Continual Learning

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Introduction



Human intelligence. Human beings can learn new tasks and, at the same time, they can remember what learned before.





Catastrophic Forgetting. Instead, Neural Networks, when trained on a sequence of tasks, forget old tasks: *i.e.*, they may perform well on the examples of the current task, but their capabilities on old tasks drop.

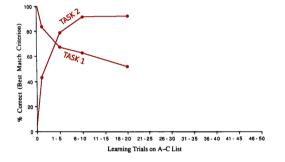




Barnes & Underwood first highlight the dynamics of forgetting in 1959.

- Task 1: subjects learn a series of word pairs (*e.g.*, home-star, field-sky, ...);
- Task 2: right-hand items of pairs change (*e.g.*, home-field, field-car, ...).

Result. Human subjects forget about pairs from Task 1 as more pairs from Task 2 are observed...



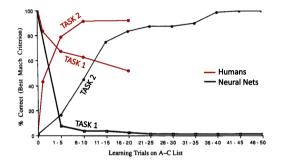
Barnes & Underwood. "Fate" of first-list associations in transfer theory. J Exp. Psychol, 1959.



In 1989, McCloskey & Cohen repeat the same experiment with Artificial Neural Networks.

They find that degradation is much more severe in NNs: a **few learning steps** are enough to drive accuracy to **zero**.

This is an intrinsic property of NNs, which they call *Catastrophic Forgetting*.



McCloskey & Cohen. Catastrophic interference in connectionist networks: The sequential learning problem. Psychol Learn Motiv, 1989



So, Neural Networks forget.

Why? How?



So, Neural Networks forget.

Why? How?

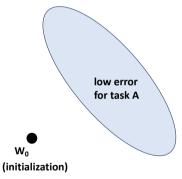
It is principally due to the optimization algorithm (*i.e.*, gradient descent or its stochastic variants – SGD).



A NN has its set of $parameters \ \mathrm{W}$

(*i.e.*, a set of weights and biases).

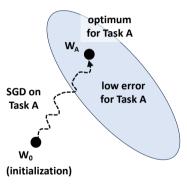
Optimization starts from a random point W_0 in parameter space and reaches a *local minimum*, within a region where the error is **small** on the task being learned.





Given a task A:

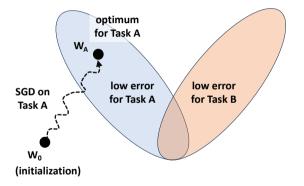
Optimization starts from a random point W_0 in parameter space and reaches a *local minimum* W_A , within a region where the error is **small** on the task being learned.





Considering a second incoming task B:

The task B has its own loss landscape that the network is going to optimize, irrespective of the error of any other task.

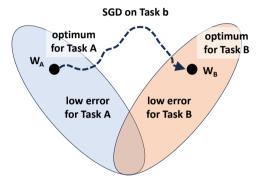




To change its behavior or learn how to perform the second task, the network must **change** its parameters.

SGD moves without constraints throughout a new region in parameter space, until it reaches a new local optimum W_B .

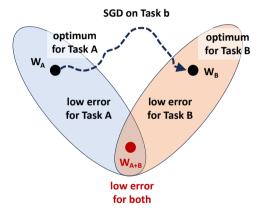
- \rightarrow Catastrophic forgetting.
 - Loss for Task B: low :)
 - Loss for Task A: high :(





Theoretically, NNs are **over-parametrized**.

Over-parameterization makes it likely that there is a solution for Task B, W_{A+B} , that is close to the previously found solution for Task A, W_A .

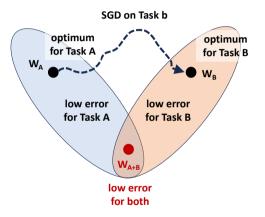




Continual Learning techniques

aim at protecting the performance in previous tasks by constraining the subsequent learning (*e.g.*, to stay in a region of low error for Task A).

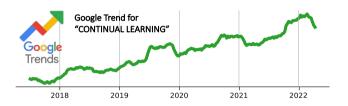
Challenge. Do it with no access to the examples of Task A.

