

# 000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 CONFORMALIZED HIERARCHICAL CALIBRATION FOR UNCERTAINTY-AWARE ADAPTIVE HASHING

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## ABSTRACT

Unsupervised domain adaptive hashing transfers knowledge from labeled source domains to unlabeled target domains, addressing domain shift challenges in real-world retrieval tasks. Existing methods face two critical limitations: target domain noise severely misleads model training, and indiscriminate domain alignment strategies treat all target samples equally, potentially distorting essential feature structures. We propose an uncertainty-aware adaptive hashing approach that addresses these challenges through a hierarchical conformal calibration framework. At the semantic level, we employ conformal inference to generate confidence prediction sets, replacing single pseudo-labels with set-based predictions whose sizes directly quantify sample reliability for weighted pseudo-label learning and domain alignment. This enables the model to focus on reliable samples while suppressing noise. At the representation level, we predict the stability of individual hash bits, where bit-level confidence guides a robust weighted quantization loss and enables dynamic weighted Hamming distance during retrieval, fundamentally enhancing hash code quality and retrieval robustness. Through this hierarchical calibration mechanism, our method achieves more adaptive and robust cross-domain knowledge transfer. Extensive experiments on multiple benchmark datasets demonstrate significant improvements over existing approaches, validating the effectiveness and superiority of our method. The code is anonymously available at [this link](#).

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Efficient approximate nearest neighbor (ANN) similarity retrieval plays a critical role in recommender systems (Tan et al., 2020), visual search (Pu et al., 2025), and retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) (Zhao et al., 2024). Deep hashing, which replaces floating-point distance computations with bitwise operations, offers significant advantages in both retrieval latency and storage costs, making it a key technology for large-scale retrieval systems (Wang et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2023b; Cui et al., 2024). The capability of deep learning models to generate semantically discriminative hash codes has substantially advanced applications.

However, real-world deployment inevitably encounters domain shift: variations in imaging devices, capture styles, and background distributions cause trained hashing models to exhibit semantic confusion and overconfidence in target domains. To bridge this gap, unsupervised domain adaptive hashing (UDAH) has attracted considerable attention (Wang et al., 2023c; Venkateswara et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2023a; Long et al., 2018a; Huang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023b; Huang et al., 2020; He et al., 2019). The objective is to transfer labeled source domain knowledge to unlabeled target domains. Existing domain adaptive hashing methods typically advance along two pathways: ① pseudo-labeling, where models generate supervisory signals for target data based on their own predictions (Lee et al., 2013; Xia et al., 2021b), and ② domain alignment, which aims to minimize distributional discrepancies between source and target features or adversarial training (Lee et al., 2019b; Ganin et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2023a).

While these methods have achieved commendable progress, their performance is often constrained by a fundamental limitation: **unreliable and heuristic handling of model uncertainty**. Existing approaches suffer from three key issues. ① They rely on simple heuristics, such as softmax-based confidence thresholding, to filter high-quality pseudo-labels and guide alignment (Sohn et al., 2020). This approach is inherently risky, as softmax scores are not reliable indicators of correctness, as neu-

ral networks are prone to overconfident yet erroneous predictions, especially for out-of-distribution samples (Saito & Saenko, 2021; Li et al., 2021), as shown in Figure 1. ② They lack verifiable characterization of model uncertainty, with heuristic methods providing no theoretical guarantees and exhibiting extreme sensitivity to manually-tuned thresholds (Chen et al., 2022). ③ They treat different aspects of uncertainty as a monolithic concept, conflating semantic-level judgment uncertainty with bit-level representation stability uncertainty without employing targeted strategies.

In this work, we argue that unlocking the next generation of powerful UDAH requires moving beyond fragile heuristics toward a principled, multi-level uncertainty quantification framework. We introduce **Conformal Hierarchical Calibration Adaptive Hashing** (COLA), a novel paradigm that quantifies and leverages uncertainty from semantic to bit levels. **The core innovation of COLA lies in its hierarchical conformal calibration framework that provides rigorous statistical guarantees for uncertainty quantification at both semantic and representation levels.**

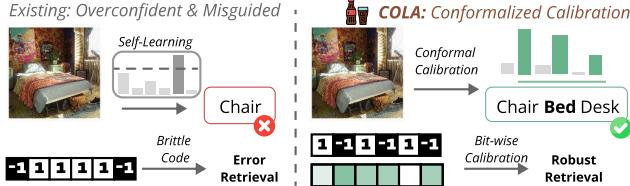


Figure 1: COLA (right) employs hierarchical calibration to replace the single pseudo-labels of existing methods (left) with conformal prediction sets, and weights hash codes with bit-wise confidence to achieve robust retrieval.

COLA operates through a synergistic two-tier calibration process, as shown in Figure 1. **At the semantic level**, we replace risky point predictions with coverage-controlled prediction sets, whose sizes serve as natural and rigorous measures of semantic uncertainty, enabling more robust pseudo-label learning and domain alignment. **At the representation level**, we introduce a novel **bit-level calibration mechanism specifically designed for hashing**. We model the reliability of each individual bit in generated hash codes through bit stability prediction, yielding fine-grained hash confidence scores. The score could guide weighted quantization losses during training and, crucially, enable a novel uncertainty-aware weighted Hamming distance during retrieval. Finally, we design a **self-regulating mechanism** that aggregates semantic and bit confidences into endogenous control signals, dynamically balancing pseudo-supervision, domain alignment, and quantization intensity while significantly reducing hyperparameter sensitivity.

Our main contributions can be summarized as follows: ① We design a shift from heuristic confidence-based methods to uncertainty quantification frameworks with rigorous statistical guarantees. ② We propose COLA that dissects and addresses uncertainty at both semantic and representation levels, yielding more reliable pseudo-supervision and more robust hash codes. ③ We introduce an elegant self-regulating mechanism that uses quantified uncertainty to dynamically balance multi-objective optimization, achieving truly adaptive learning and enhanced training stability. ④ Extensive experiments on challenging benchmark datasets demonstrate that COLA significantly outperforms existing state-of-the-art methods.

## 2 RELATED WORK

**Deep Hashing** generating compact binary hash codes to preserve the semantic relationships of data in the Hamming space (Doan et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2024; Tu et al., 2021). This approach significantly reduces storage and computational requirements, making it critical for large-scale retrieval systems (Luo et al., 2023a). Current methods can be fall into two types: supervised (Zhan et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2023; Lu et al., 2023b) and unsupervised (Jin et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022; Song et al., 2023; Li et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022; Xiao et al., 2023). Unsupervised methods, circumvent the reliance on labels by exploiting the intrinsic structure of the data. However, exitsing methods' retrieval accuracy in practical applications is often affected by potential domain shifts.

**Unsupervised Domain Adaptive Hashing** (UDAH) has emerged as an important research area (Ju et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2024) to address the challenge of domain shift. UDAH aims to transfer knowledge from a labeled source domain to an unlabeled target domain (Long et al., 2018b; He et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2019a). Existing methods typically follow two main strategies: self-learning and domain alignment. Self-learning methods generate supervision for target data based on the model's own prediction (Lee et al., 2013). Domain alignment methods reduce the discrepancy between domains through adversarial training or distribution matching (Huang et al., 2021; Xia et al.,

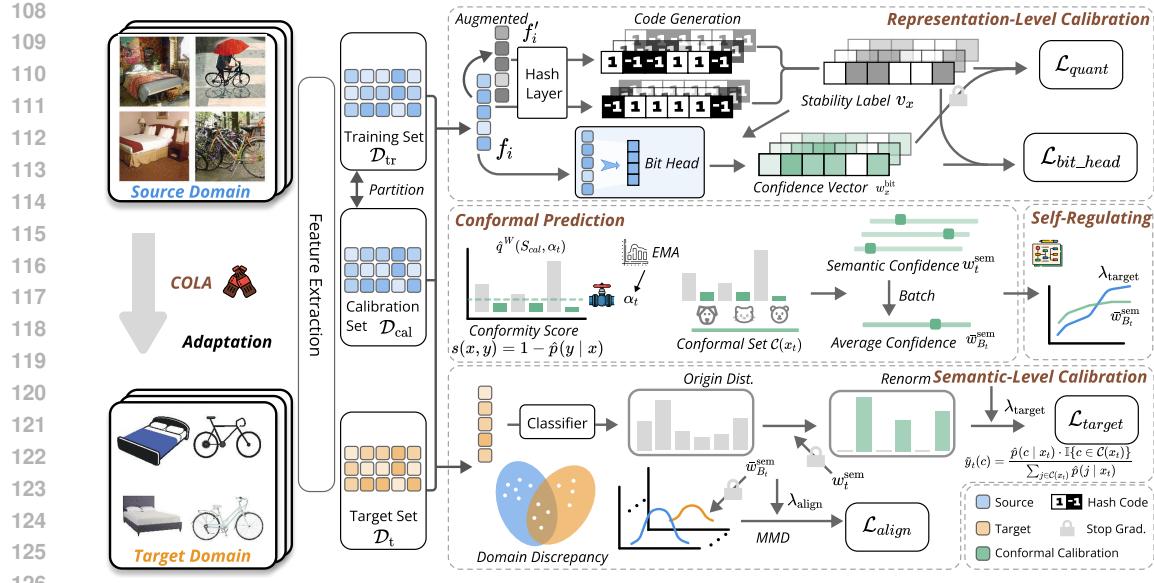


Figure 2: Overview of COLA, a hierarchical conformal calibration framework that addresses uncertainty in domain adaptive hashing through: (1) Semantic-Level Calibration for handling pseudo-label noise (3.2), (2) Representation-Level Calibration for enhancing hash code robustness (3.3), and (3) a Self-Regulating module for dynamically balancing learning objectives (3.4).

2021a). Despite these advances, existing methods exhibit fundamental limitations in handling model uncertainty, as their strategies are heuristic-driven and inherently unreliable.

