Interpretability, Decision Trees, and Sequential Decision Making

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# Sequential decision making (SDM)
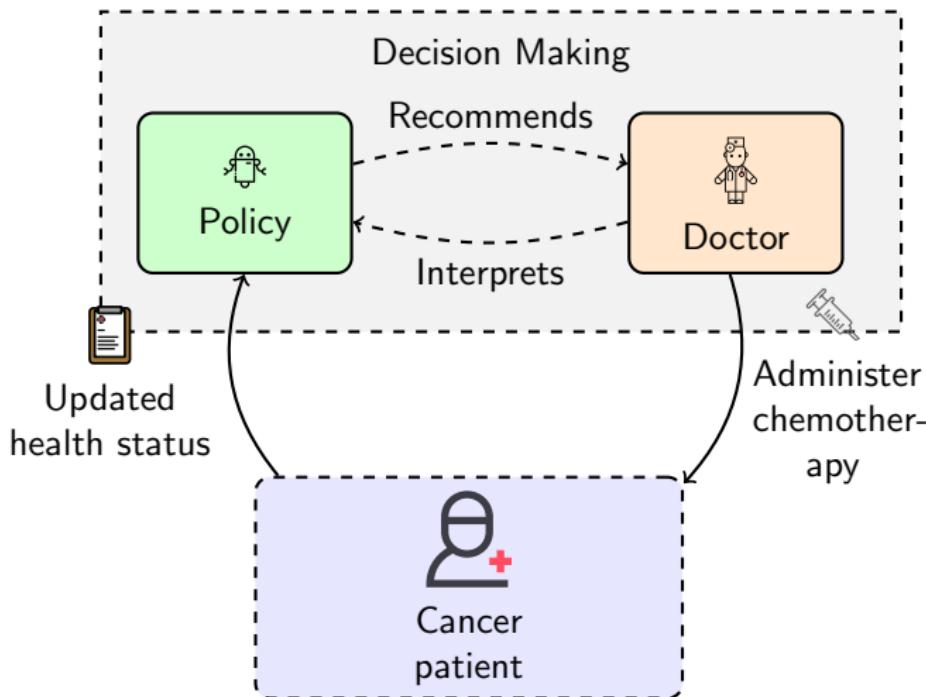
Figure: Sequential decision making in cancer treatment.

# Machine learning (ML) of policies for SDM
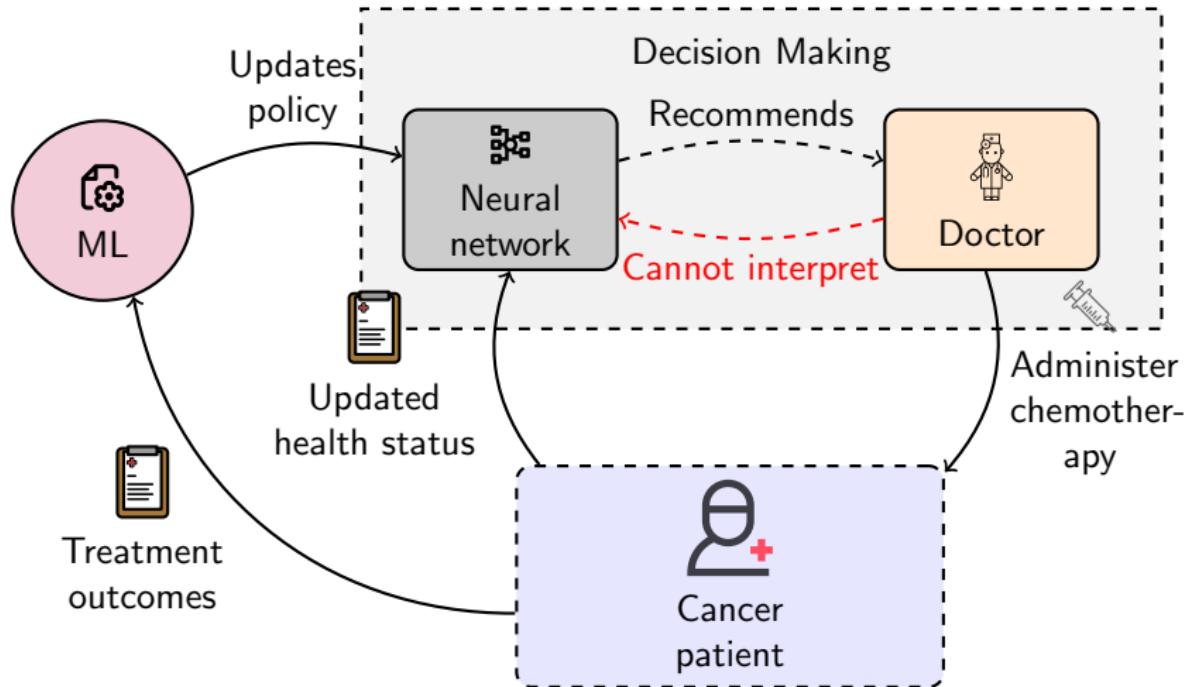
Figure: Machine learning of neural networks has many recent successes but neural networks are black-box.

How to learn interpretable policies for sequential decision making?

