On Calibration and Out-of-domain Generalization

Abstract

Out-of-domain (OOD) generalization is a significant challenge for machine learning models. Many techniques have been proposed to overcome this challenge, often focused on learning models with certain invariance properties. In this work, we draw a link between OOD performance and model calibration, arguing that calibration across multiple domains can be viewed as a special case of an invariant representation leading to better OOD generalization. Specifically, we show that under certain conditions, models which achieve *multi-domain calibration* are provably free of spurious correlations. This leads us to propose multi-domain calibration as a measurable and trainable surrogate for the OOD performance of a classifier. We therefore introduce methods that are easy to apply and allow practitioners to improve multi-domain calibration by training or modifying an existing model, leading to better performance on unseen domains. Using five datasets from the recently proposed WILDS OOD benchmark [23], as well as the Colored MNIST dataset [21], we demonstrate that training or tuning models so they are calibrated across multiple domains leads to significantly improved performance on unseen test domains. We believe this intriguing connection between calibration and OOD generalization is promising from both a practical and theoretical point of view.

1   Introduction

Machine learning models have recently displayed impressive success in a plethora of fields [19, 9, 41]. However, as models are typically only trained and tested on in-domain (ID) data, they often fail to generalize to out-of-domain (OOD) data [23]. The problem is especially pressing when deploying machine learning models in the wild, where they are required to perform well under conditions that were not observed during training. For instance, a medical diagnosis system trained on patient data from a few hospitals could fail when deployed in a new hospital.

Many methods have been proposed to improve the OOD generalization of machine learning models. Specifically, there is rapidly growing interest in learning models that display certain invariance properties under distribution shifts and do not rely on spurious correlations in the training data [34, 17, 1]. While highlighting the need for learning robust models, so far these attempts have limited success scaling to realistic high-dimensional data, and in learning truly invariant representations [37, 11, 20].

In this paper, we argue that an alternative and relatively simple approach for learning invariant representations could be achieved through model calibration across multiple domains. Calibration asserts that the probabilities of outcomes predicted by a model match their true probabilities. Our claim is that simultaneous calibration over several domains can be used as an observable indicator for favorable performance on unseen domains. For example, if we take all patients for whom a classifier outputs a probability of 0.9 for being ill, and in one hospital the true probability of illness in these patients is 0.85 while in the other it is 0.95, then we may suspect the classifier relies on spurious correlations. Intuitively, the features which lead the classifier to predict a probability of 0.9 imply different results under different experimental conditions, suggesting that their correlation

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with the label is potentially unstable. Conversely, if the true probabilities in both hospitals match the classifier's output, it may be a sign of its robustness.

Our contributions are as follows: We prove that in Gaussian-linear causal models, under a general-position condition, being concurrently calibrated across a sufficient number of domains guarantees a model has no spurious correlations. We then introduce three methods for encouraging multi-domain calibration in practice. These are, in ascending order of complexity: (i) model selection by a multi-domain calibration score, (ii) robust isotonic regression as a post-processing tool, and (iii) directly optimizing deep nets with a multi-domain calibration objective, based on the method introduced by Kumar et al. [26]. We show that multi-domain calibration achieves the correct invariant classifier in a learning scenario presented by Kamath et al. [20], unlike the objective proposed in Invariant Risk Minimization [1]. Finally, we demonstrate that the proposed approaches succeed on colored MNIST [21] and lead to significant performance gains on the WILDS benchmark datasets [23].

2 Calibration and Invariant Classifiers

2.1 Problem Setting

Consider observable features X, a label Y and an environment (or domain) E with sample spaces $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{E}$ accordingly. We mostly focus on regression and binary classification, therefore $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$. To lighten notation, our definitions will be given for the binary classification setting and we will point out adjustments to regression where necessary. There is no explicit limitation on $|\mathcal{E}|$, but we assume that training data that has been collected from a finite subset of the possible environments $E_{\text{train}} \subset \mathcal{E}$. The number of training environments is denoted by k, and $E_{\text{train}} = \{e_i\}_{i=1}^k \subset \mathcal{E}$, so that our training data is sampled from a distribution $P[X, Y \mid E = e_i] \quad \forall i \in [k]$. Our goal is to learn models that will generalize to new, unseen environments in $\mathcal{E}$.

Ideally, we would like to learn a classifier that is optimal for all environments $\mathcal{E}$. Unfortunately, we only observe data from the limited set E_{train} and even if this set is extremely large, the Bayes optimal classifiers on each environment do not necessarily coincide. Following other recent work [34, 17, 1] we therefore aim for a different goal – learning classifiers whose per-instance output will be stable across environments E, as we explain below.

