Diffusion Visual Counterfactual Explanations

Abstract

Visual Counterfactual Explanations (VCEs) are an important tool to understand the decisions of an image classifier. They are "small" but "realistic" semantic changes of the image changing the classifier decision. Current approaches for the generation of VCEs are restricted to adversarially robust models and often contain non-realistic artefacts or are restricted to image classification problems with few classes. In this paper, we overcome this by generating Diffusion Visual Counterfactual Explanations (DVCEs) for arbitrary ImageNet classifiers via a diffusion process. Two modifications to the diffusion process are key for our DVCEs: i) an adaptive parameterization allows us to have hyperparameters that generalize across images and models and together with distance regularization and late start of the diffusion process allow us to generate close images and ii) our cone regularization via an adversarially robust model ensures that the diffusion process does not converge to trivial non-semantic changes but instead produces realistic images of the target class which achieve high confidence by the classifier.

1   Introduction

It can be argued that one of the main problems hindering the widespread use of machine learning is the missing possibility to explain the decisions of black-box models such as neural networks. This is not only a problem for decisions affecting humans where the current draft for AI regulation in Europe [10] requires "transparency", but it is a pressing problem in all applications of machine learning. The reason, to some extent, is that humans would like to understand but also control if the learning algorithm has captured the "concepts" of the underlying classes or if it just predicts well using spurious features, artefacts in the data set, or other sources of error. In this paper, we focus on model-agnostic explanations which can be applied to any classifier and do not rely on the specific structure of the classifier such as decision trees or linear classifiers. In this area, in particular for image classification, sensitivity based explanations [4], explanations based on feature attributions [3], saliency maps [47, 46, 19, 57, 52], Shapley additive explanations [33], and local fits of interpretable models [40] have been proposed.

Moreover, [56] proposed counterfactual explanations (CEs), which are instance-specific explanations. They can be applied to any classifier and it has been argued that they are close to the human justification of decisions [35] using counterfactual reasoning: "I would have recognized it as zebra (instead of horse), if it would have had black and white stripes." For a given classifier almost all methods for the generation of CEs [56, 16, 36, 6, 39, 55, 44] try to solve the following problem: "Given a target class c what is the minimal change δ of input x, such that $x + \delta$ is classified as class c with high probability and is a realistic instance of my data generating distribution?" From the perspective of "debugging" existing machine learning models, CEs are interesting as they construct a concrete input $x + \delta$ with a different classification that allows the developer to test if the model has learned the correct features.

Original	Class 1	Class 2	Original	Class 1	Class 2
chimpanzee 0.88	orangutan: 0.99	gorilla: 0.98	Chesapeake Bay ret.: 0.97	golden retriever: 0.99	labrador retriever: 0.92

Figure 1: Our method DVCE creates visual counterfactual explanations (VCEs) that explain any given classifier (here: non-robust ConvNeXt) by changing an image of one class into a similar target class by changing class relevant features in the foreground while preserving the overall image structure.

The main problem why visual counterfactual explanations (VCEs), that is CEs for image classification, are not widely used is that the problem of generating CEs is very related to the problem of adversarial examples [53] and thus even imperceivable changes of the image can already change the prediction, which clearly does not show to the user if the classifier has picked up the right class-specific features. One possible solution is using adversarially robust models [43, 1, 7], which have been shown to produce semantically meaningful VCEs by directly maximizing the probability of the target class in image space. These approaches have the downside that they only can generate VCEs for robust models which is a significant restriction as these models are not competitive in terms of prediction accuracy. The second approach is to restrict the generation of VCEs using a generative model or constraining the set of potential image manipulations [21, 22, 42, 8, 20, 45, 29]. However, these approaches are either restricted to datasets with a small number of classes, cannot provide explanations for arbitrary classifiers, or the generated images look realistic but are far away from the original one, so that the VCE and the original image have so little in common that not much insight can be gained.

Recently, [28] trained a StyleGAN model to discover and manipulate class attributes. While their approach yields impressive results on smaller-scale datasets with few similar classes (for example, different bird species), the authors did not demonstrate that the method scales to complex tasks such as ImageNet with hundreds of classes where different classes require different sets of attributes. Another disadvantage is that the StyleGAN model needs to be retrained for every classifier, making it prohibitively expensive to explain multiple large models. Moreover, [27] have proposed a loss to do VCEs in the latent space of a GAN/VAE. While they show promising results for MNIST/FMNIST, there is no code available for generating VCEs on ImageNet. Furthermore, they rely on a conditional GAN, which might introduce a bias as it interferes with the classifier, and it is unclear, how well an unconditional generative model will work.

