Discovery of New Multi-Level Features for Domain Generalization via Knowledge Corruption

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Abstract—Machine learning models that can generalize to unseen domains are essential when applied in real-world scenarios involving strong domain shifts. We address the challenging domain generalization (DG) problem, where a model trained on a set of source domains is expected to generalize well in unseen domains without any exposure to their data. The main challenge of DG is that the features learned from the source domains are not necessarily present in the unseen target domains, leading to performance deterioration. We assume that learning a richer set of features is crucial to improve the transfer to a wider set of unknown domains. For this reason, we propose COLUMBUS, a method that enforces new feature discovery via a targeted corruption of the most relevant input and multi-level representations of the data. We conduct an extensive empirical evaluation to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed approach which achieves new state-of-the-art results on multiple DG benchmark datasets in the DOMAINDB framework.

I. INTRODUCTION

Deep learning models have achieved tremendous success when applied to independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) data. However, in real-world applications, distribution shifts between training and test data are commonly encountered. For instance, data distributions might differ from one hospital to another [1], and from one production plant to another. Similarly, the models in self-driving cars are exposed to different urban and rural environments in different countries with changing weather conditions [2] and object poses [3].

Approaches to make machine learning models resilient to such data distribution changes were studied for different domain shift settings. For example, several domain adaptation methods were developed to address the case where, besides the data from the source domain(s), a set of labeled [5] or unlabeled [6] data is available from a specific target domain. However, in real-world scenarios, collecting data from the target domain(s) is often slow, e.g., a new hospital or production site, expensive, or even infeasible, e.g., collecting images from every street of every country in the context of self-driving cars. Sometimes, the target domains cannot be known beforehand.

The Domain Generalization (DG) problem [7], [8] was introduced to address such cases. Specifically, a model trained on multiple source domains is expected to directly perform well in unseen target domains without requiring any exposure to its data. This problem setting can be interpreted as multi-source 0-shot domain adaptation.

Training a model to generalize across several related but unseen data distributions remains arguably one of the most challenging open problems in machine learning. In the last decade, a plethora of widely different methods were developed to address the DG problem. We refer to [9] for an extensive overview of DG algorithms. Despite these efforts, [10] found that carefully tuning the baseline, which simply applies Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM) on the data of the source domains, achieves a high performance that is competitive with state-of-the-art methods.

One major challenge of DG is that the model can only observe and learn features from the source domains, which may not be present in the unseen target domains, limiting generalization. We presume that learning a wider set of different features would increase the chance of learning features that are useful for a larger set of unseen domains. Hence, we introduce...
COLUMBUS, a training procedure for automated new feature discovery, which leads to a better feature recognition in unseen domains (Figure 1). During training on the source domains, COLUMBUS incentivizes the model to discover new features, even in data examples on which it already performs well. To achieve this, COLUMBUS prevents the model from using the features it deems most relevant for the source domains by corrupting them during training. To identify the most relevant features for a model, we leverage attribution methods [11] usually used for model explainability purposes.

We evaluate our approach on the recently proposed DomainBed framework [10] which includes several DG datasets and algorithm implementations to promote a fair and reproducible comparison of different approaches. Our method outperforms 18 DG algorithms evaluated on 3 datasets in the DomainBed framework, achieving new state-of-the-art results using 2 different model selection methods. Furthermore, our method achieves the highest performance when evaluated on unseen data from the source domains used for training (in-domain generalization), which confirms its effectiveness and ability to learn new features useful for unseen data.

II. RELATED WORK

A. Domain Generalization

This section presents an overview of domain generalization (DG) approaches. Methods to which we compare in our experiments (Section IV) are highlighted in bold. We refer to [9] for an extensive overview of DG algorithms. The simplest approach to DG is to train one model via Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM) [12] on the training datasets of all source domains. GroupDRO [13] additionally increases the importance of source domains where the model yields a lower performance. In the following, we broadly categorize DG approaches into three categories.

