Project ARI3205 Interpretable AI for Deep Learning Models (Part 1.1)

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Importing Necessary Libraries

```
import json
# Read the libraries from the text file
with open('../Libraries/Part1 Lib.json', 'r') as file:
    libraries = json.load(file)
# ANSI escape codes for colored output
GREEN = "\033[92m" # Green text]
RED = "\033[91m"]
                  # Red text
RESET = "\033[0m" # Reset to default color
# Function to check and install libraries
def check and install libraries(libraries):
    for lib, import name in libraries.items():
        try:
            # Attempt to import the library
              import (import name)
            print(f"[{GREEN} < {RESET}] Library '{lib}' is already</pre>
installed.")
        except ImportError:
            # If import fails, try to install the library
            print(f"[{RED}*{RESET}] Library '{lib}' is not installed.
Installing...")
            %pip install {lib}
# Execute the function to check and install libraries
check and install libraries(libraries)
# Import necessary libraries for data analysis and modeling
import pandas as pd
# Data manipulation and analysis
                                                 #type: ignore
import numpy as np
# Numerical computations
                                                 #type: ignore
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
# Data visualization
                                                 #type: ignore
import seaborn as sns
# Statistical data visualization
                                                 #type: ignore
import statsmodels.formula.api as smf
# Statistical models
                                                 #type: ignore
```

```
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
# Train-test split
                                                  #type: ignore
from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential
# Neural network model
                                                  #type: ignore
from tensorflow.keras.layers import Dense
# Neural network layers
                                                  #type: ignore
from tensorflow.keras.optimizers import Adam
# Neural network optimizer
                                                  #type: ignore
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
# Data scaling
                                                  #type: ignore
from sklearn.impute import SimpleImputer
# Missing value imputation
                                                  #type: ignore
from sklearn.inspection import PartialDependenceDisplay,
permutation importance # Feature importance
#type: ignore
from sklearn.neural network import MLPRegressor
# Neural network model
                                                  #type: ignore
from sklearn.metrics import mean squared error
# Model evaluation
                                                  #type: ignore
from alibi.explainers import ALE, plot ale
# ALE plots
                                                  #type: ignore
# Suppress specific warnings
import warnings
warnings.filterwarnings("ignore", message="X does not have valid
feature names")
[✓] Library 'tensorflow' is already installed.
[✓] Library 'scikit-learn' is already installed.
[✓] Library 'matplotlib' is already installed.[✓] Library 'seaborn' is already installed.
[✓] Library 'pandas' is already installed.
[✓] Library 'numpy' is already installed.
[✓] Library 'scipy' is already installed.
[✓] Library 'alibi' is already installed.
```

General Information on Boston Housing Dataset

https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/altavish/boston-housing-dataset/data

```
# Define the filename
filename = '../Datasets/Boston/Boston.csv'

# Load the dataset
try:
    boston_data = pd.read_csv(filename)
    print(f"'{filename}' dataset loaded successfully.")
except FileNotFoundError:
```

```
print(f"Error: The file '{filename}' was not found. Please ensure
it is in the correct directory.")
    exit()
except pd.errors.EmptyDataError:
    print(f"Error: The file '{filename}' is empty.")
    exit()
except pd.errors.ParserError:
    print(f"Error: There was a problem parsing '{filename}'. Please
check the file format.")
    exit()
# Dataset insights
print("\nDataset Overview:")
print(boston data.info())
print("\nStatistical Summary:")
print(boston data.describe())
'../Datasets/Boston/Boston.csv' dataset loaded successfully.
Dataset Overview:
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 506 entries, 0 to 505
Data columns (total 14 columns):
#
     Column
              Non-Null Count
                              Dtype
     -----
     CRIM
              486 non-null
 0
                              float64
 1
     ZN
              486 non-null
                              float64
 2
     INDUS
              486 non-null
                              float64
 3
              486 non-null
     CHAS
                              float64
 4
     NOX
              506 non-null
                              float64
 5
     RM
              506 non-null
                              float64
 6
              486 non-null
                              float64
     AGE
 7
     DIS
              506 non-null
                              float64
              506 non-null
 8
     RAD
                              int64
 9
    TAX
              506 non-null
                              int64
    PTRATIO
                              float64
 10
              506 non-null
 11
              506 non-null
                              float64
12
    LSTAT
              486 non-null
                              float64
              506 non-null
 13 MEDV
                              float64
dtypes: float64(12), int64(2)
memory usage: 55.5 KB
None
Statistical Summary:
                           ZN
                                    INDUS
                                                  CHAS
                                                               NOX
             CRIM
RM \
      486.000000 486.000000 486.000000 486.000000 506.000000
count
506.000000
mean
         3.611874
                    11.211934
                                11.083992
                                             0.069959
                                                          0.554695
6.284634
```

