

Multi-objective methods in Federated Learning: A survey and taxonomy

Maria Hartmann¹, Grégoire Danoy^{1,2} and Pascal Bouvry²

¹SnT, University of Luxembourg

²FSTM/DCS, University of Luxembourg

{maria.hartmann, gregoire.danoy, pascal.bouvry}@uni.lu,

Abstract

The Federated Learning paradigm facilitates effective distributed machine learning in settings where training data is decentralized across multiple clients. As the popularity of the strategy grows, increasingly complex real-world problems emerge, many of which require balancing conflicting demands such as fairness, utility, and resource consumption. Recent works have begun to recognise the use of a multi-objective perspective in answer to this challenge. However, this novel approach of combining federated methods with multi-objective optimisation has never been discussed in the broader context of both fields. In this work, we offer a first clear and systematic overview of the different ways the two fields can be integrated. We propose a first taxonomy on the use of multi-objective methods in connection with Federated Learning, providing a targeted survey of the state-of-the-art and proposing unambiguous labels to categorise contributions. Given the developing nature of this field, our taxonomy is designed to provide a solid basis for further research, capturing existing works while anticipating future additions. Finally, we outline open challenges and possible directions for further research.

1 Introduction

The Federated Learning (FL) paradigm allows the training of machine learning models in the difficult setting where training data is distributed and compartmentalised. Instead of centralising available data, FL performs local training in distribution, with the resulting local models aggregated periodically across participants. Though originally designed to mitigate privacy concerns, the method has also shown great success in other use cases, including communication-restricted settings such as drone networks [Brik *et al.*, 2020] or computationally costly settings such as the tuning of large language models [Che *et al.*, 2023].

However, as Federated Learning is being adopted for increasingly diverse applications and real-world use cases, new challenges are emerging, many linked to the need to balance different conflicting requirements: (i) Heterogeneity between

participants caused by data imbalances or differing hardware capabilities can lead to divergent local models that cannot easily be aggregated without loss of model utility [Karimireddy *et al.*, 2019]. Designing mitigation strategies for this raises the problem of fairness – the choice between sacrificing the performance of some individual clients or that of the global model. (ii) The cost of FL in terms of communication and computation resources scales with the size of the model and the number of update messages; yet reducing either may come at the cost of decreasing model utility [Zhu *et al.*, 2021]. (iii) Strategies for mitigating privacy leakage, the problem of exposing confidential information to potential attackers through client updates, may degrade other aspects of the federated system in turn. For example, adding noise to client updates may obscure sensitive information effectively, but reduce model performance as well [Geng *et al.*, 2024].

All these scenarios can be modelled as multi-objective problems, with each problem-specific performance metric represented as a separate objective. Under this multi-objective perspective, problems are solved with explicit consideration for several characteristics, potentially conflicting, and solutions can represent different optimal trade-offs between all objectives. As such, the approach can assist users in making informed decisions about complex FL problems by presenting explicit choices where a single-objective approach would yield none. Indeed, these general advantages of multi-objective methods have been recognised across disciplines, and the field of multi-objective optimisation (MOO) has been thriving for decades. This success opens another interesting avenue of research in connection with federated learning: deploying FL methods to facilitate multi-objective learning in distribution, where problems would otherwise be difficult to solve for participants that cannot share local training data. Recent works in the literature have begun to combine federated learning with MOO methods to address a wide range of challenges. However, the broader context of the intersection between MOO and FL has not yet been discussed. This work aims to provide a first such systematic overview, identifying general challenges and parallels, and formulating a novel taxonomy to classify existing work while highlighting open directions of research. Many FL strategies already use (linear) combinations of multiple functions as objectives, but do not consider the problem from a multi-objective angle. The first works to explicitly introduce multi-objective methods to Fed-

86 generated Learning aimed to improve federated aggregation and
 87 introduce fairness between clients [Hu *et al.*, 2022], followed
 88 by approaches introducing other, system-wide aggregation
 89 parameters [Mehrabi *et al.*, 2022]. Another early adoption of
 90 MOO was in hyperparameter optimisation for FL [Zhu and
 91 Jin, 2020]. More recently, research has also begun into sup-
 92 porting the inverse scenario: developing strategies to federate
 93 the solving of multi-objective problems by distributed clients,
 94 e.g. [Yang *et al.*, 2023][Hartmann *et al.*, 2023]. The contribu-
 95 tions of this work can be summarised thus:

- We propose a novel taxonomy of algorithms combining MOO methods and FL, offering a unified naming system for works at the intersection of two previously largely separate fields with separate naming conventions.
- We present a thorough review of the state of the art, categorising and contrasting existing works.
- We highlight open questions and offer perspectives on open avenues for future research.

