THIS LOOKS LIKE IT RATHER THAN THAT: PROTOKNN FOR SIMILARITY-BASED CLASSIFIERS

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ABSTRACT

Among research on the interpretability of deep learning models, the 'this looks like that' framework with ProtoPNet has attracted significant attention. By combining the strong power of deep learning models with the interpretability of case-based inference, ProtoPNet can achieve high accuracy while keeping its reasoning process interpretable. Many methods based on ProtoPNet have emerged to take advantage of this benefit, but despite their practical usefulness, they run into difficulty when utilizing similarity-based classifiers, e.g., in domains where unknown class samples exist. This is because ProtoPNet and its variants adopt the training process specific to linear classifiers, which allows the prototypes to represent useful image features for class recognition. Due to this difficulty, the effectiveness of similarity-based classifiers (e.g., k-nearest neighbor (KNN)) on the 'this looks like that' framework have not been sufficiently examined. To alleviate this problem, we propose ProtoKNN, an extension of ProtoPNet that adopts KNN classifiers. Extensive experiments on multiple open datasets demonstrate that the proposed method can achieve competitive results with a state-of-the-art method.

1 INTRODUCTION

Deep learning has achieved very high accuracy in a variety of computer vision tasks. However, since the reasoning process of deep learning models is black-boxed and cannot be interpreted by human operators, it is very difficult to validate their inference, and this impedes their utilization in high-risk domains. To alleviate this problem, several methods to interpret the reasoning process of deep learning models have been proposed (Zhou, 2016; Selvaraju, 2017; Lundberg, 2017; Bau, 2017; Jiang, 2021; Hernandez, 2022). One of the main ones is the ante-hoc approach, which constructs inherently interpretable models. Because the explanations provided by the ante-hoc approach are closely related to the reasoning process, it has the advantage that the fidelity of the explanation is guaranteed.

However, inherently interpretable models generally suffer from degraded accuracy compared to black-box models. 'Gray-box' models have thus been proposed (Alvarez-Melis, 2018; Chen, 2019; Koh, 2020) to take advantage of the power of deep learning models while keeping the reasoning process interpretable. Among the gray-box model approaches, the 'this looks like that' framework with ProtoPNet (Chen, 2019) has attracted significant attention because it can guarantee a transparent reasoning process without any additional supervision. ProtoPNet first calculates the similarity of the input samples to the prototypes corresponding to an image patch in the training set and then classifies samples with inherently interpretable models on the basis of this similarity. This process enables ProtoPNet to explain its reasoning process by providing patches in the training set that the model considers similar to the input sample. Thus, interpretability with case-based reasoning is achieved. Thanks to this advantage in transparency, many methods based on ProtoPNet have been proposed (Wang, 2021; Nauta, 2021; Rymarczyk, 2021; Donnelly, 2022; Keswani, 2022; Rymarczyk, 2022).

When training ProtoPNet, the weights of the linear classifier connecting each of the prototypes and class logits are fixed, and the feature vectors corresponding to an image patch are linked to the prototypes if the prototypes make a positive contribution to the class logits to which the image belongs. This enables the prototypes to represent the image patches most useful for class recognition. However, due to this special training process, it is difficult for ProtoPNet to utilize any classifiers other than the linear classifier. As an alternative, Nauta (2021) proposed ProtoTree, which use a deci-

sion tree for the last classifier. However, this method is limited to the decision tree, which makes it difficult to utilize in similarity-based classifiers with the 'this looks like that' framework. Similarity-based classifiers perform inference on the basis of similarities between samples and are known to be useful in situations where unknown class samples (Luo, 2019; Deng, 2019) or anomalies (Masana, 2018) exist; as such, they are quite important in practical terms. Therefore, in this work, we extend ProtoPNet so that we can utilize similarity-based classifiers (specifically, k-nearest neighbor (KNN) classifiers) in the 'this looks like that' framework and examine its effectiveness. Our contributions are three-fold.

- We propose ProtoKNN, an extension of ProtoPNet that can utilize KNN classifiers. This is the first work to examine the effectiveness of similarity-based classifiers in the 'this looks like that' framework.
- We developed a novel loss function for ProtoKNN that replaces the cluster loss in ProtoPNet. This enables us to train our model without predefining the relationship between classes and prototypes.
- The proposed method achieved competitive results with a state-of-the-art ProtoPNet variant on multiple open datasets.

2 METHOD

In the following, we first describe the notation [1] used in this paper and then briefly revisit the origins of ProtoPNet and elaborate on why it cannot directly utilize similarity-based classifiers. After that, we present the training strategy of the proposed method and explain how to classify the samples. Finally, we explain how to interpret the reasoning processes of our method.

2.1 PRELIMINARY

The input image and its class labels are denoted as x and y, respectively. Unless otherwise specified, we use subscripts $a, b, ...$ to denote the data indices. Thus, an input image and its class label are denoted as x_a and y_a, respectively. The index sets of the images in a minibatch and their cardinality are denoted as $\mathbb{B}$ and $|\mathbb{B}|$, respectively. We use F to denote the feature extractor and $\mathbf{Z}$ to denote the feature map output by F, i.e., $\mathbf{Z}_a = F(x_a)$. $\boldsymbol{z}$ is used to denote the feature vectors contained in a pixel of the feature map $\mathbf{Z}$. We also call these feature vectors 'image patch features' in this paper. The prototypes are denoted as $\boldsymbol{p}$, and we use $i, j, ...$ to denote their indices. The index sets of the prototypes are denoted as $\mathbb{P}$. The indicator function is denoted as $\mathbf{1}(\text{condition})$, which returns 1 if the condition is true and 0 otherwise.

2.2 REVISITING PROTOPNET

ProtoPNet first transforms an input image x_a into a feature map $\mathbf{Z}_a$ with its feature extractor F. After the transformation, the similarity between the prototypes $\{\boldsymbol{p}_i\}_{i=0,1,...}$ and the image patch features contained in the feature map $\mathbf{Z}_a$ are calculated. The maximum similarity value is defined as the similarity of the input image x_a to the prototypes, as

$$s_{a,i} = \max_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a} Sim(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{p}_i). \tag{1}$$

Here, we denote the similarity of the input image x_a as $\boldsymbol{s}_a$ and its component corresponding to $\boldsymbol{p}_i$ as $s_{a,i}$. Sim is the function that calculates the similarity between the feature vectors and the prototypes. Many functional forms have been proposed for Sim (Chen, 2019; Nauta, 2021; Wang, 2021; Donnelly, 2022), and in this study, we use cosine similarity. As stated earlier, the inference is conducted on the basis of this similarity.