Domain alignment methods aim to learn domain-invariant representations of the data by aligning features across the source domains. The reduction of the representation distribution mismatch across source domains can be achieved by minimizing the maximum mean discrepancy criteria [14] combined with an adversarial autoencoder (MMD) [15], minimizing the difference between the means [16] or covariance matrices (CORAL) [17] in the embedding space across different domains, or minimizing a contrastive loss [18]–[20], e.g., SelfReg [21]. Domain alignment is also performed by aligning the loss gradients across source domains via inner product maximization (Fish) [22], or binary (AND-mask) [23], [24] or continuous gradient masking (SAND-mask) [24].

Another line of works optimizes for features that confuse a domain discriminator model [25]–[28], and includes DANN [29] and its class-conditional extension C-DANN [30]. Other works additionally involve the classifier in the representation alignment, either by optimizing for an embedding space such that the optimal linear classifier on top of it is the same across different domains (IRM) [31], or by passing a domain-specific mean embedding to the classifier as a second argument (MTL) [32]. VREx [33] is an approximation of IRM via a variance penalty and ARM [34] is an extension of MTL that employs a separate embedding CNN.

Meta-learning techniques were applied to DG by training a model in a bi-level optimization scheme on meta-train and meta-test sets sampled from the source domains. Hereby, MLDG [35] optimizes for parameters that can be quickly adapted to different domains, MASF [1] adds inter-class and intra-class losses to regularize the embedding space, and MetaReg meta-learns a regularizer for the output layer [36].

Data augmentation approaches were proposed to tackle DG and our method falls into this category. Some works use Mixup [37] to compute inter-domain examples to augment the training set [38]–[40]. SagNets [41] reduce the domain gap by randomizing the style of images while keeping their content. Another line of works generate images by using adversarial attacks [42] to perturb input images based on a class classifier [43]–[45] or a domain classifier [46], by training CNNs to generate images within the source domains [47]–[49] or novel domains [50]–[52]. Other works apply such perturbations on a feature level [53], [54].

Our approach corrupts the raw input data as well as the multi-level representations that the model learns in order to enforce new feature discovery. Instead of using visually undetectable adversarial attacks or highly parametrized generative models, we employ attribution methods, e.g., Guided-GradCAM [4], to identify and corrupt the most relevant features. Our approach shares similarities with RSC [53] which discards the most dominant features fed to the output layer to promote the activation of the remaining features. The key difference of our approach is that we corrupt features not only in the last high-level representation space, i.e., the input to the output layer, but also in the raw input space and other low-level representation spaces. We argue that by discarding the features only in the representation space (e.g., elephant trunk detector), as done in RSC, the same silenced feature detectors can be relearned as long as the model is exposed to the corresponding features in the input space (e.g., the pixels of the elephant trunk). We hypothesize that corrupting the features in the input space is crucial to enforce the discovery of new features. Our empirical results show that our method outperforms RSC by a significant margin (Section IV) on unseen data from source and target domains, hence confirming our hypothesis.

B. Relevance Attribution

In an attempt to explain and interpret the predictions of deep learning models, several attribution methods that assign relevance scores to input features have been developed [4], [55], [56]. In Saliency Maps [55] the relevance scores are given by the gradient of the output neuron corresponding to the ground truth w.r.t. the input. Better attributions were achieved by averaging these gradients over local neighborhood patches in SmoothGrad [57] and over brightness level interpolations in IntegratedGradients [58]. Another category of approaches modifies the backpropagation procedure by considering only positive gradients [59] or to satisfy the relevance conservation property through the layers [60], [61]. Class Activation Maps
CAM) [62] leverages the activations in the last convolutional layer to produce a heatmap highlighting the relevance of each feature in the raw input. Gradient-weighted CAM (Grad-CAM) [4] generalizes CAM to a variety of CNNs by using the gradient information flowing into the last convolutional layer. This method can be combined with GuidedBP [59] to yield GuidedGrad-CAM [4]. IBA [56] approximates attribution scores by restricting the information flow via noise injection to intermediate feature maps during the forward pass.

