On the benefits of defining vicinal distributions in latent space

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ABSTRACT

The vicinal risk minimization (VRM) principle is an empirical risk minimization (ERM) variant that replaces Dirac masses with vicinal functions. There is strong numerical and theoretical evidence showing that VRM outperforms ERM in terms of generalization if appropriate vicinal functions are chosen. Mixup Training (MT), a popular choice of vicinal distribution, improves generalization performance of models by introducing globally linear behavior in between training examples. Apart from generalization, recent works have shown that mixup trained models are relatively robust to input perturbations/corruptions and at same time are calibrated better than their non-mixup counterparts. In this work, we investigate the benefits of defining these vicinal distributions like mixup in latent space of generative models rather than in input space itself. We propose a new approach - VarMixup (Variational Mixup) - to better sample mixup images by using the latent manifold underlying the data. Our empirical studies on CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100 and Tiny-ImageNet demonstrates that models trained by performing mixup in the latent manifold learned by VAEs are inherently more robust to various input corruptions/perturbations, are significantly better calibrated and exhibit more local-linear loss landscapes.

Keywords: Robustness $\diamond$ Calibration $\diamond$ Mixup $\diamond$ VRM $\diamond$ Common Corruptions

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1. Introduction

Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) have become a key ingredient to solve many challenging tasks like classification, segmentation, object detection, speech recognition, etc. In most successful applications, these networks are trained to minimize the average error over the training dataset known as the Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM) principle (Vapnik 1998). However, various empirical and theoretical studies have shown that minimizing Empirical Risk over training datasets in over-parameterized settings leads to memorization and thus poor generalization on examples just outside the training distribution. Some classical results in learning theory (Vapnik 1995) tells us that the convergence of ERM is guaranteed as long as the size of the learning machine (in terms of number of parameters or VC-complexity (Harvey et al. 2017)) does not increase with the number of training data. To mitigate this problem of memorization in over-parameterized neural networks, Vicinal Risk Minimization (VRM) was proposed which essentially chooses to train networks on similar but different examples to the training data. This technique more popularly known as data augmentation (Simard et al. 2012), requires one to define a vicinity or neighbourhood around each training example (eg. in terms of brightness, contrast, imperceptible noise, to name a few). Once defined, more examples can be sampled from their vicinity to enlarge the support of training distribution.

One of the popular choices to create the vicinal distribution is Mixup. Mixup Training (MT) (Zhang et al. 2017b) has emerged as a popular technique to train models for better generalisation in the last couple of years. Recent works have also shown that the idea of Mixup and Mixup training can be leveraged during inference (Pang* et al., 2020) and in many existing techniques like data augmentation (Hendrycks* et al., 2020), adversarial training (Lamb et al. 2019), etc. to improve the robustness of models to various input perturbations (Szegedy et al. 2013; Yuan et al. 2017) and corruptions (Hendrycks* et al., 2020). Another variant of Mixup, known as as Mani-
fold Mixup (Verma et al., 2019) encourages neural networks to predict less confidently on interpolations of hidden representations by leveraging semantic interpolations as an additional training signal. As a result, neural networks trained with Manifold Mixup learn class representations with fewer directions of variance. Other efforts on Mixup (Thulasidasan et al., 2019) have shown that Mixup-trained networks are significantly better calibrated and less prone to over-confident predictions on out-of-distribution than the ones trained in the regular fashion.

