
Distributionally Robust Ensemble of Lottery Tickets Towards Calibrated Sparse Network Training

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Abstract

1 The recently developed sparse network training methods, such as Lottery Ticket Hy-
2 pothesis (LTH) and its variants, have shown impressive learning capacity by finding
3 sparse sub-networks from a dense one. While these methods could largely sparsify
4 deep networks, they generally focus more on realizing comparable accuracy to
5 dense counterparts yet neglect network calibration. However, how to achieve cali-
6 brated network predictions lies at the core of improving model reliability, especially
7 when it comes to addressing the overconfident issue and out-of-distribution cases.
8 In this study, we propose a novel Distributionally Robust Optimization (DRO)
9 framework to achieve an ensemble of lottery tickets towards calibrated network
10 sparsification. Specifically, the proposed DRO ensemble aims to learn multiple
11 diverse and complementary sparse sub-networks (tickets) with the guidance of
12 uncertainty sets, which encourage tickets to gradually capture different data distri-
13 butions from easy to hard and naturally complement each other. We theoretically
14 justify the strong calibration performance by showing how the proposed robust
15 training process guarantees to lower the confidence of incorrect predictions. Ex-
16 tensive experimental results on several benchmarks show that our proposed lottery
17 ticket ensemble leads to a clear calibration improvement without sacrificing accu-
18 racy and burdening inference costs. Furthermore, experiments on OOD datasets
19 demonstrate the robustness of our approach in the open-set environment.

20 1 Introduction

21 While there is remarkable progress in developing deep neural networks with densely connected layers,
22 most of these dense networks have poor calibration performance [9], limiting their applicability in
23 safety-critical domains like self-driving cars [3] and medical diagnosis [11]. The poor calibration
24 is mainly due to the fact that there exists a good number of wrongly classified data samples (*i.e.*,
25 low accuracy) with high confidence resulting from the memorization effect introduced by an over-
26 parameterized architecture [24]. Recent sparse network training methods, such as Lottery Ticket
27 Hypothesis (LTH) [6] and its variants [2, 32, 17, 15, 30] generally assume that there exists a sparse
28 sub-network (*i.e.*, lottery ticket) in a randomly initialized dense network, which could be trained
29 in isolation and also match the performance of its dense counterpart network in terms of accuracy.
30 While these methods may, to some extent, alleviate the overconfident issue, two key challenges
31 remain to be addressed: (i) most of sparse network training methods require pre-training of a dense
32 network followed by multi-step iterative pruning, making the overall training process highly costly,
33 especially for large dense networks; (ii) even for techniques that do not rely on pre-training and
34 iterative pruning (*e.g.*, Edge Popup or EP [23]), their learning goal focuses on pushing the accuracy
35 up to the original dense networks and hence may still exhibit a severely over-fitting behavior, leading
36 to a poor calibration performance as demonstrated in Figure 1 (b).

37 Inspired by the recent success of using ensembles to estimate uncertainties [13, 29], a potential
38 solution to realize well-calibrated predictions would be training multiple sparse sub-networks and

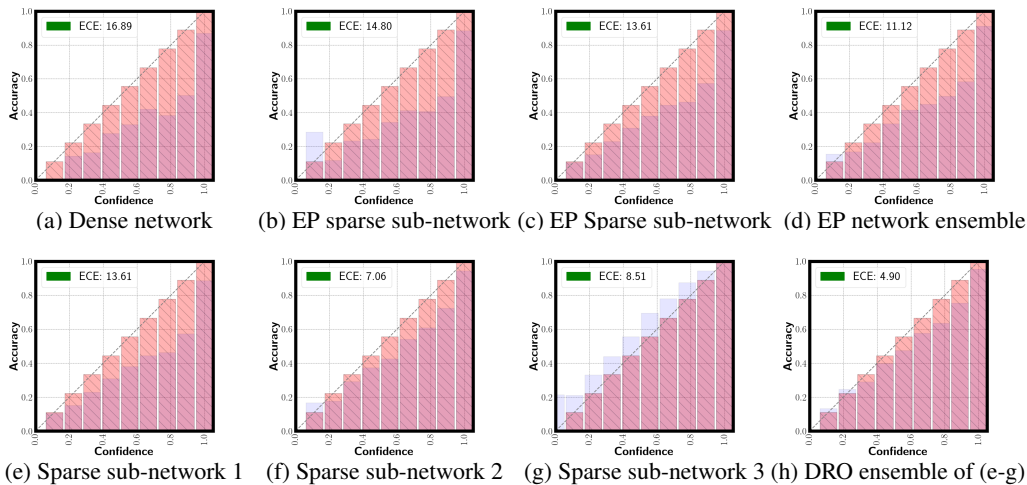


Figure 1: Calibration performance by expected calibration error (ECE) on Cifar100 dataset with ResNet101 architecture with density $\mathcal{K} = 15\%$. EP refers to the Edge Popup algorithm [23].

39 building an ensemble from them. As such, by leveraging accurate uncertainty quantification, the
 40 ensemble is expected to achieve better calibration. However, existing ensemble models of sparse
 41 networks rely on pre-training and iterative fine-tuning for learning each sub-network [17, 30], leading
 42 to a significant overhead for building the entire ensemble. Furthermore, an ensemble of independently
 43 trained sparse sub-networks does not necessarily improve the calibration performance. Since these
 44 networks are trained in a similar fashion from the same training data distribution, they could be
 45 strongly correlated such that the ensemble model will potentially inherit the overfitting behavior of
 46 each sub-network as shown in Figure 1(c). Therefore, the calibration capacity of sparse sub-network
 47 ensemble can be compromised as shown empirically in Figure 1 (d).