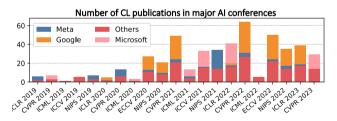




Continual Learning (CL) studies how to train a ML system from a stream of changing data.

It's a rapidly growing new trend in ML research.







Beyond academia: cutting-edge startups and ML-driven corps are pioneering CL solutions.

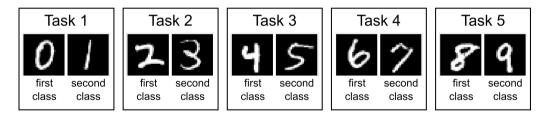








A CL classification problem is split in T tasks; during each task $t \in \{1, ..., T\}$ input samples x and their corresponding ground truth labels y are drawn from an i.i.d. distribution D_t .



A function f, with parameters θ , has to be optimized on one task at a time, in a sequential manner.

Image from "Three scenarios for continual learning" by Gido M. van de Ven et. al. (2019).



GOAL: to correctly classify, at any given point in training, examples from any of the observed tasks up to the current one $t \in \{1, ..., t_c\}$:

$$\underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{t=1}^{t_c} \mathcal{L}_t, \quad \text{where} \quad \mathcal{L}_t \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim D_t} \big[\ell(y, f_{\theta}(x)) \big]. \tag{1}$$

Challenge. Data from previous tasks are assumed to be unavailable, meaning that the best configuration of θ w.r.t. $\mathcal{L}_{1...t_c}$ must be sought without D_t for $t \in \{1, \ldots, t_c - 1\}$.



Elastic Weigth Consolidation (EWC). Introduced by Kirkpatrick et. al. in 2017, it is one of first approaches to deal with *catastrophic forgetting*.

Biologically inspired. EWC takes inspiration from brains.

- **Plasticity.** The ability of the nervous system to change its activity in response to intrinsic or extrinsic stimuli by reorganizing its structure, functions, or connections.
- Synaptic consolidation enables continual learning by reducing the plasticity of synapses that are vital to previously learned tasks.



Synaptic consolidation enables continual learning by reducing the plasticity of synapses that are vital to previously learned tasks.

Similarly, EWC constraints **important** parameters **to stay close** to their **old values** through a tailored regularization loss (a **quadratic penalty**).

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{B}}(\theta) + \sum_{i} \frac{\lambda}{2} F_{i}(\theta_{i} - \theta_{\mathrm{A},i}^{*})^{2}$$

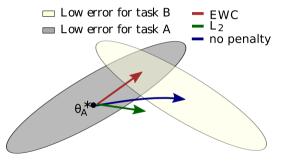
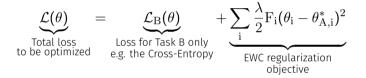


Image from "Overcoming catastrophic forgetting in neural networks" by Kirkpatrick et. al. (2017).



Similarly, EWC constraints **important** parameters **to stay close** to their **old values** through a tailored regularization loss (a **quadratic penalty**).

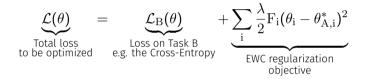


where:

- θ_{A}^{*} is the set of optimum parameters for the previous task A
- F_i is an estimate of how much each parameter $\theta^*_{A,i}$ is important for preserving the performance in task A
- λ is an hyper-parameter.



Similarly, EWC constraints **important** parameters **to stay close** to their **old values** through a tailored regularization loss (a **quadratic penalty**).



It can be imagined as a spring **anchoring** the parameters to the previous solution, hence the name **elastic**.

Importantly, the stiffness of this spring should not be the same for all parameters; rather, **it should be greater** for those parameters that **matter most** to the performance during task A.



The formula introduced in the previous slides requires to determine which parameters are **important**.