**Uncertainty in Retrieval.** Recent works have explored uncertainty modeling in retrieval. (Warburg et al., 2021; 2023) proposed Bayesian metric learning to model aleatoric and epistemic uncertainty via stochastic embeddings. (Tang et al., 2025) utilized probabilistic embeddings for composed image retrieval. In hashing, (Wang & Zhou, 2023; Wang et al., 2025) introduced generative approaches to estimate hash code uncertainty. Unlike these model-based methods, our COLA employs a distribution-free conformal prediction framework. It provides rigorous coverage guarantees under domain shift and hierarchically calibrates uncertainty at both semantic and representation levels without expensive sampling.

### 3 METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 PRELIMINARIES AND OVERVIEW

**Problem Definition.** This work addresses unsupervised domain adaptive hashing (UDAH). Given a labeled source domain  $\mathcal{D}_s = \{(x_i^s, y_i^s)\}_{i=1}^{n_s}$  and an unlabeled target domain  $\mathcal{D}_t = \{x_j^t\}_{j=1}^{n_t}$  that share the same label space but differ in data distribution, we aim to learn a hash function that maps any input image  $x$  to an  $L$ -bit binary hash code  $b \in \{-1, +1\}^L$ . The learned function should ensure that semantically similar images have closer distances in Hamming space and enable efficient retrieval.

**Conformal Prediction Basics.** Conformal prediction is a distribution-free framework that constructs prediction sets with rigorous statistical guarantees. Given a calibration set and a user-defined error rate  $\alpha$ , it produces a set  $\mathcal{C}(x)$  for a new input  $x$  such that the true label  $y$  is contained in  $\mathcal{C}(x)$  with probability at least  $1 - \alpha$ . This coverage guarantee relies on the exchangeability of data, which we address in the domain adaptation setting via weighted conformal prediction.

**Method Overview.** The core framework of COLA is a hierarchical conformal calibration mechanism that constitutes our primary contribution. COLA consists of two progressive calibration levels:

❶ **Semantic-level calibration** addresses noisy pseudo-labels in the target domain by replacing risky point predictions with theoretically-grounded conformal prediction sets. The size of these sets rigorously quantifies model uncertainty and is directly converted to weights that adaptively suppress

162 the harmful effects of high-uncertainty samples in pseudo-label learning and domain alignment.  
 163 **② Representation-level calibration** deepens uncertainty analysis to bit-level. We predict the sta-  
 164 bility of each bit in its generated hash codes. This bit-level confidence guides weighted quantization  
 165 loss during training and also during retrieval, fundamentally enhancing hash code robustness.

166 **Beyond these core calibration components**, we establish a **self-regulating mechanism** as an auxil-  
 167 iary component. This mechanism uses the real-time uncertainty quantified by both calibration levels  
 168 as intrinsic control signals to adjust the learning focus.

### 170 3.2 SEMANTIC-LEVEL CONFORMAL CALIBRATION: FROM POINT TO SET

172 In UDAH, pseudo-label quality fundamentally determines model success. Traditional approaches  
 173 typically rely on heuristic strategies, such as confidence thresholding (Lee et al., 2013; Sohn et al.,  
 174 2020; Hu et al., 2025), to select high-confidence samples. However, these methods exhibit extreme  
 175 sensitivity to threshold settings and often fail to ensure pseudo-label reliability under complex do-  
 176 main shifts. To address this fundamental limitation, we introduce conformal prediction theory to  
 177 establish a semantically uncertain quantification and utilization mechanism with rigorous statistical  
 178 guarantees. Our core insight abandons high-risk point predictions in favor of constructing predic-  
 179 tion sets that theoretically cover the true label with probability  $1 - \alpha$ . The size of this prediction  
 180 set naturally and rigorously quantifies the **predictive uncertainty** (encompassing both aleatoric and  
 181 **epistemic uncertainty**) for each sample.

#### 182 3.2.1 CONFORMALIZATION VIA CALIBRATION SET

185 To ensure the calibration set is effective for the target domain, especially under significant domain  
 186 shifts, we construct it using a targeted selection strategy. First, we extract features for all samples  
 187 in both the source domain  $\mathcal{D}_s$ , and the target domain  $\mathcal{D}_t$ . We then compute the feature centroid  
 188 of the target domain by averaging all of its feature vectors. Subsequently, for each source sample,  
 189 we calculate the Euclidean distance between its feature vector and this target centroid. The  $r_{\text{cal}}\%$   
 190 source samples exhibiting the smallest distances are selected to form the calibration set  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{cal}}$ .  $r_{\text{cal}}$   
 191 is set to 20% according to Section 4.2. The remaining source samples constitute the training set  
 192  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{tr}}$ . The targeted selection strategy ensures that our calibration is performed on source data that  
 193 closely mirrors the characteristics of the target domain, thereby producing more reliable uncertainty  
 194 estimates for the adaptation task.

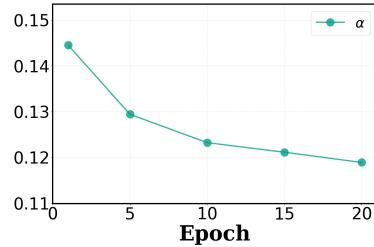
195 We define a conformity score  $s(x, y) = 1 - \hat{p}(y | x)$  to measure the compatibility between sample  
 196  $x$  and its true label  $y$ , where  $\hat{p}(y | x)$  represents the model’s predicted softmax probability. Lower  
 197 scores indicate stronger model confidence in the prediction.

198 Subsequently, we compute conformity scores for all samples  
 199 in  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{cal}}$ , yielding score collection  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{cal}}$ . Traditional conformal  
 200 prediction methods (Vovk et al., 2005; Papadopoulos et al.,  
 201 2002; Lei et al., 2018) employ a fixed, user-predefined error  
 202 rate  $\alpha$  to calculate quantile threshold  $\hat{q}$ . However, fixed  $\alpha$  fails  
 203 to adapt to model capability changes throughout the lengthy  
 204 training process. During early training, overly strict  $\alpha$  may re-  
 205 sult in empty prediction sets, while during later stages, overly  
 206 lenient  $\alpha$  cannot effectively identify uncertainty.

207 To overcome this limitation, we design a dynamic  $\alpha$  adjust-  
 208 ment mechanism based on validation accuracy on the source  
 209 domain, linearly transforming  $\alpha$  from a static hyperparameter into a dynamic variable  $\alpha_t$  that evolves  
 210 with the model’s performance. To prevent  $\alpha_t$  from fluctuating dramatically due to single evaluation  
 211 variations, we introduce exponential moving average (EMA) for smooth updates, ensuring adjust-  
 212 ment process stability. The dynamic  $\alpha$  schedule on Office-Home is illustrated in Figure 3.

213 According to conformal prediction theory, for a new sample  $x_t$  drawn from the same distribution as  
 214 the calibration set, the probability that its true label  $y_t$  falls within the following prediction set  $\mathcal{C}(x_t)$   
 215 is at least  $1 - \alpha_t$ :

$$\mathcal{C}(x_t) = \{y \in \mathcal{Y} \mid s(x_t, y) \leq \hat{q}^W\}, \quad (1)$$



216 Figure 3: Dynamic  $\alpha$  during training  
 217 on Office-Home Ar  $\rightarrow$  Re task.

216 where  $\hat{q}^W = \hat{q}^W(\mathcal{S}_{\text{cal}}, \alpha_t)$  denotes the weighted quantile threshold. We sort all conformity scores  
 217  $\{s(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{n_{\text{cal}}}$  in ascending order and select the  $\lceil (n_{\text{cal}} + 1)(1 - \alpha_t) \rceil$ -th value as  $\hat{q}^W$ .  
 218

219 **3.2.2 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS**  
 220

221 A critical theoretical question arises when applying conformal prediction in UDAH: standard con-  
 222 formal prediction theory requires the calibration data and new test data to be exchangeable, an  
 223 assumption that breaks down when distribution shifts exist between source and target domains.  
 224 Therefore, we must address the fundamental question: *do the theoretical coverage guarantees of*  
 225 *our constructed prediction sets  $\mathcal{C}(x_t)$  remain valid on the target domain?*

226 To answer this question, we provide a theoretical analysis demonstrating that our framework remains  
 227 robust under this limitation. As stated in Theorem 3.1, the coverage guarantee does not completely  
 228 fail but degrades in a *quantifiable and graceful* manner.

229 **Theorem 3.1** (Coverage Guarantee under Domain Shift). *Let  $d_{\text{TV}}$  denote the total variation dis-  
 230 tance. Suppose  $(X_{\text{train}}, Y_{\text{train}})$  and  $(X_{\text{test}}, Y_{\text{test}})$  are random samples from the source and target  
 231 distributions, respectively. Let  $\hat{q}^W$  be derived from equation 1. Then, the following coverage guar-  
 232 antee holds for the target domain:*

$$\mathbb{P}(s(X_{\text{test}}, Y_{\text{test}}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \geq 1 - \alpha_t - d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{\text{train}}, Y_{\text{train}}), s(X_{\text{test}}, Y_{\text{test}})). \quad (2)$$

233 *If we further assume that the conformal score has a continuous distribution in both domains, then  
 234 we also have the upper bound:*

$$\mathbb{P}(s(X_{\text{test}}, Y_{\text{test}}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \leq 1 - \alpha_t + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{\text{train}}, Y_{\text{train}}), s(X_{\text{test}}, Y_{\text{test}})). \quad (3)$$

235 The proof and related discussion are provided in Appendix E. This theorem serves as the theoretical  
 236 foundation of our methodology, revealing the intrinsic logic of synergistic cooperation among vari-  
 237 ous modules in our framework. It implies that our subsequent domain alignment work (detailed in  
 238 Section 3.2) serves not merely as a heuristic feature distance reduction. By minimizing the feature  
 239 distribution differences between source and target domains, we are implicitly minimizing the total  
 240 variation distance between their conformity score distributions.

241 **Take Away:** Our theoretical analysis demonstrates that conformal prediction coverage guar-  
 242 antees remain bounded under domain shift. The essential role of domain alignment is to actively  
 243 reduce the error term in this theoretical bound, making our uncertainty quantification for target  
 244 domain samples more precise and reliable.

251 **3.2.3 UNCERTAINTY-DRIVEN ADAPTIVE LEARNING**  
 252

253 With this theoretically-grounded and dynamically-adjustable prediction set  $\mathcal{C}(x_t)$ , we transform it  
 254 into effective signals that guide model adaptive learning.