100 The rest of this work is organised as follows: Section 2 re-
 101 views important notions from the fields of FL and MOO. Sec-
 102 tion 3 introduces our taxonomy, discussing in detail each cat-
 103 egory and relevant works from the literature. Finally, we offer
 104 a conclusion and perspectives on future research in Section 4.

109 2 Background

110 In this section, we briefly introduce fundamental concepts
 111 from the fields of federated learning and multi-objective op-
 112 timisation in preparation for the main body of the survey.

113 2.1 Federated Learning

114 The Federated Learning [McMahan *et al.*, 2017] paradigm
 115 was originally designed to solve arbitrary (neural network-
 116 based) machine learning problems in a difficult distributed
 117 setting. This setting is characterised by (i) the available data
 118 originating in distribution, with no control over the compo-
 119 sition of the resulting datasets, and (ii) a restriction on transmit-
 120 ting private client information, including raw training data,
 121 between participants. FL overcomes the constraint intro-
 122 duced by (ii) by training separate local models in distribution
 123 on each dataset holder, or client, and aggregating only the re-
 124 sulting models across clients – see Figure 1.

125 A more detailed general framework of the Federated Learning
 126 strategy is presented in Algorithm 1, with colours highlighting
 127 the correspondence of code segments to different levels of
 128 the federated system (to be presented in detail in Section 2.3).
 129 First, the federated system is initialised with the identity of
 130 the server, a list of participating clients, and the definition
 131 of the underlying learning problem to be solved. Additional
 132 hyperparameters are passed depending on the specific algo-
 133 rithm, defining e.g. the architecture of the neural network
 134 to be trained, a client sampling rate, gradient thresholds, or
 135 any other parameter required by the algorithm. Then, the lo-
 136 cal learning process begins. During each federated training
 137 round, a set of clients is selected for participation. These
 138 clients each carry out local training and return the resulting
 139 models to the server. These local models are aggregated pe-
 140 riódically by the server into a single global model incorpo-
 141 rating the locally learned information. The global model is

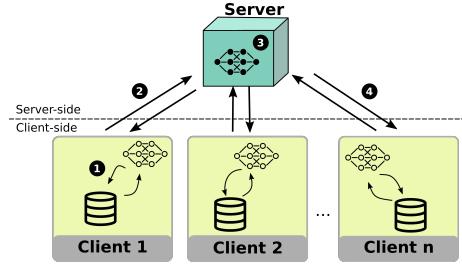


Figure 1: The FL paradigm. During each round, clients perform local model training (1), then transmit their local models to the server (2) for aggregation into a single global model (3). The global model is returned to the clients (4) to begin the next training round.

Algorithm 1 The general Federated Learning framework.

Input: Server, list of clients, local learning problem.

Parameter: Optional list of hyperparameters.

Output: Global model θ .

```

1: Initialise system parameters.
2: while stopping condition not satisfied do
3:   for all participating clients do
4:     while local stopping condition not satisfied do
5:       Perform training on local data.
6:     end while
7:     Transmit local model to server.
8:   end for
9:   Aggregate local models to obtain new global model.
10:  Return global model to clients.
11: end while
12: return global model.

```

then passed back to the local clients to continue the next local
 142 training round. Expressed formally, the FL process aims to
 143 find a global model θ that generalises to all available data, i.e.
 144

$$\text{minimise}_\theta f(\theta, \mathcal{D}), \quad (1)$$

where $\mathcal{D} := \bigcup_i^n \mathcal{D}_i$, with \mathcal{D}_i the dataset of the i -th client. Im-
 145 balances between client datasets, as can be caused by char-
 146 acteristic (i), represent a significant challenge to the model
 147 aggregation step of FL algorithms. Indeed, any type of het-
 148 erogeneity between clients, e.g. in terms of hardware capa-
 149 bility or feature distribution, may have an adverse impact on
 150 the convergence of the federated model. Mitigating the im-
 151 pact of various types of client heterogeneity remains an active
 152 field of study. Other major research topics in FL include the
 153 reduction of resource consumption – mainly computing and
 154 communication cost – and how to protect against malicious
 155 actors. For a comprehensive overview of the state of the art
 156 in the field, we refer to [Kairouz *et al.*, 2021].

