Learning to Balance Specificity and Invariance for In and Out of Domain Generalization

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Abstract. We introduce **D**omain-specific **M**asks for **G**eneralization, a model for improving both in-domain and out-of-domain generalization performance. For domain generalization, the goal is to learn from a set of source domains to produce a single model that will best generalize to an unseen target domain. As such, many prior approaches focus on learning representations which persist across all source domains with the assumption that these domain agnostic representations will generalize well. However, often individual domains contain characteristics which are unique and when leveraged can significantly aid in-domain recognition performance. To produce a model which best generalizes to both seen and unseen domains, we propose learning domain specific masks. The masks are encouraged to learn a balance of domain-invariant and domain-specific features, thus enabling a model which can benefit from the predictive power of specialized features while retaining the universal applicability of domain-invariant features. We demonstrate competitive performance compared to naive baselines and state-of-the-art methods on both PACS and DomainNet.[‡]

Keywords: Distribution Shift, Domain Generalization

1 Introduction

The success of deep learning has propelled computer vision systems from purely academic endeavours to key components of real-world products. This deployment into unconstrained domains has forced researchers to focus attention beyond a closed-world supervised learning paradigm, where learned models are only evaluated on held-out in-domain test data, and instead produce models capable of generalizing to diverse test time data distributions.

This problem has been formally studied and progress measured in the domain generalization literature [36,15]. Most prior work in domain generalization focuses on learning a model which generalizes to unseen domains by either directly optimizing for domain invariance [36] or designing regularizers that induce such a bias [3], the idea being that features which are present across multiple

[‡]Our code is available at https://github.com/prithv1/DMG

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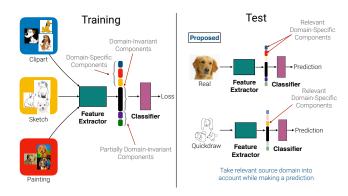


Fig. 1: Balancing specificity and invariance. At training time, we optimize for a combination of domain-specific (shown in blue, yellow, red) and domain invariant (shown in black) learned representations. Partially invariant representations are indicated as color combinations (i.e. blue + yellow = green). At test-time, these learned representations that capture a balance of domain-specificity and invariance allow the classifier to make a better prediction for given test-instance by leveraging domain-specific features from the most similar source domains.

training distributions are more likely to persist in the novel distributions. However, in practice, as the number of training time data sources increases it becomes ever more likely that at least some of the data encountered at test time will be very similar to one or more source domains. In such a situation, ignoring features specific to only a domain or two may artificially limit the efficacy of the final model. However, leveraging a balance between "invariance" – features that are shared across domains – and "specificity" – features which are specific to individual domains – might actually aid the model in making a better prediction.

It is important to note that the similarity of data encountered at test-time to a source domain can be understood clearly only in the context of the other available source domains. Consider the example in Fig. 1, where a classifier trained on *clipart*, *sketch* and *painting* encounters an instance from a novel domain *quickdraw* at test-time. Due to the severe domain-shift involved, leveraging the relative similarity of the test-instance to samples from *sketch* might result in a better prediction compared to a setting where the model relies solely on invariant characteristics across domains. However, manually crafting such a balance or creating an explicit separation between domain-specificity and invariance [20] is not scalable as the number and diversity of the source distributions available during training increases.

In this paper, we propose DMG: **D**omain-specific **M**asks for **G**eneralization, an algorithm for automatically learning to balance between domain-invariant and domain-specific features producing a single model capable of simultaneously achieving strong performance across multiple distinct domains. At a high-

level, we cast this problem of balanced feature selection as one of learning distribution-specific binary masks over features of a shared deep convolutional network (CNN). Specifically, for a given layer in the CNN, we associate domainspecific mask parameters for each neuron which decide whether to turn that neuron on or off during a forward pass. We learn these masks end-to-end via backpropagation along with the network parameters. To promote discriminative features and strong end-task performance, we simultaneously minimize the standard classification error and, to encourage domain-specificity in the selected features, we penalize for overlap amongst masks from different source domains. Importantly, our approach uses straightforward optimization across all pooled source data without any need for multi-stage training or meta-learning. At testtime we average the predictions obtained by applying all the individual source domain masks thus making a prediction that is informed by both characteristics which are shared across the source domains and are specific to individual domains. Based on our experiments, we find that not only does our modeling choice result in at par or improved performance compared to other complex alternatives that explicitly model domain-shift during training, but also allows us to explicitly characterize activations specific to individual source domains. Compared to prior work, we find that our approach is much more scalable and is faster to train as training time is essentially equivalent to the same as training a vanilla aggregate baseline which pools data from multiple source domains and trains a single deep network.

Additionally, we note that efforts towards domain generalization in the computer vision literature have focused primarily on measuring novel domain performance at test time. Since it is likely that in a realistic scenario the model might also encounter data from the source distributions at test-time, it is equally important to retain strong performance on the source distributions in addition to improved generalization to novel domains. Thus, given that measuring continued holistic progress in domain generalization requires benchmarking proposed solutions in terms of both in and out-of-domain generalization performance, we also report in-domain generalization performance on the large DomainNet [38] benchmark proposed for domain adaptation. Concretely, we make the following contributions.

- We introduce an approach, DMG: Domain-specific Masks for Generalization, that learns models capable of balancing specificity and invariance over multiple distinct domains. We demonstrate that despite our relatively simple approach, DMG achieves competitive out-of-domain performance on the commonly used PACS [26] benchmark and on the challenging DomainNet [38] dataset. In addition, we demonstrate that our model can be used as a drop-in replacement for an aggregate model when evaluated on in-domain test samples, or can be trivially converted into a high performing domain-specific model given a known test time domain label.
- We verify that our model does indeed lead to the emergence of domain specificity and show that our test time performance is stable across a variety

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of allowed domain overlap settings. Though not the focus of this paper, this domain specificity may be a helpful tool towards model interpretability.

2 Related Work

Domain Adaptation. Significant progress has been made in the problem of unsupervised domain adaptation where given access to a labeled source and an unlabeled target dataset, the task is to improve performance on the target domain. One popular line of approaches include learning a domain invariant representation by minimizing the distributional shift between source and target feature distributions using an adversarial loss [14,47], or MMD-based loss [30,31,32]. While these approaches perform alignment in the feature space, pixel-level alignment is performed using cross-domain generative models such as GANs in [6]. A combination of feature-level and pixel-level alignment is explored in [18,43]. In addition, several regularization strategies have also been proven to be effective for domain adaptation such as dropout regularization [41], classifier discrepancy [42], self-ensembling [13], etc. Most existing domain adaptation methods consider the setting where the source and the target datasets contain one domain each. In multi-source domain adaptation, the source dataset consists of a mixture of multiple domains where domain alignment is performed using an adversarial interplay involving a k-way domain discriminator in [50], and multi-domain moment matching in [38].