We assume the data generating process for E, X, Y follows the causal graph in Fig. 1. We differentiate between causal and anti-causal components of X, and further differentiate between the anti-causal variables which are affected by E and those which are unaffected by E, denoted as $X_{\text{ac-spurious}}$ and $X_{\text{ac-non-spurious}}$, respectively. We do not assume to know how to partition X into $X_{\text{causal}}, X_{\text{ac-spurious}}, X_{\text{ac-non-spurious}}$. The main assumptions made in the causal graph in Fig. 1 are that there are no hidden variables, and that there is no edge directly from environment E to the label Y. Such an arrow would imply the conditional distribution of Y given X can be arbitrarily different in an unseen environment E, compared to those present in the training set. Note that for simplicity we do not include arrows from X_{causal} to $X_{\text{ac-spurious}}$ and $X_{\text{ac-non-spurious}}$ but they may be included as well.

Figure 1: Learning in the presence of causal and anti-causal features. Anti-causal features can be either spurious ($X_{\text{ac-spurious}}$), or non-spurious ($X_{\text{ac-non-spurious}}$).

We will say a representation $\Phi(X)$ contains a *spurious correlation* with respect to the environments E and label Y, if $Y \not\perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid \Phi(X)$; this motivates our naming of $X_{\text{ac-spurious}}$ and $X_{\text{ac-non-spurious}}$ in Fig. 1, as $Y \not\perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid X_{\text{ac-spurious}}$ but $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid X_{\text{ac-non-spurious}}$. Similar observations have been made by [17, 1]. Having a spurious correlation implies that the relation between $\Phi(X)$ and Y depends on the environment – it is not transferable nor stable across environments. We will simply consider the output $f(X)$ of a classifier $f : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$ as a representation. The crux of this paper is the observation that having $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid f(X), E = e] = f(X)$ for every value of E, i.e. f being a ***calibrated*** classifier across

all environments, is equivalent up-to a simple transformation to having $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid f(X)$, and thus to f having **_no spurious correlations_** with respect to E. We prove this assertion in section 2.2, and as a demonstration of this principle we prove (section 3) that linear models which are calibrated across a diverse set of environments E are guaranteed to discard $X_{\text{ac-spurious}}$ as viable features for prediction.

2.2 Invariance and Calibration on Multiple Domains

We define calibration, along with a straightforward generalization to the multiple environment setting.

Definition 1. *Let $P[X, Y]$ be a joint distribution over the features and label, and $f : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$ a classifier. Then $f(\mathbf{x})$ is calibrated w.r.t to P if for all $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ in the range of f: $\mathbb{E}_P[Y \mid f(X) = \alpha] = \alpha$. In the multiple environments setting, $f(\mathbf{x})$ is calibrated on E_{train} if for all $e_i \in E_{train}$ and α in the range of f restricted to e_i, $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid f(X) = \alpha, E = e_i] = \alpha$.*

For regression problems, we consider regressors that output estimates for the mean and variance of Y, and say they are calibrated if they match the true values similarly to the definition above. The precise definition can be found in the supplementary material.

We now tie the notion of calibration on multiple environments with OOD generalization, starting with its correspondence with our definition of spurious correlations. Recall that a representation $\Phi(X)$ does not contain spurious correlations if $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid \Phi(X)$. Treating the output $f(X)$ of a classifier as a representation of the data, and considering classifiers satisfying the above conditional independence with respect to training environments, we arrive at a definition of an invariant classifier.

Definition 2. *Let $f : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$. f is an* invariant classifier *w.r.t E_{train} if for all $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ and environments $e_i, e_j \in E_{train}$, where α is in the range of f restricted to each of them:*

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid f(X) = \alpha, E = e_i] = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid f(X) = \alpha, E = e_j]. \tag{1}$$

The correspondence between invariant classifiers and classifiers calibrated on multiple environments:

Lemma 1. *A binary classifier is invariant w.r.t E_{train} if and only if there exists a function $g : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1]$ such that $g \circ f$ is calibrated on all training environments.*

Proof. Assume that the classifier is invariant on E_{train} and let $\hat{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$ be any value in the range of f. Due to invariance, for all $e_i \in E_{\text{train}}$ where $\hat{\alpha}$ is in the range of f restricted to e_i, there must exist $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ such that for all $e_i \in E_{\text{train}}, \mathbb{E}[Y \mid f(X) = \hat{\alpha}, E = e_i] = \alpha$. Setting $g(\hat{\alpha}) = \alpha$ results in a classifier $g \circ f$ that is calibrated on E_{train}. Conversely, if a classifier is calibrated on all E_{train}, then setting g to the identity function shows it is also invariant w.r.t E_{train}. $\qquad\square$

