000 001 002 003 A PRINCIPLED EVALUATION FRAMEWORK FOR NEURON EXPLANATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Understanding the function of individual units in a neural network is an important building block for mechanistic interpretability. This is often done by generating a simple text explanation of the behavior of individual neurons or units. However, for these explanations to be useful, we must understand how reliable and truthful they are. In this work we unify many existing explanation evaluation methods under one mathematical framework. This allows us to compare and contrast existing evaluation metrics and understand the evaluation pipeline with increased clarity. We propose two simple sanity checks on the evaluation metrics and show that many commonly used metrics fail these tests and do not change their score after massive changes to the concept labels. Based on our experimental and theoretical results, we propose guidelines that future evaluations should follow and identify good evaluation metrics such as correlation.

1 INTRODUCTION

026 027 028 029 Deep learning models have achieved great success on a wide range of tasks, but they are very difficult to understand and often perceived as black-boxes. To address this challenge, the field of mechanistic interpretability has recently emerged, aiming to provide a clearer understanding of the internal mechanism of deep neural networks.

030 031 032 033 034 Providing natural language explanations for small components of a neural network is an important part of mechanistic interpretability. Classic work in this area includes Network Dissection [\[1\]](#page-10-0) and other works explaining individual neurons in deep vision models [\[2;](#page-10-1) [3;](#page-10-2) [4;](#page-10-3) [5;](#page-10-4) [6;](#page-10-5) [7;](#page-10-6) [8;](#page-10-7) [9\]](#page-10-8). Other examples include automated neuron explanations [\[10;](#page-10-9) [11\]](#page-10-10) for large language models, as well as explaining features of sparse autoencoders [\[12;](#page-10-11) [13\]](#page-10-12).

035 036 037 038 039 Despite the introduction of various approaches for generating neuron explanations, these methods often use completely different metrics to evaluate how good their descriptions are, and it is not clear how they compare to each other. In addition, many evaluation metrics used have problems, as shown by [\[14\]](#page-10-13) for example. To ensure that unit explanations are reliable and trustworthy, it is crucial to establish a standardized framework for evaluation.

040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 Motivated by the need for a standardized approach, in this work we unify many existing evaluation methods under a single mathematical framework, which provides much needed conceptual clarity to the topic of explanation evaluation. This framework allows us to clearly compare and contrast of current evaluation techniques and provides a more transparent understanding of the evaluation pipeline. Through the framework, we rigorously analyze and identify several failure modes in commonlyused metrics. Additionally, we introduce two sanity tests to validate the metrics, revealing that most commonly used evaluations fail at least one of these basic tests. This helps understand which metrics are not suitable for reliable interpretation and should not be used.

048 049 In summary, in this paper we:

- Formalize the task of evaluating individual unit explanations.
- Unify existing evaluation methods under a single mathematical framework.
- Propose two sanity checks for evaluation metrics: Missing Labels test and Extra labels test, and show that many commonly used metrics fail at least one of these basic tests
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- Experimentally compare different evaluation metrics, and identify good metrics to use, such as Correlation.
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- Discover that using biased *top-and-random* sampling makes a good evaluation metric such as correlation fail the Extra Labels test, highligting the need for unbiased sampling.
- 2 DEFINITIONS

2.1 WHAT IS A INDIVIDUAL UNIT IN A NEURAL NETWORK?

 In this paper we are focused on individual unit explanations. By a unit, we mean a smaller part of a neural network that can have an independent meaning. The simplest form of such units is a single neuron, or a single channel of a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN), but a unit can be any scalar function of network inputs. Other interesting units that fit in our framework are linear combinations of neurons (i.e. directions in activation space), which are considered to correspond to a specific interpretable concept. These are used in studies such as TCAV [\[15\]](#page-10-14), Concept Bottleneck Models [\[16\]](#page-10-15), Linear Probing [\[17\]](#page-11-0) or steering vectors [\[18\]](#page-11-1). Finally, a unit could be a feature of a Sparse Autoencoder [\[19;](#page-11-2) [12\]](#page-10-11) trained to disentangle a layer's activations into interpretable individual components. While other, larger units such as entire layers or attention heads of a model are sometimes of interest, we do not study these in this paper as they have complicated non-scalar activations and require different methods to analyze than our units of interest.

Figure 1: An illustration of the difference between explanation generation and explanation evaluation. Our paper is focused on explanation evaluation.

2.2 PROBLEM DESCRIPTION

When it comes to individual unit descriptions, there are two separate, but connected problems: explanation *generation* and explanation *evaluation*, as illustrated in Figure [1.](#page-1-0) Our focus in this paper is on the *evaluation*, which is a function $\mathcal E$ that we formally define below in [\(2\)](#page-1-1).

(I) Generation (of Explanation t_k):

$$
\frac{1}{100}
$$

$$
\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{D}, f, k, l) \to t_k \tag{1}
$$

 Here G is any function, or a process for generating explanations t_k for neuron k. This could be a human, an algorithm like Network Dissection [\[1\]](#page-10-0), or a machine learning model such as MILAN [\[3\]](#page-10-2). D is a probing dataset, f is the network of interest, k is the target neuron and l is the layer of the neuron, and t_k is a text explanation.

(II) Evaluation (of Explanation t):

$$
\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{D}, f, k, l, t) \to s \tag{2}
$$

 Here $\mathcal E$ is a function that takes a neuron and a text description t, and returns a scalar score s, where a higher score s indicates the description is better i.e. more reliable/faithful.

(III) Connection between Evaluation and Generation:

108 109 110 111 These two tasks are connected via **argmax generation**, a subset of generation methods that generate the description by finding the concept with the highest evaluation score in the set of concepts C , using a specific evaluation method.

$$
t_k = \arg\max_{t \in C} \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{D}, f, k, l, t) \tag{3}
$$

113 114 For example, Network Dissection [\[1\]](#page-10-0) generates an explanation by finding the concept that maximizes the Intersection over Union metric on the Broden dataset.

115 116 117 118 We can see that evaluations $\mathcal E$ can be important in both generation and evaluation of explanations. However, the community has not reached an agreement on which $\mathcal E$ to use and when. In fact, currently different papers often use different $\mathcal E$ without theoretical justifications. Thus, the focus of our paper is to rigorously investigate what are good evaluation metrics \mathcal{E} .

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2.3 WHAT ARE THE GOALS OF AN EXPLANATION?

122 123 124 125 Neuron explanations are typically generated to improve our understanding of the model, which can then help for example improve safety and reliability of the models. However, this is vague and hard to measure in a general way. We believe a more precise definition of the goals of an explanation is essential for thinking clearly about how to evaluate them.

126 127 128 129 For clarify, it is useful to divide the neural network $f(x)$ into two parts, $f^{0:l}$ and $f^{l+1:L}$, where 0 corresponds to the input layer, $f^{i:j}$ represents the *i* through *j*'th layers of the neural network $f(x)$, l is the layer of the neuron we are interested in and L is the total number of layers in the network. Here we assume the units are neurons for notational simplicity. Then:

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 $f(x) = f^{l+1:L}(f_k^{0:l}(x), f_{\neg k}^{0:l}(x)),$ (4)

131 132 133 where $f_k^{0:l}(x)$ is the activation of neuron of interest k in layer l, while $f_{-k}^{0:l}(x)$ is the activations of all the other neurons in layer l .

134 135 Most unit explanations can be seen as a simple interpretable approximation of one (or both) of the following functions:

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• Function 1: Input \rightarrow Unit Activation

This corresponds to explaining the function: $x \to f_k^{0:l}(x)$. A good explanation should be able to describe which inputs cause a high unit activation, and which do not.

• Function 2: Unit Activation → Output

This corresponds to explaining the function $z \to f^{l+1:L}(z, f_{\neg k}^{0:l}(x))$, where z is a real number (e.g. intervened value). This function describes how changes in the unit activation change the final network output.

145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157 As we can see from the above notations, these are different problems, and may require different methods to solve and evaluate. While there is often a connection between these two problems, they are often conflated in existing work, and we believe recognizing the difference can improve our understanding. In particular, we should not expect a single text explanation to describe both functions, especially if the neuron is used in an unexpected way. For example, we can imagine a simple image classification model that was trained on biased data, where the *cat* class has only images of black and grey cats, while the class *table* has several images of red cats laying on tables. We could now find a neuron that only activates when there is a red cat in an image, and could be described as a *red cat* neuron for Function 1. However, the activations of this neuron increase the likelihood of the table class, while decreasing the likelihood of the cat class, requiring a different description for its effects (Function 2). This can partially explain findings like [\[14\]](#page-10-13) finding that the neuron explanations of [\[10\]](#page-10-9) have little to no effect on an intervention based evaluation, as the intervention based evaluation corresponds to Function 2, while the explanations of [\[10\]](#page-10-9) were created to explain $f_k^{0:l}(x)$ (Function 1).

158 159 160 161 In our paper, we focus on evaluating explanations of **Function 1 only**, i.e. $f_k^{0:l}(x)$, as this is more common in existing evaluations and can be applied more generally, for example to explain linear combinations of neurons that don't have a direct effect on the output such as TCAV [\[15\]](#page-10-14). While evaluating Function 2 is also important, this requires different methods and is outside the scope of this work.

