

# Continual Learning with Lifelong Vision Transformer

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## Abstract

Continual learning methods aim at training a neural network from sequential data with streaming labels, relieving catastrophic forgetting. However, existing methods are based on and designed for convolutional neural networks (CNNs), which have not utilized the full potential of newly emerged powerful vision transformers. In this paper, we propose a novel attention-based framework Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT), to achieve a better stability-plasticity trade-off for continual learning. Specifically, an inter-task attention mechanism is presented in LVT, which implicitly absorbs the previous tasks' information and slows down the drift of important attention between previous tasks and the current task. LVT designs a dual-classifier structure that independently injects new representation to avoid catastrophic interference and accumulates the new and previous knowledge in a balanced manner to improve the overall performance. Moreover, we develop a confidence-aware memory update strategy to deepen the impression of the previous tasks. The extensive experimental results show that our approach achieves state-of-the-art performance with even fewer parameters on continual learning benchmarks.

## 1. Introduction

Humans can continuously learn novel concepts throughout their lifetime and accumulate visual knowledge from past experiences [5, 69]. In contrast, artificial neural networks forget the information learned in the previous tasks while learning new ones, resulting in a drastic drop in performance on the previous tasks. This phenomenon, known as *catastrophic forgetting* or *catastrophic interference* [52, 59], stems from changes in the input data distribution that cause the new input information to interfere severely with the previously learned knowledge [8, 51]. To address this challenge, the field of continual learning (also called lifelong or incremental learning) [17, 61, 62, 72] studies the problem of learning from a non-stationary stream of data, with the goal of maintaining and extending the acquired knowledge over time.

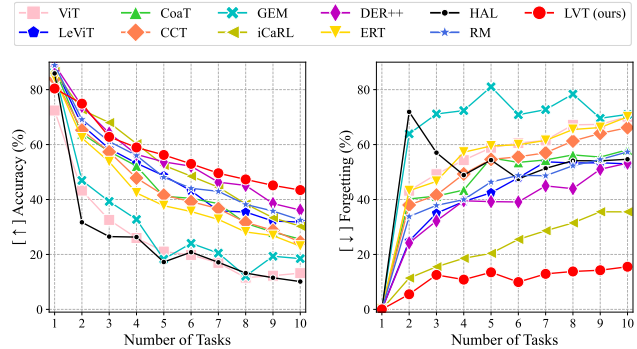


Figure 1. Incremental accuracy and forgetting evaluated on all tasks observed so far during continual learning. We compare our model with vision transformers (ViT [21], LeViT [25], CvT [83], and CCT [32]) and prior continual learning methods (GEM [47], iCaRL [61], DER++ [10], HAL [14], ERT [11], and RM [7]) on the experiment CIFAR100 of 10 splits with memory size 500. [↑] higher is better, [↓] lower is better.

Continual learning requires neural networks to be stable to prevent forgetting, but also plastic to learn new streaming labels, which is referred to as the *stability-plasticity* dilemma [27, 53]. Most of the early works in continual learning focus on the task-incremental learning (task-IL), where oracle knowledge of the task identity is available at inference time for selecting the corresponding classifier [2, 17, 44, 65, 68]. For example, regularization-based methods penalize the changes of important parameters during the learning process of new tasks and typically assign a separate output layer (classifier) for each task [13, 40, 64, 91]. Recently, various works have focused on the more difficult and realistic class-incremental learning (class-IL) [3, 9, 14, 20, 36, 61, 75, 78, 89, 94], where the network is evaluated on all classes observed during the training, without requiring the task identity. Among them, rehearsal-based methods [4, 7, 10] storing a small portion of observed data in a limited memory for replaying have shown promising results; besides, distillation-based methods [12, 61, 93] alleviate deterioration in later tasks by using knowledge distillation [34] to maintain the representation.

However, existing methods are based on and designed

for convolutional neural networks (CNNs) [33], which have not taken the full utilization of the potential from newly emerged powerful vision transformers [31, 39]. Vision transformers, recently, have shown superiority on certain computer vision tasks based on the self-attention mechanism [16, 21, 25, 46, 55, 83, 90]. The merits of vision transformers bring a new perspective to the development of continual learning. Nevertheless, current vision transformers are not directly applicable to modeling a stream of tasks [31, 39], since transformers lack the mechanism to prevent catastrophic forgetting on previous tasks. As shown in Figure 1, vision transformers [21, 25, 32, 83] with rehearsal strategy suffer from catastrophic forgetting and performance degradation on previous tasks. Thus, it is challenging to incorporate transformers well for further improving continual learning.

In this work, we propose a novel framework, Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT), which plays the strengths of the attention mechanism in continual learning, achieving a better stability-plasticity trade-off. Unlike vanilla self-attention in vision transformers [21, 25, 32, 74] that derives the attention map by computing similarity between self-queries and self-keys, we propose an *inter-task attention* mechanism to obtain attention maps by computing the affinities between self-queries and a learnable external key with an attention bias, which implicitly absorbs the previous tasks information. Also, inter-task attention saves the number of parameters compared to self-attention. Besides, we consolidate the important attention weights by preventing them from changing in future tasks, thereby avoiding catastrophic forgetting of past tasks. Different from the existing rehearsal-based methods [7, 9, 10, 14, 17, 47, 64, 75, 78] that use the same classifier for learning new tasks and replaying previous data, LVT proposes to utilize two classifiers: an *injection classifier* is used to inject new task representation into the model, mitigating interference with previous tasks; and an *accumulation classifier* focuses on integrating the previous and new knowledge in a balanced manner to improve the overall performance.