Now, we can note how the above notion of invariance relates to that of Invariant Risk Minimization [1], where invariance of a representation $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{H}$ is linked to a shared classifier $\mathbf{w}^* \circ \Phi$ being optimal on all environments w.r.t a loss $l : [0, 1] \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Under the representation $\Phi(X) = f(X)$, and the cross-entropy loss it turns out that the original IRM definition coincides with Equation (1) [1]. Hence we aim for a similar notion of conditional independence, yet we approach it from the point-of-view of calibration. The calibration view does not depend on the choice of an empirical loss function (e.g. cross-entropy), does not directly involve optimality of the classifier, and is much easier to optimize, leading to different methods of achieving and assessing invariance (as discussed in Section 5). We further note that the original IRM objective was deemed too difficult to optimize by the original IRM authors, leading them to propose an alternative called IRMv1. This alternative however does not capture the full set of required invariances, as shown by [20], whereas we show in section 6.1 that multi-domain calibration does indeed capture all the required invariances.

Having established the connection between calibration on multiple environments and invariance, there are several interesting questions and points to consider:

Calibration and sharpness. Calibration alone is not enough to guarantee that a classifier performs well; on a single environment, always predicting $\mathbb{E}[Y]$ will give a perfectly calibrated classifier. Hence, multi-domain calibration should be combined with some sort of guarantee on accuracy. In the calibration literature, this is often referred to as sharpness. To this end, in Section 5 we will propose regularizing models during training or fine-tuning with Calibration Loss Over Environments (CLOvE). Combining this regularizer with standard empirical loss functions helps balance between sharpness and multi-domain calibration. Even without training a new model, we will propose methods

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[1]See Observation 2 in [20] for a proof.

for model selection and post-processing that are very easy to apply and help improve multi-domain calibration without a significant effect on the sharpness of the models.

Generalization and dependence on $X_{\text{ac-spurious}}$. Suppose that $f(X)$ is calibrated on E_{train}. Under what conditions does this imply it is calibrated on $\mathcal{E}$? It is easy to show that calibration on several environments entails calibration on any distribution which can be expressed as a linear combination of the distributions underlying said environments. However, can we go beyond that? Given a general set $\mathcal{E}$ we would like to know what conditions and how many training environments are required for calibration to generalize. We also wish to understand when does calibration over a finite set of training environments indeed entails a classifier is free of spurious correlations. We now turn to answer these questions in the setting of linear models on Gaussian data.

3 Motivation: a Linear-Gaussian Model

Let us consider data where X is a multivariate Gaussian. Since we will be considering Gaussian data, the set of all environments $\mathcal{E}$ will be parameterized using pairs of real vectors expressing expectations and positive definite matrices of an appropriate dimension expressing covariances: $\mathcal{E} = \{(\mu, \Sigma) \mid \mu \in \mathbb{R}^d, \Sigma \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^d\}$.

For two scenarios ((a) and (b) in Figure 2) we prove that when provided with data from k training environments, where k is linear in the number of features, and the environments satisfy some mild non-degeneracy conditions, any predictor that is calibrated on the training environments will not rely on any of the spurious features $X_{\text{ac-sp}}$, and will also be calibrated on all $e \in \mathcal{E}$.

(a)   (b)

Figure 2: Graphs describing the two cases in our theoretical analysis. We use acronyms in subscripts to lighten notation. (a) All features are anti-causal, some are spurious while others are invariant. (b) Features are either causal and may undergo covariate shift, or are anti-causal and spurious.

In scenario (a), Y is a binary variable drawn from a Bernoulli distribution with parameter $\eta \in [0, 1]$, and observed features are generated conditionally on Y. The features $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ac-ns}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{ns}}}$ are invariant, meaning their conditional distribution given Y is the same for all environments, whereas $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ac-sp}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{sp}}}$ are spurious features, as their distribution may shift between environments, altering their correlation with Y. The data generating process for training environment $i \in [k]$ in Fig. 2(a) is given by:

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w.p } \eta \\ -1 & \text{o.w} \end{cases} \qquad \begin{aligned} X_{\text{ac-ns}} \mid Y = y &\sim \mathcal{N}(y\mu_{\text{ns}}, \Sigma_{\text{ns}}), \\ X_{\text{ac-sp}} \mid Y = y &\sim \mathcal{N}(y\mu_i, \Sigma_i). \end{aligned} \qquad (2)$$

For $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{x}_{\text{ac-ns}}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{ac-sp}}]$ we consider a linear classifier $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}, b) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b)$, where $\sigma : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1]$ is some invertible function (e.g. a sigmoid). Since the mean of spurious features, μ_i, is determined by y, these features can help predict the label in some environments. Yet, these correlations do not carry to all environments, and $f(\mathbf{x})$ might rely on spurious correlations whenever the coefficients in $\mathbf{w}$ corresponding to $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ac-sp}}$ are non-zero. Any such classifier can suffer an arbitrarily high loss in an unseen environment, because a new environment can reverse and magnify the correlations observed in E_{train}. Using these definitions, we may now state our result for this case:

Theorem 1. *Given $k > 2d_{sp}$ training environments where data is generated according to Equation (2) with parameters $\{\mu_i, \Sigma_i\}_{i=1}^k$, we say they lie in general position if for all non-zero $\mathbf{x}_{ac\text{-}sp} \in \mathbb{R}_{sp}^d$:*

$$\dim \left(\text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_i \mathbf{x}_{ac\text{-}sp} + \mu_i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}_{i \in [k]} \right) = d_{sp} + 1.$$

If a linear classifier is calibrated on k training environments which lie in general position, then its coefficients for the features $\mathbf{x}_{ac\text{-}sp}$ are zero. Moreover, the set of training environments that do not lie in general position has measure zero in the set of all possible training environments $\mathcal{E}^k$.

168 As a corollary, we see that calibration on training environments generalizes to calibration on $\mathcal{E}$. The
169 proof of this theorem is given in the supplementary material. The data generating process closely
170 resembles the one considered by [37], who use diagonal covariance matrices.

171 In the second scenario we consider the addition of causal features subject to covariate shift $\mathbf{x}_c \in \mathbb{R}^{d_c}$,
172 as shown in Figure 2b. The covariate shift is induced when the environments E alter the distribution
173 of the causal features $\mathbf{x}_c$ [40]. In this case, we analyze a regression problem since it is amenable to
174 exact analysis. The data generating process for training environment $i \in [k]$ is:

$$X_c \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i^c, \Sigma_i^c); \ Y = \mathbf{w}_c^{*\top}\mathbf{x}_c + \xi, \ \xi \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_y^2)$$
$$X_{\text{ac-sp}} = y\mu_i + \eta, \ \eta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_i). \tag{3}$$

175 For $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{x}_c, \mathbf{x}_{\text{ac-sp}}]$ it turns out that in this case, calibration on multiple domains forces $f(\mathbf{x})$ to
176 discard $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ac-sp}}$, but also forces it to use $\mathbf{w}_c^*$, since it characterizes $P(Y \mid \mathbf{x}_c)$ which is the invariant
177 mechanism in this scenario. The exact statement and proof are in the supplement.

178 **Theorem 2** (informal). *Let $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$ be a linear regressor and assume we have $k >$*
179 $\max\{d_c + 2, d_{sp}\}$ *training environments where data is generated according to Equation (3). Under*
180 *mild non-degeneracy conditions, if the regressor is calibrated across all training environments then*
181 *the coefficients corresponding to X_c equal $\mathbf{w}_c^*$ and those that correspond to $X_{ac\text{-}sp}$ are zero.*

182 Taken together, these results show calibration can generalize across environments, given that the
183 number of environments is approximately the number of spurious features. They also show that
184 for the settings considered here, the relatively stable and well-known notion of calibration implies
185 avoiding spurious correlations.

4 Related Work

187 As discussed in Section 2, multi-domain calibration is an instance of an invariant representation
188 [1]. Many extentions to the above work have been proposed, e.g. [24, 3]. Yet, recent work claims
189 that many of these approaches still fail to find invariant relations in cases of interest [20, 37, 13],
190 where a significant challenge seems to be the gap between what is achieved by the regularization
191 term used in practice and the goal of conditional independence $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp E \mid \Phi(X)$. Gulrajani et al. [11]
192 give a sobering view on methods for OOD generalization, emphasizing the power of ERM and data
193 augmentation, and the challenge of model selection. We claim that compared to the above approaches,
194 multi-domain calibration studied here is a simpler form of invariance. Furthermore, calibration is
195 attractive because there are standard tools to quantify it such as calibration scores [32] and a vast
196 literature on its properties and how it can be obtained [50, 47, 31, 26, 45, 14, 36].

197 Learning models which generalize OOD is a fruitful area of research with many recent developments.
198 Most work focuses on the case of Domain Adaptation where unlabeled samples are available from
199 the target domain, including recent work on OOD calibration [48]. However, important work has
200 also been done on the area of our focus – the so-called "proactive" case [43], where no OOD samples
201 are available whatsoever [28, 17, 38, 34, 39].

