INT305 Machine Learning

Lecture 7

Decision Trees & Bias-Variance Decomposition

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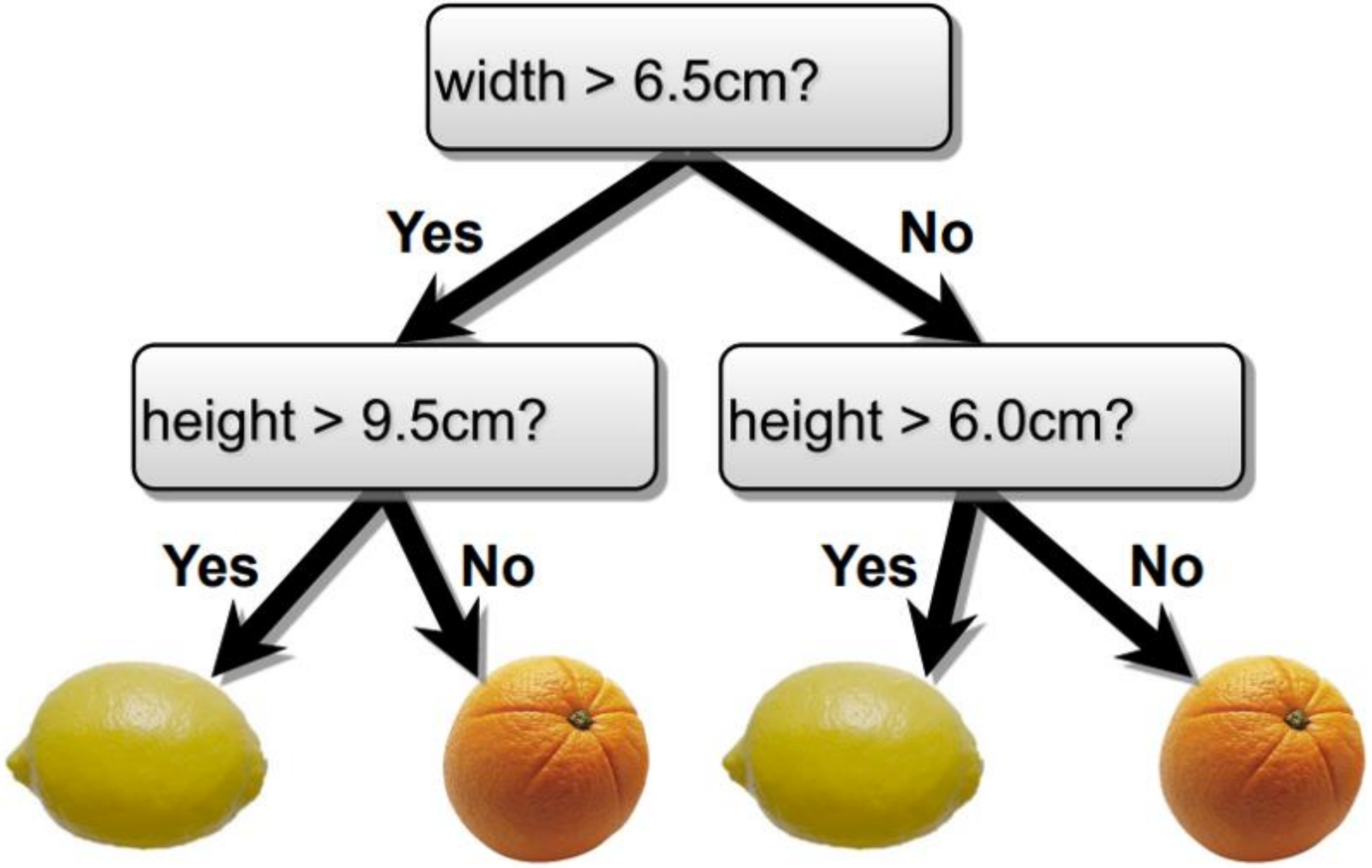
Today

- Decision Trees
  - Simple but powerful learning algorithm
  - Used widely in Kaggle competitions
  - Let us motivate concepts from information theory (entropy, mutual information, etc.)
- Bias-variance decomposition
  - Let us motivate methods for combining different classifiers.

Decision Trees

- Make predictions by splitting on features according to a tree structure.



