Semantic Self-adaptation: Enhancing Generalization with a Single Sample

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Abstract

The lack of out-of-domain generalization is a critical weakness of deep networks for semantic segmentation. Previous studies relied on the assumption of a static model, *i. e.*, once the training process is complete, model parameters remain fixed at test time. In this work, we challenge this premise with a *self-adaptive* approach for semantic segmentation that adjusts the inference process to each input sample. Self-adaptation operates on two levels. First, it fine-tunes the parameters of convolutional layers to the input image using consistency regularization. Second, in Batch Normalization layers, it interpolates between the training and the reference distribution derived from a single test sample. Despite these techniques being well known in the literature, we surprisingly find their combination to set new state-of-the-art accuracy on synthetic-to-real generalization benchmarks. Our empirical study suggests that self-adaptation may complement the established practice of model regularization at training time for improving deep network generalization to out-of-domain data.

1 Introduction

The current state of the art for semantic segmentation (Chen et al., 2018b; Long et al., 2015) lacks direly in out-of-distribution robustness, *i. e.*, when the training and testing distributions are different. Numerous studies have investigated this issue, with a primary focus on image classification (Arjovsky et al., 2019; Bickel et al., 2009; Li et al., 2017a; Torralba & Efros, 2011; Volpi et al., 2018). However, a recent study of existing domain generalization methods (Gulrajani & Lopez-Paz, 2021) comes to a sobering conclusion: Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM), which makes an *i. i. d.* assumption of the training and testing samples, is still highly competitive. This is in stark contrast to the evident advances in the area of domain adaptation, both for image classification (Ben-David et al., 2010; Ganin et al., 2016; Long et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2018) and semantic segmentation (Araslanov & Roth, 2021; Vu et al., 2019; Yang & Soatto, 2020). This setup, however, assumes access to an unlabelled test distribution at training time, whereas in the generalization setting considered here, *only one test sample is accessible at inference time* and *no knowledge between the subsequent test samples must be shared*.

In this work, we study the generalization problem of semantic segmentation from synthetic data (Richter et al., 2016; Ros et al., 2016) through the lens of adaptation. In contrast to previous work that modified the model architecture (Pan et al., 2018) or the training process (Chen et al., 2021; 2020; Yue et al., 2019), we leave the training stage unchanged, but replace the standard inference procedure with a technique inspired by domain adaptation methods (Araslanov & Roth, 2021; Li et al., 2017b). The technique, that we term *self-adaptation*, leverages a self-supervised loss, which allows for adapting to a single test sample with a few parameter updates. Complementary to these loss-based updates, self-adaptation integrates feature statistics of the training data with those of the test sample in the Batch Normalization layers (Ioffe & Szegedy, 2015), commonly employed in modern convolutional neural networks (CNNs) (He et al., 2016). Expanding upon the previous conclusions in related studies (Schneider et al., 2020), we find that this normalization strategy not only improves the segmentation accuracy, but also the calibration quality of the prediction confidence.

In summary, our contributions are the following: *(i)* We propose a self-adaptive process for model generalization in the context of semantic segmentation, where model inference adjusts to each test sample. *(ii)* We overcome

deficiencies in the experimental protocol used in previous studies with a rigorous revision. *(iii)* Implemented on top of a simple baseline, self-adaptation surpasses previous work and achieves new state-of-the-art segmentation accuracy in synthetic-to-real generalization.

2 Related work

Our work contributes to recent research on generalization of semantic segmentation models, and relates to studies on feature normalization (Pan et al., 2018; Schneider et al., 2020) and online learning (Sun et al., 2020). While the focus in previous investigations was the training strategy (Yue et al., 2019) and model design (Pan et al., 2018), we exclusively study the test-time inference process here. Yue et al. (2019) augment the synthetic training data by transferring style from real images. Assuming access to a classification model trained on real images, Chen et al. (2020) regularize the training on synthetic data by ensuring feature proximity of the two models via distillation, and seek layer-specific learning rates for improved generalization. Advancing the distillation technique, Chen et al. (2021) devise a contrastive loss that facilitates model invariance to standard image augmentations. Pan et al. (2018) heuristically add instance normalization (IN) layers to the network. More recently, Choi et al. (2021) and Huang et al. (2021) extract domain-invariant feature statistics by either using an instance-selective whitening loss or frequency-based domain randomization. Similarly, Nam et al. (2022) learn a style-invariant representation by using a causal framework for data generation. Kundu et al. (2021) increase source domain diversity by augmenting single-domain data to virtually simulate a multi-source scenario. Tang et al. (2021) swap channel-wise statistics in feature normalization layers and learn adapter functions to re-adjust the mean and variance based on the input sample. Lee et al. (2022a) compute ensemble output logits from samples of different domains but with the same label and then penalize each output for a mismatch with the ensemble. To improve generalization in federated learning, Caldarola et al. (2022) train clients locally with sharpness-aware minimization and averaging stochastic weights. However, these methods assume access to a *distribution* of real images during training (Chen et al., 2020; 2021; Yue et al., 2019) (as opposed to only for pre-training of the backbone), or require a modification of the network architecture (Pan et al., 2018). Our work requires neither, hence the presented technique applies even *post-hoc* to the already (pre-)trained models to improve their generalization. Moreover, as we discuss and address in Sec. 6, the evaluation protocol used by previous studies exhibits a number of shortcomings.

Normalization. Batch Normalization (BN; Ioffe & Szegedy, 2015) and other normalization techniques have been increasingly linked to model robustness (Deecke et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019; Schneider et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018; Wu & He, 2018). The most commonly used BN, Layer Normalization (LN; Ba et al., 2016), and Instance Normalization (IN; Ulyanov et al., 2016) also affect the model's expressive power, which can be further enhanced by combining these techniques in one architecture (Luo et al., 2019; Nam & Kim, 2018). In a domain adaptation setting, Li et al. (2017b) use source-domain statistics during training while replacing them with target-domain statistics during inference. More recently, Schneider et al. (2020) combine the source and target statistics during inference, but the statistics are weighted depending on the number of samples that these statistics aggregate. Nado et al. (2020) propose using batch statistics during inference from the target domain instead of the training statistics acquired from the source domain. Our comprehensive empirical study complements these results by demonstrating improved generalization of semantic segmentation models.

Adapting the model to a test sample. Several examples from previous work update the model parameters at the time of inference. In object tracking, the object detector has the need to adjust to the changing appearance model of the tracked instance (Kalal et al., 2012). Conditional generative models can learn from a single image sample for the task of super-resolution (Glasner et al., 2009) and scene synthesis (Shaham et al., 2019). More recently, this principle has been used for improving the robustness of image classification models (Sun et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2022). The design of the self-supervised task to perform on the test sample is crucial, and the techniques developed for image classification are unsuitable for dense prediction tasks, such as semantic segmentation considered here. Concurrently, Reddy et al. (2022) enforce edge consistency during inference for unsupervised test time adaptation of semantic segmentation methods. Nevertheless, more suitable alternatives for the self-supervised loss have been recently proposed for domain adaptation (Araslanov & Roth, 2021), and a number of other works devised domain-specific approaches for medical imaging (Varsavsky et al., 2020) or first-person vision (Cai et al., 2020).

Setup comparison. Most of these technically related works (Schneider et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021a) focus on the problem of domain adaptation in the context of image classification. They typically assume access to a number of samples (or even all test images) from the target distribution at training time. Our work instead addresses semantic segmentation in the domain generalization setting, which is different as it only necessitates *a single datum* from the test set. In this scenario, simple objectives, such as entropy minimization employed by Tent (Wang et al., 2021a), improve the baseline accuracy only moderately. By contrast, our self-adaptation with pseudo labels accounts for the inherent uncertainty in the predictions, which proves substantially more effective, as the comparison to Tent in Sec. 6.3 reveals. Our task is also different from few-shot learning (*e. g.*, Finn et al., 2017), where the model may adapt at test time using a small *annotated* set of image samples. No such annotation is available in our setup; our model adjusts to the test sample in a completely unsupervised fashion, requires neither proxy tasks to update the parameters (Sun et al., 2020) nor any prior knowledge of the test distribution.

3 Self-adaptive learning from a single sample

The traditional assumption at inference time is that the parameters of the segmentation model remain fixed. However, (self-)adaptive systems and their biological counterparts provide an example, where they learn to specialize on the particularities of their environment (Thrun, 1998; Widmer & Kubat, 1996). By analogy, we here allow the segmentation model to update its parameters. Note that our setup is distinct from the domain adaptation scenario (*e. g.*, in contrast to Wang et al., 2021a), since we discard the updated parameters when processing the next sample in line with the underlying concept of domain generalization.

Our approach, visualized in Fig. 1, uses data augmentation as a method to create mini-batches of images for each test sample. Based on the original test image, we first create a set of N augmented images by multi-scaling, horizontal flipping, and grayscaling. These augmented images are used to form a mini-batch, which is fed through the CNN. We transform the produced softmax probabilities from the model back to the original pixels using the inverse affine transformations, and denote the result as $m_{i,:,:,:}$ for every sample i in the mini-batch. This allows the model to have multiple predictions for one pixel. We then compute the mean $\bar{m}$ of these softmax probabilities along the mini-batch dimension i for class c and pixel (j, k) on the spatial grid as

$$\bar{m}_{c,j,k} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} m_{i,c,j,k}. \tag{1}$$

Using hyperparameter $\psi \in (0, 1)$, we compute a threshold value t_c from the maximum probability of every class to yield a class-dependent threshold t_c:

$$t_c = \psi \cdot \max(\bar{m}_{c,:,:}). \tag{2}$$

Finally, for every pixel, we extract the class $c^*_{j,k}$ with the highest probability by

$$c^*_{j,k} = \arg\max(\bar{m}_{:,j,k}). \tag{3}$$

We ignore low-confidence predictions using our class-dependent threshold t_c. Specifically, all pixels with a softmax probability below the threshold are set to an ignore label, while the remaining pixels use the dominant class $c^*_{j,k}$ as the pseudo label $u_{j,k}$,

$$u_{j,k} = \begin{cases} c^*_{j,k}, & \text{if } \max(\bar{m}_{:,j,k}) \geq t_{c^*_{j,k}} \\ \text{ignore}, & \text{else.} \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

The pseudo ground truth u for the test image is used to fine-tune the model for N_t iterations with gradient descent using the cross-entropy loss. We determine all hyperparameters, *i. e.*, resolution of the scales, threshold ψ, number of iterations N_t, and learning rate η, based on a development dataset. After the self-adaptation process, we produce a single final prediction using the updated model weights. To process the next test sample, we reset these weights to their initial value, hence the model obtains no knowledge about the complete target data distribution.

