Debugging Models using Explanations

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Advanced Topics in Machine Learning & Optimization - 2023-24

Outline

• Interacting via Input Attributions

- Model-agnostic
- End-to-end Differentiable

• Interacting via Example-based Explanations

- Adapting the example's influence
- Changing the example's label(s)

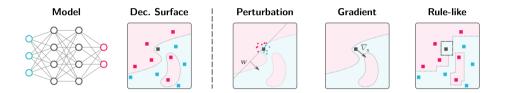
• Interacting via Concept-based Explanations

- Concept-based Models
- Neuro-symbolic Models

• Take-away

Input Attributions

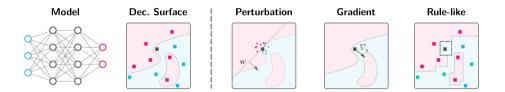
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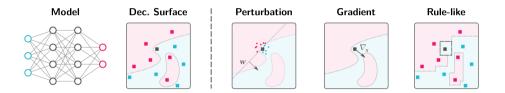
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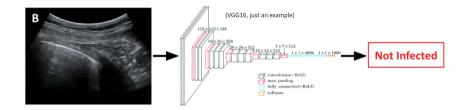


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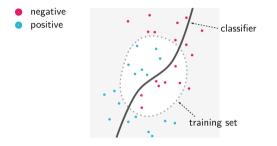
- Ignore architectural details (e.g., rely on decision surface only)
- Local: variables relevant for (x, y) may be irrelevant for a different, even similar, decision (x', y')

You need to be checked for COVID-19. The doctor takes a scan of your lungs and uses a state-of-the-art deep neural network to automatically compute a diagnosis. The model thinks that you are not infected.



Question: Would you trust the model's prediction?

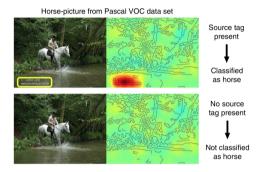
Clever Hans behavior & Explanations



• Training data is not representative of full distribution

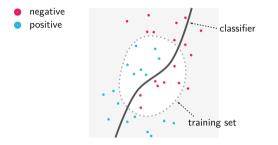
- Clever Hans behavior: model picks up shortcuts that optimize performance on training set
- Compromises test & OOD performance

Can be spotted using model's explanations

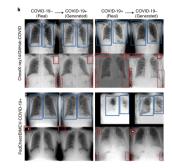


Source: (Lapuschkin et al., 2019)

Clever Hans behavior & Explanations



Can be spotted using model's explanations



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- Compromises test & OOD performance

Source: (DeGrave et al., 2021)

- Explanations are great for **identifying** bugs.
- They also hint at what should be done to fix those bugs.
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Idea: show explanations to *sufficiently expert* users (e.g., domain experts, machine learning/data science practitioners) and integrate their feedback into the model.

This hints at integrating explanations into interactive machine learning. How?

- Goal: learning vs debugging vs editing.
- Explanations used: local (input-, example-, concept- based) vs global.
- Feedback received: very many, often corrections to the explanations or to the training data.
- Incorporation: data augmentation vs additional loss.

A fuller description can be found in (Teso et al., 2022).

Explanatory Debugging (Kulesza et al., 2015)

Designed for quick customization in, e.g., spam detection.

Assumes naive Bayes classifier:

$$p(Y \mid \mathbf{x}) = rac{p(y) \cdot p(\mathbf{x} \mid y)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

where:

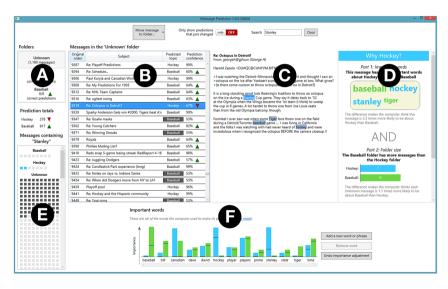
- p(y) is proportion of documents in class y
- $p(\mathbf{x} \mid y)$ assumes cond. indep. between words x_1, \ldots, x_ℓ

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid y) = \prod_{i} p(x_i \mid y)^{n_i}$$

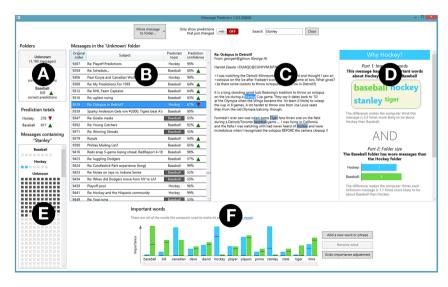
Here, n_i is the # of copies of word x_i in documents of class y, plus extra regularization (e.g., Laplace correction).

Debugging is carried out on these two terms independently.

Step 1: pick an example that looks fishy or are costly.



Step 2: look at the class probabilities.



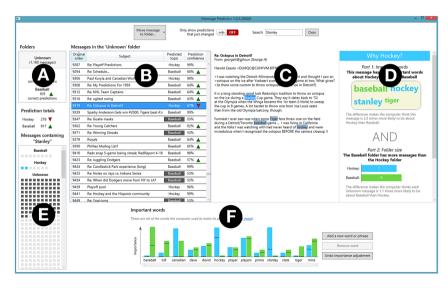
Step 3: look at the words that most impact the prediction – akin to a local explanation.



Step 4: check influence of class prior and individual words - in context.



Step 5: always have an overiview of overall word impact - akin to a global explanation.



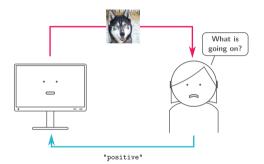
PROs:

- Designed to be user-compatible from the ground up.
- Allows users to select instances.
- Makes use of ad-hoc local and global explanations for communicating what the model learned.
- User feedback is integrated directly into parameters.
- User immediately sees impact of their feedback.

