

This CVPR workshop paper is the Open Access version, provided by the Computer Vision Foundation. Except for this watermark, it is identical to the accepted version; the final published version of the proceedings is available on IEEE Xplore.

Hamming Similarity and Graph Laplacians for Class Partitioning and Adversarial Image Detection

Huma Jamil¹^{*}, Yajing Liu²^{*}, Turgay Caglar¹, Christina Cole², Nathaniel Blanchard¹, Christopher Peterson², Michael Kirby²

¹Computer Science Department, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO, USA ²Mathematics Department, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO, USA Emails: {huma97, yajing.liu, turguy.caglar, christina.rigsby, nblancha}@colostate.edu, {christopher2.peterson, michael.kirby}@colostate.edu

Abstract

Researchers typically investigate neural network representations by examining activation outputs for one or more layers of a network. Here, we investigate the potential for ReLU activation patterns (encoded as bit vectors) to aid in understanding and interpreting the behavior of neural networks. We utilize Representational Dissimilarity Matrices (RDMs) to investigate the coherence of data within the embedding spaces of a deep neural network. From each layer of a network, we extract and utilize bit vectors to construct similarity scores between images. From these similarity scores, we build a similarity matrix for a collection of images drawn from 2 classes. We then apply Fiedler partitioning to the associated Laplacian matrix to separate the classes. Our results indicate, through bit vector representations, that the network continues to refine class detectability with the last ReLU layer achieving better than 95% separation accuracy. Additionally, we demonstrate that bit vectors aid in adversarial image detection, again achieving over 95% accuracy in separating adversarial and nonadversarial images using a simple classifier.

1. Introduction

For nearly as long as neural networks have dominated various benchmarks, works have investigated methods for comprehending and explaining their behavior. The recent controversies around when to, and not to, trust the output from ChatGPT perfectly encapsulates the problems with treating networks as a "black box" [1] — explaining network behavior links to trust, and the potential to better understand how to enhance performance even further. One method to accomplish this is by examining the coherence of

input data within the lower-dimensional embedding spaces that exist within the network, as advocated by the seminal work on representation learning [4]. Ideally, these intermediate embeddings will represent data in such a manner that prescribed similarities (i.e. same class label) can be identified and distinguished from prescribed dissimilarities (i.e. distinct class labels). Geometrically, this manifests if data identified as similar are mapped to points that are close together in some embedding space while data identified as dissimilar are mapped to points that are further apart. It is then a simple task to distinguish similar data from dissimilar data.

Analyzing how these embedding spaces are utilized and their effectiveness can give insights into how the network is processing and representing the data as it passes through. This in turn can be used to improve the performance of the neural network and facilitate the interpretation of its results. Representational dissimilarity matrices (RDMs) are a useful tool for visualizing the degree of coherence within these embedding spaces - RDMs quantify the (dis)similarity of a network's representation to like- and dislike stimuli. By examining the RDMs, we can identify patterns or irregularities in the network's representations of input data in order to diagnose and address problems with the model's performance or interpretability [16]. We extend these RDMs with a novel analysis: extending Fiedler partitioning to dissimilarity matrices interpreted as weighted graphs. Fiedler partitioning [9, 10], also known as spectral partitioning, is a technique used in graph theory to divide a graph into two or more subgraphs based on the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the graph's Laplacian matrix.

Typically, the activations for a layer of a neural network are utilized in neural network pattern analysis to unravel and encapsulate useful statistics about the input [24]. However, recent research has demonstrated that the coarser utilization of "bit vectors", derived from the output of Rectified Linear

^{*}Equal contributors.

[†]Corresponding author.

Unit (ReLU) activation patterns in early layers, are meaningfully linked to adversarial images [14], which inspired us to use RDMs to further investigate the representations of bit vectors. In our study, we investigated the effectiveness of Fiedler partitioning as derived from the Laplacian of a similarity matrix constructed from the bit vectors within a layer of a neural network. In other words, we computed the Fiedler eigenvector of a certain Laplacian matrix related to the pattern of ReLU activations in the nodes of a layer of the network. Specifically, we examined the RDMs of each ReLU layer for two classes using the Fiedler partitioning. Since the number of nodes in a layer of a deep neural networks can be quite large (ranging from 100k to 800k in our case), we hypothesized that a large number of bits were not really needed for the classification task. To illustrate this, we identified and extracted 1000 of the most significant bits that ultimately led to the construction of the RDMs.

Our results revealed that as data proceeded to deeper ReLU layers, distinct partitions began to emerge in the data, and the classification accuracy for each class generally improved. An important observation from our study is that layers did not treat all data equally; some layers appeared to be specifically focused on improving the ability to distinguish between a smaller collection of images. The RDM analysis offers insights into how a network encodes information about the input data and extracts crucial features for classification, improving its transparency and interpretability.