std 0.702617	8.720192	23.388876	6.835896	0.255340	0.115878
min 3.561000 25%	0.006320	0.000000	0.460000	0.000000	0.385000
	0.081900	0.000000	5.190000	0.000000	0.449000
5.885500 50%	0.253715	0.000000	9.690000	0.000000	0.538000
6.208500 75%	3.560263	12.500000	18.100000	0.000000	0.624000
6.623500 max 8.780000	88.976200	100.000000	27.740000	1.000000	0.871000
D \	AGE	DIS	RAD	TAX	PTRATIO
B \ count 4 506.0000	86.000000	506.000000	506.000000	506.000000	506.000000
mean	68.518519	3.795043	9.549407	408.237154	18.455534
356.6740 std 91.29486	27.999513	2.105710	8.707259	168.537116	2.164946
min 0.320000	2.900000	1.129600	1.000000	187.000000	12.600000
	45.175000	2.100175	4.000000	279.000000	17.400000
	76.800000	3.207450	5.000000	330.000000	19.050000
	93.975000	5.188425	24.000000	666.000000	20.200000
	00.000000	12.126500	24.000000	711.000000	22.000000
mean std min 25% 50% 75%	LSTAT 86.000000 12.715432 7.155871 1.730000 7.125000 11.430000 16.955000 37.970000	MEDV 506.000000 22.532806 9.197104 5.000000 17.025000 21.200000 25.000000 50.000000			