Domain Generalization. Similar to the multi-source domain adaptation problem, domain generalization considers multiple domains in the input data distribution. However, no access to the target distribution (including the unlabeled target) is assumed during training. This makes domain generalization a much harder problem than multi-source adaptation. One common approach to the problem involves decomposing a model into domain-specific and domaininvariant components, and using the domain-invariant component to make predictions at test time [16,21]. Recently, the use of meta-learning for domain generalization has gained much attention. [28] extends the MAML framework of [12] for domain generalization by learning parameters that adapt quickly to target domains. In [3], a regularization function is estimated using meta-learning, which when used with multi-domain training results in a robust minima with improved domain generalization. Use of data augmentation techniques for domain generalization is explored in [49]. Recently, a novel variant of empirical risk minimization framework, called Invariant Risk Minimization (IRM) has been proposed in [2,1] to make machine learning models invariant to spurious correlations in data when training across multiple sources.

Disentangled Representations. The goal of learning disentangled representations is to be able to disentangle learned features into multiple factors of variations, each factor representing a semantically meaningful concept. The problem has primarily been studied in the unsupervised setting. Typical approaches involve training a generative model such as a GAN or VAE while imposing constraints in the latent space using KL-divergence [22,8] or mutual information [9].

In the context of domain adaptation, disentangling features into domain-specific and domain-independent factors have been proposed in [7,39]. The domain-independent factors are then used to obtain predictions in the target domain. Our approach performs a similar implicit disentanglement, where domain-specific and domain-invariant factors are mined using a masking operation.

Dropout, Pruning, Sparsification and Attention. Our approach to learn domain-specific masks is similar to the techniques adopted in the network pruning and sparsification literature. Relevant to our work are approaches that directly learn a pruning strategy during training [44,46,48]. [44] involves learning masks over parameters under a sparsity constraint to discover small subnetworks. In addition to model compression, pruning strategies have also been used in multi-task and continual learning. In [45], catastrophic forgetting is prevented while learning tasks (and subsequently attending over them) in a sequential manner. In [33], a binary mask corresponding to individual tasks are learnt for a fixed backbone network. The resulting task-specific network is obtained by applying the learnt masks on the backbone network. In [34], weights of a network are iteratively pruned to free up packets of neurons. The free neurons are in-turn updated to learn new tasks without forgetting. A similar approach is proposed in [5] for multi-domain learning where domain-specific networks are constructed by masking convolution filters under a budget on new parameters being introduced for each domain. Similarly, several approaches building on top of Dropout [46] have also been proposed for domain adaptation. In [41], a pair of sub-networks are sampled from dropout that give maximal classifier discrepancy. Feature network is trained to minimize this discrepancy, thus making it insensitive to perturbations in classifier weights. An efficient implementation of this idea using adversarial dropout is proposed in [25]. In [51], saliency supervision is used to develop explainable models for domain generalization. While DMG is akin to attention being used as learned masks for subset selection [34,33], our focus is on implicitly learning to disentangle domain-specific and invariant feature components for multi-source domain generalization.

3 Approach

Our motivation to ensure a balance between specificity and invariance is to aid prediction in situations where an instance at test-time might benefit from some of the domain-specific components captured by the domain-specific masks. In what follows, we first describe the problem setup, ground associated notations and then describe our proposed approach, DMG.

3.1 Problem Setup

Domain generalization involves training a model on data, denoted as \mathcal{X} , sampled from p source distributions that generalizes well to q unknown target distributions which lack training data. Without loss of generality we focus on the classification case, where the goal is to learn a model which maps inputs to the

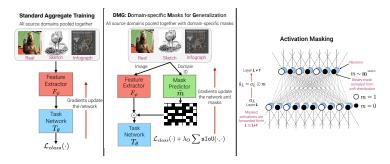


Fig. 2: Illustration of our approach (DMG): We introduce domain-specific activation masks for learning a balance between domain-specific and domain-agnostic features. [Left] Our training pipeline involves incorporating domain-specific masks in the vanilla aggregate training process. [Middle] For an image belonging to sketch, we sample a binary mask from the corresponding mask parameters, which is then applied to the neurons of the task-network. [Right] Post feature extraction, an elementwise product of the obtained binary masks is performed with the neurons of the task network layer (L) to obtain the effective activations being passed on to the next layer (L+1). The mask and network parameters are learned end-to-end based on the standard cross-entropy coupled with the sIoU loss penalizing mask overlap among the source domains.

desired output label, $M: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$. Let $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^{p+q}$ denote the p+q distributions with same support $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. Let $D_i = \{(x_j^{(i)}, y_j^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{|D_i|}$ refer to the dataset sampled from the i^{th} distribution, i.e., $D_i \sim \mathcal{D}_i$. We operate in the setting where all the distributions share the same label space and distributional variations exist only in the input data (space \mathcal{X}). We are interested in learning a parametric model $M_{\Theta}: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$, that we can decompose into a feature extractor (F_{ψ}) and a tasknetwork (T_{θ}) i.e., $M_{\Theta}(x) = (T_{\theta} \circ F_{\psi})(x)$, where Θ, ψ, θ denote the parameters of the complete, feature and the task networks respectively. For the remaining subsections, we refer to the set of source domains as D_S and index individual source domains by d. We learn domain specific masks only on the neurons present in the task network.

3.2 Activation or Feature Selection via Domain-Specific Masks

Our goal is to learn representations which capture a balance of domain specific components (useful for predictive performance on a specific domain) and domain invariant components (useful in general for the discriminative task). Capturing information contained in multiple source distributions in such a manner allows us to make better predictions by automatically relying more on characteristics of a specific source domain in situations where an instance observed at test-time is relatively similar to one of the sources. We cast this problem of disentangling domain-specific and domain-invariant feature components as that of learning

binary masks on the neurons of the task network specific to individual source domains. More specifically, for each of the p source distributions, we initialize masks \mathbf{m}^d over neurons (or activations) of the task-network T_{θ} . Our masks can be viewed as layer-wise gates which decide which neurons to turn on or off during a forward pass through the network.