Based on the above analysis, we then conducted empirical experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of bit vectorinduced partitioning to distinguish adversarial images from non-adversarial images. Previous work has shown that adversarial and non-adversarial images are linearly separable in the latent layer (the penultimate layer activation) embeddings of a deep neural network [12]. Although bit vectors provide a more coarse level of information about input data, we have found that bit vectors from the last ReLU layer of a neural network can also be used to effectively separate non-adversarial images from adversarial ones. In fact, we produced results that were at least as good as those achieved by latent layer embeddings while using fewer features. Overall, our results suggest that bit vectors in deep neural networks offer a promising approach for identifying adversarial images with high efficiency and potentially improved performance.

Our contributions in this paper are as follows:

- We demonstrate that bit vector subsampling utilizing 1000 out of the 100k-800k available bits can separate two-class data.
- We present a novel idea of utilizing Fiedler partitioning on the Laplacian matrix constructed from bit vector measures of similarity to achieve over 95% image

class identification accuracy.

We show that bit vector representations can separate adversarial images from non-adversarial ones with more than 95% accuracy using a linear Support Vector Machine (SVM).

The structure of our paper is as follows: Section 2 provides a comprehensive review of the related literature, including Fiedler partitioning, adversarial detection, and network interpretability. Section 3 outlines the relevant definitions that underpin the study. Section 4 presents the Fiedler Vector algorithm and its practical application to the twoclass and two-superclass classification of images via the bit vectors of ResNet-50. Section 5 illustrates that the linear separability of the bit vectors of ResNet-50 can be utilized to differentiate between non-adversarial and adversarial images. Finally, Section 6 offers concluding remarks.

2. Related Work

2.1. Fiedler Partitioning

The Fiedler vector, an eigenvector corresponding to the smallest non-zero eigenvalue of the Laplacian matrix of a weighted graph, is a fundamental tool in graph theory for elucidating underlying substructures within a complex system represented through pairwise similarities. Its entries can be utilized to assign the vertices of the graph to two disjoint subsets while minimizing the sum of weights of the edges between the subsets and maximizing the total weight of edges inside the two subsets. The Fiedler vector algorithm, also called Fiedler partitioning, has been successfully applied to numerous real-world problems: identifying regions with similar texture or color properties [28], identifying groups that share similar characteristics or functions [23], and highlighting influential nodes or communities in a social network [18]. It is also a well-established technique in machine learning and data analysis to uncover and interpret subpatterns within data [8, 31]. One of the key advantages of the Fiedler partitioning is its ability to leverage a lower-dimensional feature space derived from the network, as demonstrated in recent research by Schleider et al. [26] and Cao et al. [5]. This feature space, typically obtained via eigenvalue decomposition of a graph Laplacian matrix, allows for efficient and effective data clustering and visualization, making it a popular choice for a variety of applications. In this work, we apply Fiedler partitioning to representational dissimilarity matrices to perform novel analyses.

2.2. Adversarial Detection

Deep neural networks are efficient in image classification, but can be tricked by adversarial attacks [30]. Several distinct attacks have been proposed to exploit various weaknesses [6, 7, 11, 20, 21]. In response, multiple studies have been conducted to leverage the characteristics of the hidden and latent layers of deep neural networks for the purpose of detecting adversarial images. For example, [3] proposed a method using the latent layers, and [12] showed the meaningful information carried by activations within these lavers. To detect adversarial and out-of-distribution images, [17] used features from hidden and latent layers to compute class conditional Gaussian distributions and Mahalanobis distances. On the other hand, [19] utilized intermediate convolution layer outputs to extract statistics that aid in detecting adversarial images. Our methodology bears similarities to [19] in that we also examine the internal workings of the neural network. However, we employ a more rudimentary metric, specifically the bit vectors generated by a relatively small subset of a ReLU layer's activation pattern rather than relying on the latent layer values.

2.3. Network Interpretability

Interpreting the function of deep neural networks often involves understanding the hidden layers. Visualization techniques using intermediate layers [32], network dissection [33], and learning disentangled representations [25] are some of the few methods proposed to achieve this. In our work, we contribute to network interpretability by using bit vectors extracted from intermediate ReLU layers. In previous literature, quantitative metrics like Hamming distance [27, 29], Jaccard distance [2], and cosine similarity [15] have been used to evaluate the effectiveness of the explainable methods. We computed image similarity in our work by evaluating the pairwise Hamming distance between the bit vectors determined by data passing through a ReLU layer and constructing a Laplacian matrix based on these distances. Our results provide insights into the neural network's information processing, feature extraction, and decision-making mechanisms, enhancing the network's transparency and interpretability.

