Optimized Graph Structures for Calibrating Graph Neural Networks with Out-of-Distribution Nodes

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Abstract

Graph neural networks (GNNs) have achieved remarkable success in tasks such as node classification, link prediction, and graph classification. However, despite their effectiveness, the reliability of GNN predictions remains a major concern, particularly when graphs contain out-of-distribution (OOD) nodes. To date, the calibration of GNNs in the presence of OOD nodes remains largely underexplored. Our empirical studies reveal that the calibration problem becomes significantly more complex in the presence of OOD nodes, and existing calibration methods are notably less effective in such scenarios. Recently, graph structure learning (GSL), a family of data-centric learning approaches, has shown promise in mitigating the adverse effects of noisy information in graph topology by jointly optimizing the graph structure and GNN training. However, current GSL methods do not explicitly address the calibration challenges posed by OOD nodes. To tackle this challenge, we propose a novel framework called Graph Calibration via Structure Optimization (GCSO) to calibrate GNNs in the presence of OOD nodes. Our empirical findings suggest that reducing the weights of edges connecting in-distribution (ID) and OOD nodes can effectively alleviate the calibration issue. However, identifying such edges and determining their appropriate weights is challenging due to the unknown distribution of OOD nodes. To address this, GCSO introduces an iterative edge-sampling mechanism that captures the topological information of the graph and formulates the structure learning process as a Markov Decision Process (MDP). We then leverage an actor–critic method to dynamically adjust edge weights and evaluate their impact on target node predictions. Additionally, we design a tailored reward signal to guide the policy function toward an optimal adaptive graph structure that minimizes the influence of OOD nodes. Notably, the optimized graph structure can be seamlessly integrated with existing temperature scaling–based calibration techniques for further performance gains. Experimental results on benchmark datasets demonstrate that our method significantly reduces the expected calibration error while maintaining competitive accuracy.

1 Introduction

Graph neural networks (GNNs) have proven to be effective for processing graph-structured data, which is prevalent in real-world applications such as social networks, traffic systems, and financial networks. Despite their remarkable success in tasks like node classification, link prediction, and graph classification, the reliability of GNNs has become an increasing concern within the machine learning community. A foundational study (Guo et al., 2017) introduced the expected calibration error (ECE) to quantify the discrepancy between a model's predictive confidence and the actual likelihood of correctness. More recent works (Wang et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2022; Teixeira et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2024b) have observed that GNNs often suffer from underconfidence in their predictions.

Existing GNN calibration methods (Wang et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2022; Fang et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2024)primarily focus on *clean* graphs, where all nodes are assumed to come from the same distribution. However, real-world graphs often contain out-of-distribution (OOD) nodes (Zhao et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2022; Song & Wang, 2022). For instance, users in social networks may be connected not only to family and friends but also to strangers or even online scammers.

When a graph includes OOD nodes, the calibration of GNNs tends to deteriorate. As illustrated in Fig. 1, we designate nodes from specific classes (e.g., the last two classes in Cora (Yang et al., 2016)) as OOD nodes, while treating the remaining nodes as in-distribution (ID) nodes. We then perform node classification using GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) across several graph benchmark datasets and compare the ECE in scenarios with and without OOD nodes. The results indicate that the presence of OOD nodes leads to an increase in ECE. Moreover, the calibration issue becomes more nuanced in the OOD setting. As shown in Fig. 2, unlike the general underconfidence observed in GNNs on clean graphs (Wang et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2022), GNNs in OOD scenarios tend to be overconfident on some nodes and underconfident on others. Our experiments further demonstrate that existing graph calibration methods become less effective in the presence of OOD nodes.

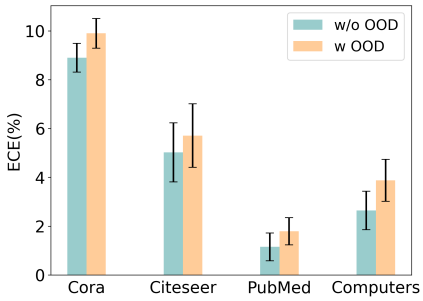
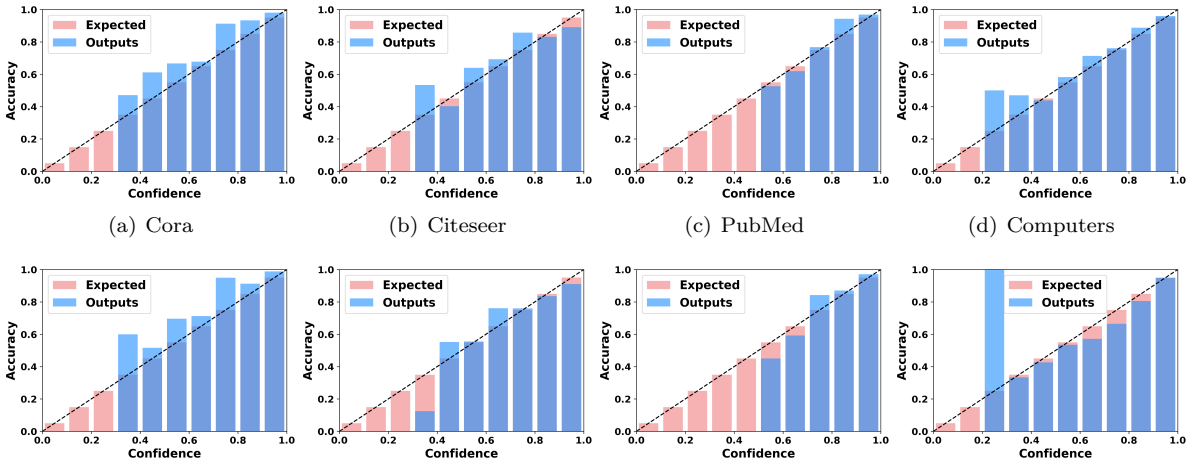


Figure 1: The expected calibration error (ECE) of GCN on graphs with and without OOD nodes.

Recently, graph structure learning (GSL) (Wu et al., 2022; Zou et al., 2023) has shown promising results in mitigating the adverse effects of potential flaws in graph topology, such as redundant, incorrect, or missing connections, by optimizing the graph structure. Yang et al. (Yang et al., 2024a) proposed the Data-centric Graph Calibration (DCGC) framework, which reduces calibration error by modifying the graph structure and assigning higher weights to decisive and homophilic edges. However, this approach does not explicitly consider out-of-distribution (OOD) scenarios. To address calibration in the presence of OOD nodes, Shi et al. (Shi et al., 2023) employed deep Q-learning (Mnih et al., 2013) to calibrate graphs containing OOD nodes. While their method leverages reinforcement learning to modify the graph, it assigns fixed weights to the selected edges, and the values of these weights must be determined through prior knowledge or multiple trials, without accounting for variations in the topological structure. Ideally, edge weights should dynamically adapt based on the distribution of OOD nodes. This limitation may lead to suboptimal calibration performance.

Inspired by prior works (Yang et al., 2024a; Shi et al., 2023) that improve GNN calibration by reweighting edges, we conduct an empirical study and find that calibration issues can be alleviated to some extent by adjusting the weights of edges connected to OOD nodes. However, developing adaptive edge weights that account for the adverse effects of OOD nodes is a non-trivial problem. To address this challenge, we propose a novel framework called Graph Calibration via Structure Optimization (GCSO), which calibrates GNNs through optimized adaptive graph structures. Our approach is built upon the actor–critic paradigm. Specifically, we designate labeled nodes as target nodes and sample their adjacent edges. To guide the selection of informative edges, we introduce a novel iterative strategy based on a predefined discrepancy score, formulating the process as a Markov Decision Process (MDP). We then leverage the actor–critic paradigm to dynamically assess the impact of adjusted edge weights on the target nodes. In particular, we adopt Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient (DDPG) (Lillicrap et al., 2016) to generate fine-grained, topology-aware edge weights. In addition, we design a novel reward signal to guide the optimization of edge weights. The reward signal consists of two components: an indicator function and an entropy regularization term for the target nodes. The indicator function aims to preserve node classification accuracy under the optimized graph structure, while the entropy term regularizes the logit distribution of the target nodes for calibration purposes. Notably, the optimized adaptive graph structure can be seamlessly integrated with existing post-hoc calibration methods to further improve calibration performance in downstream tasks. Furthermore, our empirical study suggests that the learned graph structure yields a more distinct edge weight distribution between ID and OOD nodes compared to prior data-centric methods (e.g., DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a)). In addition, the learned edge weights are automatically adaptive to the distribution of OOD nodes, eliminating the need for predefined values as required in prior work (Shi et al., 2023). The contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- We propose Graph Calibration via Structure Optimization (GCSO) to enhance the calibration of graph neural networks in the presence of OOD nodes. Our approach introduces a novel edge iteration method which is formulated as the Markov Decision Process (MDP). Additionally, A new reward



(a) Cora (b) Citeseer (c) PubMed (d) Computers

(e) Cora (f) Citeseer (g) PubMed (h) Computers

Figure 2: Reliability diagrams of GCN on without OOD nodes ((a)-(d)) and with OOD nodes ((e)-(h)). The results suggest that the calibration issue (i.e., overconfidence or underconfidence) is more complicated with the presence of OOD nodes. Ideally, in a well-calibrated network, accuracy should align with confidence, meaning the height of the blue bars (accuracy) should be as close as possible to the height of the red bars (confidence). When the blue bar is taller than the red bar, it indicates underconfidence. Conversely, if the blue bar is shorter than the red bar, it indicates overconfidence.

signal is designed to guide the policy function to generate the optimized adaptive graph structure that enhances calibration performance.

- Our method can be seamlessly integrated with the existing post-hoc calibration methods with the adaptive and topology-aware graph structure. Extensive experiments demonstrate that our method can outperform the baseline methods, achieving promising performance in the calibration of the GNNs when the graph contains OOD nodes.
- Experimental results further reveal that the learned edge weights are transferable, offering benefits in graph learning across various GNN architectures. Specifically, our optimized graph structure can enhance the performance in tasks such as node classification and OOD detection.

