# **Decision Trees**

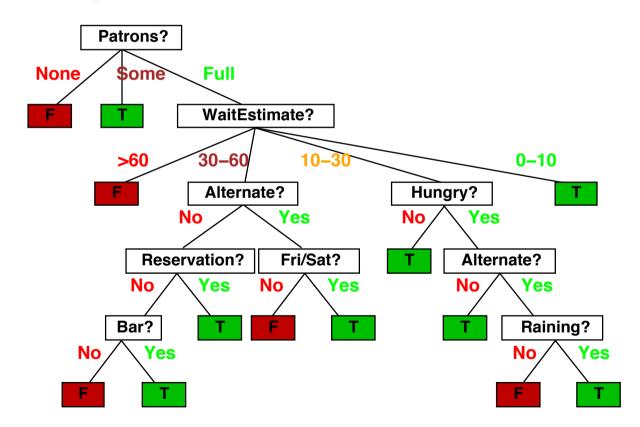
[Many slides adapted from those created by colleagues at Adelaide University

#### **Decision Trees**

Decision trees is one of the simplest methods for **supervised learning**. It can be applied to both regression & classification.

#### Example:

A decision tree for deciding whether to wait for a place at restaurant. Target WillWait can be True or False.



### Decision Trees (cont.)

At each node of a tree, a test is applied which sends the query sample down one of the branches of the node.

This continues until the query sample arrives at a terminal or leaf node. Each leaf node is associated with a value: a class label in classification, or a numeric value in regression.

The value of the leaf node reached by the query sample is returned as the output of the tree.

#### Example:

Patrons = Full, Price = Expensive, Rain = Yes, Reservation = Yes, Hungry = Yes, Fri = No, Bar = Yes, Alternate = Yes, Type = Thai, WaitEstimate = 0 - 10

What is *WillWait*?



#### The Training Set

Training set for a decision tree (each row is a sample):

Example	Attributes										Target
	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
$X_1$	T	F	F	T	Some	\$\$\$	F	T	French	0–10	T
$X_2$	T	F	F	T	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	30–60	F
$X_3$	F	T	F	F	Some	\$	F	F	Burger	0–10	T
$X_4$	T	F	T	T	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	10–30	T
$X_5$	T	F	T	F	Full	<i>\$\$\$</i>	F	T	French	>60	F
$X_6$	F	T	F	T	Some	<i>\$\$</i>	T	T	Italian	0–10	T
$X_7$	F	T	F	F	None	\$	T	F	Burger	0–10	F
$X_8$	F	F	F	T	Some	<i>\$\$</i>	T	T	Thai	0–10	T
$X_9$	F	T	T	F	Full	\$	T	F	Burger	>60	F
$X_{10}$	T	T	T	T	Full	<i>\$\$\$</i>	F	T	Italian	10–30	F
$X_{11}$	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0–10	F
$X_{12}$	T	T	T	T	Full	\$	F	F	Burger	30–60	T

An **attribute** or **feature** is a characteristic of the situation that we can measure.

The samples could be observations of previous decisions taken.



#### The Training Set (cont.)

We can re-arrange the samples as follows:

$$\mathbf{x}_{1} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} T \\ F \\ F \\ T \\ Some \\ \$\$\$ \\ F \\ T \\ French \\ 0-10 \end{array} \right\}, \ y_{1} = T \quad \mathbf{x}_{2} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} T \\ F \\ T \\ T \\ F \\ T \\ Thai \\ 30-60 \end{array} \right\}, \ y_{2} = F \quad \cdots$$

$$sample \ 1$$

i.e., each sample consists of a 10-dimensional vector  $\mathbf{x}_i$  of discrete feature values, and a target label  $y_i$  which is Boolean.

#### Learning Decision Trees from Observations

Trivial solution for building decision trees — construct a path to a leaf for each sample.

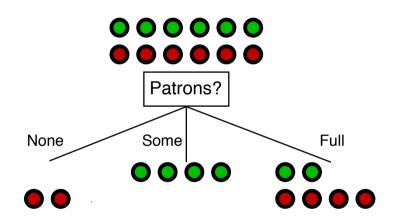
- ► Merely memorising the observations (not extracting any patterns from the data).
- Produces a consistent but excessively complex hypothesis (recall Occam's Razor).
- Unlikely to generalise well to new/unseen observations.

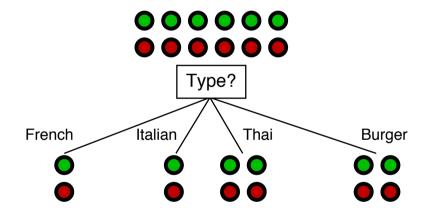
We should aim to build the smallest tree that is consistent with the observations. One way to do this is to recursively test the most important attributes first.

### Learning Decision Trees from Observations (cont.)

#### Example:

Test Patrons or Type first?