255 The semantic confidence weight is theoretically grounded in conformal prediction. By Theorem 3.1,  
 256 smaller prediction sets indicate higher model certainty with statistical coverage guarantees.  $|\mathcal{C}(x_t)|$   
 257 serves as a natural and rigorous uncertainty measure. We define its reciprocal as the **semantic**  
 258 **confidence weight**, which modulates each target sample’s contribution:

$$w_t^{\text{sem}} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{C}(x_t)|}, \quad \tilde{y}_t(c) = \frac{\hat{p}(c \mid x_t) \cdot \mathbb{I}\{c \in \mathcal{C}(x_t)\}}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{C}(x_t)} \hat{p}(j \mid x_t)}. \quad (4)$$

259 This soft label  $\tilde{y}_t$  more faithfully reflects the model’s judgment within its confidence range compared  
 260 to hard labels, avoiding overly absolute supervision on uncertain samples.

261 Combining these two mechanisms, we construct the **semantically-weighted target domain**  
 262 **pseudo-supervision loss**. This loss function achieves dual protection: *inter-sample*, through  $w_t^{\text{sem}}$   
 263 to suppress the overall influence of high-uncertainty samples; *intra-sample*, through  $\tilde{y}_t$  to provide  
 264 smoother and more reliable supervision distribution:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{target}} = \frac{1}{|B_t|} \sum_{x_t \in B_t} w_t^{\text{sem}} \cdot \text{CE}(\tilde{y}_t, \hat{p}(\cdot \mid x_t)). \quad (5)$$

270 3.2.4 CONFIDENCE-GUIDED DOMAIN ALIGNMENT  
271272 Beyond constructing more robust single-sample supervision for the target domain, we further apply  
273 semantic confidence to guide the macroscopic domain alignment process, correcting the blindness  
274 of traditional alignment methods.275 Traditional domain alignment approaches uniformly minimize distributional differences between  
276 source and target domains. However, when the target domain contains numerous semantically am-  
277 biguous *boundary* samples, forced alignment of these samples may actually distort the semantic  
278 structure of the shared feature space. To address this issue, we first compute the *average semantic*  
279 *confidence* within a target batch and use it as a weight for the alignment loss:

280 
$$\bar{w}_{B_t}^{\text{sem}} = \frac{1}{|B_t|} \sum_{x_t \in B_t} w_t^{\text{sem}}, \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{align}} = \bar{w}_{B_t}^{\text{sem}} \cdot \left\| \frac{1}{|B_s|} \sum_{x \in B_s} \phi(G(x)) - \frac{1}{|B_t|} \sum_{x \in B_t} \phi(G(x)) \right\|_2^2. \quad (6)$$
  
281  
282

283 where  $G(\cdot)$  denotes the feature extractor and  $\phi(\cdot)$  represents the MMD kernel mapping. This batch-  
284 level macroscopic weighting mechanism operates under the following logic: when a target batch  
285 exhibits low overall confidence, we correspondingly reduce domain alignment intensity to prevent  
286 the model from being misled by these *problematic* samples. Conversely, we strengthen alignment  
287 when confidence is high. This enables the model to preferentially align core data manifolds with  
288 clear semantics in both domains, achieving more stable and meaningful feature distribution align-  
289 ment that establishes a solid semantic foundation for subsequent high-quality hash code learning.290 3.3 REPRESENTATION-LEVEL CALIBRATION: BIT-WISE RELIABILITY MODELING  
291292 While semantic-level calibration addresses the reliability of *what to learn*, representation-level cali-  
293 bration focuses on the intrinsic stability of *how to learn hash codes effectively*. A high-quality hash  
294 code must not only maintain semantic discriminability but also ensure that each individual bit is ro-  
295 bust and exhibits low redundancy. The flipping of a single unreliable bit can cause dramatic changes  
296 in Hamming distance, severely affecting retrieval precision. Therefore, we extend uncertainty anal-  
297 ysis from the macroscopic semantic level to the microscopic bit level.298 **Proxy Task for Bit Stability.** To quantify the reliability of each bit, we design a self-supervised  
299 proxy task. **This design is theoretically motivated: a reliable bit must exhibit sign consistency under**  
300 **minor perturbations, which naturally aligns with the quantization objective of pushing continuous**  
301 **values toward  $\pm 1$ .** The core assumption is that a robust bit should maintain sign stability when  
302 facing minor perturbations in input data.303 Specifically, for each sample  $x_i$  in the source domain, we obtain its feature vector  $f_i$ . An augmented  
304 version  $f'_i$  is created by applying Gaussian noise to  $f_i$ . After passing  $f_i$  and  $f'_i$  through the hash  
305 layer, they yield continuous pre-hash vectors  $h_i$  and  $h'_i$ . Based on these, we generate a stability label  
306  $v_{i,k}$  for each bit  $k$  of  $h_i$ :

307 
$$v_{i,k} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{sign}(h_{i,k}) = \text{sign}(h'_{i,k})\}, \quad (7)$$
  
308

309 where  $\mathbb{I}(\cdot)$  denotes the indicator function. Then, we introduce a lightweight bit confidence prediction  
310 head  $G_{\text{bit}}(\cdot)$  that operates in parallel with the backbone network. It receives image features and  
311 predicts an  $L$ -dimensional confidence vector  $w_{x,k}^{\text{bit}} \in [0, 1]^L$ . This head is trained through binary  
312 cross-entropy loss to predict  $v_{x,k}$ , **which naturally drives the predicted confidence to polarize toward**  
313 **binary values  $\{0, 1\}$  without requiring explicit thresholds.** We employ a separate prediction head  
314 rather than on-the-fly perturbation during inference to ensure retrieval efficiency. Direct perturbation  
315 would require multiple forward passes per query, significantly increasing latency. Our lightweight  
316 head predicts stability in a single pass ( $O(1)$ ), maintaining the speed advantage of hashing.317 3.3.1 CONFIDENCE-GUIDED HASH LEARNING AND RETRIEVAL  
318319 The learned bit confidence  $w^{\text{bit}}$  plays a crucial role in both training and testing phases, enabling  
320 end-to-end uncertainty awareness.321 **Weighted Quantization Loss.** Traditional quantization loss  $\|h - \text{sign}(h)\|$  uniformly penalizes  
322 all bits that deviate from  $\pm 1$ . We leverage bit confidence to weight this loss, making the model  
323 focus more on bits predicted to be stable and reliable during training, while providing greater  
tolerance for unstable bits and allowing them more thorough exploration in continuous space.

324 We reweight the quantization term using bit confidence, applying  
 325 stronger constraints only on *trustworthy bits* while reducing  
 326 backward noise from unstable bits:  
 327

$$328 \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{quant}} = \frac{1}{|B|L} \sum_{x \in B} \sum_{k=1}^L \text{stop\_grad}(w_{x,k}^{\text{bit}}) \cdot \max(0, 1 - |h_{x,k}|), \quad (8)$$

331 where `stop_grad` prevents the model from circumventing  
 332 quantization by manipulating  $w^{\text{bit}}$ . The dynamics of  $w^{\text{bit}}$  are  
 333 illustrated in Figure 4, where  $\bar{w}^{\text{bit}}$  is the average of  $w^{\text{bit}}$  in a  
 334 mini-batch.

### 335 Uncertainty-aware Weighted Hamming Distance.

336 During retrieval, we leverage the learned bit confidence  
 337 to dynamically weight Hamming distance, suppressing  
 338 contributions from unreliable bits. We use the bit con-  
 339 fidence  $w_q^{\text{bit}}$  of query sample  $x_q$  as dynamic weights  
 340 to construct a novel distance metric. This ensures that  
 341 when computing distances between query and database  
 342 samples, bit positions where the query sample itself ex-  
 343 hibits uncertainty receive lower weights, naturally re-  
 344 ducing the noise impact from unreliable bit flips and  
 345 significantly enhancing retrieval robustness:

$$346 \quad d_{\text{UWHD}}(x_q, x_d) = \sum_{k=1}^L w_{q,k} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (1 - b_{q,k} b_{d,k}), \quad (9)$$

347 where  $w_{q,k} \in [0, 1]$  represents the bit-level weight derived from query confidence  $w_q^{\text{bit}}$ . Note that  
 348 Eq. 9 utilizes continuous weights primarily for differentiable optimization during training. For effi-  
 349 cient large-scale retrieval, we binarize the query weights  $w_{q,k} \in \{0, 1\}$  via rounding. This reduces  
 350 the metric to a masked Hamming distance, enabling UWHD to be computed via efficient bitwise  
 351 operations. As shown in Appendix 5, our method achieves comparable speed to vanilla hashing.  
 352 This series of designs enables our model to not only learn hash code generation but also develop  
 353 quality assessment capabilities for its own generated hash codes, integrating this assessment ability  
 354 throughout the entire lifecycle from learning to application.

### 356 3.4 SELF-REGULATING CALIBRATED ADAPTATION: A CLOSED-LOOP LEARNING SYSTEM

357 We further construct a self-regulating mechanism that transforms these tools from passive to active  
 358 components. This mechanism addresses the classic challenge of manually balancing loss weights in  
 359 multi-objective optimization by using the model’s real-time uncertainty as intrinsic control signals  
 360 to dynamically adjust learning focus, forming an intelligent closed-loop system.

362 Specifically, we compute the average semantic confidence  $\bar{w}_{B_t}^{\text{sem}}$  and average bit confidence  $\bar{w}_{B_t}^{\text{bit}}$  for  
 363 each batch  $B_t$ . These aggregated indicators reflect the model’s overall grasp of the current batch  
 364 data at the present stage. We use them as inputs to adaptive weights  $\lambda(\cdot)$  to dynamically modulate  
 365 the intensity of various loss terms:

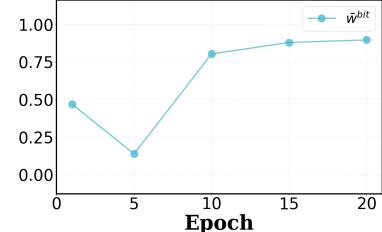
$$366 \quad \lambda_{\text{target}}(B_t) = f_{\text{sem}}(\text{stop\_grad}(\bar{w}_{B_t}^{\text{sem}})), \quad \lambda_{\text{quant}}(B_t) = f_{\text{quant}}(\text{stop\_grad}(\bar{w}_{B_t}^{\text{bit}})), \quad (10)$$

367 where  $f(\cdot)$  represents linear scaling functions, and the `stop_grad` operation ensures these weights  
 368 do not directly participate in gradient computation, guaranteeing training stability.