202 Calibration also plays an important role in uncertainty estimation for deep networks [12], and recently
203 in fairness, where calibration on subgroups of populations is sought [35]. This has interesting
204 resemblance to the multiple environments calibration we consider here. A more general notion of
205 multi-calibration has also been studied in this context [16], with recent results on sample complexity
206 [42] which may provide tools to finite sample analysis of domain generalization. Finally, multiple
207 methods for training calibrated models [26, 29, 36] have also been proposed. In Section 5 we propose
208 a generalization of [26] to the multi-domain case to achieve multi-domain calibration.

5 Proactively Achieving Multi-Domain Calibration

210 So far we have seen a general argument why calibration can limit spurious correlations, and that
211 in linear-Gaussian models multi-domain calibration guarantees OOD generalization. Now we turn
212 to a more applied perspective and show how can we optimize models so they achieve this type of
213 calibration in practice. We propose three approaches: (1) using calibration measures for model
214 selection, (2) post-processing calibration, and (3) a calibration objective building on a method
215 proposed by [26]. We will assess model calibration by the Expected Calibration Error (*ECE*) of the
216 calibration curve [7], which is the average deviation between model accuracy and model confidence.

5.1 Model selection with average ECE

Model selection is challenging when aimed at OOD generalization. As recently observed by [11], since OOD accuracy is often at odds with In-Domain (ID) accuracy, selection based on ID validation error eliminates the advantage of domain generalization methods over vanilla ERM with data augmentation. We suggest that model selection towards OOD generalization should balance ID validation error with another observable surrogate for the stability of a model to distribution shifts between domains. Motivated by multi-domain calibration, we propose using the average ECE across training environments as this surrogate. Concretely, we propose choosing a model with lowest average ECE from those obtaining ID validation accuracy that is above a certain user-defined threshold.

5.2 Post-Processing Calibration

Practitioners interested in (single-domain) calibrated models often apply post-processing calibration methods to binary classifiers, where the most widely used approach is Isotonic Regression Scaling [50, 31]. Unlike standard calibration problems, in our case there are multiple domains to calibrate over. We give two ways of extending Isotonic Regression to the multi-domain setting, which we term "naive calibration" and "robust calibration". **Naive Calibration** takes predictions of a trained model f on validation data pooled from all domains and fits an isotonic regression z^*. We then report the performance of $z^* \circ f$ on the OOD test set.

Robust Calibration: In a multiple domain setting, Naive calibration may produce a model that is well calibrated on the pooled data, but uncalibrated on individual environments. Since our goal is simultaneous calibration, the following alternative attempts to bound the worst-case miscalibration across training environments. For each environment $e \in E_{\text{train}}$, we denote the number of validation examples we have from it by N_e, and by $f_{e,i}$ the prediction of the model on the i-th example. Then in a similar vein to robust optimization, we fit an isotonic regressor that solves:

$$z^* = \arg\min_z \max_{e \in E_{\text{train}}} \frac{1}{N_e} \sum_{i=1}^{N_e} \left(z(f_{e,i}) - y_i \right)^2. \tag{4}$$

Since Isotonic Regression can be formulated as a quadratic program, and Equation (4) minimizes a pointwise maximum over such objectives, we can cast Eq. 4 as a convex program and solve with standard optimizers. We then evaluate the OOD performance of $z^* \circ f$.

5.3 Learning with Multi-Domain Calibration Error

The above model selection and post-processing methods are easy to apply and (as we will soon see) surprisingly effective. However, both are limited in their power to learn a model that is truly well-calibrated across multiple domains. We now propose a more powerful approach: an objective function that directly penalizes calibration errors on multiple domains during training. Specifically, we propose learning a parameterized classifier $f_\theta(\mathbf{x})$ using a learning rule of the form: $\min_\theta \sum_{e \in E_{\text{train}}} l^e(f_\theta) + \lambda \cdot r(f_\theta)$, where $l : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is an empirical loss function (e.g. cross-entropy) and $l^e(f_\theta)$ denotes the expected loss over data from training environment e, and $r(f_\theta)$ is a regularization term over multiple environments. Using this notation the method proposed by [1] learns a classifier $f = w \circ \Phi$ with a regularizer given by $r(f) = \sum_{e \in E_{\text{train}}} r^e_{\text{IRMv1}}(f)$, where $r^e_{\text{IRMv1}}(f) = \|\nabla_{w|w=1} l^e(w \cdot \Phi)\|^2$.

Our proposed regularizer $r(f_\theta)$ is based on the work of Kumar et al. [26], who introduce a method they call Maximum Mean Calibration Error (MMCE). MMCE harnesses the power of universal kernels to express the ECE as an Integral Probability Measure, and works as follows: For a dataset $D = \{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^m$, denote the confidence of a classifier on the i-th example by $f_{\theta;i} = \max\{f_\theta(x_i), 1 - f_\theta(x_i)\}$ and its correctness by $c_i = \mathbb{1}_{|y_i - f_{\theta;i}| < \frac{1}{2}}$. For a given universal kernel $k : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, MMCE over the dataset D is given by: $r^D_{\text{MMCE}}(f_\theta) = \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i,j \in D} (c_i - f_{\theta;i})(c_j - f_{\theta;j}) k(f_{\theta;i}, f_{\theta;j})$.