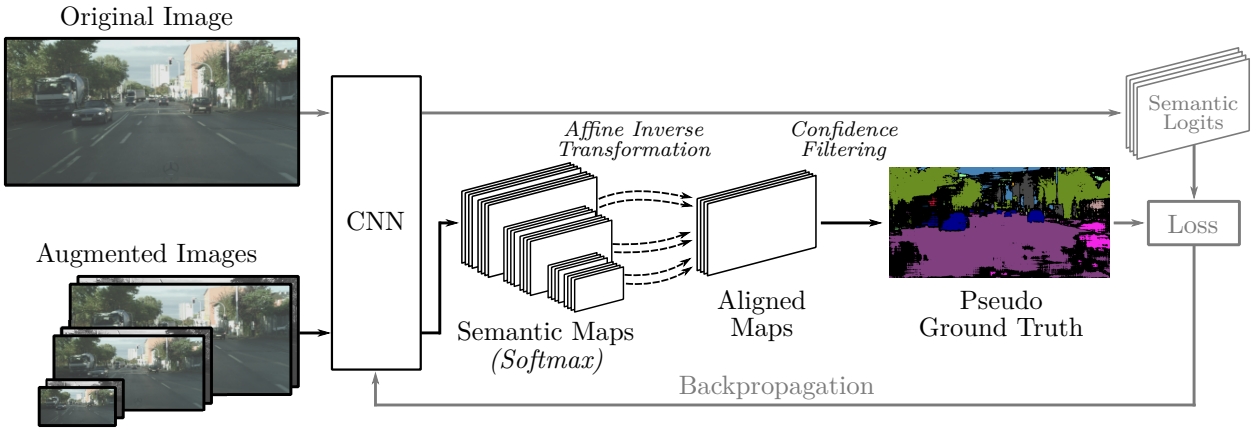

Figure 1: *Overview of the one-sample adaptation process.* We augment a single test sample by creating a batch of images at multiple scales, each with horizontal flipping and grayscaling. To transform the output of each version back to the original image plane, we apply the corresponding inverse affine transformation to every prediction. After averaging the softmax probabilities, we create a pseudo label using a class-dependent confidence threshold. We update the model parameters by minimizing the cross-entropy loss with respect to the pseudo label, repeating this process for a small number of iterations (N_t) before producing the final prediction. The updated model is then discarded.

One natural consideration in this process is the quality of the confidence calibration in the semantic maps, since the arg max operation in Eq. (3) and applying the threshold in Eq. (4) aim to select only the most confident pixel predictions. If the confidence values become miscalibrated (*e. g.*, due to the domain shift), a significant fraction of incorrect pixel labels will end up in the pseudo mask. Our self-adaptive normalization, which we detail next, mitigates this issue.

4 Self-adaptive normalization

Batch Normalization (BN; Ioffe & Szegedy, 2015) has become an inextricable component of modern CNNs (He et al., 2016). Although BN was originally designed for improving training convergence, there is now substantial evidence that it plays an important role in model robustness (Nado et al., 2020), including domain generalization (Pan et al., 2018). Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^{B,H,W}$ denote a spatial tensor of size $H \times W$ for an arbitrary feature channel and batch size B, produced by a convolutional layer. We omit the layer and channel indexing, as the following presentation applies to all layers and feature channels on which BN operates. At training time, BN first computes the mean and the standard deviation across the batch and spatial dimensions, *i. e.*,

$$\mu = \frac{1}{BHW} \sum_{i,j,k} x_{i,j,k} \,, \qquad \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{BHW} \sum_{i,j,k} (x_{i,j,k} - \mu)^2. \tag{5}$$

The normalized features $\hat{x}$ follow from applying these statistics:

$$\bar{x}_{i,j,k} = \frac{(x_{i,j,k} - \mu)}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \epsilon}}. \tag{6}$$

Notably, this process differs from the normalization used at inference time. At training time, every BN layer maintains a running estimate of μ and σ across the training batches, which we denote here as $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$. At test time, it is an established practice to normalize the feature values with $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ in Eq. (6), instead of the test-batch statistics. We refer to this scheme as *train BN* (t-BN).

BN and generalization. In the context of out-of-distribution generalization, the running statistics $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ derive from the source data and can be substantially different had they been computed using the target images. This discrepancy is generally known as the *covariate shift* problem. Domain adaptation methods,

which assume access to the (unlabelled) target distribution, often alleviate this issue with a technique typically referred to as Adaptive Batch Normalization (AdaBN; Li et al., 2017b). The key idea behind the method is to simply replace the source running statistics with those of the target. Instead of alternating BN layers between the training and testing modes, recent work (Nado et al., 2020) studies *prediction-time BN* (p-BN), which replaces the running statistics from the training time, $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$, with the statistics μ and σ of the current test batch (normally comprising more than one image). Such a seemingly innocuous change is shown to benefit model robustness for image classification (Nado et al., 2020; Schneider et al., 2020).

In contrast to AdaBN and p-BN, which utilize either the whole target distribution or a number of samples, our study of model generalization assumes only a single target example to be available — the one that our model receives as the input at inference time. A viable alternative to AdaBN and p-BN is to compute the statistics per sample, which amounts to replacing BN layers with Instance Normalization (IN) layers (Ulyanov et al., 2016) after model training. However, this may cause another extreme scenario for covariate shift. Firstly, the sample statistics may serve only as an approximation to the complete test distribution. Secondly, such a replacement may significantly interfere with the statistics of the activations in the intermediate layers with which the network was trained. It is, therefore, unsurprising that IN layers alone were found to only hurt the discriminative power of the model in previous work (Pan et al., 2018).

Self-adaptive normalization (SaN). Let the *source* mean $\hat{\mu}_s$ and the variance $\hat{\sigma}_s^2$ denote the running average of the sample statistics at training time. If we had the *target* domain knowledge expressed by the sufficient statistics $\hat{\mu}_t$ and $\hat{\sigma}_t^2$, we could use those in place of $\hat{\mu}_s$ and $\hat{\sigma}_s^2$ in the BN layers to compensate for the covariate shift. However, at test time we only have access to the sample estimates, μ_t and σ_t^2, provided by a single datum from the target distribution:

$$\mu_t = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{j,k} z_{j,k} \,, \qquad \sigma_t^2 = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{j,k} \left(z_{j,k} - \mu_t \right)^2, \tag{7}$$

where $z \in \mathbb{R}^{H,W}$ is a spatial feature channel in a CNN of the target sample. We define $\alpha \in [0, 1]$, which denotes the change from the source ($\alpha = 0$) to a *reference* ($\alpha = 1$) image domain. At inference time we compute the new mean and variance, $\hat{\mu}_t$ and $\hat{\sigma}_t$, as follows:

$$\hat{\mu}_t := (1 - \alpha)\hat{\mu}_s + \alpha\mu_t \,, \qquad \hat{\sigma}_t^2 := (1 - \alpha)\hat{\sigma}_s^2 + \alpha\sigma_t^2. \tag{8}$$

Using Eq. (6), we replace μ and σ^2 with the computed $\hat{\mu}_t$ and $\hat{\sigma}_t^2$ to normalize the features of the single test sample. Notably, this does not affect the behavior of the BN layers at training time and applies only at test time. Since this approach combines the inductive bias coming in the form of the running statistics from the source domain with statistics extracted from a single test instance, which is an unsupervised process, we refer to it as *Self-adaptive Normalization* (SaN).

In Sec. 6.1, we empirically verify that SaN consistently boosts the segmentation accuracy in the out-of-distribution scenario. Furthermore, we also find significant improvements of model calibration in terms of the expected calibration error (ECE; Naeini et al., 2015).

Related methods. Setting $\alpha = 0$ in Eq. (8) defaults to the established procedure, t-BN, and uses only the running statistics from training on the source domain at inference time. Conversely, $\alpha = 1$ corresponds to Instance Normalization (Ulyanov et al., 2016) or, equivalently, to the p-BN strategy (Nado et al., 2020) with a batch size of 1. While μ_t and σ_t are averaged over a *batch* of target images in (Nado et al., 2020), we rely on a single test sample in this work. Our experiments in Sec. 6.1 expand upon previous analyses (Schneider et al., 2020) with an extensive emperical study of this normalization strategy for semantic segmentation. Batch Instance Normalization (Nam & Kim, 2018) used a similar weighting approach for adaptive stylization. However, α was a *training* parameter, whereas we use α only for model selection using a validation set.

5 Designing a principled evaluation

Previous studies (Chen et al., 2020; 2021; Pan et al., 2018; Yue et al., 2019) on domain generalization for semantic segmentation used divergent evaluation methodologies, which exacerbates the comparison and

reproducibility in follow-up research. Encouraged by similar observations (Gulrajani & Lopez-Paz, 2021), we first set out and then follow a number of principles reflecting the best-practice experimentation to enable a fair and reproducible evaluation.

(A) The test set must comprise multiple domains. – A few previous works (Chen et al., 2020; 2021; Pan et al., 2018) used only a single target domain, Cityscapes (Cordts et al., 2016), for testing. However, like other research datasets, Cityscapes (Cordts et al., 2016) is carefully curated (*e. g.*, the same camera hardware and country was used for image capture), hence only partially represents the visual diversity of the world. A more comprehensive approach by (Yue et al., 2019) considered a number of target domains. However, a separate model was selected for every target domain (based on a *different* validation set). As a result, each selected model may be biased toward the chosen target domain, hence may not be indicative of strong generalization. This leads us to the next principle:

(B) A single model must be used for all test domains. – Many works do not clearly define the strategy of model selection, such as the used validation set. In fact, recent work (Huang et al., 2021) even uses the test domains for hyperparameter tuning, for the lack of an established protocol. This is especially undesirable when studying model generalization. Therefore, we stress that:

(C) Model selection must not use test images; and *(D) The validation set must be clearly specified.* – These principles follow naturally from the requirements of domain generalization, with principles C and D, in particular, being widely accepted in machine learning research. To our surprise, we found that *no previous work on domain generalization for semantic segmentation has yet fulfilled all of these principles.* To encourage and facilitate good evaluation practice, we therefore revise the experimental protocol used so far. We consider a practical scenario in which a supplier prepares a model for a consumer without *a-priori* knowledge on where this model may be deployed, much akin to Kundu et al. (2021). On the supplier's side, we assume access to two data distributions for model training and validation, the *source data* and the *validation set*. After training the model on the source data and choosing its hyperparameters on the validation set, we assess its generalization ability on three qualitatively distinct *target sets*. The average accuracy across these sets provides an estimate of the expected model accuracy for its out-of-distribution deployment on the consumer's side. Next, we concretize the datasets used in this study, which focus on traffic scenes for compatibility with previous work (Chen et al., 2021; Pan et al., 2018; Yue et al., 2019). Notably, the scale of our study, summarised in Table 1, exceeds that of previous work.

In contrast, our evaluation methodology adheres to the principles of robustness and generalization by testing a single model on multiple target domains using a single set of hyperparameters without access to images from respective target datasets. This ensures that our model can perform well across a range of domains without the need for domain-specific fine-tuning or model selection. We describe our experimental settings in more detail in Sec. 6.