2 Related Works

Neural Network Calibration. The pursuit of developing reliable and trustworthy models has attracted significant attention from researchers, extending into the domain of graph neural networks (GNNs). Guo et al. (Guo et al., 2017) first introduced calibration error to measure the alignment between predictive confidence and accuracy in deep neural networks. Since then, extensive research (Mukhoti et al., 2020; Ghosh et al., 2022; Tao et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022; 2024; Tang et al., 2024) has been devoted to improving the calibration of neural networks. Recent work by Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2021) applies post-hoc calibration to the logits of GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) to obtain calibrated predictions. Uncertainty estimation methods (Lakshminarayanan et al., 2017; Malinin & Gales, 2018) also contribute to improved calibration by modeling the predictive distribution over labels. Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2022) proposed the GCL loss to mitigate the underconfidence issue of GNNs in an end-to-end manner. In addition, GATS (Hsu et al., 2022) was designed to account for influential factors affecting GNN calibration. Fang et al. (Fang et al., 2024) highlighted that the ability of GNNs to distinguish between correct and incorrect predictions is crucial for achieving well-calibrated outcomes, and proposed a simple yet effective discriminative calibration model for GNNs. Tang et al. (Tang et al., 2024) provided theoretical insights into the role of node-wise similarity in GNN calibration and proposed a novel framework that leverages similarity at both global and local levels. Yang et al. (Yang et al., 2024b) identified a key limitation in existing GNN calibration methods, which predominantly focus on the highest logit while ignoring the full spectrum of prediction probabilities.

To address this issue, they proposed the Balanced Calibrated Graph Neural Network (BCGNN), which aims to achieve balanced calibration between overconfidence and underconfidence, supported by solid theoretical justification. Unlike post-hoc methods that adjust temperature parameters, Yang et al. (Yang et al., 2024a) approached calibration from a data-centric perspective by modifying graph structures and assigning larger weights to decisive and homophilic edges to reduce calibration error. Shi et al. (Shi et al., 2023) further investigated calibration in graphs containing OOD nodes and proposed a framework called GERDQ. However, there are fundamental differences between our work and GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023). First, we introduce a novel edge iteration approach to better capture graph topology. Second, while GERDQ also calibrates graphs by reweighting edges, it assigns fixed weights to adjusted edges without considering structural variations (e.g., the distribution of OOD nodes). In contrast, our method generates fine-grained, adaptive edge weights that adapt to the graph structure. Finally, we design a new reward function to guide the optimization of graph structure, ensuring both improved node classification accuracy and enhanced calibration performance.

Graph Structure Learning. Graph Structure Learning (GSL) aims to address graphs with unreliable, low-quality, or noisy structures—such as redundant or incomplete edges—by learning an optimized topology. To date, extensive research has been conducted in this field. Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2022) introduced a kernelized Gumbel-Softmax operator to efficiently approximate discrete latent structures among data points and proposed a transformer-based model to learn optimal graph topology from node features and labels. To address the lack of robustness and interpretability in existing GSL methods, Zou et al. (Zou et al., 2023) proposed the SE-GSL framework, which explicitly captures the hierarchical semantics of graphs and enhances the robustness of mainstream GNN approaches against noisy and heterophilous structures. To reduce the reliance of GSL methods on label information, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2022) introduced the Structure Bootstrapping Contrastive Learning framework (SUBLIME), a novel unsupervised approach that leverages self-supervised contrastive learning to optimize graph structure. While prior works mainly focus on clean graphs, our approach aims to learn an optimized, adaptive graph structure for calibrating GNNs in the presence of OOD nodes.

Reinforcement Learning on Graphs. The rapid development of reinforcement learning (RL) across various domains has motivated researchers to explore novel RL-based methods for addressing graph-related problems, such as neighborhood detection, information aggregation, and adversarial attacks. GraphNAS (Gao et al., 2019) designs a search space that includes sampling functions, aggregation functions, and gating mechanisms, and employs RL to search for optimal graph neural architectures. Policy-GNN (Lai et al., 2020) adaptively determines the number of aggregation steps for each node via deep Q-learning (Mnih et al., 2013). RL-Explainer (Shan et al., 2021) and GFlowExplainer (Li et al., 2023) adopt off-policy reinforcement learning methods for graph explanation.

Graph Learning with OOD. Most graph learning methods are built on the assumption that training and testing data are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.). Song et al. (Song & Wang, 2022) first introduced graph learning with OOD nodes and developed the OODGAT framework to jointly perform node classification and OOD node detection. The core idea of OODGAT is to identify OOD nodes and reduce the connections between ID and OOD nodes. Another line of work focuses on graph OOD detection. GNNSAFE (Wu et al., 2023) performs OOD node detection via a learning-free energy-based belief propagation scheme. Yang et al. (Yang et al., 2024c) further proposed NODESAFE to address the susceptibility of GNNSAFE to unbounded negative energy scores and logit shifts. Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2025) utilized a unique implicit adversarial training paradigm for graph OOD detection. In GPN (Stadler et al., 2021), OOD node detection is achieved through uncertainty estimation. GraphDE (Li et al., 2022), a probabilistic generative framework, jointly performs graph debiased learning and OOD node detection.

3 Preliminary

3.1 Problem Formulation

We first present the problem formulation of our study. Consider an attributed graph $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{X}\}$, where the finite node set is denoted by $\mathcal{V} = \{i \mid 1 \leq i \leq N\}$, and the edge set is denoted by $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$. Here, N is the total number of nodes in the graph, and the feature matrix is denoted by $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$, where d is

the dimensionality of node features. The graph structure can be represented by a binary adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \{0,1\}^{N \times N}$. In graph learning with out-of-distribution (OOD) nodes, the node set can be partitioned into an in-distribution (ID) node set and an OOD node set, i.e., $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{V}_{\text{ID}} \cup \mathcal{V}_{\text{OOD}}$. The features of OOD nodes are sampled from a different distribution than those of ID nodes, i.e., $P(X_{\text{OOD}}) \neq P(X_{\text{ID}})$. The label space for ID nodes is $Y = \{1, 2, \cdots, K\}$, while OOD nodes are assumed not to belong to any of these categories, and their labels are unknown. In semi-supervised graph learning, the ID node set can be further divided into labeled and unlabeled subsets, i.e., $\mathcal{V}_{\text{ID}} = \mathcal{V}_{\text{ID}}^{l} \cup \mathcal{V}_{\text{ID}}^{ul}$. The goal of standard semi-supervised graph learning is to learn a classifier $f : (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) \to \tilde{Y}$ that maps node features and graph structure to predicted labels $\tilde{Y}$. However, the presence of unknown OOD nodes makes this task more challenging. Effectively mitigating the negative impact of OOD nodes is therefore a key challenge in semi-supervised graph learning.

In our study, the expected calibration error (ECE) is used as a primary evaluation metric. Following prior work (Guo et al., 2017), predictions are partitioned into M equally spaced confidence intervals $(B_1, B_2, \cdots, B_M)$, where $B_m = \left\{ i \in \mathcal{V} \mid \frac{m-1}{M} < \tilde{p}_i \leq \frac{m}{M} \right\}$ and $\tilde{p}_i$ denotes the predictive confidence of node i. The expected calibration error (ECE) is then defined as $\text{ECE} = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{|B_m|}{|\mathcal{V}|} |\text{acc}(B_m) - \text{conf}(B_m)|$, where $\text{acc}(B_m) = \frac{1}{|B_m|} \sum_{i \in B_m} \mathbb{1}(\tilde{y}_i = y_i)$, $\text{conf}(B_m) = \frac{1}{|B_m|} \sum_{i \in B_m} \tilde{p}_i$.

3.2 Deep Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement learning plays an important role in decision-making processes, and one of its representative frameworks is the Markov Decision Process (MDP). A typical MDP can be formulated as $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, P, r, \gamma, \rho_0)$, where $\mathcal{S}$ denotes the state space, $\mathcal{A}$ denotes the action space, $P(s' \mid s, a)$ is the state transition probability, r is the reward function, $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ is the discount factor, and ρ_0 is the initial state distribution over $\mathcal{S}$. The goal of off-policy reinforcement learning is to learn a policy $\pi(a \mid s)$ that maximizes the expected discounted cumulative reward, $J_\pi = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r(s_t, a_t)\right]$, by training on data generated from a different behavior policy rather than the target policy. One of the most well-known off-policy methods in deep reinforcement learning is deep Q-learning (Mnih et al., 2013; Van Hasselt et al., 2016). The basic idea of deep Q-learning is to approximate the action-value function $Q(s, a)$ using deep neural networks. The policy is then derived by selecting the action that maximizes the estimated Q-value $a = \arg\max_a Q(s, a) = \arg\max_a \mathbb{E}_{s' \sim P(\cdot \mid s, a)} \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') \right]$.

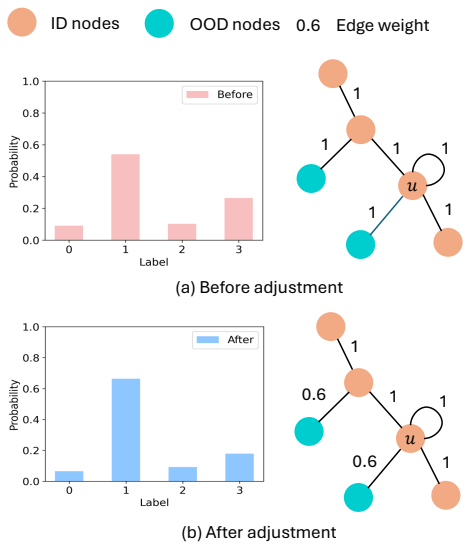


Figure 3: The change of logit distribution before and after adjustment of edge weight. The result is yielded by GCN on Cora.