While prior works used attribution methods to explain and interpret model predictions, we leverage them for training purposes. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to incorporate attribution methods combined with data corruption into training to improve the model’s generalization ability. For a broader overview of attribution methods, we refer to [11].

### III. Method

The proposed method improves the knowledge transfer to unknown data distributions by training a model to learn a rich set of features on several representation levels of the data via an automated new feature discovery.

Let $F_s$ and $F_l$ denote the sets of features learnable for the addressed classification task, which are present in the data of the source domains and in the target domain, respectively, and $G$ their intersection. In the optimal case, the set of features $L$ learned by the model on the source domains encompasses $G$ fully. Since $F_l$ is unknown at training time, our method maximizes the size of $L$ by training the model to learn as many features as possible, resulting in a higher chance to capture features from $G$ via the higher intersection between $L$ and $G$. To achieve this, we propose COLUMBUS, a training procedure that enables automated new feature discovery. COLUMBUS prevents the model from using (a part of) the most relevant features for its current predictions during training. This is done in 3 major steps: identification of the most relevant features, their corruption, and training with the corrupted data representations. Figure 2 presents an overview of our approach. We apply this technique on several levels of representations of the data ranging from the raw input, e.g., pixels of the elephant trunk, to the high-level features fed to the output layers, e.g., elephant-trunk-detector, including the representations yielded by intermediate layers, hence fostering multi-level new feature discovery.

#### A. Identification

In each training iteration, we sample a method from a set of attribution methods $A$, and use it to compute an attribution map $M$ that identifies the most relevant features. Any attribution method can be included in the set $A$. In this work, we use Saliency Maps [55] and GuidedGrad-CAM [4], since they are simple, fast, and model-architecture-agnostic. Other methods require modifications to support skip connections and batch normalization layers [60] or involve training additional parameters after each update [56]. Moreover, GuidedGrad-CAM was found to be competitive with the state-of-the-art attribution methods in the image degradation evaluation [56].

![Fig. 2. Overview of the proposed COLUMBUS method.](image)

While Saliency Maps and GuidedGrad-CAM were developed to assign relevance scores to features in the input space, we extend their usage to identify relevant features in representations extracted by intermediate layers. Let $y$ and $\hat{y}$ denote the ground truth and the model prediction for a datapoint $X$. The attribution map $M_l$ yielded by Saliency Maps for a representation $R_l$ yielded by layer $l$ is given by

$$M_l,\text{Saliency} = \frac{\partial(\hat{y} \odot y)}{\partial R_l}.$$  

Note that the original Saliency Maps method [55] corresponds to the case where $l = 0$, i.e., $R_0$ is the raw input representation.

The class-discriminative relevance map $M_l$ yielded by Grad-CAM [4] for a layer $l$ is given by a sum over the channels of the representation $R_l$ weighted by importance factors $\alpha_c$ for each channel $c$, resulting in

$$M_l,\text{GradCAM} = R_l \text{ReLU} \left( \sum_c \alpha_c R_l^c \right).$$

Hereby, the importance factors are given by the gradient of the model prediction for the correct class w.r.t. the global-average-pooled representation $R_t$. Formally,

$$\alpha_c = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_i \sum_j \frac{\partial(\hat{y} \odot y)}{\partial R_l^{c,i,j}}.$$  

Grad-CAM is applied to the representation yielded by the last convolutional layer to obtain a relevance map $M$ which is upsampled to the input size [4]. For intermediate representation $R_t$, we use the corresponding relevance map $M_t$ (Eq. 2). We use GuidedGrad-CAM [4] which yields more fine-grained maps than Grad-CAM by multiplying $M_l,\text{GradCAM}$ with the relevance maps determined by Guided Backpropagation (Guided BP) [59], for the same representation $R_l$. Guided BP modifies Saliency Maps by removing negative gradients when backpropagating through ReLU layers.
B. Corruption

In each training iteration, we sample a method from the set of corruption methods \( C \) and use it to corrupt the identified features based on the relevance attribution map \( M \). Any technique that perturbs the information contained in the identified features can be used. We use different corruption methods depending on the sampled representation level \( l \).