Given k neurons at some layer L of T_{θ} , we introduce parameters $\tilde{\mathbf{m}}^d \in \mathbb{R}^k$ for each of the source distributions $d \in D_S$. During training, for instances x_i^d from domain d, we first form mask probabilities \mathbf{m}^d via a sigmoid operation as $\mathbf{m}^d = \sigma(\tilde{\mathbf{m}}^d)$. Then, the binary masks m_i^d are sampled from a bernoulli distribution given by the mask probabilities. i.e., $m_i^d \sim \mathbf{m}^d$, with $m_i^d \in \{0,1\}^k$. Upon sampling masks for individual neurons, the effective activations which are passed on to the next layer L+1 are $\hat{a}_L=a_L\odot m_i^d$, i.e., an elementwise product of the obtained activations and the sampled binary masks (see Fig. 2, right). During training, we sample such binary masks corresponding to the source domain of the input instance, thereby making feedforward predictions by only using domain-specific masks. Under this setup, the prediction made by the entire network M_{Θ} for an instance $x_i^d \in d$ can be expressed as $\hat{y}_i = M_{\Theta}(x_i^d; m_i^d)$ where m_i^d denotes the sampled mask (for domain d) being applied to all neurons in the task-network T_{θ} . Note that, akin to dropout [46], these domain-specific masks identify domain-specific sub-networks – for an instance x_i^d , the sampled binary mask m_i^d identifies a specific "thinner" subnetwork.

We learn the mask-parameters in addition to the parameters of the network during training. However, note that the mask-parameters $\tilde{\mathbf{m}}^d$ cannot be updated directly using back-propagation as the sampled binary mask is discrete. We approximate gradients through sampled discrete masks using the straight-through estimator [4], i.e., we use a discretized m_i^d during a forward pass but use the continuous version \mathbf{m}^d during the backward pass by approximating $\nabla_{m_i^d} \mathcal{L} \approx \nabla_{\mathbf{m}^d} \mathcal{L}$. Even though the hard sampling step is non-differentiable, gradients with respect to m_i^d serve as a noisy estimator of $\nabla_{\mathbf{m}^d} \mathcal{L}$.

Incentivizing Domain-Specificity. To ensure the masks capture neurons that are specific to individual source domains, we need to encourage specificity in the masks while maximizing predictive performance on the source set of distributions. To incentivize domain-specificity, we introduce an additional *soft*-overlap loss that ensures masks associated with each of the source distributions overlap minimally. To quantify overlap we compute the Jaccard Similarity Coefficient [19] (also known as IoU score) among pairs of source domain masks. However, as IoU is non-differentiable it is not possible to directly optimize for the same using gradient descent. Therefore, inspired by prior work [40], we minimize the following *soft*-overlap loss for every pair of source domain masks $\{\mathbf{m}^{d_i}, \mathbf{m}^{d_j}\}$ at a layer L as,

$$sIoU(\mathbf{m}^{d_i}, \mathbf{m}^{d_j}) = \frac{\mathbf{m}^{d_i} \cdot \mathbf{m}^{d_j}}{\sum_k (\mathbf{m}^{d_i} + \mathbf{m}^{d_j} - \mathbf{m}^{d_i} \odot \mathbf{m}^{d_j})}$$
(1)

where $\mathbf{m}^{d_i} \cdot \mathbf{m}^{d_j}$ approximates the intersection for the pair of source domain masks as the inner product of the mask distributions, \odot denotes the elementwise

product and k denotes the number of neurons in layer L. During training sIoU ensures predictions for instances from different source domains are made using different sub-networks (as identified by the domain-specific binary masks).

To summarize, for a set of source domains D_S the overall objective we optimize during training ensures – (1) good predictive performance on the discriminative task at hand and (2) minimal overlap among source-domain masks,

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta, \psi, \tilde{\mathbf{m}}^{d_1}, ..., \tilde{\mathbf{m}}^{d_{|D_S|}}) = \sum_{d \in D_S} \sum_{x_i^d \in d} \mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{class}}(\theta, \psi, m_i^d)$$

$$+ \lambda_O \sum_{L \in T_\theta} \sum_{(d_i, d_j) \in D_S} \mathsf{sIoU}(\mathbf{m}^{d_i}, \mathbf{m}^{d_j})$$
(2)

where $m_i^d \sim \mathbf{m}_i^d$ for every instance x_i^d of the source domain d and $\mathcal{L}_{\texttt{class}}(\cdot)$ denotes the standard cross entropy loss. Fig. 2 summarizes our training pipeline in context of a standard aggregation method where a CNN is trained jointly on data pooled from all the source domains.

Prediction at Test-time. To obtain a prediction at test-time, we follow a soft-scaling scheme similar to Dropout [46]. Recall that sampling from domain-specific soft-masks essentially amounts to sampling a "thinned" sub-network from the original task-network. However, since it is intractable to obtain predictions from all such possible (exponential) domain-specific sub-networks, we follow a simple averaging scheme that ensures that the expected output under the distribution induced by the masks is the same as the actual output at test-time. Specifically, we scale every neuron by the associated domain-specific soft-mask \mathbf{m}^d instead of turning neurons on or off based on a discrete mask $m \sim \mathbf{m}^d$ and average the predictions obtained by applying \mathbf{m}^d for all the source domains to the task network.§

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Settings.

Datasets and Metrics. We conduct domain generalization (DG) experiments on the following datasets:

PACS [26] – PACS is a recently proposed benchmark for domain generalization which consists of only 9991 images of 7 classes, distributed across 4 domains – photo, art-painting, cartoon and sketch. Following standard practice, we conduct 4 sets of experiments – treating one domain as the unseen target and the rest as the source set of domains. The authors of [26] provide specified train and val splits for each domain to ensure fair comparison and treat the entirety of train + val as the test-split of the target domain. We use the same

[§]We experimented with learning a domain-classifier on source domains to use the predicted probabilities as weights for test-time averaging. We observed insignificant difference in out-of-domain performance but significantly worse in-domain performance, though we believe this may be dataset-specific.

Table 1: Out of Domain Accuracy (%) on DomainNet ($\lambda_O = 0.1$) $^{\mp}$ We were unable to optimize the MetaReg [3] objective with Adam [23] as the optimizer and therefore, we also include comparisons with Aggregate and MetaReg trained with SGD.

