



JOHNS HOPKINS

WHITING SCHOOL  
of ENGINEERING

# Can Sparse Memory updates allow LLMs to continually learn?

CSCI 601-771 (NLP: Self-Supervised Models)

Jalil, Zhengguang, Dengjia, Jonathan

<https://self-supervised.cs.jhu.edu/fa2025/>

# Challenge of Continual LLM Learning

- **Continual Learning = models that can be taught like students**
  - Experience + human feedback -> makes model smarter overtime
- Two subproblems in continual learning of LLMs :

## Generalization:

- What is the *right* update from new data?
- Need augmentations to disambiguate the intended concept.
- Real-world learning requires active self-supervision.

## Integration:

- Update without forgetting
- Must overwrite outdated info but preserve reusable knowledge.
- Requires sparse, targeted parameter updates

What properties do we want?

## Target Updates

- (touch minimal parameters)

## High Capacity

- (lifetime of learning)

## Adaptive integration

- (what to overwrite/preserve)

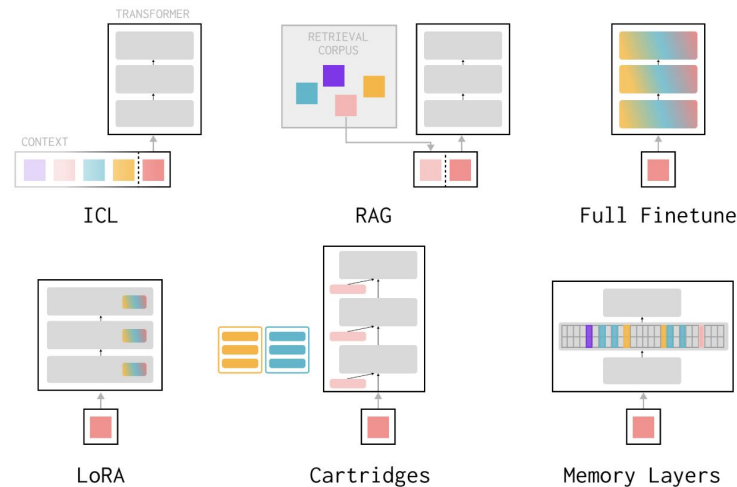
# Current Continual Learning Approaches

Non-Parametric approaches:

- **ICL:** short-term, suffers from context rot.
- **RAG:** high capacity but no compression into weights.

Parametric approaches:

- **Finetuning+Replay:** prevents forgetting but not scalable.
- **Parameter-Efficient Finetuning (cartridge):** targeted but low capacity; unclear task boundaries.
- **MoE:** large capacity; finer-grained experts help.
- **Memory Layers:** many small experts enabling targeted, scalable lifelong learning.



# Proposed Solution: Sparsity



## Structural Sparsity: The Capacity Fix

### Memory Layers at Scale:

A dedicated, sparse architecture providing billions of extra parameters to store new knowledge cheaply.



## Learning Sparsity: The Update Fix

### Sparse Memory Finetuning:

An intelligent, selective update rule that modifies only specific memory slots, mitigating interference.

# Memory Layers at Scale

Vincent-Pierre Berges, Barlas Oğuz, Daniel Haziza, Wen-tau Yih, Luke Zettlemoyer, Gargi Ghosh

# Problem Statement / Motivation

## Motivation

Modern LLMs acquire factual knowledge by **absorbing it into dense parameters**, meaning:  
To remember more facts:

- we must **increase model size**,
- which increases **training cost, inference cost, and energy consumption**.

Even with Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) architectures: memory capacity still scales with compute, routing is unstable, and experts overlap instead of storing clean, separable knowledge.

Yet, **a large portion of language model behavior is not reasoning** — it is:

- retrieving simple associative knowledge

This type of knowledge does **not require deep computation**, but it consumes expensive model parameters.

So the central motivation is:

**How can we expand knowledge capacity, without making models heavier or more expensive to run?**

The authors' hypothesis:

Treat factual knowledge **not as computation**,  
but as **memory lookup**.

If we replace some transformer layers with **trainable key-value memory**,  
the model can store much more knowledge **without proportional FLOPs increase**.



# Problem Statement / Motivation

## Problem: How LLMs Store Facts

- LLMs memorize facts in **dense parameters**.
- More facts → **larger models** → higher **training / inference cost** and **energy use**.
- Even with **Mixture-of-Experts** (MoE), memory capacity still roughly scales with compute; routing can be unstable and experts overlap.
- But a lot of what LLMs do is **simple fact retrieval**, not deep reasoning.



How can we expand knowledge capacity without making models heavier or more expensive to run?

