

VIDY Reading Group Uncertainty Quantification: Theory & Algorithms

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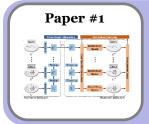
Roadmap





I. Background and Motivations

- ➤ What is uncertainty?
- ➤ Why is is important
- > Existing approaches



II. Dropout as a Bayesian Approximation: Representing Model Uncertainty in Deep Learning



III. Simple and Scalable Predictive Uncertainty Estimation using Deep Ensembles



IV. Conclusion



What is uncertainty?

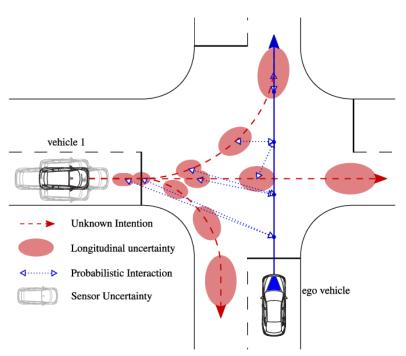
- First brought by **Frank Knight** in 1921
- ➤ **Uncertainty** is the inability to forecast the likelihood of events happening in the future.

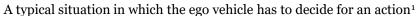


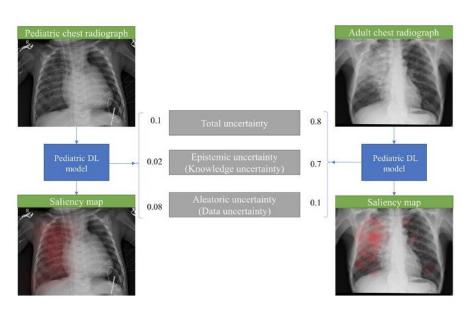
Frank Hyneman Knight (November 7, 1885 – April 15, 1972) was an American economist who spent most of his career at the University of Chicago. He is best known as the author of the book Risk, Uncertainty and Profit (1921), based on his PhD dissertation at Cornell University.

Why is it important?

- Uncertainty measures the reliability of model predictions.
- ➤ Many applications require safe and reliable predictions, and hence a certain level of self-awareness.







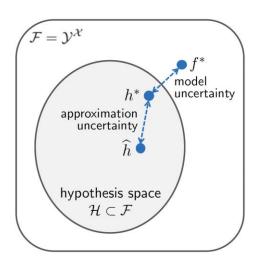
A typical situation in which the diagnosis model has to give prediction²

^{1.} Hubmann, Constantin et al. "Automated Driving in Uncertain Environments: Planning With Interaction and Uncertain Maneuver Prediction." *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Vehicles* 3 (2018): 5-17.

^{2.} Faghani S, Moassefi M, Rouzrokh P, Khosravi B, Baffour FI, Ringler MD, Erickson BJ. Quantifying Uncertainty in Deep Learning of Radiologic Images. Radiology. 2023 Aug;308(2):e222217. doi: 10.1148/radiol.222217. PMID: 37526541.

Where does uncertainty come from?

- Epistemic, reducible
 - ☐ Hypothesis
 - ☐ Approximation
- ➤ Aleatoric, irreducible
 - Data



$$f^*(\textbf{\textit{x}}) := \arg\min_{\hat{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \int_{\mathcal{Y}} \ell(y, \hat{y}) \, d\textbf{P}(y \, | \, \textbf{\textit{x}})$$

