Continual Casual Representation Learning

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Abstract

Unsupervised identification of disentangled representations remains a challenging problem. Recent progress in nonlinear Independent Component Analysis (ICA) provides a promising causal representation learning framework by separating latent sources from observable nonlinear mixtures. However, its identifiability hinges on the incorporation of side information, such as time or domain indexes, which are challenging to obtain adequately offline in real-world scenarios. In this paper, we develop a novel approach for nonlinear ICA that effectively accommodates continually arriving domains. We first theoretically demonstrate that model identifiability escalates from subspace to component-wise identifiability as new domains are involved. It motivates us to maintain prior knowledge and progressively refine it using new arriving domains. Upon observing a new domain, our approach optimizes the model by satisfying two objectives: (1) reconstructing the observations within the current domain, and (2) preserving the reconstruction capabilities for prior domains through gradient constraints. Experiments demonstrate that our method achieves performance comparable to nonlinear ICA methods trained jointly on multiple offline domains, demonstrating its practical applicability in continual learning scenarios.

1 Introduction

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Causal representation learning aims at recovering high-level semantic variables from low-level observations and their casual relations. Compared with current deep learning models which are trained as black-box functions, it is more explainable and generalizable by the identification of the underlying causal generation process. A widely recognized theoretical finding suggests that estimating those latent variables in a fully unsupervised way is inherently challenging without further assumptions [12]. Among multiple efforts towards this problem [35, 27], nonlinear ICA attracts a lot of attention by providing a promising framework and demonstrating an identification guarantee.

Nonlinear ICA focuses on recovering independent latent variables from their nonlinear mixtures. Denote an observed n-dimensional vector by \mathbf{x} , which is generated by a number of independent latent variables \mathbf{z} through an arbitrary invertible mixing function g as $\mathbf{x} = g(\mathbf{z})$. The objective of nonlinear ICA is to reconstruct the latent variables \mathbf{z} by discovering the inverse function g^{-1} based on the observation \mathbf{x} only in an unsupervised manner. Apparently, without additional constraints, we can never find out a meaningful solution. More rigorously, the identifiability of nonlinear ICA cannot be guaranteed when only relying on independence assumption [12].

To address this problem, existing works focus on adding constraints on the mixing function [6, 38, 1], or most popularly, benefiting from the non-stationary of source data [10, 11, 13, 15] to advance the identifiability. By introducing auxiliary variable **u** and assuming the non-i.i.d sources are conditionally independent given **u**, the latent variables can be estimated up to component-wise identifiability. Although current research on nonlinear ICA has made great progress, it still relies on observing sufficient domains simultaneously, which limits its application to scenarios where

changing domains may arrive sequentially. Specifically, the model trained with sequential arrival of domains without making adjustments is equivalent to the scenario where only one domain is observed. Consequently, the model becomes unidentifiable.

In this paper, we present a novel approach to learning causal representation in continually arriving 42 domains. Distinct from traditional continual classification tasks, continual causal representation 43 learning (CCRL) requires that the model leverages the changes in distribution across varying domains. This implies that the problem cannot be segregated into discrete local learning tasks, such as learning 45 causal representation within individual domains and subsequently fusing them. In this context, we 46 conduct a theoretical examination of the relationships between model identification and the number 47 of observed domains. Our findings suggest that model identifiability escalates as additional domains 48 are incorporated. In particular, subspace identification can be achieved with n+1 domains, while 49 component-wise identification necessitates 2n+1 domains or more. This indicates that when the 50 domain count is inadequate (n + 1), we can only identify the manifold spanned by a subset of latent 51 variables. However, by utilizing the new side information in the distribution change of arriving domains, we can further disentangle this subset.

This discovery motivates us to develop a method that retains prior knowledge and refines it using 54 information derived from incoming domains, a process reminiscent of human learning mechanisms. 55 To realize causal representation learning, we employ two objectives: (1) the reconstruction of 56 observations within the current domain, and (2) the preservation of reconstruction capabilities for 57 preceding domains via gradient constraints. To accomplish these goals, we apply Gradient Episodic Memory (GEM) [19] to constrain the model's gradients. GEM aligns the gradients of the new domain with those of prior domains by eliminating factors within the current domain that are detrimental 60 to previous domains. Through empirical evaluations, we demonstrate that our continual approach 61 delivers performance on par with nonlinear ICA techniques trained jointly across multiple offline 62 domains. Importantly, the guarantee of identifiability persists even when incoming domains do not 63 introduce substantial changes for partial variables. Furthermore, we demonstrate that the sequential 64 order of domains can enhance the identification process in causal representation learning. 65

