
Posterior Inferred, Now What?

Streamlining Prediction in Bayesian Deep Learning

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Abstract

1 The rising interest in Bayesian deep learning (BDL) has led to a plethora of
2 methods for estimating the posterior distribution. However, efficient computation
3 of inferences, such as predictions, has been largely overlooked with Monte Carlo
4 integration remaining the standard. In this work we examine streamlining prediction
5 in BDL through a single forward pass without sampling. For this we use local
6 linearisation on activation functions and local Gaussian approximations at linear
7 layers. Thus allowing us to analytically compute an approximation to the posterior
8 predictive distribution. We showcase our approach for both MLP and transformer
9 architectures and assess its performance on regression and classification tasks.

10 1 Introduction

11 Through the success of machine learning models in real-world applications, ensuring their reliability
12 and robustness has become a key concern. In particular, in applications such as aided medical
13 diagnosis [1], autonomous driving [15], or supporting scientific discovery [17], providing reliable
14 predictions, identifying failure modes, and identify how to reduce uncertainties of the system is vital.
15 Uncertainty quantification is at the core of these topics with Bayesian deep learning (BDL, [20, 16])
16 providing a promising paradigm for assessing uncertainties effectively and efficiently.

17 The central goal in BDL is to make inferences w.r.t. the posterior distribution over the probabilistic
18 model (the parameters or the function itself). For example, to compute the expected prediction, esti-
19 mate model uncertainties, or use it within acquisition functions in active learning. For this, we need to
20 first estimate the posterior distribution and secondly make inferences of interest based on the estimated
21 posterior. While both of these steps typically involve intractable integration, only the first step has
22 seen significant progress in recent years [2, 14, 3]. For the second step, in case of a Laplace approx-
23 imation (LA, [10]), globally linearising the model function around the maximum *a posteriori* (MAP)
24 estimate to perform inferences [12, 8] has shown promise in providing good predictive uncertainty.
25 However, for all other posterior approximation methods, sampling based approximations remain to
26 be the default. Given the high dimensionality of neural networks, sophisticated sampling methods
27 are usually computationally prohibited and vanilla Monte-Carlo sampling is typically employed.

28 In this work, we tackle this problem by streamlining the prediction in BDL through local linearisation
29 of activation functions and by utilising local Gaussian approximations at linear layers. Instead of
30 a sample based approximation, which requires multiple re-evaluations of the network, we analytically
31 approximate the posterior predictive distribution in a single forward pass through the network, making
32 our methods well-suited for large-scale applications. Moreover, in contrast to global linearisation, our
33 method is suitable for more complex inference tasks as the neural network function becomes locally
34 linear with respect to the inputs. Empirically, we find that local linearisation and local Gaussian
35 approximation of neural networks to provide accurate predictive uncertainties and predictions, while

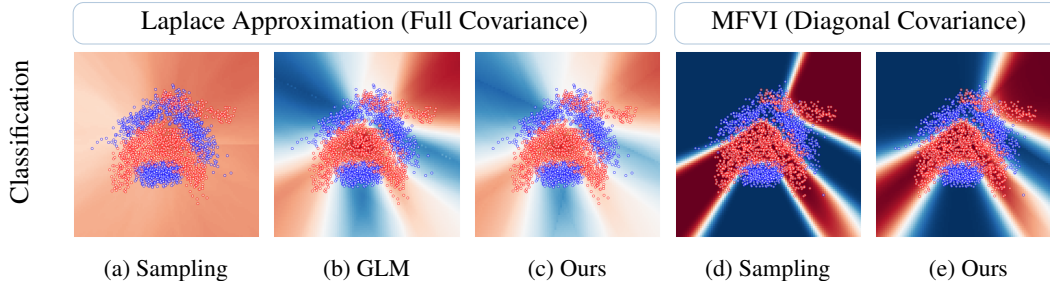


Figure 1: Ours gives better predictive uncertainties and decision boundaries compared with sampling in both Laplace approximation (LA) and mean-field variational inference (MFVI), while having matching performance with global linearised model (GLM) in LA.

36 being conceptually simple. Fig. 1 shows the posterior predictive densities for our proposal, compared
 37 to sampling based approximations and global linearisation in case of a Laplace approximation.

38 The contributions of our work can be summarised as follows: (i) We propose a sampling-free and
 39 deterministic method for approximating the posterior predictive distribution through local linearisation
 40 of activation functions and local Gaussian approximations in neural networks. (ii) We show how
 41 to exploit different covariance structures of the approximate posterior and present a streamlined
 42 prediction path for both MLP and transformer architectures. (iii) We evaluate our method on
 43 regression and classification tasks and find that our method result in good predictive performance.

44 2 Methods

45 We denote the model parameters as θ and the training set as \mathcal{D} . Given the inferred approximate
 46 posterior $q(\theta | \mathcal{D}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbb{E}[\theta], \Sigma_\theta)$, we aim to approximate the posterior predictive distribution for
 47 a new data point \mathbf{x}^* in a tractable form with a single forward pass, *i.e.*, approximate $p(\mathbf{y}^* | \mathbf{x}^*, \mathcal{D}) =$
 48 $\int p(\mathbf{y}^* | \mathbf{x}^*, \theta) q(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta$. This problem can be divided into two sub-problems: (i) estimate the
 49 output distribution at linear layers, and (ii) propagating this resulting distribution through a non-linear
 50 activation function. We will tackle these two sub-problems separately one after another.