To corrupt the raw input (\( l = 0 \)), the most relevant input features according to the attribution map \( M_0 \), e.g., the pixels corresponding to an elephant trunk, are perturbed using a corruption method. Hereby, we perturb the identified pixel values by setting them to a random value, to zero, i.e., black pixels, by applying the Fast Gradient Sign Method (FGSM) [42], or by applying Gaussian blurring. For an intermediate representation level \( l > 0 \), first the original input is fed through the model up to the corresponding layer \( l \) to yield the representation \( R_l \). The latter is then corrupted based on the relevance attribution map \( M_l \) resulting from the identification stage and finally fed to the next layer. To corrupt intermediate embeddings, we drop the most relevant features, i.e., set their values to zero. This can be viewed as a targeted Dropout [63].

C. Training

The COLUMBUS training procedure is described by Algorithm 1. In each training iteration, a data batch \( B \), a representation level \( l \), an attribution method, and a corruption method are sampled. Subsequently, the aforementioned identification and corruption steps are performed. The model is trained on the corrupted data (representations). Hereby, the \( p\% \) most relevant features are corrupted. To enable the model to learn some features at the beginning of training, \( p \) is set to 0, i.e., no corruption is applied. As training progresses, more features are corrupted in the data, forcing the model to discover and learn new features. Concretely, \( p \) is linearly increased throughout the training to reach \( p_{\text{max}} \), a hyperparameter. Note that the resulting gradual learning of new features, independently from each other, promotes also feature disentanglement, which was found to be beneficial for visual reasoning [64]. We use different identification and corruption methods to increase the diversity of the corrupted datapoints used to train the model and prevent overfitting. We also found that sampling multiple methods leads to better empirical results. It should also be noted that COLUMBUS is adaptive to the model’s learning, since the identification step is model-state-specific. In other words, if the model forgets a set of features during training, these will not be identified (again), and hence will not be corrupted (again), which enables the model to relearn them.

The model parameters \( \theta \) are updated by minimizing a loss function \( f \) using a gradient-based optimization algorithm, e.g., Adam [65]. In algorithm 1, SGD is used for simplicity of notation. The loss function \( f \) used is a weighted sum comprising a classification loss \( L_{\text{cls}} \) and a domain-alignment regularization loss term \( L_{\text{DA}} \). Formally,

\[
f = L_{\text{cls}} + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} \sum_{j=1}^{N} L_{\text{DA}}(i, j), \tag{4}
\]

where \( \lambda \) is a weighting factor and \( N_s \) the number of source domains. We use cross-entropy as classification loss \( L_{\text{cls}} \). \( L_{\text{DA}} \) regularizes the embedding space by minimizing the \( l_2 \)-norm between the domain-specific embedding means and covariance matrices for each pair of source domains \( i \) and \( j \), as in DDC [16] and CORAL [17] respectively. The normalization of the regularization loss by the number of source domain pairs is omitted for simplicity of notation. We note that, unlike prior works [10], [16], [17] that apply this loss on the representations of the original images, we use corrupted images and representations. This leads to an alignment in the embedding space not only across the domains, but also between class-specific features, e.g., by minimizing the difference between the embedding distribution of cartoon images of elephant feet and art painting images of elephant trunks.