In this paper, we overcome this by generating our Diffusion Visual Counterfactual Explanations (DVCEs) for arbitrary ImageNet classifiers. We use the progress in the generation of realistic images using diffusion processes [48, 26, 49, 51] reaching recently the level of GANs [15]. Similarly to [38, 2], we use a classifier and a distance-type regularization to guide the generation of the images. Two modifications to the diffusion process are key elements for our DVCEs: i) a combination of distance regularization and starting point of the diffusion process together with an adaptive reparameterization lets us generate VCEs visually close to the original image in a controlled way so that hyperparameters can be fixed across images and even across models, ii) our cone regularization of the gradient of the classifier via an adversarially robust model ensures that the diffusion process does not converge to trivial non-semantic changes but instead produces realistic images of the target class which achieve high confidence by the classifier. Our approach can be employed for any dataset where a generative diffusion model and an adversarially robust model are available. In a qualitative comparison and a user study in App. C we show that our DVCEs outperform the recent method of [7] as well as an adaptation of [2] for the generation of VCEs.

2 Diffusion models

Diffusion models [15, 48, 49, 26, 37] are generative models that consist of two steps: *forward diffusion* process (and thus a Markov process) that transforms the data distribution to a prior distribution (which is usually assumed to be a standard normal distribution) and the *reverse diffusion* process that transforms the prior distribution back to the data distribution. The existence of the (continuous-time)

80 reverse diffusion process was closer investigated in [51].

81 In the discrete-time setting, a Markov chain $\{x_1, ..., x_T\}$ for any data point x_0 in the forward direction

82 is defined via a Markovian process that adds noise to the data point at each timestep:

$$q(x_t|x_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\sqrt{1-\beta_t}x_{t-1}, \beta_t I), \tag{1}$$

83 where $\{\beta_1, ..., \beta_T\}$ is some variance schedule, chosen such that $q(x_T) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$. Note that given

84 x_0, it is possible to sample from $q(x_t|x_0)$ in closed form instead of applying noise t times using:

$$q(x_t|x_0) = \sqrt{\overline{\alpha}_t}x_0 + \epsilon\sqrt{1-\overline{\alpha}_t}, \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I), \tag{2}$$

85 where $\overline{\alpha}_t := \prod_{k=1}^t (1-\beta_k)$. As the number of total time steps, T approaches infinity, and the reverse

86 transitions $q(x_{t-1}|x_t)$ approach diagonal Gaussian distributions. Then one uses a DNN to predict

87 mean μ_θ and covariance Σ_θ for this reverse process with transition probabilities:

$$p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_\theta(x_t, t), \Sigma_\theta(x_t, t)). \tag{3}$$

88 To sample from $p_\theta(x_0)$, one samples x_T from $\mathcal{N}(0, I)$ and then follows the reverse process by

89 repeatedly sampling from the transition probabilities $p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t)$. Originally, diffusion models were

90 trained by optimizing a variational lower bound of the data likelihood [48]. Later, [26] proposed a

91 simplified loss L_{simple} that resembles a denoising auto-encoder:

$$L_{\text{simple}}(\theta, T, p_{\text{data}}) := \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E}_{x_0 \sim p_{\text{data}}} \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)} ||\epsilon - \epsilon_\theta(x_t, t)||_2^2, \tag{4}$$

92 where μ can be recovered as: $\mu_\theta(x_t, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}}(x_t - \frac{1-\alpha_t}{\sqrt{1-\overline{\alpha}_t}}\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t))$. [37, 15] combined both losses

93 to learn Σ and μ. In the continuous-time setting, [50, 25] have derived the respective lower bounds.