	Method	С	I	Р	Q	R	S	Overall
	Aggregate	47.17	10.15	31.82	11.75	44.35	26.33	28.60
et	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	29.34	27.97				
AlexNet	Multi-Headed	45.96	10.56	31.07	12.05	43.56	25.93	28.19
ΑJ	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	42.86	12.68	32.47	9.37	43.43	29.87	28.45
	DMG (Ours)	50.06	12.23	34.44	13.07	46.98	26.33 29.34 25.93	31.15
	Aggregate	57.15	17.69	43.21	13.87	54.91	39.41	37.71
-18	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	57.90	38.83	38.25			
Set	Multi-Headed	55.46	17.51	40.85	11.19	52.92	38.65	36.10
ResNet-18	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	53.68	21.06	45.29	10.63	58.47	42.31	38.57
	DMG (Ours)	60.07	18.76	44.53	14.16	54.72	41.73	39.00
	Aggregate	62.18	19.94	45.47	13.81	57.45	44.36	40.54
55	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	64.04	23.63	51.04	13.11	64.45	47.75	44.00
Net	Multi-Headed	61.74	21.25	46.80	13.89	58.47	45.43	41.27
ResNet-50	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	59.77	25.58	50.19	11.52	64.56	50.09	43.62
	DMG (Ours)	65.24	22.15	50.03	15.68	59.63	49.02	43.63

splits for our experiments. As such, the proposed splits do not include an indomain test-split, thereby limiting us from computing in-domain performance in addition to measuring out-of-domain generalization.

DomainNet [38] – DomainNet is a recently proposed large-scale dataset for domain adaptation which consists of ~0.6 million images of 345 classes distributed across 6 domains – real, clipart, sketch, painting, quickdraw and infograph. DomainNet surpasses all prior datasets for domain adaptation significantly in terms of size and diversity. The authors of [38] recently released annotated train and test splits for all the 6 domains. We divide the train split from [38] randomly in a 90-10% proportion to obtain train and val splits for our experiments. Similar to PACS, we conduct 6 sets of leave-one-out experiments. We report out-of-domain performance as the accuracy on the test split of the unseen domain. For in-domain performance, we report accuracy averaged over all the source domain test splits.

Models. We experiment with ImageNet [10] pretrained AlexNet [24], ResNet-18 [17] and ResNet-50 [17] backbone architectures. For AlexNet, we apply domain-specific masks on the input activations of the last three fully-connected layers – our task network T_{θ} – and turn dropout [46] off while learning the domain-specific masks. For ResNet-18 and 50, we apply domain specific masks on the input activations of the last residual block and the first fully connected layer. \P

 $[\]P$ Specifically, for ResNet, the domain-specific masks are trained to drop or keep specific channels in the input activations as opposed to every spatial feature in every channel in order to reduce complexity in terms of the number of mask parameters to be learnt.

Table 2: Out of Domain Accuracy (%) on PACS ($\lambda_O = 0.1$)
*We include the aggregate baseline both as reported in [29] as well as our own imple-

mentation (indicated as Aggregate*).

	Method	A	С	P	S	Overall
	Aggregate [29]	63.40	66.10	88.50	56.60	68.70
	Aggregate*	56.20	70.69	86.29	60.32	68.38
	Multi-Headed	61.67	67.88	82.93	59.38	67.97
	DSN [7]	61.10	66.50	83.30	58.60	67.40
let	Fusion [35]	64.10	66.80	90.20	60.10	70.30
AlexNet	MLDG [28]	66.20	66.90	88.00	59.00	70.00
A.	MetaReg [3]	63.50	69.50	87.40	59.10	69.90
	CrossGrad [49]	61.00	67.20	87.60	55.90	67.90
	Epi-FCR [29]	64.70	72.30	86.10	65.00	72.00
	MASF [11]	70.35	72.46	90.68	67.33	75.21
	DMG (Ours)	64.65	69.88	87.31	71.42	73.32
	Aggregate [29]	77.60	73.90	94.40	74.30	79.10
	Aggregate*	72.61	78.46	93.17	65.20	77.36
	Multi-Headed	78.76	72.10	94.31	71.77	79.24
<u>~</u>	MLDG [28]	79.50	77.30	94.30	71.50	80.70
Net	MetaReg [3]	79.50	75.40	94.30	72.20	80.40
ResNet-18	CrossGrad [49]	78.70	73.30	94.00	65.10	77.80
	Epi-FCR [29]	82.10	77.00	93.90	73.00	81.50
	MASF [11]	80.29	77.17	94.99	71.68	81.03
	DMG (Ours)	76.90	80.38	93.35	75.21	81.46
	Aggregate*	75.49	80.67	93.05	64.29	78.38
i -	Multi-Headed	75.15	76.37	95.27	75.26	80.51
ResNet-50	MASF [11]	82.89	80.49	95.01	72.29	82.67
ž	DMG (Ours)	82.57	78.11	94.49	78.32	83.37

Baselines and Points of Comparison. We compare DMG with two simple baselines (treating dropout [46] as usual if present in the backbone CNN) – (1) Aggregate - the CNN backbone trained jointly on data accumulated from all the source domains and (2) Multi-Headed - the CNN backbone with different classifier heads corresponding to each of the source domains (at test-time we average predictions from all the classifier heads). Note, this baseline has more parameters than our model due to the repeated classification heads. In addition to the above baselines, we also compare with the recently proposed domain generalization approaches (cited in Tables 1,2 and 3). Please refer to the appendix for implementation details.

4.2 Results

We report results on both PACS (out-of-domain) and DomainNet (in-domain and out-of-domain). For DomainNet, we use C, I, P, Q, R, S to denote the domains – clipart, infograph, painting, quickdraw, real and sketch respectively. On PACS, we use A, C, P and S to denote the domains – art-painting, cartoon, photo and sketch respectively. We summarize the observed trends below:

Table 3: In Domain Accuracy (%) on DomainNet ($\lambda_O = 0.1$). For the case where inputs have known domain (KD) label, we can use the corresponding learning mask (DMG-KD) to achieve the strongest performance without requiring additional models or parameters. Column headers identify the target domains in the corresponding multi-source shifts.

[∓]We were unable to optimize the MetaReg [3] objective with Adam [23] as the optimizer and therefore, we also include comparisons with Aggregate and MetaReg trained with SGD.