| Algorithm 1 The COLUMBUS training procedure |
|---------------------------------------------|
| **Require:** \( D_s \): Training data of all source domains |
| **Require:** \( f \): Loss function |
| **Require:** \( \alpha \): Learning rate |
| **Require:** \( L \): Set of representation levels including the raw input level |
| **Require:** \( A \): Set of relevance attribution methods |
| **Require:** \( C \): Set of corruption methods |
| **Require:** \( p_{\text{max}} \): Max. \% of representation to be corrupted |
| 1: Initialize the model parameters \( \theta \) randomly or from a pre-trained model |
| 2: Initialize the \% of representation to be corrupted \( p = 0 \) |
| 3: while not done do |
| 4: Sample a data batch \( B = \{X, y\} \) from \( D_s \) |
| 5: Sample level of representation \( l \) from \( L \) |
| 6: Feed \( B \) through the model parametrized by \( \theta \) |
| 7: Get the relevance attribution map \( M_l \) by applying a relevance attribution method randomly sampled from \( A \) on level \( l \) using the current model parameters \( \theta \) |
| 8: if \( l = 0 \) then |
| 9: Corrupt the values in \( B \) corresponding to the \( p\% \) highest values in \( M_0 \) by applying a corruption method randomly sampled from \( C \), yielding the corrupted input \( B_c \) |
| 10: Feed \( B_c \) through the model to obtain the predictions \( \hat{y} \) |
| 11: else |
| 12: Feed \( B \) through the model until level \( l \) to obtain the representation \( R_l \) |
| 13: Corrupt the values in \( R_l \) corresponding to the \( p\% \) highest values in \( M_l \), yielding the corrupted representation \( R_{l,c} \) |
| 14: Feed \( R_{l,c} \) through the model starting from level \( l+1 \) to obtain the predictions \( \hat{y} \) |
| 15: end if |
| 16: Update \( \theta \): \( \theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla \theta f(y, \hat{y}) \) |
| 17: Increase \( p \) linearly towards \( p_{\text{max}} \) |
| 18: end while |
| **return** Learned model parameters \( \theta \) |
In our experiments, we corrupt $q\%$ of the sampled data batch in each iteration, and increase $q$ linearly during the training until $q_{\text{max}}$ is reached, as done for the representation percentage to be corrupted $p$. This is omitted in Algorithm 1 for simplicity of notation. During training, we alternate between sampling an intermediate representation and the raw input for corruption. The intermediate representations correspond to the outputs of each ResNet block in the used ResNet-50 model [66]. At test time, the model trained with COLUMBUS is applied to the data from the target domains without any corruption.

IV. EXPERIMENTS

A. Experimental Setup

We evaluate our approach empirically* on the recently proposed DOMAINEBED framework [10] which includes several DG datasets, implementations of DG algorithms, and model selection methods. DOMAINEBED promotes a fair and reproducible comparison of the different approaches by including a common automated hyperparameter search, i.e., a random search with the given seeds conducts the same experiments for all methods. For a fair comparison with the 18 DG algorithms, our experiments follow the same experimental setting adopted in DOMAINEBED [10]: We use a ResNet-50 model [66] pre-trained on ImageNet [67] with frozen batch normalization [68] statistics as suggested in [69], the same optimization algorithm, data augmentation techniques and number of training iterations used in DOMAINEBED. The COLUMBUS-specific hyperparameters $p_{\text{max}}$, $q_{\text{max}}$, and $\lambda$ are included in the hyperparameter search of DOMAINEBED, and the intervals used can be found in the Appendix. We noticed that the published code [10] with the provided seeds does not enable the reproduction of the published results, since the resulting points in the hyperparameter search space are different from the ones used for the published experiments. Therefore, for a fairer comparison, we additionally rerun the experiments of the best performing DG method in DOMAINEBED, i.e., CORAL, with the published code and seeds that we used for COLUMBUS.

We conduct experiments on 3 challenging multi-domain datasets commonly used as DG benchmarks: VLCS [70], OfficeHome [71] and PACS [72]. VLCS contains images belonging to 5 classes from 4 photographic domains: VOC2007 (V), LabelMe (L), Caltech101 (C), and SUN09 (S). OfficeHome consists of images of 65 classes from the domains Art (A), Clipart (C), Product (P), and Real (R). PACS comprises images belonging to 7 classes from the domains Art-painting (A), Cartoon (C), Photo (P), and Sketch (S). DOMAINEBED splits each source domain data into 80% for training and 20% for validation. Each experiment is run with the provided 3 seeds.

