

Mixup to the Random Extreme and Its Performances in Robust Image Classification

Anonymous authors
Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

We introduce **RandomMix**, an inexpensive yet effective method for data augmentation that combines interpolation-based training and negative weights sampling scheme. Rather than training with a unifying mixup policy for combinations of pairs of examples and their labels, we design a separate mixup rule for pairs of data points. This method naturally combines the previous advantages of previous mixup methods, including **Mixup** Zhang et al. (2017), **CutMix** Yun et al. (2019), but it has its own advantages, including a relatively fast training efficiency without introducing any extra components or parameter, strong robustness performance withstands unseen data distributions. We provide empirical results to demonstrate this method. Our experiments on a range of computer vision benchmark datasets show that **RandomMix** stays comparable to other popular mixup methods on accuracy and outperforms other methods on robustness while showing advantages in efficiency.

1 Introduction

Robust machine learning has gained significant attention in recent years due to the challenges posed by distribution shifts and corruptions of data in real-world applications Zhang et al. (2019a); Yang et al. (2022); Vaishnavi et al. (2022); Sriramanan et al. (2022); Chhabra et al. (2022); Dhouib et al. (2020); Wang et al. (2022b). These issues arise when the training and testing data follow different distributions, leading to models that fail to generalize well to new data. Several approaches have been proposed to address this problem, including adversarial training Goodfellow et al. (2015); Madry et al. (2017); Salman et al. (2017); Li et al. (2022); Jia et al. (2022); Herrmann et al. (2022), domain adaptation Ben-David et al. (2007; 2010); Lu et al. (2020); Zheng et al. (2016); Wang et al. (2019a;b) and data augmentation Huang et al. (2020; 2022); Hendryck et al. (2020); Na et al. (2021). Further along the line with data augmentation techniques, numerous works provide theoretical justifications for observed robustness and demonstrate how data augmentation can improve it Hein & Andriushchenko (2017); Gong et al. (2020); Zhang et al. (2020b); Wu et al. (2020); Pinot et al. (2021); Kimura (2020); Couellan (2021).

Data augmentation is a subset of regularization approaches Pham & V.Le (2021); Li et al. (2021); Zhou & Konukoglu (2023), which can be either data-agnostic or data-dependent. Data augmentation entails training a model not only with the original data, but also with additional data that has been properly modified, and this technique has led to state-of-the-art results in various machine learning tasks such as text classification, image recognition, etc Suzuki (2022); Papakipos & Bitton (2022); Chun et al. (2022). Among these data augmentation methods, **Mixup** Zhang et al. (2017; 2021), has been shown as a data-agnostic method to improve the robustness of deep-learning models by creating new training examples through interpolating pairs of existing examples. However, existing **Mixup** variants, such as **AugMix**, **FixBi** Hendryck et al. (2020); Na et al. (2021), often require significant computational resources, making them impractical for use in large-scale applications.

To address this issue, we propose a new variant of **Mixup** called **RandomMix** that effectively enhances the performance of deep-learning models against distribution shifts and corruptions of data while being highly

efficient. Our approach fully exploits the stochastic nature of mixup to create new training examples from various types of corrupted data, allowing models to learn robust representations that generalize well to new situations.

We conduct extensive experiments on standard benchmark datasets (CIFAR10/100, ImageNet) and corrupted datasets (ImageNet-C, ImageNet-P, etc.), demonstrating that **RandomMix** outperforms state-of-the-art mixup methods in robustness metrics while maintaining high training efficiency.

In summary, we believe our work has made the following contributions

- We introduce a **RandomMix** idea that can fully exploit the stochastic nature of Mixup, allowing various types of corrupted data to be sampled during training, thus promising better generalization and strong robustness.
- With the help of the ablation study, we analyze why **RandomMix** helps with robustness and generalization.
- With sufficient experiments, we demonstrate the effectiveness of **RandomMix** in multiple benchmarks while outperforming others in efficiency.

2 Related Works

2.1 Data Augmentation and Robustness

Data Augmentation has helped machine learning models achieve high prediction accuracy over various benchmarks Lim et al. (2019); Ho et al. (2019); Zhong et al. (2020); Buslaev et al. (2020); Ghiasi et al. (2020); Kostrikov et al. (2020). For example, it can be applied to images for classification solutions. It is often necessary when confronted with a massive domain of use like an open world as it improves the robustness of a neural network. Many recent works such as Rebuffi et al. (2021) demonstrate that when combined with model weight averaging, data augmentation can significantly boost robust accuracy. More importantly, data augmentation has helped the model learn robust representations that can be generalized across multiple distributions Zheng et al. (2016); Sun et al. (2018); Huang et al. (2020); Min et al. (2020); Wang et al. (2022a)

Most commonly used data augmentation techniques include random cropping, horizontal flipping Krizhevsky et al. (2017), noise injection Moreno-Barea et al. (2018), rotation, contrast, or texture perturbation of the images Wang et al. (2022a). Recently, a data augmentation method called **AugMix** has been proposed to improve the adversarial robustness of deep networks by regularizing frequency bias Hendryck et al. (2020). **AugMix** is characterized by its utilization of simple augmentation operations in concert with a consistency loss which improves model robustness and uncertainty estimates to a certain degree. Our method is complementary to these techniques and can be used in conjunction to further improve robustness performance.

It is also worth mentioning that series literature argues the effectiveness of using data augmentation together with certain regularizations Liang et al. (2018); Kannan et al. (2018); Wu et al. (2019); Guo et al. (2019); Zhang et al. (2019b); Shah et al. (2019). A recent piece of evidence validating an efficient regularization to be squared ℓ_2 norm Wang et al. (2022a).

2.2 Mixup

In this paper, we focus more on the the more lightweight augmentation methods from the mixup family. The mixup family originates from the invention of the original Mixup Zhang et al. (2017), which constructs virtual training examples by linearly integrating different samples and their labels during training. Verma et al. (2019) proposed **Manifold Mixup** which extends raw input data mixing to immediately hidden layer output mixing, and **CutMix** Yun et al. (2019) spatially crops a random rectangular area on one image to another to generate a new image. **Puzzle Mix** Kim et al. (2020) suggests a Mixup method that adds saliency and local statistics of the input data based on **CutMix**. **CoMix** Kim et al. (2021) introduces a submodel minimization

algorithm that continues to improve on the basis of clipping and saliency. **i-Mix** Lee et al. (2021) has shown to be a simple yet effective domain-agnostic regularization strategy for improving contrastive representation learning. **AlignMix** Venkataramanan et al. (2022) geometrically align two images in the feature space to retain mostly the geometry or pose of one image and the texture of the other, thereby connecting it to style transfer. **SmoothMix** Jeong et al. (2021) trains on convex combinations of samples along the direction of adversarial perturbation for each input and aims to make a tradeoff between robustness and accuracy. **SaliencyMix** Uddin et al. (2021) uses a saliency map to pick a representative image patch and mixes this indicative patch with the target image which allows the model to learn more appropriate representations to make better performance. **TransMix** Chen et al. (2022) mixes labels based on the attention maps of Vision Transformers to bridge the gap between the input and label spaces. However, these methods introduce extra components or parameters, creating a lot of training overheads.

Contrary to previous works, we do not intend to compare test performance with the SOTA models. What we hope instead is to use **RandomMix** to improve the robustness of the model, while having the training efficiency comparable with the original **mixup** Zhang et al. (2017). It is also worth mentioning that this method requires only minor code modifications. Since model robustness is an increasingly important issue in modern machine learning, such a lightweight method can be easily applied to other types of learning including semi-supervised learning Berthelot et al. (2019); Sohn et al. (2020), contrastive learning Verma et al. (2021); Lee et al. (2020), privacy-preserving learning Huang et al. (2021) and learning with fairness constraints Chuang & Mroueh (2021) to enhance model robustness.

Method	Mixup function
Input Mixup	$(1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_1 + \lambda\mathbf{x}_2$
Manifold mixup	$(1 - \lambda)h(\mathbf{x}_1) + \lambda h(\mathbf{x}_2)$
CutMix	$(\mathbb{1} - \mathbb{1}_B) \odot \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbb{1}_B \odot \mathbf{x}_2$
Puzzle Mix	$(1 - z) \odot \Pi_1^\top \mathbf{x}_1 + z \odot \Pi_2^\top \mathbf{x}_2$
CoMix	$(g(\mathbb{Z}_1 \odot \mathbf{x}_B), \dots, g(\mathbb{Z}_{m'} \odot \mathbf{x}_B))$
i-MIX	$AUG(X_1) + (1 - \lambda)AUG(X_2)$
AlignMix	$f_2(Mix_\lambda f_1(x_1), f_1(x_2))$
SaliencyMix	$1 - M \odot x_1 + M \odot x_2$
SmoothMix	$(1 - \lambda)x_1 + \lambda \cdot x_2^{(T)}$
TransMix	$A(M)x_1 + (1 - A(M))x_2$
MatrixMix	$\lambda \odot \mathbf{x}_1 + (\mathbb{1} - \lambda) \odot \mathbf{x}_2$

Table 1: Summary of various mixup functions. λ with bolded format denotes a matrix λ denotes a scalar.