162 163 3 A UNIFIED EVALUATION FRAMEWORK

In this section, we propose a principled framework based on the following insight – Almost all existing methods for **evaluation** $\mathcal E$ can be formalized as a function of two vectors: neuron activations a_k of neuron k and concept activations c_t of concept t, where

- a_k : denotes the activations of neuron k on probing data $x_i \in \mathcal{D}$. I.e. $[a_k]_i = f_k^{0:l}(x_i)$
- c_t : denotes the presence of concept t on the inputs $x_i \in \mathcal{D}$. I.e. $[c_t]_i = P(t|x_i)$.

171 172 173 174 175 176 For notational convenience, we may use a_{ki} to denote $[a_k]_i$ and c_{ti} for $[c_t]_i$ in this paper. Within this framework, the evaluation score s is a function $M(a_k, c_t)$, i.e. $s = \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{D}, f, k, l, t) = M(a_k, c_t)$, where M is the metric chosen to measure similarity between these vectors. Concept activations c_t can be gathered from different sources such as existing labels, pseudo-labels from a model or a crowdsourced human evaluation. The main focus of this paper is analyzing and comparing different choices of metric M, and showing how many commonly used metrics have problematic properties.

177 178 3.1 METRIC DEFINITIONS

179 180 181 Binarization. Many similarity metrics used in literature require the inputs to be binary. Since neuron activations, and concept values from some sources are continuous, we need to binarize these vectors. We will denote this with the binarization function $B : \mathbb{R}^n \to \{0,1\}^n$.

182 183 184 In the below equations we don't explicitly state which binarization function we use, but typically for neuron activations a_k we use $B = \text{top}_{\alpha}$, where we take top α fraction of activations to be 1, and others to be 0. We formalize this as top $_{\alpha}(z)$:

$$
[\text{top}_{\alpha}(z)]_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z_i \ge b_{\alpha}; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$
 (5)

188 189 190 191 192 where b_{α} satisfies $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1 \left[z_i \geq b_{\alpha}\right]}{n} = \alpha$, and $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$. For example, if $\alpha = 0.05$, then top_{α} has 1's for inputs with activations in top-5%, and 0 for others. Note α is a hyperparameter needed for all binary similarity functions. We typically select α independently for each metric by finding the value that performs the best on a small validation split of neurons. For concept vectors c_t , we usually binarize by simply rounding, denoted as $B = B_r$, where:

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 $[B_r]_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z_i \geq 0.5 \\ 0 & \text{if } z_i \geq 0.5 \end{cases}$ 0 if $z_i < 0.5$ (6)

196 197 198 199 200 201 202 For metrics derived from binary classification, we define the concept value c_t to be the "prediction", and neuron activation a_k as the "ground truth" or observed variable. This corresponds to framing the evaluation as *simulation*, i.e. trying to predict neuron activation based on concept value. Metrics we label as *Inverse* use the opposite framing, i.e. concept value is the ground truth and neuron activation is the prediction. See Appendix [A.2](#page-14-0) for more discussion on this. Given this, we can express the terms in Confusion matrix (True Positive (TP), False Positive (FP), False Negative (FN) and True Negative (TN)) in terms of the vectors a_k and c_t as:

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$$
TP = B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t), FP = \overline{B(a_k)} \cdot B(c_t), FN = B(a_k) \cdot \overline{B(c_t)}, TN = \overline{B(a_k)} \cdot \overline{B(c_t)}
$$

207 where $B(\cdot)$ represents element-wise NOT operation on the binary vector (equivalent to $1 - B(\cdot)$) and \cdot is the vector dot product.

208 209 210 Below we express some of the most important and popular evaluation metrics in terms of the vectors a_k and c_t , see Appendix [C](#page-19-0) for the definitions of the remaining metrics we evaluated and additional details on these metrics.

211 212 Binary Classification Metrics

213 214 1. Recall: Recall, also known as Sensitivity can be intuitively understood as measuring P (concept|neuron active).

2. Precision: Precision, also known as Specificity can be intuitively understood as measuring \mathbb{P} (neuron active|concept).

$$
\begin{array}{c} 218 \\ 219 \end{array}
$$

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> $M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{||B(c_t)||_1}$ $||B(c_t)||_1$ (8)

3. IoU: Intersection over Union, also known as Jaccard Index is a popular metric that measures $P(\text{concept AND neuron active})/P(\text{concept OR neuron active}).$

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{TP}{TP + FP + FN} = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{||B(a_k)||_1 + ||B(c_t)||_1 - B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}
$$
(9)

Other Metrics

4. AUC: Area under ROC curve, can be efficiently calculated as:

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$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{\sum_{i|B(a_k)_i=0} \sum_{j|B(a_k)_{j=1}} \mathbb{1}[c_{ti} < c_{tj}] + 0.5 \cdot \mathbb{1}[c_{ti} = c_{tj}]}{||B(a_k)||_1 ||1 - B(a_k)||_1} \tag{10}
$$

5. Correlation: Pearson's correlation coefficient, a very popular metric for measuring similarity between real valued variables.

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{(a_k - \mu(a_k)) \cdot (c_t - \mu(c_t))}{\sigma(a_k)\sigma(c_t)}
$$
(11)

Here n is the length of a_k and c_t , μ calculates the mean of the vector and σ its standard deviation.

3.2 EXISTING WORK AS SPECIAL CASES

As summarized in Table [1,](#page-5-0) we show how existing evaluation work fits into our evaluation framework. We note that that existing evaluation methods differ from each other on four key ways:

- (i) **Evaluation metric** M : This is the main focus of our paper, to analyze which evaluation metrics are good choices.
- (ii) **How is the concept vector** c_t **determined?** There are many choices for the concept vector c_t . These include, but are not limited to: labels from a labeled dataset, using a model to create pseudo-labels, using a human evaluator, or generating new inputs and using the prompts as labels.
- (iii) What is the granularity of the vectors? The simplest case is full input level activations, i.e. $|\mathcal{D}| = |a_k| = |c_t| = n$. These can also be more specific, for example pixel-level as is the case in Network Dissection, or token level as is often the case for language model explanations.
- (iv) What is the probing dataset $\mathcal D$ used? This is an important choice and has a significant effect on the outputs. Typical choices include the training/validation data the model was trained on, a special labeled dataset designed for probing, or different datasets for different concepts. Importantly, the dataset used for evaluation should be disjoint from the dataset used for explanation generation to avoid overfitting.
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4 SANITY CHECKS FOR EVALUATION METRICS

267 268 269 In this section, we start by analytically demonstrating that Precision and Recall metrics have clear and important failure modes and provide an illustrating failure example in Figure [2.](#page-6-0) In Sec [4.2](#page-6-1) we propose two tests or sanity checks for evaluation metrics to further reveal which metrics discussed in Sec [3.1](#page-3-0) are unreliable and in Sec [4.3](#page-7-0) we discuss the results of these tests.

Table 1: Summary table comparing evaluations used in esisting work. ∼ indicates using a metric with small differences from our definition, while ∗ indicates use of biased *top-and-random* sampling to evaluate the metric with fewer samples. See Table [10](#page-25-0) for an extended version of this table.

4.1 IDENTIFYING FAILURE CASES

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301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 (I) Failure Case of Recall. Recall corresponds to looking at the inputs that activate a neuron the highest, and measuring what fraction of them contain concept c_t . This is essentially how most crowd-sourced evaluations are currently done. It is known that only measuring recall could be problematic in binary classification as it ignores performance on negative inputs. In our case, using this metric for evaluation will favor explanations with more generic concepts. As an extreme example, consider a very generic description where the concept $c_t = 1$, where $1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector of all ones. This could be a concept like "*image*" or "*entity*" which can be a valid description for almost all images. Plugging these into equation [\(7\)](#page-3-1), we get:

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = M(a_k, 1) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot 1}{||B(a_k)||_1} = \frac{||B(a_k)||_1}{||B(a_k)||_1} = 1,
$$
\n(12)

312 313 314 since $B(a_k)_i \geq 0, \forall i$. We see that with the maximally generic concept $c_t = 1$, precision is always 1 regardless of the neuron. This is clearly not desirable or a helpful explanation for understanding the neuron. In short, **Recall is biased towards generic concepts** (large $||c_t||_1$).

315 316 317 318 (II) Failure case of Precision. Measuring only precision has the opposite problem, where it favors concepts that are too specific. Imagine an extremely specific concept, that only activates on one image on the entire dataset. We can write this as $c_t = e_i$, where e_i is a unit vector with 1 on the *i*-th element and 0's elsewhere. The precision of this concept on neuron k is then:

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = M(a_k, e_i) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot e_i}{||e_i||_1} = B(a_k)_i
$$
\n(13)

322 323 If the neuron activates on this input $(B(a_k)_i = 1)$, the concept always reaches maximum precision of 1, regardless of how the neuron activates on other inputs. This is undesirable as we should be explaining all activations of a neuron, not just a small fraction of them. For example, explaining our hypothetical neuron in Figure [2](#page-6-0) as *white cat sitting on a couch* would still achieve maximum precision. In short, **Precision is biased towards specific concepts** (small $||c_t||_1$).