3. Definitions

3.1. Bit Vectors

Consider a feed forward neural network containing ReLU activation functions. Suppose the i^{th} layer of the network contains h_i ReLU nodes. For a given input $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$, we denote its output in the i^{th} layer, at these ReLU nodes, as $o^i(x) = \left[o_1^i(x) \dots o_{h_i}^i(x)\right]^\top$. We define the bit vector of x in the i^{th} layer as $s^i(x) = \left[s_1^i(x) \dots s_{h_i}^i(x)\right]^\top$ with

$$s_{j}^{i}(x) \coloneqq \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } o_{j}^{i}(x) > 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } o_{j}^{i}(x) = 0. \end{cases}$$
(1)

Thus, the bit vector is a function of the input x and assigns a value of 1 to nodes that activate the ReLU function at xand assigns a value of 0 otherwise. It is typical that the bit vectors for various inputs in the neural network will exhibit diverse activation patterns in the ReLU layers as the inputs traverse the network.

3.2. Representational Dissimilarity Matrices

For a given neural network N with input set $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$, let $\{o^i(x_1), \ldots, o^i(x_n)\}$ be the output of X in the i^{th} hidden layer of N, we define a representational dissimilarity matrix (RDM) at layer *i* as:

$$RDM(X,N) = \left(d^{i}_{jk}\right)_{0 \le j,k \le n},\tag{2}$$

where d_{jk}^i is a measure of dissimilarity between $o^i(x_j)$ and $o^i(x_k)$. For instance, d^i could be a distance function. In essence, Representational Dissimilarity Matrices (RDMs) provide a way to capture the internal representations of a neural network by summarizing the similarities and differences between the neural responses to different inputs.

To define the RDM, one needs a measure of dissimilarity. Different measures lead to different RDMs. In our study, we employed the Hamming distance and the cosine distance for d^i . The Hamming distance is a metric commonly used for comparing two binary strings of the same length and denotes the number of positions where the corresponding entries are distinct. We utilize the Hamming distance as one of the distance metrics when constructing the RDM for an input set X at layer *i*. The cosine distance between two vectors is defined as $1 - \cos(\theta)$ where θ denotes the angle between the two vectors. In addition to the Hamming distance, we utilize the cosine distance as a dissimilarity score for the embeddings occuring in the latent layer of the neural network.

3.3. Feature Selection

Feature selection is a technique used to reduce the dimensionality of the data by choosing features that do a good job representing the data. In our experiments, we used *SelectKBest* method from a Python library to reduce the dimensionality of bit vectors (i.e. to select a subset of bits from the bit vector). Mathematically, let $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a set of n input data points and let $Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ be the target labels. Let $f_i(X, Y)$ be a scoring function that measures the importance of the i^{th} feature in predicting the target variable. Then, the *SelectKBest* function selects the k features with the highest scores, and it returns the set of indices $S_k = \{i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_k\}$ corresponding to the k highest scores of the scoring function $f_i(X, Y)$. In our experiments, we use the chi-square statistic as the score function f_i .

4. Classification with Fiedler Vectors

In this section we apply the Fiedler Vector Algorithm, initially introduced as a theoretical framework for spectral clustering [9, 10], to groups of images from the ImageNet dataset. The algorithm is based on the bit vectors collected at various layers within the neural network known as ResNet-50 [13]. Prior to delving into the applications of the algorithm with ResNet-50 bit vectors, we first provide a review of the Fiedler method and its associated definitions.

4.1. Fiedler Vector Algorithm

Consider a weighted graph G = (V, E, W) where $V = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ denotes the set of vertices, E denotes the set of (unordered) edges, and $W : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ denotes the weights of the elements in E. Thus each element of E is an unordered pair of vertices and has an associated non-negative weight. The weighted adjacency matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ of the graph G is defined by the rules $A_{ij} = 0$ if $\{i, j\} \notin E$ and $A_{ij} = W(\{i, j\})$ if $\{i, j\} \in E$. The degree matrix, D, is a diagonal matrix with $D_{i,i}$ equal to the sum of the entries in the i^{th} row of A. It can also be expressed as D = diag(Ae) and e is a column vector of all 1's. The Laplacian matrix of the graph G can then be expressed as follows:

Definition 4.1 Given an undirected weighted graph G = (V, E, W), its Laplacian matrix L is defined as L = D - A where A is the weighted adjacency matrix of G and D is the degree matrix of G.

In [9], it was shown that the Laplacian matrix L is symmetric, positive semi-definite, and has 0 as an eigenvalue. The multiplicity of 0 as an eigenvalue is equal to the number of connected components of G. Thus, if G is a connected graph, then 0 is an eigenvalue with multiplicity 1. For connected graphs, the second smallest eigenvalue of L is called the *algebraic connectivity* of the graph G. It provides information about the ease with which the graph can be separated into two components. In [10], the eigenvector associated with the second smallest eigenvalue of L, now referred to as the Fiedler vector, was proposed as a means of "optimally" breaking apart G into two more tightly connected components. The following theorem leads to the Fiedler Vector Algorithm for partitioning the vertices of G.

