

# Chapter ML:III

## III. Decision Trees

- ❑ Decision Trees Basics
- ❑ Impurity Functions
- ❑ Decision Tree Algorithms
- ❑ Decision Tree Pruning

# Decision Trees Basics

## Classification Problems with Nominal Features

Setting:

- $X$  is a set of feature vectors.
- $C$  is a set of classes.
- $c : X \rightarrow C$  is the (unknown) ideal classifier for  $X$ .
- $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, c(\mathbf{x}_1)), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, c(\mathbf{x}_n))\} \subseteq X \times C$  is a set of examples.

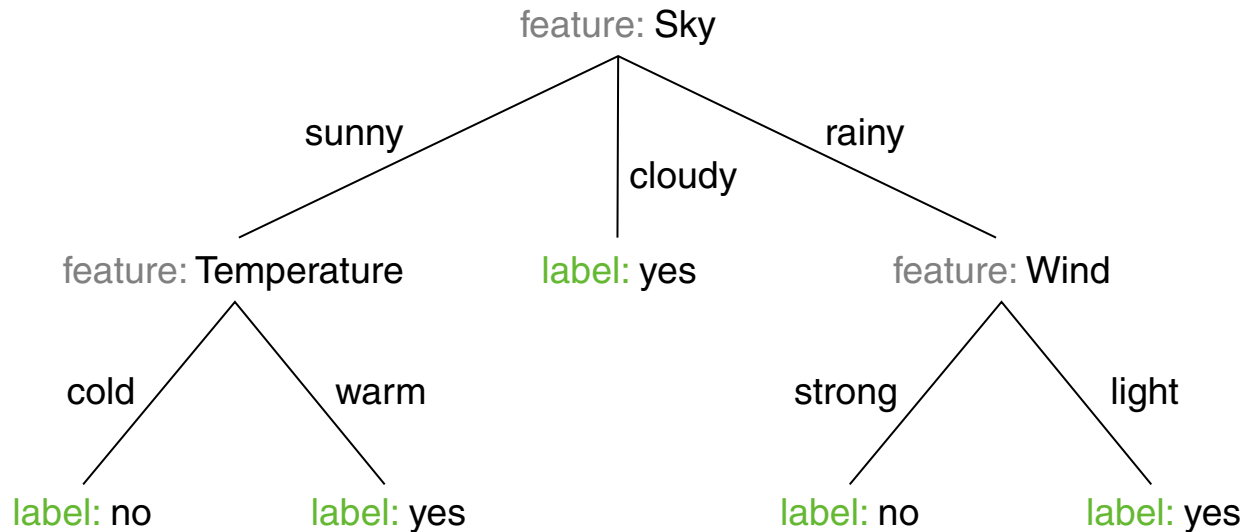
Todo:

- Approximate  $c(\mathbf{x})$ , which is implicitly given via  $D$ , with a decision tree.

# Decision Trees Basics

## Decision Tree for the Concept “EnjoySport”

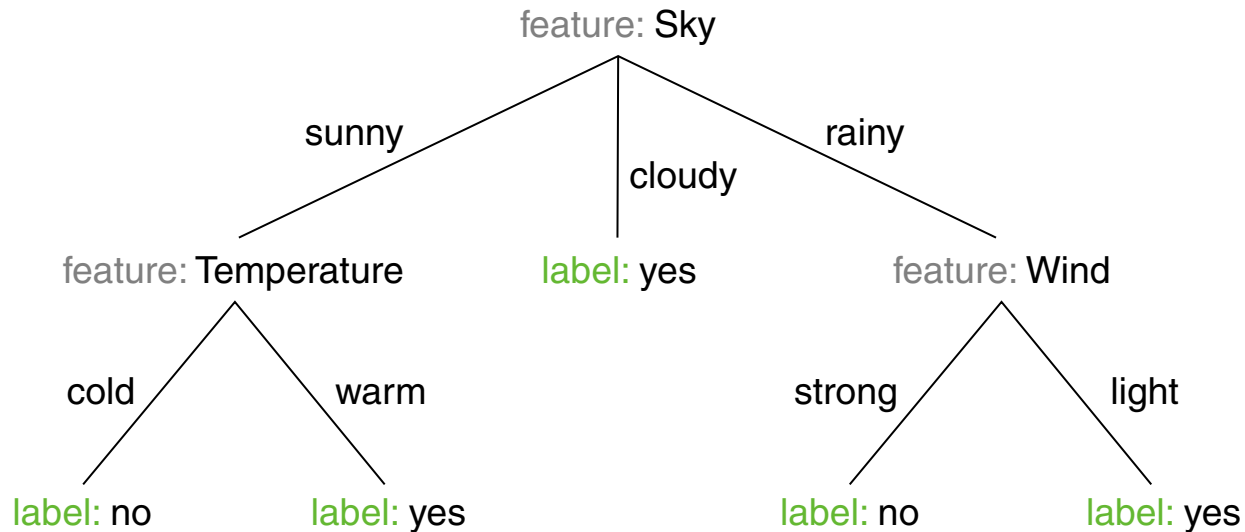
Example	Sky	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Water	Forecast	EnjoySport
1	sunny	warm	normal	strong	warm	same	yes
2	sunny	warm	high	strong	warm	same	yes
3	rainy	cold	high	strong	warm	change	no
...							



# Decision Trees Basics

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...							



Splitting of  $X$  at the root node:

$$X = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_{\text{Sky}} = \text{sunny}\} \cup \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_{\text{Sky}} = \text{cloudy}\} \cup \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_{\text{Sky}} = \text{rainy}\}$$

# Decision Trees Basics

## Definition 1 (Splitting)

Let  $X$  be a set of feature vectors and  $D$  a set of examples. A splitting of  $X$  is a decomposition of  $X$  into mutually exclusive subsets  $X_1, \dots, X_s$ . I.e.,

$X = X_1 \cup \dots \cup X_s$  with  $X_j \neq \emptyset$  and  $X_j \cap X_{j'} = \emptyset$ , where  $j, j' \in \{1, \dots, s\}, j \neq j'$ .

A splitting  $X_1, \dots, X_s$  of  $X$  induces a splitting  $D_1, \dots, D_s$  of  $D$ , where  $D_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, s$ , is defined as  $\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D \mid \mathbf{x} \in X_j\}$ .

# Decision Trees Basics

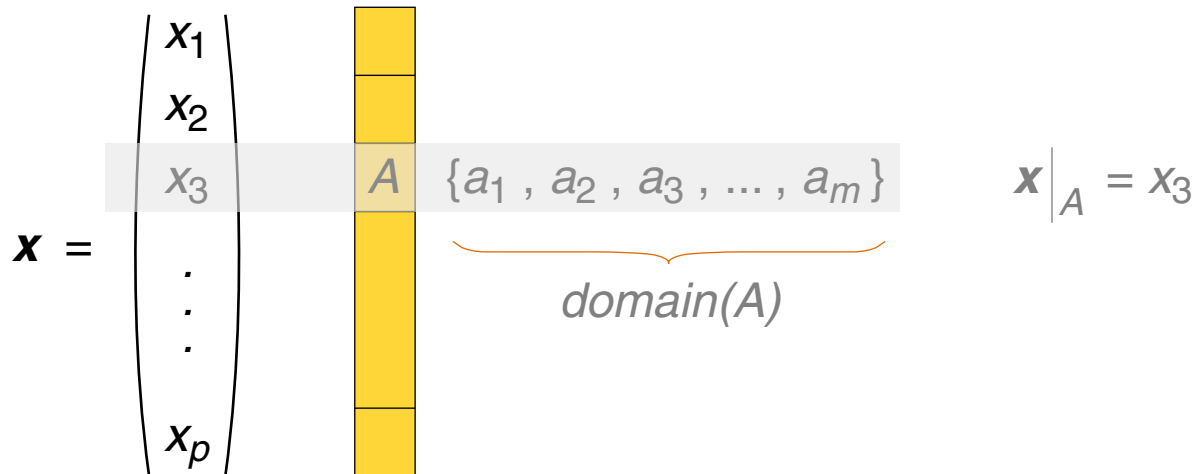
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A splitting depends on the measurement scale of a feature:

1.  $m$ -ary splitting induced by a (nominal) feature  $A$  with finite domain:

$$A = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\} : X = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A = a_1\} \cup \dots \cup \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A = a_m\}$$

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2. Binary splitting induced by a (nominal) feature  $A$ :

$$A' \subset A : X = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A \in A'\} \cup \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A \notin A'\}$$

3. Binary splitting induced by an ordinal feature  $A$ :

$$v \in \text{dom}(A) : X = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A \succeq v\} \cup \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A \prec v\}$$



## Remarks:

- ❑ The syntax  $\mathbf{x}|_A$  denotes the projection operator, which returns that vector component (dimension) of  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_p)$  that is associated with the feature  $A$ . Without loss of generality this projection can be presumed being unique.
- ❑ A splitting of  $X$  into two disjoint, non-empty subsets is called a binary splitting.
- ❑ We consider only splittings of  $X$  that are induced by a splitting of a single feature  $A$  of  $X$ .  
Keyword: monothetic splitting.  
By contrast, a polythetic splitting considers several features at the same time.

# Decision Trees Basics

## Definition 2 (Decision Tree)

Let  $X$  be a set of features and  $C$  a set of classes. A decision tree  $T$  for  $X$  and  $C$  is a finite tree with a distinguished root node. A non-leaf node  $t$  of  $T$  has assigned (1) a set  $X(t) \subseteq X$ , (2) a splitting of  $X(t)$ , and (3) a one-to-one mapping of the subsets of the splitting to its successors.

$X(t) = X$  iff  $t$  is root node. A leaf node of  $T$  has assigned a class from  $C$ .

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Classification of some  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  given a decision tree  $T$ :

1. Find the root node  $t$  of  $T$ .
2. If  $t$  is a non-leaf node, find among its successors that node  $t'$  whose subset of the splitting of  $X(t)$  contains  $\mathbf{x}$ . Repeat this step with  $t = t'$ .
3. If  $t$  is a leaf node, label  $\mathbf{x}$  with the respective class.

→ The set of possible decision trees forms the hypothesis space  $H$ .

## Remarks:

- ❑ The classification of an  $x \in X$  determines a unique path from the root node of  $T$  to some leaf node of  $T$ .
- ❑ At each non-leaf node a particular feature of  $x$  is evaluated in order to find the next node along with a possible next feature to be analyzed.
- ❑ Each path from the root node to some leaf node corresponds to a conjunction of feature values, which are successively tested. This test can be formulated as a decision rule.

### Example:

IF Sky=rainy AND Wind=light THEN EnjoySport=yes

If all tests in  $T$  are of the kind shown in the example, namely, an equality test regarding a feature value, all feature domains must be finite.

- ❑ If in all non-leaf nodes of  $T$  only one feature is evaluated at a time,  $T$  is called a monothetic decision tree. Examples for *polythetic* decision trees are the so-called oblique decision trees.
- ❑ Decision trees became popular in 1986, with the introduction of the ID3 Algorithm by J. R. Quinlan.