How? Many heuristics could be envisioned; EWC uses the diagonal of the empirical **Fisher Information Matrix** computed at the optimum of the first task θ_A^* .

$$I_{\theta_A^*} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \underbrace{\nabla_{\theta} \text{log } p(x_A^{(i)} | \theta_A^*)}_{\text{gradients of the loss function}} \nabla_{\theta} \text{log } p(x_A^{(i)} | \theta_A^*)^T$$

It can be computed from first-order derivatives (**easy to calculate**) by a simple moving average of **squared gradients**.

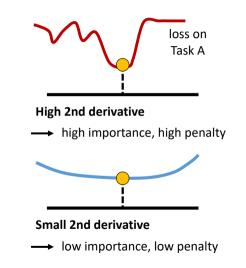
Check the PyTorch implementation here or here.



There is a theoretical relation between the empirical Fisher Information Matrix (FIM) and the **second derivative** of the loss near a minimum.

As such, the FIM captures the **curvature** of the log likelihood function: a high Fisher information indicates that the log likelihood is **sharply** peaked there.

For such a reason, it would be inconvenient to modify the corresponding weight.

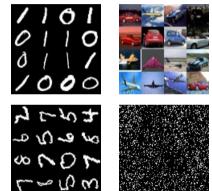


Continual Learning



Continual Learning approaches are predominantly evaluated on abstract image classification settings:

- Sequential MNIST: Task 1: classify 0 and 1; Task 2: classify 2 and 3, etc.
- Sequential CIFAR: Task 1: airplane vs car; Task 2: bird vs cat, etc.
- Rotated MNIST: classify digits with rotation changing.
- **Permuted MNIST**: classify digits with a different pixel permutation for each task.



Long and complex benchmarks are regarded as more realistic, but can be quite demanding in terms of total compute.



Train/test splits. Each task is split into training and test sets.

- Training phase: the model learns the tasks in a sequential manner.
- **Testing phase:** the model is evaluated all on the test sets jointly (*order does not matter*).

Multiple epochs are usually allowed on each task, so that the model can fit the current task well.

Hyperparameter tuning and cross-validation Unfortunately, no established and common practices already exist.



Metrics. The average accuracy is the most common one.

Formally. Given a test set for each of the T tasks, and indicating with $R_{i,j}$ the test classification accuracy on task t_j after observing the last sample from task t_i , we have:

Average Accuracy: ACC =
$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{T} R_{T,i}$$
. (2)

It can be measured either at any given point within the tasks' sequence, or after the end of the last task (as in the formula).

Other metrics could be used, such as **Backward and Forward Transfer** (BWT and FWT), introduced by David Lopez-Paz et. al. in "Gradient Episodic Memory for Continual Learning".



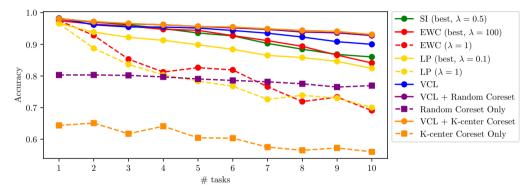


Figure 2: Average test set accuracy on all observed tasks in the Permuted MNIST experiment.

Image from "Variational Continual Learning" by Nguyen et. al. (2017).



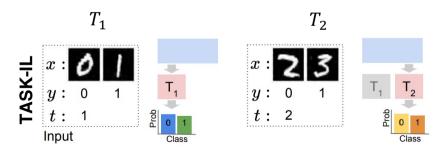
Three main evaluation scenarios:

- Task-Incremental Learning (Task-IL)
- Class-Incremental Learning (Class-IL)
- Domain-Incremental Learning (Domain-IL)



Task-Incremental Learning (Task-IL)

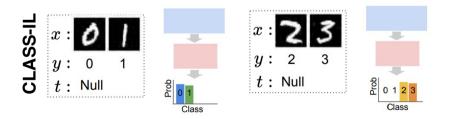
- During training, each task is learned separately;
- At test time, each example to be tested is coupled with its **task identity**, indicating the index of the task the example belongs to.
- This way, the model can select the right classification head.





