstream task performance. More broadly, this work demonstrates the effectiveness of incorporating intrinsically interpretable model segments trained on the downstream loss. We publish the code at: https://github.com/marek357/lora_interp

39th Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2025) Workshop: Mechanistic Interpretability.

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1 Introduction

Fine-tuning is a popular method for customising a pre-trained base model for a specific task or a desired property, such as safety alignment [Dai et al., 2023] or instruction following [Ouyang et al., 2022, Zhang et al., 2025]. Analysing how this procedure alters internal computations of a neural network can help diagnose vulnerabilities and ultimately, enhance future AI safety efforts. For example, Arditi et al. [2024] leverage their insights to design a novel jailbreaking method and explain the phenomenon of adversarial suffixes. We refer to this comparative analysis as *model diffing*: systematically contrasting pre- and post-fine-tuned models to identify where and how behaviour changes emerge.

Empirically, fine-tuning updates typically modulate pre-existing mechanisms rather than introduce entirely new circuits, with changes concentrated in a subset of layers and well-approximated by low-rank subspaces [Zhou and Srikumar, 2022, Aghajanyan et al., 2020]. The success of diff-pruning [Guo et al., 2021], task-vector arithmetic [Ilharco et al., 2023], and Low Rank Adaptation (LoRA)-style adapters [Hu et al., 2021, Bałazy et al., 2024, Bensaïd et al., 2025] is consistent with this picture.

Most prior model-diffing work relies on sparse dictionary learning (SDL), including sparse autoencoders (SAEs) [Cunningham et al., 2023] and crosscoders (CCs) [Lindsey et al., 2024]. These SDL-based methods are trained post-hoc to reconstruct model activations via a high-dimensional, sparse bottleneck that approximates monosemantic features from polysemantic ones. However, SDL optimises reconstruction loss rather than causal faithfulness and can suffer from non-identifiability [Leask et al., 2025], feature splitting [Chanin et al., 2025c], absorption [Chanin et al., 2025b], and hedging [Chanin et al., 2025a], which limits its usefulness for precise diffing. Additionally, this training scheme introduces an additional error component which cannot be attributed to the studied model’s internal computations or downstream performance.

We introduce *TopKLoRA*, a LoRA-like adapter, trained on the downstream loss, that exposes a *discrete, input-conditional* set of feature directions that can be probed causally and is additionally optimised for monosemanticity. We empirically show that this adapter is both *useful* and *interpretable*, matching the performance of parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) alternatives while learning top-k latents that are monosemantic by SAE metrics.

Finally, we note that while TopKLoRA is conceptually similar in its design to an SAE, it serves a different role. Specifically, SAEs aim to detect features which *are already present* in model activations, whereas TopKLoRA *injects* learnt features’ steering vectors into the model. This comes at a cost of significantly more learnable parameters than in a dense LoRA.

2 Methodology

A dense Low-rank Adapter (LoRA) is a PEFT method, parametrised by two matrices: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times d_{\text{model}}}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}} \times r}$, where $r \ll d_{\text{model}}$. At inference time, for input $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}}}$, the layer output is computed as $Wx + \frac{\alpha}{r} \Delta W x = Wx + \frac{\alpha}{r} B A x$, where W is a frozen weight matrix of the fine-tuned base model layer, and α is a parameter modulating update strength. Hence, the weight update space (which is $\mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}} \times d_{\text{model}}}$ dimensional) is low-rank.

Unlike standard LoRA, in TopKLoRA we expand into an r -dimensional *adapter space*, with r on the order of, or larger than d_{model} . At inference, we select the top- k components of the encoded vector $z = Ax$, thus computing $m = \text{TopK}(z, k) \in \{0, 1\}^r$ and apply the modified update $\Delta W x = B(m \odot z) = \sum_{i \leq r} m_i z_i b_i$. While the adapter contains more parameters than a dense LoRA, the per-example update remains low-rank since at most k adapter space dimensions are non-zero with $k \ll d_{\text{model}}$. This architecture is presented in Figure 1.

Furthermore, we use the straight-through estimator (STE) [Bengio et al., 2013] for training the adapter, where we use an ordinary TopK operator to identify the highest-activating latents during the forward pass, but use a *soft*-TopK version of that operator for the backwards pass. Specifically, we compute the SoftMax distribution over latents, parametrised by a temperature τ , which decreases to $\epsilon \approx 0$ during training time according to its schedule. We rescale the probability mass to sum to k , which also has its own, very short schedule to encourage early exploration. To prevent the emergence of polysemanticity in the adapter space, we apply a decorrelation loss.

