Mitigating the Inconsistency Between Word Saliency and Model Confidence with Pathological Contrastive Training

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Abstract

Neural networks are widely used in various NLP tasks for their remarkable performance. However, the complexity makes them difficult to interpret, i.e., they are not guaranteed right for the right reason. Besides the complexity, we reveal that the model pathology - the inconsistency between word saliency and model confidence, further hurts the interpretability. We show that the pathological inconsistency is caused by the representation collapse issue, which means that the representation of the sentences with tokens in different saliency reduced is somehow collapsed, and thus the important words cannot be distinguished from unimportant words in terms of model confidence changing. In this paper, to mitigate the pathology and obtain more interpretable models, we propose Pathological Contrastive Training (PCT) framework, which adopts contrastive learning and saliency-based samples augmentation to calibrate the sentences representation. Combined with qualitative analysis, we also conduct extensive quantitative experiments and measure the interpretability with eight reasonable metrics. Experiments show that our method can mitigate the model pathology and generate more interpretable models while keeping the model performance. Ablation study also shows the effectiveness.

1 Introduction

Neural networks have achieved remarkable success in various NLP tasks, while the extremely high complexity of such models makes them difficult to interpret. Complex models may learn significantly different attributions with similar accuracy during training as datasets are often full of ambiguities (Ross et al., 2017). If a model is deployed without ensuring that it is right for the right reason, it may completely fail to make reliable predictions on new data, which is very dangerous. For example, some



Figure 1: Word saliency and model confidence on case sentence. Normal model can not distinguish well between the influence of important and unimportant words, and the confidence on *Positive* class always focuses on a high region. Our method mitigates the pathology.

models will counter-intuitively consider prepositions to have extremely high saliency in rumor detection tasks. Interpretable models can ensure that the attribution of model prediction is consistent with human intuition, allowing the model to be trusted in critical applications.

In addition to the complexity, the pathology also makes models more difficult to interpret (Feng et al., 2018). Neural networks are more linear than expected, leading models to overfit the negative loglikelihood loss to output low-entropy distributions over classes, and thus models will be overconfident on examples outside the training data distribution (Goodfellow et al., 2015). This consequently leads to the models giving counter-intuitive high confidence predictions on meaningless rubbish examples, and the word saliency will drastically change with even unimportant words reduced.

The model pathology indicates that words with low saliency actually have a more significant impact on prediction than expected. We further extend the pathology to a more general definition: the

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Saliency and Confidence is inconsistent. Specifically, we show that the important words (with high saliency) are actually not so important to the model prediction and the unimportant words (with low saliency) are actually not so unimportant in normal models, as the representation of the text with tokens in different saliency reduced are somehow collapsed. The model prediction confidence will only slightly change when words are reduced, and the important words cannot be distinguished from unimportant words in terms of model confidence changing. Traditional methods usually train models with additional supervision, i.e., annotation on rationales, to force models better distinguish the influence between important words and unimportant words. However, human annotation is costly and often unavailable.

In this paper, to mitigate the pathology, i.e., the inconsistency between saliency and confidence, and train a more interpretable model while avoiding the dependence on extra labeled data, we propose a model-agnostic training method called **P**athological **C**ontrastive **T**raining (PCT). Inspired by contrastive learning, we encourage the original text to be closer to the text with unimportant words reduced while keeping away from the text with important words reduced. Our method can generate more interpretable models while keeping model performance. An example of model pathology and the effectiveness of our method is shown in Figure 1. The major contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- 1. We reveal the model representation collapse issue and the model pathology: the inconsistency between Saliency and Confidence.
- 2. We propose PCT that can mitigate the pathology by contrastive learning with saliencybased samples augmentation.
- 3. Extensive experiments show that our method can generate more interpretable models, while keeping the performance.

2 Related Work

Training interpretable model. A common method to obtain interpretable model is to let the model learn from the human-labeled rationales (Zhang et al., 2016; Ross et al., 2017; Rajani et al., 2019; Strout et al., 2019). However, the labeled data is costly. Other works try to assign interpretable properties to model through unsupervised

regularization. Feng et al. (2018) train model with an objective containing an entropy regularization term to mitigate the model pathology that the confidence remained almost constant and sometimes increased when unimportant words are reduced.

Evaluating rationales. Lack of unified metrics for the interpretability of NLP models, many previous works measure the quality of the prediction rationales directly by human study, e.g., by visualizing the attribution through a saliency heatmap (Li et al., 2016; Sundararajan et al., 2017) and asking humans to give the quality of rationales provided by the model (Strout et al., 2019; Nguyen, 2018). To reduce the human work in the rationales evaluating, DeYoung et al. (2020) propose automatic metrics including *Comprehensiveness* and *Sufficiency*. Feng et al. (2018) utilized *Reduced Length* to measure the pathology of the model.