Moreover, we propose a simple and effective confidence-based memory update strategy to store *impressive* exemplars in the limited memory. The impressive exemplars have the distinctive characteristics of their classes. Like memories in the brain [23, 26, 51], recalling these impressive exemplars is more beneficial for the model to consolidate previous knowledge and thus reduce forgetting. We systematically compare state-of-the-art and well-established methods for the continual learning problem in both the class-IL and task-IL settings. Experimental results show that the proposed framework significantly outperforms other methods in terms of accuracy and forgetting even with fewer parameters. Using various ablation experiments, we validate the components of our approach.

The main contributions of this paper are four-fold:

- We propose a novel attention-based framework Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT), to achieve a better stability-plasticity trade-off for continual learning. LVT contains an inter-task attention mechanism that consolidates previous knowledge and alleviates the forgetting on previous tasks.
- LVT presents a novel dual-classifier structure to independently inject new task representation avoiding catastrophic interference, and accumulate the new and previous knowledge in a balanced manner.
- We develop a confidence-aware memory update strategy to deepen the impression of the previous tasks.
- The extensive experimental results show that our approach achieves state-of-the-art performance with even fewer parameters on continual learning benchmarks.

## 2. Related Work

### 2.1. Continual learning

**Rehearsal-based methods** prevent catastrophic forgetting by replaying a subset of exemplars of previous tasks stored in limited memory [3, 9, 22, 35, 36, 41, 47, 54, 58, 67, 79]. Experience Replay (ER) [60, 62, 63] jointly optimizes the network parameters by interleaving the previous task exemplars with current task data. ERT [11] further improves ER by a balanced sampling strategy and bias control. GSS [4] introduces a gradient-based sampling to store optimally selected exemplars in the memory buffer. HAL [14] complements experience replay with an additional objective, keeping intact the predictions on some *anchor* points of past tasks. GEM [47] and AGEM [15] utilize episodic memory to compute previous task gradients to constrain the current update step. iCaRL [61] trains a nearest-class-mean classifier while maintaining the representation in later tasks via a self-distillation loss term. DER++ [10] mixes rehearsal with distillation loss for retraining past experience and achieves state-of-the-art performance. RM [7] presents a sampling strategy by leveraging uncertainty and data augmentation.

**Other Approaches.** Regularization-based methods try to estimate the importance of each network parameter for prior tasks and penalize the changes of important parameters during the learning of new tasks [2, 13, 40, 64, 66, 91]. The difference between these works is the way to compute network parameter importance. Structure-based methods [1, 29, 43, 49, 50, 57, 68, 87] expand networks as new tasks arrive and keep the parameters of sub-networks related to previous tasks fixed. However, most structure-based methods need task identity during inference to allocate distinguished sets of parameters to distinct tasks. Label-based methods [28, 77, 80–82, 88] model streaming labels from sequential data with label relationships. The proposed method in this paper belongs to the rehearsal-based method.

## 2.2. Vision Transformers

Transformer is firstly proposed in [74] for machine translation tasks, and since then, transformer architectures have become the state-of-the-art models for natural language processing (NLP) tasks [19, 24, 48, 56]. The core component in a transformer is the attention module, which aggregates information from the entire input sequence. Recently, Vision Transformer (ViT) [21] makes a pure Transformer architecture scalable for image classification when the data is large enough. Following that, lots of efforts have been dedicated to improving Vision Transformers for data efficiency and model efficiency [31, 39, 90]. A popular research direction explores integrating explicit convolution or properties of convolution into the Transformer architecture [16, 73, 86, 92]. CoaT [85] designs a conv-attention module to realize relative position embeddings with convolutions. LeViT [25] replaces the uniform structure of a Transformer by a pyramid with pooling to learn convolutional-like features. CCT [32] eliminates the requirement for class token and positional embeddings through a sequence pooling strategy and the use of convolutions.

However, current vision transformers are not directly applicable to modeling a stream of tasks; existing continual learning algorithms designed for CNNs may not be optimal for vision transformers either. To this end, we propose the Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT) with the inter-task attention designed for continual learning and achieve better performance than other transformers and CNN baselines.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1. Problem Setup

Formally, a continual learning problem is split in a sequence of  $T$  supervised learning tasks  $\mathcal{T}_t$ ,  $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$ . For task  $\mathcal{T}_t$ , input samples  $x \in \mathcal{X}_t$  and the corresponding ground truth labels  $y \in \mathcal{Y}_t$  are drawn from an i.i.d. distribution  $\mathcal{D}_t$ . The label space of the model is all observed classes  $\cup_{i=1}^t \mathcal{Y}_i$  and the model is expected to predict well on the all classes. The model observes one task at a time in a sequential manner, and hence it is infeasible to optimize all observed classes jointly, but a small amount of data can be stored in a limited memory  $\mathcal{M}$  for future rehearsing.

### 3.2. Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT)

We propose the attention-based framework Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT) to effectively alleviate catastrophic forgetting for continual learning. An overview of the framework is depicted in Figure 2. The major contributing components in LVT are introduced as follows:

1) *Inter-task attention* in the lifelong transformer block implicitly absorbs the previous tasks information into the attention maps and slows down the learning on attention maps based on the importance to previously observed tasks.