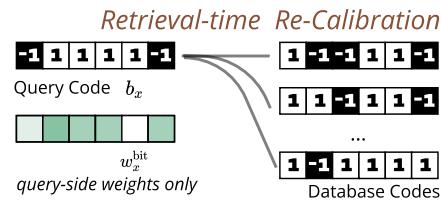
370 The intuitive logic follows a natural learning progression. During early training, with low  $\bar{w}^{\text{sem}}$ , re-  
 371 sulting in small  $\lambda_{\text{target}}$  and  $\lambda_{\text{align}}$ , the model treats pseudo-labels and domain alignment cautiously,  
 372 avoiding aggressive adaptation before sufficiently understanding the target domain. **This mecha-  
 373 nism naturally acts as a warm-up strategy: early in training, high uncertainty leads to low  $\lambda_{\text{target}}$ ,**  
 374 preventing the model from overfitting to noisy pseudo-labels. As the model learns from the source  
 375 domain, uncertainty decreases, and the target adaptation gradually engages.

376 Finally, our total training objective integrates all modules through dynamic balancing via the self-  
 377 regulating mechanism:

$$378 \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{source}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{bit\_head}} + \lambda_{\text{target}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{target}} + \lambda_{\text{align}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{align}} + \lambda_{\text{quant}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{quant}} \quad (11)$$



331 Figure 4: Bit-level calibration  $\bar{w}^{\text{bit}}$   
 332 on Office-Home Ar→Re task.



331 Figure 5: Illustration of bit-level uncer-  
 332 tainty calibration mechanism.

378 Table 1: Cross-domain retrieval performance (mAP%) comparison on Office-Home and Office-31.  
379

Methods	OFFICE-HOME						OFFICE-31						Avg.
	Pr→Re	Cl→Re	Re→Ar	Re→Pr	Re→Cl	Ar→Re	Am→Ds	Am→We	We→Ds	Ds→Am	We→Am	Ds→We	
ITQ	26.81	14.83	25.37	28.19	14.92	25.88	29.55	28.53	58.00	26.83	25.09	58.89	30.24
OCH	18.65	10.27	17.54	20.15	10.05	18.09	24.86	22.49	51.03	22.45	20.79	53.64	24.17
DSH	8.49	5.47	9.67	8.26	5.28	9.69	16.66	15.09	39.24	16.33	13.58	41.07	15.74
SGH	24.51	13.62	22.53	25.73	13.51	22.93	24.98	22.47	53.94	22.17	20.52	56.36	26.94
GraphBit	18.18	16.87	11.51	10.81	18.91	21.32	24.48	23.12	22.09	53.82	21.34	51.43	24.49
GTH-g	20.00	10.99	18.28	21.95	11.68	19.05	23.08	21.20	49.38	19.52	17.41	50.14	23.56
PWCF	34.03	24.22	28.95	34.44	18.42	34.57	39.78	34.86	67.94	35.12	35.01	72.91	38.35
DHLing	48.47	30.81	38.68	45.24	25.15	43.30	41.96	45.10	75.23	42.89	41.74	79.91	46.54
DAPH	27.20	15.29	27.35	28.19	15.29	26.37	32.80	28.66	60.71	28.66	27.59	64.11	31.85
PEACE	53.04	38.72	42.68	54.39	28.36	45.97	46.69	48.89	78.82	46.91	46.95	83.18	51.22
DANCE	53.73	39.03	43.54	55.14	28.87	44.53	44.78	47.66	78.39	46.68	48.61	84.75	51.31
IDEA	59.18	45.71	49.64	61.84	32.77	51.19	48.70	54.43	84.97	53.53	53.71	88.69	57.03
COUPLE	63.94	49.24	54.35	64.29	41.39	54.14	50.27	59.32	85.26	56.04	56.35	88.90	60.29
<b>COLA</b>	<b>67.04</b>	<b>52.65</b>	<b>57.23</b>	<b>67.88</b>	<b>41.71</b>	<b>57.35</b>	<b>52.51</b>	<b>62.08</b>	<b>87.28</b>	<b>58.09</b>	<b>57.60</b>	<b>89.65</b>	<b>62.59</b>

390 Table 2: Cross-domain retrieval performance (mAP%) comparison on MNIST and USPS.  
391

Methods	MNIST → USPS						USPS → MNIST						Avg.
	16	32	48	64	96	128	16	32	48	64	96	128	
ITQ	13.05	15.57	18.54	20.12	23.12	23.89	13.69	17.51	20.40	20.30	22.79	24.59	19.46
OCH	13.73	17.22	19.59	20.18	20.66	23.34	15.51	17.75	18.97	21.50	21.27	23.68	19.45
DSH	20.60	22.21	23.68	24.28	25.73	26.50	19.54	21.22	22.89	23.79	25.91	26.46	23.57
SGH	14.24	16.69	18.72	19.70	21.00	21.95	13.26	17.71	18.22	19.01	21.69	22.09	18.69
GraphBit	13.92	17.86	20.17	20.82	21.32	23.19	15.16	16.82	17.87	19.85	20.10	22.54	19.13
GTH-g	20.45	17.64	16.60	17.25	17.26	17.06	15.17	14.07	15.02	15.01	14.80	17.34	16.47
PWCF	47.47	51.99	51.44	51.75	50.89	59.35	47.14	50.86	52.06	52.18	57.14	58.96	52.60
DHLing	49.24	54.90	56.30	58.28	58.80	59.14	50.14	51.35	53.67	58.65	58.42	59.17	55.67
DAPH	25.13	27.10	26.10	28.51	30.53	30.70	26.60	26.43	27.27	27.99	30.19	31.40	28.16
PEACE	52.87	59.72	60.69	62.84	65.13	68.16	53.97	54.82	58.69	60.91	62.65	65.70	60.51
DANCE	53.18	57.98	61.23	63.15	65.92	68.87	54.31	55.64	57.26	61.49	63.43	66.23	60.72
IDEA	58.89	64.48	65.72	67.48	70.24	74.34	60.99	61.47	65.45	67.97	69.72	72.31	66.59
COUPLE	60.56	66.05	66.23	67.98	73.02	75.12	63.28	64.94	67.44	70.19	72.87	74.62	68.53
<b>COLA</b>	<b>62.21</b>	<b>67.72</b>	<b>67.35</b>	<b>68.91</b>	<b>75.09</b>	<b>77.67</b>	<b>65.11</b>	<b>67.27</b>	<b>69.83</b>	<b>72.94</b>	<b>74.33</b>	<b>76.33</b>	<b>70.40</b>

405 This design paradigm enables the entire adaptation process to be governed by the model’s own  
406 cognitive state, achieving truly adaptive, robust, and efficient end-to-end learning.  
407408 **Computational Complexity.** The calibration phase requires only one-time sorting and weighted  
409 quantile estimation with complexity  $O(n_{\text{cal}} \log n_{\text{cal}})$ , where  $n_{\text{cal}}$  is the size of the calibration set.  
410 This can be approximately reduced to linear time using quantile sketching algorithms.412 

## 4 EXPERIMENT

414 

### 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

416 **Datasets.** We evaluate our method on three widely-used cross-domain benchmarks: Office-  
417 Home (Venkateswara et al., 2017), Office-31 (Saenko et al., 2010), and Digits(MNIST (LeCun et al.,  
418 1998) and USPS (Hull, 1994)). We follow the transfer tasks as in previous research (Wang et al.,  
419 2023b; Luo et al., 2025) for fair comparison. More details are provided in Appendix B.420 **Baselines.** We compare our method with state-of-the-art hashing methods, including five unsupervised  
421 methods (ITQ (Gong et al., 2012), OCH (Liu et al., 2018), DSH (Jin et al., 2013), SGH (Jiang  
422 & Li, 2015), GraphBit (Wang et al., 2022)) and eight domain-adaptive methods (GTH-g (Zhang  
423 et al., 2019), PWCF (Huang et al., 2020), DHLing (Xia et al., 2021a), DAPH (Huang et al., 2021),  
424 PEACE (Wang et al., 2023a), DANCE (Wang et al., 2023b), IDEA (Wang et al., 2023d), COU-  
425 PLE (Luo et al., 2025)) as baselines. More details can be found in Appendix C.426 **Implementation Details.** To ensure a fair comparison, the model config is set following previous  
427 methods (Wang et al., 2023d; Luo et al., 2025). All experiments are implemented in PyTorch and  
428 conducted on a single NVIDIA Hopper GPU. The hash layer consists of a two-layer MLP, and the  
429 same structure is used for bit head prediction. We use the Adam optimizer, with an initial learning  
430 rate set to 0.001 and a batch size of 32. The training epoch is set to 35. And we set the proportion  
431 of the calibration set to 0.2, the mapping range for  $\alpha$  to [0.05, 0.2], and EMA smoothing coefficient  
432 to 0.7 as common practice.

Table 3: Ablation studies on the Office-Home with 64 bit hash code.