# Problem Statement / Motivation





## The Author's Hypothesis:

- Treat factual knowledge **not as computation**, but as a **memory lookup**.
- Replace some transformer layers with **trainable key-value memory**, so the model can store much more knowledge **without proportional FLOPs increase**



# Core Idea / Method

## Core Ideas

-  Replacing the feed-forward network (FFN) of one or more transformer layers with trainable memory layers
-  Trainable Memory Layers work very similarly with Attention:  $q \in R^N, K \in R^{N \times n}, V \in R^{N \times n}$ :  
N is hyperparameter of number of memory slots, n is hyperparameter of embedding vector
-   $q = W^q h, s_i = qK^i, I = \text{top indices of } s, \alpha = \text{softmax}(S_I), y = \alpha V$
-  The memory layer searches over learned memory slots, ranks them by similarity to the query, and retrieves a weighted combination of the most relevant stored values.  
This output replaces the FFN output inside the Transformer block.



# Intuitively Why Memory Layers Work?

## Explicit Knowledge Storage

Memory layers let models store factual knowledge in dedicated slots, instead of diffusing it across dense parameters — enabling targeted recall rather than overfitting compute-heavy layers.

## Sparse Retrieval

Only the top-k slots activate per query, so memory cells specialize automatically (coding patterns, capitals, entity templates) with almost no interference — enabling higher capacity without catastrophic forgetting.

## Scaling Capacity Without Increasing Compute

Unlike dense scaling, adding more memory slots increases knowledge capacity dramatically without increasing FLOPs, because retrieval stays sparse — giving exponential memory at near-constant cost.

# Intuitively Why Memory Layers Work?

## Explicit Knowledge Storage

- Facts live in **dedicated memory slots**, not tangled in all the weights.
- Easier to **store, update, and recall** specific pieces of knowledge.

## Sparse Retrieval

- For each query, only **top-k slots** are activated.
- Slots naturally **specialize** (e.g., capitals, entities, code patterns) with **little interference**.

## Scaling Capacity, Not Compute

- We can add more **memory slots** to store more facts.
- Retrieval stays **sparse**, so **FLOPs barely increase** while knowledge capacity grows.

# Scaling / Implementation Details

## Product-Key Lookup (Efficient Retrieval)

- Scaling memory layers is limited by expensive nearest-neighbour search over large key spaces.
- The model avoids this by factorizing keys into two smaller “half-key” sets. Queries are split and matched against these smaller sets to retrieve top-k candidates efficiently.
- Final key scores are computed by combining matches from the two half-key sets, approximating full-space lookup without instantiating it.

## Parallel Memory (sharding across GPUs)

- Memory layers are large, so lookup is sharded across GPUs to scale efficiently.
- Each GPU stores only part of the embeddings, performs lookup on its shard, and aggregates partial results.
- This avoids materializing full embeddings on any device, keeping activation memory manageable.
- The approach runs in its own parallel group, independent of other model-parallel schemes.

# Scaling / Implementation Details

## Product-Key Lookup (Efficient Retrieval)

- Naïve lookup over a huge key space is too expensive.
- Factorize keys into **two smaller key tables**; split each query accordingly.
- Search each table separately, then **combine pairs of matches** to approximate full-space top-k at much lower cost.

## Parallel Memory (sharding across GPUs)

- The memory table is too large for one GPU, so we **shard it across GPUs**.
- Each GPU stores a slice of the table, does local lookup, then we **aggregate partial results**.
- Avoids materializing the full table on one device and works in its **own parallel group**, alongside other model-parallel schemes.

# Scaling / Implementation Details

## Shared Memory Across Layers

- They use a **shared pool of memory parameters** across all memory layers in the network. That is — multiple memory-augmented layers reference the **same** key/value tables.
- They find empirically that replacing more than a few FFN layers with memory helps, but beyond a certain point, further replacement hurts performance (suggesting a balance between dense + sparse layers). In their experiments, up to 3 memory layers was beneficial; beyond that it degraded performance.

## Performance & Stability Improvements (Engineering)

- They also introduce an enhanced variant called Memory+, which adds an additional small projection + gating + non-linearity (e.g. SiLU) after retrieval to stabilize training and improve performance.
- For backward pass, gradient updates to the huge embedding tables (values, keys) can collide (many outputs may map to the same slot). They compare different strategies: atomic-add accumulation, row-level locks, and a “reverse-indices / atomic-free” method that maps token IDs to embedding indices to aggregate gradients safely. For high-dimensional embeddings (>128 dims), reverse-indices or lock-based updates are faster than atomic-add.

# Scaling / Implementation Details

## Shared Memory Across Layers

- All memory layers share **one global key-value table** (a common memory pool).
- This cuts parameters and encourages reuse of the same stored facts.
- Empirically, replacing **~1–3 FFN layers** with memory helps; more than that hurts, so a **mix of dense + memory layers** works best.

## Performance & Stability Improvements

- **Memory+** adds a tiny projection + gate (e.g., SiLU) after lookup to stabilize training and improve accuracy.
- For the huge embedding table, they use a batched, atomic-free gradient aggregation scheme instead of naive atomic adds, reducing contention and making updates more stable and efficient.