Calibration Loss Over Environments (CLOvE). Given multiple training domains with a dataset D^e for each $e \in E_{\text{train}}$, we arrive at our proposed regularizer by aggregating MMCE over them:

$$r_{\text{CLOvE}}(f_\theta) = \sum_{e \in E_{\text{train}}} r^{D_e}_{\text{MMCE}}(f_\theta) \quad \text{(CLOvE)}.$$

A key property of CLOvE is that its minima correspond to perfectly calibrated classifiers over all training domains, a consequence of the correspondence between MMCE and perfect calibration.

264 **Corollary 1** (of Thm. 1 in [26]). *CLOvE is a proper scoring rule. That is, it equals 0 if and only if*
265 $f_\theta(\mathbf{x})$ *is perfectly calibrated for every* $e \in E_{train}$.

266 Additional properties of CLOvE, such as large deviation bounds and relation to ECE, can also be
267 derived; see results in [26] for further details. In the following section, we will see how these
268 properties translate into favorable OOD generalization in practice when training with CLOvE.

6 Experiments and Results

6.1 Colored MNIST and Two-Bit Environments

271 In order to explore the challenges of OOD generalization and how they relate to learning from
272 multiple environments, [1] used the colored MNIST dataset [21]. In this dataset certain digits tend to
273 be colored either red or green in the train set, but the correlation between colors and digits is flipped
274 in the OOD test set, making color a spurious feature. This dataset was then further simplified into
275 "Two-Bit" environments by [20], who proved that the IRMv1 penalty proposed in [1] does *not* in fact
276 achieve the correct invariant solution on the simplified setting. The Two-Bit environments problem
277 setting has two binary features, $X_1, X_2 \in \{-1, 1\}$, corresponding respectively to digit identity ($0 - 4$
278 or $6 - 9$) and digit color in the original colored MNIST. The environments are parameterized by
279 $e = (\alpha, \beta) \in [0, 1]^2$ controlling the correlation of the features with the label:
280 $Y \leftarrow \text{Rad}(0.5)$, $X_1 \leftarrow Y \cdot \text{Rad}(\alpha)$, $X_2 \leftarrow Y \cdot \text{Rad}(\beta)$, where $\text{Rad}(\delta)$ is a random variable
281 equal to -1 with probability δ and 1 with probability $1 - \delta$. At training we are given data from
282 two environments $e_1 = (\alpha, \beta_1), e_2 = (\alpha, \beta_2)$, $\beta_1 \neq \beta_2$. The learned model is tested on a new
283 environment $e_3 = (\alpha, \beta_3)$ with β_3 significantly different from β_1, β_2. Only a model discarding the
284 spurious feature X_2 will maintain its accuracy moving from train to OOD test.
285 **Calibration discards spurious correlation in Two-Bit environments.** Figure 3(a), which we adapt
286 from Figure 6 in Appendix B of [20], illustrates the merits of CLOvE in this setting. The figure shows
287 the space of odd classifiers, i.e. those for which $f(1, -1) = f(-1, 1)$, and $f(1, 1) = f(-1, -1)$ [2].
288 The true invariant classifiers are those for which in addition $f(1, 1) = f(1, -1)$, corresponding to
289 models lying on the diagonal of Figure 3(a), denoted by the dashed gray line. In the figure, we plot in
290 solid lines the classifiers for which $r^e_{\text{IRMv1}}(f)$ equals 0, and in solid circles the classifiers for which
291 $r^e_{\text{MMCE}}(f)$ equals 0 (due to Corollary 1 these coincide with calibrated classifiers on environment e).
292 Note that in this parameterization, the zeros of $r^e_{\text{IRMv1}}(f)$ are lines whereas the zeros of $r^e_{\text{MMCE}}(f)$ are
293 isolated points. Intersections of the zeros of $r^e_{\text{IRMv1}}(f)$ denote solutions for which the corresponding
294 regularization terms are 0 on all respective environments, while intersection of zeros of $r^e_{\text{MMCE}}(f)$
295 are the zeros of $r_{\text{CLOvE}}(f)$. As observed by [20], when $E_{\text{train}} = \{e_1, e_2\}$ the solution denoted by
296 OPT$_{\text{IRMv1}}$ has the lowest empirical loss, yet this solution has a spurious correlation with X_2 and thus
297 will incur a higher loss on the test environment e_3. This means the corresponding IRMv1 learning
298 rule cannot retrieve the optimal invariant classifier. On the other hand, learning with CLOvE does
299 retrieve the optimal invariant classifier in this case, in addition to the trivial, constant classifier. This
300 means CLOvE discards spurious correlations in cases where IRMv1 does not. In the supplement we
301 present experiments reproducing the above scenario on the Colored MNIST dataset.