Variants	SC	RC	SR	Pr→Re	Cl→Re	Re→Ar	Re→Pr	Re→Cl	Ar→Re	Avg.
<b>COLA (None)</b>				<b>59.65</b>	<b>46.47</b>	<b>49.66</b>	<b>59.56</b>	<b>31.92</b>	<b>47.56</b>	<b>49.14</b>
COLA-SC	✓			59.92	47.08	49.89	59.81	32.07	47.82	49.43
COLA-RC		✓		60.83	48.64	51.33	61.22	35.84	52.70	51.76
COLA-SR			✓	61.41	47.77	52.24	61.69	35.11	51.06	51.55
COLA w/o SC		✓	✓	65.13	48.89	54.12	65.97	40.01	53.04	54.53
COLA w/o RC	✓		✓	65.95	49.39	56.16	66.87	39.68	53.18	55.21
COLA w/o SR	✓	✓		65.25	49.30	53.29	65.62	39.95	55.03	54.74
<b>COLA (Full Model)</b>	✓	✓	✓	<b>67.04</b>	<b>52.65</b>	<b>57.23</b>	<b>67.88</b>	<b>41.71</b>	<b>57.35</b>	<b>57.31</b>

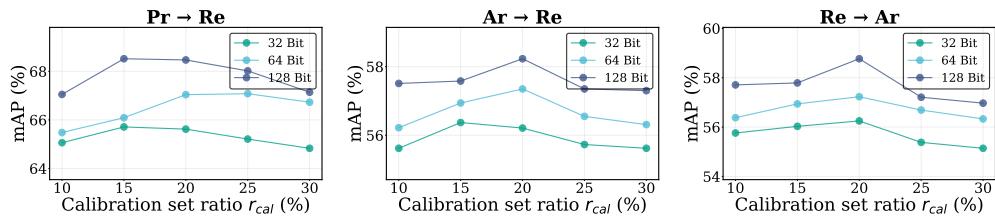
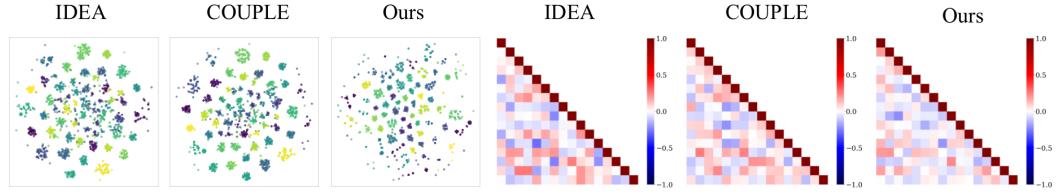
Figure 6: Sensitivity analysis on calibration set ratio  $r_{cal}$ .

Figure 7: The t-SNE visualization of 64-bit hash codes on Office-Home dataset; The correlation heatmap of 16 bit hash codes on Office-Home dataset (Ar → Re).

**Evaluation Metrics.** We use three standard metrics to assess our COLA: mean Average Precision (mAP), precision-recall curve, Top-N accuracy curve and Top-N recall curve. The mAPs are used to represent the overall retrieval performance. The precision-recall curves assess the comprehensive performance of the method, the TopN accuracy curves, and the Top-N recall curves illustrate the performance under different retrieval quantities.

## 4.2 EMPIRICAL RESULTS

**Performance Comparison.** To comprehensively validate the effectiveness of COLA, we compared the retrieval performance of all approaches on three benchmark datasets, as shown in Tables 1 and 2. Table 1 reports the cross-domain retrieval results on Office-Home and Office-31 with a fixed 64-bit hash code length. Furthermore, we investigated the cross-domain performance of each method under varying hash code lengths on the USPS and MNIST datasets, and the results are presented in Table 2. From the results reported in Tables 1 and 2, we observe that COLA consistently and significantly outperforms existing state-of-the-art approaches, achieving an average improvement of around 3.3% in retrieval performance. Earlier methods, such as DAPH (Huang et al., 2021), PEACE (Wang et al., 2023a) generally suffer from inferior performance due to relatively simplistic domain adaptation strategies. The performance gain of our COLA over advanced baselines can be largely attributed to its unique hierarchical uncertainty calibration framework. To gain deeper insights into the effectiveness of our method, we also conduct qualitative analysis experiments. We compared different approaches using precision-recall curves, Top-N precision curves, and Top-N recall curves. The more detailed qualitative analysis of these results is provided in the Appendix D.1.

**Ablation Study.** Table 3 reports the retrieval performance of ablation variants on the Office-Home dataset. We can conclude that the COLA is of best performance, demonstrating the importance of

each component. The variant *COLA (None)* in Table 3 represents the baseline with all three components (SC, RC, SR) removed, which serves as a standard UDAH baseline. Disabling semantic-level calibration leads to a significant performance drop from 57.31% to 54.53% in average mAP. This underscores the critical role of conformal prediction in quantifying semantic uncertainty to generate reliable soft pseudo-labels and guide domain alignment. Excluding representation-level calibration degrades the mAP to 55.21%, which demonstrates the importance of modeling bit-wise reliability. These substantial performance degradations empirically validate the necessity of our weighting mechanisms, with each component contributing meaningfully to the final performance. Also, removing the self-regulating results in a notable performance decrease to 54.74%. This confirms the benefit of dynamically balancing the learning objectives based on the model’s real-time uncertainty. We also compared with other variants that contain a single component. Note that the centroid-based calibration set is essential for the SC module to compute semantic distances, and dynamic  $\alpha$  is inherent to the SR mechanism. Thus, our ablation design properly isolates the contribution of each component within the coherent framework. More details of the ablation study are in the Appendix D.2.

**Uncertainty Analysis.** We analysed the bit-level confidence of target domain across different hash lengths (32, 64, and 128 bits) on Office-Home dataset. From the results shown in figure 8, we can draw the following conclusions. Firstly, the bit-level confidence starts near 0.5, reflecting the model’s random initial state, then sharply drops to near-zero as the model begins learning and calibrating its uncertainty. Finally, as the model converges and learns a stable feature representation, the confidence rises to a high and stable value. Secondly, shorter codes (32-bit) achieve a higher final confidence, as each bit must be more informative. Conversely, longer codes (128-bit) require more time to stabilize, resulting in a slower confidence recovery during training. These experimental results further validate the efficacy and validity of our proposed uncertainty calibration method.

**Sensitivity Analysis.** We conduct the sensitivity analysis to evaluate the robustness of our COLA with respect to the hyperparameter calibration set ratio  $r_{cal}$ . The analysis is performed on the Office-Home dataset with different hash code lengths. As Figure 6 shows, the retrieval performance of COLA remains stable across a wide range of calibration set ratios. We observe a better performance when  $r_{cal}$  is set to 20%. More details are in Appendix D.3.

**Visualization** To further understand the semantic structure of the learned representations, we utilize t-SNE visualization to demonstrate the discriminative hash codes on Office-Home. As shown in Figure 7, COLA can effectively exploit the information capacity of hash codes to learn more discriminative hash codes, thereby achieving more effective image retrieval.

## 5 CONCLUSION

To address the unreliable uncertainty handling in existing unsupervised domain adaptive hashing methods, this paper introduces COLA based on hierarchical conformal calibration. Our approach abandons traditional heuristic strategies in favor of a principled mechanism with rigorous statistical guarantees that quantifies uncertainty at both semantic and representation levels, thereby generating more reliable supervision signals for the target domain and modeling the stability of each hash bit. Extensive experiments on multiple benchmark datasets validate the superiority of our method, demonstrating consistent and significant improvements over state-of-the-art approaches. In summary, COLA provides a more reliable and adaptive solution for cross-domain retrieval tasks through systematic utilization of uncertainty, establishing a new paradigm that transforms uncertainty from an obstacle into a valuable resource for robust domain adaptive hashing. COLA is specifically designed as a scalable solution for UDAH tasks, leveraging the efficiency of binary hashing to enable fast cross-domain retrieval. While evaluated on standard benchmarks, our efficient binarized implementation suggests strong potential for scaling to larger datasets.

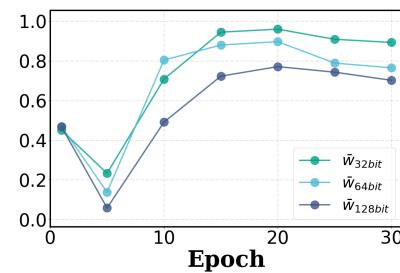


Figure 8: Bit-level confidence evolution during training across different hash code lengths (32, 64, and 128 bits) on Office-Home dataset. (Art → Real World task.)

540 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT  
541542 For reproducibility purposes, we have made our code available at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/COLA-8C6C/>. Also, we provided the detailed implementation details in Section 4.1, Appendix C  
543 and Appendix B.  
544545 ETHICS STATEMENT  
546547 Our research adheres to the ICLR Code of Ethics. The code and related materials will be appropriately  
548 released to ensure transparency and reproducibility of our work. All datasets used in this study  
549 are publicly available.  
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756 **A ACKNOWLEDGMENTS OF LLM USAGE**  
757758 We utilized a large language model to aid our writing process, specifically for correcting  
759 grammar, improving sentence structure, and fetching related papers. The scientific contributions remain  
760 entirely our own.  
761762 **B DATASET DETAILS**  
763764 We evaluate our method on three widely-used cross-domain benchmarks for unsupervised domain  
765 adaptation tasks.  
766767 • **Office-Home** (Venkateswara et al., 2017): This dataset contains four distinct domains: Artistic  
768 (Ar), Clip Art (Cl), Product (Pr), and Real-World (Re). To ensure a fair comparison with previous  
769 work, we follow the standard protocol and establish six cross-domain image retrieval tasks among  
770 these domains, including: Pr→Re, Cl→Re, Re→Ar, Re→Pr, Re→Cl, Ar→Re.  
771 • **Office-31** (Saenko et al., 2010): This dataset contains 31 categories from three domains: Amazon  
772 (Am), Webcam (We), and DSLR (Ds), with a total of over 4000 images. We similarly set up 6  
773 image retrieval transfer tasks on this dataset: Am→Ds, Am→We, We→Ds, Ds→Am, We→Am,  
774 Ds→We.  
775 • **Digits**: For handwritten digit recognition, we utilize the two classic datasets, MNIST (LeCun  
776 et al., 1998) and USPS (Hull, 1994). By alternating them as the source and target domains, we  
777 constructed 2 transfer tasks: MNIST→USPS and USPS→MNIST.  
778779 **C BASELINE DETAILS**  
780781 To comprehensively evaluate our COLA, we selected a series of state-of-the-art domain-adaptive  
782 hashing algorithms as comparative baselines, covering both unsupervised and adaptive hashing cat-  
783 egories. To ensure fairness in comparison, the experimental results of all baseline methods were  
784 reproduced to match the reported results in their original publications. The core ideas of the base-  
785 line methods are briefly summarized as follows.  
786787 • **ITQ** (Gong et al., 2012): A simple yet efficient alternating minimization algorithm with both  
788 supervised and unsupervised learning paradigms.  
789 • **OCH** (Liu et al., 2018): Approximates ordinal relations by a tensor ordinal graph, and employs  
790 ordinal constraint projection with a small set of centroids.  
791 • **DSH** (Jin et al., 2013): A variant of locality-sensitive hashing (LSH), which employs random  
792 projections to generate multi-view representations for metric learning.  
793 • **SGH** (Jiang & Li, 2015): Designed to compress high-dimensional data in a bit-wise manner,  
794 well-suited for large-scale semantic similarity learning tasks.  
795 • **GraphBit** (Wang et al., 2022): Explores bit-level interactions among features in continuous space,  
796 substantially alleviating the expensive search costs arising from training convergence difficulties  
797 in reinforcement learning.  
798 • **GTH-g** (Zhang et al., 2019): Selects the optimal hashing mapping functions for target-domain  
799 data based on source-domain samples.  
800 • **PWCF** (Huang et al., 2020): Leveraging a Bayesian model for learning discriminative hash codes  
801 and infers the similarity structure through histogram features.  
802 • **DHLing** (Xia et al., 2021a): Optimizes hash codes through learnable clustering, and introduces a  
803 memory-bank mechanism to mitigate the effects of domain shift.  
804 • **DAPH** (Huang et al., 2021): Learning domain-invariant feature projections, which effectively  
805 reducing distribution discrepancies.  
806 • **PEACE** (Wang et al., 2023a): Applies pseudo-labeling techniques to learn target semantics, and  
807 subsequently minimizes domain transfer through implicit and explicit strategies.  
808 • **DANCE** (Wang et al., 2023b): A dual-level hashing learning framework that optimizes cross-  
809 domain high-level feature prototypes via contrastive learning.