51 **Local Gaussian Approximations for Linear Layers** Denote the weight and bias of the l^{th} linear
 52 layer as $\mathbf{W}^{(l)} \in \mathbb{R}^{\text{D}_{\text{out}} \times \text{D}_{\text{in}}}$ and $\mathbf{b}^{(l)} \in \mathbb{R}^{\text{D}_{\text{out}}}$ respectively, and its input as $\mathbf{a}^{(l-1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{\text{D}_{\text{in}}}$. Then
 53 the output $\mathbf{h}^{(l)}$ is given as $\mathbf{h}^{(l)} = \mathbf{W}^{(l)} \mathbf{a}^{(l-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(l)}$, where we use $h_k^{(l)}$ to denote the k^{th} element.
 54 We drop the superscript if it is clear from the context. Assuming that \mathbf{W} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{a} are Gaussian
 55 distributed, we make the following two assumptions to obtain a tractable approximation on \mathbf{h} : (i) we
 56 assume $a_i W_{ki}$ is Gaussian, and (ii) we assume a_i and W_{ki} are uncorrelated.

57 Under assumption (i), as the sum of Gaussian random variables ($a_i W_{ki}$) is still Gaussian, h_k will be
 58 Gaussian as well. Consequently, \mathbf{h} will be jointly Gaussian distributed. The mean of \mathbf{h} is given as
 59 $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{W}] \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{a}] + \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{b}]$ and the covariance between the k^{th} and the l^{th} hidden unit is computed
 60 as follows: $\text{Cov}[h_k, h_l] =$

$$\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq \text{D}_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq \text{D}_{\text{in}}} (\mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, b_l] + \mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{li}, b_k]) + \text{Cov}[b_k, b_l], \quad (1)$$

61 where $\text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] =$

$$\mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] + \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] + \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}]. \quad (2)$$

62 Note that structure of the posterior covariance influences the computational cost of the approximation.

63 **Local Linearizations of Activation Functions** Let $g(\cdot)$ denote a non-linear activation function
 64 computing $\mathbf{a} = g(\mathbf{h})$ for an input \mathbf{h} . Given $\mathbf{h} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}], \Sigma_{\mathbf{h}})$, we use a first order Taylor expansion
 65 of $g(\cdot)$ at the input mean $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]$ to obtain a tractable approximation of the distribution over \mathbf{a} , *i.e.*,

$$g(\mathbf{h}) \approx g(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]) + \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]} (\mathbf{h} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]), \quad (3)$$

66 where $\mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}$ is the Jacobian of $g(\cdot)$ at $\mathbf{h} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]$. As Gaussian distributions are closed under
 67 linear transformations, now \mathbf{a} will also be Gaussian distributed, *i.e.*,

$$\mathbf{a} \sim \mathcal{N}(g(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]), \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}^\top \Sigma_{\mathbf{h}} \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}). \quad (4)$$

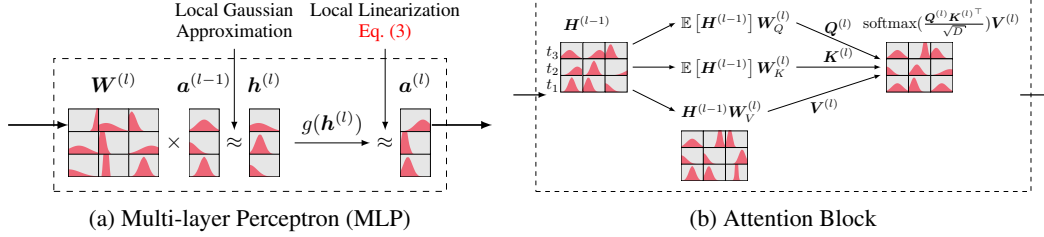


Figure 2: Illustration of streamlined prediction through different network architectures. In MLPs, we perform a local Gaussian approximation for linear layers and locally linearise the activation function at each layer. The distribution over activations is then propagated to the next layer. In transformer architectures, we treat the query Q and key K deterministically and use a local Gaussian approximation to obtain a tractable distribution on the value V . See App. C.6 for details.

68 Note that the quality of the local linearisation will depend on the scale of the distribution over the
 69 input h . Combining local Gaussian approximations for linear layers and local linearisation for non-
 70 linear activation functions results in a tractable approximation to the posterior predictive distribution.
 71 Fig. 2 illustrates our streamlined prediction for multi-layer perceptrons (MLP) and attention blocks in
 72 transformers, for a detailed description on the approach for transformers see App. C.6. Note that the
 73 mean and covariance of the posterior predictive distribution can be computed in a single forward pass.

74 **Covariance Structure** Computing the full covariance of the posterior is usually infeasible due to
 75 high computational and memory cost. Diagonal approximation and Kronecker-factorization of the
 76 covariance/precision are two of the most common approaches. For diagonal covariance, calculating
 77 the posterior predictive distribution is straightforward, see App. C.2 for details. In case of Kronecker
 78 factors, we developed a tailored block retrieval method for efficient propagation of uncertainties, see
 79 App. C.3 for details. Note that other covariance structures can be exploited in a similar fashion.

