

Bayesian Inference for Deep Learning

Inference and modern trends for Bayesian Neural Networks: Variational Inference

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Roadmap of the tutorial

- Introduction to Bayesian Inference
- Bayesian inference as Optimization with Variational Inference
 - Introduction to variational inference (objective and gradients)
 - Challenges and solutions for variational inference on Bayesian neural networks
- Sampling with MCMC methods
- Alternatives for Approximate Bayesian Deep Learning
- Gaussian processes and Bayesian neural networks
- Priors and Model Selection
- Uncertainty Quantification with Bayesian Neural Networks

An Introduction to Bayesian Neural Networks with Monte-Carlo Dropout Dropout is a simple and powerful method to avoid overfitting in deep neural networks.

Srivastava et al. (2014). Dropout: A Simple Way to Prevent Neural Networks from Overfitting, JMLR

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At each iteration of **train time**, some units are dropped (with probability p).

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What happens if we use multiple dropout masks also at test time?



Compute the mean prediction as $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\star} \approx \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t}^{T} f(\mathbf{x}_{\star}; [\{\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}^{(1)}, \dots, \widetilde{\mathbf{W}}^{(L)}\}]_{t})$ and evaluate the variance at test point $\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\star}]$

Gal and Ghahramani (2016). Dropout as a Bayesian Approximation, ICML

A bit more formal

• Training with regularized loss ...

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e(\mathbf{y}_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda \sum_{l=1}^{L} \|\mathbf{W}^{(l)}\|^2$$

... equivalent to do approximate Bayesian inference.

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• If we define $w = \{W_1, \dots, W_L\}$ and a "posterior" distribution q(w) such that,

$$\mathbf{W}_i = \mathbf{M}_i \cdot \operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{z}_i), \text{ with } z_{ij} \sim \operatorname{Bern}(p_i)$$

we can use the following objective

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ELBO}} = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \int \log p(\mathbf{y}_{i} \,|\, \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{w}) q(\mathbf{w}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{w} + \mathsf{KL} \left[q(\mathbf{w}) \parallel p(\mathbf{w}) \right]$$

Why? What is this?

An Introduction to Variational Inference

Our problem setup

- Model: $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$ is a L-layer neural network with weights $\mathbf{w} = \{\mathbf{W}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{W}^{(L)}\}$
- Likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{y}_n | \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{y}_n | f(\mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{w}))$$

• Prior:

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{l=1}^{L} p(\mathbf{W}^{(i)}) = \prod_{i=1}^{L} \prod_{jk} \mathcal{N}(W_{jk}^{(l)} | 0, 1)$$

• Posterior (using Bayes's theorem):

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{X}) = rac{p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})}{p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})}$$

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We can't compute the marginal likelihood

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \int p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}$$

... and we can't compute the predictive distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{y}_*|\mathbf{x}_*,\mathbf{y},\mathbf{X}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}_*|\mathbf{x}_*,\mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{X}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}$$

Solutions:

- Collapse the posterior on the most likely value (Maximum-a-Posteriori or MAP)
- Approximate the intractable posterior:
 - Use Variational Inference
- Local approximation:
 - Use Laplace approximation (local approximation at the MAP solution)
- Sample from the intractable posterior:
 - Markov-Chain Monte-Carlo (Hamiltonian Monte-Carlo)

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A very general recipe:

- Introduce a set Q of distributions $q(\mathbf{w})$
- Define an objective which measures the "distance" between an arbitrary distribution $q(w) \in Q$ and p(w|Y, X)
- In the set of possible solutions Q, find the best q(w) that minimizes the "distance" to p(w | Y, X)

Interpret $q(\mathbf{w})$ as a distribution that approximates the intractable $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{X})$







Space of all possible solutions given a likelihood/prior pair



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Variational Inference - Form of the approximation

• The mean-field approach imposes independent distributions for each component of w

$$q(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{l=1}^{L} \prod_{i=1}^{D_{ln}^{(l)}} \prod_{j=1}^{D_{out}^{(l)}} q(\mathcal{W}_{ij}^{(l)})$$