2.1 Class conditional sampling

95 There exist diffusion models trained with and without knowledge about classes in the dataset [15, 24].

96 For our experiments, we only use the class-unconditional diffusion model, such that all class-

97 conditional features are introduced by the classifier which we want to explain. For the noise-aware

98 classifier, the reverse process transitions are then of the form (Proof Appendix H in [15]):

$$p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t, y) = Z\, p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t)\, p_\theta(y|x_t, t) \tag{5}$$

99 for a normalization constant Z. Typically $p_\theta(y|\cdot)$ is a time-step aware classifier specifically trained

100 on noisy images belonging to time-step t [15]. As further we would like to explain any classifier and

101 not only noise-aware ones, we follow the approach of [2], where a classifier $p_\theta(y|\cdot)$ is given as an

102 input the denoised sample $\hat{x}_0 = f_{\text{dn}}(x_t)$ of x_t, using the mapping:

$$f_{\text{dn}} : \mathbb{R}^d \times \{1, ..., T\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d, \quad (x_t, t) \mapsto \frac{x_t}{\sqrt{\overline{\alpha}_t}} - \frac{\sqrt{1-\overline{\alpha}_t}\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t)}{\sqrt{\overline{\alpha}_t}}. \tag{6}$$

103 This mapping is derived from Eq. 2, from which we have that

$$x_0 = \frac{x_t}{\sqrt{\overline{\alpha}_t}} - \frac{\sqrt{1-\overline{\alpha}_t}\epsilon}{\sqrt{\overline{\alpha}_t}}, \tag{7}$$

104 and because we use our diffusion model $\epsilon_\theta(x_t, t)$ to predict ϵ. With this, we can define a time-step

105 aware posterior $p_\theta(y|x_t, t)$ for any classifier $p_\theta(y|\cdot)$ as $p_\theta(y|x_t, t) = p_\theta(y|f_{\text{dn}}(x_t, t))$.

106 The issue is that efficient sampling from the original diffusion model is possible only because the

107 reverse process is made of normal distributions. As we need to sample from $p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t, y)$ thousands

108 of times to obtain a single sample from the data distribution, it is not possible to use MCMC-samplers

109 with high complexity to sample from each of the individual transitions. In [15], they proposed to solve

110 it by approximating $p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t, y)$ with slightly shifted versions of $p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t)$ to make closed-form

111 sampling possible. Such transition kernels are given by:

$$p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t, y) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_t, \Sigma_\theta(x_t, t)), \tag{8}$$

112 where

$$\mu_t = \mu_\theta(x_t, t) + \Sigma_\theta(x_t, t)\nabla_{x_t} \log p(y|x_t). \tag{9}$$

Original	DVCE	Blended Diffusion C_c 10			Blended Diffusion C_c 25		
		$C_d = 100$	500	1000	100	500	1000
keeshond: 0.38	chow: 1.00	chow: 0.77	chow: 0.55	chow: 0.07	chow: 0.99	chow: 0.64	chow: 0.80
lynx: 0.72	cheetah: 0.99	cheetah: 0.67	cheetah: 0.38	cheetah: 0.77	cheetah: 0.95	cheetah: 0.73	cheetah: 0.98
weasel: 0.41	guinea pig: 1.00	guinea pig: 0.86	guinea pig: 0.12	guinea pig: 0.05	guinea pig: 0.93	guinea pig: 0.97	guinea pig: 0.70

Figure 2: DVCEs for the robust Madry [17] + FT model (taken from [7]) in the second column, and DVCEs using the setting of [2], such that regularization is applied for the whole image. We can see that due to our adaptive parameterization, the same parameter works across different images for DVCEs ($C_c = 0.1, C_d = 0.15$), and across different classifiers (see Fig. 5). For blended diffusion, it is difficult to choose a set of hyperparameters that, even for a single classifier, works for multiple images. For the l_2 and LPIPS regularization weights of blended diffusion, we report the parameter of LPIPS and always use an l_2 weight 10 times as large (the ratio used in [2]).

3 Diffusion Visual Counterfactual Explanations

A VCE z for a chosen target class c and a given classifier f and input x should satisfy the following criteria: i) **validity:** the VCE z should be classified by f as the desired target class c with high probability, ii) **realism:** the VCE z should be indistinguishable or at least close to a natural image, iii) **minimality/closeness:** the difference of the VCE z and the original image x should be the minimal semantic modification necessary to change the class, in particular, the generated image z should be close to x while being valid and realistic, e.g. by changing the object in the image and leaving the background unchanged. Note that while targeted adversarial examples are valid, they do not show meaningful semantic changes into the target class for a non-robust model and are also not realistic. Although adversarial l_∞ perturbations are (almost) imperceivable for humans, adversarial images are very unlikely to occur in nature.