Contrastive learning. Contrastive learning is first applied to unsupervised computer vision tasks (Hadsell et al., 2006; Zhuang et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020b), while the discrete nature of the text makes methods designed for continuous images fail to construct textual contrastive pairs. Previous works propose various textual data augmentation methods for construing textual contrasts, e.g., by generating overlapping or contained spans (Giorgi et al., 2021), by randomly performing word deletion, span deletion, reordering, and synonym substitution (Wu et al., 2020), by using back-translation (Fang et al., 2020), and by performing adversarial attacks, shuffling, cutoff and dropout on the embedding (Yan et al., 2021).

3 Model Pathology Analysis

3.1 Common Notation

Let $X = (x_1, \ldots, x_N)$ denotes an input sentence with N words. To define text classification task, let $\mathcal{Y} = \{y_j | j \in [1, T]\}$ be the set with T possible class labels, i.e., the output space, let $\mathcal{X} = \{X_j | j \in [1, D]\}$ be the input space, and D represent the size of training dataset, thus $\{(X_j, Y_j) | j \in [1, D]\}$ is the training dataset, noted that Y_j is the label of j-th input sentence X_j . A target model is defined as $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$, which maps input feature space to output space.

3.2 Gradient-based Attribution

Gradient-based attribution is a kind of faithful posthoc explanation method (Smilkov et al., 2017; Sundararajan et al., 2017; Ross et al., 2017) that can measure the word saliency in the input without changing the original model. This method was first proposed in computer vision task, and it assumes that the model is fully differentiable (Papernot et al., 2016). However, because of the discrete nature of text, these methods instead calculate the word saliency on the embedding, rather than input text, in language models. Formally, generating word saliency with gradient-based method has the following steps. First compute the forward derivative:

$$\nabla \mathcal{F}(X) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}(X)}{\partial e(X)} = \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}_j(X)}{\partial e(x_i)}\right]_{i \in 1..N, j \in 1..T}$$
(1)

and the saliency of word x_i is defined as:

$$S(x_i) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}_{true}(X)}{\partial e(x_i)} \tag{2}$$

where, $\mathcal{F}_j(\cdot)$ is the output w.r.t. class j, true means the ground truth class, $e(\cdot)$ denotes the embedding.

3.3 Inconsistency Between Confidence and Saliency Damaging Interpretability

To demonstrate the inconsistency between saliency and confidence, we trained a Bi-LSTM model that consists of a 300-dimensional embedding layer, and a Bi-directional LSTM layer composed of 150 units, in a normal manner using cross-entropy loss on the AG News dataset (Zhang et al., 2015). Then we calculate the word saliency of all text on the test set with the gradient-based method, then generate two sentence sets from the original text by (i) cumulatively reducing high saliency words (important words) and (ii) cumulatively reducing low saliency words (unimportant words). We use the model to predict the two sentence sets containing text with words in different saliency are reduced. Figure 2(a)(b) shows the confidence density distributions of the normally trained model on reduced inputs. To give a better understanding of the pathology and demonstrate the effectiveness of our method at mitigating the pathology, we also provide the results of the model trained with PCT (Figure 2(c)(d)). See Figure 13-18 in the Appendix for more comparisons on confidence distribution.

After removing the important and unimportant words, the confidence distributions of the normal model are extremely similar, both concentrate in an extremely high region (0.8-1.0) that are similar to the results on original text (first line in Figure 2(a)(b)). With the increase of reduced number, the



Figure 2: Confidence density distribution of LSTM trained with normal and PCT methods on the text with important words and unimportant words reduced on AG News testing set. The reduced number is limited to [0, 15]. Color indicates the reduced number.

distribution of confidence after removing important words is only slightly smoother than after removing unimportant words. Even after removing 15 important words (the last line in Figure 2(a), the confidence is still concentrate above 0.8. It indicates that the influence of words with high saliency on the prediction confidence is too close to the words with low saliency, which is not distinguishable, and the model is not interpretable. While for the model trained with PCT, the confidence change tendency of as different types of tokens are reduced is much distinguishable (Figure 2(c)(d)). The words with high saliency have a greater impact on the prediction confidence, reducing which the confidence will relatively decrease, and the distribution becomes much smoother. Meanwhile, the confidence distribution only slightly changes when unimportant words are reduced, proving that our method can provide asymmetric regularization and can mitigate the pathology of inconsistency.

3.4 Representation Collapse Deteriorate the Pathology of Inconsistency

To show that the inconsistency is somehow caused by the representation collapse issue, we fine-tune a BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) with normal method and PCT, respectively. Figure 3 shows the t-SNE (van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008) visualization, word saliency, and confidence on the sentence representation of a normal sample and the reduced samples from IMDB (Maas et al., 2011) dataset.



Figure 3: Illustration of representation collapse issue. Cumulatively reducing words in Positive instance *the movie, despite its rough edges and a tendency to sag in certain places, is wry and engrossing.* Bar plot indicates word saliency obtained with gradient method, scatter plot indicates the t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. *Conf* is short for confidence.

For the normally tuned BERT, the sentence representation of text with important words *wry* and *rough* deleted are collapse with original text and the text with unimportant words reduced (e.g., *in*,*a*,*to*), even the saliency of word *wry* is leading other words. When important words are reduced, the confidence hardly decreases. While for the model tuned with PCT, the sentence representation of text with different types of words reduced are better separated, and the confidence intuitively decreased, which has a better interpretability. See Figure 5-12 and Table 6-9 in the Appendix for more illustrations on representation collapse issue.