h* is the hypothesis chosen from the hypothesis space

h is the hypothesis of a learner, which aims to estimate h*

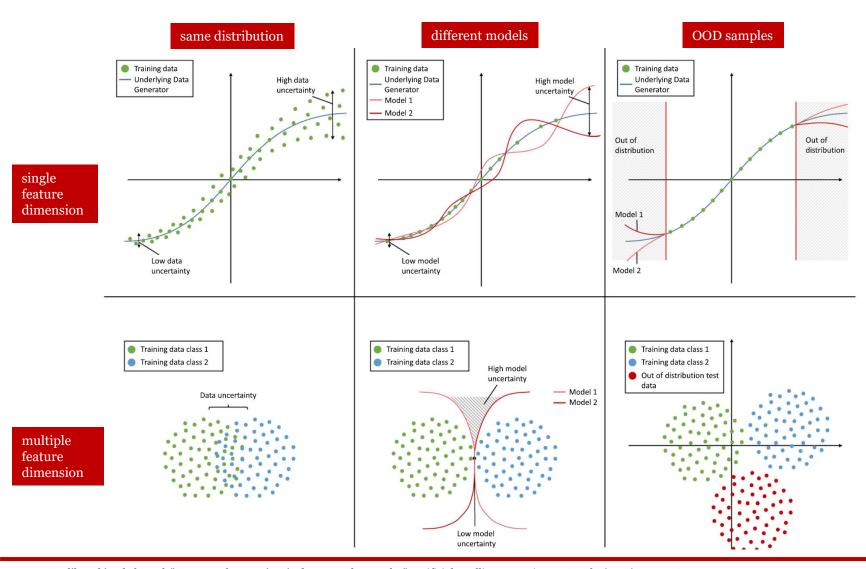
	point prediction	probability
ground truth	$f^*(x)$	$\mathbf{p}(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x})$
best possible	$h^*(x)$	$\mathbf{p}(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}, h^*)$
induced predictor	$\hat{h}(x)$	$\mathbf{p}(\cdot \boldsymbol{x}, \hat{h})$

PU = predictive uncertainty

EU epistemic uncertainty

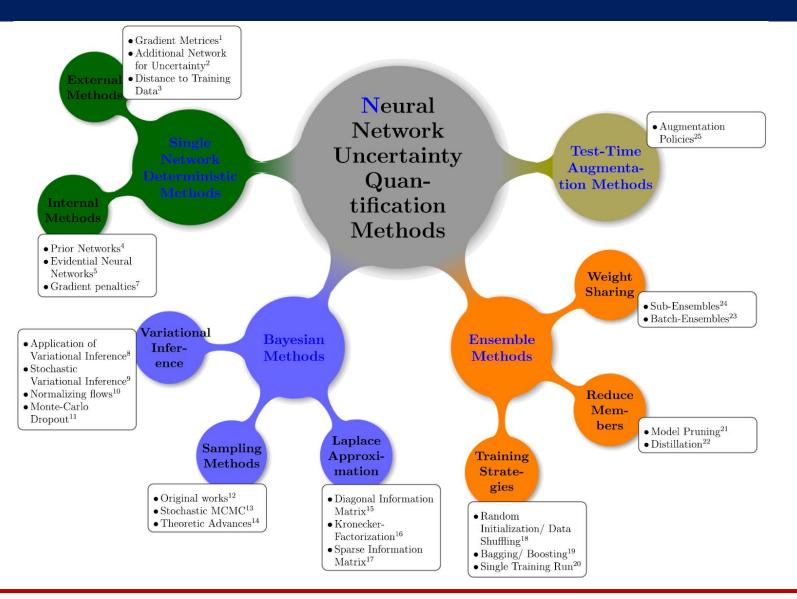
AU aleatoric uncertainty

Where does uncertainty come from?



Gawlikowski, Jakob, et al. "A survey of uncertainty in deep neural networks." Artificial Intelligence Review 56. Suppl 1 (2023): 1513-1589.

Approaches



Bayesian techniques

> EU can be formulated as a probability distribution over the model parameters.

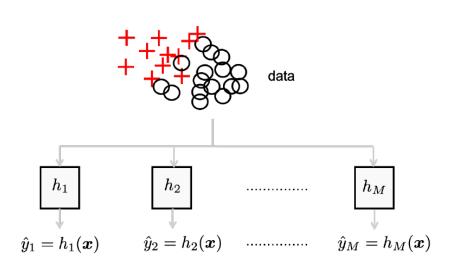
$$p(\omega|X,Y) = \frac{p(Y|X,\omega))p(\omega)}{p(Y|X)} = \frac{p(Y|X,\omega))p(\omega)}{\int p(Y|X,\omega)p(\omega)d\omega}$$

$$p(y^*|x^*,X,Y) = \int p(y^*|x^*,\omega)p(\omega|X,Y)d\omega$$
too costly

- > Use **variational distribution** to approximate
- > Use **sampling** to reconstruct.

Ensemble techniques

- ➤ Bayesian methods focus on sampling different parameters to represent uncertainty.
- Ensemble methods focus on training different models to represent uncertainty.