2) *Dual-classifier*: *Injection classifier* injects new task representation into the model, avoiding catastrophic interference; *Accumulation classifier* integrates past and new knowledge in a balanced manner, to improve the stability-plasticity trade-off.

#### 3.2.1 Inter-task Attention Mechanism.

Unlike vanilla self-attention in vision transformers [21, 25, 32, 74] that derives the attention map by computing similarity between self-queries and self-keys, we propose inter-task attention mechanism to obtain attention map by computing the affinities between self-queries and a learnable external key  $K_W$  with an attention bias  $B$ , which implicitly injects previous task information in the attention mechanism. Moreover, inter-task attention can save the number of parameters compared to self-attention. When the task changes, the important weights of  $K_W$  and  $B$  are consolidated by preventing them from changing in the future tasks, thereby avoiding catastrophic forgetting of the past tasks.

Suppose the input tensor is  $X$ , we apply linear transformation with parameters  $W_q, W_v$  to obtain the vanilla self-query  $Q_X = W_q X$  and self-value  $V_X = W_v X$ . We use an external key  $K_W$  [30] to replace input-depended self-key, and explicitly add a learnable attention bias  $B$  to the attention maps. Suppose there are  $H$  attention heads, these terms are uniformly split into  $H$  segments  $Q_X^h, K_W^h, V_X^h$ , and  $B^h$ . Then the inter-task attention mechanism computes the head-specific attention map  $A^h$  and concatenates the multi-head attention as follows:

$$A^h = \text{Softmax} \left( \frac{\text{Norm}(Q_X^h (K_W^h)^\top) + B^h}{\sqrt{d/H}} \right), \quad (1)$$

$$X_{out}^h = A^h V_X^h, \quad h = 1, \dots, H,$$

where  $d$  is the dimension of the key and query;  $\text{Norm}()$  denotes batch normalization. The external key  $K_W$  and attention bias  $B$  do not rely on the input of current features and can be optimized by using an end-to-end way, which can capture previous tasks' information.

Furthermore, the learnable parameters external key  $K_W$  and attention bias  $B$  interact with the previous tasks by a regularization function to maintain the stability of the attention map and reduce forgetting. Specifically, we compute a weighted  $\ell_1$ -norm between the current parameters ( $K_W$  and  $B$ ) and the parameters corresponding to the last task, i.e.,  $\tilde{K}_W$  and  $\tilde{B}$ , given by:

$$\mathcal{L}_a = \left\| \nabla_{\tilde{K}_W} \mathcal{L}_{I_t} \odot (K_W - \tilde{K}_W) \right\|_1 + \left\| \nabla_{\tilde{B}} \mathcal{L}_{I_t} \odot (B - \tilde{B}) \right\|_1, \quad (2)$$

where  $\odot$  is the Hadamard product;  $\|\cdot\|_1$  denotes  $\ell_1$ -norm;  $\mathcal{L}_{I_t}$  is a cross-entropy loss defined in Eq. (3);  $\nabla_{\tilde{K}_W} \mathcal{L}_{I_t}$  and  $\nabla_{\tilde{B}} \mathcal{L}_{I_t}$  are the importance computed by the averaged gradients of loss on the last task with respect to the parameters of

