### Business 4720 - Class 19

### Interpretable Machine Learning - Explainable Al

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### This Class

#### What You Will Learn:

- Introduction to Interpetability and Explainability
- Model specific and Model agnostic methods
- Global explainability
- Local explainability

### Based On

Molnar, Christoph: Interpretable Machine Learning (2023) https://christophm.github.io/interpretable-ml-book/ (CC BY-NC-SA License)

Gareth James, Daniel Witten, Trevor Hastie and Robert Tibshirani: *An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R.* 2nd edition, corrected printing, June 2023. (ISLR2)

https://www.statlearning.com

Chapter 8

Kevin P. Murphy: *Probabilistic Machine Learning – An Introduction*. MIT Press 2022.

https://probml.github.io/pml-book/book1.html

Chapter 18



### Additional Materials

#### SciKit Learn

A machine learning framework for Python that also provides some interpretable ML functions.

https://scikit-learn.org/stable/user\_guide.html

#### LIME

A Python package to compute Local Interpretable Model Explanations (a local model-agnostic method).

https://github.com/marcotcr/lime

#### SHAP

A Python package to compute Shapley Additive Explanations (a local model-agnostic interpretation method).

https://shap.readthedocs.io/en/latest/



## Tools

#### Install required Python packages:

```
pip install statsmodels matplotlib scikit-learn \ \ \  PyALE lime shap
```



## Importance of Interpretability

# Human understanding of how the AI works and arrives at its results (decisions, predictions, . . . )

- Curiosity
- Human learning
- Human sensemaking of events and phenomena
- Knowledge extraction for scientific progress
- Safety and compliance assessment
- Reliability and robustness evaluation
- Identify knowledge limits
- Auditability
- Bias detection & ensuring fairness
- Trust and acceptance
- Debugging & failure analysis
- Legal obligations ("right to explanation")



## Model Interpretability

#### **Distinctions**

- ► Intrinsic ↔ Post-hoc
- ► Local ↔ Global



## Intrinsically Interpretable Models

Algorithm	Linear	Monotone	Interaction
Linear regression	Yes	Yes	No
Logistic regression	No	Yes	No
<b>Decision trees</b>	No	Some	Yes
RuleFit	Yes	No	Yes
Naive Bayes	No	Yes	No
k-NN	No	No	No

Source:

https://christophm.github.io/interpretable-ml-book/simple.html



## Linear Regression

### Using R:

```
# Load the bike rental data set
d <- read.csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/bike.csv')
# Perform the regression and summarize results
summary(lm(cnt~season+temp, data=d))</pre>
```

#### Results:

```
Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

(Intercept) 3151.02 169.35 18.606 < 2e-16 ***
seasonSPRING -494.15 163.28 -3.026 0.00256 **
seasonSUMMER -852.68 209.82 -4.064 5.35e-05 ***
seasonWINTER -1342.87 164.59 -8.159 1.49e-15 ***
temp 132.79 11.02 12.046 < 2e-16 ***
---
Residual standard error: 1433 on 726 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.4558, Adjusted R-squared: 0.4528
```

## Linear Regression

- Algorithmic transparency: The ordinary least squares loss function is clear and intuitive; provides optimality guarantees
- ▶ Coefficients β
  - An increase of one unit of a predictor increases the prediction by  $\beta$ , assuming all other predictors remain the same ("ceteris paribus")
  - Switching from the reference category (see "contrasts") to another category increases the prediction by  $\beta$ , assuming all other predictors remain the same ("ceteris paribus")
  - ► Intercept is the predicted value when all other predictors are 0. Is this reasonable?
- ► R<sup>2</sup> is the amount of explained variance; model weights should only be interpreted when R<sup>2</sup> reasonable size.
- ▶ **Relative feature importance** is given by the  $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})}$  statistic.



## Linear Regression

#### **Dimension reduction** to improve interpretability:

- ► Manual feature selection, e.g. based on effect size
- Automatic feature selection (forwards or backwards)
- Regression with PCA components
- ► Penalized regression with LASSO

Be aware of bias-variance trade-off with all of these.