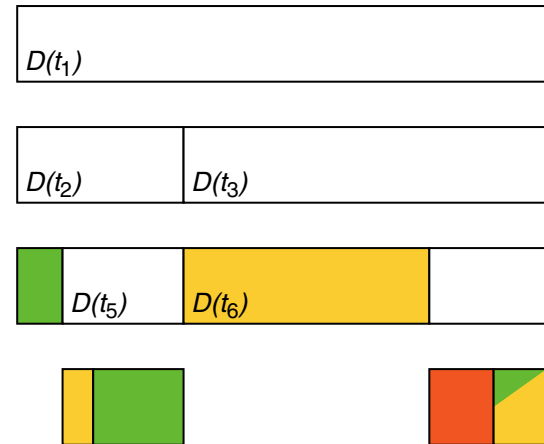
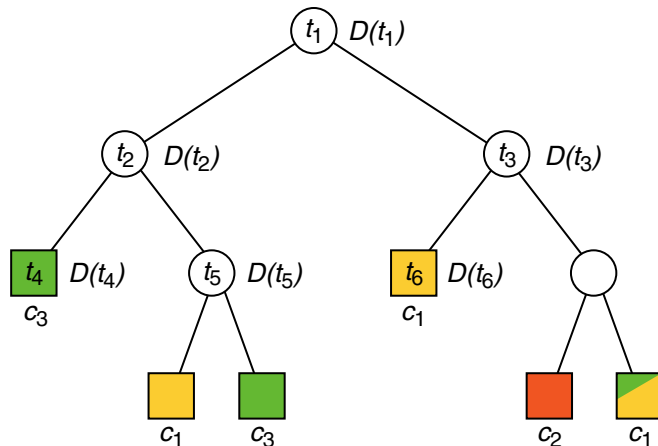
# Decision Trees Basics

## Notation

Let  $T$  be a decision tree for  $X$  and  $C$ , let  $D$  be a set of examples [setting], and let  $t$  be a node of  $T$ . Then we agree on the following notation:

- $X(t)$  denotes the subset of  $X$  that is represented by  $t$ .
- $D(t)$  denotes the subset of the example set  $D$  that is represented by  $t$ , where  $D(t) = \{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D \mid \mathbf{x} \in X(t)\}$ . (see the [splitting definition](#))

Illustration:



## Remarks:

- ❑ The set  $X(t)$  is comprised of those members  $\mathbf{x}$  of  $X$  that are filtered by a path from the root node of  $T$  to the node  $t$ .
- ❑  $leaves(T)$  denotes the set of all leaf nodes of  $T$ .
- ❑ A single node  $t$  of a decision tree  $T$ , and hence  $T$  itself, encode a piecewise constant function. This way,  $t$  as well as  $T$  can form complex, non-linear classifiers. The functions encoded by  $t$  and  $T$  differ in the number of evaluated features of  $\mathbf{x}$ , which is one for  $t$  and the tree height for  $T$ .
- ❑ In the following we will use the symbols “ $t$ ” and “ $T$ ” to denote also the classifiers that are encoded by a node  $t$  and a tree  $T$  respectively:

$$t, T : X \rightarrow C \quad (\text{instead of } y_t, y_T : X \rightarrow C)$$

# Decision Trees Basics

## Algorithm Template: Construction

Algorithm: *DT-construct* Decision Tree Construction

Input:  $D$  (Sub)set of examples.

Output:  $t$  Root node of a decision (sub)tree.

*DT-construct*( $D$ )

1.  $t = \text{newNode}()$   
 $\text{label}(t) = \text{representativeClass}(D)$
2. **IF**  $\text{impure}(D)$   
    **THEN**  $\text{criterion} = \text{splitCriterion}(D)$   
    **ELSE**  $\text{return}(t)$
3.  $\{D_1, \dots, D_s\} = \text{decompose}(D, \text{criterion})$
4. **FOREACH**  $D'$  **IN**  $\{D_1, \dots, D_s\}$  **DO**  
     $\text{addSuccessor}(t, \text{DT-construct}(D'))$   
**ENDDO**
5.  $\text{return}(t)$

[Illustration]

# Decision Trees Basics

## Algorithm Template: Classification

Algorithm: *DT-classify* Decision Tree Classification

Input:  $\mathbf{x}$  Feature vector.  
 $t$  Root node of a decision (sub)tree.

Output:  $y(\mathbf{x})$  Class of feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in the decision (sub)tree below  $t$ .

*DT-classify*( $\mathbf{x}, t$ )

```
1. IF isLeafNode( $t$ )  
   THEN return(label( $t$ ))  
   ELSE return(DT-classify( $\mathbf{x}, \textit{splitSuccessor}(t, \mathbf{x})$ )
```



## Remarks:

- ❑ Since *DT-construct* assigns to each node of a decision tree  $T$  a class, each subtree of  $T$  (as well as each pruned version of a subtree of  $T$ ) represents a valid decision tree on its own.
- ❑ Functions of *DT-construct*:
  - *representativeClass*( $D$ )  
Returns a representative class for the example set  $D$ . Note that, due to pruning, each node may become a leaf node.
  - *impure*( $D$ )  
Evaluates the (im)purity of a set  $D$  of examples.
  - *splitCriterion*( $D$ )  
Returns a split criterion for  $X(t)$  based on the examples in  $D(t)$ .
  - *decompose*( $D$ , *criterion*)  
Returns a splitting of  $D$  according to *criterion*.
  - *addSuccessor*( $t$ ,  $t'$ )  
Inserts the successor  $t'$  for node  $t$ .
- ❑ Functions of *DT-classify*:
  - *isLeafNode*( $t$ )  
Tests whether  $t$  is a leaf node.
  - *splitSuccessor*( $t$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ )  
Returns the (unique) successor  $t'$  of  $t$  for which  $\mathbf{x} \in X(t')$  holds.

# Decision Trees Basics

## When to Use Decision Trees

Problem characteristics that may suggest a decision tree classifier:

- ❑ the objects can be described by feature-value combinations
- ❑ the domain and range of the target function are discrete
- ❑ hypotheses can be represented in disjunctive normal form
- ❑ the training set contains noise

Selected application areas:

- ❑ medical diagnosis
- ❑ fault detection in technical systems
- ❑ risk analysis for credit approval
- ❑ basic scheduling tasks such as calendar management
- ❑ classification of design flaws in software engineering

# Decision Trees Basics

## On the Construction of Decision Trees

- ❑ How to exploit an example set both efficiently and effectively?
- ❑ According to what rationale should a node become a leaf node?
- ❑ How to assign a class for nodes of impure example sets?
- ❑ How to evaluate decision tree performance?

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees

1. Size

2. Classification error

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees

### 1. Size

Among those theories that can explain an observation, the most simple one is to be preferred (*Ockham's Razor*):

*Entia non sunt multiplicanda sine necessitate.*

[Johannes Clauberg 1622-1665]

Here: among all decision trees of minimum classification error we choose the one of smallest size.

### 2. Classification error

Quantifies the rigor according to which a class label is assigned to  $\mathbf{x}$  in a leaf node of  $T$ , based on the examples in  $D$ . [\[Illustration\]](#)

If all leaf nodes of a decision tree  $T$  represent a single example of  $D$ , the classification error of  $T$  with respect to  $D$  is zero.

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Size

- ❑ Leaf node number
- ❑ Tree height
- ❑ External path length
- ❑ Weighted external path length

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Size

- ❑ Leaf node number

The leaf node number corresponds to number of rules that are encoded in a decision tree.

- ❑ Tree height

The tree height corresponds to the maximum rule length and bounds the number of premises to be evaluated to reach a class decision.

- ❑ External path length

The external path length totals the lengths of all paths from the root of a tree to its leaf nodes. It corresponds to the space to store all rules that are encoded in a decision tree.

- ❑ Weighted external path length

The weighted external path length is defined as the external path length with each length value weighted by the number of examples in  $D$  that are classified by this path.

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Size (continued)

Example set  $D$  for mushrooms, implicitly defining a feature space  $X$  over the three dimensions color, size, and points:

	Color	Size	Points	Edibility
1	red	small	yes	toxic
2	brown	small	no	edible
3	brown	large	yes	edible
4	green	small	no	edible
5	red	large	no	edible

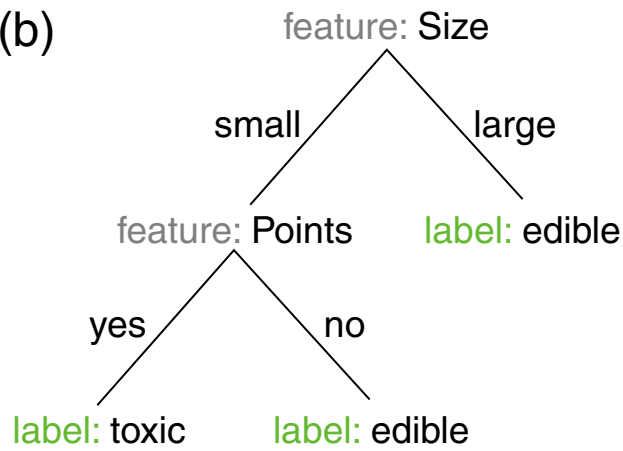
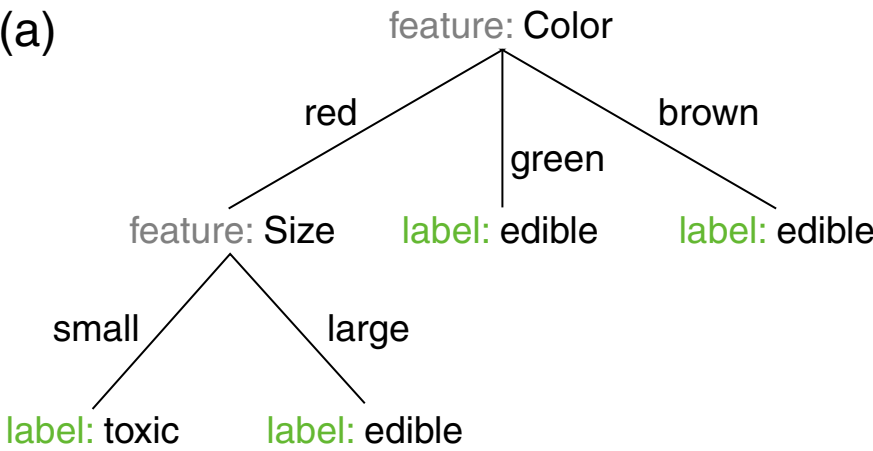




# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Size (continued)

The following trees correctly classify all examples in  $D$  :

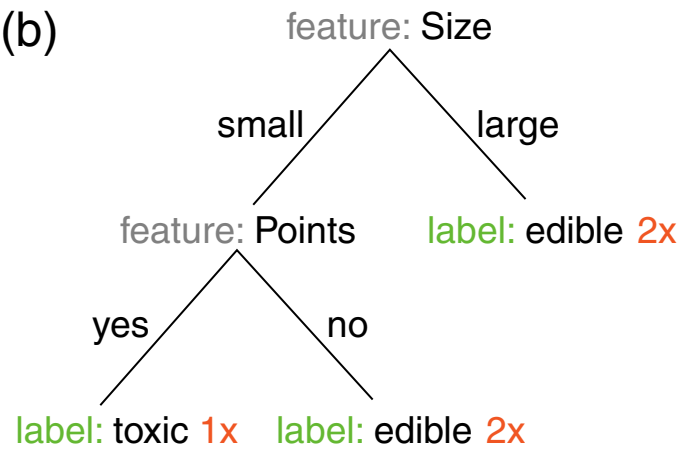
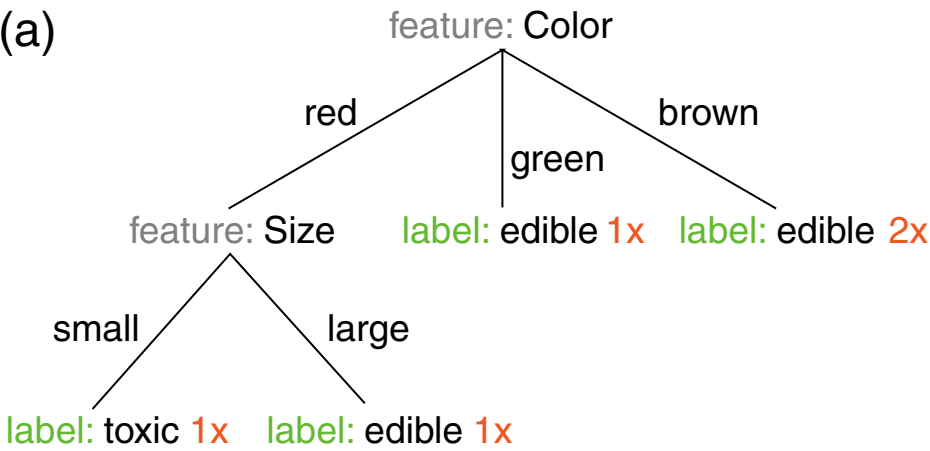


Criterion	(a)	(b)
Leaf node number	4	3
Tree height	2	2
External path length	6	5

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Size (continued)

The following trees correctly classify all examples in  $D$  :



Criterion	(a)	(b)
Leaf node number	4	3
Tree height	2	2
External path length	6	5
Weighted external path length	7	8

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Size (continued)

### Theorem 3 (External Path Length Bound)

The problem to decide for a set of examples  $D$  whether or not a decision tree exists whose external path length is bounded by  $b$ , is NP-complete.