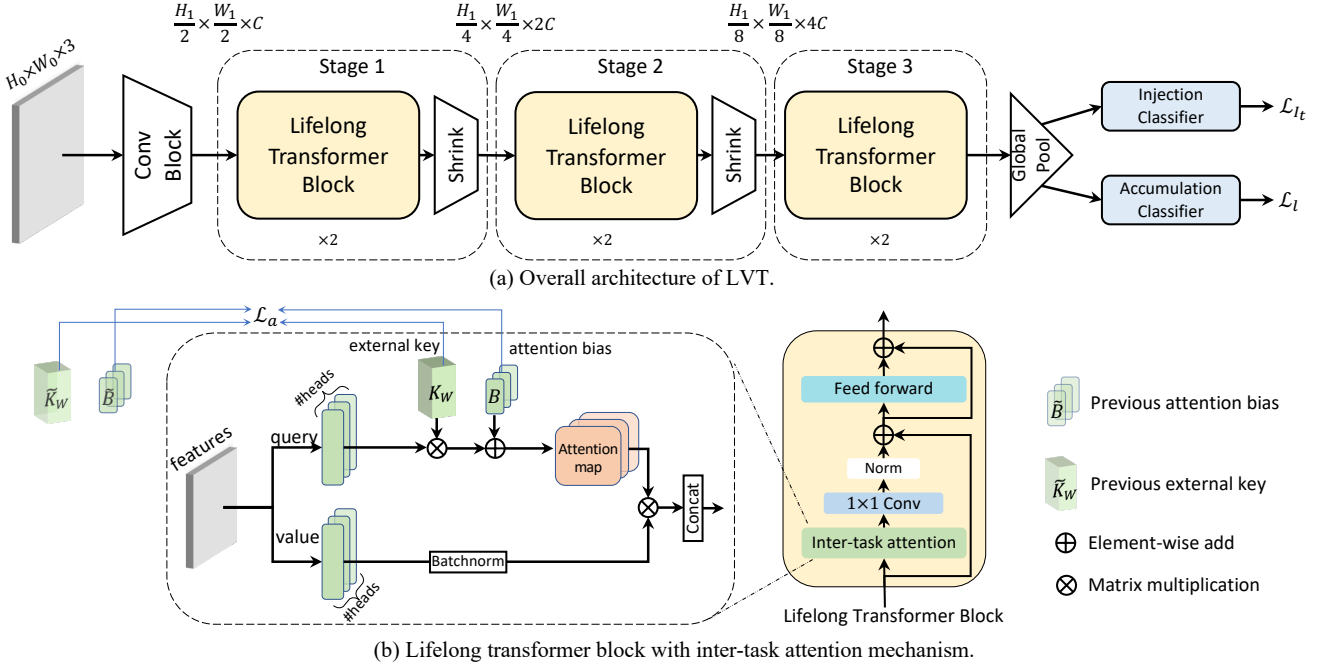


Figure 2. The architecture of Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT). (a) Overall architecture. LVT is composed of stacked lifelong transformer blocks after a simple convolutional block. Shrink module performs downsampling to reduce the resolution of the activation maps and increase their number of channels between LVT stages. After global average pooling, two classifiers serve for knowledge injection and accumulation, respectively. (b) Illustration of lifelong vision transformer block with an inter-task attention mechanism. Different from the vanilla self-attention, we apply external key and attention bias to compute attention map and interact with those of the previous task.

$\tilde{K}_W$  and  $\tilde{B}$  respectively. During the learning of new tasks, the larger the gradient magnitude is, the greater the importance degree of the parameters will be. Thus greater penalties will be given to the more important parameters. We demonstrate that penalizing the changes in attention maps helps to retain information of the previous tasks, as new task arrives. What is worth mentioning is that this loss is similar to the Fisher information used in regularization-based methods [40, 64, 91], which prevents forgetting while allowing LVT to learn new task representations. Since  $K_W$  and  $B$  are linear learnable units, inter-task attention has less number of parameters compared with the original self-attention. The size of the two saved previous parameters  $\tilde{K}_W$  and  $\tilde{B}$  is negligible in relation to the overall model.

**Normalization.** Different from most vision transformers that use layer normalization (LN) [6] before each attention, we adopt batch normalization (BN) [38] after attention computing. We find that BN is more appropriate for vision transformers in continual learning than LN by using the distribution of the summed input to a neuron over a mini-batch composed of different task (non-i.i.d.) data.

### 3.2.2 Dual-classifier Structure

Most rehearsal-based methods [7, 9, 10, 14, 17, 47, 64, 75, 84] use the same classifier for learning the new task and replay-

ing previous data in memory  $\mathcal{M}$ , which could cause catastrophic interference between new and previous tasks. To address this problem, LVT proposes to utilize a novel dual-classifier structure for independently injecting new representation without interference and accumulating the new and previous knowledge in a balanced manner.

**Injection Classifier.** First, we introduce the *injection classifier*. Let  $g(x)$  be the feature of a sample  $x$  outputted from the backbone of LVT before the classifier. When the current task data arrives, we utilize the output from an independent injection classifier to compute a classification loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{I_t} = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim \mathcal{D}_t} [\ell(y, f_I(g(x)))], \quad (3)$$

where  $f_I$  denotes the injection classifier;  $\ell$  adopts a cross-entropy loss. Injection classifier is only trained on current task data and does not participate in the inference stage. The representation of current task is injected into the backbone of LVT from this classifier, to reduce the interference with previous tasks. Besides, with the benefits of the injection classifier focusing on the current task,  $\mathcal{L}_{I_t}$  also serves for computing the importance weights in Eq. (2) and confidence in Eq. (8).

**Accumulation Classifier.** Then, we introduce the accumulation classifier as follows. Since the injection classifier mainly undertakes the representation learning on the current

task, we employ a *accumulation classifier* to focus on improving the stability-plasticity trade-off by integrating previous and new knowledge in a balanced manner. The accumulation classifier is used at inference stage for outputting the prediction.

Rehearsing the limited memory data during learning new tasks is a crucial way to maintain previous knowledge. We replay the exemplars stored in the memory buffer with their ground truth labels by minimizing:

$$\mathcal{L}_r = \mathbb{E}_{(x', y') \sim \mathcal{M}} [\ell(y', f_A(g(x')))], \quad (4)$$

where  $f_A$  denotes the accumulation classifier. We approximate the expectation by computing gradients on batches sampled from the memory buffer.

Moreover, we retain the network’s logits  $z = h_A(g(x))$  while storing the exemplars  $x$ , where  $h_A$  is the accumulation classifier without the softmax operation,  $f_A(g(x)) \triangleq \text{softmax}(h_A(g(x)))$ . The *dark knowledge* can be obtained by the distillation loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_d = \mathbb{E}_{(x', y', z') \sim \mathcal{M}} [D_{KL}(\text{softmax}(z') || f_A(g(x')))], \quad (5)$$

where  $D_{KL}$  denotes the KL divergence. We can set the temperature of softmax to produce suitable soft labels (targets).

Besides, the accumulation classifier also needs a supervised signal from current task data. Thanks to the injection classifier which helps learn the representation of current task, we can have the flexibility to adjust the weight of the current task in  $f_A$  with the goal of maintaining a balance between the old and new classes. Based on the above, we give the accumulation classifier loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_l = \alpha \mathcal{L}_r + \beta \mathcal{L}_d + r(t) \mathcal{L}_{A_t}, \quad (6)$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_{A_t} = \mathbb{E}_{(x, y) \sim \mathcal{D}_t} [\ell(y, f_A(g(x)))]$ ;  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the coefficients balancing knowledge consolidation;  $r(t)$  is a monotonically decreasing function with respect to  $t$ , the number of tasks observed so far, which aims to reduce the weight of the current task over time and pay more attention to fight against forgetting.

