Supplementary Material Mini but Mighty: Finetuning ViTs with Mini Adapters

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In this supplementary material, we provide (1) a visual representation of our method MiMi for clarity (2) additional experimental results to further analyze the proposed MiMi approach (Multi-task benchmark, and VTAB benchmark). (3) justify in more detail our choice for the design of the importance score (4) the effect of the parameters allocation in Adapters for ViTs (5) provide details regarding the datasets used in our experiments.

S1 Illustration of MiMi Design

In our work, we augment a pre-existing ViT model with an 'adapter' module. For each adapter, the input is denoted as h_i with dimension M_i . The adapter undergoes two primary transformations.

Firstly, it maps h_i to $z_i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i}$ through a fullyconnected layer characterized by a parameter matrix W_i^{down} . A non-linear activation function $\phi(\cdot)$ is also applied during this step. Subsequently, z_i is transformed back to an output $r_i \in \mathbb{R}^{M_i}$ by another fullyconnected layer, parameterized by W_i^{up} .

A special feature of the adapter is its residual skipconnection. If r_i is near zero, the adapter essentially acts as an identity function, making minimal changes to the input.

Our design of MiMi is influenced by an observation: if an entire row in W_i^{down} and an entire column in W_i^{up} are zero, the adapter behaves as though its complexity is reduced, effectively acting as if it has a smaller dimension M_i , as illustrated in Fig.S1.



Figure S1: Illustration of the design of adapter after using MiMi.

S2 MiMi versus Vanilla training on CIFAR-100

Looking at Fig. S2), we observe the significant performance gap between vanilla adapters compared to adapters trained with MiMi approach. Our method outperforms vanilla adapters with a more than 10% accuracy gap at small sizes.

S3 Local versus Global Neurons Selection

Here below, we provide extra experiments for adapters with different sizes for VGG-Flowers, CIFAR-10, and CIFAR-100.

Tables S1 and S2 report the performance of MiMi algorithm with respect to vanilla training *-Baseline*on VGG-Flowers, CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100. MiMi outperforms vanilla adapters on all the adapters with a significant performance gap. Interestingly, this

Table S1: A comparative performance analysis of local and global neuron selection on VGG-Flowers.

Mathad	Names Damas	Solation	Iterative	Scaling	σ									
Method	Neurons Removal	Selection			32	64	128	256	512	1024	2048	4096		
Vanilla adapters					94.80	90.12	89.42	88.85	86.03	86.09	85.14	85.14		
	Local	\checkmark			-	96.10	95.57	96.15	96.23	96.76	95.83	95.83		
Pagalinag	Local	\checkmark	\checkmark		-	96.41	96.65	96.72	96.72	96.81	96.83	94.54		
Dasennes	Global	\checkmark			-	94.88	95.28	95.66	95.45	95.56	96.03	96.03		
	Global	\checkmark		\checkmark	-	96.10	95.82	96.34	96.50	96.15	96.03	96.03		
MiMi	Global	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	-	96.59	96.92	96.73	96.81	96.55	96.47	96.17		

Table S2: A comparative performance analysis of local and global neuron selection on CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100.

NC (1 1	N1	a 1 <i>4</i>	Iterative	Scaling	σ									
Method	Neurons Removal	Selection			32	64	128	256	512	1024	2048	4096		
					CIFAR-10									
Vanilla adapters	-				97.89	97.39	97.06	96.60	96.53	96.27	82.06	82.06		
Baseline	Local	\checkmark	\checkmark		-	98.06	97.92	97.64	97.11	96.91	96.44	93.49		
	Random	\checkmark	\checkmark		-	97.79	97.68	97.42	96.98	96.56	96.15	93.84		
	Gradient	\checkmark	\checkmark		-	97.76	97.73	97.56	97.14	96.71	96.29	93.92		
MiMi	Global	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	-	97.98	97.92	97.49	97.15	96.71	96.04	95.57		
					CIFAR-100									
Vanilla adapters	-				86.22	85.02	84.33	83.54	82.26	82.19	83.17	82.19		
Baseline	Local	\checkmark	\checkmark		-	86.88	86.15	85.30	84.06	83.71	83.35	78.44		
	Random	\checkmark	\checkmark		-	85.97	85.71	84.82	84.23	83.72	83.08	78.24		
	Gradient	\checkmark	\checkmark		-	86.11	85.67	85.16	84.57	84.16	83.35	78.35		
MiMi	Global	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	-	87.12	86.22	85.42	84.67	83.25	82.67	82.10		