6 2 Related Work

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Causal representation learning. Beyond conventional representation learning, causal representation 67 learning aims to identify the underlying causal generation process and recover the latent causal 68 variables. There are pieces of work aiming towards this goal. For example, it has been demonstrated 69 in previous studies that latent variables can be identified in linear-Gaussian models by utilizing 70 the vanishing Tetrad conditions [28], as well as the more general concept of t-separation [27]. 71 72 Additionally, the Generalized Independent Noise(GIN) condition tried to identify a linear non-Gaussian causal graph [35]. However, all of these methods are constrained to the linear case while 73 nonlinear ICA provides a promising framework that learns identifiable latent causal representations 74 based on their non-linear mixture. However, the identifiability of nonlinear ICA has proven to be 75 a challenging task [12], which always requires further assumptions as auxiliary information, such 76 as temporal structures [29], non-stationarities [10, 11], or a general form as auxiliary variable [13]. 77 These methods indicate that sufficient domains (changes) are crucial for ensuring the identifiability 78 of nonlinear ICA. In this paper, we consider the scenario that changing domains may arrive not 79 80 simultaneously but sequentially or even not adequately.

Continual learning. In conventional machine learning tasks, the model is trained on a dedicated dataset for a specific task, then tested on a hold-out dataset drawn from the same distribution. However, this assumption may contradict some real-world scenarios, where the data distribution varies over time. It motivates researchers to explore continual learning to enable an artificial intelligence system to learn continuously over time from a stream of data, tasks, or experiences without losing its proficiency in the ones it has already learned. The most common setting is class incremental recognition [22, 8, 32], where new unseen classification categories with different domains arrive sequentially. To solve this problem, existing methods are commonly divided into three categories. Regulization-based methods [23, 37, 5, 25, 30, 33] add the constraints on the task-wise gradients to prevent the catastrophic forgetting when updating network weights for new arriving domains. Memory-based methods [24, 22, 19, 3, 4, 9, 14, 26, 21, 32] propose to store previous knowledge in a memory, such as a small set of examples, a part of weights, or episodic gradients to alleviate forgetting. Distillation-based methods [17, 22, 8, 2, 34, 36, 31, 18, 20] remember the knowledge

trained on previous tasks by applying knowledge distillation between previous network and currently 94 trained network. Please note that CCRL is distinct from conventional class incremental recognition. 95 It is because CCRL needs to leverage the domain change (comparing two domains) to identify the 96 latent variables. This implies that the problem cannot be divided into discrete local learning tasks, 97 such as learning causal representation within individual domains and then merging them together, 98 while training separate networks for different tasks will definitely reach state-of-the-art performance 99 in a continual classification learning scenario. Thus, we introduce a memory model to store the 100 information of previous domains and use it to adjust the model parameters. 101

Identifiable Nonlinear ICA with Sequentially Arriving Domains

In this section, we conduct a theoretical examination of the relationship between model identification and the number of domains. Initially, we introduce the causal generation process of our model (in Section 3.1), which considers the dynamics of changing domains. Subsequently, we demonstrate that model identifiability improves with the inclusion of additional domains. More specifically, we can achieve component-wise identification with 2n+1 domains (in Section 3.2.1), and subspace identification with n+1 domains (in Section 3.2.2). Building on these theoretical insights, we introduce our method for learning causal representation in the context of continually emerging domains (in Section 3.3).

3.1 Problem Setting 111

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As shown in Figure 1, we consider the data generation process as follows: 112

$$\mathbf{z}_c \sim p_{\mathbf{z}_c}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s \sim p_{\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s}, \quad \mathbf{z}_s = f_{\mathbf{u}}(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s), \quad \mathbf{x} = g(\mathbf{z}_c, \mathbf{z}_s),$$
 (1)