Overall, the total loss used in LVT is the sum of Eq. (2), Eq. (3), and Eq. (6):

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_l + \mathcal{L}_{I_t} + \gamma \mathcal{L}_a, \quad (7)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the coefficient balancing  $\mathcal{L}_a$ .

### 3.3. Confidence-aware Memory Update

A key question for rehearsal-based methods is how to update memory exemplars when new task arrives? Most of the methods employ the *Reservoir* sampling [76] or *Herding* sampling [61] to update memory, in which Reservoir randomly samples examples from the input stream with the same probability, and Herding stores the examples which are close to the mean of features for each class.

In this work, we design a confidence-aware sampling based on the injection classifier of LVT to store the *impressive* exemplars in the limited memory. We argue that the exemplars which are selected to be stored should have the distinctive characteristics of their classes, i.e., they can be accurately distinguished by the model. In analogy to memories in the brain [23, 26, 51], recalling these impressive exemplars can further consolidate previous knowledge for continual learning. In order to choose impressive exemplars, we propose a simple and effective sampling which stores the samples with the highest confidence scores of their classes.

Given the memory capacity  $M$ , we assign  $K = \lfloor M/|\mathcal{C}| \rfloor$  exemplars for each class, where  $\mathcal{C}$  is the set of classes observed so far. At the end of current task  $\mathcal{T}_t$  with a set of classes  $\mathcal{C}_t$ , we put the samples  $x$  of each class into the model and get the logits  $z$  from the injection classifier. We can obtain the confidence score  $\rho$  of each sample by:

$$\rho(x) = \frac{e^{z^c}}{\sum_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{C}|} e^{z^i}}, \quad x \in \{\hat{x} | (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) \in \mathcal{D}_t, \hat{y} = y_c\}, \quad c \in \mathcal{C}_t, \quad (8)$$

where  $z^i$  is the  $i$ -th element of  $z$ ;  $y_c$  is the label corresponding to class  $c$ . We select the  $K$  samples with the highest confidence scores  $\rho$  for each class. These exemplars are not only representative for their corresponding class, but also discriminative to the other classes. We store the exemplars in a descending order based on the corresponding values of  $\rho$ , where exemplars come earlier in the order have a higher value of  $\rho$ . Memory update also includes removing exemplars of each previous class, we reduce the number of exemplars of each previous class to  $K$  in an ascending order.

## 4. Experiment

### 4.1. Experimental Setup and Implementation

We consider a strict evaluation setting [37, 72] for continual learning, which includes task incremental learning (**Task-IL**) and class incremental learning (**Class-IL**). Task-IL splits the training samples into partitions of tasks, which requires task identities to select corresponding classifiers at inference time. Class-IL sequentially increases the number of classes to be classified without requiring the task identities, as the hardest scenario [10].

**Datasets.** The CIFAR-100 dataset [42] contains 100 classes and each class has 500 train and 100 test color images. TinyImageNet [70] consists 200 classes that include 100,000 images for training and 10,000 images for validation. ImageNet100 [61] contains 100 classes randomly chosen from ILSVRC [18] with the average resolution  $469 \times 387$ . It includes about 120,000 images for training and 5,000 images for validation.