6 Experiments

Previous studies (Chen et al., 2020; 2021; Pan et al., 2018; Yue et al., 2019) on domain generalization for semantic segmentation use a number of evaluation schemes. For example, (Chen et al., 2020; 2021; Pan et al., 2018) use only a single target domain, Cityscapes (Cordts et al., 2016), for testing. Although Cityscapes (Cordts et al., 2016) has been meticulously curated, it only captures a fraction of the visual variety present in the world, similar to other research datasets. A more comprehensive approach by (Yue et al., 2019) considers a number of target domains and used the average accuracy across those as a generalization metric. However, the model was separately selected for every target domain based on a *different* validation set. As a result, the average accuracy across the tested domains represents the expected accuracy of a model ensemble. In this work, by contrast, we aim to improve the *expected* accuracy of a *single* model.

To that end, we propose a revised evaluation protocol to quantify the generalization ability of a single model. We consider a practical scenario in which a supplier prepares a model for a consumer without *a-priori* knowledge on where this model may be deployed. On the supplier's side, we assume access to two data distributions for model training and validation, the *source data* and the *development set*. We assess the generalization ability of the model yielded by the validation process on three qualitatively distinct *target*

Table 1: *Comparison to state-of-the-art domain generalization methods for reported source domains and target domains.*

Method	*Source Domains*		*Target Domains*			
	GTA	SYNTHIA	CS	Mapillary	BDD	IDD
DRPC (Yue et al., 2019)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
ASG (Chen et al., 2020)	✓	-	✓	-	-	-
CSG (Chen et al., 2021)	✓	-	✓	-	-	-
RobustNet (Choi et al., 2021)	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-
FSDR (Huang et al., 2021)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
WildNet (Lee et al., 2022b)	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-
SAN-SAW (Peng et al., 2022)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
PIN (Kim et al., 2022)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
GCISG (Nam et al., 2022)	✓	-	✓	-	-	-
XDED (Lee et al., 2022a)	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-
This work	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

sets. The average accuracy across these sets provides an estimate of the expected model accuracy for its out-of-distribution deployment on the consumer's side. Next, we concretize the datasets used in this study, which are limited to traffic scenes for compatibility with previous work (Chen et al., 2021; Pan et al., 2018; Yue et al., 2019) (see supplemental material for dataset details).

Source data. We train our model on the training split of two synthetic datasets (mutually exclusive) with low-cost ground truth annotation: GTA (Richter et al., 2016) and SYNTHIA (Ros et al., 2016). Importantly, these datasets exhibit visual discrepancy (*i. e.*, domain shift) *w. r. t.* the real imagery, to which our model needs to generalize.

Development set. For model selection and hyperparameter tuning, we use the validation set of WildDash (Zendel et al., 2018). In our scenario, the development set is understood to be of limited quantity, owing to its more costly annotation compared to the source data. In contrast to the training set, however, it bears closer visual resemblance to the potential target domains.

Multi-target evaluation. Following model selection, we evaluate the single model on three target domains comprising the validation sets from Cityscapes (Cordts et al., 2016), BDD (Yu et al., 2020), and IDD (Varma et al., 2019). The choice of these test domains stems from a number of considerations, such as the geographic origin of the scenes (Cityscapes, BDD, and IDD were collected in Germany, North America, and India, respectively). Geographic distinction as well as substantial differences in data acquisition (*e. g.*, camera properties) of these datasets bring together an assortment of challenges for the segmentation model at test time. Since the deployment site of our model is unknown, we assume a uniform prior over the target domains as our test distribution. Under this assumption, the average of the mean accuracy across our target domains estimates the expected model accuracy.

To compare to previous works, we also evaluate on Mapillary (Neuhold et al., 2017). Mapillary does not publicly disclose the geographic origins of individual samples, hence is unsuitable to identify a potential location bias acquired by the model from the training data. This is possible in our proposed evaluation protocol, since the geographic locations from Cityscapes, BDD, and IDD do not overlap.

Implementation details. We implement our framework in PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019). To facilitate reproducibility, we provide our implementation to the reviewers, and commit to releasing it publicly upon acceptance under an Apache License 2.0. We also discuss trivial to implement, but crucially useful training details of our baseline in-depth here and in Appendix A.

Following (Pan et al., 2018), our baseline model is DeepLabv1 (Chen et al., 2015) without CRF post-processing, but the reported results also generalize to more advanced architectures (*cf.* Appendix B.3). We use ResNet-50 and ResNet-101 (He et al., 2016) pre-trained on ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009) as backbone. We minimize the

Table 2: *(a) Segmentation accuracy using SaN.* We report the mean IoU (%, ↑) on three target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD) across both backbones. t-BN denotes train BN (Ioffe & Szegedy, 2015), while p-BN refers to prediction-time BN (Nado et al., 2020). *(b) ECE (%, ↓) for SaN and MC-Dropout (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016).* We trained the networks on GTA and report scores for the three target domains (*cf.* Appendix B.1 for results with SYNTHIA).

Method	**(a)** *IoU (%, ↑)*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
ResNet-50				
w/ t-BN	30.95	28.52	32.78	30.75
w/ p-BN	**37.71**	31.67	30.85	33.41
w/ SaN (*Ours*)	37.54	**32.79**	**34.21**	**34.85**
ResNet-101				
w/ t-BN	32.90	32.54	30.36	31.93
w/ p-BN	39.88	34.30	33.05	35.74
w/ SaN (*Ours*)	**42.17**	**35.40**	**33.52**	**37.03**

Method	**(b)** *ECE (%, ↓)*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
ResNet-50	37.28	35.61	27.73	33.54
w/ SaN (*Ours*)	30.57	30.94	26.90	29.47
w/ MC-Dropout	30.29	29.80	24.17	28.09
w/ both (*Ours*)	**25.50**	**27.36**	**22.62**	**25.16**
ResNet-101	35.24	33.74	27.28	32.09
w/ SaN (*Ours*)	26.12	28.89	23.98	26.36
w/ MC-Dropout	31.30	29.95	25.15	28.80
w/ both (*Ours*)	**24.44**	**28.68**	**23.32**	**25.48**

Table 3: *Mean IoU (%) with TTA (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2015) and our self-adaptation* reported across both source domains (GTA, SYNTHIA) and three target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD).

Method	*Source: GTA*				*Source: SYNTHIA*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
ResNet-50 (w/ SaN)	37.54	32.79	34.21	34.85	36.14	26.66	26.37	29.72
TTA (w/ SaN)	42.56	37.72	37.98	39.42	39.67	32.10	30.46	34.08
Self-adaptation *(Ours)*	**45.13**	**39.61**	**40.32**	**41.69**	**41.60**	**33.35**	**31.22**	**35.39**
ResNet-101 (w/ SaN)	42.17	35.40	33.52	37.03	38.01	28.66	27.28	31.32
TTA (w/ SaN)	44.37	38.49	38.35	40.40	39.91	32.68	30.04	34.21
Self-adaptation *(Ours)*	**46.99**	**40.21**	**40.56**	**42.59**	**42.32**	**33.27**	**31.40**	**35.66**

cross-entropy loss with an SGD optimizer and a learning rate of 0.005, decayed polynomially with the power set to 0.9. All models are trained on the source domains for 50 epochs with batch size, momentum, and weight decay set to 4, 0.9, and 0.0001, respectively. For data augmentation, we compute crops of random size (0.08 to 1.0) of the original image size, apply a random aspect ratio (3/4 to 4/3) to the crop, and resize the result to 512 × 512 pixels. We also use random horizontal flipping, color jitter, random blur, and grayscaling. We train our models with SyncBN (Paszke et al., 2019) on two NVIDIA GeForce RTX 2080 GPUs.

6.1 Evaluating SaN

For both source domains (GTA, SYNTHIA) in combination with all main target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD), we investigate the influence of α on Self-adaptive Normalization (SaN, Eq. 8) in terms of the IoU. Setting an optimal α for every target domain is infeasible in domain generalization as the target domain during inference is unknown. Instead, we choose the optimal α in steps of 0.1 based on the IoU on the development set of WildDash. For the ResNet-50 backbone, we attain the highest validation IoU for both training datasets with $\alpha = 0.1$ (see Appendix B.1). Fixing this optimal α, we proceed with evaluating our model on the target domains. Table 2 reports the segmentation accuracy with this α that has been optimized on the development set. In Table 2(a) we report IoU scores for both backbones on generalization from GTA to Cityscapes, BDD, and IDD and compare the accuracy of the target domains with t-BN and p-BN. Remarkably, SaN improves the mean IoU not only of the t-BN baseline (*e. g.*, by 4.1% IoU with ResNet-50), which represents an established evaluation mode, but also over the more recent p-BN (Nado et al., 2020). This improvement is consistent across the board, *i. e.* irrespective of the backbone architecture and the

Table 4: *Mean IoU (%, ↑) comparison to state-of-the-art domain generalization methods* for both source domains (GTA, SYNTHIA) as well as three target domains (Cityscapes, Mapillary, BDD). In-domain training to obtain the upper bounds uses our baseline DeepLabv1 following the same schedule as with the synthetic datasets. (‡), (†), (‡‡) and (††) denote the use of FCN (Long et al., 2015), DeepLabv2 (Chen et al., 2018a), DeepLabv3 (Chen et al., 2017), and DeepLabv3+ (Chen et al., 2018b), respectively.

	Method	*Backbone: ResNet-50*						*Backbone: ResNet-101*					
		CS		Mapillary		BDD		CS		Mapillary		BDD	
	In-domain Bound	71.23		58.39		58.53		73.84		62.81		61.19	
GTA	No Adapt	32.45		25.66		26.73		33.56		28.33		27.76	
	DRPC‡ (Yue et al., 2019)	37.42	↑*4.97*	34.12	↑*8.46*	32.14	↑*5.41*	42.53	↑*8.97*	38.05	↑*9.72*	38.72	↑*10.96*
	No Adapt	25.88						29.63					
	ASG† (Chen et al., 2020)	29.65	↑*3.77*		–		–	32.79	↑*3.16*		–		–
	No Adapt	25.88						29.63					
	CSG† (Chen et al., 2021)	35.27	↑*9.39*		–		–	38.88	↑*9.25*		–		–
	No Adapt	28.95		28.18		25.14							
	RobustNet††(Choi et al., 2021)	36.58	↑*7.63*	40.33	↑*12.15*	35.20	↑*10.06*		–		–		–
	No Adapt							33.4		27.9		27.3	
	FSDR‡ (Huang et al., 2021)		–		–		–	44.8	↑*11.4*	43.4	↑*15.5*	41.20	↑*13.9*
	No Adapt	35.16		31.29		29.71		35.73		33.42		34.06	
	WildNet†† (Lee et al., 2022b)	44.62	↑*9.46*	46.09	↑*14.77*	38.42	↑*8.71*	45.79	↑*10.06*	47.08	↑*13.66*	**41.73**	↑*7.67*
	No Adapt	29.32		28.33		25.71		30.64		28.65		27.82	
	SAN-SAW (Peng et al., 2022)	39.75	↑*10.43*	41.86	↑*13.53*	37.34	↑*11.63*	45.33	↑*14.69*	40.77	↑*12.12*	41.18	↑*13.36*
	No Adapt	31.60		29.00		25.10		–		–		–	
	PIN (Kim et al., 2022)	41.00††	↑*9.40*	37.40††	↑*8.40*	34.60††	↑*9.50*	44.90†		39.71†		41.31†	
	No Adapt	26.67											
	GCISG‡‡ (Nam et al., 2022)	39.01	↑*12.34*		–		–		–		–		–
	No Adapt	28.90		28.10		25.10							
	XDED†† (Lee et al., 2022a)	39.20	↑*10.30*	37.10	↑*9.00*	32.40	↑*7.30*	–		–		–	
	No Adapt	30.95		34.56		28.52		32.90		36.00		32.54	
	Self-adaptation *(Ours)*	**45.13**	↑*14.18*	**47.49**	↑*12.93*	**39.61**	↑*11.09*	**46.99**	↑*14.09*	**47.49**	↑*11.49*	40.21	↑*7.67*
SYNTHIA	No Adapt	28.36		27.24		25.16		29.67		28.73		25.64	
	DRPC‡ (Yue et al., 2019)	35.65	↑*7.29*	32.74	↑*5.50*	31.53	↑*6.37*	37.58	↑*7.91*	34.12	↑*5.39*	34.34	↑*8.70*
	No Adapt							-		-		-	
	FSDR‡ (Huang et al., 2021)		–		–		–	40.8		39.6		**37.4**	
	No Adapt	23.18		21.79		24.50		23.85		21.84		25.01	
	SAN-SAW (Peng et al., 2022)	38.92	↑*15.74*	34.52	↑*12.73*	**35.24**	↑*10.74*	40.87	↑*17.02*	37.26	↑*15.42*	35.98	↑*10.97*
	No Adapt	31.83		33.41		24.30		37.25		36.84		29.32	
	Self-adaptation *(Ours)*	**41.60**	↑*9.77*	**41.21**	↑*7.80*	33.35	↑*9.05*	**42.32**	↑*5.07*	**41.20**	↑*4.36*	33.27	↑*3.95*