The $l_{1.5}$-SVCE method of [7] optimizes the predicted probability of classifier into the target class by manipulating the image and is very close to the generation of adversarial examples and thus works only for adversarially robust classifiers. The realism of the image comes purely from the generative properties of robust classifiers [43] which can lead to artefacts. In contrast, our Diffusion Visual Counterfactual Explanations (DVCEs) work for any classifier and our generated images are more realistic due to the integration of diffusion models. An approach similar to our DVCE framework is blended diffusion of [2] which manipulates the image inside a masked region. However, it is easy to adapt it to the task of VCEs by allowing the whole image to be manipulated. DVCE and blended diffusion share the same diffusion model, but, as we show in the Appendix, blended diffusion cannot be applied to arbitrary classifiers and requires image-specific hyperparameter tuning, see Fig. 2.

3.1 Adaptive Parameterization

For the DVCE of the original image $\hat{x}$, we don't want to sample just any image x from $p(x|y)$ (high realism and validity) but also to make sure that $d(x, \hat{x})$ is small. To do this, we have to condition our diffusion process on $\hat{x}$. Using the introduced denoising function f_{dn} and analogously to the derivation

138 in [15] and following application in [29], the mean of the transition kernel becomes:

$$\mu_\theta(x_t, t) + \Sigma_\theta(x_t, t)\nabla_{x_t}\Big[C_c \log p\big(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t)\big) - C_d d\big(\hat{x}, f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t)\big)\Big], \qquad (10)$$

139 where C_c is the coefficient of the classifier, and C_d the one of the distance guiding loss. Intuitively,
140 we take a step in the direction that increases the classifier score while staying close to $\hat{x}$. Note that the
141 last term can be interpreted as the log gradient of a distribution with density $\exp(-\frac{d_t(\hat{x},\cdot)}{\sigma})$, where
142 $\sigma = \frac{1}{C_d}$ and $d_t(\hat{x}, \cdot) = d(\hat{x}, f_{\mathrm{dn}}(\cdot, t))$, thus we introduce a time-aware prior distribution that enforces
143 our output to be similar to $\hat{x}$. In our work, we use the l_1-distance as it produces sparser changes.
144 Several works have tried to minimize some distance during the diffusion process, implicitly in [9] or
145 explicitly, but for the background in [2]. However, there is no principled way to choose the coefficient
146 for such a regularization term. It turns out that it is impossible to find a parameter setting for blended
147 diffusion [2] that works across images and classifiers. Thus, we propose an adaptive parametrization

$$g_{\mathrm{update}} = C_c \frac{\nabla_{x_t} \log p_\theta(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t)))}{\|\nabla_{x_t} \log p_\theta(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t)))\|_2} - C_d \frac{\nabla_{x_t} d(\hat{x}, f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t))}{\|\nabla_{x_t} d(\hat{x}, f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t))\|_2}, \qquad (11)$$

148 relative to the predicted mean of the diffusion model that we use to change μ_t in Eq. 9 to

$$\mu_t = \mu_\theta(x_{t+1}, t+1) + \Sigma_\theta(x_{t+1}, t+1) \|\mu_\theta(x_{t+1}, t+1)\|_2 \, g_{\mathrm{update}}. \qquad (12)$$

149 The adaptive parameterization allows for fine-grained control of the influence of the classifier and
150 distance regularization so that now the hyperparameters C_c and C_d have the same influence across
151 images and even classifiers which facilitates the generation of DVCEs as otherwise hyperparameter
152 finetuning would be necessary for each image as in blended diffusion, see Fig. 2 for a comparison.
153 However, even with our adaptive parameterization, it is still not easy to produce semantically
154 meaningful changes close to $\hat{x}$ as can be seen in App. B.2. Thus, as in [2], we vary the starting point
155 in the diffusion process and observe in App. B.2 that starting from step $\frac{T}{2}$ of the forward diffusion
156 process, together with the adaptive parameterization and using as the distance the l_1-distance provides
157 us with sparse but semantically meaningful changes. In our experiments, we set $T = 200$.

3.2 Cone-Projection for Classifier Guidance

159 A major component of our DVCEs is that they can be applied to any image classifier regardless of
160 whether it is adversarially robust or not. However, it turns out that naively applying diffusion with the
161 new mean (Eq. 12) to a non-robust classifier does not work and leads to very small modifications of
162 the image, which are similar to adversarial examples without meaningful changes. The reason is that
163 gradients of non-robust classifiers are much noisier and less semantically meaningful. We illustrate
164 this for a non-robust Swin-Transformer[30] in Fig. 3 where hardly any changes are generated. Note
165 that this is even the case if we denoise the sample first using the denoising function f_{dn} (Eq. 6).