where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ are the observations mixed by latent variables 113 $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ through an invertible and smooth nonlinear function 114 $\mathbf{g}: \mathcal{Z} \to \mathcal{X}$. The latent varirables \mathbf{z} can be partitioned into two 115 groups: changing variables $\mathbf{z}_s \in \mathcal{Z}_s \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_s}$ whose distribution 116 changes across domains \mathbf{u} , and invariant variables $\mathbf{z}_c \in \mathcal{Z}_c \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_c}$ 117 which remains invariant. Given T domains in total, we have 118 $p_{\mathbf{z}_s|\mathbf{u}_k} \neq p_{\mathbf{z}_s|\mathbf{u}_l}, p_{\mathbf{z}_c|\mathbf{u}_k} = p_{\mathbf{z}_s|\mathbf{u}_l} \text{ for all } k,l \in \{1,\ldots,T\}, k \neq l.$ We parameterize the influence of domains \mathbf{u} for changing variables 120 121 \mathbf{z}_s as the function of \mathbf{u} to its parent variables $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s$, i.e. $\mathbf{z}_s = f_{\mathbf{u}}(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s)$. One can understand this setting with the following example: sup-122 pose the higher level variables follow Gaussian distribution, i.e., 123 $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$, and \mathbf{u} could be a vector denoting the variance of the 124 distribution. The combination of \mathbf{u} with $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s$ will produce a Gaussian

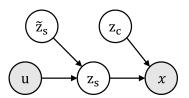


Figure 1: Data generation **process.** x is influenced by variables z_s (change with different domains u) and invariant variables \mathbf{z}_c .

variable with different variances at different domains. In this paper, we assume $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s$ follows the 126 Gaussian distribution to make it tractable. 127

The objective of nonlinear ICA is to recover the latent variables \mathbf{z}_s and \mathbf{z}_c given the observation \mathbf{x} 128 and domain variables u by estimating the unmixing function g^{-1} . In this paper, we consider the 129 case where domains arrive sequentially, i.e., we aim to recover the latent variables by sequentially 130 observing $\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_1,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_2,\ldots,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_T$. 131

3.2 Identifiability Theory of Nonlinear ICA

The identifiability is the key to nonlinear ICA to guarantee meaningful recovery of the latent variables. 133 Mathematically, the identifiability of a model is defined as 134

$$\forall (\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}') : p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}'}(\mathbf{x}) \Longrightarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}',$$
 (2)

where θ represents the parameter generating the observation x. That is, if any two different choices 135 of model parameter θ and θ' lead to the same distribution, then this implies that θ and θ' are equal 136 [15]. For our data generation defined in Eq (1), we have $\theta = (g, \mathbf{z}_c, \mathbf{z}_s)$, and $\theta' = (\hat{g}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_c, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_s)$ which 137 denotes the estimated mixing function, estimated invariant variables, and estimated changing variables 138 respectively. Thus, a fully identifiable nonlinear ICA needs to satisfy at least two requirements: the 139 ability to reconstruct the observation and the complete consistency with the true generating process. Unfortunately, current research is far from achieving this level of identifiability. Therefore, existing

works typically adopt a weaker notion of identifiability. In the following, we discuss two types of 142 identifiability for the changing variable, and show that the identifiability progressively increases from 143 subspace identifiability to component-wise one by incorporating more domains. 144

In this work, we follow [16] and assume our estimated latent process $(\hat{q}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_c, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_s)$ could generate 145 observation $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ with identical distribution with observation \mathbf{x} generated by the true latent process 146 $(q, \mathbf{z}_c, \mathbf{z}_s)$, i.e., 147

 $p_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}'|\mathbf{u}') = p_{\mathbf{\hat{x}}|\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}'|\mathbf{u}'), \quad \mathbf{x}' \in \mathcal{X}, \mathbf{u}' \in \mathcal{U}.$ (3)

3.2.1 Component-wise Identifiability for Changing Variable

First, we show that the changing variable can be identified up to permutation and component-wise 149 invertible transformation with sufficient changing domains. Specifically, for the true latent changing 150 variable \mathbf{z}_s , there exists an invertible function $h = g^{-1} \circ \hat{g} : \mathbb{R}^{n_s} \to \mathbb{R}^{n_s}$ such that $\mathbf{z}_s = h(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_s)$, 151 where h is composed of a permutation transformation π and a component-wise nonlinear invertible 152 transformation A, i.e., $\hat{g} = g \circ \pi \circ A$. That is, the estimated variable \hat{z}_j and the true variable z_i have 153 a one-to-one correspondence with an invertible transformation for $\forall i, j \in \{1, \dots, n_s\}$. We have the 154 following lemma from [16]. 155