Apart from Q-value–based methods, which obtain actions implicitly from the Q-function, policy gradient methods (Haarnoja et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017; Cobbe et al., 2021; Barth-Maron et al., 2018; Tkachenko, 2015; Silver et al., 2014b; Mnih et al., 2016) instead aim to learn the policy directly via a parameterized function $\pi_\theta(a \mid s)$. Similar to deep Q-learning (Mnih et al., 2013; Van Hasselt et al., 2016), these methods update the parameter θ of the policy function to maximize the expected discounted cumulative reward. Moreover, modern off-policy policy gradient methods (Haarnoja et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017; Cobbe et al., 2021; Barth-Maron et al., 2018; Tkachenko, 2015) adopt the actor–critic framework, which models both the policy and the Q-function to achieve improved learning efficiency and convergence. The parameter θ of the policy function can be updated according to the Policy Gradient Theorem (Sutton et al., 1999):

$$\nabla_\theta J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\pi[\nabla\theta \log \pi(a \mid s, \theta), Q_\pi(s, a)]. \tag{1}$$

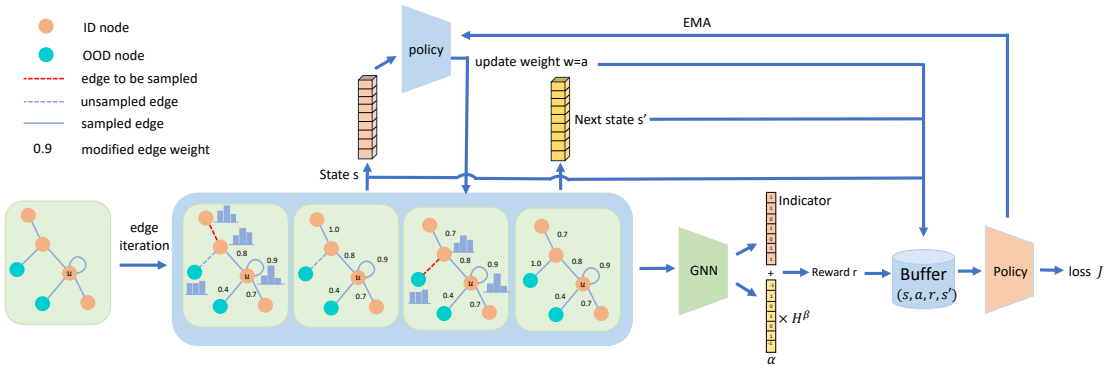


Figure 4: An illustration of our proposed GCSO framework. The method consists of four steps. First, we iteratively traverse adjacent edges from a candidate edge set. Initially, only self-loop edges are considered. At each step, a new edge is sampled from the subgraph without replacement according to a discrepancy score, and a corresponding state is formed. Second, the adjusted edge weight is computed based on the current state and assigned to the newly sampled edge. Next, a reward r is obtained from the GNN with the updated edge weight, and a new state is formed accordingly. The transition tuple is then stored in the replay buffer. Finally, we adopt the DDPG method to train the policy function.

Table 1: Comparison between GCN with original and modified edge weights in terms of node classification accuracy (Acc%)↑ and expected calibration error (ECE%)↓. The experiments are repeated 10 times and the average results are reported. The bold represents the best results.

Edge weight	Cora		Citeseer		PubMed		CS		Computers		Arxiv	
	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE
Original	84.18	9.90	71.57	5.41	92.11	1.89	91.96	2.97	90.81	3.42	42.47	6.14
Modified	**84.50**	**9.14**	**71.75**	**4.98**	**92.24**	**1.27**	**92.68**	**2.73**	**91.07**	**3.02**	**42.93**	**5.35**

4 Empirical Study

In this section, we investigate whether the calibration error of GNNs can be reduced by adjusting edge weights in graphs that include out-of-distribution (OOD) nodes. Following previous works (Zhao et al., 2020; Stadler et al., 2021), we partition the nodes into ID and OOD categories and adopt GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) as the target model. Assuming that the labels and distributions of all nodes are known, we manually modify the weights of edges connected to OOD nodes (e.g., reducing them from 1.0 to 0.6). Experiments are conducted on six benchmark datasets, with details provided in Table 5. The results in Table 1 show that reducing the weights of edges linked to OOD nodes effectively decreases the calibration error while maintaining comparable node classification accuracy relative to using the original edge weights. Our intuition is that adjusting edge weights regularizes the entropy of node predictions, thereby altering the model's confidence without sacrificing accuracy. To validate this hypothesis, we examine the output distributions of GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) on the Cora dataset (Yang et al., 2016) before and after modifying the edge weights. As shown in Fig. 3, the results indicate a slight shift in predictive confidence, while the predicted labels remain unchanged. These findings motivate us to design new methods for learning edge weights that improve the calibration of GNNs in the presence of OOD nodes.

5 Methodology

In this section, we provide an overview of our framework. We first introduce the formulation of the edge iteration process and define the key components of our method, including the state, action, and reward. We then present the details of the training pipeline. Finally, we discuss our method and provide an analysis of its time complexity.

5.1 Iterative Edge Sampling and Re-weighting

We first construct a candidate node set $\mathcal{I}$ by sampling from the node set $\mathcal{V}$. For each target node $u \in \mathcal{I}$, candidate edges are sampled from its adjacent edges, and the resulting edge set is denoted as $\mathcal{E}^u = \{e_0^u, e_1^u, \cdots, e_{k-1}^u\}$. Specifically, e_0^u represents the self-loop edge of node u. During the iteration, an edge is sampled from the candidate edge set, and its weight is adjusted accordingly. At time step $t = 0$, only the self-loop edge e_0^u is considered for reweighting. From time step $t-1$ to t, a new edge is selected from $\mathcal{E}^u$. In our framework, the iterative edge sampling and reweighting process is formulated as a Markov Decision Process (MDP), where the definitions of state, action, and reward are described as follows.

State. The state $s_t \in \mathcal{S}$ at time step t in our framework is defined as:

$$s_t = h(s_{t-1}, f_{e_t}), \tag{2}$$

where f_e denotes the feature of edge e, and h is a function that maps the previous state and the new edge feature to the updated state. We define the edge feature as the average of the features of the two nodes connected by edge e. At time step $t = 0$, $s_0 = \mathbf{X}_u$.

In our study, we adopt a moving average scheme to construct the state. Specifically, the state at time step t is given by:

$$s_t = \lambda f_{e_t} + (1 - \lambda) s_{t-1}, \tag{3}$$

where λ is a hyperparameter that controls the contribution of the new edge feature to the state.

In each iteration, a new edge is selected from the candidate edge set $\mathcal{E}^u$ according to a discrepancy score δ. The discrepancy score δ measures the correlation between an adjacent edge e^u and the target node u. It is defined as:

$$\delta := \frac{1}{2} \left(\mathrm{KL}(z_1 \parallel z_u) + \mathrm{KL}(z_2 \parallel z_u) \right), \tag{4}$$

where z_1, z_2, and z_u denote the logit distributions of the two nodes connected by edge e^u and the target node u, respectively. KL denotes the Kullback–Leibler divergence.

Intuitively, the discrepancy score increases when an edge connects to an out-of-distribution (OOD) node whose logit distribution deviates from that of in-distribution (ID) nodes. During each iteration, as the policy function generates new edge weights, the logit distributions of the nodes are updated, and the edge with the lowest discrepancy score is selected from the candidate edge set. Note that edge selection is performed via sampling without replacement, and only the discrepancy scores of unsampled edges are considered for comparison. This selection strategy is motivated by the importance of node similarity in calibration. By sampling edges based on their discrepancy scores, the method can better isolate the effects of nodes with varying degrees of similarity on the calibration of the target node, thereby facilitating more stable and efficient training convergence.

Action. In our method, the action $a \in \mathcal{A}$ taken for each newly sampled edge is to adjust its weight. Since the action space is continuous, i.e., $\mathcal{A} \subseteq (0, 1]$, we adopt a policy function to generate the adjusted edge weight based on the state s_t. At time step t, the edge weight w_{e_t} for edge e_t is given by:

$$w_{e_t} = \pi(s_t \mid \theta^\pi), \tag{5}$$

where $\pi(\cdot \mid \theta^\pi)$ denotes the policy function, which can be implemented as a neural network with a Sigmoid activation function in the final layer to ensure that the output lies within $(0, 1]$.

Reward. The reward signal r is designed to encourage the policy function to generate edge weights that regularize the logit distribution of the target nodes. To determine whether a node is overconfident or underconfident, we evaluate the calibration error on validation nodes and compute $\mathrm{acc}(B_m)$ and $\mathrm{conf}(B_m)$ for each bin during training. If the predictive probability of the target node falls into a specific bin m, the reward is defined as

$$r(s, a) = \mathbb{1}(\tilde{y}_i = y_i) + \alpha H_i^\beta, \tag{6}$$

where

$$\begin{cases} \alpha = +1, \beta = 1 & \text{if } \tilde{y}_i = y_i \text{ and } \mathrm{acc}(B_m) < \mathrm{conf}(B_m) \\ \alpha = -1, \beta = 1 & \text{if } \tilde{y}_i = y_i \text{ and } \mathrm{acc}(B_m) > \mathrm{conf}(B_m) \\ \alpha = 0, \beta = 0 & \text{if } \tilde{y}_i = y_i \text{ and } \mathrm{acc}(B_m) = \mathrm{conf}(B_m) \\ \alpha = 1, \beta = 1 & \text{if } \tilde{y}_i \neq y_i \end{cases} \tag{7}$$

where $\tilde{y}_i$ is the predicted label for node i generated by the GNN backbone, and y_i is the ground-truth label. H_i denotes the entropy of the target node i.

The specialized reward signal aims to calibrate the graph neural network by implicitly regularizing the logit distribution. When the target node is correctly predicted and the corresponding accuracy is lower than the confidence, the reward is defined as $r = 1 + H$. An increased reward enlarges the entropy, making the logit distribution less concentrated (e.g., reducing confidence). When the corresponding accuracy exceeds the confidence, the reward becomes $r = 1 - H$, which reduces the entropy and makes the output distribution more concentrated (e.g., increasing confidence). If the target node is incorrectly predicted, the reward is defined as $r = H$, which encourages the model to deviate from the current output distribution.