48 To further enhance the calibration of the ensemble, it is critical to ensure sufficient diversity among
 49 sparse sub-networks so that they are able to complement each other. One natural way to achieve
 50 diversity is to allow each sparse sub-network (ticket) to primarily focus on a specific part of training
 51 data distribution. This inspires us to leverage the AdaBoost [25] framework that sequentially finds
 52 tickets by manipulating training data distribution based on errors. By this means, the AdaBoost
 53 facilitates the training for a sequence of complementary sparse sub-networks. However, the empirical
 54 analysis (see Table 1) reveals that in the AdaBoost ensemble, most sub-networks (except for the
 55 first one) severely under-fit data leading to poor generalization ability. This is mainly because of the
 56 overfitting behavior of the first sub-network, which assigns very low training losses to the majority of
 57 data samples, making the subsequent sub-networks concentrate on very rare difficult samples that are
 58 likely to be outliers or noises. Hence, directly learning from these difficult samples without having
 59 global knowledge of the entire training distribution will result in the failure of subsequent training
 60 tickets and also hurt the overall calibration.

61 To this end, we need a more robust learning process for proper training of complementary sparse sub-
 62 networks, each of which can be learned in an efficient way to ensure the cost-effective construction
 63 of the entire ensemble. We propose a Distributionally Robust Optimization (DRO) framework to
 64 schedule learning an ensemble of lottery tickets (sparse sub-networks) with complimentary calibration
 65 behaviors that contribute to an overall well-calibrated ensemble as shown in Figure 1 (e-h). Our
 66 technique directly searches sparse sub-networks in a randomly initialized dense network without
 67 pre-training or iterative pruning. Unlike the AdaBoost ensemble, the proposed ensemble ticket
 68 method starts from the original training distribution and eventually allows learning each sub-network
 69 from different parts of the training distribution to enrich diversity. This is also fundamentally different
 70 from existing sparse ensemble models [17, 30], which attempt to obtain diverse sub-networks in a
 71 heuristic way by relying on different learning rates. As a result, these models offer no guaranteed
 72 complementary behavior among sparse sub-networks to cover a different part of training data, which
 73 is essential to alleviate the overfitting behavior of the learned sparse sub-networks. In contrast, we
 74 realize a principled scheduling process by changing the uncertainty set of DRO, where a small set
 75 pushes sub-networks learning with easy data samples and a large set focuses on the difficult ones
 76 (see Figure 2). By this means, the ticket ensemble governed by our DRO framework could work
 77 complementary and lead to much better calibration ability as demonstrated in Figure 1(h). On the
 78 one hand, we hypothesize that the ticket found with easy data samples will tend to be learned and

79 overfitted easily, resulting in overconfident predictions (Figure 1(e)). On the other hand, the ticket
 80 focused on more difficult data samples will be less likely to overfit and may become conservative and
 81 give under-confident predictions. Thus, it is natural to form an ensemble of such lottery tickets to
 82 complement each other in making calibrated predictions. As demonstrated in Figure 1 (h), owing to
 83 the diversity in the sparse sub-networks (e-g), the DRO ensemble exhibits better calibration ability. It
 84 is also worth noting that under the DRO framework, our sparse sub-networks already improve the
 85 calibration ability as shown in Figure 1 (f-g), which is further confirmed by our theoretical results.

86 Experiments conducted on three benchmark datasets demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed
 87 technique compared to sparse counterparts and dense networks. Furthermore, we show through
 88 the experimentation that because of the better calibration, our model is being able to perform well
 89 on the distributionally shifted datasets [6] (CIFAR10-C and CIFAR100-C). The experiments also
 90 demonstrate that our proposed DRO ensemble framework can better detect open-set samples on
 91 varying confidence thresholds. The contribution of this work can be summarized as follows:

- 92 • a new sparse ensemble framework that combines multiple sparse sub-networks to achieve better
 93 calibration performance without dense network training and iterative pruning.
- 94 • a distributionally robust optimization framework that schedules the learning of an ensemble
 95 complementary sub-networks (tickets),
- 96 • theoretical justification of the strong calibration performance by showing how the proposed robust
 97 training process guarantees to lower the confidence of incorrect predictions in Theorem 2,
- 98 • extensive empirical evidence on the effectiveness of the proposed lottery ticket ensemble in terms
 99 of competitive classification accuracy and improved open-set detection performance.

100 2 Related Work

101 **Sparse networks training.** Sparse network training has received increasing attention in recent years.
 102 Representative techniques include lottery ticket hypothesis (LTH) [6] and its variants [4, 28]. To
 103 avoid training a dense network, supermasks have been used to find the winning ticket in the dense
 104 network without training network weights [32]. Edge-Popup (EP) extends this idea by leveraging
 105 training scores associated with the neural network weights and only weights with top scores are used
 106 for predictions. There are two key limitations to most existing LTH techniques. First, most of them
 107 require pre-training of a dense network followed by multi-step iterative pruning making the overall
 108 training process expensive. Second, their learning objective remains as improving the accuracy up to
 109 the original dense networks and may still suffer from over-fitting (as shown in Figure 1).

