Towards Federated Large Language Models: Motivations, Methods, and Future Directions

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Abstract—Large Language Models (LLMs), such as LLaMA and GPT-4, have transformed the paradigm of natural language comprehension and generation. Despite their impressive performance, these models still face certain challenges, including the need for extensive data, high computational resources, and privacy concerns related to their data sources. Recently, Federated Learning (FL) has surfaced as a cooperative AI methodology that enables AI training across distributed computation entities while maintaining decentralized data. Integrating FL with LLMs presents an encouraging solution for privacy-preserving and collaborative LLM learning across multiple end-users, thus addressing the aforementioned challenges. In this paper, we provide an exhaustive review of federated Large Language Models, starting from an overview of the latest progress in FL and LLMs, and proceeding to a discourse on their motivation and challenges for integration. We then conduct a thorough review of the existing federated LLM research from the perspective of the entire lifespan, from pre-training to fine-tuning and practical applications. Moreover, we address the threats and issues arising from this integration, shedding light on the delicate balance between privacy and robustness, and introduce existing approaches and potential strategies for enhancing federated LLM privacy and resilience. Finally, we conclude this survey by outlining promising avenues for future research in this emerging field.

Index Terms—Federated Learning, Large Language Model, Foundation model, Privacy.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past few years, the domain of Artificial Intelligence (AI) [1]–[8] has experienced a paradigm shift with the advent of Foundation Models (FMs), prominently represented by Large Language Models (LLMs). LLMs, including GPT series [9]–[11], PaLM [12], and LLaMA [13], boast billions of parameters and have attracted considerable interest owing to their outstanding performance across a wide spectrum of AI tasks, such as text generation [14], contextual awareness [15], and even planning and reasoning [16]. Based on these AI

This work was supported in part by National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant 62394321 and 62201029, and in part by the State Key Development Program in 14th FiveYear under Grant No. 2021QY1702.*(Corresponding Author: Weiting Zhang)*

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NOMENCLATURE

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tasks, LLMs have paved the way for a plethora of applications in diverse fields. They provide technical assistance not only to areas directly linked to language processing (e.g., search engines [17], service support [18], and multi-language translation [19], [20]), but also prove beneficial in broader contexts such as code generation [21], chatbot [22], finance [23], and legal consultation [24]. However, while LLMs have achieved impressive success in various domains, these models necessitate substantial amounts of high-quality data and significant computational resources, which result in substantial costs for the training and utilization of LLMs. Moreover, LLMs typically rely on extensive public datasets for training. To enhance their performance in specific domains, they need to incorporate data from private entities, such as hospitals and banks. However, these highly sensitive data pose privacy challenges that hinder further improvements in LLMs unless well addressed.

In the field of machine learning, Federated Learning (FL) has recently gained traction as an innovative framework that enables intelligent learning systems while maintaining data privacy [25]–[28]. FL is a decentralized artificial intelligence strategy that facilitates model training across numerous devices, coordinated by a central server, without the need to exchange the actual data. Typically, the process begins with the central server, or the aggregator, initializing a global model with certain learning parameters. Each participating device, referred to as a worker, retrieves the latest model from the aggregator, applies its own data to update the model, and then transmits this updated model back to the aggregator. The aggregator then amalgamates these updates from all workers to refine the global model. By harnessing the computing power of distributed workers, significant computational resources can be saved for the centralized server. Additionally, since the data remains local, the data transmission cost associated with centralized training is reduced, and user privacy risks are minimized.

With these distinctive advantages, FL can address various challenges faced by LLM systems, spanning from pre-training to deployment, as previously discussed. LLM can also assist FL in synthetic data generation to mitigate the non-i.i.d (nonindependent and identically distributed) data challenge within FL. Therefore, the integration of LLMs and FL, namely federated LLM, is emerging as a prominent and trending topic [29]– [31]. FL leverages distributed data sources to efficiently supply LLMs with a vast amount of data, which is one of the primary requirements for LLMs. Additionally, the use of distributed data sources helps circumvent the communication overhead typically associated with centralizing distributed datasets. FL's capacity for reliable privacy protection during distributed training enables access to high-quality, private domain data beyond publicly available datasets. For instance, medical data from hospitals can be harnessed to address knowledge gaps in LLMs within specific domains, thereby enhancing model accuracy and generalizability. Furthermore, the distributed computing nature of FL allows for the exploitation of computational resources from numerous edge devices. This exploitation can, to some extent, alleviate the immense computational power required by large models. However, integrating FL with LLMs introduces new and unexplored challenges. These challenges include heterogeneity in federated LLM training, as well as new privacy and security concerns arising from this amalgamation. For example, the integration of FL with LLMs raises significant concerns regarding data leakage and model inversion attacks. Adversaries may exploit the gradients shared during the training process to infer sensitive information about the underlying data. Therefore, it is imperative to develop advanced cryptographic techniques and differential privacy methods to safeguard against such threats. Furthermore, the amalgamation of FL and LLMs necessitates stringent access control and authentication protocols to prevent unauthorized access and ensure the confidentiality of the training data. The implementation of Secure Multi-Party Computation (SMPC) and homomorphic encryption can provide viable solutions to these privacy and security challenges. To examine the current state of research and address the encountered challenges, this article will conduct a comprehensive survey of the federated LLM domain.

A. Related Reviews and Our Contributions

Prompted by the latest progress in FL and LLM, a number of overviews on the corresponding studies have emerged. For instance, Khan *et al.* [32] review the recent advances of FL for enabling IoT applications. They propose a comprehensive set of evaluation metrics, such as sparsification, robustness, quantization, scalability, security, and privacy, to rigorously evaluate the recent progress. Furthermore, they establish a systematically structured classification for understanding FL in IoT networks. Similarly, Nguyen *et al.* [33] investigate FL for a range of crucial IoT services and explore related works in IoT applications. Other studies such as [34]–[37] have also presented the fundamental principles of FL. and the taxonomy of recent work under various scenarios. In addition, Lyu *et al.* [38] delve into the privacy and robustness challenges in FL, offering a thorough classification of FL threats along with the respective protective measures and outlining prospective avenues for future research. Several other similar works [14], [39] also provide a detailed taxonomy from the FL privacy and security perspective.

On the other hand, with the rise of LLMs, there has been a surge in survey works based on LLMs. For instance, Zhou *et al.* [40] present an extensive survey of the latest developments, existing challenges, and future prospects for Pretrained Foundation Models, with a particular focus on LLMs among diverse data types. Xi *et al.* [41] delve into the realm of LLM-based agents, exploring current research and future prospects in this domain. They introduce a general conceptual framework for LLM-based agents, comprising three essential components: brain, perception, and action, which is adaptable to various applications. Wang *et al.* [42] offer a comprehensive overview of LLM alignment technologies, discussing from three major perspectives, including data collection, training methodologies, and model evaluation. This serves as a crucial guide for individuals interested in comprehending and progressing the alignment of LLMs to more effectively meet human-centric tasks and expectations. In [43], the authors conduct a thorough examination of the security and privacy issues associated with LLMs concerning both training data and application-based risks across various domains. The review includes an assessment of the vulnerabilities inherent to LLMs, an investigation into the emerging security and privacy attacks targeting these models, and a comprehensive evaluation of potential defense strategies. Several other works [44]–[47] also provide detailed introductions to various aspects of LLMs.

While FL and LLMs have been studied extensively in isolation within the existing literature, as far as we know, only a selected number of studies have conducted an in-depth analysis specifically focused on the system architecture of federated LLMs, a categorization of existing federated LLM works, and federated LLM applications in various scenarios. For instance, Yu *et al.* [48] and Chen *et al.* [49] emphasize the potential benefits and challenges of FL throughout the lifecycle of LLMs, including stages of pre-training, fine-tuning, and application. They also delve into future research directions, aiming to facilitate the creation of more personalized and context-sensitive models, all while prioritizing data privacy

This article has been accepted for publication in IEEE Communications Surveys & Tutorials. This is the author's version which has not been fully edited and content may change prior to final publication. Citation information: DOI 10.1109/COMST.2024.3503680

Fig. 1: Organization of this paper.

protection. Similar work has been proposed by Zhuang *et al.* [50], aiming to understand of the synergistic relationship between FL and LLM. Their study highlights the motivations, challenges, and future directions in more detail. Nonetheless, these studies have merely offered a cursory overview of the fundamental notions and challenges, without conducting a comprehensive review of all the current relevant research. These limitations inspire us to carry out a more thorough survey of the integration of FL and LLM. The principal contributions of this paper are highlighted as follows:

- 1) We present a state-of-the-art survey on the topic of federated LLM, beginning with an introduction to the basic system concept and recent advances in FL and LLM. We also engage in an in-depth discussion about the motivation behind integrating FL and LLM, delving into how this union can foster innovation and enhance efficiency across both fields.
- 2) We conduct a comprehensive investigation and analysis of the existing work, spanning from pre-training and fine-tuning to application. Various detailed topics, such as data construction, initialization, and research related to heterogeneity, are thoroughly reviewed. Additionally, we provide taxonomy tables summarizing the key technical aspects and contributions of each proposed approach for federated LLM.
- 3) Furthermore, we undertake a thorough review from the perspectives of privacy and robustness. We have curated

a list of potential threats to privacy and security that federated LLMs may encounter, along with a detailed analysis of corresponding defense strategies. Furthermore, we offer taxonomy tables summarizing these research efforts, providing a clear overview of the field's current state and challenges.

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4) We identify several critical research challenges and outline prospective research directions that aim to boost the performance and utility of federated LLMs.

B. Structure of the Survey

The structure of this paper is systematically outlined in Fig. 1. Section II offers a primer on the foundational concepts of the system and delves into the latest developments in FL and LLMs. It particularly explores the core mechanisms of FL, the various types of federated methodologies, and the progression, architecture, and taxonomy of LLMs. Section III examines the impetus and obstacles associated with merging FL with LLMs. Section IV provides a comprehensive survey and categorization of the current work on federated LLMs, from pretraining and fine-tuning to application, and meticulously sorts through different subtopics in detail. Section V addresses the work on federated LLMs from the perspectives of privacy and robustness, investigates potential privacy and security threats that may arise, and presents an in-depth analysis of the respective countermeasures. Section VI discusses potential future directions aimed at enhancing the performance of federated LLMs. Section VII summarizes the survey.

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Fig. 2: A typical FL procedure considering N number of participants.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Federated Learning

FL has gained significant attention across multiple research fields, leading to a proliferation of studies on FL. Since its inception in 2016 [51], FL has been a game-changer for a multitude of intelligent Internet of Things (IoT) applications. It has offered groundbreaking AI solutions, capitalizing on its distributed framework and privacy-conscious features. FL can be described as a distributed approach to ML. In this framework, clients independently conduct training on their datasets and update a collective global model at a central server without exposing their individual data. This process enables devices to benefit from a comprehensive model while preserving data privacy, as they periodically contribute to the enhancement of the global model by sharing their model updates.

1) Definition of Federated Learning: In the standard FL framework, it is assumed that there are N participating clients, denoted as $\{C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_N\}$. Each client C_n possesses a private dataset $D_n = \{x_i^n, y_i^n\}_{i=1}^{K_n}$ with $|x^n| = K_n$ and $K = \sum_{n=1}^{K} N_k$. In addition, client C_n typically possesses a learned local network model or an initialized model, represented by $f(\theta_n)$. Thus, $f(x_n, \theta_n)$ represents the predicted result of the private sample x_n based on the local model θ_k . Conventional ML frameworks are typically built on a larger centralized dataset, denoted as $D_{central} = D_1 \cup D_2 \cup ... \cup D_N$, by directly combining the private datasets of each client. This merged dataset is subsequently employed to train a model with better performance, symbolized by $\theta_{central}$. Despite the limitations imposed by data silos and privacy concerns, traditional centralized learning approaches are impractical for use in real-world contexts where privacy is paramount. As a remedy, FL allows each participant, C_n , to jointly train the models without revealing the private data D_n to other clients $C_{n_0}(n \neq n_0)$. As shown in Fig. 2, the typical FL procedure includes the following key stages:

1) System Initialization. The server receives the task requirements and target application, then establishes learning parameters, for instance, learning rates and communication rounds. In addition, the server chooses a set of clients, denoted as $\{C_1, C_2, ..., C_K\}$, to participate

and set up the initial global model θ_{global}^1 in the first round. Subsequently, it distributes the present global model θ_{global}^{t-1} to all the clients involved. This serves as the initialization of local models $\theta_1^{t-1}, \theta_2^{t-1}, \dots, \theta_N^{t-1}$.

2) Local Training and Update. Each client C_n employs its private dataset D_n to execute local model updates in the following manner:

$$
\theta_n^t \leftarrow \theta_n^{t-1} - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_n(f(x^n, \theta_n^{t-1}), y^n), \qquad (1)
$$

where α denotes the learning rate and \mathcal{L}_n () denotes the calculated loss for each client n . The loss function can differ among various FL approaches [28]. Subsequently, each client, labeled as *n*, sends its computed update θ_n^t to the central server.

3) Model Aggregation and Global Update. Upon receiving the local models $\{\theta_1^t, \theta_2^t, \dots, \theta_N^t\}$ from the participants, the FL server conducts an aggregation process and subsequently generates an updated version of the global model θ_{global}^{t} by

$$
\theta_{global}^{t} \leftarrow \frac{1}{\sum_{n \in N} |D_n|} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |D_n| \theta_n.
$$
 (2)

After aggregating the models, the server disseminates the latest global update θ_{global}^{t} to every client. This is intended to enhance the local models in the ensuing training iteration. The FL procedure is reiterated until the global loss function reaches convergence or attains a predetermined accuracy benchmark.