	Method	C	I	Р	Q	R	S	Overall
	Aggregate	48.56	57.24	51.38	49.60	47.48	50.72	50.83
	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	48.14	54.93	50.55	48.33	47.57	49.98	49.92
et	Multi-Headed	48.16	56.73	51.31	49.75	47.65	50.82	50.74
AlexNet	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	48.87	56.06	51.23	49.60	48.66	50.12	50.76
Ā	DMG (Ours)	49.63	58.47	52.88	51.33	49.07	52.42	52.30
	$\mathrm{DMG\text{-}KD}\ (\mathrm{Ours})$	51.91	61.01	54.93	53.84	51.08	54.47	54.54
	Aggregate	56.58	65.27	59.29	59.15	55.47	58.84	59.10
∞	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	55.32	63.63	57.40	57.98	53.99	57.37	57.62
et-]	Multi-Headed	47.79	56.80	50.85	54.86	46.92	49.50	51.12
ResNet-18	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	56.25	63.07	57.74	58.73	55.40	58.04	58.21
盗	DMG (Ours)	57.39	65.73	58.87	59.66	55.95	58.63	59.37
	$\mathrm{DMG\text{-}KD}\ (\mathrm{Ours})$	58.61	66.98	59.86	60.98	57.24	59.84	60.59
	Aggregate	61.68	69.73	63.90	63.88	60.29	63.62	63.85
0.0	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	61.64	69.36	63.65	64.08	60.52	63.82	63.85
et-	Multi-Headed	53.77	62.09	56.54	60.32	51.38	55.10	56.53
ResNet-50	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	61.86	68.80	63.23	64.75	60.59	63.21	63.74
强	DMG (Ours)	61.78	69.49	63.93	64.09	59.92	63.50	63.79
	$\mathrm{DMG\text{-}KD}\ (\mathrm{Ours})$	63.16	70.79	65.03	65.67	61.30	64.86	65.14

Out-of-Domain Generalization. Tables 1 and 2^{\parallel} summarize out of domain generalization results on the DomainNet and PACS datasets, respectively.

DomainNet - On DomainNet, we observe that DMG beats the naive aggregate baseline, the multi-headed baseline and MetaReg [3] using AlexNet as the backbone architecture in terms of overall performance – with an improvement of 2.7% over MetaReg [3] and 2.6% over the Aggregate baseline. Interestingly, this corresponds to an almost 2.89% improvement on the I,P,Q,R,S \rightarrow C and a 2.63% improvement on the C,I,P,Q,S \rightarrow R shifts (see Table 1, AlexNet set of rows). Using ResNet-18 as the backbone architecture, we observe that DMG is competitive with MetaReg [3] (improvement margin of 0.43%) accompanied by improvements on the I,P,Q,R,S \rightarrow C and C,I,P,R,S \rightarrow Q shifts. We observe similar trends using ResNet-50, where DMG is competitive with the best performing Aggregate-SGD $^{\mp}$ baseline.

PACS - To compare DMG with prior work in the Domain Generalization literature, we also report results on the more commonly used PACS [26] benchmark in Table 2. We find that in terms of overall performance, DMG with AlexNet as the backbone architecture outperforms baselines and prior approaches including

For more comparisons to prior work, please refer to the appendix.

Table 4: **Domain-Specialized Masks** ($\lambda_O = 0.1$). We show how optimizing for sIoU leads to masks which are specialized for the individual source domains in terms of predictive performance. We consider two multi-source shifts I,P,Q,R,S \rightarrow C [top-half] and C,I,P,R,S \rightarrow Q [bottom-half] on DomainNet [38] with the AlexNet as the backbone architecture and find that using corresponding source domain masks leads to significantly improved in-domain performance.

				Source			Target
	Chosen Mask	I	P	Q	R	S	С
	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Infograph}}$	23.84	45.56	59.13	62.43	46.70	46.91
	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Painting}}$	19.88	52.41	59.00	60.36	45.75	46.87
Se	$\mathbf{m}^{ ext{Quickdraw}}$	21.72	48.47	62.52	65.32	48.69	50.33
AlexNet	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Real}}$	18.42	43.48	58.80	68.62	44.81	47.69
<1;	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Sketch}}$	19.45	45.41	57.64	61.78	52.16	48.36
	Combined	22.28	49.55	60.45	66.14	49.72	50.06
	Chosen Mask	C	I	P	R	S	Q
	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Clipart}}$	66.70	21.36	46.60	64.35	49.70	13.37
13	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Infograph}}$	60.71	24.95	47.06	63.78	49.36	12.58
Ne	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Painting}}$	59.21	20.59	53.21	60.67	48.14	12.01
AlexNet	$\mathbf{m}^{ ext{Real}}$	59.62	19.41	43.82	69.82	47.22	11.31
₹.	$\mathbf{m}^{\mathrm{Sketch}}$	60.97	20.29	45.69	62.40	54.51	13.08
	Combined	64.13	23.21	50.05	67.03	52.24	13.07

MetaReg [3]** – which learns regularizers by modeling domain-shifts within the source set of distributions, MLDG [28] – which learns robust network parameters using meta-learning and Epi-FCR [29] – a recently proposed episodic scheme to learn network parameters robust to domain-shift, and performs competitively with MASF [11] – which introduces complementary losses to explicitly regularize the semantic structure of the feature space via a model-agnostic episodic learning procedure. Notice that this improvement also comes with a 4.09% improvement over MASF [11] on the A,C,P \rightarrow S shift. Using ResNet-18 and ResNet-50 as the backbone architectures, we observe that DMG leads to comparable and improved overall performance, with margins of 0.04% and 0.7% for ResNet-18 and ResNet-50, respectively. For ResNet-18, this is accompanied with a 0.91% and 1.92% improvement on the A,C,P \rightarrow S and A,P,S \rightarrow C shifts. Similarily for ResNet-50, we observe a 3.06% improvement on the A,C,P \rightarrow S shift.

Due to its increased size, both in terms of number of images and number of categories, DomainNet proves to be a more challenging benchmark than PACS. Likely due to this difficulty, we find that performance on some of the hardest shifts (with Quickdraw and Infograph as the target domain) is significantly low (<25% for Quickdraw). Furthermore, DMG and prior domain generalization approaches perform comparably to naive baselines (ex. Aggregate) on these shifts, indicating that there is significant room for improvement.

^{**}We report the performance for MetaReg [3] from [29] as the official PACS trainval data split changed post MetaReg [3] publication.

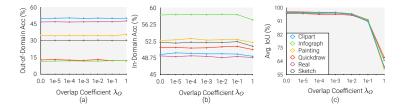


Fig. 3: **Sensitivity to** λ_O . DMG is relatively insensitive to the setting of the hyper-parameter λ_O as measured by out-of-domain accuracy (a), in-domain accuracy (b), and average IoU score measured among pairs of source domain masks (c). The legends in (c) indicate the target domain in the corresponding multi-source shift. AlexNet is the backbone CNN.

In-Domain Generalization. For each of the domain-shifts in Table. 1, we further report in-domain generalization performance on DomainNet in Table. 3. For in-domain evaluation, we present both our standard approach as well as a version which assumes knowledge of the domain corresponding to each test instance. For the latter, we report the performance of DMG using only the mask corresponding to the known domain (KD) label and refer to this as DMG-KD. Notably, for this case where a test instance is drawn from one of the source domains, DMG-KD provides significant performance improvement over the baselines (see Table 3). Compared to DMG, we observe that DMG-KD results in a consistent improvement of \sim 1-2%. This alludes to the fact that the learnt domain-specific masks are indeed specialized for individual source domains.