Feed-Forward Neural Network

```
# Separate features and target
X = boston_data.drop(columns=['MEDV']) # Features
y = boston_data['MEDV'] # Target
# Handle missing values with mean imputation
```

```
imputer = SimpleImputer(strategy='mean')
X imputed = pd.DataFrame(imputer.fit transform(X), columns=X.columns)
# Standardize the features
scaler = StandardScaler()
X scaled = pd.DataFrame(scaler.fit transform(X imputed),
columns=X.columns)
# Split the data into training and test sets
X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X scaled, y,
test size=0.2, random state=42)
print("Training data shape:", X train.shape)
print("Test data shape:", X_test.shape)
Training data shape: (404, 13)
Test data shape: (102, 13)
# Build the feed-forward neural network
model = Sequential([
    Dense(64, activation='relu', input shape=(X train.shape[1],)),
    Dense(32, activation='relu'),
    Dense(1) # Output layer for regression
])
# Compile the model
model.compile(optimizer=Adam(learning rate=0.001), loss='mse',
metrics=['mae'])
# Train the model
history = model.fit(X train, y train, validation split=0.2, epochs=50,
batch size=32, verbose=1)
# Evaluate the model
test_loss, test_mae = model.evaluate(X_test, y_test, verbose=1)
print(f"Test Loss: {test loss:.4f}, Test MAE: {test mae:.4f}")
/opt/anaconda3/lib/python3.11/site-packages/keras/src/layers/core/
dense.py:87: UserWarning: Do not pass an `input_shape`/`input_dim`
argument to a layer. When using Sequential models, prefer using an
`Input(shape)` object as the first layer in the model instead.
  super(). init (activity regularizer=activity regularizer,
**kwargs)
Epoch 1/50
                    _____ 1s 11ms/step - loss: 610.9976 - mae:
11/11 —
22.8815 - val loss: 539.9886 - val mae: 21.7096
Epoch 2/50
                        — 0s 3ms/step - loss: 612.5311 - mae: 22.7226
11/11 -
- val_loss: 507.0454 - val mae: 20.9489
Epoch 3/50
11/11 -
                      --- 0s 3ms/step - loss: 536.2062 - mae: 21.3987
```

```
- val loss: 470.3633 - val mae: 20.0871
Epoch 4/50
             Os 8ms/step - loss: 487.4485 - mae: 20.1953
11/11 ——
- val loss: 425.6573 - val mae: 19.0079
Epoch 5/50
               Os 3ms/step - loss: 439.9500 - mae: 19.0457
11/11 -
- val loss: 372.1023 - val mae: 17.6258
Epoch 6/50
                Os 3ms/step - loss: 383.8455 - mae: 17.3025
11/11 -
- val loss: 309.6705 - val mae: 15.8827
Epoch 7/50
                 ---- 0s 7ms/step - loss: 310.1775 - mae: 15.6345
11/11 ----
- val_loss: 241.4313 - val mae: 13.8186
- val loss: 176.3131 - val mae: 11.5594
Epoch 9/50
11/11 ———— 0s 3ms/step - loss: 173.2832 - mae: 11.1322
- val loss: 118.8051 - val mae: 9.0884
Epoch 10/50
          Os 3ms/step - loss: 127.6825 - mae: 8.9653
11/11 ———
- val loss: 77.8989 - val mae: 6.9037
Epoch 11/50
                ——— 0s 8ms/step - loss: 83.9577 - mae: 7.2203 -
val loss: 56.1831 - val mae: 5.5618
Epoch 12/50
                ———— 0s 3ms/step - loss: 67.8990 - mae: 6.5558 -
11/11 —
val loss: 45.2629 - val mae: 4.8866
val loss: 38.2517 - val mae: 4.4154
val loss: 33.7060 - val mae: 4.1265
Epoch 15/50
11/11 ————— 0s 9ms/step - loss: 42.0957 - mae: 4.9648 -
val loss: 31.0094 - val mae: 3.9563
Epoch 16/50
            Os 6ms/step - loss: 37.2767 - mae: 4.4003 -
val loss: 29.3667 - val mae: 3.8668
Epoch 17/50
                ——— 0s 5ms/step - loss: 31.7819 - mae: 4.2120 -
11/11 -
val_loss: 28.4223 - val_mae: 3.8305
Epoch 18/50
                ----- 0s 4ms/step - loss: 27.9506 - mae: 4.0479 -
11/11 —
val_loss: 28.1628 - val_mae: 3.8181
- val loss: 27.6732 - val mae: 3.7870
```

```
Epoch 20/50
11/11 ———— 0s 9ms/step - loss: 23.9321 - mae: 3.6995 -
val_loss: 27.5123 - val mae: 3.7783
val loss: 27.4019 - val mae: 3.7606
Epoch 22/50
- val loss: 26.6372 - val mae: 3.7184
Epoch 23/50
             Os 8ms/step - loss: 18.1317 - mae: 3.2892 -
11/11 ———
val loss: 26.2528 - val_mae: 3.6857
Epoch 24/50
               ———— 0s 6ms/step - loss: 20.0552 - mae: 3.3898 -
11/11 —
val_loss: 26.0505 - val_mae: 3.6825
Epoch 25/50
               ——— Os 5ms/step - loss: 23.3051 - mae: 3.3978 -
11/11 ----
val_loss: 25.6083 - val_mae: 3.6522
val loss: 24.9881 - val mae: 3.5586
Epoch 27/50
11/11 ————— 0s 6ms/step - loss: 19.5687 - mae: 3.3424 -
val loss: 24.4712 - val mae: 3.5129
Epoch 28/50
11/11 ———— 0s 6ms/step - loss: 20.0316 - mae: 3.3424 -
val loss: 24.1334 - val mae: 3.4745
Epoch 29/50
             Os 24ms/step - loss: 16.8976 - mae: 3.0855
11/11 -
- val loss: 23.7792 - val mae: 3.4335
Epoch 30/50
               ———— 0s 8ms/step - loss: 16.8489 - mae: 3.0665 -
val_loss: 23.6043 - val_mae: 3.4182
- val loss: 23.2198 - val mae: 3.4048
val_loss: 22.9691 - val mae: 3.3908
Epoch 33/50
11/11 ————— 0s 4ms/step - loss: 19.6022 - mae: 3.1756 -
val loss: 23.1211 - val mae: 3.3862
Epoch 34/50
11/11 ————— 0s 8ms/step - loss: 18.8767 - mae: 3.0806 -
val loss: 23.0233 - val mae: 3.3929
Epoch 35/50
            Os 20ms/step - loss: 16.3944 - mae: 2.9686
- val_loss: 22.6667 - val_mae: 3.3721
Epoch 36/50
```

```
Os 6ms/step - loss: 18.7178 - mae: 3.2670 -
val loss: 22.1120 - val mae: 3.3367
Epoch 37/50
               ———— Os 3ms/step - loss: 16.5506 - mae: 3.0255 -
11/11 —
val loss: 21.8547 - val mae: 3.3120
Epoch 38/50
             Os 4ms/step - loss: 19.5920 - mae: 3.2243 -
11/11 ----
val loss: 21.2016 - val mae: 3.2525
- val loss: 20.7961 - val mae: 3.2071
Epoch 40/50
          ______ 0s 5ms/step - loss: 14.4766 - mae: 2.8270 -
11/11 ———
val loss: 20.5739 - val_mae: 3.1850
Epoch 41/50
              _____ 0s 4ms/step - loss: 16.1502 - mae: 2.8702 -
11/11 ———
val loss: 20.6122 - val mae: 3.2112
Epoch 42/50
                 --- 0s 10ms/step - loss: 14.2076 - mae: 2.7147
- val loss: 20.5578 - val mae: 3.2263
Epoch 43/50
                ——— Os 5ms/step - loss: 16.2328 - mae: 2.9353 -
11/11 —
val loss: 20.0096 - val mae: 3.1807
val loss: 19.6446 - val mae: 3.1490
Epoch 45/50
11/11 ————— 0s 4ms/step - loss: 16.5106 - mae: 2.8110 -
val loss: 19.5938 - val mae: 3.1421
- val_loss: 19.7601 - val mae: 3.1517
Epoch 47/50
              ———— Os 6ms/step - loss: 14.3406 - mae: 2.7273 -
11/11 —
val loss: 20.1172 - val mae: 3.1564
Epoch 48/50
                ——— 0s 4ms/step - loss: 12.7872 - mae: 2.6688 -
val loss: 19.4098 - val mae: 3.1072
Epoch 49/50
               ———— 0s 3ms/step - loss: 12.6852 - mae: 2.6272 -
11/11 —
val_loss: 18.8763 - val_mae: 3.0776
- val loss: 18.8568 - val mae: 3.0921
           ———— 0s 2ms/step - loss: 11.2812 - mae: 2.2573
Test Loss: 15.3235, Test MAE: 2.3687
```