2) Taxonomy of FL Frameworks: Recent research in FL [33], [35], [52] has made significant advances. Typically, FL can be categorized according to federation scale, partitioning sample and networking structure. In this subsection, we conduct a detailed study of each individual instance of categorization.

Depending on the nature of the data distribution across clients, FL is typically classified into three distinct categories, including Horizontal Federated Learning (HFL) [53], Vertical Federated Learning (VFL) [54], and Transfer Federated Learning (TFL) [55], as summarized in Fig. 3.

HFL is the predominant technique utilized in FL. It encompasses the federation of samples and is optimal in situations characterized by a high degree of feature overlap but minimal node overlap. Such conditions are commonly linked with cross-device scenarios. In an HFL framework, every participant independently develops their AI model, which results in a local update. To ensure security and privacy, these local updates can be concealed through methods like encryption or application of differential privacy. Following this, a central server consolidates all the local updates received from the clients to formulate a new, comprehensive global update. This global update is then disseminated back to the clients, facilitating the subsequent phase of local training. This iterative cycle persists until the model's loss function stabilizes or attains a predetermined accuracy threshold.

In contrast, VFL and TFL present intricate challenges in their implementation and integration within various application

Fig. 3: FL with different data organization strategies. The main difference between these methods is whether they have the same or different types of samples and features

contexts due to their distinct approaches to data structuring. VFL is designed to facilitate the collaborative learning of a shared AI model among a network of clients that possess a common set of samples but disparate feature sets. It employs an entity alignment method to amalgamate intersecting samples from these clients, which are then used to collectively train a unified AI model. Security during this process is bolstered by the use of encryption protocols. Conversely, TFL is the strategy of choice in scenarios where there is a scant overlap of features and samples across nodes. It involves the transformation of features from heterogeneous feature spaces into a unified format, enabling the training of a model with data compiled from numerous clients. The server responsible for aggregation then updates the model based on the weights received from the participants' learning processes. TFL's primary goal is to develop tailored models that are effective for specific use cases, particularly when data availability is limited, thereby representing another crucial facet of data organization within FL strategies.

Networking Structure: From the standpoint of network architecture, FL can be bifurcated into two subcategories: Centralized Federated Learning (CFL) and Decentralized Federated Learning (DFL).

Currently, CFL is the most widely adopted framework in FL. This structure involves a central server coordinating with numerous clients to implement an FL model. During each iteration of training, clients individually train their models on local data and then forward the updated parameters to the central server. The server employs a specialized algorithm for aggregating these parameters, such as Federated Averaging (FedAvg) [51], to produce a global model. This global model is then circulated among all clients for further training rounds. However, the centralized design of CFL can lead to issues like a single point of failure, dependency on trust, and server bottlenecks. These are common challenges in systems where a central server plays a pivotal role. In contrast to the CFL system, DFL presents a server-less paradigm of FL. This approach underscores the benefits of adopting a peer-to-peer model for delivery and aggregation, which is independent of a central trusted server. Rather than exclusively interacting with a central server, participants in a Decentralized FL

system can fully exploit the network bandwidth by utilizing the network connections among themselves. This peer-to-peer communication allows for a more distributed and potentially more resilient system. These modern attributes of DFL make it compatible with peer-to-peer communication technologies, including blockchain [56], [57], to establish decentralized FL networks.

B. Large Language Models (LLMs)

LLMs are typically sophisticated language models, distinguished by their extensive parameter sizes and exceptional learning capabilities. The self-attention module in the Transformer [58] acts as the fundamental building block for these LLMs, aiding in language modeling tasks. Furthermore, these LLMs necessitate substantial computational resources and diverse datasets for model pretraining. After the training phase, LLMs require finetuning to meet specific downstream requirements, including performance, speed, and confidentiality. This section will offer a comprehensive introduction to the background of LLMs concerning the aforementioned aspects.

1) LLM Background and Definition: Language models (LMs) [59], [60] are computational models designed to comprehend and generate human language. Here, we focus on generative language models that generate text in an autoregressive manner. These models predict the next token in a sequence by calculating the probability distribution conditioned on the preceding tokens, which unfolds as follows:

$$
\mathbb{P}(w) = \mathbb{P}(w_1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(w_2|w_1) \cdots \mathbb{P}(w_T|w_1,\cdots,w_{T-1}),
$$
 (3)

where $\{w_1 \cdots w_T\}$ denotes a text sequence of $T = |w|$ tokens, and t is the current position. $\mathbb{P}(w_t|w_1,\dots,w_{t-1})$ with $t=$ $1, \dots, T$, is the probability the LM outputs on the token w_t given the previous $t - 1$ tokens. However, traditional LMs usually encounter several challenges, such as dealing with rare or unseen words, mitigating the issue of overfitting, and the difficulty in capturing complex linguistic phenomena.

LLM have made great progress in solving the problems that traditional LMs faced before, utilizing huge amounts of high-quality data and having large amounts of parameters.

Fig. 4: The model architecture, the Transformer structure, and evolution of LLMs.

The fundamental structure that has driven the recent advancements of LLMs is the Transformer model. This model, first introduced in 2017, has outperformed the traditional Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) architecture and become the preferred model for machine translation tasks. Transformer models are more suitable for parallel computing than RNN, which makes them to train faster and handle larger datasets. The Transformer architecture is built around two key structures, namely an encoder and a decoder. The encoder is constructed from multiple identical layers, each containing a multi-head attention mechanism and a feed-forward neural network. These layers work in unison to process the input sequence, extracting its features layer by layer, and culminate in a final output that is passed on to the decoder. Similarly, the decoder is comprised of several identical layers, each equipped with a multi-head attention mechanism and a feed-forward neural network. However, the decoder layers also include an additional encoder-decoder attention mechanism, which focuses on the input sequence while decoding. At the core of the Transformer lies the machanism of self-attention. The fundamental formula for the attention mechanism is given by:

$$
Attention(Q, K, V) = softmax(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}})V,
$$
 (4)

where Q , K , and V represent Query, Key, and Value vectors, respectively, while d_k denotes the dimension of the key. The self-attention mechanism quantifies the relevance of each term within a sentence when forecasting a particular word. It computes a weighted aggregate of the values for all terms in the sentence, with the weights determined by the resemblance of each term to the word under prediction.

As discussed, all modern LLMs are based on the Transformer architecture. This design allows these models to handle up to trillions of parameters. Fig. 4 illustrates a thorough overview of LLMs, including the model architecture, the evolutionary trajectory of the LLMs, and the Transformer structure.

2) Training and Fine-tuning of LLMs: The pre-training process of large-scale language models involves numerous crucial steps that are essential for their effective development. This procedure usually begins with the collection and preprocessing of a vast amount of text data from diverse sources. The assembled dataset is viewed as the fundamental building block for the training of LLMs. Table I shows several examples of datasets used by typical models. During the training process, unsupervised learning techniques are employed, wherein the model learns to predict the subsequent word in a sequence based on the context that precedes it. This task is commonly referred to as language modeling. LLMs utilize sophisticated neural network architectures, usually Transformers, which allow them to capture intricate language patterns and dependencies. The primary training objective is to optimize the model's parameters to maximize the likelihood of generating the correct next word within a given context. This optimization is typically achieved using an algorithm like stochastic gradient descent (SGD) or its variants, combined with backpropagation to iteratively update the model's weights. In addition, pre-training for LLMs necessitates significant computational power. For example, GPT-3-175B [10] model utilizes 3.14×10^{23} flops and LLaMa-70B [13] requires 1.7×10^6 hours of GPU processing. Consequently, the strategic allocation of computational assets is crucial for the streamlined pre-training of these language models.

On the other hand, the fine-tuning techniques for LLMs can be classified into the following three categories:

Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT): The fundamental principle of SFT [69] involves refining the model through supervised learning after extensive pre-training, thereby enhancing its proficiency in conforming to the unique demands of a specific task. During the SFT procedure, it's crucial to have a labeled dataset specific to the given task, featuring input texts paired with their respective labels. A subset of SFT, known as instruction tuning, is commonly employed in the fine-tuning stages of LLMs. This method further trains LLMs

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| LLM | Datasets |
|-----------------------|--|
| GPT-3 [10] | CommonCrawl [61], WebText2 [62], Wikipedia [63], Books1, Books2 |
| LLaMA ^[13] | CommonCrawl, Wikipedia, C4 [64], Books, Github, Arxiv, StackExchange |
| T5 [64] | C4, WebText, Wikipedia, RealNews |
| PaLM [12] | Social Media, Wikipedia, Books, Github, Webpages |
| CodeGen [65] | BIGQUERY [66], BIGPYTHON, the Pile |
| GLM [67] | BooksCorpus [68], Wikipedia |

TABLE I: Datasets Utilized by Serveal Typical LLM Models

using a dataset of both instruction and output, with the goal of bolstering the models' ability to comprehend and execute human instructions, thus improving their functionality and controllability.

Alignment Tuning: Alignment tuning is imperative. To tackle the challenges posed by LLMs acting outside human intentions [70]. LLMs undergo initial training with vast amounts of varied data sourced from the internet. Despite preprocessing efforts, it remains challenging to fully eliminate biased or detrimental content from the extensive datasets used in training. While LLMs have shown remarkable abilities in a range of language processing tasks, they can sometimes produce results that stray from what humans might intend, such as creating inaccurate information or biased and misleading expressions [71]. A prominent strategy for alignment tuning involves the use of Reinforcement Learning with Human Feedback (RLHF) [69], which incorporates human-generated feedback to develop a model that guides the reinforcement learning process.

Parameter-efficient Tuning: LLMs such as ChatGPT [11] are constantly increasing in scale. However, for most researchers, full fine-tuning on consumer-grade hardware is infeasible and impractical. PEFT's objective is to meet both computational and memory demands in LLM finetuning. This approach entails fine-tuning merely a select few or additional model parameters, while the bulk of the pre-trained parameters remain unchanged, thus significantly diminishing the need for computational and storage resources. Notably, cuttingedge techniques in parameter-efficient tuning have achieved results on par with comprehensive fine-tuning. Among the prominent methods of parameter-efficient tuning are Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) [72], Prefix Tuning [73], and P-Tuning [74], [75]. These techniques enable effective tuning of models, even in settings with limited resources, offering practicality and efficiency for real world applications.

III. MOTIVATION AND CHALLENGES

In this section, we will elaborate on the motivation and challenges of combining LLMs with FL. Current FL techniques face several challenges when dealing with LLMs, including model complexity and communication overhead. Due to the large number of parameters in LLMs, traditional FL methods incur high communication costs during model updates and parameter synchronization. Additionally, FL has limitations in handling heterogeneous data and devices, which can affect model performance and convergence speed. In particular, we will investigate how FL can address the current issues in the LLM training and application processes, and vice versa, how LLMs can support FL in various aspects.

A. Massive and Distributed Nature of LLM Training Data

LLMs are typically pretrained using massive and highquality data to achieve an astounding performance. For instance, GPT-3 used 45TB of text data for training, while Meta LLaMA-2 used 20 trillion tokens for training. However, such high-quality data is projected to be exhausted within five years [76]. Moreover, platforms that previously offered free public data, such as Twitter, have begun charging substantial fees for accessing their data [50]. In addition, utilizing these public data may also involve legal and copyright-related complications. It will become increasingly difficult to train betterperforming LLMs using public datasets.

Conversely, a substantial volume of data remains accessible within private domains, spanning a wide array of personal and corporate sources. However, aggregating these distributed private datasets for centralized training would not only necessitate intricate data integration efforts but also pose potential privacy risks. Considering both model performance and efficiency, FL stands out as a promising solution. By directly utilizing private data for model training, it addresses the challenges posed by privacy and data distribution across various domains. Besides, by training with FL, LLMs can access a wider range of data for optimization tasks such as fine-tuning, prompt tuning, and pre-training. The enhanced data access facilitates the creation of more accurate and efficient AI systems, better tailored to meet the needs of users across a wide range of application scenarios.

B. Data Privacy

Data privacy is a crucial concern in LLM training and application, given the massive and distributed data used. In FL, the server does not need raw data for training. The server and clients only exchange intermediate information in model training, such as model weights or gradient updates. This core idea ensures that sensitive data stays local and is not leaked. Therefore, FL reduces the risk of exposing sensitive user information to external third parties and enhances data privacy in LLM training and application.

C. Continuous Performance Improvement with Updating Data

Another data-related challenge is the necessity of keeping LLMs updated with the latest knowledge. Data in real-world scenarios are constantly growing even during a short time. For instance, common applications such as drones and mobile robots are constantly generating new data over time [77]. Maintaining the relevance and timeliness of LLMs becomes challenging, particularly when dealing with distributed data.

The dynamic nature of information across various sources necessitates continuous adaptation and updates to ensure LLMs remain accurate and effective. FL provides a solution by enabling continuous adaptation and enhancement of models by utilizing distributed and heterogeneous data sources. For instance, LLMs can be deployed in a federated manner, where local models undergo additional fine-tuning based on the data specific to that locality. Rather than transmitting local data, only the updates to the model are transmitted back to the central server. This allows the global model to be progressively enhanced based on user data, without ever directly accessing that data.

D. High Computational Demand for LLM Training

As discussed in Sec. II, LLMs have a huge number of model parameters. Hence, training large-scale LLMs demands considerable computational resources. This poses a challenge for separate entities lacking the necessary framework or capabilities to independently conduct LLM training. FL facilitates a collective training approach, permitting entities to combine their computational capabilities, which in turn, decentralizes the training workload and alleviates the burden on any single entity. On the other hand, FL usually involves multiple local clients with heterogeneous computing resources in the entire life-span process, and it can adjust the original model according to the node's computing capability, so that even clients with low computing power can also join in the LLM training and fine-tuning process.