target domain tested. Furthermore, we found that the calibration of our models, in terms of the expected calibration error (ECE; Naeini et al., 2015), also improves. As shown in Table 2(b), not only does SaN substantially enhance the baseline, but is even competitive with the commonly used MC-Dropout method (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016). Rather surprisingly, SaN exhibits a complementary effect with MC-Dropout: the calibration of the predictions improves even further when both methods are used jointly.

6.2 Evaluating self-adaptation

We compare our self-adaptation to the standard non-adaptive inference, as well as test our models against Test-Time Augmentation (TTA; Simonyan & Zisserman, 2015) as a stronger baseline. TTA augments the test samples with their flipped and grayscaled version on multiple scales and averages the predictions as the final result. For self-adaptation, we use horizontal flipping and grayscaling with factor scales of (0.25, 0.5, 0.75) *w. r. t.* the original image resolution. We study the relative importance of these augmentation types in Appendix B.2. Based on the development set WildDash, we set threshold $\psi = 0.7$, use $N_t = 10$ iterations, and a learning rate $\eta = 0.05$. We only train the layers conv4_x, conv5_x, and the classification head as we did not observe any benefits from updating all model parameters. Furthermore, this reduces runtime due to

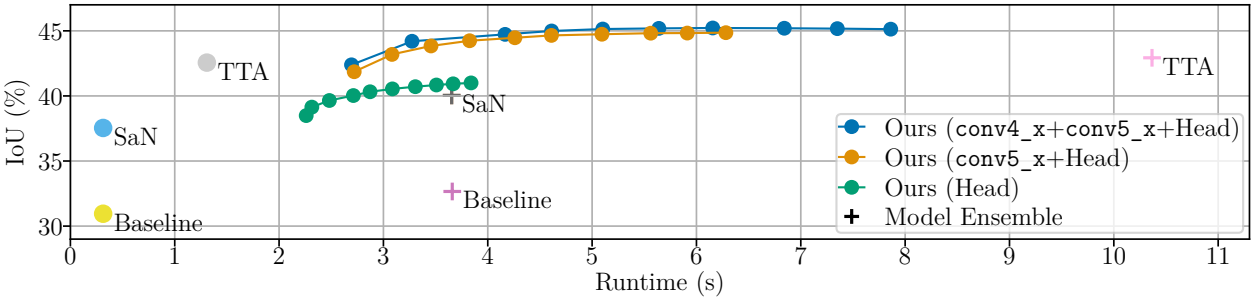

Figure 2: *Runtime-accuracy comparison on GTA → Cityscapes generalization using one NVIDIA GeForce RTX 2080 GPU.* The curves trace self-adaptation iterations, *i. e.*, the first point corresponds to $N_t = 1$, while the last shows $N_t = 10$. Self-adaptation balances accuracy and inference time by adjusting iteration numbers and layer choices, and is more cost-effective than 10 network ensembles.

not backpropagating through the whole network. We investigate this choice as part of the runtime-accuracy trade-off in Sec. 6.3. In Table 3, we show IoU scores for both source domains (GTA, SYNTHIA) and three target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD) across both backbones. Even though TTA improves the baseline (*e. g.*, by 3.37% IoU with ResNet-101 using GTA), our proposed self-adaptation still outperforms it by a clear and consistent margin of 2.19% IoU on average. This observation aligns well with our reported ECE scores in Table 2(b) to demonstrate that self-adaptation further exploits the calibrated confidence of our predictions to yield reliable pseudo labels for adapting the model for a particular test sample.

6.3 Comparison to state of the art

We compare self-adaptation with state-of-the-art domain generalization methods in Table 4. While most of the other methods report their results on weakly tuned baselines, we show consistent improvements even over a carefully tuned baseline, regardless of backbone architecture or source data. Our single model with self-adaptation even outperforms DRPC Yue et al. (2019) and FSDR Huang et al. (2021) on most benchmarks (*e. g.*, by $4.2 - 9.4\%$ on Mapillary with ResNet-101). These methods train individual models for each target domain; FSDR Huang et al. (2021) even uses the target domains for hyperparameter tuning, hence violates our proposed out-of-distribution evaluation protocol. Recall that ASG Chen et al. (2020) and CSG Chen et al. (2021) (as well as DRPC; Yue et al., 2019) require access to a distribution of real images for training, while IBN-Net Pan et al. (2018) modifies the model architecture. Our thoroughly straightforward approach requires neither, alters only the inference procedure, yet outperforms these methods in all benchmark scenarios substantially. WildNet Lee et al. (2022b) appears to be more accurate than self-adaptation on BDD with ResNet-101. However, this is not a fair comparison, since it uses a more advanced architecture (DeepLabv3+ *vs.* DeepLabv1). As we will see in Table 11, self-adaptation, in fact, outperforms WildNet when using the same architecture by 2.79% IoU. Similarly, SAN-SAW Peng et al. (2022) reaches higher accuracy on BDD, if trained on SYNTHIA, presumably due to the ASPP module Chen et al. (2018a) that we do not use. Self-adaptation considerably outperforms SAN-SAW in all other scenarios. Overall, despite adhering to a stricter evaluation practice and a simpler model architecture, self-adaptation overwhelmingly exceeds the segmentation accuracy of previous work.

Runtime-accuracy trade-off. We investigate the influence of the number of iterations required to adapt to a single sample during self-adaptation. Fig. 2 plots IoU scores for Cityscapes using the ResNet-50 backbone trained on GTA (Appendix B.2 provides a numerical comparison). As a widely adopted baseline, we also train a model ensemble comprising 10 networks with a DeepLabv1 architecture (as in self-adaptation), initialized with a random seed (Hansen & Salamon, 1990). Note that TTA, self-adaptation, and the ensemble use SaN for a fair comparison, and we also test the ensemble with TTA. Although self-adaptation increases the accuracy of the baselines at the expense of test-time latency, it is still more efficient and more accurate than the model ensembles. Another advantage is that self-adaptation can trade off the accuracy *vs.* runtime by using fewer update iterations, or updating fewer upper network layers. While the top-accuracy variant of self-adaptation may not be suitable for real-time applications yet, it can still be valuable in other important

Table 5: *Mean IoU (%, ↑) comparison to Tent (Wang et al., 2021a). (a)* Using the same HRNet-W18 backbone (Wang et al., 2021b) as in (Wang et al., 2021a), our self-adaptation outperforms Tent (Wang et al., 2021a) substantially, even when using SaN alone. *(b)* Our self-adaptation loss defined in Sec. 3 yields significantly higher segmentation accuracy compared to the entropy minimization used by Tent (Wang et al., 2021a).

(a) HRNet-W18 backbone

Method	CS
Tent (Wang et al., 2021a)	36.4
SaN *(Ours)*	40.0
Self-adaptation *(Ours)*	**44.1**

(b) Comparison to entropy minimization (DeepLabv1)

Method	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
Entropy min.	40.20	35.40	33.97	36.52
Ours (ψ=0.0)	44.00	38.55	39.09	40.55
Ours (ψ=0.7)	**45.13**	**39.61**	**40.32**	**41.69**

domains, such as medical imaging, where high accuracy is desirable even at the cost of increased latency. For real-time needs, SaN alone boosts the baseline accuracy significantly without any computational overhead.

Comparison to Tent (Wang et al., 2021a). Like self-adaptation, Tent (Wang et al., 2021a) also updates model parameters at test time. However, different from constructing the pseudo labels based on well-calibrated predictions in our self-adaptation, Tent simply minimizes the entropy of a single-scale prediction. Tent also limits the adaptation to updating only the BN parameters, whereas our self-adaptation generalizes this process to convolutional layers. To demonstrate these advantages, we compare to Tent (Wang et al., 2021a) in Table 5. We train HRNet-W18 (Wang et al., 2021b) on GTA and compare the IoU on Cityscapes to the equivalent configuration of Tent. Under a comparable computational budget of 10 model update iterations, we substantially outperform Tent, by a remarkable 7.5% IoU. SaN alone already outperforms Tent significantly with a single forward pass by 3.6%. Further, our self-adaptation loss is also considerably more effective than the entropy minimization employed by Tent: We improve by 4% IoU on average even without tuning threshold ψ, and by 5.2% when it is tuned.

Qualitative results. In Fig. 3 we visualize qualitative segmentation results produced by self-adaptation for generalization from GTA to Cityscapes, BDD, Mapillary, and IDD. We observe a clearly perceivable improvement over the baseline, especially in terms of consistency *w. r. t.* the image boundaries. Appendix B.4 illustrates further examples and discusses failure cases.

7 Conclusion

The *i.i.d.* assumption underlying the traditional learning principle, ERM, implies that a training process relying on it is unlikely to produce models robust to an arbitrary domain shift, unless we make further assumptions about the test distribution. In the out-of-distribution scenario, the test domain is unknown, hence formulating such assumptions is difficult. To by-pass this issue, we presented and studied a self-adaptive *inference* process. We also highlighted a number of shortcomings in the experimental protocol used in previous work. By following the best practice in machine learning research, we formulated four principles defining a rigorous evaluation process in domain generalization. We implemented and followed these principles in our experiments.