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Classification Error

Given a decision tree  $T$ , a set of examples  $D$ , and a node  $t$  of  $T$  that represents the example subset  $D(t) \subseteq D$ . Then, the class that is assigned to  $t$ ,  $label(t)$ , is defined as follows [\[Illustration\]](#):

$$label(t) = \operatorname{argmax}_{c \in C} \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D(t) : c(\mathbf{x}) = c\}|}{|D(t)|}$$

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Misclassification rate of node classifier  $t$  wrt.  $D(t)$ :

$$Err(t, D(t)) = \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D(t) : c(\mathbf{x}) \neq label(t)\}|}{|D(t)|} = 1 - \max_{c \in C} \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D(t) : c(\mathbf{x}) = c\}|}{|D(t)|}$$

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Misclassification rate of decision tree classifier  $T$  wrt.  $D$ :

$$Err(T, D) = \sum_{t \in \underline{leaves}(T)} \frac{|D(t)|}{|D|} \cdot Err(t, D(t))$$

## Remarks:

- ❑ Observe the difference between  $\max(f)$  and  $\operatorname{argmax}(f)$ . Both expressions maximize  $f$ , but the former returns the maximum  $f$ -value (the image) while the latter returns the argument (the preimage) for which  $f$  becomes maximum:
  - $\max_{c \in C}(f(c)) = \max\{f(c) \mid c \in C\}$
  - $\operatorname{argmax}_{c \in C}(f(c)) = c^* \Rightarrow f(c^*) = \max_{c \in C}(f(c))$
- ❑ The classifiers  $t$  and  $T$  may not have been constructed using  $D(t)$  as training data. I.e., the example set  $D(t)$  is in the role of a holdout test set.
- ❑ The true misclassification rate  $Err^*(T)$  is based on a probability measure  $P$  on  $X \times C$  (and not on relative frequencies). For a node  $t$  of  $T$  this probability becomes minimum iff:

$$label(t) = \operatorname{argmax}_{c \in C} P(c \mid X(t))$$

- ❑ If  $D$  has been used as training set, a reliable interpretation of the (training) error  $Err(T, D)$  in terms of  $Err^*(T)$  requires the Inductive Learning Hypothesis to hold. This implies that the distribution of  $C$  over the training set  $D$  corresponds to the distribution of  $C$  over  $X$ .

# Decision Trees Basics

## Evaluation of Decision Trees: Misclassification Costs

Given a decision tree  $T$ , a set of examples  $D$ , and a node  $t$  of  $T$  that represents the example subset  $D(t) \subseteq D$ . In addition, there is a cost measure for misclassification. Then, the class that is assigned to  $t$ ,  $label(t)$ , is defined as follows:

$$label(t) = \operatorname{argmin}_{c' \in C} \sum_{c \in C} \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D(t) : c(\mathbf{x}) = c\}|}{|D(t)|} \cdot cost(c' \mid c)$$



# Decision Trees Basics

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Misclassification costs of node classifier  $t$  wrt.  $D(t)$ :

$$Err_{cost}(t, D(t)) = \frac{1}{|D_t|} \cdot \sum_{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D(t)} cost(label(t) | c(\mathbf{x})) = \min_{c' \in C} \sum_{c \in C} \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D(t) : c(\mathbf{x}) = c\}|}{|D(t)|} \cdot cost(c' | c)$$

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Misclassification costs of decision tree classifier  $T$  wrt.  $D$ :

$$Err_{cost}(T, D) = \sum_{t \in leaves(T)} \frac{|D(t)|}{|D|} \cdot Err_{cost}(t, D(t))$$

## Remarks:

- Again, observe the difference between  $\min(f)$  and  $\operatorname{argmin}(f)$ . Both expressions minimize  $f$ , but the former returns the minimum  $f$ -value (the image) while the latter returns the argument (the preimage) for which  $f$  becomes minimum.

# Chapter ML:III

## III. Decision Trees

- ❑ Decision Trees Basics
- ❑ Impurity Functions
- ❑ Decision Tree Algorithms
- ❑ Decision Tree Pruning

# Impurity Functions

## Splitting

Let  $t$  be a leaf node of an incomplete decision tree, and let  $D(t)$  be the subset of the example set  $D$  that is represented by  $t$ . [\[illustration\]](#)

Possible criteria for a splitting of  $X(t)$  :

1. Size of  $D(t)$ .
2. Purity of  $D(t)$ .
3. Impurity reduction of  $D(t)$ .

# Impurity Functions

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1. Size of  $D(t)$ .

$D(t)$  is not split if  $|D(t)|$  is below a threshold.

2. Purity of  $D(t)$ .

$D(t)$  is not split if all examples in  $D(t)$  are members of the same class.

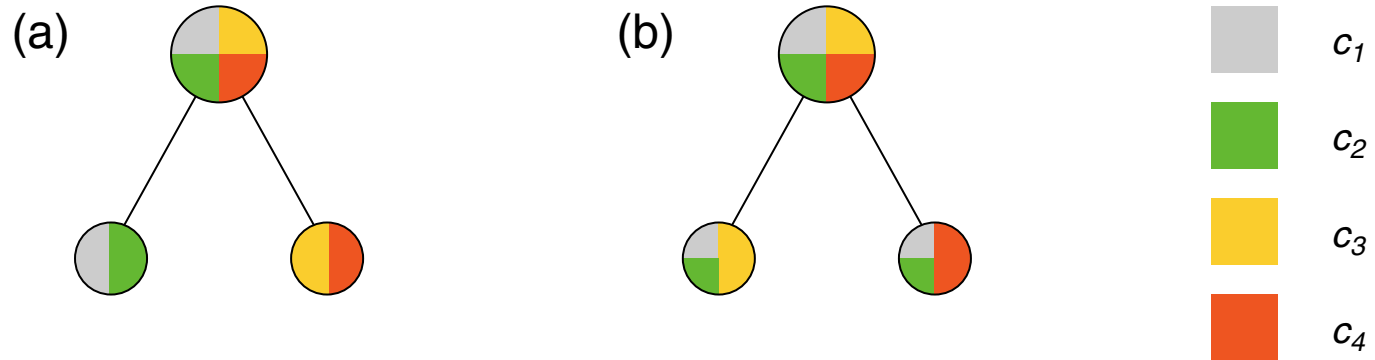
3. Impurity reduction of  $D(t)$ .

$D(t)$  is not split if its impurity reduction,  $\Delta\iota$ , is below a threshold.

# Impurity Functions

## Splitting (continued)

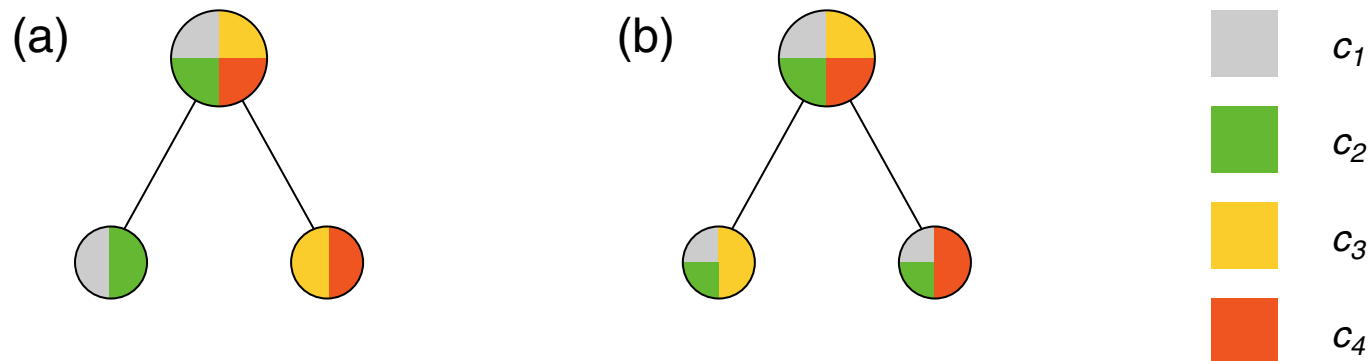
Let  $X$  be a set of feature vectors,  $D \subseteq X$  a set of examples, and  $C = \{c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4\}$  a set of classes. Distribution of  $D$  for two possible splittings of  $X$ :



# Impurity Functions

## Splitting (continued)

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- ❑ Splitting (a) minimizes the *impurity* of the subsets of  $D$  in the leaf nodes and should be preferred over splitting (b). This argument presumes that the misclassification costs are independent of the classes.
- ❑ The impurity is a function defined on  $\mathcal{P}(D)$ , the set of all subsets of an example set  $D$ .



# Impurity Functions

## Definition 4 (Impurity Function $\iota$ )

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . An impurity function  $\iota : [0; 1]^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function defined on the standard  $k-1$ -simplex, denoted  $\Delta^{k-1}$ , for which the following properties hold:

- (a)  $\iota$  becomes minimum at points  $(1, 0, \dots, 0), (0, 1, \dots, 0), \dots, (0, \dots, 0, 1)$ .
- (b)  $\iota$  is symmetric with regard to its arguments,  $p_1, \dots, p_k$ .
- (c)  $\iota$  becomes maximum at point  $(1/k, \dots, 1/k)$ .

