Demystify Self-Attention in Vision Transformers from a Semantic Perspective: Analysis and Application

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Abstract

Self-attention mechanisms, especially multi-head self-attention (MSA), have achieved great success in many fields such as computer vision and natural language processing. However, many existing vision transformer (ViT) work simply inherent transformer designs from NLP to adapt vision tasks, while ignoring the fundamental difference between “how MSA works in image and language settings”. Language naturally contains highly semantic structures that are directly interpretable by humans. Its basic unit (word) is discrete without redundant information, which readily supports interpretable studies on MSA mechanisms of language transformer. In contrast, visual data exhibits a fundamentally different structure: Its basic unit (pixel) is a natural low-level representation with significant redundancies in the neighbourhood, which poses obvious challenges to the interpretability of MSA mechanism in ViT. In this paper, we introduce a typical image processing technique, i.e., scale-invariant feature transforms (SIFTs), which maps low-level representations into mid-level spaces, and annotates extensive discrete keypoints with semantically rich information. Next, we construct a weighted patch interrelation analysis based on SIFT keypoints to capture the attention patterns hidden in patches with different semantic concentration. Interestingly, we find this quantitative analysis is not only an effective complement to the interpretability of MSA mechanisms in ViT, but can also be applied to 1) spurious correlation discovery and “prompting” during model inference, 2) and guided model pre-training acceleration. Experimental results on both applications show significant advantages over baselines, demonstrating the efficacy of our method.

1. Introduction

Towards robust representations for various downstream tasks, masked autoencoder frameworks such as BERT are widely used for model pre-training in the field of natural language processing (NLP) [7]. More specifically, they mask parts of the input sequence through Transformer-based encoders to generate latent representations from the rest, and then leverage decoders to predict the masked content. This self-supervised pre-training approach leverages the multi-head self-attention (MSA) mechanism of the Transformer-based network architecture [25]. As a landmark technique in feature modeling, MSA is now ubiquitous also in the field of computer vision. The most widely accepted explanations for the success of MSAs are from the perspective of their weak inductive bias and capture of long-
term dependencies [4, 8, 19, 21]. From a convolutional neural network perspective, MSA is a transformation of all feature maps, with large size and data-specific kernels. Due to the simplicity and effectiveness of feature modeling, MSA is considered to be more expressive than channel attention in convolutional layers [6].

Since the discrete basic units (i.e., words or tokens) abstracted by humans in language are highly semantic and information-dense, encoders can learn bidirectional token-level interrelationships through sophisticated language understanding (e.g., grammar) and generate information containing compact semantics. Recent studies also showed that pre-trained language models have captured substantial linguistic [5, 11] and relational knowledge [14, 22, 24] through pre-training on large-scale text corpora. These methods typically design “fill-in-the-blank” questions based on predefined relationships. For example, a manually created question “Bob Dylan was born in ______” for the language model is to answer the “birthplace” relation of “Bob Dylan”. Furthermore, the highly semantic information of language provides favorable conditions for many works to perform interpretable analysis on the MSA mechanism of Transformer, which is directly understandable by humans, i.e., the workflow of attention heads fully conforms with the syntactic and language concepts of coreference defined by human language grammars [5, 15]. Fig. 1 shows an example to illustrate that attention patterns in NLP correspond to linguistic phenomena (the grammar rule of “The Noun modifiers will attend to their noun”).

Inheriting the mask-and-reconstruct principle from NLP, He et al. first extend the masked autoencoding approach to the pre-training of Vision Transformer (ViT) model, which has gained great success on both model pre-training and inference [10]. Many subsequent studies focus on altering designs directly on the basic structure from NLP to achieve good performance [27, 29, 32], while ignoring the fundamental difference in how the MSA mechanism works between image and language settings. Image data, in contrast, is a natural signal whose basic units (i.e., pixels) contain only low-level representations and often exhibit severe spatial redundancy due to the image continuity in the neighbourhood, which poses a significant challenge to the interpretable analysis of MSA mechanisms in ViT. As yet, only a few studies try to interpret how MSA mechanism works in ViT, but their explanations are all based on empirical observations about attention distributions [18] or model output [1] on low-level space, while interpretable semantic analysis or theoretical support are absent from literature.