# Experimental Setup

## Baselines

- Dense Transformer Models: The paper primarily compares its method against standard dense Llama-style transformer baselines, trained at multiple scales (134M  $\rightarrow$  1.3B parameters).
- Mixture-of-Experts (MOE): Each feed-forward layer contains multiple “experts,” but only a subset of experts is activated for a given input.  $\rightarrow$  This increases model capacity without proportionally increasing compute.
- PEER Model (He, 2024): Works similarly to memory layers but retrieves a pair of embeddings that form a rank-1 dynamic feed-forward layer.  $\rightarrow$  Serves as an alternative parameter augmentation method.

## Evaluation Benchmarks

- Factual Question Answering: NaturalQuestions, TriviaQA
- Multi-hop / reasoning QA: HotpotQA
- World knowledge & comprehension: MMLU, HellaSwag, OBQA, PIQA
- Programming / code generation: HumanEval, MBPP
- **Reporting Metrics:** Common accuracy measures are used—Exact Match or F1 for QA, and pass@1 for coding tasks.
- Negative log-likelihood (NLL) is also reported to analyze language modeling quality.



# Experimental Setup

## Baselines

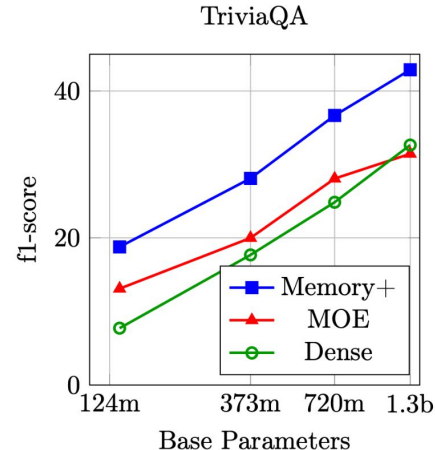
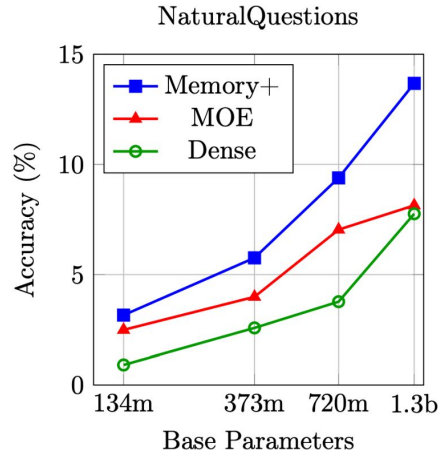
- **Dense Transformers:** LLaMA-style models at multiple sizes ( $\approx 134\text{M} \rightarrow 1.3\text{B}$  parameters).
- **Mixture-of-Experts (MoE):** FFN layers with many experts; only a few are active per token  $\rightarrow$  higher capacity at similar compute.
- **PEER (He, 2024):** Retrieves a pair of embeddings to form a rank-1 dynamic FFN layer  $\rightarrow$  alternative way to add parameters.

## Evaluation Benchmarks

- **Factual QA:** NaturalQuestions, TriviaQA
- **Multi-hop / reasoning QA:** HotpotQA
- **World knowledge / comprehension:** MMLU, HellaSwag, OBQA, PIQA
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- **Metrics:** Exact Match / F1 for QA, pass@1 for coding, and NLL for language-model quality.

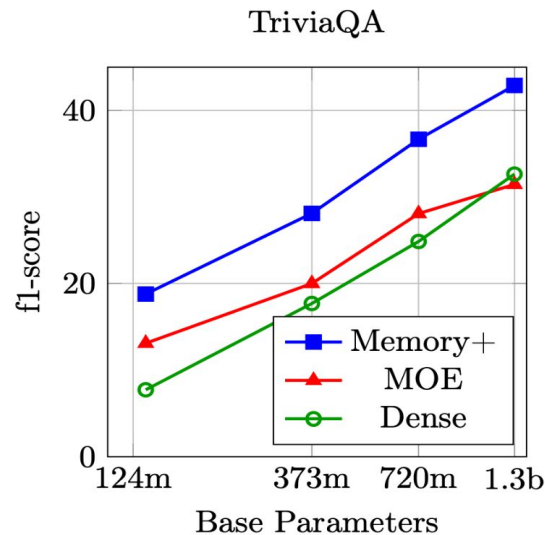
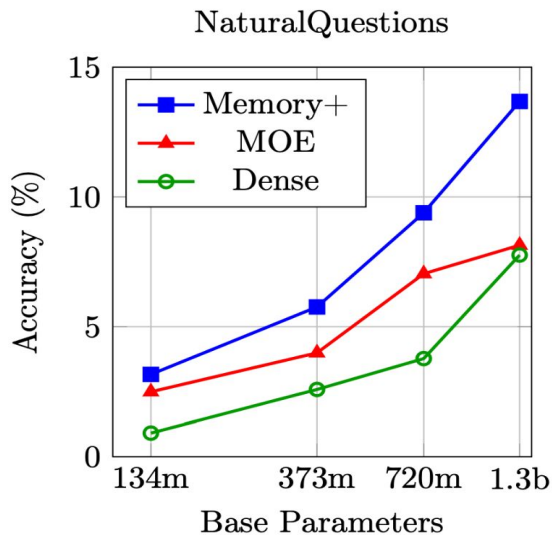
# Scaling Results-Same # of parameters

- Parameter budgets are deliberately matched across architectures.
- Memory models replace FFN layers with a shared memory table, keeping total parameters unchanged.
- Memory+ adds additional memory layers but reuses the same shared memory, so its footprint stays the same.
- PEER is configured with a slightly different half-key size to reach similar total parameters.
- MOE picks the minimum number of experts required to match Memory's parameter scale.
- Therefore, all models have nearly identical parameter counts and compute—the difference lies only in how the parameters are allocated and organized.