3.5 Quantitative Analysis of Interpretability

In the previous section, we qualitatively analyzed the inconsistency between saliency and confidence, but we also need to quantify the extent of this inconsistency to better evaluate the pathology and interpretability of the model. How to quantify the pathology and interpretability is an open question. Besides the accuracy, we used seven extra metrics to measure the pathology. The following gives our analysis on interpretable model and these metrics:

Confidence on normal text ($\mathcal{F}(X)$). This metric measures how confident the model is in making predictions on normal sentences. The words with high saliency in the original text should have enough impact on confidence, and the confidence value should be at a high level.

Comprehensiveness (*Comp*) (DeYoung et al., 2020). This metric measures the influence of **important** words on confidence, i.e., the change in confidence after the removal of important words:

$$Comp = \mathcal{F}(X) - \mathcal{F}(\hat{X}^{imp}) \tag{3}$$

where \hat{X}^{imp} is the text with important words reduced. A higher *Comp* value indicates that important words are influential in the prediction, and thus the model has better interpretability. If *Comp* value is low, or even negative, the saliency and confidence is inconsistent, rationales cannot be used to explain the model, and the model is not interpretable.

Sufficiency (*Suff*) (DeYoung et al., 2020). This metric measures the influence of **unimportant** words on confidence, i.e., the change in confidence after the removal of unimportant words:

$$Suff = \mathcal{F}(X) - \mathcal{F}(\hat{X}^{ump}) \tag{4}$$

where \hat{X}^{ump} is the text with unimportant words reduced. The influence of unimportant words on confidence should be slight. However, these unimportant words also provide information about the context, thus we take it reasonable when $Suff \in$ (0, Comp). And a larger gap between Suff and Comp indicates a more interpretable model.

Reduced number (Feng et al., 2018). The number of important (IR#) / unimportant (UR#) words deleted until the label is changed. A smaller IR# indicates that important words have a greater impact on the prediction. A higher UR# indicates that unimportant words have a smaller impact on the prediction. Thus, we consider it reasonable when IR# < UR#. An small or even negative value of UR# - IR# indicates the pathology of the model.

Saliency variance. We propose this as the variance of saliency rank after removing important (*I-Var*) / unimportant (*U-Var*) words. These metrics



Figure 4: General Framework of PCT. For each sentence in a mini-batch, we compute the word saliency through the gradient-based method, then augment the normal sentence to two sets: text with Important / Unimportant words cumulatively reduced. The sentence representations in all sets are encoded by target model \mathcal{F} , and the sentences with important / unimportant words reduced are takes as *negative / positive* pairs for the original sentence.

measure the influence of a word on the saliency of the other words. Formally:

$$Var = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left(d_i - d'_i \right)^2$$
(5)

where d_i is the index of *i*-th important word on the original text, and d'_i is the index of *i*-th important word on the text with one word reduced. The unimportant words should have less impact on both the final confidence and the word saliency of other words, while the impact of important words on the saliency should be greater than unimportant words, so we consider it reasonable when *I*-Var > U-Var.

4 Pathological Contrastive Training

According to the above analysis, the representation collapse characteristic of neural networks causes the influence of high saliency words and low saliency words on prediction to be indistinguishable. To mitigate this issue, we propose PCT that utilizes saliency-based samples augmentation for contrasting learning. The key idea of our method can be summarized as: the original normal text are encouraged to be closer to the derived text with unimportant words reduced while keeping away from the derived text with important words reduced. As shown in Figure 4, the framework comprises the following three major components:

Data augmentation module. We limit the contrast scope to within a mini-batch rather than the

entire training set, as the latter is extremely computationally expensive. The data augmentation module will generate positive and negative samples in a self-supervised manner before the new mini-batch is sent to the model. Suppose there are K normal examples in a mini-batch, for each sample in the batch, we first use gradient-based attribution method to obtain the saliency of the normal input sentence $S(X_i)$, and define m words with the highest saliency and lowest saliency as important words and unimportant words, respectively. We then cumulatively reduce the important words in a descending order of saliency value to generate a text set containing text with multiply important words are reduced $\{\hat{X}_{i}^{imp}\}_{i=1}^{m}$. Parallelly, we generate the text set $\{\hat{X}_{i}^{ump}\}_{i=1}^{m}$ by cumulatively reducing unimportant words. Adding the original text X_i to $\{\hat{X}_i^{ump}\}_{i=1}^m$, we have the positive set $\mathbf{X}_{i}^{+} = X_{i} \cup \{\hat{X}_{i}^{ump}\}_{i=1}^{m}$ derived from X_{i} , with no ambiguity, we denote $\{\hat{X}_i^{imp}\}_{i=1}^m$ as \mathbf{X}_i^- , the negative set derived from X_i . There are 2K text set after processed by data augmentation module. For each text set, there are at most m sentences if not considering X_i . Thus, a sentence has at most m positive pairs and (2K-1)m negative pairs.