gap in performance expands, as we compare smaller adapters $\sigma = 256, ..., 4096$ (higher compression ratio).

Furthermore, these results emphasize the usefulness of each component of the importance score for MiMi. We notice that applying global neuron selection, normalization, and iterative training outperforms local neuron selection on almost all adapter sizes for VGG-Flowers (Table S1) and CIFAR-100 (Table S2). This indicates that each component of the importance score of MiMi is important to boost performance and reduce the parameters.

S4 Vanilla versus MiMi Training for Adapters

To validate the greater optimization performance of MiMi, in Figs. S3, S4, we show the training loss

curves of vanilla, and MiMi training of adapters for CIFAR-100, and SVHN, respectively. At the end of the training, the two models (*i.e.* vanilla training and MiMi) have similar numbers of training parameters.

We notice that the loss of the training using MiMi algorithm is much smoother than vanilla training resulting in adapters that generalize well on the downstream task as previously shown in Fig. 4. Furthermore, we notice spikes in the training loss of MiMi, due to the removal of neurons after each cycle. Eventually, sequential training and neuron selection is a successful strategy to find small networks while maintaining good performance, since directly training small networks does not provide similar results [5].

Table S3: Effect of adapters compression rate σ_i on adapters performance in terms for top-1 accuracy (%). Compression rate $\sigma = \infty$ is equivalent to not adding an adapter. We vary the σ_i value for each ViT stage (I, II, III, IV).

σ_i i	n each	Swin S	tage	Da	ataset
Ι	II	III	IV	CIFAR-10	VGG-Flowers
128	128	32	32	97.91	89.90
32	32	128	128	97.64	87.05
128	32	128	32	97.84	89.45
32	128	32	128	97.72	88.49
128	128	128	32	97.79	89.22
256	128	64	32	97.91	89.84
32	64	128	256	97.43	86.90
128	128	∞	∞	95.29	73.38
∞	∞	128	128	97.40	87.04
∞	128	128	∞	96.97	84.65
128	∞	∞	128	96.53	80.84

S5 Impact of the parameter allocation

In this ablation study, we validate the idea that every layer of a ViT needs to be adapted differently in order to learn a new task. The Swin-B vision transformer model that we use in all our experiments consists of 4 stages. Therefore, we propose to evaluate the performance when we vary the adapter size in each stage. The results are reported in table S3.

First, it shows that the size of adapters has a strong effect on the model performance. In general, the best performances are achieved when using adapters with a higher number of parameters. Furthermore, bigger sizes of adapters are not sufficient for better performance, but subject to which stage they are injected into.

We observe that adding adapters to late stages (*i.e.* III and IV) boosts the performance better than injecting them into early stages: adapters with $\sigma_i = 128$ added to (III, IV) stages rather than (I, II) improve the performance from 95.29%, 73.38% to 97.40%, 87.04% on CIFAR-10 and VGG-Flowers, respectively.

S6 Illustrations of Local versus Global Neuron Removal

Figures S5 and S6 show additional illustrations of the distribution of the removed and remaining neurons using MiMi on VGG-Flowers, and CIFAR-10. We show the learned adapters at different cycles for both local and global neuron selection methods. We also complete these visualizations (Figures S7 and S8) with histograms where we show the percentages of remaining neurons. Overall, these experiments show that our method is capable of obtaining different parameter allocations that are specific to every task.