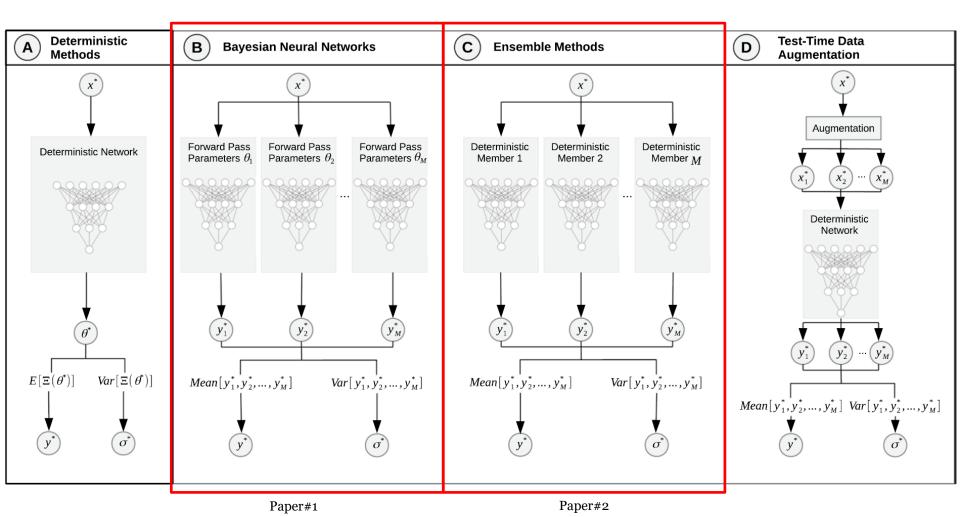


	<i>y</i> ₁	<i>y</i> ₂		УК	entropy
$h_1(\mathbf{x})$	$p_{1,1}$	$p_{1,2}$		$p_{1,K}$	<i>s</i> ₁
$h_2(\boldsymbol{x})$	$p_{2,1}$	$p_{2,2}$		$p_{2,K}$	<i>s</i> ₂
:	:	:	:	:	:
$h_M(x)$	$p_{M,1}$	$p_{M,2}$		$p_{M,K}$	s _M
h	p_1	p_2		p_K	s s

$$U(x) = s = \text{entropy of average probabilities}$$

 $AU(x) = \overline{s} = \text{average of entropies}$
 $EU(x) = U(x) - AU(x)$

Background and Motivations



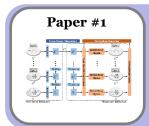
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Motivations

Dropout as a Bayesian Approximation: Representing Model Uncertainty in Deep Learning

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- Research Questions
 - ☐ How can we **represent model uncertainty** without sacrificing either **computational efficiency** or **accuracy**?
- > Problem Definition
 - ☐ **Given** a neural network with arbitrary depth and non-linearities.
 - ☐ **Find** whether dropout applied before each weight layer is **mathematically equivalent** to an approximation to the probabilistic deep Gaussian **process**.

Preliminaries

- > Notations
 - \Box \hat{y} is the output of a NN model with L layers and loss function $E(y, \hat{y})$
 - \square W_i is the weight matrices of dimensions $K_i \times K_{i-1}$
 - \Box b_i is the bias vectors of dimension K_i for each layer
 - $\Box L_{dropout} := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} E(y_i, \widehat{y}_i) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{L} (\|W_i\|_2^2 + \|b_i\|_2^2)$
 - \square Sample binary variables which take value 1 with probability p_i for layer i
 - $\square \ \omega = \{W_i\}_{i=1}^L$
 - \square Each row of W_i distribute according to the $p(\omega)$
 - \square m_i is vector of dimension K_i for each gaussian process layer.

Bayesian posterior

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) p(\boldsymbol{\omega}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) d\boldsymbol{\omega}$$

> First term can be written:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \widehat{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\omega}), \tau^{-1}\mathbf{I}_D)$$

Furthermore, the prediction can be written:

$$\widehat{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\omega} = \{\mathbf{W}_1, ..., \mathbf{W}_L\})$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{1}{K_L}} \mathbf{W}_L \sigma \left(... \sqrt{\frac{1}{K_1}} \mathbf{W}_2 \sigma (\mathbf{W}_1 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{m}_1) ... \right)$$

Second term is intractable

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) p(\boldsymbol{\omega}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) d\boldsymbol{\omega}$$

- > Use another distribution to approximate it.
- $> q(\omega)$ is a distribution whose columns are randomly set to zero:

$$\mathbf{W}_{i} = \mathbf{M}_{i} \cdot \operatorname{diag}([\mathbf{z}_{i,j}]_{j=1}^{K_{i}})$$

$$\mathbf{z}_{i,j} \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}(p_{i}) \text{ for } i = 1, ..., L, \ j = 1, ..., K_{i-1}$$

- \square p_i is Bernoulli probability
- \square M_i is the matrices of variational parameters.
- □ The binary variable $z_{i,j} = 0$ corresponds then to unit j in layer i 1 being dropped out as an input to layer i.