## **Decision Trees**

## **Decision Tree Types**

- Regression trees
- Classification trees

### Strengths

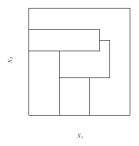
- Intrinsically interpretable and visualizable
- Individual predictions explained by path through tree
- Captures feature interactions
- No need to transform features

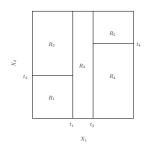
#### Weaknesses

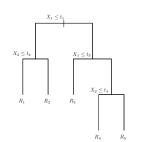
- Unstable (high variance)
- Tend to overfit
- Predictions are piecewise constant

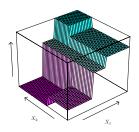


## Regression Trees









Source: ISLR2 Figure 8.3



## Regression Trees

- Recursively divide the predictor space into J distinct and non-overlapping regions  $R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_j$ 
  - For every predictor *j* and split point *s* define regions

$$R_1(j,s) = \{X | X_j < s\}$$
 and  $R_2(j,s) = \{X | X_j \ge s\}$ 

Choose j and s to minimize variance in each region:

$$\sum_{i:x_i \in R_1(j,s)} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_1})^2 + \sum_{i:x_i \in R_2(j,s)} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_2})^2$$

2 For every observation that falls into region  $R_j$ , prediction is the mean of the targets of training observations in  $R_j$ 

#### Prepare data:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import pandas as pd
d=pd.read_csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/bike.csv')
x=d[['temp', 'hum']]
y=d['cnt']
```

#### Fit unpruned tree:

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeRegressor
regr = DecisionTreeRegressor()
regr.fit(x, y)
```



#### Print the MSE:

```
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
mean_squared_error(regr.predict(x), y)
```

#### Print the tree:

```
from sklearn.tree import export_text
print (export_text(regr,feature_names=x.columns))
```



Early stopping can prevent overfitting and maintain interpretability.

#### Maximum depth:

```
regr = DecisionTreeRegressor(max_depth=3).fit(x, y)
```

### Minimum samples per leaf:

```
regr = DecisionTreeRegressor(min_samples_leaf=10).fit(x, y)
```

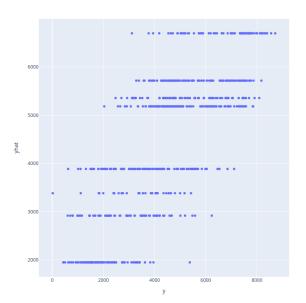
#### Maximum number of leaf nodes:

```
regr = DecisionTreeRegressor(max_leaf_nodes=8).fit(x, y)
```



#### Plot fitted versus true values:

```
import plotly.express as px
px.scatter(
   pd.DataFrame([y, regr.predict(x)], index=['y', 'yhat']) \
    .transpose(),
   x='y', y='yhat').show()
```





### Hands-On Exercises

- 1 Fit regression trees to the *entire bike rental dataset* on the previous slides. Calculate the MSE as you vary:
  - max\_depth: choose values 1, 3, 5, 7
  - ▶ min\_samples\_leaf: choose values 1, 5, 10, 20
  - max\_leaf\_nodes: choose values 2, 8, 16, 32
- 2 Split the data into a test and training data set, like this:

```
train=df.sample(frac=0.8)
test=df.drop(train.index)
```

Repeat exercise (1) by fitting the tree to the *training data* and calculate the MSE for the *test data*.



## Classification Trees

▶ Proportion of observations of class *k* in leaf node *m*:

$$p_{km}$$

▶ Predict the most common (majority) class in a leaf node:

$$k(m) = \underset{k}{\operatorname{argmax}} p_{km}$$

Probability of choosing an item with label *i* in node *m* is

$$p_{im}$$

▶ Probability of misclassifying that item in node *m* is

$$1 - p_{im} = \sum_{k \neq i} p_{km}$$



## Classification Trees [cont'd]

► Use **Gini impurity** *G* (node purity) for node *m* to determine splits:

$$G_{m} = \sum_{i=1}^{J} p_{im} (1 - p_{im}) = \sum_{i=1}^{J} (p_{im} - p_{im}^{2}) = \sum_{i=1}^{J} - \sum_{i=1}^{J} p_{im}^{2}$$
$$= 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{J} p_{im}^{2}$$

▶ Use **Cross-Entropy** *H* for node *m* to determine splits.

$$H_m = -\sum_{i=1}^J p_{im} \log p_{im}$$



## Classification Trees [cont'd]

#### Stock market data (from R ISLR2 package):

```
d=pd.read_csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/Smarket.csv')
x=d[['Lag1', 'Lag2', 'Lag3', 'Lag4', 'Lag5', 'Volume']]
y=d['Direction']
```