For notation purposes, all weights are concatenated in $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{P}$ (*P* is the number of weights in the network)

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• We start with Gaussian distributions

$$q(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{P} q(w_i) = \prod_{i=1}^{P} \mathcal{N}(w_i | \mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$$

 μ_i, σ_i^2 are called variational parameters (for notation, they are collected into ν)

• We will use the KL divergence to measure the "distance" between the two distributions,

$$\mathsf{KL}\left[q(\mathsf{w};\nu) \parallel p(\mathsf{w}|\mathsf{Y},\mathsf{X})\right] = \int q(\mathsf{w};\nu) \log \frac{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)}{p(\mathsf{w}|\mathsf{Y},\mathsf{X})} \, \mathsf{d}\mathsf{w} = \mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)}\left[\log \frac{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)}{p(\mathsf{w}|\mathsf{Y},\mathsf{X})}\right]$$

• A tractable objective to optimize $q(\mathbf{w}; \nu)$ is obtained by manipulating the KL divergence

$$\mathsf{KL}\left[q(\mathsf{w};\nu) \parallel p(\mathsf{w}|\mathsf{Y},\mathsf{X})\right] = -\mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)}\left[\log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w})\right] + \mathsf{KL}\left[q(\mathsf{w};\nu) \parallel p(\mathsf{w})\right] + \log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X})$$

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• The last term is the problematic one

• ... but manipulating the previous expression

$$\log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) - \mathsf{KL}\left[q(\mathbf{w};\nu) \parallel p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{X})\right] = \underbrace{\mathsf{E}_{q(\mathbf{w};\nu)}\left[\log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w})\right] - \mathsf{KL}\left[q(\mathbf{w};\nu) \parallel p(\mathbf{w})\right]}_{\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ELBO}}}$$

we have a computable objective

• Minimizing the original KL is equivalent to maximize $\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ELBO}}$

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Note that $KL[q(\mathbf{w}; \boldsymbol{\nu}) \parallel p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X})] \geq 0$:

- The right hand side is a lower bound to the marginal likelihood (hence the name)
- If we can make q(w; ν) equal to the posterior, our objective will be equal to the marginal likelihood!

Variational objective (a.k.a. evidence lower bound) to be maximized wrt $q(\mathbf{w}; \nu)$

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ELBO}} = \mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)} \left[\log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w}) \right] - \mathsf{KL} \left[q(\mathsf{w};\nu) \| p(\mathsf{w}) \right]$

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• First term is a model fitting term:

 $E_{q(w;\nu)}[\log p(Y|X,w)]$

the higher the better the parameters drawn from $q(\mathbf{w}; \nu)$ are at modeling the labels

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• Second term is a regularization term:

 $-\mathsf{KL}[q(\mathbf{w}; \boldsymbol{\nu}) \| p(\mathbf{w})]$

which penalizes $q(\mathbf{w}; \nu)$ deviating too much from the prior

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• The second term can be expressed analytically by using the expression of the KL divergence and it does **not** depend on the neural network architecture

Hoffman et al. (2013). Stochastic Variational Inference. JMLR

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- The second term can be expressed analytically by using the expression of the KL divergence and it does **not** depend on the neural network architecture
- The first expectation is never analytically available for Bayesian neural networks but it can be approximated using Monte Carlo integration:

$$\mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)}\left[\log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w})\right] \approx \frac{1}{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\tilde{\mathbf{w}}^{(h)}), \quad \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^{(h)} \sim q(\mathbf{w};\nu)$$

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Variational Inference - Computation

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ELBO}} = rac{1}{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, ilde{\mathbf{w}}^{(h)}) - \mathsf{KL}\left[q(\mathbf{w};
u) \| p(\mathbf{w})
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Remember: this estimator is unbiased and its variance shrinks $\propto 1/\textit{N}_{\rm MC}$, independently of the dimensionality.



