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# Explaining ML predictions with SHAP

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## Abstract

As machine learning models become increasingly accurate and complex, explainability has become essential to ensure trust, transparency, and informed decision-making. SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP) provide a rigorous and intuitive approach for interpreting model predictions, delivering consistent and theoretically grounded feature attributions. This article demonstrates the application of SHAP across two representative model types: boosted decision trees and neural networks.

We utilize the UCI Adult Income dataset with an XGBoost model to predict if a client will subscribe to a term deposit in a bank and the Human Activity Recognition Using Smartphones dataset with a convolutional neural network (CNN) to classify activities (e.g., walking, sitting) based on sensor data. The paper concludes with a discussion of SHAP's practical utility, strengths, and limitations, guiding readers on effective usage in real-world scenarios.

**Keywords** explainable AI, Shapley values

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Machine Learning models have advanced to the point where they are being used in high-stakes decision-making processes. Finance, healthcare and technology are just a few examples of industries that are using machine learning to make decisions that affect people's lives. However, the increase in performance of these models have come at the cost of interpretability. This is especially true for models with complex architectures such as deep neural networks.

In the industry, model decisions can influence loan approvals, medical diagnoses or hiring decisions. Therefore, an inability to explain why a model produced a certain output can hinder adoption, erode user trust and raise ethical or compliance concerns. Deep neural networks and Large Language Models (LLMs) despite being powerful tools, are often treated as black boxes.

SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP [1]) is one such explainability method that aims to make models more interpretable. It uses a game-theoretic approach that provides a way to interpret the predictions of any machine learning model. SHAP provides a mechanism to understand the contribution of each feature to the prediction of a model. It provides different levels of interpretability ranging from a global view of the model to local explanations for individual predictions.

In this article, we demonstrate how SHAP can be used to interpret two classes of models that are especially common in industry:

- **Gradient Boosted Decision Trees (GBDTs)**, which are widely used for structured tabular data due to their strong performance and relative robustness
- **Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)**, which are popular in domains like image and sensor data where spatial relationships matter.

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We illustrate the use of SHAP with two representative datasets:

- The Bank Marketing dataset [2] for the GBDT model, where the task is to predict whether a customer will subscribe to a term deposit based on demographic and interaction data.
- The Human Activity Recognition Using Smartphones dataset [3] for the CNN model, where the goal is to classify 6 different physical activities from time-series sensor data collected from mobile devices.

Through these use cases, we will demonstrate the application of SHAP to two different model types and data modalities. Finally, we will discuss the practical utility, strengths, and limitations of SHAP, and provide guidelines for its effective use in real-world scenarios.

## 2. CORE CONCEPTS

In this section, we shall briefly go over the key concepts necessary to understand the approach of SHAP, and its application to neural networks and GBDTs.

### 2.1. Shapley Values

Shapley values, originating from cooperative game theory, were introduced by Lloyd Shapley [4]. They provide a consistent method to fairly distribute credit or reward among players in a cooperative game. In the context of machine learning, each “player” corresponds to a feature, and the “game” is the prediction task. The Shapley value for a feature quantifies its average marginal contribution to the prediction across all possible coalitions of features.

Formally, the Shapley value for a feature  $i$  is defined as:

$$\phi_i = \sum_{S \subseteq N \setminus \{i\}} \frac{|S|! (|N| - |S| - 1)!}{|N|!} \left[ f_{S \cup \{i\}}(x_{S \cup \{i\}}) - f_S(x_S) \right] \quad (1)$$

where

- $N$  is the set of all features
- $S$  is a subset of features excluding feature  $i$
- $f_S$  is the model’s prediction function when only the features in  $S$  are used
- $x_S$  is the input vector with only the features in  $S$ .

### 2.2. SHAP Values

SHAP values as introduced by Lundberg and Lee [1] are a specific implementation of Shapley values to explain predictions from machine learning models. It defines the SHAP values as a linear model of feature contributions [5].

The SHAP explanation model  $g$  is defined as:

$$g(z) = \phi_0 + \sum_{i=1}^M \phi_i(i) z_i \quad (2)$$

where

- $z_i$  is a binary coalition variable indicating whether feature  $i$  is present (1) or absent (0)
- $\phi_i(i)$  is the SHAP value for feature  $i$  when it is present
- $\phi_0$  is the baseline prediction
- $M$  is the number of features

For a specific input  $x$ , the above equation simplifies to:

$$g(x) = \phi_0 + \sum_{i=1}^M \phi_i(x) \quad (3)$$

where

- $\phi_0$  is the baseline prediction, typically the mean prediction over the dataset
- $\phi_i(x)$  is the SHAP value for feature  $i$  for input  $x$
- $M$  is the number of features

### 2.3. Estimation of SHAP Values

The exact calculation of SHAP values is computationally infeasible for most models due to the combinatorial nature of the Shapley value formula. The computational complexity is  $O(2^M)$ , where  $M$  is the number of features. Therefore, various approximation methods are used to estimate the SHAP values, each tailored to different model types.

- **Kernel SHAP:** Uses a weighted linear regression to approximate shap values for arbitrary models. Although it is applicable to any model type, it can be computationally expensive for large datasets.
- **Tree SHAP:** This method [6] is specifically designed for tree-based models such as decision trees, random forests, and gradient boosted decision trees. It exploits the hierarchical structure of decision trees to efficiently compute SHAP values [7].
- **Deep SHAP:** Approximation method that uses a modified version of the DeepLIFT method [8] to estimate SHAP values for deep neural networks including CNNs. It leverages backpropagation to efficiently compute feature attributions.

In this paper, using the `shap` Python library, we will specifically employ Tree SHAP for GBDTs and Deep SHAP for CNNs.

## 3. SHAP FOR DECISION TREES

Gradient Boosted Decision Trees (GBDTs) [9], [10], [11] are powerful, robust and interpretable models that are widely used in the industry. They are highly effective for structured tabular data, and can handle both numerical and categorical features in a seamless manner. GBDTs in general are interpretable models, and can be interpreted by analyzing the nodes and splits in the decision trees. However, as the complexity of the model as well as the number of features increases, it becomes more valuable to use a more principled approach like SHAP for interpretation.

### 3.1. Dataset

The Bank Marketing dataset [2] contains information about direct marketing campaigns (phone calls) of a Portuguese banking institution. It contains customer demographic information, financial details and interaction history. The goal is to predict whether a customer will subscribe to a term deposit [12]. The dataset is available on the UCI Machine Learning Repository.

The key details of the dataset are:

- **Number of samples:** 45,211
- **Number of features in the dataset:** 16
  - Number of features used in the model: 15
  - Removed feature: duration (in seconds)
- **Number of classes:** 2 (yes: 1, no: 0)
  - yes: the client will subscribe to a term deposit
  - no: the client will not subscribe to a term deposit

```
import pandas as pd
from ucimlrepo import fetch_ucimlrepo

bank_marketing_ds = fetch_ucimlrepo(id=222)

x_df: pd.DataFrame = bank_marketing_ds.data.features
y_df: pd.DataFrame = bank_marketing_ds.data.targets
```

**Program 1.** *Downloading the Bank Marketing dataset*

```
# x_df is the dataframe containing the features
# Convert all columns to categorical type
for col in x_df.columns:
    x_df[col] = pd.Categorical(x_df[col])
```

**Program 2.** *Converting categorical features to pandas categorical data type*

- **Objective:** Binary classification

Note that the duration feature is removed from the model training since it is not available before the call is made, and hence cannot be used for prediction. Moreover, it is highly correlated with the target variable.