B. Results

Tables I, II and III show the results averaged over the 3 seeds pre-determined by DOMAINEBED, on VLCS, PACS and OfficeHome respectively. Hereby, the unseen target domain is defined by the column name, i.e., the 3 other domains are used as source domains for training. The test accuracy is computed on the test set of the target domain. We provide results including standard deviations in the appendix. The average results over the domains of each dataset can be seen in Table IV. We select the model with the highest source-domain validation performance for the evaluation on the target domain.

TABLE I

| Algorithm | C | L | S | V | Avg |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|-----|
| ERM       | 97.7 | 64.3 | 73.4 | 74.6 | 77.5 |
| IRM       | 98.6 | 64.9 | 73.4 | 77.3 | 78.5 |
| GroupDRO  | 97.3 | 63.4 | 69.5 | 76.7 | 76.7 |
| Mixup     | 98.3 | 64.8 | 72.1 | 74.3 | 77.4 |
| MLDG      | 97.4 | 65.2 | 71.0 | 75.3 | 77.2 |
| CORAL     | 98.3 | 66.1 | 73.4 | 77.5 | 78.8 |
| MMD       | 97.7 | 64.0 | 72.8 | 75.3 | 77.5 |
| DANN      | 99.0 | 65.1 | 73.1 | 77.2 | 78.6 |
| CDANN     | 97.1 | 65.1 | 70.7 | 77.1 | 77.5 |
| MTL       | 97.8 | 64.3 | 71.5 | 75.3 | 77.2 |
| SagNet    | 97.9 | 64.5 | 71.4 | 77.5 | 77.8 |
| ARM       | 98.7 | 63.6 | 71.3 | 76.7 | 77.6 |
| VREx      | 98.4 | 64.4 | 74.1 | 76.2 | 78.3 |
| RSC       | 97.9 | 62.5 | 72.3 | 75.6 | 77.1 |

CORAL† 97.3 | 65.2 | 71.5 | 75.6 | 77.4 |

COLUMBUS 98.9 | 65.0 | 75.0 | 77.9 | 79.2

TABLE II

| Algorithm | A | C | P | S | Avg |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|-----|
| ERM       | 84.7 | 80.8 | 97.2 | 79.3 | 85.5 |
| IRM       | 84.8 | 76.4 | 96.7 | 76.1 | 83.5 |
| GroupDRO  | 83.5 | 79.1 | 96.7 | 78.3 | 84.4 |
| Mixup     | 86.1 | 78.9 | 97.6 | 75.8 | 84.6 |
| MLDG      | 85.5 | 80.1 | 97.4 | 76.6 | 84.9 |
| CORAL     | 88.3 | 80.0 | 97.5 | 78.8 | 86.2 |
| MMD       | 86.1 | 79.4 | 96.6 | 76.5 | 84.6 |
| DANN      | 86.4 | 77.4 | 97.3 | 73.5 | 83.6 |
| CDANN     | 84.6 | 75.5 | 96.8 | 73.5 | 82.6 |
| MTL       | 87.5 | 77.1 | 96.4 | 77.3 | 84.6 |
| SagNet    | 87.4 | 80.7 | 97.1 | 80.0 | 86.3 |
| ARM       | 86.8 | 76.8 | 97.4 | 79.3 | 85.1 |
| VREx      | 86.0 | 79.1 | 96.9 | 77.7 | 84.9 |
| RSC       | 85.4 | 79.7 | 97.6 | 78.2 | 85.2 |

CORAL† 87.4 | 79.4 | 97.5 | 73.9 | 84.5 |

COLUMBUS 88.7 | 78.7 | 97.2 | 81.5 | 86.5 |

COLUMBUS achieves the highest results on all datasets on average, advancing the state-of-the-art by 1.6% and 1.2% compared to ERM and CORAL respectively. We note an impressive 5.5% improvement on OfficeHome’s most challenging domain Clipart (C) compared to ERM and 3.3% compared to CORAL, on this 65-class classification task. Likewise, on the Art (A) domain of PACS, substantial 4% and 1.3% increases are observed compared to ERM and CORAL respectively. A significant performance increase is achieved

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*Code under https://github.com/AhmedFrikha/columbus-domainbed.

