

An Introduction to Bayesian Neural Network and Uncertainty Quantification in Deep Learning

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► Code and Extra



Outline

1 Introduction

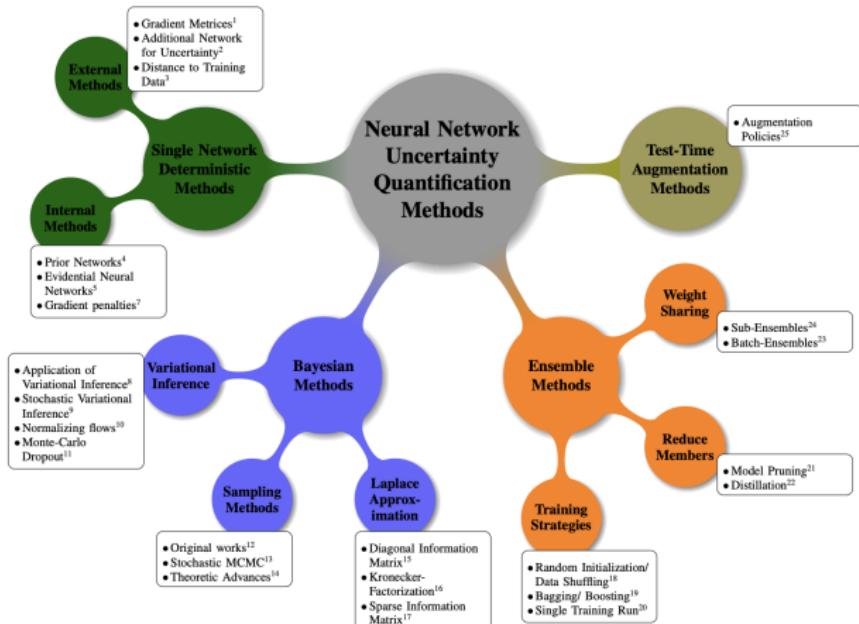
2 Bayesian methods meet Neural Networks

- Predictive distribution
- Variational Inference

3 Further topics

Introduction

- Many advances in Deep Learning, deployed in real-life settings
- Safety-Critical domains requires reliable uncertainty estimates



¹Jakob Gawlikowski et al. A survey of uncertainty in deep neural networks. 2021.

Plan

- Recap on Neural Network training from a probabilistic perspective
- Introduction to uncertainty
- Introduction to Bayesian Neural Network
- Introduction to Variational Inference
- Examples and other approaches to uncertainty quantification

Recap on Neural Network

- Given a dataset: $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ of input-output pairs
- We define a parametric function (aka a Neural Net) $\hat{y} \equiv f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$ for describing \mathcal{D}
- Problem:** how to chose \mathbf{w} so that $\hat{y}_i(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is close to y_i for all input-output pairs of \mathcal{D} ?

Neural Networks Training

- Introduce a loss function $\mathcal{L}(y; \hat{y})$ and minimize it:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(y; \hat{y}) \quad (1)$$

- A common choice for regression is the sum of squared error:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}))^2 \quad (2)$$

- To control over-fitting add a regularization term:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}(y_i; \hat{y}_i) + \lambda |\mathbf{w}|_2^\alpha \right] \quad (3)$$

- Setting $\alpha = 2$ leads to the L2 or Ridge regularization, $\alpha = 1$ to L1

Neural Networks Training: Probabilistic perspective

- We may explicitly model the **aleatoric noise** ϵ inherent to the data

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{x}) \quad (4)$$

- One common assumption is gaussian noise $\epsilon(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
- The loss function is viewed as the negative log likelihood $p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{w}, I)$:
- Under the assumption of i.i.d. additive gaussian noise the likelihood and the loss function are :

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{N}(y_i | f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \sigma^2) \quad (5)$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}))^2 + \text{const.} \quad (6)$$

Neural Networks Training: Probabilistic perspective II

- Similarly, the regularizer is interpreted as a log-prior probability distribution over the models' parameters $p(\mathbf{w}|I)$.
- Using Bayes Theorem we obtain the posterior distribution over the parameters:

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D}, I) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{w}, I)p(\mathbf{w}|I)}{p(\mathcal{D})} \quad (7)$$

- The optimal $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ is obtained by maximizing the log posterior :

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} [\log(p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{w}, I)) + \log(p(\mathbf{w}|I)) + \text{const.}] \quad (8)$$

- The adoption of a normal distribution as prior recovers the L2 regularization term, while a Laplace distribution recovers the L1.