Theorem 4.1 Let G = (V, E, W) be a weighted connected graph with weighted adjacency matrix A and Laplacian matrix L. Let v_2 be an eigenvector corresponding to the second smallest eigenvalue of L. The Fiedler vector partition is:

$$C_1 = \{i \in N : v_2(i) < 0\}$$
 and $C_2 = \{i \in N : v_2(i) > 0\}.$

The vertices j satisfying $v_2(j) = 0$ can be arbitrarily included in either class.

The aforementioned Fiedler Vector Algorithm can be extended to partition $2^{l}(l = 2, 3, ...)$ clusters by leveraging the sign patterns of entries in the *l* eigenvectors corresponding to the first *l* smallest nonzero eigenvalues.

4.2. Experiment Setting

In the following sections, we will apply the Fiedler Vector algorithm to perform classification tasks on the ImageNet-1K dataset. This dataset has 1000 classes of images, each consisting of 1300 training images and 50 validation images. ResNet-50 refers to a particular trained, deep, feed forward, convolutional, ReLU neural network that was trained on the 1.3M training images in the ImageNet-1K dataset [13]. To obtain the bit vectors for an image, we pass the image through ResNet-50 and extract the bit vector based on the output of each ReLU layer. This results in a total of 17 bit vectors (as there are 17 layers of ResNet-50 that utilize ReLU activation function). The neural network architecture features an initial set of four ReLU layers with 802,816 nodes, followed by four layers with half the nodes, six layers with 1/4 of the nodes, and a final three layers with 1/8 of the initial number of nodes.

The weighted adjacency matrix A for a given set of images at each layer is obtained by computing the matrix 1 - H, where 1 is a matrix of all ones, and H is the normalized Hamming distance matrix. In other words, at a given layer, the entry $H_{i,j}$ of H is defined as the number of different entries in the bit vectors for images i and j divided by the length of the bit vectors.

To account for the large number of nodes in each layer and the varying degrees of importance among them, we utilized a feature selection technique described in Section 3.3 to identify the most crucial bits in the bit vector. We then labeled each image with a much shorter bit vector consisting of the most crucial bits. Finally, we applied the Fiedler Vector algorithm to the weighted adjacency matrix described in the preceding paragraph.

In the classification process, we used the training data of the selected classes to determine the 1000 most essential features (bits), which we then used to compute the Laplacian matrices for the training and test data of the chosen classes, respectively. Finally, we evaluated the classification rate using the Fiedler Vector algorithm on both the training and test datasets.

4.3. Two-Class Classification

We defined four pairs of distinct classes for our experiments. The first two pairs each consists of two different species, specifically Tench vs Thunder Snake, and Rhodesian Ridgeback vs Monarch Butterfly. The other two pairs belong to subcategories of two main categories, fish and snake. In particular, the third pair is Tench vs Goldfish, and the fourth pair is Thunder Snake vs Ringneck Snake. In our initial experiment, we extracted 1000 significant features from the training data for two classes (Tench and Thunder Snake) and utilized the same features from the validation set to construct an RDM. We investigated how the RDMs of these two classes evolve throughout the 17 ReLU layers as depicted in Figure 1. We also noticed an interesting pattern where one class grows more similar to the other in the initial layers (layers 2-6), but later, both classes drift apart as indicated by the increasing dissimilarity values. We observed clustering as the pairwise distance decreased within the same class, even in the initial layer. In the later layers, both classes were distinctly separated in the RDM, with a discernible boundary between them. Interestingly, the separation was already evident at the 15th ReLU layer.

Table 1 presents the classification accuracy for each layer and the accuracy for each class calculated using the Fiedler Vector Algorithm. The results are in line with the RDM plots. It is interesting to note that while the classification rate as a whole may decrease across two consecutive layers, the accuracy of one class may improve. Similar experiments were performed for the remaining three pairs, and the resulting test accuracy was plotted for 1, 5, 10, and 17 ReLU layers (see Figure 2). Our findings again indicated a positive correlation between layer depth and classification accuracy, implying that the neural network can extract increasingly valuable information from the data later in its architecture.

Figure 2 shows comparable performance for the three pairs of classes but slightly worse performance for the fourth, Thunder Snake vs Ringneck Snake. This can perhaps be attributed to the fine-grained differences between the Thunder Snake and Ringneck Snake that the coarse characterization given by bit vectors may be unable to completely capture.

In conclusion, our experiments have demonstrated that the coarse representation given by bit vectors, filtered to 1000 significant features, capture enough information about the data to be used as a tool for neural network analysis. The Fiedler Vector algorithm applied to the Laplacian matrix constructed from the bit vectors is shown to be an effective method for image classification, with the classification rate generally increasing in later layers.