Target model \mathcal{F} . Model is utilized as an encoder that extracts representations for both the original text and the augmented text. Our method does not impose restrictions on the type of model. Specifically, for BERT, we use the representation of [CLS] token at the last hidden layer as sentence representations. For other models (e.g., CNN, LSTM), we

use the average pooling of the token embedding at the layer before the last dense layer as sentence representation.

Model-agnostic contrastive loss objective. This loss objective controls the representation distances of the samples in a mini-batch. To mitigate the representation collapse issue, we maximize the agreement of representation from the same set and keep distance of representation from different sets, the loss function for a sample X_p involving in set \mathbf{X}_i (same for both \mathbf{X}_i^- and \mathbf{X}_i^+) is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{con} = -\log \frac{\sum_{X_j \in \mathbf{X}_i} \mathbb{1}_{[j \neq p]} e^{(\operatorname{sim}(r(X_p), r(X_j))/\tau)}}{\sum_{X_j \notin \mathbf{X}_i} e^{(\operatorname{sim}(r(X_p), r(X_j))/\tau)}}$$
(6)

Where $r(\cdot)$ is the sentence representation, $\mathbb{1}_{[j \neq p]} \in \{1, 0\}$ is an indicator function for excluding the sample itself, $sim(r_i, r_j) = r_i^{\top}r_j/||r_i||||r_j||$, i.e., the cosine similarity, τ is a temperature parameter. The final loss \mathcal{L}_{con} for contrastive learning is computed by averaging the loss on every sample in each text set in a mini-batch. This loss is a generalization of the NT-Xent (the normalized temperature-scaled cross-entropy loss)(Chen et al., 2020a), as more than one positive pairs for each sample are considered.

Besides the contrastive part, we also incorporate supervised information in the final loss objective \mathcal{L}_{PCT} for optimizing on both model performance and interpretability:

$$\mathcal{L}_{PCT} = \underbrace{\mathcal{L}_{sup}}_{\text{Performance}} + \underbrace{\alpha \mathcal{L}_{con}}_{\text{Interpretability}}$$
(7)

Where \mathcal{L}_{sup} is the supervised loss objective (e.g., cross-entropy loss), α is a parameter balancing the two objectives. The joint training objective ensures that the accuracy of model is not hurt while addressing the representation collapse issue.

5 Evaluation

To verify the effectiveness of our method, we evaluate PCT with two other baselines on three popular datasets involving four different models.

5.1 Experiment Setup

Dataset. Our experiments are conducted on three datasets. **AG News** (Zhang et al., 2015), a topic classification dataset containing news articles in the World, Sport, Business, and Sci/Tech area, 120,000 for training and 7,600 for testing. **MR** (Pang and

Lee, 2005), a polar samples dataset that contains movie reviews from Rotten Tomatoes, 8,530 for training, and 1,066 for testing. **IMDB** (Maas et al., 2011), a binary sentiment classification dataset that contains 25,000 polar movie reviews for training, and 25,000 for testing.

Model. Four models with different structures and complexities are adopted. **TextCNN** (Kim, 2014): This model has a 300-dimensional embedding layer (Pennington et al., 2014), a convolutional layer with 3 window sizes (3, 4, 5) and 150 filters for each window size, and a dense layer. **LSTM**: This model has a 300-dimensional embedding layer, a Bi-directional LSTM layer composed of 150 units, and a dense layer. **BERT**: This model is a transformer model pretrained on a large corpus of language data. **DistilBERT** (Sanh et al., 2019) : This model is a small, fast Transformer model with 40% less parameters than *bert-base-uncased*.

Baselines. As few works have been devoted to addressing the model pathology, we compare PCT with two training methods. **Normal**: This method trains or fine-tunes the model with the crossentropy loss objective \mathcal{L}_{sup} . **Entropy** (Feng et al., 2018): This method trains or fine-tunes the model to simultaneously maximize the log-likelihood on normal examples and the entropy on the samples with unimportant words reduced. See Appendix for the details on baselines.

Implementation Details. The max sequence length is set as 64. The batch size is set as 64. We use the bert-base-uncased as the basic BERT model, and the distilbert-base-uncased as the basic DistilBERT model. We set 10% of words with highest and lowest saliency in a sentence as important $(p_i = 0.1)$ or unimportant $(p_u = 0.1)$ words rather than using a fixed number m. We adopt Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2015) as optimizer. Most setting in learning rate / parameter α / parameter τ for TextCNN, LSTM, BERT, DistilBERT: 5e-4 / 0.1 / 0.7, 5e-4 / 0.1 / 0.7, 3e-5 / 1.2 / 0.7, 3e-5 / 0.15 / 0.15. Parameter λ in Entropy is set as 1e-3 which is the same as the original paper. All reported results are the average of three individual runs. Accuracy and $\mathcal{F}(X)$ are computed on all original text, while others are computed on all reduced samples.