Introduction to Bayesian Neural Networks

- At the end of the training we have a point estimate for the parameters \hat{w}
- **Goal:** Quantifying uncertainty on the prediction of unseen inputs x^*
- Deep Neural Networks do not fully capture uncertainty^{2 3}
- We have to take into account the **epistemic or model uncertainty** arising from the uncertainty associated to \hat{w}

When combined with probability theory NN can capture uncertainty in a principled way: Bayesian Neural Network

²Yarin Gal and Zoubin Ghahramani. *Dropout as a bayesian approximation: Representing model uncertainty in deep learning.* 2016.

³Andrew G Wilson and Pavel Izmailov. *Bayesian deep learning and a probabilistic perspective of generalization.* 2020.

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Predictive distribution

- Bayesian inference starts from a model $p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, I)$ and the posterior $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})$
- The prediction for a new input \mathbf{x}^* is given by the predictive distribution:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}^*, \mathcal{D}, I) = \int p(y|\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{w}, I)p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})d\mathbf{w} \quad (9)$$

- It is a Bayesian model average of many models, weighted by their posterior probabilities
- The non Bayesian predictions are recovered if
 $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D}) \sim \delta(\mathbf{w} - \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\text{MAP}})$

Predictive distribution II

- Eq. (9) is the core of Bayesian NN: marginalize over the posterior distribution of the weights rather than optimize it!
- **Problem:** It is highly non trivial to evaluate the predictive distribution
- **Warning:** We need to decouple the epistemic and aleatoric uncertainty in the predictive distribution
- **Warning:** Small uncertainties do not imply good predictive performance

To get some insights let's start from the simplest NN: Linear Regression

Interlude: Linear Regression

- Data : $y = 1 + x + x^2$ and noise $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 = 1)$
- Model: $y(x) = w_1 + w_2x + w_3x^2 = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(x)$, homeschedastic gaussian noise, gaussian prior
- Log-posterior of the model:

$$\log(p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(x_i))^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}; \quad \lambda = 0.001 \quad (10)$$

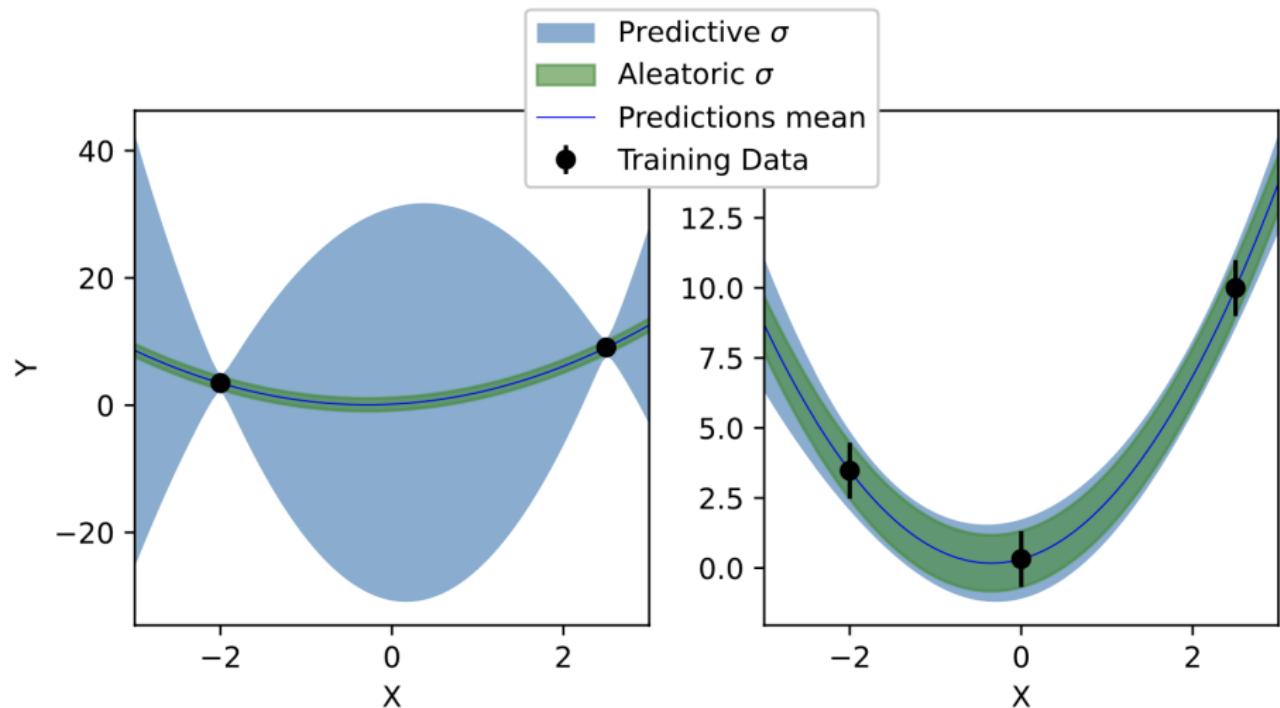
- It is possible to show that the predictive distribution is given by⁴:

$$p(y|x, \mathcal{D}, \sigma_p^2) = \mathcal{N}(y | \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\text{MAP}}^T \phi(x), \sigma_p^2) \quad (11)$$

$$\sigma_p^2 = \underbrace{\sigma^2}_{\text{Aleatoric}} + \underbrace{\phi(x)^T \mathbf{S} \phi(x)}_{\text{Epistemic}} \quad (12)$$

⁴C. Bishop. *Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning*. 2006.

Interlude: Linear Regression II



Evaluating the predictive distribution

$$P(y|\mathbf{x}^*, \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y|\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^*)p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})d\mathbf{w} \quad (13)$$

- **Problem:** It is highly non trivial to evaluate the predictive distribution
- Many possible **approaches**:
 - MCMC
 - Laplace approximation
 - Variational Inference
- **Variational Inference:** Approximate the posterior $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})$ with a tractable p.d.f. $q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$
- **Problem:** We need to adjust $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ to get the best approximation

Variational Inference I

- The objective function for measuring the quality of the approximation may be derived from the Kullback-Leibler divergence:

$$\text{KL} [q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})] = \int q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \log \frac{q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})} d\mathbf{w}$$

- Using Bayes' theorem $p(w|\mathcal{D}) = (p(\mathcal{D}|w)p(w))/p(\mathcal{D})$ and re-arranging the terms we obtain:

$$\int q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \log p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} - \text{KL} [q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\mathbf{w})] = \log(p(\mathcal{D})) - \text{KL} [q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})]$$

Variational Inference II

$$\int q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \log p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} - \text{KL}[q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\mathbf{w})] = \log(p(\mathcal{D})) - \text{KL}[q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})]$$

- The last term is positive and $\log(p(\mathcal{D}))$ is constant so:

$$\int q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \log p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} - \text{KL}[q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\mathbf{w})] \leq \log(p(\mathcal{D}))$$

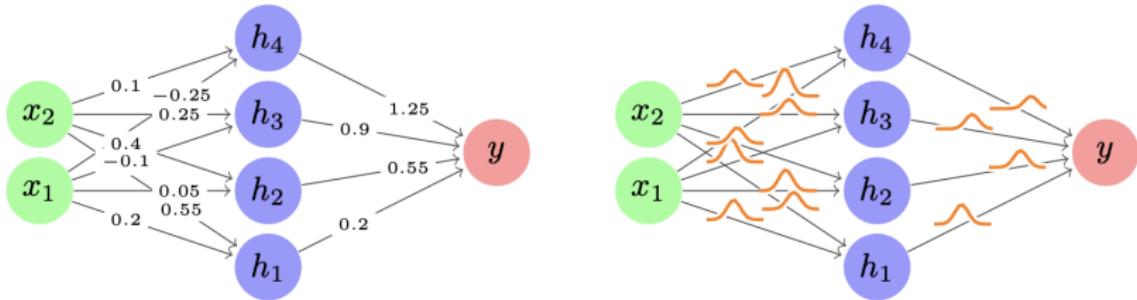
- The left hand side term will be our objective function, known as variational free energy or ELBO :

$$\mathcal{F}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \text{KL}[q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\mathbf{w})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log(p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{w}))]$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{F}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Variational Inference III

- Common choice is a diagonal gaussian distribution as approximant distribution (Mean Field Approximation)
- Backpropagation-compatible algorithm⁵



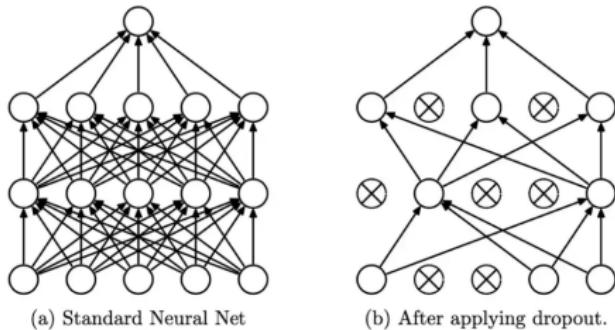
- The predictive distribution for a given input \mathbf{x}^* is approximate as:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}^*) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p(y|\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{w}_i); \quad \mathbf{w}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}) \quad (14)$$

⁵Charles Blundell et al. *Weight uncertainty in neural network*. PMLR, 2015.