158 2.2 Multi-objective optimisation

159 Multi-objective optimisation is concerned with solving prob-
 160 lems in the presence of more than one objective. As an exam-
 161 ple, consider the problem of selecting hyperparameters for
 162 a neural network to simultaneously maximise model utility
 163 and minimise the cost of training. Instead of a single objec-
 164 tive $f(x)$, such a multi-objective problem is expressed as a

vector of n objectives $\vec{f}(x) := (f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x))^T$. Note that individual objectives can conflict, i.e. in general no single solution can optimise all objectives simultaneously. Instead, MOO methods typically focus on identifying solutions that represent an optimal trade-off between objectives, where objective values are balanced so that no single objective can be improved without sacrificing the performance of another. Such trade-off solutions are known as *Pareto-optimal*. Pareto optimality can be difficult to determine in practice, where the optimal values achievable for each objective are unknown, so the weaker notion of *Pareto-dominance* is commonly used instead. A solution x is said to Pareto-dominate another solution y iff it outperforms y in at least one objective while matching or improving the value of all others. Formally,

$$x \succ_P y \iff \exists j f_j(x) > f_j(y) \wedge \forall i f_i(x) \geq f_i(y) \quad (2)$$

for a maximisation problem. Pareto-optimal solutions are not dominated by any others. The set of such solutions is known as the *Pareto front* (see Fig. 2). Most MOO algorithms are either designed to find such a Pareto front, or a single solution based on predefined requirements such as user preferences. A wide range of algorithmic approaches exists for both variants, tailored to different problem characteristics. In this work, we will discuss relevant MOO strategies as they appear; for a comprehensive overview we refer to [Talbi, 2009].

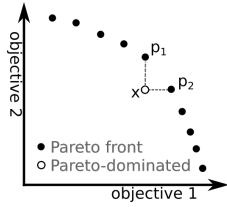


Figure 2: Pareto front and Pareto dominance. Shaded markers represent solutions on the Pareto front of a bi-objective maximisation problem; x is Pareto-dominated by p_1 and p_2 .

2.3 Integrating multi-objective methods and Federated Learning

We note that multi-objective methods can be integrated with FL at different levels of the federated system, each with distinct implications for the algorithmic components involved. Based on this insight, we propose a three-level view of the federated system – see Fig. 3 and corresponding colours in Alg. 1. Adding multi-objective methods on top of a federated algorithm necessitates no modification of the underlying federation or local learning process; an example for such a method is offline hyperparameter tuning with respect to multiple requirements. On the other hand, introducing multi-objectivity at the federated level, e.g. for model aggregation on the server, forces adaptation at the top level as well: any hyperparameter algorithm running on the federated system must accommodate new parameters introduced by multi-objective methods. Finally, adding a multi-objective perspective to the lowest level in Fig. 3 – the client level – requires modifications across the entire system: (i) The local learning algorithm on each client must handle multi-objective problems; (ii) the federated algorithm must aggregate client sub-

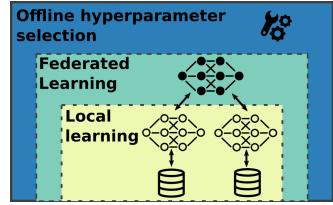


Figure 3: Relation of major categories of the taxonomy. Multi-objective methods can be integrated at different levels of the federated system: in the local learning process of clients, at system-level in the federated algorithm, or outside of the federated system.

missions, which may include multi-objective gradients or be influenced by heterogeneous client objectives, and (iii) any hyperparameter must be adjusted once again.

3 Taxonomy: multi-objective methods in FL

In this section, we introduce our proposed taxonomy, discussing each category and the related existing work. The full taxonomy is shown in Figure 4. A first fundamental distinction is the purpose that multi-objective and federated methods each serve in an algorithm. We can identify two main broad categories: one where MOO methods are applied to enhance the functionality of a federated system, and the inverse, where FL is used in support of solving a general multi-objective problem in distribution. We refer to these categories as *Multi-Objective Federated Learning (MOFL)* and *Federated Multi-Objective Learning (FMOL)*, respectively, to indicate the different chaining of strategies. MOFL covers the majority of existing research, and is notably precisely equivalent to the top two layers as shown in Fig. 3 and introduced in Section 2.3. Works in this section can accordingly be divided further into top-level and federation-level methods, and will be discussed as such in the following sections. FMOL, in contrast, corresponds to the lowest layer in Fig. 3, and extends the “standard” FL scenario, where Federated Learning is used to solve an arbitrary learning problem in distribution, to include multi-objective learning problems.

3.1 Multi-objective federated learning at top level

Methods at the top level of a federated system, as defined in Fig. 3, are decoupled from the federated learning and aggregation process and can treat the federated algorithm as a black-box system. As such, this class of algorithms is arguably the least specific to the FL context, since modifications at this level require no particular adaptation to the federated setting. Current work can largely be divided into two major applications: multi-objective neural architecture search (MO-NAS), focused on optimising the architecture of a neural network with respect to multiple objectives, and more general multi-objective hyperparameter tuning, where other hyperparameters of the federated system are tuned. Both types typically employ population-based multi-objective strategies, known to offer effective search space exploration.