E. Model Personalization and Adaptation

With the rapid development of LLMs, an increasing number of large models are evolving towards specific domains. These application scenarios not only involve different specific domain knowledge, but also have certain constraints on the computing power and hardware requirements of clients. Therefore, due to the decentralized nature of FL, it can provide users with personalized and adaptive LLM services by training on diverse, user-generated data. Another important issue is the bias in LLM training. In FL, the models learn from various users, which diversifies the data and knowledge that LLMs use. This helps the models better understand the nuances and complexities of real-world scenarios, and leads to more informed and less biased decisions for different tasks and domains, which contribute to bias reduction in LLM systems.

F. LLM-assisted FL

While FL can address numerous challenges associated with LLMs, LLMs can reciprocally offer substantial support to classic FL. For instance, a common issue in classic FL is client drift, which arises from the heterogeneity in private data distribution among clients. To improve FL performance, recent research suggests incorporating data gathered from public domains, such as the Internet, into the FL process. The success of methods that utilize public data is largely dependent on the quality of the gathered public data. To overcome the constraints associated with public data, approaches based on

synthetic data for FL have been developed. LLMs, which are pre-trained on wide-ranging datasets, have powerful fitting capabilities of data distribution. This enables them to create synthetic data that faithfully reflects the varied and intricate nature of real-life data scenarios.

Additionally, LLMs can effectively address the issue of suboptimal performance in FL through a process known as knowledge distillation [78], [79]. Knowledge distillation is a technique where the LLM, functioning as the "teacher," imparts its knowledge to streamline the training of a more basic "student" model within the FL framework. The LLM usually employs knowledge distillation to refine and condense the student model. Subsequently, each participant in the FL network utilizes this distilled student model to bolster their local training efforts. The transfer of insights from the LLM to the smaller model elevates the latter's performance and ability to generalize, addressing the challenges posed by scarce or unevenly distributed data. This approach allows for more efficient and effective learning within the FL system.

G. Challenges

The integration of LLMs with FL provides many benefits as we explained above, yet it also inherits certain fundamental challenges from the existing LLM and FL paradigms. In this context, we will delve into these challenges, with a specific emphasis on architectural design, privacy and security issues.

Computational and communication resource issues: In conventional Federated Learning FL, memory, communication, and computation costs are critical factors that significantly impact performance. These challenges become even more pronounced when integrating LLMs due to their substantial size and complexity. One of the core principles of FL is the frequent exchange of model updates between clients and the central server [80]–[82]. When dealing with LLMs, the volume of data that needs to be transmitted and synchronized across multiple clients is immense. This results in significant communication overhead, which can lead to increased latency and reduced overall system performance. The high communication cost can also be a barrier in scenarios with limited bandwidth or unstable network connections. Training LLMs is computationally intensive, requiring substantial processing power and energy consumption. In an FL setting, this computational burden is distributed across multiple clients, many of which may not have the necessary computational resources to handle such demanding tasks. This can lead to uneven training progress and suboptimal model performance, as some clients may struggle to keep up with the computational demands. To address these resource challenges, several strategies can be employed. Techniques such as pruning [83], [84], quantization [85], [86], and knowledge distillation [87], [88] can be used to reduce the size of LLMs, making them more manageable for FL environments. These methods help in decreasing memory and computation requirements without significantly compromising model performance. Instead of training LLMs from scratch, fine-tuning pre-trained models [89], [90] on specific tasks can significantly reduce the computational and communication costs. This approach leverages the knowledge

already embedded in the pre-trained models, requiring fewer resources for adaptation to new tasks.

Synchronization and coordination: In FL, clients independently train their local models and periodically synchronize with a central server. However, when dealing with LLMs, the large number of parameters and the complexity of these models exacerbate these issues. One of the primary challenges is the timeliness of model updates. Due to the enormous size of LLMs, clients need to transmit a vast amount of update data to the central server after local training. This largescale data transmission not only increases communication overhead but also leads to delays and potential staleness in updates. Stale updates can slow down the convergence of the global model and reduce its accuracy. To address this, efficient synchronization mechanisms are required. One approach is synchronous aggregation [91], where the server waits for updates from all clients before performing a global update. However, this can lead to increased latency, especially if some clients have slower network connections or lower computational power. On the other hand, asynchronous aggregation [92]–[94] allows the server to update the global model as soon as it receives updates from any client. While this can reduce latency, it introduces the risk of incorporating stale updates, which can degrade the model's performance. To mitigate this, techniques such as staleness-aware aggregation [95], [96] can be employed, where the server assigns different weights to updates based on their timeliness, giving more importance to recent updates. Straggler clients [97], [98] are another issue that needs to be addressed. These are slower clients that delay the synchronization process. One approach to mitigate this is to set a deadline for updates, after which the server proceeds with the available updates, ignoring the stragglers. Another approach is to use partial aggregation [99], [100], where the server aggregates updates from a subset of clients, ensuring that the synchronization process is not held up by a few slow clients.

Heterogeneities: In FL, data is distributed across multiple clients, each of which may possess vastly different data in terms of quantity, quality, and distribution. The non-IID nature of this data can lead to model divergence and suboptimal performance when training LLMs, namely a phenomenon known as data heterogeneity [101], [102]. Additionally, clients in a federated setting can range from powerful servers to resourceconstrained edge devices, each with varying computational power, memory capacity, and network conditions. This variability can result in uneven training progress, as some clients may struggle to meet the computational demands of training LLMs, which referred to as system heterogeneity [103], [104]. To address these heterogeneities, techniques such as personalized federated learning [105]–[107] can be employed. Personalized federated learning aims to create models tailored to the specific data distribution and computational capabilities of each client, rather than relying on a single global model that may not perform well for all clients. Methods such as metalearnin [108] and multi-task learning [109] can be explored to enable effective personalization.

Privacy and security issues: LLMs need to deal with various potential attacks and biases, such as adversarial examples [110], [111], backdoor attacks [112], [113], poisoning attacks [114], [115], model stealing [116], [117], etc. These challenges lead to issues concerning the robustness and security of LLMs, which can impact their reliability and trustworthiness. For instance, LLMs are susceptible to word embedding poisoning due to noisy perturbations. Studies [118] indicate that even modifying a single word embedding vector enables an adversary to subtly manipulate the model, leading to abnormal responses to specific trigger words. Furthermore, the impact of word embedding poisoning attacks in federated networks is substantial; even a small number of compromised clients can significantly degrade the global model. In federated LLM systems deployed over wireless networks, adversarial jamming emerges as a practical threat, corrupting sensitive word embeddings during transmission.

The challenges mentioned above is by no means a complete list, as separate research on LLMs and FL has already addressed a substantial number of issues [119]–[122]. However, this paper mainly focuses on the research that integrates LLMs with FL more cohesively, and the works that are biased towards only LLM or FL are out of our scope. This paper will introduce and discuss these challenges in detail and depth, and review the existing major relevant works.

IV. LLM PRE-TRAINING AND FINE-TUNING WITH FL: STATE-OF-THE-ART

In this section, we conduct a comprehensive review of the literature on LLM that utilize FL for pre-training and finetuning, representing the state-of-the-art in this field. Specifically, we survey the existing federated LLM systems and organize our discussion around five key aspects: framework & benchmark, data and model initialization, federated LLM finetuning, personalized federated LLM, back-propagationfree methods.

A. Framework & Benchmark

The pioneering effort in large-scale FL systems was made by Google, where FL was employed to enhance next-word prediction [123] and query suggestion [124] for Gboard applications. Following this, various innovative FL systems have been developed to accommodate different FL scenarios, such as TFF [125], FedLab [126], Felicitas [127], IBM FL [128], Paddle-FL [129]. Recently, there has been notable advancement in the creation of FL infrastructures and standards specifically tailored for LLMs. These frameworks, usually coupled with LLMs, provide a complete set of APIs that facilitate various effective FL algorithms, encompassing most or all aspects of the lifecycle of federated LLMs.

FedLLM [130], [131], FATE-LLM [132] and FederatedScope-LLM (FS-LLM) [133] are three notable works in the field of federated LLMs for enterprise level applications. They incorporate parameter-efficient fine-tuning techniques to enhance training efficiency and reduce communication overhead. Additionally, these systems implement robust privacy-preserving mechanisms to ensure the confidentiality and integrity of data during both training and inference phases. By facilitating cross-domain

This article has been accepted for publication in IEEE Communications Surveys & Tutorials. This is the author's version which has not been fully edited and content may change prior to final publication. Citation information: DOI 10.1109/COMST.2024.3503680

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Fig. 5: Basic components of FATE-LLM.

collaboration, these frameworks allow diverse organizations to jointly optimize model performance while addressing the challenges of limited computational resources and data heterogeneity. FedML presents FedLLM [130], which enables an MLOps-based training pipeline to construct the enterprise's own LLM on private data. FedLLM can perform training in both centralized and geo-distributed GPU clusters, as well as in a FL fashion for data silos. For a particular siloed GPU cluster, FedLLM utilizes existing open-source LLMs and well-known frameworks for local training. Moreover, for efficient training, FedLLM supports parameter-efficient training methods such as LoRA.

FATE-LLM (Fig. 5), built upon FATE (Federated AI Technology Enabler), aims to simplify FL for LLMs [132]. Specifically, FATE-LLM enables FL for both homogeneous and heterogeneous LLMs; it also boosts the training efficiency of Federated LLM by adopting parameter-efficient fine-tuning methods, such as LoRA and P-Tuning-v2. Furthermore, FATE-LLM protects the intellectual property of LLMs using a federated protection approach and preserves data privacy during training and inference by applying privacy-preserving mechanisms. This holistic approach strives to optimize the performance of LLMs while adhering to high standards of data security and privacy.

FS-LLM [133] aims to represent an all-encompassing toolkit designed for the federated refinement of LLMs. This toolkit establishes a seamless benchmarking system from start to finish, streamlining dataset preparation, the execution or simulation of federated refinement, and the assessment of performance in federated LLM refinement tailored for various capability demonstrations. It offers a suite of ready-todeploy federated PEFT algorithms and adaptable interfaces for programming, which pave the way for future enhancements to LLM functionalities in FL environments, ensuring minimal communication and computational overhead, and even enabling operation without full model access. Moreover, it integrates a range of swift and economical operators for optimizing LLMs under resource constraints, along with modular sub-routines that support cross-disciplinary research (such as personalized FL applications of LLMs).

OpenFedLLM [134] presents an innovative framework for contemporary LLMs that promotes cooperative and secure training on underutilized distributed private datasets. It utilizes FL to collectively enhance a shared model while maintaining the privacy of raw data. The framework is streamlined, unified, and designed to be user-friendly. Additionally, it integrates federated instruction tuning to refine LLMs' ability to follow instructions, federated value alignment to align LLMs with human ethics, and includes 7 key FL algorithms. OpenFedLLM also facilitates the training of LLMs across multiple fields, encompassing 8 distinct training datasets, and offers thorough evaluations with over 30 evaluation metrics.

In addition, the academic community also has a variety of benchmarks and implementations for federated LLMs. FedIT [135] is recognized as a pioneering initiative that utilizes FL for instruction tuning of LLMs. This research illustrates that FedIT can address the constraints of traditional instruction tuning by harnessing the varied sets of instructions from users within the FL framework. This is particularly effective in a cross-device FL environment with a client base numbering in the billions. Additionally, it offers an in-depth analysis of the diversity present in FL instruction tuning. Utilizing the GPT-4 auto-evaluation technique, the study validates the efficacy of FedIT in enhancing the quality of responses through the use of a broad spectrum of instructions.

Woisetschlager *et al.* [29] explore the present and future capabilities of edge computing for FL with LLMs, by contrasting these systems with a data-center GPU. They show the possibility for improvement and the next steps towards achieving higher computational efficiency at the edge. Specifically, this study fine-tunes the FLAN-T5 model family, adopting FL for a text summarization task. It provides a micro-level hardware benchmark, compared the model FLOP utilization to a state-of-the-art GPU used in a data center, and examined the network utilization in realistic conditions.

Zhao *et al.* [136] introduce a methodology that integrates privacy-preserving technologies including FL, emulator-based tuning with PEFT strategies and differential privacy (DP). The paper details specialized parameter-efficient methods for federated environments, designed to minimize communication costs while maintaining model efficacy. Additionally, the implementation of DP safeguards against compromising individual data privacy during statistical analysis.

There are also several other modalities of federated foundation models training/fine-tuning works, such as Flower [137], which supports fine-tuning of Whisper for the downstream task of keyword spotting in a federated way. The experiments also benchmark the new Raspberry Pi 5, with regard to not only training times but also the time taken to pre-process the dataset partitions. FedCLIP, as presented in [138], introduces a lightweight adapter module for the CLIP. These streamlined adapters are capable of harnessing the extensive knowledge of pretrained models, thereby guaranteeing that the models remain flexible and suitable for client-specific applications. Gao *et al.* [139] conduct a study on the convergence of self-supervised learning and FL, with an emphasis on speech representation leveraging the wav2vec 2.0 framework [140]. The researchers provide a pioneering, systematic exploration into the practicality involved in developing speech models within FL contexts, examining the subject through the lenses of algorithmic processes, hardware capabilities, and systemic boundaries.

B. Data and Model Initialization

The processing of original data and the initial setup of models are crucial factors influencing the efficacy of FL. Among the current FL literature, neural networks are usually initialized with random weights. However, in centralized learning, it is common to use model initialization with weights pre-trained on large-scale datasets, as this has been proven [141], [142] to enhance accuracy, generalizability, robustness, etc. Training from random weights is also more challenging for LLMs. Some recent works have investigated whether model pre-training is suitable for FL and the impact of model initialization (whether random or pre-trained) on the performance of federated optimization techniques. These studies [143], [144] show that initiating from a pre-trained LLM can notably diminish the disparity between Independent and Identically Distributed (IID) and non-IID data settings for clients. Furthermore, when using a pre-trained model as the initial point, the number of local epochs per round can be greatly decreased without degrading the final accuracy. These results indicate that pre-training effectively closes the gap between FL and centralized learning.