Decision Trees

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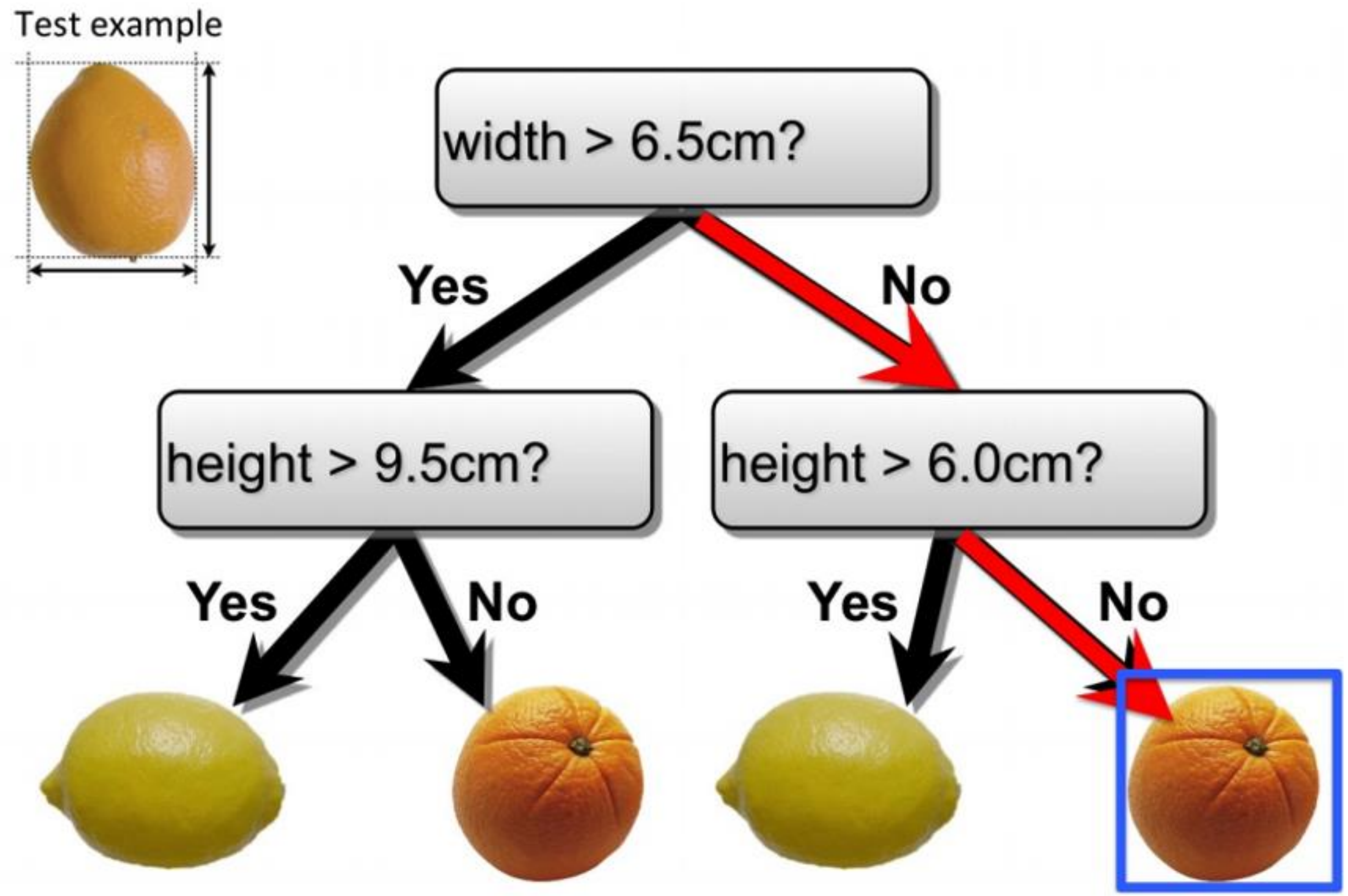
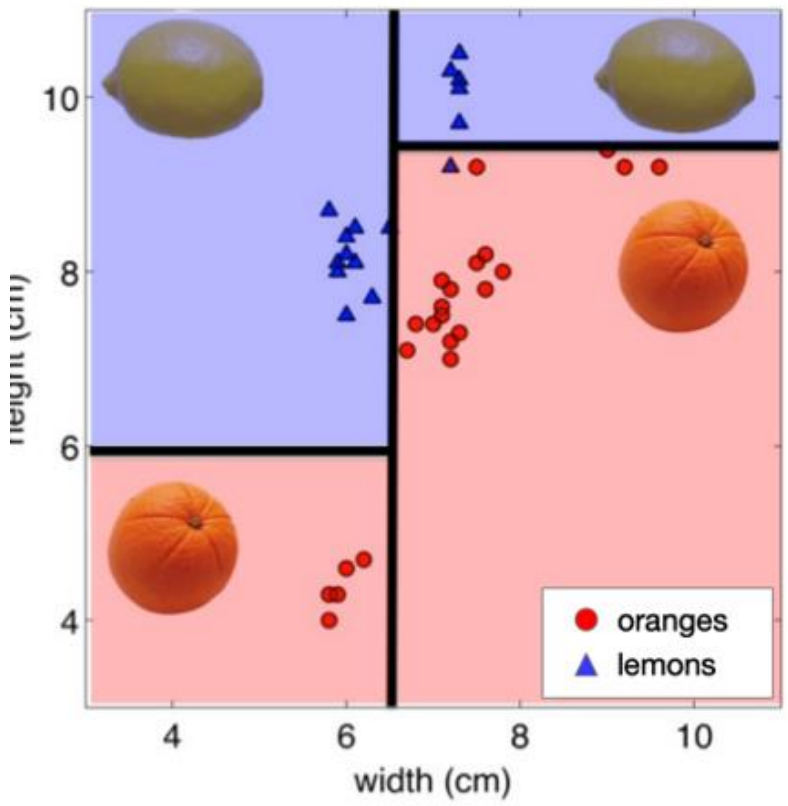
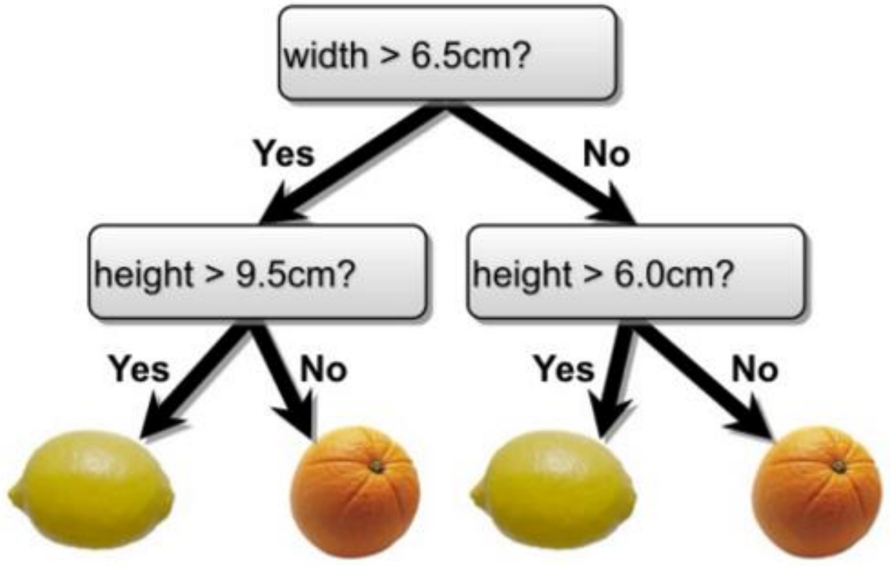