Surrogate Model - MLPRegressor

```
# Train an MLPRegressor as a surrogate model
surrogate_model = MLPRegressor(hidden_layer_sizes=(64, 32),
max_iter=1000, random_state=42)
surrogate_model.fit(X_train, y_train)

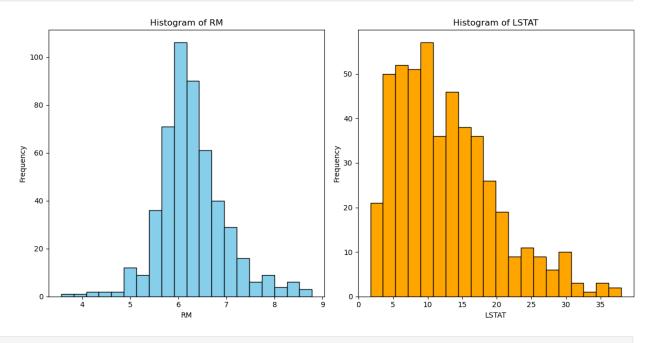
# Evaluate the surrogate model
y_pred = surrogate_model.predict(X_test)
mse = mean_squared_error(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Surrogate Model Mean Squared Error: {mse:.4f}")

Surrogate Model Mean Squared Error: 12.7475
```

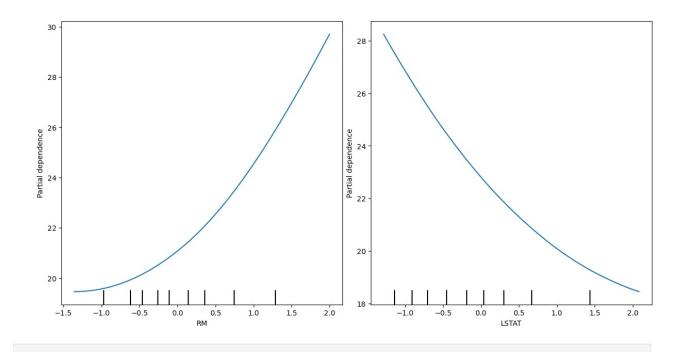
Partial Dependence Plots (PDP) and Individual Conditional Expectation (ICE) plots

```
# Partial Dependence Plots (PDP)
def plot pdp(features):
    print("\nGenerating PDP for features:", features)
    fig, ax = plt.subplots(1, len(features), figsize=(12, 6),
constrained layout=True)
    for i, feature in enumerate(features):
        PartialDependenceDisplay.from estimator(
            surrogate_model, # The trained surrogate model
(MLPRegressor)
                             # Training data
            X train,
            features=[feature], # Single feature for PDP
            kind="average", # PDP only
            ax=ax[i] if len(features) > 1 else ax,
            grid resolution=50,
        ax[i].set title(f"PDP for {feature}")
    plt.show()
# Individual Conditional Expectation (ICE) Plots
def plot ice(features):
    print("\nGenerating ICE for features:", features)
    fig, ax = plt.subplots(1, len(features), figsize=(12, 6),
constrained layout=True)
    for i, feature in enumerate(features):
        PartialDependenceDisplay.from_estimator(
            surrogate_model, # The trained surrogate model
(MLPRegressor)
                             # Training data
            features=[feature], # Single feature for ICE
            kind="both", # PDP and ICE
            ax=ax[i] if len(features) > 1 else ax,
            grid resolution=50,
```

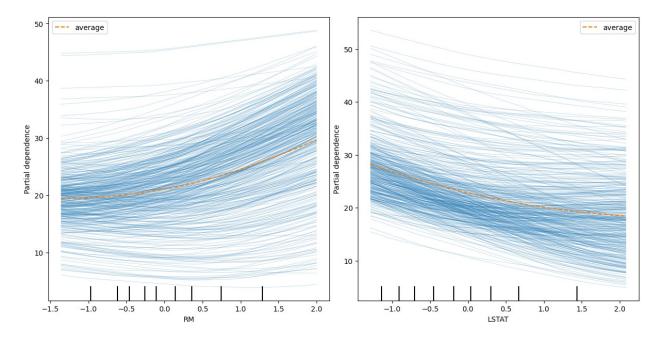
```
ax[i].set title(f"ICE and PDP for {feature}")
    plt.show()
# Call PDP and ICE plot functions
features to analyze = ['RM', 'LSTAT']
# Plot histograms for features to analyze
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
for i, feature in enumerate(features to analyze):
    plt.subplot(1, len(features to analyze), i + 1)
    plt.hist(boston data[feature], bins=20, edgecolor='black',
color='skyblue' if \overline{i} \% 2 == 0 else 'orange')
    plt.title(f'Histogram of {feature}')
    plt.xlabel(feature)
    plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.tight layout()
plt.show()
plot_pdp(features_to_analyze)
plot_ice(features_to_analyze)
```



Generating PDP for features: ['RM', 'LSTAT']



Generating ICE for features: ['RM', 'LSTAT']



Explain what insights PDP and ICE give about the model's behaviour.