Our analysis demonstrates that a single sample from the test domain can already suffice to improve model predictions. The accuracy improvement shown by our experiments is surprisingly substantial, despite using a fairly straightforward approach without changes to the training process or the model architecture, unlike in previous works (Chen et al., 2020; Yue et al., 2019). We hope that these encouraging results will incentivize our research community to study self-adaptive techniques in other application domains, such as panoptic segmentation, or monocular depth prediction.

The particular instantiation of self-adaptation that we presented in this work is not yet real-time. We extensively analyzed the existing trade-off with the segmentation accuracy in Appendix B.2 and found self-adaptation to be nonetheless more cost-effective than model ensembles — a widely adopted framework in

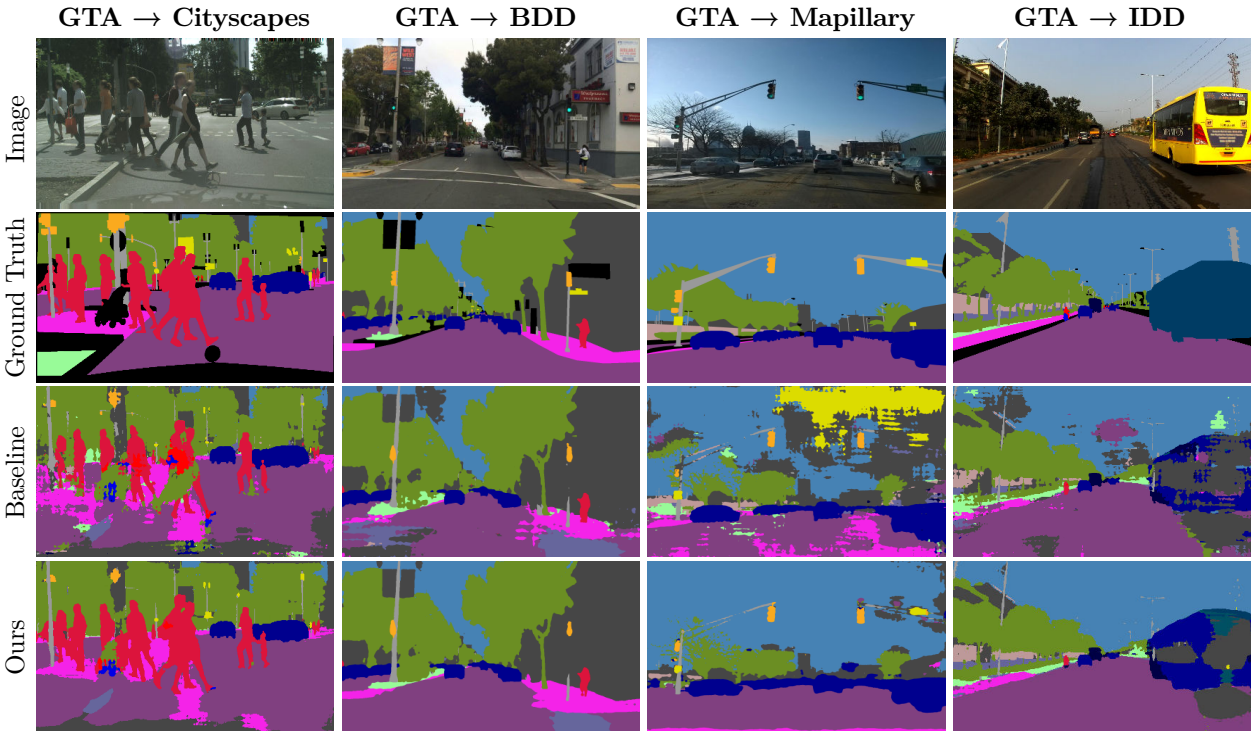

Figure 3: *Qualitative semantic segmentation results for the generalization from GTA to Cityscapes, BDD, Mapillary, and IDD* for the ResNet-50 backbone. We show the input image (top row), ground truth and the predictions of the baseline model and of our proposed self-adaptation (bottom row).

machine learning. However, the scope of this work was to rigorously demonstrate concrete accuracy benefits, which will make improving model efficiency a worthwhile goal to pursue in future work.

Indeed, decreasing the latency of self-adaptive inference is an intriguing avenue for research. Using adaptive step sizes, higher-order optimization (Botev et al., 2017; Kingma & Ba, 2015), or implicit gradients (Rajeswaran et al., 2019), we may lower the number of required update steps. An orthogonal line of research may consider low-precision computations (Wang et al., 2019), low-rank decomposition (Jaderberg et al., 2014), or alternating update strategies (Tonioni et al., 2019) to offer reduced computational footprint for each update iteration. We are excited to explore these directions and hope the reader may find this work equally inspiring.

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A Baseline: Best practice implementation

To legitimately study the out-of-distribution model accuracy, it is essential to establish its upper bound attainable by the standard training procedures (Montavon et al., 2012). We followed the best practice in the literature and found a number of training details to be crucial for obtaining a highly competitive baseline, *i. e.*, a model that does not use our self-adaptive inference. Among them is using heavy data augmentation. Recall from Sec. 6 that we used random horizontal flipping, multi-scale cropping with a scale range of $[0.08, 1.0]$, as well as photometric image perturbations:* color jitter, random blur, and grayscaling. Color jitter, applied with probability 0.5, perturbs image brightness, contrast, and saturation using a factor sampled uniformly from the range $[0.7, 1.3]$. We use a different range of $[0.9, 1.1]$ for the hue factor. We randomly blur the image using a Gaussian kernel with the standard deviation sampled from $[0.1, 2.0]$. Additionally, we convert the image to grayscale with a probability of 0.1. Furthermore, we also found that the polynomial decay schedule we used for the learning rate, as well training for at least 50 epochs (for both GTA and SYNTHIA) are essential to achieve a high baseline accuracy. Note that we only used WildDash as the development set to tune these training details. We also experimented with higher input resolution and a larger batch size, but did not observe a significant improvement, yet a drastic increase in the computational overhead.

On importance of the baseline. We note that the reported accuracy from previous work in Table 4 is not entirely consistent *w. r. t.* the choice of the model architecture. In particular, DRPC (Yue et al., 2019) uses an FCN, yet outperforms other domain generalization approaches with DeepLabv1 (Pan et al., 2018) and DeepLabv2 (Chen et al., 2020; 2021) considerably, as shown in Table 4. This is a regrettable consequence of inconsistent training schedules used in previous works that proved difficult to reproduce. For example, at the time of submission, the implementation by Yue *et al.* (Yue et al., 2019), which reports excellent segmentation accuracy for the baseline (*cf.* Table 4), has not yet been made available;† parts of the code implementing the semantic segmentation architecture introduced in (Pan et al., 2018) are also not publicly available.‡ These circumstances make reporting the accuracy of the implementation-specific baselines indispensable, which has thus become the standard practice in more recent previous (Chen et al., 2020; 2021) and related works (Gulrajani & Lopez-Paz, 2021).

B Self-adaptation: Additional analysis

B.1 Analyzing self-adaptive normalization (SaN)

Selecting α. Fig. 4 shows a detailed plot of the influence of α on the segmentation accuracy, both on the development set of WildDash and on the target domains. We observe that the maximum accuracy on the development set is attained with $\alpha = 0.1$. Clearly, there is no guarantee that value 0.1 is the optimal one for the target domains. However, choosing α based on the development set is in line with the established practice in machine learning: Tuning model hyperparameters is not allowed on the test sets (*i. e.*, Cityscapes, BDD, IDD), but is only possible on the validation set (WildDash). In general, the hyperparameters found to be optimal on the validation set are not guaranteed to remain so on the test set, especially in the out-of-distribution scenario studied here. Nevertheless, self-adaptation is quite robust even to the inevitably suboptimal choice of the hyperparameters in the out-of-distribution setting. Despite α having been picked based on the validation dataset, our empirical results show consistent improvements over the baselines across all scenarios (*cf.* Table 3).

SYNTHIA as the training set. Due to space constraints, we limited our study of SaN in the main paper to the scenario of using GTA as the source data (*cf.* Table 2). Here, we extend this study by training our models on SYNTHIA instead. Table 7 reports the segmentation accuracy (in terms of IoU) and the expected calibration error (ECE) for this case. Notably, SaN can still provide benefits for the expected segmentation accuracy if p-BN (*i. e.*, using target instance normalization statistics) fails to improve over the t-BN baseline, as is the case with ResNet-50 in Table 7; the results remain on par with the t-BN baseline even when p-BN is significantly worse than t-BN. In regard to calibration quality, the results are consistent with our model

*We use Pillow library (https://pillow.readthedocs.io) to implement photometric augmentation.
†https://github.com/xyyue/DRPC/issues
‡https://github.com/XingangPan/IBN-Net

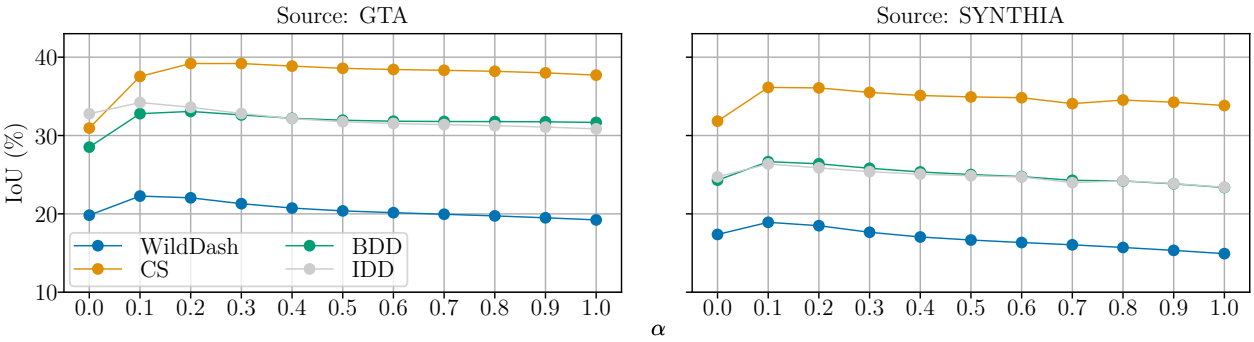

Figure 4: *Mean IoU (%, ↑) using SaN based on the optimal alpha on the development set (WildDash).* We report scores for the target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD) for the ResNet-50 backbone after training on GTA *(left)* and SYNTHIA *(right)*.

Table 6: *Mean IoU (%, ↑) comparison of SaN to alternatives: SN (Luo et al., 2019) and BIN (Nam & Kim, 2018).*

Method	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
SN	31.75	**33.60**	31.60	32.32
BIN	34.57	32.68	30.22	32.49
SaN *(ours)*	**37.54**	32.79	**34.21**	**34.85**

trained on GTA (*cf.* Table 2(b)): Not only does SaN improve the prediction calibration of the baseline, it again exhibits a complementary effect with Monte Carlo dropout (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016). Overall, the combined results from Table 2 and Table 7 demonstrate that SaN improves both the model accuracy and the calibration quality of the predictions in the out-of-distribution setting irrespective of the backbone network and specifics of the source data.