Policy interpretability
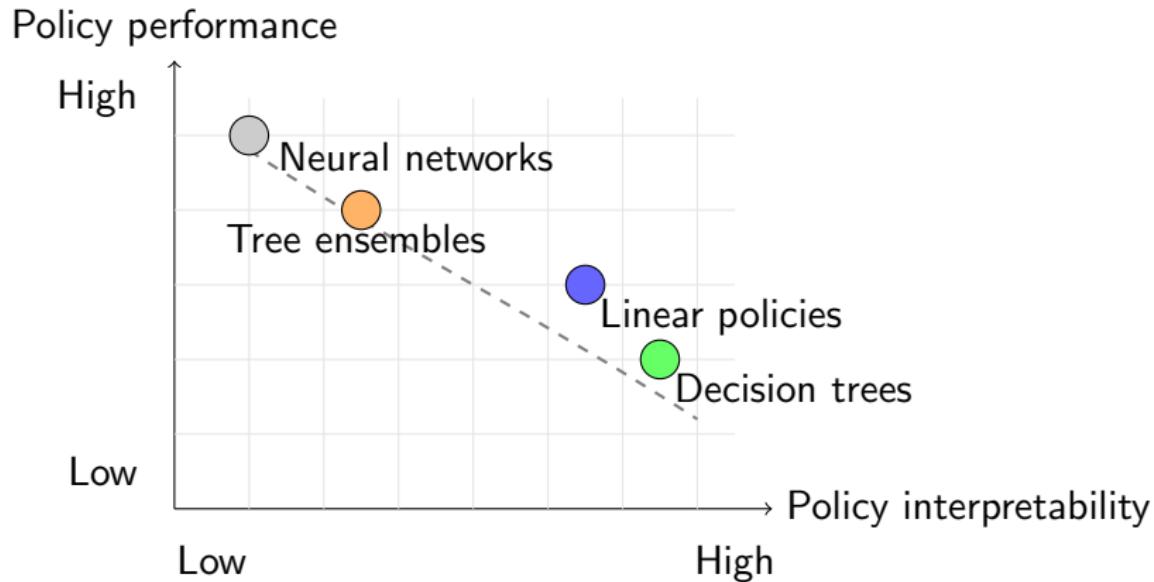
Figure: **Heuristic** interpretability-performance trade-offs of different policy classes. Interpretability is often presented in opposition to performances.

Decision trees
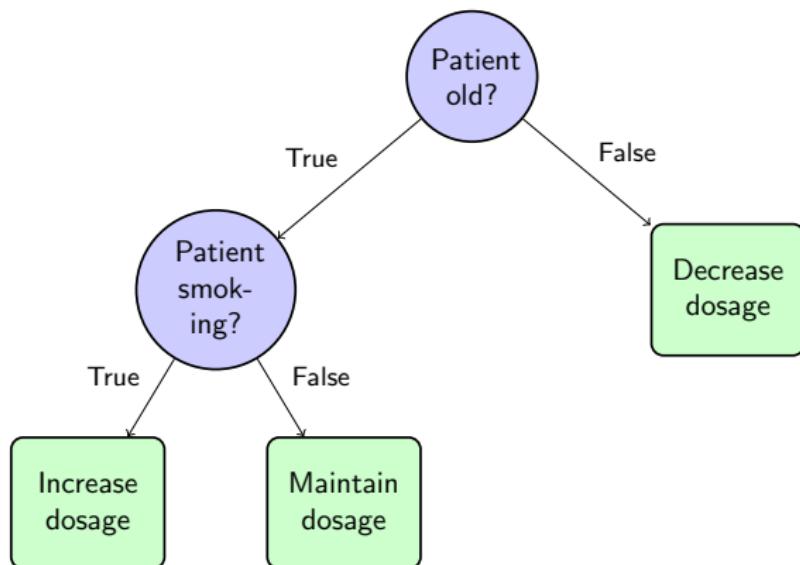
Figure: A generic decision tree of depth $D = 2$. Easy to learn in the supervised learning setting: Classification And Regression Trees (CART, [Bre+84]), Optimal Classification Trees (OCT, [BD17]). What about sequential decision making?

Markov decision processes
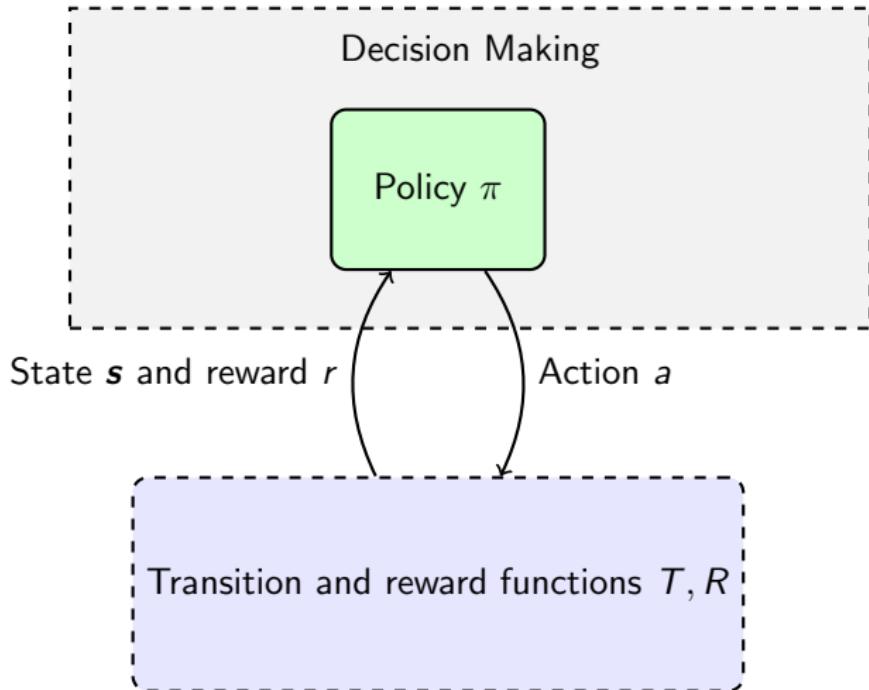
Figure: Markov decision process ([Put94]).