Class-Incremental Learning (Class-IL)

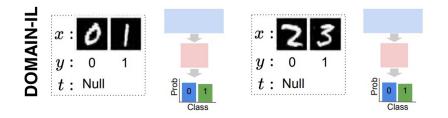
- As in Task-IL, each task is learned separately during training;
- Differently from Task-IL, task identities are not provided at test time;
- Class-IL is more **challenging**, as the model has to guess the correct class among all the classes seen so far.





Domain-Incremental Learning (Domain-IL)

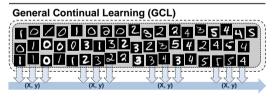
- Differently from both Task-IL and Class-IL, the set of classes remains **stable** across the tasks and **does not grow**,
- Each task introduces a **domain shift**, a change in the underlying probability distribution the input are sampled from,
- It may be simulated through data transformation (*e.g.* rotations, permutations),





General Continual Learning: no clear boundaries between subsequent tasks; the data distribution is supposed to change smoothly over time.

Online Class-IL/Task-IL: only a single pass (*epoch*) is allowed on each task.



Continual Learning (CL)



Continual semi-supervised/self-supervised learning: examples may be either partly labeled, or completely unlabeled.

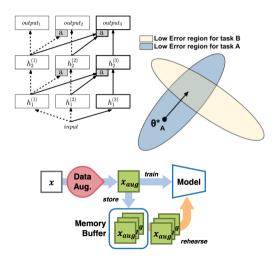
Data-Incremental Learning (Data-IL): the set of classes is stable across tasks; the tasks derive from different partitions of the original training set.

N.B. In this lecture, we will focus on Class-IL, which is by far the most studied.



CL approaches are typically categorized into three categories:

- Architectural methods: distinct sub-models for distinct tasks.
- **Regularization methods**: specific loss terms (weight importance, knowledge distillation) to prevent the model from changing.
- **Replay methods**: store previously seen examples in a memory buffer and use them in later iterations.



Architectural approaches



Observation. NNs forget as the updates introduced in later tasks overwrite the optimal parametrization attained for past tasks.

• Learning all incremental tasks with a **shared** set of parameters (i.e., a single model as well as one parameter space) is a major cause of the **inter-task interference**.

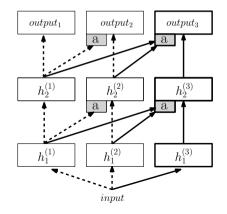
How can we mitigate it?



Architectural methods devote distinct sub-models/task-specific parameters for distinct tasks.

Main idea. adding new parameters, tailored for the new tasks.

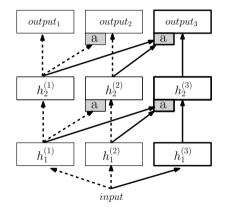
These approaches **isolate** parameters for specific tasks and can guarantee maximal stability by **fixing** the parameter subsets of previous tasks.





An example: **Progressive Neural Networks** (PNN) by Rusu et. al..

In PNN, *Catastrophic forgetting* is prevented by instantiating a new neural network (a **column**) for each task being solved, while **transfer** is enabled via **lateral connections** to features of previously learned columns.

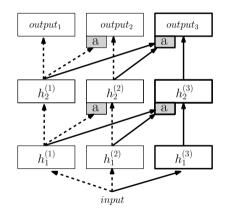




Accuracy. Progressive networks are immune to catastrophic forgetting by design.

Knowledge reuse. The addition of new capacity alongside pretrained networks gives these models the flexibility to both reuse old computations and learn new ones.

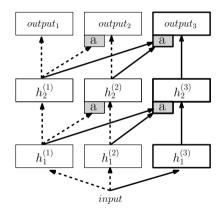
... what about its disadvantages?





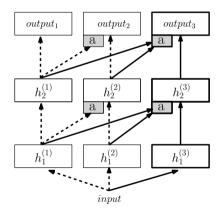
Not scalable. The number of parameters grow with the number of tasks.

- Huge memory requirements :(
- There is an intrinsic bound on the number of tasks that can be learned :(





Not suitable for Class-IL. Choosing which column to use for inference requires knowledge of the task label, which is allowed only in the Task-IL scenario.