Lemma 1 Suppose that the data generation process follows Eq. (1) and that the following assump-156 tions hold: 157

- 1. The set $\{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z} \mid p(\mathbf{z}) = 0\}$ has measure zero.
- 2. The probability density given each domain should be sufficiently smooth. i.e., $p_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}}$ is at least second-order differentiable.
- 3. Given domain **u**, every element of latent variable **z** should be independent with each other. i.e., $z_i \perp \!\!\! \perp z_j | \mathbf{u}$ for $i, j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $i \neq j$.
- 4. For any $\mathbf{z}_s \in \mathcal{Z}_s$, there exists $2n_s + 1$ values of \mathbf{u} , such that for $k = 1, \dots, 2n_s$, i = $1, \ldots, n_s$, the following matrix is invertible:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi_1''(1,0) & \dots & \phi_i''(1,0) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}''(1,0) & \phi_1'(1,0) & \dots & \phi_i'(1,0) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}'(1,0) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_1''(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_i''(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}''(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) & \phi_1'(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_i'(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}'(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_1''(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_i''(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}''(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_i'(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}'(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) \end{bmatrix},$$

where

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$$\phi_i''(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) := \frac{\partial^2 \log(p_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_\mathbf{k}))}{\partial z_i^2} - \frac{\partial^2 \log(p_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_\mathbf{0}))}{\partial z_i^2}, \phi_i'(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) := \frac{\partial \log(p_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_\mathbf{k}))}{\partial z_i} - \frac{\partial \log(p_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_\mathbf{0}))}{\partial z_i}$$

are defined as as the difference between second-order derivative and first-order derivative of log density of z_i between domain $\mathbf{u_k}$ and domain $\mathbf{u_0}$ respectively,

Then, by learning the estimation $\hat{q}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_c, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_s$ to achieve Eq (3), \mathbf{z}_s is component-wise identifiable. ¹ 168

The proof can be found in Appendix A. Basically, the theorem states that if the distribution of latent variables are "complex" enough and each domain brings enough changes to those changing variables, 170 those changing variables z_s are component-wise identifiable.

Repeated distributions for partial changing variables. Previous works assume that when the 172 domain changes, the changing variables will undergo a distribution shift. However, this assumption 173 may be overly restrictive for practical scenarios, because there is no guarantee or clear justification 174 that the data distribution of all changing variables will change when the domain changes. Specifically, 175 there may exist domains with the same distribution for partial variables:

$$p_{\mathbf{z}|u}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_k) = p_{\mathbf{z}|u}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_l) \quad \exists k, l \in \{0, \dots, 2n_s\}, k \neq l, i \in \{1, \dots, n_s\}.$$
 (4)

¹We only focus on changing variables \mathbf{z}_s in this paper. One may refer [16] for those who are interested in the identifiability of \mathbf{z}_c .

In practical human experience, we frequently encounter novel information that enhances or modifies our existing knowledge base. Often, these updates only alter specific aspects of our understanding, leaving the remainder intact. This raises an intriguing question about model identifiability: Does such partial knowledge alteration impact the invertibility of the matrix, as delineated in Assumption 4 of Lemma 1? To address this question, we present the following remark, with further details provided in Appendix A.

Remark 1 Even when there are repeated distributions for partial variables, the component-wise identifiability for z_s still holds as long as the conditions of Lemma1 are satisfied. Furthermore, if there are more than two changing variables in the system, it is necessary for each changing variable to have at least three non-repetitive distributions across all domains.

3.2.2 Subspace Identifiability for Changing Variable

Although component-wise identifiability is powerful and attractive, holding $2n_s+1$ different domains with sufficient changes remains a rather strong condition and may be hard to meet in practice. In this regard, we investigate the problem of what will happen if we have fewer domains. We first introduce a notion of identifiability that is weaker compared to the component-wise identifiability discussed in the previous section.

Definition 1 (Subspace Identifiability of Changing Variable) We say that the true changing variable \mathbf{z}_s are subspace identifiable if, for the estimated changing variables $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_s$ and each changing variable $z_{s,i}$, there exists a function $h_i: \mathbb{R}^{n_s} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $z_{s,i} = h_i(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_s)$.

We now provide the following identifiability result that uses a considerably weaker condition (compared to Lemma 1) to achieve the subspace identifiability defined above, using only $n_s + 1$ domains.