80 **Computational Complexity** We will briefly discuss the computational complexity of our method
 81 for the case of full covariance. Observe from Eqs. (1) and (2) that the computational cost to obtain
 82 $(\text{Cov}[h_k, h_l])$ is $\mathcal{O}(D_{\text{in}}^{(l)2})$. Therefore, computing the output covariance at the l^{th} linear layer will be
 83 in the order of $\mathcal{O}(D_{\text{out}}^{(l)2} D_{\text{in}}^{(l)2})$. For element-wise activation functions, the computational cost will
 84 be $\mathcal{O}(D_{\text{out}}^{(l)2})$. Hence, we obtain a total cost of $\mathcal{O}(\sum_{l=1}^L D_{\text{out}}^{(l)2} D_{\text{in}}^{(l)2} + D_{\text{out}}^{(l)2})$ for a network with L
 85 layers. By exploiting the covariance structure, the total computational cost can be substantially
 86 reduced.

87 3 Experiments

88 We evaluate our method on regression and classification tasks. We choose the Laplace approximation
 89 (LA, [3]) and mean-field variational inference (MFVI, [18]) to estimate the posterior. We compare
 90 predictions based on sampling, global linearisation (GLM, [8]), and our method. We use a paired
 91 t -test with $p = 0.05$ and bold results with significant statistical difference. For our method, we
 92 additionally fit a scale factor, multiplied to the predictive variance, by minimizing the negative log
 93 predictive density (NLPD) on the training set. This is necessary, as the predictive variance in case of
 94 deep and wide network with diagonal covariance structure can be large.

95 **Regression** We experiment with multi-layer perceptron (MLP) for regression. See App. D.1 for
 96 experiment setup details and additional results. We use full covariance for LA. As shown in Table
 97 Table 1, for MFVI our proposal (Ours) result in better performance than sampling on 8 data sets
 98 and matches the performance on the remaining 3 data sets. For LA, our approach obtains better
 99 performance than sampling on all data sets.

100 **Classification** We train an MLP from scratch and fine-tune a pre-trained Vision transformer (ViT)
 101 base model [5]. See App. D.2 for experiment setup details and additional results. With LA, we use a
 102 Kronecker-factorized covariance for MLPs and a diagonal covariance for ViT models. As shown in
 103 Table 2, we obtain better performance when compared with sampling and GLM. For ViT, fine-tuning
 104 on SVHN with MFVI failed, resulting in unreliable results.

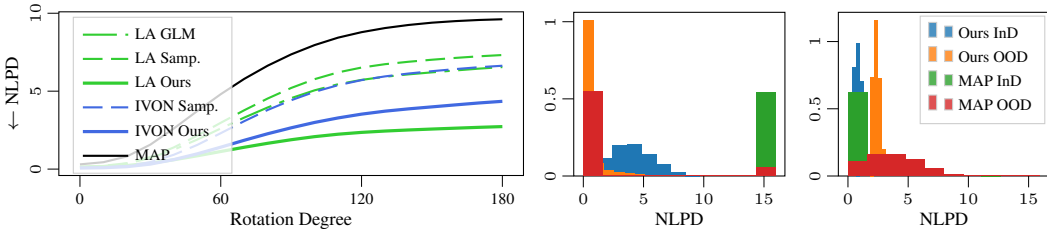
Table 1: Negative log predictive density \downarrow on UCI regression data sets. Ours results in better or matching performance compared with sampling and GLM, indicating the effectiveness of our method.

	(n, d)	MFVI (Diagonal Covariance)		Laplace Approximation (Full Covariance)		
		Sampling	Ours	Sampling	GLM	Ours
SERVO	(167, 4)	1.287±0.069	1.136±0.182	3.795±0.110	1.047±0.172	1.443±0.077
LD	(345, 5)	1.346±0.280	1.369±0.440	2.221±0.110	1.495±0.580	1.474±0.648
AM	(398, 7)	1.004±0.052	0.807±0.087	1.812±0.065	0.492±0.279	0.478±0.309
REV	(414, 6)	1.076±0.059	0.925±0.091	1.932±0.045	0.859±0.129	0.833±0.156
FF	(517, 12)	2.160±3.003	2.333±3.671	2.086±0.292	1.584±0.950	1.596±1.217
ITT	(1020, 33)	0.937±0.047	0.841±0.065	1.681±0.069	0.825±0.095	0.756±0.164
CCS	(1030, 8)	0.939±0.068	0.828±0.108	1.612±0.048	0.319±0.109	0.234±0.161
ASN	(1503, 5)	0.962±0.054	0.899±0.065	1.788±0.045	0.422±0.109	0.396±0.133
CAC	(1994, 127)	0.973±0.092	0.920±0.118	1.848±0.055	1.281±0.069	2.662±1.096
PT	(5875, 19)	0.976±0.069	0.940±0.074	0.984±0.101	0.576±0.181	0.651±0.306
CCPP	(9568, 4)	0.365±0.040	0.352±0.042	1.345±0.085	-0.062±0.182	-0.062±0.200
Bold Count		3	11	0	7	8

Table 2: Negative log predictive density \downarrow on classification data sets. Ours results in better or matching performance when compared with sampling, indicating the effectiveness of our approximation.