One of the challenges for LLM is how to group such massive datasets. Dataset Grouper library [145] facilitates the formation of extensive, group-structured datasets, such as those used in federated settings for Large LLMs. Its three primary benefits include its ability to manage single-group datasets that exceed memory capacity, its adaptable approach to choosing the foundational dataset and defining partitions, and its framework-agnostic nature. The generation of synthetic data using LLMs is another intriguing topic. It arises from the challenges in obtaining specific public datasets and the lack of clear guidelines for their acquisition. To address the scarcity of public data, researchers have explored FL approaches that leverage synthetic data. In these methods, a generative model is fine-tuned through knowledge distillation (KD), and synthetic data is generated by this model in a staggered manner during the federated training cycles. However, these methods have stability and security issues, which can be effectively solved by LLMs due to their strong generative performance. GPT-FL [146] utilizes generative pre-training approaches to create a variety of synthetic datasets. Such synthetic information is employed to enhance a server-based

Fig. 6: Several typical fine-tuning methods, including full parameter fine-tuning, P-tuning v2, and LoRA. The weights that require fine-tuning are highlighted within the green boxes.

downstream model, which undergoes further refinement using confidential data from clients within the conventional FL structure. Experimental results indicate that GPT-FL outperforms contemporary FL techniques in aspects such as accuracy of model testing, efficiency of communication, and efficiency in sampling across clients. Another typical work is proposed by Wang *et al.* [147], which propose an in depth study into the utilization of extensive public datasets and LLMs to enhance the DP based training of mobile FL models. Their objective is to strike a better balance between privacy and utility by employing knowledge distillation methods. Additionally, they introduce an innovative distribution matching technique, backed by theoretical analysis, to select public data that closely resembles the distribution of private data, thereby effectively boosting the efficiency of training with public datasets.

C. Federated LLM Fine-tuning

The process of federated fine-tuning LLMs focuses on adapting a pre-trained LLM to achieve specific objectives. Due to the considerable computational resources and data volume requirements for pre-training LLMs, most of the federated LLM work concentrates on enhancing the fine-tuning phase's effectiveness and efficiency. For instance, efforts are made to reduce the communication and computational overhead of federated LLM fine-tuning, tackle the challenges of non-IID data and personalized requirements across various clients, and support a broader range of downstream tasks.

1) Federated LLM with PEFT: As outlined in Sec. II-B, PEFT is a technique to tailor LLMs to particular downstream tasks. Several typical PEFT methods are shown in Fig. 6. The methodology entails freezing the core architecture of LLMs while modifying a minimal number of extra parameters. The objective of PEFT is to decrease the duration of training and the expenses associated with communication, thereby addressing a fundamental obstacle in FL. Here we only introduce the typical PEFT-related works, and the works on personalized FL based on PEFT will be described in detail in the next subsection.

LP-FL [148] integrates few-shot prompt learning from LLMs with efficient communication and federating techniques. It empowers federated clients to assign soft labels to unlabeled data, using the gradually updated knowledge from the global model. By employing the LoRA technique, this

method enables the generation of concise learnable parameters and promotes the federation of global models with minimal overhead.

Malaviya *et al.* [149] demonstrate that the PEFT approach is capable of diminishing communication overheads without compromising the efficacy of the model in FL environments. In a range of real-world applications, acquiring data specific to the intended downstream task can prove challenging; however, procuring data from analogous tasks is often more feasible. The empirical evidence regarding the task-level applicability of PEFT within FL frameworks indicate substantial zeroshot learning capabilities of the model on the intended tasks, provided that the source data is derived from a closely related task.

FedTune [150] reveals that Transformers, once fine-tuned, exhibit superior efficacy in FL scenarios. The study highlights that a streamlined fine-tuning process not only accelerates the convergence but also minimizes communication costs. Delving into the specifics, the authors conducted an extensive empirical analysis on three distinct tuning strategies—modifying inputs, integrating additional modules, and altering the core architecture, which utilizing two categories of pre-trained models, namely vision-language and vision models. The findings underscore that the integration of pre-trained models within FL significantly enhances accuracy of the model by effectively addressing the problem of overfitting.

FedPETuning [151] investigates the potential of PEFT methods in LLMs and establish a federated benchmark for four key PEFT approaches. Specifically, it pioneers a thorough empirical investigation into the tuning techniques of prominent pretrained LMs within an FL framework, encompassing aspects such as privacy threats, performance metrics, and analysis under resource limitations. The extensive experimental data corroborate that FedPETuning is adept at safeguarding privacy while maintaining commendable model performance, all the while reducing the demand for substantial resources.

FedPrompt [152] examines the application of prompt tuning through a model split aggregation approach within FL. It reveals that this method markedly diminishes the communication overhead while only slightly impacting accuracy across both IID and Non-IID data distributions. Additionally, the study includes tests of backdoor attacks via data poisoning on FedPrompt, with results showing a minimal success rate for the attacks and an inability to implant a backdoor successfully, thereby affirming FedPrompt's resilience.

PROMPTFL [153] introduces a shift from traditional federated model training to federated prompt training. This approach encourages participants in a federated network to focus on training prompts rather than a communal model. This strategy aims to harness the capabilities of LLMs for efficient global aggregation and effective local training, even with limited data. The key advantage of PROMPTFL lies in its requirement to update only the prompts, not the entire model, thus significantly speeding up both local training and global aggregation processes. Moreover, an LLM that has been trained on extensive datasets can offer robust adaptability for diverse tasks of distributed users through the utilization of trained soft prompts.

SplitLoRA [154] is a split FL LLM fine-tuning framework, which is constructed upon the split FL paradigm, integrating the benefits of parallel training from FL and model partitioning from split learning. This integration significantly enhances training efficiency by delegating the primary training workload to a server through model partitioning. This approach involves the exchange of activations and their gradients with smaller data sizes, rather than transmitting the entire LLM. Notably, SplitLoRA represents the first open-source benchmark for SL LLM fine-tuning, establishing a foundational platform for future research endeavors aimed at advancing split FL LLM fine-tuning methodologies.

2) Fine-tuning for Downstream Applications: LLMs must undergo the fine-tuning process in order to perform better on downstream tasks. This stage adjusts the pre-trained model's parameters using a dataset tailored to the task at hand. The purpose of fine-tuning is to shift from the broad linguistic comprehension acquired during pre-training to a focus on the particular subtleties and demands of the task in question. Some works have adopted FL to finetune the LLM for downstream tasks, with the aim of addressing the privacy and data sensitivity issues.

Riedel *et al.* [155] explore the application of FL for the purpose of Multilingual Protest News Detection (a binary classification task), utilizing news texts in English, Portuguese, Spanish, and Hindi. The researchers engage fine-tuning pretrained multilingual BERT and DistilBERT models on the multilingual data, leveraging their demonstrated success in analogous NLP classification tasks within centralized learning frameworks [156], [157]. Additionally, the study assesses the performance of FL aggregation algorithms across different data partitioning scenarios.

FedTherapist [158] is a mobile application designed for mental health monitoring that leverages ongoing speech and typing activity while ensuring privacy through FL. The authors assess the efficiency and computational load of BERT and GPT-3.5 to manage the intricacies associated with training language models directly on mobile devices. Additionally, the study presents a context-aware learning technique, which is adept at harnessing the voluminous and varied text data from smartphones for detecting mental health indicators.

FedJudge [159] combines FL and LLM to address the data privacy issues raised by the centralized training of Legal LLMs, as legal data is scattered across various institutions with sensitive personal information. In particular, FedJudge employs parameter-efficient fine-tuning methods to update only a few extra parameters during FL training. Moreover, continual learning methods are also investigated to maintain the global model's crucial parameters when training local clients to alleviate the problem of data shifts.

FedED [160] proposes a medical relation extraction model that preserves the privacy of data sources, using FL as the underlying framework. This is to tackle the challenge of handling medical texts, which often contain sensitive information that cannot be shared or copied across different domains. The model is based on BERT models as the backbone, and enables the training of a global model without exposing or transferring any private local data. To address the communication bottleneck in FL, a knowledge distillation strategy is adopted that leverages the predictions of local models aggregated to form the global model, instead of sending local parameters.

Ahmed *et al.* [161] propose an active learning based news article retrieval model in a semi-supervised learning scenario. This model offers the benefits of low communication overhead, high scalability, enhanced data privacy, and a temporal-aware retrieval model. The framework employs lexicon expansion, content segmentation, and temporal events to construct a BERT attention embedding query that captures the temporal dynamics of sequential news articles. To produce pseudolabels, the partially trained models with the original labeled data are fused.

FedHumor [162] is an approach for personalized humor recognition based on FL. Recognizing the subjective nature of humor, this method seeks to tailor humor recognition to individual preferences, a task that is notably challenging for conventional models. By enhancing a pre-trained language model, FedHumor fine-tunes its processes to reflect the varied humor tastes of different users. Furthermore, it employs a strategy that adapts to this diversity, aiming to cultivate a humor recognition model that is personalized for each user within the FL paradigm.

Efficient-FedRec [163] is an FL framework for news recommendation that preserves user privacy. This framework strategically splits the model into a substantial news component hosted on the server and a compact user model shared between the server and client devices. Specifically, client devices receive the user model and news details from the server and return their individual gradient updates for collective integration. Subsequently, the server refines its universal user model utilizing these combined gradients.

FEWFEDWEIGHT [164] trains client models on isolated devices without data sharing. The framework utilizes the server's global model to create pseudo data for each client, facilitating knowledge transfer from the global model to improve the client models' few-shot learning capability. An energy-based algorithm is implemented to filter out noise by weighting the pseudo samples. Additionally, the client models' weights are adjusted according to their performance, it then dynamically consolidates the client models to refresh the global model.

FedNLP [165] is a framework designed to assess FL techniques across four prevalent NLP tasks, namely text classification, sequence tagging, QA, and seq2seq generation. This system offers a standardized platform that integrates Transformerbased LLMs, such as BERT and BART, with FL strategies, accommodating a range of non-identically distributed data situations.

In summary, we list the federated LLM fine-tuning works in the taxonomy Table II, summarizing the technical aspects as the key informations and contributions of each reference work.

D. Personalized Federated LLM

As outlined in Sec. III, FL encounters various types of heterogeneity issues, which require adaptive and personalized solutions to overcome these challenges. In this paper, the definition of personalized federated LLMs is inherited from conventional personalized FL and extended to federated LLMs. The goal is to address the various heterogeneity issues that may arise during the pretraining and fine-tuning processes of federated LLMs. Statistical (Data) Heterogeneity arises as client data often exhibit non-IID characteristics. This can lead to a scenario where a model trained on local data at a client site may outperform a global FL model trained on heterogeneous data. System Heterogeneity is evident as FL clients typically operate on a wide array of hardware capabilities, including differences in computational power, network bandwidth, and storage capacities, as well as disparities in operating systems, applications, and other software tools as noted by Jiang et al. [166]. This variation allows clients with advanced hardware to train more complex models, whereas those with less capable systems are restricted to simpler models. Model Heterogeneity is characterized by the fact that various entities often maintain distinct, proprietary model collections. The process of fine-tuning these models within the FL framework can lead to reduced training durations while also safeguarding proprietary knowledge, as discussed by Ye et al. [35]. Given the diversity of models across organizations, it is crucial to facilitate the training of personalized models that are heterogeneous in nature. These challenges are not unique to FL but are also prevalent in federated LLMs, subsequently we will delve into the specific works addressing these challenges.

Fed-PepTAO [167] aims to enable efficient and effective FL of LLMs. This work proposes a parameter-efficient prompt tuning method with an efficient and effective method to select appropriate layers of prompts for FL. Second, a new adaptive optimization method is devised to tackle the client drift problems on both the client and server sides to improve the system performance further.

Profit [168] attempts to study the trade-off between personalization (adaptation to the clients' local distributions) and robustness (avoiding catastrophic forgetting) over different FL training algorithms and different data heterogeneity levels. The study finds that in federated LLM prompt tuning, the choice of adaptive optimizer, learning rate, regularization and other parameters is crucial for achieving the personalization vs robustness trade-off.

FedDAT [169] is a fine-tuning framework tailored for heterogeneous multi-modal FL. It employs a Dual-Adapter Teacher (DAT) to address data heterogeneity by regularizing the local updates of the client and applying Mutual Knowledge Distillation (MKD) for efficient knowledge transfer. The experiment results indicate that the approach attains a superior convergence rate and scalability compared to existing PEFT methods.