CONs:

- Limited to naive Bayes classifiers.
- User is responsible for choosing predictions to be debugged.
- Limited to simple tasks.

Active Learning is Opaque



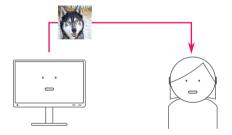
The user cannot:

- observe the model's beliefs
- affect them directly
- see what her feedback does

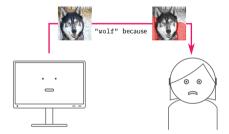
How can she:

- prevent the model from acquiring shortcuts?
- fix shortcuts acquired by the model?
- justifiably build/reject trust? ^a

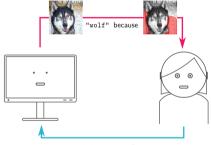
^aBut see (Honeycutt et al., 2020).



- Machine explains own predictions
 - helps with understandability
 - helps assessing competence

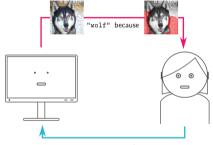


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How to **align** model to user's corrections in a general enough manner?

CAIPI (Teso and Kersting, 2019)

Corrections identify false relevant pixels: CAIPI converts them to regular examples & retrains

Example: if "wolf" predicted right for the wrong reasons:

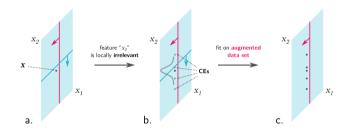


Counter-examples (k = 3)

Such CEs teach the model to predict the right label without using the random data

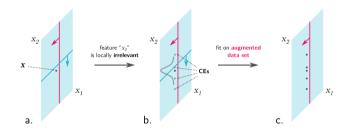
CAIPI: Counter-examples

Idea: sample k perturbed copies of (x, y) by randomizing irrelevant pixels



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CEs capture **invariances**: they show that the label does *not* change with x_2 .

In a sense, they are the *opposite* of counterfactuals/adversarial examples: counter-examples tell the model that the label should **not** change, counterfactuals seek changes that **do** impact the label.

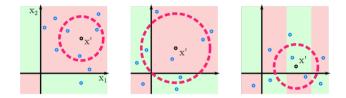
Intuitively, prediction (or score) at x should not depend on x₂, i.e.,

$$\langle (w_1, w_2), \mathbf{x} \rangle = \langle (w_1, 0), \mathbf{x} \rangle \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad \forall \text{ local } x'_2 \ . \ \langle (w_1, w_2), \mathbf{x} \rangle \rangle = \langle (w_1, w_2), (x_1, x'_2) \rangle$$

where w is a hyperplane that (locally) approximates f. The augmented examples $((x_1, x'_2), y)$ approximate an orthogonality constraint

Also works in feature space $\phi(\mathbf{x})$: randomize ϕ_i in place of x_i

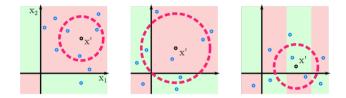
CAIPI and issues with LIME (Teso, 2019)



A bug appearing in LIME explanations may not reflect the model's actual reasoning.

Asking the user to correct such "fake" issues wastes the user's effort and does not improve the model.

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Can we do away with LIME?

$$p_{\theta}(1 \mid \mathbf{x}) = \sigma\left(\underbrace{\sum_{i} w_{i}(\mathbf{x})\phi_{i}(\mathbf{x})}_{\text{"score" of }\mathbf{x}}\right)$$

- $\phi: \mathbb{R}^d o \mathbb{R}^k$ embeds inputs into feature space
- $\mathbf{w}: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^k$ computes a weight vector for each input

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Linear models associated to nearby inputs x encouraged to be similar, i.e., in the neighborhood of any x_0 there exists a constant vector w_0 that depends only on x_0 and a "large enough" $\alpha > 0$ such that:

$$\sum_i w_i(\mathbf{x}')\phi_i(\mathbf{x}') \approx \sum_i w_{0i}\phi_i(\mathbf{x}_0) \qquad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}' \text{ that are closer than } \alpha \text{ to } \mathbf{x}_0$$

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If $w(x) \equiv w$ is constant w.r.t. x, we obtain a linear model again

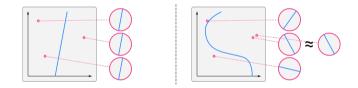
Left: a linear model. Notice that the weights w are constant everywhere.

Right: a SENN. Notice that **locally** the weights w(x) are almost identical!



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SENNs are stable locally (interpretability) but flexible globally (large capacity)

Input Gradient (Bachrens et al., 2010

The Input Gradient (IG) of f at x is:

$$\operatorname{IG}_i(f, (\mathbf{x}, y)) := \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}\operatorname{score}_f(\mathbf{x}, y)$$

I.e., relevance of *i*-th input is proportional to how much score of class y changes when perturbing x_i . It can be viewed from the lens of independent causal effects (ICE) (?).



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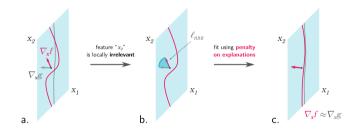


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- Benefits:
 - Enables end-to-end training: backprop through IGs is straightforward using Tensorflow, Pytorch, etc.
 - No more data augmentation: no extra space & no costly sampling required
 - No need to fine-tune and/or over-sample LIME, no variability in explanations



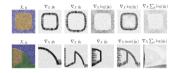
■ Ideally, align IG of (score of) learned model f to ground-truth g. In reality, the ground-truth gradient $\nabla_x g$ is unknown; supervision only denotes (some of) its null entries.