Offline hyperparameter tuning

Multi-objective hyperparameter tuning can find algorithm parameters for additional requirements beyond the utility of the

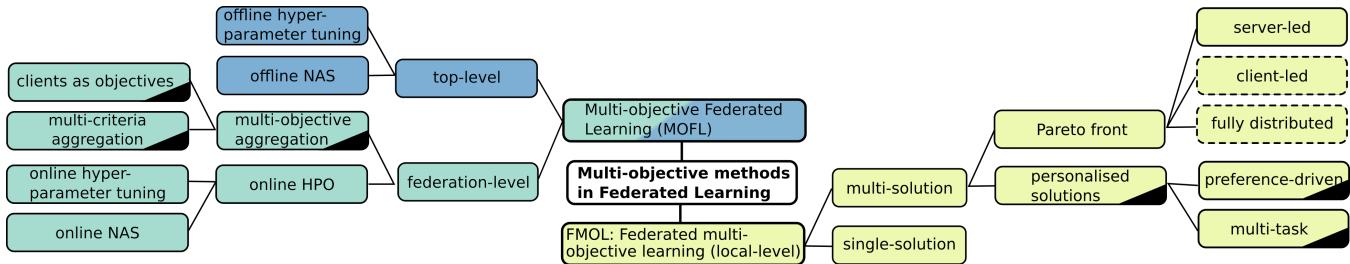


Figure 4: Proposed taxonomy. Colours denote the level of the federated system where MO methods are integrated (see Fig. 3 and Sec. 2.3). Some categories arise from the unique properties of the FL setting; these are marked by a shaded corner. Categories in dashed boxes are currently unexplored in the literature.

global model. Depending on the use case, FL systems may face challenges such as privacy restrictions, resource limitations, or malicious attacks. This approach allows users to explicitly model such requirements and make informed choices about the trade-offs inherent to different solutions.

[Kang *et al.*, 2024b] assert that optimising hyperparameters solely for model performance may expose the federation to a risk of data leakage. The proposed mitigation approach optimises the three objectives of model performance, training cost and privacy leakage simultaneously. This algorithm, derived from NSGA-II [Deb *et al.*, 2002], a well-known population-based baseline algorithm, is designed to find a Pareto front of possible configurations representing different trade-offs between these objectives. [Morell *et al.*, 2024] also introduce a second objective in addition to the model accuracy, based on the mean amount of data transmitted and received by clients. This approach is designed to optimise a large number of hyperparameters and algorithmic choices, including the number of local training steps, the number of bits used to encode local updates, and whether clients submit gradient or weight updates. All variables are optimised using a hybrid of NSGA-II and an estimated distribution-based algorithm (EDA). [Geng *et al.*, 2024] formulate a similar strategy, also using NSGA-II, but considering the four objectives of minimising global model error rate, the variance of model accuracy, the communication cost, and a privacy budget.

Offline neural architecture search

Neural architecture search aims to optimise the structure of a neural network for given objectives. Federated NAS can be seen as an inherently multi-objective problem [Zhu *et al.*, 2021], as changes to the model structure impact not only the model utility, but also other aspects of the federated system, such as the communication and training cost. One of the first works on multi-objective federated neural architecture search [Zhu and Jin, 2020] proposes an offline federated NAS algorithm that constructs models with the two objectives of minimising the validation error obtained by the model, and the cost of communicating the model. Solutions are once again generated using NSGA-II. The same problem is tackled in [Chai *et al.*, 2022], but with the use of a multi-objective evolutionary algorithm (MOEA) instead of NSGA-II to improve the exploration of the multi-objective search space. Federated split learning is a related problem, where partial blocks of the global model are assigned to clients, with blocks of different size assigned to clients depending on the avail-

able resources. [Yin *et al.*, 2023] propose to optimise this splitting decision, along with communication bandwidth and computing resource allocation, as a multi-objective problem, minimising training time and energy consumption of the system. The proposed algorithm yields a Pareto front of solutions using a hybrid of NSGA-III and a generative adversarial network trained to identify configurations generating Pareto-dominated solutions. Research on offline MO-NAS algorithms for FL is arguably more advanced than other areas of MOFL, as existing approaches can be applied to the federated setting without change. The main challenge remains the high computational cost of these methods.

3.2 Multi-objective federated learning at federation-level

MOO methods can also be integrated with FL at the server-level to solve challenges inherent to the FL paradigm – a brief overview of representative works from the literature is presented in Table 1. The majority of existing works focus on one of two design aspects of a federated system: the aggregation strategy used on the federated server, and the selection of relevant hyperparameters for the FL algorithm. We discuss both separately, beginning with multi-objective aggregation.