FedRA [170] tackles the issue of diverse client capabilities in computational and communication aspects within FL. It operates by generating a random allocation matrix in each communication cycle. For clients with constrained resources, FedRA adapts a subset of the model's layers according to this matrix and refines them through LoRA. The server then gathers the refined LoRA parameters, aligns them with the existing allocation matrix, and assimilates them into the des-

| Reference | Classification | Fine-tuning Methods | Model | Main Dataset | Key Contribution |
|-----------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|---|
| LP-FL [148] | Fine-tuning | LoRA | BERT-Large | IMDB, Yelp | Federated fine-tuning LLMs with PEFT method with limited |
| | with PEFT | | | | communications and local computational powers. |
| Malaviya et al. | | Adapter, prefix, | BERT-base | GLUE | Analyze the performance of four PEFT methods under different |
| [149] | | LoRA, BitFit | | | non-i.i.d. settings in FL |
| FedTune [150] | | Three PEFT | CLIP | CIFAR-10, | Conduct an in-depth measurement on various parameter- |
| | | methods | | CIFAR-100 | efficient tuning methods in FL using different pre-trained Trans- former models. |
| FedPETuning | | Adapter, prefix, | Roberta- | GLUE | Benchmark to provide a holistic review of PETuning methods |
| [151] | | LoRA, BitFit | Base | | for PLMs under FL settings, covering privacy attacks, perfor- mance comparisons, and resource-constrained analysis |
| FedPrompt | | Prompt tuning | BERT. | OffensEval, | Evaluate new FL prompt tuning method performance and test |
| [152] | | | Roberta, T5 | IMDB, | the model robustness to backdoor attack |
| | | | | Twitter, | |
| | | | | GLUE | |
| PromptFL | | Prompt tuning | CLIP | Cal101, | Prove the feasibility of the system in terms of overhead in |
| [153] | | | | Flow- | communication, training, and inference dimensions as well as |
| | | | | | ers102, UCF101, generalization and personalization ability. |
| | | | | Sun397 | |
| SplitLoRA | | $LoRA$ + split | $GPT-2$ | E2E | Constructed upon the split FL paradigm, integrating the benefits |
| [154] | | learning | | | of parallel training from FL and model partitioning from split |
| | | | | | learning. ability. |
| RIEDEL et al. | Downstream | Full parameter | BERT, Dis- | CASE2021 | Fine-tuning the pre-trained DistilBERT and BERT models with |
| [155] | Applications Finetuning | | tilBERT | | the partitioned protest news reports in a federated manner. |
| Fedtherapist | | LoRA | BERT, | IRB | Fine-tuning a mobile mental health monitoring system that |
| [158] | | | RoBERTa. | | utilizes continuous speech and keyboard input in a privacy- |
| | | | LLaMa-7B | | preserving way via FL. |
| FedJudge [159] | | LoRA | Baichuan- | $C3VG$, | Utilizes PEFT to fine-tune Legal LLMs efficiently and effec- |
| | | | 7B | Lawyer | tively during the FL training. |
| | | | | LLaMA | |
| FedED [160] | | Full parameter | BERT | 2010i2b2, | Propose a privacy preserving medical relation extraction model |
| | | | | GAD, EU- | based on FL. |
| | | | | ADR | |
| Ahmed et al. | | Full parameter | BERT | SemEval | Present a news article retrieval model based on active learning |
| [161] | | | | 2019 Task 4 | in a semisupervised FL setting. |
| FedHumor | | $\overline{}$ | BERT | SemEval- | Propose the FedHumor approach for the recognition of humor- |
| [162] | | | | 2020 shared Task 7 | ous content in a personalized manner through FL. |
| Efficient- | | | BERT | MIND | An efficient FL framework using split method for privacy |
| FedRec [163] | | \overline{a} | | Adressa | preserving news recommendation. |
| Fewfedweight | | \overline{a} | BART-base | Huggingface | Propose a FL framework for multi-task learning in the few-shot |
| [164] | | | | 118 tasks | and private setting. |
| | | | | | |

TABLE II: Taxonomy of Federated LLM Fine-tuning Research.

ignated layers of the basic model.

FedLoRA [171] aims to address the issues of statistical, system, and model heterogeneity in LLM PEFT. It works by incorporating a small and consistent adapter into each client's heterogeneous local model. These models are trained using an iterative procedure that facilitates the transfer of global and local knowledge. The FL server then aggregates these small and uniform local adapters into a global one. This technique allows FL clients to leverage diverse local models with reduced computational and communication costs.

pFedPG [172] is designed to harness the strong representational power of LLMs to enable efficient personalization for clients with varying capabilities. It achieves this through a dual-stage optimization process that involves adapting personalized prompts at the local level and generating them at the global level. A specialized prompt generator at the server side plays a pivotal role in this process, utilizing personalized optimization trajectories to produce unique prompts tailored for each client's model. This approach ensures that each client's model is updated effectively, taking into account the specific needs and constraints of the client's environment.

Heterogeneous-LoRA [173] explores the performance tradeoff of federated fine-tuning with higher and lower LoRA ranks. It deploys heterogeneous ranks across clients, aggregates the heterogeneous LoRA modules via zero-padding, and redistributes the LoRA modules heterogeneously through truncation. By combining the benefits of high-rank and lowrank LoRAs, it achieves an optimal balance, demonstrating a simple yet effective approach.

AdaFL [165] addresses the critical issue of determining the ideal depth and breadth for fine-tuning adapters, which significantly influences the speed and efficiency of training. The optimal configuration is contingent upon the specific downstream NLP tasks, the desired accuracy of the model, and the available mobile resources. AdaFL employs a gradual approach to modify the adapter configuration throughout a training session. Initially, it focuses on rapidly learning shallow knowledge by training a limited number of smaller adapters in the upper layers of the model. Subsequently, it incorporates progressively larger and deeper adapters to grasp more complex knowledge. Additionally, AdaFL continuously evaluates various adapter configurations by designating participant

devices to different experimental groups.

PERADA [174] is an effective personalized FL framework that minimizes communication and computational costs while improving generalization performance, especially under testtime distribution shifts. It enhances generalization by aligning each client's personalized adapter with a global one. The global adapter in turn employs knowledge distillation to aggregate generalized information from all clients. The validity of this approach is supported by both theoretical and empirical evidences.

Besides addressing the heterogeneity and personalization issues of federated LLM with PEFT, decomposing a substantial LLM into multiple sub-models is an uncomplicated yet promising strategy for implementing practical federated LLM. FedBERT [175] employs the concepts of federated and split learning to pre-train BERT in a distributed fashion. After the global model's pre-training phase, each client has the ability to independently fine-tune their model for local NLP tasks. This method is inclusive, supporting all participants, regardless of their computational power or data volume, to partake in the pre-training process.

FEDBFPT [176] is a framework that trains selected layers of BERT in an efficient way, which lowers the computational and communication costs. It allows the training of a large global model using FL by creating small local models for each client. These local models train specific layers of the global model, which leads to less computational resource consumption and fewer weights to send. The efficiency of FEDBFPT is supported by theoretical analysis and experiments on corpora from various domains.

FEDOBD [177] is a novel framework that splits largescale deep models into semantic blocks, and assesses block importance (rather than individual parameter importance) and selectively eliminates unimportant blocks to achieve more significant reduction of communication cost while maintaining model performance. Comprehensive experimental evaluation shows that FEDOBD surpasses state-of-the-art baselines in terms of communication cost and test accuracy.

FedPerfix [178] attempts to investigate the partial personalization of large-scale models. It conducts empirical evaluations to determine how sensitive different layers are to data distribution. The findings suggest that the self-attention layer and the classification head in a Vision Transformer (ViT) are particularly sensitive. To address this, FedPerfix employs plugins as a means to personalize the model by transferring information from the aggregated model to individual clients.

In addition, there are also a number of works that address the heterogeneity and personalization issues of federated LLM by using techniques such as model compression [179], [180] and knowledge distillation [181], [182]. For instance, RaFFM [183] introduces specialized model compression algorithms tailored for FL scenarios, such as salient parameter prioritization and high-performance subnetwork extraction. These algorithms enable dynamic scaling of given transformer-based FMs to fit heterogeneous resource constraints at the network edge during both FL's optimization and deployment stages. Fed-ET [184] is a method that utilizes ensemble knowledge transfer within a FL framework. It involves training smaller

models with varied architectures on client devices and then using these models to inform the training of a larger, more comprehensive model on a central server. This approach is distinct from traditional ensemble learning because it leverages the heterogeneous data from various clients. Fed-ET incorporates a weighted consensus distillation strategy along with diversity regularization to ensure that the consensus derived from the ensemble is reliable and to improve the model's generalization capabilities by making use of diverse data sets. However, these methods have many applications of general personalized FL [135], [185], [186], but few works have adopted these methods in federated LLM so far. In the taxonomy Tab. II, the personalized federated LLM works are cataloged, summarizing the technical aspects, key information, and contributions of each cited study.

E. Back-propagation-free Methods

Due to the huge amount of parameters and data, the high computational cost and memory overhead of LLM training and fine-tuning are often unacceptable, even with methods such as compression, quantization, and knowledge distillation. To tackle this issue, several studies have explored backpropagation-free techniques for training and fine-tuning federated large language models. These approaches enhance LLMs without the dependency on backpropagation. The BPfree propagation algorithm obviates the necessity to store activation values during computation, thereby mitigating the substantial memory overhead typically associated with backpropagation. For instance, inference-only methods like zerothorder optimization can reduce memory usage by up to 12.5 times compared to BP-based methods [187]. Despite the promise shown by BP-free training methods in optimizing LLMs, they are still in the early stages of development. A significant challenge lies in the scalability of these methods to high-dimensional models, as they exhibit greater sensitivity to dimensionality and reduced robustness compared to BPbased methods [188]. Various optimizations have been proposed to address these challenges, including tuning the low intrinsic dimension of LLMs [189]. The potential impacts of backpropagation-free methods are significant. Firstly, they can drastically reduce the computational cost and memory requirements associated with training large-scale models. This makes it feasible to train and fine-tune models on resourceconstrained devices. Secondly, these methods can enhance the robustness and generalization capabilities of models by introducing diverse optimization strategies that are less prone to overfitting.

FwdLLM [190] is a pioneering study that integrates backpropagation-free (BP-free) training, specifically zerothorder optimization, with methods that are efficient in terms of the amount of updated parameters. This combination is essential for scaling up to the era of LLMs. The BP-free approach is particularly compatible with PEFT techniques, which require only a minimal number of parameters to be fine-tuned. Furthermore, FwdLLM is designed to distribute computational tasks across devices in a systematic and adaptive manner, striking an optimal balance between the speed

| Reference | Heterogeneity | Knowledge Transfer | Model | Main Dataset | Key Contribution |
|----------------|----------------------|------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|---|
| | | Techniques | | | |
| Fed-PepTAO | Data | Prompt tuning | GPT2. | $\overline{10}$ | Propose a parameter-efficient prompt tuning approach with |
| [167] | heterogeneity | | LLaMA 7B | commonly- | Adaptive Optimization, to enable efficient and effective FL of |
| | | | | used tasks | LLMs. |
| Profit [168] | Data | Prompt tuning | PaLM | (HHF, MHF, | Benchmarking fundamental FL algorithms (FedAvg and |
| | heterogeneity | | | LHF) SNI | FedSGD) plus personalization using LLM PEFT methods under |
| | | | | | varying levels of data heterogeneity. |
| FedDAT [169] | Data | Prompt-tuning | ViLT | Vision- 14 | Finetuning framework tailored to heterogeneous multi-modal |
| | heterogeneity | with KD | | Language | FL leveraging a Dual-Adapter Teacher (DAT) to address data |
| | | | | benchmarks | heterogeneity |
| FedRA [170] | System hetero- | Adapter with | ViT | $NICO++$. | Propose a novel federated tuning algorithm, FedRA, to meet |
| | geneity | allocation | | DomainNet | the needs of heterogeneous clients with varying computation |
| | | matrix | | | and communication resources. |
| pFedLoRA | Model | LoRA | Heterogeneous | $CIFAR-10$. | Propose a novel and efficient model-heterogeneous personalized |
| [171] | heterogeneity | | CNNs | CIFAR-100 | FL framework based on LoRA tuning using homogeneous small |
| | | | | | local adapters. |
| pFedPG [172] | Data/system | Prompt tuning | $ViT-B/16$ | Office- | Jointly optimizes the stages of personalized prompt adaptation |
| | heterogeneity | | | Caltech ₁₀ . | locally and personalized prompt generation globally. |
| | | | | DomainNet | |
| Heterogeneous- | System hetero- | LoRA | Pal.M2 | MSC | Examine federated fine-tuning with homogeneous LoRA ranks, |
| LoRA [173] | geneity | | | | and deploy hetergeneous ranks across clients, which is simple |
| | | | | | vet effective. |
| FedBERT [175] | \blacksquare | Split learning | BERT, | GLUE | Grant clients with limited computing capability to participate in |
| | | | GPT ₂ | | pre-training a large model combining FL and split learning. |
| FedBFPT [176] | System hetero- | Compression | BERT | S ₂ ORC. | Effcient FL framework for further pre-training the BERT lan- |
| | geneity | | | ERC, $Rct-$ | guage model on the client without sharing private corpora |
| | | | | 20k | |
| FedOBD [177] | System hetero- | Compression | Transformer | CIFAR. | It decomposes large-scale models into semantic blocks so that |
| | geneity | | based | IMDB | FL participants can opportunistically upload quantized blocks |

TABLE III: Taxonomy of Personalized and Efficient Federated LLM Research

of convergence and the accuracy of the model. Consequently, FwdLLM facilitates federated training of LLMs with billions of parameters on standard mobile devices.

ZOOPFL [191] aims to investigate the impact of LLMs on FL performance and efficiency. The researchers conducted a series of experiments on four typical NLP tasks using different LLMs and FL methods. It was found that LLMs can significantly improve the accuracy and generalizability of FL models, but also introduce high computational cost and communication overhead. The results suggest that LLMs should be carefully selected and adapted for FL scenarios, and that novel techniques such as compression, quantization, and distillation should be applied to reduce the resource consumption.

FEDBPT [192] aims to address the challenges of applying FL to fine-tune LLMs, such as restricted model parameter access, high computational requirements, and communication overheads. The framework does not require clients to access the model parameters. Rather, it trains optimal prompts using gradient-free optimization methods (Black-Box Tuning), which reduces the number of variables to be communicated, enhances communication efficiency, and minimizes computational and storage costs.

