# CS771 Mini Project Doctrina Aeterna

Mohd Mufeed Amir 220660 Mohd Sufyan 220662

Nishant Pandey 220724

Adarsh Pal 220054

## 1 Brief Introduction

We outline various methods and approaches employed toward incrementally learning across several subsets drawn from differing distributions of the CIFAR-10 dataset. Task 1 of the project (presented here) has two main subtasks.

- Task 1.1 Incrementally training models on datasets with a shared distribution.
- Task 1.2 Incrementally training models on datasets with varying distributions.

Our main model is a simple LwP classifier. What we have tweaked - is *how the model updates* when presented with new data it may not have seen before.

## 2 Problem Statement

We are given 20 training datasets  $D_1, D_2 \dots D_{20}$  from CIFAR - 10

- Task 1:  $D_1$  to  $D_{10}$  have inputs from a similar distribution.
- Task 2:  $D_{11}$  to  $D_{20}$  have inputs from different distributions.

The first dataset,  $D_1$ , is labeled; others are unlabeled. Our goal is to incrementally train a series of models,  $f_1, f_2 \dots f_{20}$ , where each model is trained using the predictions of its predecessor.

# 3 Task 1: Incremental Learning on Similar Distributions

# 3.1 Simple LwP

We started with a simple LwP based on Euclidean distance.

- Convert the image to grayscale (to remove dependence on color)
- Apply flattening operation to obtain a 2D feature representation

Observe that our feature vectors have size  $32 \times 32 = 1024$ .

Using this model to train over the first dataset and testing over the validation set of the first dataset, we get a very poor accuracy of approximately 16% - 24%. We abandon this approach.

#### 3.2 Mahalanobis Distance

We try a more advanced LwP using the *Mahalonobis Distance*, with the matrix being the *Inverse Covariance Matrix* over the training data. The rest of the procedure is similar to 1.1. The accuracy that we get on validation is again pretty low; about 15.64%

We finally abandon naive LwP image classifiers and move on to feature extraction.

#### 4 ResNet for Feature Extraction

We try a Pretrained Neural Network: ResNet34. ResNet34, part of the ResNet (Residual Network) family, is a convolutional neural network with 34 layers, designed with a series of convolutional blocks interspersed with residual connections. The key innovation in ResNet is residual (or *skip*) connections, which allow the model to bypass certain layers, mitigating the vanishing gradient problem commonly encountered in deep networks. This enables the training of deeper networks without compromising performance or convergence. We further leverage PyTorch for its inbuilt functions to handle ResNet.

The architecture of ResNet 34 can be summarized as follows:

• The network starts with a  $7 \times 7$  convolutional layer with 64 filters, followed by a  $3 \times 3$  max pooling layer.

This reduces the spatial dimensions of the image and extracts initial low-level features. The network further consists of 4 groups of residual blocks with increasing filter sizes. Each block contains a series of convolutional layers with ReLU activations, batch normalization, and skip connections.

The residual blocks are structured as follows:

- Block 1 3 residual blocks, each with  $3 \times 3$  convolutional layers and 64 filters.
- Block 2 4 residual blocks with 128 filters.
- Block 3 6 residual blocks with 256 filters.
- Block 4 3 residual blocks with 512 filters.

Each group of blocks is separated by a down-sampling convolution layer that doubles the number of filters and halves the spatial dimensions of the feature maps, capturing increasingly abstract and complex features as the layers progress. The model further features a global average pooling layer; reducing the feature map to a fixed-size 512-dimensional vector.

In the original ResNet34, this is followed by a fully connected layer for classification. However, in our setup, we omit this layer to retain only the feature representation.

To extract features from the images using ResNet34, we adopt the following approach.

- Each  $32 \times 32$  CIFAR-10 image was resized to  $224 \times 224$ , matching the input size required for the neural net.
- We applied standard normalization with mean and standard deviation values for the net, helping align the pixel distributions of CIFAR-10 images with those seen by the net during pre-training. Additionally, we incorporated data augmentation via random horizontal flipping to increase model robustness.
- The outputs from the penultimate layer were flattened into 512-dimensional vectors, forming a rich feature set that served as inputs for our classifier. These 512 length vectors for each training example are ready for training.

This procedure is outlined at the official documentation for ResNet 34 [2]

# 4.1 Feature Extracted Naive LwP

We train an LwP classifier on feature extracted versions of  $D_1$ . At prediction time, we can choose whether to predict on Mahalanobis distance or Euclidean distance. Both give accuracies of 85.36% and 81.36% respectively. We proceed with Mahanalobis at prediction.

Even still, feature extraction and updating covariance matrices upon learning new examples failed to be effective on the new datasets  $(D_{11} \dots D_{20})$ . We are now forced to change our approach from the ground up.

# 5 Task 2: The Actual Model

Before we go into the final results obtained, let's have a look at the model itself. Indeed, while our model heavily builds upon the work of Liu et al. (2023) [3], it addresses a narrower scope with a simpler framework.