The dataset can be downloaded from the UCI Machine Learning Repository using the ucimlrepo Python library.

### 3.2. Model

We use an XGBoost [10] model to predict whether a customer will subscribe to a term deposit or not. Specifically, we follow the following steps to train the model:

- Convert the categorical features into pandas [13], [14] categorical data type
- Split the dataset into train and test sets
  - 80% for training and 20% for testing with random shuffling using scikit-learn [15], [16]
- Train an XGBoost model on the train set
  - Use default hyperparameters
  - Use categorical features using the enable\_categorical parameter
- Evaluate the model on the test set

```
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

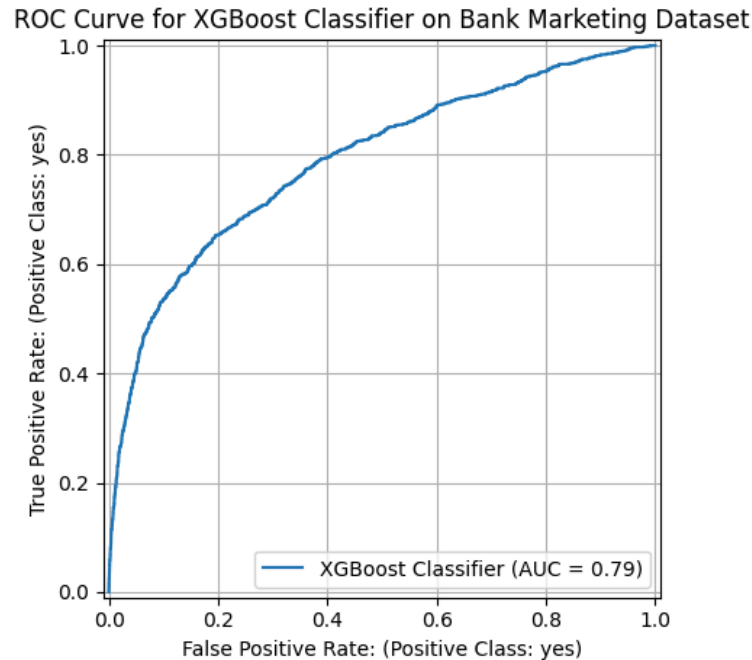
x_train, x_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(
    x_df, y_df, test_size=0.2, random_state=42
)
```

**Program 3.** *Splitting the dataset into train and test sets*

```
from xgboost import XGBClassifier

xgb_model = XGBClassifier(
    enable_categorical=True,
    objective="binary:logistic",
    seed=42
)
xgb_model.fit(x_train, y_train)
```

**Program 4.** *Training an XGBoost model*



**Figure 1.** Performance of the XGBoost model on the test set.

Note that we do not perform any feature engineering or hyperparameter tuning in this example, since the goal is to demonstrate the use of SHAP for interpretation rather than building a high-performing model.

The performance of the model on the test set is shown in [Figure 1](#).

### 3.3. SHAP Explanations

We use the `shap` Python library [7] to compute the SHAP values for the XGBoost model.

#### 3.3.1. Global

The global explanations provide a high-level summary of the model's behavior. They are useful for understanding the overall impact of each feature on the model's predictions.

The `shap` library provides a number of plotting functions to visualize the SHAP values. The code below uses the `beeswarm` plot to visualize the global SHAP values.

Note that in the [Figure 2](#), the features are ordered by their mean absolute SHAP values in descending order. The x-axis shows the SHAP values, and the y-axis shows the features. Each point represents a sample from the test set.

For numerical features (e.g., age and balance), the dots are color-coded based on the feature values—red signifies high values, and blue denotes low values. This color gradient helps

```
import shap

# xgb_model is the trained XGBoost model
# x_test is the test set

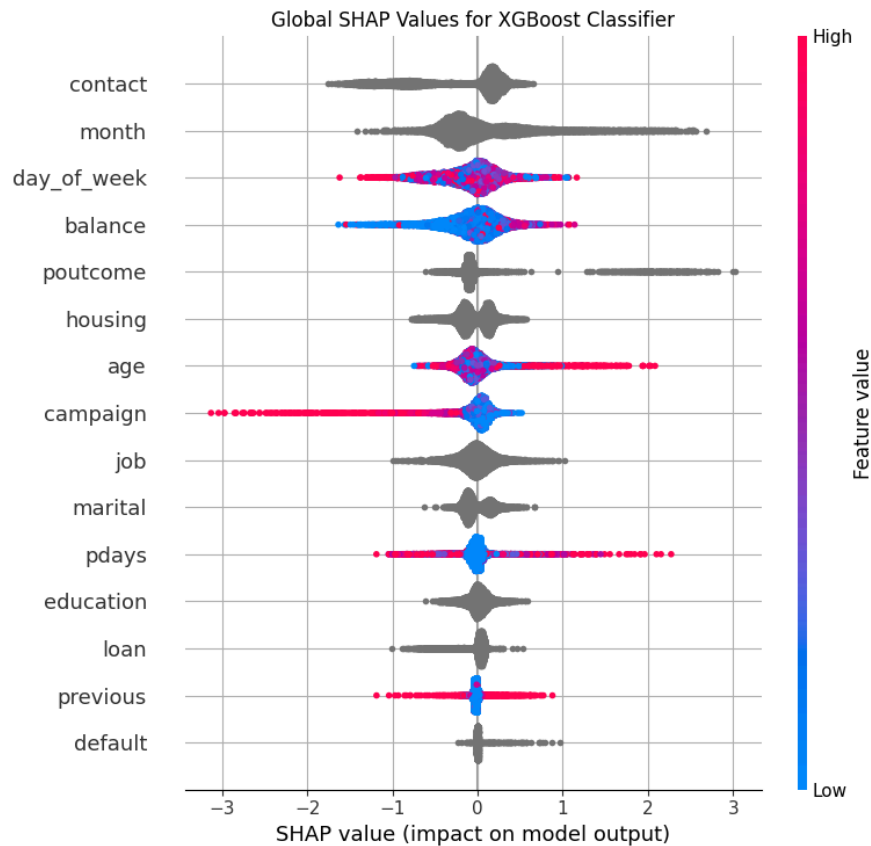
explainer = shap.TreeExplainer(xgb_model)
shap_values = explainer.shap_values(x_test)
```