- \triangleright Now we get $q(\omega)$ to approximate posterior $p(\omega|X,Y)$
- We want $q(\omega)$ close to $p(\omega|X,Y)$, hence **KL divergence** is used to optimize $q(\omega)$:

$$KL(q(\omega)||p(\omega|X,Y) = \int q(\omega) \log \frac{q(\omega)}{p(\omega|X,Y)} d\omega$$

➤ Minimizing the KL divergence is equivalent to maximizing the **log evidence lower bound**:

$$-\int q(\omega) \log p(Y|X,\omega)d\omega + KL(q(\omega)||p(\omega))$$

How to minimize

$$-\int q(\omega) \log p(Y|X,\omega)d\omega + KL(q(\omega)||p(\omega))$$

> First term can be rewritten as:

$$-\sum_{n=1}^{N} \int q(\omega) \log p(y_n|x_n,\omega) d\omega$$

➤ Completely computation is costly, so we use MC integration to approximate it.

$$\widehat{\omega_n} \sim q(\omega)$$

$$\sim -\sum_{n=1}^N log p(y_n|x_n, \widehat{\omega_n})$$

> Second term can be rewritten as:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{L} \left(\frac{p_i l^2}{2} \|M_i\|_2^2 + \frac{l^2}{2} \|m_i\|_2^2\right)$$

- model precision τ
- length-scale $l, p_l(\omega) = N(\omega; 0, l^{-2}I_K)$, decouples precision from weight decays λ
- > Combined with first term and second term, we get:

$$\Box \ L_{GP-MC} \propto \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{-logp(y_n | x_n, \widehat{\omega_n})}{\tau} + \sum_{i=1}^{L} \left(\frac{p_i l^2}{2\tau N} \| M_i \|_2^2 + \frac{l^2}{2\tau N} \| m_i \|_2^2 \right)$$

- > Thus, by setting $E(y_n, \hat{y}(x_n, \widehat{\omega_n})) = \frac{-logp(y_n|x_n, \widehat{\omega_n})}{\tau}$, we can recover original loss function.
- > Finish proof.

Obtaining Model Uncertainty

> Recall the covariance function:

$$Var(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$$

➤ Since we get the proof, then the expectation can be written as:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{x}^*)}(\mathbf{y}^*) \approx \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \widehat{\mathbf{y}}^*(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{W}_1^t, ..., \mathbf{W}_L^t)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{x}^*)}((\mathbf{y}^*)^T(\mathbf{y}^*)) \approx \tau^{-1}\mathbf{I}_D$$

$$+ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \widehat{\mathbf{y}}^*(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{W}_1^t, ..., \mathbf{W}_L^t)^T \widehat{\mathbf{y}}^*(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{W}_1^t, ..., \mathbf{W}_L^t)$$

$$\operatorname{Var}_{q(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{x}^*)}(\mathbf{y}^*) \approx \tau^{-1} \mathbf{I}_D + \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \widehat{\mathbf{y}}^*(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{W}_1^t, ..., \mathbf{W}_L^t)^T \widehat{\mathbf{y}}^*(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{W}_1^t, ..., \mathbf{W}_L^t) \\ - \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{x}^*)}(\mathbf{y}^*)^T \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{x}^*)}(\mathbf{y}^*)$$

Predictive performance

➤ Dropout methods can achieve a competitive accuracy comparing to VI and PBP baselines