The Partial Dependence Plots (PDPs) and Individual Conditional Expectation (ICE) plots for the features RM (average number of rooms per dwelling) and LSTAT (percentage of lower-status population) provide critical insights into the predictive behavior of the trained model. These features were selected due to their strong correlation with the target variable, MEDV (median house prices), and their contrasting trends, which are both relevant and interpretable in the context of housing prices.

Partial Dependence Plots (PDP)

PDPs offer a global perspective on the relationship between features and the predicted target variable. The PDP for RM shows a **positive monotonic relationship**, indicating that an increase in the number of rooms correlates with higher predicted house prices. This trend aligns with real-world expectations, as larger homes are typically associated with higher market values. On the other hand, the PDP for LSTAT reveals a **negative monotonic relationship**, suggesting that areas with a higher percentage of lower-status populations are associated with lower predicted house prices. This reflects the model's ability to capture the socioeconomic factors influencing housing prices effectively.

While PDPs are excellent for understanding the overall trends, they average the effects across all data points and fail to capture individual variations or interactions between features. Thus, they provide a general but limited view of feature importance.

Individual Conditional Expectation (ICE) Plots

ICE plots complement PDPs by revealing how predictions vary for individual instances when the feature values change. For RM, the ICE plots demonstrate that most individual instances follow the positive trend shown in the PDP. However, there are subtle variations in the slopes of individual lines, indicating that the sensitivity of predictions to RM differs across instances. For example, homes in different neighborhoods or price ranges might respond differently to changes in the number of rooms. Similarly, for LSTAT, the ICE plots reveal a consistent negative slope across most instances, consistent with the PDP. However, the variability in slopes highlights heterogeneous relationships, where certain neighborhoods or homes might be less affected by changes in the percentage of lower-status populations.

ICE plots are especially valuable for identifying outliers or subgroups that deviate from the average behavior. They provide a granular view, offering insights into how specific instances behave, which is critical for understanding model predictions at an individual level.

Insights from Combining PDP and ICE

The combined analysis of PDPs and ICE plots offers a comprehensive understanding of the model's behavior. PDPs provide a **global average perspective**, while ICE plots uncover **instance-level variability** and highlight heterogeneous effects. For example, while the global trend for RM suggests a steady increase in house prices with more rooms, the ICE plots reveal that the degree of sensitivity varies across instances. Similarly, for **LSTAT**, while the global trend shows a decrease in prices with higher percentages of lower-status populations, the ICE plots expose differences in how sensitive various neighborhoods are to this feature.

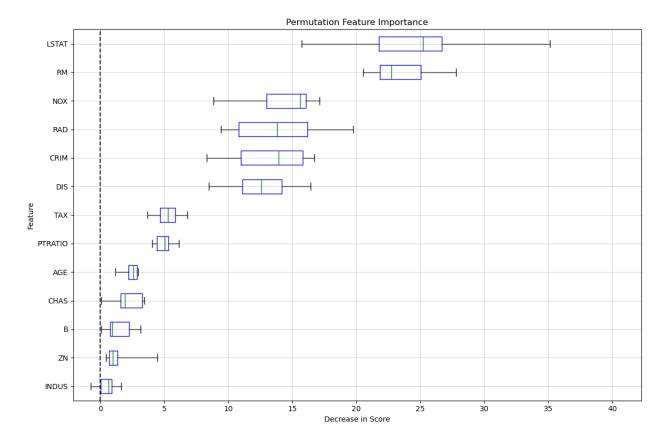
Key Takeaways

The analysis of RM and LSTAT underscores their relevance to housing prices. The positive relationship of RM with house prices reflects the impact of housing size and quality, while the negative relationship of LSTAT highlights the influence of socioeconomic factors. By leveraging both PDPs and ICE plots, we gain a robust understanding of the model's predictions, ensuring that they align with real-world expectations while identifying potential areas for improvement. Together, these tools enhance interpretability, providing both broad insights and detailed individual-level analysis.