166 As a solution, we suggest projecting the gradient of a robust classifier, $\nabla_{x_t} \log p_{\mathrm{robust},\theta}(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t))$,
167 onto a cone centered at the gradient of the classifier, $\nabla_{x_t} \log p_\theta(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t))$, (we use $\alpha = 30°$ in all
168 experiments for non-robust classifiers). More precisely, we define

$$g_{\mathrm{proj}} = P_{\mathrm{cone}(\alpha, \nabla_{x_t} \log p_\theta(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t)))}\Big[\nabla_{x_t} \log p_{\mathrm{robust},\theta}\big(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t)\big)\Big],$$

169 where $\mathrm{cone}(\alpha, v) := \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d : \angle(v, w) \leq \alpha\}$ is the cone of angle α around vector v, and the
170 projection $P_{\mathrm{cone}(\alpha, v)}$ onto $\mathrm{cone}(\alpha, v)$ is given as:

$$P_{\mathrm{cone}(\alpha, v)}[w] := \begin{cases} \langle u, w \rangle u & , \angle(w, v) > \alpha \\ w & , \text{else}, \end{cases}$$

171 where $P_{v\perp}(w) := w - \frac{\langle w, v \rangle}{\langle v, v \rangle} v$ and we define $u = \sin(\alpha) \frac{P_{v\perp}(w)}{\|P_{v\perp}(w)\|_2} + \cos(\alpha) \frac{v}{\|v\|_2}$ (note that
172 $\|u\|_2 = 1$ and $\langle u, v \rangle = \cos(\alpha)$). The idea of this projection is that in this way we reduce drastically
173 the noise in the gradient of the non-robust classifier. Note, however, that the projection of the gradient
174 of the robust classifier onto the cone generated by the non-robust classifier is always an ascent
175 direction for $\log p_\theta(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t))$ and we still have the goal of maximizing this objective (note that
176 g_{proj} is not necessarily an ascent direction for $\log p_{\mathrm{robust},\theta}(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t)))$. Thus, one can see the cone
177 projection as a form of regularization of $\nabla_{x_t} \log p_\theta(y|f_{\mathrm{dn}}(x_t, t))$ which guides the diffusion process
178 into semantically meaningful changes of the classifier.

Original	Non-robust	Robust	Cone Proj.	Original	Non-robust	Robust	Cone Proj.
ladybug	weevil:
0.99	weevil:
1.00	weevil:
0.99	ringlet	monarch:
0.47	monarch:
1.00	monarch:
0.98

Figure 3: DVCEs for the non-robust Swin-Transformer[30], robust Madry[17] + FT model, and DVCEs for the same non-robust model. While the adversarially robust classifier is guiding the diffusion process to produce class-specific features, a non-robust classifier does not yield perceptually aligned gradients. By using a cone projection of the robust and non-robust gradients, we can satisfy all desired properties of VCEs.

3.3 Final Scheme for Diffusion Visual Counterfactuals

We summarize here the full scheme of DVCEs for a non-adversarially robust classifier $p_\theta(y|x)$ where we assume that we are given additionally the adversarially robust model $p_{\text{robust},\theta}(y|x)$:

$$g_{\text{proj}} = P_{\text{cone}(\alpha, \nabla_{x_t} \log p_\theta(y|f_{\text{dn}}(x_t,t)))} \Big[\nabla_{x_t} \log p_{\text{robust},\theta}\big(y|f_{\text{dn}}(x_t,t)\big)\Big],$$

$$g_{\text{update}} = C_c \frac{g_{\text{proj}}}{\|g_{\text{proj}}\|_2} - C_d \frac{\nabla_{x_t} d(\hat{x}, f_{\text{dn}}(x_t,t))}{\|\nabla_{x_t} d(\hat{x}, f_{\text{dn}}(x_t,t))\|_2},$$

$$\mu_t = \mu_\theta(x_{t+1}, t+1) + \Sigma_\theta(x_{t+1}, t+1) \|\mu_\theta(x_{t+1}, t+1)\|_2 \, g_{\text{update}},$$

$$p(x_t|x_{t+1}, \hat{x}, y) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_t, \Sigma_\theta(x_{t+1}, t+1)).$$

For a robust model, the only difference is that the cone projection is omitted and one uses $g_{\text{proj}} = \nabla_{x_t} \log p_{\text{robust},\theta}\big(y|f_{\text{dn}}(x_t,t)\big)$. We use in all our experiments $C_c = 0.1$, and $C_d \in 0.15$ unless we show ablations for one of the parameters. The angle α for the cone projection is fixed to $30°$. In strong contrast to blended diffusion, these parameters generalize across images and even classifiers and allow us to generate VCEs for arbitrary classifiers for which a diffusion model is available.