S7 Magnitude assumption as importance score

In this section, we provide more insights on the importance score employed within MiMi. In particular, under Gaussian input assumption for adapters and imposing weight decay at training time, we will see that, towards a better choice of parameters to be removed, considering just W_i^{down} is sub-optimal, and W_i^{up} should be accounted as well. We drop the adapter index *i* for abuse of notation, as we will always refer to the same adapter.

Let us have an *m*-dimensional input h, whose elements are distributed according to a Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$. We assume the adapter has already been trained; hence we consider, in the down-sampling phase all the w_{jk}^{down} as constants. From the property of linear expectations, we know that, before reaching the non-linear activation, the post-synaptic potential is still a Gaussian random variable, having an average

$$\mu_j^{down} = \sum_{k=1}^m W_{jk}^{down} \cdot \mu_k \tag{1}$$

and variance

$$\Sigma_{j}^{down} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} W_{jk}^{down} \cdot \left[W_{jk}^{down} \Sigma_{kk} + 2 \sum_{k' < k} W_{jk'}^{down} \Sigma_{kk'} \right]$$
(2)

where Σ_{ab} indicates an element of the covariance matrix for the input of the adapter. For the sake of

tractability, if we assume $\Sigma_{kk'} = 0 \ \forall k \neq k'$, equation 2 simply reduces to

$$\Sigma_j^{down} = \sum_{k=1}^m \left(W_{jk}^{down} \right)^2 \Sigma_{kk}.$$
 (3)

In transformers, the commonly-used activation function is the Gaussian error linear unit (GELU), whose analytical expression is

$$\phi(x) = x \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \right] \tag{4}$$

where $\operatorname{erf}(\cdot)$ is the error function. For values close to zero, or larger than zero, it can be approximated to the identity function, while for values much lower than zero, it asymptotically tends to zero. Let us focus on the first scenario: we can approximate the post-synaptic potential to the output of the nonlinearity, saying that the output

$$z_j \approx \mathcal{N}(\mu_j^{down}, \Sigma_j^{down}).$$
 (5)

At this point, the signal undergoes an up-sampling: following up on the same approach adopted for the down-sampling, we find that the output r still follows a Gaussian distribution having an average

$$\mu_l^{up} = \sum_{j=1}^n W_{jl}^{up}, \mu_j^{down} = \sum_{j=1}^n W_{jl}^{up} \sum_{k=1}^m W_{jk}^{down} \cdot \mu_k$$
(6)

and variance

$$\Sigma_l^{up} = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(W_{jl}^{up} \right)^2 \tag{7}$$

$$\Sigma_j^{down} = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(W_{jl}^{up} \right)^2 \sum_{k=1}^m \left(W_{jk}^{down} \right)^2 \Sigma_{kk} \qquad (8)$$

$$\mu_{l,\bar{a}}^{up} = \mu_{l}^{up} - W_{al}^{up} \sum_{k=1}^{m} W_{ak}^{down} \cdot \mu_{k}$$
$$\Sigma_{l,\bar{a}}^{up} = \Sigma_{l}^{up} - (W_{al}^{up})^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} (W_{ak}^{down})^{2} \Sigma_{kk} \qquad (9)$$

In order to assess the impact of removing a whole neuron in the embedding space, we can write the KLdivergence of the distribution for r_l with and without the *a*-th neuron in the embedding space:

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(r_{l}, r_{l,\bar{a}}) = \\ \log\left(\frac{\sum_{l}^{up} - (W_{al}^{up})^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} (W_{ak}^{down})^{2} \Sigma_{kk}}{\sum_{l}^{up}}\right) \\ + \frac{(\sum_{l}^{up})^{2} + (\mu_{l}^{up} - \mu_{l}^{up} + W_{al}^{up} \sum_{k=1}^{m} W_{ak}^{down} \cdot \mu_{k})}{2 \cdot \left[\sum_{l}^{up} - (W_{al}^{up})^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} (W_{ak}^{down})^{2} \Sigma_{kk}\right]^{2}} - \frac{1}{2}.$$
(12)

According to equation 9, we rewrite equation 12 as 13.