Like CAIPI, introduces a orthogonality constraint, except it is explicit & no sampling required

There exist a variety of "RRR-like" losses:

Name	Formalization		
RRR (Ross et al., 2017)	$\left(\sum_{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} s_{f}(\mathbf{x}, y)\right)^{2}$		
GradMask (Simpson et al., 2019)	$\left \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (s_f(\mathbf{x}, 0) - s_f(\mathbf{x}, 1)) \right $		
CDEP (Rieger et al., 2020)	$\left\ \operatorname{attr}(f,(\mathbf{x},y)) - \operatorname{expl}_i\right\ _2$		
RBR (Shao et al., 2021)	$\left(\sum_{y} \operatorname{IF}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} s_{f}(\mathbf{x}, y)\right)\right)^{2}$		

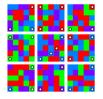
Many variants of RRR itself!

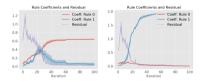


Some alternatives lead to better and more stable results

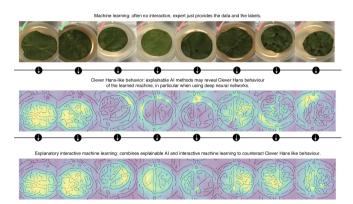
Source: (Ross et al., 2017).

Application: Hyperspectral Images





Source: (Teso and Kersting, 2019).



Source: (Schramowski et al., 2020).

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- ⊖ Substantial overhead (sampling)
- ⊖ Can be unfaithful (sampling)

XIL + RRR

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- General Space efficient
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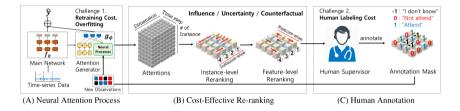
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Remark

Both strategies can be adapted to using **partial corrections**, i.e., where the annotator only corrects *part* of the inputs (pixels). This makes interaction much more affordable.

Interactive Attention Learning (Heo et al., 2020)

Human-in-the-loop learning for models with attention¹



Source: (Heo et al., 2020).

- Lowers retraining cost:
 - Only updates attention module rather than full model
 - Considerably speeds-up integrating human feedback
 - Can help with overfitting

- Prioritizes annotating incorrect/influential elements
 - Reranks both instances & features (e.g., words)
 - · Can leverage uncertainty, influence; CF score for feats
 - · E.g., prevents annotating already-correct examples

¹Notice that attention is not necessarily explainable, cf. (Bastings and Filippova, 2020).

Are Local Explanations Enough?

$\textbf{Machine-initiated Interaction} \rightarrow \textbf{Narrative Bias}$

The queries, predictions and explanations output by the model narrate the evolution of the model over time

By witnessing that the model's narrative, the human "teacher" builds trust into the "student" model

 $^{^{2}}$ Loss on explanations is affected too.

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• What if the machine (unintentionally) lies about its own performance? Nothing prevents the machine from repeatedly choosing instances on which it does well \rightarrow narrative bias

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T} L(f_t, x_t)}_{\text{loss at queries}} - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{X})}[L(f_T, \mathbf{x})]}_{\text{actual loss at }T}$$

i.e., difference between perceived and actual performance (loss).²

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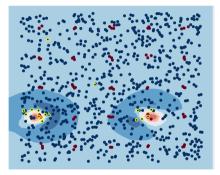
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This can occur even if the machine is not malicious!

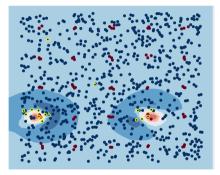
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Narrative Bias



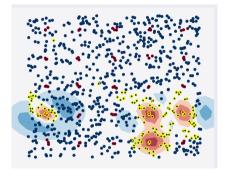
This is active learning with uncertainty sampling running on top of an RBF SVM on a simple red vs. blue classification task. The red points are arranged on a 5×5 grid.

Narrative Bias



The machine is affected by unknown unknowns: it is uncertain about regions close to the red clusters it has found, but completely certain that everything else is blue.

Narrative Bias



After 140 iterations, the machine is **still unaware** of most red clusters. Its predictions and explanations in the known region, however, will be very high quality \rightarrow **narrative bias**.

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If the user knows, give him/her tools for choosing challenging instances. (This is what professors do when testing students!)

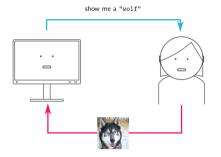
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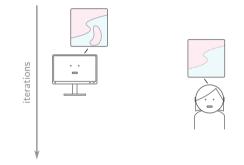
However, normally the human teacher is blind:

- impossible to establish justifiable trust
- she may provide examples that teach nothing new to the machine

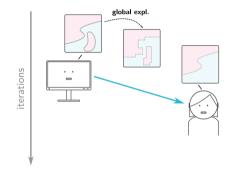
How can we expect the human to provide useful examples?



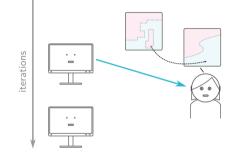
Idea: build on top of guided learning: the machine provides a target label *y*, asks the user for an instance x of that class. Easy to do with search engines.



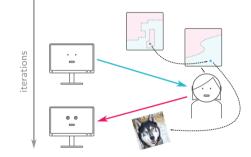
Assume the machine and user "decision surfaces" differ as shown in the picture. In regular guided learning, interaction is **opaque**: the user has no clue it should provide a **blue** example!



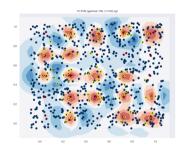
Instead, we use global explanations, e.g., rules that summarize the overall decision surface of the model. They provide a simplified, human-friendly view of the model's beliefs.