Figure 2: A hypothetical neuron that only activates on pets (dogs or cats). When comparing different evaluation metrics, we can see recall cannot distinguish between the correct concept (Pet) and a concept that is too generic (Animal), while precision favors concepts that are too specific (Dog, Cat). IoU can unambiguously determine the correct concept.

4.2 SANITY TEST DEFINITIONS

Inspired by our above analysis, we propose two general tests to measure whether a certain metric is too biased towards generic or specific concepts.

Test (I): Missing Labels. In the missing labels test, we replace c_t with c_t^- , where we randomly replace half of the elements of c_t with 0, i.e. we remove half of the concept labels for concept t. $\mathbb{E}[\|c_t^-\|_1] = \|c_t\|_1/2:$

$$
[c_t^-]_i = \begin{cases} [c_t]_i & \text{with probability } 0.5\\ 0 & \text{with probability } 0.5 \end{cases}
$$
 (14)

The assumption behind this test is that if concept t is a good description for neuron k , removing half of the labels should decrease its similarity score. However, this does not happen with metrics such as Precision that are too biased towards specific concepts, as can be seen in Table [2,](#page-7-1) causing them to fail this test.

Test (II): Extra Labels. Essentially this is the opposite of missing labels test, in which we create c_t^+ by randomly doubling the size of c_t , i.e. $\mathbb{E}[(||c_t^+||_1)] = 2||c_t||_1$. That is

$$
[c_t^+]_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } [c_t]_i = 1 \text{, else with probability } \frac{||c_t||_1}{n - ||c_t||_1} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}
$$
(15)

where n is the length of vector c_t . If concept t is a good description for neuron k, giving positive concept labels to random inputs should decrease its similarity score. But this is not the case for methods that are too biased towards generic concepts $-$ i.e. we expect the evaluation metrics such as Recall to fail this test, which is validated in our Table [2.](#page-7-1) For simplicity we only apply these tests with ground truth labels where c_t is binary.

367 368 To perform the tests, we measure two metrics as follows:

$$
\text{Score Diff} = \frac{1}{|K|} \sum_{k \in K} M(a_k, c_{t_k}^{\pm}) - M(a_k, c_{t_k}) \tag{16}
$$

Decrease Acc =
$$
\frac{1}{|K|} \sum_{k \in K} \mathbb{1}[M(a_k, c_{t_k}) - M(a_k, c_{t_k}) < 0]
$$
 (17)

375 376 377 Here K is the set of neurons looked at and t_k is the best/correct concept for neuron k. Note that for score diff we normalized the scores such that maximum of M is 1 and minimum value is 0 to allow for equal comparison between metrics.

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Table 2: Combined experimental results of our missing labels and extra labels test. We can see most evaluation metrics fail at least one of the tests. In the last report we report whether the metric passed our theoretical missing and extra labels tests, showing close alignment with our experimental results.

4.3 TEST RESULTS

406 407 408 409 We experimentally evaluated these metrics on neurons from 6 different settings, covering final layer neurons, hidden layer neurons, CBM neurons and linear probe outputs on 3 image datasets: Imagenet, Places365 and CUB200. See Appendix [G](#page-30-0) for detailed description of the evaluation setting and results on individual datasets.

410 411 412 413 In Table [2](#page-7-1) we report the averaged results of this test across these two sets of neurons for all different evaluation metrics. For simplicity, we say a metric passes the test if its Score Diff is $\langle -0.05 \text{ and } \rangle$ Decrease $Acc > 90\%$. In Table [2](#page-7-1) we mark the methods that fail a test in terms of both Score Diff and Accuracy in red color, while methods that only fail one of these are colored orange.

414 415 416 417 418 In addition, we run a *theoretical* version of the Missing/Extra labels test on hypothetical neurons whose activations perfectly match a concept, which we discuss in detail in Appendix [B.](#page-16-0) We find that our theoretical results closely match our empirical observations, and that failure in these tests is closely associated with concept imbalance, with failing metrics performing particularly poorly with imbalanced data where concepts are only rarely positive.

- **419 420** Surprisingly, we can see that most metrics fail at least one of these tests:
	- Accuracy and Spearman Correlation perform poorly in both directions as their score is largely determined by the majority of inputs that neither activate the neuron nor have the concept.
	- Along with Recall, Balanced accuracy and AUC fail the Extra Labels test and are biased towards generic concepts.
		- Precision, Inverse Balanced Accuracy, Inverse AUC and MAD fail the Missing Labels Test and are biased towards specific concepts.
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429 430 431 The only methods that pass both tests are F1-Score/IoU, Correlation, Cosine, Cosine Cubed and AUPRC. Since a good evaluation metric should be able to pass these tests, we believe metrics beside these should not be relied on by themselves when evaluating unit explanations. This aligns with our interpretation is caused by poor handling of imbalanced data, as metrics known to work worse for

432 433 434 435 imbalanced data like accuracy and AUC fail the tests, and metrics designed for imbalanced data like F1-score and AUPRC pass the tests. Finally we analytically studied the expected change in scores for different binary metrics under missing and extra labels conditions in Appendix [D,](#page-22-0) where our results largely agree with the empirical findings.

436 437 438 439 440 441 442 443 444 445 446 Top-and-random sampling: In addition to metrics described in Section [3.1,](#page-3-0) we also tested a version of correlation and Spearman correlation that uses top-and-random sampling, where the inputs are evaluated on a random sample of consisting of 50% highly activating inputs and 50% randomly sampled inputs as done by [\[10;](#page-10-9) [12\]](#page-10-11). This is in contrast to the default setting of evaluating on the entire dataset or a uniform random sample. For our top-and-random experiments we sampled 25 inputs from the top 0.2% highest activating inputs and 25 random inputs. We can see that while correlation passes both tests when evaluated on full data, top-and-random sampling makes it fail the extra labels test. This makes sense, as greatly oversampling highly activating inputs makes the method more similar to Recall that only focuses only highly activating inputs. This also explains why [\[14\]](#page-10-13) found explanations from [\[10\]](#page-10-9) with very high correlation(top-and-random) scores to have relatively low F1-scores.

447 448 Generative c_t : Interestingly, when using generative models for c_t it may sometimes be necessary to use methods that *fail* the Missing Labels test, as the generative labels themselves are missing labels. See Appendix [A.4](#page-15-0) for further discussion on this phenomenon.

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5 EXPERIMENTAL COMPARISON OF SIMILARITY FUNCTIONS

Finally, we directly test how good different metrics are at evaluating explanations for final layer neurons, where we know the *ground truth* concept for that neuron.

5.1 ARGMAX GENERATION ON FINAL LAYER

458 459 460 461 Our first way to meta-evaluate the quality of evaluation metrics is via argmax generation on final layer neurons. Here, the neuron we are explaining is a final layer neuron (after softmax), which has a ground truth explanation corresponding to a single classname in the dataset. We denote this ground truth concept as t_k^* . We then measure accuracy defined as:

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$Acc(M) = \frac{1}{|K|}$ \sum k∈K $\mathbf{1}[\arg\max_{t\in C}(M(a_k,c_t)) = t_k^*$] (18)

465 466 467 Here K is the set of neurons we evaluate and C is the set of concepts we consider. The idea behind this test is that a good evaluation metric M should give the highest score to the correct concept and therefore high accuracy.

5.2 AUC ON FINAL LAYER

Our second way to test is also based on final layer neurons, but testing evaluation directly. We use AUC to measure whether the metric separates the scores of all correct (neuron, explanation) pairs from the scores for incorrect (neuron, explanation) pairs, with high AUC indicating a good metric.

$$
AUC(M) = \frac{\sum_{k \in K, t \in C | t \neq t_k^*} \sum_l \mathbb{1}[M(a_k, c_t) < M(a_l, c_{t_l^*})]}{(|C| - 1) \cdot |K| \cdot |K|} \tag{19}
$$

476 477 478 Here n is the number of neurons, and C is the concept set used to generate incorrect and correct explanations.

479 480 481 Experimental Setup. Similar to section 4, we ran these test on 8 different setups, consisting of 4 separate models, 3 datasets and both gt labels and pseudo-labels as concept source for c_t . See Appendix [G](#page-30-0) for detailed description of experimental setup and details on individual models.

482 483 484 485 For all experiments we split a random 5% of the neurons into validation set. For metrics that require hyperparameters such as α , we use the hyperparameters that performed the best on the validation split for each setting. We then report performance on the remaining 95% of neurons. In table [3](#page-9-0) we report the average scores and average ranks (i.e. the best metric for each setup gets 1, the worst gets 16) of the metrics across the four setups for both tasks.

Table 3: Comparison of different evaluation metrics, averaged across 8 settings. Lower rank means better performance. Best performing metric in **bold**, and second best underlined for each metric. Overall we can see Correlation, Cosine and Cosine cubed perform the best.

We can see that:

1. In general the metrics that passed our tests in Section [4](#page-4-0) perform better than those that didn't.

2. Continuous metrics generally perform better than binary ones. This is likely because binarizing neuron activations loses valuable information, and it is hard to find one binarization threshold α that works well for all neurons, i.e. for both single- and super-class neurons.