**Program 5.** Computing SHAP values for the XGBoost model

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

ax = plt.subplot()
ax.grid(True)
ax = shap.plots.beeswarm(shap_values, max_display=16, show=False, log_scale=False)
ax.set_title("Global SHAP Values for XGBoost Classifier")
plt.tight_layout()
```

**Program 6.** Computing global SHAP values for the XGBoost model



**Figure 2.** Global SHAP values for the XGBoost model on the Bank Marketing dataset.

visualize the relationship between the actual feature values and their contribution to predictions. For categorical features (e.g., marital and job), dots are typically displayed in gray because categorical variables do not have a natural ordering. Here, the focus is primarily on their SHAP value distribution rather than the specific category value.

The X-axis of the beeswarm plot represents SHAP values, which quantify the impact each feature has on the model's predictions. A positive SHAP value indicates that the feature pushes the model's prediction higher i.e. towards the positive class (yes), while a negative SHAP value implies the feature reduces the model's predicted value, i.e. towards the negative class (no). The distance from the center (zero) indicates the magnitude of this impact. The further away a point is from zero, the stronger the feature's influence on that specific prediction.

Thus, features with wide distributions across the X-axis have substantial variation in their impact on different instances, while features tightly clustered near zero exert relatively minor influence on the predictions.

In terms of insights, the beeswarm plot [Figure 2](#) shows some interesting observations. For example, customers with more balance (balance feature) in their account are more likely to subscribe to a term deposit. On the other hand, customers who have been contacted more frequently in the current campaign (campaign feature) are less likely to subscribe to a term deposit. However, the plot is not able to convey a deeper insight into the top categorical features and how they affect the model's predictions. For that, we need to look at the dependency plots.

### 3.3.2. Dependency

The dependency plots show the relationship between a feature and the model's predictions. They are useful for understanding how the model uses a particular feature to make predictions.

The code block below defines a function to plot the dependency plot for a categorical feature.

The dependency plot for the categorical feature `contact` can be plotted as:

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import shap

def plot_shap_categorical(
    shap_values: shap.Explanation,
    x: pd.DataFrame,
    feature_name: str
) -> plt.Axes:

    # Extract SHAP values and feature values
    feature_idx = x.columns.tolist().index(feature_name)
    feature_values = x.iloc[:, feature_idx]
    shap_values_feature = shap_values[:, feature_idx].values

    # Map categories to numeric values for plotting
    categories = feature_values.unique()
    category_to_num = {cat: num for num, cat in enumerate(categories)}
    feature_values_numeric = feature_values.map(category_to_num)

    # Create scatter plot with categories on x-axis
    _, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(10, 6))
    ax.scatter(
        feature_values_numeric,
        shap_values_feature,
        alpha=0.7,
        s=120,
    )

    # Replace numeric x-ticks with category labels
    ax.set_xticks(
        ticks=np.arange(len(categories)), labels=categories, rotation=45, fontsize=12
    )

    # Reference line at y=0
    ax.axhline(y=0, color="gray", linestyle="--")

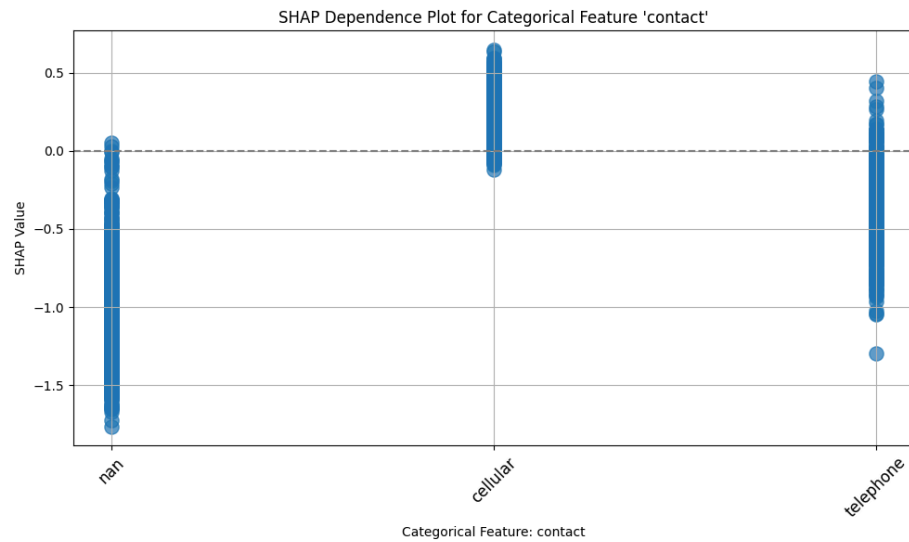
    # Labels and title
    ax.grid(True)
    ax.set_xlabel(f"Categorical Feature: {feature_name}")
    ax.set_ylabel("SHAP Value")
    ax.set_title(f"SHAP Dependence Plot for Categorical Feature '{feature_name}'")

    plt.tight_layout()
    return ax
```

**Program 7.** Computing categorical dependency plots

```
ax = plot_shap_categorical(shap_values, x_test, "contact")
```

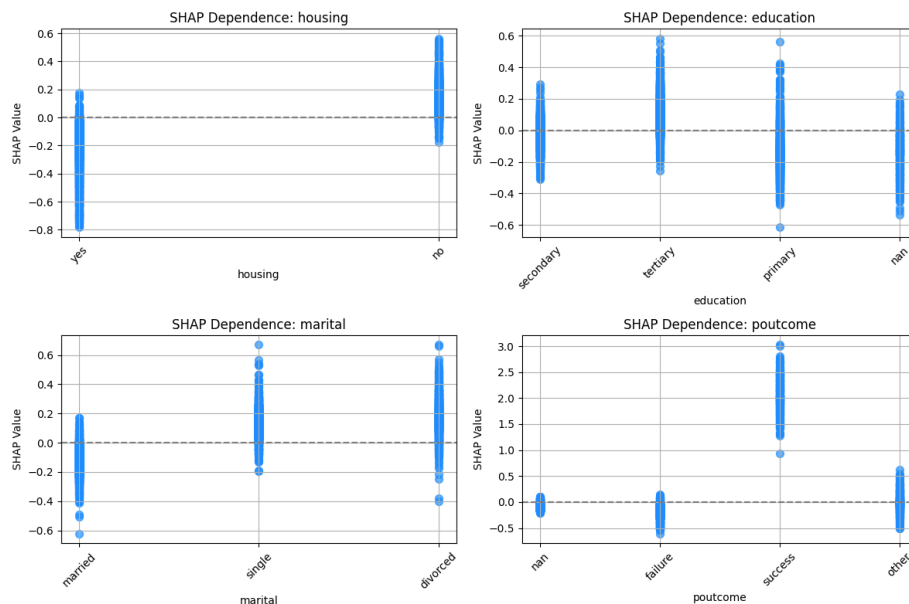
**Program 8.** Plotting the dependency plot for the categorical feature *contact*



**Figure 3.** SHAP dependency plot for the categorical feature *contact* on the Bank Marketing dataset.

The X-axis of the categorical dependency plot represents the categories of the feature, while the y-axis represents the SHAP values. Similar to the beeswarm plot, the positive SHAP values indicate that the feature pushes the model's prediction higher (towards the positive/yes class), while the negative SHAP values imply the feature reduces the model's predicted value (towards the negative/no class).

The Figure 3 shows that the *contact* feature has a considerable impact on the model's predictions. Customers who were contacted via cellular (*cellular*) are more likely to subscribe to a term deposit than those who were contacted via telephone (*telephone*).



**Figure 4.** SHAP dependency plot for some of the other categorical features.



The [Figure 4](#) shows the dependency plots for some of the other categorical features. On the top left, we see the dependency plot for the `housing` feature. Interestingly, customers who have a housing loan (`yes`) are less likely to subscribe to a term deposit than those who do not have a housing loan (`no`). On the bottom right, we see the dependency plot for the feature `poutcome`, which represents the outcome of the previous marketing campaign. Customers who were previously contacted and the outcome was a `success` are more likely to subscribe to a term deposit than those who were previously contacted and the outcome was a `failure`.

## 4. SHAP FOR CNNs

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are a powerful class of deep learning models particularly well-suited for tasks involving spatial or temporal data, such as image recognition, speech recognition, and time-series classification. CNNs leverage convolutional operations and hierarchical feature extraction to capture intricate patterns within data, making them exceptionally effective for complex datasets [17], [18].

However, despite being so effective, CNNs as with most deep learning models, are often treated as black boxes. In this section, we will demonstrate how SHAP can be used to interpret the predictions of a one-dimensional CNN model.