Based on rules, the user has the chance of identifying bugs and issues in the model – in this case, a blue region wrongly classified as red.



At this point, the user is free to provide a **counterexample** to the model, which is can then added to the training set and used to fine-tune the model as usual.



Dataset	AL (repr.)		AL (unc.)		GL		XGL	
	F_1	NB	F_1	NB	F_1	NB	F_1	NB
synthetic	0.55 ± 0.03	0.30	0.52 ± 0.01	0.34	0.47 ± 0.04	0.06	$0.70\pm0.12\bullet$	-0.69
adult	0.66 ± 0.04	-0.17	$0.67 \pm 0.02 \bullet$	-0.15	0.66 ± 0.05	0.08	0.64 ± 0.06	-0.64
australian	0.80 ± 0.06	-0.28	0.81 ± 0.06	-0.31	0.79 ± 0.06	0.01	$0.83 \pm 0.07 \bullet$	-0.83
banknote	$0.99 \pm 0.04 \bullet$	-0.07	$0.99 \pm 0.04 \bullet$	-0.08	0.97 ± 0.04	0.00	$0.99 \pm 0.04 \bullet$	-0.19
cancer	0.95 ± 0.03	-0.19	$0.96 \pm 0.03 \bullet$	-0.18	0.93 ± 0.03	0.01	0.95 ± 0.02	-0.46
credit	0.61 ± 0.02	-0.08	0.61 ± 0.02	-0.10	0.58 ± 0.02	0.06	$0.64 \pm 0.01 \bullet$	-0.64
german	$0.59 \pm 0.03 \bullet$	-0.07	0.55 ± 0.03	-0.04	$0.59 \pm 0.02 \bullet$	0.02	0.53 ± 0.02	-0.53
glass	0.77 ± 0.03	-0.11	$0.79 \pm 0.03 \bullet$	-0.06	0.77 ± 0.03	0.02	0.77 ± 0.03	-0.47
heart	0.69 ± 0.08	-0.23	0.70 ± 0.06	-0.18	0.69 ± 0.06	0.01	$0.71 \pm 0.07 \bullet$	-0.71
hepatitis	0.64 ± 0.05	0.09	0.66 ± 0.07	0.08	0.67 ± 0.06	0.05	$0.68 \pm 0.05 \bullet$	-0.22
iris	0.94 ± 0.02	-0.03	$0.95 \pm 0.01 \bullet$	-0.01	0.94 ± 0.01	-0.00	0.94 ± 0.02	-0.08
magic	$0.66 \pm 0.05 \bullet$	-0.15	0.65 ± 0.06	-0.17	$0.66 \pm 0.03 \bullet$	0.04	0.64 ± 0.04	-0.64
phoneme	0.69 ± 0.07	-0.16	$0.71 \pm 0.04 \bullet$	-0.17	0.68 ± 0.05	0.03	0.63 ± 0.04	-0.63
plate-faults	0.65 ± 0.06	-0.07	0.62 ± 0.08	0.01	$0.66 \pm 0.08 \bullet$	0.09	$0.66 \pm 0.07 \bullet$	-0.65
risk	0.90 ± 0.05	0.08	0.95 ± 0.08	-0.20	$0.96 \pm 0.07 \bullet$	-0.00	$0.96 \pm 0.07 \bullet$	-0.37
wine	0.89 ± 0.02	0.03	0.90 ± 0.02	0.02	0.91 ± 0.03	0.03	$0.95 \pm 0.02 \bullet$	-0.17

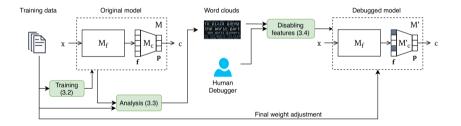
KGL achieves comparable performance and dramatically reduces narrative bias!

FIND (Lertvittayakumjorn et al., 2020)

Local explanations present a partial view of the model

Local fixes may have unclear global effects

FIND (Feature Investigation aNd Disabling) paints a more complete picture of the learned model by combining information about *multiple* local explanations.



Source: (Lertvittayakumjorn et al., 2020).

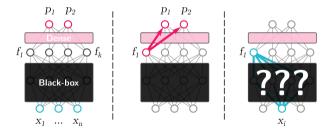
FIND (Lertvittayakumjorn et al., 2020)

■ NLP models prone to bad word-class associations, e.g., ⊕ sentiment word associated to ⊖ or neutral class

Realistic models with (i) black-box embedding $M_f : x \mapsto \mathbf{f}$ and (ii) dense layer $M_c : \mathbf{f} \mapsto c$:

 $\mathbf{p} = (\operatorname{softmax} \circ M_c \circ M_f)(x)$

Unclear what a latent feature f_i means, but clear how it maps to each class c



Makes it hard to map association between words (x) and classes probabilities (p)

FIND (Lertvittayakumjorn et al., 2020)

• For each *h_j*, **illustrate features** by identifying relevant words/*n*-grams using LRP (?). This gives a word cloud that combines relevance across all training examples



- User indicates bad word-class associations by clicking on words/n-grams in word cloud
- Disable bugged latent features:

 $\mathbf{p} = \operatorname{softmax}((W \odot Q)M_f(x) + \mathbf{b}))$

where \odot is element-wise multiplication and Q is a 0-1 "weight disabling matrix" built using user's feedback

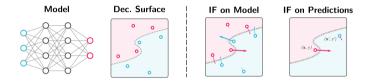
• Fine-tune dense layer params W while keeping embeddings frozen

```
Related to (Lage and Doshi-Velez, 2020), more in Part 4.
```

Interacting via Example-based Explanations

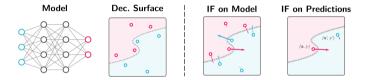
Example Attributions & Influence Functions

Given a predictor f and a target decision (x, y), example attributions identify what training examples are responsible for the model f & for the decision. Ideal for case-based reasoning & debugging when features are not sufficient



Example Attributions & Influence Functions

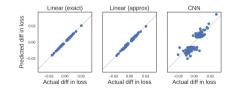
Given a predictor f and a target decision (\mathbf{x}, y) , example attributions identify what training examples are responsible for the model f & for the decision. Ideal for case-based reasoning & debugging when features are not sufficient



■ Influence Functions (IFs) estimate impact of reweighting a training example without retraining (Koh and Liang, 2017):

$$\mathcal{I}(z) = -H(\theta_m)^{-1} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(z, \theta_m)$$

Use chain rule to eval. impact on class scores, loss, input gradients, etc.