3 Methods

In this section, we will introduce our method. We begin by defining the necessary notations and providing a concise summary of the baseline mixup methods and then introduce a new method by leveraging the stochastic nature of mixup. We name this method **MatrixMix**. Further, we continue to extend the current mixup approaches to an extreme level to create a more effective and efficient method for robust machine learning, which is the main method we propose in this paper, namely **RandomMix**. In addition to describing our proposed method, we also briefly touch an overview of why mixup methods can improve the robustness of models, drawing on existing theoretical results. This complements the current theoretical understanding of mixup and highlights the additional properties that our method can introduce.

3.1 Preliminary

We first introduce our notations. We define $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ to be input data and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}$ be its output label. Let \mathcal{D} be the distribution over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. We use (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) to denote samples, θ to denote the trained model, and $l(\cdot, \cdot)$ to denote a generic loss function. The vanilla **Mixup** training process simply trains the model by linearly interpolating two samples $(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1)$ and $(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_2)$. Namely, the new output labels are $\lambda\mathbf{y}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{y}_2$ while the corresponding input are $\lambda\mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2$. The goal of the model is then to satisfy the following optimization problem:

$$\theta = \arg \min_{\theta} l(\theta(\lambda\mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2), \lambda\mathbf{y}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{y}_2) \quad (1)$$

where λ is a sampled scalar parameter (usually from Beta distributions) with constraints such as $\lambda \in (0, 1)$. We now briefly describe other variants of this method. **Manifold Mixup** Verma et al. (2019) employs

$\lambda h(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1 - \lambda)h(\mathbf{x}_2)$ for some hidden representation h . **CutMix** Kim et al. (2021) mixes data as $(\mathbb{1} - \mathbb{1}_B) \odot \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbb{1}_B \odot \mathbf{x}_2$ for a binary rectangular mask $\mathbb{1}_B$, where $B = [r_x, r_x + r_w] \times [r_y, r_y + r_h]$ with $\lambda = r_w r_h / WH$ and \odot represents the element-wise product. In other words, B is a randomly chosen rectangle covering λ proportion of the input. **Puzzle Mix** Kim et al. (2020) is formulated as $(1 - z) \odot \Pi_1^\top \mathbf{x}_2 + z \odot \Pi_2^\top \mathbf{x}_2$, where z_i represents a mask in $[0, 1]$ with mixing ratio $\lambda = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i z_i$. Π_1 and Π_2 represent $n \times n$ transportation plans of the corresponding data with n dimensions. Π_{ij} encodes how much mass moves from location i to j after the transport. **CoMix** Kim et al. (2021) performs mixup on a collection of input data and returns a mixed data set of the form $(g(\mathbb{Z}_1 \odot \mathbf{x}_B), \dots, g(\mathbb{Z}_{m'} \odot \mathbf{x}_B))$ where $\mathbf{x}_B \in \mathcal{R}^{m \times n}$ denote the batch of input data in matrix form. The aforementioned methods are summarized in Table 1.

3.2 MatrixMix method

The original **Mixup** method Zhang et al. (2017) improves the training of classification models by generating synthetic samples through linear interpolation of a pair of training samples and their labels using scalar multiplication. Our proposed method, **MatrixMix**, is similar to the original **Mixup** in that it also uses interpolation to mix sample entries. However, **MatrixMix** employs a distinct mixing policy for each pixel of the input image, in contrast to the original **Mixup**, where all inputs share the same mixing policy λ . More specifically, for an input data $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the mixing policy for our **MatrixMix** method is a matrix $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, where each element of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ is independently sampled from a Gaussian distribution with mean 0.5 and variance 1.0. The mixing inputs and outputs of **MatrixMix** are computed as follows:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \boldsymbol{\lambda} \odot \mathbf{x}_1 + (\mathbb{1} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}) \odot \mathbf{x}_2, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{y}} = \text{avg}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\mathbf{y}_1 + \text{avg}(\mathbb{1} - \boldsymbol{\lambda})\mathbf{y}_2 \quad (2)$$

where \odot denotes the Hadamard product and $\text{avg}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ takes the average of all the elements of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$. The corresponding loss is then

$$\ell(\theta(\boldsymbol{\lambda} \odot \mathbf{x}_1 + (\mathbb{1} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}) \odot \mathbf{x}_2), \text{avg}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\mathbf{y}_1 + \text{avg}(\mathbb{1} - \boldsymbol{\lambda})\mathbf{y}_2) \quad (3)$$

A concrete description of the algorithm for **MatrixMix** is given in Algorithm 1. Intuitively speaking, **MatrixMix** simply extends the Vanilla **Mixup** to the pixel level. Every pixel is linearly interpolated with a different sampled parameter stored in $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$, in contrast to the original **Mixup** which uses the same λ for all the pixels of an image. This provides better regularization for the training and thus makes our **MatrixMix** method more robust to various noises.

3.3 Parameter Distribution

We explain our decision to sample the components of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ from a normal distribution rather than the more popular choice of a Beta distribution, as used in the vanilla **Mixup**. Our inspiration for this choice comes from recent works that allow for negative weights on samples through interpolation Krueger et al. (2021), since negative coefficients allow us to extrapolate to more extreme variations, which provide deep model robustness and hence out-of-distribution generalization in the challenging case.

More importantly, our comparison experiments suggest that gaussian distribution leads to better performance while using our proposed **RandomMix**, as shown in Appendix A.5.

Algorithm 1 MatrixMix algorithm

Input:

Batch image inputs: \mathbf{I} ;
Batch image labels: \mathbf{y} ;
Batch size: N ;
Neural Network model: θ ;

Output:

```

1: function GETLOSS( $\hat{y}, \text{pred}, \mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ )
2:    $\text{loss} \leftarrow \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}(\text{pred}, \mathbf{y}) + (\mathbb{1} - \lambda_1) \mathcal{L}(\text{pred}; \hat{y})$ 
3:   return loss
4: for  $t = 1, 2, \dots, M$  do Compute shuffled image  $I_s$  and
   label  $y_s$  by reordering the indexes
5:    $\forall (i, j) : \lambda_{i,j} \sim N(0.5, 1)$ 
6:    $\mathbf{I}_M^2 \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\lambda} \cdot \mathbf{I} + (\mathbb{1} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}) \cdot \mathbf{I}_s$ 
7:    $\hat{\mathbf{y}} \leftarrow g(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\mathbf{y} + g(\mathbb{1} - \boldsymbol{\lambda})\mathbf{y}_s$ 
8:    $\text{pred} \leftarrow f(\mathbf{I}_M^2; \theta)$ 
9:    $\text{loss} \leftarrow \text{GETLOSS}(\hat{y}, \text{pred}, \mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ 
10:  Update parameters of  $\theta$  according to  $\text{loss}$ 
```

3.4 Robustness of Mixup

Previous studies Zhang et al. (2021) show that the reason why mixup can improve the robustness of the model is that minimizing mixup loss is equivalent to approximately minimizing the upper bound of adversarial loss, so it is robust to adversarial attacks. Here in our work, as a side result, we aim to give some insights as to why **Mixup** works in our experiments, especially in the robustness settings from a feature perspective in parallel with existing theoretical understandings such as Carratino et al. (2020); Chidambaram et al. (2020).

To offer the context of our analytical results, we use θ to denote the model that is being trained on a dataset (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) where $\mathbf{X} \sim P$ for some distribution P . For a fixed loss function ℓ , the trained model θ on the original data set as well as the model θ_{mix} on the mixed data set are defined as follows:

$$\theta = \arg \min_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{(\mathbf{x}, y) \in (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})_P} \ell(\theta(\mathbf{x}), y), \quad \theta_{mix} = \arg \min_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}, \tilde{y}_{i,j})} \ell(\theta(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}), \tilde{y}) \quad (4)$$

Let $\epsilon_P(\theta)$ be the risk associated with θ , the classifier when we do not mix the features.

Proposition 1. *Let $c(\theta_{mix})$ and $c(\theta)$ be defined as in Theorem 3.1 of Wang et al. (2022b). Then $c(\theta_{mix}) \leq c(\theta)$ with the assumption that for any sample \mathbf{x}_i if*

$$\text{then} \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_j I[\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) = \tilde{y}_{i,j}] \geq I[\theta(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i] \quad (5)$$

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_i| < \max_{\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{A}(f, \mathbf{x}_i)}} |\theta(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i| \quad (6)$$

Proof. See Appendix □

These results may appear trivial at first glance, however, the interesting part lies in the fact that the construction of **Mixup** naturally helps the model counter the tendency to learn the non-semantic features under multiple different definitions. For example, **Input Mixup** interpolates at the pixel level and thus naturally encourage the learning of the pixel-wise features such as texture; **cut-mix** exchanges certain areas of the input image and thus naturally counter the learning of the salient but spurious features (such as the background) and naturally, improve the models' robustness against perturbation such as randomly erasing a certain area.