302 **Model selection based on average ECE** We train models with varying hyperparameters on Colored
303 MNIST using ERM, CLOvE and IRM, (100 models with each algorithm, see supplement for details).
304 We then calculate the ECE and IRMv1 penalties of each model over a held-out validation set from
305 each training environment, and evaluate the average of these against OOD accuracy. Figure 3(b)
306 presents the results across all trained models. The ID ECE penalty displays a very strong correlation
307 across the entire range and every training regime (Pearson corr. = -0.92), while ID IRMv1 behaves
308 more erratically (Pearson corr. = -0.59). Since quantities used for model selection should be agnostic
309 to choices made at training time, we suggest that ID ECE is a better choice for use in model selection.
310 Further results on model selection can be found in the supplement.

6.2 WILDS Benchmarks

312 WILDS is a recently proposed benchmark of in-the-wild distribution shifts from several data modal-
313 ities and applications [3]. Table 1 presents the four WILDS datasets we experiment with, chosen to

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[2] As explained in [20], the optimal solutions are odd so we may focus on them for visualization purposes.
[3] https://wilds.stanford.edu

(a) (b)

Figure 3: (a) Zeros of MMCE and IRMv1 are indicated by circles and by solid lines respectively, in a color corresponding to each environment. The dashed diagonal is the space of invariant solutions. Some zeros intersect across environments, and these are therefore the domain-invariant solutions. Among the domain-invariant solutions, $\text{OPT}_{\text{IRMv1}}$ has the lowest empirical loss when training on e_1, e_2. Hence learning with IRMv1 will prefer this model over $\text{OPT}_{\text{CLOvE}}$, which discards the spurious correlation with X_2. (b) Correspondence between observable criteria and OOD accuracy in CMNIST. Each point corresponds to a model trained with some training algorithm (marked by color) and hyperparameter setting. Size of marker is proportional to the ratio between OOD and ID accuracies.

314 represent diverse OOD generalization scenarios. We follow the models and training algorithms
315 proposed by [23]. In order to perform multi-domain calibration we modify the splits to include a
316 multi-domain validation set whenever possible. See supplemental for details and for additional results
317 on Amazon Reviews. As in [23], we use three different training algorithms to train our models:
318 **ERM**, **IRM**, **DeepCORAL**, and further use **GroupDRO** for one of the datasets, compatible with
319 WILDS version 1.0.0. We apply three calibration approaches described in 5.2 and 5.3 above to each
320 trained model: **naive calibration** and **robust calibration**, which are post-processing methods and
321 therefore applied on the models' outputs; and **CLOvE**, which we apply as a fine-tuning approach to
322 the top layers of each trained model. We train each (algorithm × calibration) combination four times
323 with different random seeds, and report average results and their standard deviations.

Dataset	Type	Label (y)	Input (x)	Domain (e)	Model ($f(x)$)
PovertyMap	Regression	Asset Wealth Index	Satellite Image	Country	ResNet
Camelyon17	Binary	Tumor Tissue	Histopathological Image	Hospital	DenseNet
CivilComments	Binary	Comment Toxicity	Online Comment	Demographics	BERT
FMoW	Multi-class	Land Use Type	Satellite Image	Region	DenseNet

Table 1: Description of each of the datasets used in our WILDS experiments.

324 Table 2 presents our main results on the *FMoW* (left) and *Camelyon17* (right) datasets. On both
325 datasets, robust calibration already improves performance, and CLOvE then significantly outperforms
326 robust calibration, improving performance by 7% and 2.8% (absolute) over the strongest alternative
327 on *FMoW* and *Camelyon17*, respectively. When compared to the original model, the performance of
328 CLOvE is even more striking, with CLOvE outperforming it by more than 10% (absolute) on *FMoW*
329 and 6% on *Camelyon17*. Another appealing property of CLOvE is the low variance exhibited across
330 different runs. Indeed, CLOvE has lower variance than both naive and robust calibration approaches,
331 and has lower variance than the original (uncalibrated) model on 4 of the 6 experiments.