Theorem 1 Suppose that the data generation process follows Eq. (1) and that Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 of Lemma 1 hold. For any $\mathbf{z}_s \in \mathcal{Z}_s$, we further assume that there exists $n_s + 1$ values of \mathbf{u} such that for $i = 1, \ldots, n_s$ and $k = 1, \ldots, n_s$, the following matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi_1'(\mathbf{1},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_i'(\mathbf{1},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}'(\mathbf{1},\mathbf{0}) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \phi'(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_i'(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}'(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_1'(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_i'(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) & \dots & \phi_{n_s}'(\mathbf{2n_s},\mathbf{0}) \end{bmatrix}$$

201 is invertible, where

$$\phi_i'(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{0}) := \frac{\partial \log(p_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_\mathbf{k}))}{\partial z_i} - \frac{\partial \log(p_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}}(z_i|\mathbf{u}_\mathbf{0}))}{\partial z_i}$$

is the difference of first-order derivative of log density of z_i between domain $\mathbf{u_k}$ and domain $\mathbf{u_0}$ respectively. Then, by learning the estimation $\hat{g}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_c, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_s$ to achieve Eq (3), \mathbf{z}_s is subspace identifiable.

The proof can be found in Appendix A. Basically, Theorem 1 proposes a weaker form of identifiability with relaxed conditions. With n_s+1 different domains, each true changing variable can be expressed as a function of all estimated changing variables. This indicates that the estimated changing variables capture all information for the true changing variables, and thus disentangle changing and invariant variables, enabling more robust and informed insights for potential applications in other fields such as domain adaptation. It is worth noting that if there is only one changing variable, such subspace identifiability can lead to component-wise identifiability.

New domains may impair original identifiability. Consider a toy case where there are three variables with four domains in total as shown in the top case of Figure 2. The first variable z_1 changes in domain \mathbf{u}_1 and both z_1 and z_2 change in domain \mathbf{u}_2 . When considering only domains \mathbf{u}_0 , \mathbf{u}_1 , we can achieve component-wise identifiability for z_1 . Given our subspace identifiability theory, z_1 can achieve subspace identifiability. As there is no change in the other variables in those two domains, this subspace identifiability is equal to competent-wise identifiability. However, when considering domains $\mathbf{u}_0, \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$, the component-wise identifiability for z_1 disappears, and instead, we can only achieve subspace identifiability for both z_1 and z_2 . In this case, information from domain \mathbf{u}_2 can be viewed as "noise" for z_1 .

Contrasted with the traditional joint learning setting, where the data of all domains are overwhelmed, the continual learning setting offers a unique advantage. It allows for achieving and maintaining original identifiability, effectively insulating it from the potential "noise" introduced by newly arriving domains. In Section 4, we empirically demonstrate that the causal representation of z_1 obtained through continual learning exhibits better identifiability compared to that obtained through joint training.

Learning order matters. Comparing both cases in Figure 2, they show the same identifiability considering all domains. However, we observe that in the top case, each new domain introduces a new changing variable, while in the bottom case, the domain order is reversed. Apparently, we can achieve subspace identifiability after learning each new domain in the top case, indicating that we can progressively improve our understanding and representation of the underlying causal factors with the arrival of each new domain. However, we can only achieve subspace identifiability until learning all domains in the bottom case. This is in line with the current

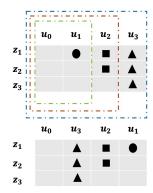


Figure 2: A toy example with three variables and four do**mains.** z_1 changes in all three domains, z_2 changes in $\mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3$, and z_3 changes in \mathbf{u}_3 .

learning system, where we first learn subjects with fewer changes before moving on to subjects with 239 more complexity.

Method 3.3

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In this section, we leverage the insight of the identifiability theory from previous section to develop our estimation method.