4.3.1 Two Superclass Classification

The Fiedler vector has shown promising results in classifying two distinct classes, which prompted us to investigate its effectiveness in partitioning broader classes, specifically the superclass of fish and snake, and fish and cat. Our analysis indicates that the Fiedler Vector algorithm is an effective method for classifying two superclasses. To identify the best 1000 features, we selected the training datasets of class Tench and class Goldfish, and class Thunder snake and class Ringneck snake. These classes belong to the fish and snake superclasses, respectively. We then applied the Fiedler Vector algorithm to the validation dataset of these superclasses, resulting in a test accuracy of 94.5%, 97.5%, and 99% for the last three ReLU layers, respectively.

We also conducted similar experiments on the fish (Tench and Goldfish) and cat (Persian and Egyptian) superclasses. For the last three ReLU layers, the resulting test accuracy was 98%, 99%, and 99.5%, respectively. Figure 3 shows the resulting RDMs for these two pairs of superclasses at the last ReLU layer.

Our findings suggest that the bit vectors can identify common features for classes belonging to the same superclass, even in the earlier ReLU layers. Additionally, the Fiedler Vector algorithm effectively distinguishes between two different superclasses.

5. Adversarial Image Analysis

The success of Fiedler partitioning in separating image classes motivated us to see if bit vectors could also distinguish between adversarial and non-adversarial images. In the next two sections, we conducted experiments to analyze different adversarial attacks. Firstly, we examined the correlation between the RDMs of bit vectors and the RDMs of latent layer embeddings. Encouraged by the positive results of this experiment, we constructed a linear SVM classifier in the subsequent section. The SVM classifier was trained on the bit vectors and achieved promising results, demonstrating the potential of using bit vectors for adversarial image detection.

5.1. RDM Comparison between ReLU layer and Latent Layer Embeddings

In our investigation, we aimed to compare the differences in latent layer embeddings and corresponding bit vectors of adversarial and non-adversarial images in the Imagenet-1K validation set. To ensure coherence, we used 2048 significant features for the ReLU-17 layer bit vectors, corresponding to the dimensionality of the latent layer embeddings. We used Hamming distance for the bit vector RDM and cosine distance for the latent layer RDM to build our RDMs. Figure 4 illustrates a distinct separation between the two classes in the latent layer RDM, as anticipated. Similarly, the ReLU layer RDM showed a clear difference between adversarial and non-adversarial classes. The Pearson correlation between the two RDMs was 0.620, indicating a positive correlation between the representations.

In the following section, we investigate bit vectors' potential in distinguishing between these two types of images via a linear classifier.



Layer number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Accuracy (%)	60	69	58	52	76	81	83	59	84	90	83	85	78	73	100	100	99
Tench (%)	24	54	22	4	62	62	82	18	74	86	66	72	56	46	100	100	98
Thunder Snake (%)	96	84	94	100	90	100	84	100	94	94	100	98	100	100	100	100	100

Table 1. Test accuracy (in percentage) at layer 1-17 for Tench and Thunder Snake using Fiedler Vector Classifier.

5.2. Linear Separability Comparison

The ReLU activation patterns of deep neural networks are a tremendous simplification of the workings of the network yet contain essential information about the input data, as demonstrated by the findings in [14]. That study indicated that only 5 bits out of the 6 million in the bit vectors are sufficient to distinguish between most adversarial and non-adversarial images. To the best of our knowledge, the use of bit vectors to investigate adversarial images is not prevalent in the literature. However, [12] showed that linear



Figure 2. Test accuracy for four pairs of two classes each at layer 1, 5, 10, 17 using Fiedler Vector Algorithm.



Figure 3. Test accuracy for fish (Tench and Goldfish) vs snake (Thunder and Ringneck) and for fish (Tench and Goldfish) vs cat (Persian and Egyptian) at layer 17 using Fiedler Vector Algorithm.



Figure 4. RDM comparisons of ReLU layer and latent layer for non adversarial and adversarial images.

separability can be achieved between adversarial and nonadversarial images using latent layer embeddings. In our experiments, we observed that bit vectors can also achieve comparable or better results in linear separability. Specifically, we utilized the last ReLU layer of ResNet-50, ReLU-17, to generate the 100352-dimensional bit vectors.

Although the linear separability using bit vector representations from the later part of the network may seem obvious, our approach's efficiency lies in selecting 1000 of the 100352 bits that contain the most information. By training a linear SVM on this concentrated information, we were able to distinguish adversarial from non-adversarial images. In our experimental analysis, we utilized the validation dataset of ImageNet-1K. Instead of using the entire dataset, we selectively choose classes based on their placement within the WordNet hierarchy [22]. These datasets are as follows: **Randomly selected classes** We utilized a dataset consisting of 100 classes that were randomly selected from the validation dataset of ImageNet-1K. Each class contained 50 images, resulting in a total of 5000 images for the dataset.