Comparison to other related work. We additionally compare SaN to alternative normalization strategies proposed in the literature: Batch-Instance Normalization (BIN; Nam & Kim, 2018) and Switchable Normalization (SN; Luo et al., 2019). Although both of these techniques share some similarities with our SaN, these approaches were developed for different purposes. SN was only shown to improve in-domain accuracy, while BIN tackles domain adaptation for image classification, not domain generalization studied in this work. Furthermore, both methods modify the model architecture before training, while SaN works with any pretrained semantic segmentation model. Nevertheless, we implemented both SN and BIN in our segmentation model based on the ResNet-50 backbone. We trained these approaches on GTA in an identical setup as SaN. From results in Table 6, we observe that SaN outperforms both BIN and SN by a significant margin in terms of mean IoU of the target domains.

B.2 Further design choices and runtime analysis

Selecting parameters for self-adaptation. In self-adaptation, we only update the model parameters in the layers `conv4_x`, `conv5_x`, and the classification head for the ResNet-50 backbone. Due to the higher computational cost of the ResNet-101 backbone, we only adapt the layers `conv5_x` and the classification head in this case. Note that we analyze the runtime costs for alternative configurations in Fig. 2 in the main text, as well as Fig. 5 below.

The choice of augmentation strategies. We verify the influence of the augmentation type used by self-adaptation. Recall from Sec. 6.2 that we use multiple scales with horizontal flipping and grayscaling to augment one image sample. We compare a flipping-only, scaling-only, and grayscaling-only version of our self-adaptation to the combination of flipping, grayscaling, and the spatial scaling, which we used in the main text. We used a ResNet-50 backbone trained on GTA and report the accuracy on Cityscapes in

Table 7: *(a) Segmentation accuracy using SaN.* We report the mean IoU(%, ↑) on three target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD) across both backbones. In contrast to Table 2, we trained the networks on SYNTHIA in both cases. As before, t-BN denotes train BN (Ioffe & Szegedy, 2015), while p-BN refers to prediction-time BN (Nado et al., 2020). *(b) ECE for SaN and MC-Dropout (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016).* We report ECE scores (%, ↓) for three target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD) across both backbones.

(a)

Method	*IoU (%, ↑)*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
ResNet-50				
w/ t-BN	31.83	24.30	24.73	26.95
w/ p-BN	33.83	23.36	23.39	26.86
w/ SaN *(Ours)*	**36.14**	**26.66**	**26.37**	**29.72**
ResNet-101				
w/ t-BN	37.25	**29.32**	27.19	31.25
w/ p-BN	34.58	24.24	22.32	27.05
w/ SaN *(Ours)*	**38.01**	28.66	**27.28**	**31.32**

(b)

Method	*ECE (%, ↓)*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
ResNet-50	37.50	43.19	40.11	40.26
w/ SaN	30.96	33.27	36.31	33.51
w/ MC-Dropout	34.82	37.30	36.63	36.25
w/ both (*Ours*)	**30.66**	**33.06**	**35.60**	**33.11**
ResNet-101	31.39	33.77	36.56	33.91
w/ SaN	30.33	31.83	36.26	32.81
w/ MC-Dropout	32.73	32.76	34.07	33.19
w/ both (*Ours*)	**27.71**	**30.48**	**32.67**	**30.29**

Table 8: *Mean IoU (%, ↑) for SaN and MC-Dropout (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016).* We report scores for three target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD) on the ResNet-50 (He et al., 2016) backbone trained on GTA. We provided the ECE results in Table 2(b) to motivate our self-adaptive learning approach, which relies on improved model calibration. SaN also consistently improves the IoU of the MC-Dropout approach.

Method	*IoU (%, ↑)*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
ResNet-50	30.95	28.52	32.78	30.75
w/ SaN *(Ours)*	37.54	32.79	34.21	34.85
w/ MC-Dropout	30.45	31.96	32.50	31.63
w/ both *(Ours)*	**38.84**	**35.13**	**35.55**	**36.50**

Table 9: *The role of the augmentation type in self-adaptation.* We report mean IoU (%, ↑) and runtime (ms, ↓) for TTA (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2015) and our self-adaptation for the GTA source domain and the Cityscapes target domain for the ResNet-50 backbone.

Method	*TTA*		*Ours*	
	IoU	Runtime	IoU	Runtime
Baseline	30.95	**314**	31.47	**7135**
SaN	37.54	**314**	39.04	**7135**
Multiple scales	42.27	749	44.92	7272
Horizontal flipping	38.01	986	39.33	7593
Grayscaling	37.96	908	39.65	7193
Multiple scales + horizontal flipping	42.48	1316	44.94	7890
Multiple scales + grayscaling	42.28	1202	45.06	7486
Multiple scales + horizontal flipping + grayscaling	**42.56**	1308	**45.13**	7862

Table 9. We observe a significant boost in accuracy in comparison to a strong baseline that uses our SaN with no augmentations. Furthermore, we show that using multiple scales is more important than flipping for self-adaptation. Note that the augmentations used do not impact the runtime in a significant way, since the batch sizes between these setups vary insignificantly; it is the backpropagation that dominates the main

Table 10: *Runtime with TTA (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2015) or self-adaptation.* We report the runtime (ms, ↓) for both ResNet-50 and ResNet-101 on three dominant resolutions of 2048×1024, 1280×720, and 1920×1080, corresponding to the target domains Cityscapes, BDD, and IDD, respectively.

Method	*Input resolution*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
ResNet-50 (w/ SaN)	**314**	**136**	**214**	**221**
TTA (w/ SaN)	1308	713	766	929
Self-adaptation (*ours*)	7862	3742	5307	5637
ResNet-101 (w/ SaN)	**458**	**239**	**252**	**316**
TTA (w/ SaN)	1519	766	860	1048
Self-adaptation (*ours*)	9060	4241	6142	6481

computational footprint. Varying the number of iterations, as studied in Sec. 6.1, provides a more flexible mechanism for accuracy-runtime trade-off.

Inference time. Table 10 compares the inference time of our self-adaptation *w. r. t.* test-time augmentation (TTA) and single-scale inference across a range of input resolutions available in the target domains. We obtain these results by running inference on a single NVIDIA GeForce RTX 2080 GPU. To improve the runtime estimate, for each dataset we average the inference time over the complete image set. This is to account for small deviations in the input resolution (*e. g.*, IDD mostly contains images of resolution 1920×1080, but also has images with resolution 1280×720). Since our self-adaptation uses 10 update iterations, the increase in the inference time *w. r. t.* TTA is expected. Although such cost may be detrimental for real-time applications, the significant accuracy benefits of self-adaptation (*cf.* Table 4) may find appeal in applications where the importance of the prediction quality outweighs the incurred overhead in the frame rate (*e. g.*, medical image analysis). Furthermore, self-adaption can amortize the runtime costs by using fewer update iterations, while still providing a clear accuracy improvement. For example, using $N_t = 3$ iterations decreases the runtime of self-adaptation almost twofold while preserving around 95% of the model accuracy attainable with more iterations.

We also investigated the influence of using the automatic mixed precision module in PyTorch and its influence on the inference runtime. While maintaining an identical IoU on Cityscapes using the ResNet-50 backbone, mixed precision with $N_t = 10$ reduced the runtime by almost 30%: the inference takes only 5746 ms compared to 7862 ms using single precision.

We additionally provide runtime-accuracy plots for GTA → BDD and GTA → IDD generalization in Fig. 5. The data supports our conclusions drawn on GTA → Cityscapes generalization (*cf.* Sec. 6.3) that *(i)* self-adaptation provides clear advantages in segmentation accuracy over baselines at a reasonable increase of the inference time; *(ii)* it is both more accurate and more efficient than model ensembles; and *(iii)* it exhibits a flexible runtime-accuracy trade-off by means of varying the number of update iterations and the number of the layers to adjust.

B.3 Self-adaptation with state-of-the-art architectures

Our approach generalizes to more recent architectures. We trained five state-of-the-art segmentation models on GTA: DeepLabv3+ (Chen et al., 2018b) with both a ResNet-50 and ResNet-101 backbone, HRNet-W18 and HRNet-W48 (Wang et al., 2021b), as well as UPerNet (Xiao et al., 2018) with a Swin-T Transformer backbone (Liu et al., 2021). Table 11 reports consistent and substantial improvement of the mean IoU over the baseline, across all these architectures and the target domains.

Table 11: *Mean IoU (%, ↑) using our self-adaptation integrated with DeepLabv3+ (Chen et al., 2018b) based on a ResNet-50 and ResNet-101 backbone as well as with HRNet-W18, HRNet-W48 (Wang et al., 2021b), and UPerNet (Xiao et al., 2018) with a Swin-T backbone (Liu et al., 2021).* We observe substantial improvements of the segmentation accuracy on all three target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, and IDD) after training on GTA.

Method	*Target domains*			
	CS	BDD	IDD	Mean
DeepLabv3+ ResNet-50 (Baseline)	37.51	35.45	37.50	36.82
Self-adaptation *(ours)*	**46.56**	**43.17**	**44.07**	**44.60**
DeepLabv3+ ResNet-101 (Baseline)	38.19	37.05	38.22	37.82
Self-adaptation *(ours)*	**48.14**	**44.52**	**45.72**	**46.13**
HRNet-W18 (Baseline)	33.08	29.40	32.97	31.82
Self-adaptation *(ours)*	**44.05**	**38.29**	**43.78**	**42.04**
HRNet-W48 (Baseline)	34.66	30.85	34.64	33.38
Self-adaptation *(ours)*	**48.82**	**42.79**	**43.74**	**45.12**
UPerNet Swin-T (Baseline)	39.67	36.04	39.74	38.48
Self-adaptation *(ours)*	**45.04**	**39.77**	**44.33**	**43.05**