3. Overall the best performing metrics were correlation and related methods cosine and cosine cubed. Spearman correlation performed clearly the worst.

6 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have created a unified mathematical framework for different evaluation metrics and clarified the definitions of around evaluating unit explanations. We have also performed several sanity tests and experiments to answer the following question:

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531 532 533 534 535 536 537 538 Which Evaluation Metric should you use to evaluate explanations? Considering all the evidence from our experiments study, we lean towards **Correlation** (with uniform sampling) as the best overall metric for evaluating neuron descriptions. While cosine similarity performed similarly in Table [3,](#page-9-0) unlike other metrics its outputs depend on the mean of neuron activations, which can cause significant errors when explaining neurons whose average activation is different from zero as we show in Appendix [F.2.](#page-28-0) Other good metrics include cosine cubed and AUPRC. F1-score or IoU can also be a good choice, but requires choosing an activation cutoff α and it is unclear how to best make this choice. Our most important recommendation is that evaluations should not rely on a single metric that doesn't pass our missing or extra labels test. Combinations of such metrics can still be useful, and for example F1-score could be efficiently evaluated by combining a crowdsourced Recall evaluation with evaluating Precision using a generative model.

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A ADDITIONAL DISCUSSION

A.1 LIMITATIONS

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707 Framework Limitations:

708 709 710 711 First, not every evaluation of neuron descriptions can fit into our framework. Below we split these into few separate cases and discuss whether each case represents a limitation of the framework or not:

712 713 714 715 716 717 Evaluating Multiple Inputs at once: Our evaluation framework assumes that the presence of a concept is estimated separately for each input. Many human study based evaluations (e.g. $[1]$, $[4]$) instead evaluate a group of inputs at once, asking questions like "How well does *concept* match this group of images?". However we believe this is simply a less precise/less objective way of asking whether the concept matches each input separately and does not in general represent a significant limitation for the framework.

718 719 720 721 722 723 724 725 726 Comparing similarity to "correct" explanation: Another approach to evaluate neuron descriptions is to compare how close they are to a "correct" description, typically in a text-embedding space. For example, this is the main evaluation used by MILAN [\[3\]](#page-10-2), where they generate "correct" explanation by asking Mechanical Turk workers to describe neurons based on their most highly activating inputs. We do not think this a very reliable way to evaluate explanations, because it relies on the assumption that there exists a single "correct" text-based explanation for each neuron (and that we have some way of finding it), and we do not think this is the case for many real neurons because of issues like polysemanticity and non-verbal concepts like specific graphical patterns. For these hard-to-interpret neurons it is better to just measure how well our explanation matches the neuron like the metrics in our framework do.

727 728 729 730 731 Non-text based explanations: While we focus on text based concepts t in our paper, the framework works on non-textual concepts just as well, as long as we have some way of generating a concept vector c_t for that concept. For example, the evaluation of [\[21\]](#page-11-4) uses a group of highly activating inputs as the concept, and then asks workers whether a new input is similar to those inputs or not. Despite this difference, it can be described neatly within our framework.

732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 Function 2: Activation \rightarrow **Output:** Probably the most significant limitations of our framework is that it is focused on evaluating function 1 only (Input \rightarrow Unit Activation) as discussed in Section [2.3,](#page-2-0) and we believe measure Function 2 is equally important. While currently our framework is meant for function 1 only, we believe many of the ideas and metrics we discussed could be useful in evaluating function 2. For example, in a generative model we could use the same metrics to measure similarity between unit activation and the presence of a specific concept in the output. However in function 2 there are additional considerations and thing like measuring difference in outputs when changing the unit activation are likely more important. We believe extending this framework or creating a similar one for function 2 evaluations is an important direction for future work.

741 742 Experimental Result Limitations:

743 744 745 746 747 Overall we are quite confident in the generality of our results on the missing/extra labels test (Table [2\)](#page-7-1) as they are consistent across final/hidden layer neurons and different datasets, and more importantly we showed theoretically that they are caused by poor metric performance on imbalanced data. Importantly this theoretical result is independent of the data domain, type of concepts or the type of unit in question.

748 749 750 751 However, it is important to note that passing these sanity checks does not guarantee that the metric is a good metric, but failing them does indicate a metric should not be relied on. This is similar to sanity checks proposed by [\[24\]](#page-11-7), which have been quite influential in the field of saliency maps/input importance estimation.

752 753 754 755 On the other hand, our comparison results in Table [3](#page-9-0) are mostly focused on final layer neurons or other units where we have ground truth available such a concept neurons inside a CBM. While they consistently prefer certain metrics, it is possible that these final layer neurons are systematically different from other units we are interested in such as hidden layer neurons, and these results should not be relied on too strongly.

A.2 SIMULATION VS CLASSIFICATION

760 761 762 763 764 Simulation: In section [3.1](#page-3-0) we define the neuron activation a_k as the observed *ground truth* variable, and c_t as the predicted variable. This corresponds to seeing the explanation from a **simulation** point of view, i.e. our goal is to predict how the neuron activates, based on the neurons explanation and current inputs. This gives us binary classification metric definitions that are aligned with those of [\[14\]](#page-10-13).

766 767 768 769 770 Classification: However this is an arbitrary choice, and we could just as well define c_t as the observed *ground truth* variable and and a^k as the prediction. This corresponds to a classification view, where our goal is to use neuron k as a classifier for concept c_t . In terms of metrics, this doesn't change the definitions for True Positive (TP) or True Negative (TN), but it switches the places of False Positive and False Negative, i.e.

$$
TP_{cls} = B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t) = TP_{sim}
$$

\n
$$
FP_{cls} = B(a_k) \cdot \overline{B(c_t)} = FN_{sim}
$$

\n
$$
FN_{cls} = \overline{B(a_k)} \cdot B(c_t) = FP_{sim}
$$

\n
$$
TN_{cls} = \overline{B(a_k)} \cdot \overline{B(c_t)} = TN_{sim}
$$

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778 779 780 This change in framing also affects for metrics which are not symmetric in terms of False Positives and False Negatives. For example, Recall(simulation) = Precision(classification), and Precision(simulation) = Recall(classification).

Recall(*simulation*) =
$$
\frac{\text{TP}_{sim}}{\text{TP}_{sim} + \text{FN}_{sim}} = \frac{\text{TP}_{cls}}{\text{TP}_{cls} + \text{FP}_{cls}} = \text{Precision}(\text{classification})
$$

785 786 787 788 The other binary metric that is sensitive to this framing is balanced accuracy. The metric we called Balanced Accuracy in Section [3.1](#page-3-0) corresponds to the simulation version of Balanced Accuracy, so for completeness sake we also included Inverse Balanced Accuracy, which is the classification version.

789 790 Finally, the AUC we define in Section [3.1](#page-3-0) is AUC(simulation), while we also include AUC in the classification framing we called Inv AUC.

791 792 793 Some related works use the simulation framing, while others use the classification definition, which sometimes causes conflicting definitions of metrics like Recall.

A.3 EQUIVALENCES

During our analysis we also notice that certain separate metrics are equivalent or very similar to each other.

Correlation and Cosine similarity: Calculating correlation between two vectors is equal to normalizing each vector to have mean 0 and then taking their cosine similarity, as shown below:

Let $\hat{x} = x - \mu(x)$ for any vector x. Then

$$
\text{Cosine}(\hat{a_k}, \hat{c_t}) = \frac{\hat{a_k} \cdot \hat{c_t}}{||\hat{a_k}||_2||\hat{c_t}||_2} = \frac{(a_k - \mu(a_k)) \cdot (c_t - \mu(c_t))}{\sqrt{n}\sigma(a_k)\sqrt{n}\sigma(c_t)} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{(a_k - \mu(a_k)) \cdot (c_t - \mu(c_t))}{\sigma(a_k)\sigma(c_t)} = \text{Correlation}(a_k, c_t)
$$
\n(20)

This explains why the two perform very similarly in our evaluations.

810 811 812 813 814 IoU and F1-score: Below we show that IoU and F1-score are very closely related. In fact, F1 score can be written as a monotonously increasing function of IoU. This means that for any vectors $x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, \text{IoU}(x_1, y_1) < \text{IoU}(x_2, y_2) \rightarrow \text{Fl}(x_1, y_1) < \text{Fl}(x_2, y_2)$, so for the purposes of comparing similarites they behave identically, and the choice of which one to use doesn't matter. As their performance was exactly the same in all tasks, we report them in the same row in Table [3.](#page-9-0)

Intersection over Union (IoU) also known as Jaccard index is defined as

$$
IoU = \frac{TP}{TP + FP + FN}
$$
\n(21)

while F1-score also known as Dice-score is defined as:

$$
F1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN}
$$
\n⁽²²⁾

Now

$$
F1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN} = \frac{2TP}{TP + FP + FN} \cdot \frac{TP + FP + FN}{2TP + FP + FN}
$$
(23)

$$
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$$

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$$
=2\text{IoU} \cdot \left(\frac{2TP + FP + FN}{TP + FP + FN}\right)^{-1} = \frac{2 \cdot \text{IoU}}{\text{IoU} + 1} \tag{24}
$$

833 Which is monotonously increasing for $0 \leq I_0U \leq 1$. So using either metric gives the same comparative results.