110 **Sparse network ensemble.** There are recent advancements in building ensembles from sparse
 111 networks. A pruning and regrowing strategy has been developed in a model, called CigL [15],
 112 where dropout serves as an implicit ensemble to improve the calibration performance. CigL requires
 113 weight updates and performs pruning and growing for multiple rounds, leading to a high training
 114 cost. Additionally, dropping many weights may lead to a performance decrease, which prevents
 115 building highly sparse networks. This idea has been further extended by using different learning rates
 116 to generate different typologies of the network structure for each sparse network [17, 30]. While
 117 diversity among sparse networks can be achieved, there is no guarantee that this can improve the
 118 calibration performance of the final ensemble. In fact, different networks may still learn from the
 119 training data in a similar way. Hence, the learned networks may exhibit similar overfitting behavior
 120 with a high correlation, making it difficult to generate a well-calibrated ensemble. In contrast, the
 121 proposed DRO ensemble schedules different sparse networks to learn from complementary parts of
 122 the training distribution, leading to improved calibration with theoretical guarantees.

123 **Model calibration.** Various attempts have been proposed to make the deep models more reliable
 124 either through calibration [9, 22, 28] or uncertainty quantification [7, 26]. Post-calibration techniques
 125 have been commonly used, including temperature scaling [22, 9], using regularization to penalize
 126 overconfident predictions [21]. Recent studies show that post-hoc calibration falls short of providing
 127 reliable predictions [20]. Most existing techniques require additional post-processing steps and an
 128 additional validation dataset. In our setting, we aim to improve the calibration ability of sparse
 129 networks without introducing additional post-calibration steps or validation dataset.

130 3 Methodology

131 Let $\mathcal{D}_N = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}\} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$ be a set of training samples where each $\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is
 132 a D -dimensional feature vector and $y_n \in [1, C]$ be associated label with C total classes. Let M be

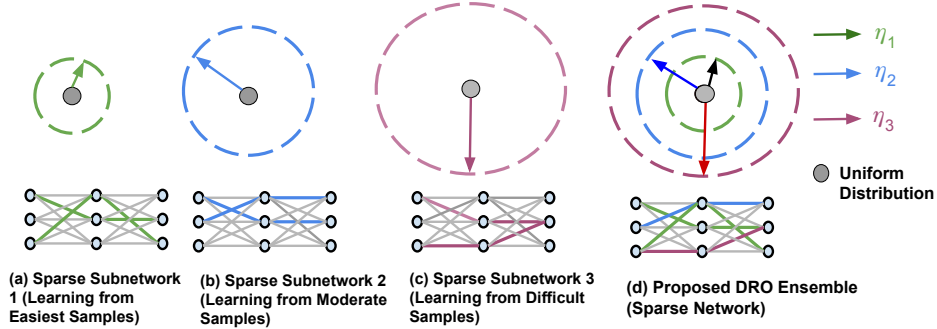


Figure 2: Robust ensemble where η defines the size of an uncertainty set with $\eta_1 \leq \eta_2 \leq \eta_3$.

133 the total number of base learners used in the given ensemble technique. Further, consider \mathcal{K} to be
 134 the density ratio in the given network, which denotes the percentage of weights we keep during the
 135 training process. The major notations are summarized in the Appendix.

136 3.1 Preliminaries

137 **Edge-Popup (EP)** [23]. EP finds a lottery ticket (sparse sub-network) from a randomly initialized
 138 dense network based on the score values learned from training data. Specifically, to find the sub-
 139 network with density \mathcal{K} , the algorithm optimizes the scores associated with each weight in the dense
 140 network. During the forward pass, the top- \mathcal{K} weights in each layer are selected based on their scores.
 141 During the backward pass, scores associated with all weights are updated, which allows potentially
 142 useful weights that are ignored in previous forward passes to be re-considered.

143 **Expected calibration error.** Expected Calibration Error (ECE) measures the correspondence between
 144 predicted probability and empirical accuracy [18]. Specifically, mis-calibration is computed based
 145 on the difference in expectation between confidence and accuracy: $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}} [|\mathbb{P}(\hat{y} = y | \hat{p} = p) - p|]$. In
 146 practice, we approximate the expectation by partitioning confidences into T bins (equally spaced)
 147 and take the weighted average on the absolute difference between each bins' accuracy and confidence.
 148 Let B_t denote the t -th beam and we have $\text{ECE} = \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{|B_t|}{N} |\text{acc}(B_t) - \text{conf}(B_t)|$.

149 3.2 Distributionally Robust Ensemble (DRE)

150 As motivated in the introduction, to further enhance the calibration of a deep ensemble, it is instru-
 151 mental to introduce sufficient diversity among the component sparse sub-networks so that they can
 152 complement each other when forming the ensemble. One way to achieve diversity is to allow each
 153 sparse sub-network to primarily focus on a specific part of the training data distribution. Figure 2
 154 provides an illustration of this idea, where the training data can be imagined to follow a multivariate
 155 Gaussian distribution with the red dot representing its mean. In this case, the first sub-network will
 156 learn the most common patterns by focusing on the training data close to the mean. The subsequent
 157 sub-networks will then learn relatively rare patterns by focusing on other parts of the training data
 158 (e.g., two or three standard deviations from the mean).

159 **AdaBoost ensemble.** The above idea inspires us to leverage the AdaBoost framework [25] to
 160 manipulate the training distribution that allows us to train a sequence of complementary sparse sub-
 161 networks. In particular, we train the first sparse sub-network from the original training distribution,
 162 where each data sample has an equal probability to be sampled. In this way, the first sparse sub-
 163 network can learn the common patterns from the most representative training samples. Starting from
 164 the second sub-network, the training distribution is changed according to the losses suffered from the
 165 previous sub-network during the last round of training. This allows the later sub-networks to focus
 166 on the difficult data samples by following the spirit of AdaBoost.