In this paper, to quantify the semantic information in low-level image space, we introduce a traditional image processing techniques, called Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) [17]. More specifically, SIFT first maps the low-level redundant image space into mid-level feature space with highly semantic information. In the new space, it extract rich semantic information from image pixels to automatically annotates various discrete feature keypoints. These keypoints are theoretically proved invariant in different situations (e.g., rotation, scaling, brightness, and orientation), which also naturally correspond to the principles of image understanding in human logic [20]. Based on semantic-rich SIFT keypoints, we establish a weighted patch interrelation measurement to capture hidden attention patterns of all heads. The dynamic mathematical statistics from massive results help us to capture the existence of attention bias (i.e., patches with high SIFT keypoint concentration will pay more attention to each other, while relatively ignore other low concentration patches). We further conduct comprehensive analysis to derive a summary of three different stages, which answers “Yes” to the question: “Is there a semantically-similar interrelation between patches with different SIFT keypoint concentration?”.

More interestingly, we find our quantitative analysis is not only an effective complement to the interpretability of existing MSA mechanisms, but can also be used for a variety of applications, including 1) discovering spurious correlations and prompting input during model inference to improve performance, 2) guiding model pre-training to speed up convergence. The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- We introduce SIFT to map the low-level redundant image space into the mid-level semantic feature space. It can automatically annotate invariant feature keypoints, and provide theoretical guarantee for measuring the semantic information level of different patches.

- We design a weighted quantitative analysis based on SIFT keypoints, which interprets that the attention patterns hidden in MSA mainly exploits the semantically-similar interrelation between patches with different SIFT keypoint concentration during inference.

- We further derive a range of well-suited applications from the interpretable analysis, including 1) discovering spurious correlations and prompting input during model inference to improve performance, and 2) guiding model pre-training to accelerate convergence.

## 2. Key Elements Hidden in Image Patch

In this section, through the pre-experiments on image recovery, we reveal the fact that patches have significant differences on semantic information level with hidden interrelation. Then, we use SIFT to quantify the hidden semantic information level of different patches.
We use the same pretrained ViT-B/16 model for image restoration, with original images from ILSVRC2012 (ImageNet 1K).

2.1. Patch Interrelation in Image Recovery

As shown in the second “masked” column of Fig. 2, we add masks with different sizes to the original image and restore the masked image using the same pretrained ViT-B/16 model, where original images are from ILSVRC2012 (ImageNet 1K). When we only mask the fox face regions in the top row, model can extract enough interrelation information from remaining patches to recover the masked face regions. However, if we extend the mask to the entire head area in the bottom row, model is unable to reconstruct the masked area from the remaining patches.

The above comparison results indicate the significant differences between patches and the absence of a few key patches will lead to model reconstruction capability degradation. According to previous studies [8, 10], the key elements hidden in patches are different semantic information they contain, i.e., key features. In addition, there is also a high degree of interrelation inference between patches containing key features, which together can provide sufficient semantic information to help the model understand parts, objects, and scenes in masked regions. For example, in the first row of Fig. 2, the patch with fox ears indicates that the masked area is likely to be a fox face. When patches with key features are masked (see bottom row of Fig. 2), the model cannot extract enough semantic information from the remaining patch interrelations to understand and recover the masked regions.

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2.2. SIFT Keypoint

Before analyzing and quantifying the patch interrelation, we first need to identify the concentration of semantic information (i.e. key features) contained in different patches. As some mid-level representations with rich semantic information, key features should be invariant in different situations, such as rotation, scale, brightness, and orientation. Therefore, we introduce the classical scale-invariant feature transform (SIFT) to automatically annotate broad feature keypoints hidden in images [17].

More specifically, SIFT first uses difference of Gaussian (DoG) to generate a set of results obtained from the same image at different scales. Then, SIFT will calculate the directed gradient of each point and compare it with its neighbors to detect those local extreme points. Only those local extreme points that are invariant in different scale spaces are selected as keypoints. A demonstration of SIFT keypoint annotation is shown in Fig. 3, and we can observe that most SIFT keypoints are concentrated on the target ‘cat’, which is highly consistent with our definition of key features in human semantic understanding.

With the help of SIFT keypoints, we can quantify the concentration of semantic information (i.e. key features) contained in different patches by counting the number of SIFT keypoints in each patch. This quantitative metric will be used in the next section to reveal the patch interrelations hidden in the above image restoration pre-experiments.