A.4 GENERATIVE MODELS AND MISSING LABELS TEST

837 838 839 840 841 842 843 844 845 846 847 c_t from Generative Models: Evaluation methods that use generative models to generate new data and the concept vector c_t actually naturally have missing labels similar to our missing labels test. This is because the generated inputs serve as positive labels for c_t , but the negative inputs are often taken to just be all the existing inputs, even though some of actually do have the concept t. So the c_t we get from generative models is actually randomly missing a potentially large portion of the labels. Because of this, most evaluation methods using generative c_t in tabel [1](#page-5-0) use methods that fail the missing labels test such as Inverse AUC and MAD. In fact, this is desirable as the missing labels in c_t do not affect the evaluation score for these metrics. However, these metrics alone should not be relied for evaluation score, and instead the best way to use generative models in evaluation is to combine them with a another evaluation that doesn't fail the missing labels test, as is done by [\[14\]](#page-10-13) who measure Precision using generated data, and measure Recall on existing data with model based pseudo-labels and combine these results into F1-score.

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864 865 B THEORETICAL MISSING/EXTRA LABELS TEST AND CONCEPT INBALANCE

In this section we analyze the effects of missing/extra labels test on a simpler toy setting, where neuron k's activations a_k perfectly match the concept labels of concept t_k , i.e. $a_k = c_{t_k}$. In this setting, we assume binary neuron and concept activations, i.e. the neuron's activation is 1 if concept is present on the input, and 0 if its not. Consequently, we do not need to perform additional binarization of concept activations with top α like we did in previous sections.

872 In this simplified setting, our missing and extra labels tests correspond to being able to differentiate between three concepts as defined in section [4:](#page-4-0)

- 1. c_{t_k} : The perfect predictor for neuron a_k , with precision=1 and recall=1.
- 2. $c_{t_k}^-$: (Missing labels) This concept has Precision=1 since whenever a concept is present, the neuron is also active, and Recall of 0.5 since only half to inputs where the neuron activate now have the concept.
- 3. $c_{t_k}^+$: (Extra labels) Inverse from above, this concept has Precision=0.5 and Recall=1.

We then measure whether a metric passes the test by measuring the score difference across:

- Missing labels test: $M(a_k, c_{t_k}) M(a_k, c_{t_k}) < -\epsilon$
- Extra labels test: $M(a_k, c_{t_k}^+) M(a_k, c_{t_k}) < -\epsilon$

885 886 887 , where ϵ is a small positive number (0.01 in our case). A good metric should be able to reliably differentiate between these concepts. Interestingly we find that the ability of most metrics to differentiate greatly depends on whether the data is balanced or not.

888 889 890 891 892 893 894 895 896 897 898 Since the neuron activations perfectly align with concept t and are binary, the only parameter that can effect the results of our missing and extra labels test is the activation frequency of concept t , i.e. what fraction of inputs $x \in \mathcal{D}$ contain concept t. Following the notation in section [D,](#page-22-0) we denote this fraction as γ . Note technically it should be $\gamma + \eta$, but $\eta = 0$ in this case with perfect match between concept and neuron. We then test whether a metric passes the test on different values of γ , using simulated data on tables [4](#page-17-0) and [5.](#page-18-0) Each number is the average result from 1000 evaluations with 500,000 datapoints each. In addition, in Section [D,](#page-22-0) we derived a closed form solution to the binary metrics under missing or extra labels as a function of γ and other parameters. This simplifies nicely when we consider an ideal neuron with $a_k = c_t$, and we can derive the expected result of missing/extra labels test as a simple function of γ alone in Table [9.](#page-24-0) These theoretical results perfectly agree with our simulated results.

899 900 901 902 903 904 905 906 907 Results: In tables [4](#page-17-0) and [5](#page-18-0) we ran the simulated results on a variety of different activation sparsities. We can see most metrics (expect from recall and precision) perform well on balanced data $(\gamma = 0.499$ and $\gamma = 0.1$). However, their performance often starts to drop with score difference approaching 0 as the data becomes more and more unbalanced. We can see that practically all the metrics that failed our experimental missing/extra labels tests cannot differentiate between perfect and inperfect concept, specifially on inbalanced data, highlighting that likely the root cause of the failure on these test is that the metrics performs poorly on inbalanced data. This is also aligned with conventional knowledge that metrics such as accuracy and AUC are a poor choice to rely on when your data is heavily inbalanced. On the other hand, metrics that passed the tests are insensitive to activation fequency γ and converge to a nonzero constant as γ decreases.

908 909 910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917 We defined a metric as passing the test as having a significant score diff < 0.01 on all the evaluated activation frequencies. The results in terms of passing are almost identical to our experimental results in section [4.](#page-4-0) The only differences were WPMI which passes the theoretical extra labels test but fails the experimental one. We believe this has to do with hyperparameter(α , λ) choices and that WPMI can in principle pass the test but with poor hyperparameters it will not, leading us to overall recommend against using it in practice as hyperparamter choice is challenging in the real world. An interesting case is AUPRC and particularly Inverse AUPRC. These metrics are known to be preferable for inbalanced data and work well in that domain, but actually peform worse when the data is balanced, in particular Inverse AUPRC fails the test when data is perfectly balanced. This indicates caution should be used if relying on them, in case you have some neurons with extremely common concepts.

 We argue that being able to pass these tests regardless of activation frequency is important for any evaluation metric to be used, as we typically do not know what frequency each neuron will have in advance, in many cases the interesting neurons/concept might activate very sparsely, for example in Sparse autoencoders.

Table 4: Simulation results missing labels test on idealized neuron with perfect correspondence to a concept activation. We can see most metrics pass when the data is relatively balanced, but start to struggle on inbalanced data (low γ). The lim_{$\gamma \rightarrow 0$} column is calculated theoretically.

 Table 5: Simulated extra labels test on idealized neuron with perfect correspondence to a concept activation. We can see most metrics pass when the data is relatively balanced, but start to struggle on inbalanced data (low γ). The lim_{$\gamma \to 0$} column is calculated theoretically.

1026 1027 C ADDITIONAL METRIC DEFINITIONS

F1-score: F1-score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall, and can be expressed as:

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$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{2 \cdot B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{||B(a_k)||_1 + ||B(c_t)||_1}
$$
\n(25)

Accuracy: Standard binary accuracy.

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$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + FN + TN} = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t) + (1 - B(a_k)) \cdot (1 - B(c_t))}{n}
$$
 (26)

1039 1040 Balanced Accuracy: A version of accuracy designed for imbalanced datasets that averages the accuracy on positive and negative inputs.

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{2||B(a_k)||_1} + \frac{(1 - B(a_k)) \cdot (1 - B(c_t))}{2||(1 - B(a_k))||_1}
$$
(27)

1045 1046 Inverse Balanced Accuracy: Balanced accuracy but we consider a_k to be the prediction and c_t to be the ground truth.

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{2||B(c_t)||_1} + \frac{(1 - B(a_k)) \cdot (1 - B(c_t))}{2||(1 - B(c_t))||_1}
$$
(28)

1051 1052 Inverse AUC: Area under receiving-operating-characteristics(ROC) curve, where we consider a_k to be the prediction and c_t to be the ground truth.

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$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{\sum_{i|B(c_t)_i=0} \sum_{j|B(c_t)_j=1} \mathbb{1}[a_{ki} < a_{kj}] + 0.5 \cdot \mathbb{1}[a_{ki} = a_{kj}]}{||B(c_t)||_1||1 - B(c_t)||_1} \tag{29}
$$

1057 Spearman Correlation: The Pearson Correlation between the ranks of elements.

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$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{(R(a_k) - \mu(R(a_k))) \cdot (R(c_t) - \mu(R(c_t)))}{\sigma(R(a_k))\sigma(R(c_t))}
$$
(30)

1062 Cosine similarity: The standard cosine similarity between two vectors.

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$$
\begin{array}{c}\n 1004 \\
1065 \\
1066\n \end{array}
$$

Cosine Cubed: A modification of cosine similarity/correlation introduced by [\[20\]](#page-11-3) that cubes activation hoping to encourage more sensitivity to highest values.

 $M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{a_k \cdot c_t}{||a_k||_2||c_t||_2}$

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{[a_k - \mu(a_k)]^3 \cdot [c_t - \mu(c_t)]^3}{||[a_k - \mu(a_k)]^3||_2||[c_t - \mu(c_t)]^3||_2}
$$
(32)

(31)

1073 1074 WPMI: Weighted pointwise-mutual information. A version of this objective is used by [\[3\]](#page-10-2) and [\[4\]](#page-10-3) to generate explanations, and by [\[4\]](#page-10-3) to evaluate said explanations.