#### Fit a classification tree:

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
clf = DecisionTreeClassifier (max_depth=5)
clf.fit(x, y)
```

Classifier has similar tree control options to regressor.

#### Training accuracy:

```
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
accuracy_score(clf.predict(x), y)
```



### Hands-On Exercises

- 1 Fit classification trees to the *entire stock market dataset* on the previous slides. Calculate the accuracy as you vary:
  - max\_depth: choose values 1, 3, 5, 7
  - min\_samples\_leaf: choose values 1, 5, 10, 20
  - max\_leaf\_nodes: choose values 2, 8, 16, 32
- Split the data into a test and training data set, like this:

```
train = d.iloc[:3*d.shape[0]//4,:]
test = d.iloc[3*d.shape[0]//4:,:]
```

Repeat exercise (1) by fitting the tree to the *training data* and calculate the accuracy for the *test data*.



### Tree Ensemble Methods

**Problem:** Trees are unstable, have high variance, prone to

overfitting

Solution: Fit multiple trees

### Aggregation:

$$f(y|x) = \frac{1}{|M|} \sum_{m \in M} f_m(y|x)$$

- Average prediction for regression trees
- ► Majority vote for classification models



### Stacking:

$$f(y|x) = \frac{1}{|M|} \sum_{m \in M} w_m f_m(y|x)$$

ightharpoonup Train weights  $w_m$  using separate data set



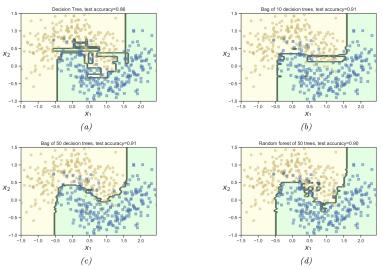
### Bagging:

- "Bootstrap Aggregating"
- Randomly sample data with replacement (bootstrapping)
- OOB ("out-of-bag") error serves as test error

#### Random Forests:

- ▶ "Decorrelate" trees
- At each split, only consider a random sample of m predictors as split candidates
- ► Typically  $m \approx \sqrt{p}$

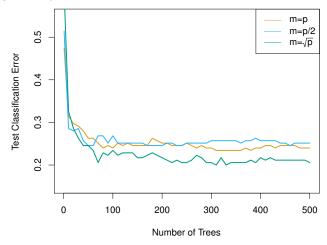








### **Example:** Impact of *m* on test error:



Source: ISLR 2, Figure 8.10



#### Bagging in Python:

### Random forest regression in Python:

```
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestRegressor

d=pd.read_csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/bike.csv')
x=d[['temp', 'hum']]
y=d['cnt']
```



#### Random forest classification in Python:

```
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier

d=pd.read_csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/Smarket.csv')
x=d[['Lag1', 'Lag2', 'Lag3', 'Lag4', 'Lag5', 'Volume']]
y=d['Direction']
```



### Hands-On Exercise

- Using the random forest regressor and classifier in Python, vary the number of estimators and the maximum number of features to determine their impact on the *training* performance (MSE or accuracy).
- Split the data into a test and training data set, like this:

```
train=df.sample(frac=0.8)
test=df.drop(train.index)
```

▶ Using the random forest regressor and classifier in Python, vary the number of estimators and the maximum number of features to determine their impact on the *test* performance (MSE or accuracy).



### Boosting:

- ► Iteratively build *B* simple ("weak") trees using residuals
- 1 Set  $\hat{f}(x) = 0$ ;  $r_i = y_i$
- 2 For b = 1, 2, ..., B, repeat:
  - (a) Fit tree  $\hat{t}^b$  with d splits to data (X, r). Typically, d = 1 or 2.
  - (b) Update  $\hat{t}$  by adding a "shrunken" version of the new tree. Typically,  $\lambda=0.01$  or  $\lambda=0.001$ .

$$\hat{f}(x) \leftarrow \hat{f}(x) + \lambda \hat{f}^b(x)$$

(c) Update the residuals

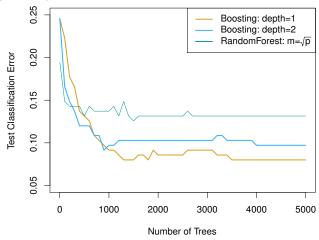
$$r_i \leftarrow r_i - \lambda \hat{f}^b(x_i)$$

3 Output the boosted model:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{b=1}^{B} \lambda \hat{f}^b(x)$$



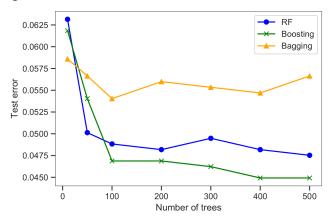
#### **Example:** Impact of *d* on test error:



Source: ISLR 2, Figure 8.11



**Example:** Comparison of Bagging, Random Forest, and Boosting:



Source: Murphy Figure 18.5



#### Tree Ensemble Methods [cont'd]

#### Boosting classification in Python:

```
from sklearn.ensemble import GradientBoostingClassifier

d=pd.read_csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/Smarket.csv')
x=d[['Lag1', 'Lag2', 'Lag3', 'Lag4', 'Lag5', 'Volume']]
y=d['Direction']
```



#### Hands-On Exercise

- Using the gradient boosting regressor and classifier in Python, vary the learning rate and the maximum tree depth to determine their impact on the *training performance* (MSE or accuracy).
- Split the data into a test and training data set, like this:

```
train=df.sample(frac=0.8)
test=df.drop(train.index)
```

Using the gradient boosting regressor and classifier in Python, vary the learning rate and the maximum tree depth to determine their impact on the test performance (MSE or accuracy).



#### **Decision Trees**

#### Further reading:

```
https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/tree.html
https:
//scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/ensemble.html#
https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto_examples/tree/
plot_unveil_tree_structure.html
https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto_examples/tree/
```

plot cost\_complexity\_pruning.html



# Global Model Agnostic Methods

- ► Partial dependence plot (PDP)
- ► Individual conditional expectation (ICE) curves
- Accumulated local effects plot (ALE)
- Feature interaction
- Functional decomposition
- Permutation feature importance
- Global surrogate models
- Prototypes



## Partial Dependence Plot (PDP)

Marginal effect of one (or a few) features  $X_S$  on the outcome, marginalized (i.e. sum weighted by probability) over all other (complement) features  $X_C$ .

$$\hat{f}_{\mathcal{S}}(X_{\mathcal{S}}) = \mathbb{E}_{X_{\mathcal{C}}}\left[\hat{f}(X_{\mathcal{S}}, X_{\mathcal{C}}))\right] = \int \hat{f}(X_{\mathcal{S}}, X_{\mathcal{C}})p(X_{\mathcal{C}})dX_{\mathcal{C}}$$

Estimated from sample data as:

$$\hat{f}_{S}(X_{S}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{f}(X_{S}, X_{C}^{(i)})$$

Shows how the *average* prediction changes when the focal predictor is changed (assuming feature independence).



## Partial Dependence Plot (PDP)

#### Read the data set:

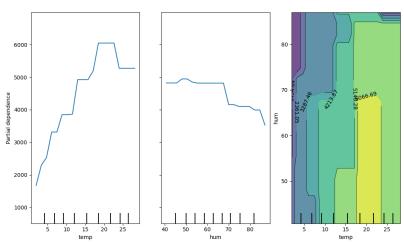
```
import pandas as pd
d=pd.read_csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/bike.csv')
x=d[['temp', 'hum']]
y=d[['cnt']]
```

#### Fit a regression tree:

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeRegressor
regr = DecisionTreeRegressor(max_depth=5).fit(x, y)
```

#### Show the PDP:

# Partial Dependence Plot (PDP)

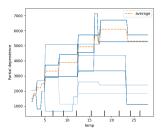


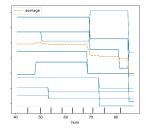


### Individual Conditional Expectation (ICE) Plot

- Instead of the average effect of a feature, shows PDP for individual samples
- ▶ Identify individual **outlier** cases or **heterogeneous data**

```
PartialDependenceDisplay \
.from_estimator(regr, x, [0, 1], kind='both')
```







### Accumulated Local Effects (ALE) Plot

- ► Effects computed for a grid of intervals (a "local window") (instead of the entire domain, as in PDP)
- Does not construct unrealistic feature combinations
- Overcomes the problem of correlated features in PDP
- ► Focuses on difference in predictions

$$\hat{\hat{f}}_{j,ALE}(X) = \sum_{k=1}^{k_j(x)} \frac{1}{n_j(k)} \sum_{i: x_j^{(i)} \in N_j(k)} \left[ \hat{f}(z_{k,j}, x_j^{(i)}) - \hat{f}(z_{k-1,j}, x_j^{(i)}) \right]$$