Reinforcement learning (RL) objective

- Given an MDP $\mathcal{M} = \langle S, A, R, T, T_0 \rangle$, the goal of RL ([SB98]) for SDM is to find a policy, $\pi : S \to A$ that maximizes the expected discounted sum of rewards:

$$
J(\pi) = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(s_t, a_t) \mid s_0 \sim T_0, a_t = \pi(s_t), s_{t+1} \sim T(s_t, a_t) \right]
\tag{1}
$$

where $0 < \gamma \le 1$ is the discount factor that controls the trade-off between immediate and future rewards.

- Value iteration, Q-learning, Sarsa, Deep Q Networks, Proximal Policy Optimization, ... ([Bel57]; [SB98]; [Mni+15]; [Sch+17])

Grid world MDP
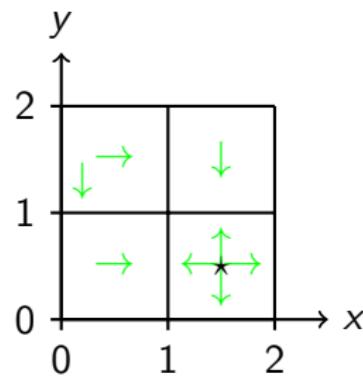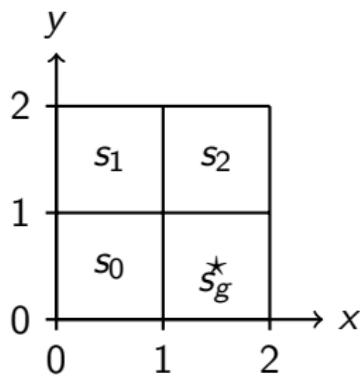
Figure: A grid world MDP and optimal actions w.r.t. the RL objective.

Example: a decision tree policy for the grid world MDP
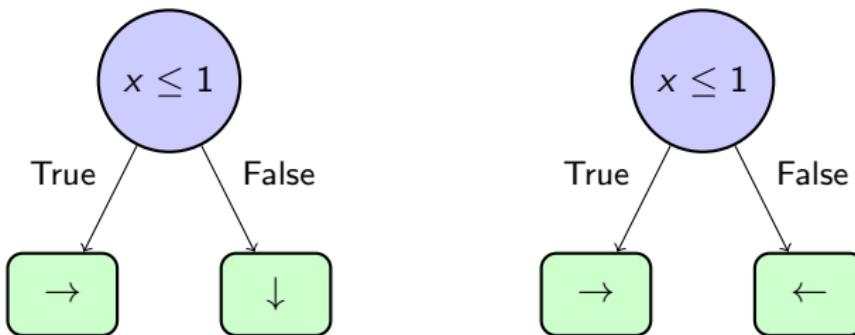
Figure: Left, an optimal depth-1 decision tree policy. On the right, a sub-optimal depth-1 decision tree policy.

Step 1: Use NN to generate states

Step 2: Use NN to obtain actions

Step 3: Use supervised learning to train a decision tree
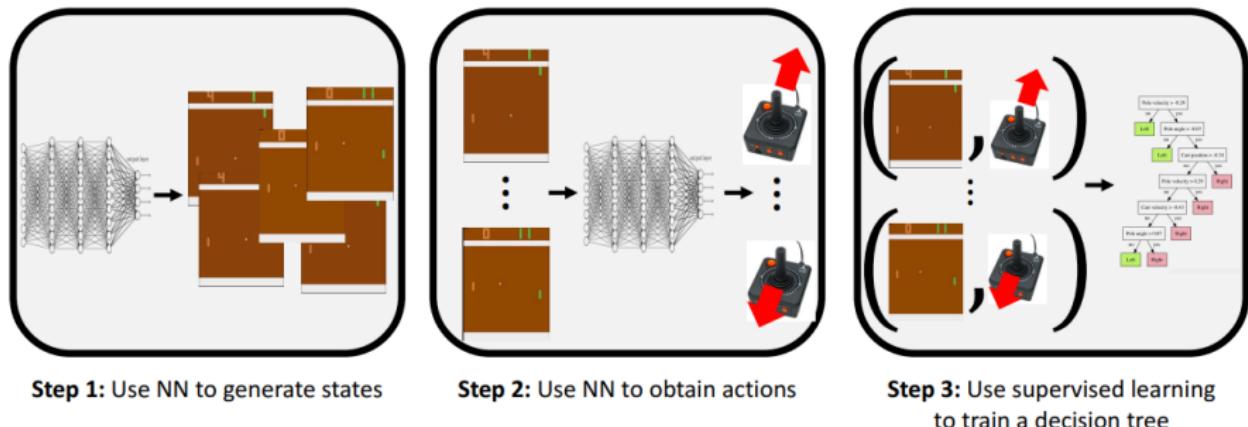
Figure: Imitation learning to get interpretable policies (DAgger, VIPER [BPS18]; [RGB10]) works well in practice but no optimality guarantees.