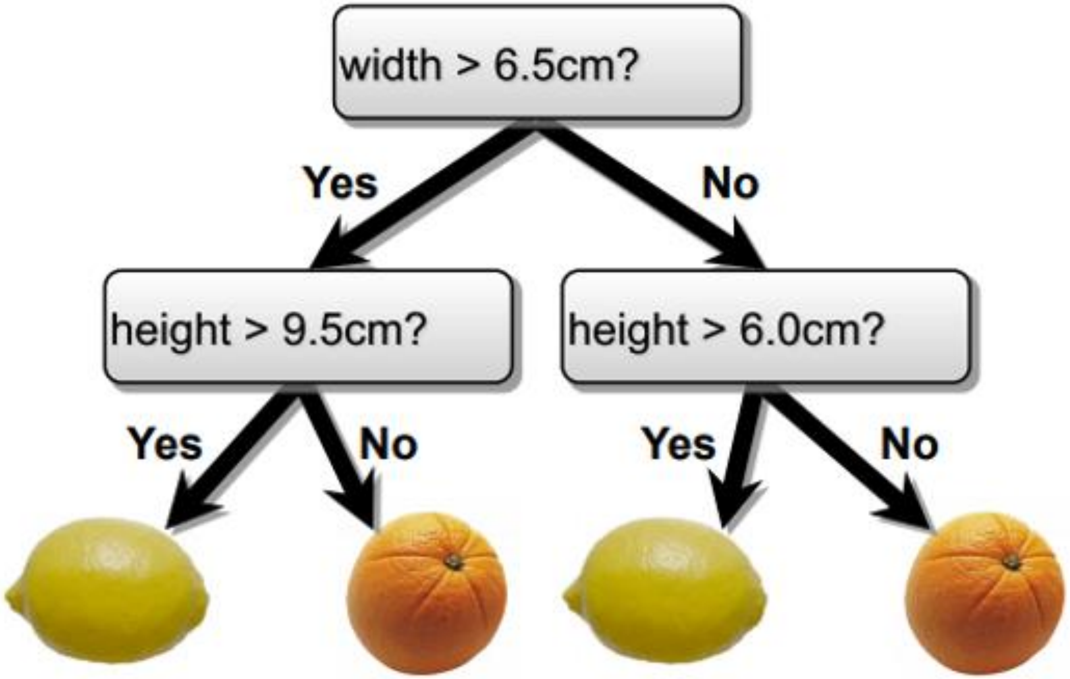
Decision Trees— Continuous Features

- Split *continuous features* by checking whether that feature is greater than or less than some threshold.
- Decision boundary is made up of axis-aligned planes.



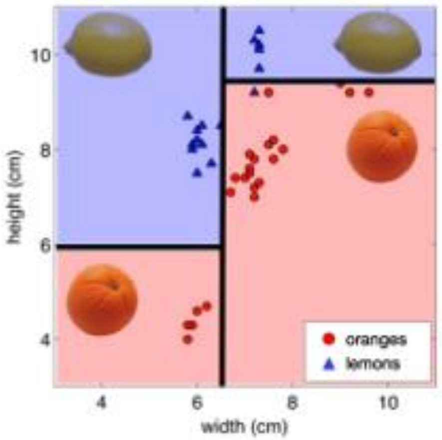


Decision Trees



- Internal nodes test a feature
- Branching is determined by the feature value
- Leaf nodes are outputs (predictions)

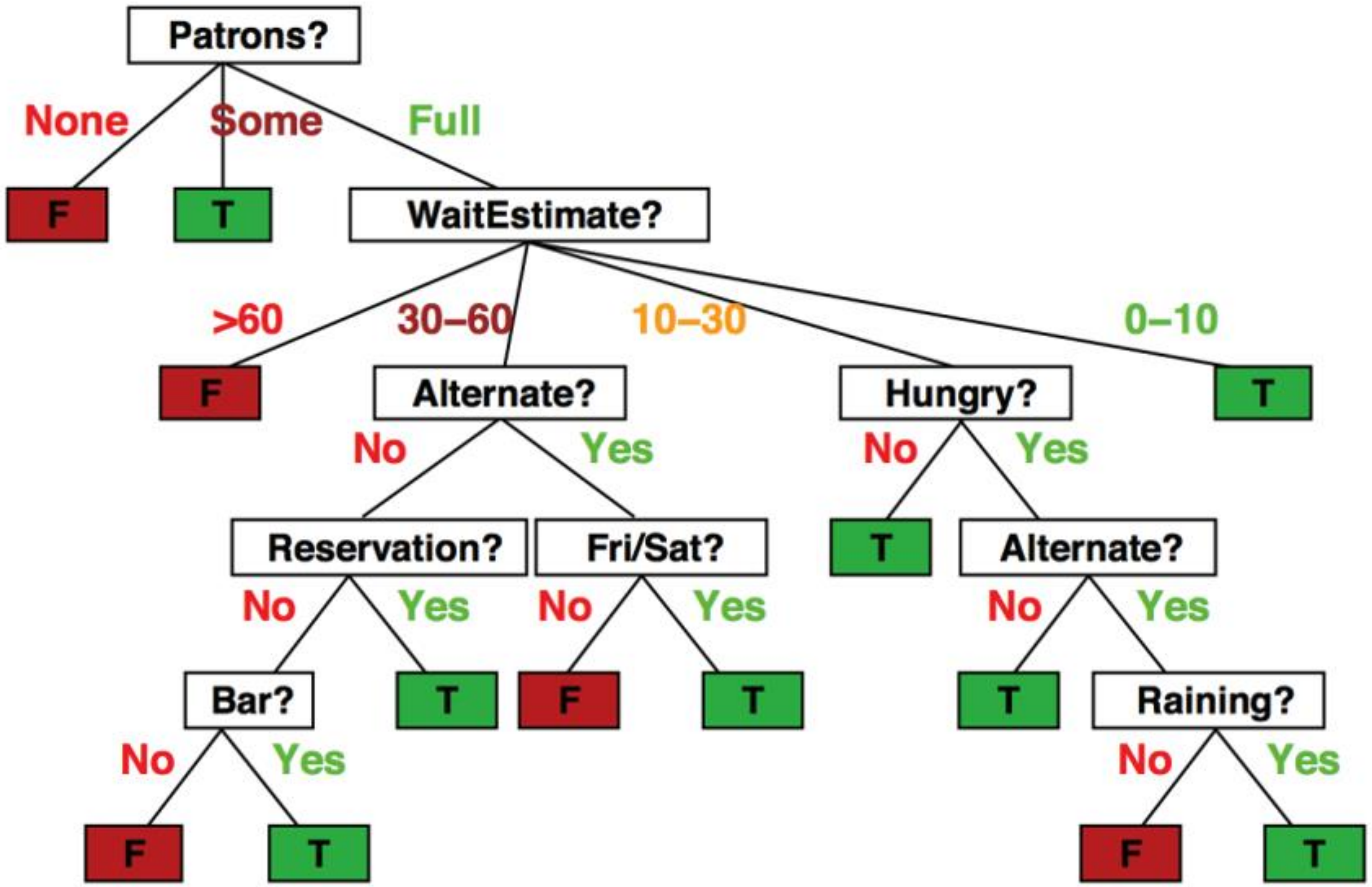
Decision Trees—Classification and Regression



- Each path from root to a leaf defines a region R_m of input space
- Let $\left\{\left(x^{(m_1)}, t^{(m_1)}\right), \cdots, \left(x^{(m_k)}, t^{(m_k)}\right)\right\}$ be the training examples that fall into R_m
- Classification tree (we will focus on this):
  - discrete output
  - leaf value y^m typically set to the most common value in $\{t^{(m_1)}, \cdots, t^{(m_k)}\}$
- Regression tree:
  - Continuous output
  - leaf value y^m typically set to the mean value in $\{t^{(m_1)}, \cdots, t^{(m_k)}\}$

Decision Trees—Discrete Features

- Will I wait at this restaurant for dinnar?