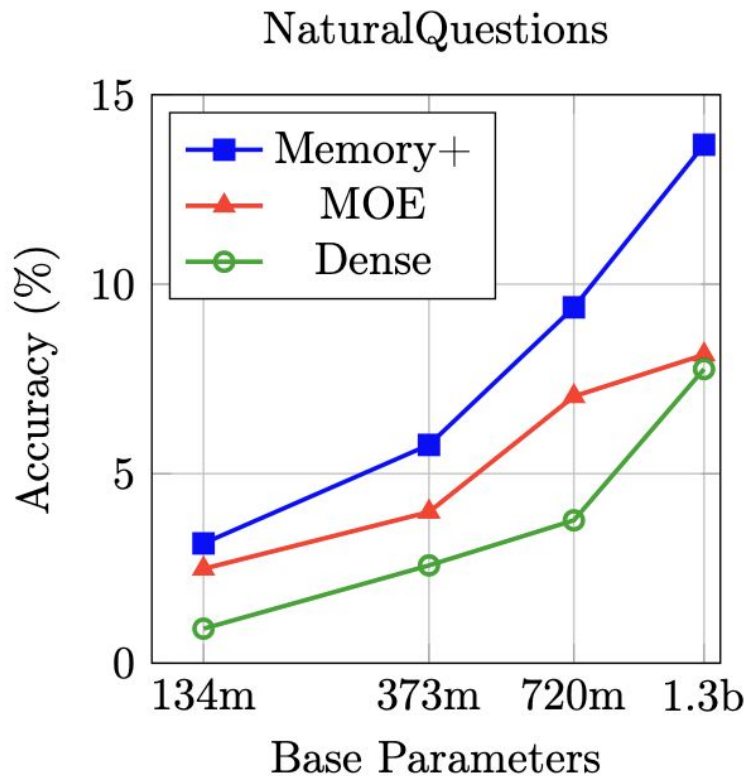
# Scaling Results - Same # of parameters

- All models are tuned to have **similar total parameters & FLOPs**.
- Memory models replace some FFN layers with a **shared memory table** (Memory+ adds more memory layers but reuses the same table).
- PEER and MoE are configured to **match this parameter scale** (adjusted key size / number of experts).
- Because budgets are matched, the curves on the right show **how we allocate parameters** (dense vs. MoE vs. memory), not how many we use. **Memory+ consistently wins under the same parameter budget.**



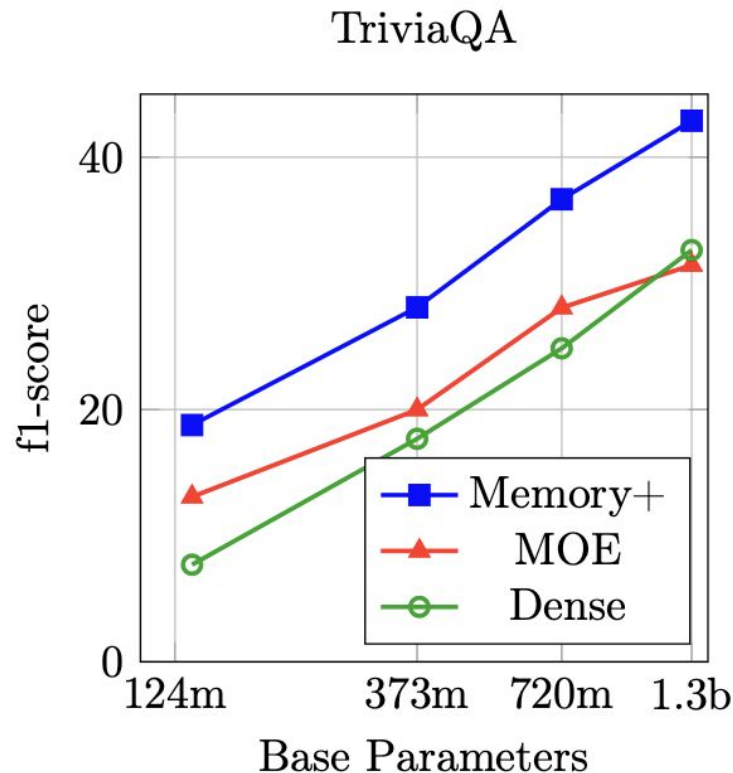
# Scaling Results - Scaling Memory Params

- Scale MOE, Dense baseline, Memory+ to approximately-equal parameter counts
- Compare performance on datasets