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(r_{l}, r_{l,\bar{a}}) = \log\left(1 - \frac{(W_{al}^{up})^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} (W_{ak}^{down})^{2} \Sigma_{kk}}{\Sigma_{l}^{up}}\right) + \frac{(\Sigma_{l}^{up})^{2} + (W_{al}^{up} \sum_{k=1}^{m} W_{ak}^{down} \cdot \mu_{k})}{2 \cdot \left[\Sigma_{l}^{up} - (W_{al}^{up})^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} (W_{ak}^{down})^{2} \Sigma_{kk}\right]^{2}} - \frac{1}{2}.$$
(13)

Let us now investigate which is the *a*-th neuron which, when removed, causes the least perturbation at the output r_l (or in other words, such that $D_{\mathrm{KL}}(r_l, r_{l,\bar{a}})$ is as low as possible). Looking at the argument of the logarithm, we ask $\frac{(W_{al}^{up})^2 \sum_{k=1}^m (W_{ak}^{down})^2 \sum_{kk}}{\sum_{l}^{up}} = 0$ and, since we can safely assume \sum_{l}^{up} , we need to select *a* such that $(W_{al}^{up})^2 \sum_{k=1}^m (W_{ak}^{down})^2 \sum_{kk} = 0$. Considering that also $\sum_{kk} > 0 \ \forall k$, we satisfy the condition if either:

- $W_{ak}^{down} = 0 \ \forall k$, namely the L^1 norm for W_{-a}^{down} is zero;
- $W_{al}^{up} = 0$. Considering though that this condition needs to be satisfied for all the *l* outputs of the adapters, we ask $W_{al}^{up} = 0 \forall l$ or, in other words, the L^1 norm for W_{a-}^{up} is also zero.

We observe that, when either of the two conditions

is met, the KL divergence is zero as

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(r_l, r_{l,\bar{a}}) = \log(1) + \frac{(\Sigma_l^{up})^2}{2 \cdot (\Sigma_l^{up})^2} - \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

We can also assume that if either $W_{ak}^{down} = 0 \ \forall k$ or $W_{al}^{up} = 0 \ \forall l$, the norm of the non-zero parameters associated with some neuron *a* are small when training with any weight penalty regularizer (as the contribution to the output is zero, the signal is either not forward or back-propagated, leaving the weight penalty term the only update for these parameters).

S8 Detailed evaluation of MiMi on MultiTask/DomainNet benchmarks

Table S4 reports the number of trained parameters and the average accuracy across datasets in the DomainNet benchmark. For both, the number of trained parameters is reported in millions, and the average top-1 accuracy on the datasets is reported in the rightest column.

We observe that *full fine-tuning* has generally the highest accuracy, but it requires a huge number of parameters to be finetuned for each dataset. Among the vanilla fine-tuning baselines, we observe that tuning the parameters of the *attention/MLP* layer turns out to be surprisingly effective. Nevertheless, it still requires a high number of task-specific parameters, compared to other PET approaches. *Linear probing* does not perform well illustrating the need to change the feature representations of the model when adapting to new tasks.

PHM, and *Compacter* are effective methods to get on-par performance with *full-model finetune* while adjusting less than 2% of the parameters. Contrarily to what is observed for NLP tasks [9], PETs on visual tasks do not reach *full fine-tuning* performance on any dataset with a low number of trainable parameters (smaller than 2%). VPT does not perform well, indicating that injecting tokens into the embedding space does not help much if the pre-training dataset is different from the downstream task. Generally speaking, all PET methods maintain similar performance rankings on all tasks. This suggests that the choice of the best adaptation strategy does not depend on the downstream task.