Although still in its early phase, the above efforts (Zhang et al., 2017b; Verma et al., 2019; Pang* et al., 2020; Thulasidasan et al., 2019) also indicate a trend to view Mixup from perspectives of robustness and calibration. In this work, we take another step in this direction and propose a new vicinal distribution/sampling technique called VarMixup (Variational Mixup) to sample better Mixup images during training to induce robustness as well as improve predictive uncertainty of models while preserving the clean data performance to extent possible. In particular, we hypothesize that the latent unfolded manifold underlying the data (through a generative model, a Variational Autoencoder in our case) is linear by construction (manifolds unfold the locally linear structure of a high-dimensional data space), and hence more suitable for the defining vicinal distributions involving linear interpolations, such as Mixup. Importantly, we show that this choice of the distribution for Mixup plays an important role towards robustness and predictive uncertainty (Section 3). We note herein that our downstream task is image classification and the VAE used in our approach is an auxiliary tool rather than being the model to be trained in the first place.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We propose a new sampling technique called VarMixup (Variational Mixup) to sample better Mixup images during training by using the latent manifold learned by generative models. Our experiments on 3 standard datasets- CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100 and Tiny-ImageNet show that VarMixup significantly boosts the robustness to out-of-distribution shifts as well calibration of neural networks as compared to regular mixup or manifold-mixup training.

- We conduct additional analysis/studies which show that VarMixup significantly decreases the local linearity error of the neural network and generates samples that are slightly off-distribution from training examples or mixup generated samples, to provide robustness.

2. Background and Related Work

2.1. Notations and Preliminaries

We denote a neural network as \( F_w : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k \), with weight parameters \( w \). \( F_w \) takes an image \( x \in \mathbb{R}^d \) and outputs logits, \( F_w(x) \) for each class \( i \in [1..k] \). Without loss of generality, we assume the classification task with \( \mathcal{L} \) as the standard cross-entropy loss function. \( p_{\text{actual}} \) denotes the training data distribution, and the optimal weight parameter \( w^* \) is obtained by training the network using standard empirical risk minimization (Vapnik, 1998), i.e. \( w^* = \arg \min_w \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim p_{\text{actual}}} [ \mathcal{L}(F_w(x), y) ] \), where \( y \) is the true label associated with input \( x \).

2.2. Vicinal Risk Minimization

Given the data distribution \( p_{\text{actual}} \), a neural network \( F_w \) and loss function \( \mathcal{L} \), the expected risk (average of loss function over \( p_{\text{actual}} \)) is given by \( R(F_w) = \int \mathcal{L}(F_w(x), y) \cdot dp_{\text{actual}}(x, y) \). In practice, the true distribution \( p_{\text{actual}} \) is unknown, and is approximated by the training dataset \( D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N \), which represents the empirical distribution: \( p_D(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta(x = x_i, y = y_i) \). Here, \( \delta(x = x_i, y = y_i) \) is the Dirac delta function centered at \((x_i, y_i)\). Using \( p_\delta \) as an estimate to \( p_{\text{actual}} \), we define expected empirical risk as:

\[
R_D(F_w) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}(F_w(x_i), y_i)
\]

Minimizing Eqn 1 to find optimal \( F_w^* \) is typically termed Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM) (Vapnik, 1998). However overparametrized neural networks can suffer from memorizing, leading to undesirable behavior of network outside the training distribution, \( p_\delta \) (Zhang et al., 2017a; Szegedy et al., 2013). Addressing this concern, (Vapnik, 1995) and (Chapelle et al., 2001) proposed Vicinal Risk Minimization (VRM), where \( p_{\text{actual}} \) is approximated by a vicinal distribution \( p_v \), given by:

\[
p_v(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N v(x, y|x_i, y_i)
\]

where \( v \) is the vicinal distribution that calculates the probability of a data point \((x, y)\) in the vicinity of other samples \((x_i, y_i)\). Thus, using \( p_v \) to approximate \( p_{\text{actual}} \), expected vicinal risk is given by:

\[
R_v(F_w) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(F_w, \mathcal{L}, x_i, y_i)
\]

where \( g(F_w, \mathcal{L}, x_i, y_i) = \int \mathcal{L}(F_w(x), y) \cdot dv(x, y|x_i, y_i) \). The superiority of VRM over ERM has been theoretically as well as empirically verified by many recent works (Ni and Rockett, 2015; Cao and Rockett, 2015; Hai-Yan and Hua, 2010; Zhang et al., 2018).

