# Panprediction: Optimal Predictions for Any Downstream Task and Loss

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## Abstract

Supervised learning is classically formulated as training a model to minimize a fixed loss function over a fixed distribution, or task. However, an emerging paradigm instead views model training as extracting enough information from data so that the model can be used to minimize many losses on many downstream tasks. We formalize a mathematical framework for this paradigm, which we call *panprediction*, and study its statistical complexity. Formally, panprediction generalizes omniprediction (Gopalan et al., 2022b) and sits upstream from multi-group learning (Rothblum and Yona, 2021), which respectively focus on predictions that generalize to many downstream losses or many downstream tasks, but not both. Concretely, we design algorithms that learn deterministic and randomized panpredictors with $\widetilde{O}(1/\varepsilon^3)$ and $\widetilde{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$ samples, respectively. Our results demonstrate that under mild assumptions, simultaneously minimizing infinitely many losses on infinitely many tasks can be as statistically easy as minimizing one loss on one task. Along the way, we improve the best known sample complexity guarantee of deterministic omniprediction by a factor of $1/\varepsilon$, and match all other known sample complexity guarantees of omniprediction and multi-group learning. Our key technical ingredient is a nearly lossless reduction from panprediction to a statistically efficient notion of calibration, called *step calibration*.

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Consider the problem of predicting the probability of an adverse medical event for a patient based on their health records—be it in-hospital mortality over 12 hours, re-admission over 30 days, or a cardiovascular event over 10 years. A range of decision makers across the healthcare system—ICU doctors, discharge planners, actuaries, and more—wish to incorporate these probabilities into their decisions. However, this problem is complicated by the fact that each decision maker defines prediction quality differently: an ICU doctor who must rapidly take action may care most about the zero-one loss, while an actuary who seeks precise probability estimates may care most about the square loss. Further complicating the problem is how each decision maker focuses on different, possibly overlapping subgroups of patients: those with specific pre-existing conditions, those in a certain age group, and more.

> *What does it mean for a single predictor to be "good" for such a heterogeneous population of decision makers? How can such a predictor be learned?*

From one perspective, we have simply described a collection of binary prediction problems, each defined by a loss function and subgroup, or task, of interest. Classic supervised learning techniques can readily produce a good model for each problem. However, this approach requires that the number of samples needed to produce good predictions for all decision makers scales linearly in the number of losses and subgroups of interest, which can be prohibitively large.

In this work, we introduce *panprediction*, an alternative framework for constructing a single probability predictor that any decision maker—focused on any loss and any subgroup—can easily post-process to solve

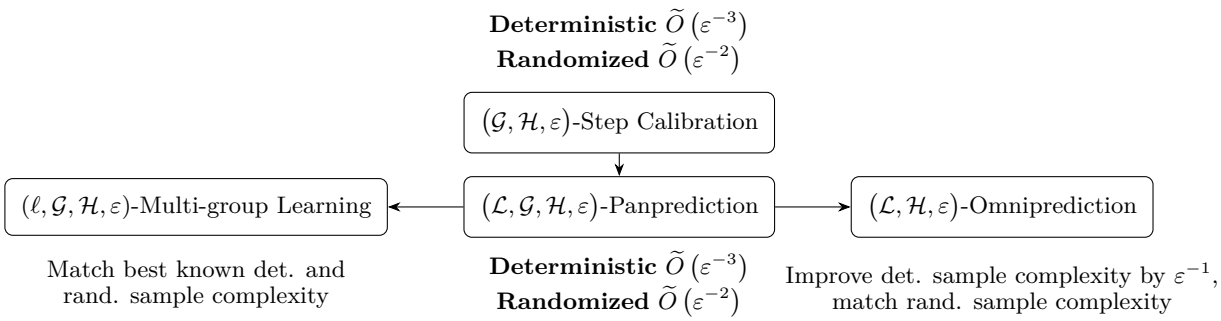


Figure 1: Panprediction is a nearly lossless generalization of omniprediction and multi-group learning in the sense that sample complexity guarantees are preserved (up to logarithmic factors), or improved. Similarly, the reduction from panprediction to step calibration preserves sample complexity guarantees.

their specialized problem. Importantly, panpredictors guarantee that decision makers could not have made better predictions by training a bespoke model for their problem. Moreover, the sample complexity of panprediction scales only logarithmically in the number of *basis functions* needed to linearly approximate losses of interest, and also in the number of subgroups.

Formally, we say a probability predictor $p^\star : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$ is a $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-panpredictor if for every loss $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$ and group $g \in \mathcal{G}$, the predictor $p^\star$ can be post-processed into a predictor $h^\star$ that is $\varepsilon$-optimal, meaning

$$\begin{aligned}&\mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D}\big[\ell\big(h^*(x), y\big) \mid g(x) = 1\big] \\ &\approx_\varepsilon \min_{h\in\mathcal{H}} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D}\big[\ell\big(h(x), y\big) \mid g(x) = 1\big],\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{H}$ is a competitor hypothesis class. Supposing for simplicity that $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{H}$ have finite cardinality, our proposed algorithms learn deterministic panpredictors with $\widetilde{O}(\varepsilon^{-3}\log(|\mathcal{G}||\mathcal{H}|))$ samples, and randomized panpredictors with $\widetilde{O}(\varepsilon^{-2}\log(|\mathcal{G}||\mathcal{H}|))$ samples. Notably, our sample complexity guarantees account for $\mathcal{L}$ through a $\log(1/\varepsilon)$ factor, with no dependence on the cardinality or covering number of $\mathcal{L}$.

Our results are enabled by the observation that panprediction can be reduced to *step calibration* (Qiao and Zhao, 2025), a statistically efficient notion of calibration also known as proper calibration (Okoroafor et al., 2025). This answers our first question: a single predictor is "good" for a heterogeneous array of losses and subgroups if it is step calibrated. Algorithmically, we construct step calibrated predictors using tools from multi-objective learning, a powerful framework recently developed to tighten the sample complexity of various calibration notions (Haghtalab et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023). This answers our second question on how such "good" predictors can be learned.

Panprediction builds on recent advances in machine learning theory that seek models with greater adaptability to many downstream losses or tasks. Omniprediction (Gopalan et al., 2022b) studies predictors whose outputs can be post-processed to perform well according to many loss functions, but for a single fixed distribution, or task. Conversely, multi-group learning (Rothblum and Yona, 2021; Tosh and Hsu, 2022) ensures robust performance across many downstream subgroups, or tasks, but for a single fixed loss function. We generalize both lines of work and show that simultaneous adaptability to many downstream losses *and* tasks is readily attainable. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between these concepts.

Our approach yields several benefits over prior works. Quantitatively, we improve the sample complexity of deterministic omniprediction by a factor of $1/\varepsilon$, and match all other known sample complexities of omniprediction and multi-group learning. Qualitatively, we provide a unified algorithmic path to omniprediction and multi-group learning—which prior works have treated with bespoke approaches that had difficulty learning, e.g., deterministic predictors—and significantly simplify proofs.

### 1.1 Related Works

**Omniprediction** Gopalan et al. (2022b) initiated the study of omniprediction by showing that an appropriately calibrated predictor can be post-processed to minimize a range of convex and Lipschitz losses. Subsequent work deepened the conceptual connection between omniprediction and calibration by formalizing the notion of a predictor being indistinguishable from the Bayes predictor, as measured by a set of loss functions (Gopalan et al., 2022a). Using these insights, recent work improved the sample complexity and oracle efficiency of omniprediction by sidestepping full calibration and relying on statistically efficient notions of calibration (Okoroafor et al., 2025). We extend this

line of work to account for the more challenging setting where loss functions are evaluated over overlapping subgroups of the domain.

**Multi-group learning** Motivated by subgroup fairness, Blum and Lykouris (2020) and Rothblum and Yona (2021) respectively initiated the study of multi-group learning in the sequential and batch settings. A rich line of work has since refined sample complexity guarantees (Tosh and Hsu, 2022) and studied variants with oracle-efficiency (Deng et al., 2024), hierarchical group structure (Deng and Hsu, 2024), and robustness concerns (Ahmadi et al., 2024). Typical multi-group algorithms leverage reductions to the sleeping experts problem. In contrast, we leverage a fundamental connection between multi-group learning and calibration.

**Calibration** Calibration originates from the online forecasting literature (Dawid, 1982; Foster and Vohra, 1998), where it was proposed as a basic sanity check for predictions. More recently, Hebert-Johnson et al. (2018) initiated the study of multicalibration, which connects calibration to subgroup robustness. Subsequent work developed interpretations of calibration as requiring that a learned predictor be indistinguishable from the Bayes predictor according to a class of tests (Dwork et al., 2021), and variants of calibration that provide downstream decision-theoretic guarantees (Kleinberg et al., 2023; Qiao and Zhao, 2025). Multi-objective learning is a flexible algorithmic framework for multicalibration (Haghtalab et al., 2023) and related multi-distribution learning problems (Zhang et al., 2023). Our techniques build on these works, especially ideas from indistinguishability and algorithms from multi-objective learning.

## 2 MODELS AND PRELIMINARIES

We study batch prediction with binary labels. Let $D$ be a joint distribution over context space $\mathcal{X}$ and binary labels $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$. Let $\mathcal{H} \subset \{h : \mathcal{X} \to \widehat{\mathcal{Y}}\}$ be a class of hypothesis functions, where $\widehat{\mathcal{Y}}$ is the prediction space. We study both the binary prediction setting, where $\widehat{\mathcal{Y}} = \{0, 1\}$, and the probabilistic prediction setting, where $\widehat{\mathcal{Y}} = [0, 1]$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{h : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]\}$ be the class of all real-valued hypothesis functions. Denote the simplex over $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{P}$ as $\Delta(\mathcal{H})$ and $\Delta(\mathcal{P})$, respectively. The simplex in $\mathbb{R}^d$ is denoted by $\Delta^{d-1}$. For tractability, each real-valued hypothesis is quantized to return predictions on the $\lambda$-net of the unit interval, $I_\lambda = \{0, \lambda, 2\lambda, \ldots, 1\}$, where the quantization parameter $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ is chosen by the learner with knowledge of the target error tolerance $\varepsilon$. Let $\mathcal{L} \subset \{\ell : \widehat{\mathcal{Y}} \times \mathcal{Y} \to [-1, 1]\}$ be a class of loss functions that only take the prediction and label as inputs. Let $\mathcal{G} \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{X}}$ be a set of (possibly overlapping) groups on $\mathcal{X}$, with each group identified by a group membership function $g : \mathcal{X} \to \{0, 1\}$. Overloading notation, we say $x \in \mathcal{X}$ belongs to group $g \in \mathcal{G}$ if $g(x) = 1$. We denote group size under $D$ by $P_g = \Pr_{(x,y)\sim D}(g(x) = 1)$.