5.2 Details of Algorithm

The framework of our proposed method is illustrated in Fig. 4. The overall framework consists of four steps. In the first step, we construct the candidate node set $\mathcal{I}$ from the training and validation nodes. For each candidate node, we iteratively sample adjacent edges and construct the corresponding states, as described in Sec. 5.1. In the second step, the adjusted edge weight is generated by the policy function $\pi_\theta(s)$. To enhance the exploration capability of the policy function in the continuous action space, we reformulate the adjusted edge weight as:

$$w^*_{e_t} = \pi(s_t \mid \theta^\pi) + \epsilon, \tag{8}$$

where ϵ is noise sampled from a uniform distribution, with an upper bound determined by $\epsilon_0(1 + \frac{t}{T})^{-d}$. Here, ϵ_0 denotes the initial noise level, T is the total number of iterations, and $d > 0$ is the decay rate.

In the next step, we obtain the reward r from the GNN backbone according to Eq. 6, and store the transition tuple (s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}) in the replay buffer $\mathcal{B}$. Finally, we adopt the Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient (DDPG) (Lillicrap et al., 2016) method to train the policy function. Similar to deep Q-learning (Mnih et al., 2013), the objective of the critic network $Q(s_t, a_t \mid \theta^Q)$ is to approximate the discounted cumulative reward for a state–action pair by minimizing the loss:

$$L(\theta^Q) = \mathbb{E}_{s_t \sim \mathcal{S}, a_t \sim \mathcal{A}} \left[\left(Q(s_t, a_t \mid \theta^Q) - y_t \right)^2 \right], \tag{9}$$

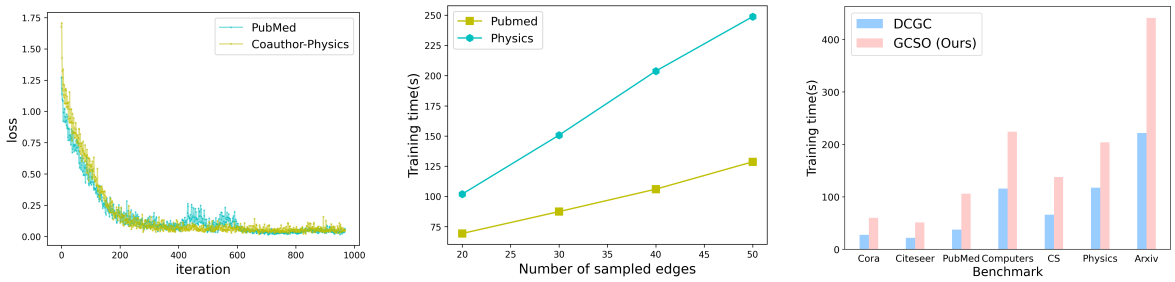
where the target value y_t is derived from the Bellman equation (Sutton & Barto, 2018) $y_t = r(s_t, a_t) + \gamma Q(s_{t+1}, \pi(s_{t+1}|\theta^\pi)|\theta^Q)$. Since the policy function deterministically generates continuous edge weights from the state, its parameters can be updated according to the Deterministic Policy Gradient Theorem (Silver et al., 2014a; Lillicrap et al., 2016):

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\theta^\pi} J &= \mathbb{E}_{s_t}[\nabla_a Q(s, a|\theta^Q)_{s=s_t, a=\pi(s_t|\theta^\pi)} \nabla_{\theta^\pi} \pi(s|\theta^\pi)_{s=s_t}] \\ &\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_i (\nabla_a Q(s, a|\theta^Q)_{s=s_i, a=\pi(s_i|\theta^\pi)} \nabla_{\theta^\pi} \pi(s|\theta^\pi)_{s=s_i}). \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

The detailed procedures of our proposed method are summarized in Algorithm 1 in the Appendix.

5.3 Time Complexity

The main computational cost of our method arises from two components: (1) training the graph neural network at the beginning of each epoch, and (2) training the actor–critic networks at each iteration step. Let L denote the number of layers in both the graph neural network and the actor–critic networks, $|\mathcal{E}|$ the total number of edges, N the number of nodes, d the feature dimension, and $|\mathcal{I}|$ the number of target nodes. The time complexity of the graph neural network is $O(L(|\mathcal{E}|d + Nd^2))$, while the time complexity



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 5: (a) Training curves of our method on PubMed and Coauthor-Physics. (b) Training time of our method under different sampled edge sizes. (c) Comparison of training time between the baseline (DCGC) and our method across different benchmarks. All experiments are conducted on an NVIDIA RTX A5000.

of the actor–critic networks is $O(L|\mathcal{I}||\mathcal{E}^u|d^2)$. Therefore, the overall time complexity of our framework is $O(L(|\mathcal{E}|d + (N + |\mathcal{I}||\mathcal{E}^u|)d^2))$. According to this analysis, the primary factor influencing the training time is the number of iterations in each trajectory, which is determined by the number of sampled edges. As shown in Fig. 5(b), the training time increases proportionally with the number of sampled edges. Therefore, selecting an appropriate number of sampled edges is crucial for maintaining a reasonable computational cost. In our experiments, we use 10 sampled edges for Cora and Citeseer (Yang et al., 2016), and 40 for the other datasets. Fig. 5(c) presents the actual training time of the data-centric method DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a) and our proposed method across different benchmarks. The results indicate that, although our method requires more training time than the baseline, it maintains a reasonable computational cost even on large graphs. We further evaluate the training dynamics. As shown in Fig. 5(a), our method achieves fast convergence during training. This rapid convergence further reduces the overall computational cost and enhances the scalability of our method to large-sized graphs.

5.4 Discussion

First, we discuss the generalization ability of our method. Our policy function is trained on selected edges within a graph. Since there is no distribution shift within a single graph, the learned policy can generalize to other edges in the same graph. However, due to differences in topological structures across graphs, the policy functions for different graphs need to be trained separately. Another advantage of our method is that the optimized graph structure can be readily integrated with existing calibration frameworks (e.g., CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021) and GATS (Hsu et al., 2022)) to achieve improved calibration performance.

Moreover, prior work (Zhang et al., 2020) identifies three desirable properties for calibration methods: **accuracy-preserving**, **data-efficient**, and **expressive**. Our method satisfies these properties. Since the modified graph structure may affect the quality of learned representations and, consequently, downstream task performance (e.g., node classification), we incorporate an indicator function into the reward signal. This component empirically encourages the preservation of classification accuracy on ID nodes during graph structure optimization. In addition, our method is data-efficient. We adopt GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) as the GNN backbone and lightweight MLPs for the actor and critic models. Finally, our method is expressive, as it produces fine-grained, adaptive weights for each edge.

Finally, our work is related to a prior study (Shi et al., 2023) that also addresses the calibration of graph neural networks in out-of-distribution scenarios. Although both approaches utilize reinforcement learning, the prior work (Shi et al., 2023) relies on prior knowledge or multiple trials to determine fixed edge weights for target edges. In contrast, our method learns an adaptive graph structure through reinforcement learning, enabling it to better account for graph topology. Compared to prior methods such as DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a), which do not explicitly consider OOD nodes, our method produces a more distinguishable distribution of edge weights between ID and OOD nodes. As a result, it is more effective in OOD graph settings.

Table 2: Comparison between our proposed method and baselines in terms of node classification accuracy (Acc%)↑ and expected calibration error (ECE%)↓ on Cora, Citeseer, PubMed and Chameleon. The experiments are repeated 10 times and the average results and standard deviation are reported. Note that the primary focus of our study is the ECE performance of the methods.

Methods	Cora		Citeseer		PubMed		Chameleon	
	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE
GCN Kipf & Welling (2016)	84.18 ± 0.28	9.90 ± 0.61	71.57 ± 0.73	5.41 ± 1.51	92.11 ± 0.17	1.89 ± 0.56	47.27 ± 1.27	14.81 ± 2.14
GCL Wang et al. (2022)	84.19 ± 0.25	10.05 ± 0.63	71.91 ± 0.96	6.07 ± 2.03	92.14 ± 0.14	1.76 ± 0.25	45.81 ± 0.72	13.98 ± 1.79
OODGAT Song & Wang (2022)	83.17 ± 1.34	13.96 ± 3.87	61.95 ± 0.78	8.52 ± 2.08	87.44 ± 0.91	4.64 ± 1.28	39.74 ± 4.57	11.06 ± 5.90
HyperU-GCN Yang et al. (2022)	81.88 ± 1.09	8.40 ± 7.75	71.27 ± 1.39	19.69 ± 13.74	92.35 ± 0.48	3.24 ± 0.77	47.36 ± 2.29	15.22 ± 9.65
CaGCN Wang et al. (2021)	84.14 ± 0.35	3.85 ± 1.05	71.57 ± 0.73	4.47 ± 0.62	92.11 ± 0.17	3.09 ± 0.20	47.27 ± 1.27	14.15 ± 1.24
GATS Hsu et al. (2022)	83.49 ± 0.31	2.81 ± 0.82	72.04 ± 0.46	5.05 ± 1.86	92.56 ± 0.24	2.27 ± 0.39	46.76 ± 2.73	11.18 ± 3.62
GERDQ Shi et al. (2023)	83.67 ± 0.48	9.54 ± 0.50	69.98 ± 0.55	4.56 ± 0.92	92.14 ± 0.20	1.60 ± 0.59	46.87 ± 1.54	14.22 ± 1.65
DCGC Yang et al. (2024a)	83.91 ± 0.25	10.44 ± 0.76	65.02 ± 0.65	4.62 ± 1.07	92.26 ± 0.16	2.43 ± 0.44	47.60 ± 1.22	13.28 ± 1.42
DCGC+CaGCN Yang et al. (2024a)	82.99 ± 0.33	3.04 ± 0.66	65.00 ± 0.68	5.13 ± 0.73	92.66 ± 0.16	3.01 ± 0.37	47.47 ± 0.79	11.95 ± 1.09
DCGC+GATS Yang et al. (2024a)	83.08 ± 0.31	2.78 ± 0.33	64.41 ± 1.17	5.18 ± 0.50	92.59 ± 0.20	1.99 ± 0.21	**50.71** ± 2.43	13.92 ± 2.58
GCSO (Ours)	**84.95** ± 0.18	9.22 ± 0.26	71.80 ± 0.70	4.55 ± 0.66	92.16 ± 0.16	**1.49** ± 0.20	46.81 ± 1.03	13.03 ± 1.59
GCSO+CaGCN (Ours)	84.28 ± 0.27	**2.55** ± 0.45	71.82 ± 0.68	**4.15** ± 0.48	92.24 ± 0.26	2.80 ± 0.19	47.28 ± 1.21	13.78 ± 0.82
GCSO+GATS (Ours)	84.20 ± 0.31	2.63 ± 0.46	**72.24** ± 0.90	4.20 ± 0.48	**92.69** ± 0.27	2.13 ± 0.34	46.80 ± 1.95	**10.07** ± 1.07

Table 3: Comparison between our proposed method and baselines on CS, Physics, Computers and Arxiv in terms of node classification accuracy (Acc%)↑ and expected calibration error (ECE%)↓. The experiments are repeated 10 times and the average results and standard deviation are reported. Note that the primary focus of our study is the ECE performance of the methods.