	FMoW				*Camelyon17*			
Algorithm	Orig.	Naive Cal.	Rob. Cal.	CLOvE	Orig.	Naive Cal.	Rob. Cal.	CLOvE
ERM	32.63	33.09	37.19	**44.16**	66.66	71.23	71.22	**75.75**
	(0.016)	(0.021)	(0.035)	(0.018)	(0.144)	(0.089)	(0.086)	(0.049)
DeepCORAL	31.73	31.75	33.86	**40.05**	72.44	75.97	76.8	**79.96**
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.016)	(0.009)	(0.044)	(0.054)	(0.065)	(0.039)
IRM	31.33	31.81	34.41	**42.24**	70.87	73.25	73.4	**73.95**
	(0.012)	(0.016)	(0.015)	(0.014)	(0.068)	(0.066)	(0.069)	(0.061)

Table 2: Left: worst unseen region accuracy on OOD test set in *FMoW*. Right: Accuracy on unseen hospital test set in *Camelyon17*. Orig.: original algorithm, no changes applied. Best OOD result for each domain in **bold**. Standard deviation across runs in brackets, lowest OOD std. is underlined.

Analysis. As can be seen in Figure 4, improvements in ID calibration are associated with better OOD performance. Interestingly, when our post-processing does not improve OOD performance, it is often linked to our inability to substantially improve ID calibration. This is most visible in IRM experiments, where robust calibration is unable to outperform naive calibration both in terms ID calibration and in OOD performance. Finally, we find it interesting that merely post-processing the data (as in robust calibration) can already have such a marked effect on OOD accuracy, though still inferior to actually optimizing for multi-domain calibration as done by CLOvE.

Results on alternative settings. While our theoretical analysis is focused on OOD generalization of classification models, we also experiment with alternative settings from *WILDS* to test the power of ID calibration in improving OOD performance. Specifically, we experiment with the *PovertyMap* dataset, which introduces a regression task, and the *CivilComments* dataset, which introduces a sub-population shift scenario for a binary classifier. As can be seen in Table 3, results on the *CivilComments* dataset (right), show that calibration consistently improves worst-case performance, with an average improvement of 21.5% across training algorithms. While CLOvE does outperform naive and robust calibration on average, the gain is lower in comparison to *FMoW* and *Camelyon17*.

Figure 4: OOD accuracy as a function of average ECE over training domains, for all models on the *Camelyon17* dataset.

In *PovertyMap* (left), the model solves a regression task, so we cannot use CLOvE to improve OOD performance. Still, robust calibration improves performance across all experiments, though by a smaller margin. In the case of models pre-trained by IRM, robust calibration improves OOD performance substantially, outperforming the original model by 0.08% (absolute). Interestingly, calibration also leads to more stable results both in *PovertyMap* and in *CivilComments*, as can be seen in the standard deviation across different model runs.

	PovertyMap				*CivilComments*			
Algorithm	Orig.	Naive Cal.	Rob. Cal.	Algorithm	Orig.	Naive Cal.	Rob. Cal.	CLOvE
ERM	0.832	0.827	**0.834**	ERM	63.65	76.98	78.99	**80.39**
	(0.011)	(0.014)	(0.006)		(0.026)	(0.005)	(0.008)	(0.007)
IRM	0.735	0.812	**0.815**	IRM	40.61	**68.97**	68.92	68.45
	(0.117)	(0.016)	(0.015)		(0.16)	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.02)
DeepCORAL	0.832	0.835	**0.837**	GroupDRO	71.67	76.2	78.54	**80.07**
	(0.011)	(0.009)	(0.012)		(0.007)	(0.013)	(0.008)	(0.003)

Table 3: Left: Pearson correlation r on in-domain (ID) and OOD (unseen countries) test sets in *PovertyMap*. Right: worst-case group accuracy on the test set in the *CivilComments* dataset.

7 Conclusion

In this paper we highlight a novel connection between multi-domain calibration and OOD generalization, arguing that such calibration can be viewed as an invariant representation. We proved in a linear setting that models calibrated on multiple domains are free of spurious correlations and therefore generalize out of domain. We then proposed multi-domain calibration as a practical and measurable surrogate for the OOD performance of a classifier. We demonstrated that actively tuning models to achieve multi-domain calibration significantly improves model performance on unseen test domains, and that in-domain calibration on a validation set is a useful criterion for model selection. A major limitation of our work is that our theoretical findings are limited to linear models in a population (as opposed to finite-sample) setting; we thus consider them more as a motivation rather than a full justification of using multi-domain calibration in practice as we do. A further limitation is that we haven't experimented with fully training a model from scratch using a calibration objective. However, we were encouraged by the strong gains achievable even by post-processing and/or fine-tuning. We look forward to expanding the scope of theoretical understanding of the conditions under which multi-domain calibration can provably guarantee out-of-domain generalization, including the finite-sample setting and the analysis of specific algorithms. We also expect new practical methods, building on our findings, will help push forward the real-world ability to generalize to unseen test domains.

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