While these results are for a binary classification problem, we show in the Appendix how they can be easily generalized to multiclass problems. Thus, we can show that $c(\theta_{mix}) \leq c(\theta)$ to conclude that θ_{mix} has better theoretical guarantees than θ .

3.5 From MatrixMix to RandomMix: Mixup to Its Random Extreme

Since different mixup methods might have different advantages for various types of corrupted data, we continue to bring the mixup to its extremity of being random to incorporate all these advantages. This will let our model learn more corrupted samples during the training phase and thus have a better generalization performance on the test dataset.

More specifically, we use four mixup methods to concatenate a whole batch dataset, then, as a result, for four evenly sized batches of data, we randomly choose which mixup algorithm from the set of (**Vanilla** images, **Input Mixup**, **CutMix**, and **RandomMix**) with a further modification of **CutMix** to push it further to the random polarity: we extend **CutMix** from a fixed number of patches to exchange between the two images to multiple patches of the images. We will call this the extreme **RandomMix** in the remainder of this paper.

4 Experiments

We conducted experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed **RandomMix** method. We use ResNet-18 He et al. (2015) for the CIFAR10 dataset Krizhevsky (2009) as the base experiment. We run our experiment

for 200 epochs with stochastic gradient descent with a learning rate set to be 0.1 at an initial stage and then decrease through the CosineAnnealingLR technique Loshchilov & Hutter (2017). The batch size is set to 64, and pixels are all normalized to be $[0, 1]$. All these above experiments are repeated in CIFAR-100 Krizhevsky (2009), a subset of ImageNet Hendrycks et al. (2019) with various models such as WRN28-10 Zagoruyko & Komodakis (2016), ResNest50 Zhang et al. (2020a), and Vision Transformer Alexey et al. (2020) (Tiny Vision Transformer(TinyViT) Wu et al. (2022) for simplicity of training). We first compare our method in robustness metrics with different datasets across different types of corruption in Section 3.5. Then, we briefly touch on the discussion on the performance of accuracy and efficiency that our method can help achieve in Section 3.5 and Section 3.5 respectively. Finally, we perform an ablation study in Section 3.5 to explain why **RandomMix** can achieve a well-balanced between robustness and generalization performance.

Model Type / Corruption Type	Vanilla	Input	CutMix	Puzzle Mix	CoMix	AugMix	RandomMix
WRN-28 / Gaussian Noise	74.64%	87.99%	74.88%	63.99%	63.84%	88.39%	90.18%
TinyViT / Gaussian Noise	70.90%	83.86%	75.81%	84.09%	44.90%	80.52%	84.14%
ResNet18 / Random Erase	61.14%	69.53%	61.09%	59.05%	69.52%	62.36%	71.98%
TinyViT / Random Erase	77.76%	86.43%	80.14%	89.17%	54.29%	82.48%	86.90%
WRN-28 / Transfer Attack	26.85%	35.22%	24.76%	22.62%	35.22%	36.20%	40.80%
ResNest50 / Transfer Attack	56.33%	67.19%	63.14%	49.43%	46.29%	60.71%	73.57%

Table 2: Accuracy rates of various **Mixup** methods for background corrupted on CIFAR-10(WRN-28), CIFAR-100(ResNet18), ImageNet-A(ResNes50 and TinyViT) dataset

4.1 Robustness Against Corruption

In order to justify the robustness of **RandomMix** to common data corruption, we first consider adding Gaussian Noise, Random Erasing Zhong et al. (2020), and Transfer Attack Cheng et al. (2017) for verification. Then, we test with two established benchmarks ImageNet-C Hendricks & Dietterich (2019) and ImageNet-P Hendricks & Dietterich (2019).

Gaussian Noise In our work, we simply add Gaussian Noise (with mean 0.0, variance 8.0, and amplitude 1.0 as this setting is close to human recognition) on test samples. Table 2 shows comparison results for the test accuracy after the data is perturbed by Gaussian Noise. We perform our experiments on CIFAR-10(WRN-28) and ImageNet-A(TinyViT). From Table 2, we found that test accuracy with **RandomMix** under Gaussian Noise outperforms its counterparts: On CIFAR-10, **RandomMix** decreases only 6.59% after adding Gaussian Noise while others such as **CoMix** decrease by 22.25%. On ImageNet-A, our **RandomMix** decreases by only 2.57% whereas the second best **Puzzle Mix** decreases by 7.1%. All the results mentioned above demonstrate that our method outperforms all the baselines in both generalization performance and corruption accuracy.

Random Erase Zhong et al. (2020) selects a rectangle region in an image and erases its pixels with random values. We follow the same setting as Zhong et al. (2020) to use Random Erasing with a probability of 0.5. We set the minimum erasing area at 0.02, the maximum erasing area at 0.4, and min aspect ratio at 0.3. Due to the page limit, we only report the results on CIFAR100 and ImageNet-A dataset for corruption robustness evaluation. Table 2 demonstrates that our method using **RandomMix** improves both the generalization performance and the corruption accuracy by decreasing 7.25% and 4.81% under Random Erase corruption with ResNet18 and TinyViT respectively.

Transfer Attack Huang et al. (2019) tests the ability of an attack against a machine-learning model to be effective against a different, potentially unknown, model. It can also be used to disrupt images. Specifically, we first generate attacked images from the source model and transfer them to our trained (target) model. Both the source model and attack model are models from the ResNet series. From Table 2, we observe **RandomMix** also shows the most satisfactory results.

ImageNet-C Hendricks & Dietterich (2019) proposed ImageNet-C, which is made by a total of 15 different corruption data of ImageNet test sets. The corruptions are drawn from four main categories including noise, blur, weather, and digital. Each corruption type has five levels of severity or intensity. It is worth noting that

Network	ImageNet ($\uparrow\%$)	ImageNet-C ($\downarrow\%$)	ImageNet-P ($\downarrow\%$)
Vanilla	88.62%	41.45%	42.59%
Input	89.28%	32.11%	45.56%
AugMix	88.19%	37.13%	60.21%
CutMix	86.53%	45.74%	49.33%
Puzzle Mix	92.47%	34.43%	49.33%
CoMix	64.90%	70.71%	114.07%
RandomMix	89.43%	30.37%	42.34%

Table 3: Clean test accuracy of ResNest50 models on ImageNet, average Corruption Error values on ImageNet-C (lower values are better) and mean flip probability for ImageNet-P excluding noise perturbations (lower values are better)

Network	ImageNet ($\uparrow\%$)	ImageNet-C ($\downarrow\%$)	ImageNet-P ($\downarrow\%$)
Vanilla	83.23%	51.02%	73.87%
Input	89.33%	40.48%	58.77%
AugMix	89.28%	39.28%	79.54%
CutMix	85.14%	45.43%	57.05%
Puzzle Mix	91.19%	42.37%	58.17%
CoMix	43.95%	75.69%	137.29%
RandomMix	86.71%	35.43%	55.81%

Table 4: Clean test accuracy of TinyVisionTransformer models on ImageNet, average Corruption Error values on ImageNet-C (lower values are better) and mean flip probability for ImageNet-P excluding noise

our models are trained only on clean ImageNet images. The ImageNet-C is only used for robustness testing. Table 6 and Table 7 contain standard test metrics which contain average Corruption Error (mCE) values. In our experiment, corrupted test data manifest at five different severity levels as s , from range 1 to 5, for a specific corruption c , the error rate at severity s is $E_{c,s}$. Compute mean corruption error (mCE) involves first computing the unnormalized corruption of a given corruption type (c) by averaging across the 5 severity levels represented as $uCE_c = \sum_{s=1}^5 E_{c,s}$. Then, we average uCE_c for all 15 corruption types to compute mCE. For ImageNet-C, mCE values is computed by averaging across all 15 CE values ($CE_{GaussianNoise}$, $CE_{ShotNoise}$, \dots , $CE_{Pixelate}$, CE_{JPEG}). We consistently observe a better performance on both of our models. Specifically, our method achieves 30.37% mCE on ResNest-50 and 35.43% mCE on TinyViT as shown in Table 3 and Table 4, down from all of the other state of the art methods.