		MFVI (Diagonal Covariance)		LA (Kron. Cov. for MLP, Diag. Cov. for ViT)		
		Sampling	Ours	Sampling	GLM	Ours
MNIST	MLP	0.081±0.087	0.066±0.050	0.141±0.138	0.137±0.122	0.116±0.038
FMNIST	MLP	0.746±0.323	0.458±0.131	1.283±0.498	1.249±0.482	0.430±0.113
CIFAR-10	ViT	0.580±1.305	0.598±1.328	2.389±0.214	0.992±0.155	0.845±0.179
SVHN	ViT	12.820±2.820	12.820±2.820	2.522±0.578	1.225±0.287	0.767±0.597

105 To test our method on out-of-distribution (OOD) data, we first evaluate the MNIST trained model on
 106 rotated MNIST as shown in Fig. 3a. We observe that with increasing roation degree, the increase in
 107 NLPD is less compared with other methods. In addition, we show OOD results on a FMNIST trained
 108 MLP and CIFAR-10 trained ViT model. For this, we evaluate the MLP on MNIST and the ViT on
 109 SVHN As shown in Figs. 3b and 3c, our method can distinguish between in-distribution (InD) and
 110 OOD better than the MAP estimate.



(a) Evaluate MNIST trained MLP on rotated MNIST. (b) FMNIST \rightarrow MNIST. (c) CIFAR-10 \rightarrow SVHN.

Figure 3: Fig. 3a shows the performance of MNIST-trained model on rotated MNIST and Ours results in lower NLPD. Figs. 3b and 3c shows the NLPD for InD and OOD data using the posterior inferred by LA. Compared with MAP, Ours results in a more clear distribution shift. These Out-of-distribution detection results indicate Ours has good OOD predictive uncertainty.

111 4 Discussion & Conclusion

112 In this work, we proposed to streamline prediction in Bayesian deep learning by local linearisation
 113 and local Gaussian approximations. For this, we discussed the propgation in different neural network
 114 architectures and covariance structures. We showed through a series of experiments that our method
 115 obtains high predictive performance, obtain good predictive uncertainties, and can distinguish between
 116 in-distribution and OOD data. In future work, we aim to extend our approach to other network
 117 architectures, such as convolutional layers, and utilize our approach in more complex inference tasks.

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Posterior Inferred, Now What? Streamlining Prediction in Bayesian Deep Learning

Supplementary Material

179 We first introduce notation in [App. A](#) and related work in [App. B](#). Then, we introduce the derivation
180 of our method in [App. C](#). At last, we describe the experiment setup and additional experiment results
181 in [App. D](#).

182 A Notation

183 We use lowercase bold letter for vector, *e.g.*, \mathbf{x} , and uppercase bold letter for matrix, *e.g.*, \mathbf{W} . We use
184 subscript to denote element of vector and matrix, *e.g.*, x_i (i^{th} element) and W_{ki} (k^{th} row, i^{th} column).
185 We use $W[k, :]$ to indicate the k^{th} row of a matrix.

186 B Related Work

187 **Inferring Posterior in Bayesian Deep Learning** There has been many methods developed which
188 can be roughly grouped into three categories: *(i)* Laplace approximation based methods: Starting
189 from [10] where simple post-hoc Laplace approximation (LA) has shown promising results on neural
190 network, LA has gained increasing attention ever since. [4] has shown that treating a subnetwork
191 Bayesian will also result in good predictive uncertainties. *(ii)*: Variational inference (VI) based
192 methods: [2] showed mean-field VI (MFVI) could improve generalisation in small-scale neural
193 network and [18] showed MFVI is effective for large-scale neural networks as well. *(iii)*: Others:
194 Monte Carlo Dropout [6] aims to estimate predictive uncertainty by interpreting dropout in neural
195 networks as a form of Bayesian approximation. Deep ensemble [11] combines the outputs of
196 multiple independently trained models to capture predictive uncertainty. Stochastic Weight Averaging-
197 Gaussian [14], which extends Stochastic Weight Averaging [9] by capturing the posterior distribution
198 of model weights using a Gaussian approximation.

199 **Making Prediction in Bayesian Deep Learning** Little work has been done for this and the usual
200 go-to solution is simple Monte Carlo Estimation. For Laplace approximation, [8] proposed a global
201 liberalised model for better posterior prediction.

202 C Derivations

203 We derive the approximate posterior predictive distribution form in this section. [App. C.1](#) is for
204 the case where the covariance has full structure in linear layer. [App. C.2](#) is for the case where the
205 covariance has diagonal structure in linear layer. [App. C.3](#) is for the case where the covariance
206 has Kronecker-factorised structure in linear layer. [App. C.4](#) is the derivation for activation layers.
207 [App. C.5](#) describes the probit approximation for approximate the posterior prediction for classification.
208 [App. C.6](#) describes how to apply our method for the transformer.

209 C.1 Derivation for General Covariance Structure

210 Denote the weight and bias of a linear layer as $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{\text{D}_{\text{out}} \times \text{D}_{\text{in}}}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{\text{D}_{\text{out}}}$ respectively, and its
211 input as $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{\text{D}_{\text{in}}}$. The output is $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ with its k^{th} element being $h_k = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{D}_{\text{in}}} W_{ki}a_i + b_k$.

212 We make the following two assumptions to obtain tractable distribution on the output:

213 • Assumption 1: We assume $a_i W_{ki}$ is a Gaussian distribution.

214 • Assumption 2: We assume a_i and W_{ki} are uncorrelated.