# Scaling Results - Scaling Memory Params

- Scale MOE, Dense baseline, Memory+ to approximately-equal parameter counts
- Compare performance on datasets



# Scaling Results-Results at 8B Scale

Model	HellaS.	Hotpot	HumanE.	MBPP	MMLU	NQ	OBQA	PIQA	TQA
<i>llama3.1 8B (15T)</i>	60.05	27.85	37.81	48.20	66.00	29.45	34.60	79.16	70.36
dense (200B)	53.99	20.41	21.34	<b>30.80</b>	41.35	18.61	<b>31.40</b>	78.02	51.741
Memory+ (200B)	<b>54.33</b>	<b>21.75</b>	<b>23.17</b>	29.40	<b>50.14</b>	<b>19.36</b>	30.80	<b>79.11</b>	<b>57.64</b>
dense (1T)	58.90	25.26	29.88	<b>44.20</b>	59.68	25.24	34.20	<b>80.52</b>	63.62
Memory+ (1T)	<b>60.29</b>	<b>26.06</b>	<b>31.71</b>	42.20	<b>63.04</b>	<b>27.06</b>	<b>34.40</b>	79.82	<b>68.15</b>

## Memory+ significantly improves data efficiency (models learn facts faster)

- Approaches Llama 3.1 (trained on 15T tokens) when trained on only 1T tokens
- When trained on 200B tokens, already outperforms baseline models (without memory layers, just standard FFN)

# Model Ablations: FFN layers

Vanilla Memory paradigm: A single memory layer

Memory+: Multiple memory layers.

Best results: 3 memory layers at centered spaces, with large strides (layers 4, 12, 20)

“Sweet spot” - take advantage of faster learning, without losing too many dense layer parameters.

	nll	NQ nll	TQA nll
layer #			
12	2.11	12.13	8.34
12,16,20	2.08	11.60	7.54
8,12,16	2.07	11.79	7.64
4,12,20	<b>2.06</b>	<b>11.32</b>	<b>7.20</b>
5,8,11,14,17,21	2.11	11.79	7.73

# Model Ablations: FFN layers

Various architectural tweaks

Authors preferred swilu as it gave consistent gains

	nll	NQ nll	TQA nll
Model			
PK base	2.11	12.13	8.34
+gated	2.11	12.24	8.17
+swilu	2.11	12.05	8.09
+random values	2.11	12.36	8.09
+softmax sink	2.11	12.19	8.04



# Model Ablations: Key/value dimensions

		nll	NQ nll	TQA nll
v_dim	#values			
64	16m	2.15	12.86	8.75
256	4m	2.14	12.63	8.49
1024	1m	<b>2.11</b>	<b>12.13</b>	<b>8.34</b>
2048	512k	2.14	12.49	8.53

Value dimension tradeoff: Higher dimension, fewer value outputs in memory.

Default: Value dimension = model dimension (1024)

Authors find default to be optimal

# Model Ablations: Key/value dimensions

Increasing key dimension to 2048 boosts performance, but adds more dense parameters, breaking parameter-matched comparisons

- Ambiguous: Better architecture, or more parameters?

Selected key dimension: Half of the base-model dimension (comparison fairness)

	nll	NQ nll	TQA nll
key_dim			
256	2.11	12.13	8.34
512	2.12	12.32	8.15
1024	2.11	12.37	8.25
2048	<b>2.09</b>	<b>11.98</b>	<b>7.83</b>

# Ablations: Summary

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## Memory layer placement

- Optimal performance: 3 layers, spaced evenly at large stride

## Architectural tweaks

- Swilu - most consistent gains; their only adopted tweak

## Key/Value dimension choices

- Value dimension: Default (1024, same as model dimension) best.
- Key dimension: Increasing it boosts performance, but adds more dense parameters. Authors fix it at  $\frac{1}{2}$  base model dimension for fair comparison.

# Recap - What This Paper Does

- **Problem:** LLMs store facts in dense weights → scaling knowledge = scaling compute & cost.
- **Idea:** Replace some FFN layers with trainable key–value memory layers.
- **Intuition:**
  - Explicit memory slots for facts
  - Sparse top-k retrieval per query
  - Add more memory slots without big FLOP increase
- **Engineering:** product-key lookup, sharded memory across GPUs, shared global memory table, and Memory+ tweaks for stability.

# Recap - Key Results & Takeaways

- Under **matched parameter & FLOP budgets**, **Memory+ > dense** and **MoE** on QA benchmarks.
- Scaling memory size improves **factual accuracy** and **lowers NLL**.
- At **8B scale**, Memory+ trained on 1T tokens **approaches Llama-3.1 8B** trained on 15T.
- Best configuration: a few **well-placed memory layers** and default value dim; memory is a promising way to grow knowledge **without just making the model bigger**.