Generative model. As shown in Lemma 1 and Theorem 1, we are aiming at estimating causal 243 process $\hat{g}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_c, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_s$ to reconstruct the distribution of observation. As shown in Figure 3, we construct a 244 Variational Autoencoder (VAE) with its encoder $q_{\hat{g}_{\mu}^{-1},\hat{g}_{\Sigma}^{-1}}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}|\mathbf{x})$ to simulate the mixing process and the 245 decoder \hat{g} to reconstruct a matched distribution $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{g}(\hat{\mathbf{z}})$. Besides, as introduced in data generation 246 in Equation 1, the changing latent variable is generated as the function of high-level invariance \hat{z}_s 247 with a specific domain influence u. Assuming the function is invertible, we employ a flow model to 248 obtain the high-level variable $\hat{\tilde{\mathbf{z}}}_s$ by inverting the function, i.e., $\hat{\tilde{\mathbf{z}}}_s = \hat{f}_{\mathbf{u}}^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_s)$. To train this model, 249 we apply an ELBO loss as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{g}_{\mu}^{-1}, \hat{g}_{\Sigma}^{-1}, \hat{f}_{\mathbf{u}}, \hat{g}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\mathbf{z}} \sim q_{\hat{g}_{\mu}^{-1}, \hat{g}_{\Sigma}^{-1}}} \frac{1}{2} \|x - \hat{x}\|^{2} + \alpha K L(q_{\hat{g}_{\mu}^{-1}, \hat{g}_{\Sigma}^{-1}}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{c}|\mathbf{x}) \| p(\mathbf{z}_{c})) + \beta K L(q_{\hat{g}_{\mu}^{-1}, \hat{g}_{\Sigma}^{-1}, \hat{f}_{\mathbf{u}}}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{s}|\mathbf{x}\| p(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_{s})),$$
(5)

where α and β are hyperparameters controlling the factor as introduced in [7]. To make the Eq (5) 251 tractable, we choose the prior distributions $p(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_s)$ and $p(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}_c)$ as standard Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. 252

Continual casual representation learning. The subspace identifiability theory in Section 3.2.2 implies that the ground-truth solution lies on a manifold that can be further constrained with more side information, up to the solution with component-wise identifiability. Consequently, it is intuitive to expect that when we observe domains sequentially, the solution space should progressively narrow down in a reasonable manner.

It motivates us to first learn a local solution with existing domains and further improve it to align with the new arriving domain without destroying the original capacity. Specifically, to realize causal representation learning, we employ two objectives: (1) the reconstruction of observations within the current domain, and (2) the preservation of reconstruction capabilities for preceding domains. In terms of implementation, this implies that the movement of network parameters learning a new domain should not result in an increased loss for the previous domains.

To achieve this goal, we found the classical technique GEM [19] enables constraining the gradient 264 update of network training to memorize knowledge from previous domains. The basic intuition of the 265 algorithm can be illustrated with the following toy example: suppose data from those two domains 266 are denoted as $\{x|u_1, x|u_2\}$ and the parameter of the network θ and the loss calculated on data from 267 kth domain is denoted as $l(\theta, \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_k)$. At the moment of finishing the learning of the first domain, if

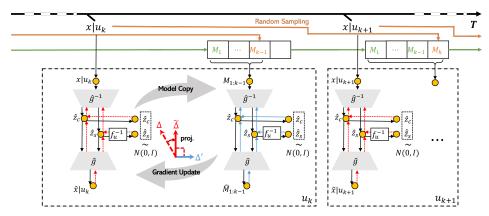


Figure 3: **Overall framework**. For the data from new domain $\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_i$, we calculate the gradients Δ and Δ' of our model with both current data and previous memory. Then, we project the gradient Δ to $\tilde{\Delta}$ using Equation 7 when the angle between Δ and Δ' is larger than 90 degrees. Finally, we randomly sample a part of the data in the current domain and add them to the memory bank.

we don't make any constraints, the model should start the training using data from the second domain with the direction $\frac{\partial l(\theta, \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{u}_2)}{\partial \theta}$.

At this moment, if the direction $\frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_2)}{\partial \theta}$ happens to have the property that $\langle \frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_2)}{\partial \theta}, \frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_1)}{\partial \theta} \rangle > 0$, the current direction will contribute to both domains and we remain the direction. Once the $\langle \frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_2)}{\partial \theta}, \frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_1)}{\partial \theta} \rangle < 0$ happens, we project the $\frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_2)}{\partial \theta}$ to the direction where $\langle \frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_2)}{\partial \theta}, \frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_1)}{\partial \theta} \rangle = 0$, the orthogonal direction to $\frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_1)}{\partial \theta}$ where no loss increment for previous domains. However, there are infinite possible directions satisfying the orthogonal direction requirement. e.g., we can always use the vector containing all zeros. To make the projected gradient as close as the original gradient, we solve for the projected gradient $\frac{\partial l(\theta,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}_2)}{\partial \theta}$ that minimizes the objective function

$$\left\| \frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{u_2})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} - \frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{u_2})'}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \right\|^2 \quad \text{s. t.} \quad \frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{u_2})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}}^T \frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{u_1})'}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \ge 0.$$
 (6)