Addressing the scalability issue. The authors of PNN observed that only a fraction of the new capacity is actually utilized, and that this trend increases with more columns.

Countermeasures. Adding fewer layers or less capacity, by pruning, or by online compression during learning. Some examples:

- PackNet (next slide)
- PathNet
- Piggyback
- HAT (Hard Attention to the Task)



PackNet by Mallya et. al. exploit redundancies in large deep networks to **free up** parameters that can then be employed to learn new tasks.

Iterative pruning and **Network re-training**. PackNet sequentially **packs** multiple tasks into a single network with minimal drop in performance and storage overhead.

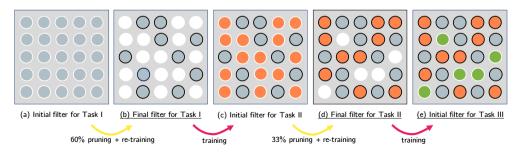


Image from "PackNet: Adding Multiple Tasks to a Single Network by Iterative Pruning" by Mallya et. al.

Regularization approaches



Regularization approaches add **explicit regularization terms** in the loss function to balance the old and new tasks.

They apply **weight sharing** across tasks and do not instantiate additional parameters.

- Reduced memory footprint :)
- An example from previous slides: EWC

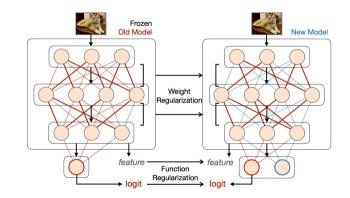
However, the auxiliary regularization objective usually requires to store a **frozen** copy of the old model for **reference**.



Depending on the target of regularization, such methods can be divided into two sub-directions.

- Weight regularization
- Function regularization

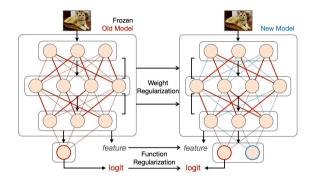
Image from "A Comprehensive Survey of Continual Learning: Theory, Method and Application" by Wang et. al. (2023).





Weight regularization approaches selectively regularize the variation of network parameters.

e.g., through a quadratic **penalty** that penalizes the variation of each parameter depending on its *importance* to performing the old tasks.

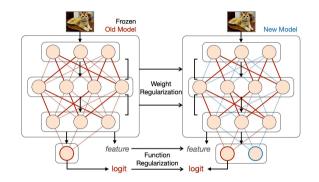


Some examples: EWC, Synaptic Intelligence (SI), MAS, RWalk, etc.



Function regularization approaches target the intermediate or final output of the prediction function.

Teacher-student paradigm. They typically employ the previously-learned model as the teacher and the currently-trained model as the student.



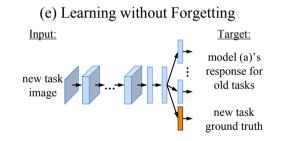
Some examples: Learning without Forgetting (LwF, next slides).



Goal. To learn a network that can perform well on both old tasks and new tasks when only new-task data is present.

LwF in few words

Applying **Knowledge Distillation (KD)** between the teacher (the old network, with frozen parameters) and the student (the current one, learning the current task).

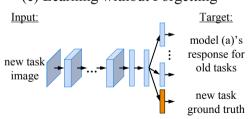


Conversity of Moderna and Reggio Emilia

Step 1: Given a new-task image, compute a forward pass through the network appointed at the end of the previous task (the *teacher*).

This way, you have an output (probability), which can be treated as an additional "*pseudo label*" for the new-task data.

Step 2: Train a new network (the *student*) only on the examples of the new task, using both the true labels and the generated pseudo labels.



(e) Learning without Forgetting



Advantages.

- Bounded memory cost
- They can further distills knowledge on the large stream of unlabeled data that may be available in the wild

Disadvantages.

- Not very effective on long tasks
- Vulnerable to domain shift between tasks

Solution. Provide a few training samples from old tasks (**replaying approaches** \rightarrow).