# Continual Learning via Sparse Memory Finetuning

Jessy Lin , Luke Zettlemoyer, Gargi Ghosh, Wen-Tau Yih, Aram Markosyan, Vincent-Pierre Berges, Barlas Oğuz, ICLR 2025)

# The Problem: Catastrophic Forgetting

## Static Models after Deployment

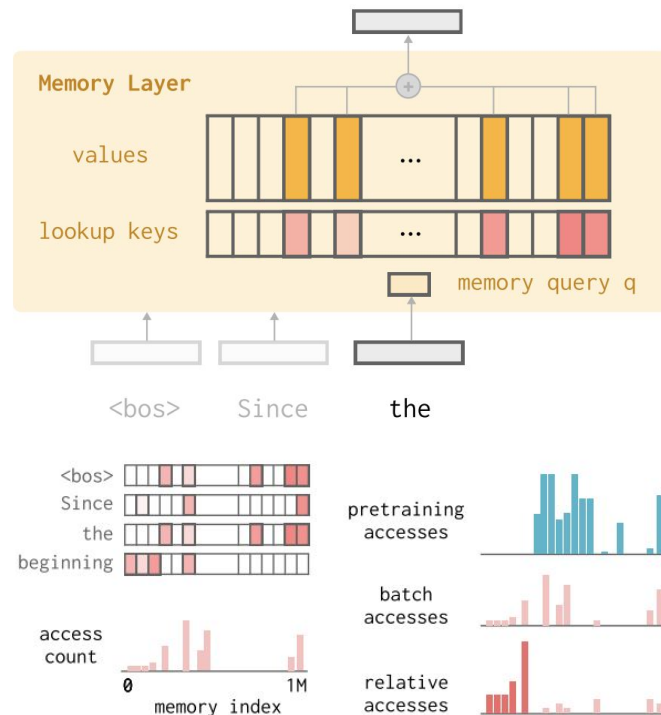
Once deployed, LLMs are typically frozen in time. Updating them on new data streams causes **Catastrophic Forgetting**.

This happens because standard training updates dense parameters shared across all knowledge, causing massive interference. New facts overwrite old ones.

**What is needed:** For models to learn how to organize its knowledge through end-to-end gradient updates, achieving selective token/parameter updates.

# Solution: Sparse Memory Finetuning

- The whole method is based on memory layer (last paper)
- SMFT uses TF-IDF score to select memory slots in memory layer (this paper)



1. Get memory accesses in batch

2. Rank accesses relative to background corpus and train the top  $t$



# Methodology: Sparse Architecture

## The Forward Pass:

**Step 1:** Retrieve top-k indices based on query projection.

**Step 2:** Compute scores using Softmax on retrieved keys.

**Step 3:** Compute weighted output and apply gating.

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \text{TopKIndices} ( K_q ( x ) , k ) \\ s &= \text{softmax} ( K_I q ( x ) ) \\ y &= sV_I \\ \text{output} &= ( y \odot \text{silu} ( x^T W_1 ) )^T W_2 \end{aligned}$$

Given keys  $\mathbf{K} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ , values  $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ , and input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

# Methodology: The Update Rule

## Intelligent Selection (TF-IDF)

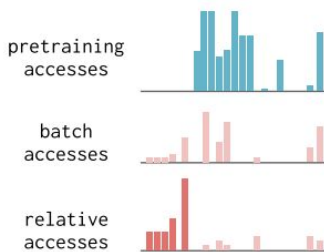
- Does not just update *all* active parameters.
  - Filter them using a **TF-IDF score**.
- Prioritizes "knowledge-specific" slots
  - (high frequency in new data, low in general training data) and freezes "common" slots.

For a given memory slot  $i \in M$  (where  $M$  is all memory slots)

$$\frac{c(i)}{\sum_{j \in M} c(j)} \cdot \log \frac{|B| + 1}{\sum_{b \in B} \mathbf{1}_{c_b(i) > 0} + 1}$$



1. Get memory accesses in batch



2. Rank accesses relative to background corpus and train the top  $t$

# Experiment setup

## Base Model Pretraining:

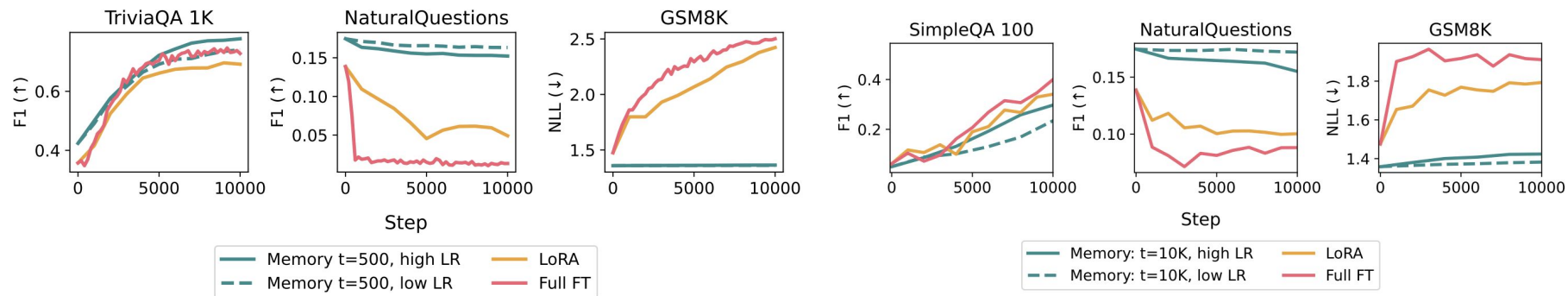
- Built on the **Memory Layers at Scale** model.
- Pretrained using the **DCLM dataset**
- DCLM includes large QA + retrieval-style data sources:
  - Wikipedia passages
  - WikiQA
  - NaturalQuestions (NQ)
  - GSM8k (Math)