MC-Dropout

- Drop out each hidden unit by sampling from a Bernoulli distribution N times^{6 7}:



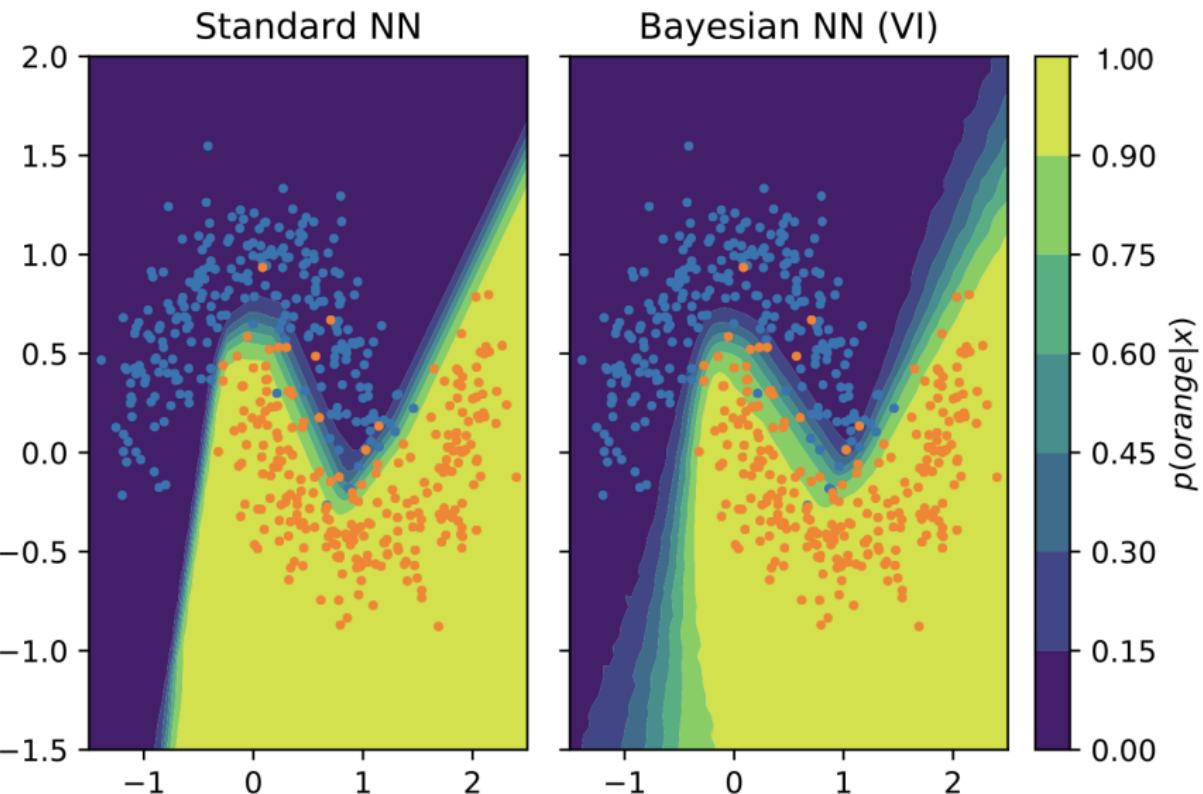
$$p(y|\boldsymbol{x}^*) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p(y|\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{w}_i) \quad (15)$$

- Applicable also to Recurrent Neural Networks

⁶Gal and Ghahramani, *Dropout as a bayesian approximation: Representing model uncertainty in deep learning*.

⁷Yarin Gal, Jiri Hron, and Alex Kendall. *Concrete dropout*. 2017.