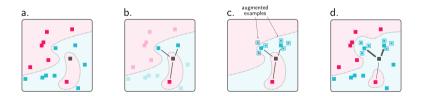


HILDIF (Zylberajch et al., 2021)

If Model's predictions may rely on the wrong examples \rightarrow correct the model's IF

HILDIF for Natural Language Inference:

- Select validation examples {(x_i, y_i)}
- For each of them, pick k most influential training points $\{(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}, \tilde{y}_{ij})\}$
- User supplies similarity $s_{ij} \in \{1, \dots, 5\}$ between *i*-th and *j*-th examples
- Augment data with $10 imes s_{ij}$ perturbed training points



Sequential Learning under Noise

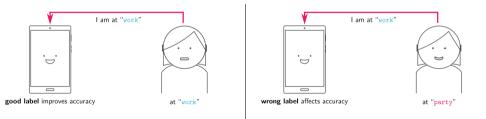
Learning from sequence of examples $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots$ but labels are noisy!

Applications: crowd-sourcing, citizen science, interactive personal assistants learning from diary data, ...

Sequential Learning under Noise

Learning from sequence of examples $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots$ but labels are noisy!

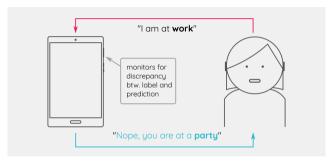
Applications: crowd-sourcing, citizen science, interactive personal assistants learning from diary data, ...



E.g., inexperienced annotators, unwillingness to self-report, \rightarrow poor performance

Skeptical Learning (SKL)

Skeptical machines challenge the user about suspicious examples

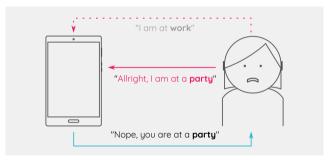


Intuition: suspicious examples (\mathbf{x}, \tilde{y}) identified by computing their margin:

$$\mu_{ heta}(\mathbf{x}) := p_{ heta}(\hat{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) - p_{ heta}(\tilde{y} \mid \mathbf{x})$$

i.e., the difference in likelihood between the model's prediction \hat{y} and the observed annotation \tilde{y}

The user is asked to **double-check** and **relabel** the suspicious examples



... this is often enough to correct mistakes due, e.g., to inattention

Noise can accumulate in the training set, because of:

- Pre-existing noisy data in the bootstrap set
- Incoming noisy data that elude the skeptical check (e.g. at initialization, when the model is uncertain)

This seriously impacts both prediction performance and ability to be skeptical: incoming noisy examples falling close to corrupted regions are not detected

SKL is also completely **black-box**:

• The user has no clue why the model is skeptical - what if it is because of a mistake in the training set?

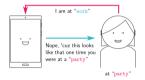
Ask (trustworthy) annotator to double-check and relabel incoming examples with suspiciously low likelihood:

 $p_{ heta}(\hat{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) \gg$ $p_{\theta}(\tilde{y} \mid \mathbf{x})$ pred. label annotatio

Ask (trustworthy) annotator to double-check and relabel incoming examples with suspiciously low likelihood:

$$\underbrace{p_{\theta}(\hat{y} \mid \mathbf{x})}_{\text{pred. label}} \gg \underbrace{p_{\theta}(\tilde{y} \mid \mathbf{x})}_{\text{annotation}}$$

Skeptical for the right reasons

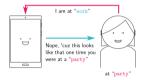


E.g., there is a past example "similar" to the current one but has a *different* label & it is annotated correctly.

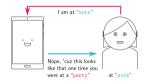
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Skeptical for the right reasons



Skeptical for the wrong reasons



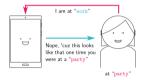
E.g., there is a past example "similar" to the current one but has a *different* label & it is annotated correctly.

E.g., data in support of skepticism is annotated wrongly or past lies ;-)

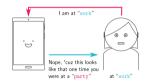
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Skeptical for the right reasons



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E.g., data in support of skepticism is annotated wrongly or past lies ;-)

CINCER

Find tr. examples $z_k \in \mathcal{D}$ explaining why model is skeptical about new example \tilde{z}_t , user fixes them

A counter-example is a **concrete** past example $z_k \in D$ that is:

- D1. Contrastive: it explains why \tilde{z}_t is suspicious (highlighting an inconsistency in data)
- D2. Influential: if mislabeled, correcting it should improve the model as much as possible.

Are there examples that satisfy *both* desiderata? Yes!

Intuition: a CE is contrastive if removing it from the data set and retraining leads to a less suspicious model.

Find CE $z_k \in D$ for \tilde{z}_t by maximizing the difference in likelihood:

$$\mathsf{argmax}_{k\in[t-1]}\;\left\{ P(ilde{y}_t\,|\,\mathbf{x}_t; heta_{t-1}^{-k}) - P(ilde{y}_t\,|\,\mathbf{x}_t; heta_{t-1})
ight\}$$

with θ_{t-1} current params, θ_{t-1}^{-k} params after deleting CE z_k .