# Impurity Functions

## Definition 5 (Impurity of an Example Set $\iota(D)$ )

Let  $X$  be a set of feature vectors,  $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$  a set of classes,  $c : X \rightarrow C$  the ideal classifier for  $X$ , and  $D \subseteq X \times C$  a set of examples. Moreover, let  $\iota : [0; 1]^k \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be an impurity function. Then, the impurity of  $D$ , denoted as  $\iota(D)$ , is defined as follows:

$$\iota(D) = \iota \left( \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_1\}|}{|D|}, \dots, \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_k\}|}{|D|} \right)$$

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## Definition 6 (Impurity Reduction $\Delta\iota$ )

Let  $D_1, \dots, D_s$  be a splitting of an example set  $D$ , which is induced by a splitting of  $X$ . Then, the resulting impurity reduction, denoted as  $\Delta\iota(D, \{D_1, \dots, D_s\})$ , is defined as follows:

$$\Delta\iota(D, \{D_1, \dots, D_s\}) = \iota(D) - \sum_{j=1}^s \frac{|D_j|}{|D|} \cdot \iota(D_j)$$

## Remarks:

- ❑ The standard  $k-1$ -simplex comprises all  $k$ -tuples with non-negative elements that sum to 1:  
$$\Delta^{k-1} = \left\{ (p_1, \dots, p_k) \in \mathbf{R}^k : \sum_{i=1}^k p_i = 1 \text{ and } p_i \geq 0 \text{ for all } i \right\}$$
- ❑ Observe the different domains of the impurity function  $\iota$  in the definitions for  $\iota$  and  $\iota(D)$ , namely,  $[0; 1]^k$  and  $D$ . The domains correspond to each other: the set of examples,  $D$ , defines via its class portions an element from  $[0; 1]^k$  and vice versa.
- ❑ The properties in the definition of the impurity function  $\iota$  suggest to minimize the external path length of  $T$  with respect to  $D$  in order to minimize the overall impurity characteristics of  $T$ .
- ❑ Within the *DT-construct* algorithm usually a greedy strategy (local optimization) is employed to minimize the overall impurity characteristics of a decision tree  $T$ .

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on the Misclassification Rate

Definition for two classes [impurity function] :

$$\iota_{\text{misclass}}(p_1, p_2) = 1 - \max\{p_1, p_2\} = \begin{cases} p_1 & \text{if } 0 \leq p_1 \leq 0.5 \\ 1 - p_1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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# Impurity Functions

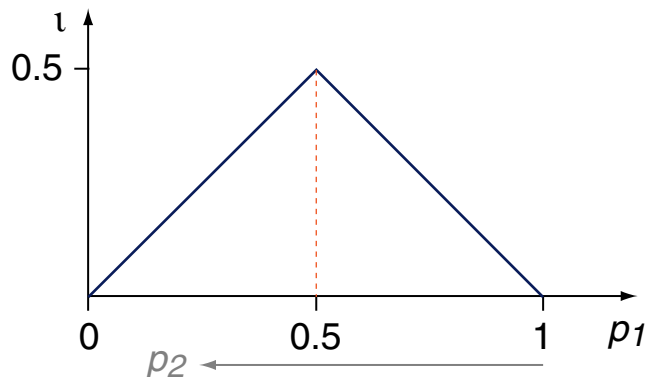
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Graph of the function  $\iota_{\text{misclass}}(p_1, 1 - p_1)$  :



[Graphs: misclassification, [entropy](#), [gini](#)]

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on the Misclassification Rate (continued)

Definition for  $k$  classes:

$$\iota_{\text{misclass}}(p_1, \dots, p_k) = 1 - \max_{i=1, \dots, k} p_i$$

$$\iota_{\text{misclass}}(D) = 1 - \max_{c \in C} \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c\}|}{|D|}$$

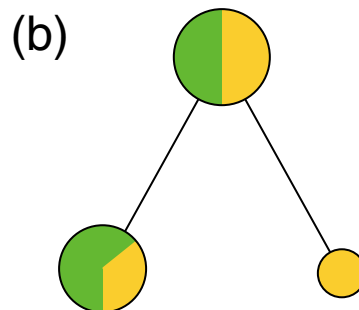
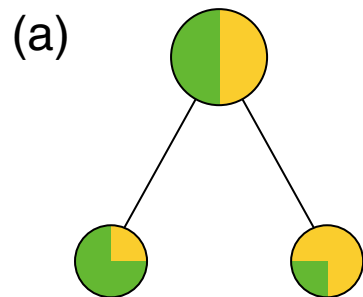


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## Impurity Functions Based on the Misclassification Rate (continued)

Problems:

- ❑  $\Delta \ell_{\text{misclass}} = 0$  may hold for all possible splittings.
- ❑ The impurity function that is induced by the misclassification rate underestimates pure nodes, as illustrated in splitting (b):

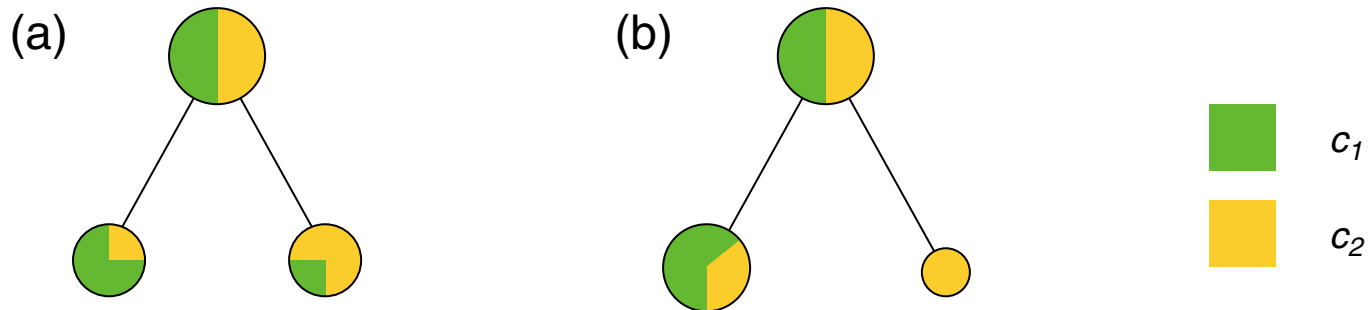


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$$\Delta \iota_{\text{misclass}} = \iota_{\text{misclass}}(D) - \left( \frac{|D_1|}{|D|} \cdot \iota_{\text{misclass}}(D_1) + \frac{|D_2|}{|D|} \cdot \iota_{\text{misclass}}(D_2) \right)$$

left splitting:  $\Delta \iota_{\text{misclass}} = \frac{1}{2} - \left( \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \right) = \frac{1}{4}$

right splitting:  $\Delta \iota_{\text{misclass}} = \frac{1}{2} - \left( \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot 0 \right) = \frac{1}{4}$

# Impurity Functions

## Definition 7 (Strict Impurity Function)

Let  $\iota : [0; 1]^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an impurity function and let  $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}' \in \Delta^{k-1}$ . Then  $\iota$  is called strict, if it is strictly concave:

$$(c) \rightarrow (c') \quad \iota(\lambda \mathbf{p} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{p}') > \lambda \iota(\mathbf{p}) + (1 - \lambda) \iota(\mathbf{p}'), \quad 0 < \lambda < 1, \mathbf{p} \neq \mathbf{p}'$$

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## Lemma 8

Let  $\iota$  be a *strict* impurity function and let  $D_1, \dots, D_s$  be a splitting of an example set  $D$ , which is induced by a splitting of  $X$ . Then the following inequality holds:

$$\underline{\Delta} \iota(D, \{D_1, \dots, D_s\}) \geq 0$$

The equality is given iff for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$  and  $j \in \{1, \dots, s\}$  holds:

$$\frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_i\}|}{|D|} = \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D_j : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_i\}|}{|D_j|}$$

## Remarks:

- ❑ Equality means that the splitting of  $D$  resembles exactly the class distribution of  $D$ .
- ❑ Strict concavity entails Property (c) of the [impurity function](#) definition.
- ❑ For two classes, strict concavity means  $\iota(p_1, 1 - p_1) > 0$ , where  $0 < p_1 < 1$ .
- ❑ If  $\iota$  is a twice differentiable function, strict concavity is equivalent with a negative definite Hessian of  $\iota$ .
- ❑ With properly chosen coefficients, polynomials of second degree fulfill the Properties (a) and (b) of the [impurity function](#) definition as well as strict concavity. See impurity functions based on the [Gini index](#) in this regard.
- ❑ The impurity function that is induced by the misclassification rate is concave, but it is not strictly concave.
- ❑ The proof of Lemma 8 exploits the strict concavity property of  $\iota$ .

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on Entropy

### Definition 9 (Entropy)

Let  $A$  denote an event and let  $P(A)$  denote the occurrence probability of  $A$ . Then the entropy (self-information, information content) of  $A$  is defined as  $-\log_2(P(A))$ .

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an experiment with the exclusive outcomes (events)  $A_1, \dots, A_k$ . Then the mean information content of  $\mathcal{A}$ , denoted as  $H(\mathcal{A})$ , is called Shannon entropy or entropy of experiment  $\mathcal{A}$  and is defined as follows:

$$H(\mathcal{A}) = - \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i) \cdot \log_2(P(A_i))$$

## Remarks:

- ❑ The smaller the occurrence probability of an event, the larger is its entropy. An event that is certain has zero entropy.
- ❑ The Shannon entropy combines the entropies of an experiment's outcomes, using the outcome probabilities as weights.
- ❑ In the entropy definition we stipulate the identity  $0 \cdot \log_2(0) = 0$ .
- ❑ Related. Entropy encoding methods such as Huffman coding. [[Wikipedia](#)]
- ❑ Related. The perplexity of a discrete probability distribution  $p$  is defined as  $2^{H(p)}$ . [[Wikipedia](#)]

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on Entropy (continued)

### Definition 10 (Conditional Entropy, Information Gain)

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an experiment with the exclusive outcomes (events)  $A_1, \dots, A_k$ , and let  $\mathcal{B}$  be another experiment with the outcomes  $B_1, \dots, B_s$ . Then the conditional entropy of the combined experiment  $(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B})$  is defined as follows:

$$H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B}) = \sum_{j=1}^s P(B_j) \cdot H(\mathcal{A} \mid B_j),$$

where  $H(\mathcal{A} \mid B_j) = - \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i \mid B_j) \cdot \log_2(P(A_i \mid B_j))$



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$$H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B}) = \sum_{j=1}^s P(B_j) \cdot H(\mathcal{A} \mid B_j),$$

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The information **gain** due to experiment  $\mathcal{B}$  is defined as follows:

$$H(\mathcal{A}) - H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B}) = H(\mathcal{A}) - \sum_{j=1}^s P(B_j) \cdot H(\mathcal{A} \mid B_j)$$

Remarks [\[Bayes for classification\]](#) :

- ❑ Information gain is defined as reduction in entropy.
- ❑ In the context of decision trees, experiment  $\mathcal{A}$  corresponds to classifying feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$  with regard to the target concept. A possible question, whose answer will inform us about which event  $A_i \in \mathcal{A}$  occurred, is the following: “Does  $\mathbf{x}$  belong to class  $c_i$ ?”  
Likewise, experiment  $\mathcal{B}$  corresponds to evaluating feature  $B$  of feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$ . A possible question, whose answer will inform us about which event  $B_j \in \mathcal{B}$  occurred, is the following: “Does  $\mathbf{x}$  have value  $b_j$  for feature  $B$ ?”
- ❑ Rationale: Typically, the events “target concept class” and “feature value” are statistically dependent. Hence, the entropy of the event “ $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class  $c_i$ ” will become smaller if we learn about the value of some feature of  $\mathbf{x}$  (recall that the class of  $\mathbf{x}$  is unknown).  
We experience an information gain with regard to the outcome of experiment  $\mathcal{A}$ , which is rooted in our information about the outcome of experiment  $\mathcal{B}$ . Under no circumstances the information gain will be negative; the information gain is zero if the involved events are *conditionally independent*:

$$P(A_i) = P(A_i \mid B_j), \quad i \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \quad j \in \{1, \dots, s\},$$

which leads to a split as specified as the special case in Lemma 8.