**Model starts with strong factual + QA capabilities.**

## Continual Learning experiments:

1. **TriviaQA** Fact Stream
  - a. 1,000 **TriviaQA** facts presented sequentially.
  - b. Measures *acquisition* vs retention of facts.
2. Document Chunk Stream
  - a. Sequential Wikipedia-style passage chunks.
  - b. Learning evaluated on **SimpleQA**.

# Results: Mitigating Forgetting



How much old QA knowledge is forgotten while learning new TriviaQA facts

Stability of QA performance when ingesting a continuous stream of document chunks

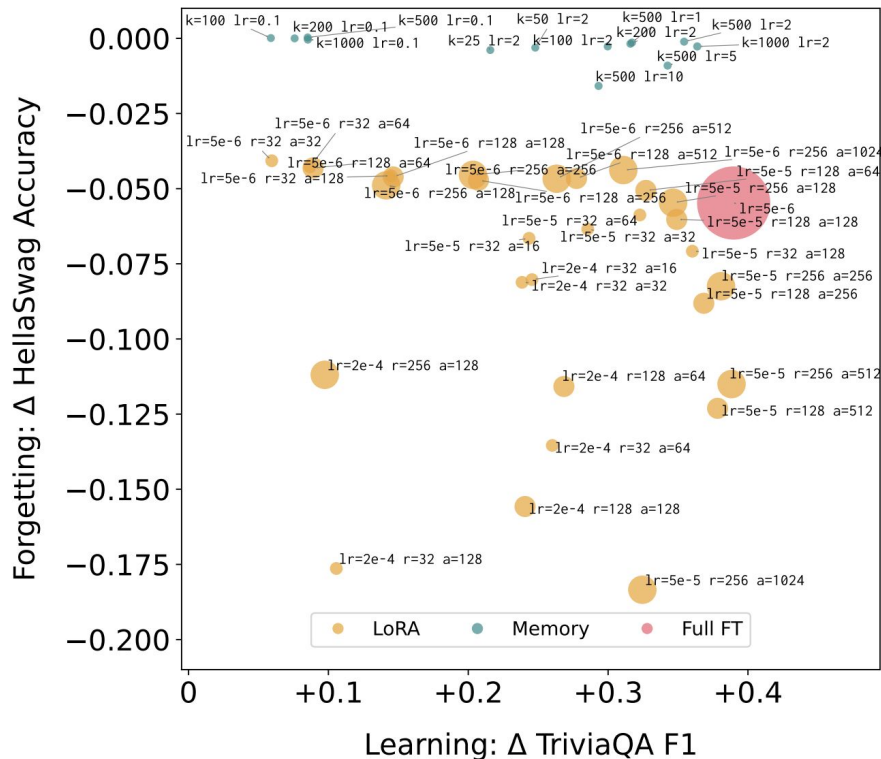
**Result:** SMFT significantly reduces catastrophic forgetting compared to baseline methods, outperforms Full Finetuning by ~8x in retention metrics.

# Pareto Efficiency: No Trade-off

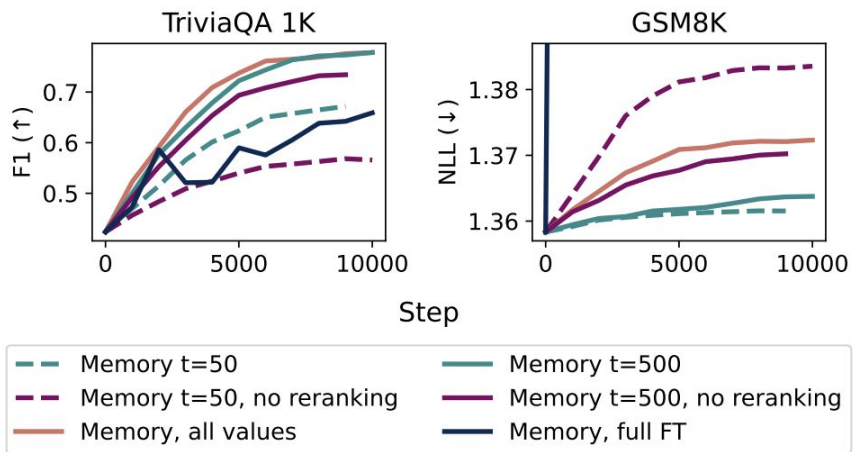
**SMFT reaches Pareto dominance with no tradeoff between acquisition and retention**