Decision Trees—Discrete Features

- Split **discrete features** into a partition of possible values.

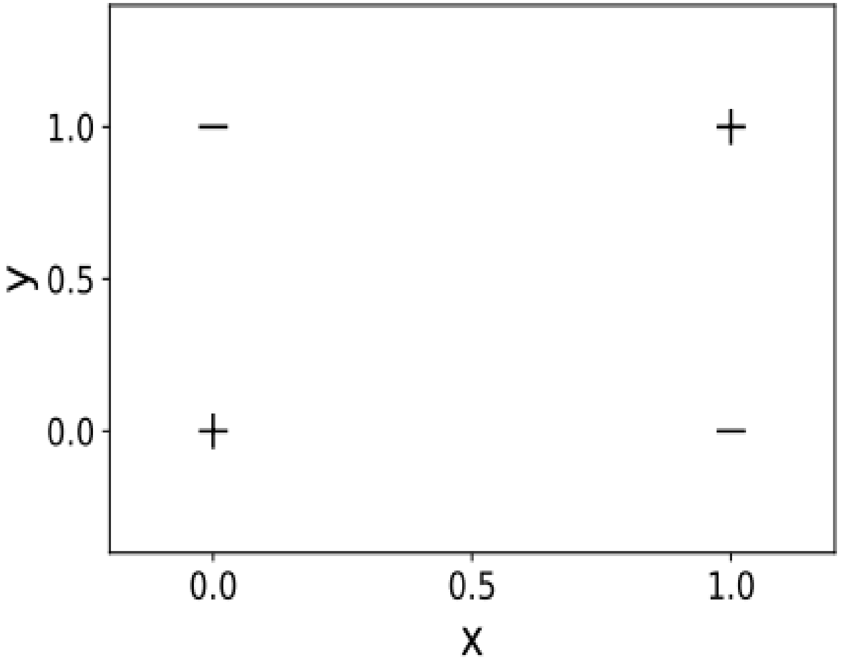
Example	Input Attributes										Goal
	Alt	*Bar*	*Fri*	*Hun*	*Pat*	*Price*	*Rain*	*Res*	*Type*	*Est*	*WillWait*
$\mathbf{x}_1$	Yes	No	No	Yes	Some	$$$	No	Yes	French	0–10	$y_1 =$ Yes
$\mathbf{x}_2$	Yes	No	No	Yes	Full	$	No	No	Thai	30–60	$y_2 =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_3$	No	Yes	No	No	Some	$	No	No	Burger	0–10	$y_3 =$ Yes
$\mathbf{x}_4$	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Full	$	Yes	No	Thai	10–30	$y_4 =$ Yes
$\mathbf{x}_5$	Yes	No	Yes	No	Full	$$$	No	Yes	French	>60	$y_5 =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_6$	No	Yes	No	Yes	Some	$$	Yes	Yes	Italian	0–10	$y_6 =$ Yes
$\mathbf{x}_7$	No	Yes	No	No	None	$	Yes	No	Burger	0–10	$y_7 =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_8$	No	No	No	Yes	Some	$$	Yes	Yes	Thai	0–10	$y_8 =$ Yes
$\mathbf{x}_9$	No	Yes	Yes	No	Full	$	Yes	No	Burger	>60	$y_9 =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_{10}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	$$$	No	Yes	Italian	10–30	$y_{10} =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_{11}$	No	No	No	No	None	$	No	No	Thai	0–10	$y_{11} =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_{12}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	$	No	No	Burger	30–60	$y_{12} =$ Yes

Features:

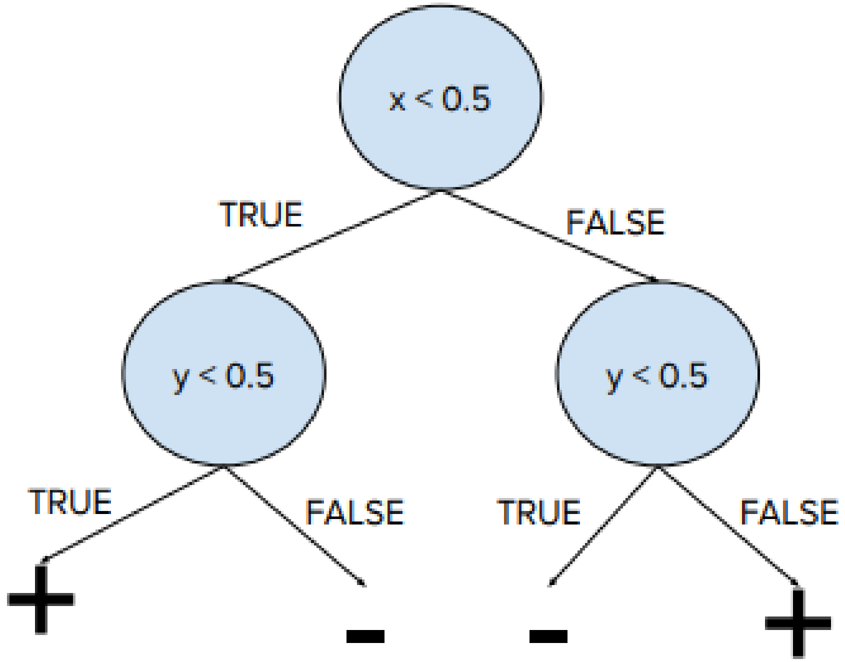
1.	Alternate: whether there is a suitable alternative restaurant nearby.
2.	Bar: whether the restaurant has a comfortable bar area to wait in.
3.	Fri/Sat: true on Fridays and Saturdays.
4.	Hungry: whether we are hungry.
5.	Patrons: how many people are in the restaurant (values are None, Some, and Full).
6.	Price: the restaurant's price range ($, $$, $$$).
7.	Raining: whether it is raining outside.
8.	Reservation: whether we made a reservation.
9.	Type: the kind of restaurant (French, Italian, Thai or Burger).
10.	WaitEstimate: the wait estimated by the host (0-10 minutes, 10-30, 30-60, >60).