## Remarks (continued) :

- ❑ Since  $H(\mathcal{A})$  is constant, the feature that provides the maximum information gain (= the maximally informative feature) is given by the minimization of  $H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B})$ .
- ❑ The expanded form of  $H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B})$  reads as follows:

$$H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B}) = - \sum_{j=1}^s P(B_j) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i \mid B_j) \cdot \log_2(P(A_i \mid B_j))$$

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on Entropy (continued)

Definition for two classes [impurity function] :

$$\iota_{entropy}(p_1, p_2) = -(p_1 \cdot \log_2(p_1) + p_2 \cdot \log_2(p_2))$$

# Impurity Functions

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$$\iota_{entropy}(D) = - \left( \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_1\}|}{|D|} \cdot \log_2 \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_1\}|}{|D|} + \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_2\}|}{|D|} \cdot \log_2 \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_2\}|}{|D|} \right)$$

# Impurity Functions

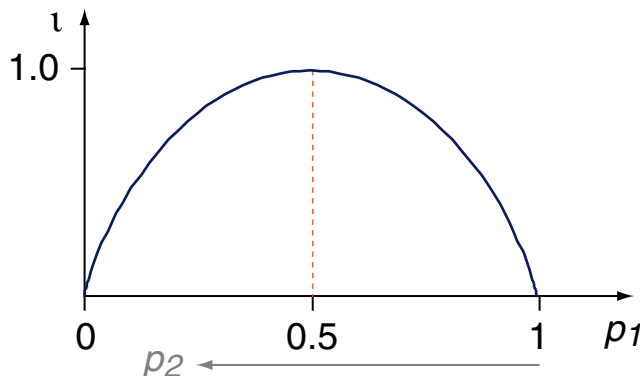
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Graph of the function  $\iota_{entropy}(p_1, 1 - p_1)$  :

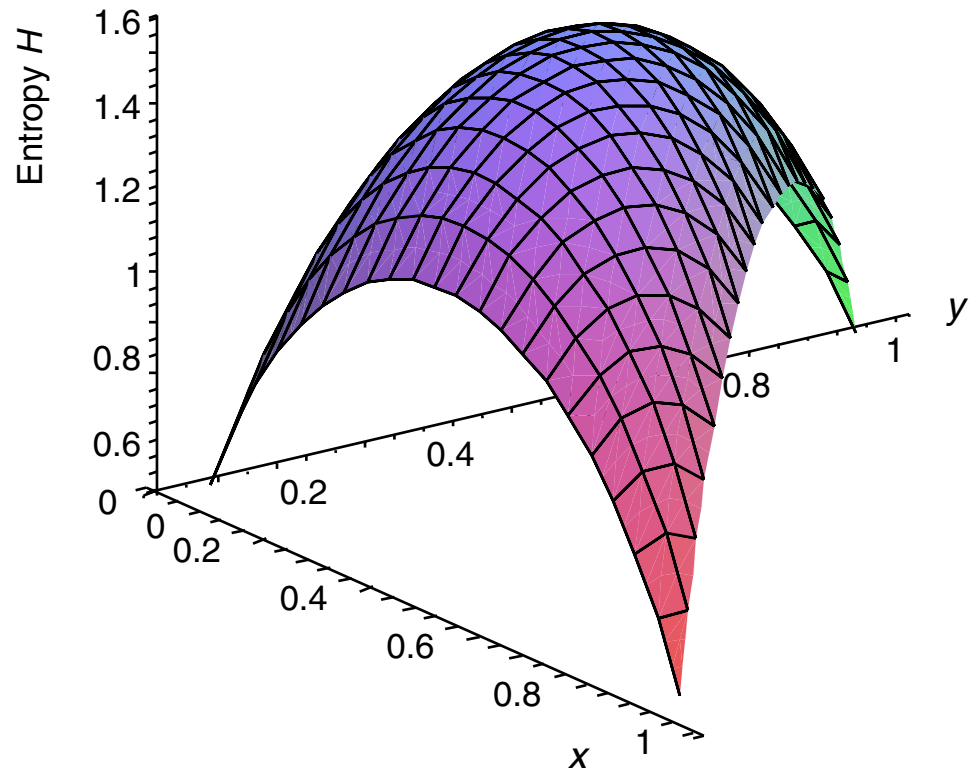
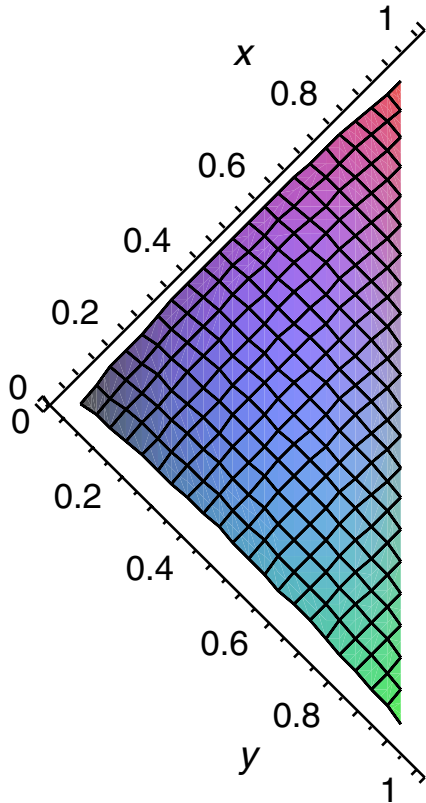


[Graphs: [misclassification](#), Entropy, [gini](#)]

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on Entropy (continued)

Graph of the function  $\iota_{\text{entropy}}(p_1, p_2, 1 - p_1 - p_2)$  :





# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on Entropy (continued)

Definition for  $k$  classes:

$$\iota_{entropy}(p_1, \dots, p_k) = - \sum_{i=1}^k p_i \cdot \log_2(p_i)$$

$$\iota_{entropy}(D) = - \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_i\}|}{|D|} \cdot \log_2 \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_i\}|}{|D|}$$

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on Entropy (continued)

$\Delta \ell_{entropy}$  corresponds to the information gain  $H(\mathcal{A}) - H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B})$ :

$$\Delta \ell_{entropy} = \underbrace{\ell_{entropy}(D)}_{H(\mathcal{A})} - \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^s \frac{|D_j|}{|D|} \cdot \ell_{entropy}(D_j)}_{H(\mathcal{A} \mid \mathcal{B})}$$

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Derivation:

- $A_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , denotes the event that  $\mathbf{x} \in X(t)$  belongs to class  $c_i$ .  
The experiment  $\mathcal{A}$  corresponds to the classification  $c : X(t) \rightarrow C$ .
- $B_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, s$ , denotes the event that  $\mathbf{x} \in X(t)$  has value  $b_j$  for feature  $B$ .  
The experiment  $\mathcal{B}$  corresponds to evaluating feature  $B$  and entails the following splitting:  
$$X(t) = X(t_1) \cup \dots \cup X(t_s) = \{\mathbf{x} \in X(t) : \mathbf{x}|_B = b_1\} \cup \dots \cup \{\mathbf{x} \in X(t) : \mathbf{x}|_B = b_s\}$$
- $\iota_{\text{entropy}}(D) = \iota_{\text{entropy}}(P(A_1), \dots, P(A_k)) = -\sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i) \cdot \log_2(P(A_i)) = H(\mathcal{A})$
- $\frac{|D_j|}{|D|} \cdot \iota_{\text{entropy}}(D_j) = P(B_j) \cdot \iota_{\text{entropy}}(P(A_1 \mid B_j), \dots, P(A_k \mid B_j))$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, s$
- $P(A_i), P(B_j), P(A_i \mid B_j)$  are estimated as relative frequencies based on  $D$ .

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on the Gini Index

Definition for two classes [\[impurity function\]](#) :

$$\iota_{Gini}(p_1, p_2) = 1 - (p_1^2 + p_2^2) = 2 \cdot p_1 \cdot p_2$$

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# Impurity Functions

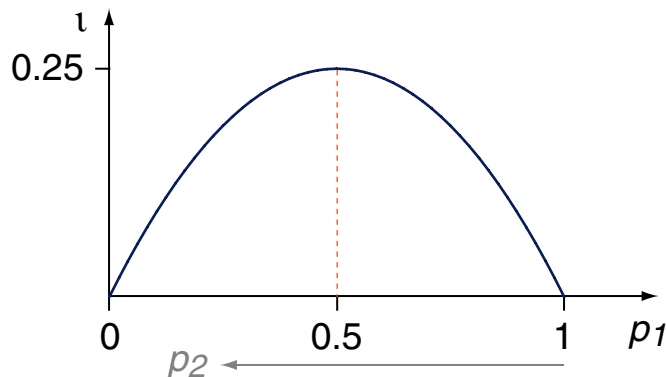
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Graph of the function  $\iota_{Gini}(p_1, 1 - p_1)$  :



[Graphs: [misclassification](#), [entropy](#), Gini]

# Impurity Functions

## Impurity Functions Based on the Gini Index (continued)

Definition for  $k$  classes:

$$\iota_{Gini}(p_1, \dots, p_k) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\iota_{Gini}(D) &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_i\}|}{|D|} \right)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^k \left( \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_i\}|}{|D|} \right)^2 \\ &= 1 - \sum_{i=1}^k \left( \frac{|\{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c_i\}|}{|D|} \right)^2\end{aligned}$$

# Chapter ML:III

## III. Decision Trees

- ❑ Decision Trees Basics
- ❑ Impurity Functions
- ❑ Decision Tree Algorithms
- ❑ Decision Tree Pruning



# Decision Tree Algorithms

ID3 Algorithm [Quinlan 1986] [CART Algorithm]

Setting:

- $X$  is a set of feature vectors.
- $C$  is a set of classes.
- $c : X \rightarrow C$  is the ideal classifier for  $X$ .
- $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, c(\mathbf{x}_1)), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, c(\mathbf{x}_n))\} \subseteq X \times C$  is a set of examples.

Todo:

- Approximate  $c(\mathbf{x})$ , which is implicitly given via  $D$ , with a decision tree.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

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Todo:

- Approximate  $c(\mathbf{x})$ , which is implicitly given via  $D$ , with a decision tree.

Characteristics of the ID3 algorithm:

1. Each splitting is based on one nominal feature and considers its complete domain. Splitting based on feature  $A$  with domain  $\{a_1, \dots, a_k\}$ :

$$X = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A = a_1\} \cup \dots \cup \{\mathbf{x} \in X : \mathbf{x}|_A = a_k\}$$

2. Splitting criterion is information gain.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm [Mitchell 1997] [\[algorithm template\]](#)

ID3(D, Features, Target)

1. Create a node  $t$  for the tree.
2. Label  $t$  with the most common value of Target in  $D$ .
3. If all examples in  $D$  are positive, return the single-node tree  $t$ , with label “+”.  
If all examples in  $D$  are negative, return the single-node tree  $t$ , with label “-”.
4. If Features is empty, return the single-node tree  $t$ .
- ❑ Otherwise:
  5. Let  $A^*$  be the feature from Features that best classifies examples in  $D$ .  
Assign  $t$  the decision feature  $A^*$ .
  6. For each possible value “ $a$ ” in  $A^*$  do:
    - ❑ Add a new tree branch below  $t$ , corresponding to the test  $A^* = “a”$ .
    - ❑ Let  $D\_a$  be the subset of  $D$  that has value “ $a$ ” for  $A^*$ .
    - ❑ If  $D\_a$  is empty:  
Then add a leaf node with label of the most common value of Target in  $D$ .  
Else add the subtree  $\text{ID3}(D\_a, \text{Features} \setminus \{A^*\}, \text{Target})$ .
7. Return  $t$ .