Multi-objective aggregation

The aggregation of local model updates by the server can be modelled as a MOO problem, permitting the use of more than one criterion for computing the global model. This multi-objective version of federated aggregation can be formulated in general terms as follows:

$$\min_{\theta} (f_1(\theta), \dots, f_n(\theta))^T \quad (3)$$

where θ is the global model and f_i is the loss function of the i -th objective. Solving this problem typically translates to finding optimal aggregation weights λ_i to compute the global model from the local models:

$$\min_{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n} (f_1(\theta), \dots, f_n(\theta))^T, \text{ with } \theta = \sum_i \lambda_i \theta_i. \quad (4)$$

The literature on FL algorithms with multi-objective aggregation can be categorised based on the nature of the objectives [Kang *et al.*, 2024a]. One line of work derives objectives from the performance of individual clients; the other uses objectives that describe the federation as a whole. This distinction is significant, as the different mathematical properties of these variants permit the use of different multi-objective methods. The following sections discuss both types in detail.

Reference	Taxonomy label	System level	MOO method	Objectives
[Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	Clients as objectives	federation-level	MGDA	Local model utilities
[Ju <i>et al.</i> , 2024]	Clients as objectives	federation-level	dynamic preferences	Fairness, convergence
[Mehrabi <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	Multi-criteria aggregation	federation-level	obj.-contribution scoring	Arbitrary system objs.
[Zhu and Jin, 2022]	online MO-NAS	federation-level	NSGA-II	Global model utility, evaluation speed
[Kang <i>et al.</i> , 2024b]	offline MO-HPO	top-level	NSGA-II	Model utility, training cost, privacy leakage

Table 1: Comparison of selected MO-FL algorithms. Each row lists the level of the federated system where multi-objective notions are introduced, as well as the method used to solve the multi-objective problem.

337 **Clients as objectives.** These algorithms consider the per-
338 formance of individual clients and the global model as sepa-
339 rate objectives. In client-heterogeneous settings, this ap-
340 proach can balance the interests of both the clients and the
341 general system. This perspective enables explicit fairness
342 guarantees for selfish participants, ensuring that the per-
343 formance of individual clients is not sacrificed for that of the sys-
344 tem in computing the global model. Crucially, performance
345 criteria in this class of MOFL problems are tied directly to the
346 client models and thus differentiable with respect to model
347 parameters. As such, they can be solved efficiently using
348 gradient-based multi-objective algorithms such as the clas-
349 sical multi-gradient descent algorithm (MDGA) [Désidéri,
350 2012], established in the field of MOO.
351 The FedMGDA+ algorithm [Hu *et al.*, 2022] leverages this
352 insight, defining the performance of each participating client
353 as a separate objective. Using MGDA yields aggregation
354 weights for a common descent gradient for all clients, thus
355 guaranteeing that no client suffers a reduced performance by
356 participating in an aggregation step. An added constraint on
357 the divergence of aggregation weights serves as protection
358 against false updates by malicious participants. The FedMC+
359 algorithm [Shen *et al.*, 2025] is also designed to reconcile
360 individual client updates and the global model in the pres-
361 ence of heterogeneous data. A secondary objective, minimising
362 conflict between the global and local gradients, is intro-
363 duced during the aggregation step and solved by transfor-
364 mation into a convex optimisation problem. [Cui *et al.*, 2021]
365 formulate the aggregation step as a parameterised min-max
366 optimisation problem. Fairness constraints serve to optimise
367 model utility for the single worst-performing client while en-
368 suring that (i) the utility of all clients improves, and (ii) no
369 client improves much less than another. The solution ob-
370 tained from this formulation is optimised further to guarantee
371 Pareto-stationarity, a prerequisite for local optimality [Ye and
372 Liu, 2022].

373 The three methods have different implications for the ultimate
374 balance of client models. While both [Hu *et al.*, 2022] and
375 [Cui *et al.*, 2021] (in its pure form) guarantee that all clients
376 improve during an aggregation step, only the latter considers
377 the magnitude of gradients in the calculation. Thus, [Cui *et
378 al.*, 2021] may force a greater balance between clients, to the
379 potential detriment of overall performance in highly hetero-
380 geneous settings. In contrast, [Shen *et al.*, 2025] may sacrifice

381 an outlier for the benefit of the system. Though undesirable
382 to selfish clients, the latter could offer a defence against in-
383 tentionally divergent updates submitted by a malicious client.