Popular examples of vicinal distributions include: (i) Gaussian Vicinal Distribution: Here, \( v_{\text{gaussian}}(x,y|x_i,y_i) = \mathcal{N}(x-x_i, \sigma^2) \delta(y = y_i) \), which is equivalent to augmenting the training samples with Gaussian noise; and (ii) Mixup Vicinal Distribution: Here \( v_{\text{mixup}}(x,y|x_i,y_i) = \frac{1}{\eta} \sum_{j=1}^N v_j(x, y) = \mathcal{L} \cdot y_i + (1 - \lambda) \cdot y_j \), where \( \lambda \sim \beta(\eta, \eta) \) and \( \eta > 0 \).

2.3. Mixup

(Zhang et al., 2017b) proposed Mixup, a method to train models on the convex combination of pairs of examples and their labels. In other words, it constructs virtual training examples as: \( x' = \lambda \cdot x_i + (1 - \lambda) \cdot x_j; y' = \lambda \cdot y_i + (1 - \lambda) \cdot y_j \), where \( x_i, x_j \) are input vectors; \( y_i, y_j \) are one-hot label encodings and \( \lambda \) is a mixup coefficient, usually sampled from a \( \beta(\eta, \eta) \) distribution. By doing so, it regularizes the network to behave linearly in between training examples, thus inducing global linearity between them. A recent variant, Manifold Mixup (Verma et al., 2019), exploits interpolations at hidden representations, thereby obtaining neural networks with smoother decision boundaries at different levels of hidden representations. AugMix (Hendrycks* et al., 2020) mixes up multiple augmented images and uses a Jensen-Shannon Divergence.
consistency loss on them to achieve better robustness to common input corruptions (Hendrycks and Dietterich, 2019). In semi-supervised learning, MixMatch (Berthelot et al., 2019) obtains state-of-the-art results by guessing low-entropy labels for data-augmented unlabeled examples and mixes labeled and unlabeled data using Mixup. It has been shown that apart from better generalization, Mixup also improves the robustness of models to adversarial perturbations as well. To further boost this robustness at inference time, Pang et al. (Pang* et al., 2020) recently proposed a Mixup Inference technique which performs a mixup of input $x$ with a clean sample $x_c$ and passes the corresponding mixup sample $(\lambda \cdot x + (1 - \lambda) \cdot x_c)$ into the classifier as the processed input. Other efforts related to Mixup (Thulasidasan et al., 2019) have shown that Mixup-trained networks are better calibrated i.e., the predicted softmax scores are better indicators of the actual likelihood of a correct prediction than DNNs trained in the regular fashion. Additionally, they also observed that mixup-trained DNNs are less prone to over-confidence predictions on out-of-distribution and random-noise data. None of these efforts however address Mixup from a generative latent space, which is the focus of this work. Efforts such as (Pang* et al., 2020) and (Thulasidasan et al., 2019), in fact, have inferences that motivate the need to consider a latent Mixup space to address a model’s robustness and predictive uncertainty. From a different perspective, Xu et al. (Xu et al., 2019) used domain mixup to improve the generalization ability of models in domain adaptation. Adversarial Mixup Resynthesis (Beckham et al., 2019) attempted mixing latent codes used by autoencoders through an arbitrary mixing mechanism that can recombine codes from different inputs to produce novel examples. This work however has a different objective and focuses on generative models in a Generative Adversarial Network (GAN) like setting, while our work focuses on robustness and predictive uncertainty. The work by Liu et al. (Liu et al.) may be closest to ours in terms of approach as they use an adversarial autoencoder (AAE) to impose a uniform distribution on the feature representations. However, their work deals with improving generalization performance, while ours looks at robustness and predictive uncertainty, as already stated. Other related works like (Wang and Yu, 2019) Yin et al., 2020 Look et al., 2018 attempt to leverage Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) to train adversarially robust classifiers, while, we focus on VAEs, because of their ability to model the latent manifold explicitly, to train classifiers robust to commonly observed out-of-distribution shifts (eg. snow, fog etc.) (explained in detail in Section 3). Furthermore, we propose a new method, VarMixup, which focuses on directly exploiting the manifold learned by a Variational Autoencoder (VAE) (and do not regularize it unlike previous work) during Mixup and report improved adversarial robustness. We also present useful insights into the working of VarMixup (which is lacking in earlier work including (Liu et al.)), thus making our contributions unique and more complete.