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm (pseudo code) [\[algorithm template\]](#)

*ID3(D, Features, Target)*

1.  $t = \text{createNode}()$
2.  $\text{label}(t) = \text{mostCommonClass}(D, \text{Target})$
3. **IF**  $\forall \langle \mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x}) \rangle \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c$  **THEN**  $\text{return}(t)$  **ENDIF**
4. **IF**  $\text{Features} = \emptyset$  **THEN**  $\text{return}(t)$  **ENDIF**
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm (pseudo code) [\[algorithm template\]](#)

*ID3(D, Features, Target)*

1.  $t = \text{createNode}()$
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4. **IF**  $\text{Features} = \emptyset$  **THEN**  $\text{return}(t)$  **ENDIF**
5.  $A^* = \text{argmax}_{A \in \text{Features}} (\text{informationGain}(D, A))$
- 6.
- 7.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm (pseudo code) [\[algorithm template\]](#)

$ID3(D, Features, Target)$

1.  $t = createNode()$
2.  $label(t) = mostCommonClass(D, Target)$
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4. **IF**  $Features = \emptyset$  **THEN**  $return(t)$  **ENDIF**
5.  $A^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{A \in Features} (informationGain(D, A))$
6. **FOREACH**  $a \in A^*$  **DO**  
     $D_a = \{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : \mathbf{x}|_{A^*} = a\}$   
    **IF**  $D_a = \emptyset$  **THEN**  
  
    **ELSE**  
         $createEdge(t, a, ID3(D_a, Features \setminus \{A^*\}, Target))$   
    **ENDIF**  
  
    **ENDDO**
7.  $return(t)$

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm (pseudo code) [\[algorithm template\]](#)

*ID3(D, Features, Target)*

1. *t = createNode()*
2. *label(t) = mostCommonClass(D, Target)*
3. **IF**  $\forall \langle \mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x}) \rangle \in D : c(\mathbf{x}) = c$  **THEN** *return(t)* **ENDIF**
4. **IF** *Features* =  $\emptyset$  **THEN** *return(t)* **ENDIF**
5.  $A^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{A \in \text{Features}} (\text{informationGain}(D, A))$
6. **FOREACH**  $a \in A^*$  **DO**
  - $D_a = \{(\mathbf{x}, c(\mathbf{x})) \in D : \mathbf{x}|_{A^*} = a\}$
  - IF**  $D_a = \emptyset$  **THEN**
    - t' = createNode()*
    - label(t') = mostCommonClass(D, Target)*
    - createEdge(t, a, t')*
  - ELSE**
    - createEdge(t, a, ID3(D<sub>a</sub>, Features \ {A\*}, Target))*
  - ENDIF**
- ENDDO**
7. *return(t)*

## Remarks:

- ❑ “*Target*” designates the class label according to which an example can be classified. Within Mitchell’s algorithm, the respective class labels are ‘+’ and ‘−’, modeling the binary classification situation. In the pseudo code version, *Target* may contain multiple (more than two) class labels.
- ❑ Step 3 of of the [ID3 algorithm](#) checks the purity of  $D$  and, given this case, assigns the unique class  $c$ ,  $c \in \text{dom}(\textit{Target})$ , as label to the respective node.



# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Example

Example set  $D$  for mushrooms, implicitly defining a feature space  $X$  over the three dimensions color, size, and points:

	Color	Size	Points	Edibility
1	red	small	yes	toxic
2	brown	small	no	edible
3	brown	large	yes	edible
4	green	small	no	edible
5	red	large	no	edible



# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Example (continued)

Top-level call of ID3. Analyze a splitting with regard to the feature “color”:

		toxic	edible
$D _{\text{color}} =$	red	1	1
	brown	0	2
	green	0	1

→  $|D_{\text{red}}| = 2, |D_{\text{brown}}| = 2, |D_{\text{green}}| = 1$

Estimated a-priori probabilities:

$$p_{\text{red}} = \frac{2}{5} = 0.4, \quad p_{\text{brown}} = \frac{2}{5} = 0.4, \quad p_{\text{green}} = \frac{1}{5} = 0.2$$

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Example (continued)

Top-level call of ID3. Analyze a splitting with regard to the feature “color”:

$D _{\text{color}}$		
	toxic	edible
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Conditional entropy values for all features:

$$\begin{aligned} H(C \mid \text{color}) &= -(0.4 \cdot (\frac{1}{2} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{2}) + \\ &\quad 0.4 \cdot (\frac{0}{2} \cdot \log_2 \frac{0}{2} + \frac{2}{2} \cdot \log_2 \frac{2}{2}) + \\ &\quad 0.2 \cdot (\frac{0}{1} \cdot \log_2 \frac{0}{1} + \frac{1}{1} \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{1})) = 0.4 \end{aligned}$$

$$H(C \mid \text{size}) \approx 0.55$$

$$H(C \mid \text{points}) = 0.4$$

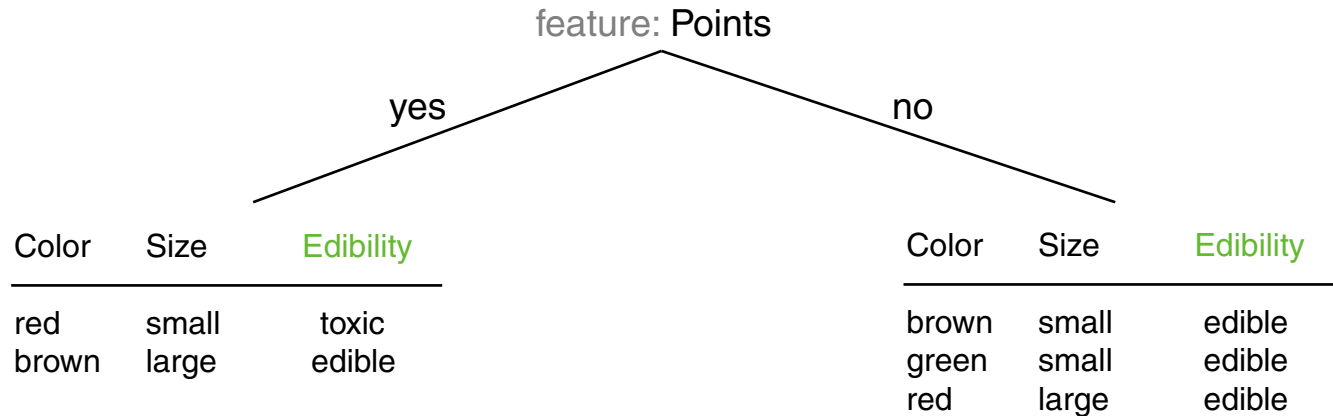
## Remarks:

- ❑ The smaller  $H(C \mid \textit{feature})$  is, the larger becomes the information gain. Hence, the difference  $H(C) - H(C \mid \textit{feature})$  needs not to be computed since  $H(C)$  is constant within each recursion step.
- ❑ In the example, the information gain in the first recursion step becomes maximum for the two features “color” and “points”.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Example (continued)

Decision tree before the first recursion step:

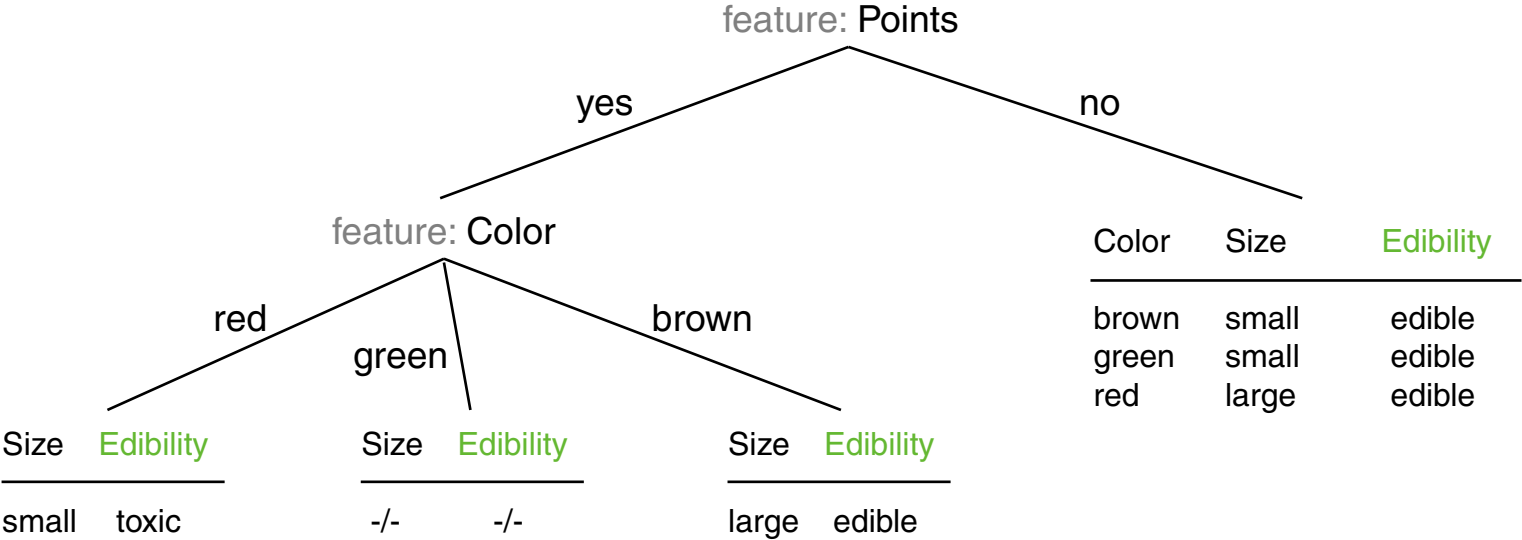


The feature “points” was chosen in Step 5 of the ID3 algorithm.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Example (continued)

Decision tree before the second recursion step:

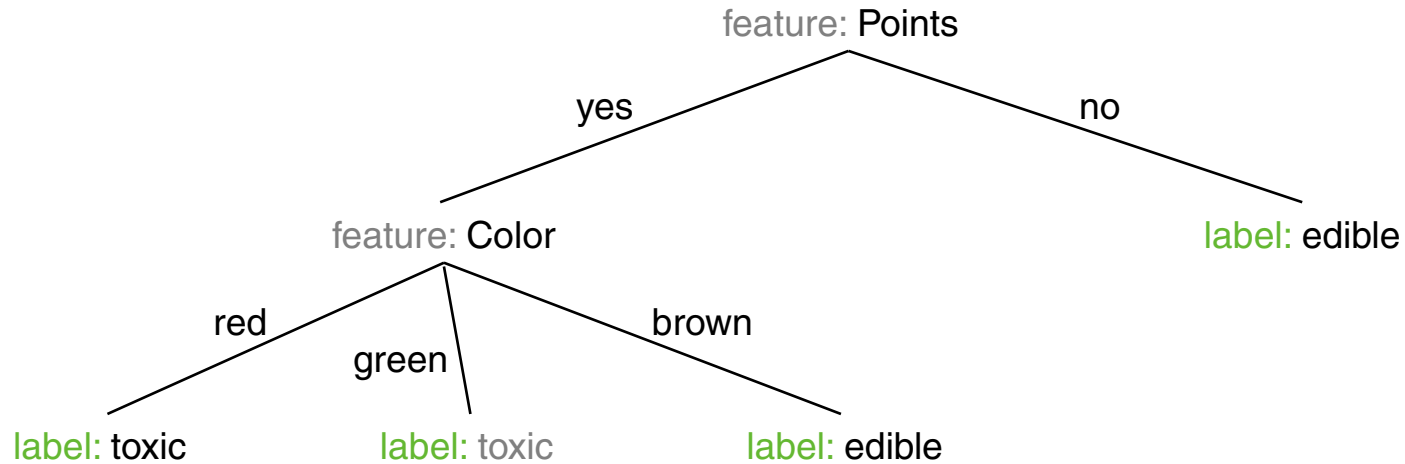


The feature “color” was chosen in Step 5 of the ID3 algorithm.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Example (continued)

Final decision tree after second recursion step:



Break of a tie: choosing the class “toxic” for  $D_{\text{green}}$  in Step 6 of the ID3 algorithm.