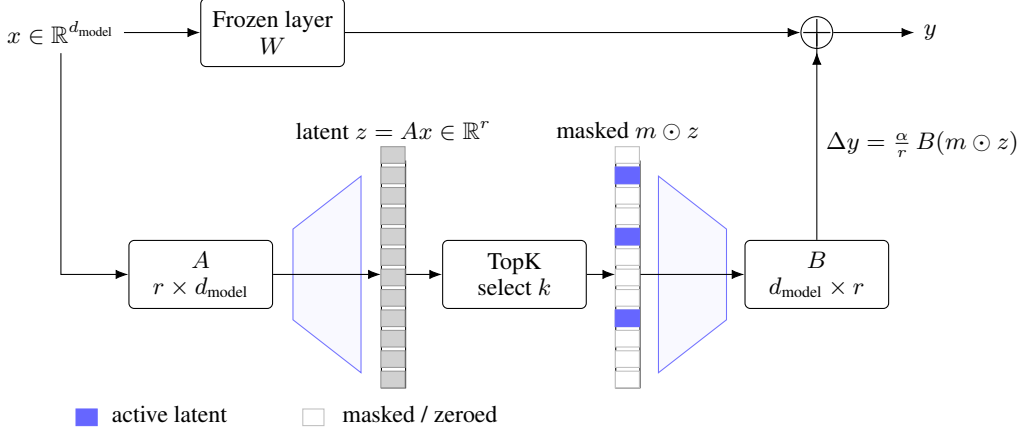


Figure 1: **TopKLoRA**. A wide latent (r) is computed and a TopK gate selects k active latents per token. The up-projection B applies at most k rank-1 directions and adds to the frozen layer output, scaled by α/r . Pre-TopK z shows all r components; post-TopK $m \odot z$ keeps only k solid entries.

3 Experiments

We apply TopKLoRA to the toxicity reduction task by first fine-tuning the base Gemma 2 2B model [Team et al., 2024] via supervised fine-tuning with a dense LoRA adapter for the instruction following task on the *Alpaca* dataset [Taori et al., 2023]. Next, we merge the PEFT weights and run a direct preference optimisation training with our sparse TopKLoRA on the harmfulness split of the *hh-rlhf* dataset [Bai et al., 2022]. Specifically, we attach our adapters to all modules in the 18th layer of the Gemma 2 model. We constrain our study to a single layer to remove confounding cross-layer effects, leaving an analysis of attaching the TopKLoRA to all layers in the model for future work. The choice of the 18th layer was made after a layer sweep in which we identified layers with the highest impact on toxic vs safe outputs using gradient-based attribution. We report experiments with $r, k \in \{(8192, 1024 \rightarrow 64), (4096, 512 \rightarrow 32), (1024, 128 \rightarrow 8), (512, 64 \rightarrow 4)\}^3$. Moreover, we use a linear schedule for the *soft*-TopK temperature, starting from 0.1 at the beginning of training and decreasing to 0.005 at the last training step. Moreover, we set the $\alpha = 2r$ to account for the significant sparsity in the adapter dimension and help make the updates more significant. We train all DPO adapters for 7500 steps. For baselines, we train four dense LoRA adapters with rank $r = 8$, $r = 16$, $r = 32$, and $r = 64$.

We evaluate the adapter’s quality in two ways: its usefulness for the downstream task and the interpretability of the adapter’s space latents. To assess the former, we use the RealToxicityPrompts challenging subset and score model completions using the Perspective API TOXICITY attribute.⁴ We classify a completion as toxic if its toxicity score is ≥ 0.5 [Gehman et al., 2020]. We also control for deteriorated model behaviour by running an instruction-following evaluation [Zhou et al., 2023]. Additionally, we use the Delphi autointerp package [Paulo et al., 2025] to explain and score individual adapter latents, treating them as SAE features to evaluate the adapter’s interpretability. Importantly, due to time constraints, we uniformly sample 150 latents from each module and interpret this subset. Therefore, the analysis in Section 4.2 should be read as a partial snapshot of TopKLoRA’s interpretability rather than a comprehensive assessment. Additionally, we use the detection task’s [Paulo et al., 2025] accuracy as the measure of interpretability. Moreover, we use the *Qwen/Qwen3-30B-A3B-Thinking-2507* reasoning model to generate feature explanations and to predict detection task outcomes. We provide examples of highly interpretable features and their detection scores in Section 4.2, and Appendix A.