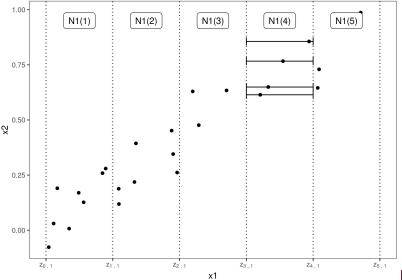
- Difference of predictions (in sq brackets) is *local* to "neighbourhood" N<sub>i</sub>(k) of feature j around observation k
- ► Outer sum *accumulates* the local effects

Centering the effects to mean 0:

$$\hat{f}_{j,ALE}(x) = \hat{f}_{j,ALE}(x) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{f}_{j,ALE}(x_j^{(i)})$$



#### **ALE Plots**



Source: Molnar, Fig. 8.7



### Accumulated Local Effects (ALE) Plot

#### Train model:

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeRegressor
regr=DecisionTreeRegressor(min_samples_leaf=10).fit(x,y)
```

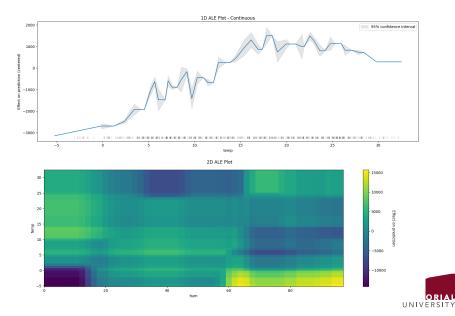
#### Construct the ALE and plot:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from PyALE import ale
ale_effects = ale(X=x, model=regr, \
    feature=['temp'], grid_size=50, include_CI=True)
plt.show()
```

#### 2D feature interactions:

```
ale_effects = ale(X=x, model=regr, \
    feature=['temp', 'hum'], grid_size=50)
plt.show()
```

# Accumulated Local Effects (ALE) Plot



#### Intuition

Calculate the increase in a model's prediction error when permuting a feature

- **1** Estimate model error on original data  $e^{\text{orig}} = L(y, \hat{f}(X))$
- **2** For each feature *j*:
  - ► For each repetition k in 1 · · · K:
    - Generate  $X_{j,k}^{\text{perm}}$  by permuting ("randomly shuffling") values of feature j
    - Estimate  $e_{i,k}^{\text{perm}} = L(y, \hat{f}(X_{i,k}^{\text{perm}}))$
  - ► Calculate permutation feature importance as  $i_j = e^{\text{orig}} \frac{1}{K} \sum_k^K e_{j,k}^{\text{perm}}$

Calculate Permutation Feature Importance on test data



#### Prepare data:

```
import pandas as pd
d=pd.read_csv('https://evermann.ca/busi4720/bike.csv')
x=pd.get_dummies(d.drop(['yr','days_since_2011'],axis=1))
y=x.pop('cnt')
```

#### Train model:

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeRegressor
regr=DecisionTreeRegressor(min_samples_leaf=10).fit(x,y)
```

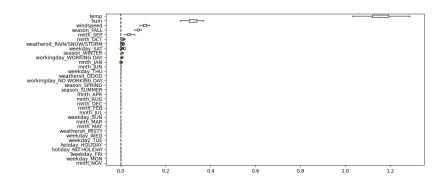
#### Calculate permutation feature importance and sort them:

```
from sklearn.inspection import permutation_importance
r = permutation_importance(regr, x, y, n_repeats=30)
r_idx = r.importances_mean.argsort()
```



#### Produce a nice plot of sorted feature importance:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.boxplot(
    r.importances[r_idx].T,
    vert=False,
    labels=x.columns[r_idx])
ax.axvline(x=0, color="k", linestyle="--")
plt.show()
```



Uncertainty due to multiple permutations (parameter n\_repeats)



# Global Surrogate Models

#### Intuition

Predict the predictions of a complex "black box" model using an intrinsically interpretable model.