**Baselines.** We compare LVT with state-of-the-art and well-established methods, including eight rehearsal-based

Memory Buffer	Method	#Paras	5 splits		10 splits		20 splits	
			Class-IL	Task-IL	Class-IL	Task-IL	Class-IL	Task-IL
-	Joint	11.2	70.21±0.15	85.25±0.29	70.21±0.15	91.24±0.27	71.25±0.22	94.02±0.33
	SGD	11.2	17.27±0.14	42.24±0.33	8.62±0.09	34.40±0.53	4.73±0.06	40.83±0.46
200	ER [62]	11.2	21.94±0.83	62.41±0.93	14.23±0.12	67.57±0.68	9.90±1.67	70.82±0.74
	GEM [47]	11.2	19.73±0.34	57.13±0.94	13.20±0.21	62.96±0.67	8.29±0.18	66.28±1.49
	AGEM [15]	11.2	17.97±0.26	53.55±1.13	9.44±0.29	55.04±0.87	4.88±0.09	41.30±0.56
	iCaRL [61]	11.2	30.12±2.45	55.70±1.87	22.38±2.79	60.81±2.48	12.62±1.43	62.17±1.93
	FDR [9]	11.2	22.84±1.49	63.75±0.49	14.85±2.76	65.88±0.60	6.70±0.79	59.13±0.73
	GSS [4]	11.2	19.44±2.83	56.11±1.50	11.84±1.46	56.24±0.98	6.42±1.24	51.64±2.89
	DER++ [10]	11.2	27.46±1.16	62.55±2.31	21.76±0.78	59.54±0.77	15.16±1.53	61.98±0.91
	HAL [14]	22.4	13.21±1.24	35.61±2.95	9.67±1.67	37.49±2.16	5.67±0.91	53.06±2.87
	ERT [11]	11.2	21.61±0.87	54.75±1.32	12.91±1.46	58.49±3.12	10.14±1.96	62.90±2.72
	RM [7]	11.2	32.23±1.09	62.05±0.62	22.71±0.93	66.28±0.60	15.15±2.14	68.21±0.43
	<b>LVT (ours)</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>39.68±1.36</b>	<b>66.92±0.40</b>	<b>35.41±1.28</b>	<b>72.80±0.49</b>	<b>20.63±1.14</b>	<b>73.41±0.67</b>
500	ER [62]	11.2	27.97±0.33	68.21±0.29	21.54±0.29	74.97±0.41	15.36±1.15	74.97±1.44
	GEM [47]	11.2	25.44±0.72	67.49±0.91	18.48±1.34	72.68±0.46	12.58±2.15	<b>78.24±0.61</b>
	AGEM [15]	11.2	18.75±0.51	58.70±1.49	9.72±0.22	58.23±0.64	5.97±1.13	59.12±1.57
	iCaRL [61]	11.2	35.95±2.16	64.40±1.59	30.25±1.86	71.02±2.54	20.05±1.33	72.26±1.47
	FDR [9]	11.2	29.99±2.23	69.11±0.59	22.81±2.81	74.22±0.72	13.10±3.34	73.22±0.83
	GSS [4]	11.2	22.08±3.51	61.77±1.52	13.72±2.64	56.32±1.84	7.49±4.78	57.42±1.61
	DER++ [10]	11.2	38.39±1.57	70.74±0.56	36.15±1.10	73.31±0.78	21.65±1.44	70.55±0.87
	HAL [14]	22.4	16.74±3.51	39.70±2.53	11.12±3.80	41.75±2.17	9.71±2.91	55.60±1.83
	ERT [11]	11.2	28.82±1.83	62.85±0.28	23.00±0.58	68.26±0.83	18.42±1.92	73.50±0.82
	RM [7]	11.2	39.47±1.26	69.27±0.41	32.52±1.53	73.51±0.89	23.09±1.72	75.06±0.75
	<b>LVT (ours)</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>44.73±1.19</b>	<b>71.54±0.93</b>	<b>43.51±1.06</b>	<b>76.78±0.71</b>	<b>26.75±1.29</b>	<b>78.15±0.42</b>

Table 1. Results (overall accuracy %) on CIFAR100 benchmark which is averaged over five runs. #Paras means the number of parameters in the model, which is counted by million.

methods (ER [62], GEM [47], AGEM [15], GSS [4], FDR [9], HAL [14], ERT [11], and RM [7]), two methods leveraging Knowledge Distillation (iCaRL [61] and DER++ [10]). Besides, we also compare SOTA vision transformers (ViT [21], LeViT [25], CoaT [85], and CCT [32]) with rehearsal strategy for continual learning. We further provide an upper bound (JOINT) obtained by training all tasks jointly and a lower bound simply performing SGD without any countermeasure to forgetting.

**Metrics.** We evaluate continual learning methods in terms of accuracy and forgetting following [10, 13, 15]. The accuracy is defined by  $A_T = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T a_{T,t}$ , and the forgetting is defined by  $F_T = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \max_{i \in \{1, \dots, T-1\}} (a_{i,t} - a_{T,t})$ , where  $a_{T,t}$  is the testing accuracy on task  $\mathcal{T}_t$  when the model completed learning task  $\mathcal{T}_T$ .

**Implementation Details.** To fairly compare each method, we train all networks using the stochastic gradient descent (SGD) optimizer. The training images are randomly cropped and flipped for all methods following [10, 11, 67]. We adopt 50 and 100 epoch with mini-batch size of 32, learning rate of 0.1 for CIFAR100 and TinyImageNet respectively, following [10, 11, 61, 91]. For ImageNet100, we resize the images to  $224 \times 224$  and use batch-size of

128, step annealing learning-rate schedule ranged from 0.1 to 0.001, and the number of epochs of 100, which are used from [7, 61]. Continual learning baselines use ResNet18 [33] as backbone, and cross-entropy as classification loss, following [7, 10, 14, 15, 67, 71]. The implementation of transformer block is based on ViT [21] and LeViT [25]. LVT uses GELU activation and dropout in transformer blocks and applies a global average pooling to the last activation map. We set hyper-parameters by performing a grid-search on a validation set, which is obtained by sampling 10% from the training dataset. The details of the setup are in Appendix A.

## 4.2. Comparison to State-of-the-Art Methods

**Evaluation on CIFAR100.** We follow the protocol proposed in [61, 87], which trains all 100 classes in several splits including 5, 10, 20 incremental tasks. Table 1 summarizes the overall accuracy on CIFAR100 with 200 and 500 memory size. It is shown that LVT outperforms other methods by a considerable margin in different incremental splits, e.g., LVT can improve the accuracy of continual learning by more than **12%** in 10-split with 200 memory capacity. Especially in the case of small memory, the advantage of LVT is more obvious, which indicates LVT per-