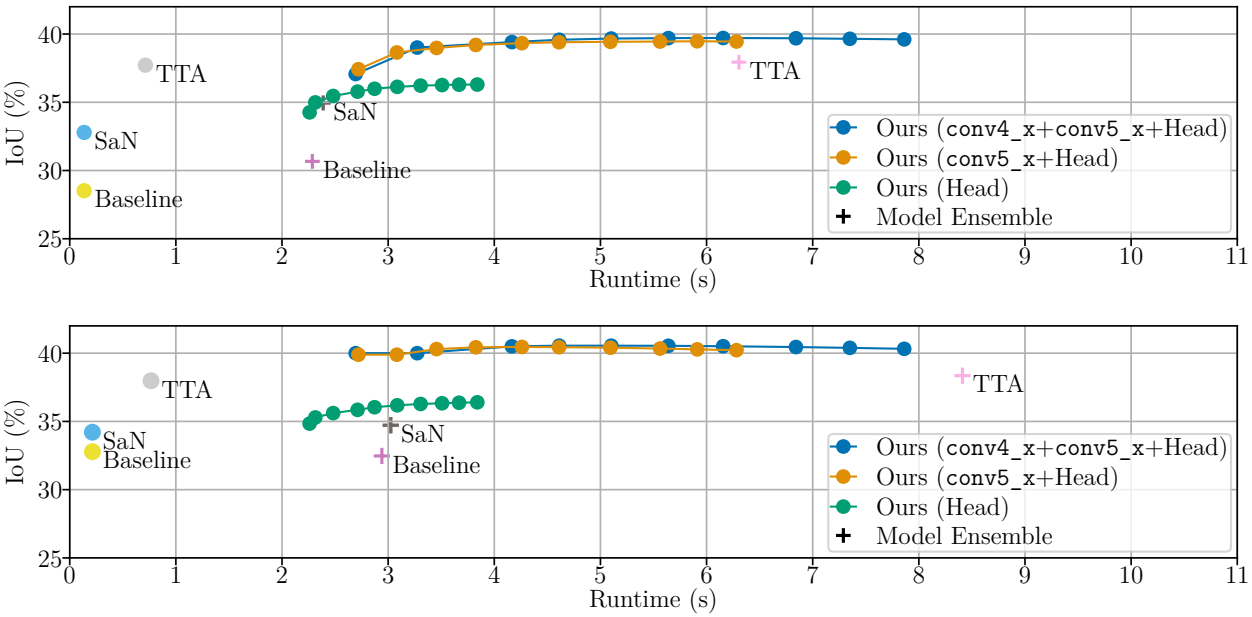

Figure 5: *Runtime-accuracy comparison on GTA → BDD (top) and GTA → IDD (bottom) generalization using ResNet-50.* The curves on this plot trace self-adaptation iterations, *i. e.* the first point corresponds to $N_t = 1$, while the last shows $N_t = 10$. While self-adaptation increases the inference time of the baseline and TTA for the sake of improved accuracy, it is still more efficient and accurate than model ensembles of 10 networks. The choice of the layers for self-adaptation updates (the naming follows He et al., 2016) further provides a favorable runtime-accuracy trade-off. The runtime is computed on a single NVIDIA GeForce RTX 2080 GPU.

B.4 Qualitative examples

We provide additional qualitative results by running inference on three models: ResNet-101 trained on GTA in Fig. 6; ResNet-50 and ResNet-101 trained on SYNTHIA in Figs. 7 and 8, respectively. Similar to our

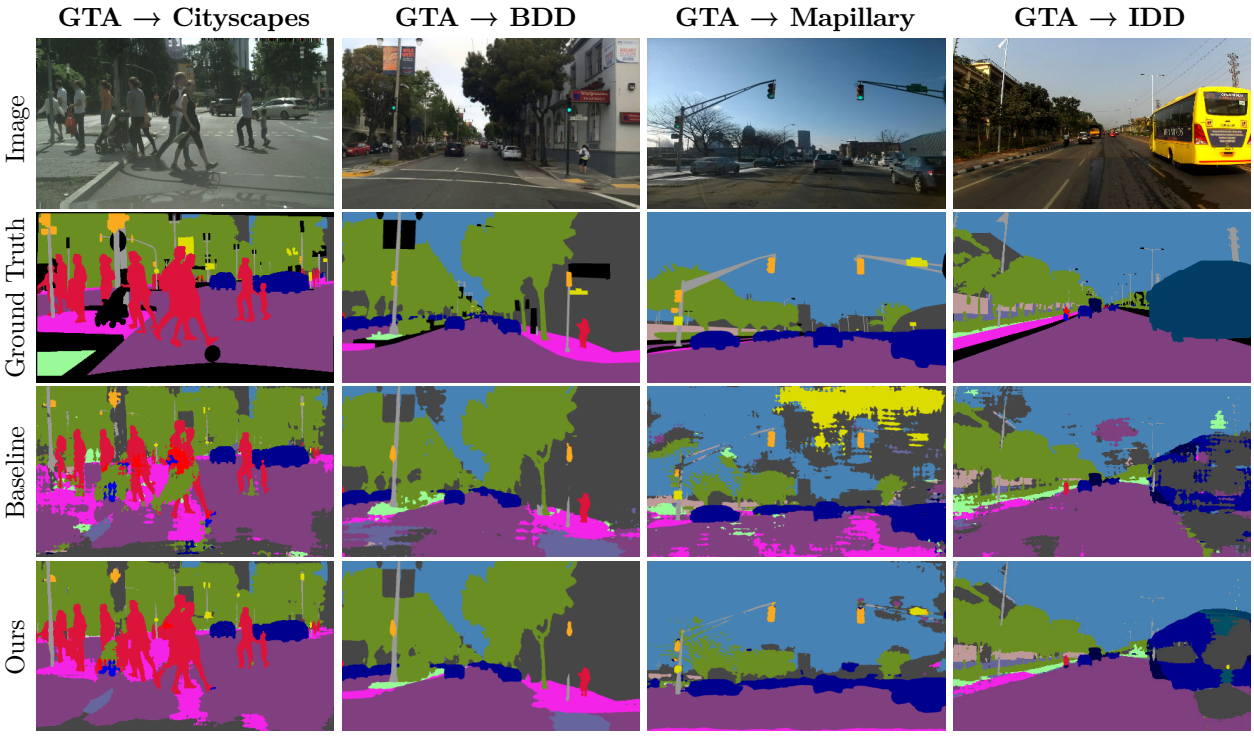

Figure 6: *Qualitative semantic segmentation results for generalization from GTA to Cityscapes, BDD, Mapillary, and IDD* for the ResNet-101 backbone.

observations in Sec. 6.3 (*cf.* main text), our approach exhibits more homogeneous semantic masks with visibly fewer jagged-shaped artifacts than the baseline (*e. g.*, "sidewalk" false positives in Fig. 6). Models with self-adaptation may still struggle with cases of mislabeling regions with an incorrect, but semantically related class. For example, the model often assigns "sidewalk" to the road pixels from BDD and IDD in Figs. 7 and 8. This is an expected outcome if the erroneous labels are already contained in the pseudo labels of the initial prediction, on which self-adaptation relies. These failure cases occur more frequently if the domain shift between the train and the test distributions is more significant, such as between SYNTHIA and BDD, which can lead to poorly calibrated predictions. Since applying SaN alone results in improved calibration (*cf.* Table 2(b)), it alleviates this issue, and hence self-adaptation can cope well with milder domain shift scenarios, as a result. As the examples on Cityscapes and Mapillary in Figs. 7 and 8 show, despite the baseline model exhibiting some degree of this failure mode, our inference method visibly rectifies these errors.

We additionally ran our inference on video sequences and include the results as part of our supplementary material. Confirming our previous analysis of the qualitative results (*cf.* Sec. 6.2), we observe that our approach clearly improves the segmentation quality and removes some of the most pathological failure modes of the baseline (*e. g.*, the lower middle part of the frame area).

B.5 Failure Cases

Conceptually, if the initial semantic prediction is incorrect and confident, which may happen due to imperfect model calibration, such error is likely to end up in the pseudo labels and lead astray the self-adaptation process. The rightmost columns in Figs. 7 and 8 already visualized this failure mode: the baseline assigns large areas of the "road" class to the "sidewalk" category. We have further extended these examples with Fig. 9. Misguided by incorrect pseudo labels, our self-adaptation may exacerbate this issue, *i. e.*, propagate the incorrect label to the areas sharing the same appearance. To gain further insights, we investigated this issue statistically. The histograms in Fig. 10 show relative improvement of our self-adaptive inference strategy *w. r. t.* the baseline in terms of IoU on four validation sets. We conclude that such decrease in segmentation

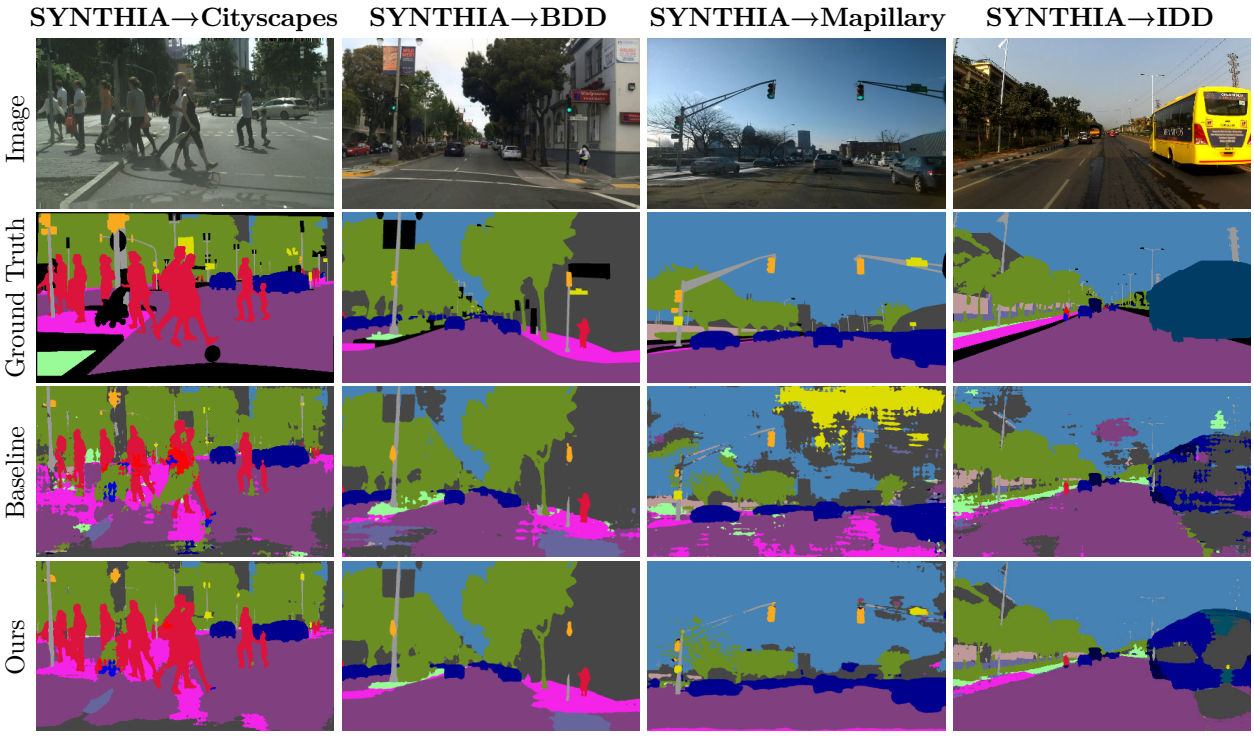

Figure 7: *Qualitative semantic segmentation results for generalization from SYNTHIA to Cityscapes, BDD, Mapillary, and IDD* for the ResNet-50 backbone.

accuracy is actually quite rare: less than 10% of the images, on average, exhibit lower accuracy. In most such cases the accuracy reduces only marginally (by less than 5%), and only a fraction of images – less than 1% on average – deteriorate in accuracy by at most 10%. The overwhelming majority of the image samples benefit from our self-adaptive process, which increases their accuracy by up to 35% IoU compared to the baseline.