ImageNet-P ImageNet-P Hendricks & Dietterich (2019) contains 10 types of common perturbations. Unlike common corruptions, the perturbations are subtly nuanced, spanning fewer pixels within images. Like ImageNet-C, ImageNet-P also contains noise, blur, weather, and digital distortions, but ImageNet-P differs from ImageNet-C in that perturbation sequences are generated from each ImageNet validation image; each sequence contains more than 30 frames, so dataset size and evaluation time are reduced by using only 10 common perturbations. According to Hendricks & Dietterich (2019), the standard metrics for evaluating a model’s robustness under these perturbations are mean flip rate (mFR) and mean top-5 distance (mT5D). We report our results in Table 3 and Table 4. Because perturbation robustness is not measured by accuracy but by whether video frame predictions match, we compute Flipping Probability, definitively, we calculate the likelihood that two adjacent frames or two frames with slightly different brightness levels have "flipped" or mismatched predictions for videos with steadily increasing brightness. There are ten different types of perturbations, and the average of these is the mean Flip Probability (mFP). We can normalize by AlexNet’s flip probabilities, as we did with ImageNet-C, to obtain the mean Flip Rate (mFR). Since the formulation of mFR is more involved than mCE, we refer the reader to Hendricks & Dietterich (2019) for more information on this metric. Based on our experiment, we demonstrate that RandomMix performs consistently well from ResNest50 to TinyViT, also leading to state-of-the-art results in robustness and uncertainty estimation. Table 8 and 9 in the Appendix provide results for each perturbation type.

4.2 Generalization Performance and Training Efficiency

CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 We use three network architectures to compare the performance of various mixup methods and train with residual network He et al. (2015): WRN28-10 Zagoruyko & Komodakis (2016) and ResNet18He et al. (2015). We set the same training protocol among all mixup methods, which trains both WRN28-10 and ResNet18 for 200 epochs respectively. Hyperparameter settings are available in Appendix A.1. We reproduce popular mixup baselines and compare baselines with our method under the same experimental settings described above. We denote each mixup method as Vanilla (No mixup), **Input Mixup**(Original Mixup) Zhang et al. (2017), **CutMix** Yun et al. (2019), **Puzzle Mix** Kim et al. (2020), **CoMix** Kim et al. (2021), **AugMix** Hendryck et al. (2020), and **RandomMix** in all experiment tables. All models are trained on a single NVIDIA GTX 2080Ti GPU using Pytorch for 200 epochs on the training set and evaluated on the test set.

In both CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 classification problems, the models trained using **RandomMix** has a comparatively high pure test accuracy than most of their analogues trained with other mixup methods. We trained both ResNet18 and WRN28-10 on CIFAR10 dataset. **RandomMix** outperforms most of the other mixup baselines in terms of pure test accuracy with 96.77% in the WRN28-10 experiment. We further test Vanilla, **Input Mixup**, **CutMix**, **Puzzle Mix**, **CoMix**, **AugMix**, and **RandomMix** on the CIFAR-100 dataset with both ResNet18 Huang et al. (2017) and DenseNet121 for 200 epochs. We observe that **RandomMix** still achieves the best performance in terms of pure test accuracy among baseline mixup methods with 79.32% on ResNet18 and 82.07% on DenseNet121.

ImageNet-A ImageNet-A Hendrycks et al. (2019) contains the failure cases of ImageNet-trained ResNet50 among web images. We performed a performance comparison of several mixup methods on the ImageNet-A dataset. For a detailed implementation, we follow Bahng et al. (2020) to construct a subset of ImageNet Russakovsky et al. (2014) containing 9 super-classes. To concentrate on the impact of textural bias, we also balance the ratios of sub-class photos for each super-class. In the ImageNet-A experiment, we use ResNet-50 and TinyViT to compare the performance. We follow the training protocol in Hendrycks et al. (2019) with some minor modifications. Hyperparameter settings are in the Appendix A.1. We observe that the performance of **RandomMix** is higher than most of the other mixup training methods, which is consistent with the results from previous experiments on CIFAR10 and CIFAR100. Meanwhile, we further testify our method on TinyViT and get a relatively higher test accuracy among all these baseline methods. What worth to be mentioned is that **RandomMix** takes two times less time than some of the other methods like **AugMix**, **Puzzle Mix**, etc. for a single epoch training.

4.3 Training Efficiency

While **RandomMixup** may not always achieve the highest training accuracy compared to other mixup methods, it is relatively efficient. This advantage is particularly noticeable on large datasets like ImageNet. To compare the test accuracy and training time cost of all the mixup methods, we trained models for 200 epochs on CIFAR10. Our results show that, while **CoMix** achieves higher accuracy than **RandomMix**, it takes significantly longer to train. Specifically, **CoMix** requires almost three times the training time per epoch compared to **RandomMix**.

We report the time cost for training on ImageNet-A. As shown in Figure 1 (see Appendix A.4), we recorded the time usage for every one-fourth of 200 epochs. From the figure, we observe that some mixup methods, like **CoMix**, have a higher test accuracy in the initial epochs, but it overfits after 1250 minutes of training. On the other hand, **RandomMix** achieves the highest accuracy performance in the first 600 minutes, which is the same as **InputMix**. We also calculate the polygon area formed by the accuracy and time consumption of all mixup methods, as shown in Figure 1. Our **RandomMix** achieves the highest accuracy within the first 140 minutes. It is worth noting that we utilized a single NVIDIA RTX 2080Ti for all mixup methods, except for **CoMix**, which was trained using 16 Intel I9-9980XE CPU cores and 4 NVIDIA RTX 2080Ti GPUs.

4.4 Ablation Study

The robustness and efficiency of **RandomMix** stem from the great use of the stochastic nature of mixup and its concatenation. In this section, we verified the combination of **MatrixMix** with one-fourth concatenation (also named as **RandomMix**) is significantly better in its balance between accuracy performance and robustness than the other combinations on CIFAR-100 with ResNet-18.

Table 5 shows that using only **MatrixMix** results in a 14.07% lower test accuracy than one-fourth concatenation, but it demonstrates strong robustness against corruptions. After being corrupted by Gaussian noise, the accuracy decreases by only 5.39%, which is lower than the decrease observed with one-fourth concatenation (28.37%). This suggests that **MatrixMix** has a strong robust performance and good generalization capabilities but at the cost of pure test accuracy. To test this hypothesis further, we concatenate the **InputMix** with **MatrixMix** (one-second concatenation) and obtain a pure accuracy of 75.96%, which is 3.36% lower than one-fourth concatenation. The corruption accuracy against Gaussian noise and random erase attacks is 54.49% and 64.46%, respectively. Going one step further, we perform a one-third concatenation (with **InputMix**, **MatrixMix**, and original images, each consisting of one-third of the batch size) and achieve a pure accuracy of only 1.47% lower than that of one-fourth concatenation. At the bottom of Table 5, we show a **MatrixMix** of one-fourth concatenation with all other mixups, which finalizes our **RandomMix**, strikes a good balance between test accuracy and robustness.

Methods	Test Accuracy	Gaussian Noise	Random Erase
MatrixMix	65.25%	59.86%	54.01%
MatrixMix(1/2) + Input Mix(1/2)	75.96%	54.49%	64.46%
MatrixMix(1/3) + Input Mix(1/3) + Images(1/3)	77.85%	50.70%	65.43%
MatrixMix(1/4) + Input Mix(1/4) + CutMix(1/4) + Images(1/4)(RandomMix)	79.23%	51.85%	71.98%

Table 5: Pure accuracy and Corruption Accuracy on CIFAR100 dataset with ResNet18 for 200 epochs training

4 Discussion

RandomMix is a general framework that can be applied to any CNN model in a plug-and-play manner with minimal computational overhead. Through extensive evaluation, we have demonstrated that **RandomMix** can significantly reduce the generalization error of state-of-the-art models on computer vision benchmark datasets. In addition, **RandomMix** can mitigate the tendency to memorize corrupt labels and reduce sensitivity to adversarial examples, resulting in improved training stability. Most importantly, **RandomMix** achieves these benefits while maintaining high training efficiency.

RandomMix also opens several possibilities for further exploration. First, is it possible to use a purely **MatrixMix** without one-fourth concatenation with other variants of mixups? From a previous ablation study, we know while current **RandomMix** has comparably high training effectiveness and accuracy, it has a much lower corrupt accuracy when compared with a pure **MatrixMix**. Second, can we introduce some structural prior to λ ? For example, we can define some rules such as pixels in proximity should have similar weights, pixels of the same property (e.g., color) should have similar weights, pixels of the same block or patch should have similar weights, etc. Third, can we design a mathematical formulation to fully prove what is the best design of \mathbf{g} ? Currently, we only take the average of all the elements of λ , this is fairly straightforward yet without a robust mathematical guarantee.

Also, it is worth mentioning that if one only concerned with robustness performances but not clean accuracy, one can choose to use only the new component introduced in Section 3.2 instead of the full method.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we first introduced **MatrixMix** to get a more generic form of mixup in previous mixup methods for robust image classification problems. The **MatrixMix** extends the stochastic nature of **Mixup** to an

extremity to perform vanilla **Mixup** on every pixel level, and we further add more randomness to this method by applying different mixup methods randomly over samples in the same batch, resultant in our proposed method **RandomMix**. As a side note, we also offer a lightweight theoretical discussion built upon existing theory to explain where the robustness is gained through our method.