### 4.1. Dataset

The Human Activity Recognition Using Smartphones dataset [3] contains sensor data collected from a smartphone. The data has been collected from a group of 30 volunteers within the age group of 19-48 years. The goal is to classify 6 different physical activities from multivariate timeseries sensor data.

The key details of the dataset are:

- **Data type:** Multivariate timeseries
- **Number of training samples:** 7352
- **Number of testing samples:** 2947
- **Number of features in the dataset:** 563
- **Feature types:** Numeric
- **Number of classes:** 6
  - Walking
  - Walking Upstairs
  - Walking Downstairs
  - Sitting
  - Standing
  - Laying
- **Objective:** Multi-class classification

### 4.2. Model

For this task, we are going to be constructing a 1D convolutional network using PyTorch [19]. Prior to model training, we need to perform some important preprocessing steps.

#### 4.2.1. Preprocessing

1. Scale the data so that data is centered around zero mean and a unit variance.
1. Create sliding window sequences

```

from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler

scaler = StandardScaler()
x_train = scaler.fit_transform(x_train)
x_test = scaler.transform(x_test)

# Zero indexing for the labels
y_train = y_train["label"].apply(lambda x: x - 1)
y_test = y_test["label"].apply(lambda x: x - 1)

```

**Program 9.** Data scaling

```

from torch import Tensor

# Convert to PyTorch tensors
x_train = torch.from_numpy(x_train.to_numpy()).float()
y_train = torch.from_numpy(y_train.to_numpy()).float()
x_test = torch.from_numpy(x_test.to_numpy()).float()
y_test = torch.from_numpy(y_test.to_numpy()).float()

def create_sequences(
    data: Tensor, labels: Tensor, seq_length: int = 64
) -> tuple[Tensor, Tensor]:
    """Create sequences from the data and labels."""

    sequences = []
    labels_seq = []
    for i in range(len(data) - seq_length):
        sequences.append(data[i : i + seq_length])
        labels_seq.append(labels[i + seq_length])
    x_seq, y_seq = torch.stack(sequences), torch.stack(labels_seq)
    return x_seq.permute(0, 2, 1), y_seq

SEQ_LENGTH = 64
x_train_seq, y_train_seq = create_sequences(x_train, y_train, seq_length=SEQ_LENGTH)
x_test_seq, y_test_seq = create_sequences(x_test, y_test, seq_length=SEQ_LENGTH)

```

**Program 10.** Creating sliding window sequences

#### 4.2.2. Model Definition

Since we are focused on demonstrating the use of SHAP for interpretation, we are going to skip fine-tuning the model for optimal performance. Instead, we are going to use 2 layer CNN architecture with a full connected layer at the end for classification.

The following code block defines the CNN model class.

#### 4.2.3. Training

1. Define training parameters
1. Create data loaders
1. Train the model

#### 4.2.4. Evaluate performance

The performance of the model on the test set is shown below.

Class	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Support
Walking	0.96	0.94	0.95	496
Walking Upstairs	0.94	0.93	0.93	471
Walking Downstairs	0.92	0.88	0.90	420

```

import torch
import torch.nn as nn

class CNNClassifier(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, input_dim: int, num_classes: int = 6):
        super().__init__()
        self.layer1 = nn.Sequential(
            nn.Conv1d(input_dim, 32, kernel_size=3, stride=2, padding=1),
            nn.Tanh(),
        )
        self.layer2 = nn.Sequential(
            nn.Conv1d(32, 16, kernel_size=3, stride=2, padding=1),
            nn.Tanh(),
        )
        self.fc = nn.Linear(256, num_classes)

    def forward(self, x: torch.Tensor) -> torch.Tensor:
        x = self.layer1(x)
        x = self.layer2(x)
        x = x.view(x.size(0), -1)
        x = self.fc(x)
        return x

model = CNNClassifier(input_dim=x_train_seq.shape[1], num_classes=6)

```

**Program 11.** *Defining the CNN model class*

```

NUM_EPOCHS = 50
BATCH_SIZE = 32
LEARNING_RATE = 1e-3

criterion = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=LEARNING_RATE)

```

**Program 12.** *Defining training parameters*

Sitting	0.86	0.83	0.85	467
---------	------	------	------	-----

```

from torch.utils.data import DataLoader, TensorDataset

train_ds = TensorDataset(x_train_seq, y_train_seq.long().squeeze())
test_ds = TensorDataset(x_test_seq, y_test_seq.long().squeeze())

# Avoid shuffling since we are using a time series dataset
train_loader = DataLoader(train_ds, batch_size=batch_size, shuffle=False)
test_loader = DataLoader(test_ds, batch_size=batch_size, shuffle=False)

```

**Program 13.** *Creating data loaders*

```

for epoch in range(NUM_EPOCHS):
    model.train()
    epoch_loss = 0.0

    for inputs, labels in train_loader:
        optimizer.zero_grad()
        outputs = model(inputs)

        loss = criterion(outputs, labels)
        loss.backward()

        optimizer.step()
        epoch_loss += loss.item()

    avg_loss = epoch_loss / len(train_loader)
    print(f"Epoch [{epoch}/{num_epochs}], Loss: {avg_loss:.5f}")

```

**Program 14.** *Training the CNN model*

Standing	0.83	0.92	0.87	501
Laying	0.95	0.94	0.94	528
<b>Accuracy</b>			<b>0.91</b>	<b>2883</b>
<b>Macro Avg</b>	0.91	0.91	0.91	2883
<b>Weighted Avg</b>	0.91	0.91	0.91	2883

### 4.3. SHAP Explanations

In this section, we will explore how SHAP can be used to interpret the predictions of the CNN model.

The DeepExplainer class requires a background dataset for approximating the conditional expectations of the SHAP values. However, since the complexity of the method scales linearly with the number of background data samples passing in a balanced subset of data is needed. Our dataset has 6 target classes, hence it is important to have a good representation for each class.

```
RNG = np.random.default_rng(42)

def create_balanced_background(
    x_data: torch.Tensor, y_data: torch.Tensor, n_per_class: int = 20
) -> tuple[torch.Tensor, torch.Tensor]:
    """
    Create a balanced background dataset with equal representation from each class.

    Parameters:
    -----
    x_data : torch.Tensor
        Input features
    y_data : torch.Tensor
        Target labels
    n_per_class : int
        Number of samples to include per class

    Returns:
    -----
    torch.Tensor
        Balanced background dataset
    """
    y_np = y_data.detach().cpu().numpy()
    balanced_indices = []

    for cls in np.arange(NUM_CLASSES):
        cls_indices = np.where(y_np == cls)[0]
        if len(cls_indices) >= n_per_class:
            # If we have enough samples, randomly select n_per_class
            selected_indices = RNG.choice(cls_indices, n_per_class, replace=False)
            # selected_indices = np.random.choice(cls_indices, n_per_class, replace=False)
        else:
            # If not enough samples, use all available with replacement
            selected_indices = RNG.choice(cls_indices, n_per_class, replace=True)
            print(
                f"Warning: Class {cls} has only {len(cls_indices)} samples, using with replacement"
            )
        balanced_indices.extend(selected_indices)

    np.random.shuffle(balanced_indices)
    return x_data[balanced_indices], y_data[balanced_indices]

background_data, background_labels = create_balanced_background(
    x_train_seq, y_train_seq, n_per_class=20
)
```