167 However, our empirical results reveal that in the AdaBoost ensemble, most sub-networks (except for
 168 the first one) severely underfit the training data, leading to a rather poor generalization capability.
 169 This is caused by the overfitting behavior of the first sparse sub-network, which assigns very small
 170 training losses to a majority of data samples. As a result, the subsequent sub-networks can only focus
 171 on a limited number of training samples that correspond to relatively rare patterns (or even outliers
 172 and noises) in the training data. Directly learning from these difficult data samples without a general
 173 knowledge of the entire training distribution will result in the failure of training the sub-networks.

174 **Distributionally robust ensemble (DRE).** To tackle the challenge as outlined above, we need a more
 175 robust learning process to ensure proper training of complementary sparse sub-networks. Different
 176 from the AdaBoost ensemble, the training of all sub-networks starts from the original training
 177 distribution in the DRO framework. Meanwhile, it also allows each sub-network to eventually
 178 focus on learning from different parts of the training distribution to ensure the desired diverse and
 179 complementary behavior. Let $l(\mathbf{x}_n, \Theta)$ denote the loss associated with the n^{th} data sample with Θ
 180 being the parameters in the sparse sub-network. Then, the total loss is given by

$$\mathcal{L}^{\text{Robust}}(\Theta) = \max_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{U}^{\text{Robust}}} \sum_{n=1}^N z_n l(\mathbf{x}_n, \Theta) \quad (1)$$

181 The uncertainty set defined to assign weights \mathbf{z} is given as

$$\mathcal{U}^{\text{Robust}} := \left\{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^N : \mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{1} = 1, \mathbf{z} \geq 0, D_f(\mathbf{z} \parallel \frac{\mathbf{1}}{N}) \leq \eta \right\} \quad (2)$$

182 where $D_f(\mathbf{z} \parallel \mathbf{q})$ is f -divergence between two distributions \mathbf{z} and \mathbf{q} and η controls the size of the
 183 uncertainty set and $\mathbf{1} \in 1^N$ is N -dimensional unit vector. Depending on the η value, the above
 184 robust framework instantiates different sub-networks. For example, by making $\eta \rightarrow \infty$, we have
 185 $\mathcal{U}^{\text{Robust}} = \left\{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^N : \mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{1} = 1, \mathbf{z} \geq 0, D_f(\mathbf{z} \parallel \frac{\mathbf{1}}{N}) \leq \infty \right\}$. In this case, we train a sub-network by
 186 only using the most difficult sample in the training set. On the other extreme with $\eta \rightarrow 0$, we
 187 have $\mathcal{U}^{\text{Robust}} = \left\{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^N : \mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{1} = 1, \mathbf{z} \geq 0, D_f(\mathbf{z} \parallel \frac{\mathbf{1}}{N}) \leq 0 \right\}$, which assigns equal weights to all data
 188 samples. So, the sub-network learns from the original training distribution.

189 To fully leverage the key properties of the robust loss function as described above, we propose
 190 to perform distributionally robust ensembling learning to generate a diverse set of sparse sub-
 191 networks with well-controlled overfitting behavior that can collectively achieve superior calibration
 192 performance. The training process starts with a relatively small η value to ensure that the initially
 193 generated sub-networks can adequately capture the general patterns from the most representative
 194 data samples in the original training distribution. The training proceeds by gradually increasing the η
 195 value, which allows the subsequent sub-networks to focus on relatively rare and more difficult data
 196 samples. As a result, the later generated sub-networks tend to produce less confident predictions that
 197 complement the sub-networks generated in the earlier phase of the training process. This diverse and
 198 complementary behavior among different sparse sub-networks is clearly illustrated in Figure 1 (e)-(g).
 199 During the ensemble phase, we combine the predictions of different sub-networks in the logit space
 200 by taking the mean and then performing the softmax. In this way, the sparse sub-networks with high
 201 η values help to lower the overall confidence score, especially those wrongly predicted data samples.
 202 Furthermore, the sub-networks with lower η values help to bring up the confidence score of correctly
 203 predicted data samples. Thus, the overall confidence score will be well compensated, resulting in a
 204 better calibrated ensemble.

205 3.3 Theoretical Analysis

206 In this section, we theoretically justify why the proposed DRE framework improves the calibration
 207 performance by extending the recently developed theoretical framework on multi-view learning [1].
 208 In particular, we will show how it can effectively lower the model’s false confidence on its wrong
 209 predictions resulting from spurious correlations. For this, we first define the problem setup that
 210 includes some key concepts used in our theoretical analysis. We then formally show that DRO helps to
 211 decorrelate the spurious correlation by learning from less frequent features that characterize difficult
 212 data samples in a training dataset. This important property further guarantees better calibration
 213 performance of DRO as we show in the main theorem.