3. Methodology

In this work, we build on the recent success of using Mixup as a vicinal distribution by proposing the use of the latent spaces learned by a generative deep neural network model. The use of generative models such as Variational Autoencoders (VAEs) (Kingma and Welling, 2013) to capture the latent space from which a distribution is generated provides us an unfolded manifold (the low-dimensional latent space), where the linearity in between training examples is more readily observed. Defining vicinal distributions by using neighbors on this latent manifold, which is more linear in the low-dimensional space, learned by generative models provides us more effective linear interpolations than the ones in input space. We hence leverage such an approach to capture the induced global linearity in between examples, and define Mixup vicinal distributions on this latent surface.

3.1. Our Approach: VarMixup (Variational Mixup)

To capture the latent manifold of the training data through a generative model, we opt for a Variational Autoencoder (VAE). VAE (Kingma and Welling, 2013) is an autoencoder which is trained using Variational Inference, which serves as an implicit regularizer to ensure that the obtained latent space allows us to generate new data from the same distribution as training data. Our rationale behind choosing VAEs over GANs to capture latent manifold of training data is that while VAEs are known for modeling latent variable models explicitly, GANs are implicit generative models, i.e. while we can generate images from latent variables, the reverse operation - getting latent variable samples corresponding to images - is not explicitly modeled. To obtain the latent embedding of an image $x$, one may have to solve the following optimization via backpropagation:

$$z^* = \arg \min_z ||G(z) - x||_2$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

where $G$ is the generator. Clearly, such an optimization causes additional overhead in increased time and computation complexity. Since we work on defining vicinal distributions in the latent space, choosing VAEs directly allows us to obtain the latent embeddings via one forward pass.

We denote the encoding and decoding distribution of VAE as $q_\theta(z|x)$ and $p_\phi(x|z)$ respectively, parametrized by $\phi$ and $\theta$ respectively. Given $p(z)$ as the desired prior distribution for encoding, the general VAE objective is given by the loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}_{VAE} = -\gamma \cdot D(q_\phi(z)||p(z)) + \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}}[\mathbb{E}_{z \sim q_\theta(z|x)}[\log(p_\phi(x|z))]]$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

Here, $D$ is any strict divergence, meaning that $D(q||p) \geq 0$ and $D(q||p) = 0$ if and only if $q = p$, and $\gamma > 0$ is a scaling coefficient. The second term in the objective acts as a image reconstruction loss and $q_\theta(z|x) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q_{prior}}[q_\theta(z|x)]$. The original VAE (Kingma and Welling, 2013) uses KL-divergence in Eqn 5 and thus optimizes the following objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{VAE} = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}}[-\gamma KL(q_\theta(z|x)||p(z))] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q_\theta(z|x)}\log(p_\phi(x|z))$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

However, using KL-divergence in Eqn 5 has some shortcomings, as pointed out in (Chen et al., 2016; Sønderby et al. 2016a; Zhao et al., 2017; Sønderby et al. 2016b). KL-divergence encourages the encoding $q_\theta(z|x)$ to be a random sample from $p(z)$ for each $x$, making them uninformative about
Mixup performs linear interpolations on the data space, assuming an induced global linearity on this space.