Adapters outperform all PET methods in terms of accuracy (69.39% for DomainNet, 92.91% for Multitask) but just with a higher number of trainable parameters (1.37M, 4.90% of the total) for $\sigma = 32$.

Adapters outperform AdaptFormer with fewer parameters (92.91% with 1.37M parameters, versus 92.27% with 2.98M parameters). This result indicates that adapting the representations after both MSA and MLP blocks, as done in Adapters (see Fig. S9), allows better adaptation than acting only on the MLP block via a parallel branch (as done in Adapt-Former [2]).

When comparing *adapter* with uniform and proportional parameter distribution, we observe that allocating parameters proportionally to the layer dimension performs better. Indeed, adapters with $\sigma = 32$ outperform adapters with $n_i = 47 \forall i \ (70.65\%)$ vs 69.39% in DomainNet, 93.53% vs 92.91% in Multitask). This suggests that the last layers, which have higher dimensionality, are more task-specific, and consequently require more adaptation. We also show that reducing the size of adapters $(n_i = 23)$ hurts the performance with a drop which, despite being marginal for Multi-task (0.23%) is more consistent in DomainNet (1.01%). This emphasizes that training tiny adapters in a vanilla fashion leads to unsatisfying performance and motivates our specific training procedure.

S8.1 Impact of ρ

In this section, we investigate the effect of the hyperparameter ρ (amount of neuron removal) in our method MiMi.

In Fig. S10. We notice that higher values of ρ hurt the performance because we remove many parameters after each cycle, but we reduce the size of adapters significantly. On the other hand, if ρ is small (i.e 25%), we maintain good performance on the VGG-Flowers dataset, but it requires higher training cycles C to reach the target compression rate σ_{target} .

We have a trade-off between the performance, and training budget in order to reach the σ_{target} . Re-

Table S4: Results on the DomainNet benchmark [20]. C, I, P, Q, R, and S stand for Clipart, Infograph, Painting, Quickdraw, Real, and Sketch respectively. [†] is equivalent to Adapters with $\sigma = 8$. Methods are grouped according to the relative number of trainable parameters ($\leq 2\%$, $\in]2, 10[\%, \geq 10\%)$)

Method	$\begin{array}{c} \# \text{ Params} \\ \text{(M)} \downarrow \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{Trained} \\ (\%) \downarrow \end{array}$	С.	I.	Р.	Q.	R.	s.	$\underset{\uparrow}{\mathbf{Mean}}$
Full fine-tuning	27.8	100	79.16	48.29	74.64	75.88	86.21	73.26	72.90
Att-blocks	8.93	32.14	48.36	75.38	73.28	86.13	72.81	72.57	72.57
MLP-blocks	17.54	63.12	79.23	48.11	75.02	74.82	86.35	73.29	72.80
MiMi $(0 \text{ cycle})^{\dagger}$	4.44	16.15	78.11	46.93	74.38	72.19	86.09	71.97	71.61
AdaptFormer-256	2.54	9.24	75.32	43.74	72.16	66.00	83.88	67.68	68.13
AdaptFormer-64	0.84	3.06	73.76	42.38	71.11	63.41	83.23	66.14	66.67
VPT (100 tokens)	0.71	2.57	64.33	18.65	63.20	59.40	79.65	56.41	56.94
Adapters ($\sigma = 32$)	1.37	4.90	77.42	46.51	74.06	69.81	85.30	70.84	70.65
Adapters $(n_i = 47)$	1.37	4.90	76.15	45.28	73.04	67.86	84.83	69.17	69.39
Adapters $(n_i = 23)$	0.68	2.47	75.28	44.17	72.41	66.44	83.98	68.02	68.38
MiMi (1 cycle)	0.80	2.89	76.83	46.00	73.76	67.93	85.05	69.61	69.86
Linear prob	0.27	0.95	62.89	33.96	64.93	42.95	81.69	54.24	56.77
PHM-Adapter	0.47	1.72	75.79	44.62	72.49	66.62	83.73	68.51	68.62
Compacter	0.41	1.44	75.25	44.19	72.09	66.01	83.42	67.99	68.16
BitFit	0.34	1.22	72.14	41.07	70.00	60.39	82.43	64.43	65.08
VPT (10 tokens)	0.32	1.15	61.91	24.87	57.05	57.09	76.94	55.12	55.49
SSF	0.28	0.96	74.45	42.64	71.72	64.70	82.95	65.90	67.06
Fact-TK ₃₂	0.33	1.18	72.46	41.14	70.32	61.26	80.23	63.87	64.88
Adapters $(n_i = 1)$	0.30	1.07	72.12	41.30	69.93	59.95	82.49	64.18	65.00
MiMi (2 cycles)	0.53	1.92	76.83	45.45	73.11	66.67	84.42	69.05	69.26
MiMi (3 cycles)	0.40	1.43	75.44	44.60	72.59	64.73	83.87	68.05	68.21
MiMi (4 cycles)	0.30	1.07	74.38	43.52	71.50	63.41	83.12	67.46	67.23