3. Patch Interrelation Analysis

In this section, we first introduce the background of ViT and its multi-head self-attention (MSA) mechanism, and then describe our SIFT keypoint-based measure that can reveal the patch interrelations during model inference.

3.1. Preliminaries

For an original input image of resolution \((H, W)\), given that the resolution of each patch is \((P, P)\), ViT will split the image into a set of non-overlapping patches \([p_1, \cdots, p_N]\), where the patch number is \(N = HW/P^2\). By linear projection, these patches will be transformed into patch embeddings \([h_1, \cdots, h_N]\) with fixed vector size. The patch embeddings are then fed into a series of stacked transformers, each containing a multi-head self-attention (MSA) mechanism with \(L\) parallel SA heads. More specifically, in an SA head, each patch embedding \(h_i\) will be mapped to the query vector \(q_i\), key vector \(k_i\) and value vector \(v_i\) vector by a separate linear projection. The head will compute the attention weights \(\alpha\) between all patch pairs by the softmax normalized dot product between the query and the key vector. The output \(o\) of the head is a weighted sum of all value vectors.
When generating the next representation of the current patch \(i\), the attention weight \(\alpha_{ij}\) can be regarded as the ‘importance’ of every other patch \(j\) to it, which is implicitly consistent with our patch interrelation. Therefore, our measurement method is based on the attention weight distribution of each MSA transformer block.

We use the ViT-Large (ViT-L/16) pre-trained on ImageNet-21K as our backbone, which has 24 stacked transformer layers, each containing 16 attention heads.

3.2. Measurement of Patch Interrelation

Traditional attention mechanisms follow human logic on image processing to improve model performance by focusing attention on some key regions (such as objects in images) [12, 28]. They usually use spatial or channel attention to individually highlight some key features, while ignoring the semantic understanding hidden in patch interrelations is also important during model inference. Unlike traditional attention mechanisms, the computation process of the SA mechanism naturally involves comparisons between all possible patch pair combinations.

For example, when generating the next representation for patch \(i\) in equation (1), each SA head will compute a 16 \(\times\) 16 attention matrix \(\alpha_i = [\alpha_{ij}]\). The value of \(\alpha_{ij}\) in each patch \(j \in \{N\}\) represents the importance of other patches \(j\) to the patch \(i\). In other words, \(\alpha_{ij}\) also means the strength of patch interrelation between patches \(i\) and \(j\). The attention heatmap visualized from this matrix is shown in Fig. 4a. The heatmap can also be transformed into a mountain-peak map by the 3D visualization in Fig. 4b, where the mountain height on each patch is \(\alpha_{ij}\).

To quantify patch interrelationships between patch \(i\) and another patch \(j\), as shown in Fig. 4b, we design a detection line and define its height according to:

\[
\bar{H} = \gamma \cdot \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{ij}}{N}, \tag{2}
\]

Where \(\gamma\) is an adjustment parameter that controls the height of the detection line. Only patches \(j\) with value \(\alpha_{ij}\) higher than \(\bar{H}\) (\(\alpha_{ij} \geq \bar{H}\)) will be filtered out as attended patches (see yellow bars in Fig. 4b), the set of attended patches is denoted by \(S_i\).

Weighted Patch Interrelation Analysis. As we know from Sec. 2, patches are highly discriminative due to the set of semantic information they contain, i.e., the number of SIFT keypoints in the patch. The set of attended patches \(S_i\) can thus be separated into two non-overlapping subsets: \(S^{\text{Non}}_i\) includes attended patches that do not contain SIFT keypoints and \(S^{\text{Key}}_i\) includes attended patches that contain SIFT keypoints that satisfy \(S_i = S^{\text{Non}}_i \cup S^{\text{Key}}_i\) and \(S^{\text{Non}}_i \cap S^{\text{Key}}_i = \emptyset\). Intuitively, calculating the percentage of \(S^{\text{Key}}_i\) in the entire attended patch set \(S_i\) can reflect the patch interrelation distribution (i.e., starting with patch \(i\), whether the model is biased towards those patches contain SIFT keypoints among all attended patches).