Example: a decision tree policy for the grid world MDP
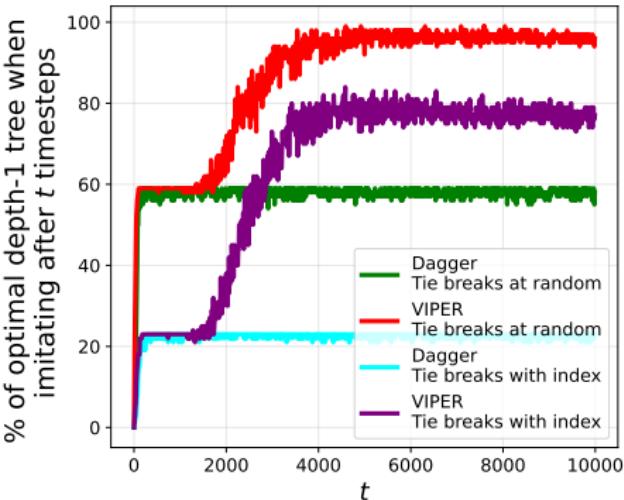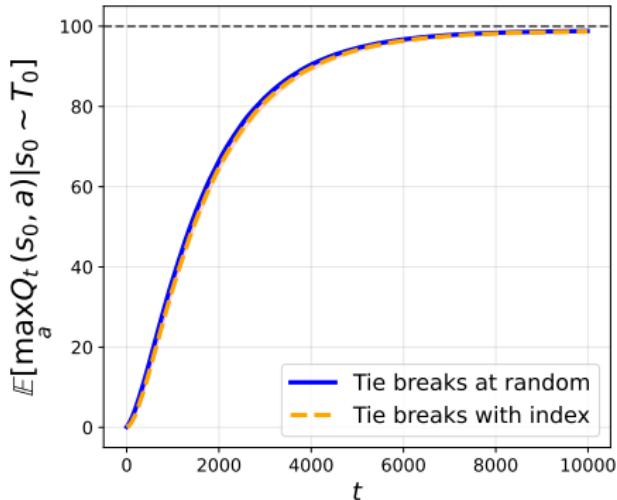
Figure: Left, sample complexity curve of Q-learning with default hyperparameters on the 2×2 grid world MDP over 100 random seeds. Right, performance of indirect interpretable methods when imitating the greedy policy with a tree at different Q-learning stages.

Q: Can we use reinforcement learning to directly optimize trade-offs of performance and interpretability in SDM?

A: direct reinforcement leargning is hard because it involves partial observability.

Iterative bounding Markov decision processes (IBMDP)
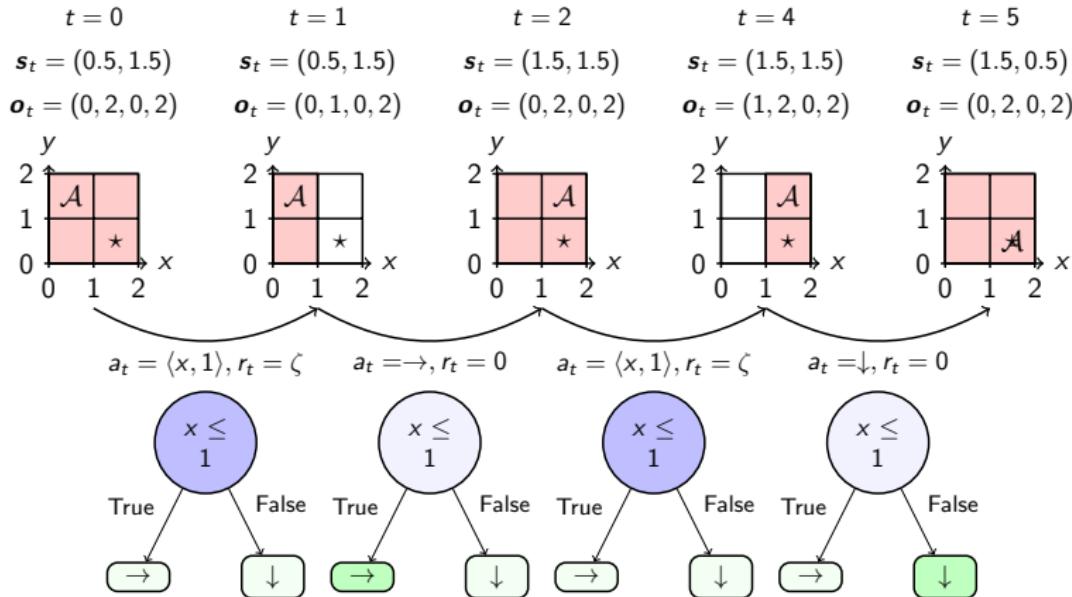
Figure: Trajectory in an IBMDP of the grid world MDP ([Top+21]). Actions build a decision tree policy and rewards control the interpretability-performance trade-off.

Pros and cons of IBMDPs

Pros

- No need to design new algorithm: we can use deep RL.
- IBMDP rewards trade-off naturally interpretability and performances.

Cons

- Only **determinstic** and **partially observable** (a.k.a. memoryless or reactive) policies are equivalent to decision tree policies.
- Finding the best **deterministic** and **partially observable** policy is NP-hard ([Lit94])!

Re-formulation

Q: Can we use reinforcement learning to directly optimize trade-offs of performance and interpretability in SDM? ⇔
Q: How does RL perform for optimizing **deterministic** *and* **partially observable** *policies in IBMDPs?*