We need to compute the gradients of the objective w.r.t the variational parameters u

 $\nabla_{\nu} \mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ELBO}} = \nabla_{\nu} \mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)} \left[\log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w}) \right] - \nabla_{\nu} \mathsf{KL} \left[q(\mathsf{w};\nu) \| p(\mathsf{w}) \right]$

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- The second term is easy (everything is deterministic)
- The first term requires a bit of work

• The Monte Carlo approximation

$$\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};
u)} \left[\log p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathsf{w})\right] pprox rac{1}{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \sum_{h=1}^{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \log p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, ilde{\mathsf{w}}^{(h)})$$

makes it tricky to optimize the objective

- With $q(\mathbf{w}; \nu)$ fixed, when we resample **w** from $q(\mathbf{w}; \nu)$ we obtain a different value!
- How can we make gradient updates to the μ_i, σ_i^2 parameters of $q(\mathbf{w}; \boldsymbol{\nu})$?

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- How can we make gradient updates to the μ_i, σ_i^2 parameters of $q(\mathbf{w}; \boldsymbol{\nu})$?
- Answer: freeze the randomness within Monte Carlo!
Variational Inference - Reparameterization trick

 $\nabla_{\nu} \mathsf{E}_{q(\mathbf{w};\nu)} \log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w})$

Idea:

- Samples of w can be obtained by a *deterministic transformation* φ of a random variable ε ~ p(ε), such that p(ε) does not depend on the variational parameters
- The variational parameters $oldsymbol{
 u}$ are parameters of the function ϕ
- Use the chain rule of differentiation to push the gradient though this function ϕ

$$\varepsilon \qquad q(\mathbf{w}) \qquad q(\mathbf{w}) \qquad \varphi(\cdot; \nu) \qquad \mathbf{w} \qquad \log p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) \qquad \mathbf{v} \qquad \mathbf{v}$$

Key observation

$$\nabla_{\nu}\mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)}\log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w}) = \mathsf{E}_{p(\varepsilon)}\nabla_{\nu}\log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w})|_{\mathsf{w}=\phi(\varepsilon;\nu)}$$

Now, we can turn the gradient of an expectation into an expectation of a gradient.

 $\nabla_{\nu} \mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)} \log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w}) = \nabla_{\nu} \mathsf{E}_{p(\varepsilon)} \log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w})|_{\mathsf{w}=\phi(\varepsilon;\nu)}$

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Good news: if you use any auto-diff tool (PyTorch, Tensorflow, JAX, NumPyro, etc.), you will never compute this gradients manually.

$$\nabla_{\nu} \mathsf{E}_{q(\mathsf{w};\nu)} \log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w}) \approx \frac{1}{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \sum_{h=1}^{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \nabla_{\mathsf{w}} \log p(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{X},\mathsf{w})|_{\mathsf{w}=\phi(\tilde{\varepsilon}^{(h)};\nu)} \nabla_{\nu} \phi(\tilde{\varepsilon}^{(h)};\nu), \quad \tilde{\varepsilon}^{(h)} \sim p(\varepsilon)$$

- Estimation of the gradients is unbiased
- Need to be able to sample from $p(\varepsilon)$, but not from $q(\mathbf{w}; \nu)$
- The likelihood p(Y|X, w) must be differentiable \rightarrow

The neural network $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$ must be differentiable

Variational Inference with Stochastic Optimization

$$\widetilde{\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{ELBO}}} = \frac{1}{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \sum_{h=1}^{N_{\mathsf{MC}}} \log p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^{(h)}) - \mathsf{KL}\left[q(\mathbf{w}; \nu) \| p(\mathbf{w})\right]$$

• We can get unbiased estimate by selecting M out of N data

$$\log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^{(h)}) \approx \frac{N}{M} \sum_{i \in \text{minibatch}} \log p(\mathbf{y}_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^{(h)})$$