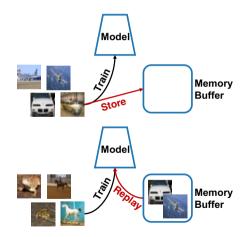
Rehearsal approaches



Rehearsal approaches store previously seen examples in a **memory buffer** and use them in later iterations.

Experience replay (ER). An old, simple, yet surprisingly effective baseline for CL.

- Simple and straightforward :)
- Performance proportional to memory size :(
- It may clash with privacy constraints :(



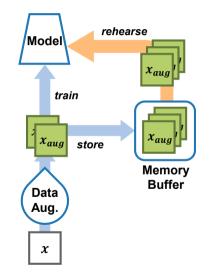


Experience replay (ER) stores a few old training samples within a small memory buffer \mathcal{B} , with fixed memory capacity.

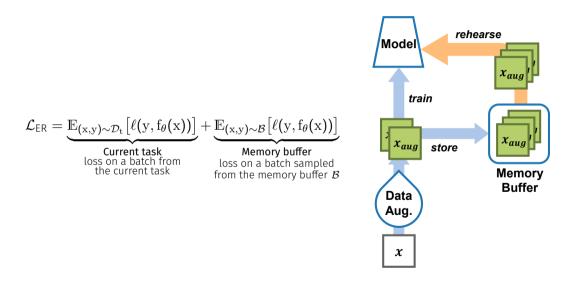
• *e.g.*, it can contain only 500 examples of past tasks.

Loss function. Indicating with ℓ the cross-entropy loss between the output f_{θ} and the true labels y, we have that:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ER}} = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim\mathcal{D}_t} \big[\ell(y, f_{\theta}(x)) \big] + \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim\mathcal{B}} \big[\ell(y, f_{\theta}(x)) \big].$$









```
Algorithm 1 Experience Replay (ER) with Reservoir Sampling
  procedure Train(D, \theta, \alpha, k)
      M \leftarrow \{\}
      for t = 1, ..., T do
          for (x, y) in D_t do
               // Draw batch from buffer:
               B \leftarrow sample(x, y, k, M)
               // Update parameters with mini-batch SGD:
              \theta \leftarrow \text{SGD}(B, \theta, \alpha)
               // Memory buffer update:
              M \leftarrow M \cup \{(x, y)\}
          end for
      end for
      return \theta. M
  end procedure
```

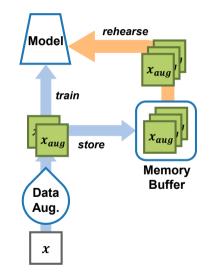
Challenges



How to build the memory buffer?

Challenges. Due to the extremely limited storage space, the key challenges consist of how to construct and how to exploit the memory buffer.

As for construction, the preserved old training samples should be carefully selected, compressed, augmented, and updated, in order to recover the past information in an adaptive manner.





Reservoir sampling provides an **online strategy** to construct the memory buffer.

In particular, it solves the problem of keeping some limited number M of N total items seen before with **equal probability** $\frac{M}{N}$ when you don't know what number N will be in advance.

Algorithm 2 Reservoir Sampling

```
procedure \operatorname{Reservoir}(M, N, x, y)
    if M > N then
        M[N] \leftarrow (x, y)
    else
       j = randint(min = 0, max = N)
       if j < M then
            M[j] \leftarrow (x, y)
        end if
    end if
    return M
end procedure
```



Other common sampling strategies.

- **Ring Buffer**, which further ensures an equal number of old training samples per class,
- Weighted reservoir sampling, retain difficult examples with higher probability,
- Mean-of-Feature selects an equal number of old training samples that are closest to the feature mean of each class,
- Gradient-based or optimizable strategies as **GSS**, which maximizes the **sample diversity**.
- Other fixed principles, such as the **k-means**.