From another perspective, one could view our new sampling technique as performing Manifold Mixup [Verma et al., 2019], however over the latent space of an MMD-VAE (instead of the neural network feature space) and using it for sample reconstruction. We compare against Manifold Mixup in our results to show the improved performance of the learned generative latent space in our VarMixup. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual idea behind VarMixup. The entire training methodology of VarMixup can be summarized in the following steps:

1. Train an MMD-VAE using Equation (7).
2. Generate VarMixup samples \((x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\) according to Equation (9).
3. Optimize model on generated VarMixup samples, \((x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\) via standard cross-entropy loss.

4. Experiments and Results

We now present our experimental studies and results using our method, VarMixup, on multiple datasets. We begin by describing the datasets, evaluation criteria and implementation details. Note that we focus explicitly on the usefulness of our approach on out-of-distribution test data and addressing predictive uncertainty.

Datasets: We perform experiments on three well-known standard datasets: CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100 [Krizhevsky, 2009] and Tiny-ImageNet [CS231N]. CIFAR-10 is a subset of 80 million tiny images dataset and consists of 60,000 32 × 32 color images containing one of 10 object classes, with 6000 images per class. CIFAR-100 is just like CIFAR-10, except that it has 100 classes containing 600 images each. There are 500 training images and 100 testing images per class. Tiny-Imagenet has 200 classes, with each class containing 500 training images, 50 validation images, and 50 test images. Each image here is of resolution 64 × 64.
Evaluation Criteria: To measure the generalization of our models on out-of-distribution data, we evaluate their robustness on the newer CIFAR-10-C, CIFAR-100-C and Tiny-Imagenet-C datasets (Hendrycks and Dietterich, 2019). These datasets contain images, corrupted with 15 different distortions at 5 severity levels (Gaussian blur, Shot Noise, Impulse Noise, JPEG compression, Motion blur, frost, to name a few). For completeness, we also report accuracy on clean images and standard deviations over 10 trials (which captures standard generalization performance). We also measure the Expected Calibration Error (ECE) (Guo et al., 2017) of our trained models to quantify their predictive uncertainty.

Implementation Details: It has been shown (Ilyas et al., 2019) that adversarial robust training (Madry et al., 2018) removes irrelevant biases (e.g. texture biases) in their hidden representations, thus making them more informative. We hence hypothesize that the considered VAE, if trained in an adversarially robust fashion, will have more informative latent encoding than its regular equivalent. This would hence help improve the empirical/ vicinal distributions like VarMixup. Empirically, we validate this hypothesis in our subsequent experiments and use prefix adv- (e.g: adv-VarMixup) to distinguish them from their regular variants. We note that the aforementioned approach of adversarial robust training (Madry et al., 2018) is different from adversarial training used to train GAN-like architectures, and hence both should not be confused. In other words, the adversarial robust training that we are referring to, minimizes adversarial ELBO instead of standard ELBO \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{VAE}} \) of an MMD-VAE.

Given a dataset \( \mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\} \), we identify adversarial ELBO \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD-VAE}}^{\text{adv}} \) as follows:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD-VAE}}^{\text{adv}} (x_1, ..., x_n) = \gamma \cdot \text{MMD} \left( \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_i q_{\phi}(z|x_i) \parallel p(z) \right) + \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_i \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q_{\phi}(z|x_i)} \left[ \log(p_{\theta}(x_i | z)) \right]
\]

\[
x_i^* = \max_{x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{in}}} \epsilon} \mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD-VAE}} (x_1, ..., x_n)
\]

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{MMD-VAE}}^{\text{adv}} (x_1, ..., x_n) = \gamma \cdot \text{MMD} \left( \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_i q_{\phi}(z|x_i^*) \parallel p(z) \right) + \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_i \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q_{\phi}(z|x_i^*)} \left[ \log(p_{\theta}(x_i^* | z)) \right]
\]

We choose Resnet-34 (He et al., 2016) and WideResNet-28-10 (Zagoruyko and Komodakis, 2016) (SOTA backbone Zhang et al., 2017b; Verma et al., 2019; Madry et al., 2018) as the backbone architecture for evaluating our approach and baselines.