Interlude: NN for classification



Epistemic and Aleatoric decoupling: Regression

- Denoting the predictive distribution as $p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})$ and the predictive variance as $\text{Var}[y]$:

$$\text{Var}[y] = \underbrace{\text{Var}_{p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})}[\mathbb{E}_{p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})}[y]]}_{\text{Epistemic}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})}[\text{Var}_{p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})}[y]]}_{\text{Aleatoric}} \quad (16)$$

- For instance, homoschedastic gaussian noise and MC-dropout:

$$\mathbb{E}[y] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_i) \quad (17)$$

$$\text{Var}[y] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_i) - \mathbb{E}[y])^2 + \sigma^2 \quad (18)$$

Epistemic and Aleatoric decoupling: Classification

- Typically a NN is trained to predict the posterior distribution over K exclusive and exhaustive classes, through the softmax activation function
- The total uncertainty can be estimated through the Shannon Entropy:

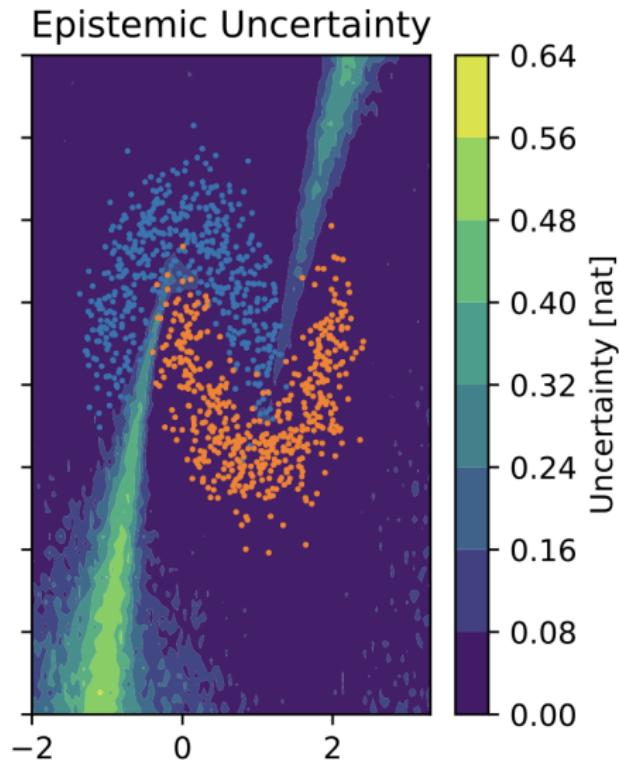
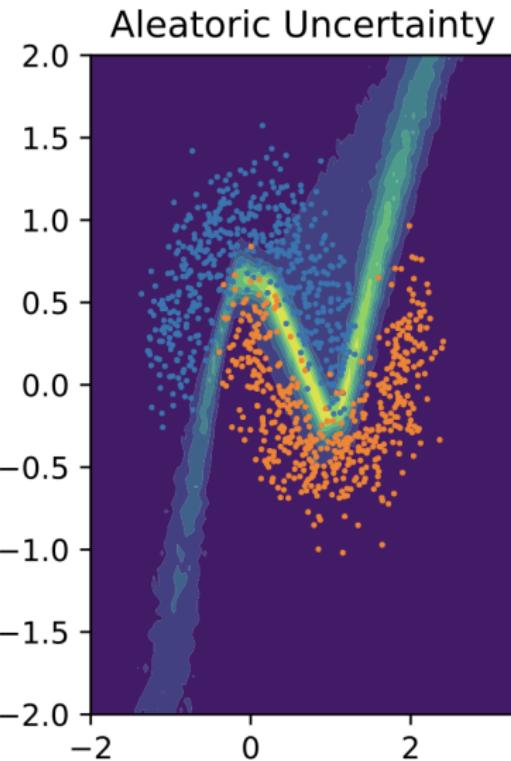
$$\mathbb{H}[\mathbf{y}] = \sum_i p(y_i) \ln(p(y_i)) \quad (19)$$

- Maximized in case of a flat distribution
- It can be decomposed as :

$$\mathbb{H}[p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})] = \underbrace{\mathbb{I}[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D}]}_{\text{Epistemic}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{w}|\mathcal{D})}[\mathbb{H}[p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})]]}_{\text{Aleatoric}} \quad (20)$$

where $\mathbb{I}[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D}]$ is the information gain about the model parameters