FedKSeed [193] is a zeroth-order optimization-based FL method for LLM, which enables full-parameter tuning of billion-parameter LLMs on federated devices with extremely low communication cost. It communicates only K seeds and their corresponding scalar gradients between the server and the clients. Moreover, it investigates the differentiated importance of perturbations in ZOO, and proposes a simple and effective strategy that samples seeds with non-uniform probabilities,

which reduces the number of required seeds.

F. Limitations and Lessons Learned

The preceding section has provided a comprehensive overview of the state-of-the-art in LLM pre-training and finetuning with FL. In this subsection, we discuss the limitations of current methodologies and the lessons learned from recent advancements in this field.

The diverse range of frameworks examined underscores the ongoing need for innovation in FL systems. Each framework provides distinct solutions to the challenges of privacy, efficiency, and scalability. The evolution of frameworks like FedLLM, FATE-LLM, and FS-LLM highlights the critical importance of infrastructure development that not only supports but also enhances the capabilities of LLMs within federated environments. Currently, most research is centered around fine-tuning LLMs using FL or combining it with PEFT to achieve personalized FL. However, studies on pretraining LLMs with FL remain scarce due to the significant computational and communication costs involved. In an era of diminishing data availability, federated LLM pre-training presents a promising and practical approach, as it allows the incorporation of private domain data while safeguarding data privacy.

Furthermore, the establishment of benchmarks such as FedIT and the utilization of evaluation metrics in Open-FedLLM underscore the necessity for standardized testing environments. These benchmarks are crucial for accurately assessing the performance of federated LLM systems and ensuring that advancements are both meaningful and measurable. In the future, there will be a need for larger-scale and more

standardized benchmarks to further enhance the evaluation process.

Additionally, to reduce the resource overhead of federated LLMs, PEFT and back-propagation-free methods have been explored. PEFT-based approaches, such as FedPETuning and FedTune, offer a promising path to reducing computational costs and enabling training on devices with limited resources, thereby broadening the accessibility of LLMs. The exploration of back-propagation-free methods like FwdLLM and FedKSeed introduces a paradigm shift in the training of LLMs. These methods can be combined with existing techniques such as model quantization, pruning, and knowledge distillation to further reduce resource overhead. Additionally, the heterogeneity present in FL environments poses a significant challenge. Solutions like Fed-PepTAO, Profit, and FedDAT, which integrate with LLM PEFT methods, showcase the potential of personalized approaches to address the heterogeneity in data, systems, and models.

V. FEDERATED LLM PRIVACY AND ROBUSTNESS: STATE-OF-THE-ART

One of the crucial aspects in the research of FL and LLM is how to ensure both privacy and robustness. FL aims to address the privacy issues in ML training, and both FL and LLM inherently face their distinct challenges to privacy and robustness. The interaction between LLMs and FL systems may exacerbate the potential vulnerabilities in these systems, resulting in new challenges. In this section, we will first present the privacy leakage and security problems that Federated LLM may encounter, and then we will summarize the defense methods against these issues.

A. Federated LLM Privacy

FL is a training approach for models that prioritizes privacy, eliminating the need for data exchange and allowing members to freely join or leave the network. Nonetheless, recent inquiries indicate that FL might not be completely reliable in protecting privacy. Analyzing from the FL standpoint, the current protocols of FL exhibit susceptibilities in two distinct areas. Initially, a hostile server could aim to retrieve confidential data from individual contributions incrementally, sway the training operations, or alter the collective understanding of the global model weights. Secondly, a participant with adversarial intentions might infer confidential data about other members, and disrupt the aggregation process of the global model weights. Specifically, the act of sharing gradients during training can inadvertently reveal private data, potentially resulting in significant privacy leakage [194], [195], which may affect not just external entities but also the central server managing the process [196], [197]. It has been noted that even a minimal subset of gradients can unveil extensive details about the local dataset [198]. Furthermore, recent works also have shown that an adversary could, through gradient observations alone, reconstruct the original training dataset [195], [199]. On the other hand, LLMs like GPT-3 carry potential privacy risks due to their design to assimilate and generate text from extensive, varied datasets. These models might inadvertently encode and

disclose confidential details found within their training data, leading to privacy issues in text creation process. Challenges including unintended data memorization and information leakage are critical [200]. Thus, it is crucial to strike a tradeoff between the inference performance of these advanced LMs and the capabilities to protect user privacy, to ensure their reliable and ethical deployment across different sectors. We propose a basic taxonomy that facilitates the comprehension of the various types of privacy attacks, categorized by the attacker's objectives.

1) Training Data Recovery Attacks: Training data recovery attacks, also referred to as reconstruction attacks, target the retrieval of a client's LLM training data within a practical FL environment. These attacks are predominantly gradientbased, exploiting the data transmitted between clients and the federated server. Deep learning typically utilizes optimization algorithms reliant on gradients, and federated participating clients transmit their gradients to the federated server each round, adhering to a federated Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)-based training protocol. Attackers with access to these gradients, or the ability to deduce gradient information, may be able to reconstruct the confidential training data. It has been demonstrated by several studies [201]–[204] that gradients from deep learning models can be exploited to reconstruct original private training data within an FL framework. These techniques are primarily effective with image data, and there is limited research on gradient leakage for LLMs, particularly in a federated context. TAG [205] is designed to address and resolve the gradient attack issue on Transformer-based LMs, aiming to recover local training data. TAG introduces a quantitative evaluation approach for the NLP gradient attack challenge, utilizing metrics such as Recovery Rate, ROUGE-1, ROUGE-2, ROUGE-L, and runtime to measure the attack algorithm's success. According to these metrics, TAG has achieved a Recovery Rate that is 1.5 times higher and a ROUGE-2 score that is 2.5 times greater than previous methods. Tests conducted on models like Transformer, TinyBERT₄, TinyBERT₆, BERT_{BASE}, and BERT_{LARGE} using the GLUE benchmark have confirmed TAG's effectiveness.

LAMP [206] leverages language model priors to retrieve private text from gradients. The fundamental concept behind this type of attack is to integrate the predictive capabilities of a language model with a search strategy that oscillates between continuous and discrete optimization phases. In particular, it produces a list of candidate sentences by applying different transformations on the token sequence (e.g., moving a token) and selects a candidate that minimizes the joint reconstruction loss and perplexity, which reflects the likelihood of the text in a natural distribution. The experiments are based on $BERT_{LARGE}$ and GPT-2 and the experiment results illustrate the effectiveness of this method in extracting text from stateof-the-art transformer models on several common datasets, achieving up to 5 times more bigrams than previous work.

FILM [207] is the first method to demonstrate the possibility of recovering text from large batch sizes of up to 128 sentences. Unlike image-recovery methods that are designed to match gradients, it adopts a different approach that first extracts a set of words from gradients and then directly

reconstructs sentences based on beam search and a prior-based reordering strategy. Three defense methods: gradient pruning, DPSGD, and a simple approach to freeze word embeddings are evaluated. Both gradient pruning and DPSGD result in a significant loss of utility. However, when fine-tuning a public pre-trained LM on private text without updating word embeddings, it can successfully defend the attack with minimal data utility loss.

The DECEPTICONS [208] framework introduces a novel attack strategy that compromises user privacy by transmitting harmful parameter vectors. This method is effective even with mini-batches, multiple users, and extended sequences. It uniquely leverages the Transformer architecture and token embeddings to separately recover tokens and positional embeddings, resulting in high-quality text reconstruction. This approach underscores the significance of the malicious server threat model, emphasizing the vulnerability of text applications using Transformer models to privacy breaches. The experiments demonstrate the feasibility of recovering all tokens and most of their absolute positions, even in large sequences and with models that are only 10% the size of BERT.

FLAT-CHAT [209] is a novel and efficient gradient flattening attack method. It is inspired by the sparsity property of gradients from the last linear layer, and applies a matrix flattening operation on the gradient matrix. The method is based on a theory that the flattened gradient vector elements follow a two-cluster Gaussian Mixture Model and three observations on the statistical properties of the distribution. To reduce the risk, two defense methods are evaluated, gradient freezing [207] and Differentially Private Stochastic Gradient Descent [210], against the attack. The former method is a robust defense method but it compromises the models' performance. The latter can mitigate our attacks while achieving improved model performance.

2) Membership Inference Attacks: Membership Inference Attacks (MIAs) are designed to ascertain whether a particular dataset was utilized during the training of a model, based on the client's model and some data. In an FL framework, both active and passive MIAs can be conducted [194], [211]. Passive MIAs entail monitoring the model's updated parameters and deducing information without interrupting the learning process. On the other hand, active MIAs involve tampering with the FL training protocol, constituting a more aggressive form of assault on the other participants. Regarding LMs, MIAs are primarily focused on text generation and subsequent text classification tasks [212], [213]. While LMs are generally resistant to basic probing techniques [214], they are still vulnerable to privacy threats from MIAs specifically crafted for LMs. A common technique in Membership Inference Attacks (MIA) is known as the threshold attack. This method is particularly relevant for word embedding models, which are susceptible to privacy breaches [215], [216]. It works by transforming text data into vector embeddings and then calculating a similarity score between these vector pairs. If the average similarity score exceeds a predefined threshold, the data is considered to have been part of the training set. The study by Song *et al.* [217] examined the vulnerability of three prominent word embedding models, namely Word2Vec

[218], FastText [219], and GloVe [220], and all of which were trained using the Wikipedia corpus by Mahoney [221]. Additionally, they scrutinized a dual-encoder framework for sentence embeddings [222], which was trained on the Book-Corpus dataset. The findings highlighted that these models, often considered merely as beneficial tools for model training, could also pose risks of privacy breaches. Other works [223]– [225] also employ a similar idea to use some form of reference model to compute the threshold test statistic. Another one of the methods for MIA relies on the shadow model technique, which typically builds several "shadow" models that emulate the target model, given a known training dataset and its membership labels. The attack model is trained using labeled data, distinguishing between 'member' (part of the training set) and 'non-member' (not part of the training set), along with the inputs and outputs from shadow models. Song and Shmatikov [226] pioneered the study of membership inference in natural language text generation, followed by Meeus *et al.* [227], Carlini *et al.* [228], and Abascal *et al.* [229]. Moreover, several defense mechanisms against MIAs, including information perturbation, have been suggested to shield natural language models at various phases of the target model's development. However, the these attack models mainly concentrated on LMs and only a few on LLMs, and there is hardly any work that discusses the integration of FL and LLMs. It is imperative to conduct comprehensive research and scrutiny to ascertain the effects of the attack methods on federated LLMs and to identify viable countermeasures.

3) Property Inference Attacks: Property inference attacks are another potential privacy threat for LLMs, although they have received less attention than membership inference and training data extraction attacks. Attribute inference attacks in the context of FL are designed to deduce specific characteristics of a client or the collective attributes of participants that are not directly related to the primary function of the machine learning model. The objective is to uncover personal or demographic details that are intended to remain confidential. For instance, these attacks might aim to infer sensitive information such as an individual's name, contact number, residential address, or private financial and medical records. Therefore, attribute leakage has also been a serious problem to be solved in LLMs. Staab *et al.* [230] conducted a comprehensive research on the attack risks. It leverages publicly available content authored by individuals, like messages on digital social platforms. This information is incorporated into a structured prompt that instructs an LLM to deduce the personal characteristics of the post's author. Utilizing the data from user profiles, which include details such as age, educational background, gender, profession, and geographical location, GPT-4 was able to correctly identify these attributes with a Top-1 accuracy rate of 84.6%.

B. Defence Methods Against Federated LLM Privacy Attacks

Privacy preservation methods have been thoroughly investigated in the machine learning field, but it becomes even more complex in FL settings, where factors such as intermittent power and network availability, and heterogeneous data distributions, affect the learning process. In this section, we review

Fig. 7: FL without DP and with different DP mechanisms.

some of the mainstream techniques for preserving privacy, such as differential privacy (DP), homomorphic encryption (HE), and secure multi-party computation (SMPC), and how they can be integrated in federated LLM scenarios.

1) Differential Privacy: DP is a technique that was initially developed for the single database setting, where a database server responds to each query with a randomized answer that preserves privacy [231]. Unlike encryption-based methods, DP achieves a balance between privacy-preserving and model accuracy by adding noise to the data in a manner that prevents an adversary from reconstructing the original data and maintains a high level of utility. It ensures that any output from a differentially private algorithm is nearly the same, whether or not an individual's data is included in the dataset. Formally, a randomized algorithm $M : D \to R$ satisfies ϵ -differential privacy if for any two adjacent datasets $x, y \in D$ that differ by only one record, and any subset of outputs $S \subseteq R$, the following inequality holds:

$$
\Pr[M(x) \in S] \le e^{\epsilon} \Pr[M(y) \in S] \tag{5}
$$

This indicates that the likelihood of a specific result being produced by the algorithm is limited by a factor of e^{ϵ} , which is independent of whether any single entry is included in the dataset or not. The parameter ϵ controls the degree of privacy: lower values of ϵ correspond to more robust privacy safeguards, albeit with the trade-off of increased distortion in the final result.

There are mainly two types of DP in FL scenarios, namely Global Differential Privacy (GDP) and Local Differential Privacy (LDP). GDP [232]–[236] has an advantage of preserving privacy with a limited cost to model performance, as it adds limited noise to the aggregated data, ensuring a good statistical distribution. On the other hand, LDP [237]–[241] methods offer a stronger privacy guarantee than GDP-based FL methods, as individuals can apply noise to their sensitive data locally to meet DP standards prior to sharing it with a potentially untrustworthy data collector. Moreover, a variety of LM works adopt DP to protect privacy against training data recovery attacks, membership inference attacks, and property inference attacks, which include data perturbation and output perturbation [242]. By using the stochastic gradient descent optimization algorithm [243], models with DP can reduce the empirical privacy leakage while maintaining comparable

model utility in the non-DP setting. Fig. 7 shows the different DP mechanisms. In addition, a few studies have also explored the integration of LLM and FL using DP for preserving privacy.