### 2.1 Panprediction

We formalize the problem of constructing a flexible predictor that downstream decision makers can adapt to minimize many different loss functions on many different tasks. To obtain this flexibility, we require that the universe of all losses, tasks (represented by groups over the domain), and competitor hypotheses of interest to downstream decision makers be pre-specified and collected into the classes $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$. Given this triplet, the goal of panprediction is to use samples from the distribution $D$ to construct a predictor that, for any post-hoc choice of loss $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$ and group $g \in \mathcal{G}$, can be post-processed to compete with the best hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ on the group $g$, as measured by the loss $\ell$. We make the following assumptions about $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})$.

First, we place a regularity condition on $\mathcal{L}$. The total variation of a function $f : [0, 1] \to [-1, 1]$ is defined as

$$V(f) = \sup_{m\in\mathbb{N}} \sup_{0=z_0<\cdots<z_m=1} \sum_{j=1}^{m} |f(z_j) - f(z_{j-1})| .$$

**Assumption 1.** *All losses $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$ have bounded variation in the first argument, meaning*

$$\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}_{BV} \triangleq \left\{ \ell : \sup_{y\in\mathcal{Y}} V(\ell(\cdot, y)) \leq 1 \right\} .$$

This is a very mild restriction: $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$ has infinite cardinality and subsumes all standard loss functions—zero-one loss, the hinge loss, square loss, and pinball loss—as well as 1-Lipschitz functions and proper scoring rules (up to re-scaling). Losses having bounded variation is the weakest assumption made in omniprediction (Okoroafor et al., 2025), a related problem setting discussed in Section 5.

Next, we mildly constrain the expressivity of $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{G}$.

**Assumption 2.** *$\mathcal{H}$ has finite combinatorial dimension.*

If $\mathcal{H}$ is a class of binary predictors, Assumption 2 requires that $\mathcal{H}$ has bounded VC dimension. If $\mathcal{H}$ is real-valued, then Assumption 2 requires that $\mathcal{H}$ has bounded pseudo-dimension. Both are standard assumptions in statistical learning theory.

**Assumption 3.** *$\mathcal{G}$ has finite VC dimension.*

Intuitively, Assumption 3 allows groups to have infinite cardinality and encode rich structure, but requires that they are at least *learnable* from data.

Given Assumptions 1, 2, and 3, we can formally define the desiderata of panprediction.

**Definition 2.1** (Deterministic Panprediction)**.** *Given loss class $\mathcal{L}$, hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$, and set of groups $\mathcal{G}$, a deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is a $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-panpredictor if for all $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), y) \mid g(x) = 1\right] \leq \min_{h\in\mathcal{H}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[\ell(h(x), y) \mid g(x) = 1\right] + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}},$$

*where the post-processing function $k_\ell : [0,1] \to \widehat{\mathcal{Y}}$ is*

$$k_\ell(p) = \arg\min_{\widehat{y}\in\widehat{\mathcal{Y}}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{y\sim\mathrm{Ber}(p)}\left[\ell(\widehat{y}, y)\right] \tag{1}$$

$$= \arg\min_{\widehat{y}\in\widehat{\mathcal{Y}}} \left(p \cdot \ell(\widehat{y}, 1) + (1-p) \cdot \ell(\widehat{y}, 0)\right). \tag{2}$$

The post-processing step involves solving a simple optimization problem, which downstream decision makers can do with no access to $D$, and often in closed form.

We can also define a less restrictive notion of panprediction that allows the predictor $p^*$ to randomize.

**Definition 2.2** (Randomized Panprediction)**.** *Given loss class $\mathcal{L}$, hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$, and set of groups $\mathcal{G}$, a randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ is a $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-panpredictor if for all $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim\boldsymbol{p}^*}\left[\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), y) \mid g(x) = 1\right] \leq \min_{h\in\mathcal{H}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[\ell(h(x), y) \mid g(x) = 1\right] + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

**Remark 2.3** (Deterministic vs Randomized)**.** *All things equal, we prefer deterministic predictors to randomized ones, though they can be more sample-intensive to learn. In the sequel, we state most definitions and results for deterministic predictors, and defer a formal statement of the randomized variants to Appendix 8.*

**Remark 2.4** (Conditional Guarantees)**.** *We define panprediction risk as a group-conditional expectation, and error tolerance as scaling inversely with the square root of each group's size under $D$. Both are strong guarantees sought in multi-group learning and multicalibration (Tosh and Hsu, 2022; Haghtalab et al., 2023). The choice of error tolerance scaling, in particular, reflects the optimal sample complexity of learning each group using samples from $D$.*

All our definitions of panprediction are non-vacuous, since the Bayes predictor $\mathbb{E}[y \mid x]$ is a panpredictor for *all* $\mathcal{L}$, $\mathcal{G}$, and $\mathcal{H}$. Consequently, a panpredictor can be interpreted as a coarsening of the Bayes predictor with respect to a particular set of losses, groups, and hypotheses. We make this notion of "coarsening" precise in the following discussion of step calibration.

## 2.2 Step Calibration

Calibration—which requires that a probabilistic predictor is unbiased on its own level set—is the key property of the Bayes predictor that makes it useful for a wide range of downstream decision makers. Calibration is a sufficient condition for decision making, in the sense that decision makers that treat *any* calibrated predictor as the Bayes predictor enjoy provable loss minimization guarantees (Foster and Vohra, 1997; Gopalan et al., 2022b). However, full calibration can be more statistically expensive than direct loss minimization, and recent work has explored efficiently attainable notions of calibration that retain decision-theoretic guarantees (Kleinberg et al., 2023).

One such notion is *step calibration* (Qiao and Zhao, 2025), also known as proper calibration (Okoroafor et al., 2025). In contrast to full calibration, step calibration only requires that a predictor is unbiased on its *sublevel* set. That is, on the set of all instances whose predicted probability is at most a given threshold. Below, we introduce a multi-objective variant of step calibration that not only holds marginally, but also on carefully defined subsets of the domain.

**Definition 2.5** ($(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-Step Calibration)**.** *A deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated if for all $v, w \in [0,1]$, $h \in \mathcal{H}$, and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}\left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \leq v, h(x) \leq w] \mid g(x) = 1\right]\right| \leq \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

In addition to serving as the indicator for sublevel sets of $p^*$, the step function $\mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \leq v]$ serves an approximation-theoretic purpose, as a natural basis for bounded variation functions. This connection is further discussed in Section 3. Also notice that in Definition 2.5, we condition on the event $\{g(x) = 1\}$, as in the formulation of panprediction risk, and take an indicator on the events $\{p^*(x) \leq v\}$ and $\{h(x) \leq w\}$.

We sometimes invoke a weaker notion of unbiasedness, called multiaccuracy, that does not take an indicator on the (sub)level sets of the predictor.

**Definition 2.6** ($(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-Multiaccuracy)**.** *A deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-*

*multiaccurate if for all $w \in [0,1]$, $h \in \mathcal{H}$, and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \le \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

Randomized variants of Definition 2.5 and 2.6 are deferred to Appendix 8.

# 3 REDUCING TO STEP CALIBRATION

We now show that panprediction admits a clear reduction to step calibration by extending the language of outcome indistinguishability, which was originally developed for omniprediction (Gopalan et al., 2022a; Dwork et al., 2021). In this section, we assume $\widehat{\mathcal{Y}} = [0,1]$. The setting with $\widehat{\mathcal{Y}} = \{0,1\}$ is strictly easier and follows readily from our arguments.

## 3.1 Loss Outcome Indistinguishability

The Loss OI framework (Gopalan et al., 2022a) is useful for deducing sufficient conditions for panprediction guarantees to hold. For *any* deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$, by the definition of the post-processing function $k_\ell$, the following inequality holds: for all $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$, $g \in \mathcal{G}$, $h \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x) = 1] \tag{3}$$

$$\le \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\ell(h(x), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x) = 1]. \tag{4}$$

To derive the deterministic $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, O(\varepsilon))$-panpredictor guarantee from here, it suffices to show that $p^*$ approximates the true Bayes predictor well in some sense. Concretely, for all $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$, $g \in \mathcal{G}$, and $h \in \mathcal{H}$, we want the following inequalities to hold:

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), y) \mid g(x) = 1] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \le \frac{O(\varepsilon)}{\sqrt{P_g}},$$

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [\ell(h(x), y) \mid g(x) = 1] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\ell(h(x), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \le \frac{O(\varepsilon)}{\sqrt{P_g}}.$$

The first condition is called Decision OI, and the second condition, Hypothesis OI. To characterize each in terms of familiar terms, take the following definition.

**Definition 3.1** (Discrete Derivative)**.** *Given a loss $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$, define the discrete derivative*

$$\Delta\ell(p) = \ell(p,1) - \ell(p,0).$$

*Given a loss class $\mathcal{L}$, let $\Delta\mathcal{L} = \{\Delta\ell \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}\}$ be the class of corresponding discrete derivatives.*

Intuitively, $\Delta\ell(p)$ quantifies how sharply $\ell$ distinguishes between $y = 1$ and $y = 0$ given a prediction $p \in [0,1]$. Then Decision and Hypothesis OI can be respectively written as

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \le \frac{O(\varepsilon)}{\sqrt{P_g}},$$

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \le \frac{O(\varepsilon)}{\sqrt{P_g}}.$$

This reformulation suggests that Decision OI can be deduced from a certain calibration condition, and Hypothesis OI, from a certain multiaccuracy condition.

## 3.2 Reducing Deterministic Panprediction to Deterministic Step Calibration

Now we show that deterministic $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibration implies both sufficient conditions found above.

**Theorem 3.2.** *If a deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated, then $p^*$ is a deterministic $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, O(\varepsilon))$-panpredictor.*

We prove Theorem 3.2 by decomposing the step calibration guarantee into a calibration and a multiaccuracy guarantee (Lemma 3.3), then showing that the calibration guarantee implies Decision OI (Lemma 3.5), and that the multiaccuracy guarantee implies Hypothesis OI (Lemma 3.6).

**Lemma 3.3.** *If a deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated, then $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated and $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccurate.*

The proof of Lemma 3.3 is straightforward and is deferred to Appendix 9. To prove the remaining two lemmas, it is useful to invoke the following technical result on approximating (the discrete derivative of) bounded variation functions with step functions.

**Lemma 3.4.** *Suppose $\ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$. Then for any predic-*

*tor $f : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1]\right| \leq 9 \sup_{v\in[0,1]} \left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[f(x) \leq v] \mid g(x) = 1]\right| + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

Lemma 3.4 can be invoked with $f = p^*$ or $f = h$, for any $h \in \mathcal{H}$, and helps upper bound expressions arising from Decision and Hypothesis OI in terms of step calibration error. Its proof is deferred to Appendix 9.