The training process of ProtoPNet is divided into two steps: (1) training the feature extractor and the prototypes and (2) fine-tuning the classification layer. In the following, we mainly describe the training of the feature extractor and the prototypes. In this step, the classification layer weights are fixed by the predefined relationship between the class labels and prototypes, and the training is conducted to minimize the loss function composed by classification loss, cluster loss, and separation

[1] We basically follow `https://github.com/goodfeli/dlbook_notation/`.

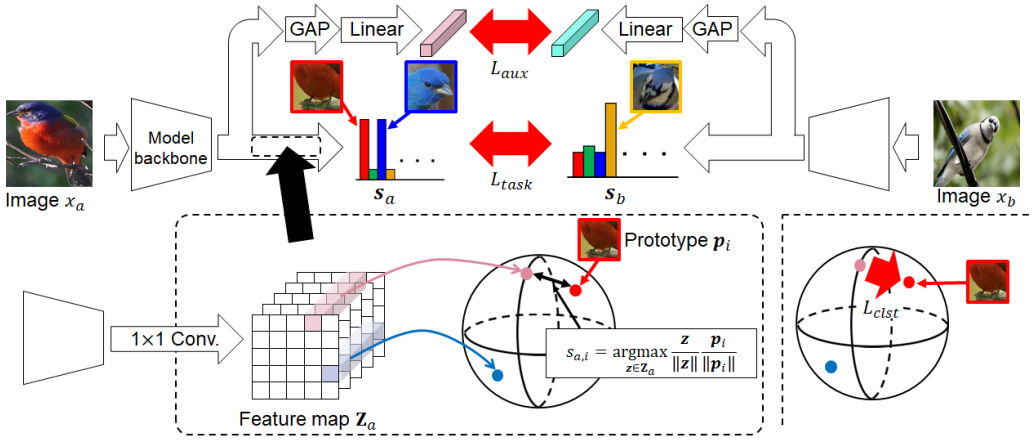

Figure 1: The loss scheme of the proposed method.

loss. Classification loss is the loss function used to train the model so that it can solve the classification task, and they use the cross-entropy loss. Cluster loss is used to link the image patch features and the prototypes within the same class, and the separation loss is vice versa. In ProtoPNet, the cluster loss and the separation loss are defined as

$$L_{clst} = \frac{1}{|\mathbb{B}|} \sum_{a \in \mathbb{B}} \min_{i \in \mathbb{P}_+^{y_a}} \min_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a} D(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{p}_i), \; L_{sep} = -\frac{1}{|\mathbb{B}|} \sum_{a \in \mathbb{B}} \min_{i \in \mathbb{P}_-^{y_a}} \min_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a} D(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{p}_i). \tag{2}$$

Here, we denote the function that calculates the (Euclidean) distances between the image patch features $\boldsymbol{z}$ and the prototype $\boldsymbol{p}$ as $D(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{p})$. We also denote the index sets of the prototypes belonging to the class label y_a as $\mathbb{P}_+^{y_a}$ and vice versa as $\mathbb{P}_-^{y_a}$. As explained above, ProtoPNet needs to define which prototype contributes to which class logits, and this definition enables each of the prototypes to represent useful image features for recognizing the class labels. This definition is also utilized in calculating the cluster loss. However, in the training for the similarity-based classifiers, this predefined relationship can no longer be used. Thus, ProtoPNet cannot directly utilize a similarity-based classifier for its final classifier. To address this problem, our proposed training process features a novel loss function that replaces the cluster loss in ProtoPNet (described in Sec. 2.3.2).

After the training, each prototype is projected onto the nearest image patch features in the training set. This makes the prototypes transparent and enables us to interpret their meanings. Thus, the case-based interpretability is achieved by classifying samples based on the similarity of the input samples to the prototypes. Note that the interpretability of the classification layer is the only requirement for achieving case-based interpretability. We examine the effectiveness of the KNN classifier, which is an interpretable similarity-based classifier, later in this paper.

2.3 Training Process

As described above, ProtoPNet utilizes three loss functions: classification loss, cluster loss, and separation loss. In the proposed method, we do not use the separation loss because we expect the prototypes to be common among the samples with different class labels. Instead, we use the auxiliary loss function proposed in the context of deep metric learning to help the backbone model acquire better feature extraction ability. In summary, we train our models with three loss functions: classification loss L_{task}, the novel cluster loss L_{clst}, and auxiliary loss L_{aux}. Figure 1 shows the loss scheme of the proposed method. The details of each loss are described in the following.

2.3.1 Classification Loss L_{task}

In contrast to ProtoPNet and its variants, the proposed method performs inference on the basis of similarity between samples. Therefore, in the space spanned by the similarity between the prototypes and the input images, it needs to be 'discriminable' rather than 'separable'. We therefore use the loss function (Wu, 2017) typically utilized in the context of deep metric learning instead of the ordinarily

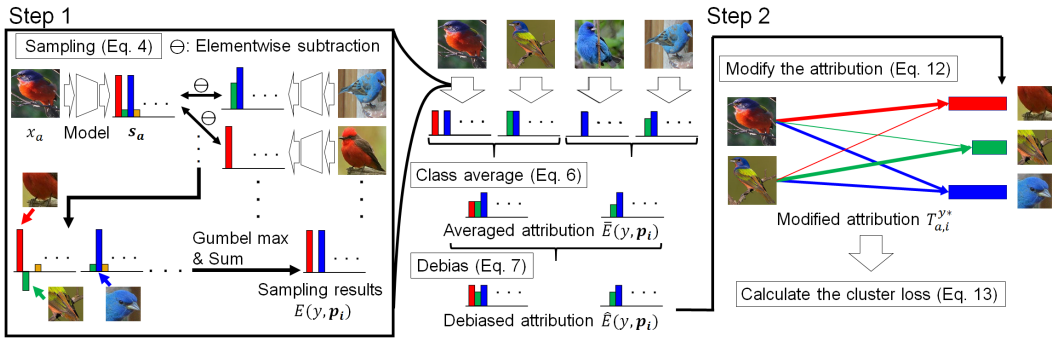

Figure 2: Overall process of calculating the cluster loss.

used cross-entropy loss for L_{task}. Thus, we calculate L_{task} as

$$L_{task} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{a \in B} ([d_{ap} + m - \beta]_+ + [m - d_{an} + \beta]_+), \tag{3}$$

where m, β are margin and learnable parameters, and a, p, and n are the data indices of the anchor, the hard-positive, and the hard-negative samples, respectively. d_{ap} and d_{an} are the Euclidean distance defined as $\|\boldsymbol{s}_a - \boldsymbol{s}_p\|_2$ and $\|\boldsymbol{s}_a - \boldsymbol{s}_n\|_2$, respectively. The ReLU function is denoted as $[\cdot]_+$, and N is the number of terms that take a non-zero value in the summation.