†Results yielded by using published code [10] with the provided seeds.
TABLE III
DOMAIN GENERALIZATION RESULTS ON OFFICE HOME.

| Algorithm       | A  | C  | P  | R  | Avg |
|-----------------|----|----|----|----|-----|
| ERM             | 61.3 | 52.4 | 75.8 | 76.6 | 66.5 |
| IRM             | 58.9 | 52.2 | 72.1 | 74.0 | 64.3 |
| GroupDRO        | 60.4 | 52.7 | 73.0 | 76.0 | 66.0 |
| Mixup           | 62.4 | 54.8 | 76.9 | 78.3 | 68.1 |
| MLDG            | 61.5 | 53.2 | 75.0 | 77.5 | 66.8 |
| CORAL           | 65.3 | 54.4 | 76.5 | 78.4 | 68.7 |
| MMD             | 60.4 | 53.3 | 74.3 | 77.4 | 66.3 |
| DANN            | 59.9 | 53.0 | 73.6 | 76.9 | 65.9 |
| CDANN           | 61.5 | 50.4 | 74.4 | 76.6 | 65.8 |
| MTL             | 61.5 | 52.4 | 74.9 | 76.8 | 66.4 |
| SagNet          | 63.4 | 54.8 | 75.8 | 78.3 | 68.1 |
| ARM             | 58.9 | 51.0 | 74.1 | 75.2 | 64.8 |
| VREx            | 60.7 | 53.0 | 75.3 | 76.6 | 66.4 |
| RSC             | 60.7 | 51.4 | 74.8 | 75.1 | 65.5 |

| COLUMBUS        | 62.8 | 57.9 | 75.5 | 77.9 | 68.5 |

TABLE IV
AVERAGE DOMAIN GENERALIZATION RESULTS.

| Algorithm       | VLCS | PACS | OfficeHome | Avg |
|-----------------|------|------|------------|-----|
| ERM             | 77.5 ± 0.4 | 85.5 ± 0.2 | 66.5 ± 0.3 | 76.5 |
| IRM             | 78.5 ± 0.5 | 83.5 ± 0.8 | 64.3 ± 2.2 | 75.5 |
| GroupDRO        | 76.7 ± 0.6 | 84.4 ± 0.8 | 66.0 ± 0.7 | 75.7 |
| Mixup           | 77.4 ± 0.6 | 84.6 ± 0.6 | 68.1 ± 0.3 | 76.7 |
| MLDG            | 77.2 ± 0.4 | 84.9 ± 1.0 | 66.8 ± 0.6 | 76.3 |
| CORAL           | 78.8 ± 0.6 | 86.2 ± 0.3 | 68.7 ± 0.3 | 77.9 |
| MMD             | 77.5 ± 0.9 | 84.6 ± 0.5 | 66.3 ± 0.1 | 76.2 |
| DANN            | 87.6 ± 0.4 | 83.6 ± 0.4 | 65.9 ± 0.6 | 76.0 |
| CDANN           | 77.5 ± 0.1 | 82.6 ± 0.9 | 65.8 ± 1.3 | 75.3 |
| MTL             | 77.2 ± 0.4 | 84.6 ± 0.5 | 66.4 ± 0.5 | 76.1 |
| SagNet          | 77.8 ± 0.5 | 86.3 ± 0.2 | 68.1 ± 0.1 | 77.4 |
| ARM             | 77.6 ± 0.3 | 85.1 ± 0.4 | 64.8 ± 0.3 | 75.8 |
| VREx            | 78.3 ± 0.2 | 84.9 ± 0.6 | 66.4 ± 0.6 | 76.5 |
| RSC             | 77.1 ± 0.5 | 85.2 ± 0.9 | 65.5 ± 0.9 | 75.9 |
| SelReg          | 77.8 ± 0.9 | 85.6 ± 0.4 | 67.9 ± 0.7 | 77.1 |
| Fish            | 77.8 ± 0.3 | 85.5 ± 0.3 | 68.6 ± 0.4 | 77.3 |
| AND-mask        | 78.1 ± 0.9 | 84.4 ± 0.9 | 65.6 ± 0.4 | 76.0 |
| SAND-mask       | 77.4 ± 0.2 | 84.6 ± 0.9 | 65.8 ± 0.4 | 75.9 |