Permutation Feature Importance (PFI)

```
# Compute Permutation Feature Importance
def compute pfi(model, X test, y test, feature names):
    pfi result = permutation importance(model, X test, y test,
n repeats=10, random state=42, scoring='neg mean squared error')
    # Convert PFI results into a DataFrame for better visualization
    importance df = pd.DataFrame({
        'Feature': feature names,
        'Importance': pfi result.importances mean,
        'Std': pfi result.importances std
    })
    # Sort features by importance
    importance df = importance df.sort values(by='Importance',
ascending=False)
    print("\nPermutation Feature Importance:\n", importance df)
    return importance df
# Plot Permutation Feature Importance as a Boxplot
def plot pfi(model, X, y, feature names):
    result = permutation importance(model, X, y,
scoring='neg mean squared error', n repeats=10, random state=42,
n jobs=2
    sorted importances idx = result.importances mean.argsort()
    importances =
pd.DataFrame(result.importances[sorted importances idx].T,
                               columns=[feature names[i] for i in
sorted importances idx])
    ax = importances.plot.box(vert=False, whis=10, figsize=(12, 8),
color=dict(boxes="blue", whiskers="black", medians="green",
caps="black"))
    ax.axvline(x=0, color="k", linestyle="--")
    # Add faint grey lines across the graph for each feature
    for i in range(len(importances.columns)):
        plt.axhline(y=i + 1, color="grey", linestyle="-",
linewidth=0.5, alpha=0.5)
    # Add faint grey lines upwards from the x-axis ticks
    xticks = ax.get xticks()
    for tick in xticks:
        plt.axvline(x=tick, color="grey", linestyle="-",
linewidth=0.5, alpha=0.5)
    # Set the x-axis limits
```

```
ax.set_xlim(left=0 - 0.05 * (ax.get_xlim()[1] - 0))
   ax.set xlabel("Decrease in Score")
   ax.set ylabel("Feature")
   ax.set title("Permutation Feature Importance")
   plt.tight layout()
   plt.show()
feature names = X test.columns
importance df = compute pfi(surrogate model, X test, y test,
feature names)
plot pfi(surrogate model, X test, y test, feature names)
Permutation Feature Importance:
     Feature Importance
                               Std
12
      LSTAT
              24.594452 4.819524
5
        RM
             23.492247 2.306411
4
       NOX
             14.488889 2.533761
8
       RAD
             13.979112 3.490214
             13.408561 2.758039
0
       CRIM
7
       DIS
              12.747733 2.383452
9
       TAX
               5.263374 0.893353
              4.990779 0.644088
10
   PTRATIO
       AGE
6
              2.380155 0.586128
3
       CHAS
              2.149071 1.070397
11
         В
              1.384748 1.012892
        ΖN
               1.331404 1.110311
1
              0.470038 0.717250
2
      INDUS
```



Permutation Feature Importance Results

The **Permutation Feature Importance (PFI)** results, visualized in the boxplot above, rank features based on their impact on the model's predictions for MEDV (median house prices). LSTAT (percentage of lower-status population) emerges as the most critical feature with a mean importance score of 24.59 and a standard deviation of 4.82. This underscores its significant negative influence on housing prices, aligning with socioeconomic realities. RM (average number of rooms per dwelling) follows closely, with an importance score of 23.49 and a lower standard deviation of 2.31, reflecting its strong positive correlation with property values.

Other influential features include NOX (nitric oxide concentration), RAD (accessibility to radial highways), and CRIM (per capita crime rate), which reflect environmental and neighborhood-related factors affecting housing prices, with importance scores of 14.49, 13.98, and 13.41, respectively. Conversely, features like PTRATIO, AGE, and CHAS show relatively lower importance, suggesting limited predictive value, while INDUS and ZN have the least influence, indicating minimal relevance to the model.

The boxplot highlights variability in feature importance scores across permutations. LSTAT and RM show compact whiskers, indicating consistent importance, while features like CHAS display greater variability, suggesting more context-dependent contributions. This ranking and variability provide a clear understanding of which features are robustly influential and which may have situational relevance.

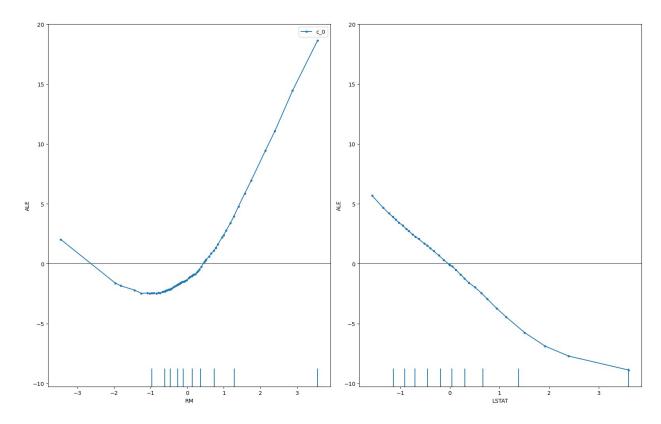
Explain what the term "important" means when using the PFI method.

In the PFI method, **importance** quantifies the contribution of a feature to the model's predictive performance. This is measured by observing the increase in prediction error when a feature's values are permuted randomly while keeping other features unchanged. A higher importance score indicates that randomization significantly degrades the model's accuracy, implying that the feature provides critical information. Conversely, a lower score suggests that the feature's randomization has minimal effect, reflecting limited predictive value.

For the given results, the high importance scores of LSTAT and RM illustrate their dominant role in capturing critical factors like socioeconomic status and home size, directly influencing housing prices. The consistent importance (low standard deviations) of these features indicates their robust and global relevance across the dataset. In contrast, the low scores for INDUS and ZN show that these features contribute minimally to the model's predictions. The variability in features like CHAS highlights that their importance may vary depending on specific data subsets or interactions with other features. This demonstrates how PFI captures both direct and indirect feature effects, offering a comprehensive view of feature relevance.