• We can use stochastic gradient optimization of our approximate variational objective with $\tilde{w}^{(h)} = f(\tilde{\varepsilon}^{(h)}; \nu)$ and $\tilde{\varepsilon}^{(h)} \sim p(\varepsilon)$

Hoffman et al. (2013). Stochastic Variational Inference. JMLR

Variational Inference with Stochastic Optimization

$$\boldsymbol{\nu}' = \boldsymbol{\nu} + \frac{\alpha_t}{2} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\nu}} (\widetilde{\mathcal{L}}_{\mathsf{ELBO}}) \qquad \alpha_t \to \mathbf{0}$$





Advances in Variational Inference for Bayesian Deep Learning

Let $L_i = \log p(\mathbf{y}_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$ the likelihood contribution from $\{\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{x}_i\}$ in minibatch of size M

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\log p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})\right] = N^2 \left(\frac{1}{M} \operatorname{Var}[L_i] + \frac{M-1}{M} \operatorname{Cov}[L_i, L_j]\right)$$

Kingma et al. (2015). Variational Dropout and the Local Reparameterization Trick. NeurIPS

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Solutions:

• Make $\text{Cov}[L_i, L_j] = 0$ by resampling $p(\epsilon)$ for every data-point (for each layer, $N_{MC} \times M \times D_{in} \times D_{out}$ times)

► Computational intractable

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 - Computational intractable
- Move the stochasticity from the weights to the activations

► The local reparameterization trick

Kingma et al. (2015). Variational Dropout and the Local Reparameterization Trick. NeurIPS

The local reparameterization trick



If $q(W_{ii}) = \mathcal{N}(W_{ij} \mid \mu_{ij}, \sigma_{ii}^2)$,

The local reparameterization trick (summary)



Practical improvements for training due to lower stochastic variance (speed-up convergence of \mathcal{L}_{ELBO} or smaller batch-size)

Adapted from github.com/JavierAntoran/Bayesian-Neural-Networks

Richer family of parameterizations

Problem:

Mean-field Gaussians, albeit very simple to implement, is generally a rough approximation.



Richer family of parameterizations

Problem:

Mean-field Gaussians, albeit very simple to implement, is generally a rough approximation.



Solution:

Introduce correlations among weights (i.e. Gaussian with non-diagonal covariance)



Working with full covariance is completely intractable

Assume we have one hidden layer with weights matrix W of dimension 256 \times 256. From reshaping W in vector form $w \in \mathbb{R}^{65536}$, the covariance Σ is a matrix 65536 \times 65536.

Memory required: $\sim 16 \text{ GB}$ (only to store Σ , in single-point precision)

Working with full covariance is completely intractable

Assume we have one hidden layer with weights matrix **W** of dimension 256×256 . From reshaping **W** in vector form $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{65536}$, the covariance $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is a matrix 65536×65536 . Memory required: $\sim 16 \text{ GB}$ (only to store $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, in single-point precision)

Simple solution:

Use mean-field for columns and full covariance for the rows of $W_{i,i}$.

$$q(\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{256} q(\mathbf{W}_{:,i}) = \prod_{i=1}^{256} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{W}_{:,i} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i)$$

where now Σ_i is a 256 × 256 covariance matrix.

Putting some structure in the covariance matrix



Zhang et al. (2018). Noisy Natural Gradient as Variational Inference. ICML

Matrix Variate Gaussian distribution

$$q(\mathsf{W}) = \mathcal{M}\mathcal{N}(\mathsf{W} \,|\, \mathsf{M}, \mathsf{U}, \mathsf{V}) = rac{\exp(rac{1}{2}\mathsf{Tr}[\mathsf{V}^{-1}(\mathsf{W} - \mathsf{M})^{ op}\mathsf{U}^{-1}(\mathsf{W} - \mathsf{M})])}{(2\pi)^{D_{in}D_{out}/2}|\mathsf{V}|^{D_{out}/2}|\mathsf{U}|^{D_{in}/2}}$$

 $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_{in} \times D_{out}}$ is the mean, $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_{in} \times D_{in}}$ is the covariance matrix among rows and $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_{out} \times D_{out}}$ is the covariance matrix among columns.