5.2 Main Results

Model accuracy is not impaired. Interpretability is often inconsistent with the model perfor-

			AG I	News			Ν	1R			IM	DB	
		ACC	$\mathcal{F}(X)$	Comp	Suff	ACC	$\mathcal{F}(X)$	Comp	Suff	ACC	$\mathcal{F}(X)$	Comp	Suff
	Normal	91.59	0.93	0.07	0.03	79.64	0.94	0.07	0.06	78.12	0.84	0.05	0.01
LSTM	Entropy	90.76	0.93	0.05	0.03	80.02	0.92	0.10	0.07	75.71	0.78	-0.04	0.01
	PCT	92.09	0.95	$0.33 \stackrel{0.14}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.19	80.39	0.83	$0.08 \stackrel{0.04}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.04	77.78	0.83	$0.13 \stackrel{0.06}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.07
	Normal	89.49	0.92	0.02	0.02	79.02	0.83	0.08	0.04	75.34	0.80	0.03	0.02
TextCNN	Entropy	89.59	0.91	0.03	0.02	78.83	0.84	0.07	0.03	77.84	0.78	0.10	0.06
	PCT	92.18	0.94	$0.10 \stackrel{0.06}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.04	79.74	0.92	$0.12 \stackrel{0.08}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.04	77.94	0.85	$0.10 \stackrel{0.06}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.04
	Normal	94.50	1.00	0.01	0.01	84.62	0.99	0.04	0.02	82.30	1.00	0.04	0.02
DistilBERT	Entropy	94.63	0.97	0.03	0.02	85.65	1.00	0.05	0.02	82.44	1.00	0.05	0.02
	PCT	93.59	0.92	$0.09 \stackrel{0.08}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.01	85.12	0.91	$0.09 \stackrel{0.05}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.04	82.36	0.90	$0.12 \stackrel{0.10}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.02
BERT	Normal	95.16	0.98	0.01	0.01	86.40	1.00	0.03	0.02	84.30	1.00	0.03	0.02
	Entropy	94.61	1.00	0.02	0.01	86.39	0.99	0.04	0.02	83.80	0.92	0.07	0.03
	PCT	94.88	0.96	$0.08 \stackrel{0.04}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.04	86.37	0.97	$0.08 \stackrel{0.04}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.04	83.78	0.91	$0.08 \stackrel{0.05}{\leftrightarrow}$	0.03

Table 1: The comparison on accuracy, confidence, comprehensiveness, and sufficiency of PCT with baselines. **Bold** indicates the best accuracy (in %). All $\mathcal{F}(X)$ results are at an acceptable high region. The \leftrightarrow between *Comp* and *Suff* indicates the largest gap between the two values, which means the influence of important and unimportant words are the most distinguishable. A small or negative value of (Comp - Suff) indicates the model pathology.

			AG	News			Ν	1R			IM	DB	
		IR#	UR#	I-Var	U-Var	IR#	UR#	I-Var	U-Var	IR#	UR#	I-Var	U-Var
	Normal	26.59	28.74	51.35	33.22	13.35	15.48	9.20	7.18	28.06	37.83	52.12	43.31
LSTM	Entropy	27.78	28.47	18.26	16.29	12.88	15.13	9.04	6.58	27.63	34.76	$49.60 \stackrel{9.56}{\Leftrightarrow}$	40.04
	PCT	17.74 $\stackrel{8.93}{\leftrightarrow}$	26.67	52.31 ²⁵	⇒ 26.87	$12.62 \stackrel{3.27}{\leftrightarrow}$	15.89	$10.07 \stackrel{3.1}{\Leftarrow}$	s 6.94	$25.64 \stackrel{10.54}{\leftrightarrow}$	* 36.18	40.51	36.76
1	Normal	24.17	24.19	65.67	61.74	11.42	13.40	10.28	6.60	23.53	24.32	51.03	55.77
TextCNN	Entropy	24.06	24.08	40.48	51.09	9.51	11.28	11.38	7.19	$20.34 \stackrel{4.19}{\leftrightarrow}$	24.53	$64.67 \stackrel{16.89}{\Leftrightarrow}$	47.78
	PCT	$23.10 \stackrel{0.50}{\leftrightarrow}$	23.60	51.41 ³	.07 ⇒ 48.34	$9.25 \stackrel{2.61}{\leftrightarrow}$	11.86	$10.86 \stackrel{4.3}{\Leftarrow}$	6.55	21.61	24.71	54.23	52.51
	Normal	33.15	35.22	27.73	26.06	14.89	17.55	9.85	8.92	30.83	39.21	45.84	41.73
DistilBERT	Entropy	33.20	35.44	25.27	22.84	14.61	17.90	10.56	9.16	30.87	39.20	46.14	42.22
	PCT	$31.17 \stackrel{2.62}{\leftrightarrow}$	33.79	32.10	$\stackrel{.75}{\Rightarrow}$ 25.35	14.24 $\stackrel{3.55}{\leftrightarrow}$	17.79	$11.60 \stackrel{3.3}{\Leftarrow}$	≥ 8.28	29.31 $\stackrel{9.95}{\leftrightarrow}$	39.26	53.25 ^{14.17} ⇔	39.08
BERT	Normal	34.01	35.57	27.58	27.10	15.18	17.86	10.94	11.77	33.01	39.96	47.24	47.37
	Entropy	33.62	35.41	27.16	27.24	15.21	18.14	10.70	10.99	32.80	40.08	46.54	44.94
	PCT	$33.52 \stackrel{2.07}{\leftrightarrow}$	35.59	25.89 4	$\stackrel{01}{\Rightarrow}$ 24.88	$14.27 \stackrel{3.74}{\leftrightarrow}$	18.01	12.16 ∉	⁸ 10.48	$32.20 \stackrel{7.91}{\leftrightarrow}$	40.11	54.18 ^{10.03} ⇔	44.15