215 From assumption 1, given \mathbf{W} , \mathbf{a} , and \mathbf{b} are all Gaussian, each h_k will be a Gaussian distribution. As
 216 a result, \mathbf{h} will be a Gaussian distribution as well.

217 We now derive its mean and covariance. We first derive the mean for each h_k . As a_i and W_{ki} are
 218 uncorrelated, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[h_k] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} W_{ki} a_i + b_k\right] \quad (5)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[W_{ki} a_i + b_k] \quad (6)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[W_{ki} a_i] + \mathbb{E}[b_k] \quad (7)$$

$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[a_i] + \mathbb{E}[b_k] \quad (8)$$

219 We now derive the covariance. Define $h'_k = \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} a_i W_{ki}$, we have

$$\text{Cov}[h_k, h_l] = \text{Cov}[h'_k + b_k, h'_l + b_l] \quad (9)$$

$$= \text{Cov}[h'_k, h'_l] + \text{Cov}[h'_k, b_l] + \text{Cov}[h'_l, b_k] + \text{Cov}[b_k, b_l]. \quad (10)$$

220 where $\text{Cov}[h'_k, h'_l]$ is

$$\text{Cov}[h'_k, h'_l] = \text{Cov}\left[\sum_{1 \leq i \leq D_{\text{in}}} a_i W_{ki}, \sum_{1 \leq j \leq D_{\text{in}}} a_j W_{lj}\right] \quad (11)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq D_{\text{in}}} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}]. \quad (12)$$

221 To derive the form of $\text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}]$, we use assumption 2:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(a_i W_{ki} - \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki}])(a_j W_{lj} - \mathbb{E}[a_j W_{lj}])] \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki} a_j W_{lj} - a_i W_{ki} \mathbb{E}[a_j W_{lj}] - \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki}] a_j W_{lj} + \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[a_j W_{lj}]] \quad (14)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[a_i a_j W_{ki} W_{lj}] - \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[a_j W_{lj}] - \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[a_j W_{lj}] + \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[a_j W_{lj}] \quad (15)$$

$$\approx \mathbb{E}[a_i a_j] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki} W_{lj}] - \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[a_j] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \quad (\text{Assumption 2})$$

$$= (\mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[a_j] + \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j])(\mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] + \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}]) - \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[a_j] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \quad (16)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] + \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] + \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] \quad (17)$$

222 Now the only term left is $\text{Cov}[h'_k, b_l]$, which can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}[h'_k, b_l] &= \text{Cov}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} a_i W_{ki}, b_l\right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, b_l] \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[(a_i W_{ki} - \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki}])(b_l - \mathbb{E}[b_l])] \quad (19)$$

$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[(a_i W_{ki} - \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}])(b_l - \mathbb{E}[b_l])] \quad (\text{Assumption 2})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki} b_l - a_i W_{ki} \mathbb{E}[b_l] - \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] b_l + \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[b_l]] \quad (20)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i W_{ki} b_l] - \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[b_l] \quad (21)$$

$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki} b_l] - \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[b_l] \quad (\text{Assumption 2})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i] (\mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[b_l] + \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, b_l]) - \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[b_l] \quad (22)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, b_l] \quad (23)$$

223 Putting it together, we have $\text{Cov}[h_k, h_l] =$

$$\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] + \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} (\mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, b_l] + \mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{li}, b_k]) + \text{Cov}[b_k, b_l], \quad (24)$$

224 where $\text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] =$

$$\mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] + \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] + \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}]. \quad (25)$$

225 Note that the first term in Eq. (24) could be rewrite into the form of matrix multiplication which
 226 results in an efficient implementation:

$$\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] \quad (26)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] + \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] + \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] \quad (27)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[a_1] \mathbb{E}[a_1] \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \mathbb{E}[a_1] \mathbb{E}[a_{D_{\text{in}}}] \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}[a_{D_{\text{in}}}] \mathbb{E}[a_1] \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \mathbb{E}[a_1] \mathbb{E}[a_{D_{\text{in}}}] \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \end{bmatrix} \quad (28)$$

$$\odot \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \end{bmatrix} \quad (29)$$

$$+ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[W_{k1}] \mathbb{E}[W_{l1}] & \dots & \mathbb{E}[W_{k1}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}] \mathbb{E}[W_{l1}] & \dots & \mathbb{E}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \end{bmatrix} \odot \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}[a_1, a_1] & \dots & \text{Cov}[a_1, a_{D_{\text{in}}}] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}[a_{D_{\text{in}}}, a_1] & \dots & \text{Cov}[a_{D_{\text{in}}}, a_{D_{\text{in}}}] \end{bmatrix} \quad (30)$$

$$+ \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}[a_1, a_1] & \dots & \text{Cov}[a_1, a_{D_{\text{in}}}] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}[a_{D_{\text{in}}}, a_1] & \dots & \text{Cov}[a_{D_{\text{in}}}, a_{D_{\text{in}}}] \end{bmatrix} \odot \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \end{bmatrix} \quad (31)$$