Attempts

The drawing below shows a dataset. Each example in the dataset has two inputs features x and y, and maybe classified as a positive example (labelled +) or a negative example (labelled −). Draw a decision tree which correctly classifies each example in the dataset.



Attempts



Learning Decision Trees

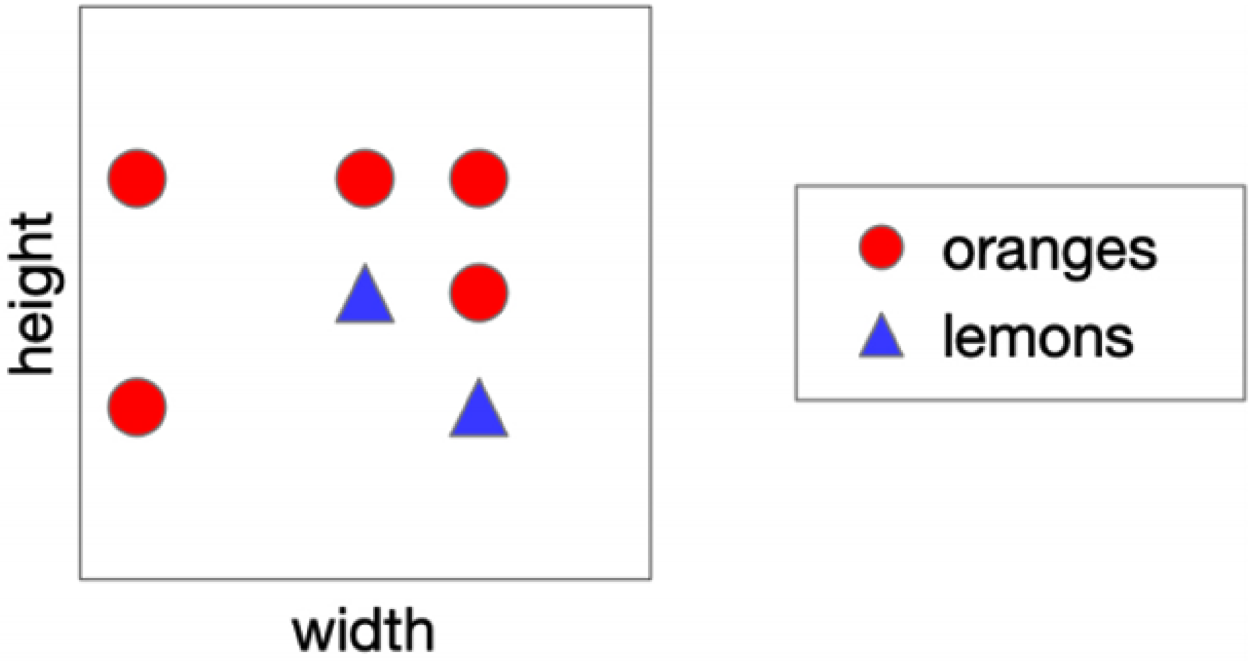
- For any training set we can construct a decision tree that has exactly the one leaf for every training point, but it probably won't generalize.
  - Decision trees are universal function approximators.
- But, finding the smallest decision tree that correctly classifies a training set is NP complete.
  - If you are interested, check: Hyafil & Rivest'76.
- So, how do we construct a useful decision tree?

Learning Decision Trees

- Resort to a greedy heuristic:
  - Start with the whole training set and an empty decision tree.
  - Pick a feature and candidate split that would most reduce the loss.
  - Split on that feature and recurse on subpartitions.
- Which loss should we use?
  - Let’s see if misclassification rate is a good loss.

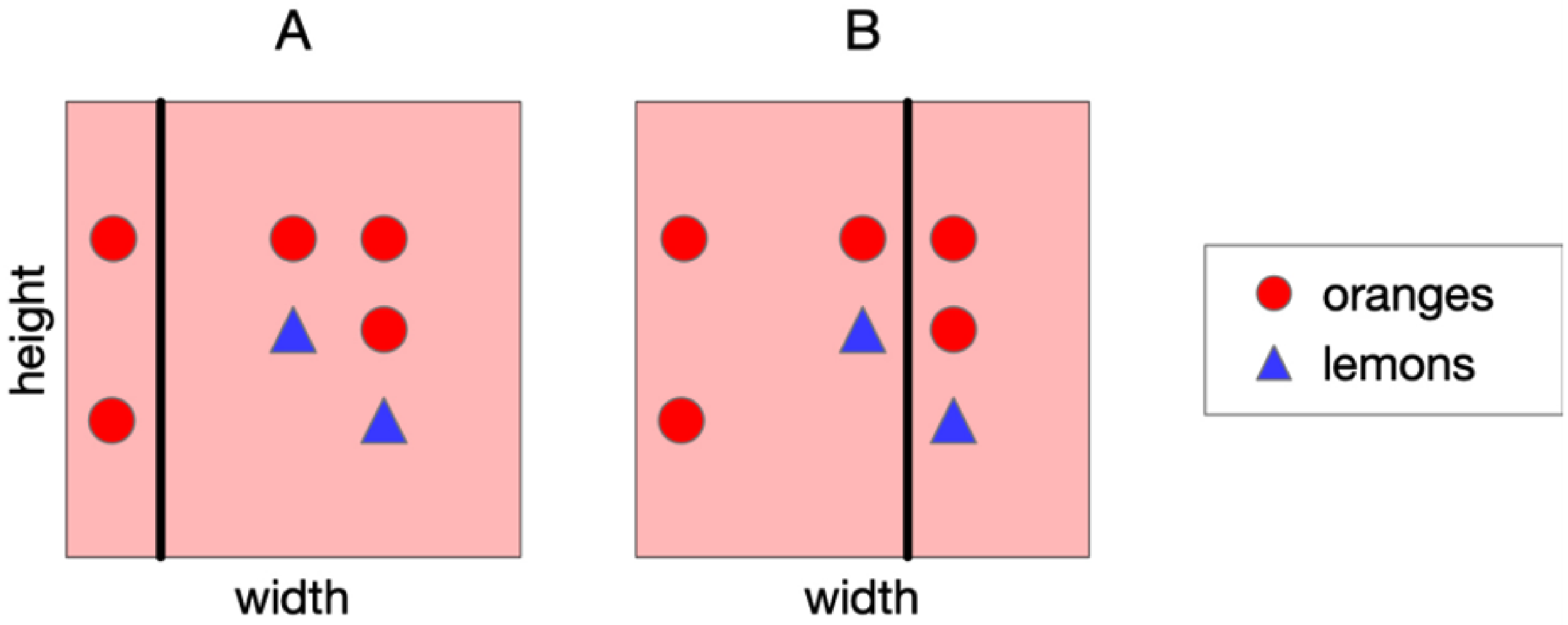
Choosing a Good Split

- Consider the following data. Let’s split on width.