214 **Problem setup.** Assume that each data sample $\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is divided into P total patches, where each
 215 patch is a d -dimensional vector. For the sake of simplicity, let us assume each class $c \in [1, C]$ has
 216 two characterizing (major) features $\mathbf{v}_c = \{\mathbf{v}_{c,l}\}_{l=1}^L$ with $L = 2$. For example, the features for Cars
 217 could be Headlights and Tires. Let \mathcal{D}_N^S and \mathcal{D}_N^M denote the set of *single-view* and *multi-view* data
 218 samples, respectively, which are formally defined as

$$\begin{cases} \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\} \in \mathcal{D}_N^S & \text{if one of } \mathbf{v}_{c,1} \text{ or } \mathbf{v}_{c,2} \text{ appears along with some noise features} \\ \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\} \in \mathcal{D}_N^M & \text{if both } \mathbf{v}_{c,1} \text{ and } \mathbf{v}_{c,2} \text{ appears along with some noise features} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

219 The noise features (also called minor features) refer to those that do not characterize (or differentiate)
 220 a given class c (e.g., being part of the background). In important applications like computer vision,

221 images supporting such a "multi-view" structure is very common [1]. For example, for most car
 222 images, we can observe all main features, such as Wheels, Tires, and Headlights so they belong
 223 to \mathcal{D}_N^M . Meanwhile, there may also be images, where multiple features are missing. For example,
 224 if the car image is taken from the front, the tire and wheel features may not be captured. In most
 225 real-world datasets, such single-view data samples are usually much limited as compared to their
 226 multi-view counterparts. The Appendix provides concrete examples of both single and multi-view
 227 images. Let us consider $(\mathbf{x}, y) \in \mathcal{D}_N^S$ with the major feature $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ where $y = c$. Then each patch
 228 $\mathbf{x}^p \in \mathbb{R}^d$ can be expressed as

$$\mathbf{x}^p = a^p \mathbf{v}_{c,l} + \sum_{\mathbf{v}' \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \mathbf{v}_c} \alpha^{p,\mathbf{v}'} \mathbf{v}' + \epsilon^p \quad (4)$$

229 where $\mathcal{U} = \{\mathbf{v}_{c,1}, \mathbf{v}_{c,2}\}_{c=1}^C$ is collection of all features, $a^p > 0$ is the weight allocated to feature $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$,
 230 $\alpha^{p,\mathbf{v}'} \in [0, \gamma]$ is the weight allocated to the noisy feature \mathbf{v}' that is not present in feature set \mathbf{v}_c i.e.,
 231 $\mathbf{v}' \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \mathbf{v}_c$, and $\epsilon^p \sim \mathcal{N}(0, (\sigma^p)^2 \mathbf{1})$ is a random Gaussian noise. In (4), a patch \mathbf{x}^p in a single-view
 232 sample \mathbf{x} also contains set of minor (noise) features presented from other classes i.e., $\mathbf{v}' \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \mathbf{v}_c$ in
 233 addition to the main feature $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$. Since $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ characterizes class c , we have $a^p > \alpha^{p,\mathbf{v}'}$; $\forall \mathbf{v}' \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \mathbf{v}_c$.
 234 However, since the single-view data samples are usually sparse in the training data, it may prevent
 235 the model from accumulating a large a^p for $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ as shown Lemma 1 below. In contrast, some noise
 236 \mathbf{v}' may be selected as the dominant feature (due to spurious correlations) to minimize the errors of
 237 specific training samples, leading to potential overfitting of the model.

238 We further assume that the network contains H convolutional layers, which outputs $F(\mathbf{x}; \Theta) =$
 239 $(F_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, F_C(\mathbf{x})) \in \mathbb{R}^C$. The logistic output for the c^{th} class can be represented as

$$F_c(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{h \in [H]} \sum_{p \in [P]} \text{ReLU}[\langle \Theta_{c,h}, \mathbf{x}^p \rangle] \quad (5)$$

240 where $\Theta_{c,h}$ denote the h^{th} convolution layer (feature map) associated with class c . Under the above
 241 data and network setting, we propose the following lemma.

242 **Lemma 1.** Let $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ be the main feature vector present in the single-view data \mathcal{D}_N^S . Assume that
 243 number of single-view data samples containing feature $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ is limited as compared with the rest, i.e.,
 244 $N_{\mathbf{v}_{c,l}} \ll N_{\mathcal{U} \setminus \mathbf{v}_{c,l}}$. Then, at any iteration $t > 0$, we have

$$\langle \Theta_{c,h}^{t+1}, \mathbf{v}_{c,l} \rangle = \langle \Theta_{c,h}^t, \mathbf{v}_{c,l} \rangle + \beta \max_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{U}} \sum_{n=1}^N z_n [\mathbb{1}_{y_j=c} (V_{c,h,l}(\mathbf{x}_n) + \kappa) (1 - \text{SOFT}_c(F(\mathbf{x}_n)))] \quad (6)$$

245 where κ is a dataset specific constant, β is the learning rate, SOFT_c is the softmax output for class c ,
 246 and $V_{c,h,l}(\mathbf{x}_j) = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathbf{v}_{c,l}}(\mathbf{x}_j)} \text{ReLU}(\langle \Theta_{c,h}, \mathbf{x}_j^p \rangle a^p)$ with $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbf{v}_{c,l}}(\mathbf{x}_j)$ being the collection of patches
 247 containing feature $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ in \mathbf{x}_j . The set \mathcal{U} is an uncertainty set that assigns a weight to each data
 248 sample based on its loss. In particular, the uncertainty set under DRO is given as in (2) and we
 249 further define the uncertainty set under ERM: $\mathcal{U}^{\text{ERM}} := \{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^N : z_n = \frac{1}{N}; \forall n \in [1, N]\}$. Learning
 250 via the robust loss in (1) leads to a stronger correlation between the network weights $\Theta_{c,h}$ and the
 251 single-view data feature $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$:

$$\{\langle \Theta_{c,h}^t, \mathbf{v}_{c,l} \rangle\}_{\text{Robust}} > \{\langle \Theta_{c,h}^t, \mathbf{v}_{c,l} \rangle\}_{\text{ERM}}; \forall t > 0 \quad (7)$$