**Lemma 3.5.** *If a deterministic predictor $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated, then for all $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) \mid g(x) = 1]\right| \leq \frac{O(\varepsilon)}{\sqrt{P_g}}.$$

*Proof of Lemma 3.5.* For any loss $\ell : [0,1] \times \mathcal{Y} \to [-1,1]$ and constants $p, q \in [0,1]$, by definition of $k_\ell$,

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{y\sim\mathrm{Ber}(p)}[\ell(k_\ell(p), y)] \leq \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{y\sim\mathrm{Ber}(p)}[\ell(k_\ell(q), y)].$$

Hence, $\ell(k_\ell(\cdot), y) : [0,1] \to [-1,1]$ is a proper scoring rule and is contained in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$. Then by invoking Lemma 3.4 with $f = p^*$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) \mid g(x) = 1]\right| \\
&\leq 9 \sup_{v\in[0,1]} \left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \leq v] \mid g(x) = 1]\right| \\
&\qquad + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}} \\
&\leq O(\varepsilon) \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}},
\end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from the $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibration guarantee. □

**Lemma 3.6.** *If a deterministic predictor $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccurate, then for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$, $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) \mid g(x) = 1]\right| \leq \frac{O(\varepsilon)}{\sqrt{P_g}}.$$

*Proof of Lemma 3.6.* By assumption, $\ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$. Then by applying Lemma 3.4 with $f = h$ for any $h \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) \mid g(x) = 1]\right| \\
&\leq 9 \sup_{w\in[0,1]} \left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D}[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[h(x) \leq w] \mid g(x) = 1]\right| \\
&\qquad + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}} \\
&\leq O(\varepsilon) \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}},
\end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from the $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccuracy guarantee. □

*Proof of Theorem 3.2.* Starting with Equation 4 and invoking Lemmas 3.3, 3.5, and 3.6 to swap terms on both sides of the inequality, at the cost of additive error $O(\varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}})$, immediately yields the result. □

### 3.3 Extensions for Randomized Panprediction

By extending the Loss OI machinery to work with the definitions randomized step calibration and randomized multiaccuracy, we can also show that randomized step calibration implies randomized panprediction. The statement and proof of the randomized variants of results are deferred to Appendix 9.

## 4 STEP CALIBRATION ALGORITHMS

In this section, we derive algorithms for deterministic and randomized step calibration using the multi-objective learning framework. Our deterministic step calibration algorithm improves on the best known sample complexity guarantee of deterministic omniprediction by a factor of $1/\varepsilon$. Moreover, the sample complexity of our algorithms match the best known sample complexity guarantees of deterministic and randomized multi-group learning, up to logarithmic factors, demonstrating that panprediction guarantees can be attained "for free" whenever multi-group guarantees are sought.

### 4.1 Multi-objective Learning

Fix a distribution $D$, a hypothesis class $\mathcal{F}$, and a set of bounded objectives $\mathcal{O} = \{\ell : \mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to [a,b]\}$. The goal of the $(D, \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{F})$-multi-objective learning framework, formalized by Haghtalab et al. (2023), is finding a deterministic predictor $f^* \in \mathcal{F}$ such that

$$\max_{\ell\in\mathcal{O}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(f^*(x), y)] \tag{5}$$

$$\leq \min_{f\in\mathcal{F}} \max_{\ell\in\mathcal{O}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(f(x), y)] + \varepsilon. \tag{6}$$

A randomized predictor $\mathbf{f}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{F})$ can also be found, with the expectation on the left hand side of Equation 5 holding on average over the draw of $f^* \sim \mathbf{f}^*$. Below, we show that the $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibration problem can be formulated as a multi-objective problem. In the rest of the paper, we assume that the group probabilities $\{P_g\}_{g\in\mathcal{G}}$ are known constants, and denote $\gamma = \min_{g\in\mathcal{G}} P_g$. This is a standard assumption in, e.g., multi-group learning (Tosh and Hsu, 2022).

**Theorem 4.1.** *Fix a distribution $D$, the competitor hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$, and a set of groups $\mathcal{G}$. For each*

*$\sigma \in \{\pm 1\}$, $v, w \in [0,1]$, $h \in \mathcal{H}$, and $g \in \mathcal{G}$, define the objective $\ell_{\sigma,v,w,h,g} : \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to [-1/\sqrt{\gamma}, 1/\sqrt{\gamma}]$ as*

$$\ell_{\sigma,v,w,h,g}(p,(x,y)) = \frac{\sigma \cdot (y - p(x))}{\sqrt{P_g}} \cdot \mathbb{1}[p(x) \le v, h(x) \le w, g(x) = 1].$$

*Let $\mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}} = \{\ell_{\sigma,v,w,h,g}\}$ be the set of all such objectives. If $p^* \in \mathcal{P}$ is an $\varepsilon$-optimal solution to the $(D, \mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}}, \mathcal{P})$-multi-objective learning problem, then $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, O(\varepsilon))$-step calibrated.*

*Proof of Theorem 4.1.* By assumption that $p^*$ is an $\varepsilon$-optimal solution to the $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}}, \mathcal{P})$-multi-objective learning problem, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\max_{\sigma,v,w,h,g} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [\ell_{\sigma,v,w,h,g}(p^*,(x,y))] \\
&\quad \le \min_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \max_{v,w,h,g} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [\ell_{\sigma,v,w,h,g}(p,(x,y))] + \varepsilon \\
&\quad = \varepsilon,
\end{aligned}$$

where the last equality holds because the expectation is zero when $p$ is the Bayes predictor. Since

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le v, h(x) \le w, g(x) = 1]] \right| \\
&= P_g \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D} [(y - p^*(x)) \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le v, h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1] \right|
\end{aligned}$$

it follows that for all $v, w \in [0,1]$, $h \in \mathcal{H}$, and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le v, h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \\
&\quad \le \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4.1 establishes that step calibrated predictors correspond to the approximate equilibria of a particular two-player, zero-sum game. Following Haghtalab et al. (2023), we construct step calibration algorithms that use tools from online learning to solve this game.

A technical detail that must be handled before designing algorithms is the fact that $\mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}}$ can have infinite cardinality. In order to make algorithms tractable, we leverage Assumptions 1, 2, and 3 to construct a finite cover, denoted by $\widehat{O}_{\text{sc}}$. This covering argument is standard in statistical learning theory, and details are deferred to Appendix 10.

### 4.2 Deterministic Step Calibration

Below, we build intuition about our algorithms and state guarantees. Technical details are deferred to Appendix 10.

Per Haghtalab et al. (2023), deterministic solutions to the multiobjective problem can be found via "no-regret vs best-response" dynamics between a fictitious player, who constructs a sequence of predictors using a no-regret algorithm, and a fictitious adversary, who constructs a sequence of objectives using a best-response oracle. In our setting, the player is instantiated with a copy of the Hedge algorithm (Freund and Schapire, 1997) per point $x \in \mathcal{X}$. The player's prediction at $x \in \mathcal{X}$ at iteration $t$ is denoted by $p^{(t)}(x)$ and evolves according to the Hedge update rule, which takes (a light modification of) the historical loss functions $\ell^{(1)}, \ldots, \ell^{(t-1)}$ as input. In turn, at each iteration, the adversary selects a loss $\ell^{(t)} \in \mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}}$ that approximately maximizes penalty against the player's Hedge algorithm. That is, given predictor $p^{(t)}$, objectives $\mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}}$, and error tolerance $\varepsilon'$, $\ell^{(t)} \in \mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}}$ is chosen such that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ \ell(p^{(t)},(x,y)) \right] \\
&\quad \ge \max_{\ell^* \in \mathcal{O}_{\text{sc}}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ \ell^*(p^{(t)},(x,y)) \right] - \varepsilon'.
\end{aligned}$$

The above computation is abstracted into a best-response oracle $\mathcal{A}$. This oracle requires samples from $D$ to approximate the expectation, and uses techniques from adaptive data analysis (Bassily et al., 2015) in order to reduce sample complexity overhead. Putting everything together in Algorithm 1, we have the following result.

**Theorem 4.2.** *Fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta \in (0,1)$. Let $d_H$ be the appropriate combinatorial dimension of $\mathcal{H}$ and $d_G$ the VC dimension of $\mathcal{G}$. Then with probability at least $1 - \delta$ and at most $\widetilde{O}\left(\varepsilon^{-3} \cdot (d_H + d_G) \cdot \log(1/\delta)\right)$ samples from $D$, Algorithm 1 returns a deterministic predictor $p^*$ that is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated.*

The proof of Theorem 4.2 is deferred to Appendix 10. Notably, the $\widetilde{O}\left(\varepsilon^{-3} \cdot d_H\right)$ sample complexity guarantee improves the best known sample complexity guarantee of $\widetilde{O}\left(\varepsilon^{-4} \cdot d_H\right)$ for deterministic omniprediction (Okoroafor et al., 2025) by a factor of $\varepsilon^{-1}$. Moreover, it matches the best known sample complexity guarantee for deterministic multi-group learning (Tosh and Hsu, 2022) up to logarithmic factors.

### 4.3 Randomized Step Calibration

Per Haghtalab et al. (2023), randomized solutions to the multi-objective problem can be found via "no-regret vs no-regret" dynamics. In our setting, this corresponds to using instantiations of Hedge to construct the predictor $p^{(t)}$ and another instantiation of Hedge to select the losses $\ell^{(t)}$ on which the predictor is updated. An advantage of this dynamic, over the no-regret vs best-response dynamics considered for deterministic multi-objective learning, is that it only incurs a sample complexity of $\widetilde{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$.

**Algorithm 1** Deterministic Step Calibration

**Require:** $\varepsilon, \delta \in (0,1)$, $T \in \mathbb{N}$, $c \in [0,1]$, $C \in \mathbb{N}$, sampling access to $D$, best response oracle $\mathcal{A}$

Initialize Hedge iterate $p^{(1)} \leftarrow [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]^{\mathcal{X}}$

**for** $t = 1, \ldots, T$ **do**

Update

$$\ell^{(t)} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}\big(p^{(t)}, \widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{sc}}, c\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}\big),$$

where $\widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{sc}}$ is a modification of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sc}}$ specified in Appendix 10

For each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, update

$$p^{(t+1)}(x) \leftarrow \mathrm{Hedge}\big(c_x^{(1)}, \ldots, c_x^{(t)}\big),$$

where $c_x^{(t)}$ is a modification of $\ell^{(t)}$ specified in Appendix 10

**end for**

Draw $m \leftarrow \frac{C\log(T/\delta)}{\varepsilon^2}$ samples $z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(m)} \sim D$

$t^* \leftarrow \arg\min_{t\in[T]} \sum_{(x,y)\in z^{(1:m)}} \ell^{(t)}\big(p^{(t)}, (x,y)\big)$

**return** $p^{(t^*)}$

**Algorithm 2** Randomized Step Calibration

**Require:** $\varepsilon, \delta \in (0,1)$, $T \in \mathbb{N}$, $c \in [0,1]$, $C \in \mathbb{N}$, sampling access to $D$

Initialize Hedge iterates $p^{(1)} \leftarrow [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]^{\mathcal{X}}$ and $q^{(1)} = \mathrm{Uniform}(\widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{sc}})$.