We conducted experiments on several benchmark datasets including CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100, and ImageNet-A, showing that our method has a strong performance over multiple robustness metrics. Meanwhile, we also demonstrated that **RandomMix** has a comparatively higher training efficiency among the mixup family, and a comparable accuracy among the family.

References

- Dosovitskiy Alexey, Beyer Lucas, Kolesnikov Alexander, Weissenborn Dirk, Zhai Xiaohua, Unterthiner Thomas, Dehghani Mostafa, Minderer Matthias, Heigold Georg, Gelly Sylvain, et al. An image is worth 16x16 words: Transformers for image recognition at scale. In *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.11929*, 2020.
- Hyojin Bahng, Sanghyuk Chun, Sangdoo Yun, Jaegul Choo, and Seong Joon Oh. Learning de-biased representations with biased representations. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2020.
- Shai Ben-David et al. Analysis of representations for domain adaptation. In *NeurIPS*, pp. 137–144, 2007.
- Shai Ben-David et al. A theory of learning from different domains. In *Machine learning*, volume 79, pp. 151–175, 2010.
- David Berthelot, Nicholas Carlini, Ian Goodfellow, Nicolas Papernot, Avital Oliver, and Colin A Raffel. Mixmatch: A holistic approach to semi-supervised learning. In *ACM*, 2019. URL <https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper/2019/file/1cd138d0499a68f4bb72bee04bbec2d7-Paper.pdf>.
- Alexander Buslaev, Vladimir I. Iglovikov, Eugene Khvedchenya, Alex Parinov, Mikhail Druzhinin, and Alexandr A. Kalinin. Albumentations: Fast and flexible image augmentations. In *Inf.*, volume 11, pp. 125, 2020.
- Luigi Carratino, Moustapha Cisse, Rodolphe Jenatton, and Jean-Philippe Vert. On mixup regularization. In *PLMR*, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2006.06049>. 2006.06049.
- Jie-Neng Chen, Shuyang Sun, Ju He, Philip Torr, Alan Yuille, and Song Bai. Transmix: Attend to mix for vision transformers. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2022.
- Shuyu Cheng, Yinpeng Dong, Tianyu Pang, Hang Su, and Jun Zhu. Improving black-box adversarial attacks with a transfer-based prior. In *Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2017.
- Anshuman Chhabra, Ashwin Sekhari, and Prasant Mohapatra. On the robustness of deep clustering models: Adversarial attacks and defenses. In *Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2022.
- Muthu Chidambaram, Xiang Wang, Yuzheng Hu, Chenwei Wu, and Rong Ge. Towards understanding the data dependency of mixup-style training. In *IEEE*, 2020.
- Ching-Yao Chuang and Youssef Mroueh. Fair mixup: Fairness via interpolation. In *CoRR*, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2103.06503>.
- Sewhan Chun, Jae Young Lee, and Junmo Kim. Cyclic test time augmentation with entropy weight method. In *Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, 2022.
- Nicolas Couellan. Probabilistic robustness estimates for feed-forward neural networks. In *Neural Networks*, 2021.
- Sofien Dhouib et al. Margin-aware adversarial domain adaptation with optimal transport. In *Thirty-seventh ICML*, 2020.

- Golnaz Ghiasi, Yin Cui, Aravind Srinivas, Rui Qian, Tsung-Yi Lin, Ekin D. Cubuk, Quoc V. Le, and Barret Zoph. Simple copy-paste is a strong data augmentation method for instance segmentation. In *CoRR*, volume abs/2012.07177, 2020.
- Chengyue Gong, Tongzheng Ren, Mao Ye, and Qiang Liu. Maxup: A simple way to improve generalization of neural network training. In *arXiv preprint*, 2020.
- Ian J Goodfellow, Jonathon Shlens, and Christian Szegedy. Explaining and harnessing adversarial examples. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2015.
- Hao Guo, Kang Zheng, Xiaochuan Fan, Hongkai Yu, and Song Wang. Visual attention consistency under image transforms for multi-label image classification. In *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, CVPR 2019, Long Beach, CA, USA, June 16-20, 2019*, pp. 729–739, 2019.
- Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2015. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1512.03385?context=cs>.
- Matthias Hein and Maksym Andriushchenko. Formal guarantees on the robustness of a classifier against adversarial manipulation. In *arXiv preprint*, 2017.
- Dan Hendricks and Thomas Dietterich. Benchmarking neural network robustness to common corruptions and perturbations. In *ICLR*, 2019.
- Dan Hendryck, Norman Mu, Ekin D. Cubuk, Barret Zoph, Justin Gilmer, and Balaji Lakshminarayanan. Augmix: A simple data processing method to improve robustness and uncertainty. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.
- Dan Hendrycks, Kevin Zhao, Steven Basart, and Dawn Song Jacob Steinhardt. Natural adversarial examples. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2019.
- Charles Herrmann, Kyle Sargent, Lu Jiang, Ramin Zabih, Huiwen Chang, Ce Liu, Dilip Krishnan, and Deqing Sun. Pyramid adversarial training improves vit performance. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 13419–13429, June 2022.
- Daniel Ho, Eric Liang, Xi Chen, Ion Stoica, and Pieter Abbeel. Population based augmentation: Efficient learning of augmentation policy schedules. In Kamalika Chaudhuri and Ruslan Salakhutdinov (eds.), *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 2019, 9-15 June 2019, Long Beach, California, USA*, volume 97 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 2731–2741, 2019.
- Gao Huang, Zhuang Liu, Laurens van der Maaten, and Kilian Q. Weinberger. Densely connected convolutional networks. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2017.
- Qian Huang, Isay Katsman, Horace He, Zeqi Gu, Serge Belongie, and Ser-Nam Lim. Enhancing adversarial example transferability with an intermediate level attack. In *Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2019.
- Yangsibo Huang, Zhao Song, Kai Li, and Sanjeev Arora. Instahide: Instance-hiding schemes for private distributed learning. In *ICML*, 2021.
- Zeyi Huang, Haohan Wang, Eric P. Xing, and Dong Huang. Self-challenging improves cross-domain generalization. In Andrea Vedaldi, Horst Bischof, Thomas Brox, and Jan-Michael Frahm (eds.), *Computer Vision - ECCV 2020 - 16th European Conference, Glasgow, UK, August 23-28, 2020, Proceedings, Part II*, volume 12347 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pp. 124–140, 2020.
- Zeyi Huang, Haohan Wang, Dong Huang, Yong Jae Lee, and Eric P Xing. The two dimensions of worst-case training and their integrated effect for out-of-domain generalization. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 9631–9641, 2022.

- Jongheon Jeong, Sejun Park, Minkyu Kim, Heung-Chang Lee, Do-Guk Kim, and Jinwoo Shin. Smoothmix: Training confidence-calibrated smoothed classifiers for certified robustness. In *CoRR*, 2021.
- XiaoJun Jia, Yong Zhang, Baoyuan Wu, Ke Ma, Jue Wang, and Xiaochun Cao. Las-at: Adversarial training with learnable attack strategy. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 13398–13408, June 2022.
- Harini Kannan, Alexey Kurakin, and Ian Goodfellow. Adversarial logit pairing, 2018.
- Jang-Hyun Kim, Wonho Choo, and Hyun Oh Song. Puzzlemix: Exploiting saliency and local statistics for optimal mixup. In *International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2020.
- JangHyun Kim, Wonho Choo, Hosan Jeong, and Hyun Oh Song. Co-mixup: Saliency guided joint mixup with supermodular diversity. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2021. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=gvxJzw8kW4b>.
- Masanari Kimura. Mixup training as the complexity reduction. In *arXiv preprint*, 2020.
- Ilya Kostrikov, Denis Yarats, and Rob Fergus. Image augmentation is all you need: Regularizing deep reinforcement learning from pixels. In *CoRR*, volume abs/2004.13649, 2020.
- Alex Krizhevsky. Learning multiple layers of features from tiny images. 2009.
- Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E Hinton. Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In *Communications of the ACM*, volume 60, pp. 84–90, 2017.
- David Krueger, Ethan Caballero, Joern-Henrik Jacobsen, Amy Zhang, Jonathan Binas, Dinghuai Zhang, Remi Le Priol, and Aaron Courville. Out-of-distribution generalization via risk extrapolation (rex). In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 5815–5826. PMLR, 2021.
- Kibok Lee, Yian Zhu, Kihyuk Sohn, Chun-Liang Li, Jinwoo Shin, and Honglak Lee. i-mix: A domain-agnostic strategy for contrastive representation learning. 2020.
- Kibok Lee, Yian Zhu, Kihyuk Sohn, Chun-Liang Li, Jinwoo Shin, and Honglak Lee. i-mix: A domain-agnostic strategy for contrastive representation learning. 2021.
- Boyi Li, Felix Wu, Ser-Nam Lim, Serge Belongie, and Kilian Q. Weinberger. On feature normalization and data augmentation. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2021.
- Tao Li, Yingwen Wu, Sizhe Chen, Kun Fang, and Xiaolin Huang. Subspace adversarial training. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 13409–13418, June 2022.
- Davis Liang, Zhiheng Huang, and Zachary C Lipton. Learning noise-invariant representations for robust speech recognition. In *2018 IEEE Spoken Language Technology Workshop (SLT)*, pp. 56–63. IEEE, 2018.
- Sunghun Lim, Ildoo Kim, Taesup Kim, Chiheon Kim, and Sungwoong Kim. Fast autoaugment. In Hanna M. Wallach, Hugo Larochelle, Alina Beygelzimer, Florence d’Alché-Buc, Emily B. Fox, and Roman Garnett (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 32: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2019, NeurIPS 2019, December 8-14, 2019, Vancouver, BC, Canada*, pp. 6662–6672, 2019.
- Ilya Loshchilov and Frank Hutter. Sgdr: Stochastic gradient descent with warm restarts. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2017.
- Zhiyun Lu, Eugene Ie, and Fei Sha. Uncertainty estimation with infinitesimal jackknife, its distribution and mean-field approximation. In *arxiv-2006.07584*, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2006.07584>.