384 **Multi-criteria aggregation.** These algorithms perform ag-
385 gregation based on multiple metrics that describe different
386 characteristics of the federated system, such as the accuracy
387 of the global model and fairness between clients. Such crite-
388 ria are not generally differentiable with respect to the model,
389 and thus cannot be optimised using gradient-based meth-
390 ods [Kang *et al.*, 2024a]. Solution approaches rely instead on
391 heuristic insights or the formulation of the aggregation step
392 into a mathematically solvable optimisation problem.

393 [Mehrabi *et al.*, 2022] propose an algorithm that can incor-
394 porate multiple arbitrary system objectives, including fair-
395 ness metrics, on the server. Aggregation is accomplished
396 by assigning weighted ranking scores to each client for its
397 contribution to optimising each objective, calculated using a
398 validation dataset possessed by the server. These scores are
399 used to compute aggregation weights. In contrast, [Ju *et al.*,
400 2024] formulate fairness-controlled FL as a dynamic multi-
401 objective problem, where the optimisation problem consists
402 of a linear combination of client losses, with weights ad-
403 justed dynamically to balance the progress of all component
404 objectives. This approach yields different trade-off solutions
405 between fairness and convergence depending on the value
406 chosen for a fairness parameter. The idea of optimising a
407 weighted linear combination of objectives in the federated ag-
408 gregation step was proposed before in [Li *et al.*, 2020], gen-
409 eralising ideas from [Mohri *et al.*, 2019]; but neither work
410 explicitly acknowledges a multi-objective view of the prob-
411 lem. Both aggregation strategies have different strengths and
412 weaknesses. [Mehrabi *et al.*, 2022] offers transparent server-
413 side evaluation of clients, including the potential to automati-
414 cally recognise low-quality or malicious clients. However,
415 the need for a validation dataset on the server may violate
416 the privacy requirements of clients, and renders the method
417 vulnerable to data poisoning attacks. Conversely, [Ju *et al.*,
418 2024] offers mathematical fairness guarantees, but little trans-
419 parentity in the aggregation process. In addition, this algo-
420 rithm may be vulnerable to malicious client participation.

421 **Online multi-objective hyperparameter optimisation**

422 Algorithms that use MOO to optimise hyperparameters for
423 the federated system may run off-line or on-line. In on-line
424 algorithms, the optimisation process is integrated into the fed-

425 erated algorithm, i.e. parameters are changed during the run-
426 time of the FL process. On-line candidate generation is typ-
427 ically integrated on the federated server at the aggregation
428 step, with local training rounds used for evaluation. Existing
429 works on online MO-HPO in FL can again be divided into
430 hyperparameter tuning and neural architecture search.

431 **Online hyperparameter tuning.** The work by [Badar *et*
432 *al.*, 2024] performs on-line hyperparameter optimisation for
433 clients, generating and transmitting new parameters during
434 each aggregation step. These parameters, a fairness constraint
435 regularisation parameter and the learning rate designed to en-
436 force fairness locally, are recomputed on the server-side by
437 using multi-objective Bayesian optimisation. Finally, [Baner-
438 jee *et al.*, 2022] propose a multi-objective on-line device se-
439 lection approach to speed up the learning process in the pres-
440 ence of stragglers. The selection algorithm is designed to
441 maximise the available computing and communication re-
442 sources on selected clients, using NSGA-II.

443 **Online neural architecture search.** NAS algorithms may
444 be designed run on-line, modifying during the execution of
445 the federated algorithm the structure of the neural network to
446 be trained by each client. Such a strategy could significantly
447 reduce the computational cost of the search, at the price of
448 complicating the training and aggregation process by intro-
449 ducing dynamic parameters. The only such algorithm cur-
450 rently existing in the MOFL literature dynamically optimises
451 the accuracy and evaluation speed of federated model train-
452 ing [Zhu and Jin, 2022]. The NSGA-II algorithm is used dur-
453 ing each aggregation step to generate partial samples of the
454 full model to assign to clients for training. On-line MO-NAS
455 presents a difficult challenge and is currently underexplored
456 in the literature, but could offer significant efficiency benefits.

457 3.3 Federated multi-objective learning

458 In federated multi-objective learning, the solving of a multi-
459 objective learning problem (MOLP) is the ultimate goal, and
460 FL acts as an auxiliary tool to facilitate learning in distribu-
461 tion. A major challenge compared to the class of MOFL al-
462 gorithms is that in this setting, there is no control or infor-
463 mation about the compatibility of the objectives involved in
464 the problem, whereas in MOFL the objectives were designed
465 to suit the federated setting. Note also that FL techniques
466 have largely been developed for neural networks, so the fo-
467 cus in this setting is on MO-algorithms that train such mod-
468 els. Compared with the application of MO techniques to FL
469 algorithms, the federated solving of MOLPs has received very
470 little attention so far. Here we aim to offer a classification of
471 the few existing works, and extrapolate the open challenges
472 and problems that remain to be solved. See also Table 2 for a
473 representative overview of existing works. On the most funda-
474 mental level, algorithms in this category can be separated
475 by the number of solutions they are designed to find: one sin-
476 gle solution to the MOLP, or multiple solutions representing
477 different trade-offs between the underlying objectives.