**for** $t = 1, \ldots, T$ **do**

Sample objective $\ell^{(t)} \sim q^{(t)}$ and data point $(x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}) \sim D$

For each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, update

$$p^{(t+1)}(x) \leftarrow \mathrm{Hedge}\big(c_x^{(1)}, \ldots, c_x^{(t)}\big),$$

where $c_x^{(t)}(\widehat{y})$ is a modification of $\ell^{(t)}$ as specified in Appendix 10

Let $q^{(t+1)} = \mathrm{Hedge}(c_{\mathrm{adv}}^{(1)}, \ldots, c_{\mathrm{adv}}^{(t)})$ where $c_{\mathrm{adv}}^{(t)} = 1 - \ell_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)}, (x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}))$

**end for**

**return** $\boldsymbol{p}^*$, a uniform distribution over $p^{(1)}, \ldots, p^{(T)}$

**Theorem 4.3.** *Fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta \in (0,1)$. Let $d_H$ be the appropriate combinatorial dimension of $\mathcal{H}$ and $d_G$ the VC dimension of $\mathcal{G}$. Then with probability at least $1-\delta$ and at most $\widetilde{O}\left(\varepsilon^{-2}\cdot(d_H + d_G)\cdot\log(1/\delta)\right)$ samples from $D$, Algorithm 2 returns a randomized predictor $p^*$ that is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated.*

The proof of Theorem 4.3 is deferred to Appendix 10. Importantly, the above result matches the best known sample complexity guarantees of randomized omniprediction (Okoroafor et al., 2025) and multi-group learning (Tosh and Hsu, 2022) up to logarithmic factors. Furthermore, the $\widetilde{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$ rate is minimax optimal for minimizing one loss over one task. This establishes that under mild assumptions—such as allowing for randomized predictors—simultaneously minimizing infinitely many losses on infinitely many tasks can be as statistically easy as minimizing one loss on one task. This strengthens the conclusion of Okoroafor et al. (2025), that simultaneously minimizing infinitely many losses can be as statistically easy as minimizing one loss.

# 5 CONNECTIONS TO OMNIPREDICTION AND MULTI-GROUP LEARNING

In this section, we make precise how panprediction generalizes the problems of *omniprediction* (Gopalan et al., 2022b; Okoroafor et al., 2025) and *multi-group learning* (Rothblum and Yona, 2021; Tosh and Hsu, 2022), which respectively study predictions that generalize to many losses or many tasks, but not both.

## 5.1 Omniprediction

The goal of omniprediction is to use samples from $D$ to construct a predictor that, for any post-hoc choice of loss $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$, can be post-processed to compete with the best hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$, as measured by the loss $\ell$.

**Definition 5.1** (Deterministic Omniprediction)**.** *Given loss class $\mathcal{L}$ and hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$, a deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is a $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-omnipredictor if for each $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$,*

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), y)] \leq \min_{h\in\mathcal{H}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(h(x), y)] + \varepsilon.$$

*The post-processing $k_\ell$ is defined as in Equation 1.*

By symmetry in the definitions, a deterministic panpredictor with the trivial group over the entire domain, $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{X}\}$, is a deterministic omnipredictor.

**Proposition 5.2.** *Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a loss class and $\mathcal{H}$ a hypothesis class. If the deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is a $(\mathcal{L}, \{\mathcal{X}\}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-panpredictor, then $p^*$ is a deterministic $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-omnipredictor.*

The definition of randomized omniprediction, and a corresponding result that a randomized panpredictor with $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{X}\}$ is a randomized omnipredictor, are deferred to Appendix 11.

### 5.2 Multi-group Learning

The goal of multi-group learning is to use samples from $D$ to construct a predictor that, on each group $g \in \mathcal{G}$, competes with best hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ for that group, as measured by the zero-one loss.

**Definition 5.3** (Deterministic MG Learning)**.** *Given the zero-one loss $\ell$, set of groups $\mathcal{G}$, and binary hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$, a deterministic hypothesis $h^* : \mathcal{X} \to \{0,1\}$ is a $(\ell, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multi-group learner if for each group $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(h^*(x), y) \mid g(x) = 1] \leq \min_{h\in\mathcal{H}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(h(x), y) \mid g(x) = 1] + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

Panprediction sits upstream from multi-group learning, in the sense that the post-processing of an appropriate panpredictor is a multi-group learning solution.

**Proposition 5.4.** *Fix the zero-one loss $\ell$, groups $\mathcal{G}$, and binary hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$. If a deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is a $(\{\ell\}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-panpredictor, then the binary classifier $h(x) = \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \geq 0.5]$ is a deterministic $(\ell, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multi-group learner.*

The definition of randomized multi-group learning, and a corresponding result that the post-processing of an appropriate randomized panpredictor is a randomized multi-group learning solution, are deferred to Appendix 11.

## 6 DISCUSSION

We formalize the problem of panprediction in the binary prediction setting and design statistically efficient panpredictors via a reduction to step calibration. Important questions for future work include:

- Is the $\varepsilon^{-1}$ sample complexity gap between deterministic and randomized panprediction fundamental? This question also remains open in both omniprediction (Okoroafor et al., 2025) and multi-group learning (Tosh and Hsu, 2022).
- What is the sample complexity of oracle-efficient panprediction, and is there a gap compared to the information-theoretic bounds we prove? Similar questions on statistical-computational gaps are only just being explored in omniprediction (Okoroafor et al., 2025) and multi-group learning (Deng et al., 2024).
- Can multi-class panprediction be achieved with the same sample complexity as direct multi-class loss minimization? This question also remains open in omniprediction.

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## Checklist

1. For all models and algorithms presented, check if you include:
   (a) A clear description of the mathematical setting, assumptions, algorithm, and/or model. **Yes**
   (b) An analysis of the properties and complexity (time, space, sample size) of any algorithm. **Yes**
   (c) (Optional) Anonymized source code, with specification of all dependencies, including external libraries. **Not applicable**

2. For any theoretical claim, check if you include:
   (a) Statements of the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results. **Yes**
   (b) Complete proofs of all theoretical results. **Yes**
   (c) Clear explanations of any assumptions. **Yes**

3. For all figures and tables that present empirical results, check if you include:
   (a) The code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL). **Not applicable**
   (b) All the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen). **Not applicable**
   (c) A clear definition of the specific measure or statistics and error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times). **Not applicable**
   (d) A description of the computing infrastructure used. (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider).**Not applicable**

4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets, check if you include:
   (a) Citations of the creator If your work uses existing assets. **Not applicable**
   (b) The license information of the assets, if applicable. **Not applicable**
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   (d) Information about consent from data providers/curators. **Not applicable**
   (e) Discussion of sensible content if applicable, e.g., personally identifiable information or offensive content. **Not applicable**

5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects, check if you include:
   (a) The full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots. **Not applicable**
   (b) Descriptions of potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals if applicable. **Not applicable**
   (c) The estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation. **Not applicable**

# Panprediction: Supplemental Materials

## 8 DEFERRED DEFINITIONS FROM SECTION 2

### 8.1 Quantizing Real-valued Hypotheses

We say a hypothesis is real-valued if $h : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$. For tractability, real-valued hypotheses are quantized so that they return predictions that are on the $\lambda$-net of the unit interval $[0,1]$, denoted by $I_\lambda$. Importantly, $\lambda$ is a quantization parameter that the learner selects with knowledge of the target error tolerance $\varepsilon$. Formally, given a class of real-valued hypotheses $\mathcal{H}$, we can define the quantized class

$$\mathcal{H}_\lambda = \{h_\lambda : \mathcal{X} \to I_\lambda \mid h_\lambda(x) = Q_\lambda(h(x)),\, h \in \mathcal{H}\},$$

where the "nearest neighbor" quantization map $Q_\lambda : [0,1] \to I_\lambda$ is defined as

$$Q_\lambda(p) = \arg\min_{p' \in I_\lambda} |p - p'|\,.$$

In all that follows, it suffices to set $\lambda = \Theta(\varepsilon)$.

### 8.2 Combinatorial Dimensions

We recall the definitions of combinatorial dimensions we consider for the classes $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{G}$. For binary hypotheses, we consider the VC dimension. For real-valued hypotheses, we consider the pseudo-dimension. Roughly, hypothesis classes with infinite cardinality but bounded combinatorial dimension admit finite covers with cardinality that is exponential in the combinatorial dimension.

**Definition 8.1** (VC Dimension)**.** *Suppose $\mathcal{H}$ is a class of binary hypotheses, i.e., $h : \mathcal{X} \to \{0,1\}$ for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$. A finite set $S = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\} \subset \mathcal{X}$ is shattered by $\mathcal{H}$ if for every labeling $y \in \{0,1\}^m$, there exists $h \in \mathcal{H}$ with $h(x_i) = y_i$ for all $i \in [m]$. The VC dimension of $\mathcal{H}$, denoted by $\mathrm{VC}(\mathcal{H})$, is the size of the largest set $S$ that is shattered by $\mathcal{H}$.*

**Definition 8.2** (Fat-Shattering Dimension)**.** *Suppose $\mathcal{H}$ is a class of real-valued hypotheses, i.e., $h : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$. Fix $\varepsilon' > 0$. A finite set $S = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\} \subset \mathcal{X}$ is $\varepsilon'$-shattered by $\mathcal{H}$ if there exist threshold values $w_1, \ldots, w_m \in [0,1]$ such that for every subset $S' \subseteq S$, there exists $h_{S'} \in \mathcal{H}$ with*

$$\begin{aligned} h_{S'}(x_i) &\geq w_i + \varepsilon' \quad \text{for} \quad x_i \in S', \\ h_{S'}(x_i) &\leq w_i - \varepsilon' \quad \text{for} \quad x_i \notin S'. \end{aligned}$$

*The fat-shattering dimension of $\mathcal{H}$ at scale $\varepsilon'$, denoted by $\mathrm{fat}_{\varepsilon'}(\mathcal{H})$, is the size of the largest set $S$ that is $\varepsilon'$-shattered by $\mathcal{H}$.*

**Definition 8.3** (Pseudo-dimension)**.** *Suppose $\mathcal{H}$ is a class of real-valued hypotheses. The pseudo-dimension of $\mathcal{H}$, denoted by $\mathrm{Pdim}(\mathcal{H})$, is defined as $\lim_{\varepsilon' \downarrow 0} \mathrm{fat}_{\varepsilon'}(\mathcal{H})$.*

### 8.3 Definitions with Randomized Predictors

We define the variants of step calibration and multi-accuracy that allow for randomized predictors $\mathbf{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$. These definitions follow straightforwardly from Definitions 2.5 and 2.6, by taking an additional expectation over the draw of $p^* \sim \mathbf{p}^*$.