227 C.2 Derivation for Diagonal Covariance Structure

228 When the posterior has diagonal covariance, the mean $\mathbb{E}[h_k]$ will still be the same.

229 For covariance, note that as now the posterior is diagonal, when $k \neq l$, we have $\text{Cov}[h_k, h_l] =$

$$\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] + \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} (\mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, b_i] + \mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{li}, b_i]) + \text{Cov}[b_k, b_l] \quad (32)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}] \quad (33)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i] \mathbb{E}[a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] + \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] + \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, W_{lj}] \quad (34)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}] \mathbb{E}[W_{lj}] \text{Cov}[a_i, a_j] \quad (35)$$

230 For $k = l$, we have $\text{Var}[h_k] =$

$$\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{kj}] + \sum_{i=1}^{D_{\text{in}}} (\mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, b_k] + \mathbb{E}[a_i] \text{Cov}[W_{ki}, b_k]) + \text{Var}[b_k] \quad (36)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_i W_{ki}] + \text{Var}[b_k] \quad (37)$$

$$= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq D_{\text{in}}} \mathbb{E}[a_i]^2 \text{Var}[W_{ki}] + \mathbb{E}[W_{ki}]^2 \text{Var}[a_i] + \text{Var}[a_i] \text{Var}[W_{ki}] + \text{Var}[b_k] \quad (38)$$

231 C.3 Derivation for Kronecker Covariance Structure

232 In Kronecker approximation, the Hessian is represented in Kronecker product form:

$$\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} \quad (39)$$

233 Denote the prior precision as λ^2 , then the posterior precision is

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{h} + \lambda^2 \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} + \lambda^2 \mathbf{I} \quad (40)$$

234 To improve numerical stability, an eigen-decomposition is often performed on \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} in Laplace
235 Redux library:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P} &= (\mathbf{U}_A \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_A \mathbf{U}_A^\top) \otimes (\mathbf{U}_B \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_B \mathbf{U}_B^\top) + \lambda^2 \mathbf{I} && \text{(Definition)} \\ &= (\mathbf{U}_A \otimes \mathbf{U}_B) (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_A \otimes \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_B) (\mathbf{U}_A \otimes \mathbf{U}_B)^\top + \lambda^2 \mathbf{I} && ((\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B})(\mathbf{C} \otimes \mathbf{D}) = (\mathbf{AC}) \otimes (\mathbf{BD})) \end{aligned}$$

236 For computational efficiency, for our forward pass we will represent the covariance as $\mathbf{C} \otimes \mathbf{D}$ form,
237 which results in an approximation:

$$\mathbf{P} \approx (\mathbf{U}_A \otimes \mathbf{U}_B) ((\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_A + \lambda \mathbf{I}_A) \otimes (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_B + \lambda \mathbf{I}_B)) (\mathbf{U}_A \otimes \mathbf{U}_B)^\top \quad (41)$$

$$= [(\mathbf{U}_A (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_A + \lambda \mathbf{I}_A)) \otimes (\mathbf{U}_B (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_B + \lambda \mathbf{I}_B))] (\mathbf{U}_A \otimes \mathbf{U}_B)^\top)^{-1} \quad (42)$$

$$= (\mathbf{U}_A (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_A + \lambda \mathbf{I}_A) \mathbf{U}_A^\top)^{-1} \otimes (\mathbf{U}_B (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_B + \lambda \mathbf{I}_B) \mathbf{U}_B^\top)^{-1} \quad (43)$$

$$= (\mathbf{U}_A \otimes \mathbf{U}_B) (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_A \otimes \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_B + \lambda^2 \mathbf{I}) (\mathbf{U}_A \otimes \mathbf{U}_B)^\top + \lambda \mathbf{I}_A \otimes \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_B + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_A \otimes \lambda \mathbf{I}_B, \quad (44)$$

238 where the extra term introduced by the approximation is written in blue colour.

239 Recall for an efficient implementation for computing $\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq D_{\text{in}}} \text{Cov}[a_i W_{ki}, a_j W_{lj}]$ in Eq. (31),
240 we need to retrieve the covariance between the k^{th} row of weight and l^{th} row of weight, which is a
241 $D_{\text{in}} \times D_{\text{in}}$ matrix:

$$\text{Cov}[\mathbf{W}[k, :], \mathbf{W}[l, :]] = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \text{Cov}[W_{k1}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{l1}] & \dots & \text{Cov}[W_{kD_{\text{in}}}, W_{lD_{\text{in}}}] \end{bmatrix} \quad (45)$$

242 However, for posterior stored in Kronecker product form, we will have $D_{\text{in}} \times D_{\text{in}}$ numbers of
243 $D_{\text{out}} \times D_{\text{out}}$ matrix, which complicates the retrieval of $\text{Cov}[\mathbf{W}[k, :], \mathbf{W}[l, :]]$.