Table 2: The comparison on reduced number and saliency variance of PCT with baselines. The \leftrightarrow and the \Leftrightarrow indicate the largest values of (UR# - IR#) and (I-Var - U-Var), which means the most distinguishable influence of important and unimportant words. A model is pathology if IR# < UR#, and if I-Var < U-Var.

mance, as complex models tend to have better performance, while simple models are more interpretable. We report the accuracy of models trained with different methods on three datasets in Table 1.

Our method does not hurt the performance, which meets our basic expectation, but can also slightly improve LSTM and TextCNN. This result indicates that the regularization brought by the contrastive part of our method helps mitigate the overfitting of the unpre-trained model. On the pretrained models (BERT, DistilBERT), our model is guaranteed to have only a slight impact on performance.

Saliency is more consistent with Confidence. The confidence related results are illustrated in Table 1. For normal samples, our method ensures that the model confidence is sufficiently high $(\mathcal{F}(X) > 0.83)$, indicating that on unperturbed samples, the model can adequately consider the influence of important words. While the Comp value shows a large decrease when the important words are reduced, indicating that the important words are influential in decision. The Suff value will also slightly decrease, i.e., Suff < Comp, which is interpretable as we analyzed in Section 3.5 that unimportant words also contain context information while they should not be focused much on. It should be noted that, for the Normal model, Comp value is very close to the Suff value (average Comp - Suff, Normal: 0.015, Entropy: 0.019, PCT: 0.067), which quantitatively demonstrates the inconsistency. The effectiveness of Entropy is weaker than our method.

Important words are more influential in shifting label. The results on reduced number are reported in Table 2. Our method can effectively decrease *IR#*, indicating that important words are actually influential for the prediction, and it is intuitive that the labels will change with fewer important words reduced. As for *UR#*, our method ensures that *IR#* < *UR#*, indicating the influence of unimportant words are lower than important words, and more words reduction are needed to shift the label. The average gap between *IR#* and *UR#* of our method is 4.89, while for Entropy is 3.48, for Normal is 3.26, which indicates that the model is more interpretable when regularization is imposed both on important and unimportant words.

Unimportant words have less impact on saliency stability. The results on saliency variance are reported in Table 2. Our method ensures *U-Var* decrease, indicating that the unimportant words have a slighter impact on the saliency of other words. The average *U-Var* of Normal is 30.89, while of 27.19 for Entropy and 27.51 for PCT. Meanwhile, our method enlarge the gap between *U-Var* and *I-Var* (average, Normal: 3.18; Entropy: 2.79; PCT: 6.54), which demonstrate that important words have broader impact on the saliency of other words than unimportant words. Entropy ensures *U-Var* decrease, while fail to enlarge the gap.

5.3 Ablation Study

In this section, we conduct ablation study on batch size, reduced percentage, parameter τ and α .

Batch size. The influence of batch size is shown in Table 3. We find that the model tend to get better accuracy and interpretability with a larger batch size, as more contrastive samples are generated.

Batch Size	ACC	$\mathcal{F}(X)$	Comp	Suff	IR#	UR#	I-Var	U-Var
		0.92				10.47		
8	77.76	0.83	0.11	0.05	9.15	11.36	10.73	7.33
16	77.86	0.79	0.11	0.04	9.51	11.45	10.18	6.95
32	78.51	0.87	0.11	0.04	8.87	11.19	10.56	7.23
64	79.74	0.92	0.12	0.04	9.25	11.86	10.86	6.55
96	79.17	0.80	0.13	0.04	9.36	11.58	10.43	6.78
128	79.36	0.86	0.13	0.04	9.28	11.33	10.38	7.11

Table 3: Influence of batch sizes when TextCNN trained with PCT on MR.

Reduced percentage. The influence of reduced percentage is shown in Table 4. We find that the reduced percentage hardly affects the model accuracy. The *Suff* value will decrease effectively when the positive contrasts (p_u) are added, while

the negative contrasts (p_i) tend to enlarge the gap between *Comp* and *Suff*. Our method is not sensitive to the reduced percentage when both positive and negative pairs are considered.

	ACC	$\mathcal{F}(X)$	Comp	Suff
Normal Model	79.02	0.83	0.08	0.04
$+p_u = 0.1$	79.17	0.87	0.08	0.03
$+p_u = 0.3$	79.04	0.79	0.09	0.02
$+p_i = 0.1$	79.26	0.87	0.12	0.06
$+p_i = 0.3$	78.93	0.82	0.12	0.06
$+p_u = 0.1, +p_i = 0.1$	79.74	0.92	0.12	0.04
$+p_u = 0.3, +p_i = 0.3$	79.12	0.83	0.12	0.04

Table 4: Influence of reduced percentage p_i and p_u when TextCNN trained with PCT on MR. $+p_u = 0.1$ means only generate positive pairs by reducing 10% unimportant words, $+p_i$ means only generate negative pairs, $+p_i$, $+p_u$ means generate both.