Result: RL cannot retrieve optimal depth-1 trees for the grid world MDP
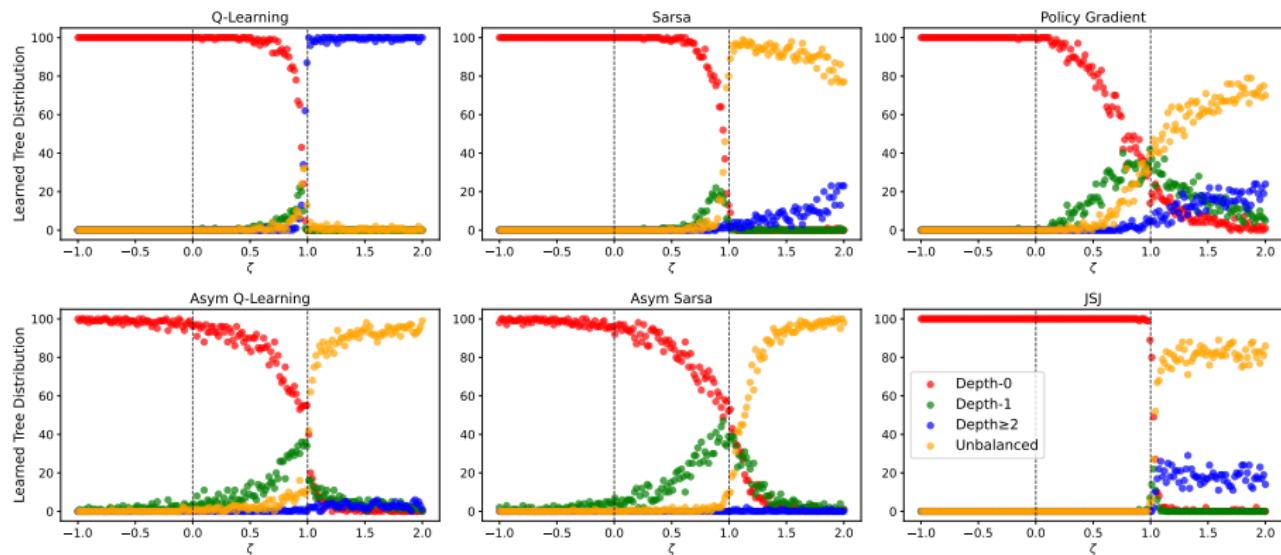
Figure: Distributions of final tree policies learned with various (asymmetric) RL algorithms ([SB98]; [SJJ94]; [LS98]; [BA22]; [BDA22]) across 100 seeds. For each different performance-interpretability trade-off value ζ, each point represent the share of different trees.

Result: for similar problems, RL struggles when there is partial observability (not surprising)
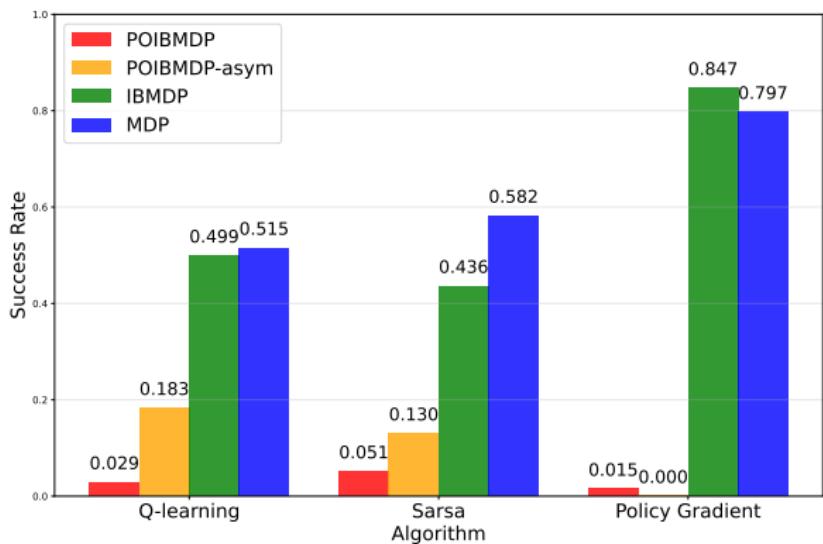
Figure: Success rates of different (asymmetric) RL algorithms over thousands of runs when applied to learning either deterministic partially observable policies in an IBMDP deterministic Markovian policies in the same IBMDP.

Figure: In this classification MDP, there are four data to which to assign either a green or red label. On the right, there is the unique optimal depth-1 tree for this particular classification MDP.

We show that in theory, deterministic partially observable policies for classification IBMDPs ($\Leftrightarrow$ decision tree policies) are in fact Markovian.

Perspectives for direct RL of decision tree policies.

- Learning decision tree policies that trade-off performances and interpretability for SDM problems is difficult because for most problems there is partial observability.

- Should we focus on indirect approach? There is a potential for hybrid approaches (**parbhoo**)

- What are the pros and cons of fixing the policy tree structure a priori (paramteric trees, [Mar+25])?

- Can we specifically design algorithms that learn deterministic partially observable policies ([LBE25]; [LEM25])?

RL works in classification MDPs

Q: Can we leverage SDM in classification MDPs to design new decision tree induction algorithms for the supervised learning (no sequentiality) setting? **A: Yes!**

- We assume that we have access to a set of N examples denoted $\mathcal{E} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$. Each datum x_i is described by a set of p features. $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ is the label associated with x_i.

$$\mathcal{L}(T) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\ell(y_i, f(x_i)) + \alpha C(T) \qquad (2)$$

where $C : \mathcal{T} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a penalty for tree interpretability/regularization.

- Tree-based models perform really well on **tabular** data, often **better than deep neural nets** ([GOV22]).

Optimal decision tree induction is NP-hard

- Greedy algorithms ([Bre+84]; [Qui86]; [Qui93]) sub-optimal accuracy, but time complexity in $O(2^D)$.
- Optimal algorithms ([BD17]; [Dem+22]; [LWD23]; [CRB24]), ...) optimal accuracy, but time complexity in $O((2Np)^D)$.

In between?

Pathological Dataset (N=10_000, p=2)

CART - Acc: 75.88% Operations: 7, Time: 0.008s

Optimal - Acc: 100% Operations: 173, Time: 4s

DPDT (Ours) - Acc: 100.0% Operations: 9, Time: 0.04s

Figure: A checkers board data set highlights the limitations of existing works.

Decision tree induction as solving MDPs

Intuition

Given a set of examples $\mathcal{E}$, the induction of a decision tree is made of a sequence of decisions: at each node, we must decide whether it is better to split (a subset of) $\mathcal{E}$, or to create a leaf node.