Accumulated Local Effects (ALE)

```
# Combine features and target for context if needed
data = pd.concat([X train, y train], axis=1)
# Define feature names
feature names = X train.columns
# Ensure valid input for ALE explainer
X train array = X train.to numpy() # Convert to NumPy array to avoid
warnings
# Create and compute ALE explainer
ale explainer = ALE(surrogate model.predict,
feature names=feature names)
ale explanation = ale explainer.explain(X train array)
# Plot ALE for all features
plot ale(
    ale explanation,
    features=['RM', 'LSTAT'], # Select specific features
    n_cols=4, # Arrange plots in 4 columns for better visualization
    fig kw={'figwidth': 16, 'figheight': 10} # Adjust figure size for
clarity
array([[<Axes: xlabel='RM', ylabel='ALE'>,
        <Axes: xlabel='LSTAT', ylabel='ALE'>]], dtype=object)
```



Comparing ALE and PDP for RM and LSTAT

The Accumulated Local Effects (ALE) plots and Partial Dependence Plots (PDPs) offer valuable insights into the relationships between features and the target variable (MEDV, median house prices). Both techniques aim to interpret model behavior but differ in their methodologies, which is evident when examining the features RM (average number of rooms per dwelling) and LSTAT (percentage of lower-status population).

The ALE plots for RM and LSTAT provide a localized view of feature effects by calculating the average change in predictions within intervals of the feature values. For RM, the ALE plot reveals a strong positive and nonlinear relationship, with house prices increasing steeply as the number of rooms rises, particularly for higher values of RM. Interestingly, the plot also highlights a slight dip for lower values of RM, indicating a small negative impact on house prices in cases of very small homes before the overall upward trend dominates. For LSTAT, the ALE plot shows a consistent negative relationship across the feature range. Housing prices decline as the percentage of lower-status populations increases, with the effect intensifying at higher values of LSTAT. These localized trends highlight how the model captures nuanced relationships that vary across different feature ranges.

In comparison, the PDPs for RM and LSTAT provide a global perspective by showing the average effect of each feature across all instances. For RM, the PDP depicts a smooth monotonic increase, reinforcing the positive association between the number of rooms and housing prices. Similarly, the PDP for LSTAT demonstrates a monotonic decline, confirming that higher percentages of lower-status populations are correlated with lower house prices. However, unlike ALE, the PDPs do not capture the subtle dip observed for lower values of RM. This is

because PDPs average predictions across the dataset, which can smooth out localized variations and obscure interactions between features.

The primary distinction between ALE and PDP lies in their interpretability. PDPs provide a straightforward global view, offering an easy-to-understand summary of feature effects. However, they may be influenced by feature correlations, as the marginalization process does not account for dependencies between features. In contrast, ALE plots focus on localized effects and are more robust to feature correlations. They offer a clearer picture of nonlinear relationships and feature interactions, as evidenced by the additional details visible in the ALE plot for RM.

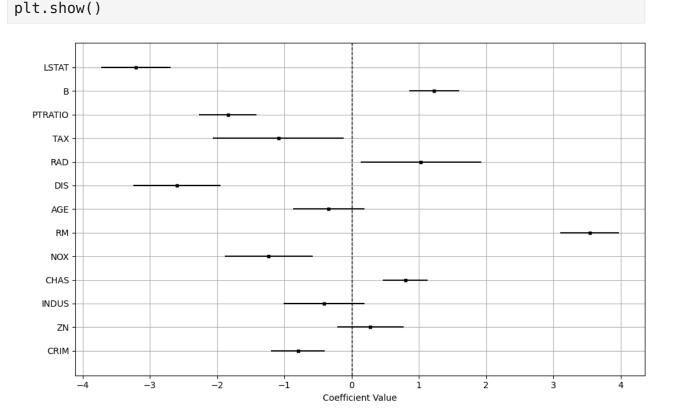
Both techniques agree on the general trends for RM and LSTAT: RM has a positive impact on housing prices, while LSTAT has a negative influence. However, the ALE plots add granularity by capturing localized behaviors and variations that the PDPs overlook. Together, these methods complement each other, with PDPs providing a broad overview and ALE offering detailed insights into localized effects, enabling a deeper understanding of the model's behavior.