| COLUMBUS        | 79.2 ± 0.2 | 86.5 ± 0.4 | 68.5 ± 0.4 | 78.1 |

TABLE V
DOMAIN GENERALIZATION RESULTS USING THE TEST-DOMAIN VALIDATION SET (ORACLE) AS A SELECTION METHOD.

| Algorithm       | VLCS | PACS | OfficeHome | Avg |
|-----------------|------|------|------------|-----|
| ERM             | 77.6 ± 0.3 | 86.7 ± 0.3 | 66.4 ± 0.5 | 76.9 |
| IRM             | 76.9 ± 0.6 | 84.5 ± 1.1 | 63.0 ± 2.7 | 74.8 |
| GroupDRO        | 77.4 ± 0.5 | 87.1 ± 0.1 | 66.2 ± 0.6 | 76.9 |
| Mixup           | 78.1 ± 0.3 | 86.8 ± 0.3 | 68.0 ± 0.2 | 77.6 |
| MLDG            | 77.5 ± 0.1 | 86.8 ± 0.4 | 66.6 ± 0.3 | 77.0 |
| CORAL           | 77.7 ± 0.2 | 87.1 ± 0.5 | 68.4 ± 0.2 | 77.7 |
| MMD             | 77.9 ± 0.1 | 87.2 ± 0.1 | 66.2 ± 0.3 | 77.1 |
| DANN            | 79.7 ± 0.5 | 85.2 ± 0.2 | 65.3 ± 0.8 | 76.8 |
| CDANN           | 79.9 ± 0.2 | 85.8 ± 0.8 | 65.3 ± 0.5 | 77.0 |
| MTL             | 77.7 ± 0.5 | 86.7 ± 0.2 | 66.5 ± 0.4 | 77.0 |
| SagNet          | 77.6 ± 0.1 | 86.4 ± 0.4 | 67.5 ± 0.2 | 77.2 |
| ARM             | 77.8 ± 0.3 | 85.8 ± 0.2 | 64.8 ± 0.4 | 76.1 |
| VREx            | 78.1 ± 0.2 | 87.2 ± 0.6 | 65.7 ± 0.3 | 77.0 |
| RSC             | 77.8 ± 0.6 | 86.2 ± 0.5 | 66.5 ± 0.6 | 76.8 |
| AND-mask        | 76.4 ± 0.4 | 86.4 ± 0.4 | 66.1 ± 0.2 | 76.3 |
| SAND-mask       | 76.2 ± 0.5 | 85.9 ± 0.4 | 65.9 ± 0.5 | 76.0 |

| COLUMBUS        | 77.4 ± 0.6 | 85.6 ± 0.8 | 68.4 ± 0.4 | 77.1 |

V. CONCLUSION

In this work, we proposed COLUMBUS, a novel and strong domain generalization (DG) approach that enforces new feature discovery to improve the transfer to a wider set of unseen domains. During training, COLUMBUS corrupts the input and multi-level representations of the data most relevant for the model. For the identification of such features, relevance attribution methods that are usually used for model explainability purposes are leveraged. Our extensive empirical evaluation on DOMAINBED demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed method, which outperforms 18 DG algorithms and achieves new state-of-the-art results on multiple DG benchmarks. Our results show that the richer set of learned features improves the generalization to unseen data from both seen and unseen domains, suggesting the suitability of our approach for applications beyond domain generalization to include scenarios without domain shift.
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