Choosing a Good Split

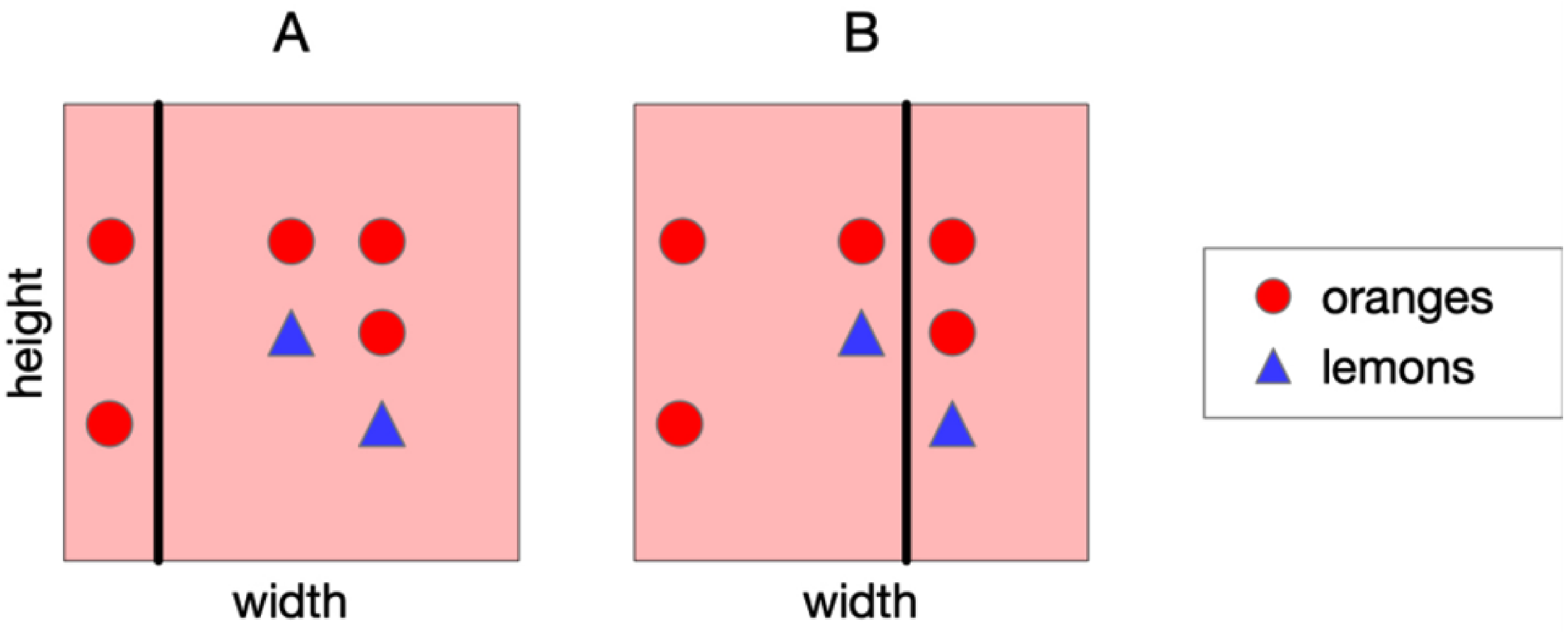
- Recall: classify by majority.



- A and B have the same misclassification rate, so which is the best split? Vote!

Choosing a Good Split

- A feels like a better split, because the left-hand region is very certain about whether the fruit is an orange.



- Can we quantify this?

Choosing a Good Split

- How can we quantify uncertainty in prediction for a given leaf node?
  - If all examples in leaf have same class: good, low uncertainty
  - If each class has same amount of examples in leaf: bad, high uncertainty

- **Idea**: use counts at leaves to define probability distributions; use a probabilistic notion of uncertainty to decide splits.

- A brief detour through information theory…

Quantifying Uncertainty

- The entropy of a discrete random variable is a number that quantifies the uncertainty inherent in its possible outcomes.
- The mathematical definition of entropy that we give in a few slides may seem arbitrary, but it can be motivated axiomatically.
  - If you're interested, check: *Information Theory* by Robert Ash.
- To explain entropy, consider flipping two different coins…

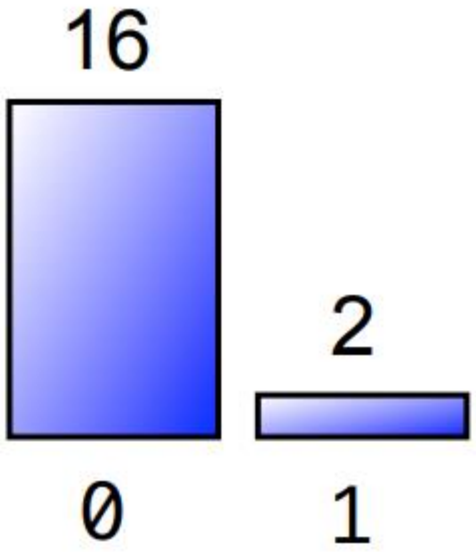
We Flip Two Different Coins

Sequence 1:

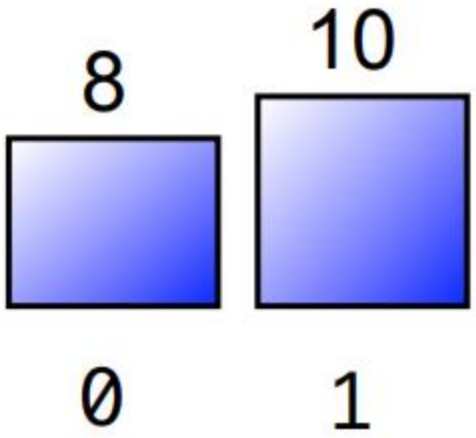
0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 ... ?

Sequence 2:

0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 ... ?