5 Analysis

Domain Specialization. We demonstrate that as an outcome of DMG, using masks corresponding to the source domain at hand leads to significantly improved in-domain performance compared to a mismatched domain-mask pair, indicating the emergence of domain-specialized masks. In Table. 4, we report results on the I,P,Q,R,S→C (easy) and C,I,P,R,S→Q (hard) shifts using AlexNet as the backbone CNN. We report both in and out-of-domain performance using each of the source domain masks and compare it with the setting when predictions from all the source domain masks are averaged. The cells highlighted in gray represent in-domain accuracies when masks are paired with the corresponding source domain. Clearly, using the mask corresponding to the source domain instance at test-time (also see DMG-KD in Table. 3) leads to significantly improved performance compared to the mis-matched pairs – with differences with the second best source domain mask ranging from ~2-4% for I,P,Q,R,S→C and ~3-6\% for C,I,P,R,S\to Q. This indicates that not only do the source domain masks overlap minimally, but they are also "specialized" for each of the source domains in terms of predictive performance. We further observe that averaging predictions obtained from all the source domain masks leads to performance that is relatively closer to the DMG-KD setting compared to a mismatched mask-domain pair (but still falls behind by $\sim 2-3\%$). We note that certain source domain masks do lead to out-of-domain accuracies which are close (within 1%) to the combined setting - m^{Quickdraw} for the I,P,Q,R,S→C shift and m^{Clipart}. m^{Infograph}, m^{Sketch} for the C,I,P,R,S→Q shift. This highlights the motivation at the heart of our approach – how leveraging characteristics specific to individual source domains in addition to the invariant ones are useful for generalization. **Sensitivity to** λ_O . A key component of our approach is the *soft*-IoU loss which encourages domain specificity by minimizing overlapping features across domains. During optimization, we require setting of a loss balancing hyperparameter, λ_O . Here, we explore the sensitivity of our model to λ_O by sweeping from 0 to 1 in logarithmic increments. Fig. 4 shows the final in and out-of-domain accuracies (Fig. 4 (b) and (a)) and overlap (Fig. 4 (c)) measured as the IoU [19] among pairs of discrete source domain masks obtained by thresholding the softmask values per-domain at 0.5, i.e., $m = \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{m}^d > 0.5}$ for domain d. We observe that both in and out-of-domain generalization performance is robust to the choice of λ_O , with only minor variations and a slight drop in in-domain performance at extreme values of λ_O (0.1 and 1). In Fig. 4 (c), we observe that initially average pairwise IoU measures stay stable till $\lambda_O = 10^{-3}$ but drop at high values of $\lambda_O = 0.1$ and 1 (as low as < 60% for some shifts)—indicating an increase in the "domain specificity" of the masks involved. Note that low IoU at high-values of λ_O is accompanied only by a minor drop in in-domain performance and almost no-drop in out-of-domain performance! It is crucial to note here that although there is an expected trade-off between specificity and generalization performance this trade-off does not result in large fluctuations for DMG. Please refer to the appendix for more analysis of DMG.

6 Conclusion

To summarize, we propose DMG: Domain-specific Masks for Generalization, a method for multi-source domain learning which balances domain-specific and domain-invariant feature representations to produce a single strong model capable of effective domain generalization. We learn this balance by introducing domain-specific masks over neurons and optimizing such masks so as to minimize cross-domain feature overlap. Thus, our model, DMG, benefits from the predictive power of features specific to individual domains while retaining the generalization capapbilities of components shared across the source domains. DMG achieves competitive out-of-domain performance on the commonly used PACS dataset and competitive in and out-of-domain performance on the challenging DomainNet dataset. Although beyond the scope of this paper, encouraging a blend of domain specificity and invariance may be useful not only in the context of generalization performance but also in terms of model interpretability.

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7 Appendix

In this appendix, we further discuss the specificity of the obtained domain-specific masks (Section. 7.1). Following this, we discuss how sparsity as an incentive compares with sIoU in terms of learning a balance between specificity and invariance and in terms of performance (Section. 7.2). In Section. 7.3, we discuss alternative techniques for directly ensembling masks instead of the output predictions in response to each mask. In Section. 7.4, we provide more extensive comparisons to prior work on the PACS [26] dataset. Finally, in Section. 7.5, we describe in detail the implementation and other details associated with our experiments. We use C, I, P, Q, R, S to denote the domains – clipart, infograph, painting, quickdraw, real and sketch respectively on the DomainNet [38] dataset.

7.1 Domain Specificity

As discussed in Section. 3.2 (main paper), we incentivize domain specificity by optimizing the *soft*-IoU (sIoU) objective (see Eqn. 2 in main paper). To understand the extend of domain-specificity achieved at convergence, we measure the Jaccard Similarity Coefficient [19] (also known as IoU) among pairs of *discrete* source domain masks, which we obtain by thresholding the soft-mask values per-domain at 0.5, i.e., $m = \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{m}^d > 0.5}$ for domain d.

Fig. 4 shows the IoU among pairs of source domain masks in addition to the overall average on DomainNet for the I,P,Q,R,S \rightarrow C and C,I,P,R,S \rightarrow Q shifts with AlexNet as the backbone architecture ($\lambda_Q = 0.1$ during training). Note that the above metric provides information about the fraction of overlapping neurons which are shared among pairs of source domains but only considers them among the ones which are activated (turned on) based on the discrete masks m. Therefore, in addition to the IoU statistics (as represented by the bars), we also report the fraction of activated neurons on average. We note that domain specificity does emerge by learning masks in the manner described in Sec. 3.2 of the main paper, as evident by the IoU measures across pairs being lower than $-(1) \sim 96\%$ for the maximal pairwise IoU and $(2) \sim 92\%$ for overall IoU measures across both the shifts. Fig. 5 shows how the layerwise overall IoU measure evolves as λ_O increases. While at lower values of λ_O , the amount of specificity is relatively low and similar across layers, at higher values of λ_O we see an increase of varying degrees across layers – the relative ordering among layers in terms of IoU being fc6>fc7>fc8, indicating the importance of having more shared neurons in the earlier layers.

Finally, note that since the pairwise IoU measures indicate the fraction of neurons which are shared among the neurons which are turned on, upon convergence we can essentially categorize the neurons present in the task network into three categories – (1) equally useless – neurons turned off across all the source domain masks, (2) equally useful or shared – neurons turned on across all the source domain masks and (3) domain-specific – neurons turned on only for specific source domains.