moving too many parameters at each cycle hurts performance. Maintaining good performance requires a higher number of training cycles C.

S8.2 Evaluation on VTAB Benchmark

We experiment on VTAB [26] is a collection of 19 diverse visual classification tasks, which are organized into three groups: Natural - tasks that contain natural images captured using standard cameras; Specialized - tasks that contain images captured via specialized equipment, such as medical and satellite imagery; and Structured - tasks that require geometric comprehension like object counting. Each task of VTAB contains 1000 training examples. Following [26], we use the provided 800-200 split of the train set to determine hyperparameters and run the final evaluation using the full training data. We report the average accuracy score on the test set within three



Figure S2: Comparison of top-1 accuracy of vanilla adapters, and MiMi with respect to compression rate σ on CIFAR-100 dataset. All MiMi results originate from the same MiMi run. Adapters are trained for the exact same number of epochs as their MiMi counterparts. The size of blob markers represents the number of trainable parameters. We notice that at $\sigma = 2, 4, 8$, MiMi outperforms full finetuning.



Figure S3: Training loss curves of finetuning adapters with vanilla, and MiMi training on CIFAR-100 dataset.



Figure S4: Training loss curves of finetuning adapters with vanilla, and MiMi training on SVHN dataset.



(a) Local pruning: all datasets.

(b) Global pruning: VGG-Flowers .

(c) Global pruning: CIFAR-10.

Figure S5: Layer-wise analysis of adapter's neurons distribution at 3^{rd} cycle. Bar plots represent a number of neurons n_i at each adapter *i* using local, and global neuron selection for VGG-Flowers and CIFAR-10, respectively.



(a) Local pruning: all datasets.

(b) Global pruning: VGG-Flowers.

(c) Global pruning: CIFAR-10.

Figure S6: Layer-wise analysis of adapter's neurons distribution at 5^{th} cycle. Bar plots represent the number of neurons n_i at each adapter *i* using local and global neuron selection for VGG-Flowers and CIFAR-10, respectively.



Figure S7: Layer-wise analysis of adapter's neurons distribution at 3^{rd} cycle. Normalized bar plots represent percentage (%) of remaining neurons n_i at each adapter *i* using local, global neuron selection for VGG-Flowers and CIFAR-10, respectively.



Figure S8: Layer-wise analysis of adapter's neurons distribution at 5^{th} cycle. Normalized bar plots represent percentage (%) of remaining neurons n_i at each adapter *i* using local, global neuron selection for VGG-Flowers and CIFAR-10, respectively.



Figure S9: Evaluation of PET baselines mean top-1 accuracy on **DomainNet** benchmark. Reducing MiMi (◆) parameters does not significantly reduce performance compared to other PET baselines.



Figure S10: Analysis of MiMi performance on VGG-Flowers dataset with different values of ρ . If ρ is very high, the drop in performance is significant, but it requires less C training cycles to reach σ_{traget} .