Memory Buffer	Method	#Paras	TinyImageNet		#Paras	ImageNet100	
			Class-IL	Task-IL		Class-IL	Task-IL
-	Joint	11.2	59.36±0.19	81.95±0.15	11.2	73.82±0.23	81.58±0.31
	SGD	11.2	7.87±0.24	18.31±0.63	11.2	8.72±0.37	21.32±0.61
200	ER [62]	11.2	8.79±0.21	39.16±2.14	11.2	9.58±0.34	36.24±1.69
	AGEM [15]	11.2	8.28±0.15	23.79±0.11	11.2	9.27±0.08	25.20±0.35
	iCaRL [61]	11.2	8.64±0.78	28.41±1.53	11.2	12.59±0.68	33.75±1.81
	FDR [9]	11.2	8.77±0.82	40.15±0.67	11.2	10.08±0.36	37.80±0.91
	DER++ [10]	11.2	11.16±0.95	40.97±1.16	11.2	11.92±0.12	31.96±1.65
	ERT [11]	11.2	10.85±0.24	39.54±1.90	11.2	13.51±1.13	36.94±1.54
	RM [7]	11.2	13.58±1.07	41.96±1.28	11.2	16.76±0.84	35.18±1.43
	<b>LVT (ours)</b>	<b>9.0</b>	<b>17.34±1.13(+3.76)</b>	<b>46.15±1.21(+4.19)</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>19.46±1.06(+2.70)</b>	<b>41.78±2.03(+3.98)</b>
500	ER [62]	11.2	10.15±0.32	50.11±0.53	11.2	11.68±0.25	42.04±0.47
	AGEM [15]	11.2	9.67±0.18	26.79±0.81	11.2	10.92±0.16	34.22±0.68
	iCaRL [61]	11.2	10.69±1.53	35.89±2.47	11.2	16.44±1.35	36.89±0.72
	FDR [9]	11.2	10.58±0.22	49.91±0.78	11.2	11.78±0.40	42.60±0.64
	DER++ [10]	11.2	19.33±1.41	51.90±0.62	11.2	14.52±1.86	35.46±0.66
	ERT [11]	11.2	12.13±0.36	50.87±0.49	11.2	20.42±1.13	41.56±1.78
	RM [7]	11.2	18.96±1.34	52.08±0.84	11.2	14.56±2.64	38.66±2.47
	<b>LVT (ours)</b>	<b>9.0</b>	<b>23.97±1.27(+4.64)</b>	<b>57.39±0.75(+5.31)</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>26.32±1.67(+5.90)</b>	<b>47.84±1.33(+5.24)</b>

Table 2. Results (overall accuracy %) on TinyImageNet and ImageNet100, which are averaged over three runs. #Paras means the number of parameters in the model, which is counted by million. The **green numbers** represent gains.

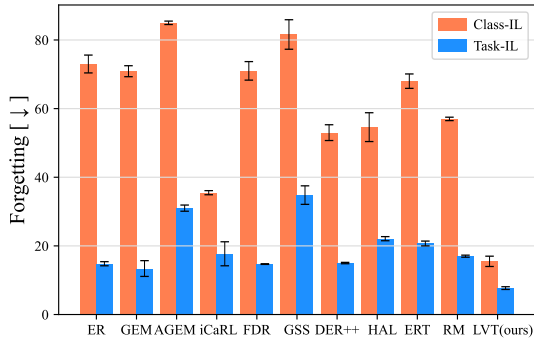


Figure 3. Forgetting results (%) on CIFAR100 (lower is better).

forms better in more realistic and challenging data-scarcity situations. It is worth noting that although LVT uses fewer parameters (8.9M) than other methods (11.2M~22.4M), it can still achieve state-of-the-art performance. One reason is that LVT inherits the merits of transformers and designs the architecture for modeling the stream of tasks, and thus works well in continual learning without stacking a lot of parameters.

**Evaluation on ImageNet datasets.** Table 2 summarizes the experimental results for the TinyImageNet and ImageNet100 datasets with 10 splits. It is shown that LVT consistently surpasses other methods with a considerable margin for Class-IL and Task-IL on TinyImageNet and ImageNet100 datasets. Specifically, our method outperforms the state-of-the-art with about **5.9%** for the Class-IL accuracy on the ImageNet100 benchmark. For TinyImageNet benchmark, the Task-IL accuracy is improved from 52.08%

Method	#Paras	Accuracy [↑]		Forgetting [↓]	
		Class-IL	Task-IL	Class-IL	Task-IL
ViT [21]	16.2	13.19	54.53	70.16	24.79
LeViT [25]	10.9	31.84	72.76	52.93	14.67
CoaT [85]	10.3	25.44	66.15	58.01	17.28
CCT [32]	<b>3.9</b>	24.50	71.37	66.17	20.20
ResNet18 [33]	11.2	36.98	73.23	47.43	15.36
LVT (ours)	8.9	<b>43.51</b>	<b>76.78</b>	<b>15.54</b>	<b>7.76</b>

Table 3. Comparison with vision transformer and CNN architectures for continual learning.

to 57.39%(+5.31%). Moreover, LVT takes fewer parameters compared to other CNN-based methods.

**Forgetting.** To compare the preventing forgetting capability, we assess the *average forgetting* [10, 13] that measures the performance degradation in subsequent tasks. Figure 3 shows that LVT suffers from less forgetting than all the other methods in both of Class-IL and Task-IL settings with memory size 500. This is because LVT constructs an inter-task attention architecture and leverages the injection and accumulation strategy, which improve the stability of the vision transformer network.