2.3.2 Cluster Loss L_{clst}

As described in Sec. 2.2, the predefined relationship between the prototypes and the class labels is no longer available, so we need to calculate which image patch features should be attached to each of the prototypes and to what degree. Thus, we calculate the cluster loss with two steps: (1) calculating the affiliation of the prototypes to each class, and (2) linking image patch features to the prototypes on the basis of the affiliation calculated in (1). The details of each of these steps are as follows, which are summarized in Fig. 2.

Step 1: Calculating the affiliation of the prototypes to each class. In this step, we estimate the affiliation of the prototypes to each class from the samples contained in a minibatch. To do so, we compare the similarities of the samples contained in the minibatch to the prototypes. If the image feature represented by a prototype $\boldsymbol{p}_i$ is contained in sample x_a and not in sample x_b, we can expect that the similarity ($\boldsymbol{s}_a$) of sample x_a to prototype $\boldsymbol{p}_i$ is greater than the similarity ($\boldsymbol{s}_b$) of sample x_b to prototype $\boldsymbol{p}_i$. Therefore, by extracting the prototypes with a large difference between $\boldsymbol{s}_a$ and $\boldsymbol{s}_b$ for all of the indices in the minibatch ($b \in \mathbb{B}$), we can construct a set of the prototypes contained in x_a. To achieve this, stochastic sampling with the Gumbel-Max trick is conducted by

$$E(x_a, \boldsymbol{p}_i) = \sum_{b \in \mathbb{B}/\{a\}} \Gamma\left(\frac{s_{a,i} - s_{b,i}}{\tau}\right), \tag{4}$$

where τ is the temperature parameter (fixed to 0.05 in this paper). Γ is the Gumbel-Max operation (Jang, 2017) and returns 1 for the index of the sampled prototype and 0 otherwise, i.e.,

$$\Gamma(s_i) = \mathbf{1}\left(i = \arg\max_j \frac{\exp(s_j + \gamma_j)}{\sum_k \exp(s_k + \gamma_k)}\right), \tag{5}$$

where γ_j and γ_k are the random variables that follow the standard Gumbel distribution. We obtain the sampling results $\bar{E}(y, p_i)$ with respect to each class label y by averaging the sampling results $E(x_a, p_i)$ among the samples that have the same class labels, as

$$\bar{E}(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i) = \frac{\sum_{a \in \mathbb{B}} E(x_a, \boldsymbol{p}_i) \mathbf{1}(y_a = y)}{\sum_{b \in \mathbb{B}} \mathbf{1}(y_b = y)}. \tag{6}$$

The sampling results $\bar{E}(y, p_i)$ can still be biased toward some prototypes independent of the class labels, which is undesirable. Thus, we de-bias the sampling results following the equation below so

that they are not biased toward any specific prototype.

$$\hat{E}(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i) = \frac{\bar{E}(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i)}{\sum_{y_a} \bar{E}(y_a, \boldsymbol{p}_i)} \tag{7}$$

Finally, we calculate the affiliation of the prototypes to the class label y by normalizing the sampling results $\hat{E}(y, p_i)$, as

$$P(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i) = \frac{\hat{E}(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i)}{\sum_j \hat{E}(y, \boldsymbol{p}_j)} \tag{8}$$

Step 2: Linking the prototypes and image patch features based on the affiliation. In this step, we calculate and minimize the cluster loss to link the image patch features to the prototypes based on their affiliation to each class calculated in Step 1. Here, due to the various views of objects in the images, the samples do not always contain the prototypes whose affiliation to the class is high. Therefore, we need to modify the affiliation for each sample. Note that we can relatively estimate how much the sample x_a contains the image feature represented by the prototype $\boldsymbol{p}_i$ on the basis of the distance between them ($\min_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a} \|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{p}_i\|_2^2$). Therefore, we propose to modify the attribution considering the distance. Specifically, we formulate this problem as a linear assignment problem:

$$T^{y*}_{a,i} = \underset{T^y_{a,i}}{\arg\min} \sum_{a,i} T^y_{a,i} C_{a,i} \ s.t. \ \sum_i T^y_{a,i} = \mathbf{1}(y_a = y), \ \sum_a T^y_{a,i} = P(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i) \cdot \sum_b \mathbf{1}(y_b = y), \tag{9}$$

where the cost function $C_{a,i}$ is defined as

$$C_{a,i} = \min_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a} \|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{p}_i\|_2^2. \tag{10}$$

The solution $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ can be considered as the modified attribution of the prototypes to each sample, whose average among the samples match the attribution to the class. The components of $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ would be small when the sample x_a does not contain the prototype $\boldsymbol{p}_i$, i.e., when the distance between them is large, and high the other way around. Thus, we use the solution $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ to calculate the cluster loss, as

$$L_{clst} = \sum_y \sum_{a,i} T^{y*}_{a,i} C_{a,i}. \tag{11}$$

Here, the sum over y is conducted over all class labels in the minibatch.

To minimize Eq. 11, we need to solve Eq. 9. However, quickly obtaining an exact solution to Eq. 9 is difficult, and it is not necessary for it to be unique. Therefore, we approximately solve Eq. 9 with the Sinkhorn-Knopp algorithm (Cuturi, 2013) and re-define $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ as

$$\begin{aligned} T^{y*}_{a,i} &= \underset{T^y_{a,i}}{\arg\min} \sum_{a,i} T^y_{a,i} C_{a,i} + \frac{1}{\lambda} T^y_{a,i} \log T^y_{a,i} \\ s.t. \ &\sum_i T^y_{a,i} = \mathbf{1}(y_a = y), \ \sum_a T^y_{a,i} = P(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i) \cdot \sum_b \mathbf{1}(y_b = y) \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

where λ is the hyper-parameter determining the weight of the entropy regularization term (fixed to 0.05 in this paper).

We also modified the proposed cluster loss to maximize the gap between the minimum and the average distance between the prototypes and the image patch features following ProtoPool(Rymarczyk, 2022). The aim of this modification is to address the problem that the learned prototypes tend to focus on the background (Rymarczyk, 2022). We re-define our cluster loss (Eq. 11) as

$$L_{clst} = \sum_y \sum_{a,i} T^{y*}_{a,i} \hat{C}_{a,i}, \ where \ \hat{C}_{a,i} = \min_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a} \|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{p}_i\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{|\mathbf{Z}_a|} \sum_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a} \|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{p}_i\|_2^2 \tag{13}$$

where $|\mathbf{Z}_a|$ is the number of pixels contained in the feature map $\mathbf{Z}_a$.