Epistemic and Aleatoric decoupling: Classification



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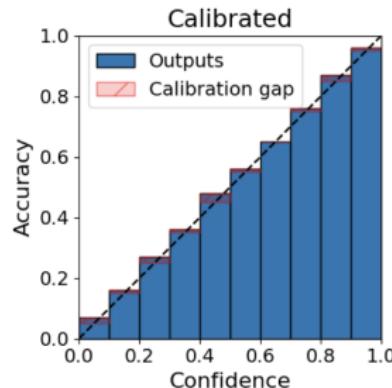
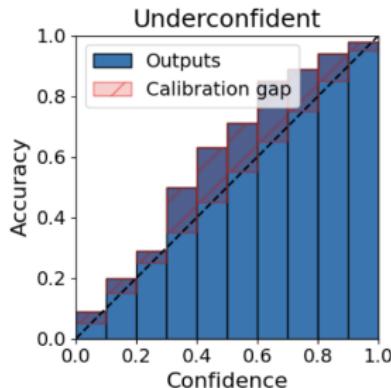
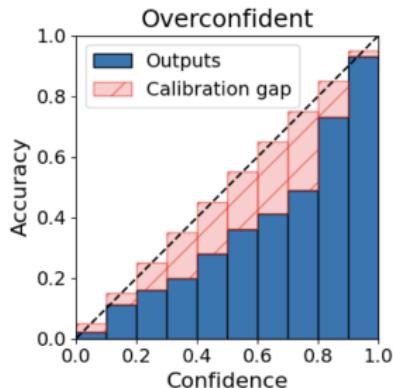
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Quality estimates

- Main idea: compute the predicted confidence interval, and count the percentage of ground-truth points that fall inside.
- For a calibrated model we expect, on average, $X\%$ of ground-truth points falling inside the predicted $X\%$ confidence intervals.
- For classification compare the predicted probabilities and the empirical frequency of correct labels.

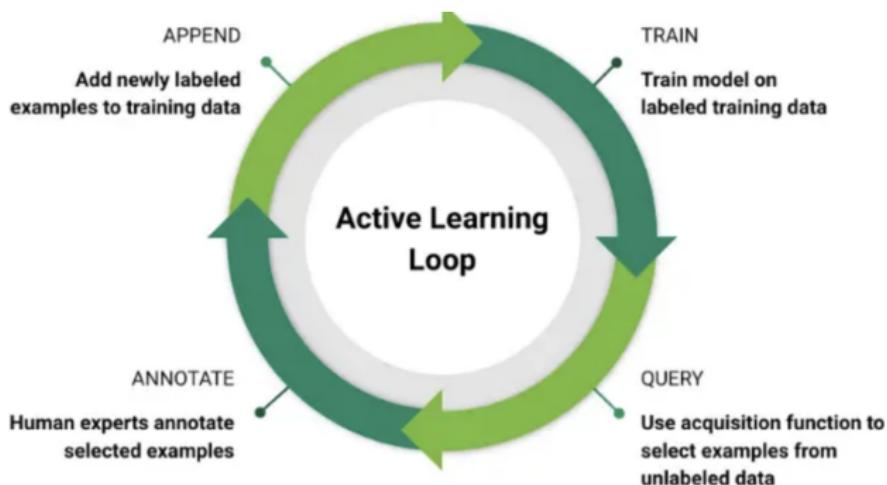


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⁸Gawlikowski et al., *A survey of uncertainty in deep neural networks*.

Interlude: Active Learning

- Deep learning often requires large amounts of labelled data
- Train a model by querying as few labelled data as possible
- Active Learning:



- Label only informative points: **epistemic uncertainty** (BALD)