Example "black box" model:

```
from sklearn.neural_network import MLPRegressor
regr = MLPRegressor((4, 2,), max_iter=10000)
regr.fit(x, y)
preds = regr.predict(x)
```

Interpretable, linear model to explain predictions:

```
from statsmodels.api import OLS
OLS(preds, x.astype(float)).fit().summary()
```



# Global Model Agnostic Methods – Summary

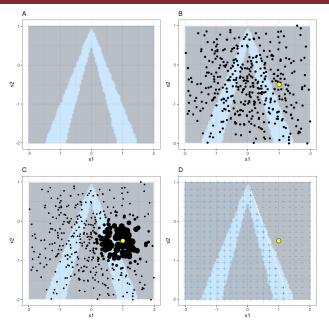
PDP/ICE	
Intuitive	Limited number of features
Clear interpretation	Assumes feature independence
Easy to implement	
	ALE
Unbiased for correlated features	Local interpretation only
Clear interpretation	ALE may differ from linear coefficients
Faster to compute than PDP	No ICE curves
	Unstable for large number of intervals
	PFI
Clear interpretation	Linked to model error
Concise, global measure	Requires access to true targets
Does not require retraining	May be biased for correlated features
Takes into account all interactions	
Global Sur	rogate Models
Flexible	Conclusions about model, not data
Intuitive	Unclear cut-off for goodness of fit
R-squared measure for fit	MEN

# Local Interpretable Model-Agnostic Explanations

#### Idea

- 1 Choose an instance x of interest
- Perturb data by turning on or off features i using randomized feature combination vector of  $z_i \in [0, 1]$
- 3 Sample perturbed instances around x, weighted by kernel  $\pi_g$ ,
- Fit each perturbed instance using black-box model  $f(z_i)$
- Train local interpretable model on features  $z_i$ , targets  $f(z_i)$  and weights  $\pi_x(z_i)$

# LIME – Example

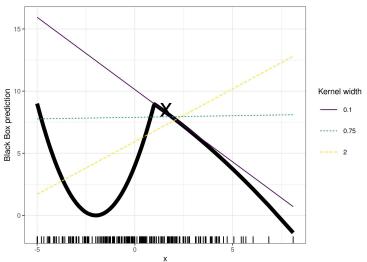


Source: Molnar Figure 9.5



### LIME - Example

- lacktriangle Weight function  $\pi$  is often an exponential smoothing kernel
- Kernel width is critical determinant of explanation



Source: Molnar Figure 9.6



## LIME - Example

#### Using a deep decision tree as "black box":

```
import sklearn.tree
dt = sklearn.tree.DecisionTreeClassifier(max_depth=8)
dt.fit(x, y)
```

#### Create the explainer:

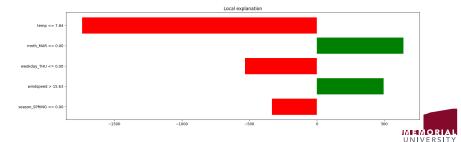
```
import lime, lime.lime_tabular
from sklearn.linear_model import Ridge

explainer = lime.lime_tabular.LimeTabularExplainer(
    x.to_numpy(),
    feature_names=x.columns,
    discretize_continuous = True,
    mode='regression',
    verbose=True)
```

### LIME - Example

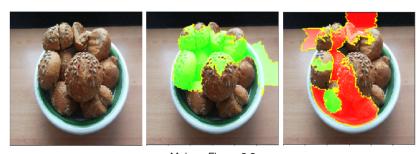
#### Explain instance number 5:

```
exp = explainer.explain_instance(
    x.to_numpy()[7],
    dt.predict,
    num_features=5,
    num_samples=1000,
    distance_metric='euclidean')
exp.as_list()
exp.as_pyplot_figure().show()
```



# LIME for Images

#### LIME explanations for label "bagel" and "strawberries":



Molnar, Figure 9.8

#### Python Examples:

https://github.com/marcotcr/lime

#### Paper:

https://arxiv.org/abs/1602.04938



# Shapley Values

#### Motivation

How much does *feature value*  $x_j$  contribute to the overall prediction compared to the average prediction?

#### Game Theory

- Players cooperate in a coalition and receive a certain profit from this cooperation.
- Method for assigning payouts to players depending on their contribution to the total payout.