4 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate the quality of the visual counterfactual explanations of DVCE. We start by comparing DVCE to existing works in Sec. 4.1. In Sec. 4.2, we compare counterfactuals of DVCE for various state-of-the-art ImageNet models and show, how our method can be used to interpret differences between classifiers. For all experiments, we use the same set of hyperparameters for DVCE given in the last section. The diffusion model used for DVCE is taken from [15] and is trained class-unconditionally on ImageNet images of size 256x256 and uses a modified UNet architecture (more details in [15]). User study, further experiments, ablations, and details are in the Appendix.

4.1 Method comparison

Creating VCEs for ImageNet with 1000 vastly different classes is a challenging task and there only exist a small number of methods that try to solve it without reducing dataset size or image resolution. For evaluation purposes, we compare our method to blended diffusion [2] and a recent method for VCEs based purely on optimization [7]. As the latter only works for adversarially robust classifiers, we use the multiple-norm robust model from [7], which they call Madry [17] + FT, as the classifier to create VCEs for all three methods. Results can be found in Fig. 4, where we transform one image into two different classes that are close in the WordNet hierarchy[34].

The radius of the $l_{1.5}$-ball of [7] is chosen as the smallest $r \in \{50, 75, 100, 150\}$ such that the confidence in the target class is larger than 0.90 per image - if this is not reached, we show the one with highest confidence. For blended diffusion, we select the image with the smallest classifier and regularization weight that reaches confidence larger than 0.9 from the set of parameters discussed in Sec. 3.3. If 0.9 is not reached by any setting, we again show the one with highest confidence. For DVCEs, we only use the single set of parameters provided in the previous section. As the model is robust on its own, we do not use the cone projection in DVCE.

Figure 4: Comparison of different VCE-methods for the robust Madry[17] + FT (taken from [7]). We show our DVCEs (left column), the $l_{1.5}$-SVCEs of [7] (middle), and the adaptation of blended diffusion [2] for VCEs (right). For each original image (outer left column) we show the VCEs for two target classes. See the text for the parameter selection of all methods. Only DVCEs satisfy all desired properties of VCEs. Blended diffusion fails for leopard and tiger and often produces images far away from the original one (pizza, potpie, timber wolf, white wolf, and alp). $l_{1.5}$-SVCEs show artefacts (white wolf, volcano, night snake) and have often lower image quality.

As Fig. 4 shows, DVCEs is the only method that satisfies all desired properties of VCEs: i) the produced VCEs have high confidence in the target class, ii) are close to natural images, and iii) show minimal semantic changes in the target class. For example, for "mashed potato", DVCE preserves the bowl and only changes the content into either guacamole or carbonara. Our qualitative comparison shows that the same hyperparameter setting of DVCE can handle different classes and transfer between similar classes, such as different snakes or wolf types, as well as different object sizes. For example, it works for the "cheetah" which covers the entire image, but also for the "snake" which only

Original	Target Class 1			Target Class 2		
	Swin	ConvNext	EfficientNet	Swin	ConvNext	EfficientNet
loggerhead	leatherback: 0.93	leatherback: 0.99	leatherback: 0.99	box turtle: 0.97	box turtle: 0.99	box turtle: 0.99
black and golden garden spider	black widow: 0.95	black widow: 0.99	black widow: 1.00	tarantula: 0.99	tarantula: 1.00	tarantula: 1.00
sea urchin	sea cucumber: 0.98	sea cucumber: 0.99	sea cucumber: 0.99	starfish: 0.98	starfish: 0.99	starfish: 0.98
hen of the woods	agaric: 0.93	agaric: 1.00	agaric: 0.98	gyromitra: 0.96	gyromitra: 0.99	gyromitra: 1.00
lorikeet	macaw: 0.99	macaw: 0.99	macaw: 0.99	african grey: 0.98	african grey: 0.99	african grey: 0.99
mosque	stupa: 0.98	stupa: 0.98	stupa: 1.00	church: 0.99	church: 0.99	church: 0.98
red wolf	coyote: 0.99	coyote: 1.00	coyote: 1.00	timber wolf: 0.99	timber wolf: 0.99	timber wolf: 1.00
pineapple	jackfruit: 0.99	jackfruit: 0.99	jackfruit: 0.99	custard apple: 0.96	custard apple: 0.99	custard apple: 0.99