Parameter τ and α . The influence of temperature τ and α is shown in Table 5. We find that model accuracy is slightly affected by τ , and the gap between *Comp* and *Suff* is guaranteed with different τ , while the values will slightly fluctuate. Our method is sensitive to α , as a over large α will hurt model performance and interpretability, while a proper α will benefits them both.

τ	ACC	$\mathcal{F}(X)$	Comp	Suff	α	ACC	$\mathcal{F}(X)$	Comp	Suff
0.05	78.51	0.82	0.10	0.04	0.05	79.34	0.80	0.10	0.03
0.10	78.14	0.77	0.12	0.03	0.10	79.74	0.92	0.12	0.04
0.15	78.05	0.76	0.11	0.04	0.15	78.42	0.74	0.09	0.01
0.30	78.05	0.88	0.13	0.06	0.30	78.14	0.79	0.12	0.07
0.50	78.61	0.74	0.09	0.01	0.50	75.42	0.83	0.13	0.09
0.70	79.74	0.92	0.12	0.04	0.70	74.20	0.78	0.14	0.12
0.90	78.71	0.78	0.08	0.02	0.90	72.89	0.78	0.14	0.13
1.00	78.71	0.84	0.09	0.04	1.00	72.61	0.78	0.14	0.13
1.20	77.77	0.78	0.08	0.02	1.20	71.58	0.74	0.14	0.13

Table 5: Influence of parameter τ and α when TextCNN trained with PCT on MR.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose PCT, a contrastive learning framework for addressing the representation collapse issue and mitigating the inconsistency between word saliency and model confidence for natural language models. We construct the contrastive pairs with saliency-based word reduction. Our model-agnostic method can generate more interpretable models without extra data and changes to the model. Extensive quantitative and qualitative evaluations demonstrate that our method can mitigate the model pathology while keeping model performance. We hope the analysis and the method proposed in our paper will provide a new perspective on model interpretability.

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Ethical and Societal Impact

In this paper, we reveal the model pathology on the inconsistency between word saliency and model confidence and present a contrastive learning framework for mitigating the model pathology. It is possible that the method of measuring the model pathology can be utilized for benign purposes like ensuring the attribution of model prediction is consistent with human intuition and malign ones such as discovering and exploiting model vulnerabilities. The method may also amplify safety and security concerns in critical domains such as toxic comment classification and rumor detection. However, we argue that it is necessary to study the model pathology and interpretability openly if we want the security risks to be better controlled. We believe that the research on model pathology and interpretability will also motivate the community to pursue models with higher reliability and trustworthiness, rather than just the models with better performance and efficiency. The proposed framework is a possible solution to mitigate security risks for these untrustworthy models. All the datasets we use in this paper are publicly available. No demographic or identity characteristics are used in this paper.

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Appendix

Additional Experiential Details

Details on Baselines. We detail the baseline methods in the main text:

• Entropy (Feng et al., 2018) . This method fine-tune the existing model to simultaneously maximize the log-likelihood on regular examples and the entropy on reduced examples:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ent} = \sum_{(X,Y)\in(\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y})} \log(f(Y|X)) + \lambda \sum_{X^-\in\mathbf{X}^-} \mathbb{H}(f(Y|X^-))$$
(8)

where f(Y|X) is the probability of the model predicting Y given X, $\mathbb{H}(\cdot)$ is the entropy, λ is a hyperparameter controlling the strength of entropy regularization, X^- is an sample with unimportant words reduce from the set \mathbf{X}^- .

Additional Experiential Results

Confidence Distribution Change with Epoch. Besides the confidence distribution comparisons we report in the Figure 2, we give more results that involving more models and the detailed effect in training process on the confidence distribution. The results of confidence distribution change with epoch are shown in Figure 13-18.

Additional Case Study

t-SNE Visualization of Sentence Representation. We give more case study of representation collapse issue in Figure 5-12. The instance sentences are randomly picked from MR or IMDB dataset. Same as in the main text, BERT is used as the basic model.

Input Reduction Comparisons To demonstrate the effectiveness of our method, we give more case study of input reduction in Table 6-9. The instance sentences are randomly picked from MR or IMDB dataset.

IR#	Sentence
0	leigh's film is full of memorable perfor- mances from top to bottom
1	leigh's film is full of performances from top to bottom
2	leigh's film is full of from top to bottom
3	leigh's film is full of from top to
4	leigh's is full of from top to
5	leigh's is full of from top to
6	leigh's is of from top to
7	leigh's of from top to
UR#	Sentence
0	leigh's film is full of memorable performances from top to bottom
1	leigh's film is full of memorable performances top to bottom
2	leigh's film is full memorable performances top to bottom
3	film is full memorable performances top to bottom
4	film is full memorable performances top bot- tom
5	film full memorable performances top bottom
6	film memorable performances top bottom
7	memorable performances top bottom
8	memorable performances bottom
9	memorable bottom

Table 6: Case 1, Performing input reduction on instance sentence *leigh's film is full of memorable performances from top to bottom*, the illustration of prediction made by model trained with *Normal* method. Green number indicate the *Positive* label predicted by model, and red number indicate *Negative*. Bold indicate the word with highest / lowest saliency in the IR# / UR# setting.