Due to its simplicity, ER is an ideal starting point to develop a strong CL method. However, it is affected by some key issues:

- ER repeatedly optimizes a relatively small buffer: possible overfitting problem
- Incrementally learning a sequence of classes implicitly biases the network towards newer tasks.

Solution. Again, Knowledge Distillation (next slide).

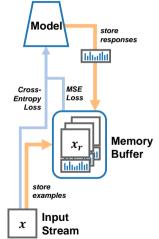


Dark Experience Replay, DER: an approach relying on *Dark Knowledge* for retaining past experiences.

As ER, it maintains a subset of past network responses in a buffer \mathcal{B} ; then, in addition to the loss of the current task \mathcal{L}_{t_c} , DER minimizes the L^2 distances between past and current outputs for buffer datapoints:

$$\mathcal{L}_{t_{c}} + \alpha \mathbb{E}_{(x,z)\sim\mathcal{B}} \big[\|z - h_{\theta}(x)\|_{2}^{2} \big].$$

DER++ is a variant of DER that also asks the learner to predict the ground truth labels for past examples.





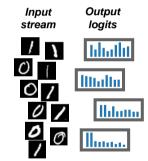
$$\mathcal{L}_{t_{c}} + \alpha \mathbb{E}_{(x,z)\sim\mathcal{B}} \left[\left\| z - h_{\theta}(x) \right\|_{2}^{2} \right]$$

Function Regularization MSE current responses vs those stored in the memory buffer.

The logits stored into the memory buffer are not just proxies for the ground-truth labels, but have a **deeper meaning**

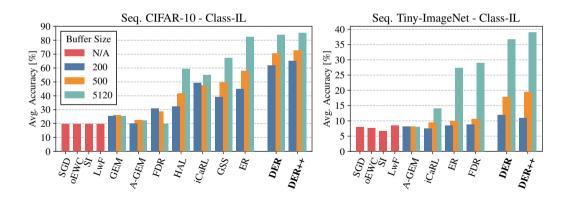
Secondary information: logits are more informative than labels, as they encode visual similarities and the relations between classes.

• Therefore, they carry out a more insightful signal regarding past tasks.





Compared to existing approaches, ER, DER and DER++ achieve strong performance, despite their simplicity.





Other common rehearsal approaches.

- Gradient Episodic Memory (GEM) and its lightweight variant Average-GEM (A-GEM)
- Meta Experience Replay (MER)
- Incremental Classifier and Representation Learning (iCaRL)
- Learning a Unified Classifier Incrementally via Rebalancing (LUCIR)

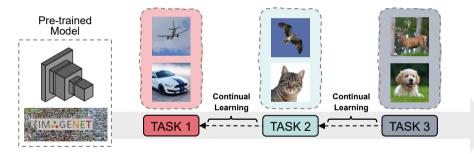
Approaches tailored to Vision Transformers (VIT):

• Learning-to-prompt (L2P)

Continual with Pre-trained models



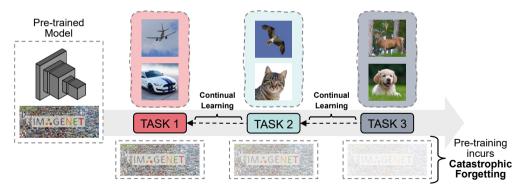
Pre-Training is commonly employed in the vast majority of scenarios.



Pre-training & Catastrophic Forgetting

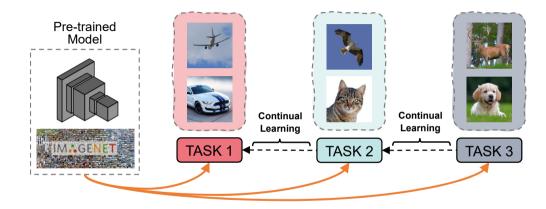


- ... due to forgetting it is effective only in the first task!
- CL does not protect pre-training from Forgetting



Pre-training & Catastrophic Forgetting





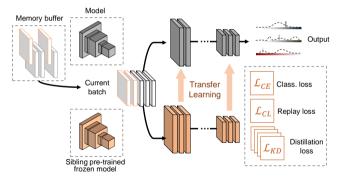
- The objective is to use (transfer) its knowledge to the following tasks
- No need to maintain the ability to solve the pre-training task

The Pre-train is not an additional task

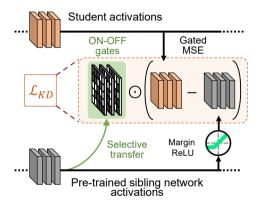


Idea: distill knowledge from a frozen pre-trained sibling network.