However, it is not fair to treat each patch equally, as the SIFT keypoints they contain may vary widely, and patches containing more SIFT keypoints should have higher weights in our patch interrelation analysis. Denote the number of SIFT keypoints in each patch \(j \in \{N\}\) by \(t_j\). The weighted patch correlation analysis generated for patch \(i\) on an SA head translates to:

\[
\theta_i = \frac{|S^{\text{Key}}_i|}{|S^{\text{Non}}_i| + |S^{\text{Key}}_i|} \Rightarrow \theta_i = \frac{\sum_{j \in S^{\text{Key}}_i} t_j}{|S^{\text{Non}}_i| + \sum_{j \in S^{\text{Key}}_i} t_j} \tag{3}
\]

It is worth noting that each SA head generates a total \(N\) attention matrix \(\alpha_i\) for different starting patch \(i \in \{N\}\), and the starting patch \(i\) can vary significantly due to the contained SIFT keypoints. They are divided into two non-overlapping sets \(S^{\text{Non}}_i\) and \(S^{\text{Key}}_i\), indicating whether the starting patch \(i\) contains SIFT keypoints. By the different identities (‘Non-keypoint’ patch or ‘Keypoint’ patch) that patches belong to, there are four different combinations between the starting patch \(i\) and the target patch \(j\) as: • KK: ‘Keypoint’ \(\rightarrow\) ‘Keypoint’, • KN: ‘Keypoint’ \(\rightarrow\) ‘Non-keypoint’, • NK: ‘Non-keypoint’ \(\rightarrow\) ‘Keypoint’, and • NN: ‘Non-keypoint’ \(\rightarrow\) ‘Non-keypoint’.

Take the • KK: ‘Keypoint’ \(\rightarrow\) ‘Keypoint’ as an example, the target of patch interrelation analysis under this combination is to find ‘Starting from a keypoint patch, whether its attention distribution will present some special interrelation patterns towards other keypoint patches?’ The global patch
The global patch interrelation analysis on all 24 transformer layers, where each point corresponds to the patch interrelation analysis \( \theta \), on a particular SA head. The solid line is the average of all 16 SA heads, and the dotted line is its trend line.

The global patch interrelation analysis under different combinations are:

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_{KK} &= \frac{\sum_{i \in S_{Key}} \theta_i}{|S_{Key}|}; \\
\theta_{NK} &= \frac{\sum_{i \in S_{Non}} \theta_i}{|S_{Non}|}; \\
\theta_{16} &= \frac{\sum_{i \in S_{Key}} (1 - \theta_i)}{|S_{Key}|}; \\
\theta_{NN} &= \frac{\sum_{i \in S_{Non}} (1 - \theta_i)}{|S_{Non}|}.
\end{align*}
\]

4. Hidden Patterns in Patch Interrelation

The global patch interrelation analysis on the entire image provides a comprehensive and novel understanding about how the ViT model utilizes patch interrelation in different stages during the model forward inference process.

4.1. Attention Patterns among Patches

We first perform the global patch interrelation analysis on all 16 SA heads throughout all 24 transformer layers, where the results are demonstrated in Fig.5. The observation is interesting: starting from keypoint patches \( \in S_{Key} \), their attention distributions are discriminative to different target patches, which are highly biased towards other keypoint patches \( \in S_{Key} \). We can see from the ‘KK’ case (blue line) in Fig.5, the interrelation between keypoint patches has a rapid increasing during the model forward inference process, and presents an obvious gap with the ‘NK’ case (orange line). This discriminative bias of ViT model prove our conjectures from pre-experiment results on image recovery, which indicates that: 1) There are high semantic interrelation patterns among keypoints patches. 2) The MSA mechanism of ViT model mainly utilize the keypoint patch interrelation during its forward inference process. The analysis results on ‘KN’ and ‘NN’ cases are omitted here but attached later in Fig.7a for different stages summary, since they have a clear mathematical 1 – \( \theta \) complementary relationship with their respective counterparts (for example, ‘KN’ = 1 – ‘KK’), as shown in Eq.(4).

Moreover, except for the obvious gap between two cases, we can also see a dynamic change of the ‘KK’ case (blue line) in different stages of model forward inference process. This phenomenon indicates that the ViT model has a different semantic understanding of patch interrelation in different stages, which will be elaborated later in Sec.4.3.