252 **Remark.** The robust loss $\mathcal{L}^{\text{Robust}}$ forces the model to learn from the single-view samples (according
 253 to the loss) by assigning a higher weight. As a result, the network weights will be adjusted to increase
 254 the correlation with the single-view data features $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ due to Lemma 1. In contrast, for standard ERM,
 255 weight is uniformly assigned to all samples. Due to the sparse single-view data features (which also
 256 makes them more difficult to learn from, leading to a larger loss), the model does not grow sufficient
 257 correlation with $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$. In this case, the ERM model instead learns to memorize some noisy feature
 258 \mathbf{v}' introduced through certain spurious correlations. For a testing data sample, the ERM model may
 259 confidently assign it to an incorrect class k according to the noise feature \mathbf{v}' . In the theorem below,
 260 we show how the robust training process can effectively lower the confidence of incorrect predictions,
 261 leading to an improved calibration performance.

262 **Theorem 2.** Given a new testing sample $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}_S^N$ containing $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ as the main feature and a dominant
 263 noisy feature \mathbf{v}' that is learned due to memorization, we have

$$\{\text{SOFT}_k(\mathbf{x})\}_{\text{Robust}} < \{\text{SOFT}_k(\mathbf{x})\}_{\text{ERM}} \quad (8)$$

264 where \mathbf{v}' is assumed to be a main feature characterizing class k .

265 **Remark.** For ERM, due to the impact of the dominate noise feature \mathbf{v}' , it assigns a large probability
 266 to class k since \mathbf{v}' is one of its major features, leading to high confidence for an incorrect prediction.
 267 In contrast, the robust learning process allows the model to learn a stronger correlation with the
 268 main feature $\mathbf{v}_{c,l}$ as shown in Lemma 1. Thus, the model is less impacted by the noise feature \mathbf{v}' ,
 269 resulting in reduced confidence in predicting the wrong class k . Such a key property guarantees
 270 an improved calibration performance, which is clearly verified by our empirical evaluation. It is
 271 also worth noting that Theorem 2 does not necessarily lead to better classification accuracy. This is
 272 because (8) only ensures that the false confidence is lower than an ERM model, but there is no
 273 guarantee that $\{\text{SOFT}_k(\mathbf{x})\}_{Robust} < \{\text{SOFT}_c(\mathbf{x})\}_{Robust}$. It should be noted that our DRE framework
 274 ensures diverse sparse sub-network focusing on different single-view data samples from different
 275 classes. As such, an ensemble of those diverse sparse subnetworks provides maximum coverage of
 276 all features (even the weaker one) and therefore can ultimately improve the calibration performance.
 277 The detailed proofs are provided in the Appendix.

278 4 Experiments

279 We perform extensive experimentation to evaluate the distributionally robust ensemble of sparse
 280 sub-networks. Specifically, we test the ability of our proposed technique in terms of calibration and
 281 classification accuracy. For this, we consider three settings: (a) general classification, (b) out-of-
 282 distribution setting where we have in-domain data but with different distributions, and (c) open-set
 283 detection, where we have unknown samples from new domains.

284 4.1 Experimental Settings

285 **Dataset description.** For the general classification setting, we consider three real-world datasets:
 286 Cifar10, Cifar100 [12], and TinyImageNet [14]. For the out-of-distribution setting, we consider the
 287 corrupted version of the Cifar10 and Cifar100 datasets which are named Cifar10-C and Cifar100-C
 288 [10]. It should be noted that in this setting, we train all models in clean dataset and perform testing
 289 in the corrupted datasets. For open-set detection, we use the SVHN dataset [19] as the open-set
 290 dataset and Cifar10 and Cifar100 as the close-set data. A more detailed description of each dataset is
 291 presented in the Appendix.

292 **Evaluation metrics.** To assess the model performance in the first two settings, we report the
 293 classification accuracy (ACC) along with the Expected Calibration Error (\mathcal{ECE}). In the case of
 294 open-set detection, we report open-set detection for different confidence thresholds.

295 **Implementation details.** In all experiments, we use a family of ResNet architectures with two density
 296 levels: 9% and 15%. To construct an ensemble, we learn 3 sparse sub-networks each with a density
 297 of 3% for the total of 9% density and that of 5% density for the total of density 15%. All experiments
 298 are conducted with the 200 total epochs with an initial learning rate of 0.1 and a cosine scheduler
 299 function to decay the learning rate over time. The last-epoch model is taken for all analyses. For the
 300 training loss, we use the EP-loss in our DRO ensemble that optimizes the scores for each weight
 301 and finally selects the sub-network from the initialized dense network for the final prediction. The
 302 selection is performed based on the optimized scores. More detailed information about the training
 303 process and hyperparameter settings can be found in the Appendix.