Baseline Models: We compare our method, VarMixup, against an exhaustive set of baselines including non-VRM variants, mixup variants and state-of-the-art adversarial techniques. Below are their details:

1. **ERM** - Vanilla Empirical Risk Minimization (Eqn [1]) using Adam optimizer \( (lr = 1e^{-3}) \) for 100 epochs on all datasets.
2. **Mixup** - Vanilla Mixup training (Zhang et al., 2017b) using Adam optimizer \( (lr = 1e^{-3}) \) for 150 epochs on all datasets. Mixup coefficient is sampled from \( \beta(1, 1) \).
3. **Mixup-R** - Mixup training on MMD-VAE’s reconstructed image space (Zhang et al., 2017b) using Adam optimizer \( (lr = 1e^{-3}) \) for 150 epochs on all datasets. Mixup coefficient is sampled from \( \beta(1, 1) \).
4. **Manifold Mixup** - Manifold Mixup training (Verma et al., 2019) using Adam optimizer \( (lr = 1e^{-3}) \) for 150 epochs on all datasets. Mixup coefficient is sampled from \( \beta(2, 2) \).
5. **AT and TRADES** - \( l_{\infty} \) PGDTRADES adversarial training (Madry et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019) with \( \epsilon = 8/255 \) and step-size \( \alpha = 2/255 \). Models are trained using Adam optimizer \( (lr = 1e^{-3}) \) for 250 epochs on all datasets.
6. **IAT - \( l_{\infty} \)** Interpolated adversarial training (Lamb et al., 2019) with \( \epsilon = 8/255 \) and step-size \( \alpha = 2/255 \). Interpolation coefficient is sampled from \( \beta(1, 1) \). Models are trained using Adam optimizer \( (lr = 1e^{-3}) \) for 350 epochs on all datasets.

Generalization Performance and Robustness to Out-of-Distribution shifts We first evaluate the trained models on their robustness to various common input corruptions, along with their generalization performance on “clean data” (test data without corruptions). Hendrycks et al. (Hendrycks and Dietterich, 2019) recently proposed the CIFAR-10-C, CIFAR-100-C, and Tiny-Imagenet-C datasets, which are extensions of CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100 and Tiny-Imagernet containing images corrupted with 15 different distortions and 5 levels of severity. We report the mean classification accuracy over all distortions on these datasets in Table 1 and Table 2 for ResNet-34 and WideResNet-28-10 architectures respectively. The results show that our method - VarMixup/adv-VarMixup achieves superior performance by a margin of \( \sim 2 - 10\% \) consistently across the datasets. We observe a slight drop in the clean accuracy of VarMixup models (shown in parentheses in Table 1 and Table 2) which we believe is due to the tradeoff between robustness and clean accuracy, a common trend observed in robustness literature (Tsipras et al.). However, in an attempt to strike a balance between both (i.e reduce the tradeoff), we conduct an additional experiment where we exploit the benefits that Mixup or VarMixup offer individually. More specifically in each training iteration, we randomly choose (with probability of 0.5) to sample either using Mixup or VarMixup distribution. We refer this experiment as Mixup + VarMixup in Table 1 and Table 2 and observe that it leads to clean test accuracy comparable to regular Mixup/Manifold-Mixup whilst improving or atleast maintaining similar performance on corrupted benchmarks.

Moreover, we would also like to point out that this trade-off between robust and clean accuracies has been a subject of research itself, where efforts like (Lamb et al., 2019; Lee et al. 2020) have proposed methodologies to narrow the gap between the two accuracies. In this work, our primary goal is to improve the robustness of neural networks while preserving per-
formance on clean data to the extent possible. Further study on reducing the trade-off between robust-clean accuracy in this setting is left as a direction of future work.