244 C.4 Derivation for Activation Layers

245 For $\mathbf{a} = g(\mathbf{h})$ where $\mathbf{h} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{h}; \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}], \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_h)$ and $g(\cdot)$ is the activation function, we use local
246 linearisation to approximate the distribution of \mathbf{a} . Specifically, we do a first-order Taylor expansion
247 on $g(\cdot)$ at $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]$:

$$\mathbf{a} = g(\mathbf{h}) \quad (46)$$

$$\approx g(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]) + \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]} (\mathbf{h} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]) \quad (47)$$

248 Given that Gaussian distribution is closed under linear transformation, we have

$$\mathbf{h} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}], \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_h) \quad (48)$$

$$\mathbf{h} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_h) \quad (49)$$

$$\mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]} (\mathbf{h} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_h \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}) \quad (50)$$

$$g(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]) + \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]} (\mathbf{h} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]) \sim \mathcal{N}(g(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]), \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_h \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}) \quad (51)$$

$$\mathbf{a} \underset{\text{approx}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a}; g(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]), \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_h \mathbf{J}_g|_{\mathbf{h}=\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{h}]}) \quad (52)$$

249 C.5 Probit Approximation for Classification

250 Following [3], in classification we treat the logits before last layer activation (softmax) as model
251 output f . Then we can use probit approximation to get posterior predictive:

252 Binary [13, 19]

$$p(y^* | x^*) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \text{sigmoid}(f^*) \mathcal{N}(f^* | \mu^*, \sigma^{*2}) df^* \quad (53)$$

$$\approx \int \Phi(f^*) \mathcal{N}(f^* | \mu^*, \sigma^{*2}) df^* \quad (54)$$

$$= \sigma\left(\frac{\mu^*}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\pi}{8}\sigma^{*2}}}\right). \quad (55)$$

253 Multi-class [7]

$$p(\mathbf{y}^* | \mathbf{x}^*) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^C} \text{softmax}(\mathbf{f}^*) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}^* | \mu^*, \Sigma^*) d\mathbf{f}^* \quad (56)$$

$$\underset{\text{j-th element}}{\approx} \frac{\exp(\tau_j)}{\sum_{j=1}^C \exp(\tau_j)}, \text{ where } \tau_j = \frac{\mu_j^*}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\pi}{8}\Sigma_{jj}^*}}$$

254 C.6 Transformer Block

255 There are four components in each transformer block: (1) multi-head attention; (2) MLP; (3)
 256 layer normalisation; and (4) residual connection. We treat MLP bayesian and multi-head attention
 257 deterministic. For layer normalisation and residual connection, as Gaussian distribution is closed
 258 under linear transformation, push distribution over them is straightforward. For MLP, the computation
 259 is the same as described above. We describe how to push distribution through attention block below.
 260 **Attention Block** Given an input $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times D}$ where T is the number of tokens in the input sequence
 261 and D is the dimension of each token, denote the query, key and value matrices as $\mathbf{W}_Q \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$,
 262 $\mathbf{W}_K \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$, $\mathbf{W}_V \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ respectively, the key, query and value in an attention blocks are

$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{W}_Q, \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{W}_K, \quad \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{W}_V \quad (57)$$

263 and the output of attention block is

$$\text{Attention}(\mathbf{H}) = \text{Softmax}\left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top}{\sqrt{D}}\right)\mathbf{V} \quad (58)$$

264 When the input \mathbf{H} is a distribution, \mathbf{Q} , \mathbf{K} and \mathbf{V} will all be distribution as well. As pushing a
 265 distribution over softmax requires further approximation, for computational reason we ignore the
 266 distribution over \mathbf{Q} and \mathbf{K} and compute their value by using the mean of input:

$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{H}]\mathbf{W}_Q, \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{H}]\mathbf{W}_K \quad (59)$$

267 We keep the distribution over \mathbf{V} and compute its distribution according to the structure of in-
 268 put's covariance accordingly. Once we have the distribution over \mathbf{V} , getting the distribution over
 269 $\text{Attention}(\mathbf{H})$ will becomes obtain the distribution of linear combination of Gaussian, which is
 270 tractable. Then for multi-head attention, we assume each attention head's output is independent,
 271 which allows us to compute the distribution over the final output in tractable form.

272 D Experiment

273 D.1 Regression

274 **Table 3** gives the UCI regression data set information and the neural network structure we used. For
 275 all neural networks, we use ReLU activation function. In **Table 4** we report the Root Mean Square
 276 Error (RMSE), Ours results in matching or better performance compared with sampling and GLM,
 277 indicating the effectiveness of our method. Note that as the mean of the posterior prediction of our
 278 method is the same as the prediction made by setting the weights of the neural network to be the mean
 279 of the posterior, we result in the same prediction as GLM of LA, and hence the same performance.

Table 3: UCI regression experiment setup.

Dataset Name	Shorthand	(n, d)	Network Structure
SERVO	SERVO	(167, 4)	d -50-1
LIVER DISORDERS	LD	(345, 5)	d -50-1
AUTO MPG	AM	(398, 7)	d -50-1
REAL ESTATE VALUATION	REV	(414, 6)	d -50-1
FOREST FIRES	FF	(517, 12)	d -50-1
INFRARED THERMOGRAPHY TEMPERATURE	ITT	(1020, 33)	d -100-1
CONCRETE COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH	CCS	(1030, 8)	d -100-1
AIRFOIL SELF-NOISE	ASN	(1503, 5)	d -100-1
COMMUNITIES AND CRIME	CAC	(1994, 127)	d -100-1
PARKINSONS TELEMONITORING	PT	(5875, 19)	d -50-50-1
COMBINED CYCLE POWER PLANT	CCPP	(9568, 4)	d -50-50-1

Table 4: Root Mean Square Error \downarrow on UCI regression data sets. Ours results in better or matching performance compared with sampling and GLM, indicating the effectiveness of our method.