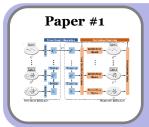
			Avg. Test RMSE and Std. Errors		Avg. Te	est LL and Std.	Errors	
Dataset	N	Q	VI	PBP	Dropout	VI	PBP	Dropout
Boston Housing	506	13	4.32 ± 0.29	3.01 ± 0.18	2.97 ± 0.19	-2.90 ± 0.07	-2.57 ± 0.09	-2.46 ± 0.06
Concrete Strength	1,030	8	7.19 ± 0.12	5.67 ± 0.09	5.23 ± 0.12	-3.39 ± 0.02	-3.16 ± 0.02	-3.04 ± 0.02
Energy Efficiency	768	8	2.65 ± 0.08	1.80 ± 0.05	1.66 ± 0.04	-2.39 ± 0.03	-2.04 ± 0.02	-1.99 ± 0.02
Kin8nm	8,192	8	0.10 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.00	0.90 ± 0.01	0.90 ± 0.01	0.95 ± 0.01
Naval Propulsion	11,934	16	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	3.73 ± 0.12	3.73 ± 0.01	3.80 ± 0.01
Power Plant	9,568	4	4.33 ± 0.04	4.12 ± 0.03	4.02 ± 0.04	-2.89 ± 0.01	-2.84 ± 0.01	-2.80 ± 0.01
Protein Structure	45,730	9	4.84 ± 0.03	4.73 ± 0.01	4.36 ± 0.01	-2.99 ± 0.01	-2.97 ± 0.00	-2.89 ± 0.00
Wine Quality Red	1,599	11	0.65 ± 0.01	0.64 ± 0.01	0.62 ± 0.01	-0.98 ± 0.01	-0.97 ± 0.01	-0.93 ± 0.01
Yacht Hydrodynamics	308	6	6.89 ± 0.67	1.02 ± 0.05	1.11 ± 0.09	-3.43 ± 0.16	-1.63 ± 0.02	-1.55 ± 0.03
Year Prediction MSD	515,345	90	$9.034 \pm NA$	$8.879 \pm NA$	8.849 ±NA	$-3.622 \pm NA$	$-3.603 \pm NA$	$-3.588 \pm NA$

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III. Simple and Scalable Predictive Uncertainty Estimation using Deep Ensembles



IV. Conclusion



Simple and Scalable Predictive Uncertainty Estimation using Deep Ensembles

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- > Research Questions
 - ☐ Dropout can be regarded as a form of ensemble
 - ☐ Can ensemble be an **alternative** for estimating uncertainty?
- Problem Definition
 - ☐ **Given** ensemble framework
 - ☐ **Find** whether **ensemble and adversarial training** can be used to estimate predictive uncertainty



Recipe

- ➤ This paper mainly focus on evaluating an ensemble framework's capability on representing uncertainty
- Essential steps
 - ☐ Choose a proper scoring rule as the training criterion
 - ☐ Likelihood/Softmax cross entropy
 - ☐ Use adversarial training argument samples to smooth the predictive distributions
 - \Box $x' = x + \epsilon sign(\nabla x l(\theta, x, y))$
 - ☐ Ensemble to calculate uncertainty
 - □ No bagging
 - □ Random initialization of different models
 - \square Minimize $l(\theta_m, x_{n_m}, y_{n_m}) + l(\theta_m, x_{n_m}', y_{n_m})$ for each learner

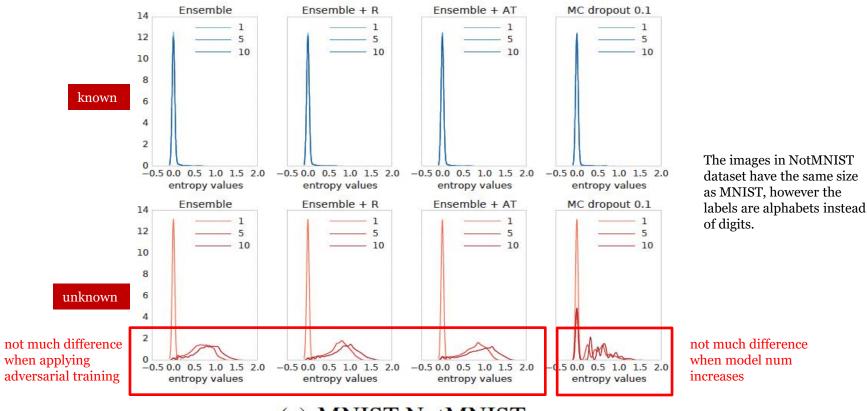
Regression on real world datasets

- ➤ Ensemble is competitive with PBP(probabilistic backpropagation) and MC-dropout in terms of NLL
- But is slightly worse in terms of RMSE
- ➤ No significant improvement compared to MC-dropout