- Aleksander Madry, Aleksandar Makelov, Ludwig Schmidt, Dimitris Tsipras, and Adrian Vladu. Towards deep learning models resistant to adversarial attacks. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2017.
- Junghyun Min, R. Thomas McCoy, Dipanjan Das, Emily Pitler, and Tal Linzen. Syntactic data augmentation increases robustness to inference heuristics. In *ACL*, 2020.
- Francisco J. Moreno-Barea, Fiammetta Strazzer, José M. Jerez, Daniel Urda, and Leonardo Franco Senior Member. Bart: Forward noise adjustment scheme for data augmentation. In *Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers*, 2018. URL <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1312.6199>.
- Jaemin Na, Heechul Jung, Hyung Jin Chang, and Wonjun Hwang. Fixbi: Bridging domain spaces for unsupervised domain adaptation. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2021.
- Zoë Papakipos and Joanna Bitton. Augly: Data augmentations for adversarial robustness. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2022.
- Hieu Pham and Quoc V.Le. Autodropout: Learning dropout patterns to regularize deep networks. In *Advancement of Artificial Intelligence*, 2021.
- Rafael Pinot, Laurent Meunier, Florian Yger, Cedric Gouy-Pailler, Yann Chevalere, and Jamal Atif. On the robustness of randomized classifiers to adversarial examples. In *arXiv preprint*, 2021.
- Sylvestre-Alvise Rebuffi, Sven Gowal, Dan A. Calian, Florian Stimberg, Olivia Wiles, and Timothy Mann. Data augmentation can improve robustness. In *Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2021.
- Olga Russakovsky, Jia Deng, Hao Su, Jonathan Krause, Sanjeev Satheesh, Sean Ma, Zhiheng Huang, Andrej Karpathy, Aditya Khosla, Michael S. Bernstein, Alexander C. Berg, and Li Fei-Fei. Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge. In *CoRR*, volume abs/1409.0575, 2014. URL <http://arxiv.org/abs/1409.0575>.
- Hadi Salman, Andrew Ilyas, Logan Engstrom, Ashish Kapoor, and Aleksander Madry. Do adversarially robust imagenet models transfer better? In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2017.
- Meet Shah, Xinlei Chen, Marcus Rohrbach, and Devi Parikh. Cycle-consistency for robust visual question answering. In *The IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, June 2019.
- Kihyuk Sohn, David Berthelot, Nicholas Carlini, Zizhao Zhang, Han Zhang, Colin A Raffel, Ekin Dogus Cubuk, Alexey Kurakin, and Chun-Liang Li. Fixmatch: Simplifying semi-supervised learning with consistency and confidence. In *Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2020.
- Gaurang Sriramanan, Maharshi Gor, and Soheil Feizi. Toward efficient robust training against union of ℓ_p threat models. In *Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2022.
- Sining Sun, Ching-Feng Yeh, Mari Ostendorf, Mei-Yuh Hwang, and Lei Xie. Training augmentation with adversarial examples for robust speech recognition. In *ISCA*, 2018.
- Teppei Suzuki. Techaugment: Data augmentation optimization using teacher knowledge. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2022.
- A F M Shahab Uddin, Mst. Sirazam Monira, Wheemyung Shin, TaeChoong Chung, and Sung-Ho Bae. Saliency-mix: A saliency guided data augmentation strategy for better regularization. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2021. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=-MOQkvBGTtq>.
- Pratik Vaishnavi, Kevin Eykholt, and Amir Rahmati. Accelerating certified robustness training via knowledge transfer. In *Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2022.

- Shashanka Venkataramanan, Ewa Kijak, Laurent Amsaleg, and Yannis Avrithis. Alignmixup: Improving representations by interpolating aligned features. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2022.
- Vikas Verma, Alex Lamb, Christopher Beckham, Amir Najafi, Ioannis Mitliagkas, David Lopez-Paz, and Yoshua Bengio. Manifold mixup: Better representations by interpolating hidden states. In *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 97 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 6438–6447, 09-15 Jun 2019. URL <https://proceedings.mlr.press/v97/verma19a.html>.
- Vikas Verma, Minh-Thang Luong, Kenji Kawaguchi, Hieu Pham, and Quoc V. Le. Towards domain agnostic contrastive learning. In *ICML*, 2021.
- Haohan Wang, Songwei Ge, Zachary C. Lipton, and Eric P. Xing. Learning robust global representations by penalizing local predictive power, 2019a.
- Haohan Wang, Zexue He, Zachary C. Lipton, and Eric P. Xing. Learning robust representations by projecting superficial statistics out. In *7th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2019, New Orleans, LA, USA, May 6-9, 2019*, 2019b.
- Haohan Wang, Xindi Wu, Zeyi Huang, and Eric P. Xing. High frequency component helps explain the generalization of convolutional neural networks. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2019c.
- Haohan Wang, Zeyi Huang, Xindi Wu, and Eric P. Xing. Toward learning robust and invariant representations with alignment regularization and data augmentation. In *arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.01909*, 2022a.
- Haohan Wang, Zeyi Huang, Hanlin Zhang, Yong Jae Lee, and Eric Xing. Toward learning human-aligned cross-domain robust models by countering misaligned features. In *The 38th Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, 2022b.
- Kan Wu, Jinnian Zhang, Houwen Peng, Mengchen Liu, Bin Xiao, Jianlong Fu, and Lu Yuan. Tinyvit: Fast pretraining distillation for small vision transformers. In *arXiv preprint*, 2022.
- Sen Wu, Hongyang Zhang, Gregory Valiant, and Christopher Re. On the robustness of randomized classifiers to adversarial examples. In *PMLR*, 2020.
- Xindi Wu, Yijun Mao, Haohan Wang, Xiangrui Zeng, Xin Gao, Eric P. Xing, and Min Xu. Regularized adversarial training (RAT) for robust cellular electron cryo tomograms classification. In Illhoi Yoo, Jinbo Bi, and Xiaohua Hu (eds.), *2019 IEEE International Conference on Bioinformatics and Biomedicine, BIBM 2019, San Diego, CA, USA, November 18-21, 2019*, pp. 1–6, 2019.
- Zhuolin Yang, Linyi Li, Xiaojun Xu, Bhavya Kailkhura, Tao Xie, and Bo Li. On the certified robustness for ensemble models and beyond. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2022.
- Sangdoon Yun, Dongyoon Han, Seong Joon Oh, Sanghyuk Chun, Junsuk Choe, and Youngjoon Yoo. Cutmix: Regularization strategy to train strong classifiers with localizable features. In *International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, 2019.
- Sergey Zagoruyko and Nikos Komodakis. Wide residual networks. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2016. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1605.07146>.
- Hang Zhang, Chongruo Wu, Zhongyue Zhang, Yi Zhu, Haibin Lin, Zhi Zhang, Yue Sun, Tong He, R. Manmatha Jonas Mueller, Mu Li, and Alexander Smola. Resnest: Split-attention networks. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2020a.
- Hongyi Zhang, Moustapha Cisse, Yann N Dauphin, and David Lopez-Paz. mixup: Beyond empirical risk minimization. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2017.
- Linjun Zhang, Zhun Deng, Kenji Kawaguchi, Amirata Ghorbani, and James Zou. How does mixup help with robustness and generalization? In *arXiv preprint*, 2020b.