**Program 15.** *Creating a balanced background dataset*

```
import shap

# Limit the number of samples for faster computation
MAX_SAMPLES = 1000

explainer = shap.DeepExplainer(model, background_data)
shap_values = explainer.shap_values(x_test_seq[:MAX_SAMPLES])

# shap_values shape: (MAX_SAMPLES, num_features, SEQ_LENGTH, num_classes)

# get the value for the last time step
feature_importances = shap_values[:, :, -1, :]
```

**Program 16.** Computing SHAP values for the CNN model

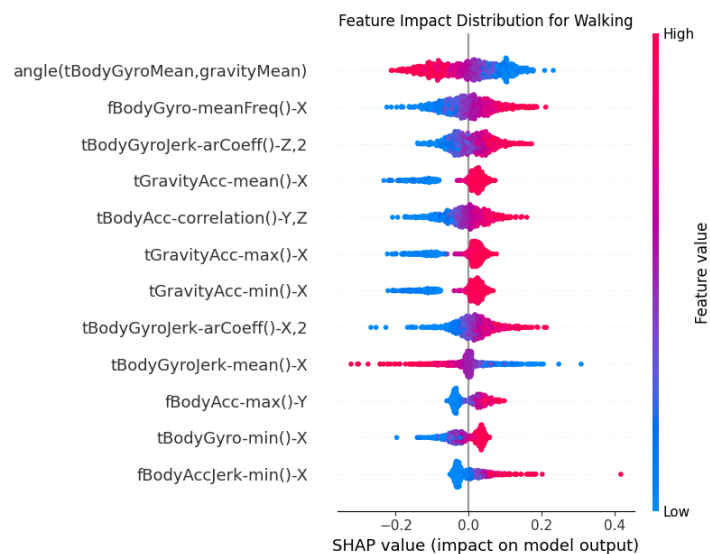
The next step is to calculate the shap values for the subset of the test set or for the entire test set.

#### 4.3.1. Global

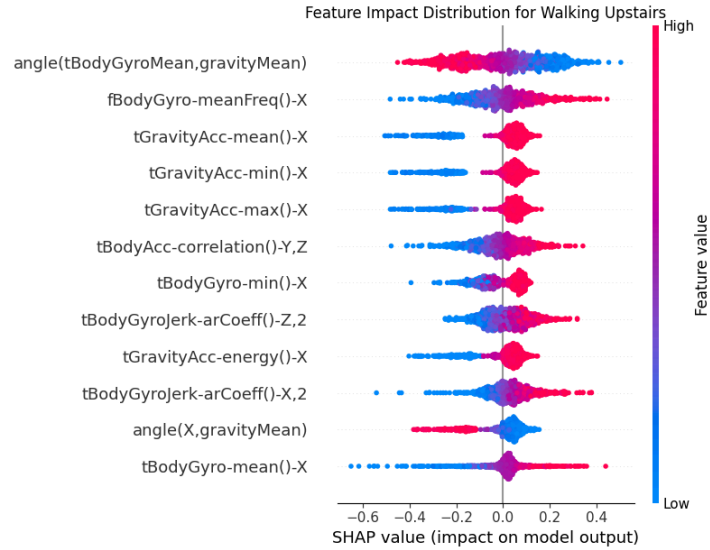
Since this is a multiclass classification problem, we will look at the global SHAP values for each class separately in a one-vs-all fashion. For the beeswarm plots below, the positive SHAP values indicate that the feature pushes the model's prediction towards the positive class (the class in question), while the negative SHAP values imply the feature reduces the model's predicted value towards the negative class (other classes).

#### Walking

From [Figure 5](#), we can see that the top feature for the walking class is `angle(tBodyGyroMean, gravityMean)`. The vectors `gravityMean` and `tBodyGyroMean` are obtained by averaging the signals in a signal window sample. The `angle()` function measures the angle between these two vectors. In the context of the walking class, low values of this feature (in blue) are more clustered towards the positive SHAP values. This implies that when a person is walking, the angle between the mean gyroscope signal and the mean gravity signal is smaller. Another important feature is `tBodyGyroJerk-arCoeff()-Z,2`, is the second autoregressive coefficient of the time-domain Z-axis gyroscope jerk signal which is the derivative of angular velocity. Autoregressive coefficients capture how a signal's current value relates to its previous



**Figure 5.** Global SHAP values for the CNN model for the walking class.

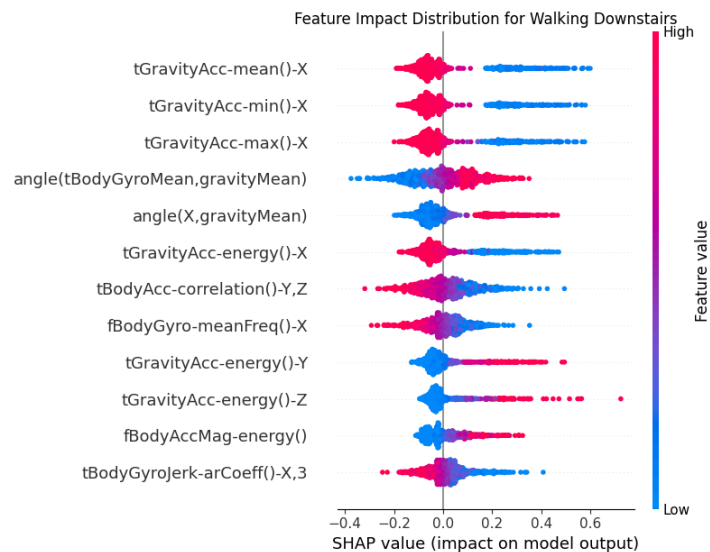


**Figure 6.** Global SHAP values for the CNN model for the Walking Upstairs class.

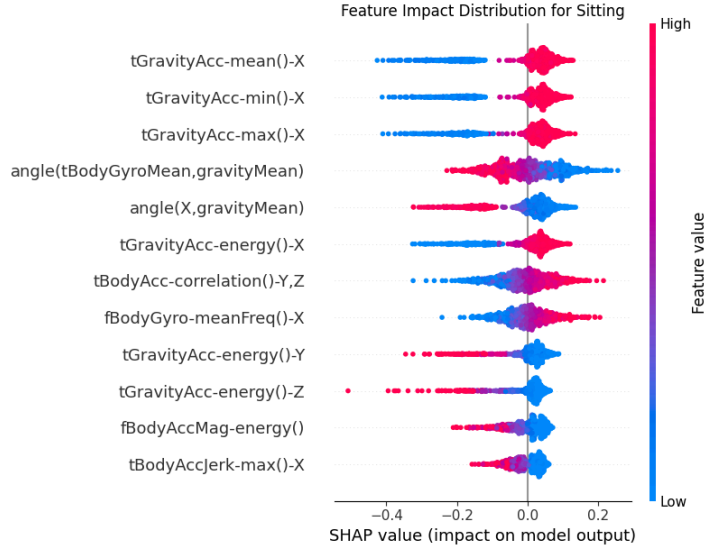
values. Higher values of this coefficient reflect smoother, more predictable rotation changes and are more likely to occur when a person is walking.

### Walking Upstairs

For the Walking Upstairs class as shown in Figure 6, the top features include tGravityAcc-mean()-X, tGravityAcc-min()-X, tGravityAcc-max()-X which are all related to the X component of the gravity acceleration. Lower values of these features (in blue) are more clustered towards the negative SHAP values. This implies that when a person is walking upstairs, the X component of the gravity acceleration is higher. Intuitively, when walking upstairs, people naturally lean into the slope, so the gravity vector has a strong component along the phone's X-axis.