Datasets	RMSE			NLL		
	PBP	MC-dropout	Deep Ensembles	PBP	MC-dropout	Deep Ensembles
Boston housing	3.01 ± 0.18	2.97 ± 0.85	$\textbf{3.28} \pm \textbf{1.00}$	2.57 ± 0.09	2.46 ± 0.25	$\textbf{2.41} \pm \textbf{0.25}$
Concrete	5.67 ± 0.09	$\textbf{5.23} \pm \textbf{0.53}$	6.03 ± 0.58	$\textbf{3.16} \pm \textbf{0.02}$	$\textbf{3.04} \pm \textbf{0.09}$	3.06 ± 0.18
Energy	$\textbf{1.80} \pm \textbf{0.05}$	$\pmb{1.66 \pm 0.19}$	$\textbf{2.09} \pm \textbf{0.29}$	2.04 ± 0.02	1.99 ± 0.09	$\textbf{1.38} \pm \textbf{0.22}$
Kin8nm	0.10 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.00	$\textbf{0.09} \pm \textbf{0.00}$	-0.90 ± 0.01	-0.95 ± 0.03	$\textbf{-1.20} \pm \textbf{0.02}$
Naval propulsion plant	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	$\textbf{0.00} \pm \textbf{0.00}$	-3.73 ± 0.01	-3.80 ± 0.05	$\textbf{-5.63} \pm \textbf{0.05}$
Power plant	$\textbf{4.12} \pm \textbf{0.03}$	$\textbf{4.02} \pm \textbf{0.18}$	$\textbf{4.11} \pm \textbf{0.17}$	2.84 ± 0.01	$\pmb{2.80 \pm 0.05}$	$\textbf{2.79} \pm \textbf{0.04}$
Protein	4.73 ± 0.01	$\textbf{4.36} \pm \textbf{0.04}$	4.71 ± 0.06	2.97 ± 0.00	2.89 ± 0.01	$\textbf{2.83} \pm \textbf{0.02}$
Wine	$\textbf{0.64} \pm \textbf{0.01}$	$\textbf{0.62} \pm \textbf{0.04}$	$\textbf{0.64} \pm \textbf{0.04}$	0.97 ± 0.01	$\textbf{0.93} \pm \textbf{0.06}$	$\textbf{0.94} \pm \textbf{0.12}$
Yacht	$\textbf{1.02} \pm \textbf{0.05}$	$\textbf{1.11} \pm \textbf{0.38}$	$\textbf{1.58} \pm \textbf{0.48}$	1.63 ± 0.02	1.55 ± 0.12	$\textbf{1.18} \pm \textbf{0.21}$
Year Prediction MSD	$8.88 \pm NA$	$8.85 \pm NA$	$8.89 \pm NA$	$3.60 \pm NA$	$3.59 \pm NA$	$3.35 \pm NA$

Out of distribution samples evaluation

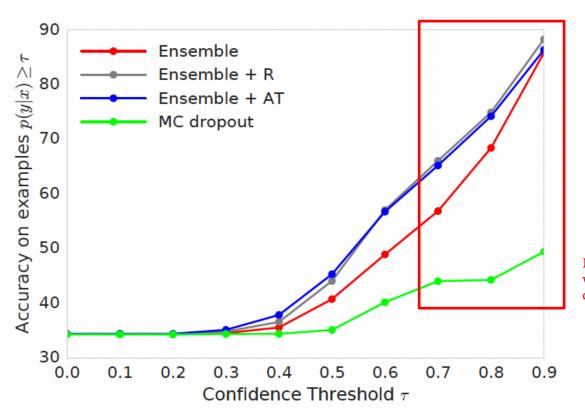
- ➤ MC-dropout seems to give high confidence predictions for unknown test examples.
- > Adversarial training has no effect on unknown samples.



(a) MNIST-NotMNIST

Uncertainty vs Accuracy

➤ Ensemble achieves better performance in high confidence samples.



The model is evaluated only on cases where the model's confidence is above a userspecified threshold.

$$\hat{y} = \arg\max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x})$$

$$p(y = \hat{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \max_k p(y = k|\mathbf{x}).$$

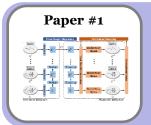
MC dropout performs worse when in high confidence threshold

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Approach	Pros	Cons		
Dropout	 Solid theoretical analysis. Detailed empirical analysis Unbiased from the model's predictions 	 Time consuming comparing to ensemble methods Uncertainty depends on training data and prior distributions 		
Ensemble	 Improvement in accuracy and representation of uncertainty Practicality and intuitive Detailed empirical analysis 	Originally not introduced to explicitly handle uncertainties		