**Comparison to Transformer and CNN Architectures.** We compare LVT to SOTA Vision Transformers (ViT [21], LeViT [25], CvT [83], and CCT [32]) and the CNN benchmark ResNet18 [33] under the proposed rehearsal strategy in continual learning. The results from Table 3 and Figure 1 indicate that ViT is not up to the task of continual learning, since it is “data hungry” and only fits to i.i.d. large datasets. LeViT, CvT, and CCT contain CNN structures to obtain inductive biases, which improve the generalizability

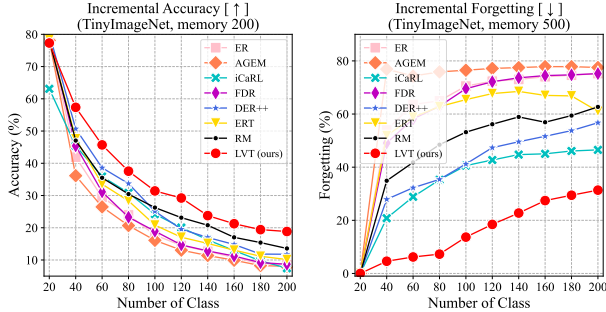


Figure 4. Incremental performance evaluated on all tasks observed so far. [↑] higher is better, [↓] lower is better.

Module	CIFAR100			TinyImageNet	
	$f_I$	$f_A$	$\rho$	Class-IL	Task-IL
IT-att	✓	✓	✓	36.93	73.52
	✓	✓	✓	39.76	74.78
	✓	✓	✓	38.42	75.49
	✓	✓	✓	40.25	73.71
	✓	✓	✓	<b>43.51</b>	<b>76.78</b>
				19.35	52.14
				20.03	54.34
				18.85	55.07
				21.16	54.42
				<b>23.97</b>	<b>57.39</b>

Table 4. Ablation study on each component of LVT. IT-att represents the transformer with inter-task attention mechanism;  $f_I$  and  $f_A$  denotes the injection classifier and accumulation classifier respectively; And  $\rho$  denotes the confidence-ware memory update.

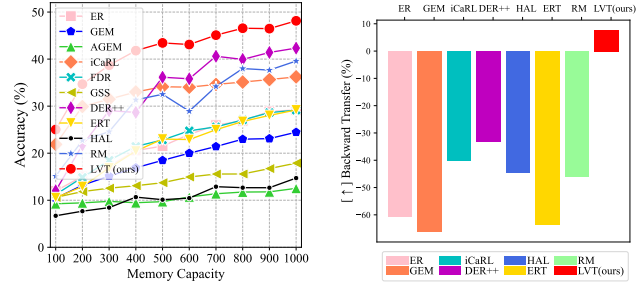
of transformer but still suffer from catastrophic forgetting in continual learning. Using Vision Transformer directly for continual learning is not even as good as ResNet performance. Only LVT exploits the strengths of transformer with even fewer parameters to achieve better performance for continual learning, which benefits from the inter-task attention mechanism and the dual-classifier structure.

**Incremental Performance.** We demonstrate the *average incremental performance* [10, 61] under the Class-IL setting, which is the result of evaluating on all the tasks observed so far after completing each task. As shown in Figures 1 and 4, the performance of most methods degrades rapidly as new tasks arrive, while our method consistently outperforms the state-of-the-art methods at every step in both of accuracy and forgetting.

### 4.3. Ablation Study and Analysis

**Effect of Each Component.** Table 4 shows the effect of each component of LVT on CIFAR100 and TinyImageNet with 500 memory. We can see that the average accuracy on CIFAR100 is improved significantly from 36.93% to 43.51% by the proposed transformer block with inter-task attention. The dual-classifier structure obtains 5.09% gain in Class-IL setting. The performance of the model is further improved with 2.97% gain using the confidence-ware memory update strategy on TinyImageNet.

**Sensitive Analysis on Memory Size.** We assess the effectiveness of the proposed method on various memory capacities.



(a) Sensitivity analysis regarding the memory capacity. (b) Backward transfer (BWT) analysis under Class-IL setting.

Figure 5. Analyses for memory capacity and backward transfer.

ities. Figure 5a shows that LVT consistently performs better than other methods at various memory capacities on CIFAR100. We also notice that the improvement of LVT becomes more significant with small memory size, which illustrates that our method can be better adapted to real-world situations with limited sources.

**Backward Transfer (BWT) Analysis.** BWT [10, 15, 47] is the influence of learning a task on the performance of previous tasks, defined by  $BWT = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} (a_{T,t} - a_{t,t})$ , where  $a_{T,t}$  is the testing accuracy on task  $\mathcal{T}_t$  when the model completed learning task  $\mathcal{T}_T$ . We analyze BWT for different methods on CIFAR100 of 10 splits with memory 1000. As shown in Figure 5b, other methods have large negative BWT in the Class-IL setting, which means severe forgetting. In contrast, our method even achieves positive BWT, which means the learning of new tasks may help previous tasks' performance. This result further proves the superiority of our method. More detailed results in Appendix B.

## 5. Conclusion

To the best of our knowledge, this paper is the first in the literature to design a vision transformer for continual learning. The proposed Lifelong Vision Transformer (LVT) contains an inter-task attention mechanism and a dual-classifier structure, which can consolidate previous knowledge and alleviate the forgetting on previous tasks. Moreover, we develop a confidence-aware memory update strategy to deepen the impression of the previous tasks. Extensive experimental results show that our approach significantly outperforms current state-of-the-art methods with fewer parameters. Ablation analyses validate the effectiveness of the proposed components.

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