304 4.2 Performance Comparison

305 In our comparison study, we include baselines that are relevant to our technique and therefore we
 306 primarily focus on the LTH-based techniques. Specifically, we include the initial lottery ticket
 307 hypothesis (LTH) [6] that iteratively performs pruning from a dense network until the randomly
 308 initialized sub-network with a given density is reached. Once the sub-network is found, the model
 309 trains the sub-network using the training dataset. Similarly, we also include L1 pruning [16]. We
 310 also include three approaches CigL [15], Sup-ticket [30], DST Ensemble [17] which are based on the
 311 pruning and regrowing sparse network training strategies. From Venkatesh et al. [28] we consider
 312 MixUp strategy as a comparison baseline as it does not require multi-step forward passes. A dense
 313 network is also included as a reference (denoted as $Dense^\dagger$). Furthermore, we report the performance
 314 obtained using the EP algorithm [23] on a single model with a given density. Finally, we also include
 315 the deep ensemble technique (*i.e.*, Sparse Network Ensemble (SNE), where each base model is
 316 randomly initialized and independently trained. The approaches that require pre-training of a dense
 317 network are categorized under the *Dense Pre-training* category. Those performing sparse network
 318 training but actually updating the network parameters are grouped as *Sparse Training*. It should be
 319 noted that sparse training techniques still require iterative pruning and regrowing. Finally, techniques

Table 1: Accuracy and ECE performance with 9% density for Cifar10 and Cifar100.

Training Type	Approach	Cifar10				Cifar100			
		ResNet50		ResNet101		ResNet101		ResNet152	
		<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>
	<i>Dense</i> [†]	94.82	5.87	95.12	5.99	76.40	16.89	77.97	16.73
Dense Pre-training	<i>L1 Pruning</i> [16]	93.45	5.31	93.67	6.14	75.11	15.89	75.12	16.24
	<i>LTH</i> [6]	92.65	3.68	92.87	6.02	74.09	15.45	74.41	16.12
	<i>DLTH</i> [2]	93.27	5.87	95.12	7.09	77.29	16.64	77.86	17.26
	<i>Mixup</i> [28]	92.86	3.68	93.06	6.01	74.15	15.41	74.28	16.05
Sparse Training	<i>CigL</i> [15]	92.39	5.06	93.41	4.60	76.40	9.30	76.46	9.91
	<i>DST Ensemble</i> [17]	88.87	2.02	84.93	0.8	63.57	7.23	63.22	6.18
	<i>Sup-ticket</i> [30]	94.52	3.30	95.04	3.10	78.28	10.20	78.60	10.50
Mask Training	<i>AdaBoost</i>	93.12	5.13	94.15	5.46	75.15	22.96	75.89	24.54
	<i>EP</i> [23]	94.20	3.97	94.35	4.03	75.05	14.62	75.68	14.41
	<i>SNE</i>	94.70	2.51	94.48	3.51	75.69	9.02	75.22	10.89
	DRE (Ours)	94.60	0.7	94.28	0.7	74.68	1.20	74.37	2.09

Table 2: Accuracy and ECE on TinyImageNet.

Training Type	Approach	$\mathcal{K} = 9\%$				$\mathcal{K} = 15\%$			
		ResNet101		WideResNet101		ResNet101		WideResNet101	
		<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>
	<i>Dense</i> [†]	71.28	15.58	72.57	16.96	71.28	15.58	72.57	16.96
Dense Pre-training	<i>L1 Pruning</i> [16]	68.85	14.72	69.78	16.38	70.24	14.24	70.98	15.36
	<i>LTH</i> [6]	69.23	13.97	69.13	15.34	70.16	13.63	70.25	14.24
	<i>DLTH</i> [2]	70.12	16.15	71.36	18.35	71.68	15.88	72.97	17.21
	<i>Mixup</i> [28]	69.34	14.24	69.25	15.59	70.28	14.31	70.39	14.57
Mask Training	<i>AdaBoost</i>	69.52	17.23	68.66	19.46	70.12	16.57	70.24	18.35
	<i>EP</i> [23]	69.88	10.78	71.57	9.82	70.46	11.99	70.71	12.41
	<i>SNE</i>	71.28	4.64	73.32	5.48	72.20	6.57	74.56	6.55
	DRE (Ours)	71.68	3.48	74.04	2.82	72.00	1.52	73.72	1.08

Table 3: Accuracy and ECE performance on out-of-distribution datasets.

Training Type	Approach	Cifar10				Cifar100			
		ResNet50		ResNet101		ResNet101		ResNet152	
		<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>	<i>ACC</i>	<i>ECE</i>
	<i>Dense</i> [†]	79.65	19.63	79.65	19.63	54.75	35.32	54.75	35.32
Dense Pre-training	<i>L1 Pruning</i> [16]	77.34	17.95	76.39	17.89	52.06	31.45	51.67	30.98
	<i>LTH</i> [6]	75.85	17.88	76.15	17.62	50.79	31.23	51.35	30.56
	<i>DLTH</i> [2]	79.67	21.74	80.12	20.31	54.82	37.55	55.12	35.74
	<i>Mixup</i> [28]	76.35	17.74	76.88	17.55	51.36	31.12	51.92	30.35
Sparse Training	<i>CigL</i> [15]	70.80	21.04	69.84	21.42	49.42	25.86	51.49	24.13
	<i>Sup-ticket</i> [30]	72.89	17.80	73.01	18.82	48.80	24.99	48.81	25.62
Mask Training	<i>AdaBoost</i>	75.94	22.96	74.55	21.46	51.36	38.45	51.25	38.34
	<i>EP</i> [23]	77.58	17.82	77.73	17.46	52.18	30.60	52.14	29.48
	<i>SNE</i>	78.93	15.73	78.61	15.56	54.74	24.22	54.00	20.54
	DRE (Ours)	78.57	10.92	78.00	10.19	54.11	14.28	53.21	8.13

320 that attempt to search the best initialized sparse sub-network through mask update (e.g., EP) are
 321 grouped as *Mask Training*.