Extend into the general case for multiple domains, we consider the following quadratic programming problem w.r.t. vector v':

$$\min_{\mathbf{v}'} \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}'\|^2 \quad \text{s. t.} \quad \mathbf{B}\mathbf{v}' \ge 0,$$
(7)

where \mathbf{v} denotes the original gradient, \mathbf{v}' denotes the projected gradient, \mathbf{B} is the matrix storing all gradients of past domains. Note that practically, we only store a small portion of data for each domain, thus \mathbf{B}_i is the row of \mathbf{B} storing the memory gradi-

Algorithm 1 Continual Nonlinear ICA

Require: Training data sequentially arriving $\{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u_1},\dots,\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u_T}\}$ Kaiming_init(θ), $\mathcal{M}_t \leftarrow \{\}$ for all $t=1,\dots,T$ for $\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{u_1},\dots,\mathbf{u_T}$ do:
 for $\{\mathbf{x_1},\dots,\mathbf{x_d}\}|\mathbf{u}$ do
 $\mathcal{M}_t \leftarrow \mathcal{M}_t \cup \text{random select } \mathbf{x}$ Calculate loss $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ as Eq (5)
 $\mathbf{v} \leftarrow \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta,\mathbf{x})$ $\mathbf{v}_k \leftarrow \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta,\mathcal{M}_k)$ for all k < t $\mathbf{v}' \leftarrow \text{Solve quadratic programming as Eq (7)}$ $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \mathbf{v}'$ Return θ

292 4 Experiments

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In this section, we present the implementing details of our method, the experimental results, and the corresponding analysis.

ent $\frac{\partial l(\theta, \mathbf{M}|\mathbf{u_i})}{\partial \theta}$, where $\mathbf{M}|\mathbf{u_i} \in \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u_i}$. We provide the complete procedure in Algorithm 1.

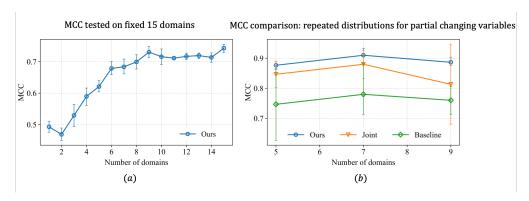


Figure 5: (a) MCC for increasing domains with models tested on all 15 domains after training of each domain. (b) MCC for models trained with repeated distributions for partial changing variables.

4.1 Experiment Setup

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Data. We follow the standard practice employed in previous work [13, 16] and compare our method to the baselines on synthetic data. We generate the latent variables \mathbf{z}_s for both non-stationary Gaussian and mixed Gaussian with domain-influenced variance and mean, while \mathbf{z}_c for standard Gaussian and mixed Gaussian with constant mean and variance. The mixing function is estimated by a 2-layer Multi-Layer Perception(MLP) with Leaky-Relu activation. More details can be found in Appendix C.

Evaluation metrics. We use Mean Correlation Coefficient (MCC) to measure the identifiability of the changing variable \mathbf{z}_s . However, as the identifiability result can only guarantee component-wise identifiability, it may not be fair to directly use MCC between $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_s$ and \mathbf{z}_s (e.g. if $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_s = \mathbf{z}_s^3$, we will get a distorted MCC value). We thus separate the test data into the training part and test part, and further train separate MLP to learn a simple regression for each $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_s$ to \mathbf{z}_s to remove its nonlinearity on the training part and compute the final MCC on these part. We repeat our experiments over 5 or 3 random seeds for different settings.

4.2 Experimental Results

Comparison to baseline and joint training. We evaluate the efficacy of our proposed approach by comparing it against the nonlinear ICA methods trained on sequentially arriving domains and multiple domains simultaneously, referred to as the baseline and theoretical upper bound by the continual learning community. We employ identical network architectures for all three models and examine four distinct datasets, with respective parameters of \mathbf{z}_s being Gaussian and mixed Gaussian with $n_s = 4$, n = 8, as well as $n_s = 2$, n = 4. Increasing numbers of domains are assessed for each dataset. Figure 4 show our method reaches comparable performance with joint training. Further visualization can be found in Appendix B.