Our model is quite simple, actually. Let  $f_i$  denote the model trained on datasets  $D_1, \ldots, D_i$ . For our model to learn on dataset  $D_{i+1}$ , we implement the following functionalities.

# **5.1** Top-*k* Confidence Selection

Let  $f_i$  be trained and let  $f_i$  encounter  $D_{i+1}$  for the first time. Using  $f_i$ , we label the training examples in  $D_{i+1}$  and assign each a *confidence* score. The score is inversely proportional to the softmax of the distances of this training point from the prototypes learned by  $f_i$  (ie, points further away from a prototype get assigned lower scores). We then sort each prediction by its confidence value, and return the predictions that have a confidence within top-k of all confidence values.

#### 5.2 Sample Duplication

Given a labeled sample, we make the natural assumption that samples that lie *close* to it must also have the same label. So to increase our training space, we take some labeled samples and apply AdaIN2D spatial transformations to augment those samples with random Gaussian noise with 0 mean and low variance (we once again refer to [3] and [4]). This provides us with *more training examples* from the dataset without exhausting it.

#### 5.3 The Model

Having established these procedures, our model is, once again, simple. For datasets  $D_1 \dots D_{10}$ , we double the training data using sample duplication. This makes our model more robust on the original dataset and more confident on noisy data. To train  $f_{i+1}$  from  $f_i$ , we use the simple update procedure with the doubled samples.

Now, for datasets  $D_{11} \dots D_{20}$ , we make a slight modification. Because these datasets are drawn from a different distribution, we first apply the *top-k confidence selection* to obtain some samples that the model is sure about. On these new samples, we apply *sample duplication* so the model can learn more about this sample before making a prediction.

We finally update  $f_i$  to  $f_{i+1}$  by training it on the top-k and duplicated samples, and using this to label the leftover data.

#### 6 Results

## **6.1** Results on $D_1 ... D_{10}$

For each  $D_i$  with  $1 \le i \le 10$ , we double the entire sample set to  $2500 \times 2 = 5000$  samples and naively train on these new samples just like a regular LwP model, by using  $f_i$  to predict the labels of all of  $D_{i+1}$  and updating  $f_i$  on these samples. We get the following accuracies on the respective validation sets.

	$D_1$	$D_2$	$D_3$	$D_4$	$D_5$	$D_6$	$D_7$	$D_8$	$D_9$	$D_{10}$
$f_1$	85.36%									
$f_2$	84.68%	84.08%								
$f_3$	84.28%	83.64%	83.40%							
$f_4$	83.88%	83.24%	83.32%	83.12%						
$f_5$	83.44%	83.32%	83.72%	82.84%	83.56%					
$f_6$	82.76%	83.08%	83.36%	82.96%	82.60%	83.24%				
$f_7$	83.72%	82.76%	83.60%	82.04%	83.12%	82.76%	82.32%			
$f_8$	83.04%	82.40%	83.56%	82.56%	83.12%	83.48%	82.52%	82.68%		
$f_9$	82.20%	83.28%	82.16%	82.12%	83.44%	82.48%	82.20%	83.04%	82.20%	
$f_{10}$	83.92%	83.04%	83.36%	82.44%	84.04%	83.76%	83.16%	82.72%	82.28%	82.44%

Table 1: Accuracy on  $D_1 \dots D_{10}$  trained with Sample Duplication

# **6.2** Results on $D_{11} \dots D_{20}$

For each  $D_i$  with  $11 \le i \le 20$  we update  $f_i$  to  $f_{i+1}$  by first performing a top-k confidence selection on  $D_{i+1}$ , and then performing sample duplication on these newly generated labeled samples. We then use this model to label the rest of the training points and finally update the model normally on these new labels. What follows is the performance of  $f_i$  with  $11 \le i \le 20$ 

	$D_1$	$D_2$	$D_3$	$D_4$	$D_5$	$D_6$	$D_7$	$D_8$	$D_9$	$D_{10}$
$f_{11}$	83.64%	83.20%	83.36%	82.52%	84.04%	83.80%	83.24%	83.28%	82.44%	82.80%
$f_{12}$	83.64%	83.32%	83.08%	82.28%	83.72%	83.40%	83.08%	82.84%	82.40%	82.60%
$f_{13}$	83.84%	83.52%	83.28%	82.52%	84.16%	83.76%	83.16%	82.68%	82.60%	82.72%
$f_{14}$	84.00%	83.92%	83.48%	82.64%	83.88%	83.88%	83.36%	82.80%	82.80%	82.88%
$f_{15}$	84.12%	84.12%	83.68%	83.80%	83.96%	83.16%	83.32%	83.00%	82.92%	83.92%
$f_{16}$	84.20%	84.28%	84.04%	83.36%	83.92%	84.08%	83.48%	83.60%	83.44%	83.16%
$f_{17}$	84.12%	84.44%	84.40%	83.44%	83.96%	84.20%	83.68%	83.56%	83.40%	83.28%
$f_{18}$	84.04%	84.36%	84.44%	83.52%	83.88%	84.40%	83.72%	83.72%	83.56%	83.32%
$f_{19}$	84.12%	84.36%	84.32%	83.60%	83.92%	84.20%	83.72%	83.60%	83.24%	83.56%
$f_{20}$	84.08%	84.56%	84.44%	83.64%	84.00%	84.44%	83.72%	83.64%	83.44%	83.76%