Method	Config	Toxicity ↓	Prompt acc (strict) ↑	Instr. acc (strict) ↑
Base (SFT)	–	0.681 (0.00%)	0.226 (0.0%)	0.339 (0.0%)
TopKLoRA (TopKLoRA)	r=512, k=4	0.658 (−3.25%)	0.214 (−5.3%)	0.338 (−0.3%)
	r=1024, k=8	0.659 (−3.19%)	0.220 (−2.7%)	0.339 (0.0%)
	r=4096, k=32	0.642 (−5.70%)	0.211 (−6.6%)	0.331 (−2.4%)
	r=8192, k=64	0.643 (−5.51%)	0.218 (−3.5%)	0.338 (−0.3%)
Dense LoRA (benchmark)	r=8	0.662 (−2.76%)	0.222 (−1.8%)	0.337 (−0.6%)
	r=16	0.666 (−2.08%)	0.216 (−4.4%)	0.337 (−0.6%)
	r=32	0.666 (−2.21%)	0.216 (−4.4%)	0.339 (0.0%)
	r=64	0.661 (−2.82%)	0.218 (−3.5%)	0.336 (−0.9%)

Table 1: **TopKLoRA vs. dense LoRA on Gemma 2 2B.** We report mean toxicity on the challenging subset of RealToxicityPrompts (↓) and IFEval strict accuracies for prompts/instructions (↑). Numbers in parentheses are the relative percentage change vs. the SFT base, with the best performing method per column in **bold**. Adapters are trained with DPO on the harmlessness split of HH-RLHF and attached to layer 18.

4 Results

4.1 Overall performance and trade-offs

Downstream performance. Table 1 reports mean toxicity on RealToxicityPrompts and strict IFEval accuracies. Across the settings we tried, TopKLoRA configurations are at least competitive with dense LoRA on the toxicity metric at comparable instruction adherence. The best toxicity we observe is for $r=4096$, $k=32$ (0.642; −5.7% vs. the SFT base), while $r=1024$, $k=8$ yields a smaller reduction (0.659; ∼3.2%) with adherence close to the base on IFEval (instructions). These differences are modest in magnitude and specific to our training protocol (DPO on HH-RLHF harmlessness, adapters on layer 18), so we treat these results as indicative rather than definitive.

Trade-offs and sensitivity. Two patterns recur in our runs. First, the more pronounced adherence drops appear on *prompt*-strict rather than *instruction*-strict accuracy, consistent with harmlessness tuning introducing additional hedging early in responses—which IFEval’s prompt-scoring penalises. Second, for fixed r , reducing k aggressively does not reliably improve toxicity and can reduce adherence, suggesting diminishing returns from extreme sparsity. Increasing k from $8 \rightarrow 32$ tends to lower toxicity at the cost of small adherence changes, exposing a tunable knob that likely requires task- and deployment-specific calibration. We view these as preliminary observations pending targeted ablations and statistical repeat runs.

4.2 Interpretable safety features

We observe several latents that align with safety/toxicity cues, listed in Table 2. These latents are consistent with the observed toxicity reductions: several detect explicit toxic content (racial slurs, harm/violence verbs) while others activate around refusal/legal/deflection patterns.

5 Limitations and future work

In this work, we propose a novel, efficient fine-tuning adapter that incorporates interpretability *by design*. Due to time constraints, our evaluations were limited to the safety setting and lacked a direct comparison with a crosscoder baseline. The most significant limitation of this study is how we treat the TopKLoRALatents – we assume they work the same way as SAE features. However, SAEs attempt to *detect* a feature *already present* in the model activations, whereas our adapter *injects* features, previously missing, into these activations. This means that using the highest-activating tokens as the scaffolding for autointerp analysis is most likely not the most accurate choice. Moreover, in this

³ $(r, a \rightarrow b)$ means that the k -schedule started with $k_0 = a$ and decreased to $k_{fin} = b$ after 375 steps