- S: data subsets.
- A: test or leaf nodes that can be added to the tree.
- R: penalty or accuracies.
- T: node traversals.

Decision tree induction as solving MDPs
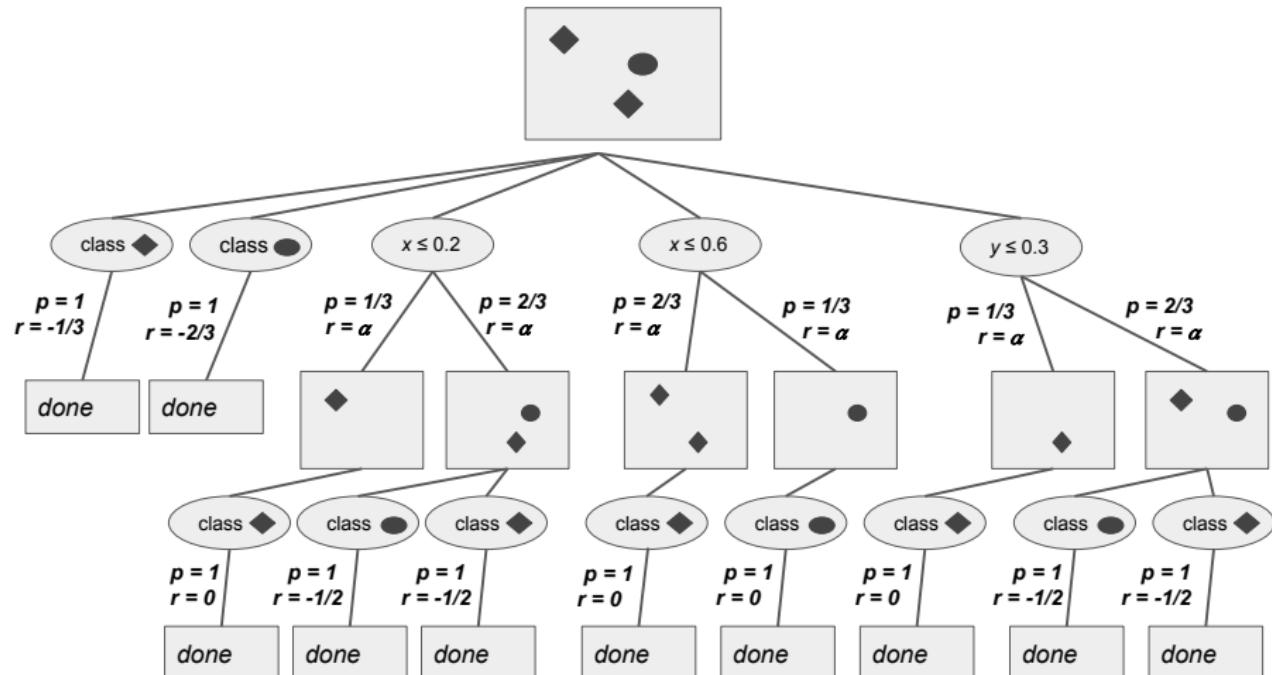
Figure: MDP formulation of a generic decision tree induction for a supervised learning task.

- Greedy algorithms consider only one candidate action in each state which is the test that minimizes some impurity criterion $\rightarrow$ MDP state space size is $O(2^D)$.

- Optimal algorithms consider all possible actions in each state $\rightarrow$ MDP state space size is $O((2Np)^D)$.

- Let's choose candidate actions adaptively $\rightarrow$ for each MDP state consider B actions: state space size is $O((2B)^D)$.
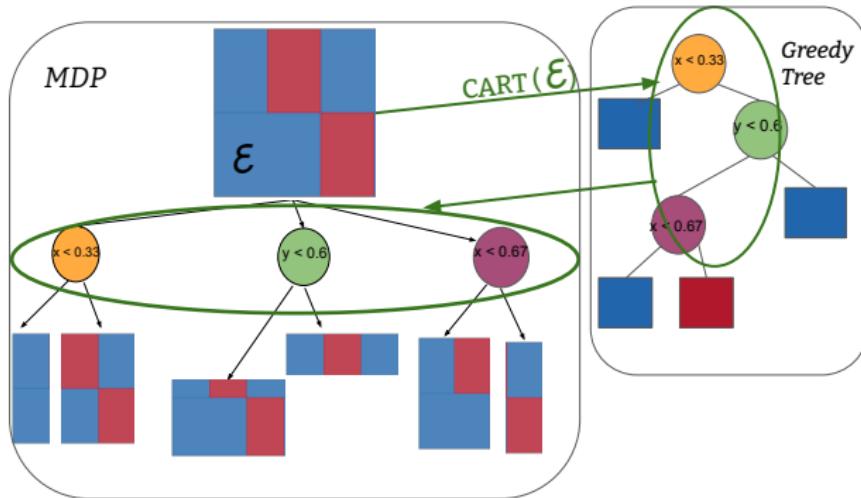
Figure: Overview of our algorithm DPDT presented at the 31st ACM SIGKDD conference.

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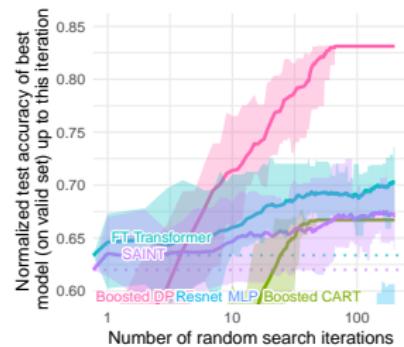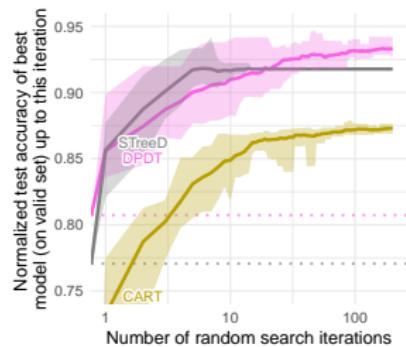
[1]Because states are entire datasets, we implement DPDT with a depth-first search to limit the space complexity.