1075 1076

1077 1078

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \sum_{i|B(a_k)_i = 1} [\log(c_{ti}) - \lambda \log(\mu(c_t))]
$$
 (33)

1079 MAD: Mean activation difference. Calcualtes the average difference in neuron activations when concept is present vs. when concept is missing.

$$
\frac{1081}{1082}
$$

$$
\frac{1002}{1083}
$$

1087

 $M(a_k, c_t) =$ $\sum_{i|B(c_t)_i=1} a_{ki}$ $\frac{||B(c_t)|_t=1}{||B(c_t)||_1}$ - $\sum_{j|B(c_t)_j=0} a_{kj}$ $||\boldsymbol{1}-B(c_t)||_1$ (34)

1084 1085 1086 In the above equations n is the length of a_k and c_t , μ calculates the mean of the vector and σ its standard deviation. λ is a hyperparameter and R is the rank operator, which transforms each element to its rank, with smallest element becoming 1 and largest n .

1088 1089 1090 AUPRC Area Under Precision-Recall Curve(AUPRC) is a popular metric for measuring classification performance, in particular for imbalanced data. While we are not aware of a closed form solution, it can be calculated as:

> 1. Calculate precision and recall at each threshold τ_i , where threshold contains distinct values of c_t . Recall $R_i = \frac{B(a_k) \mathbf{1}(c_t \geq \tau_i)}{\|B(a_k)\|_1}$ $\frac{a_k|{\bf 1}(c_t\geq \tau_i)}{\|B(a_k)\|_1}$, precision $P_i=\frac{B(a_k){\bf 1}(c_t\geq \tau_i)}{\|{\bf 1}(c_t\geq \tau_i)\|_1}$ $\frac{\|u_k\}\mathbf{1}(c_t\geq\tau_i)}{\|\mathbf{1}(c_t\geq\tau_i)\|_1}.$

2. Calculate area under precision-recall curve using numerical integral:

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \sum_{n} (R_i - R_{i-1}) P_i
$$

1098 1099 AUPRC outputs values in $[0, 1]$ range.

1100 1101 Inverse AUPRC: Same as AUPRC, but with a differenct framing so we flip c_t and a_k in the calculations.

1102 1103 See Tables [6](#page-20-0) and [7](#page-21-0) for additional details on our metrics.

1121 1122 Table 6: Definition of commonly-used binary classification metrics. Here, TP, FP, TN, FN refer to true positive, false positive, true negative and false negative, respectively.

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1129

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AUC (swap x and y to get inverse AUC)

correlation

Metric Definition Range

 $\sum_{y_i=1} \sum_{y_j=0} [\mathbf{1}\{x_i > x_j\} + 0.5 * \mathbf{1}\{x_i = x_j\}]$ $|y = 1||y = 0|$

> $\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$ $\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$

[0, 1]

 $[-1, 1]$

1188 D ANALYSIS ON MISSING LABELS/EXTRA LABELS

1191 1192 1193 In this section, we provide a theoratical analysis for missing label and extra label test. For simplicity of symbols, in this section we analyze the population statistics. Suppose we have following confusion matrix:

In missing labels test, consider a general case where randomly flip $c = 1$ into $c = 0$ with probability p. Thus, the resulting confusion matrix is:

1206 1207 1208 In extra labels test, similarly, we turn $c = 0$ into $c = 1$ with probability $q = \frac{p(\gamma + \eta)}{b + d}$ $\frac{\gamma + \eta}{b+d}$, the resulting confusion matrix is

1214 1215 With these, we could plug in corresponding TP/FP/TN/FN into metrics to calculate metric value in these two tests.

1. Recall:

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{||B(a_k)||_1} = \frac{\gamma}{b + \gamma}.
$$
 (35)

In extra label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^+) = \frac{\gamma + qb}{b + \gamma} \ge M(a_k, c_t). \tag{36}
$$

In missing label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^-) = \frac{\gamma - p\gamma}{b + \gamma} \le M(a_k, c_t). \tag{37}
$$

From the derivation above, we could see that increasing labels only raises recall metric while reducing labels always leads to a drop in recall as we found in our experiments.

2. Precision:

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{||B(c_t)||_1} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + \eta}
$$
 (38)

In extra label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^+) = \frac{\gamma + qb}{\gamma + qb + \eta + qd}.\tag{39}
$$

Precision will increase if $\frac{b}{b+d} > \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + \eta}$. In missing label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^-) = \frac{(1-p)\gamma}{(1-p)\gamma + (1-p)\eta} = M(a_k, c_t).
$$
 (40)

Thus, the precision does not change In missing label test.

1189 1190

1242 1243 1244 1245 1246 1247 1248 1249 1250 1251 1252 1253 1254 1255 1256 1257 1258 1259 1260 1261 1262 1263 1264 1265 1266 1267 1268 1269 1270 1271 1272 1273 1274 1275 1276 3. F1-score: $M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{2\gamma}{2\gamma + \eta + b}$ (41) In extra label test: $M(a_k, c_t^+) = \frac{2\gamma + 2qb}{2\gamma + qb + \eta + qd + b}$. (42) F1-score increase if $\frac{2b}{b+d} > \frac{2\gamma}{2\gamma + \eta + b}$. In missing label test: $M(a_k, c_t^-) = \frac{2(1-p)\gamma}{2(1-p)\gamma + (1-p)\eta + b + p\gamma} = \frac{2\gamma - 2p\gamma}{2\gamma + (1-p)\eta + b}$ $2\gamma + (1-p)\eta + b - p\gamma$. (43) F1-Score decreases in missing label test. 4. IoU: $M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{||B(a_k)||_1 + ||B(c_t)||_1 - B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + \eta}$ $\gamma + \eta + b$. (44) In extra label test: $M(a_k, c_t^+) = \frac{\gamma + qb}{\gamma + \eta + qd + b}$ (45) IoU increases if $\frac{b}{d} > \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + \eta + b}$. In missing label test: $M(a_k, c_t^-) = \frac{(1-p)\gamma}{(1-p)\gamma + (1-p)\eta + b + p\gamma} = \frac{\gamma - p\gamma}{\gamma + (1-p)}$ $\gamma + (1-p)\eta + b$ (46) Thus, IoU decreases in missing label test. 5. Accuracy: $M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t) + (1 - B(a_k)) \cdot (1 - B(c_t))}{n} = \gamma + d.$ (47) In extra label test: $M(a_k, c_t^+) = \gamma + qb + d - qd.$ (48) accuracy increases if $b > d$. In missing label test: $M(a_k, c_t^-) = \gamma - p\gamma + d + p\eta.$ (49) Accuracy increases if $\eta > \gamma$. 6. Balanced Accuracy:

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{2||B(a_k)||_1} + \frac{(1 - B(a_k)) \cdot (1 - B(c_t))}{2||(1 - B(a_k))||_1} = \frac{\gamma}{2\gamma + 2b} + \frac{d}{2\eta + 2d}.
$$
 (50)

In extra label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^+) = \frac{\gamma + qb}{2\gamma + 2b} + \frac{d - qd}{2\eta + 2d}.
$$
 (51)

balanced accuracy increases if $\frac{b}{2\gamma+2b} > \frac{d}{2\eta+2d}$. In missing label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^-) = \frac{\gamma - p\gamma}{2\gamma + 2b} + \frac{d + p\eta}{2\eta + 2d}.
$$
 (52)

balanced accuracy increases if $\frac{\gamma}{2\gamma+2b} < \frac{\eta}{2\eta+2d}$.

7. Inverse Balanced Accuracy:

$$
M(a_k, c_t) = \frac{B(a_k) \cdot B(c_t)}{2||B(c_t)||_1} + \frac{(1 - B(a_k)) \cdot (1 - B(c_t))}{2||(1 - B(c_t))||_1} = \frac{\gamma}{2\gamma + 2\eta} + \frac{d}{2b + 2d}.
$$
 (53)

In extra label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^+) = \frac{\gamma + qb}{2\gamma + 2\eta + 2qb + 2qd} + \frac{d - qd}{2b + 2d - 2qd - 2qb}.
$$
 (54)

In missing label test:

$$
M(a_k, c_t^-) = \frac{\gamma - p\gamma}{2\gamma + 2\eta - 2p\gamma - 2p\eta} + \frac{d + p\eta}{2b + 2d + 2p\gamma + 2p\eta}.
$$
 (55)

1296	Metric	Missing label: $M(a_k, c_t^-)$	Extra label: $M(a_k, c_t^+)$
1297			
1298	Recall	$1-p$	
1299	Precision		
1300	F ₁ -score	$\frac{2-2p}{2-p}$	$\frac{\frac{1}{1+p}}{\frac{2}{1+p}}$ $\frac{1}{1+p}$
1301	IoU	$1-p$	
1302	Accuracy	$1-p\gamma$	$-\gamma p$
1303	Balanced Accuracy	$-\frac{p}{2}$	$\frac{P}{2(1-\gamma)}$
1304	Inverse Balanced Accuracy	$1-\gamma$)	$2+p$
1305		$\frac{2(1-\gamma)+2p\gamma}{2}$	$\overline{2(1+p)}$

1306 1307 1308 Table 8: The evaluation scores for different metrics under missing and extra label tests on an *ideal* neuron whose activations perfectly match the presence of our concept.

1320 Table 9: Further simplifying from Table [8](#page-24-1) by plugging in p values we typically use in our tests, and $M(a_k, c_t) = 1$, we can calculate the theoretical score diff after running our tests for different binary metrics on ideal neurons.