Methods	Coauthor-CS		Coauthor-Physics		Amazon-Computers		OGB-Arxiv	
	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE
GCN Kipf & Welling (2016)	91.96 ± 0.72	2.97 ± 0.13	97.02 ± 0.21	1.67 ± 0.14	90.81 ± 0.53	3.42 ± 0.68	42.47 ± 0.67	6.14 ± 0.79
GCL Wang et al. (2022)	91.83 ± 0.41	2.91 ± 0.29	97.04 ± 0.21	1.31 ± 0.12	90.65 ± 1.04	3.40 ± 0.59	42.53 ± 0.63	6.41 ± 0.79
OODGAT Song & Wang (2022)	90.63 ± 0.35	4.16 ± 0.60	93.79 ± 0.52	3.44 ± 0.38	90.29 ± 1.02	4.84 ± 1.01	42.11 ± 1.19	11.64 ± 0.74
HyperU-GCN Yang et al. (2022)	90.74 ± 1.03	2.94 ± 0.84	96.37 ± 0.57	1.86 ± 0.70	90.17 ± 1.37	5.82 ± 1.10	36.72 ± 0.65	13.23 ± 1.58
CaGCN Wang et al. (2021)	89.79 ± 0.40	4.34 ± 0.40	97.04 ± 0.20	1.19 ± 0.13	88.67 ± 0.38	2.82 ± 0.17	41.99 ± 0.75	4.42 ± 0.35
GATS Hsu et al. (2022)	89.28 ± 0.47	4.14 ± 0.40	96.80 ± 0.34	1.21 ± 0.21	88.07 ± 0.43	3.59 ± 0.68	42.07 ± 0.79	4.84 ± 0.36
GERDQ Shi et al. (2023)	**92.36** ± 0.50	3.12 ± 0.25	97.05 ± 0.23	1.38 ± 0.23	90.52 ± 0.42	2.62 ± 0.49	43.58 ± 0.60	4.70 ± 0.48
DCGC Yang et al. (2024a)	92.03 ± 0.30	3.36 ± 0.20	96.97 ± 0.17	1.52 ± 0.17	90.84 ± 0.66	2.69 ± 0.43	43.62 ± 0.54	4.85 ± 0.39
DCGC+CaGCN Yang et al. (2024a)	90.11 ± 0.46	5.52 ± 0.48	96.81 ± 0.25	1.15 ± 0.15	89.17 ± 0.47	3.15 ± 0.58	43.08 ± 0.77	5.68 ± 0.41
DCGC+GATS Yang et al. (2024a)	90.41 ± 0.59	5.08 ± 0.56	96.87 ± 0.39	1.38 ± 0.23	88.51 ± 0.72	3.72 ± 0.64	42.57 ± 0.72	5.24 ± 0.45
GCSO (Ours)	91.96 ± 0.25	**2.47** ± 0.13	**97.08** ± 0.21	1.24 ± 0.12	**90.86** ± 0.45	**2.44** ± 0.28	**43.64** ± 0.93	4.35 ± 0.49
GCSO+CaGCN (Ours)	90.75 ± 0.45	4.17 ± 0.16	97.02 ± 0.21	**1.06** ± 0.06	88.50 ± 0.30	2.64 ± 0.29	42.59 ± 0.51	**4.16** ± 0.39
GCSO+GATS (Ours)	90.28 ± 0.46	3.92 ± 0.38	96.78 ± 0.33	1.15 ± 0.09	88.49 ± 0.71	3.33 ± 0.34	42.89 ± 0.71	4.37 ± 0.64

6 Experiments

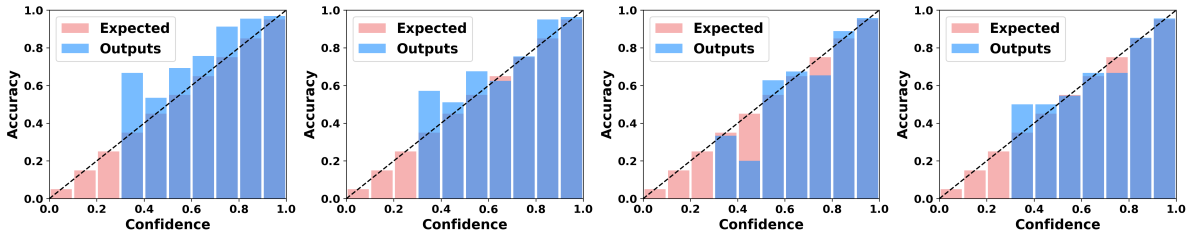
In this section, we first introduce the experimental settings. We then present the main results, along with visualizations of reliability diagrams. Sensitivity analyses on key factors, such as the number of sampled edges and hyperparameters (e.g., the discount factor), are provided in Sec. A.4 in the Appendix. Additional results on OOD detection are presented in Sec. A.5 in the Appendix.

6.1 Experimental Settings

In the experiments, we perform semi-supervised node classification and compare the performance of our framework with baseline methods on eight benchmark datasets.

Datasets. We adopt eight public benchmark datasets, including Cora, Citeseer, PubMed (Yang et al., 2016), Chameleon (Rozemberczki et al., 2021), Coauthor-CS, Coauthor-Physics, Amazon-Computers (Shchur et al., 2018), and OGB-Arxiv (Hu et al., 2020). Among these datasets, Chameleon (Rozemberczki et al., 2021) is a heterophilous graph, while the others are homophilous. We follow the train/validation/test splits provided by prior work (Hsu et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2016; Shchur et al., 2018).

To simulate graph learning with OOD nodes, we adopt a label leave-out strategy to partition nodes into ID and OOD sets, following prior work (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016; Song & Wang, 2022; Stadler et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2025). For example, in Cora (Yang et al., 2016), which contains 7 classes, nodes from the last 2



(a) GCN (b) HyperU-GCN (c) CaGCN (d) Ours

Figure 6: Reliability diagrams of different methods on Cora with OOD nodes. Well-calibrated results would have closer alignment with the expected results along the diagonal line.

classes are treated as OOD nodes and excluded from the training and validation sets. The remaining nodes are treated as ID nodes. More details about the datasets are provided in Table 5.

Baselines. The baseline methods include GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016), HyperU-GCN (Yang et al., 2022), CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021), GATS (Hsu et al., 2022), GCL (Wang et al., 2022), OODGAT (Song & Wang, 2022), GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023), and DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a).

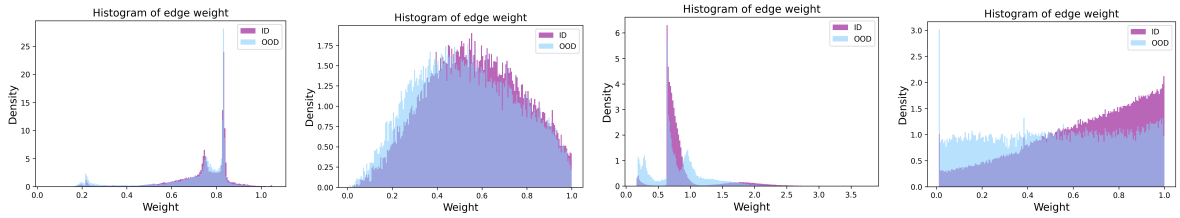
Metrics. In our experiments, we adopt the expected calibration error (ECE) (Guo et al., 2017) as the primary evaluation metric. A lower ECE indicates better calibration of GNN predictions. In addition, we report node classification accuracy.

Implementation Details. We adopt GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) as the GNN backbone. The hyperparameters of GCN are set to be consistent with the corresponding baselines. Specifically, the learning rate is 1e−2, the weight decay is 5e−4, and the hidden dimension is 64. The actor and critic networks are implemented as three-layer MLPs, with hidden dimensions of 256 and 16, respectively. More implementation details are provided in Sec. A.2 the Appendix.

6.2 Main Results

Table 2 and Table 3 present the performance of our proposed method and the baselines on the benchmark datasets. The results show that standard GNN models, such as GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016), tend to exhibit large calibration errors. Moreover, the results suggest that methods designed for GNN calibration can generally improve calibration performance over GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016). However, these methods may fail on certain benchmark datasets. For instance, although CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021) achieves low calibration error on Cora (Yang et al., 2016) and Citeseer (Yang et al., 2016), it yields worse calibration performance on PubMed (Yang et al., 2016) and Coauthor-CS (Shchur et al., 2018) compared to GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016). This phenomenon can be attributed to reduced homophily in the graph, which makes the regularization term in CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021) less effective on these datasets. Additionally, our experimental results show that GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023) and DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a) effectively reduce calibration error across various benchmarks. This further validates that refining graph topology is beneficial for improving calibration, particularly in the presence of OOD nodes.

The results suggest that our proposed GCSO method is effective in calibrating GNNs and achieves better ECE performance compared to GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023) and DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a) on most datasets. DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a) can generate an adjusted graph structure to reduce calibration error; however, it does not account for the presence of OOD nodes. GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023) also employs edge reweighting to calibrate GNN predictions, but its adjustments are fixed and not adaptive to the graph topology. In contrast, our approach utilizes a specialized reward signal to dynamically assess the impact of adjusted edge weights on target nodes, thereby learning an optimal, adaptive graph structure that regularizes the predictive confidence of GNNs. Furthermore, when integrated with existing post-hoc calibration methods, our approach can further enhance calibration performance compared to prior work (e.g., DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a)). To further validate the generalizability and effectiveness of our method in realistic scenarios, we conduct additional experiments under diverse OOD settings on benchmark datasets. The results for both our method and the baselines are presented in Sec. A.3 in the Appendix.