Differentiability. To strictly set the affiliation of the prototypes that should not be included to zero, we use the argmax function when sampling the prototypes (Eq. 4) in Step 1. Therefore, the affiliation of the prototypes to each class $P(y, p_i)$ is not differentiable with respect to the model parameter.

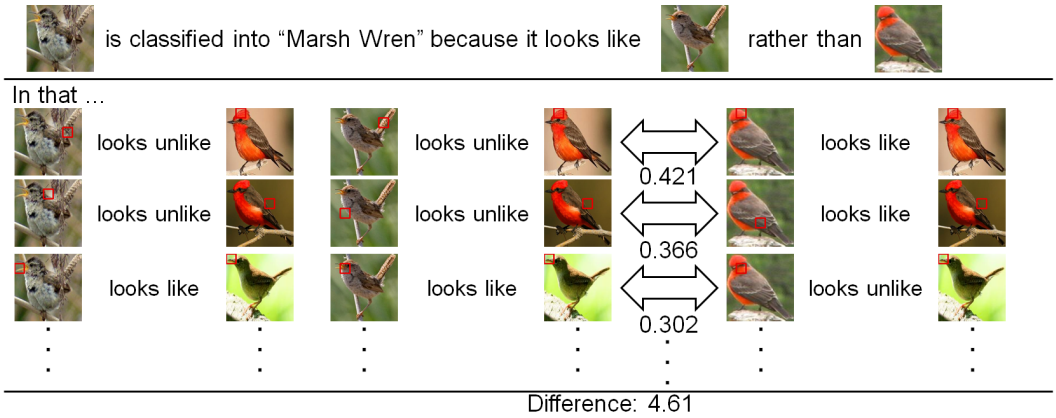

Figure 3: An example of the interpretation of the proposed method.

In addition, since it consumes a lot of memory to obtain the gradient through the Sinkhorn-Knopp algorithm with the automatic differentiation, we treat $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ as the constant and use the gradient through $\hat{C}_{a,i}$ to train the model parameters. These problems for obtaining the gradients of $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ with respect to the model parameters can be solved by replacing the argmax function with softmax and providing the explicit derivative of the Sinkhorn-Knopp algorithm (Eisenberger, 2022). Validating these solution is outside the scope of this paper and is left for future work.

2.3.3 Overall Loss Function and Prototype Projection

As stated earlier, we utilize the loss function proposed in the context of deep metric learning (Wu, 2017; Kim, 2020) to help the model backbone acquire better feature extraction ability. By denoting this auxiliary loss as L_{aux}, the overall loss function of the proposed method can be written as

$$L_{total} = L_{task} + \lambda_{clst} \cdot L_{clst} + \lambda_{aux} \cdot L_{aux}, \tag{14}$$

where λ_{clst} and λ_{aux} are the hyper-parameters that respectively determine the weight of each loss. We empirically set $\lambda_{clst} = 0.1$ and $\lambda_{aux} = 1.0$ in this paper. After the training, each prototype is projected onto the nearest image patch features in the training set following

$$\boldsymbol{p}_i \leftarrow \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{z}} \frac{\boldsymbol{z}}{\|\boldsymbol{z}\|} \frac{\boldsymbol{p}_i}{\|\boldsymbol{p}_i\|} \tag{15}$$

This guarantees that each prototype represents the corresponding image patches, and thus the transparency of the prototypes is achieved. We can then achieve case-based interpretability by classifying samples on the basis of their similarity to the prototypes.

2.4 Label Prediction

To predict the class label with our method, given the test sample x_{test}, we first retrieve the nearest top-k samples from the training set. Here, k is the hyper-parameter of the KNN classifier and we use the Euclidean distance for the distance metric, i.e., the difference between samples x_a and x_b is calculated by $\|\boldsymbol{s}_a - \boldsymbol{s}_b\|_2^2$. Then, the prediction y_{pred} is given by the majority decision of the retrieved top-k samples $R(x_{test}, k)$, i.e., $y_{pred} = \arg\max_y \sum_{x_a \in R(x_{test},k)} \mathbf{1}(y_a = y)$. In the experimental section, we report the results with $k = 1, 3$, and 5.

2.5 Interpretation of The Reasoning Process

We limit the following explanation of the proposed method's inference interpretation to the case of $k = 1$ for simplicity. The proposed method can achieve a counterfactual explanation for why the input sample is classified into the predicted class rather than another class. In the following, we refer to the input image as the anchor sample and to the sample nearest to the anchor sample in the training set as a positive sample. We also refer to the class of interest other than the predicted class

Table 1: Accuracy comparison on full images of CUB200-2011 with various model backbones. The results of ProtoPNet are directly borrowed from Donnelly (2022). 'V', 'R', and 'D' denote VGG, ResNet, and DenseNet, respectively. Here, the top-1 accuracy [%] is reported.

Model	V16	V19	R34	R50	R152	D121	D161
ProtoPNet(Chen, 2019)	70.3	72.6	72.4	81.1	74.3	74.0	75.4
Def. ProtoPNet(Donnelly, 2022)	75.7	76.0	76.8	86.4	79.6	79.0	81.2
ProtoKNN (k=1) + Margin	75.5	76.7	76.9	87.0	80.3	78.5	80.8
ProtoKNN (k=3) + Margin	76.6	77.2	77.3	87.1	**80.6**	79.3	81.2
ProtoKNN (k=5) + Margin	**77.2**	**77.6**	**77.6**	**87.2**	**80.6**	**79.8**	**81.4**

as a negative class and the nearest sample with the negative class label to the anchor sample in the training set as a negative sample.

As shown in Fig. 3, the proposed method explains its inference by using the positive and negative samples. In contrast to the naive KNN classifier, which only provides the positive sample for the reason of its inference, the proposed method can further explain why the distance between the anchor and the negative samples is larger than the distance between the anchor and the positive samples. Later, we will refer to the distance between the anchor and the positive (negative) samples as d_{ap} (d_{an}). Here, we used the subscripts a, p, and n to denote the data indices of the anchor, the positive, and the negative samples, respectively. In the proposed method, the distance between two samples is determined by the difference between the similarity of each sample to the prototypes. Therefore, by extracting the prototypes that have a large contribution to d_{an} and a small contribution to d_{ap}, we can explain which image feature is responsible for the difference between d_{ap} and d_{an}. In other words, the prototype with the largest contribution to $d_{an}^2 - d_{ap}^2 = \|\boldsymbol{s}_a - \boldsymbol{s}_n\|_2^2 - \|\boldsymbol{s}_a - \boldsymbol{s}_p\|_2^2$ can be considered as the reason for why the anchor sample is classified into the predicted class.