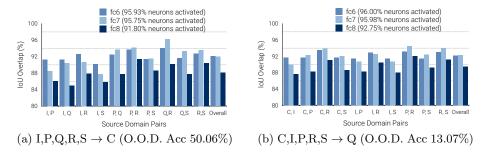


Fig. 4: Emergence of domain-specificity in AlexNet with $\lambda_O = 0.1$. We show the IoU overlap among pairs of discrete source domain masks for the two shifts (a) I,P,Q,R,S \rightarrow C and (b) C,I,P,R,S \rightarrow Q on DomainNet [38] with out-of-domain accuracies 48.70% and 12.7% respectively. We find that domain-specificity does indeed emerge, as indicated by the IoU measures.

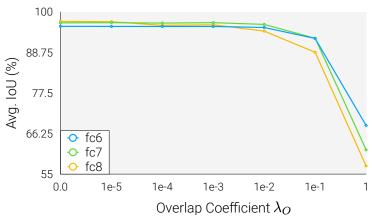


Fig. 5: Layerwise IoU sensitivity to λ_O . The average IoU score among pairs of source domain masks decreases as λ_O increases, indicating the degree to which domain-specificity emerges in individual layers (fc6, fc7, fc8).

7.2 Choice of Incentive: sIoU vs Sparsity

As described in Section. 3.2 (main paper), to ensure feature selection, we impose a *soft*-IoU loss in addition to standard cross-entropy training to penalize overlap among pairs of source domain masks. However, in practice, one could also impose a sparsity constraint on the domain-sepcific masks being learned ensure minimality in the number of features or neurons selected during learning. However, just incorporating a sparsity constraint does not explicitly incentivize domain-specificity – masks corresponding to all the source domains could just end up picking the same set of neurons, which is equivalent to learning a bottleneck layer during training.

We investigate the consequences of incorporating a sparsity regularizer in Figure. 6 on all the multi-source shifts of the DomainNet dataset using AlexNet



Fig. 6: **Sensitivity to** λ_S . We replace the sIoU with a differentiable sparsity term (coefficient λ_S) – L1-norm of the *soft*-source domain masks, i.e., $\sum_{D_i \in D_S} ||\mathbf{m}_i||_1$ – and study the sensitivity to λ_S as measured by out-of-domain accuracy (a), in-domain accuracy (b) and average IoU score measured among pairs of source domain masks. The legends in (b) indicate the target domain in the corresponding multi-source shift. We find that predictive performance and specificity (Avg. IoU) is *very* sensitive to λ_S .

as our backbone architecture. Specifically, instead of the sIoU loss, we penalize the L1-norm of the soft-mask values, i.e., \mathbf{m}^d for all the source domains – $\sum_{d \in D_S} ||\mathbf{m}^d||_1^{\dagger \dagger}$. We run a sweep over different values of the coefficient (λ_S) of this sparsity incentive from 0 to 1 in logarithmic increments. Fig. 6 (a) and (b) show how out-of-domain and in-domain generalization performances and Fig. 6 (b) shows how the pairwise IoU measure among the source domain masks – indicating domain-specificity, vary with λ_S . Unlike λ_O (see Sec. 5, main paper), we find that generalization performance is quite sensitive to the choice of λ_S , with both out-of-domain and in-domain accuracies degrading significantly at relatively high values of λ_S . We find performance comparable to our approach only at values of $\lambda = 10^{-5}$. For the pairwise IoU measures, we observe that while specificity increases to some extent till $\lambda_S = 10^{-3}$, but decreases sharply with further increase in λ_S . At high-values of λ_S , we observe that the source domain masks are extremely sparse and have high overlap indicating the fact that the masks essentially encourage learning just a bottleneck layer. This further demonstrates the efficacy of the sIoU loss in maintaining a reasonable balance between encouraging specificty while retaining predictive performance.

7.3 Ensembling Choices at Test-time

In Section. 3.2 (main paper), we describe how we follow a soft-scaling scheme akin to dropout [46] at test-time. Specifically, we obtain predictions corresponding to neurons in the task network soft-scaled by individual source domain masks and average them (call this Pred-Ens). In this section, we further investigate if the choice of ensembling method at test-time matters. We compare Pred-Ens with

^{††}Since the soft-mask probabilities (\mathbf{m}^d) are positive, $||\mathbf{m}^d||_1$ is essentially the sum of mask probabilities per-neuron and is therefore differentiable and can be optimized using gradient descent.

	Method	Clipart	Infograph	Painting	Quickdraw	Real	Sketch	Overall
	Out-of-Domain							
	Aggregate	47.17	10.15	31.82	11.75	44.35	26.33	28.60
ند	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	42.30	12.42	31.45	9.52	42.76	29.34	27.97
Ne	Multi-Headed	45.96	10.56	31.07	12.05	43.56	25.93	28.19
AlexNet	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	42.86	12.68	32.47	9.37	43.43	29.87	28.45
<;	DMG (Pred-Ens)	50.06	12.23	34.44	13.07	46.98	30.13	31.15
	$\mathrm{DMG}\;(\mathtt{Mask-Ens})$	50.10	12.17	34.38	13.14	46.79	30.01	31.10
	In-Domain							
	Aggregate	48.56	57.24	51.38	49.60	47.48	50.72	50.83
	$Aggregate-SGD^{\mp}$	48.14	54.93	50.55	48.33	47.57	49.98	49.92
Ne	Multi-Headed	48.16	56.73	51.31	49.75	47.65	50.82	50.74
AlexNet	MetaReg $[3]^{\mp}$	48.87	56.06	51.23	49.60	48.66	50.12	50.76
ď.	DMG (Pred-Ens)	49.63	58.47	52.88	51.33	49.07	52.42	52.30
	$\mathrm{DMG}\;(\mathtt{Mask-Ens})$	49.49	58.38	52.81	51.16	48.90	52.29	52.17
	${\bf DMG\text{-}KnownDomain}$	51.91	61.01	54.93	53.84	51.08	54.47	54.54

Table 5: **Ensembling Choices at Test-time**. We study how different ensembling choices at test-time - (1) Mask-Ens: ensemble predictions from all the source domain masks and (2) Pred-Ens: combine masks and then make a prediction – compare in terms of in [bottom-half] an out-of-domain [top-half] performance. Using AlexNet as the backbone architecture on the DomainNet [38] dataset, we find that Mask-Ens leads to very minor (< 1%) drop in both in and out-of-domain performance compared to Pred-Ens at test-time. The columns identify the held out sixth domain for each of the multi-source shifts. We were unable to optimize the MetaReg [3] objective with Adam [23] as the optimizer and therefore, we also include comparisons with Aggregate and MetaReg trained with SGD.

the setting where we average the soft masks (\mathbf{m}^d for source domain d) and draw a single prediction by scaling neurons with the averaged soft-mask – Mask-Ens.