Interlude: Active Learning II

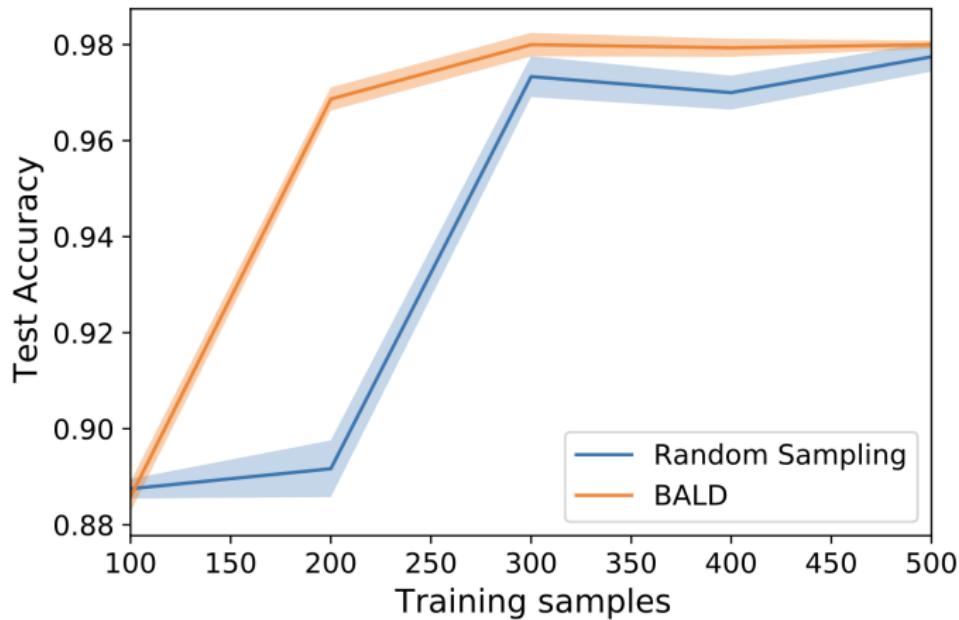


Figure: Mean test accuracy and standard deviation on the two moon dataset as a function of the training size. Results are averaged over multiple training loops.

Further Topics

- Deep Ensemble⁹
- MultiSWAG¹⁰
- Evidential Regression and classification^{11 12}
- Conformal prediction¹³
 - distribution-free uncertainty quantification method
 - provides prediction sets with guaranteed frequentist coverage probability. Even with a completely misspecified models!
 - cannot distinguish between epistemic and aleatoric uncertainty

⁹ Balaji Lakshminarayanan, Alexander Pritzel, and Charles Blundell. *Simple and scalable predictive uncertainty estimation using deep ensembles*. 2017.

¹⁰ Wilson and Izmailov, *Bayesian deep learning and a probabilistic perspective of generalization*.

¹¹ Alexander Amini et al. *Deep evidential regression*. 2020.

¹² Murat Sensoy, Lance Kaplan, and Melih Kandemir. *Evidential deep learning to quantify classification uncertainty*. 2018.

¹³ Anastasios N Angelopoulos and Stephen Bates. *A gentle introduction to conformal prediction and distribution-free uncertainty quantification*. 2021.

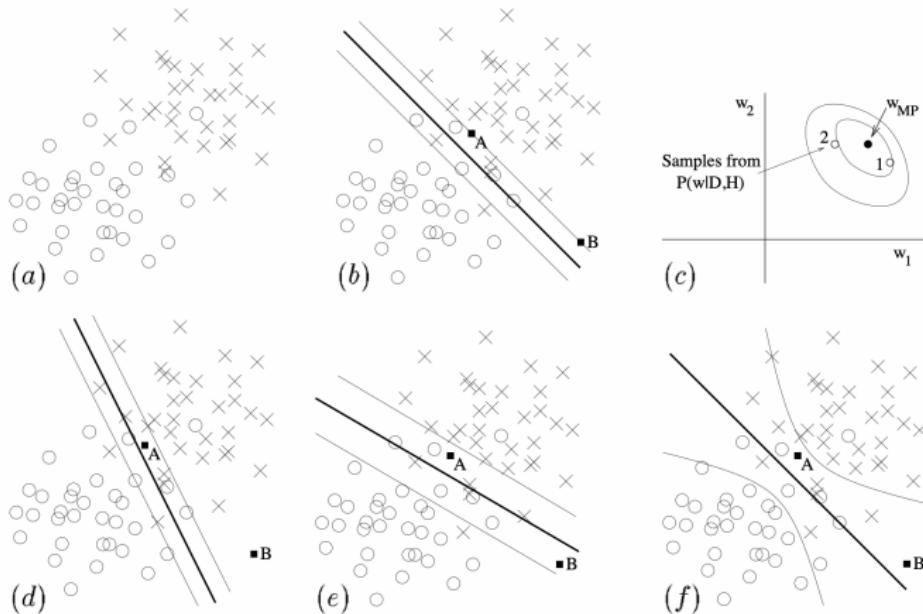
Further readings

- Books:
 - Information theory, inference and learning algorithms. MacKay, David JC. Cambridge university press, 2003.
 - Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Christopher M. Bishop. Springer New York, 2006
 - Probabilistic machine learning: an introduction. Kevin P. Murphy .MIT press, 2022.
 - Probabilistic machine learning: Advanced topics. Kevin P. Murphy. MIT Press, 2023.
- High Energy Physics applications:
 - Chapter 18 Artificial Intelligence for High Energy Physics. P. Calafiura, D. Rousseau, K. Terao. WorldScientific 2022
 - Bollweg, Sven, et al. "Deep-learning jets with uncertainties and more." SciPost Physics 8.1 2020
 - Araz, Jack Y., and Michael Spannowsky. "Combine and conquer: event reconstruction with Bayesian ensemble neural networks." Journal of High Energy Physics 2021.4

Thank you for your attention!