Comparing tree accuracy to complexity

Table: Train accuracy and operation count when learning depth-3 decision trees.

| Dataset	N	p	Accuracy					Operations			
			Opt Quant-BnB	Greedy CART	DPDT light	full		Opt Quant-BnB	Greedy CART	DPDT light	full
room	8103	16	**0.992**	0.968	0.991	**0.992**		10^6	15	286	16100
bean	10888	16	**0.871**	0.777	0.812	0.853		$5 \cdot 10^6$	15	295	25900
eeg	11984	14	**0.708**	0.666	0.689	0.706		$2 \cdot 10^6$	13	289	26000
avila	10430	10	**0.585**	0.532	0.574	**0.585**		$3 \cdot 10^7$	9	268	24700
magic	15216	10	**0.831**	0.801	0.822	0.828		$6 \cdot 10^6$	15	298	28000
htru	14318	8	**0.981**	0.979	0.979	0.980		$6 \cdot 10^7$	15	295	25300
occup.	8143	5	**0.994**	0.989	0.991	**0.994**		$7 \cdot 10^5$	13	280	16300
skin	196045	3	**0.969**	0.966	0.966	0.966		$7 \cdot 10^4$	15	301	23300
fault	1552	27	**0.682**	0.553	0.672	0.674		$9 \cdot 10^8$	13	295	24200
segment	1848	18	**0.887**	0.574	0.812	0.879		$2 \cdot 10^6$	7	220	16300
page	4378	10	**0.971**	0.964	0.970	0.970		10^7	15	298	22400
bidding	5056	9	**0.993**	0.981	0.985	**0.993**		$3 \cdot 10^5$	13	256	9360
raisin	720	7	**0.894**	0.869	0.879	0.886		$4 \cdot 10^6$	15	295	20900
rice	3048	7	**0.938**	0.933	0.934	0.937		$2 \cdot 10^7$	15	298	25500
wilt	4339	5	**0.996**	0.993	0.994	0.995		$3 \cdot 10^5$	13	274	11300
bank	1097	4	**0.983**	0.933	0.971	0.980		$6 \cdot 10^4$	13	271	7990

DPDT trees generalization

(a) DPDT depth-5 trees vs. other detph-5 trees

(b) Boosted DPDT vs. Boosted CART

(c) Boosted DPDT vs. other classifiers

Perspectives

- New SOTA decision tree induction with dynamic programming in MDPs.
- What about using DPDT for indirect decision tree policy learning for SDM?
- What performances could we reach with an industry-grade implementation of XGboost+DPDT?

Let us take a step back

Q: Are decision trees really the most interpretable model?
A: It depends.

How to measure policy interpretability?

Challenges ([Gla+24]; [Lip18]; [DK17])

- There is no clear definition of interpretability.
- Measuring interpretability might require humans.

The notion of *simulatability* ([Lip18])

- Interpretability $\simeq$ how long it takes for human to make the same computations given an input.
- Interpretability $\simeq$ how much effort it would take a human to read through the entire policy once.
- Inside a given policy class, less parameters should mean more interpretability ([Fre14]; [Lav99]; [Lag+19]; [Sla+19]; [Huy+11]).
- The time required to formally verify a policy should decrease with interpretability ([BPS18]; [Bar+20]).

A methodology to measure policy interpretability without humans

Simulatability ([Lip18])

1. How long it takes for human to make the same computations given an input $\simeq$ policy inference time.
2. How much effort it would take a human to read through the entire policy once $\simeq$ policy size in memory.

Not that simple in practice ([Luo+24])

- Different hardwares (tree policies are run on CPUs while neural policies are run on GPUs).
- Different implementations (neural policies compute outputs using matrix operations while tree operate fully sequentially) . . .

We propose policy unfolding

```python
# Decision tree for Mountain Car
def play(x):
    if x[1] <= -0.2597:
        if x[1] <= -0.6378:
            return 0
        else:
            if x[0] <= -1.0021:
                return 2
            else:
                return 0
    else:
        if x[1] <= -0.0508:
            if x[0] <= 0.2979:
                if x[0] <= 0.0453:
                    return 2
                else:
                    if x[1] <=
   -0.2156:
                        return 0
                    else:
                        return 2
            else:
                return 0
        else:
            return 2
```

```python
# Small ReLU MLP for Pendulum
def play(x):
    h_layer_0_0 = 1.238*x[0]+0.971*x
    [1]
                  +0.430*x[2]+0.933
    h_layer_0_0 = max(0, h_layer_0_0
    )
    h_layer_0_1 = -1.221*x[0]+1.001
                  *x[1]-0.423*x[2]
                  +0.475
    h_layer_0_1 = max(0, h_layer_0_1
    )
    h_layer_1_0 = -0.109*h_layer_0_0
                  -0.377*h_layer_0_1
                  +1.694
    h_layer_1_0 = max(0, h_layer_1_0
    )
    h_layer_1_1 = -3.024*h_layer_0_0
                  -1.421*h_layer_0_1
                  +1.530
    h_layer_1_1 = max(0, h_layer_1_1
    )

    h_layer_2_0 = -1.790*h_layer_1_0
                  +2.840*h_layer_1_1
                  +0.658
    y_0 = h_layer_2_0
    return [y_0]
```

Empirical validation

1. Does our methodology respect consensus on policy interpretability?
2. Is policy unfolding necessary to respect the consensus?
3. What kind of results we can obtain using our proposed methodology?