Consider the interpretation example shown in Fig. 3. First, the anchor sample (top left) and the negative class (Vermilion Flycatcher) are given. Then, the positive (top center) and the negative (top right) samples are retrieved from the training dataset. As a result, we find that d_{an}^2 is 4.61 greater than d_{ap}^2 (denoted as 'Difference') in this case. Next, as described above, we extract the prototypes that make the largest contribution to $d_{an}^2 - d_{ap}^2$, as shown in the middle table in Fig. 3. The extracted results are the reason for why the anchor sample is classified into 'Marsh Wren' rather than 'Vermilion Flycatcher'. Specifically, these results show that the main reason is that the negative sample has a red head, while the anchor and the positive samples do not. We can also see that this difference makes d_{an}^2 0.421 greater than d_{ap}^2. Similarly, by repeating the interpretation described above for the second and third results, we can quantitatively interpret why d_{an}^2 is greater than d_{ap}^2. Further examples for the interpretation of the proposed method can be found in the Appendix.

3 Experimental Results

We conducted experiments on three public datasets: CUB200-2011 (Wah, 2011), Stanford Dogs (Khosla, 2011), and Stanford Cars (Krause, 2013). Due to space limitations, we only describe the experimental results here. Other details (including implementation details) are provided in the Appendix.

3.1 Comparison With The Other Method

Tables 1 and 2 show the top-1 accuracy of the proposed method with various model backbones on CUB200-2011 and Stanford Dogs, respectively. Here, we directly borrowed the results of ProtoPNet from Donnelly (2022). In these experiments, we used the full images following Donnelly (2022). As shown, our method achieved competitive results with Deformable ProtoPNet (Donnelly, 2022).

Tables 3 and 4 show the comparison results with the state-of-the-art method among variants of ProtoPNet. Here, we cropped the images using bounding boxes following the previous studies (Chen, 2019; Wang, 2021; Rymarczyk, 2022). We also set the number of prototypes to that of ProtoPool (Rymarczyk, 2022). As we can see, our method achieved a higher accuracy than the

Table 2: Accuracy comparison on full images of Stanford Dogs with various model backbones. 'V', 'R', and 'D' denote VGG, ResNet, and DenseNet, respectively. Here, the top-1 accuracy [%] is reported.

Method	V19	R152	D161
ProtoPNet(Chen, 2019)	73.6	76.2	77.3
Def. ProtoPNet(Donnelly, 2022)	77.9	86.5	83.7
ProtoKNN (k=1) + Margin	76.9	85.9	84.7
ProtoKNN (k=3) + Margin	78.6	86.9	**85.7**
ProtoKNN (k=5) + Margin	**79.3**	**87.3**	**85.7**

Table 3: Accuracy comparison on Stanford Cars with state-of-the-art method. Here, 'R' denotes ResNet and top-1 accuracy [%] is reported.

Method	R50
ProtoTree(Nauta, 2021)	86.6
ProtoPool(Rymarczyk, 2022)	88.9
ProtoKNN (k=1) + Margin	90.2
ProtoKNN (k=3) + Margin	90.8
ProtoKNN (k=5) + Margin	**90.9**

Table 4: Accuracy comparison on CUB200-2011 with state-of-the-art method. '*' and '**' denote the ensemble results with 3 and 5 models, respectively.

Method	Top-1 Acc.
ProtoPNet(Chen, 2019)	79.2% (*84.8%)
ProtoTree(Nauta, 2021)	82.2% (**87.2%)
TesNet(Wang, 2021)	82.8% (**86.2%)
ProtoPool(Rymarczyk, 2022)	85.5% (**87.6%)
Def. ProtoPNet(Donnelly, 2022)	86.4% (**87.8%)
ProtoKNN (k=1) + Margin	87.1%
ProtoKNN (k=3) + Margin	87.4%
ProtoKNN (k=5) + Margin	**87.5%**

Table 5: Ablation study on L_{aux} using full images of CUB200-2011. Top-1 accuracy [%] is reported here.

k	L_{aux}	Res34	Res50
k=1	None	74.7%	86.0%
k=3	None	75.3%	86.5%
k=5	None	75.9%	86.6%
k=1	Margin	76.9%	87.0%
k=3	Margin	77.3%	87.1%
k=5	Margin	**77.6%**	87.2%
k=1	Proxy-Anchor	77.0%	87.0%
k=3	Proxy-Anchor	77.5%	**87.3%**
k=5	Proxy-Anchor	77.3%	87.2%

other method when using a single model, and it even achieved competitive results with the ensemble results of the other method in Table 4. Specifically, our method achieved a higher accuracy than ProtoPool when we used the same model backbone and the same number of prototypes. These findings demonstrate the effectiveness of utilizing the similarity-based classifier.

We can also ensemble multiple models even when the similarity-based classifier is utilized. However, how to ensemble the models is not obvious and examining it is beyond the scope of this paper; we therefore leave this investigation to future work.

3.2 Ablation Study

To examine the effectiveness of each component of the proposed method, we conducted an ablation study on CUB200-2011 with the full images. In the following, we present the ablation study for L_{aux}. We include the ablation study for our cluster loss in the Appendix. For L_{aux}, we used margin loss (Wu, 2017) and proxy anchor loss (Kim, 2020). This is because the learned feature representation might be different when using the ranking-based losses (e.g., margin loss) and when using the classification-based losses (e.g., proxy anchor loss) (Kobs, 2021). We chose one typical loss function from each group.

The results of the ablation study are shown in Table 5. As we can see, the accuracy improved regardless of whether margin loss or proxy anchor loss was adopted for L_{aux}. Thus, we can confirm that L_{aux} helps the backbone model to acquire better feature extraction ability. We can also see that the proposed method utilized the learned good feature representation whether the ranking-based or classification-based loss was adopted for L_{aux}. Moreover, the improvement was marginal when ResNet50 was adopted for the model backbone compared to when ResNet34 was adopted. This is because we used ResNet50 pretrained on i-Naturalist 2017, so it has already acquired good feature extraction ability. Therefore, we can conclude that L_{aux} is more effective when the pretrained model has not already acquired good feature extraction ability.