478 Methods finding a single solution

479 FMOL algorithms designed to find a single solution aim to
480 find an arbitrary Pareto-stationary solution. The advantage
481 of such approaches is a relatively quick convergence, e.g. by

482 exploiting gradients to locate the nearest solution. The main
483 disadvantage is a lack of control over which solution out of
484 all possible ones is found, and thus a lack of choice for poten-
485 tial users. One of the earliest such works [Yang *et al.*, 2023]
486 once again extends the MGDA algorithm to the federated set-
487 ting, this time with respect to client objectives. Local training
488 sequentially updates client models with respect to each com-
489 ponent objective. Then, clients submit a gradient vector for
490 aggregation to the server, where MGDA yields optimal ag-
491 gregation weights to update the global model. This algorithm
492 is shown to converge to a Pareto-stationary solution. A subse-
493 quent work [Askin *et al.*, 2024] points out a risk of local drift
494 in this approach, as well as a high communication load caused
495 by transmitting separate gradient updates for all objectives.
496 The algorithm proposed to mitigate these issues is also based
497 on server-side MGDA, but clients reduce communication cost
498 by transmitting a compressed matrix of all objective gradi-
499 ents. Local drift is avoided via a similar modification: client
500 updates are computed from a linear combination of all objec-
501 tive gradients rather than a series of single-objective updates.
502 Tackling a different use case, [Kinoshita *et al.*, 2024] dis-
503 cuss data-driven MOO problems, where a federated server at-
504 tempts to solve a multi-objective problem, e.g. clustering, us-
505 ing only indirect information from distributed clients. In this
506 unsupervised setting, no gradient-based strategies are possi-
507 ble; the server instead utilises a MOEA to solve the problem.

508 Methods finding multiple solutions

509 Federated algorithms designed to find multiple solutions have
510 one of two goals: they either attempt (1) to find a full Pareto
511 front, i.e. a set of trade-off solutions, or (2) to find a person-
512 alised model for each participant. For both variants, partici-
513 pants may have different preferences over the same objective
514 functions, or may even be solving entirely disjoint tasks.

515 **Finding a Pareto front.** Algorithms that aim to find a
516 Pareto front of solutions must explore a wide range of the
517 search space to identify a diverse spread of trade-off solu-
518 tions. In the distributed setting, this may happen at different
519 levels of the federated system: *server-led* exploration sees the
520 federated server managing the exploration and constructing a
521 Pareto front. A first framework for such a scenario has been
522 proposed in [Hartmann *et al.*, 2023], utilising a metaheuris-
523 tic on the federated server to decompose the multi-objective
524 problem into single-objective candidate subproblems. This
525 approach bears similarities to some of the top-level algo-
526 rithms discussed in Section 3.2, in that each candidate is eval-
527 uated separately by a full federated system. Unlike those ap-
528 proaches, however, the full system is not strictly required for
529 an effective evaluation. Thus, the efficiency of the evaluation
530 could be improved by the use of an algorithm that can fed-
531 erate candidates with different objective preferences. To the
532 best of our knowledge, such an algorithm has not yet been
533 proposed in the literature. Future contributions may be able
534 to leverage client-specific solution algorithms in combination
535 with server-led Pareto exploration strategies.

536 In contrast, *client-led* exploration would have each client at-
537 tempting to find a Pareto front, e.g. in cases where the server
538 is untrusted or lacks computing resources. This scenario has,
539 to the best of our knowledge, not yet been addressed in the

Reference	Taxonomy label	Local MOO method	Global MOO method	Objectives
[Yang <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	single-solution	successive single-obj. updates	MGDA	arbitrary
[Askin <i>et al.</i> , 2024]	single-solution	linearised objectives	MGDA	arbitrary
[Hartmann <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	server-led	linearised objectives	offline metaheuristic	arbitrary
[Sen and Borcea, 2024]	multi-task	multi-task layer	similarity-based partial aggregation	arbitrary separable tasks
[Hartmann <i>et al.</i> , 2024]	preference-driven	linearised preferences	similarity-based aggregation+clustering	arbitrary

Table 2: Comparison of selected Federated Multi-objective Learning (FMOL) algorithms. Note that all algorithms are dedicated to handling local multi-objective learning. As noted in Section 2.3, this requires modifications at several levels of the federated system.