	(n, d)	MFVI (Diag. Cov.)		Laplace Approximation (Full Cov.)		
		Sampling	Ours	Sampling	GLM	Ours
SERVO	(167, 4)	0.749 \pm 0.147	0.740\pm0.143	1.632 \pm 0.233	0.658\pm0.141	0.658\pm0.141
LD	(345, 5)	0.884\pm0.273	0.881\pm0.272	0.989\pm0.441	0.977\pm0.418	0.977\pm0.418
AM	(398, 7)	0.415\pm0.115	0.417\pm0.113	0.505 \pm 0.105	0.371\pm0.103	0.371\pm0.103
REV	(414, 6)	0.563\pm0.096	0.562\pm0.095	0.789 \pm 0.130	0.532\pm0.104	0.532\pm0.104
FF	(517, 12)	0.874\pm1.123	0.874\pm1.124	0.910\pm0.824	0.852\pm0.792	0.852\pm0.792
ITT	(1020, 33)	0.481\pm0.057	0.497\pm0.066	0.560 \pm 0.075	0.507\pm0.072	0.507\pm0.072
CCS	(1030, 8)	0.472\pm0.102	0.476\pm0.106	0.494 \pm 0.102	0.301\pm0.057	0.301\pm0.057
ASN	(1503, 5)	0.568 \pm 0.062	0.560\pm0.062	0.550 \pm 0.069	0.352\pm0.055	0.352\pm0.055
CAC	(1994, 127)	0.571\pm0.105	0.585 \pm 0.092	1.481 \pm 0.167	0.703\pm0.101	0.703\pm0.101
PT	(5875, 19)	0.601 \pm 0.067	0.590\pm0.068	0.479 \pm 0.081	0.410\pm0.076	0.410\pm0.076
CCPP	(9568, 4)	0.241\pm0.038	0.241\pm0.038	0.358 \pm 0.041	0.224\pm0.037	0.224\pm0.037
Bold Count		8	10	2	11	11

280 D.2 Classification

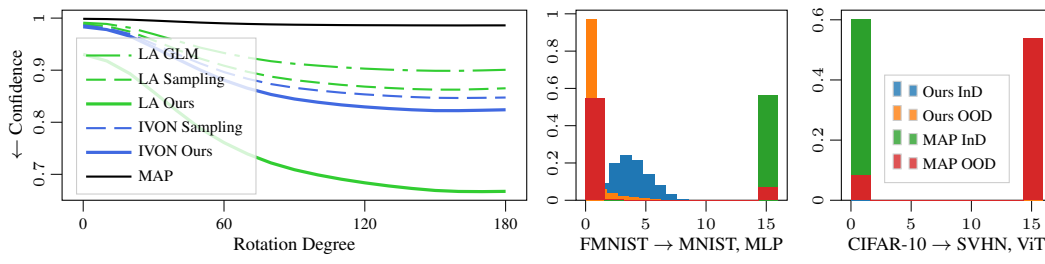
281 **Table 5** gives the classification data sets information and the neural network structure we used. We
 282 use ReLU activation for MLP. For ViT, we make the MLP block in the last two transformer block
 283 and the classification head Bayesian, and treat the rest of the weight deterministically. In **Table 6** we
 284 report the test accuracy, on SVHN the fine-tuning of MFVI failed and hence the bad performance.
 285 For the rest, Ours results in matching or better performance compared with sampling and GLM,
 286 indicating the effectiveness of our method.

Table 5: Classification experiment setup.

Dataset Name	(n, d)	Network Structure
MNIST	(50000, 784)	d -128-64-10
FMNIST	(50000, 784)	d -128-64-10
CIFAR-10	(50000, 3, 32, 32)	ViT-base
SVHN	(73257, 3, 32, 32)	ViT-base

Table 6: Accuracy \uparrow on classification data sets. Ours results in better or matching performance compared with sampling and GLM, indicating the effectiveness of our method.

		MFVI (Diag. Cov.)		LA (Kron. Cov. for MLP, Diag. Cov. for ViT)		
		Sampling	Ours	Sampling	GLM	Ours
MNIST	ViT	0.981\pm0.015	0.981\pm0.015	0.976\pm0.017	0.974 \pm 0.018	0.974 \pm 0.017
FMNIST	ViT	0.864\pm0.043	0.863\pm0.044	0.873\pm0.041	0.873\pm0.040	0.871\pm0.042
CIFAR-10	ViT	0.959\pm0.089	0.959\pm0.089	0.109 \pm 0.143	0.972\pm0.072	0.971\pm0.074
SVHN	ViT	0.196\pm0.177	0.196\pm0.177	0.197 \pm 0.180	0.724 \pm 0.200	0.758\pm0.191



(a) Evaluate MNIST trained MLP on Rotated MNIST. (b) Evaluate FMNIST trained MLP on FMNIST (InD) and MNIST (OOD). (c) Evaluate CIFAR-10 trained ViT on CIFAR-10 (InD) and SVHN (OOD).

Figure 4: Fig. 4a shows the performance on rotated MNIST and Ours results in lower NLPD. Figs. 4b and 4c shows the NLPD for InD and OOD data using the posterior inferred by MFVI. On CIFAR-10 as the posterior inferred by MFVI is extremely peaked (the highest variance being 0.0004), Ours has the almost same result as MAP. For FMNIST to MNIST, compared with MAP, Ours results in a more clear distribution shift. These Out-of-distribution detection results indicate Ours has good OOD predictive uncertainty.