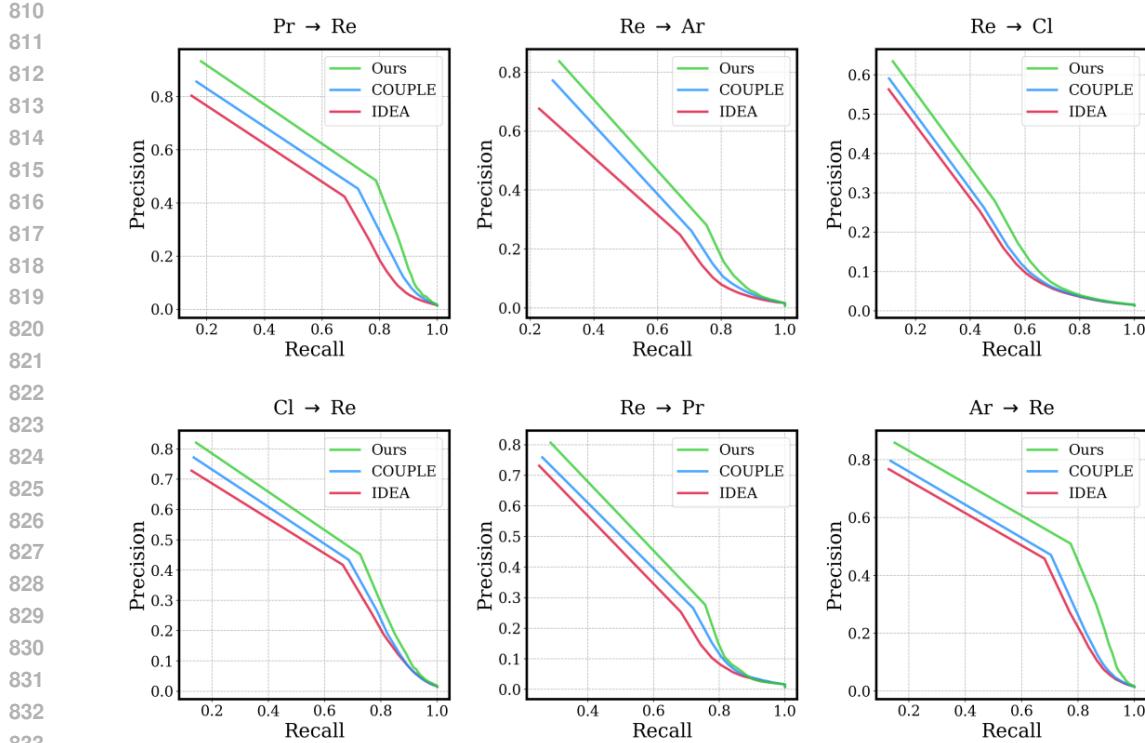


Figure 9: Precision-recall curves with 64 bits hash code on Office-Home Dataset.

- **IDEA** ([Wang et al., 2023d](#)): Decomposes visual representations into causal features which carry label information and non-causal features, and generates hash codes from the causal components.
- **COUPLE** ([Luo et al., 2025](#)): Simulates the dynamic process via graph flow diffusion, and employs hierarchical mixup to achieve progressive cross-domain alignment.

## D MORE EXPERIMENT RESULTS

### D.1 PERFORMANCE COMPARISON

To gain deeper insights into the effectiveness of our method, we also conduct qualitative analysis experiments. We compared different approaches by using precision-recall curves, Top-N precision curves, and Top-N recall curves, as shown in Figure 9, 10, and 11.

From the precision-recall curves in Figure 9, our COLA consistently outperforms all baseline methods across different cross-domain tasks on the Office-Home dataset. The curves demonstrate that COLA maintains higher precision values at all recall levels, indicating superior retrieval quality. Notably, the area under the PR curves for our method is significantly larger than that of competing approaches, suggesting more robust performance across varying similarity thresholds. The Top-N precision analysis in Figure 10 reveals that COLA achieves the highest precision scores across different values of N. This improvement is particularly pronounced when N is small, which is crucial for practical retrieval applications where users typically focus on top-ranked results. The consistent performance advantage across all six cross-domain tasks demonstrates the generalizability of our uncertainty calibration mechanism. Similarly, the Top-N recall curves in Figure 11 show that our method achieves superior recall rates compared to baseline approaches. The faster convergence of recall curves indicates that COLA can retrieve more relevant items within smaller candidate sets, which is essential for efficient large-scale retrieval systems. The substantial improvement margins across different domain adaptation scenarios validate the effectiveness of our conformal prediction-based calibration strategy in handling domain shift challenges.

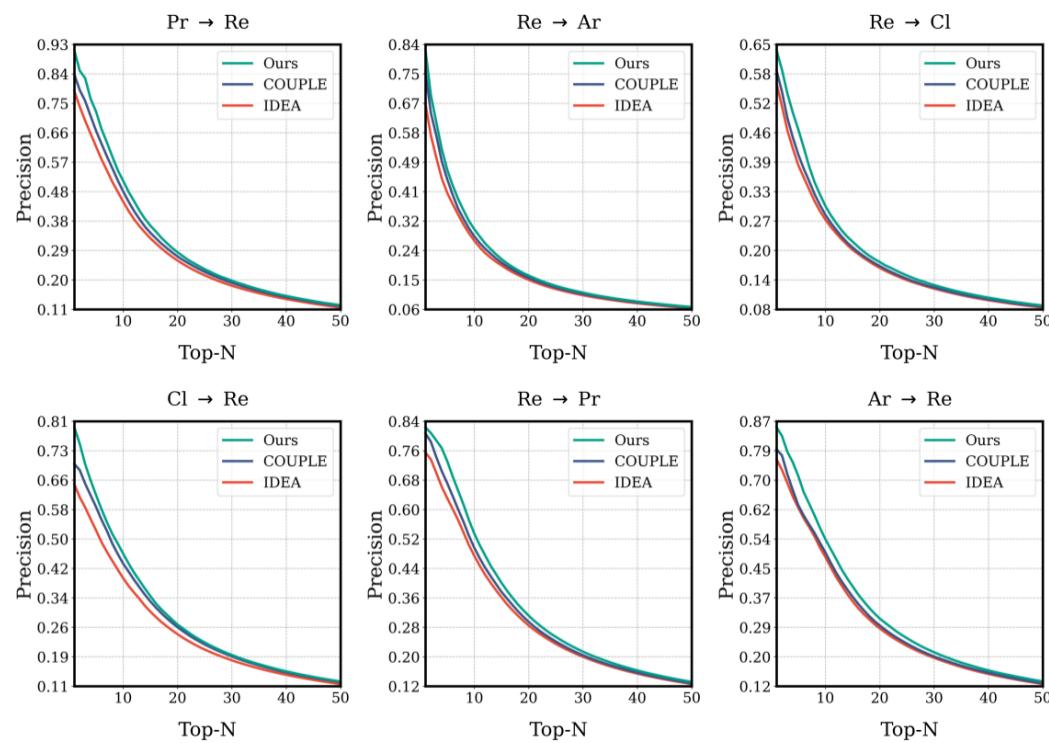


Figure 10: Top-N precision curves with 64 bits hash code on Office-Home Dataset.

Table 4: Ablation studies on the Office-Home with 64 bit hash code.

Variants	SC	RC	SR	Pr→Re	Cl→Re	Re→Ar	Re→Pr	Re→Cl	Ar→Re	Avg.
<b>COLA (None)</b>				<b>59.65</b>	<b>46.47</b>	<b>49.66</b>	<b>59.56</b>	<b>31.92</b>	<b>47.56</b>	<b>49.14</b>
COLA-SC	✓			59.92	47.08	49.89	59.81	32.07	47.82	49.43
COLA-RC		✓		60.83	48.64	51.33	61.22	35.84	52.70	51.76
COLA-SR			✓	61.41	47.77	52.24	61.69	35.11	51.06	51.55
COLA w/o SC	✓	✓		65.13	48.89	54.12	65.97	40.01	53.04	54.53
COLA w/o RC	✓		✓	65.95	49.39	56.16	66.87	39.68	53.18	55.21
COLA w/o SR	✓	✓		65.25	49.30	53.29	65.62	39.95	55.03	54.74
COLA (Full Model)	✓	✓	✓	<b>67.04</b>	<b>52.65</b>	<b>57.23</b>	<b>67.88</b>	<b>41.71</b>	<b>57.35</b>	<b>57.31</b>

## D.2 ABLATION STUDY

To investigate the effectiveness of the core components in COLA, we conduct comprehensive ablation studies by systematically removing or modifying key components from the full model. We define several ablation variants to analyze different aspects of our approach:

- **COLA(Full Model):** The complete COLA with all proposed components including semantic-level calibration, representation-level calibration, and self-regulating mechanism.
- **COLA w/o SC:** Removes the conformal prediction-based semantic uncertainty quantification module, using standard pseudo-labeling without uncertainty estimation.
- **COLA w/o RC:** Excludes the bit-wise reliability modeling component, treating all hash bits equally without considering their individual confidence levels.
- **COLA w/o SR:** Disables the dynamic objective balancing mechanism, using fixed weights for different loss components throughout training.
- **COLA-SC:** Retains only the semantic-level calibration component while removing other modules.