- Linjun Zhang, Zhun Deng, Kenji Kawaguchi, Amirata Ghorbani, and James Zou. How does mixup help with robustness and generalization? In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2021. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=8yKEo06dKNo>.
- Yuchen Zhang et al. Bridging theory and algorithm for domain adaptation. In *ICML, 2019*, 2019a.
- Zhirui Zhang, Shuangzhi Wu, Shujie Liu, Mu Li, Ming Zhou, and Tong Xu. Regularizing neural machine translation by target-bidirectional agreement. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 33, pp. 443–450, 2019b.
- Stephan Zheng, Yang Song, Thomas Leung, and Ian Goodfellow. Improving the robustness of deep neural networks via stability training. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 4480–4488, 2016.
- Zhun Zhong, Liang Zheng, Guoliang Kang, Shaozi Li, and Yi Yang. Random erasing data augmentation. In *AAAI*, 2020.
- Tianfei Zhou and Ender Konukoglu. Fedfa: Federated feature augmentation. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023.

A Appendix

A.1 Hyperparameter Settings

The **RandomMix** training procedure is outlined in Algorithm 1. For fair comparisons, we set different hyperparameters for each dataset,

CIFAR-10 & CIFAR-100 We trained models via stochastic gradient descent (SGD) with an initial learning rate of 0.1 then decayed using Cosine Annealing LR by which the graph of learning rate change with epoch be similar to cos. We set the momentum as 0.9 and add a weight decay of 0.0001. **RandomMix** is concatenated with four components(With original images, original Mixup, **RandomMix**, and Revised **CutMix**, each part consists of one-fourth of a whole batch). We set the number of image slices in the revised **CutMix** as 3 whereas the original **CutMix** is composed of only two slices. The mixing distribution parameter for **RandomMix** λ is a matrix with the same size as input data sampled from Gaussian Normal distribution with $\text{Norm}(\mu = 0.5, \sigma^2 = 1.0)$, Mixing weight parameter for the target label is to take an average of all values in λ , named $\mathbf{g}(\lambda)$, while Original Mixup, **Puzzle Mix** and CoMix all follow the same setting as in original paper. For **CutMix** on CIFAR-10, we set **CutMix** Probability as zero, while on CIFAR-100, the **CutMix** Probability is set as 0.5, which is a combination of half of the Mixup with half the original images.

ImageNet-A We modify the training protocol in Hyojin et al.(2020) for a training model with 200 epochs. The learning rate starts from 0.025, then decayed using Cosine Annealing LR. We set the momentum as 0.9 and add a weight decay of 0.0001. In addition, our image size is set as 224x224, and the Mixing distribution parameter α is 1.0 each for Input Mixup, **CutMix**, **Puzzle Mix**, and CoMix, which follows the settings of the original papers. For CoMix, we only train with 100 epochs. For the experiment following the experimental setting of **CutMix** Yun et al. (2019), we use the same hyperparameter without the clean input regularization.

A.2 Additional Test results

A.2.1 Test results on ImageNet-C and ImageNet-P

		Noise			Blur				Weather				Digital			
Network	mCE	Gauss	Shot	Impulse	Defocus	Glass	Motion	Zoom	Snow	Frost	Fog	Bright	Contrast	Elastic	Pixel	JPEG
AugMix	37.13	57.90	57.05	61.75	55.80	51.29	36.33	48.51	40.01	41.64	15.94	11.04	19.88	16.54	23.35	23.13
CoMix	70.71	77.06	78.11	81.56	84.76	79.12	75.86	76.28	73.78	70.30	82.93	32.43	84.78	51.78	67.24	66.45
Cutmix	45.74	62.39	61.06	66.24	59.92	46.91	49.04	44.59	48.10	55.70	58.59	17.95	73.08	16.66	22.18	21.68
Input	32.11	40.31	40.22	40.91	44.20	36.04	37.31	36.42	33.13	32.61	32.83	10.61	57.51	13.56	18.60	20.86
Puzzle Mix	34.43	48.66	49.72	51.85	46.69	38.96	38.36	35.02	35.24	32.46	27.51	9.49	54.70	11.32	28.37	26.14
Vanilla	41.45	55.22	54.50	59.21	58.24	43.42	44.45	39.90	43.57	52.97	52.39	15.50	68.96	14.02	15.91	19.92
RandomMix	30.37	26.10	24.61	24.84	48.51	34.54	37.81	37.81	35.73	38.59	35.69	16.25	52.58	15.55	15.69	19.49

Table 6: ImageNet-C results on ResNest-50. Corruption Error(CE) and mCE values for various methods on ImageNet-C. The mCE value is computed by averaging across 15 CE values, which stands for an overall classification error on corrupted test data.

		Noise			Blur				Weather				Digital			
Network	mCE	Gauss	Shot	Impulse	Defocus	Glass	Motion	Zoom	Snow	Frost	Fog	Bright	Contrast	Elastic	Pixel	JPEG
AugMix	39.28	58.54	56.66	59.69	51.49	45.40	43.44	54.89	46.43	40.10	20.64	14.06	27.18	18.67	26.44	30.64
CoMix	75.69	79.30	80.33	81.78	85.87	80.64	79.09	80.99	74.37	76.85	86.42	54.77	86.40	63.79	67.06	65.61
Cutmix	45.43	63.65	63.78	68.28	51.58	38.27	38.13	40.69	48.12	55.35	61.43	21.55	74.90	18.87	20.06	23.82
Input	40.48	62.03	63.27	65.04	53.98	40.04	41.41	41.74	33.77	35.07	39.28	15.01	61.36	14.67	22.55	26.77
Puzzle Mix	42.37	60.59	60.59	65.88	56.97	46.43	45.55	44.85	36.59	37.04	42.90	14.51	63.35	15.24	29.00	30.99
Vanilla	51.02	69.18	69.26	72.90	61.25	49.00	51.24	43.88	53.30	58.39	70.09	27.70	78.00	22.10	21.98	28.35
RandomMix	35.43	29.50	26.21	28.41	57.80	43.74	45.70	47.99	42.65	40.97	41.00	18.04	60.66	16.50	16.33	23.95

Table 7: ImageNet-C results on TinyViT. Corruption Error(CE) and mCE values for various methods on ImageNet-C. The mCE value is computed by averaging across 15 CE values, which stands for an overall classification error on corrupted test data.

		Noise		Blur		Weather		Digital			
Network	mFR	Gaussian	Shot	Motion	Zoom	Snow	Bright	Translate	Rotate	Tilt	Scale
Vanilla	73.87	96.87	121.77	47.83	32.37	52.17	45.14	69.15	70.87	30.70	127.93
Input	58.77	72.93	97.43	53.57	40.4	47.53	25.47	50.47	59.7	27.6	112.63
AugMix	79.54	104.77	119.1	75.63	65.07	69.57	32.33	68.68	79.4	35.97	144.9
CutMix	57.05	64	79.33	37.6	27.4	47.6	35.33	42.03	55.97	29.63	151.63
Puzzle Mix	58.17	78.23	109.77	55.77	38.43	52.3	24.33	40.2	52.67	27.63	102.33
CoMix	137.29	132.43	178.8	94.2	58.67	94.8	59.7	139.05	176.93	93.07	345.33
RandomMix	55.81	60.93	78.67	45.73	36.97	45.33	31.3	48.27	58.8	26.07	126.07

Table 8: ImageNet-P results on TinyViT. The mean flipping rate (mFR) is the average of the flipping rates across all 10 perturbation types. (lower is better)

		Noise		Blur		Weather		Digital			
Network	mFR	Gaussian	Shot	Motion	Zoom	Snow	Bright	Translate	Rotate	Tilt	Scale
Vanilla	42.59	49.47	63.7	41.27	24.43	43.23	25.2	35.8	35.9	17.93	89.63
Input	45.56	60.1	63.63	53.37	38.23	37.93	21.87	32.6	43.6	21.87	82.4
AugMix	60.21	72.23	78.93	55.00	59.8	61.5	23.73	47.25	52.1	29.83	121.67
CutMix	49.33	59.07	67	55	31.5	64.05	29.33	32.43	40.13	21.03	91.03
Puzzle Mix	49.33	59.07	67	55	31.5	64.05	29.33	32.43	40.13	21.03	91.03
CoMix	114.07	138.3	161.13	135.47	65.76	111.9	53.53	92.53	121.67	69.53	190.93
RandomMix	42.34	53.6	59.07	37.2	28.43	39.63	26.33	32.47	35.2	19.7	91.03

Table 9: ImageNet-P results on ResNest-50. The mean flipping rate(mFR) is the average of the flipping rates across all 10 perturbation types. (lower is better)