4 RELATED WORKS

Research on the interpretability of deep learning models can be divided into two approaches: (1) the post-hoc approach, which analyzes trained black-box models, and (2) the ante-hoc approach, which constructs inherently interpretable models. The post-hoc approach is beneficial when analyzing already deployed models because no re-training is required. However, in some cases, the explanations provided by a post-hoc method will have nothing to do with the model inference (Rudin, 2019). To address this problem in fidelity, some works have utilized the Shapley value (Shapley, 1951) and proposed methods with a theoretical guarantee (Lundberg, 2017; Hamilton, 2022). However, calculating the Shapley value is NP-hard and it is difficult to apply these methods to high-dimensional data such as raw images. Moreover, most methods explain the model inference by providing the image region that contributes the most to the model inference, and the properties of the explanation are thus very different from those provided by ProtoPNet and its variants. This makes it extremely difficult to evaluate the interpretability of these approaches in a unified manner, which is why we have omitted any comparison with the post-hoc approaches from the paper. In the following, we describe the variants of ProtoPNet (Chen, 2019), which is the basis of our method.

After Chen (2019) proposed the 'this looks like that' framework with ProtoPNet, many methods based on ProtoPNet were proposed, and they have improved in both accuracy and efficiency by reducing the number of the prototypes (Wang, 2021; Rymarczyk, 2021; Donnelly, 2022; Keswani, 2022; Rymarczyk, 2022). In particular, ProtoPool (Rymarczyk, 2022) has succeeded in directly learning the prototypes that are common among inter-class samples and achieved high accuracy. However, as explained in Sec. 2.2, these methods all have difficulty in utilizing similarity-based classifiers. ProtoPool, even though it is quite successful, requires 'slots' specific to certain classes and still has difficulty utilizing classifiers other than linear ones. Alternatively, ProtoTree (Nauta, 2021) utilizes a decision tree for its classifier and has achieved high accuracy while reducing the number of prototypes, However, its training process is specific to the decision tree and it thus also has difficulty utilizing the similarity-based classifier. To address this problem, our work extends ProtoPNet so that we can utilize the similarity-based classifier, and to the best of our knowledge, it is the first work that combines the similarity-based classifier with the 'this looks like that' framework.

Our method is also related to research in the field of deep metric learning. Many methods have been proposed to achieve a good feature representation space in this context (Wu, 2017; Wang, 2019; Kim, 2020), most of which utilize the cosine similarity to calculate the similarity between samples (Kim, 2020). However, it is unreasonable to L2-normalize the similarity of each sample to the prototypes, which makes it difficult to directly adopt these loss function as L_{task} in our method. Instead, we adopt these losses as L_{aux} to take advantage of the deep metric learning and help the model backbone acquire better feature representation.

5 DISCUSSION

Limitation. Our method utilizes the KNN classifier for classification, so we need to maintain the similarity of each sample in the training set to the prototypes during inference. This is not desirable from the viewpoint of memory efficiency. This problem can be solved by properly selecting the samples from the training set to be used during the inference, which we leave to future work.

Conclusion and future work. In this paper, we proposed a method in which a KNN classifier is combined with the 'this looks like that' framework. Extensive experiments on multiple open datasets showed that the proposed method achieved competitive results with a state-of-the-art ProtoPNet variant, thus demonstrating the effectiveness of utilizing similarity-based classifiers in the 'this looks like that' framework.

In contrast to other methods based on ProtoPNet, our method performs inference on the basis of the distance between samples determined by the similarity of each sample to the prototypes. Thus, its output is not necessarily class logits but may be the distance between samples. Therefore, an interesting direction for future research is the application of the proposed method to image retrieval tasks. We hope our method will help efforts toward the application of the 'this looks like that' framework to other tasks beyond the traditional classification tasks.

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A IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

We conducted our experiments based on the implementation of Roth (2020) and used VGG16, VGG19, Resnet34, Resnet50, Resnet152, Densenet121, and Densenet161 for our model backbone in this paper. Following previous works (Nauta, 2021; Donnelly, 2022; Rymarczyk, 2022), we utilized the models pretrained on i-Naturerist 2017 when conducting experiments on CUB200-2011 and using ResNet50 for the model backbone. We also used the models pretrained on ImageNet for the other experimental settings. The size of the input images was transformed into 224×224, so the resolution of the feature map output from the model backbone was 7×7. Following previous studies (Rymarczyk, 2022; Nauta, 2021), we reduced the number of channels in the feature map to 128 for the experiments on Stanford Cars and to 256 for the other datasets by applying a 1×1 convolutional layer. After the channel reduction, we calculated the similarity between the prototypes and the image patch features contained in the feature map, and the maximum values of the similarity among the feature map were output as the similarities of the input samples to the prototypes. These similarities were then used to calculate L_{task} during the training and to retrieve KNN samples during the inference. We also applied Global Average Pooling (GAP) and a linear layer to the feature map output by the model backbone and obtained the feature vectors, where the number of feature vector channels was set to the same as that of the prototypes. Note that these feature vectors were not used during the inference, though we did use them during the training to calculate L_{aux}. When cropped images were used, we followed previous work (Rymarczyk, 2022) and set the number of prototypes to 195 for Stanford Cars and to 202 for CUB200-2011. We also set the number of prototypes to 512 on all datasets when we used the full images.

During the training, we used the Adam optimizer and set the learning rate to 1e-5 for the model backbone and to 1e-3 for the other layers. For data augmentation, we used RandomPerspective, ColorJitter, RandomHorizontalFlip, RandomAffine, and RandomCrop following ProtoTree (Nauta, 2021). When testing with cropped images, we simply resized them to 224×224, and when using full images, we added RandomResizedCrop and set the minimum scale parameter to 0.6 during the training. We also resized the short side of the images to 256 and then cropped the center to resize them to 224×224 when testing with the full images. Further, to reduce the complexity during training, we first initialized the prototypes so that they were uniformly placed on the hyper-sphere and fixed them (Mettes, 2019), which means they were updated only when we projected them onto certain image patch features in the training set after initialization. The number of epochs was set to 140, 140, and 60 for the experiments on Stanford Cars, CUB200-2011, and Stanford Dogs, respectively. We constructed the minibatch so that it contained 56 classes and two images per class. When we used DenseNet161 for our model backbone, due to limitations on the GPU memory, the minibatch contained 42 classes and two images per class. Note that we report the average experimental results with three different seeds in this paper.

B FURTHER EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we explain the experimental results we omitted from the main paper due to space limitations.

Table 6: Summary of experimental settings of ablation study on cluster loss.