Basu *et al.* [244] investigate the impact of applying DP in FL scenarios on training contextualized language models (BERT, ALBERT, RoBERTa and DistilBERT). They benchmark the effect of privacy mechanisms such as DP on the performance of the federated BERT-based models. The experiments with different privacy budgets show how the privacy budgets influence the utility of models trained on Tweets related to depression and sexual harassment. The authors provide guidance on how to train NLP models privately and what architectures and setups yield more favorable privacyutility trade-offs.

Basu *et al.* [245] propose a financial text classification system that preserves privacy, using transformers (BERT and RoBERTa) with differential privacy, in both centralized and FL scenarios, testing different privacy budgets to examine the privacy-utility trade-off and their performance in classifying financial document-based text sequences. For the federated scenarios, both IID and non-IID data distributions are explored.

DP-LoRA [246] is a novel FL algorithm designed for LLMs. It employs a Gaussian mechanism to add noise in weight updates, which preserves individual data privacy and enables collaborative model training. Furthermore, DP-LoRA reduces communication costs by using low-rank adaptation, which minimizes the amount of updated weights transmitted during distributed training. The experiments on various LLMs across medical, financial, and general datasets show that DP-LoRA can effectively satisfy strict privacy requirements while reducing communication overhead. The method ensures data privacy in LLM fine-tuning through feasible FL approaches, which allow multiple parties to securely improve LLMs.

2) Homomorphic Encryption: Homomorphic encryption (HE) allows for computations to be performed on encrypted data, maintaining the homomorphic trait, which means the outcome, once decrypted, matches the result of operations conducted on the original, unencrypted data. The homomorphic properties are mathematically defined as follows:

$$
E_{pk}(m_1 + m_2) = c_1 \oplus c_2, \tag{6}
$$

$$
E_{pk}(a \cdot m_2) = a \otimes c_2, \tag{7}
$$

where a is a constant, m_1 , m_2 denote the original messages that require encryption, and c_1 , c_2 refer to the resultant encrypted messages corresponding to m_1 and m_2 , respectively. Homomorphic encryption can be categorized into partial homomorphic encryption (PHE), somewhat homomorphic encryption (SHE), and fully homomorphic encryption (FHE) based on the type and number of ciphertext operations that they support. PHE only supports one kind of ciphertext homomorphic operation, such as additive homomorphic encryption (AHE) or multiplicative homomorphic encryption (MHE), exemplified by Paillier [247] and ElGamal [248], respectively. SHE extends this capability to support an unlimited number of additions and at least one multiplication in the encrypted domain, and it can evolve into an FHE system through bootstrapping. FHE, which adheres to Gentry's framework, is capable of executing an indefinite sequence of both additions and multiplications on ciphertexts. HE is extensively utilized, especially for enhancing the security of learning processes by allowing computations on encrypted data, thus safeguarding against privacy breaches in FL involving LLMs. Nonetheless, the computational operations on encrypted data introduce significant overheads in terms of memory usage and processing time, necessitating a balance between security and performance in HE-based systems.

3) Secure Multi-Party Computation: The concept of Secure Multi-Party Computation (SMPC) emerged from the millionaire's dilemma as outlined in [249]. SMPC's objective is to facilitate collaborative computation of a function among multiple data proprietors who lack mutual trust, all while maintaining the confidentiality of their respective datasets. The foundational mechanisms that facilitate the SMPC framework include Garbled Circuit (GC) [250], Oblivious Transfer (OT) [251], and Secret Sharing (SS) [252]. However, these techniques have drawbacks and often need to be combined with other techniques to build efficient SFL algorithms. Generally, SMC methods are known for their high privacy and accuracy levels. However, they incur high computation and communication costs, which may discourage participation. Another major challenge for SMPC-based schemes is the need for all participants to coordinate synchronously throughout the LLM training process. This multiparty interaction model may not be suitable for practical scenarios, especially under the typical participant-server architecture in FL settings. Moreover, SMCbased protocols can enable a group of participants to jointly perform calculations on a shared function without disclosing individual inputs, except for for inferences made from the output [253]. However, SMPC is not entirely foolproof against data leakage, which calls for the integration of DP mechanisms into the collective protocol to mitigate such vulnerabilities [254], [255]. Despite these challenges, SMPC remains a promising strategy for protecting privacy in FL involving LLMs.

C. Federated LLM Robustness

Robustness is the ability of the LLM to produce the desired content accurately, even under various types of attacks. Unlike privacy attacks that aim at data confidentiality, these attacks on robustness are not interested in data access, but in manipulating the model's output to mislead users and achieve the attackers' malicious goals. In this section, we discuss the robustness issues faced by federated LLMs under three typical attack methods, namely Byzantine attacks, poisoning attacks, and prompt attacks.

1) Byzantine Attacks and Defences: Adversarial attacks for robustness can be classified into two main categories, depending on the attacker's objective, namely untargeted attacks [256]–[258] and targeted attacks [112], [259]–[262]. Byzantine attacks [263]–[266] are usually defined as untargeted attacks that send maliciously crafted gradients to the model aggregator, aiming to degrade the performance of the global model or compromise its integrity. In this scenario, the server cannot verify the trustworthiness of the clients. Byzantine problems often arise during the client update phase. Certain clients might be vulnerable to external attacks or internal errors. Such compromised clients are capable of sending tainted updates to the server. If these malicious updates are inadvertently merged by the server, it could derail the entire federated optimization workflow. The concept of a Byzantine attack is formally described as follows:

$$
\Delta w_i = \begin{cases} * & \text{if } i \text{th participant is Byzantine} \\ \nabla F_i(w_i) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}
$$
 (8)

where "*" represents any values, Δw_i denotes the gradient update, and F_i represents the local model objective function of participant i . The impact of the Byzantine attacks on distributed learning can be described as follows:

$$
w = w - \Lambda(\Delta w_1, \Delta w_2, ..., \Delta w_p).
$$
 (9)

Byzantine Detection and Robust Aggregation are two prevalent strategies to counteract Byzantine attacks within FL. The primary goal of robust aggregation approaches [267]–[269] is to minimize the influence of Byzantine clients on the collective model update process. These methods presuppose that the corrupted updates are geometrically distant from the legitimate ones. Consequently, the focus is on developing an aggregation rule robust enough to mitigate the impact of these attacks. For instance, in distributed learning environments, algorithms like Krum [270] and Bulyan [271] select local updates closest in Euclidean distance to the majority and use them for the global model update. Nonetheless, these robust aggregation methods often experience a decline in performance when a significant number of clients are compromised or when the client data is highly Non-IID. This necessitates further exploration and enhancement of robust aggregation techniques. In contrast, Byzantine detection methods are designed to pinpoint and eliminate harmful local updates, thereby preventing compromised clients from impairing the FL system [272]–[274]. These detection-based methods tend to offer greater resilience than their aggregation-focused counterparts. However, these

approaches require extra computational resources and data demand on the server and client side. As a common problem in FL security related work, it is rarely discussed in more complex and unpredictable federated LLM scenarios, which makes it an open problem that calls for further studies on federated LLM robustness.

2) Poisoning Attacks and Defences: Poisoning attacks represent a common form of targeted disruption in FL. These attacks are twofold: data poisoning, which occurs during the collection of local data, and model poisoning, which takes place throughout the local model training phase. Specifically, model poisoning encompasses data poisoning within FL environments, as it modifies a portion of the updates transmitted to the model during any iteration. Conventionally, poisoning attacks on mainstream ML models are designed to deceive the model by tampering with the training data, often targeting classification models. For instance, attackers might contaminate a spam filter by incorporating "good" words into the training dataset [275], [276], or they might compromise network intrusion detection systems [277]. Recent studies have revealed that LLMs are particularly susceptible to poisoning, largely because their training data is predominantly sourced from the Internet—a platform where content can be freely posted, thus exposing it to potential poisoning. Research has demonstrated the feasibility of poisoning expansive datasets such as LAION-400M [278], COYO-700M [279], and Wikipedia by domain purchases or crowdsourcing efforts [280]. It has been shown that contaminating a mere 0.1% of unlabeled data in semi-supervised learning can cause the model to incorrectly classify any given example during testing [281]. Moreover, even a slight 0.01% dataset contamination can cause models like CLIP to misclassify test images [281]. Backdoor attacks, a subset or variation of poisoning attacks, threaten the integrity of a model by embedding harmful functions within it using poisoned samples. These attacks can trigger inappropriate model behavior in response to specific inputs while maintaining normal function otherwise [282]. While data poisoning poses a challenge for LLMs due to the vast volume and stringent management of training data, alternative backdoor attack methods remain a viable threat. These methods introduce malicious logic into the model by altering inputs during testing, potentially leading to targeted misclassification when LLMs execute certain tasks [283], [284].

A few studies have pioneered the exploration of poisoning attacks in the scenario of federated LLM. FedMLSecurity [285] is an FL security module of FedML, which consists of two main components: FedMLAttacker and FedMLDefender. It allows for the evaluation of various attack methods in FL, such as Byzantine attacks, and label flipping backdoor attack, and defense mechanisms such as Krum (and m-Krum) and geometric median. Furthermore, FedMLSecurity supports a broad spectrum of ML models, including basic ResNet and GAN and shows the versatility of FedMLSecurity for LLMs and real-world applications through experiments.

Li *et al.* [286] introduce a new backdoor attack strategy for HFL, named Fed-EBD, that eliminates the need for compromising any client or sustaining long-term involvement in

the FL process. This strategy implants and disseminates the backdoor via a synthetic public dataset created by a foundation model, which could elude existing backdoor countermeasures in FL by simulating normal client behaviors. Furthermore, Li *et al.* [287] assess the robustness of FL integrating LLMs by measuring their susceptibility to backdoor attacks. Based on this, they devise an attack that does not demand the attacker to fully subvert any client or persistently partake in the longterm FL process. It is efficacious in realistic FL settings, as the backdoor is embedded and transmitted to each client at the FL initialization and it is difficult to discern due to the limited research on the robustness of the LLMs. Another similar work by Wu *et al.* [288] also specializes in novel backdoor attacks for federated LLMs.

Zhou *et al.* [289] propose a robust pre-training strategy for foundation models that can resist attacks without demanding downstream users to adopt additional defensive measures. The defense strategy aims to increase the feature distance between poisons and targets. This is accomplished by altering the feature distribution of the pre-trained model through two methods, namely augmenting the feature distance between samples of different classes and generating poison samples with adversarial samples to shrink the feature distance between poison samples and clean samples.

Huang *et al.* [290] propose a secure distributed large language model (LLM) framework based on model slicing. This framework employs the Trusted Execution Environment (TEE) on both the client and server sides, incorporating the finetuned structure (either LoRA or the embedding of P-tuning v2) within the TEE. Secure communication is facilitated between the TEE and general environments through lightweight encryption. To further reduce equipment costs and enhance model performance and accuracy, the authors introduce a split finetuning scheme. Specifically, the LLM is partitioned by layers, with the latter layers placed in a server-side TEE, thereby eliminating the need for a TEE on the client side.

All the above works attempt to analyze the vulnerability of federated LLMs and design new poison attack methods. The vulnerabilities pose new threats to the security and reliability of the federated LLMs system. However, there are few works in this direction currently. Therefore, exploring how to discover new vulnerabilities and achieve corresponding good effects of adversarial defense is worthwhile.

3) Prompt Attacks and Defences: LLMs are sensitive to the engineering of prompts, and it has been shown that LLMs can be inconsistent with their answers when prompted differently. Prompt attacks involve strategically designing and manipulating input prompts to modify the output of LLMs. The intent behind this tactic is to direct the model towards producing specific outputs or achieving particular objectives. Even models that have undergone extensive training may yield deceptive or harmful outputs when presented with certain tailored prompts. One of the common methods of this kind of attacks is prompt injection [291]–[294], where the attacker gains control over the output of a language model, enabling them to dictate the content it generates. This method involves bypassing safeguards by using specially crafted prompts that cause the model to ignore previous instructions or execute

| Classification | Core | Model | Main | Key Contribution |
|-----------------------|----------|---------------------------|------------------|---|
| | | | | |
| | | | | Study the effects that the application of DP has, in FL setup on |
| | | RoBERTa | Dataset | training contextualized language models. |
| Privacy | DP | BERT | Financial | Propose a contextualized transformer (BERT and RoBERTa) |
| | | | Phrase Bank | based text classification model integrated with privacy features |
| | | | | such as Differential Privacy (DP) and FL. |
| Privacy | DP | GPT2, BERT, | SlimPajama, | DP-LoRA preserves data privacy by employing a Gaussian |
| | | ChatGLM-6B, | Medical, | mechanism and optimizes communication efficiency via low- |
| | | LLAMA2-7B | Finance | rank adaptation. |
| Privacy/ ro- | | BERT, Pythia- | 20News. | FedMLSecurity is an end-to-end benchmark (an open-source |
| bustness | | 1B | PubMedQA | library) designed to simulate adversarial attacks and correspond- |
| | | | | ing defense mechanisms in FL. |
| Robustness | Backdoor | DistilBERT | $SST-2$ $AG-$ | Introduce a novel backdoor attack mechanism for HFL that |
| | | | News | circumvents the need for client compromise or ongoing par- |
| | | | | ticipation in the FL process. |
| Robustness | Backdoor | DistilBERT | $SST-2$ $AG-$ | Investigate the robustness of FL incorporating FMs by assessing |
| | | | News | their susceptibility to backdoor attacks, and propose a novel |
| | | | | attack in FM-FL. |
| Robustness | Backdoor | DistilBERT, | AG-News | Conduct the firstd investigation on the vulnerability of FM-FL |
| | | $GPT-4$ | | under adversarial threats, and introduce a novel attack strategy |
| | | | | that exploits FM safety issues. |
| Robustness | \sim | ChatGLM-6B | CHIP-CTC, | This framework employs the TEE on both the client and server |
| | | | KUAKE-IR | sides, incorporating the fine-tuned structure (either LoRA or the |
| | | | | embedding of P-tuning v2) within the TEE. |
| | Privacy | method \overline{DP} | BERT. | Dataset Depression |

TABLE IV: Taxonomy of Federated LLM Privacy and Robustness Research

specific tasks. Such security loopholes could result in various adverse outcomes, including the exposure of sensitive data, unauthorized system entry, or other forms of security problems. For instance, [295] has demonstrated that a GPT model's responses can be swayed by introducing specially engineered adversarial disturbances, affecting its text classification capabilities. In [296], the model might be configured to avoid performing certain sensitive tasks, like modifying a user's password. However, prompt injection attack using certain prompts, e.g., instructing the LLM to "ignore previously established restrictions," the assistant could be manipulated into carrying out these prohibited actions.