# Shapley Values

$$\phi_{i}(v) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{S \subseteq N \setminus \{i\}} {n-1 \choose |S|}^{-1} \left[ v(S \cup \{i\}) - v(S) \right]$$

- v(S∪{i}) v(S): marginal contribution of player i to coalition of players S
- ▶  $\binom{n-1}{|S|}$ : number of possible ways to form a coalition of size |S| of the set  $N \setminus \{i\}$  of n-1 players (set N without player i)



# Shapley Value

#### Fairness Properties

- Efficiency: Contributions add up to total value
- ➤ **Symmetry**: If two players contribute equally to all possible coalitions, they have the same Shapley value
- Dummy: A player that does not contribute at all has a Shapley value of 0
- ▶ **Additivity**: For a game with combined payouts v + w, the Shapley values of players are  $\phi^{(v)} + \phi^{(w)}$



# Shapley Values in Interpretable ML

- Players are feature values
- Coalitions are combinations of feature values
- Presence in a coalition means we know the value
- ▶ Absence from a coalition means we don't know the value ⇒ integrate/marginalize over all values of all features not in coalition S

$$v_x(S) = \int \cdots \int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{f}(x_1, \ldots, x_p) d\mathbb{P}_{x \notin S} - E_x(\hat{f}(X))$$

► Expensive to compute ⇒ in practice, approximation by sampling and permuting values (can make for unrealistic instances when features are correlated)

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# Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP)





#### Paper

https://arxiv.org/abs/1705.07874

#### Documentation (Intro and Examples)

https://shap.readthedocs.io/en/latest/
index.html

#### Python Code and Tutorials

https://github.com/shap/shap



Fit a simple regression model to the California housing dataset:

```
import sklearn
import shap

X, y = shap.datasets.california(n_points=1000)
model = sklearn.linear_model.LinearRegression()
model.fit(X, y)
```

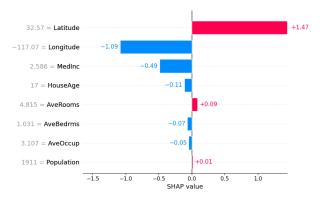
#### Compute the SHAP values:

```
X100 = shap.utils.sample(X, 100)
explainer = shap.Explainer(model.predict, X100)
shap_values = explainer(X)
```



The **barplot** shows the importance of feature values for an individual prediction:

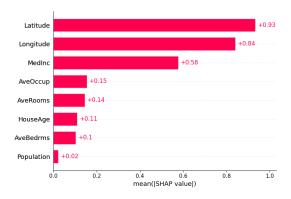
```
shap.plots.bar(shap_values[20])
```





The **barplot** can also show the importance of a feature by averaging over all instances (and their feature values):

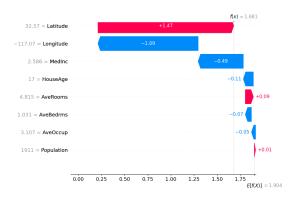
```
shap.plots.bar(shap_values)
```





**Waterfall plots** explain how feature values combine to produce an individual prediction:

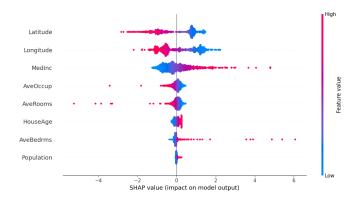
```
sha.plots.waterfall(shap_values[20], max_display=14)
```





**Beeswarm plots** explain all feature values for all instances (represented by a dot):

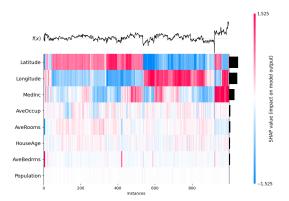
```
shap.plots.beeswarm(shap_values)
```





The **heatmap** shows SHAP values of feature values for all instances, and shows model prediction and global feature importance in rugs:

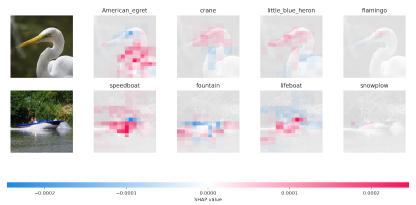
```
shap.plots.heatmap(shap_values)
```





# SHAP for Image Classification

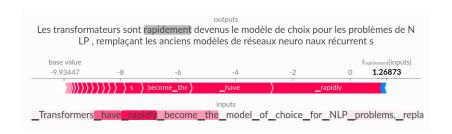
Presence/absence of features/pixels by masking parts of an image:



Source: https://github.com/shap (MIT License)



#### SHAP for Text Classification



Source:  $https://shap.readthedocs.io/en/latest/text_examples.html (MIT License)$ 



# Fixes for Matplotlib