Broad Classes Using WordNet Hierarchy The second dataset was generated by leveraging the WordNet hierarchy to identify and select high-level classes from the ImageNet validation dataset. The data was labeled based on the top-level categories, resulting in a dataset of 11,600 images that span five broad classes: aquatic animals, reptiles, carnivores, insects, and natural objects.

Subclasses from Selected Broad Classes The third dataset consisted of one subclass from each of the five classes in the second dataset. The selected subclasses were fish, snakes, working dogs, butterflies, and plants, resulting in a total of 2,650 images.

To generate adversarial images, we utilized four distinct attack methods: DAmageNet [7] (the dataset was directly downloaded), Fast Gradient Sign Method (FGSM) [11], Projected Gradient Descent (PGD) [20], and Carlini & Wagner (CW) [6]. We then conducted five Linear SVM experiments on the resulting datasets, including ImageNet vs. DAmageNet, ImageNet vs. FGSM, ImageNet vs. PGD, ImageNet vs. CarliniWagner, and ImageNet vs. all adversarial images combined.

5.2.1 Experiments

We began by dividing our two sets of original images' bit vectors X^{org} and adversarial images' bit vectors X^{adv} into separate training and test sets, which resulted in four sets of bit vectors: $X_{\text{train}}^{\text{org}}$, $X_{\text{test}}^{\text{adv}}$, and $X_{\text{test}}^{\text{adv}}$. We applied a feature selection method to $X_{\text{train}}^{\text{org}}$ and $X_{\text{test}}^{\text{adv}}$. We applied a feature selection method to $X_{\text{train}}^{\text{org}}$ and $X_{\text{test}}^{\text{adv}}$ independently to select k features (bits) from the last ReLU layer for both original and adversarial images. We discarded the other ReLU features, resulting in $X_{\text{trainSelected}}^{\text{org}}$ and $X_{\text{testSelected}}^{\text{org}}$ for original bit vectors, and $X_{\text{trainSelected}}^{\text{adv}}$ and $X_{\text{testSelected}}^{\text{org}}$ for original bit vectors. We then concatenated the original bit vectors with the adversarial bit vectors, giving us our final train and test sets: X_{train} and Y_{test} . Simultaneously, we generated labels vectors y_{train} and y_{test} , where the label is either original or adversarial. Finally, we trained a linear SVM classifier on (X_{train} , y_{test}). The pseudo-code for this experiment is presented in Algorithm 1.

Using a consistent data split, we generated and evaluated models using two k values: 2048 and 1000. Results are shown in 2 and 3, corresponding with accuracy and AU-ROC, respectively. We selected k = 2048 because that corresponds with the dimensionality of the latent layer embed-

Attack type	F	Random selecti	on	W N	VordNet hierard	chy	Subclasses			
Allack type	ReLU ₁₀₀₀	ReLU ₂₀₄₈	Latent layer	ReLU ₁₀₀₀	ReLU ₂₀₄₈	Latent layer	ReLU ₁₀₀₀	ReLU ₂₀₄₈	Latent layer	
	accuracy	accuracy	accuracy	accuracy	accuracy	accuracy	accuracy	accuracy	accuracy	
DAmagenet	0.978	0.992	0.977	0.961	0.989	0.984	0.944	0.989	0.968	
FGSM	0.935	0.981	0.9625	0.966	0.993	0.954	0.966	0.988	0.938	
PGD	0.917	0.97	0.902	0.961	0.979	0.885	0.911	0.977	0.868	
CarliniWagner	0.958	0.992	0.962	0.959	0.991	0.996	0.970	0.961	0.993	
All	0.959	0.979	0.9416	0.975	0.987	0.939	0.936	0.986	0.931	

Table 2. Accuracy comparison between bit vectors and latent layer embeddings.

	ŀ	Random selecti	on	W	ordNet hierard	chy	Subclasses			
Attack type	ReLU ₁₀₀₀	ReLU ₂₀₄₈	Latent layer	ReLU ₁₀₀₀	ReLU ₂₀₄₈	Latent layer	ReLU ₁₀₀₀	ReLU ₂₀₄₈	Latent layer	
	AUROC	AUROC	AUROC	AUROC	AUROC	AUROC	AUROC	AUROC	AUROC	
DAmagenet	0.997	0.999	0.997	0.993	0.999	0.998	0.989	0.999	0.995	
FGSM	0.982	0.997	0.992	0.995	0.999	0.988	0.995	0.999	0.982	
PGD	0.976	0.996	0.962	0.994	0.998	0.948	0.971	0.998	0.936	
CarliniWagner	0.993	0.999	0.999	0.994	0.999	0.999	0.995	0.993	0.999	
All	0.985	0.996	0.97	0.994	0.998	0.963	0.978	0.998	0.955	

Table 3. AUROC comparison between bit vectors and latent layer embeddings.

dings, allowing us to compare bit vectors with latent embeddings. We experimented with k = 1000 to investigate how bit vectors compared to latent embeddings when the dimensionality of the bit vectors was substantially lower than the latent embeddings.