C Dataset details

GTA. GTA (Richter et al., 2016) is a street view dataset generated semi-automatically from the computer game Grand Theft Auto V. The dataset consists of 12,403 training images, 6,382 validation images, and 6,181 testing images of resolution 1914 × 1052 with 19 different semantic classes.

SYNTHIA. We use the SYNTHIA-RAND-CITYSCAPES subset of the synthetic dataset SYNTHIA (Ros et al., 2016), which contains 9,400 images, and has 16 semantic classes in common with GTA. Images have a resolution of 1280 × 760 pixels.

WildDash. The WildDash benchmark (Zendel et al., 2018) was developed to evaluate models regarding their robustness for driving scenarios under real-world conditions. It comprises 4,256 images of real-world scenes with a resolution of 1920 × 1080 pixels.

Cityscapes. Cityscapes (Cordts et al., 2016) is an ego-centric street-scene dataset and contains 5,000 high-resolution images with 2048 × 1024 pixels. It is split into 2,975 train, 500 val, and 1,525 test images with 19 semantic classes being annotated.

BDD. BDD (Yu et al., 2020) is a driving video dataset, which also contains semantic labelings with the identical 19 classes as in the other datasets. Images have a resolution of 1280 × 720 pixels. The training, validation, and test sets contain 7,000, 1,000, and 2,000 images, respectively.

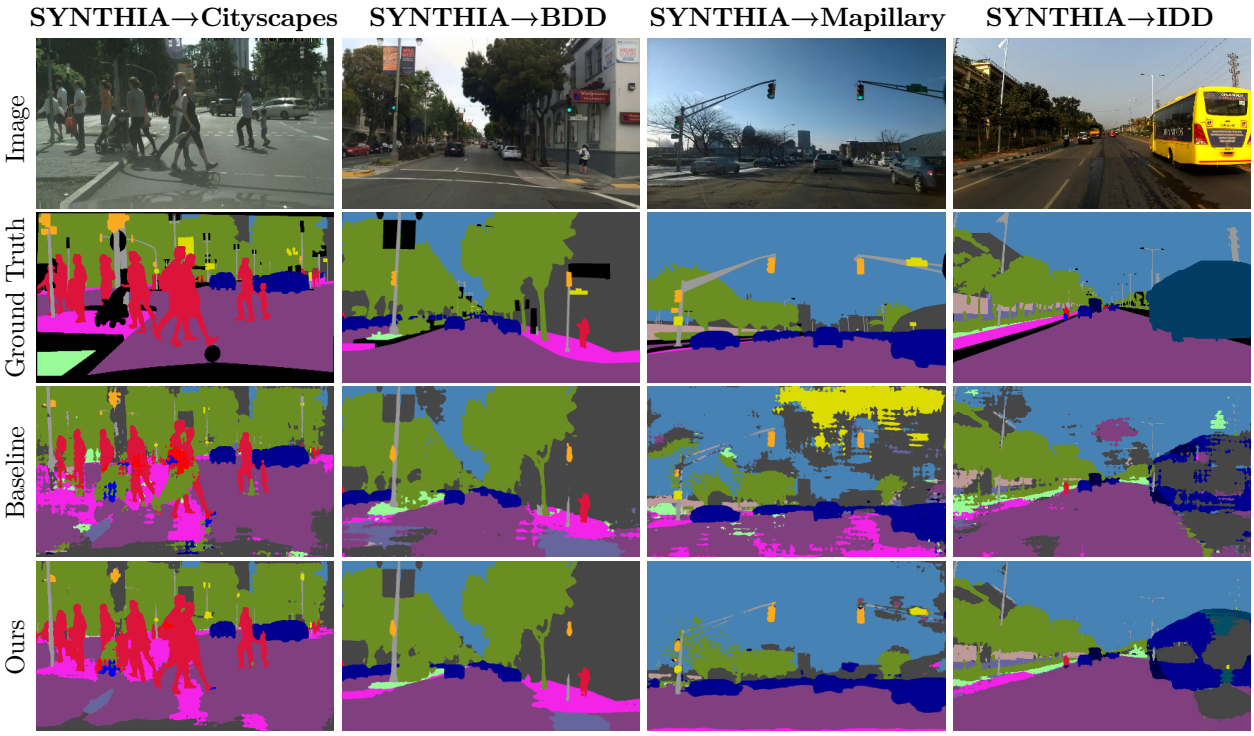

Figure 8: *Qualitative semantic segmentation results for generalization from SYNTHIA to Cityscapes, BDD, Mapillary, and IDD* for the ResNet-101 backbone.

IDD. IDD (Varma et al., 2019) is a dataset for road scene understanding in unstructured environments. It contains 10,003 images annotated with 34 classes even though we only evaluate on the 19 classes overlapping with the other datasets. IDD is split into 6,993 training images, 981 validation images, and 2,029 test images.

Mapillary. Annotations from Mapillary (Neuhold et al., 2017) contain 66 object classes; analogously to IDD we only evaluate on the 19 classes overlapping with the other datasets. The dataset is split into a training set with 18,000 images and a validation set with 2,000 images with a minimum resolution of 1920 $\times$ 1080 pixels.

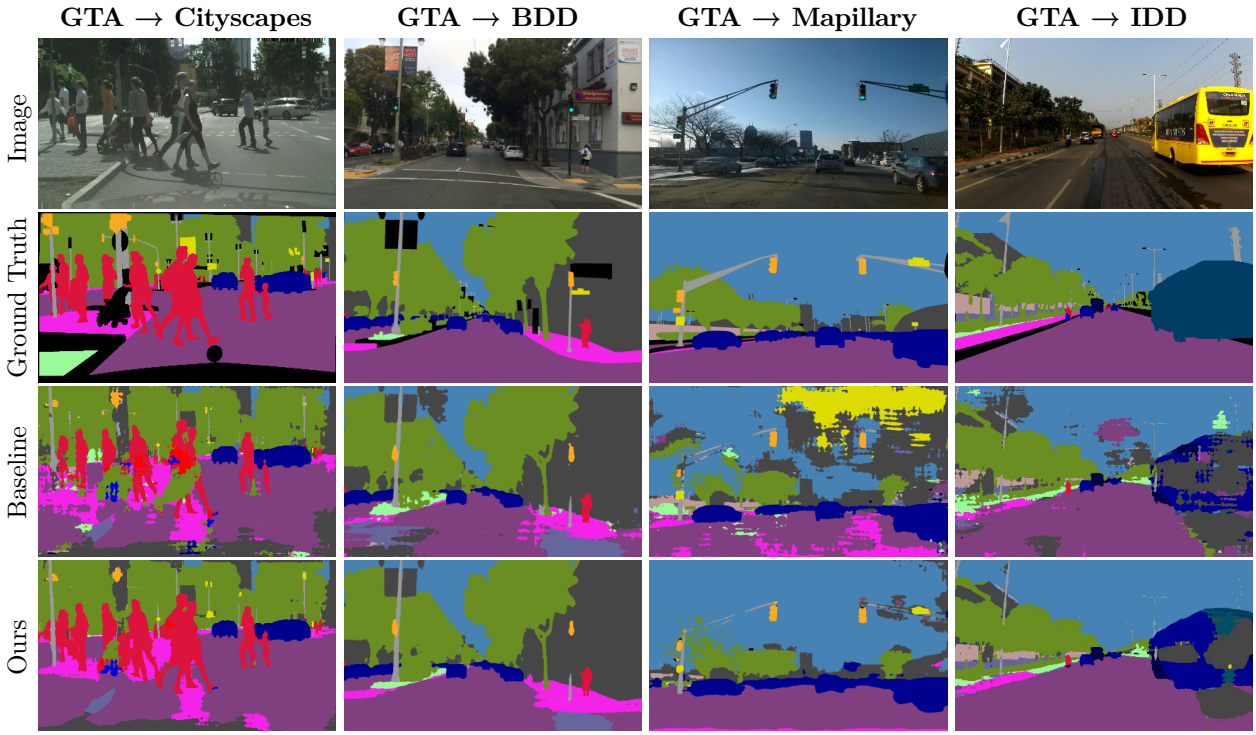

Figure 9: *Failure cases of semantic segmentation for generalization results from GTA to Cityscapes, BDD, Mapillary, and IDD* for the ResNet-50 backbone.

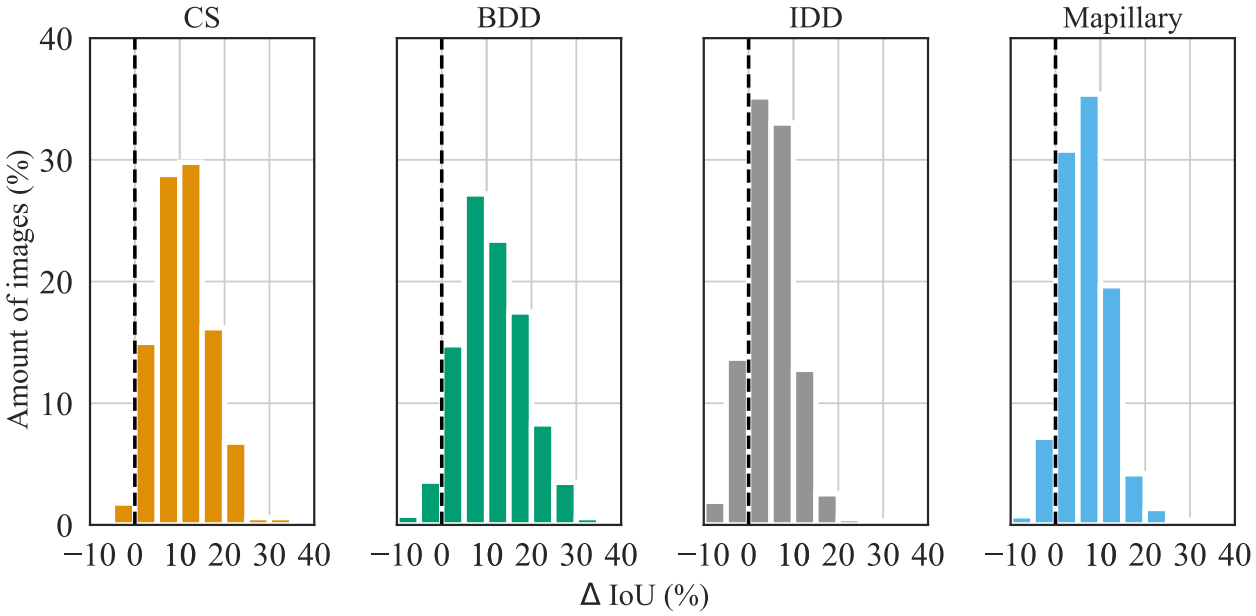

Figure 10: *Empirical distribution of the IoU change of individual images for generalization from source domain (GTA) to target domains (Cityscapes, BDD, IDD and Mapillary)* for the ResNet-50 backbone. We visualize the relative improvement of our self-adaptive inference strategy *w. r. t.* the baseline in terms of accuracy with Δ IoU (%).