In Table. 5, we compare DMG (Pred-Ens) and DMG (Mask-Ens) in terms of both in and out-of-domain performances on all the multi-source shifts on DomainNet using AlexNet as the backbone architecture. We observe that Mask-Ens performs comparatively with Pred-Ens, with the margin of difference being within $\sim 1\%$.

7.4 More Results

In Table. 6, we present more extensive comparisons of DMG with prior work on the PACS [27] using AlexNet, ResNet-18 and ResNet-50 as the backbone CNN architectures. We now describe briefly the prior approaches we compare to.

DICA [36] is a kernel-based optimization algorithm that aims a learn a transformation that renders representations invariant across domains by minimizing

	Method	A	С	Р	S	Overall
	Aggregate [29]	63.40	66.10	88.50	56.60	68.70
	Aggregate*	56.20	70.69	86.29	60.32	68.38
	Multi-Headed	61.67	67.88	82.93	59.38	67.97
	DICA [36]	64.60	64.50	91.80	51.10	68.00
	D-MTAE [15]	60.30	58.70	91.10	47.90	64.50
	DSN [7]	61.10	66.50	83.30	58.60	67.40
et	TF-CNN [27]	62.90	67.00	89.50	57.50	69.20
AlexNet	Fusion [35]	64.10	66.80	90.20	60.10	70.30
Ale	DANN [14]	63.20	67.50	88.10	57.00	69.00
	MLDG [28]	66.20	66.90	88.00	59.00	70.00
	MetaReg [3]	63.50	69.50	87.40	59.10	69.90
	CrossGrad [49]	61.00	67.20	87.60	55.90	67.90
	Epi-FCR [29]	64.70	72.30	86.10	65.00	72.00
	MASF [11]	70.35	72.46	90.68	67.33	75.21
	DMG (Ours)	64.65	69.88	87.31	71.42	73.32
	Aggregate [29]	77.60	73.90	94.40	74.30	79.10
	Aggregate*	72.61	78.46	93.17	65.20	77.36
	Multi-Headed	78.76	72.10	94.31	71.77	79.24
	DANN [14]	81.30	73.80	94.00	74.30	80.80
ResNet-18	MAML [12]	78.30	76.50	95.10	72.60	80.60
Net	MLDG [28]	79.50	77.30	94.30	71.50	80.70
${ m Res}$	MetaReg [†] [3]	79.50	75.40	94.30	72.20	80.40
	CrossGrad [49]	78.70	73.30	94.00	65.10	77.80
	Epi-FCR $[29]$	82.10	77.00	93.90	73.00	81.50
	MASF [11]	80.29	77.17	94.99	71.68	81.03
	DMG (Ours)	76.90	80.38	93.35	75.21	81.46
000	Aggregate*	75.49	80.67	93.05	64.29	78.38
$\operatorname{ResNet-50}$	Multi-Headed	75.15	76.37	95.27	75.26	80.51
$_{ m esN}$	MASF [11]	82.89	80.49	95.01	72.29	82.67
Ŗ	DMG (Ours)	82.57	78.11	94.49	78.32	83.37

Table 6: Out of Domain Generalization Results on PACS. We compare performance (accuracy in %) against prior work in the standard domain generalization setting of training on three domains as source and evaluating on the held-out fourth domain (identified by the column headers). We include the aggregate baseline both as reported in [29] as well as our own implementation (indicated as Aggregate*)

the dissimilarity across the source domains. D-MTAE [15] is an autoencoder based approach which aims to learn invariant representations by cross-domain reconstruction. DSN [7] aims to extract representations that can be partitioned into domain-specific and domain-invariant components. TF-CNN [27] learns a

low-rank parameterized CNN for end-to-end domain-generalization training. Fusion [35] fuses predictions from all classifiers trained on all the source domains at test-time. DANN [14] leverages the source domain features extractor from Domain Adversarial Neural Networks to generalize to target domains. MetaReg [3] learns regularizers by modeling domain-shifts within the source set of distributions. MLDG [28] learns network parameters using meta-learning. Epi-FCR [29] is a recently proposed episodic scheme to learn network parameters robust to domain-shift. MASF [11] is a recent approach which introduces complementary losses to explicitly regularize the semantic structure of the feature space via a model-agnostic episodic learning procedure. Cross-Grad [49] uses Bayesian Networks to perturb the input manifold for domain generalization.

7.5 Experimental Details

We summarize several experimental details in this section. For all our experiments, we use Adam [23] as the optimizer with a batch size of 64. For PACS, we use an initial learning rate of 10^{-4} for both the network and mask parameters decayed exponentially with a rate of 0.99 every epoch and set weight decay to 10^{-5} . For DomainNet, we use an initial learning rate of 10^{-4} for both the network and mask parameters decayed per-epoch using an inverse learning rate schedule^{‡‡} and set weight decay to 0. We conduct a sweep over values of λ_O – coefficient of the sIoU loss – in the range $\{0, 10^{-5}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}, 1\}$. Our backbone CNN architectures are initialized with ImageNet [24] pretrained checkpoints. We initialize the final linear layer weights (to be learned from scratch) from a zero centered normal distribution ($\mathcal{N}(0,0.001)$) and a uniform distribution (standard in PyTorch) for DomainNet and PACS respectively. For all our experiments, we initialize the mask parameters from the uniform distribution, i.e., $\tilde{\mathbf{m}}^d \sim \mathrm{U}(0,1)$. We select the best checkpoints across 50 epochs of training based on overall in-domain validation accuracy. We implement everything in the Pytorch [37] framework §§. Our code is available at https://github.com/prithv1/DMG

 $^{^{\}ddagger\ddagger}lr_t = \frac{lr_0}{(1+\gamma(t-1))^p}$ where $\gamma=10^{-4}, p=0.75, t$ identifies the epoch and lr_0 is the initial learning rate.

^{§§}The authors of [38] indicated in communication that they used Caffe to implement the multi-source baselines. We re-implement the multi-source baselines in PyTorch [37] to ensure consistency across all our reported results. The subsequent differences in multi-source baseline accuracies can be attributed to the differences in how AlexNet is implemented in PyTorch and Caffe.