Requires to retrain |t - 1| times; very impractical, especially in interactive settings.

Influence Functions

Influence Functions (IFs) approximate the change in parameters due to reweighting a training example:

$$\mathcal{I}_{ heta_t}(z) := \left. \frac{d}{d\epsilon} \theta_t(z,\epsilon) \right|_{\epsilon=0}$$
 (1)

$$\approx -H(\theta_t)^{-1} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(z, \theta_t) \tag{2}$$

where the Hessian is $H(\theta_t)$. IFs work even with non-convex models Koh and Liang (2017)

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where the Hessian is $H(\theta_t)$. IFs work even with non-convex models Koh and Liang (2017)

Idea: use chain rule to compute the change in likelihood due to removing an example:

$$-\frac{1}{t-1}\left(\left.\frac{d}{d\epsilon}P(\tilde{y}_t \,|\, \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1}(z_k, \epsilon))\right|_{\epsilon=0}\right) = -\frac{1}{t-1}\left(\left.\nabla_{\theta}P(\tilde{y}_t \,|\, \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1})^{\top} \frac{d}{d\epsilon}\theta_{t-1}(z_k, \epsilon)\right|_{\epsilon=0}\right) \tag{3}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{t-1} \nabla_{\theta} P(\tilde{y}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1})^{\top} \mathcal{I}_{\theta_{t-1}}(z_k)$$
(4)

The Algorithm: select contrastive CE $z_k \in \mathcal{D}$ by solving:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [t-1]} \nabla_{\theta} P(\tilde{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1})^\top H(\theta_{t-1})^{-1} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(z_k, \theta_{t-1})$$
(5)

Solve this by i) Caching the inverse Hessian-vector product (HVP), and ii) computing the inverse HVP with an efficient stochastic estimator

Contrastive CEs are Influential!

For the **cross-entropy loss** $\ell(z, \theta) = -\log P(y | x; \theta)$:

$$\nabla_{\theta} P(\tilde{y}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1}) = P(\tilde{y}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1}) \nabla_{\theta} \log P(\tilde{y}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1}) = -P(\tilde{y}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_t; \theta_{t-1}) \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\tilde{z}_t, \theta_{t-1})$$
(6)

Hence, the **objective** to be maximized can be rewritten as:

$$-\nabla_{\theta}\ell(\tilde{z}_{t},\theta_{t-1})^{\top}H(\theta_{t-1})^{-1}\nabla_{\theta}\ell(z_{k},\theta_{t-1})$$
(7)

Under this assumption, counter-example selection becomes:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [t-1]} - \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\tilde{z}_t, \theta_{t-1})^{\top} H(\theta_{t-1})^{-1} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(z_k, \theta_{t-1})$$
(8)

This recovers *exactly* the definition of influential examples: highly influential counter-examples are highly contrastive and vice versa!

The same algorithm selects examples that are both contrastive and influential.

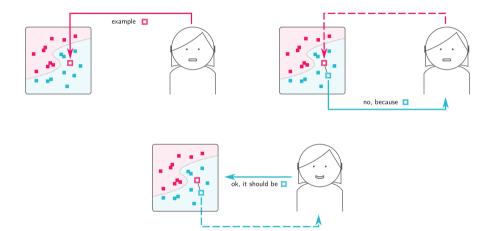
The CINCER Algorithm

Inputs: initial (noisy) training set \mathcal{D}_0 ; threshold τ .

Outputs:

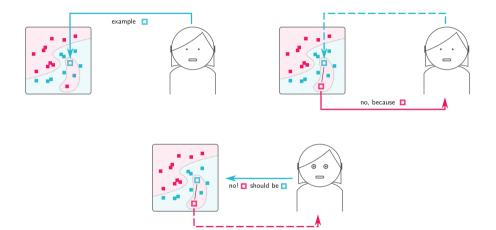
1: fit θ_0 on \mathcal{D}_0 ▷ Initialize model 2: for t = 1, 2, ... do receive new example $\tilde{z}_t = (\mathbf{x}_t, \tilde{y}_t)$ 3: if $\mu(\tilde{z}_t, \theta_{t-1}) < \tau$ then 4: \triangleright Does \tilde{z}_t look suspicious? $\mathcal{D}_t \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{t-1} \cup \{\tilde{z}_t\}$ ⊳ No 5: else 6: find counterexample z_k using the algorithm \triangleright Yes, find counter-example z_k 7: present \tilde{z}_t, z_k to the user, receive possibly cleaned labels y'_t, y'_k 8: $\mathcal{D}_t \leftarrow (\mathcal{D}_{t-1} \setminus \{z_k\}) \cup \{(\mathbf{x}_t, y_t'), (\mathbf{x}_k, y_k')\}$ 9: ▷ Update data set ▷ Update model fit θ_t on \mathcal{D}_t 10:

CINCER: Skeptical for the Right Reasons



1) User supplies mislabeled example "■". 2) Machine catches the mistake because of low likelihood; CINCER identifies clean example in support of machine' skepticism. 3) Attentive user realizes and rectifies her mistake.

CINCER: Skeptical for the Wrong Reasons



1) User supplies clean example "**■**". 2) Machine is skeptical because of low likelihood; CINCER identifies mislabeled example in support of machine' skepticism. 3) User relabels the mislabeled example.