**Definition 8.4** (Randomized $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-Step Calibration)**.** *A randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated if for all $v \in [0,1]$, $w \in [0,1]$, $h \in \mathcal{H}$, and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y) \sim D,\, p^* \sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \leq v, h(x) \leq w] \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \leq \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

**Definition 8.5** (Randomized $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-Multiaccuracy)**.** *A randomized predictor* $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ *is* $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$*-multiaccurate if for all* $w \in [0,1]$*,* $h \in \mathcal{H}$*, and* $g \in \mathcal{G}$*,*

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \le \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

# 9 DEFERRED RESULTS AND PROOFS FROM SECTION 3

## 9.1 Loss Outcome Indistinguishability

For completeness, we show that the two characterizations of Decision and Hypothesis OI that we gave in Section 3 are equivalent. This derivation is a straightforward extension of the machinery that Gopalan et al. (2022a) developed for the omniprediction setting.

Suppose the predictor $p^*$ is deterministic. We can deconstruct the Decision OI condition as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), y) \mid g(x) = 1] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \\
&= \Bigg| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [y \cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), 1) + (1-y) \cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), 0) \mid g(x) = 1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\widetilde{y} \cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), 1) + (1-\widetilde{y}) \cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), 0) \mid g(x) = 1] \Bigg| \\
&= \Bigg| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [y \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) + \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), 0) \mid g(x) = 1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{x\sim D} \left[ \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))} [\widetilde{y} \mid x] \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) + \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), 0) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \Bigg| \\
&= \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) \mid g(x) = 1] \right|.
\end{aligned}$$

An identical argument applies to Hypothesis OI.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [\ell(h(x), y) \mid g(x) = 1] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\ell(h(x), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \\
&= \Bigg| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [y \cdot \ell(h(x), 1) + (1-y) \cdot \ell(h(x), 0) \mid g(x) = 1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}} [\widetilde{y} \cdot \ell(h(x), 1) + (1-\widetilde{y}) \cdot \ell(h(x), 0) \mid g(x) = 1] \Bigg| \\
&= \Bigg| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [y \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) + \ell(h(x), 0) \mid g(x) = 1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{x\sim D} \left[ \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))} [\widetilde{y} \mid x] \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) + \ell(h(x), 0) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \Bigg| \\
&= \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) \mid g(x) = 1] \right|.
\end{aligned}$$

The same steps apply to randomized $\boldsymbol{p}^*$, with an additional expectation taken over the draw of $p^* \sim \boldsymbol{p}^*$. For

Decision OI, this means

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), y) \mid g(x)=1] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^* \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}}[\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x)=1]\right| \\
&= \Bigg|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[y\cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)),1) + (1-y)\cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)),0) \mid g(x)=1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^* \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}}[\widetilde{y}\cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)),1) + (1-\widetilde{y})\cdot \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)),0) \mid g(x)=1]\Bigg| \\
&= \Bigg|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[y\cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) + \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)),0) \mid g(x)=1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{x\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}\left[\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}[\widetilde{y} \mid x,\, p^*]\cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) + \ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)),0) \mid g(x)=1\right]\Bigg| \\
&= \left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[(y-p^*(x))\cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) \mid g(x)=1]\right|.
\end{aligned}$$

For Hypothesis OI, this means

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[\ell(h(x), y) \mid g(x)=1] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^* \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}}[\ell(h(x), \widetilde{y}) \mid g(x)=1]\right| \\
&= \Bigg|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[y\cdot \ell(h(x),1) + (1-y)\cdot \ell(h(x),0) \mid g(x)=1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\substack{x\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^* \\ \widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}}[\widetilde{y}\cdot \ell(h(x),1) + (1-\widetilde{y})\cdot \ell(h(x)0) \mid g(x)=1]\Bigg| \\
&= \Bigg|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[y\cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) + \ell(h(x),0) \mid g(x)=1] \\
&\qquad - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{x\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}\left[\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\widetilde{y}\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p^*(x))}[\widetilde{y} \mid x,\, p^*]\cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) + \ell(h(x),0) \mid g(x)=1\right]\Bigg| \\
&= \left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*}[(y-p^*(x))\cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) \mid g(x)=1]\right|.
\end{aligned}$$

### 9.2 From Deterministic Step Calibration to Deterministic Panprediction

First, we restate and prove Lemma 3.3, the decomposition helper lemma used to prove Theorem 3.2.

**Lemma 3.3.** *If a deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated, then $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated and $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccurate.*

*Proof of Lemma 3.3.* For the first statement, fix any $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $w = 1$. Recall that by definition of $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibration, we have that for all $v \in [0,1]$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[(y-p^*(x))\cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x)\le v, h(x)\le 1] \mid g(x)=1]\right| \\
&\qquad = \left|\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[(y-p^*(x))\cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x)\le v] \mid g(x)=1]\right| \le \varepsilon\cdot\sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated.

For the second statement, fix $v = 1$. $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibration also guarantees that for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$, $w \in [0,1]$, and

$g \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le 1, h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1] \right| = \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \le \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

Hence, $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccurate. □

Next, we prove Lemma 3.4, the approximation-theoretic helper lemma used to prove Theorem 3.2. The following exposition closely follows that of Okoroafor et al. (2025).

We begin by recalling Assumption 1.

**Definition 9.1** (Bounded variation loss)**.** *The total variation of a loss function $\ell : \widehat{\mathcal{Y}} \times \mathcal{Y} \to [-1, 1]$ in its first argument is*

$$\sup_{y\in\mathcal{Y}} V(\ell(\cdot, y)) = \sup_{y\in\mathcal{Y}} \sup_{m\in\mathbb{N}} \sup_{0=z_0<\cdots<z_m=1} \sum_{j=1}^{m} |\ell(z_j, y) - \ell(z_{j-1}, y)|.$$

*The class of all loss functions whose total variation in the first argument is bounded is denoted by $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$.*

For simplicity, we can say that $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}} = \{\ell : [0, 1] \to [-1, 1] \mid \sup_y V(\ell(\cdot, y)) \le 1\}$. This is without loss of generality, since $\ell$ with total variation $v < \infty$ can be rescaled to $v^{-1} \cdot \ell$ to fall into this simpler class. Rescaling does not change relevant properties of the loss, e.g., what predictor minimizes the loss. Observe that $\Delta\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}} = \{\Delta\ell \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}, V(\Delta\ell) \le 2\}$ is also a class of bounded variation functions.

An important subset of bounded variation losses is proper losses.

**Definition 9.2** (Proper loss)**.** *A bounded loss function $\ell : [0, 1] \times \mathcal{Y} \to [-1, 1]$ is a proper loss if for all $p, q \in [0, 1]$,*

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{y\sim\mathrm{Ber}(p)} [\ell(p, y)] \le \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{y\sim\mathrm{Ber}(p)} [\ell(q, y)].$$

A proper loss $\ell$ has bounded variation, as $\Delta\ell(p) = \ell(p, 1) - \ell(p, 0)$ decreases monotonically as $p \to 1$. Additionally, when $\ell$ is bounded on $[-1, 1]$, it follows that $V(\Delta\ell) \le 2$.

Given a loss class $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$, our goal is to approximate functions in $\Delta\mathcal{L} \subseteq \Delta\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$ with a finite basis of simple functions. To begin, we rigorously define what we consider an approximate basis, then give two examples. At a technical level, our approach combines those of Okoroafor et al. (2025) and Qiao and Zhao (2025).

**Definition 9.3** ($\varepsilon$-approximate basis)**.** *Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \{f : [0, 1] \to [-1, 1]\}$ be a function class. A set of functions $\mathcal{B} = \{\beta : [0, 1] \to [-1, 1]\}$ forms a $\varepsilon$-approximate basis with sparsity $s \in \mathbb{N}$ and coefficient norm $C > 0$ if for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$, there exists a finite subset $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_s \in \mathcal{B}$ and coefficients $c_1, \ldots, c_s \in [-1, 1]$ such that for all $p \in [0, 1]$,*

$$\left| f(x) - \sum_{j=1}^{s} c_j \cdot \beta_j(x) \right| \le \varepsilon \quad \textit{and} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{s} |c_j| \le C.$$

**Definition 9.4** (Threshold functions)**.** *For $v \in [0, 1]$, define $\mathrm{Th}_v : [0, 1] \to \{-1, 1\}$,*

$$\mathrm{Th}_v(p) = \mathrm{sign}(v - p) = \begin{cases} +1 & \textit{if} \quad p \le v \\ -1 & \textit{if} \quad p > v. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 9.5** (Step functions)**.** *For $v \in [0, 1]$, define Step$_v : [0, 1] \to \{0, 1\}$, $\mathrm{Step}_v(p) = \mathbb{1}[p \le v]$.*

As observed in Lemma A.1 of Qiao and Zhao (2025), threshold functions and step functions are related by the fact that

$$\mathrm{Th}_v(p) = \mathbb{1}[p \le v] - \mathbb{1}[p > v] = 2 \cdot \mathbb{1}[p \le v] - \mathbb{1}[p \le 1]. \tag{7}$$

**Proposition 9.6** (Lemma 5.6 in Okoroafor et al. (2025)). *For any $\varepsilon > 0$, the uncountably infinite set of threshold functions*

$$\mathbf{Th} \coloneqq \{\mathrm{Th}_v \mid v \in [0,1]\}$$

*forms a $\varepsilon$-basis for $\Delta\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}} = \{\Delta\ell \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}\}$ with sparsity $\lceil \frac{2}{\varepsilon} + 1 \rceil$ and coefficient norm 3.*

The fact that the approximate basis of $\Delta\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$ is uncountably infinite is not a problem for the proof of Lemma 3.4, but can be problematic for the design of algorithms that take the approximate basis functions as input. Fortunately, an approximate basis of finite size can always be found when the inputs to $\Delta\ell$, i.e., the predictions made by $p^* \in \mathcal{P}$ and $h \in \mathcal{H}$, are quantized to the $\lambda$-net of the unit interval, $I_\lambda$. This observation is formalized below.

**Proposition 9.7** (Lemma 5.7 in Okoroafor et al. (2025)). *Suppose the inputs to each $\Delta\ell \in \Delta\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$ is restricted to $I_\lambda$. Then for all $\varepsilon > 0$, the finite set of threshold functions*

$$\mathbf{Th}_\lambda \coloneqq \{\mathrm{Th}_v \mid v \in I_\lambda\}$$

*forms an $\varepsilon$-basis for $\Delta\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$ with sparsity $\lceil \frac{2}{\varepsilon} + 1 \rceil$ and coefficient norm 3.*

With the above results in hand, we can prove Lemma 3.4.