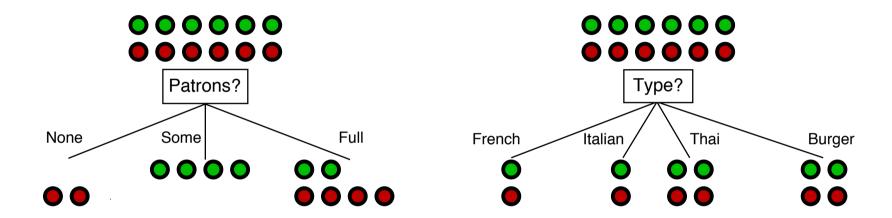




### Learning Decision Trees from Observations (cont.)

#### Example:

Test Patrons or Type first?



An important (or good) attribute splits samples into groups that are (ideally) all positive or negative.

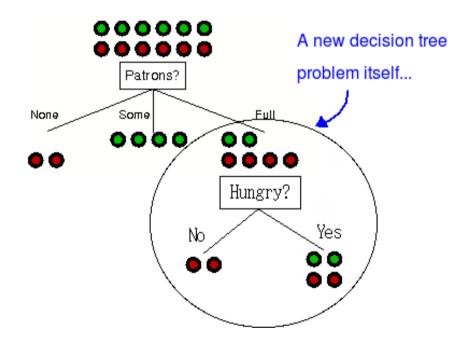
Therefore Patrons is more important than Type.

Testing good attributes first allows us to minimise the tree depth.



### Learning Decision Trees from Observations (cont.)

After the first attribute splits the samples, the remaining samples become decision tree problems themselves (or **subtrees**) but with less samples and one less attribute, e.g.,



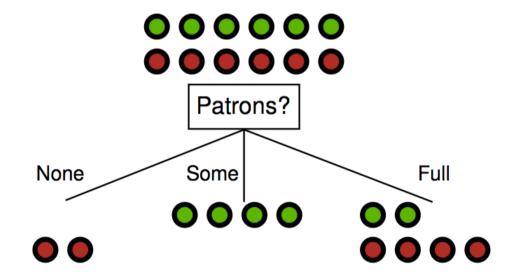
This suggests a **recursive** approach to build decision trees.

Aim: Find the smallest tree consistent with the training samples. Idea: Recursively choose "most significant" attribute as root of (sub)tree.

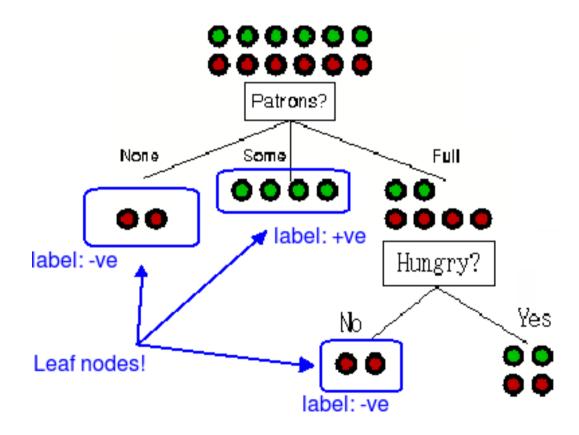
```
function DTL(examples, attributes, default) returns a decision tree
   if examples is empty then return default
   else if all examples have the same classification then return the classification
   else if attributes is empty then return Mode (examples)
   else
       best \leftarrow \text{Choose-Attributes}, examples
       tree \leftarrow a new decision tree with root test best
       for each value v_i of best do
            examples_i \leftarrow \{elements of examples with best = v_i\}
            subtree \leftarrow DTL(examples_i, attributes - best, Mode(examples))
            add a branch to tree with label v_i and subtree subtree
       return tree
```

Four basic underlying ideas of the algorithm:

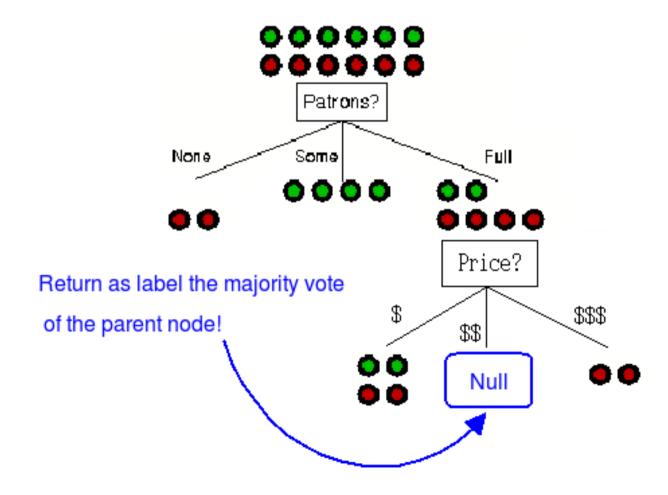
1. If there are some positive and negative samples, then choose the best attribute to split them, e.g., test Patrons at the root.