Global Surrogates

```
# Generate predictions from the neural network
NN labels = model.predict(X train).flatten()
X train['NN labels'] = NN labels
# Train an interpretable linear regression model
formula = 'NN labels ~ ' + ' + '.join(X train.columns[:-1]) # Include
all features in the formula
lin reg = smf.ols(formula=formula, data=X train).fit()
print(lin reg.summary())
13/13 —
                         — 0s 7ms/step
                            OLS Regression Results
_____
Dep. Variable:
                            NN labels R-squared:
0.865
Model:
                                  OLS Adj. R-squared:
0.861
Method:
                        Least Squares F-statistic:
192.2
Date:
                     Fri, 17 Jan 2025 Prob (F-statistic):
1.75e-160
Time:
                             16:47:05 Log-Likelihood:
-1047.3
No. Observations:
                                  404
                                        AIC:
2123.
Df Residuals:
                                  390
                                        BIC:
2179.
Df Model:
                                   13
```

Covariance Type:		nonrobust				
====== 0.975]	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	
 Intercept	22.4288	0.164	136.478	0.000	22.106	
22.752 CRIM	-0.7999	0.204	-3.931	0.000	-1.200	
-0.400 ZN	0.2769	0.251	1.105	0.270	-0.216	
9.770 INDUS	-0.4080	0.305	-1.339	0.181	-1.007	
0.191 CHAS L.127	0.7963	0.168	4.739	0.000	0.466	
NOX -0.579	-1.2324	0.332	-3.709	0.000	-1.886	
RM 3.973	3.5376	0.221	15.982	0.000	3.102	
AGE).191	-0.3417	0.271	-1.262	0.208	-0.874	
DIS 1.953	-2.5984	0.328	-7.919	0.000	-3.243	
RAD L.925	1.0275	0.456	2.251	0.025	0.130	
ΓΑΧ ·0.121	-1.0905	0.493	-2.212	0.028	-2.060	
PTRATIO 1.418	-1.8416	0.216	-8.539	0.000	-2.266	
3 L.595 _STAT -2.691	1.2243 -3.2076	0.189	6.494	0.000	0.854	
======================================		63.	 781 Durbin			
Prob(Omnibus): 121.955		0.	000 Jarque	Jarque-Bera (JB):		
5kew: 3.30e-27		0.	880 Prob(J	Prob(JB):		
Kurtosis: 9.69		5.	036 Cond.	Cond. No.		

```
Notes:
[1] Standard Errors assume that the covariance matrix of the errors is
correctly specified.
# Extract coefficients and confidence intervals
err series = lin reg.params - lin reg.conf int()[0]
coef df = pd.DataFrame({
    'coef': pd.to numeric(lin reg.params.values[1:], errors='coerce'),
    'err': pd.to numeric(err series.values[1:], errors='coerce'),
    'varname': err series.index.values[1:]
})
# Visualize the coefficients and confidence intervals
fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(10, 6))
ax.barh(coef df['varname'], coef df['coef'], xerr=coef df['err'],
color='none', edgecolor=None)
ax.scatter(y=coef_df['varname'], x=coef_df['coef'], marker='s', s=10,
color='black')
ax.axvline(x=0, linestyle='--', color='black', linewidth=1)
ax.set xlabel('Coefficient Value')
ax.set ylabel('')
ax.grid(True)
plt.tight layout()
```



Analyse the surrogate model's effectiveness and discuss when such approximations are helpful.

The surrogate model, represented by a linear regression trained on the predictions of the neural network, demonstrates strong performance, with an R-squared value of 0.865. This suggests that 86.5% of the variance in the neural network's predictions (NN_labels) is captured by the linear regression model. The feature coefficients provide interpretable insights into the relationships between predictors and predictions, which are visualized in the coefficient plot. For example, LSTAT (percentage of lower-status population) shows the strongest negative relationship with a coefficient of -3.21, while RM (average number of rooms per dwelling) exhibits the strongest positive relationship with a coefficient of 3.54. These findings are consistent with prior domain knowledge, further validating the surrogate model's ability to approximate the behavior of the original neural network.

However, it is essential to recognize the limitations of such approximations, particularly in the context of these results. While the linear regression surrogate successfully captures the general trends of the neural network, it may oversimplify complex nonlinear interactions or dependencies between features. For instance, the neural network may model intricate relationships between features like NOX (nitric oxide concentration) and DIS (distance to employment centers) that are not reflected in the linear coefficients. This potential oversimplification becomes evident when considering features with weaker coefficients, such as INDUS (proportion of non-retail business acres) or ZN (proportion of residential land zoned for large lots). The neural network might account for interactions or nonlinearities involving these features, but the surrogate model reduces them to linear, independent contributions.

The visualized coefficients further support this observation. Features like PTRATIO (pupil-teacher ratio) and TAX (property tax rate), which have significant but modest coefficients, might have interactions with other variables that the linear model cannot capture. This limitation underscores the risk of misinterpretation if the surrogate model is used as the sole explanation of the neural network's behavior. For example, while CHAS (proximity to the Charles River) has a positive coefficient in the surrogate model, its influence in the neural network may be conditional on other features, such as RM or DIS.

In conclusion, surrogate models like the linear regression used here are valuable for enhancing interpretability while preserving much of the predictive power of the original model. They are particularly effective in distilling insights from complex models into an accessible form, as seen with the clear contributions of LSTAT and RM to predictions. However, these approximations come with trade-offs. Care must be taken to communicate that the linear regression model provides a simplified view of the neural network's behavior, and its insights should be complemented with other interpretability techniques to ensure a more comprehensive understanding of the model's decision-making process.