**Lemma 3.4.** *Suppose $\ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$. Then for any predictor $f : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \\
&\quad \le 9 \sup_{v \in [0,1]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[f(x) \le v] \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \\
&\qquad + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

*Proof of Lemma 3.4.* By Definition 9.3, Proposition 9.6, and the triangle inequality, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| \\
&\quad \le \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{s} c_j \cdot \mathrm{Th}_{v_j}(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| \\
&\qquad + \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \left( \Delta\ell(f(x)) - \sum_{j=1}^{s} c_j \cdot \mathrm{Th}_{v_j}(f(x)) \right) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| \\
&\quad \le \left| \sum_{j=1}^{s} c_j \cdot \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathrm{Th}_{v_j}(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| + \varepsilon.
\end{aligned}$$

The above line can be further upper bounded as

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sum_{j=1}^{s} |c_j| \cdot \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathrm{Th}_{v_j}(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| + \varepsilon \\
&\quad \le \left( \sum_{j=1}^{s} |c_j| \right) \cdot \max_{j \in [s]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathrm{Th}_{v_j}(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| + \varepsilon \\
&\quad \le 3 \sup_{v \in [0,1]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathrm{Th}_v(f(x)) \mid g(x) = 1] \right| + \varepsilon,
\end{aligned}$$

where the second inequality follows from recalling that threshold functions form an approximate basis with

coefficient norm 3. Recalling Equation 7 and invoking the triangle inequality, we can rewrite the above line as

$$\begin{aligned}
&3 \sup_{v\in[0,1]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot (2 \cdot \mathbb{1}[f(x) \le v] - \mathbb{1}[f(x) \le 1]) \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| + \varepsilon \\
&\quad \le 9 \sup_{v\in[0,1]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[f(x) \le v] \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| + \varepsilon \\
&\quad \le 9 \sup_{v\in[0,1]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[f(x) \le v] \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

The final inequality is trivial, since $P_g$ is positive and at most 1. □

### 9.3 From Randomized Step Calibration to Randomized Panprediction

We show that the same loss outcome indistinguishability approach used above can be used to prove that randomized step calibration implies randomized panprediction.

**Theorem 9.8.** *If a randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated, then $\boldsymbol{p}^*$ is a randomized $(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, O(\varepsilon))$-panpredictor.*

As seen before, we prove Theorem 9.8 by decomposing the step calibration guarantee into a calibration and a multiaccuracy guarantee (Lemma 9.9), then showing that the calibration guarantee implies Decision OI (Lemma 9.10) and that the multiaccuracy guarantee implies Hypothesis OI (Lemma 9.11).

**Lemma 9.9.** *If a randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated, then $\boldsymbol{p}^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated and $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccurate.*

*Proof of Lemma 9.9.* For the first statement, fix any $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $w = 1$. Recall that from the definition of $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibration, we have that for all $v \in [0, 1]$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le v, h(x) \le 1] \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| \\
&\quad = \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le v] \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| \le \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated.

For the second statement, fix $v = 1$. $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibration also guarantees that for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$, $w \in [0, 1]$, and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le 1, h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| \\
&\quad = \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| \le \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccurate. □

**Lemma 9.10.** *If a randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated, then for all $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^*\sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[(y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) \mid g(x) = 1\right] \right| \le O(\varepsilon) \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

*Proof of Lemma 9.10.* Since for any $\ell : [0, 1] \times \mathcal{Y} \to [-1, 1]$ and $p, q \in [0, 1]$, by the definition of the function $k_\ell$,

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{y\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p)} \left[\ell(k_\ell(p), y)\right] \le \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{y\sim \mathrm{Ber}(p)} \left[\ell(k_\ell(q), y)\right],$$

the map $\ell(k_\ell(\cdot), y) : [0,1] \to [-1,1]$ is a proper scoring rule. Hence this map is contained in the bounded variation loss class $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$. Then by Lemma 3.4,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x))) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| \\
&\quad \le 9 \sup_{v \in [0,1]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^* \sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \le v] \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}} \\
&\quad \le O(\varepsilon) \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}},
\end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from the $(\mathcal{G}, \emptyset, \varepsilon)$-step calibration guarantee. □

**Lemma 9.11.** *If a randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccurate, then for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$,*

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^* \sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| \le O(\varepsilon) \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

*Proof of Lemma 9.11.* By assumption, $\ell \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{BV}}$. Then by applying Lemma 3.4 with any $h \in \mathcal{H}$, $h : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^* \sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \Delta\ell(h(x)) \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| \\
&\quad \le 9 \sup_{w \in [0,1]} \left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, p^* \sim \boldsymbol{p}^*} \left[ (y - p^*(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[h(x) \le w] \mid g(x) = 1 \right] \right| + \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}} \\
&\quad \le O(\varepsilon) \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}},
\end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from the $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multiaccuracy guarantee. □

# 10 DEFERRED RESULTS AND PROOFS FROM SECTION 4

In this section, we state and prove guarantees about our deterministic and randomized step calibration algorithms.

## 10.1 Background

We begin by collecting notation and useful results from online learning, adaptive data analysis, and multi-objective learning. This exposition closely follows that of Haghtalab et al. (2023).

**Online learning** Online learning models a $T$-round interaction between a learner and an adversary. On each round $t \in [T]$, the learner chooses an action $a^{(t)}$ from an action set $\mathcal{A}$ and the adversary chooses a bounded cost function $c^{(t)} : \mathcal{A} \to [0,1]$. In the sequel, we focus on stochastic cost functions $c^{(t)} : \mathcal{A} \times (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}) \to [0,1]$ that take both the learner's action and a datapoint $(x,y) \sim D$ as inputs. It is natural to minimize expected cost $\mathcal{R}_{c^{(t)}}(\cdot) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[c^{(t)}(\cdot, (x,y))\right] : \mathcal{A} \to [0,1]$. When the choices of action and cost function are non-deterministic, that is, $p \in \Delta(\mathcal{A})$ and $q \in \Delta(\mathcal{C})$, we can also consider $\mathcal{R}_q(p) = \mathbb{E}_{a\sim p,\, c\sim q}\left[\mathcal{R}_c(a)\right] = \mathbb{E}_{a\sim p,\, c\sim q}\left[\mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[c(a,(x,y)\right]\right]$. Importantly, the stochastic cost functions we consider have linear structure in the action, that is, for all $(x,y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, $c(\cdot, (x,y)) : \mathcal{A} \to [0,1]$ is linear.

The learner's regret (to the best fixed action) is defined as

$$\mathrm{Reg}(a^{(1:T)}, c^{(1:T)}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} c^{(t)}(a^{(t)}) - \min_{a^* \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} c^{(t)}(a^*).$$

When working with stochastic cost functions, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathrm{Reg}(a^{(1:T)}, \{\mathcal{R}_{c^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)}) \\
&\quad = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ c^{(t)}(a^{(t)}, (x,y)) \right] - \min_{a^* \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} \left[ c^{(t)}(a^*, (x,y)) \right].
\end{aligned}$$

The learner's weak regret to a minimax benchmark $T \cdot \min_{a^* \in \mathcal{A}} \max_{c^* \in \mathcal{C}} c^*(a^*)$ is given by

$$\mathrm{Reg}_{\mathrm{weak}}(a^{(1:T)}, c^{(1:T)}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} c^{(t)}(a^{(t)}) - T \cdot \min_{a^* \in \mathcal{A}} \max_{c^* \in \mathcal{C}} c^*(a^*).$$

Identically, when working with stochastic cost functions, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}&\mathrm{Reg}_{\mathrm{weak}}(a^{(1:T)}, \{\mathcal{R}_{c^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)}) \\ &\quad = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[c^{(t)}(a^{(t)}, (x,y))\right] - T \cdot \min_{a^* \in \mathcal{A}} \max_{c^* \in \mathcal{C}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[c^*(a^*, (x,y))\right].\end{aligned}$$

The standard Hedge algorithm (Freund and Schapire, 1997) obtains a sublinear regret bound.

**Proposition 10.1** (Hedge (Freund and Schapire, 1997))**.** *If the action sequence in the $k$-simplex $a^{(1:T)} \in \Delta_k$ is selected by the Hedge algorithm, then for any adversarial choice of cost functions $c^{(1:T)}$,*

$$\mathrm{Reg}(a^{(1:T)}, c^{1:T)}) \le C\sqrt{\log(k)T},$$

*where $C > 0$ is a universal constant.*

Given sampling access to distribution $D$ and an action $a \in \mathcal{A}$, a natural way to estimate the expected cost $\mathcal{R}_c(a)$ is sampling $(x,y) \sim D$ and evaluating $c(a,(x,y))$. When $c$ has linear structure, this approach incurs sublinear estimation error with high probability.

**Proposition 10.2** (Stochastic approximation (Nemirovski et al., 2009))**.** *Let $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \ldots, (x^{(T)}, y^{(T)}) \overset{\text{iid}}{\sim} D$. Suppose that all $c \in \mathcal{C}$ are linear and that at each round $t \in [T]$, after picking action $a^{(t)}$ with an online learning algorithm, the expected cost $\mathcal{R}_{c^{(t)}}(a^{(t)})$ is estimated with $\widehat{c}^{(t)}(a) \coloneqq c^{(t)}(a, (x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}))$. Then with probability at least $1-\delta$,*

$$\left|\mathrm{Reg}(a^{(1:T)}, \{\mathcal{R}_{c^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)}) - \mathrm{Reg}(a^{(1:T)}, \widehat{c}^{(1:T)})\right| \le C\sqrt{T\log(1/\delta)},$$

*where $C > 0$ is a universal constant.*

We sometimes consider best-response oracles of the following form.

**Definition 10.3** (Best-response oracle)**.** *A best response oracle takes an action $a \in \mathcal{A}$, a set of stochastic cost functions $\mathcal{C}$, and error tolerance $\varepsilon$, then returns a cost function $c \in \mathcal{C}$ such that*

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[c(a,(x,y))\right] \le \min_{c^* \in \mathcal{C}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}\left[c^*(a,(x,y))\right] + \varepsilon.$$

*Such a choice of $c \in \mathcal{C}$ is referred to as a $\varepsilon$-best response to the action $a$.*

**Adaptive data analysis** Adaptive data analysis models a $T$-round interaction between a data analyst and a mechanism. At each round $t \in [T]$, the analyst poses a query about a fixed distribution $D$. Using only samples $z^{(1:n)} = \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)\} \overset{\text{iid}}{\sim} D$, the mechanism must sequentially answer $T$ queries (where each query may adversarially depend on all previous queries and answers) up to small additive error with high probability.

We focus on minimization queries over finite sets, which take the following form. Suppose a family of loss functions $\{\ell\}$ is parameterized by a finite set of parameters $\Theta$. That is, for each loss function $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$, $\ell : (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^n \times \Theta \to [0,1]$. Further suppose that each loss is $\Delta$-sensitive. That is, for all "datasets" $z^{(1:n)}$ and $\overline{z}^{(1:n)}$ that differ in just one data point,

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta}\left|\ell(z^{(1:n)}, \theta) - \ell(\overline{z}^{(1:n)}, \theta)\right| \le \Delta.$$

Fix $\alpha, \beta \in (0,1)$. The $(\alpha,\beta)$-minimization query associated with loss $\ell$ seeks $\theta \in \Theta$ such that with probability $1-\beta$,

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{z^{(1:n)}\sim D^n}\left[\ell(z^{(1:n)}, \theta)\right] \le \min_{\theta^* \in \Theta} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{z^{(1:n)}\sim D^n}\left[\ell(z^{(1:n)}, \theta^*)\right] + \alpha.$$

Minimization queries can be naturally used to best respond to stochastic cost functions discussed above, as long as the cost functions are parameterized by a finite set $\Theta$. Importantly, adaptive data analysis allows cost functions to be chosen adaptively.