⁴<https://perspectiveapi.com>

Feature (short description)	Detection Accuracy $\uparrow$	Location
Racial terms in racially charged contexts	0.80	<i>self_attn</i> (q_proj, 223)
Verbs denoting harm or violence	0.76	<i>self_attn</i> (q_proj, 48)
“the” in questions seeking harmful methods	0.79	<i>self_attn</i> (q_proj, 75)
“way” indicating a method	0.83	<i>mlp</i> (proj_proj, 1082)
Legality-related terms (legal contexts)	0.76	<i>self_attn</i> (k_proj, 1638)
Deflection phrasing (“difficult”/“tough”)	0.76	<i>mlp</i> (proj_proj, 8022)
Apology marker (“sorry”) in refusals	0.77	<i>mlp</i> (proj_proj, 6367)
Hesitation token “Hmm”	0.81	<i>self_attn</i> (q_proj, 311)
Hesitation token “Hmmm” (start of response)	0.81	<i>self_attn</i> (k_proj, 7260)
“address” in PII contexts	0.78	<i>self_attn</i> (q_proj, 402)

Table 2: Toxicity-reduction–relevant latents, interpreted by Delphi autointerp. Feature descriptions have been abbreviated for brevity. Importantly, these features have been collected from all adapters. The per-adapter breakdown is presented in Appendix A.

work, we do not report an ablation study due to time constraints. We aim to address these limitations in future work. Finally, we believe that the results presented in this paper offer a promising “sign of life” for the TopKLoRA adapter idea.

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A Interpretable features

In this section, we provide a list of all features that were scored with at least 75% accuracy in the detection task using the Delphi autointerp package. Importantly, we reiterate that, due to constraints on available compute resources and time, we randomly sampled 150 latents from each module and ran autointerp on them. Hence, the adapters might contain significantly more interesting features which were omitted in this study. The features and their prediction accuracies are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Interpretable features (detection accuracy ≥ 0.75) discovered via Delphi autointerp.

Score	Feature description	Location
r=1024 k=8		
0.800	The preposition “in” in prepositional phrases.	self_attn (q_proj, 3)
0.910	Person names.	self_attn (q_proj, 12)
0.760	Geographical and URL address tokens.	self_attn (q_proj, 50)
0.770	High activation for question and exclamation marks in conversational dialogue.	self_attn (q_proj, 66)
0.810	The word “know” in expressions of ignorance.	self_attn (q_proj, 140)
0.760	Key nouns and question marks in user questions.	self_attn (q_proj, 164)
0.800	Racial terms in racially charged contexts.	self_attn (q_proj, 223)
0.810	Hesitation token “Hmm” in assistant responses.	self_attn (q_proj, 311)
0.860	Pronouns “I” and “you” in user questions about personal actions.	self_attn (q_proj, 327)
0.780	The word “address” denoting a location (physical or digital) in personal information contexts.	self_attn (q_proj, 402)
0.810	Proper nouns and numerical digits.	self_attn (q_proj, 444)
0.840	Preposition “for” in standard English phrases.	self_attn (q_proj, 457)
0.870	The token “go” (or “going”) as the verb in a phrasal verb describing an action.	self_attn (k_proj, 245)
0.790	The verb “put” used for placing or putting something.	self_attn (k_proj, 462)
0.890	Distinctive components of location and entity proper nouns.	self_attn (k_proj, 698)
0.760	Main verbs in common phrasal verbs.	self_attn (k_proj, 896)
0.800	Distinctive nouns in well-known phrases or proper nouns.	self_attn (v_proj, 347)
0.930	The verb “come” in any inflected form.	self_attn (v_proj, 399)
0.790	Quantifiers expressing large numbers.	self_attn (v_proj, 520)
0.800	Key words in proper nouns or specific phrases.	self_attn (v_proj, 745)
0.790	The word “here” used to introduce a list or example.	self_attn (v_proj, 914)
0.820	The word “what” in questions.	mlp (gate_proj, 675)
0.820	Common compound terms and phrases starting with “short” or “long”.	mlp (gate_proj, 990)
0.810	End-of-sequence tokens marking the start of a new user message in a conversation.	mlp (up_proj, 644)
0.800	The forward slash in URL structures.	mlp (up_proj, 823)
r=4096 k=32		
0.760	Activation on the digit “1” in numerical values and on the word “example” in the phrase “for example”.	self_attn (q_proj, 29)
0.760	Verbs denoting harm or violence.	self_attn (q_proj, 48)
0.860	Common conversational interjections expressing emotion.	self_attn (q_proj, 58)
0.790	The word “the” in questions seeking harmful methods.	self_attn (q_proj, 75)
0.840	Verb “live” used to describe residence or lifestyle.	self_attn (q_proj, 189)
0.790	The word “look” in various forms and the word “people”.	self_attn (q_proj, 239)
0.780	High activation for space and $\langle \text{eos} \rangle$ tokens at response endings.	self_attn (q_proj, 314)
0.810	The word “does” in questions.	self_attn (q_proj, 340)
0.770	First parts of proper nouns or specific terms.	self_attn (q_proj, 448)
0.890	End-of-sequence tokens marking the end of assistant responses in conversational turn-taking.	self_attn (k_proj, 2162)
0.800	Conversational acknowledgment words in dialogue.	self_attn (v_proj, 1331)
0.790	Information retrieval terms.	self_attn (v_proj, 1998)
0.770	Parts of proper nouns and address abbreviations in location contexts.	self_attn (v_proj, 3625)