We imitate ~ 40000 expert policies from `stable-baselines3` using various policy classes/nb parameters on various environments.

Result: unfolding policies is necessary to respect consensus
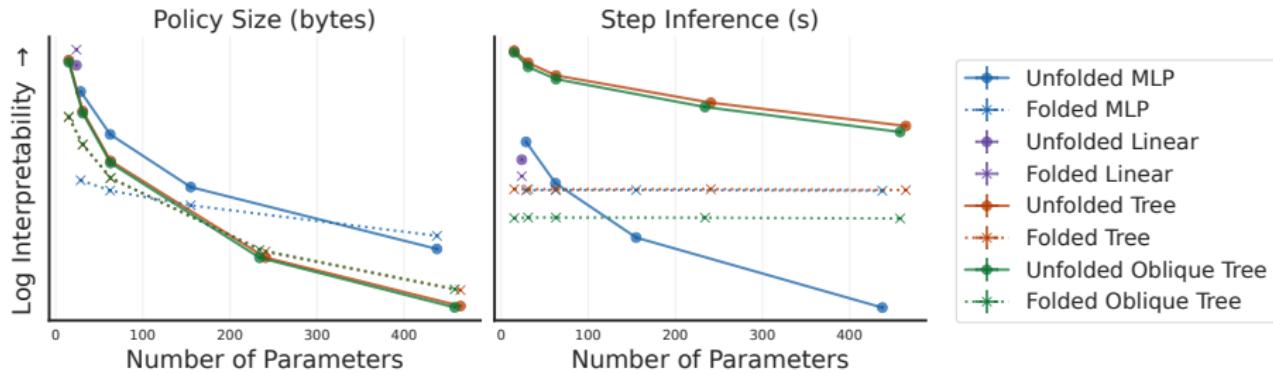
Figure: Policies interpretability on classic control environments. We plot 95% stratified bootstrapped confidence intervals around means in both axes. In each sub-plot, interpretability is measured with either bytes or inference speed.

Result: there is no dominating policy class for all environments
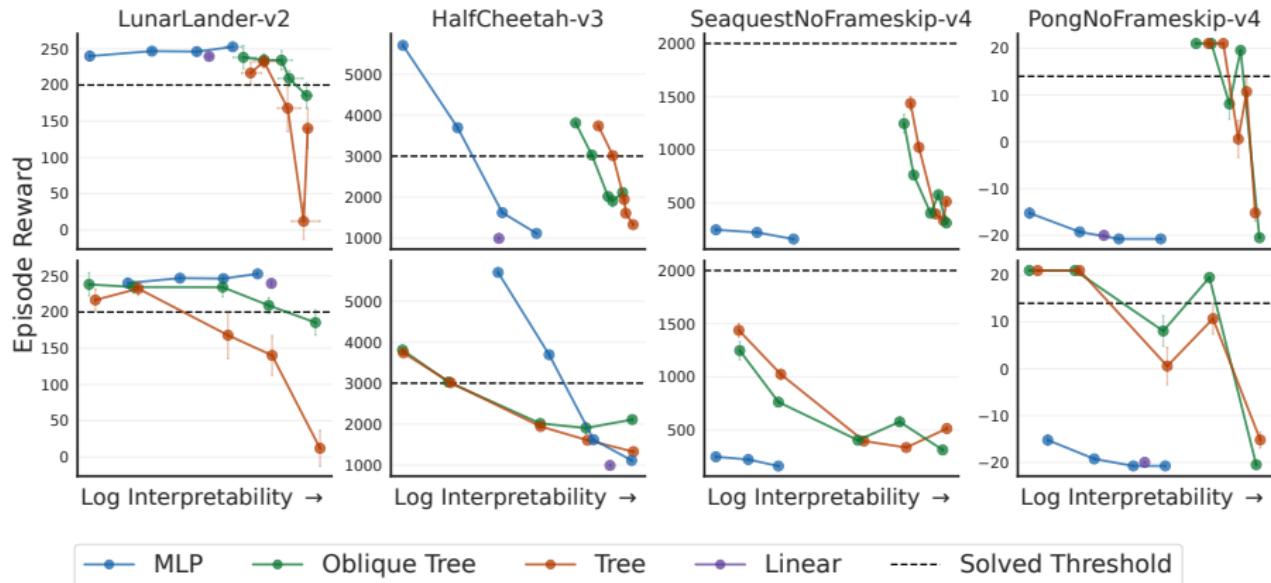
Figure: Interpretability-Performance trade-offs for representative environments. Top row, interpretability is measured with step inference times. Bottom row, the interpretability is measured with policy size.

Perspectives

- Because there is no dominating class for all problems in terms of interpretability-performance trade-offs, beliefs such as "trees are more interpretable than neural networks" should be used with caution.
- Tree-like policy classes can have good inductive bias for game-like envrionments.
- Can a human study confirm our results?
- Can our methodology be used for evaluating the interpretability of (very) big models?
- Can we use our policy programs as low level skills (hierarchical RL)?

Conclusion: interpretable machine learning is a difficult research topic

- Technical challenges: partial observability in SDM, NP-hardness.
  $\rightarrow$ Focus on indirect approaches and/or on POMDP research first.
- Fundamental challenges: no definition.
  $\rightarrow$ Discuss with the community (InterpPol workshop).
- Decision trees offer good inductive bias for SDM in games or tabular data.

My hope

Motivate interpretability by finding a real-world problem where interpretability is *really* necessary ([Nag+24]).

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