(a) PubMed (DCGC) (b) PubMed (GCSO) (c) Physics (DCGC) (d) Physics (GCSO)

Figure 7: The distribution of edge weights connecting to ID nodes and OOD nodes from DCGC and our proposed method on various datasets. Compared to DCGC, the edge weights generated by our method exhibit a clear distribution shift between ID and OOD nodes.

Table 4: Comparison between our method with complete reward signal, reward signal without entropy and reward signal without indicator function on Cora, PubMed, Coauthor-CS and Amazon-Computers in terms of node classification accuracy (Acc%)↑ and expected calibration error (ECE%)↓.

Methods	Cora		PubMed		Coauthor-CS		Amazon-Computers	
	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE
w/o entropy	84.88 ± 0.24	10.01 ± 0.60	**92.16** ± 0.61	1.75 ± 0.28	91.80 ± 0.50	2.92 ± 0.46	**90.91** ± 0.59	2.80 ± 0.54
w/o indicator	84.05 ± 0.27	9.58 ± 0.69	91.62 ± 0.20	1.57 ± 0.23	91.22 ± 0.35	2.51 ± 0.36	90.08 ± 0.75	2.50 ± 0.36
Complete	**84.95** ± 0.18	**9.22** ± 0.26	**92.16** ± 0.16	**1.49** ± 0.20	**91.96** ± 0.25	**2.47** ± 0.13	90.86 ± 0.45	**2.44** ± 0.28

6.3 Ablation Study

In our framework, the reward consists of two components: an indicator function and an entropy regularization term. To investigate the contribution of each component, we conduct an ablation study in which only one term is included in the reward. The results are presented in Table 4 in the Appendix. The indicator function is designed to encourage the model to maintain comparable accuracy. Without it, our method tends to suffer a drop in accuracy on in-distribution nodes, along with an increase in calibration error. Similarly, removing the entropy regularization term from the reward function reduces the effectiveness of our approach in calibrating graph neural networks. These observations suggest that both components of the reward are indispensable in our framework.

6.4 Visualization

To better visualize ECE, the reliability diagrams for our method and the baselines on Cora (Yang et al., 2016) are shown in Fig. 6. Well-calibrated predictions are expected to align closely with the diagonal line. As illustrated in Fig. 6, our method exhibits better alignment with the diagonal compared to the baselines. We further visualize the modified graph structures produced by DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a) and our proposed method on various datasets. More visualizations of reliability diagrams are provided in Sec. A.6 in the Appendix. The histogram in Fig. 7 shows the distribution of edge weights connecting ID and OOD nodes. Since DCGC does not explicitly account for OOD nodes, the distributions of edge weights for ID and OOD connections exhibit significant overlap. In contrast, our method generates topology-aware edge weights. Fig. 7 demonstrates a clear separation between the edge weight distributions of ID and OOD connections. More illustrations on other datasets are shown in Fig. 13.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we study the calibration of graph neural networks in the presence of out-of-distribution nodes, where noisy graph structures significantly degrade calibration performance. To address this challenge, we propose the Graph Calibration via Structure Optimization framework, which learns an adaptive, topology-aware graph structure through edge reweighting. Extensive experiments demonstrate that our method effectively improves calibration while maintaining competitive accuracy, outperforming existing approaches in OOD settings.

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Algorithm 1 GCSO framework

Require: Input graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, X)$, GNN backbone f, node labels Y, candidate node set $\mathcal{I}$, critic network $Q(s, a \mid \theta^Q)$, actor network $\pi(s \mid \theta^\pi)$, replay buffer $\mathcal{B}$, discount coefficient γ, hyperparameter λ, initial noise ϵ_0, total number of episodes P, adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A}$

Ensure: Refined adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A}'$

Initialize the actor network π, critic network Q, and replay buffer $\mathcal{B}$
for $p = 1$ to P **do**
  Train the GNN backbone f with adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A}$ and obtain $\text{acc}(B_m)$ and $\text{conf}(B_m)$ on the validation nodes
  Sample a target node u from the candidate node set $\mathcal{I}$
  Obtain the edge set $\mathcal{E}^u = \{e_0^u, e_1^u, \ldots, e_{k-1}^u\}$ for node u
  for $t = 1$ to $|\mathcal{E}^u|$ **do**
    Calculate the discrepancy scores for unsampled edges according to Eq. 4
    Choose the edge e_t^u with the lowest discrepancy score and obtain the state s_t using Eq. 3
    Calculate the adjusted edge weight $w_e = a_t$ from state s_t using Eq. 5
    Add noise to the adjusted edge weight for exploration via Eq. 8
    Assign the adjusted edge weight to the original graph $\mathcal{G}$ to obtain a refined graph structure
    Obtain the reward signal r_t from the GNN backbone f via Eq. 6
    Store the transition tuple (s_t, a_t, s_{t+1}, r_t) in replay buffer $\mathcal{B}$
    Randomly sample data from $\mathcal{B}$ and train the actor network π and critic network Q via Eq. 9 and Eq. 10
  end for
  Generate new edge weights and obtain the new adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A}'$ using Eq. 5
  Update $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathbf{A}'$
end for
return $\mathbf{A}'$

Table 5: The statistics of datasets

Dataset	ID classes	OOD classes	#Nodes	#Edges	#Features
Cora	[0 - 4]	[5 - 6]	2,708	10,556	1,433
Citeseer	[0 - 3]	[4 - 5]	3,327	9,104	3,703
PubMed	[0 - 1]	[2]	19,717	88,648	500
Chameleon	[0 - 2]	[3 - 4]	2,277	36,101	2,325
Coauthor-CS	[0 - 10]	[11 - 14]	18,333	163,788	6,805
Coauthor-Physics	[0 - 2]	[3]	34,493	495,924	8,415
Amazon-Computers	[0 - 6]	[7 - 9]	13,752	491,722	767
OGB-Arxiv	[0 - 29]	[30 - 39]	169,343	1,166,243	128

A Appendix

A.1 Algorithm

The details of our proposed method are summarized in Algorithm 1.

A.2 Experimental Setup

GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016): The learning rate is 1e−2 and the weight decay is 5e−4. The model has two layers with a hidden dimension of 64. We use the Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2014) for training.

CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021): CaGCN calibrates GNN confidence via a post-hoc method by modeling different types of uncertainty. In our experiments, we use GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) as the base model with a hidden dimension of 64, an initial learning rate of 1e−2, and 8 attention heads.

Table 6: The different OOD configuration of Cora, PubMed and Amazon_Computers.

Dataset	Config 1		Config 2		Config 3	
	ID classes	OOD classes	ID classes	OOD classes	ID classes	OOD classes
Cora	[0,3-6]	[1,2]	[0-2,5,6]	[3,4]	[0-4]	[5,6]
PubMed	[1,2]	[0]	[0,2]	[1]	[0,1]	[2]
Computers	[0,4-9]	[1,2,3]	[0-3,7-9]	[4,5,6]	[0-6]	[7,8,9]

Table 7: Comparison between our proposed method and baselines in terms of node classification accuracy(Acc%)↑ and expected calibration error(ECE%)↓ on Cora with different OOD configurations.The experiments are repeated 10 times and the average results and standard deviation are reported.

Methods	Config 1		Config 2		Config 3	
	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE
GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016)	81.91 ± 0.57	9.88 ± 0.71	84.85 ± 0.22	9.42 ± 0.75	84.18 ± 0.28	9.90 ± 0.61
CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021)	81.88 ± 0.50	4.10 ± 0.44	84.82 ± 0.26	3.39 ± 0.57	84.14 ± 0.35	3.85 ± 1.05
GATS (Hsu et al., 2022)	**82.61** ± 0.71	4.11 ± 0.62	85.42 ± 0.54	3.03 ± 1.13	83.49 ± 0.31	2.81 ± 0.82
GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023)	82.02 ± 0.59	9.46 ± 0.60	84.53 ± 0.46	9.25 ± 0.35	83.67 ± 0.48	9.54 ± 0.50
DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a)	80.86 ± 0.18	8.62 ± 0.70	83.16 ± 0.44	8.21 ± 0.48	83.91 ± 0.25	10.44 ± 0.76
DCGC+CaGCN (Yang et al., 2024a)	81.11 ± 0.26	3.03 ± 0.54	84.19 ± 0.27	4.62 ± 0.55	82.99 ± 0.33	3.04 ± 0.66
DCGC+GATS (Yang et al., 2024a)	80.24 ± 0.39	2.86 ± 0.73	83.68 ± 0.79	4.10 ± 0.47	83.08 ± 0.26	2.78 ± 0.13
GCSO (Ours)	81.66 ± 0.56	9.27 ± 0.43	84.77 ± 0.23	9.11 ± 0.17	**84.95** ± 0.18	9.22 ± 0.26
GCSO+CaGCN (Ours)	82.14 ± 0.42	3.75 ± 0.38	84.80 ± 0.28	2.83 ± 0.38	84.28 ± 0.27	**2.55** ± 0.45
GCSO+GATS (Ours)	81.89 ± 0.54	**2.49** ± 0.33	**85.46** ± 0.78	**2.78** ± 0.49	84.20 ± 0.31	2.63 ± 0.46

GATS (Hsu et al., 2022): GATS proposes a temperature scaling technique for calibrating GNNs. We use GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) as the base model with a hidden dimension of 64 and a weight decay of 5e−3.

GCL (Wang et al., 2022): GCL introduces a loss function for end-to-end calibration of GNNs. The coefficient γ is set to 0.020, and the hidden dimension is 64. Other settings follow those of GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016).

OODGAT (Song & Wang, 2022): OODGAT jointly performs node classification and OOD detection. We adopt the same experimental settings as the original work. Note that the ID/OOD split in our experiments differs from that used in OODGAT.