IR#	Sentence
0	leigh's film is full of memorable perfor- mances from top to bottom
1	leigh's film is full of performances from top to bottom
2	leigh's film is full of from top to bottom
UR#	Sentence
0	leigh's film is full of memorable performances from top to bottom
1	leigh's film is full memorable performances from top to bottom
2	leigh's film is full memorable performances top to bottom
3	leigh's film full memorable performances top to bottom
4	leigh's film full memorable performances top bottom
5	film full memorable performances top bottom
6	film memorable performances top bottom
7	memorable performances top bottom

Table 7: Case 1, Performing input reduction on instance sentence *leigh's film is full of memorable performances from top to bottom*, the illustration of prediction made by model trained with *PCT* method. Green number indicate the *Positive* label predicted by model, and red number indicate *Negative*. **Bold** indicate the word with highest / lowest saliency in the IR# / UR# setting.

IR#	Sentence
0	a work of astonishing delicacy and force
1	a work of delicacy and force
2	a work of delicacy and
3	a work of and
4	a of and
5	a and
UR#	Sentence
0	a work of astonishing delicacy and force
1	a work astonishing delicacy and force
2	a work astonishing and force
3	work astonishing and force
4	work astonishing force
5	work astonishing
6	astonishing

Table 8: Case 2, Performing input reduction on instance sentence *a work of astonishing delicacy and force*, the illustration of prediction made by model trained with *Normal* method. Green number indicate the *Positive* label predicted by model, and red number indicate *Negative*. **Bold** indicate the word with highest / lowest saliency in the IR# / UR# setting.

IR#	Sentence
0	a work of astonishing delicacy and force
1	a work of delicacy and force
2	a work of delicacy and
3	a work of and
UR#	Sentence
0	a work of astonishing delicacy and force
1	a work astonishing delicacy and force
2	a work astonishing and force
3	work astonishing and force
4	work astonishing force
5	astonishing force
6	astonishing

Table 9: Case 2, Performing input reduction on instance sentence *a work of astonishing delicacy and force*, the illustration of prediction made by model trained with *PCT* method. Green number indicate the *Positive* label predicted by model, and red number indicate *Negative*. **Bold** indicate the word with highest / lowest saliency in the IR# / UR# setting.



Figure 5: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Positive instance reign of fire never comes close to recovering from its demented premise, but it does sustain an enjoyable level of ridiculousness.



Figure 6: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Negative instance *the movie tries to be ethereal*, *but ends up seeming goofy*.



Figure 7: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Negative instance *the script is a tired one*, *with few moments of joy rising above the stale material.*



Figure 8: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Positive instance *it seems like i have been waiting my whole life for this movie and now i can't wait for the sequel.*



Figure 9: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Negative instance *supposedly authentic account of a historical event that 's far too tragic to merit such superficial treatment.*



Figure 10: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Negative instance *not at all clear what it 's trying to say and even if it were i doubt it would be all that interesting.*



Figure 11: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Positive instance that the real antwone fisher was able to overcome his personal obstacles and become a good man is a wonderful thing that he has been able to share his story so compellingly with us is a minor miracle.



Figure 12: t-SNE visualization of sentence representation. Cumulatively reducing words in Positive instance tentertaining despite its one joke premise with the thesis that women from venus and men from mars can indeed get together.



Figure 13: The confidence density distribution change with epoch of LSTM trained with *PCT* method on the text with important words and unimportant words reduced on AG News testing set. The reduced number is limited to [0, 15]. Color indicates the reduced number.



Figure 14: The confidence density distribution change with epoch of LSTM trained with *Normal* method on the text with important words and unimportant words reduced on AG News testing set. The reduced number is limited to [0, 15]. Color indicates the reduced number.



Figure 15: The confidence density distribution change with epoch of TextCNN trained with *PCT* method on the text with important words and unimportant words reduced on AG News testing set. The reduced number is limited to [0, 15]. Color indicates the reduced number.



Figure 16: The confidence density distribution change with epoch of TextCNN trained with *Normal* method on the text with important words and unimportant words reduced on AG News testing set. The reduced number is limited to [0, 15]. Color indicates the reduced number.



Figure 17: The confidence density distribution change with epoch of DistilBERT trained with *PCT* method on the text with important words and unimportant words reduced on AG News testing set. The reduced number is limited to [0, 15]. Color indicates the reduced number.



Figure 18: The confidence density distribution change with epoch of DistilBERT trained with *Normal* method on the text with important words and unimportant words reduced on AG News testing set. The reduced number is limited to [0, 15]. Color indicates the reduced number.