Figure 5: DVCEs for three non-robust classifiers (with ImageNet accuracy): Swin-T Transformer [30] (86.31%), ConvNext (87.02%) [31] and EfficientNet[58] (86.83%). For each original image (outer left column) we show DVCEs into two target classes. Please zoom into the images to see more fine-grained details and differences between the generated images.

covers a fraction of the input. In contrast, both $l_{1.5}$-SVCEs and blended diffusion VCEs require different hyperparameters for different images to achieve high confidence in the target class. Even with the six parameter configurations, blended diffusion is not able to produce always images with high confidence in the target class. Even more problematic for VCEs: sometimes the resulting images have high confidence but do not look realistic (cheetah $\rightarrow$ tiger) or do not resemble the original image at all (dingo $\rightarrow$ timber wolf/white wolf). Even if the method works with the given parameters, for example mashed potato $\rightarrow$ guacamole or carbonara, the overall image quality cannot match that of DVCE as often the images contain overly bright colors. In the case of the volcano VCE, DVCE shows class features like lava whereas blended diffusion VCE can not clearly be labeled as a volcano. For the $l_{1.5}$-SVCEs, one often needs large radii to achieve the desired confidence of 0.90, which often results in color artefacts and images that generally do not look realistic.

4.2 Model comparison

In Fig. 5 we show that DVCEs can be generated for various state-of-the-art ImageNet [41] models. We use a Swin-Transformer[30], a ConvNeXt [31] and a Noisy-Student EfficientNet [58, 54]. Both the Swin-Transformer and the ConvNeXt are pretrained on ImageNet21k [14] whereas the EfficientNet uses noisy-student self-training on a large unlabeled pool. As all models do not yield perceptually aligned gradients, we use the cone projection with $30°$ angle described in Sec. 3.2 with the robust model from the previous section. All other parameters are identical to the previous experiment. We highlight that DVCE is the first method capable of visualizing arbitrary classifiers on a task as challenging as ImageNet [41]. Overall, DVCEs satisfy all desired properties of VCEs. It also allows us to inspect the most important features of each model and class. For example, all three models have learned to associate the specific texture pattern of the box turtle with that particular class. For the stupa and church classes, it seems like all models use different roof and tower structures as the most prominent feature as they spent most of their budget on changing those.

5 Limitations, Future Work and Societal impact

In comparison to GANs, diffusion-based approaches can be expensive to evaluate as they require multiple iterations of the reverse process to create one sample. This can be an issue when creating a large amount of VCEs and makes deployment in a time-sensitive setting challenging.

We also rely on a robust model during the creation of VCEs for the cone projection. While we show that standard classifiers do not yield the desired gradients, training robust models can be challenging. An interesting direction for future research is thus to replace the cone projection with another "denoising" procedure for the gradient of a non-robust model.

From a theoretical standpoint, using conditional sampling with reverse transitions of the form Eq. 5 is justified, in practice, however, we have to approximate the reverse transitions with shifted normal distributions of the form Eq. 8. This approximation relies on the conditioning function having low curvature, and it can be hard to verify this once we start adding a classifier, distance and other possible terms and it is unclear how this influences the outcome of the diffusion process.

The quantitative evaluation of VCEs is difficult, as the standard FID metric compares the distribution of features of a classifier over a test and a generated dataset. However, for VCEs it is not only important to generate realistic images, but also to achieve high confidence and to create meaningful changes. Moreover, metrics such as IM1, IM2 [32] for VCEs rely on a well-trained (V)AE for every class, which is difficult to achieve for a dataset with 1000 classes and high-resolution images. Future research should therefore try to develop metrics for the quantitative evaluation of VCEs.

DVCEs and VCEs in general help to discover biases of the classifiers and thus have a positive societal impact, however one can abuse them for unintended purposes as any conditional generative model.

6 Conclusion

We have proposed DVCEs, a novel way to create VCEs for any state-of-the-art ImageNet classifier using diffusion models and our cone projection. Our DVCEs satisfy all desired properties of VCEs. Throughout the paper, we show that DVCEs can handle vastly different image configurations, object sizes, and classes.

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