Connected with Gaussian distribution:

 $\mathsf{vec}(\mathbf{W}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathsf{vec}(\mathbf{M}), \mathbf{V} \otimes \mathbf{U})$

Louizos and Welling (2016). Structured and Efficient Variational Deep Learning with Matrix Gaussian Posteriors. ICML

Matrix Variate Gaussian distribution

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Reparameterization trick for A = XW:

 $q(\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{M}\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{X}^{\top}, \mathbf{V})$

Louizos and Welling (2016). Structured and Efficient Variational Deep Learning with Matrix Gaussian Posteriors. ICML

Structured posterior with connection to kernel methods



Benefit:

- Space complexity for storing W: $\mathcal{O}(D^2) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}(D).$
- Time complexity for Wx: $\mathcal{O}(D^2) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}(D \log D).$







Rossi at al. (2020). Walsh-Hadamard Variational Inference for Bayesian Deep Learning. NeurIPS

Keeping an eye to energy efficiency



Comparison between Monte Carlo dropout (\bullet), Matrix Variate Gaussian (\bullet) and Hadamard factorization (\bullet).

Low rank factorization with variational inference

Perfoming tensor decomposition with variational inference is not straightforward.



The redundant variational parameterization induced by the tensor cores makes the optimization landscapes highly multi-modal, thus leading to slow convergence.

Rossi at al. (2020). Walsh-Hadamard Variational Inference for Bayesian Deep Learning. NeurIPS

Imposing low-rank structure by doing inference on a subset of weights



- (a) Train a neural network to a MAP solution
- (b) Identify a small subset of the weights
- (c) Estimate a posterior distribution over the selected subset
- (d) Predict using the mix of Bayesian and deterministic weights

Daxberger et al. (2021). Bayesian Deep Learning via Subnetwork Inference. ICML

Complex covariances can raise from mean-field and depth

Covariance heatmap for mean-field approximate posteriors trained on FashionMNIST.



Farquhar et al. (2020). Liberty or Depth: Deep Bayesian Neural Nets Do Not Need Complex Weight Posterior Approximations. NeurIPS

The tradeoff depth/structure

For any sufficiently deep and wide neural network, there exists a mean-field distribution which induces the same distribution over function values as that induced by the posterior predictive



Farquhar et al. (2020). Liberty or Depth: Deep Bayesian Neural Nets Do Not Need Complex Weight Posterior Approximations. NeurIPS

For low-medium depth models having structured posterior seems to be important.

Architecture	Covariance	Accuracy (↑)	NLL (\downarrow)	ECE (\downarrow)
AlexNet	Diagonal	75.5%	0.703	0.016
(low depth)	Low-rank (WHVI)	88.5%	0.490	0.009
ResNet-18	Diagonal	84.3%	0.477	0.040
(medium depth)	Low-rank (WHVI)	86.4%	0.616	0.029

Farquhar et al. (2020). Liberty or Depth: Deep Bayesian Neural Nets Do Not Need Complex Weight Posterior Approximations. NeurIPS

Rossi at al. (2020). Walsh-Hadamard Variational Inference for Bayesian Deep Learning. NeurIPS Osawa et al. (2019). Practical Deep Learning with Bayesian Principles. NeurIPS

The importance of structured covariance seems to be diminished in very large-scale models.

Architecture	Covariance	Accuracy (\uparrow)	NLL (\downarrow)	ECE (\downarrow)
DenseNet-161	Diagonal	78.6%	0.86	0.046
	Low-rank	78.6%	0.83	0.020
ResNet-152	Diagonal	80.0%	0.86	0.057
	Low-rank	79.1%	0.82	0.028

Farquhar et al. (2020). Liberty or Depth: Deep Bayesian Neural Nets Do Not Need Complex Weight Posterior Approximations. NeurIPS

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