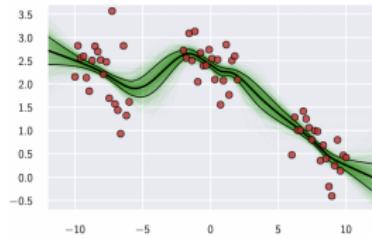
Backup: Overconfident classification

- From "Probable Networks and Plausible Predictions - A Review of Practical Bayesian Methods for Supervised Neural Networks" by David MacKay, 1996

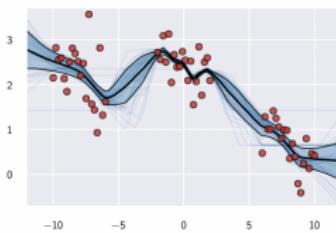


Backup: Regression

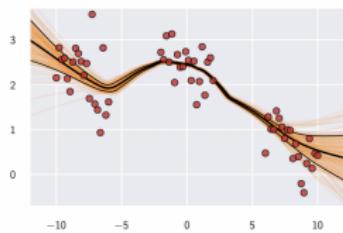
- From "Bayesian Deep Learning and a Probabilistic Perspective of Generalization" by Andrew Gordon Wilson Pavel Izmailov, 2022



(a) Exact



(b) Deep Ensembles



(c) Variational Inference

Bayes by Backprop

- For applying back-propagation we have to replace the derivative of an expectation with the expectation of the derivative

Proposition 1

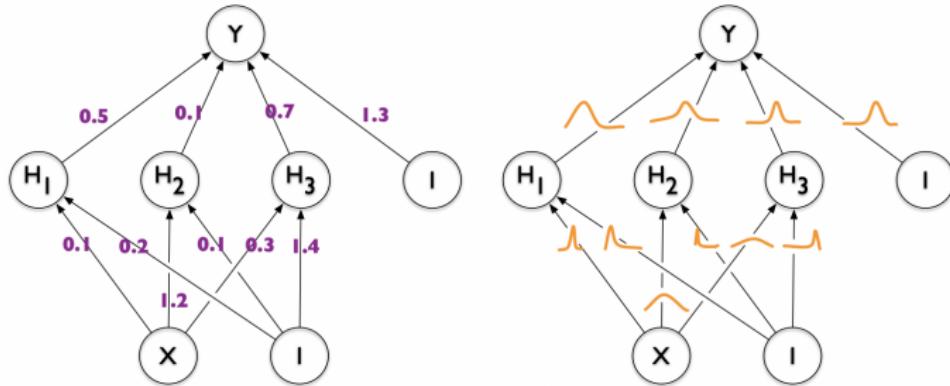
- Let ϵ a random variable with p.d.f. $q(\epsilon)$ and $\mathbf{w} = t(\theta, \epsilon)$ where t is a deterministic function
- Assuming that $q(\mathbf{w}|\theta)$ is such that $q(\epsilon)d\epsilon = q(\mathbf{w}|\theta)d\mathbf{w}$
- Then, for a function f with derivatives in \mathbf{w} we have:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{w}|\theta)}[f(\mathbf{w}, \theta)] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\epsilon)} \left[\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{w}, \theta)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{w}, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \right]$$

- Basically, It is a generalization of the "Reparametrization Trick"

Gaussian Variational Posterior

- Variational posterior is a diagonal gaussian distribution
- Parametrization trick: a sample of w is given by a deterministic function of a random variable: $w = t(\theta, \epsilon) = \mu + \log(1 + \exp(\rho))\epsilon$ where: $\epsilon \in \mathcal{N}(0, I)$
- The objective function is: $f(w, \theta) = \log q(w|\theta) - \log(P(w)P(D|w))$
- Update variational parameters: $\mu^* \leftarrow \mu - \alpha \Delta_\mu$; $\rho^* \leftarrow \rho - \alpha \Delta_\rho$



Backup: Reparametrization trick

- From "An Introduction to Variational Autoencoders" by Diederik P. Kingma and Max Welling, 2019