For such prompt-based attack methods in LLMs, limited studies explored the corresponding defense strategies. Some preventive measures [297] are suggested, such as preprocessing the data prompt to remove the injected task's instruction/data, and/or redesigning the instruction prompt itself. To counter adversarial prompts, several techniques can be used, for instance, paraphrasing [298], re-tokenization [299], data prompt isolation [299], and instructional prevention [299]. Prompt attacks may affect the fine-tuning and inference applications of federated LLMs, but they are mainly due to the security issues of LLMs, and they barely involve the FL process. Defending from the perspective of LLMs alone can prevent such attacks, so this topic will not be discussed further in this paper.

D. Limitations and Lessons Learned

The exploration of federated LLMs is a dynamic field that presents unique challenges and opportunities. This section aims to distill the lessons learned from current research and practice regarding the privacy and robustness of federated LLMs, highlighting areas that require further attention and innovation.

The integration of FL and LLMs necessitates adaptive defenses [300] due to the dynamic nature of cyber-attacks.

Federated LLMs, which involve distributed training across multiple devices, are particularly vulnerable to novel attack vectors. Static security measures are inadequate; instead, adaptive defenses that evolve in response to emerging threats are essential. These defenses can leverage real-time data from various nodes to detect and mitigate attacks, ensuring the robustness and security of federated LLMs. Additionally, developing secure and efficient federated LLMs requires a multidisciplinary approach. For instance, combining insights from cryptography, machine learning, and network security is crucial. Cryptographic methods can secure data during transmission and storage, while machine learning techniques enhance model performance and resilience. Network security ensures the integrity of data exchanges between nodes. By integrating these disciplines, researchers can address the complex challenges of federated LLMs, creating robust and secure systems.

As federated LLMs become more complex, transparency and explainability are paramount. Understanding the decisionmaking processes of these models helps identify vulnerabilities and build trust. Explainable AI (XAI) techniques [301], [302] can be applied to federated LLMs to interpret model outputs and provide insights into their functioning. This transparency is crucial for debugging, improving model performance, and ensuring that federated LLMs operate as intended. It also fosters trust among users and stakeholders by elucidating how decisions are made.

Moreover, balancing privacy and utility is a central challenge in federated LLMs. Privacy-preserving techniques, such as differential privacy and secure multi-party computation, are essential to protect sensitive data. However, these methods can impact model performance. Research must continue to explore innovative approaches that enhance privacy without significantly compromising utility. Achieving this balance ensures that federated LLMs remain both effective and secure,

providing high-quality results while safeguarding user data.

VI. FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

As discussed in the previous sections, integrating LLMs with FL is a novel technique that can be regarded as an emerging research area. After a thorough review of the existing works on the federated LLM training and fine-tuning process, as well as privacy and robustness mechanisms, this section explores the several key challenges, and also discusses the possible research directions to address these challenges.

- 1) *Efficiency of Federated LLM*: As discussed in Sec. II, LLMs usually have a huge amount of parameters, which poses significant challenges to their training and deployment on resource-limited clients. In order to tackle this obstacle, we have presented the state-of-the-art federated LLM approaches that leverage PEFT techniques, such as Adapter and LoRA, to fine-tune the LLMs efficiently, and the backward propagation-free methods to reduce computational costs and enhance system performance. However, several other techniques can also be leveraged with them to further improve the efficiency of Federated LLMs: (i) From the perspective of model structure, more resource-efficient model structures can be combined, such as more efficient Attention module designs [303], [304], Dynamic Neural Networks [305], [306] (e.g. Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) structure [307]) to reduce computational and memory overheads. (ii) Model compression strategies can also be applied, such as pruning [308], [309], quantization [310], [311] and knowledge distillation [181], [182] methods for LLMs, which can effectively reduce the model size without significant performance degradation. (iii) From the perspective of infrastructure, more efficient computing and inference hardware and software designs, such as parallel computing [312], KV cache utilization [313], and novel edge computing hardware, can also be used to meet the computational demands of federated LLMs by enhancing efficiency. Nevertheless, these studies mainly consider the isolated LLM scenario, combining these methods with FL and their efficacy have not yet been fully examined, which will inevitably introduce new optimization methods and new challenges.
- 2) *Heterogeneity of Federated LLM*: In practical large-scale Federated scenarios, there may be significant differences among data distributions, model structures, communication networks, and system edge clients, which make it difficult to achieve federated collaboration. Such heterogeneity can be classified into four categories, namely data heterogeneity, communication heterogeneity, device heterogeneity, and model heterogeneity. The research that we have reviewed in this paper mainly focuses on device heterogeneity, where most works adopt PEFT methods to adapt to different computational capabilities of client devices. However, few works have considered the impact of other types of heterogeneity. For example, various studies [101], [102], [314] indicate that the local optimization objectives of clients are not

aligned with the global optimization objective due to the variations in the local data distribution. Therefore, data heterogeneity may cause local models to converge to different directions, reaching local optima instead of global optima, thus impairing the FL performance. In the scenario of federated LLM, LLMs have access to a large amount of data for training, and data heterogeneity may have a greater impact on the training and fine-tuning processes. On the other hand, data diversity could also potentially improve the model's generalization performance. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate the impact of data heterogeneity and other types of heterogeneity on federated LLM more deeply, as this type of work is still scarce.

- 3) *Privacy of Federated LLM:* A holistic approach that encompasses both impact evaluation and solution design is required for privacy protection, which is an growing research area that needs further improvements. As mentioned in Sec. V, some studies have started to investigate the privacy challenges of Federated LLM. DP and its variations demonstrate reliable and generalizable privacy protection capabilities, but they have limitations when it comes to handling complex tasks, and these approaches did not consider the heterogeneous resources of clients. Cryptographic protections such as SMPC and HE are primarily utilized during the inference phase of LLMs, and these approaches usually encounter high communication and computation costs. Furthermore, these methods have not been evaluated for the feasibility of applying a robust privacy-preserving algorithm, and developing a system that can be adapted to the federated LLM scenario. Further research needs to be conducted to obtain maximum privacy benefits throughout the entire lifecycle of LLMs.
- 4) *Robustness of Federated LLM:* There has been considerable thorough and comprehensive research on the robustness of LLM and FL against adversarial attacks. However, the work that considers FL-integrated LLM is scarce. The federated LLM system is evidently more large-scale and complex than conventional FL systems. Consequently, adversaries are likely to have more opportunities to exploit security vulnerabilities within federated LLM systems and launch malicious attacks. Thus, a comprehensive assessment of the vulnerability of federated LLM to potential threats is essential. This evaluation should examine the impacts of malicious attacks, such as backdoors, Byzantine attacks, and possible novel attack methods. Moreover, from the FL perspective, a thorough evaluation of the existing defense mechanisms against emerging threats is also necessary. This evaluation should include the effectiveness of robust aggregation strategies and post-training detection methods in combating these new threats. As we look ahead to the future, sustained research and innovation in this area will be crucial to advancing the field for federated LLMs.

In addition to the potential future directions that aim to address the current challenges mentioned above, given that the research on federated LLM is still in its early stages, there are various other opportunities that are worth exploring, for example:

- 1) *Multimodal Models Integration:* In the rapidly evolving field of AI, LLM is one of the most popular topics. For example, millions of new GPTs in the GPT Store are tailored for specific tasks or interests, such as providing personalized trail recommendations, coding tutorials, or even generating haikus. The GPT Store facilitates the discovery and use of these custom GPTs. Besides, other multimodal models, such as GPT-4o [315], which can process and generate text, audio, and images simultaneously, Vision Transformers Models (ViTs) [316] for various downstream vision tasks, Latent Diffusion Models for high-quality images with arbitrary text-based prompts generation, and CLIP and ImageBind [317] which map different modal data into the same latent space, are also developing quickly. These foundation models are similar to LLM in that they have a large amount of model parameters and require a lot of data for training, as well as a lot of computational resources for training and deployment. This makes them compatible with FL for similar reasons. Therefore, similar heterogeneity, privacy and robustness issues also exist when integrating FL with these foundation models. However, due to the different characteristics of modal information, these issues manifest and are addressed differently. For example, different modal information may have different data distributions, dimensions, formats, and quality, which affect the training efficiency and effectiveness when adopting FL for training. Therefore, appropriate data alignment, data augmentation, and data selection strategies are needed to reduce the negative impact of heterogeneity. Building on the research findings of LLM in this paper, how to solve these problems in a broaderly ranged foundation models remains an open challenge and a potential and promising research direction.
- 2) *Federated Domain-specific AI agents:* Domain-specific AI agents [318], which are closely related to large LLMs, are garnering significant attention. LLMs empower intelligent agents to autonomously address complex problems. Domain-specific LLM agents, which are LLM-based agents deeply integrated with domainspecific data, provide specialized assistance in fields such as healthcare and finance. However, the data in these domains is highly sensitive and subject to stringent privacy regulations. This data is often distributed across various locations, complicating centralized training efforts. FL offers a promising solution by enabling the training and fine-tuning of models without the need to centralize data, thereby preserving privacy. Consequently, the integration of domain AI agents with FL represents a highly promising future direction.
- 3) *Continual Learning for Federated LLM:* LLMs need to constantly update their domain knowledge as they are applied in dynamic real world scenarios, where data distributions may change over time and cause domain

and concept drift. A potential solution is to combine federated LLMs with continual learning methods [319]. Continual learning is a branch of machine learning that focuses on how to enable machine learning models to learn from new data continuously, by retaining knowledge from previous learning experiences without catastrophic forgetting them. It tackles the challenges of incrementally training a model using real-time collected data, which may vary over time and cause data drift. LLMs have the potential to achieve better generalization and representation learning, which makes them suitable for adapting to new distributions through continual learning. Future research can explore how to address the performance challenges of continual learning in federated LLM settings.

- 4) *Legal, Responsible, and Profitable Usage:* Federated LLMs involve multiple entities that contribute their own data, devices, and computational resources to the training process. These models are used for various content creation applications by the users. However, this rapid growth has also raised conflicts, especially regarding intellectual property (IP) rights. While some technical methods, such as watermarking for LLMs [320], [321], have been proposed, tackling these challenges still demands a multidisciplinary approach, which incorporates not only advances in machine learning and statistics, but also insights from fields such as law, ethics, and social sciences. Ensuring the lawful and ethical utilization of these trained models is a critical future direction. Furthermore, the development of a sustainable business model for federated LLMs is imperative. Although federated LLMs have numerous potential applications, such as in healthcare where patient data privacy is paramount, robust models can be developed by training LLMs on decentralized patient records across multiple hospitals without compromising sensitive information. Another potential application is in the financial sector, where federated LLMs can analyze transaction data from different banks to detect fraudulent activities while ensuring data confidentiality. However, this model must delineate strategies to render federated LLMs profitable. However, this model must delineate strategies to render federated LLMs profitable, as the widespread adoption of this technology hinges on its economic viability. Without a clear pathway to profitability, the potential of federated LLMs may remain unrealized, limiting their impact and utility.
- 5) *Data Erasure for Federated LLMs:* Although LLMs are exceptionally powerful, their reliance on vast datasets can also become a liability due to privacy concerns, accuracy limitations, copyright infringement issues, and the potential propagation of societal biases. A notable example is the lawsuit filed by the New York Times against OpenAI and Microsoft for using copyrighted content in training their GPT models, sparking a controversial debate on the application of fair use rules to LLM training and highlighting the urgent need for data erasure mechanisms [322]. To comply with the "right to

be forgotten" requirements stipulated by the EU's GDPR and the US's CCPA/CPRA, it is essential to incorporate data erasure mechanisms in future LLMs. Recently, there has been a surge in relevant studies discussing this issue in the context of LLMs [322]–[325]. However, this challenge becomes particularly pronounced in FL settings, where the concerned sensitive data may not be centrally stored. Hence, future research should focus on developing a distributed approach to machine unlearning for FL-LLMs, ensuring effective data erasure while maintaining the decentralized nature of FL.

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper provided a comprehensive, systematic overview of recent advances on integrating FL with LLMs. We first introduce the preliminary background of FL and LLM respectively, including their development history, basic workflow, and common architectures and algorithms. We then presented the motivation for integrating FL with LLMs from multiple perspectives, as well as the benefits they can bring to each other. We also categorized and reviewed the current works from the perspective of the whole lifespan of LLMs, from training to deployment. In addition, we also classified and reviewed the current works from the perspective of privacy and robustness. Finally, we discussed the open opportunities and future directions for federated LLM research based on the comprehensive investigation of existing works.

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