Algorithm 1 Linear SVM Classifier

Require: X^{org} , X^{adv} , ResNet-50 Ensure: Accuracy and AUROC scores 1) Split into sets (X_{train}^i) and (X_{test}^i) where i = org, adv 2) Determine class labels (y_{train}^i) based on the number of classes indicated by the chosen dataset. 3) Select the top k features for (X_{train}^i) . 4) Select the same features for (X_{test}^i) . 5) Concatenate the selected training sets $(X_{\text{trainSelected}}^i)$ for i = org, adv into a single set (X_{train}) . 6) Concatenate the selected test sets $(X_{\text{testSelected}}^i)$ for i =org, adv into a single set (X_{test}) . 7) Create label vectors (y_{train}) and (y_{test}) for the training set and test set with 0's for original images and 1's for adversarial images. 8) Train a Linear SVM on $(X_{\text{train}}, y_{\text{train}})$. 9) Evaluate the performance on $(X_{\text{test}}, y_{\text{test}})$.

5.2.2 Results

We conducted a comprehensive evaluation of our approach using accuracy and AUROC metrics, compared to SVM on latent layer embeddings (2048 features) in Tables 2 and 3. Our findings indicate that bit vectors with 2048 features exhibit better accuracy and AUROC scores than latent layer embeddings for adversarial image detection. Also, it is worth noting that when we reduced the number of features to 1000, bit vectors performance is comparable to latent layer scores, indicating that bit vectors do not need much information to be impactful. This corresponds with the findings in [14], who also noticed that bit vectors can be heavily down sampled while still maintaining meaningful information. This highlights the potential for a bit vector based approach for detecting adversarial attacks, as it can extract crucial information with fewer bits.

6. Conclusion

This paper examined the potential of ReLU activation patterns (bit vectors) for interpreting neural networks. We investigated a novel way to extend RDMs, a popular technique for comparing the similarity of networks, to facilitate Fiedler partitioning. Through the use of Representational Dissimilarity Matrices (RDMs), we investigated the coherence of input data within the network's embedding spaces. Bit vectors were utilized to construct similarity scores between images from two distinct classes within each layer of a deep neural network. Fiedler partitioning was then employed to separate the classes in these matrices. Our findings demonstrated that the bit vectors improve the detectability of classes throughout the network, with the final ReLU layer achieving over 95% separation accuracy. Furthermore, we showed that bit vectors are effective in adversarial image detection, achieving over 95% accuracy in separating adversarial and non-adversarial images using a linear SVM.

7. Acknowledgements

This work is partially supported by the United States Air Force under Contract No. FA865020C1121 and the DARPA Geometries of Learning Program under Award No. HR00112290074.

References

- [1] Bobby Allyn. Microsoft's new AI chatbot has been saying some 'crazy and unhinged things'. *NPR*, Mar. 2023. 1
- [2] Elvio Amparore, Alan Perotti, and Paolo Bajardi. To trust or not to trust an explanation: using leaf to evaluate local linear xai methods. *PeerJ Computer Science*, 7:e479, 2021. 3
- [3] Abhijit Bendale and Terrance E. Boult. Towards open set deep networks. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), June 2016. 3
- [4] Yoshua Bengio, Aaron Courville, and Pascal Vincent. Representation learning: A review and new perspectives. *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence*, 35(8):1798–1828, 2013.
- [5] Wenming Cao, Zhongfan Zhang, Cheng Liu, Rui Li, Qianfen Jiao, Zhiwen Yu, and Hau-San Wong. Unsupervised discriminative feature learning via finding a clustering-friendly embedding space. *Pattern Recognition*, 129:108768, 2022.
- [6] Nicholas Carlini and David Wagner. Towards evaluating the robustness of neural networks. In 2017 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP), pages 39–57, 2017. 3, 7
- [7] Sizhe Chen, Zhengbao He, Chengjin Sun, Jie Yang, and Xiaolin Huang. Universal adversarial attack on attention and the resulting dataset damagenet. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 44(4):2188–2197, 2022. 3, 7
- [8] Liang Duan, Charu Aggarwal, Shuai Ma, and Saket Sathe. Improving spectral clustering with deep embedding and cluster estimation. In 2019 IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM), pages 170–179. IEEE, 2019. 2
- [9] Miroslav Fiedler. Algebraic connectivity of graphs. Czechoslovak Mathematical Journal, 23(2):298–305, 1973.
 1, 4
- [10] Miroslav Fiedler. A property of eigenvectors of nonnegative symmetric matrices and its application to graph theory. *Czechoslovak Mathematical Journal*, 25(4):619–633, 1975. 1, 4
- [11] Ian J Goodfellow, Jonathon Shlens, and Christian Szegedy. Explaining and harnessing adversarial examples. arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6572, 2014. 3, 7
- [12] Matt Gorbett and Nathaniel Blanchard. Utilizing network features to detect erroneous inputs. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision (WACV) Workshops*, pages 34–43, January 2022. 2, 3, 6
- [13] K. He, X. Zhang, S. Ren, and J. Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference* on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pages 770–778, 2016. 4
- [14] H. Jamil, Y. Liu, C. Cole, N. Blanchard, E. J. King, M. Kirby, and C. Peterson. Dual graphs of polyhedral decompositions for the detection of adversarial attacks. In 2022 IEEE International Conference on Big Data, pages 2913–2921, Osaka, Japan, Dec 2022. IEEE Computer Society. 2, 6, 8
- [15] Been Kim, Martin Wattenberg, Justin Gilmer, Carrie Cai, James Wexler, Fernanda Viegas, et al. Interpretability be-