**Proposition 10.4** (Adaptive minimization queries (Bassily et al., 2015)). *There exists an algorithm that, with probability at least $1-\delta$, can $\varepsilon$-best respond to an adaptive sequence of $T$ stochastic costs that each have sensitivity $1/n$ and are bounded in $[0,1]$, using at most*

$$n = O\left(\frac{\sqrt{T}\cdot\log\left(|\Theta|/\varepsilon\right)\cdot\log^{3/2}(1/\varepsilon\delta)}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$$

*samples from $\mathcal{D}$.*

The algorithm that witnesses this sample complexity is an instantiation of the exponential mechanism, and is detailed in prior works (McSherry and Talwar, 2007; Bassily et al., 2015).

### 10.2 Multi-objective Learning

To begin, recall the definition of multi-objective learning.

**Definition 10.5** (Haghtalab et al. (2023)). *A multi-objective learning problem is defined by a distribution $D$, a hypothesis class $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \{f : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]\}$, and a set of objectives $\mathcal{O} = \{\ell : \mathcal{F} \times (\mathcal{X}\times\mathcal{Y}) \to [a,b]\}$. The goal of multi-objective learning is to find a hypothesis $\mathbf{f}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{F})$ such that*

$$\max_{\ell\in\mathcal{O}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D,\, f^*\sim\mathbf{f}^*}[\ell(f^*(x),y)] \le \min_{f\in\mathcal{F}}\max_{\ell\in\mathcal{O}} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(f(x),y)] + \varepsilon.$$

*If $\mathbf{f}^*$ is a point mass on a hypothesis $f^*\in\mathcal{F}$, then $f^*$ is called a deterministic $\varepsilon$-optimal solution to $(D,\mathcal{O},\mathcal{F})$. Otherwise, $\mathbf{f}^*$ is called a randomized $\varepsilon$-optimal solution to $(D,\mathcal{O},\mathcal{F})$.*

Deterministic solutions to multi-objective problems can be found via "no-regret vs best-response" dynamics that select a sequence of hypotheses with no-regret online learning algorithms and a sequence of objectives using best-response oracles. The following propositions formalize this result.

**Proposition 10.6** (No-Regret vs Best-Response (Haghtalab et al., 2023)). *Consider a multi-objective learning problem $(D,\mathcal{O},\mathcal{F})$ where the learner chooses $p^{(1:T)}\in\Delta(\mathcal{F})$ and the adversary chooses $q^{(1:T)}\in\Delta(\mathcal{O})$. If the learner is no-regret, such that $\mathrm{Reg}_{\mathrm{weak}}(p^{(1:T)},\{\mathcal{R}_{q^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)})$, and the adversary $\varepsilon$-best responds to the sequence of costs $\{1-\mathcal{R}_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)})\}^{(1:T)}$ using $q^{(1:T)}$, then there is a timestep $t\in[T]$ where $p^{(t)}$ is a deterministic $2\varepsilon$-optimal solution to $(D,\mathcal{O},\mathcal{F})$.*

**Proposition 10.7** (Deterministic solution (Haghtalab et al., 2023)). *Suppose a sequence of hypotheses $p^{(1:T)}$ contains a deterministic $\varepsilon$-optimal solution to $(D,\mathcal{O},\mathcal{F})$. Then a deterministic $2\varepsilon$-optimal solution $p^{(t)}\in p^{(1:T)}$ can be identified using $O(\varepsilon^{-2}\log(|\mathcal{O}|T/\delta))$ samples.*

Randomized solutions to multi-objective problems can be found via "no-regret vs no-regret" dynamics that uses no-regret online learning algorithms to select both the sequence of hypotheses and the sequence of objectives. The following proposition formalizes this result.

**Proposition 10.8** (No-Regret vs No-Regret (Haghtalab et al., 2023)). *Consider a multi-objective learning problem $(D,\mathcal{O},\mathcal{F})$ where the learner chooses $p^{(1:T)}\in\Delta(\mathcal{F})$ and the adversary chooses $q^{(1:T)}\in\Delta(\mathcal{O})$. If both players are no-regret, such that $\mathrm{Reg}_{\mathrm{weak}}(p^{(1:T)},\{\mathcal{R}_{q^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)})\le T\varepsilon$ and $\mathrm{Reg}(q^{(1:T)},\{1-\mathcal{R}_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)})\}^{(1:T)})\le T\varepsilon$, then the non-deterministic hypothesis $\overline{p}=\mathrm{Uniform}(p^{(1:T)})$ is a $2\varepsilon$-optimal solution to $(D,\mathcal{O},\mathcal{F})$.*

**Application to Step Calibration** Theorem 4.1 shows that $(\mathcal{G},\mathcal{H},\varepsilon)$-step calibration can be formulated as a $(D,\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sc}},\mathcal{P})$-multi-objective learning problem. It remains to address the fact that $\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sc}}$ is an uncountably infinite set of losses parameterized by

$$(\sigma,v,w,h,g)\in\{\pm1\}\times[0,1]\times[0,1]\times\mathcal{H}\times\mathcal{G}.$$

For our algorithms to work, a finite cover of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sc}}$, denoted by $\widehat{O}_{\mathrm{sc}}$, must be found. If $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ have finite cardinality, and real-valued hypotheses are quantized to $I_\lambda$ for $\lambda=\Theta(\varepsilon)$, a (lossless) finite cover of size $O(\varepsilon^{-2}|\mathcal{H}||\mathcal{G}|)$ can be

**Algorithm 3** Deterministic Step Calibration

**Require:** $\varepsilon, \delta \in (0,1)$, $T \in \mathbb{N}$, $c \in [0,1]$, $C \in \mathbb{N}$, sampling access to $D$, best response oracle $\mathcal{A}$

Initialize Hedge iterate $p^{(1)} \leftarrow [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]^{\mathcal{X}}$

**for** $t = 1, \ldots, T$ **do**

  Update $\ell^{(t)} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}\big(p^{(t)}, \widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{sc}}, c\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}\big)$

  For each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, update $p^{(t+1)}(x) \leftarrow \mathrm{Hedge}\big(c_x^{(1:t)}\big)$, where $c_x^{(t)}(\widehat{y})$ is defined as

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\Pr(g^{(t)}(x) = 1)}} \cdot \sigma^{(t)} \cdot \widehat{y} \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^{(t)}(x) \le v^{(t)}] \cdot f^{(t)}(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}[g^{(t)}(x) = 1]\right)$$

**end for**

Draw $m \leftarrow \frac{C \log(T/\delta)}{\varepsilon^2}$ samples $z^{(1:m)} \sim D$

$t^* \leftarrow \arg\min_{t \in [T]} \sum_{(x,y) \in z^{(1:m)}} \ell^{(t)}\big(p^{(t)}, (x,y)\big)$

**return** $p^{(t^*)}$

constructed by choosing parameters

$$(\sigma, v, w, h, g) \in \{\pm 1\} \times I_{\Theta(\varepsilon)} \times I_{\Theta(\varepsilon)} \times \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{G}.$$

In the more general case, where $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ have infinite cardinality but bounded combinatorial dimensions, a finite cover can still be constructed. Namely, assume that $\mathrm{Pdim}(\mathcal{H}) \le d_H$ and $\mathrm{VC}(\mathcal{G}) \le d_G$. Then the composed class $\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H}$ has VC dimension at most $d_H$. Furthermore, the class of pointwise conjunctions between $\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{G}$, denoted by $(\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H}) \wedge \mathcal{G}$, has VC dimension at most $d_H + d_G$. It is well-known that given $\widetilde{O}(\varepsilon^{-1}(d_H + d_G + \log(1/\delta'))$ samples from $D$, an $\varepsilon$-cover of $(\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H}) \wedge \mathcal{G}$ in the $L_1(D)$ metric can be algorithmically constructed, with failure probability at most $\delta'$. In fact, this cover is constructed by combining an $\varepsilon$-cover of $\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H}$ (denoted by $(\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H})'$) and an $\varepsilon$-cover of $\mathcal{G}$ (denoted by $\mathcal{G}'$). By standard learning-theoretic arguments, the combined cover has size at most $1/\varepsilon^{O(d_H + d_G)}$ (Benedek and Itai, 1991; Dai et al., 2024). In the sequel, we assume that such a cover, denoted by $(\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H})' \times \mathcal{G}'$, has been constructed, with failure probability $\delta' = \delta/3$. All in all, $\widehat{\mathcal{O}}_{\mathrm{sc}}$ is the finite set of losses parameterized by

$$(\sigma, v, f, g) \in \{\pm 1\} \times I_{\Theta(\varepsilon)} \times (\mathrm{Step} \circ \mathcal{H})' \times \mathcal{G}'.$$

Given that $\widehat{\mathcal{O}}_{\mathrm{sc}}$ is a finite set, there exist straightforward ways to use best-response oracles or no-regret learning algorithms to select a sequence of objectives. The learner's task of selecting a hypothesis $p \in \mathcal{P}$ is trickier, given that $\mathcal{P}$ is a rich class containing all real-valued predictors.

**Proposition 10.9** (Haghtalab et al. (2023))**.** *Consider $\mathcal{P}$ the set of all real-valued predictors and any adversarial sequence of stochastic costs $q^{(1:T)} \in \Delta(\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sc}})$. There exists a no-regret algorithm that outputs deterministic predictors $p^{(1:T)}$ such that $\mathrm{Reg}_{\mathrm{weak}}(p^{(1:T)}, \{\mathcal{R}_{q^{(t)}(\cdot)}\}^{(1:T)}) \le C\sqrt{\log(2)T}$. This algorithm requires no samples from $D$.*

The proposed algorithm involves running Hedge at each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, then aggregating by taking $p^{(t)}(x)$ to be the prediction made by the instantiation of Hedge associated with $x$ at time $t$. By the linearity of expectation, the aggregated algorithm inherits the Hedge regret bound. We defer further details to Theorems 3.7 and 5.2 in Haghtalab et al. (2023).