		CIFAR-100	Caltech101	DTD	Flowers102	Pets	NHAS	Sun397	Mean	Patch Camelyon	EuroSAT	Resisc45	Retinopathy	Mean	Clevr/count	Clevr/distance	DMLab	KITTI/distance	dSprites/location	dSprites/orientation	SmallNORB/azimuth	SmallNORB/elevation	Mean
(a)	Full	68.9	87.7	64.3	97.2	86.9	87.4	38.8	75.88	79.7	95.7	84.2	73.9	83.36	56.3	58.6	41.7	65.5	57.5	46.7	25.7	29.1	47.64
Head-ori	iented																						
	LINEAR	63.4	85.0	63.2	97.0	86.3	36.6	51.0	68.93(1)	78.5	87.5	68.6	74.0	77.16(1)	34.3	30.6	33.2	55.4	12.5	20.0	9.6	19.2	26.84(0)
	Partial-1	66.8	85.9	62.5	97.3	85.5	37.6	50.6	69.44(2)	78.6	89.8	72.5	73.3	78.53(0)	41.5	34.3	33.9	61.0	31.3	32.8	16.3	22.4	34.17(0)
(\mathbf{n})	Mlp-2	63.2	84.8	60.5	97.6	85.9	34.1	47.8	67.70(2)	74.3	88.8	67.1	73.2	75.86(0)	45.2	31.6	31.8	55.7	30.9	24.6	16.6	23.3	32.47(0)
(a)	Mlp-3	63.8	84.7	62.3	97.4	84.7	32.5	49.2	67.80(2)	77.0	88.0	70.2	56.1	72.83(0)	47.8	32.8	32.3	58.1	12.9	21.2	15.2	24.8	30.62(0)
	Mlp-5	59.3	84.4	59.9	96.1	84.4	30.9	46.8	65.98(1)	73.7	87.2	64.8	71.5	74.31(0)	50.8	32.3	31.5	56.4	7.5	20.8	14.4	20.4	29.23(0)
	Mlp-9	53.1	80.5	53.9	95.1	82.6	24.4	43.7	61.90(1)	78.5	83.0	60.2	72.3	73.49(0)	47.5	27.9	28.9	54.0	6.2	17.7	10.8	16.2	26.15(0)
Backbon	e-oriented																						
	Sidetune	60.7	60.8	53.6	95.5	66.7	34.9	35.3	58.21(0)	58.5	87.7	65.2	61.0	68.12(0)	27.6	22.6	31.3	51.7	8.2	14.4	9.8	21.8	23.41(0)
	BIAS	72.8	87.0	59.2	97.5	85.3	59.9	51.4	73.30(3)	78.7	91.6	72.9	69.8	78.25(0)	61.5	55.6	32.4	55.9	66.6	40.0	15.7	25.1	44.09(2)
(b)	Adapter-256	74.1	86.1	63.2	97.7	87.0	34.6	50.8	70.50(4)	76.3	88.0	73.1	70.5	76.98(0)	45.7	37.4	31.2	53.2	30.3	25.4	13.8	22.1	32.39(0)
(D)	Adapter-64	74.2	85.8	62.7	97.6	87.2	36.3	50.9	70.65(4)	76.3	87.5	73.7	70.9	77.10(0)	42.9	39.9	30.4	54.5	31.9	25.6	13.5	21.4	32.51(0)
	Adapter-8	74.2	85.7	62.7	97.8	87.2	36.4	50.7	70.67(4)	76.9	89.2	73.5	71.6	77.80(0)	45.2	41.8	31.1	56.4	30.4	24.6	13.2	22.0	33.09(0)
Visual-P	Prompt Tuning																						
	shallow-VPT	77.7	86.9	62.6	97.5	87.3	74.5	51.2	76.81(4)	78.2	92.0	75.6	72.9	79.66(0)	50.5	58.6	40.5	67.1	68.7	36.1	20.2	34.1	46.98(4)
	Prompt length (p)	100	5	1	200	50	200	1	79.4	5	50	50	10	28.7	100	200	100	100	100	100	200	200	137.5
(c)	Tuned / Total (%)	0.18	0.10	0.04	0.27	0.08	0.19	0.36	0.17	0.01	0.05	0.09	0.01	0.04	0.10	0.18	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.19	0.19	0.13
(0)	deep-VPT	78.8	90.8	65.8	98.0	88.3	78.1	49.6	78.48	81.8	96.1	83.4	68.4	82.43	68.5	60.0	46.5	72.8	73.6	47.9	32.9	37.8	54.98
	Prompt length (p)	10	10	10	1	1	50	5	12.4	100	100	10	1	52.8	50	200	100	50	10	50	200	200	107.5
	Tuned / Total (%)	0.20	0.20	0.15	0.10	0.04	0.54	0.41	0.23	1.06	1.07	0.15	0.02	0.57	0.54	2.11	1.07	0.54	0.12	0.55	2.12	2.11	1.14
(Ours)	MiMi	61.39	86.77	66.65	96.13	90.98	79.3	53.4	76.37	83.06	95.77	85.9	75.51	85.06	62.57	65.77	46.43	74.91	76.58	53.57	24.59	35.91	55.04