1324 D.1 SPECIAL CASE

1326 1327 1328 In this section, we consider a special case where the activation perfectly match the concept, i.e. $c \equiv a$. In this case, we have $\eta = b = 0$, $d = 1 - \gamma$. Plugging in those variables, we can get the following table, which shows how different metrics change after missing-label or extra-label test.

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1350 E ADDITIONAL RELATED WORKS

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1352 1353 1354 1355 1356 1357 1358 1359 1360 1361 Evaluation of individual neuron explanations. Table [10](#page-25-0) shows an expanded version of our comparison table (Table [1](#page-5-0) in the main text section [4\)](#page-4-0) of existing evaluation methods. It can be seen in Table [10](#page-25-0) that prior work [\[1;](#page-10-0) [4;](#page-10-3) [20;](#page-11-3) [5;](#page-10-4) [14;](#page-10-13) [17;](#page-11-0) [2;](#page-10-1) [9;](#page-10-8) [16;](#page-10-15) [21;](#page-11-4) [8;](#page-10-7) [22;](#page-11-5) [10;](#page-10-9) [7;](#page-10-6) [12;](#page-10-11) [13;](#page-10-12) [20;](#page-11-3) [4;](#page-10-3) [6;](#page-10-5) [23\]](#page-11-6) only use 1-2 metric for evaluation and did not discuss or justify why the metric should be used. Among all the prior work in Table [10,](#page-25-0) we believe that the most similar work to ours is [\[14\]](#page-10-13), which has focused on evaluating individual neuron explanations in language models. In particular, they discover a discrepancy between the evaluation metrics, i.e. neurons with very high correlation(top-and-random) score can still have relatively low F1-scores. However, different from our work their scope is much more specific and they do not provide analysis comparing different evaluation metrics or justification on why they use F1-score specifically. Their finding are in line with ours, where they found that Correlation(top-and-random) fails the extra labels test, while F1-score passes our sanity checks.

1363 1364 1365 1366 1367 1368 Overall we find many evaluations in previous works to be lacking, either due to using poor metrics that fail our sanity checks, or using very small sample sizes. In addition, some popular methods like TCAV [\[15\]](#page-10-14) completely lack evaluation of whether the concept directions they learn are good. To our best knowledge, no human-study has been conducted using metrics that pass our sanity checks, instead most existing human-studies only measure recall or a similar metric, and running such a study would be valuable for better understanding of unit interpreability and/or explanation methods.

Table 10: Extended Table (of Table [1](#page-5-0) in the main text section [4\)](#page-4-0) comparing related work.

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1403 Sanity Checks. The sanity checks proposed in this paper (Missing and Extra Labels test) are inspired by the sanity checks [\[24\]](#page-11-7) proposed for saliency maps, which has had a large impact in guiding that field towards more faithful explanations. However the topic is very different, since [\[24\]](#page-11-7) focus on local input-importance instead of global neuron explanations in our paper. Besides, the specific tests proposed in [\[24\]](#page-11-7) are also very different than ours.

 Concept extraction. Extracting interpretable concepts from a learned representation is a common challenge and relevant for finding individual units to evaluate in our framework. This can either be supervised as proposed by [\[15\]](#page-10-14) where the concepts are specified by human and labels are provided. This approach is also used by linear probing based work such as [\[17\]](#page-11-0). Later, a series of works[\[25;](#page-11-8) [26;](#page-11-9) [27\]](#page-11-10) was proposed to automatically extract concepts from model activations, without human supervision, i.e. unsupervised. [\[28\]](#page-11-11) claimed that concept extraction could be regarded as a dictionary learning problem. Recently Sparse Autoencoders [\[19;](#page-11-2) [13\]](#page-10-12) have also gained popularity as an unsupervised concept extraction method. Note that most unsupervised concept extraction methods are discovering "units" defined in our work that are not directly understandable to humans, and require an explanation method to provide human-understandable explanations. Our work focuses on the evaluation of the explanations of those concepts.

 Concept importance estimation. Another important task in understanding the behavior of models is estimating the importance of concepts in model decisions. [\[28\]](#page-11-11) summarized this problem as a general form of attribution methods. However this is typically a local explanation while our framework is focused on global explanations and it is more related to Function 2 defined in Sec. [2.3,](#page-2-0) i.e. how the unit affects the output.

 Human-centered evaluation on concept-based models. Human-centered evaluation of model explanation[\[29;](#page-11-12) [30\]](#page-11-13) has drawn attention from the XAI community. Recently, [\[31\]](#page-11-14) collected human evaluation of XAI explanations as a benchmark for explanation methods. These works provide important techniques and inspiration for evaluating explainability, but almost all existing work is focus on local feature importance explanations, which is very different from our work on global neuron-level explanations.

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1458 1459 F ABLATIONS AND EXTRA CHECKS

F.1 INCREASE/DECREASE FRACTION IN MISSING/EXTRA LABELS TEST

In our standard missing labels we reduce the fraction of positive labels by half, i.e.

$$
r_{-} = \frac{||c_{t}^{-}||_{1}}{||c_{t}||} = 0.5
$$

$$
r_{+} = \frac{||c_{t}^{+}||_{1}}{||c_{t}||_{1}} = 2
$$

1469 1470 1471 1472 1473 1474 1475 1476 In this section we run an ablation on the importance of these specific values by running the test on two other combinations of values: $r_-=0.75$ and $r_+=1.33$ (smaller change) and $r_-=0.33$ and $r_{+} = 3$ (larger change). We report the results on final layer neurons (including superclasses) of ViT-B-16 (trained on imagenet) in Tables [11](#page-27-0) and [12.](#page-28-1) Overall we can see that these parameters do not impact our qualitative observations, i.e. which metric passes vs which doesn't. While Avg score diff changes proportionally to r , it doesn't affect which metrics are close to zero vs which are not, and decrease acc remains relatively unchanged. Overall this shows our sanity test is not sensitive to the specific parameter choice but instead reflects overall trends of the metric.

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Table 11: Sanity check results with smaller change in labels.

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Table 12: Sanity check results with larger change in labels.

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F.2 FAILURE CASE OF COSINE: ADDING A CONSTANT ACTIVATION

1541 1542 1543 1544 1545 1546 1547 1548 1549 1550 In this section we dicuss a failure case of cosine similarity as an evaluation metric. The main idea is that cosine similarity outputs are not independent of the mean of the neuron's activation, while all other evaluation metrics are. This causes it to associate neurons with large average activation values with very generic concepts that are almost always active. As an example, we added a constant (1) to all activations of concept neurons in a Concept Bottleneck Model [\[16\]](#page-10-15) trained on CUB200, and ran our argmax generation test. All other evaluation metrics are invariant to this change, but the accuracy of Cosine drops from 99.07% to 0.93% with this small change, as shown in Table [13.](#page-29-0) We believe this is a flaw that points against using cosine similarity, as the average activation of a hidden layer neuron is not functionally important, and could be absorbed into biases of the next layer. Instead we recommend using Pearson correlation which is identical to cosine similarity after normalizing to mean 0, as we show in Section [A.3.](#page-14-1)

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 Table 13: Adding a constant to the activation values of all neurons causes the cosine similarity to perform very poorly, while other metrics are unchanged.

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1620 1621 G DETAILED RESULTS

1622 1623 G.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP DETAILS

1624 Missing and Extra labels test: We evaluate our experimental results across 6 settings:

- 1. Dataset D=ImageNet, ViT-B-16 [\[32\]](#page-11-15) trained on imagenet, final layer neurons(and superclass neurons), Table [14](#page-31-0)
- 2. Dataset D=ImageNet, ResNet-50 trained on imagenet, layer4 neurons, Table [15](#page-32-0)
- 3. Dataset D=Places365, ResNet-18 trained on Places365, final layer neurons, Table [16](#page-32-1)
- 4. Dataset D=Places365, ResNet-18 trained on Places365, layer4 neurons, Table [17](#page-33-0)
	- 5. Dataset D=CUB200, CBM trained on CUB200, concept neurons, Table [18](#page-33-1)
- 6. Dataset $D=CUB200$, CLIP ViT-B-32 image encoder, linear probe trained to detect CUBconcepts, Table [19](#page-34-0)
- **1633 1634**

1635 1636 1637 1638 1639 1640 1641 1642 1643 1644 For all settings we used the ground truth labels from the dataset as c_t . The ImageNet [\[33\]](#page-11-16) and Places [\[34\]](#page-11-17) models were pretrained. For CUB-CBM we trained our own model using the code released by [\[16\]](#page-10-15). Our CBM reached 96.75% concept accuracy on the test set which is in line with their reported results. For CLIP, we used the pretrained model from [\[35\]](#page-12-0), and then learned a linear probe on top of frozen image embeddings to minimize binary cross-entropy loss on the training split of CUB200[\[36\]](#page-12-1), with early stopping using validation data. Our linear probe reached 89.76% concept accuracy. The CUB dataset is a small bird species classification dataset that contains detailed annotations for lower level concepts, such as wing color. Following [\[16\]](#page-10-15), we only used the 112 concepts that are present on at least 5% of the inputs and our CLIP linear probe was trained to predict these concepts, not the final class of inputs.