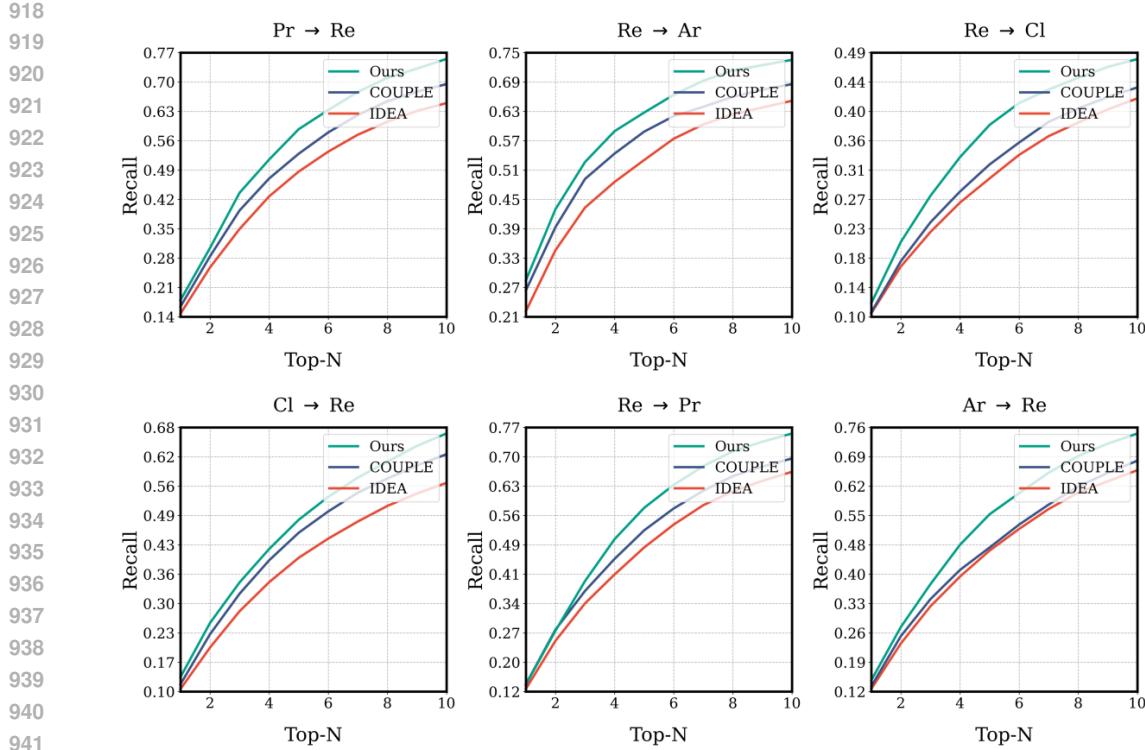


Figure 11: Top-N recall curves with 64 bits hash code on Office-Home Dataset.

- **COLA-RC**: Keeps only the representation-level calibration while excluding semantic and self-regulating components.
- **COLA-SR**: Maintains only the dynamic balancing mechanism without uncertainty calibration modules.
- **COLA(None)**: Removes all three core components, which reduces to a standard deep unsupervised domain adaptive hashing baseline that relies solely on basic source supervision, a standard quantization loss, and an unweighted domain alignment loss.

Table 3 reports the comprehensive retrieval performance comparison of these ablation variants on the Office-Home dataset across all six cross-domain tasks. The experimental results provide several important insights:

**Impact of Semantic-Level Calibration:** Removing the conformal prediction-based semantic calibration leads to the most significant performance degradation, with average mAP dropping from 57.31% to 54.53%. This substantial decrease demonstrates the critical importance of uncertainty quantification in generating reliable soft pseudo-labels. Without proper semantic uncertainty estimation, the model struggles to distinguish between confident and uncertain predictions, leading to noisy supervision signals that harm domain alignment effectiveness.

**Importance of Representation-Level Calibration:** Excluding the bit-wise reliability modeling results in a notable performance decline to 55.21% average mAP. This confirms that not all hash bits contribute equally to the final representation quality, and modeling individual bit confidence is essential for robust cross-domain hashing. The representation-level calibration enables the model to focus on reliable bits while suppressing unreliable ones during the learning process.

**Effectiveness of Self-Regulating Mechanism:** Disabling the dynamic objective balancing leads to a performance drop to 54.74% average mAP. This validates the importance of adaptively adjusting the learning objectives based on real-time uncertainty estimates. The self-regulating mechanism prevents the model from over-fitting to uncertain predictions and ensures stable training dynamics across different domain adaptation scenarios.

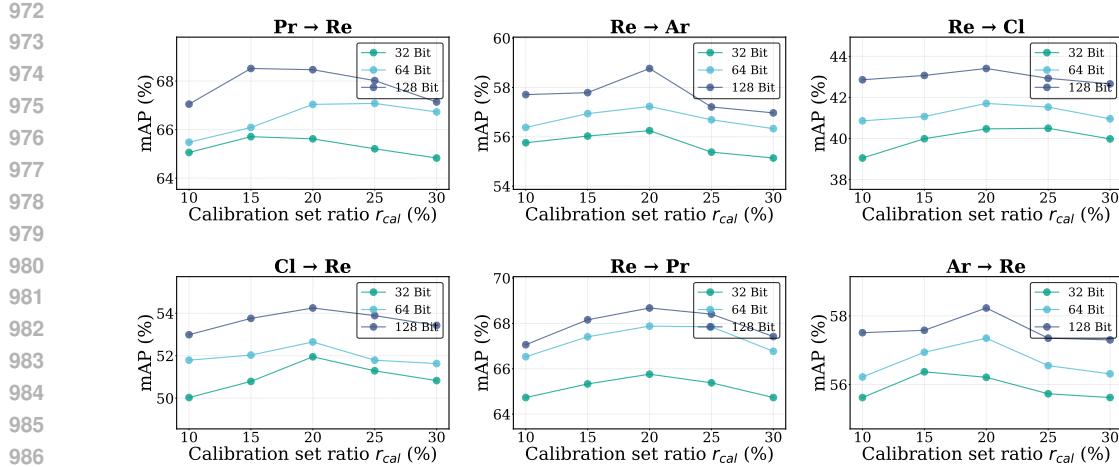


Figure 12: Sensitivity analysis on calibration set ratio  $r_{cal}$  on Office-Home with different hash code lengths.

Table 5: Retrieval time cost (ms) varies with code length.

	16 Bit	32 Bit	48 Bit	64 Bit	96 Bit	128 Bit
<i>Dense Vector</i>	440.3	493.0	547.0	605.3	659.7	700.3
<i>Vanilla Hash Code</i>	15.38	17.94	20.32	18.97	21.83	22.37
<i>UWHD</i>	15.94	18.55	21.00	19.63	22.59	23.20
<i>Speed Up</i>	27.62 $\times$	26.58 $\times$	26.05 $\times$	30.83 $\times$	29.20 $\times$	30.19 $\times$

**Individual Component Analysis:** The variants with only single components (Only Semantic: 53.89%, Only Representation: 53.12%, Only Self-Regulating: 52.95%) all perform significantly worse than the full model, indicating that the synergistic combination of all components is crucial for optimal performance. Each component addresses different aspects of the cross-domain hashing challenge, and their integration creates a more robust and effective framework.

These ablation results conclusively demonstrate that each proposed component contributes meaningfully to the overall performance, and their combination in COLA achieves the best balance between uncertainty calibration and cross-domain adaptation effectiveness.

### D.3 SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

We conduct the sensitivity analysis to evaluate the robustness of our COLA with respect to the hyperparameter calibration set ratio  $r_{cal}$ . The analysis is performed on the Office-Home dataset with different hash code lengths. Figure 12 shows all experimental results of sensitivity analysis.

### D.4 CASE STUDY

We perform hash-based retrieval and present the top-5 results in Figure 13. COLA achieves higher retrieval accuracy than advanced baselines, validating the effectiveness of our proposed approach and benefiting downstream retrieval-based tasks. From the results, we can observe that our COLA not only achieves higher retrieval performance compared to the baselines but also have the ability to capture more accurate retrieval semantics.

### D.5 SPEED TEST

In this part, we conducted a speed evaluation COLA and dense vector retrieval. Following previous works (Luo et al., 2025), we use a database of  $10^6$  items. Each method was run  $10^3$  times. We report the average retrieval time (ms) in Table 5. The results indicate that COLA could achieve substantially faster retrieval than dense vectors, and the inference-time calibration will not affect



Figure 13: Case study on COLA, COUPLE and IDEA. Query the top 5 images on the Office-31 with 64 bits hash code.

the efficiency, underscoring COLA’s efficiency in large-scale retrievals. Since the inference-time metric is binarized into masked Hamming distance, it remains compatible with standard hardware-accelerated bitwise operations and existing ANN indexing structures.

## D.6 CALIBRATION STRATEGY ANALYSIS

To validate our calibration set construction, we compared our target centroid-based strategy with random, per-class, and density-aware sampling on Office-Home. As shown in Table 6, our method achieves the lowest MMD (0.0025) and highest mAP, indicating that our  $D_{cal}$  best approximates the target distribution  $D_t$ .