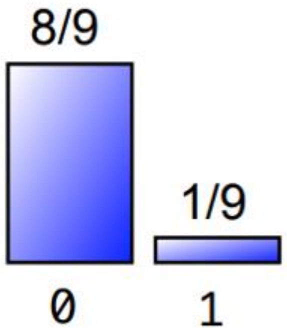
versus

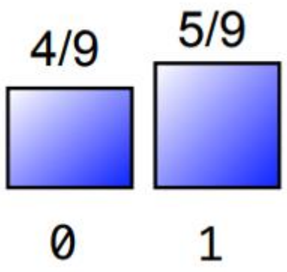


Quantifying Uncertainty

- The entropy of a loaded coin with probability p of heads is given by

$$-p\log_2(p) - (1-p)\log_2(1-p)$$





$$-\frac{8}{9}\log_2\frac{8}{9} - \frac{1}{9}\log_2\frac{1}{9} \approx \frac{1}{2}$$

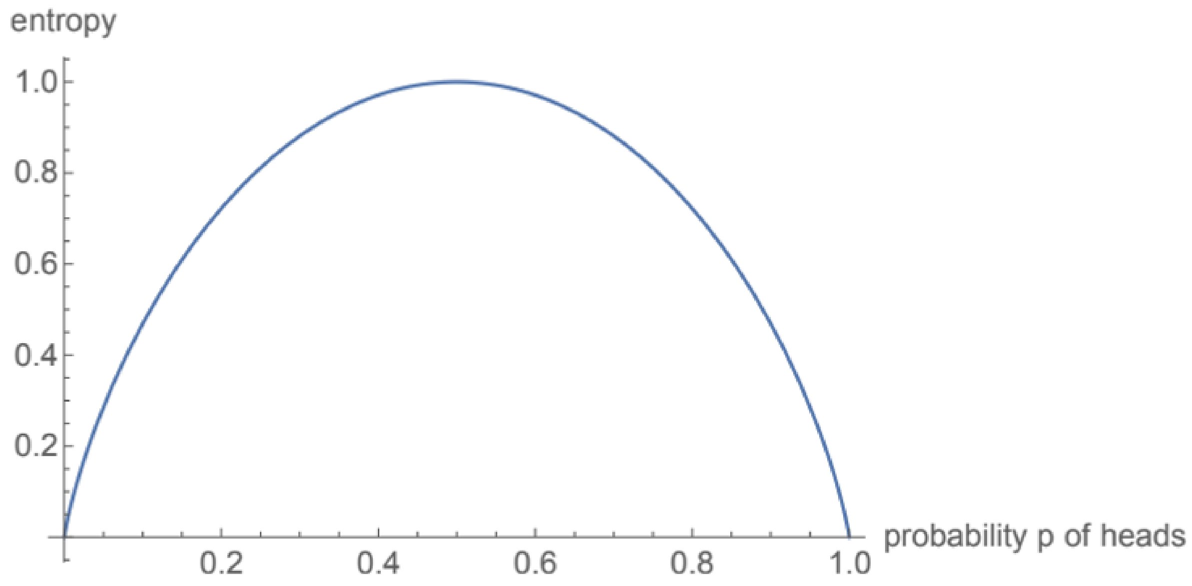
$$-\frac{4}{9}\log_2\frac{4}{9} - \frac{5}{9}\log_2\frac{5}{9} \approx 0.99$$

- Notice: the coin whose outcomes are more certain has a lower entropy

- In the extreme case $p = 0$ or $p = 1$, we were certain of the outcome before observing. So, we gained no certainty by observing it, i.e., entropy is 0.

Quantifying Uncertainty

- Can also think of entropy as the expected information content of a random draw from a probability distribution.



- Claude Shannon showed: you cannot store the outcome of a random draw using fewer expected bits than the entropy without losing information.
- So units of entropy are bits; a fair coin flip has 1 bit of entropy.

Entropy

- More generally, the entropy of a discrete random variable Y is given by

$$H(Y) = -\sum_{y \in Y} p(y) \log_2 p(y)$$

- "High Entropy"
  - Variable has a uniform like distribution over many outcomes
  - Flat histogram
  - Values sampled from it are less predictable

- "Low Entropy"
  - Distribution is concentrated on only a few outcomes
  - Histogram is concentrated in a few areas
  - Values sampled from it are more predictable

Entropy

- Suppose we observe partial information X about a random variable Y
  - For example, $X = \mathrm{sign}(Y)$.

- We want to work towards a definition of the expected amount of information that will be conveyed about Y by observing X.
  - Or equivalently, the expected reduction in our uncertainty about Y after observing X.

Entropy of a Joint Distribution

- Example: $X = \{\text{Raining}, \text{Not raining}\}$, $Y = \{\text{Cloudy}, \text{Not cloudy}\}$

	Cloudy	Not Cloudy
Raining	24/100	1/100
Not Raining	25/100	50/100

$$H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x,y) \log_2 p(x,y)$$
$$= -\frac{24}{100}\log_2\frac{24}{100} - \frac{1}{100}\log_2\frac{1}{100} - \frac{25}{100}\log_2\frac{25}{100} - \frac{50}{100}\log_2\frac{50}{100}$$
$$\approx 1.56 \text{bits}$$

Specific Conditional Entropy

- Example: $X = \{\text{Raining}, \text{Not raining}\}$, $Y = \{\text{Cloudy}, \text{Not cloudy}\}$

	Cloudy	Not Cloudy
Raining	24/100	1/100
Not Raining	25/100	50/100

- What is the entropy of cloudiness Y, **given that it is raining**?

$$H(Y|X=x) = -\sum_{y \in Y} p(y|x) \log_2 p(y|x)$$
$$= -\frac{24}{25}\log_2\frac{24}{25} - \frac{1}{25}\log_2\frac{1}{25}$$
$$\approx 0.24\text{bits}$$

- We used: $p(y|x) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)}$ and $p(x) = \sum_y p(x,y)$ (sum in a row)

Conditional Entropy

	Cloudy	Not Cloudy
Raining	24/100	1/100
Not Raining	25/100	50/100

- The expected conditional entropy:

$$H(Y|X) = \sum_{x \in X} p(x) H(Y|X = x)$$

$$= -\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y) \log_2 p(y|x)$$

Conditional Entropy

- Example: $X = \{\text{Raining}, \text{Not raining}\}$, $Y = \{\text{Cloudy}, \text{Not cloudy}\}$