2. If all the remaining samples are all positive or all negative, we have reached a leaf node. Assign label as positive (or negative), e.g.,



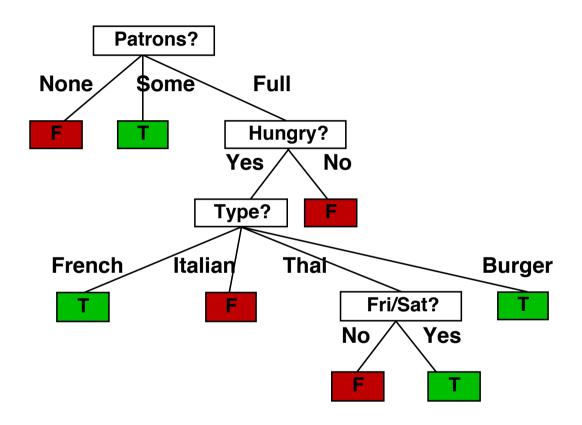
3. If there are no samples left, it means that no such sample has been observed. Return a default value calculated from the majority classification at the node's parent, e.g.,



- 4. If there are no attributes left, but both positive and negative samples, it means that these samples have exactly the same feature values but different classifications. This may happen because
  - some of the data could be incorrect, or
  - ▶ the attributes do not give enough information to describe the situation fully (i.e. we lack other useful attributes), or
  - ▶ the problem is truly **non-deterministic**, i.e., given two samples describing exactly the same conditions, we may make different decisions.

Solution: Call it a leaf node and assign the majority vote as the label.

Result of applying DTL on the observations:



► Simpler than the tree shown in Page 2.

#### Choosing the Best Attribute

We need a measure of "good" and "bad" for attributes.

One way to do us is to compute the **information content** at a node, i.e. at node  ${\cal R}$ 

$$I(R) = \sum_{i=1}^{L} -P(c_i) \log_2 P(c_i)$$

where  $\{c_1, \ldots, c_L\}$  are the L class labels present at the node, and  $P(c_i)$  is the probability of getting class  $c_i$  at the node.

A unit of information is called a "bit".

#### Example:

At the root node of the restaurant problem,  $c_1 = True$ ,  $c_2 = False$  and there are 6 True samples and 6 False samples.

Therefore

$$P(c_1) = \frac{\text{no. of samples} = c_1}{\text{total no. of samples}} = \frac{6}{6+6} = 0.5$$

$$P(c_2) = \frac{\text{no. of samples} = c_2}{\text{total no. of samples}} = \frac{6}{6+6} = 0.5$$

$$I(Root) = -0.5 \times \log_2 0.5 - 0.5 \times \log_2 0.5 = 1 \text{ bit}$$

In general, the amount of information will be maximum when all classes are equally likely, and be minimum when the node is **homogeneous** (all samples have the same labels).

What are the maximum and minimum attainable values for information content?



An attribute A will divide the samples at a node into different subsets (or child nodes)  $E_{A=v_1}, \ldots, E_{A=v_M}$ , where A has M distinct values  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_M\}$ .

Generally each subset  $E_{A=v_i}$  will have samples of different labels, so if we go along that branch we will need an additional of  $I(E_{A=v_i})$  bits of information.

#### Example:

In the restaurant problem, at the branch Patrons = Full of the root node, we have  $c_1 = True$  with 2 samples and  $c_2 = False$  with 4 samples, therefore

$$I(E_{Patrons=Full}) = -\frac{1}{3}\log_2\frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3}\log_2\frac{2}{3} = 0.9183 \ bits$$



Denote by  $P(A = v_i)$  as the probability of a sample to follow the branch  $A = v_i$ .

Example:

For the restaurant problem, at the root node

$$P(Patrons = Full) = \frac{\text{No. of samples where } Patrons = Full}{\text{No. of samples at the root node}}$$
  
=  $\frac{6}{12} = 0.5$ 

After testing attribute A, we need a **remainder** of

$$Remainder(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} P(A = v_i) I(E_{A=v_i})$$

bits to classify the samples.

The **information gain** in testing attribute A is the difference between the original information content and the new information content, i.e.

$$Gain(A) = I(R) - Remainder(A)$$

$$= I(R) - \sum_{i=1}^{M} P(A = v_i)I(E_{A=v_i})$$

where  $\{E_{A=v_1}, \dots, E_{A=v_M}\}$  are the child nodes of R after testing attribute A.



The key idea behind the CHOOSE-ATTRIBUTE function in the DTL algorithm is to choose the attribute that gives the **maximum information gain**.

#### Example:

In the restaurant problem, at the root node

$$Gain(Patrons) = 1 - \frac{2}{12}(-\log_2 1) - \frac{4}{12}(-\log_2 1) - \frac{6}{12}(-\frac{2}{6}\log_2 \frac{2}{6} - \frac{4}{6}\log_2 \frac{4}{6})$$

$$\approx 0.5409 \ bits.$$

With similar calculations,

$$Gain(Type)=0$$
 (Try this yourself!!!)

confirming that Patrons is a better attribute than Type.

In fact at the root Patrons gives the highest information gain.



#### **Concluding Remarks**

A different point of view is to regard I(node) as a measure of **impurity**. The more "mixed" the samples are at a node (i.e. has equal proportions of all class labels), the higher the impurity value. On the other hand, a homogeneous node (i.e. has samples of one class only) will have zero impurity.

The Gain(A) value can thus be viewed as **the amount of** reduction in impurity if we split according to A.

This affords the intuitive idea that we grow trees by recursively trying to obtain leaf nodes which are as pure as possible.