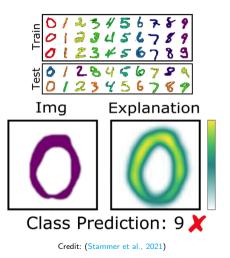
Interacting via Concept-based Explanations

Motivation - Limitations of Input-based Explanations

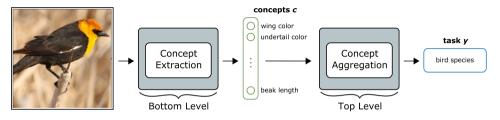
Lack of precision of input-based explanations for:

- Understandability
- Revisability

 \Rightarrow Difficult to access more abstract, concept-level reasons particularly for black-box models



Concept-Based Models (CBMs)

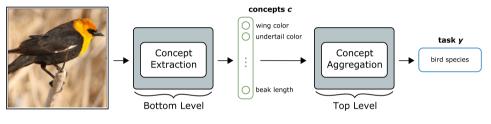


Modified figure from: (Koh et al., 2020)

Achieve partial, selective interpretability, via two step processing:

- Bottom level: f(x) = c, typically neural module extracts higher-level concepts from input samples
- Top level: g(c) = y, potentially more transparent module aggregates the concept activations for final prediction

Concept-Based Models (CBMs)



Modified figure from: (Koh et al., 2020)

- · Model's decision is roughly independent of input given concept activations
- · Concepts reperesentations are supervisedly or interactively human-aligned

Concept-Based Models – Learning Human-aligned Concept Representations

- Auto-encoder based concepts, inspectable for human-user (Alvarez-Melis and Jaakkola, 2018)
- Prototype representations e.g. of training samples or parts there of (Chen et al., 2019; Barnett et al., 2021b)
- Concepts exlicitly learned from supervision (Koh et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020)
- Interactively receiving feedback on feature-level dependencies (Lage and Doshi-Velez, 2020)

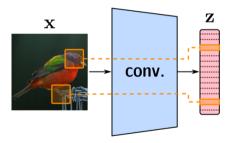
ProtoPNets Chen et al. (2019) are "gray-box" image classifiers that combine

- transparent reasoning
- flexibility of black-box neural networks

Prediction: compare the input image x with a set of part-prototypes, like objects or parts thereof.

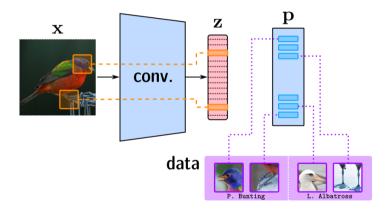
Train: optimize the log-likelihood of the data and two clustering losses that encourage the part-prototypes to strongly activate only on examples of their associated class.

Embedding stage



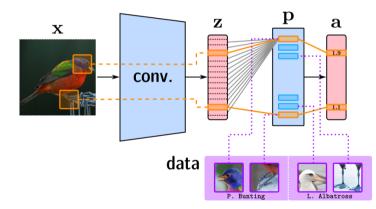
Part-Prototype Networks

Part-Prototype stage



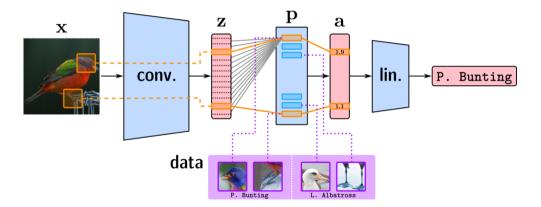
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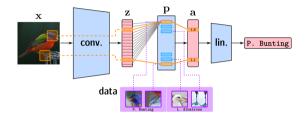


Part-Prototype Networks

Aggregation stage



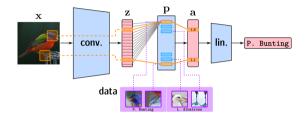
ProtoPNet explanations



For each part-prototype **p**, they compute:

1. relevance for the target decision (\mathbf{x}, y) given by the score $w_i a_i(\mathbf{x})$

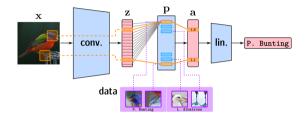
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- 2. attribution map $\operatorname{attr}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x})$ showing where they activate on the input

ProtoPNet explanations



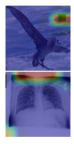
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- 3. training example that it projects onto

Confounding in ProtoPNets

Explanations expose confounds picked up from training data as part-prototypes. Models exploit confounds to **maximize** training set performance.

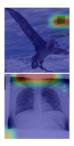
- class-correlated watermarks
- irrelevant patches of background sky, sea or foliage
- borders of X-ray lung scans



Confounding in ProtoPNets

Explanations expose confounds picked up from training data as part-prototypes. Models exploit confounds to **maximize** training set performance.

- class-correlated watermarks
- irrelevant patches of background sky, sea or foliage
- borders of X-ray lung scans



Issue: they impact generalization and out-of-distribution performance Lapuschkin et al. (2019).

How to dissuade the model from acquiring confounds?

Existing debugging strategies

 IAIA-BL penalizes part-prototypes activating on *pixels* annotated as irrelevant Barnett et al. (2021a)
 Limitations:

- attribution masks do not generalize across images
- substantial number of examples must be annotated
- acquiring per-pixel attribution is expensive



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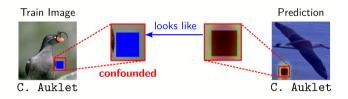
remove confounded prototypes and **fine-tune** the network and/or the top layer

Limitations:

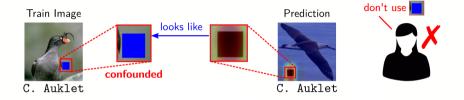
- re-learning the confound
- no guarantee that surviving prototypes capture meaningful information