### 10.3 Deterministic Step Calibration

**Remark 10.10** (Re-scaling and re-centering $\widehat{\mathcal{O}}_{\mathrm{sc}}$)**.** *To facilitate the use of no-regret algorithms and best-response oracles that require losses that are bounded in $[0,1]$, we define the re-scaled and re-centered class of objectives*

$$\widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{sc}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \sqrt{\gamma} \cdot \ell\right) \mid \ell \in \widehat{\mathcal{O}}_{\mathrm{sc}} \right\},$$

*where $\gamma = \min_{g \in \mathcal{G}} P_g = \min_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \Pr_{(x,y) \sim D}(g(x) = 1)$ is a known constant, by assumption.*

**Algorithm 4** Randomized Step Calibration

**Require:** $\varepsilon, \delta \in (0,1)$, $T \in \mathbb{N}$, $c \in [0,1]$, $C \in \mathbb{N}$, sampling access to $D$

Initialize Hedge iterates $p^{(1)} \leftarrow [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]^{\mathcal{X}}$ and $q^{(1)} = \text{Uniform}(\widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\text{sc}})$.
**for** $t = 1, \ldots, T$ **do**
  Sample objective $\ell^{(t)} \sim q^{(t)}$ and data point $(x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}) \sim D$
  For each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, update $p^{(t+1)}(x) \leftarrow \text{Hedge}\big(c_x^{(1:t)}\big)$, where $c_x^{(t)}(\widehat{y})$ is defined as

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\Pr(g^{(t)}(x) = 1)}} \cdot \sigma^{(t)} \cdot \widehat{y} \cdot \mathbb{1}[p^{(t)}(x) \leq v^{(t)}] \cdot f^{(t)}(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}[g^{(t)}(x) = 1]\right)$$

  Let $q^{(t+1)} = \text{Hedge}(c_{\text{adv}}^{(1:t)})$ where $c_{\text{adv}}^{(t)} = 1 - \ell_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)}, (x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}))$
**end for**
**return** $\boldsymbol{p}^*$, a uniform distribution over $p^{(1)}, \ldots, p^{(T)}$

*Given a set of parameters* $\theta \coloneqq (\sigma, v, f, g) \in \{\pm 1\} \times I_{\Theta(\varepsilon)} \times (\text{Step} \circ \mathcal{H})' \times \mathcal{G}'$, $\ell_\theta \in \widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\text{sc}}$ *takes the form*

$$\ell_\theta(p, (x, y)) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{P_g}} \cdot \sigma \cdot (y - p(x)) \cdot \mathbb{1}[p(x) \leq v] \cdot f(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}[g(x) = 1]\right) \in [0, 1]\,.$$

The following corollary of Theorem 4.1 is immediate.

**Corollary 10.11.** *A* $\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}$*-solution to the* $(D, \widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\text{sc}}, \mathcal{P})$*-multi-objective learning problem corresponds to a* $O(\varepsilon)$*-solution to the* $(D, \widehat{\mathcal{O}}_{\text{sc}}, \mathcal{P})$*-multi-objective learning problem, and hence to a* $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, O(\varepsilon))$*-step calibrated predictor.*

Though we treat $\gamma$ as a constant, we track dependence on it in the rest of our derivations to facilitate future work that treats group membership probabilities as variables.

The following is a more complete restatement of Theorem 4.2.

**Theorem 10.12** (Deterministic Step Calibration)**.** *Fix* $\varepsilon > 0$ *and* $\delta \in (0,1)$*. Let* $d_H$ *be the appropriate combinatorial dimension of* $\mathcal{H}$ *and* $d_G$ *the VC dimension of* $\mathcal{G}$*. Then with probability at least* $1 - \delta$ *and at most*

$$n = O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon^3 \gamma^{3/2}} \cdot (d_H + d_G) \cdot \log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon \gamma^{1/2} \delta}\right)\right) \tag{8}$$

*samples from* $D$*, Algorithm 3 returns a deterministic predictor* $p^*$ *that is* $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$*-step calibrated.*

*Proof.* We prove this result in two steps.

By Proposition 10.9, there exists a universal constant $C > 0$ such that for $T = C\varepsilon^{-2}\gamma^{-1}$, the learner's regret is $\text{Reg}_{\text{weak}}(p^{(1:T)}, \{\mathcal{R}_{\ell^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)}) \leq T\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/8$. Suppose that at each iteration, the adversary $\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/8$-best responds. By Proposition 10.6, there exists a timestep $t \in [T]$ such that the predictor $p^{(t)}$ is a $\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/4$-optimal solution to the $(D, \widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\text{sc}}, \mathcal{P})$-multi-objective learning problem. By Proposition 10.7, with probability $1 - \delta/3$, the predictor $p^*$ returned by the algorithm is a deterministic $\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/2$-optimal solution. Then by Corollary 10.11, $p^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated.

By Proposition 10.4, the claimed sample complexity is sufficient to answer $T = C\varepsilon^{-2}\gamma^{-1}$ adaptive $\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/8$-best response queries with probability $1 - \delta/3$. □

### 10.4 Randomized Step Calibration

The following is a more complete statement of Theorem 4.3.

**Theorem 10.13** (Randomized Step Calibration)**.** *Fix* $\varepsilon > 0$ *and* $\delta \in (0,1)$*. Let* $d_H$ *be the appropriate combinatorial dimension of* $\mathcal{H}$ *and* $d_G$ *the VC dimension of* $\mathcal{G}$*. Then with probability at least* $1 - \delta$ *and at most*

$$n = \widetilde{O}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon^2 \gamma} \cdot (d_H + d_G) \cdot \log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon\delta}\right)\right) \tag{9}$$

*samples from $D$, Algorithm 4 returns a randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^*$ that is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-step calibrated.*

*Proof.* By Proposition 10.9, there exists a universal constant $C > 0$ such that for $T \geq C \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}\gamma^{-1}$, the learner's regret is $\mathrm{Reg}_{\mathrm{weak}}(p^{(1:T)}, \{\mathcal{R}_{\ell^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)}) \leq T\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/12$. By Proposition 10.1, there exists a universal constant $C' > 0$ such that for $T \geq C' \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}\gamma^{-1} \cdot (d_H + d_G) \cdot \log\left(\varepsilon^{-1}\right)$, the adversary's regret is $\mathrm{Reg}(q^{(1:T)}, \{1 - \ell_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)}, (x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}))\}^{(1:T)}) \leq T\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/12$. By $\ell_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)}, (x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}))$, we mean the adversary chooses the loss $\ell \in \widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{sc}}$ to plug into the cost function of the given form.

It remains to be shown that the adversary's regret to cost functions of the form $1 - \ell_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)}, (x^{(t)}, y^{(t)})$ closely approximates their regret to cost functions of the form $1 - \mathcal{R}_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)})$. By Proposition 10.2, there exists a universal constant $C'' > 0$ such that for $T \geq C'' \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}\gamma^{-1} \cdot (d_H + d_G) \cdot \log\left(\varepsilon^{-1}\delta^{-1}\right)$,

$$\left|\mathrm{Reg}(q^{(1:T)}, \{1 - \ell_{(\cdot)}(p^{(t)}, (x^{(t)}, y^{(t)}))\}^{(1:T)}) - \mathrm{Reg}(q^{(1:T)}, \{1 - \mathcal{L}_{\ell^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)})\right| \leq T\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/12$$

with probability $1 - \delta/3$. Invoking Proposition 10.2 once again, there exists a universal constant $C''' > 0$ such that for $T \geq C''' \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}\gamma^{-1} \cdot (d_H + d_G) \cdot \log\left(\varepsilon^{-1}\delta^{-1}\right)$,

$$\left|\mathrm{Reg}(q^{(1:T)}, \{1 - \mathcal{L}_{\ell^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)}) - \mathrm{Reg}(\ell^{(1:T)}, \{1 - \mathcal{L}_{\ell^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)})\right| \leq T\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/12$$

with probability $1 - \delta/3$.

By the triangle inequality, the adversary's regret $\mathrm{Reg}(\ell^{(1:T)}, \{1 - \mathcal{L}_{\ell^{(t)}}(\cdot)\}^{(1:T)}) \leq T\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/4$. By Proposition 10.8, the predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^*$ is a randomized $\varepsilon\sqrt{\gamma}/2$-solution to the $(D, \widehat{\mathcal{O}}^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{sc}}, \mathcal{P})$-multi-objective learning problem. By Corollary 10.11, the randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^*$ is $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, O(\varepsilon))$-step calibrated.

Since the algorithm requires one sample per iteration, the sample complexity is exactly $T$. □

## 11 DEFERRED RESULTS AND PROOFS FROM SECTION 5

In this section, we prove that deterministic panprediction implies deterministic multi-group learning, and that randomized panprediction implies randomized multi-group learning.

**Proposition 5.4.** *Fix the zero-one loss $\ell$, groups $\mathcal{G}$, and binary hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$. If a deterministic predictor $p^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$ is a $(\{\ell\}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-panpredictor, then the binary classifier $h(x) = \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \geq 0.5]$ is a deterministic $(\ell, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multi-group learner.*

*Proof of Proposition 5.4.* Using the panprediction guarantee, the loss of any competitor hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ on any group $g \in \mathcal{G}$ can be bounded as

$$\mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(h(x), y) \mid g(x) = 1] \geq \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D}[\ell(k_\ell(p^*(x)), y) \mid g(x) = 1] - \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{P_g^{-1}}.$$

It suffices to observe that $k_\ell(p^*(x)) = \mathbb{1}[p^*(x) \geq 0.5]$. □

**Proposition 11.1.** *Fix the zero-one loss $\ell$, groups $\mathcal{G}$, and binary hypothesis class $\mathcal{H}$. If a randomized predictor $\boldsymbol{p}^* \in \Delta(\mathcal{P})$ is a $(\{\ell\}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-panpredictor, then the binary classifier $h(x) = \mathbb{1}[\boldsymbol{p}^*(x) \geq 0.5]$ is a randomized $(\ell, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}, \varepsilon)$-multi-group learner.*

The proof mirrors the previous argument and is omitted.

## 12 ADDITIONAL CONNECTIONS

In this section, we show that multi-group learning cannot be reduced to multiaccuracy.

For a counterexample, consider the setting where $\mathcal{X} = \{x, x'\}$ and $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{X}\}$. Suppose that under distribution $D$, $\Pr(x) = \Pr(x') = 1/2$ and $\Pr(y = 0 \mid x) = \Pr(y = 1 \mid x') = 1$. Now consider the hypotheses $\mathcal{H} = \{h, h'\}$ where

$h(x) = 0$ and $h(x') = 1$, and $h'(x) = 1$ and $h'(x') = 0$. Both hypotheses are 0-multiaccurate since

$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - h(x))] \right| = \left| \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1-1) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (0-0) \right| = 0,$$
$$\left| \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(x,y)\sim D} [(y - h'(x))] \right| = \left| \frac{1}{2} \cdot (0-1) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1-0) \right| = 0.$$

But $h'$ cannot be a multi-group learner for any $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$.

This counterexample can be eliminated by further conditioning on the level sets of the hypotheses, which naturally motivates notions of calibration. This shows that calibration can be useful for multi-group learning, even when we do not seek omniprediction-style guarantees.