HyperU-GCN (Yang et al., 2022): HyperU-GCN focuses on automated graph learning by jointly optimizing model weights and hyperparameters. We follow the original experimental settings.

GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023): GERDQ studies GNN calibration in the presence of OOD nodes and mitigates calibration errors by adjusting edge weights via deep Q-learning (Mnih et al., 2013).

DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a): DCGC is a data-centric method that improves calibration by assigning larger weights to decisive and homophilic edges.

In our method, we adopt GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016), CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021), and GATS (Hsu et al., 2022) as backbone models. The hyperparameters of GCN follow those used in the corresponding baselines, with a learning rate of 1e−2, weight decay of 5e−4, and hidden dimension of 64.

The actor and critic networks are implemented as three-layer MLPs with hidden dimensions of 256 and 16, respectively. We use the Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2014) with a learning rate of 1e−3 and weight decay of 1e−2. The parameter λ is set to 0.95, and the discount factor γ is 0.90. The exploration parameter ϵ_0 is set to 0.2. The replay buffer size is 1e4, and the total number of episodes P is 30. We sample 20 target nodes during training and select 10 edges for Cora and Citeseer (Yang et al., 2016), and 40 edges for the remaining datasets. We use 10 bins to evaluate the expected calibration error. All experiments are conducted on an NVIDIA A5000 GPU. We run each experiment 10 times with different random seeds and report the average results.

A.3 Results under Different OOD Settings

To further assess the generalizability and robustness of our proposed method, we extend our experiments by evaluating it on datasets with different OOD node distributions. Specifically, we conduct evaluations on Cora,

Table 8: Comparison between our proposed method and baselines in terms of node classification accuracy(Acc%)↑ and expected calibration error(ECE%)↓ on PubMed with different OOD configurations.The experiments are repeated 10 times and the average results and standard deviation are reported.

Methods	Config 1		Config 2		Config 3	
	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE
GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016)	83.65 ± 0.27	3.95 ± 0.76	90.32 ± 0.30	1.77 ± 0.74	92.11 ± 0.17	1.89 ± 0.56
CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021)	83.67 ± 0.28	5.07 ± 0.50	90.32 ± 0.31	1.64 ± 0.44	92.11 ± 0.17	3.09 ± 0.20
GATS (Hsu et al., 2022)	83.47 ± 0.32	3.67 ± 0.58	89.81 ± 0.30	1.47 ± 0.60	92.56 ± 0.24	2.27 ± 0.39
GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023)	83.65 ± 0.27	3.69 ± 0.57	90.32 ± 0.30	1.62 ± 0.61	92.14 ± 0.20	1.60 ± 0.59
DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a)	83.39 ± 0.41	3.68 ± 0.70	89.88 ± 0.29	2.41 ± 0.33	92.26 ± 0.16	2.43 ± 0.44
DCGC+CaGCN (Yang et al., 2024a)	83.26 ± 0.14	5.33 ± 0.76	90.05 ± 0.31	2.67 ± 0.68	92.66 ± 0.16	3.01 ± 0.37
DCGC+GATS (Yang et al., 2024a)	82.93 ± 0.62	3.59 ± 0.48	89.25 ± 0.73	2.80 ± 0.68	92.59 ± 0.20	1.99 ± 0.21
GCSO (Ours)	**83.73** ± 0.28	3.68 ± 0.51	**90.39** ± 0.32	1.36 ± 0.43	92.16 ± 0.16	**1.49** ± 0.20
GCSO+CaGCN (Ours)	83.70 ± 0.26	4.86 ± 0.55	**90.39** ± 0.30	1.60 ± 0.21	92.24 ± 0.26	2.80 ± 0.19
GCSO+GATS (Ours)	83.52 ± 0.45	**3.42** ± 0.39	89.69 ± 0.40	**1.30** ± 0.19	**92.69** ± 0.27	2.13 ± 0.34

Table 9: Comparison between our proposed method and baselines in terms of node classification accuracy(Acc%)↑ and expected calibration error(ECE%)↓ on Computers with different OOD configurations.The experiments are repeated 10 times and the average results and standard deviation are reported.

Methods	Config 1		Config 2		Config 3	
	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE	Acc	ECE
GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016)	87.24 ± 0.58	2.74 ± 0.40	**93.79** ± 0.39	2.61 ± 0.23	90.81 ± 0.53	3.42 ± 0.68
CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021)	88.14 ± 0.24	4.41 ± 0.54	92.25 ± 0.42	3.16 ± 0.35	88.67 ± 0.38	2.82 ± 0.17
GATS (Hsu et al., 2022)	87.50 ± 0.77	3.21 ± 0.53	92.25 ± 0.49	2.75 ± 0.41	88.07 ± 0.43	3.59 ± 0.68
GERDQ (Shi et al., 2023)	87.08 ± 0.54	2.80 ± 0.23	93.41 ± 0.65	2.76 ± 0.34	90.52 ± 0.42	2.62 ± 0.49
DCGC (Yang et al., 2024a)	87.90 ± 0.36	3.32 ± 0.71	93.64 ± 0.55	2.66 ± 0.41	90.84 ± 0.66	2.69 ± 0.43
DCGC+CaGCN (Yang et al., 2024a)	87.73 ± 0.51	4.55 ± 0.62	93.51 ± 0.67	2.81 ± 0.41	89.17 ± 0.47	3.15 ± 0.58
DCGC+GATS (Yang et al., 2024a)	87.50 ± 0.51	3.78 ± 0.68	93.49 ± 0.62	2.68 ± 0.36	88.51 ± 0.72	3.72 ± 0.64
GCSO (Ours)	87.17 ± 0.41	**2.56** ± 0.35	93.16 ± 0.52	2.58 ± 0.16	**90.86** ± 0.45	**2.44** ± 0.28
GCSO+CaGCN (Ours)	**88.30** ± 0.56	4.03 ± 0.45	92.56 ± 0.48	2.84 ± 0.19	88.50 ± 0.30	2.64 ± 0.29
GCSO+GATS (Ours)	87.65 ± 0.75	3.07 ± 0.30	92.17 ± 0.35	**2.40** ± 0.21	88.49 ± 0.71	3.33 ± 0.34

PubMed, and Amazon-Computers, each configured with distinct OOD settings. The OOD configurations are detailed in Table 6, and the corresponding results are reported in Tables 7, 8, and 9. The results suggest that conventional methods, such as CaGCN (Wang et al., 2021), struggle to calibrate GNNs under varying OOD configurations. This limitation may stem from the method's lack of consideration of graph topology, particularly the distribution of OOD nodes, when adjusting output logits. In contrast, our proposed method consistently improves calibration across different OOD settings. These improvements are more pronounced on larger graphs (e.g., PubMed and Amazon-Computers) than on smaller graphs (e.g., Cora). Overall, the results across the three datasets demonstrate the strong generalizability and robustness of our approach under diverse OOD distributions.

A.4 Sensitivity Analysis

We evaluate the impact of the number of sampled target nodes and edges on the performance of our method by conducting additional experiments on the PubMed and Coauthor-CS datasets. In the first experiment, we fix the number of sampled edges to 40 for PubMed and Coauthor-CS, and evaluate the performance using 10, 20, 40, and 80 sampled nodes. In the second experiment, we fix the number of sampled nodes to 20 for PubMed and Coauthor-CS, and vary the number of sampled edges among 10, 20, 40, and 60. The corresponding results are presented in Fig. 8(a) and Fig. 8(b), respectively. These results indicate that increasing the number of sampled nodes and edges generally improves calibration performance. However, beyond a certain point, the improvements become marginal while the computational cost continues to increase.

We also conduct an evaluation to investigate the influence of the hyperparameter λ on the performance of our proposed method. We vary λ among 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9, and the corresponding results are presented in Fig. 8(c). The results indicate that larger values of λ lead to more effective calibration of GNNs. In our method, λ controls the update of the state, which is composed of edge features. A smaller λ results in less

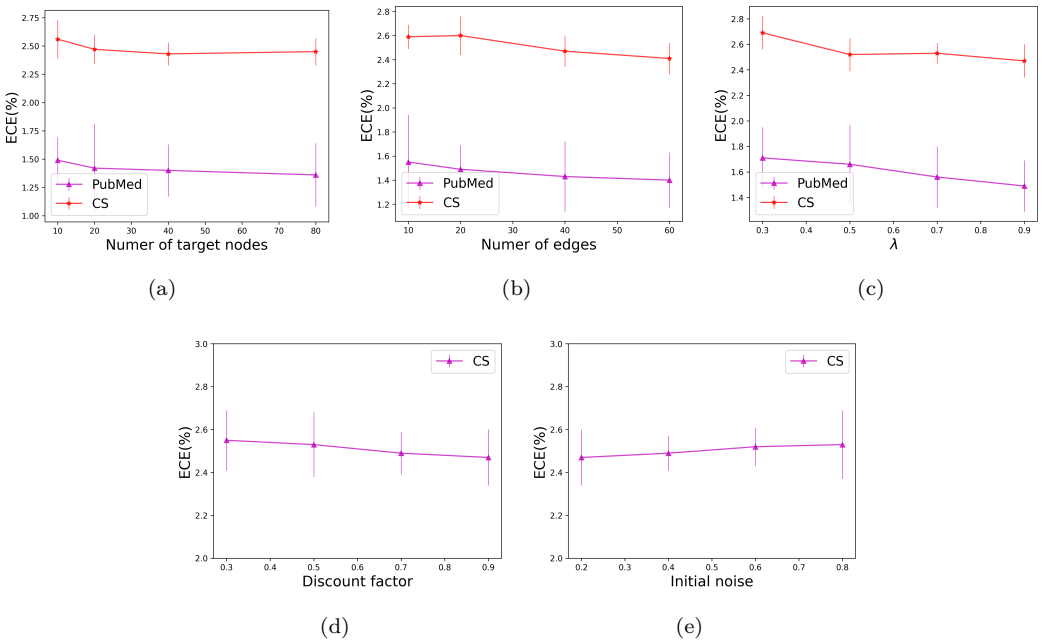


Figure 8: Performance of our method on node classification and calibration on PubMed and Coauthor-CS (a) with varying numbers of labelled nodes, (b) sampled edges and (c) value of λ. Performance of our method on node classification and calibration on Coauthor-CS with varying value of (d) discounter factor γ and (e) initial noise ϵ_0.