## ID3 Algorithm: Hypothesis Space





# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Inductive Bias

Inductive bias is the rigidity in applying the (little bit of) knowledge learned from a training set for the classification of unseen feature vectors.

Observations:

- ❑ Decision tree search happens in the space of *all* hypotheses.
- ❑ To generate a decision tree, the ID3 algorithm needs per branch at most as many decisions as features are given.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Inductive Bias

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- ❑ Decision tree search happens in the space of *all* hypotheses.
  - The target concept is a member of the hypothesis space.
- ❑ To generate a decision tree, the ID3 algorithm needs per branch at most as many decisions as features are given.
  - no backtracking takes place
  - the decision tree is a result of *local* optimization

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## ID3 Algorithm: Inductive Bias

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  - the decision tree is a result of *local* optimization

Where the inductive bias of the ID3 algorithm becomes manifest:

1. Small decision trees are preferred.
2. Highly discriminative features tend to be closer to the root.

Is this justified?

## Remarks:

- ❑ Let  $\mathbf{A}_j$  be the finite domain (the possible values) of feature  $A_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, p$ , and let  $C$  be a set of classes. Then, a hypothesis space  $H$  that is comprised of all decision trees corresponds to the set of all functions  $h$ ,  $h : \mathbf{A}_1 \times \dots \times \mathbf{A}_p \rightarrow C$ . Typically,  $C = \{0, 1\}$ .
- ❑ The inductive bias of the ID3 algorithm is of a different kind than the inductive bias of the candidate elimination algorithm (version space algorithm):
  1. The underlying hypothesis space  $H$  of the candidate elimination algorithm is incomplete.  $H$  corresponds to a coarsened view onto the space of all hypotheses since  $H$  contains only conjunctions of feature-value pairs as hypotheses.  
However, this restricted hypothesis space is searched completely by the candidate elimination algorithm. Keyword: restriction bias
  2. The underlying hypothesis space  $H$  of the ID3 algorithm is complete.  $H$  corresponds to the set of all discrete functions (from the Cartesian product of the feature domains onto the set of classes) that can be represented in the form of a decision tree.  
However, this complete hypothesis space is searched incompletely (following a preference). Keyword: preference bias or search bias
- ❑ The inductive bias of the ID3 algorithm renders the algorithm robust regarding noise.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

CART Algorithm [Breiman 1984] [ID3 Algorithm]

Setting:

- ❑  $X$  is a set of feature vectors. **No restrictions** are presumed for the features' measurement scales.
- ❑  $C$  is a set of classes.
- ❑  $c : X \rightarrow C$  is the ideal classifier for  $X$ .
- ❑  $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, c(\mathbf{x}_1)), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, c(\mathbf{x}_n))\} \subseteq X \times C$  is a set of examples.

Todo:

- ❑ Approximate  $c(\mathbf{x})$ , which is implicitly given via  $D$ , with a decision tree.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

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Todo:

- ❑ Approximate  $c(\mathbf{x})$ , which is implicitly given via  $D$ , with a decision tree.

Characteristics of the CART algorithm:

1. Each splitting is binary and considers one feature at a time.
2. Splitting criterion is the information gain or the Gini index.

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## CART Algorithm (continued)

1. Let  $A$  be a feature with domain  $\mathbf{A}$ . Ensure a finite number of binary splittings for  $X$  by applying the following domain splitting rules:
  - If  $A$  is nominal, choose  $\mathbf{A}' \subset \mathbf{A}$  such that  $0 < |\mathbf{A}'| \leq |\mathbf{A} \setminus \mathbf{A}'|$ .
  - If  $A$  is ordinal, choose  $a \in \mathbf{A}$  such that  $x_{\min} < a < x_{\max}$ , where  $x_{\min}$ ,  $x_{\max}$  are the minimum and maximum values of feature  $A$  in  $D$ .
  - If  $A$  is numeric, choose  $a \in \mathbf{A}$  such that  $a = (x_k + x_l)/2$ , where  $x_k, x_l$  are consecutive elements in the ordered value list of feature  $A$  in  $D$ .

# Decision Tree Algorithms

## CART Algorithm (continued)

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  - If  $A$  is numeric, choose  $a \in \mathbf{A}$  such that  $a = (x_k + x_l)/2$ , where  $x_k, x_l$  are consecutive elements in the ordered value list of feature  $A$  in  $D$ .
2. For node  $t$  of a decision tree generate all splittings of the above type.
3. Choose a splitting from the set of splittings that maximizes the impurity reduction  $\Delta \iota$ :

$$\Delta \iota(D(t), \{D(t_L), D(t_R)\}) = \iota(t) - \frac{|D_L|}{|D|} \cdot \iota(t_L) - \frac{|D_R|}{|D|} \cdot \iota(t_R),$$

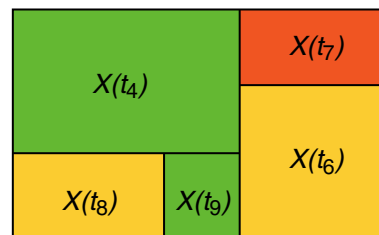
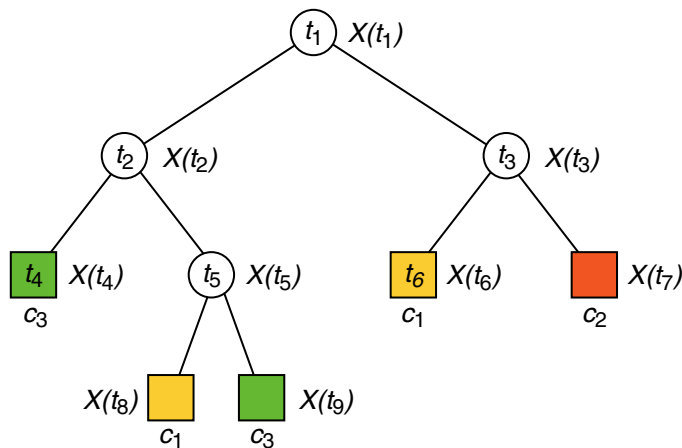
where  $t_L$  and  $t_R$  denote the left and right successor of  $t$ .



# Decision Tree Algorithms

## CART Algorithm (continued)

Illustration for two numeric features, i.e., the feature space  $\mathbf{X}$  corresponds to a two-dimensional plane:



$X = X(t_1)$

By a sequence of splittings the feature space  $\mathbf{X}$  is split into rectangles that are parallel to the two axes.

# Chapter ML:III

## III. Decision Trees

- ❑ Decision Trees Basics
- ❑ Impurity Functions
- ❑ Decision Tree Algorithms
- ❑ Decision Tree Pruning

# Decision Tree Pruning

## Overfitting

### Definition 10 (Overfitting)

Let  $D$  be a set of examples and let  $H$  be a hypothesis space. The hypothesis  $h \in H$  is considered to overfit  $D$  if an  $h' \in H$  with the following property exists:

$$Err(h, D) < Err(h', D) \quad \text{and} \quad Err^*(h) > Err^*(h'),$$

where  $Err^*(h)$  denotes the true misclassification rate of  $h$ , while  $Err(h, D)$  denotes the error of  $h$  on the example set  $D$ .

# Decision Tree Pruning

## Overfitting

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where  $Err^*(h)$  denotes the true misclassification rate of  $h$ , while  $Err(h, D)$  denotes the error of  $h$  on the example set  $D$ .

Reasons for overfitting are often rooted in the example set  $D$ :

- ❑  $D$  is noisy and we “learn noise”
- ❑  $D$  is biased and hence not representative
- ❑  $D$  is too small and hence pretends unrealistic data properties

# Decision Tree Pruning

## Overfitting (continued)

Let  $D_{tr} \subset D$  be the training set. Then  $Err^*(h)$  can be estimated with a test set  $D_{ts} \subset D$  where  $D_{ts} \cap D_{tr} = \emptyset$  [holdout estimation]. The hypothesis  $h \in H$  is considered to overfit  $D$  if an  $h' \in H$  with the following property exists:

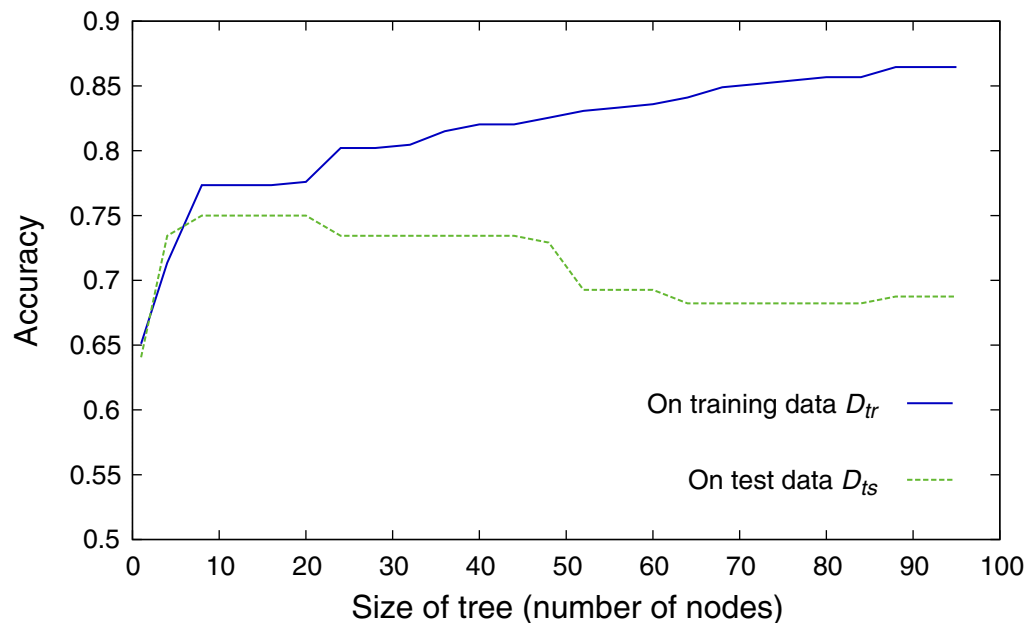
$$Err(h, D_{tr}) < Err(h', D_{tr}) \quad \text{and} \quad Err(h, D_{ts}) > Err(h', D_{ts})$$

# Decision Tree Pruning

## Overfitting (continued)

Let  $D_{tr} \subset D$  be the training set. Then  $Err^*(h)$  can be estimated with a test set  $D_{ts} \subset D$  where  $D_{ts} \cap D_{tr} = \emptyset$  [holdout estimation]. The hypothesis  $h \in H$  is considered to overfit  $D$  if an  $h' \in H$  with the following property exists:

$$Err(h, D_{tr}) < Err(h', D_{tr}) \quad \text{and} \quad Err(h, D_{ts}) > Err(h', D_{ts})$$



[Mitchell 1997]

## Remarks:

- ❑ Accuracy is the percentage of correctly classified examples.
- ❑ When does  $Err(T, D_{tr})$  of a decision tree  $T$  become zero?
- ❑ The training error  $Err(T, D_{tr})$  of a decision tree  $T$  is a monotonically decreasing function in the size of  $T$ . See the following [Lemma](#).