4.2. Focused or Broad? — Attention Focus Index

Except for distribution characteristics reflected by above attention patterns, we also measure the attention focus level of ViT model, i.e., whether SA heads will focus on a few patches or attend broadly on many different patches. We use the average information entropy of each head’s attention distribution as our metric, which is called attention focus index. For a 16 \times 16 attention matrix \( \alpha_i = [\alpha_{ij}] \) of patch \( i \) generated by one SA head, we first transfer all attention value to the [0, 1] interval by Min-Max normalization, and then calculate its information entropy \( \delta_i \) as:

\[
\delta_i = -\frac{\log p}{16 \times 16} \sum_{j=1}^{16 \times 16} \left( \frac{\alpha_{ij} - \min(\alpha_i)}{\max(\alpha_i) - \min(\alpha_i)} \right).
\]

Finally, by averaging all information entropy \( \delta_i \) of total 256 different starting patch \( i \) on the same SA head, we can obtain the attention focus index of that specific SA head. We show the dynamic change of attention focus index on all SA heads during the model forward inference process in Fig.6.

Intuitively, a larger attention focus index indicates that the model only attend to fewer patches, vice versa. Therefore, we can find the attention focus index has an obvious change that the model rapidly focuses to only a few patches in former layers, but back to broad attention again in later layers. However, the implied focus patterns are highly diverse in different stages and we will provide a full analysis later in Sec.4.3 to explain them.

4.3. Retrieval, Capture, and Coach Stages in Vision Transformer

Combining all analysis results in previous sections, we can obviously see three different stages during the model forward inference process, which are • Stage 1: Global information Retrieval, • Stage 2: Key information Capture and • Stage 3: Semantic Interrelation Coach, as shown in Fig.7a with different background colors. Next, with the visualized attention heatmaps in Fig.7b, we will provide a detailed analysis to explain the differences of three stages and how the patch interrelation is used in diverse ways.

First, in • Stage 1: Global information Retrieval, the ‘KK’ and ‘KN’ patch interrelation are both very low (only have a small gap), which means that no matter what identity the starting patch is, the ViT model treats all target patches
Figure 6. Attention focus index of all 16 SA heads (blue points) in each layer. The bold line shows their average in each layer and the dash line is its trend-line.  

Figure 7. Three different stages (i.e., Retrieval, Capture, and Coach Stages) in model forward inference process and their visualized heatmap samples of attention distributions.

5. Applications in Practice

The previous patch interrelation analysis not only uncovers the hidden working mechanism of MSA in ViT model, but also provide further guidance to both model training and inference process. In this section, we list some of interesting applications in practice that can utilize the advantages of patch interrelation.

5.1. Spurious Correlation Discovery

Some previous studies [9,23] have shown that traditional image classification tasks suffer from model performance degradation due to the spurious features hidden in images. For example, blue sky background is likely to co-occur in many bird images. However, the absence of blue sky background from a bird image should not result in misclassification. Different from their single-point spurious feature discovery, our patch interrelation can analyze the mutual attention distribution of different patch combinations, and then identify the true dominant feature correlation. For example, a keypoint patch, that assign most of its attention to those Non-keypoint patches, will be regarded as spurious correlation, even if this patch contains many keypoints.

To verify the effectiveness of our spurious correlation discovery, we design a special patch mask mechanism dur-
From the experiment results in the table of Fig.8b, We can see that the model classification accuracy has a slight increasing when the mask ratio is relatively small (see 5% and 10% cases), which means these masked patches will provide negative information and interrelation to hinder image understanding before. This phenomenon is also consistent with our concept of "Mask as Prompt". Besides, even if the mask ratio \( r \) is later increased to 40%, there is no obvious accuracy drop compared to the original image, which empirically proves the effectiveness of our patch interrelation analysis to find the hidden spurious correlation in the image.

### 5.2. Guided Mask for Model Pre-training

Except the previous applications for model inference, Our patch interrelation analysis can also be utilized in the model pre-training process to speed up the training efficiency. The existing model pre-training of MAE encoder is based on a random mask mechanism [10], which only randomly samples a patch subset to pre-train ViT model. When facing the agnostic patch interrelation, random mask is a straightforward approach to effectively ensure the model pre-training performance. As long as the random sampling time (training time) is large enough to cover differ-
ent patches combinations, random mask can guarantee ViT model to understand the hidden semantic information in images (i.e., various patch interrelation in our paper).