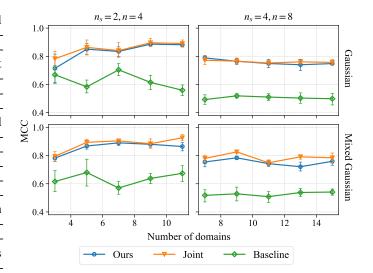


Figure 4: Comparison of MCC for all four datasets with the number of domains from $2n_s-1$ to $2n_s+7$. Note in this case, the number of domains for training is consistent with the number of domains for testing (different from cases we investigate for increasing domains).

Increasing domains. For dataset $n_s = 4$, n = 8 of Gaussian, we save every trained model after each domain and evaluate their MCC. Specifically, we tested the dataset original test dataset containing

data from 15 domains. As shown in part (a) of Figure 5, remarkably, increasing domains lead to greater identifiability results, which align with our expectations that sequential learning uncovers the true underlying causal relationships as more information is revealed. Specifically, our approach progressively transitions from subspace identifiable to component-wise identifiable as new domains are involved. Given $2n_s + 1 = 9$ domains, we observe that our model achieves the component-wise identifiability and the extra domains (from 9 to 15) do not provide further improvement.

Repeated distributions for partial changing variables. For dataset $n_s = 2$, n = 4 of Gaussian, we test the case that $z_{s,1}$ have changing distributions over all domains while $z_{s,2}$ only holds three different distributions across domains. As shown in part (b) of Figure 5, our method outperforms both joint train and baseline. It may be because our method has the ability to maintain the performance learned from previous domains and prevents potential impairment from new arriving domains with repeated distributions. For this instance, our method exhibits more robust performance than joint training against negative effects from 8,9th domains.

Discussion: is joint training always better than learning sequentially? Not necessarily. As discussed in Section 3.2.2, the new domain may impair the identifiability of partial variables. While joint training always shuffles the data and doesn't care about the order information, learning sequentially to some extent mitigates the impairment of identifiability.

Specifically, we conducted an experiment in which both z_1 and z_2 are Gaussian variables. The variance and mean of z_1 change in the sec-ond domain, while the other variable change in the third domain. We then compare our method with joint training only for latent variable z_1 . We repeat our experiments with 3 random seeds and the experiment shows that the MCC of our method for z_1 reaches up to 0.785 while joint training retains at 0.68 as shown in Figure 6. In terms of visual contrast, the scatter plot obtained

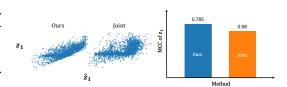


Figure 6: Comparison of identifiability for z_1 using Joint training and our method qualitatively and quantitatively.

using our method on the left of Figure 6 exhibits a significantly stronger linear correlation compared to joint training.

365 5 Conclusion

Conclusion. In this paper, we present a novel approach for learning causal representation in continually arriving domains. Through theoretical analysis, we have examined the relationship between model identification and the number of observed domains. Our findings indicate that as additional domains are incorporated, the identifiability of changing variables escalates, with subspace identification achievable with n_s+1 domains and component-wise identification requiring $2n_s+1$ domains or more. Besides, we briefly show that a carefully chosen order of learning leads to meaningful disentanglement after each domain is learned, and the introduction of new domains does not necessarily contribute to all variables. To realize CCRL, we employed GEM to preserve prior knowledge and refine it using information derived from incoming domains, resembling human learning mechanisms. Empirical evaluations have demonstrated that our approach achieves performance on par with nonlinear ICA techniques trained jointly across multiple offline domains, exhibiting greater identifiability with increasing domains observed.

Limitation. To improve our methodology, we should address two key areas. Firstly, develop a continual learning method that can automatically determine the number of changing variables without prior knowledge. This would enhance adaptability to real-world scenarios. Secondly, consider incorporating anchor points or high-level semantic representations into the memory storage process, aligning it with human memory processes for more effective storage and recall of information.

Broader Impact. This work proposes a theoretical analysis to learn the causal representation, which aids in the construction of more transparent and interpretable models. This could be beneficial in a variety of sectors, including healthcare, finance, and technology. For instance, in healthcare, it could be used to continually monitor and analyze patient data, helping to predict health risks and inform treatment decisions in a timely manner. In contrast, misinterpretations of causal relationships could have significant implications in these fields, which must be deliberated.

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