	$T^{y*}_{a,i}$
Just take the most similar	$\mathbf{1}(i = \arg\min_j (\min_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{Z}_a}) \lVert \boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{p}_j \rVert)$
+ Sampling	$\bar{E}(y_a, p_i) / \sum_j \bar{E}(y_a, p_i)$
+ Debias	$\hat{E}(y_a, p_i) / \sum_j \hat{E}(y_a, p_i)$
+ Linear assignment	$\arg\min_{T^y_{a,i}} \sum_{a,i} T^y_{a,i} C_{a,i} + \frac{1}{\lambda} T^y_{a,i} \log T^y_{a,i}$
	$s.t.\ \sum_i T^y_{a,i} = \mathbf{1}(y_a = y),\ \sum_a T^y_{a,i} = P(y, \boldsymbol{p}_i) \cdot \sum_b \mathbf{1}(y_b = y)$

Table 7: Results of ablation study on cluster loss with CUB200-2011. We used ResNet50 for our model backbone and Margin loss for L_{aux}.

	Top-1 Accuracy ↑			Variance of the prototypes ↑
	k=1	k=3	k=5	
Just take the most similar	87.0%	87.1%	87.3%	0.6624
+ Sampling	86.2%	86.6%	86.7%	0.6646
+ Debias	86.7%	87.0%	87.0%	0.7267
+ Linear assignment	86.9%	87.1%	87.2%	0.7211
+ Maximize the gap (full)	87.0%	87.1%	87.2%	0.7489

B.1 Ablation Study On The Cluster Loss

In this subsection, we first describe the experimental settings of the ablation study on the proposed cluster loss and then present the results. The difference of each setting here can be described as the difference in how much the image patch features are linked to each of the prototypes, i.e., the difference in $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ in Eq. 11 or Eq. 13. This is because the image patch features nearest to the prototypes are linked to the prototypes in all of the settings. Table 6 summarizes the settings in the ablation study that are relevant to the difference in $T^{y*}_{a,i}$, as described below.

First, 'Just take the most similar' is adopted for the baseline, which simply links the image patches to the nearest prototypes. This setting is equivalent to setting $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ to $\mathbf{1}(i = \arg\min_j (\min_{\boldsymbol{z}\in\mathbf{Z}_a} \|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{p}_j\|))$. In '+ Sampling', the image patch features are linked to the prototypes by using the estimated attribution of the prototypes to each class. Here, the attributions are estimated on the basis of the similarity difference of each sample in the minibatch to the prototypes. Specifically, we use the average of the sampling (Eq. 6) results within the samples that have the same class labels. Thus, in the setting of '+ Sampling', $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ is defined as $\bar{E}(y_a, p_i)/\sum_j \bar{E}(y_a, p_i)$ by using $\bar{E}(y, p_i)$ defined in Eq. 6. Here, we divide by $\sum_j \bar{E}(y_a, p_i)$ so that the cluster loss weight added to each sample is the same. In '+ De-bias', we use the de-biased attribution (Eq. 7) instead of the average of the sampling results, i.e., we define $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ as $\hat{E}(y_a, p_i)/\sum_j \hat{E}(y_a, p_i)$, where $\hat{E}(y, p_i)$ is defined in Eq. 7. Next, in '+ Linear assignment', we modify the attribution of the prototypes to each sample to account for the absence of the prototypes due to differences in the object views. Note that we modified the attribution by solving the linear assignment problem, so in the setting of '+ Linear assignment', we define $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ as in Eq. 12. Finally, in ' + Maximize the gap (full)', we redefine the cluster loss from Eq. 11 to Eq. 13. Note that the definition of $T^{y*}_{a,i}$ is the same as in '+ Linear Assignment'.

The results of the ablation study are shown in Table 7. We adopted ResNet50 for the model backbone and used the full images of CUB200-2011 in this experiment. As discussed in Sec. A, we fixed the prototypes on the hypersphere and thus the accuracy does not vary among the experimental settings. However, without debiasing, i.e., in the 'Just take the most similar' and '+ Sampling' settings, image patch features are linked to only a few of the prototypes by the cluster loss, and as a result, they are not linked to the other prototypes and are not distributed over the hypersphere, which means the prototypes after the projection are also not distributed on the hypersphere. This can be confirmed by the fact that the variance of the prototypes on the hypersphere in these case is much smaller compared to the other settings. Here, we defined the variance of the prototypes on the hypersphere as

$$1 - \left\| \frac{1}{|\mathbb{P}|} \sum_{i\in\mathbb{P}} \boldsymbol{p}_i \right\|_2 . \tag{16}$$

Since we initialized the prototypes so that their variance on the hypersphere would be maximized, the small value of the variance observed here suggests the destruction of the original learned structures by projecting the prototypes onto the image patch features.

We can see the accuracy is degraded when we adopted '+ Sampling' and '+ De-bias', which means the inconsistency of attachment between the image patch features and the prototypes in these settings. However, the accuracy is recovered while maintaining the variance high when we adopt '+ Linear assignment', which confirms that the image patch features were properly linked to the pro-

totypes by modifying their attributions to account for the differences in object views by solving the linear assignment problem. Finally, in '+ Maximize the gap (full)', we can see that the variance further increased from that in '+ Linear assignment'. The reason for this increase may be that maximizing the gap also acted as a separation loss and thereby led to the dispersal of image patch features over the hypersphere. Our findings here demonstrate the effectiveness of each component of the proposed cluster loss.

B.2 Further examples of the interpretation of the proposed method

Examples of the interpretation of our method are shown in Figs. 4 and 5. Here, in both figures, we used randomly selected samples and negative classes.