Table 10: The performance of GKDE-GCN on node classification and OOD node detection with old and new edge weights. The bold represents the best results.

Dataset	Edge weight	Acc(%)	ECE(%)	OOD AUROC(%)	OOD AUPR(%)
PubMed	original	**85.61**	10.73	85.21	**73.58**
	Modified	85.28	**9.70**	**85.39**	72.46
Citeseer	original	65.43	4.56	80.75	81.72
	Modified	**67.93**	**3.56**	**83.41**	**83.57**
Amazon Photo	original	89.83	3.05	69.05	61.35
	Modified	**91.42**	**1.80**	**69.90**	**62.16**

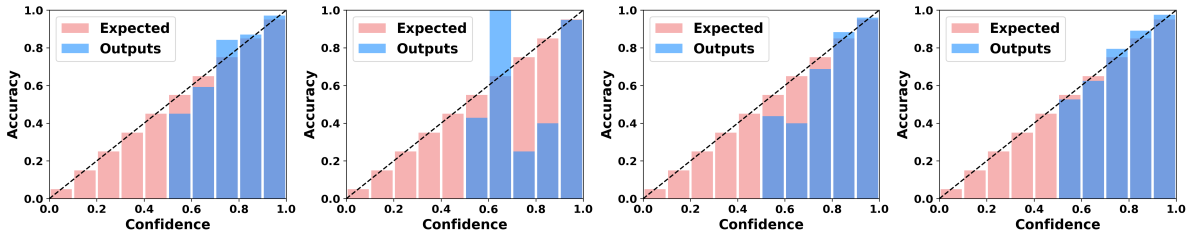
expressive representations, thereby limiting the ability to accurately assess the influence of edges on target in-distribution (ID) nodes.

Finally, we evaluate the sensitivity of our method to reinforcement learning–related hyperparameters, specifically the discount factor γ and the initial noise ϵ_0. We vary the discount factor among 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9, and the initial noise among 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, and 0.8. The corresponding results are presented in Fig. 8(d) and Fig. 8(e), respectively. The results show that calibration performance tends to degrade when using a smaller discount factor or a larger initial noise value.

A.5 OOD detection

We conduct a case study to investigate whether the adjusted edge weights can improve the performance of other graph learning methods. GKDE-GCN (Zhao et al., 2020) is a representative method for detecting out-of-distribution (OOD) nodes via uncertainty estimation. We evaluate the performance of GKDE-GCN on both node classification and OOD node detection using the adjusted edge weights learned by our framework. For OOD detection, we report AUROC and AUPR as evaluation metrics. We run the experiments 10 times on Cora, Citeseer, and PubMed (Yang et al., 2016), and report the average results in Table 10. The results

show that the adjusted edge weights learned by our method improve both node classification and OOD detection performance of the base model GKDE-GCN.



(a) GCN (b) HyperU-GCN (c) CaGCN (d) Ours

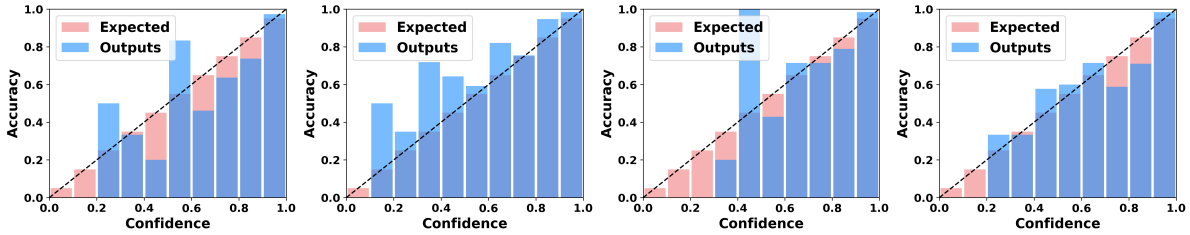
Figure 9: Reliability diagrams of different methods on PubMed with OOD nodes. Well-calibrated results would have closer alignment with the expected results along the diagonal line. The results suggest that the calibration issue is different and complicated on different datasets.

A.6 Visualization

To better visualize the ECE, the reliability diagrams of different methods on different datasets are illustrated from Fig. 9 to Fig. 12.

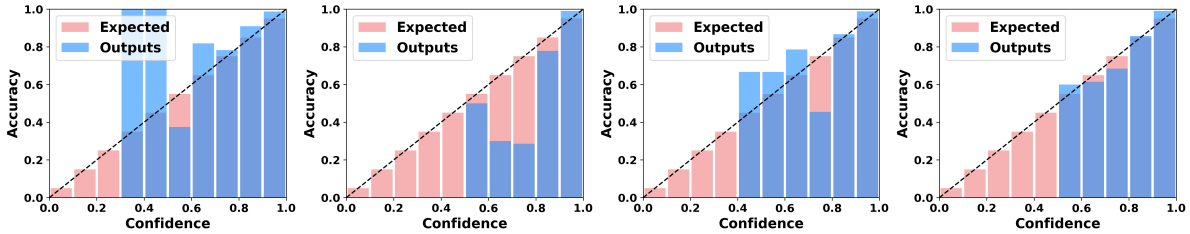
A.7 Limitations

Although our proposed method effectively calibrates graph neural networks with out-of-distribution (OOD) nodes through an optimized graph structure, it incurs a higher training time compared to baseline methods due to the inherent complexity of reinforcement learning. Nevertheless, by incorporating strategies such as batch processing and sampling of target nodes and edges, the computational cost remains manageable and does not scale excessively, even on large-scale graphs. Additionally, our current work focuses primarily on calibration for node classification. Extending the approach to other tasks, such as link prediction and graph classification, is an interesting direction for future research.



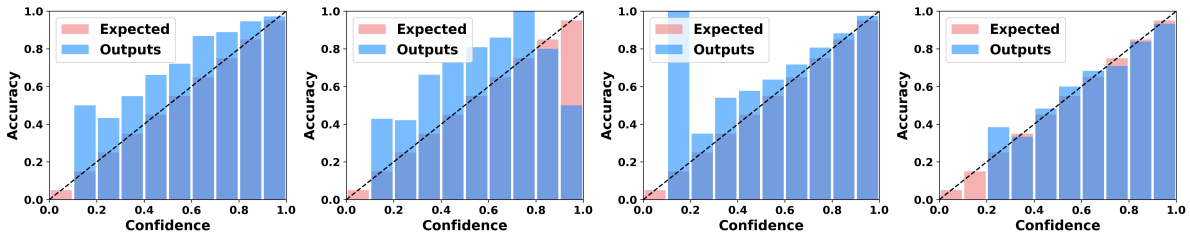
(a) GCN (b) HyperU-GCN (c) CaGCN (d) Ours

Figure 10: Reliability diagrams of different methods on Coauthor-CS with OOD nodes. Well-calibrated results would have closer alignment with the expected results along the diagonal line. The results suggest that the calibration issue is different and complicated on different datasets.



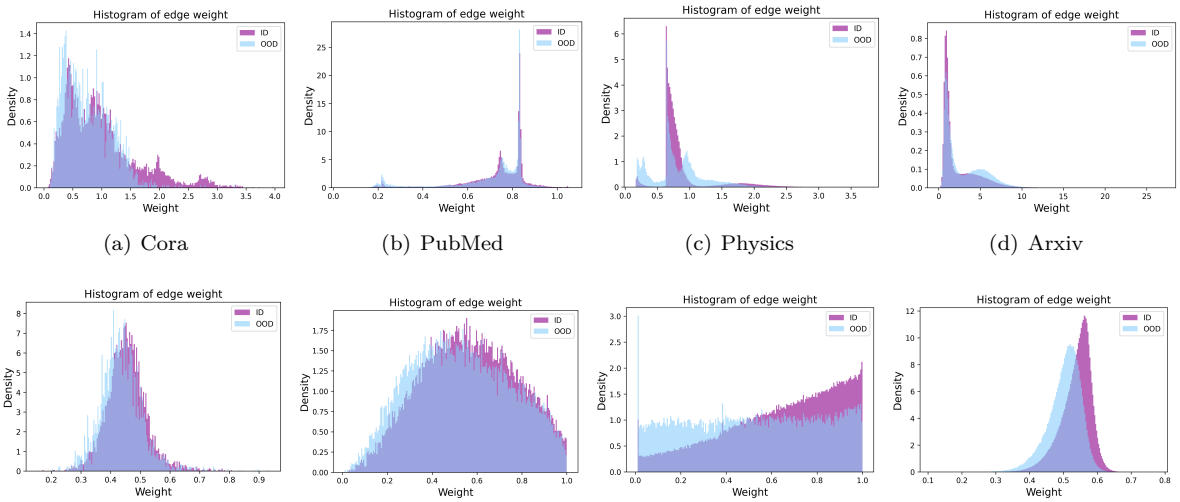
(a) GCN (b) HyperU-GCN (c) CaGCN (d) Ours

Figure 11: Reliability diagrams of different methods on Coauthor-Physics with OOD nodes. Well-calibrated results would have closer alignment with the expected results along the diagonal line. The results suggest that the calibration issue is different and complicated on different datasets.



(a) GCN (b) HyperU-GCN (c) CaGCN (d) Ours

Figure 12: Reliability diagrams of different methods on Arxiv with OOD nodes. Well-calibrated results would have closer alignment with the expected results along the diagonal line. The results suggest that the calibration issue is different and complicated on different datasets.



(a) Cora (b) PubMed (c) Physics (d) Arxiv

(e) Cora (f) PubMed (g) Physics (h) Arxiv

Figure 13: The distribution of edge weights connecting to ID nodes and OOD nodes from DCGC ((a)-(d)) and our proposed method ((e)-(h)) on various datasets. Compared to DCGC, the edge weights generated by our method exhibit a clear distribution shift between ID and OOD nodes.