322 **General classification setting.** In this setting, we consider clean Cifar10, Cifar100, and TinyImageNet
 323 datasets. Tables 1, 2, and 10 (in the Appendix) show the accuracy and calibration error for
 324 different models with density 9% and 15%. It should be noted that for the TinyImageNet dataset, we
 325 could not run the Sparse Training techniques due to the computation issue (i.e., memory overflow).
 326 This may be because sparse training techniques require maintaining additional parameters for the
 327 pruning and regrowing strategy. In the Appendix, we have made a comparison of the proposed DRE
 328 with those baselines on a lower architecture size. There are three key observations we can infer from
 329 the experimental results. First, sparse networks are able to maintain or improve the generalization
 330 performance (in terms of accuracy) with better calibration, which can be seen by comparing dense
 331 network performance with the edge-popup algorithm. Second, the ensemble in general helps to
 332 further lower the calibration error (lower the better). For example, in all datasets, standard ensemble

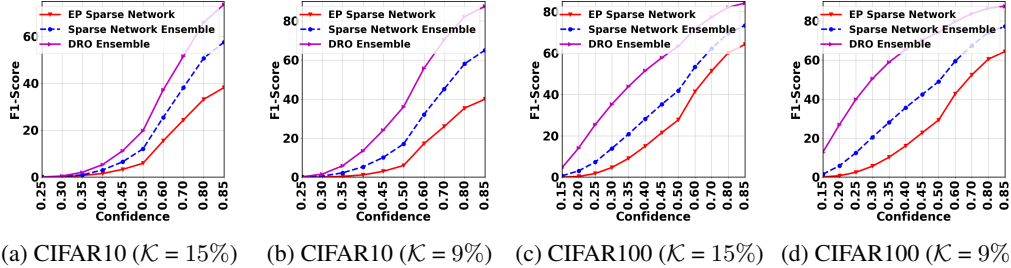


Figure 3: Open-set detection performance on different confidence thresholds.

333 (SNE) consistently improves the EP model. Finally, the proposed DRE significantly improves the
 334 calibration performance by diversifying base learners and allow each sparse sub-network to focus
 335 on different parts of the training data. The strong calibration performance provides clear empirical
 336 evidence to justify our theoretical results.

337 **Out-of-distribution classification setting.** In this setting, we assess the effectiveness of the proposed
 338 techniques on out-of-distribution samples. Specifically, [10] provide the Cifar10-C and Cifar100-C
 339 validation datasets which are different than that of the original clean datasets. They apply different
 340 corruptions (such as blurring noise, and compression) to shift the distribution of the datasets. We
 341 assess those corrupted datasets using the models trained using the clean dataset. Table 3 shows
 342 the performance using different architectures. In this setting, we have not included DST Ensemble,
 343 because: (a) its accuracy is far below the SOTA performance, and (b) same training mechanism as
 344 that of the Sup-ticket, whose performance is reported. As shown, the proposed DRE provides much
 345 better calibration performance even with the out of distribution datasets.

346 **Open-set detection setting.** In this setting, we demonstrate the ability of our proposed DRO ensemble
 347 in detecting open-set samples. For this, we use the SVHN dataset as an open-set dataset. Specifically,
 348 if we have a better calibration, we would be able to better differentiate the open-set samples based
 349 on the confidence threshold. For this, we randomly consider 20% of the total testing in-distribution
 350 dataset as the open-set samples from the SVHN dataset. The reason for only choosing a subset of the
 351 dataset is to imitate the practical scenario where we have very few open-set samples compared to
 352 the close-set samples. We treat the open-set samples as the positive and in-distribution (close-set)
 353 ones as the negative. Since this is a binary detection problem, we compute the F-score [8] at various
 354 thresholds, which considers both precision and recall. Figure 3 shows the performance for the
 355 proposed technique along with comparative baselines. As shown, our proposed DRE (refereed as
 356 DRO Ensemble) always stays on the top for various confidence thresholds which demonstrates that
 357 strong calibration performance can benefit DRE for open-set detection as compared to other baselines.

358 4.3 Additional Results, Ablation Study, and Qualitative Analysis

359 Limited by space, we have reported additional results in the Appendix. Specifically, we compare
 360 the proposed DRE with other standard calibration techniques commonly used in dense networks.
 361 In addition, we have performed an ablation study to investigate the impact of parameter η and
 362 different backbones (*i.e.*, ViT and WideResNet). We present a qualitative analysis to further justify
 363 the effectiveness of our proposed technique. Finally, we report the parameter size and inference speed
 364 (FLOPS) of DRE and compare it with existing baselines.

365 5 Conclusion

366 In this paper, we proposed a novel DRO framework, called DRE, that achieves an ensemble of lottery
 367 tickets towards calibrated network sparsification. Specifically, with the guidance of uncertainty sets
 368 under the DRO framework, the proposed DRE aims to learn multiple diverse and complementary
 369 sparse sub-networks (tickets) where uncertainty sets encourage tickets to gradually capture different
 370 data distributions from easy to hard and naturally complement each other. We have theoretically
 371 justified the strong calibration performance by demonstrating how the proposed robust training
 372 process guarantees to lower the confidence of incorrect predictions. The extensive evaluation shows
 373 that the proposed DRE leads to significant calibration improvement without sacrificing the accuracy
 374 and burdening inference cost. Furthermore, experiments on OOD and Open-set datasets show its
 375 effectiveness in terms of generalization and novelty detection capability, respectively.

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