Table S5: Per-task fine-tuning results for VTAB with a pre-trained ViT-B/16. Results for other baselines are reported from [10].

S9 Details about Datasets

In Table S6, we report different statistics that capture the diversity of the datasets we use in our experiments.

	Dataset	Train Size	Test Size	Cl
sk	CIFAR-10	50000	10000	
-ta	CIFAR-100	50000	10000	
ilti	Oxford Flowers	2040	6149	
Мı	SVHN	73257	26032	
	Clipart	33525	14604	
Net	Infograph	36023	15582	
un]	Painting	50416	21850	
ma	Quickdraw	120750	51750	
Do	Real	120906	52041	
	Sketch	48212	20916	

Table S6: Datasets used in our empirical analysis

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Table S7: Specifications of the various datasets evaluated. *: we randomly sampled the train and val sets since there are no public splits available

Dataset	Description	# Classes	Train	Val	Test
Fine-grained visual recognitio	n tasks (FGVC)				
CUB-200-2011 [24] NABirds [22] Oxford Flowers [19] Stanford Dogs [13] Stanford Cars [6]	Fine-grained bird species recognition Fine-grained bird species recognition Fine-grained flower species recognition Fine-grained dog species recognition Fine-grained car classification	200 55 102 120 196	5,394* 21,536* 1,020 10,800* 7,329*	600^{\star} 2,393 [*] 1,020 1,200 [*] 815 [*]	$5,794 \\ 24,633 \\ 6,149 \\ 8,580 \\ 8,041$
Visual Task Adaptation Benc	hmark (VTAB-1k) [26]				
CIFAR-100 [14] Caltech101 [16] DTD [4] Flowers102 [19] Pets [21] SVHN [18] Sun397 [25]	Natural	100 102 47 102 37 10 397	800/1000	200	$\begin{array}{c} 10,000\\ 6,084\\ 1,880\\ 6,149\\ 3,669\\ 26,032\\ 21,750\end{array}$
Patch Camelyon [23] EuroSAT [8] Resisc45 [3] Retinopathy [12]	Specialized	$2 \\ 10 \\ 45 \\ 5$	800/1000	200	32,768 5,400 6,300 42,670
Clevr/count [11] Clevr/distance [11] DMLab [1] KITTI/distance [7] dSprites/location [17] dSprites/orientation [17] SmallNORB/azimuth [15] SmallNORB/elevation [15]	Structured	8 6 4 16 16 18 9	800/1000	200	$\begin{array}{c} 15,000\\ 15,000\\ 22,735\\ 711\\ 73,728\\ 73,728\\ 12,150\\ 12,150\end{array}$

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