Table 6: Comparison of calibration set selection strategies on Office-Home (Ar→Re).

Strategy	mAP (%)	MMD ( $D_{cal}, D_t$ )
Ours	<b>56.34</b>	<b>0.0025</b>
Random Sampling	55.21	0.0087
Per-Class Sampling	55.67	0.0057
Density-Aware (K-Means)	55.85	0.0032

## D.7 DYNAMIC ALPHA ABLATION

We compared our dynamic  $\alpha$  mechanism with a fixed  $\alpha$  baseline. Table 7 shows that dynamic  $\alpha$  consistently outperforms fixed  $\alpha$  across all datasets, achieving higher mAP and better empirical coverage (closer to  $1 - \alpha$ ). The EMA parameter 0.7 was chosen to balance stability and adaptability.

We further investigated the impact of the EMA smoothing parameter  $\alpha_{sm}$ . As shown in Table 8,  $\alpha_{sm} = 0.7$  yields the best performance, providing an optimal balance between stability and adaptivity.

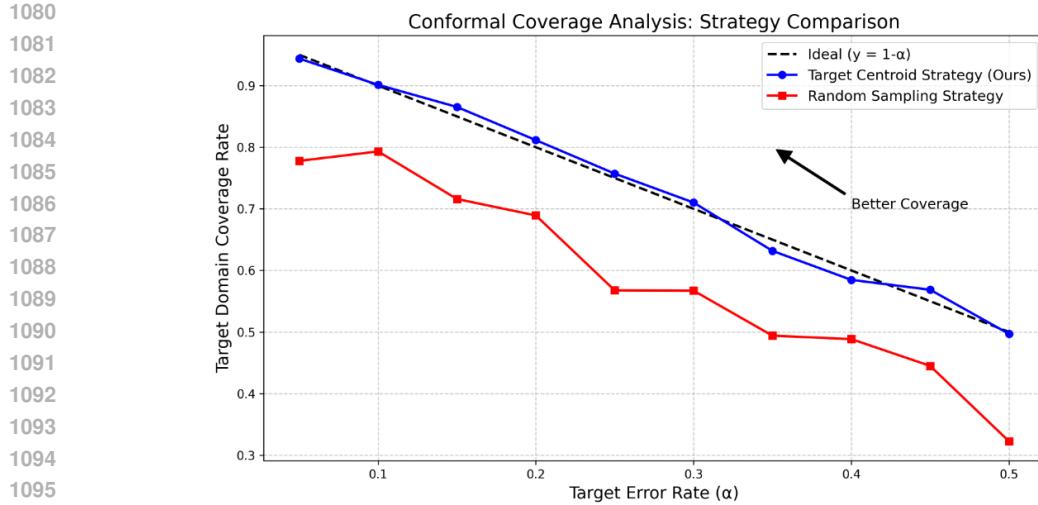


Figure 14: Conformal coverage analysis comparing our Target Centroid Strategy with Random Sampling. Our method (blue) closely follows the ideal coverage line ( $y = 1 - \alpha$ ), while random sampling (red) exhibits significant deviation.

Table 7: Ablation study of Fixed  $\alpha$  vs. Dynamic  $\alpha$ .

Dataset	mAP (%)		Coverage	
	Fixed $\alpha$	Dynamic $\alpha$	Fixed $\alpha$	Dynamic $\alpha$
Office-Home	55.22	<b>57.31</b>	0.87	<b>0.91</b>
Office-31	66.43	<b>67.11</b>	0.88	<b>0.93</b>
Digits	69.57	<b>70.41</b>	0.91	<b>0.94</b>

## D.8 STANDARD HAMMING DISTANCE COMPARISON

To verify that our performance gain is not solely due to the weighted distance metric, we evaluated a variant *COLA (w/ Standard Hamming)* which uses the full model but retrieves with standard Hamming distance. As shown in Table 9, it still outperforms the best baseline **COUPLE**.

## D.9 THEORETICAL DISCUSSION

Theorem 3.1 indicates that the coverage guarantee depends on minimizing the TV distance between conformity score distributions. While directly computing this TV distance is intractable, our Representation Calibration (RC) serves as an effective empirical proxy. By enforcing bit stability, RC implicitly aligns the feature distributions of the source and target domains. As shown in our ablation study, the inclusion of RC significantly improves mAP (+2.62%), suggesting that it effectively reduces the distributional discrepancy and thus tightens the theoretical bound.

## E PROOF

Here we provide the detailed proof for Theorem 3.1. This theoretical guarantee of conformal prediction relies on the assumption that minimizing the feature distribution discrepancy (e.g., via MMD) effectively reduces the total variation distance between the conformity score distributions. This assumption holds approximately when the conditional distribution of conformal scores can be well approximated by a broad class of distribution families (Gretton et al., 2012). In such cases, the reduction of feature discrepancy implies the closeness of distributions. Conformal Prediction under covariate shift or distribution shift has been explored in prior work (Tibshirani et al., 2019; Barber et al., 2023; Guan, 2023). For a comprehensive introduction to conformal prediction, we refer the reader to Angelopoulos & Bates (2021).

Table 8: Impact of EMA smoothing parameter  $\alpha_{sm}$  on mAP (%).

Dataset	$\alpha_{sm} = 0.5$	$\alpha_{sm} = 0.6$	$\alpha_{sm} = 0.7$	$\alpha_{sm} = 0.8$	$\alpha_{sm} = 0.9$
Office-Home	57.22	57.28	<b>57.31</b>	56.97	56.93
Office-31	66.83	67.03	<b>67.11</b>	66.71	66.56
Digits	69.98	70.34	<b>70.41</b>	70.33	70.13

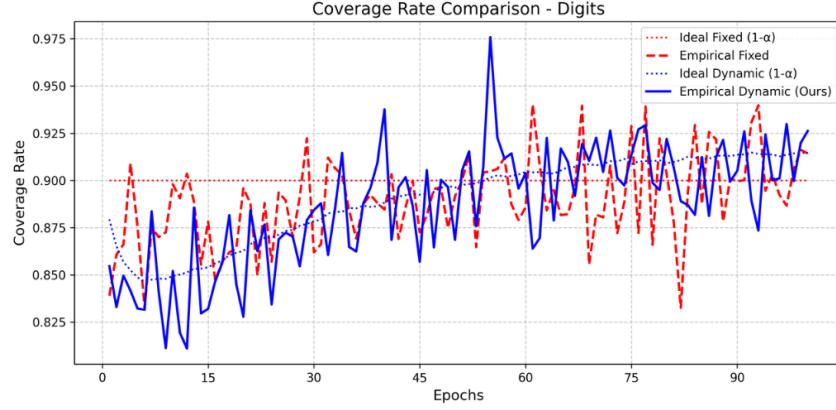


Figure 15: Coverage rate comparison on Digits dataset. Fixed  $\alpha$  (red dashed) leads to under-coverage in early training, while our Dynamic  $\alpha$  (blue solid) adaptively adjusts to maintain stable coverage around the ideal level.

**Theorem E.1** (Coverage Guarantee for Conformal Prediction under Domain Shift). *Let  $d_{TV}$  denote the total variation distance. Suppose  $(X_{train}, Y_{train})$  and  $(X_{test}, Y_{test})$  are random samples from the source and target distributions, respectively. Let  $\hat{q}^W$  be derived from equation 1. Then, the following coverage guarantee holds for the target domain:*

$$\mathbb{P}(s(X_{test}, Y_{test}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \geq 1 - \alpha - d_{TV}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \quad (12)$$

If we further assume that the conformal score has a continuous distribution in both domains, then we also have the upper bound:

$$\mathbb{P}(s(X_{test}, Y_{test}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{TV}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \quad (13)$$

*Proof.* By the coverage guarantee of conformal prediction on the source domain (Theorem 2.1 of Lei et al. (2018)), we have:

$$\mathbb{P}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \geq 1 - \alpha. \quad (14)$$

Recall that for any two random variables  $U$  and  $V$ , the total variation distance is defined as

$$d_{TV}(U, V) = \sup_{A \in \mathcal{F}} |\mathbb{P}(U \in A) - \mathbb{P}(V \in A)|. \quad (15)$$

Here  $\mathcal{F}$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra of measurable events. Now, consider the event  $A = \{s \leq \hat{q}^W\}$ . Applying the definition of total variation, we immediately obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P}(s(X_{test}, Y_{test}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}) \leq \hat{q}^W) - (\mathbb{P}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}) \leq \hat{q}^W) - \mathbb{P}(s(X_{test}, Y_{test}) \leq \hat{q}^W)) \\ &\geq 1 - \alpha - d_{TV}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

If we further assume that the conformal score has a continuous distribution in both domains, then by the upper bound for conformal prediction on the source domain (Lei et al., 2018), we have:

$$\mathbb{P}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1}. \quad (17)$$

1188 Table 9: Standard Hamming Distance Comparison on Office-Home (64 bits).  
1189

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Method	Avg mAP
COUPLE	54.56
COLA (w/ Standard Hamming)	56.23
COLA (Full w/ UWHD)	57.31

---

1196 Following the same logic as the proof of the lower bound, we can obtain the corresponding upper  
1197 bound:

$$\begin{aligned}
 1198 \quad & \mathbb{P}(s(X_{test}, Y_{test}) \leq \hat{q}^W) \\
 1199 \quad & = \mathbb{P}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}) \leq \hat{q}^W) + (\mathbb{P}(s(X_{test}, Y_{test}) \leq \hat{q}^W) - \mathbb{P}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}) \leq \hat{q}^W)) \\
 1200 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1201 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1202 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1203 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1204 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1205 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1206 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1207 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1208 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1209 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1210 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1211 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1212 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1213 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1214 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1215 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1216 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1217 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1218 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1219 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1220 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1221 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1222 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1223 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1224 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1225 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1226 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1227 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1228 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1229 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1230 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1231 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1232 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1233 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1234 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1235 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1236 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1237 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1238 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1239 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1240 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 1241 \quad & \leq 1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{n+1} + d_{\text{TV}}(s(X_{train}, Y_{train}), s(X_{test}, Y_{test})). \\
 \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

1204 This completes the proof.  $\square$