Score	Feature description	Location
0.760	Quantifiers for small numbers.	self_attn (v_proj, 3969)
0.900	Dialogue speaker labels and colon separators.	self_attn (o_proj, 1045)
0.760	Tokens forming numerical expressions in contexts like phone numbers, weights, and ordinals.	self_attn (o_proj, 1374)
0.790	The “Human:” prefix marking the start of a human message in dialogue.	self_attn (o_proj, 3879)
0.800	The word “or” used as a conjunction for alternatives.	mlp (gate_proj, 535)
0.810	Questions containing the words “are” or “can”.	mlp (gate_proj, 2230)
0.800	The verb “talk” in conversational contexts.	mlp (down_proj, 355)
0.830	The word “way” used to describe a method of doing something.	mlp (down_proj, 1082)
0.760	The word “point” used to direct attention to information or location.	mlp (down_proj, 1153)
0.880	The verb “give” meaning to provide.	mlp (down_proj, 1779)
0.760	The word “financial” (and “financially”) in financial contexts.	mlp (down_proj, 3255)
r=8192 k=64		
0.810	Digits in numerical expressions and the word “help” in conversational phrases.	self_attn (q_proj, 51)
0.760	Words used in questions to specify a category (e.g., “kind”, “type”, “sort”).	self_attn (q_proj, 65)
0.880	High activation on the end-of-sequence token.	self_attn (q_proj, 169)
0.760	Distinctive parts of brand names, place names, and URL components.	self_attn (q_proj, 192)
0.880	Initial fragments of specific terms and digits within years.	self_attn (q_proj, 204)
0.840	The word “way” in common phrases expressing a method.	self_attn (q_proj, 240)
0.760	Key content words and chat speaker labels.	self_attn (q_proj, 253)
0.830	Tokens forming numerical expressions, including digits and the space preceding numbers.	self_attn (k_proj, 344)
0.760	Legality-related terms in legal contexts.	self_attn (k_proj, 1638)
0.880	The word “know” in knowledge-related contexts.	self_attn (k_proj, 6396)
0.870	Key terms for specific cultural, religious, or geographical references.	self_attn (k_proj, 6570)
0.810	Hesitation tokens like “Hmmm” at the start of assistant responses.	self_attn (k_proj, 7260)
0.770	The word “keep” in common English phrases.	self_attn (k_proj, 7744)
0.810	User identifier “Human” in chat logs and fragments of technical terms.	self_attn (v_proj, 4564)
0.780	The word “here” indicating the current context or situation.	self_attn (v_proj, 7149)
0.800	Digits within numerical values.	self_attn (v_proj, 7612)
0.820	Specific reference tokens (proper nouns, specific terms, or contextual numbers).	self_attn (o_proj, 7705)
0.790	Proper nouns representing geographic locations or person names.	mlp (gate_proj, 2564)
0.790	The word “wikipedia” is a frequent activation trigger in text.	mlp (gate_proj, 4722)
0.830	Digits in numerical sequences.	mlp (up_proj, 2594)
0.760	The word “difficult” or “tough” in AI deflection phrases for sensitive topics.	mlp (up_proj, 8022)
0.890	The word “Human” used as a conversation label for user input.	mlp (down_proj, 1204)
0.810	The word “what” at the start of a question.	mlp (down_proj, 2854)
0.770	The word “sorry” activated in chatbot apology responses to inappropriate requests.	mlp (down_proj, 6367)