- Full Finetuning: High Acquisition, Low Retention
- LoRA: Moderate Acquisition, Moderate retention
- SMFT: High Acquisition, High Retention

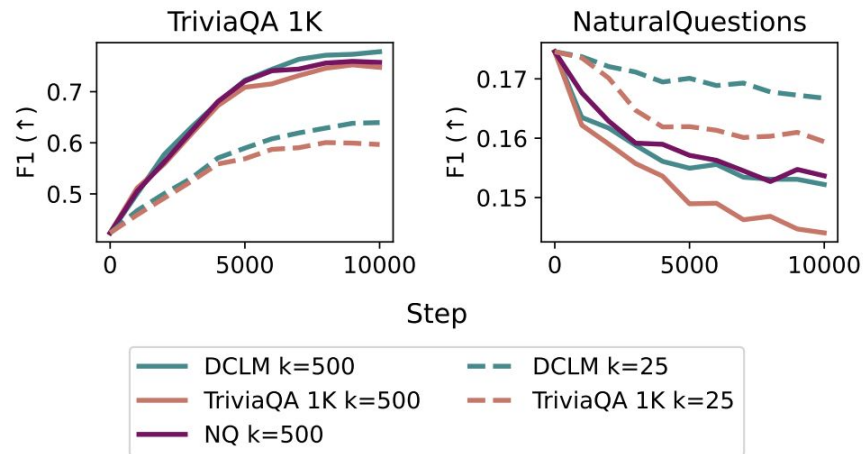
Learning vs. Forgetting Frontier



# Ablation Study



**Retrieval Sparsity alone is not enough; the update must be intelligent (using IDF).**



**IDF needs a representative background to correctly detect “common” slots.**

# Understanding Memory Access

- Core & trainable hit **the same memory slots** → shared semantics
- Only **20–100 slots** matter per fact → small trainable subset
- Core meaning drives retrieval, not wording → **semantic indexing**
- Knowledge stored **sparsely and consistently**
- Enables SMFT: **targeted slots = targeted updates**

Fact index: 174 477 indices in core set, 25 indices needed to answer

Question	
Core	How long was swimmer Michelle Smith-de Bruin banned for attempting to manipulate a drugs test? 4 years<eot>
Trainable	How long was swimmer Michelle Smith-de Bruin banned for attempting to manipulate a drugs test? 4 years<eot>
Paraphrases	
Core	Michelle Smith-de Bruin was given a 4-year ban for attempting to deceive in a drugs test.<eot>
Trainable	Michelle Smith-de Bruin was given a 4-year ban for attempting to deceive in a drugs test.<eot>
Core	Michelle Smith-de Bruin was suspended for 4 years after attempting to deceive in a drugs test.<eot>
Trainable	Michelle Smith-de Bruin was suspended for 4 years after attempting to deceive in a drugs test.<eot>
Core	A 4-year ban was handed down to Michelle Smith-de Bruin for attempting to cheat on a drugs test.<eot>
Trainable	A 4-year ban was handed down to Michelle Smith-de Bruin for attempting to cheat on a drugs test.<eot>

Fact index: 592 169 indices in core set, 25 indices needed to answer

Question	
Core	What was the name of the cat in Rising Damp? Vienna<eot>
Trainable	What was the name of the cat in Rising Damp? Vienna<eot>
Paraphrases	
Core	A cat named Vienna appeared in the TV series Rising Damp.<eot>
Trainable	A cat named Vienna appeared in the TV series Rising Damp.<eot>
Core	Rising Damp features a notable feline character named Vienna.<eot>
Trainable	Rising Damp features a notable feline character named Vienna.<eot>
Core	The cat Vienna is a beloved part of Rising Damp.<eot>
Trainable	The cat Vienna is a beloved part of Rising Damp.<eot>

Fact index: 83 193 indices in core set, 100 indices needed to answer

Question	
Core	Who was the first US-born winner of golf's British Open? Walter Hagen<eot>
Trainable	Who was the first US-born winner of golf's British Open? Walter Hagen<eot>
Paraphrases	
Core	The first US-born winner of the British Open was Walter Hagen.<eot>
Trainable	The first US-born winner of the British Open was Walter Hagen.<eot>
Core	Walter Hagen's British Open win was a historic moment for US golfers.<eot>
Trainable	Walter Hagen's British Open win was a historic moment for US golfers.<eot>
Core	Walter Hagen achieved a groundbreaking victory as the first American-born winner of the British Open.<eot>
Trainable	Walter Hagen achieved a groundbreaking victory as the first American-born winner of the British Open.<eot>

# Takeaway + Discussion Questions

- SMFT enables continual learning by updating only small, TF-IDF selected subset of memory slots, achieving high plasticity while maintaining stability
- Paper demonstrates that forgetting comes from updating shared dense weights, not from lack of model capacity

## Discussion Questions

- Would the sparse update method work for acquiring dense reasoning skills (e.g., coding, math)?
- Possible scores other than TF-IDF for filtering update slots?
- Sparse Memory vs RL continual learning
- What is different between MoE and memory layer
- Limits of memory based continual learning