However, according to the studies in Curriculum Learning (CL) [2], the model training process is similar with human learning process, it is advocated to let the model training start from easy data samples first and gradually progress to complex data samples and knowledge. Through a series of well-designed learning tasks, the CL strategy can accelerate the model training process to reach the same model performance with less training iterations. Therefore, based on the insights from CL, we propose to gradually increase the dataset difficulty during ViT model pre-training process, thus to guide and accelerate the model learning. According to previous $\theta_i$ derived from our patch interrelation analysis, each patch $i$ will have a score indicates its importance of semantic understanding to other keypoint patches, and we can use it to design our datasets with different difficulty.

Assume the mask ratio $r$ is a constant, such as $r = 50\%$. For random mask, it just needs to randomly mask $50\%$ patches and feed the remaining patches into model for pre-training, where the percentage of Keypoint patches and Non-keypoint patches in masked patches are also random. If the percentage of Keypoint patches in all masked patches is denoted by $\beta$, we can now adjust the dataset difficulty by setting different $\beta$ value. First, we calculate the masked Keypoint/Non-keypoint patch number by: "total patch number $\times r \times \beta / (1 - \beta)$ ", respectively. Then, we shuffle the two lists of all Keypoint/Non-keypoint patches and sample the corresponding number of patches from the top of Keypoint patch list and the bottom of Non-keypoint patch list, where these sampled patches are masked. Obviously, a larger $\beta$ value means more Keypoint patches are masked, which indicates higher dataset difficulty. When $\beta = 0\%$, all masked patches are Non-keypoint patches (lowest dataset difficulty), vice versa for $\beta = 100\%$.

In our experiment, we design 5 datasets with increasing difficulty from $\beta = 10\%$ to $\beta = 50\%$, and gradually increase the dataset difficulty every 10 rounds. The experiment configurations are listed as below: model (ViT-Base/16), Pre-train dataset (ImageNette 1), GPU (one RTX 3090). We use the classification accuracy on the pretrain dataset to evaluate the model pre-training performance. It is clear from Fig.9 that our guided mask can reach convergence point at around 30-th training round, while the random mask needs to take about 45 training rounds.

6. Related Work

6.1. Transformer-based models for vision tasks

Different from the traditional CNN-based models that use convolution kernel to extract features from the original image for later tasks, the Transformer-based model architecture mainly utilize the self-attention mechanism to capture the long-term dependencies between different parts of the image. Vision Transformer (ViT) model is the first work that applies MSA mechanism on image, by splitting it into a series of non-overlapping patches as the input of Transformer model [8]. The flexibility and effectiveness of ViT make it becomes the ubiquitous landmark technique in computer vision field. Extensive subsequent studies based on ViT are proposed to design more efficient MSA mechanisms, including implementing deeper ViT model with diverse regenerated attention map [31], constructing hierarchical ViT structure to apply the shift window scheme and limiting the focus of self-attention mechanism [16], and multi-scale ViT structure with attention mechanism of Vision Long former [30]. However, despite the promising performance, all these studies have ignored a fundamental problem, i.e., how the MSA mechanism works in vision?

6.2. Interpretability of Vision Transformer

When ViT first demonstrate its powerful performance to outperform previous CNN-based baselines [8], its unique model structure has attracted extensive focus from researchers to understand its interpretability from different aspects, including: observing the attention map of Transformer outputs [3,15], computing the relevancy of different attention heads in Transformer networks [5,26]. However, their explanations all come from the empirical observations based on Transformer network outputs or layer similarity, without any interpretable analysis backed by a solid theoretical foundation. Different from them, we try to understand the interpretability of ViT from a semantic perspective similar to NLP, and prove that “the working principle of MSA mechanism in ViT is consistent with human semantic understanding on images”.

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1https://www.tensorflow.org/datasets/catalog/imagenette
7. Discussion & Conclusion

In this paper, we find that the low semantic information concentration of pixels in images is a critical challenge that hinders the interpretability of ViT model. To fill this missing gap, we introduce the concept of SIFT to map the low-level redundant image space to a mid-level semantic feature space, which can automatically annotate the invariant feature keypoints in the image, and provide a theoretical cross-correlation for measuring the semantic information level. Then, we design a weighted quantitative analysis to explore the hidden attention patterns in the MSA mechanism, whose interpretability is consistent with the semantic understanding based on the SIFT keypoints. Finally, we further derive a series of well-suited practical applications that benefit a lot from our interpretable analysis, including: 1) discovering spurious correlations and prompting input during model inference to improve performance, and 2) guiding model pre-training to accelerate convergence.

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