**Calibration:** A recent study (Thulasidasan et al., 2019) showed that DNNs trained with Mixup are significantly better calibrated than DNNs trained in a regular fashion. Calibration (Guo et al., 2017) measures how good softmax scores are as indicators of the actual likelihood of a correct prediction. We measure the Expected Calibration Error (ECE) (Guo et al., 2017) of the proposed method, following (Thulasidasan et al., 2019): predictions (total N predictions) are grouped into M interval bins (B_m) of equal size. The accuracy and confidence of B_m are defined as:

$$\text{acc}(B_m) = \frac{1}{|B_m|} \sum_{i \in B_m} 1 \cdot (\hat{y}_i = y_i)$$

and

$$\text{conf}(B_m) = \frac{1}{|B_m|} \sum_{i \in B_m} \hat{y}_i$$

where \(\hat{y}_i\), \(\hat{y}_i\), \(y_i\) are the confidence, predicted label and true label of sample i respectively. The Expected Calibration Error (ECE) is then defined as:

$$\text{ECE} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{|B_m|}{N} \left| \text{acc}(B_m) - \text{conf}(B_m) \right|$$

(11)

Figure 2 shows the calibration error on CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100 datasets using Mixup, VarMixup, adv-VarMixup and Mixup + VarMixup. The figure illustrates that our VarMixup models (and their combinations with regular Mixup) are also better calibrated than regular Mixup.

**5. Discussion and Ablations**

**Local linearity on loss landscapes:** (Qin et al., 2019) showed that the local linearity of loss landscapes of neural networks is related to model robustness. The more the loss landscapes are linear, the more the adversarial robustness. To further study this observation using our method, we analyze the local linearity of loss landscapes of VarMixup and regular mixup trained models. Qin et al. (Qin et al., 2019) defines local linearity at a data-point \(x\) within a neighbourhood \(B_\varepsilon(\cdot)\) as \(\gamma(\varepsilon, x, y) = \max_{\delta \in B_\varepsilon(\cdot)} \left| \mathcal{L}(F_u(x + \delta), y) - \mathcal{L}(F_u(x), y) - \delta^T \nabla_x \mathcal{L}(F_u(x), y) \right| \)

where \(\mathcal{L}\) is the loss function, \(F_u\) is the neural network, \(\varepsilon\) is the perturbation budget, \(x\) is the input data, \(y\) is the true label, and \(\delta\) is the perturbation.

Figure 3 shows the local linear error of loss landscapes of the models trained on CIFAR-10/100 (denoted as C10 and C100) with increasing \(\varepsilon\).

**Computational Overhead:** We compare the computational overhead of different training settings.
Table 1. Robustness to common input corruptions on CIFAR-10-C, CIFAR-100-C and Tiny-Imagenet-C (Hendrycks and Dietterich, 2019) datasets using ResNet-34 (He et al., 2016) backbone. Best results in bold and second best underlined. Clean accuracy is reported in parentheses using grey colour.