A.2.2 Test Results with HFC

High-frequency Component In order to further validate our **RandomMix** method, we add the HFC test as an extra one. Wang et al. (2019c) proposed a model generalization observation work. The author has pointed out that compared with the shuffled label samples, those natural samples tend to learn more about low-frequency information, and their generalization power on HFC is much lower than on LFC which means that there is a strong connection between marked labels and low-frequency information, thus it’s easy for the model to memorize the potential associations. The generalization performance in the shuffled label case is much better on its HFC than LFC, it turns out that the model tends to learn both HFC and LFC information of the given samples. Considering that our methods mix both data and its target labels, we try to use HFC and LFC to prove our assumption that, our model intends to learn both HFC and LFC information. Note that we use identical hyperparameters for both low-frequency and high-frequency radius r for all mixup methods which are provided in Appendix, We take r equals 4, 8, 12,16, 20 on CIFAR10(ResNet18) as the threshold set to align with the HFC paper’s settings, **RandomMix** behaves as expected in LFC: it reports a consistently higher prediction accuracy when the radius sustain grow from $r = 4$ to $r = 20$. It suggests that our method can pick more information in LFC compared with other **Mixup** baselines. It also reports a relatively lower prediction accuracy in HFC mode. However, **RandomMix** seems to be more sensitive when $r = 20$ which indicates that due to the trade-off between robustness and accuracy, the model tends to first choose to learn much information while later it turns to choose a generalization pattern from $r = 16$ to $r = 20$. We can conclude that: (1) **RandomMix** can both capture LFC and HFC images during training; (2) when it turns to HFC, **RandomMix** encourages choosing robustness due to the trade-off between test accuracy and generalization performance.

A.3 Proof of Proposition 1

Proof. From Theorem 3.1 of wang2022toward, we have $c(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in (X,Y)_{P_s}} I[\theta(x) = y]r(\theta, \mathcal{A}(f_m, \mathbf{x}))$, where $r(\theta, \mathcal{A}(f, \theta)) = \max_{x \in \mathcal{A}(f, \mathbf{x}_i)} |\theta(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_j|$, and $c(\theta_{mix}) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}, \tilde{y}_{i,j})} I[\theta_{mix}(\mathbf{x}) = y]r(\theta_{mix}, \mathcal{A}(f_m, \mathbf{x}))$. In this paper, they consider the binary classification problem, but we can easily generalize this to our setting

Datasets(CIFAR10)Models(ResNet18) HFC(Low Frequency Data)	Vanilla	Input	CutMix	Puzzle Mix	CoMix	RandomMix	AugMix
frequency=4	16.14%	14.45%	18.05%	16.59%	13.36%	13.57%	27.94%
frequency=8	37.07%	39.46%	33.34%	31.70%	24.11%	41.35%	79.20%
frequency=12	76.99%	80.84%	76.93%	75.84%	79.55%	86.93%	89.26%
frequency=16	88.26%	90.36%	88.10%	88.20%	91.39%	93.77%	92.29%
frequency=20	94.31%	95.31%	94.41%	94.93%	96.02%	95.26%	93.73%
HFC(High Frequency Data)							
frequency=4	19.69%	10.26%	17.39%	17.06%	10.50%	24.72%	30.62%
frequency=8	15.84%	10.63%	10.85%	13.39%	12.32%	21.60%	18.31%
frequency=12	11.72%	10.90%	10.00%	14.08%	14.12%	11.24%	12.35%
frequency=16	10.83%	9.82%	10.37%	11.34%	10.87%	9.17%	9.95%
frequency=20	10.45%	10.17%	10.63%	11.10%	8.14%	10.49%	9.01%

Table 10: Accuracy rates of various mixup methods for LFC and HFC on CIFAR-10(ResNet18) dataset.

by defining $|\theta(x) - y| = 0$ if $\theta(\mathbf{x})$ and y as the same class, and 1 if they are in different classes. We write $c(\theta)$ as

$$c(\theta) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{1}{2} (I[\theta(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i]r(\theta, \mathcal{A}(f, \mathbf{x}_i)) + I[\theta(\mathbf{x}_j) = y_j]r(\theta, \mathcal{A}(f, \mathbf{x}_j))) \quad (7)$$

Now we can compare this to the corresponding summation for θ_{mix} (which also has n^2 terms). In particular, we pay attention to the summand $r(\theta_{mix}, \mathcal{A}(f_m, \theta_{mix}))$ of this term.

$$r(\theta_{mix}, \mathcal{A}(f, \theta_{mix})) \quad (8)$$

$$= \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\theta(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - \tilde{y}_{i,j}| \quad (9)$$

$$= \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - (\lambda y_i + (1 - \lambda)y_j)| \quad (10)$$

$$\leq \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\lambda(\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_i) + (1 - \lambda)(\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_j)| \quad (11)$$

$$\leq \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} \lambda |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_i| + (1 - \lambda) |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_j| \quad (12)$$

$$\leq \lambda \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_i| + (1 - \lambda) \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_j| \quad (13)$$

$$= \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_i| \quad (14)$$

The last 2 inequalities follow from the triangle inequality and property of maximums respectively. Thus, we are left to show:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_j I[\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) = \tilde{y}_{i,j}] \max_{x_{\mathcal{A}(f, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j})}} |\theta_{mix}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i,j}) - y_i| \leq I[\theta(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i] \max_{\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{A}(f, \mathbf{x}_i)}} |\theta(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i|, \quad (15)$$

which follows straightforwardly based on the assumption. \square

A.4 Training Efficiency validation

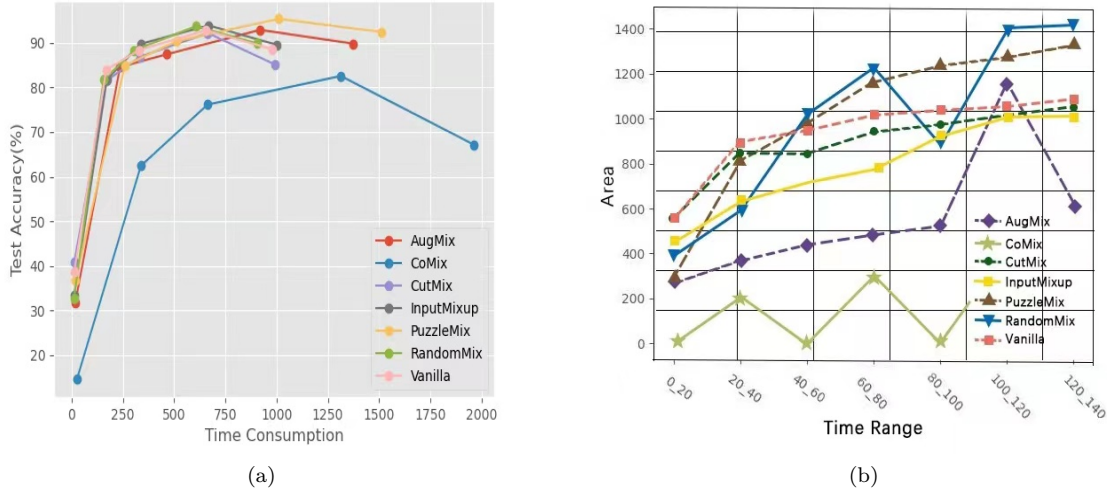


Figure 1: (a) Performance of training efficiency of various methods on ImageNet-A(ResNet50). We log the time range for every one-fourth of the total 200 epochs;(b) Area under the curve in figure (a) for the same time periods of various methods on ImageNet-A(ResNet50). It is not a surprise that **RandomMix** decreases in between 80-100mins because there is a relatively slow rise and then after the period, the model breaks through the bottleneck, and there is a rapid rise

Model\Matrix Mix	CIFAR10/ResNet18	CIFAR100/ResNet18	CIFAR10/WRN-28
Beta Distribution	92.51%	71.54%	96.08%
Gaussian(loc=0.5,std=1.0)	88.57%	64.18%	90.70%
Model\Random Mix	CIFAR10/ResNet18	CIFAR100/ResNet18	CIFAR10/WRN-28
Beta Distribution	94.82%	79.67%	96.77%
Gaussian(loc=0.5, std=1.0)	95.38%	79.56%	97.07%

Table 11: Comparison results for pure accuracy of different models under two distributions with two mixup policies. One is 2, and another is RandomMix.

A.5 Why choose Gaussian Distribution?

In this work, we use a Gaussian distribution(with the mean set as 0.5, and variance set as 1.0) to replace the original Beta distribution (with both alpha and beta set as 1.0) in Zhang2017Mixup. We do several comparative experiments and report the result in table 11. From the table, the first message we get is that in terms of the **RandomMix** method, pure accuracy is higher with Gaussian Distribution than the one with beta distribution while the situation is reversed in terms of **MatrixMix**. This is probably due to the fact that the central limit theorem states that the sum of many independent random variables is approximately normally distributed, which means that in practice, many complex systems can be successfully modeled as normally distributed noise. Thus, when lacking prior knowledge about the distribution of real numbers under real-world datasets, gaussian distribution is a better choice.