**Figure 7.** Global SHAP values for the CNN model for the Walking Downstairs class.



**Figure 8.** Global SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Sitting* class.

### *Walking Downstairs*

For the *Walking Downstairs* class as shown in Figure 7, we see the opposite behavior for the `tGravityAcc-mean()-X`, `tGravityAcc-min()-X`, `tGravityAcc-max()-X` features. Higher values of these features (in orange) are more clustered towards the negative SHAP values. While descending stairs, the torso actually tilts backward instead of forward, so the gravity vector's projection onto the device's X-axis flips sign.

### *Sitting*

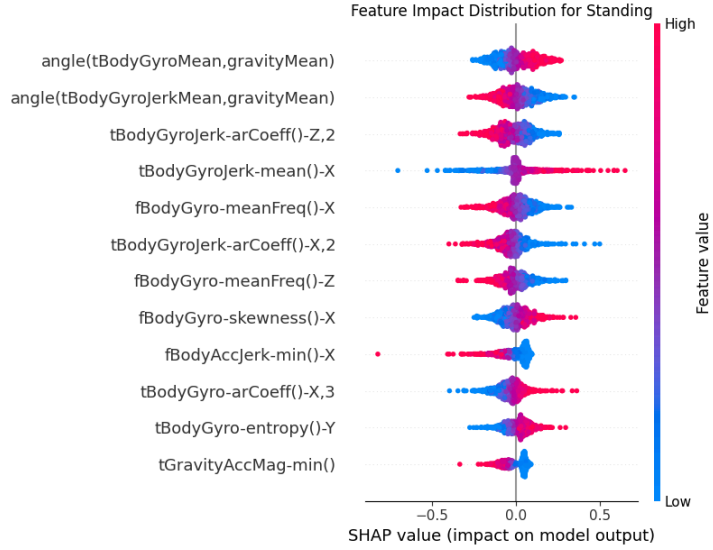
For the *Sitting* class, the main features are different from the other *Walking* related classes. As shown in Figure 8, the top feature is `angle(X, gravityMean)` which measures how much the device's X-axis is tilted relative to the average gravity vector. Low values (in blue) of this feature are more clustered towards the positive SHAP values. The intuition is that when a person is sitting, the attached device on the waist makes a smaller and consistent angle with the vertical compared to other activities, especially compared to when the person is laying down.

### *Standing*

In the above Figure 9, we can see that one of the top features for the *Standing* class is `tBodyGyroJerk-arCoeff()-Z,2`. As mentioned earlier, the autoregressive coefficients capture how a signal's current value relates to its previous values. Low values of this feature (in blue) are more clustered towards the positive SHAP values. This implies that for standing, the Z-axis gyroscope jerk signal is essentially flat. The higher-order coefficients (like the second one) collapse toward zero because past values have almost no bearing on the current value. This is in contrast to the *Walking* class Figure 5 where the gyroscope jerk signal is more dynamic and hence the second autoregressive coefficient is higher.

### *Laying*

For the *Laying* class, in Figure 10, the feature behaviors are very different to the other classes. The low values of the top feature `tGravityAcc-mean()-X`, `tGravityAcc-min()-X`, `tGravityAcc-max()-X` is much more distributed towards the positive SHAP values for the class. This is opposite to what we see in Figure 8 for the *Sitting* class. Similarly, the second feature



**Figure 9.** Global SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Standing* class.

angle(X, gravityMean) also shows a reversed behavior compared to the *Sitting* class. This contrast makes sense, since when a person is laying down, the attached device on the waist makes a larger angle with the vertical compared to when the person is sitting.

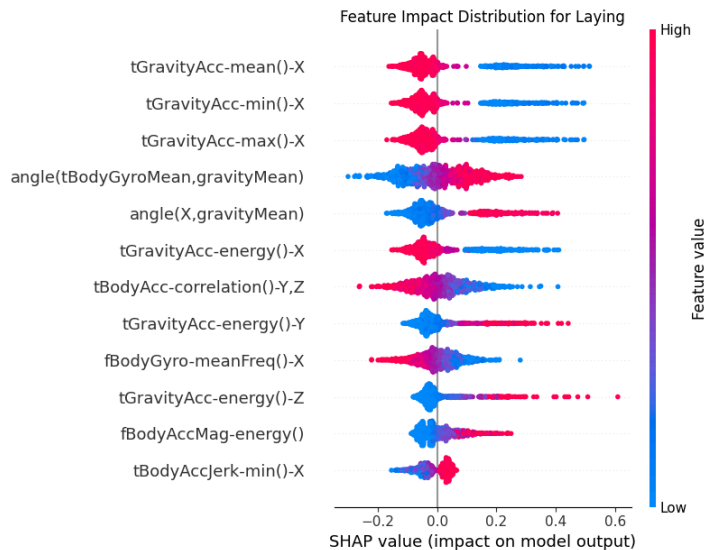
#### 4.3.2. Dependency

For this dataset, all the features are numerical, and hence we can plot the dependency plots directly. We shall look at the top 3 features for the classes *Walking*, *Sitting* and *Laying*.

#### 4.3.3. Local

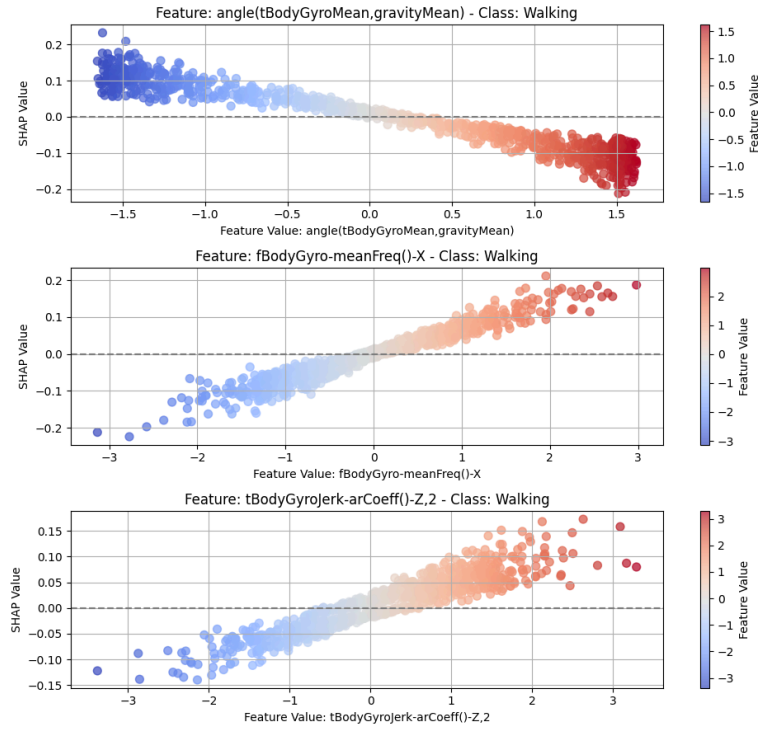
### 5. STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

SHAP is one of the prominent ways to explain ML model predictions. As with any other method, it has its own set of strengths and limitations.