- **1645 1646 1647 1648** For the final layer neurons as well as CUB neurons we let "correct" concept t_k be the ground truth concept for that neuron. We choose the hyperparameter α that maximizes AUC(Eq. [19\)](#page-8-0) performance on validation neurons, and run the tests on test neurons. For all evaluations we used neuron activations after the activation function (i.e. softmax/sigmoid).
- **1649 1650 1651** While for layer4(after avg pool) neurons we defined the "correct" t_k correct" concept t_k as the concept that maximizes IoU with $\alpha = 0.005$ similar to [\[1\]](#page-10-0). For these layers we fixed $\alpha = 0.005$ for all metrics as that was used to determine the "ground truth".

1652 1653 1654 1655 1656 1657 1658 Interestingly, we find that most methods pass the tests on the CUB dataset than the other datasets we looked at, but the trends in terms of which metrics perform worse are still similar. We believe this is caused by data imbalance, as the concepts in CUB are relatively balanced (following [\[16\]](#page-10-15) we only keep concepts that are present on at least 5% of the inputs), while for example ImageNet classes are much more imbalanced (each class is positive on 0.1% of the inputs). This is confirmed by our theoretical observations in Section [B,](#page-16-0) which show that poor metrics are much more likely to fail the test when the concepts are imbalanced.

1660 1661 Argmax generation and AUC We evaluate the argmax generation and AUC test on 8 different settings:

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- 1. Dataset D=ImageNet, ViT-B-16(ImageNet), final layer neurons, ground truth c_t
- 2. Dataset $D=ImageNet$, ViT-B-16(ImageNet), final layer neurons, SigLIP c_t
- 3. Dataset D=ImageNet, ViT-B-16(ImageNet), final layer neurons+superclass neurons, ground truth c_t
- 4. Dataset D=ImageNet, ViT-B-16(ImageNet), final layer neurons+superclass neurons, SigLIP c_t
- 5. Dataset D=Places365, ResNet-18(Places365), final layer neurons, ground truth c_t
- **1670** 6. Dataset $D=Places365$, ResNet-18(Places365), final layer neurons, SigLIP c_t
- **1671 1672** 7. Dataset D=CUB200, CBM trained on CUB200, concept neurons, ground truth c_t
- **1673** 8. Dataset D=CUB200, CLIP ViT-B-32 image encoder, linear probe trained to detect CUBconcepts, ground truth c_t

 SigLIP c_t indicates we used Pseudo-labels generated from SigLIP (ViT-SO400M-14-SigLIP-384) [\[37\]](#page-12-2) as done by [\[7\]](#page-10-6). For all metrics evaluations we choose hyperparameters such as α by finding the one with best performance on validation neurons (random subset of 5% of the neurons), and use those hyperparameters to evaluate on test neurons.

 Tables [20](#page-34-1) and [21](#page-35-0) show the detailed results of our argmax generation experiment, and Tables [22](#page-35-1) and show the detailed results of our AUC evaluation experiment. We can see that overall the AUC numbers are quite high for most methods, as the dataset is very imbalanced with more examples of incorrect pairs than correct pairs, and the task of telling a correct explanation apart from a random one is quite easy. However we can still find meaningful differences between metrics by precisely measuring how close they can get to perfect score of 1.

Table 14: Missing and Extra Labels test results on ViT-B-16(ImageNet) final layer neurons.

Table 15: Missing and Extra labels test results on ResNet-50(Imagenet) layer4 neurons.

	Resnet-18(Places365) - Final layer neurons					
	Missing Labels Test		Extra Labels Test			
	Avg Score Diff	Decrease acc	Avg Score Diff	Decreased acc		
Recall	-0.4301	97.98%	Ω	0.00%		
Precision	-0.0039	53.03%	-0.0324	98.85%		
F1-score	-0.0151	63.40%	-0.0577	98.85%		
IoU	-0.0079	63.40%	-0.0319	98.85%		
Accuracy	0.0012	0.00%	-0.0027	100.00%		
Balanced Accuracy	-0.2144	97.98%	-0.0014	100.00%		
Inverse Balanced Acc.	-0.0020	55.33%	-0.0162	100.00%		
AUC	-0.1976	98.56%	-0.0021	61.96%		
Inverse AUC	-0.0008	66.57%	-0.2435	100.00%		
Correlation	-0.0894	99.71%	-0.0883	100.00%		
Correlation (top-and-random)	-0.1249	95.39%	-0.0026	50.43%		
Spearman Correlation	-0.0018	69.45%	0.0002	48.99%		
Spearman Correlation (top-and-random)	-0.1267	90.78%	0.0004	51.30%		
Cosine	-0.0895	99.71%	-0.0873	100.00%		
Cosine cubed	-0.0780	99.14%	-0.0755	99.71%		
WPMI	-0.3084	99.42%	0.0013	0.00%		
MAD	-0.0009	48.99%	-0.2264	100.00%		
AUPRC	-0.0270	85.30%	-0.0282	98.85%		
Inverse AUPRC	-0.2578	100.00%	-0.2621	99.71%		

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Table 16: Missing and Extra labels test results on ResNet-18(Places365) final layer neurons.

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Table 17: Missing and Extra labels test results on ResNet-18(Places365) layer4 neurons.

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Table 18: Missing and Extra labels test results on CBM(CUB200) concept neurons.

1860 1861 Table 19: Missing and Extra labels test results on linear probe for CUB concepts trained on CLIP embeddings.

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	Setup 1: gt c_t ,			Setup 2: SigLIP c_t		Setup 3: gt c_t ,		Setup 4: SigLIP c_t	
	original		original		original+superclass		original+superclass		
	K and C		K and C		K and C		K and C		
Metric	Accuracy	Rank	Accuracy	Rank	Accuracy	Rank	Accuracy	Rank	
Recall	99.37%	6	94.42%	10	8.33%	16	67.43%	11	
Precision	99.37%	6	93.90%	13	71.81%	13	65.75%	13	
F1-score/IoU	99.37%	6	94.32%	11	88.90%	5	68.46%	10	
Accuracy	99.37%	6	92.24%	14	82.59%	9	65.43%	15	
Balanced Accuracy	99.37%	6	94.51%	9	83.53%	8	68.69%	8	
Inverse Balanced Acc.	99.37%	6	93.98%	12	72.97%	11	65.75%	13	
AUC	98.84%	14	96.79%	5	78.57%	10	75.30%	$\overline{4}$	
Inverse AUC	94.74%	16	85.68%	16	85.41%	6	57.56%	16	
Correlation	99.58%	1	98.11%	1	99.25%	$\overline{2}$	76.95%	$\overline{2}$	
Correlation (top-and-random)	98.74%	15	87.79%	15	68.94%	14	68.50%	9	
Spearman Correlation	0.74%	18	10.63%	18	2.48%	17	7.37%	18	
Spearman Correlation (top-and-random)	64.95%	17	71.84%	17	23.46%	15	49.44%	17	
Cosine	99.58%	1	98.11%	1	99.32%	1	76.84%	3	
Cosine cubed	99.47%	5	98.11%	1	98.65%	3	74.77%	5	
WPMI	99.37%	6	96.74%	6	85.41%	6	77.11%	1	
MAD	99.58%	1	96.11%	7	72.41%	12	66.95%	12	
AUPRC	99.37%	6	96.95%	$\overline{4}$	94.40%	4	72.29%	6	
Inverse AUPRC	99.58%	1	94.63%	8	0.45%	18	69.62%	7	

1887 Table 20: Detailed results of our argmax evaluation experiment on final layer neurons of ViT-B-16(ImageNet).

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Table 21: Detailed results of our argmax evaluation experiment on final layer neurons of Places365 models and concept neurons on CUB200.

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Table 22: Detailed results of our AUC evaluation on Final layer neurons of ViT-B-16(ImageNet).

Table 23: Detailed results of our AUC evaluation on Places365 and CUB.

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1998 1999 H OLD SUMMARY TABLES

2000 2001 2002

In this section we show our summary tables from the original submission for easy comparison during rebuttal. Will be removed from final version.

Table 24: Old: Combined results of our missing labels and extra labels test. We can see most evaluation metrics fail at least one of the tests.

		Average Rank	
Method	Argmax Generation	AUC	Average
Recall	9.5	11.25	10.375
Precision	9.5	9	9.25
F1-score/IoU	6.25	9	7.625
Accuracy	9	8	8.5
Balanced Accuracy	7.75	7.5	7.625
Inverse Balanced Accuracy	8.5	8.75	8.625
AUC	7.75	9.75	8.75
Inverse AUC	11.75	11.75	11.75
Correlation	1.75	2.25	
Correlation (top-and-random)	11.25	7.75	$rac{2}{9.5}$
Spearman Correlation	16	16	16
Spearman Correlation (top-and-random)	14.75	12.5	13.625
Cosine	1.5	$1.5\,$	$1.5\,$
Cosine cubed	2.75	2.5	2.625
WPMI	4.25	6	5.125
MAD	7.25	6.5	6.875

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Table 25: Old: Comparison of different evaluation metrics. Lower rank means better performance.

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- **2049**
- **2050**