yond feature attribution: Quantitative testing with concept activation vectors (tcav). In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 2668–2677. PMLR, 2018. **3**

- [16] Nikolaus Kriegeskorte, Marieke Mur, and Peter A Bandettini. Representational similarity analysis-connecting the branches of systems neuroscience. *Frontiers in systems neuroscience*, page 4, 2008. 1
- [17] Kimin Lee, Kibok Lee, Honglak Lee, and Jinwoo Shin. A simple unified framework for detecting out-of-distribution samples and adversarial attacks. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 31, 2018. 3
- [18] J. Leskovec, K. J. Lang, A. Dasgupta, and M. W. Mahoney. Finding and evaluating community structure in networks. *Internet Mathematics*, 6:29–123, 2008. 2
- [19] Xin Li and Fuxin Li. Adversarial examples detection in deep networks with convolutional filter statistics. In *Proceedings* of the IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV), Oct 2017. 3
- [20] Aleksander Madry, Aleksandar Makelov, Ludwig Schmidt, Dimitris Tsipras, and Adrian Vladu. Towards deep learning models resistant to adversarial attacks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1706.06083*, 2017. 3, 7
- [21] Saeed Mahloujifar, Dimitrios I Diochnos, and Mohammad Mahmoody. The curse of concentration in robust learning: Evasion and poisoning attacks from concentration of measure. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 33, pages 4536–4543, 2019. 3
- [22] George A Miller. WordNet: An electronic lexical database. MIT press, 1998. 7
- [23] M. E. J. Newman and M. Girvan. Finding and evaluating community structure in networks. *Phys. Rev. E*, 69:026113, Feb 2004. 2
- [24] Chris Olah, Alexander Mordvintsev, and Ludwig Schubert. Feature visualization. *Distill*, 2(11):e7, 2017. 1
- [25] Brooks Paige, Jan-Willem van de Meent, Alban Desmaison, Noah Goodman, Pushmeet Kohli, Frank Wood, Philip Torr, et al. Learning disentangled representations with semisupervised deep generative models. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30, 2017. 3
- [26] Lily Schleider, Eduardo L Pasiliao, Zhecheng Qiang, and Qipeng P Zheng. A study of feature representation via neural network feature extraction and weighted distance for clustering. *Journal of Combinatorial Optimization*, 44(4):3083– 3105, 2022. 2
- [27] Adi Shamir, Itay Safran, Eyal Ronen, and Orr Dunkelman. A simple explanation for the existence of adversarial examples with small hamming distance. arXiv preprint arXiv:1901.10861, 2019. 3
- [28] Jianbo Shi and J. Malik. Normalized cuts and image segmentation. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 22(8):888–905, 2000. 2
- [29] Kashif Siddiqui and Thomas E Doyle. Trust metrics for medical deep learning using explainable-ai ensemble for time series classification. In 2022 IEEE Canadian Conference on Electrical and Computer Engineering (CCECE), pages 370– 377. IEEE, 2022. 3

- [30] Christian Szegedy, Wojciech Zaremba, Ilya Sutskever, Joan Bruna, Dumitru Erhan, Ian Goodfellow, and Rob Fergus. Intriguing properties of neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.6199*, 2013. 2
- [31] Junyuan Xie, Ross Girshick, and Ali Farhadi. Unsupervised deep embedding for clustering analysis. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 478–487. PMLR, 2016. 2
- [32] Matthew D. Zeiler and Rob Fergus. Visualizing and understanding convolutional networks. In David Fleet, Tomas Pajdla, Bernt Schiele, and Tinne Tuytelaars, editors, *Computer Vision – ECCV 2014*, pages 818–833, Cham, 2014. Springer International Publishing. 3
- [33] Bolei Zhou, David Bau, Aude Oliva, and Antonio Torralba. Interpreting deep visual representations via network dissection. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 41(9):2131–2145, 2019. 3