| Method                | CIFAR-10-C | CIFAR-100-C | Tiny-Imagenet-C |
|-----------------------|------------|-------------|-----------------|
| AT (Madry et al., 2018) | 73.12 ± 0.31 (85.58 ± 0.14) | 45.09 ± 0.31 (60.28 ± 0.13) | 15.74 ± 0.36 (22.33 ± 0.16) |
| TRADES (Madry et al., 2018) | 75.46 ± 0.21 (88.11 ± 0.43) | 45.98 ± 0.41 (63.3 ± 0.32) | 16.20 ± 0.23 (26.12 ± 0.38) |
| IAT (Lamb et al., 2019) | 81.05 ± 0.42 (89.7 ± 0.33) | 50.71 ± 0.25 (62.7 ± 0.21) | 18.69 ± 0.45 (18.08 ± 0.34) |
| ERM                   | 69.29 ± 0.21 (94.5 ± 0.14) | 47.3 ± 0.32 (64.5 ± 0.10) | 17.34 ± 0.27 (49.96 ± 0.12) |
| Mixup                 | 74.74 ± 0.34 (95.5 ± 0.35) | 52.13 ± 0.43 (76.8 ± 0.41) | 21.55 ± 0.37 (53.83 ± 0.17) |
| Mixup-R               | 74.27 ± 0.22 (89.88 ± 0.11) | 43.54 ± 0.15 (62.24 ± 0.21) | 21.34 ± 0.32 (53.5 ± 0.28) |
| Manifold-Mixup        | 72.54 ± 0.14 (95.2 ± 0.18) | 41.42 ± 0.23 (75.3 ± 0.48) |               |
| VarMixup              | 82.57 ± 0.42 (93.91 ± 0.45) | 52.57 ± 0.39 (73.2 ± 0.44) | 24.87 ± 0.32 (50.98 ± 0.11) |
| adv-VarMixup          | 82.12 ± 0.46 (92.19 ± 0.32) | 54.0 ± 0.41 (72.13 ± 0.34) | 25.36 ± 0.21 (50.58 ± 0.23) |
| Mixup + VarMixup      | 83.36 ± 0.46 (94.1 ± 0.13) | 54.36 ± 0.05 (75.3 ± 0.23) | 26.87 ± 0.21 (52.58 ± 0.47) |

Table 2. Robustness to common input corruptions on CIFAR-10-C and CIFAR-100-C (Hendrycks and Dietterich, 2019) datasets using WideResNet-28-10 (Zagoruyko and Komodakis, 2016) backbone. Best results in bold and second best underlined. Clean accuracy is reported in parentheses using grey colour.

| Method                | CIFAR-10-C | CIFAR-100-C |
|-----------------------|------------|-------------|
| AT                    | 74.8 ± 0.34 (87.32 ± 0.11) | 46.1 ± 0.06 (62.5 ± 0.20) |
| TRADES                | 77.39 ± 0.21 (89.97 ± 0.53) | 46.7 ± 0.22 (65.6 ± 0.33) |
| IAT                   | 82.25 ± 0.44 (91.3 ± 0.09) | 52.3 ± 0.56 (63.67 ± 0.77) |
| ERM                   | 72.46 ± 0.12 (96.0 ± 0.43) | 46.7 ± 0.22 (77.27 ± 0.39) |
| Mixup                 | 75.62 ± 0.16 (97.1 ± 0.51) | 52.46 ± 0.11 (80.53 ± 0.37) |
| Manifold-Mixup        | 73.78 ± 0.31 (97.3 ± 0.08) | 45.6 ± 0.33 (81.2 ± 0.26) |
| VarMixup              | 84.39 ± 0.22 (95.81 ± 0.13) | 53.78 ± 0.42 (77.24 ± 0.56) |
| adv-VarMixup          | 84.7 ± 0.08 (94.2 ± 0.17) | 54.72 ± 0.48 (75.97 ± 0.35) |
| Mixup + VarMixup      | 83.92 ± 0.10 (96.78 ± 0.36) | 58.22 ± 0.25 (79.3 ± 0.27) |

Fig. 5. Samples generated by mixup, VarMixup and adv-VarMixup on CIFAR-10 (Mixup coefficient $\lambda = 0.5$).

6. Conclusions

In this work, we proposed a Mixup-based vicinal distribution, VarMixup, which performs linear interpolation on an unfolded latent manifold where linearity in between training examples is likely to be preserved by construction. We show that VarMixup trained models are more robust to common input corruptions, are better calibrated and have significantly lower local-linear loss than regular Mixup models. As expected and noted earlier, in some places, we do observe a trade-off between clean and robust accuracy, and leave this as a direction for future works to explore. Additionally, our experiments indicate that VarMixup adds more off-manifold images to training than regular mixup, which we hypothesize is a key reason for the observed robustness. Our work highlights the efficacy of defining vicinal distributions by using neighbors on unfolded latent manifold rather than data manifold and we believe that our work can open a discussion around this notion of robustness and choice of vicinal distributions on generative latent spaces.

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