Multilevel Knowledge Distillation: features from the sibling are *adapted* by small learned modules.







• Feature Distillation: match in-training and pre-trained activations.

$$\sum_{l=1}^{L} ||\mathbb{M}(\hat{h}^{(l)};t) \odot (f^{(l)} - \mathsf{ReLU}_m(\hat{h}^{(l)}))||_2^2$$

• Attention *gates* (spatial- and channel-wise) **modulate** the transfer.

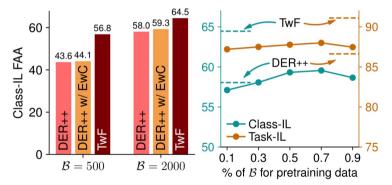
 $\mathbb{M}(\hat{\mathrm{h}}^{(l)}) \triangleq \mathsf{gumbel}(\mathbb{M}_{\mathsf{Ch}}(\hat{\mathrm{h}}^{(l)}) + \mathbb{M}_{\mathsf{Sp}}(\hat{\mathrm{h}}^{(l)}))$

Attention maps are also **replayed** during CL.

Comparison with EwC and Replay



- Using **EwC** on pre-training weights (left)
- DER++ also replaying pre-training data (right)



Both effective, but less so than TwF.



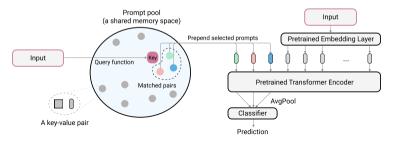
Model Tuning **Prompt Learning** • **Prompting**: a transfer learning (Fine-tuning) technique originated in the field Pre-trained Model Pre-trained Model of Natural Language Processing ₩FROZEN ₩ 🔥 TUNABLE 🔥 • With **prompting** we leave the pre-trained knowledge intact and only train a few additional **I FARNARI F** Input sequence Input sequence parameters Soft Prompt

AImage



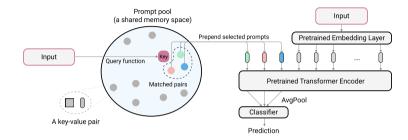
... training all the prompts in all tasks would incur forgetting!

- Learning to Prompt: Select a subset of prompts depending on the current input
- Ideally, inputs that share information should also share prompts



Learning to Prompt for Continual Learning





- Each prompt P_i is associated to a learnable key k_i : $\{(P_i, k_i)\}_{i=1}^N$
- Introduce a **query** function q(x) and select the M prompts whose key best matches the query: $K_x = \operatorname{argmin}_{\{s_i\}_{i=1}^N \subseteq [1,M]} \sum_{i=1}^N \operatorname{diff}(q(x), k_{s_i})$
- Directly use the pre-trained frozen model to get the query: $q(x) = f_0(x)$
- Replay free!



More elaborate prompting mechanisms are possible

- DualPrompt, CODA-Prompt, S-Prompt to name a few.
- We can adapt even Large Pretrained Models (*e.g.*, CLIP) see Prompt-Fusion, AttriCLIP

... but is it the best we can do?

• Some preliminary works suggest that fine-tuning the whole model can achieve higher performance *even in continual*

Credits



These slides heavily borrow from a number of awesome sources. I'm really grateful to all the people who take the time to share their knowledge on this subject with others. In particular:

• De Lange, M., Aljundi, R., Masana, M., Parisot, S., Jia, X., Leonardis, A., ... & Tuytelaars, T. (2021). A continual learning survey: Defying forgetting in classification tasks. IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence, 44(7), 3366-3385.

Credits ii



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