Table 2: Accuracy on  $D_1 \dots D_{10}$  trained with Sample Duplication and Top-k Selection

	$D_{11}$	$D_{12}$	$D_{13}$	$D_{14}$	$D_{15}$	$D_{16}$	$D_{17}$	$D_{18}$	$D_{19}$	$D_{20}$
$f_{11}$	68.04%									
$f_{12}$	68.68%	40.68%								
$f_{13}$	68.60%	41.76%	69.00%							
$f_{14}$	69.00%	42.16%	69.08%	77.36%						
$f_{15}$	69.32%	42.84%	69.00%	77.28%	83.28%					
$f_{16}$	69.56%	42.96%	69.08%	77.32%	83.52%	66.48%				
$f_{17}$	70.04%	43.60%	69.48%	77.92%	83.44%	66.76%	76.04%			
$f_{18}$	69.68%	44.92%	69.32%	77.76%	83.52%	66.92%	75.96%	69.08%		
$f_{19}$	69.60%	44.32%	69.68%	77.64%	83.52%	66.92%	75.72%	68.04%	61.00%	
$f_{20}$	69.64%	44.92%	69.32%	77.60%	83.76%	67.52%	75.76%	68.00%	60.92%	78.96%

Table 3: Accuracy on  $D_{11} \dots D_{20}$  trained with Sample Duplication and Top-k Selection

# 6.3 Some Observations

Notice how the incremental model is more or less stable at its accuracies across datasets. Further, it even improves significantly on  $D_{12}$  as well as  $D_1 \dots D_{10}$ . We also remark here that the model's performance on the newer datsets  $D_{11} \dots D_{20}$  is far, far better than just naive updates.

# 7 Closing Remarks

# 7.1 Why didn't you try xyz?

We probably did and it didn't work. Other than naive updates, we tried every possible permutation of 5.1, 5.2, as well as other filtering methods. The result we have presented is *the* best we have so far across all datasets.

## 7.2 What's Going on with $D_{12}$ ?

The short answer is that we do not know. The long answer is that we suspect it to be adversarial. During hyperparameter tuning with cosine similarity, we found something intriguing. Some hyperparameters significantly degraded the performance of  $f_{11}$  across all previous datasets, but the same hyperparameters significantly improved the performance of  $f_{12}$  across all its previous datasets. This only furthers our belief that the dataset itself is adversarial. Further, our presented model achieves an incrementally increasing accuracy on  $D_{12}$ , which is a lot more progress than we hoped for. Indeed, we have other models which achieve higher accuracies of up to 47%, but we choose to present this due to the incremental nature.

# 7.3 Horizons - Centroid cos Similarity

After applying 5.1 and 5.2, we have possibility of *further* improving our quasi-model before training on it. So, for now, entertain the "equation"  $f_i \oplus \mathcal{M}_i \to f_{i+1}$ , where  $\mathcal{M}_i$  represents the model trained on confident predictions of  $f_i$  after sample duplication.

Suppose we have  $2 \cdot k$  many labeled samples in  $\mathcal{M}_i$ . What we do next is take some k' many unlabeled samples from  $D_{i+1}$  that have the highest  $\cos$  similarity with the class prototypes of  $\mathcal{M}_i$ . This ensures some more newer samples are aligned well with some class prototype. We can then update  $\mathcal{M}_i$  on these samples with a k-NN classifier and then use  $f_i \oplus M_i$  to make further predictions. We have indeed implemented this, but couldn't find the right hyperparameters. We again refer back to [3]

# 7.4 Task 2

Find the video submission on [1]

# References

- [1] Video submission. https://youtu.be/3ghjPtz-34E.
- [2] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun; PyTorch Vision Library. Resnet-34 documentation. https://pytorch.org/vision/stable/models/generated/torchvision.models.resnet34.html#torchvision.models.resnet34, 2015.
- [3] Chenxi Liu, Lixu Wang, Lingjuan Lyu, Chen Sun, Xiao Wang, and Qi Zhu; Northwestern University; SonyAI. Deja vu: Continual model generalization for unseen domains. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2023. Published as a conference paper at ICLR 2023.
- [4] Sony Research. Ratp: Real-time and temporal processing for image generation. https://github.com/SonyResearch/RaTP, 2024.