**Figure 10.** Global SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Laying* class.

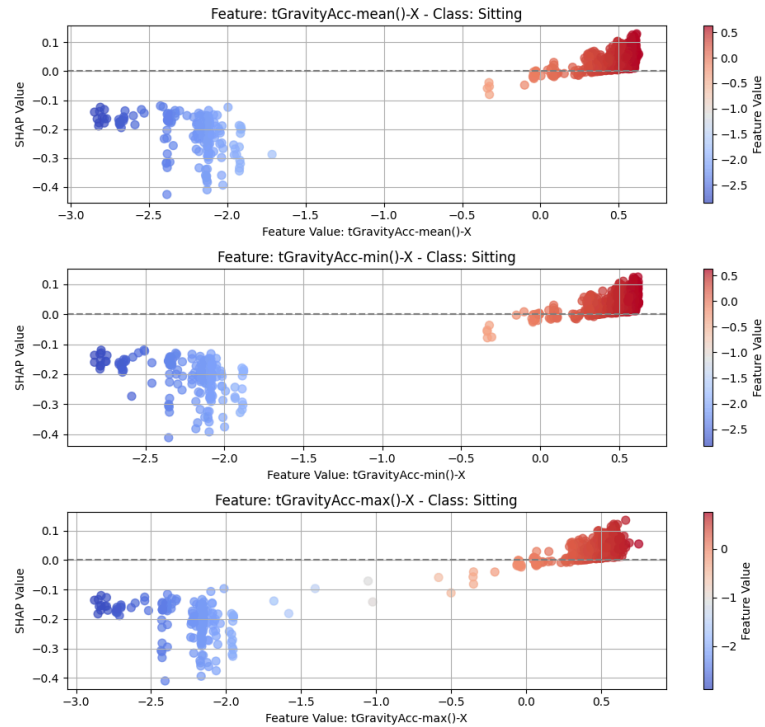




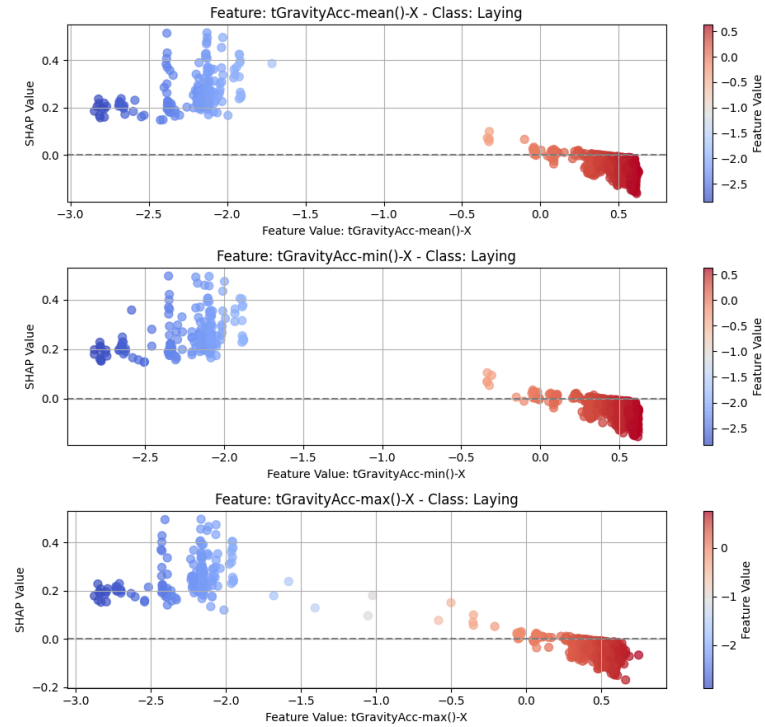
**Figure 11.** SHAP dependency plot for the CNN model for the Walking class.

### 5.1. Strengths

1. SHAP offers a consistent framework for interpreting model predictions, which has its roots from game theory. It is model agnostic and can be applied to any machine



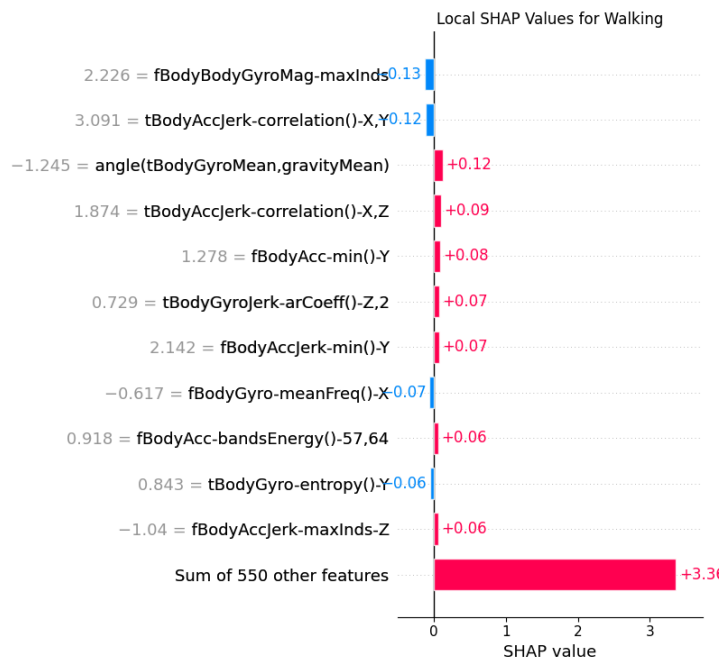
**Figure 12.** SHAP dependency plot for the CNN model for the Sitting class.



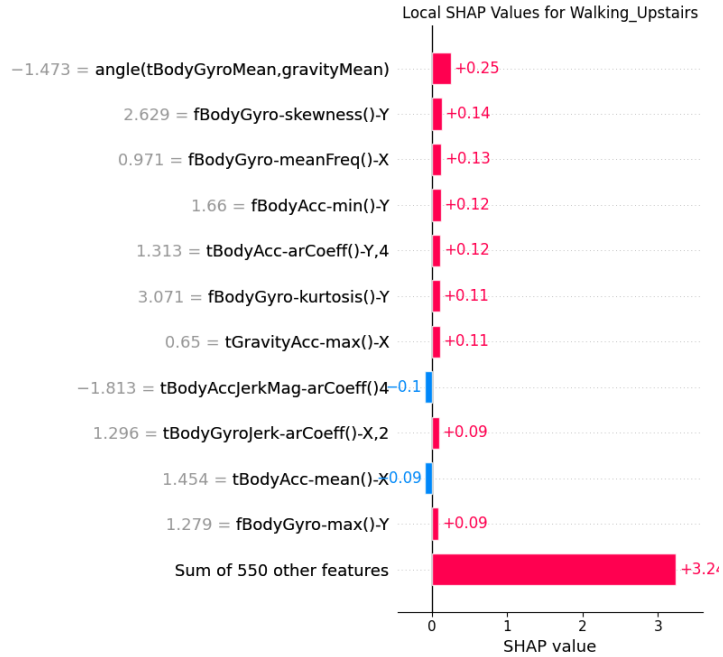
**Figure 13.** SHAP dependency plot for the CNN model for the *Laying* class.

learning model, whether it is a simple linear regression model, a decision tree or a deep neural network.

2. SHAP can explain predictions for both global and local interpretability. Global explanations provide a high-level summary of the model's behavior, while local explanations provide insights into the factors influencing individual predictions.