540 literature, but would carry its own challenges and opportunities 541 inherent to the federated setting, most importantly a shift 542 of control from server to clients, and the alignment of local 543 Pareto fronts. Possibly related is the *fully-distributed* setting, 544 where no server is involved in the training process and aggregation 545 is decentralised across the client network.

546 **Finding client-specific solutions.** Here, the goal of the al- 547 gorithm is to find a solution for each client in the system, 548 based on different local requirements. Crucially, and in con- 549 trast to single-solution algorithms, this approach yields a dif- 550 ferent model for each client, matching that client’s objectives, 551 instead of finding a global model that generalises over all 552 clients. This variant is known as Personalised FL, and is typi- 553 cally used in highly heterogeneous settings where the focus 554 is on individual client performance [Tan *et al.*, 2023]. Note 555 that this type of algorithm is arguably unique to the federated 556 setting, arising from its properties that participants in FL are 557 heterogeneous and may have different, independent interests.

558 In a *preference-driven* setting, client heterogeneity is in- 559duced by different preference weights assigned by each client 560 to the same underlying multi-objective problem [Hartmann 561 *et al.*, 2024]. Formally, the objectives of the i -th client are 562 weighted by that client’s unique preference weights w^i :

$$\vec{f}^i(x) := \vec{w}^i \odot \vec{f}(x) = (w_1^i f_1(x), \dots, w_n^i f_n(x))^T \quad (5)$$

563 Where objective components are conflicting, learning trajec- 564 tories of clients could diverge even on the same underlying 565 model; the PFL approach is intended to embrace this diver- 566 sity instead of counteracting it. Only a handful of works so 567 far have considered a personalised approach to objective het- 568 erogeneity. In the first such work [Hartmann *et al.*, 2024], 569 client preferences are assumed to be private, and local training 570 is performed on a weighted linear combination of the ob- 571 jectives. The challenge in this setting is to aggregate clients 572 whose current training trajectory is compatible, and separate 573 clients where it is not. As little direct information about 574 the mutual compatibility of clients is available on the server, 575 many classical MOO methods cannot be applied. Instead, the 576 proposed algorithm performs clustering and weighted aggre- 577 gation based on the similarity of model updates.

578 Federated *multi-task* learning is an edge case scenario where 579 clients solve mutually different subsets of tasks (i.e. objec- 580 tives). A number of works in the FL literature, e.g. [Ghosh *et* 581 *al.*, 2020] and [Huang *et al.*, 2023], have addressed a sim-

582 plified setting where each client is assigned a single task¹ 583 without acknowledging a multi-objective perspective. To the 584 best of our knowledge, only one work currently considers 585 the problem where each client is assigned a set of several 586 tasks [Sen and Borcea, 2024]. Similarly to other works on 587 FMOL, this task assignment is private. Under the proposed 588 algorithm, clients jointly train a block of shared model param- 589 eters plus a separate parallel model layer for each task to be 590 solved by the client. Once again, clients are aggregated based 591 on a model similarity score, computed here based both on the 592 shared parameters and a matching of task-specific layers.

4 Conclusion and perspectives

593 In this work, we have presented the first comprehensive sur- 594vey on the use of multi-objective methods in connection with 595 Federated Learning. We have proposed a novel taxonomy to 596 classify existing works in the literature, and offered a per- 597 spective on recent trends, open challenges and possible ap- 598 proaches. Existing work demonstrates that MOO is a promis- 599 ing tool to improve transparency and effectiveness of FL tech- 600 niques when navigating real-world problems. As in the wider 601 field of FL, further work remains to be done. Open avenues 602 of research in MO-FL include, most prominently, (i) effective 603 defence against malicious attackers in multi-objective aggre- 604 gation; (ii) the use of MOO methods specifically to recognise 605 low-quality clients; (iii) enhancing transparency and control 606 of MO-preferences for users, e.g. by generating multiple dif- 607 ferent Pareto-optimal solutions, and (iv) exploring more so- 608 phisticated MOO techniques, e.g. to replace the baseline NS- 609 GA-II algorithm that is currently used in many of the works 610 discussed here. The area of FMOL, enabling the federated 611 solving of multi-objective learning problems, remains largely 612 open. Initial contributions to the field could include, for ex- 613 ample, (v) improving the efficiency of server-led strategies 614 finding a Pareto front; (vi) exploring the effect of prefer- 615 ence heterogeneity on convergence in single- and multi-solu- 616 tion algorithms; (vii) exploring the cumulative effect of data 617 heterogeneity on FMOL problems; (viii) considering variant 618 FMOL settings, e.g. where client preferences are not private.

592¹Note that the ‘multi-task’ label is assigned inconsistently in the 593 existing FL literature, referring variously to clients with heteroge- 594neous datasets or objectives.

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