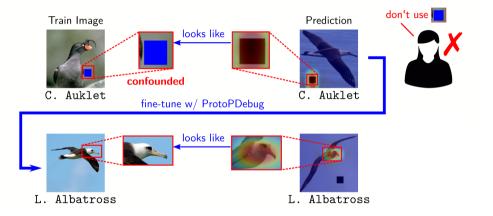
Concept-level debugging with ProtoPDebug



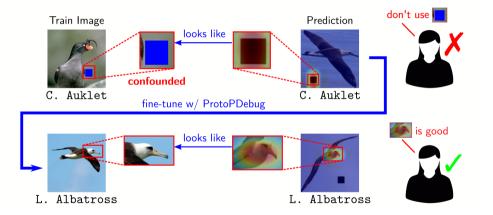
Concept-level debugging with ProtoPDebug



Concept-level debugging with ProtoPDebug



Concept-level debugging with ProtoPDebug



Forgetting loss $\underline{\text{minimizes}}$ how much the part-prototype p activates on the concept f to be forgotten

$$\ell_{ ext{for}}(heta) := rac{1}{v} \sum_{y \in [v]} \max_{\substack{\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{P}^y \ \mathbf{f} \in \mathcal{F}_y}} ext{act}(\mathbf{p},\mathbf{f})$$

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Remembering loss $\underline{maximizes}$ how much the part-prototype \mathbf{p} activates on the concept \mathbf{v} to be $\underline{remembered}$

$$\ell_{ ext{rem}}(heta) := -rac{1}{v} \sum_{egin{smallmatrix} \mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{P}_y \ \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V}_y \end{bmatrix}} \min_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V}_y} \operatorname{act}(\mathbf{p},\mathbf{v})$$

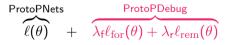
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Overall loss to fine-tuning the model



In each round:

- 1. iterates over all learned part-prototypes $\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{P}$
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- 5. if no confounds found, terminate
- 6. fine-tune by minimizing $\ell(\theta) + \lambda_{f}\ell_{for}(\theta) + \lambda_{r}\ell_{rem}(\theta)$

penalizes part-prototypes that activate on pixels annotated as irrelevant

concept-based (ProtoPDebug)

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cheap click-based feedback by showing part-prototypes activation on images

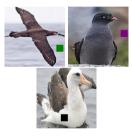
 Experiment 1
 Concept-level debugging is useful ...

 Experiment 2
 ... even for natural confounds ...

 Experiment 3
 ... and in high-stakes applications.

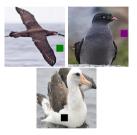
Experiment 1: Concept-level vs instance-level debugging

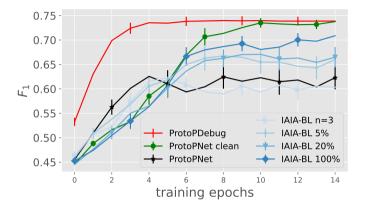
 $CUB5_{box}$: synthetic colored square added to 3 classes out of 5



Experiment 1: Concept-level vs instance-level debugging

 $CUB5_{box}$: synthetic colored square added to 3 classes out of 5





IAIA-BL with 100% pixel annotations fails to match the confound-free ProtoPNets_{clean} ProtoPDebug with only 3 single clicks reaches the performance of ProtoPNets_{clean}

CUB5_{nat}:

- 5 most confounded CUB200 classes
- contains **natural confounds** (patches of sky or foliage)

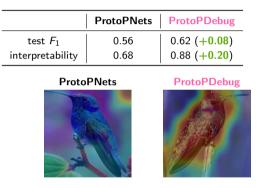
- swapped backgrounds of test images to prevent confounding to affect performance

Experiment 2: ProtoPDebug on CUB5_{nat}

three rounds of sequential debugging

CUB5_{nat}:

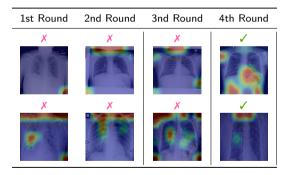
- 5 most confounded CUB200 classes
- contains natural confounds (patches of sky or foliage)
- swapped backgrounds of test images to prevent confounding to affect performance



ProtoPDebug improves over ProtoPNets and learn more interpretable prototypes

Experiment 3: ProtoPDebug on COVID

- COVID- vs. COVID+
- data sets: ????
- four rounds of sequential debugging

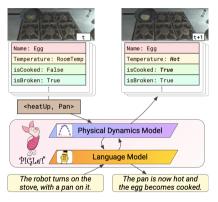


test F_1 : **ProtoPNets** (first column) 0.26 \rightarrow 0.54 **ProtoPDebug** (last column)

Grounded Natural Language Explanations (Zellers et al., 2021)

Grounded symbolic explanations via transformerbased physics dynamics model

- Use a pre-trained language module (BERT)
- Model learns grounded commonsense knowledge via interactions in a simulated physics environment
- Learns to communicate action predictions in symbolic form



Credit: (Zellers et al., 2021)

What is a concept?

Symbolic communication requires machine concepts to roughly match those understood and used by the user – in *both* directions.

Usually machine acquires concepts from data using heuristics – e.g., autoencoders, prototypes, etc. – but this gives no guarantees.

Even supplying concept-level supervision is **not enough** to ensure that concepts have the right semantis (e.g., concept leakage)

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- Explanations are a vital part in understanding the internal reasoning of a model and identify bugs
- Annotators **naturally** supply explanations (?).
- Aligning model's explanations with user's corrections fixes bugs
- We covered human-in-the-loop strategies for modern ML models / XAI techniques
- Research indicates particular advantage of symbolic, concept-level explanations for human-machine interactions (Kambhampati et al., 2021).
- Several exciting challenges remain, maybe for you to tackle?
- Curated literature available at: github.com/awesome-explanatory-supervision

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