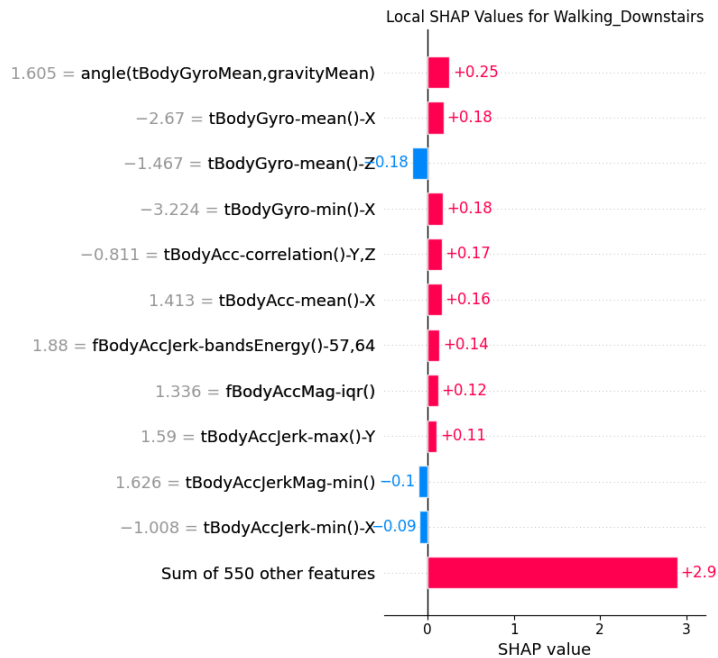


**Figure 14.** Local SHAP values for the CNN model for the *walking* class.

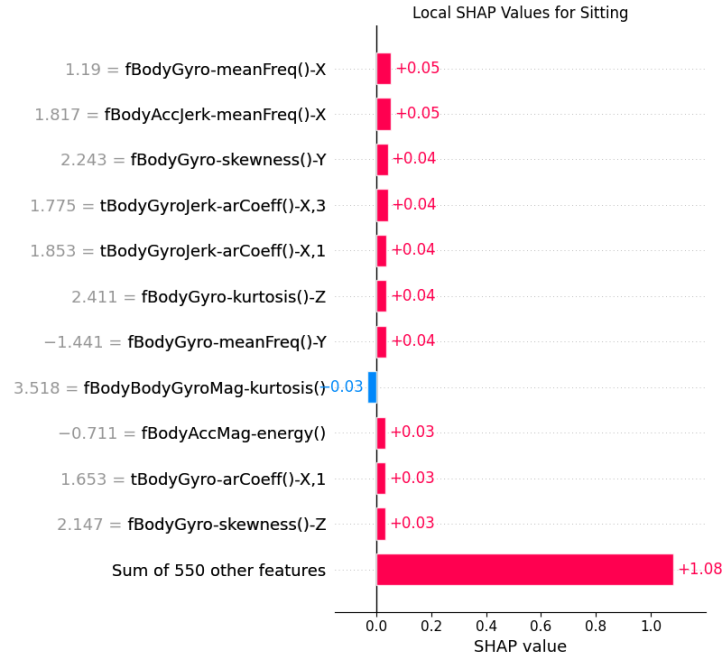


**Figure 15.** Local SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Walking Upstairs* class.

3. The python SHAP library provides a number of plotting functions, e.g. beeswarm, force, waterfall, etc. that enable users to visualize the SHAP values in a number of ways. They communicate the insights effectively to both technical and non-technical stakeholders.



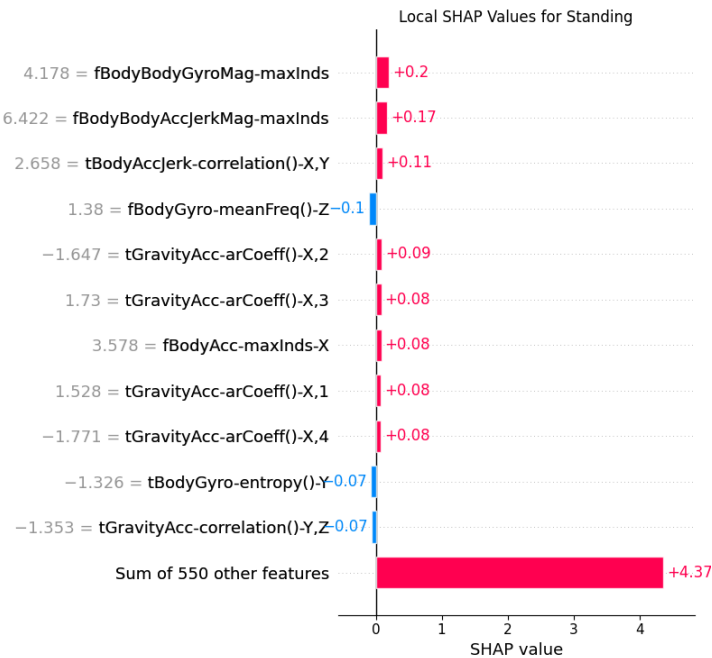
**Figure 16.** Local SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Walking Downstairs* class.



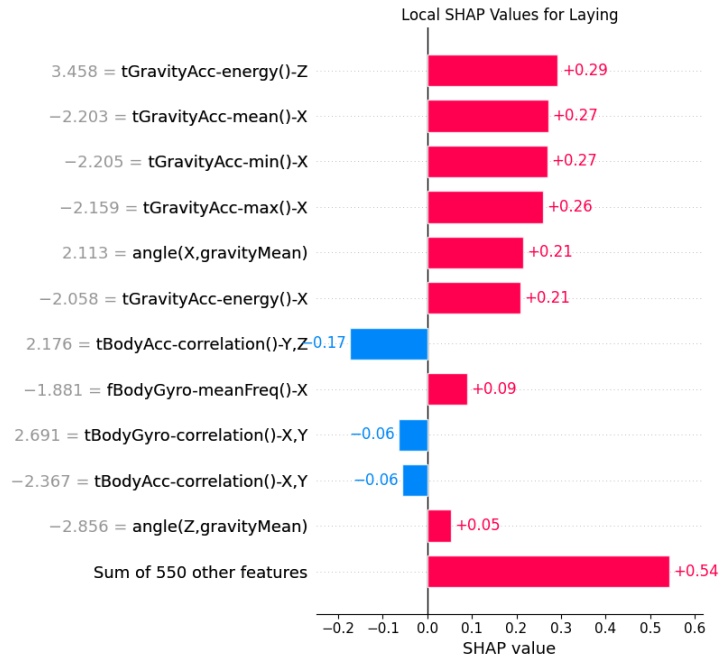
**Figure 17.** Local SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Sitting* class.

## 5.2. Limitations

1. Exact calculation of SHAP values becomes exponentially expensive with increasing feature counts. Specialized explainers e.g. TreeExplainer, GPU TreeExplainer [20], and DeepExplainer mitigate this but can still be resource-intensive for complex models or very large datasets.
2. SHAP values can be misleading when features are highly correlated, and may allocate credit arbitrarily among them. In such cases, the correct interpretation can



**Figure 18.** Local SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Standing* class.



**Figure 19.** Local SHAP values for the CNN model for the *Laying* class.

be complicated, and may require domain expertise or additional feature engineering.

- While SHAP values quantify the impact of features on model predictions, it is important to understand that they do not directly indicate causality.

## 6. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we demonstrated SHAP's practical application to two important classes of models: Gradient Boosted Decision Trees (GBDTs) and Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs). Our case studies highlighted how SHAP facilitates explanations for both structured and unstructured data on a global and local level. While SHAP effectively addresses many interpretability needs, users should be aware of challenges related to computational efficiency, correlated features, and the potential for over-interpretation.

Future work might focus on addressing these limitations, particularly through improved computational methods and strategies for handling feature correlations. Enhancing SHAP's usability further will contribute significantly to more transparent, reliable, and trusted machine learning applications in industry.

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