# Decision Tree Pruning

## Overfitting (continued)

### Lemma 11

Let  $t$  be a node in a decision tree  $T$ . Then, for each induced splitting  $D(t_1), \dots, D(t_s)$  of a set of examples  $D(t)$  holds:

$$\underline{Err_{cost}(t, D(t))} \geq \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, s\}} Err_{cost}(t_i, D(t_i))$$

The equality is given in the case that all nodes  $t, t_1, \dots, t_s$  represent the same class.



# Decision Tree Pruning

## Overfitting (continued)

### Proof (sketch)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Err}_{\text{cost}}(t, D(t)) &= \min_{c' \in C} \sum_{c \in C} p(c \mid t) \cdot p(t) \cdot \text{cost}(c' \mid c) \\ &= \sum_{c \in C} p(c, t) \cdot \text{cost}(\text{label}(t) \mid c) \\ &= \sum_{c \in C} (p(c, t_1) + \dots + p(c, t_{k_s})) \cdot \text{cost}(\text{label}(t) \mid c) \\ &= \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k_s\}} \sum_{c \in C} (p(c, t_i) \cdot \text{cost}(\text{label}(t) \mid c)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Err}_{\text{cost}}(t, D(t)) - \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k_s\}} \text{Err}_{\text{cost}}(t_i, D(t_i)) &= \\ \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k_s\}} \left( \sum_{c \in C} p(c, t_i) \cdot \text{cost}(\text{label}(t) \mid c) - \min_{c' \in C} \sum_{c \in C} p(c, t_i) \cdot \text{cost}(c' \mid c) \right) \end{aligned}$$

Observe that the summands on the right equation side are greater than or equal to zero.

## Remarks:

- ❑ The lemma does also hold if the misclassification rate is used to evaluate effectiveness.
- ❑ The algorithm template for the construction of decision trees, DT-construct, prefers larger trees, entailing a more fine-grained splitting of  $D$ . A consequence of this behavior is a tendency to overfitting.

# Decision Tree Pruning

## Overfitting (continued)

Approaches to counter overfitting:

- (a) **Stopping** of the decision tree construction process **during training**.
- (b) **Pruning** of a decision tree **after training**:
  - Splitting of  $D$  into three sets for training, validation, and test:
    - reduced error pruning
    - minimal cost complexity pruning
    - rule post pruning
  - statistical tests such as  $\chi^2$  to assess generalization capability
  - heuristic pruning

# Decision Tree Pruning

## (a) Stopping

Possible criteria for stopping [splitting criteria] :

1. Size of  $D(t)$ .

$D(t)$  is not split if  $|D(t)|$  is below a threshold.

2. Purity of  $D(t)$ .

$D(t)$  is not split if all examples in  $D(t)$  are members of the same class.

3. Impurity reduction of  $D(t)$ .

$D(t)$  is not split if the resulting impurity reduction,  $\Delta_{\iota}$ , is below a threshold.

Problems:

ad 1) A threshold that is too small results in oversized decision trees.

ad 1) A threshold that is too large omits useful splittings.

ad 2) Perfect purity cannot be expected with noisy data.

ad 3)  $\Delta_{\iota}$  cannot be extrapolated with regard to the tree height.

# Decision Tree Pruning

## (b) Pruning

The pruning principle:

1. Construct a sufficiently large decision tree  $T_{\max}$ .
2. Prune  $T_{\max}$ , starting from the leaf nodes upwards to the tree root.

Each leaf node  $t$  of  $T_{\max}$  fulfills one or more of the following conditions:

- ❑  $D(t)$  is sufficiently small. Typically,  $|D(t)| \leq 5$ .
- ❑  $D(t)$  is pure.
- ❑  $D(t)$  is comprised of examples with identical feature vectors.

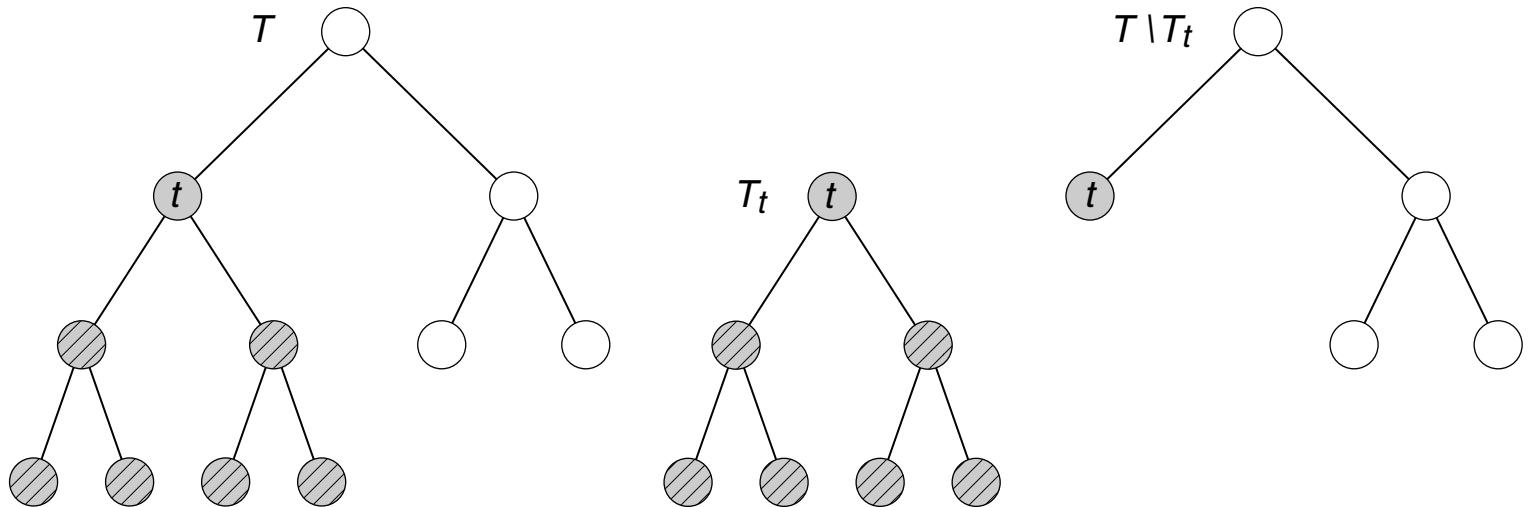
# Decision Tree Pruning

## (b) Pruning (continued)

### Definition 12 (Decision Tree Pruning)

Given a decision tree  $T$  and an inner (non-root, non-leaf) node  $t$ . Then pruning of  $T$  with regard to  $t$  is the deletion of all successor nodes of  $t$  in  $T$ . The pruned tree is denoted as  $T \setminus T_t$ . The node  $t$  becomes a leaf node in  $T \setminus T_t$ .

Illustration:



# Decision Tree Pruning

## (b) Pruning (continued)

### Definition 13 (Pruning-Induced Ordering)

Let  $T'$  and  $T$  be two decision trees. Then  $T' \preceq T$  denotes the fact that  $T'$  is the result of a (possibly repeated) pruning applied to  $T$ . The relation  $\preceq$  forms a partial ordering on the set of all trees.

# Decision Tree Pruning

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Problems when assessing pruning candidates:

- ❑ Pruned decision trees may not stand in the  $\preceq$ -relation.
- ❑ Locally optimum pruning decisions may not result in the best candidates.
- ❑ Its monotonicity disqualifies  $Err(T, D_{tr})$  as an estimator for  $Err^*(T)$ . [\[Lemma\]](#)



# Decision Tree Pruning

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Control pruning with **validation set**  $D_{vd}$ , where  $D_{vd} \cap D_{tr} = \emptyset$ ,  $D_{vd} \cap D_{ts} = \emptyset$ :

1.  $D_{tr} \subset D$  for decision tree construction.
2.  $D_{vd} \subset D$  for overfitting analysis *during* pruning.
3.  $D_{ts} \subset D$  for decision tree evaluation *after* pruning.

# Decision Tree Pruning

## (b) Pruning: Reduced Error Pruning

Steps of reduced error pruning :

1.  $T = T_{\max}$
2. Choose an inner node  $t$  in  $T$ .
3. Perform a tentative pruning of  $T$  with regard to  $t$ :  $T' = T \setminus T_t$ .  
Based on  $D(t)$  assign class to  $t$ . [DT-construct]
4. If  $Err(T', D_{vd}) \leq Err(T, D_{vd})$  then accept pruning:  $T = T'$ .
5. Continue with Step 2 until all inner nodes of  $T$  are tested.

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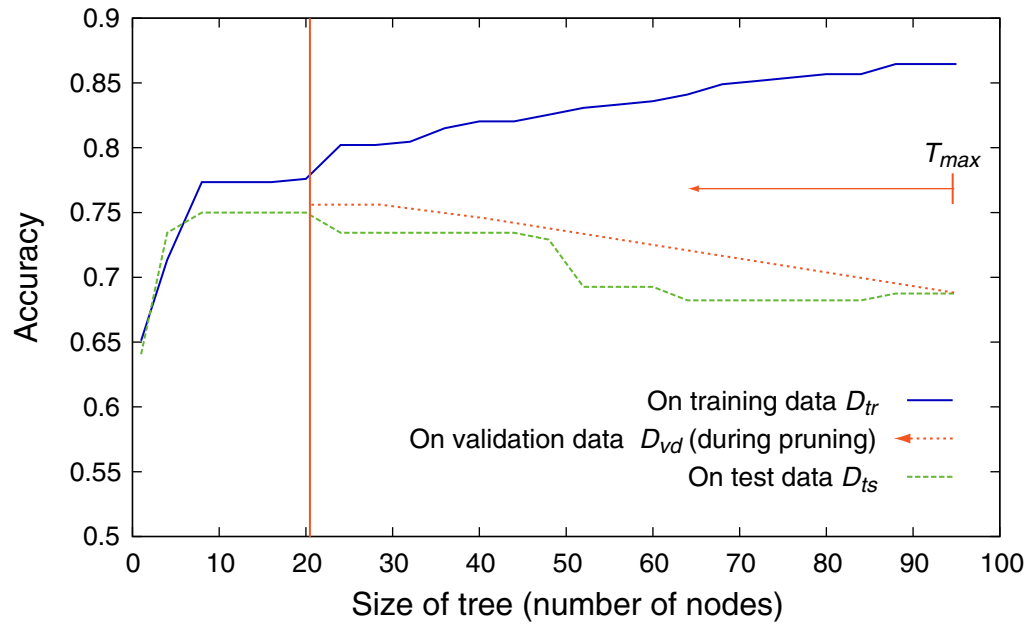
Problem:

If  $D$  is small, its partitioning into three sets for training, validation, and test will discard valuable information for decision tree construction.

Improvement: rule post pruning

# Decision Tree Pruning

## (b) Pruning: Reduced Error Pruning (continued)



[Mitchell 1997]

# Decision Tree Pruning

## Extensions

- ❑ consideration of the misclassification cost introduced by a splitting
- ❑ “surrogate splittings” for insufficiently covered feature domains
- ❑ splittings based on (linear) combinations of features
- ❑ regression trees