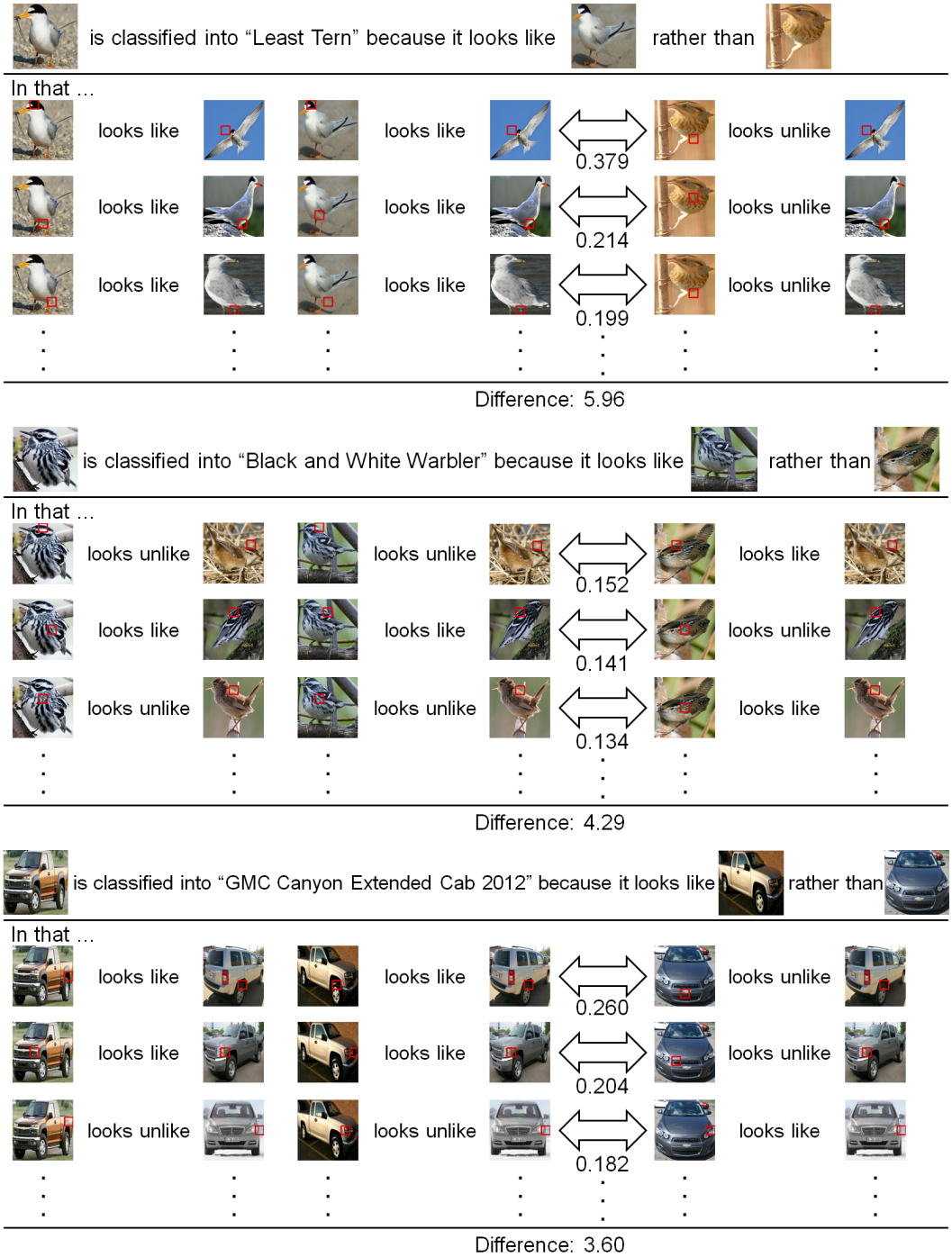

Figure 4: Examples of the interpretation of the proposed method.

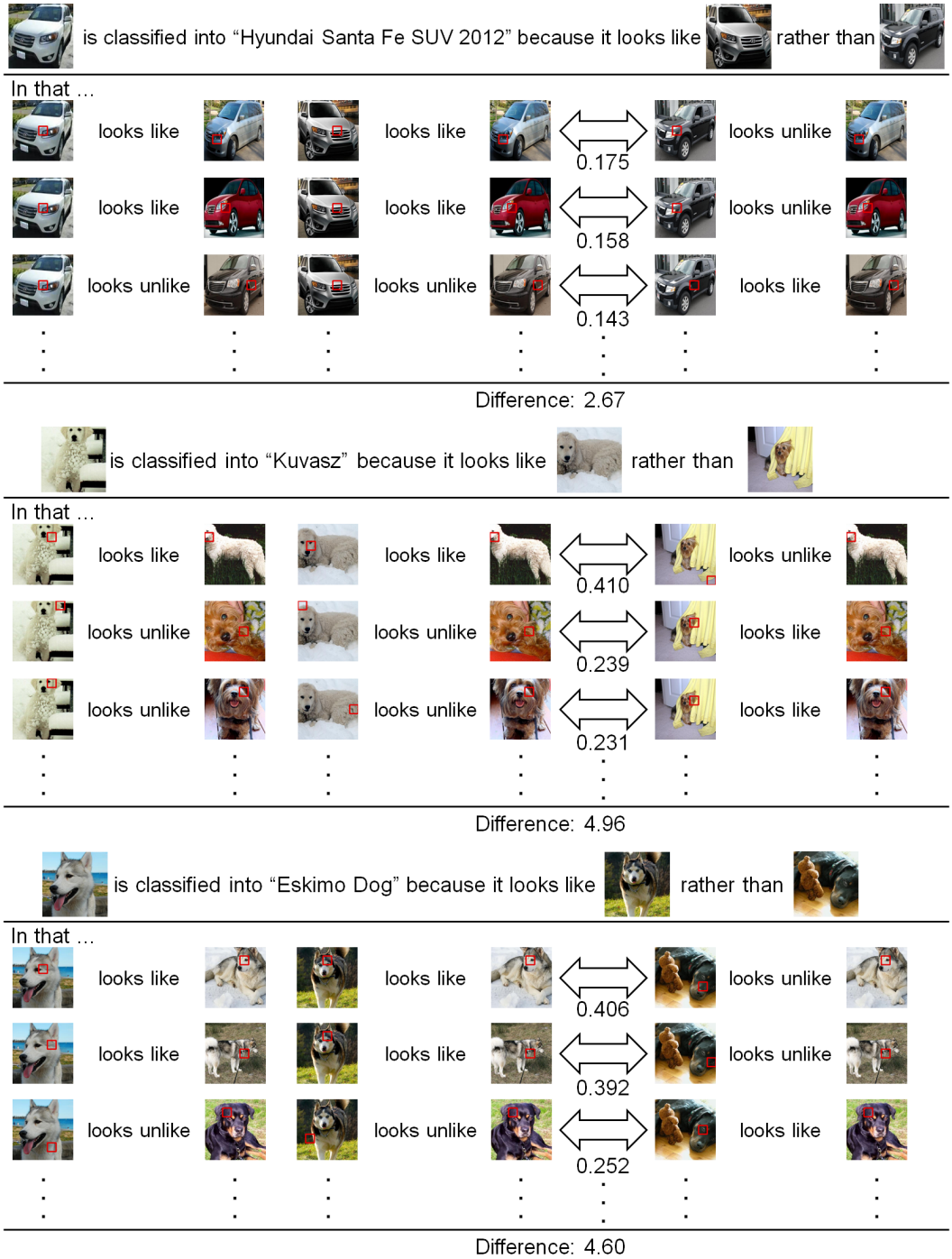

Figure 5: Examples of the interpretation of the proposed method.