	Cloudy	Not Cloudy
Raining	24/100	1/100
Not Raining	25/100	50/100

- What is the entropy of cloudiness Y, **given the knowledge of whether or not it is raining**?

$$H(Y|X) = \sum_{x \in X} p(x) H(Y|X = x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} H(\text{cloudiness}|\text{is raining}) + \frac{3}{4} H(\text{cloudiness}|\text{not rainig})$$

$$\approx 0.75\text{bits}$$

Conditional Entropy

- Some useful properties
  - H is always non-negative
  - Chain rule: $H(X, Y) = H(X|Y) + H(Y) = H(Y|X) + H(X)$
  - If X and Y independent, then X does not affect our uncertainty about Y: $H(Y|X) = H(Y)$
  - But knowing Y makes our knowledge of Y certain: $H(Y|Y) = 0$
  - By knowing X, we can only decrease uncertainty about Y: $H(Y|X) \leq H(Y)$

Information Gain

	Cloudy	Not Cloudy
Raining	24/100	1/100
Not Raining	25/100	50/100

- How much more certain am I about whether it's cloudy if I'm told whether it is raining? My uncertainty in Y minus my expected uncertainty that would remain in Y after seeing X.
- This is called the information gain $IG(Y|X)$ in Y due to X, or the mutual information of Y and X

$$IG(Y|X) = H(Y) - H(Y|X) \tag{1}$$

- If X is completely uninformative about Y: $IG(Y|X) = 0$
- If X is completely informative about Y: $IG(Y|X) = H(Y)$

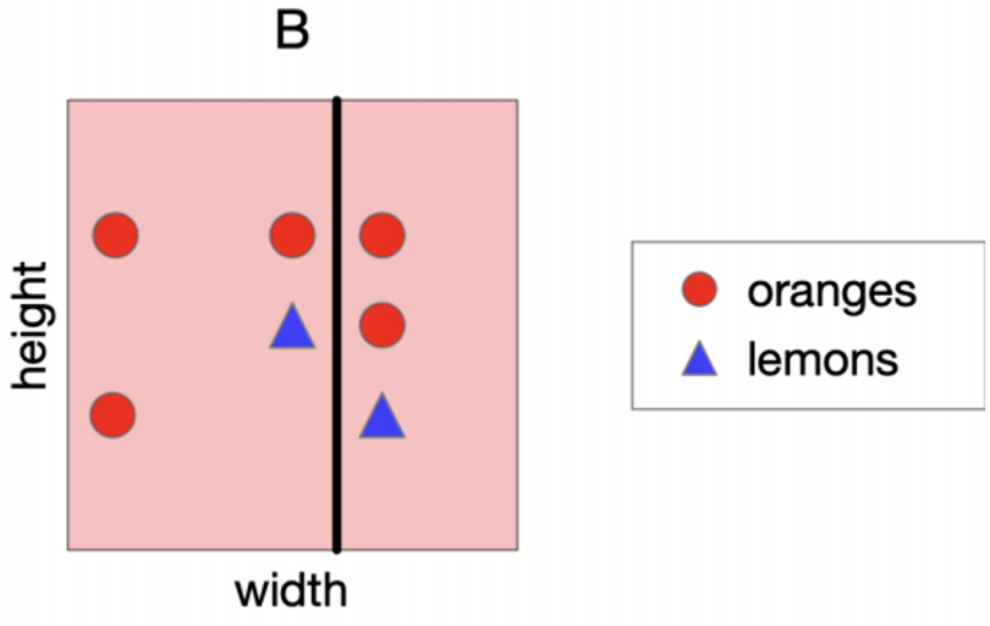
Revisiting Our Original Example

- Information gain measures the informativeness of a variable, which is exactly what we desire in a decision tree split!

- The information gain of a split: how much information (over the training set) about the class label Y is gained by knowing which side of a split you're on.

Revisiting Our Original Example

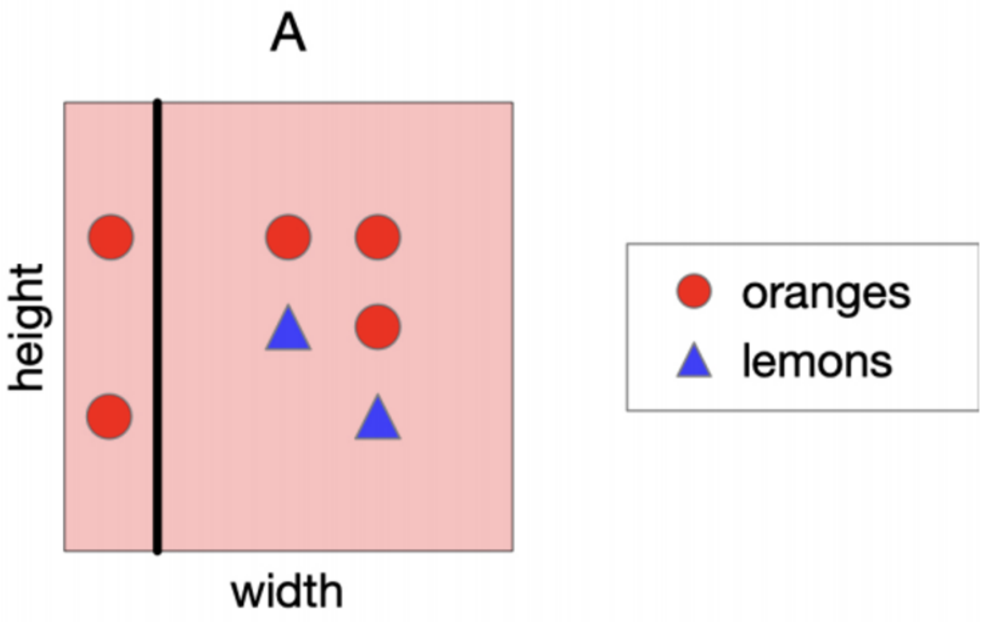
- What is the information gain of split B? Not terribly informative…



- Root entropy of class outcome: $H(Y) = -\frac{2}{7}\log_2(\frac{2}{7}) - \frac{5}{7}\log_2(\frac{5}{7}) \approx 0.86$
- Leaf conditional entropy of class outcome: $H(Y|left) \approx 0.81$, $H(Y|right) \approx 0.92$
- $IG(split) \approx 0.86 - (\frac{4}{7} \cdot 0.81 + \frac{3}{7} \cdot 0.92) \approx 0.006$

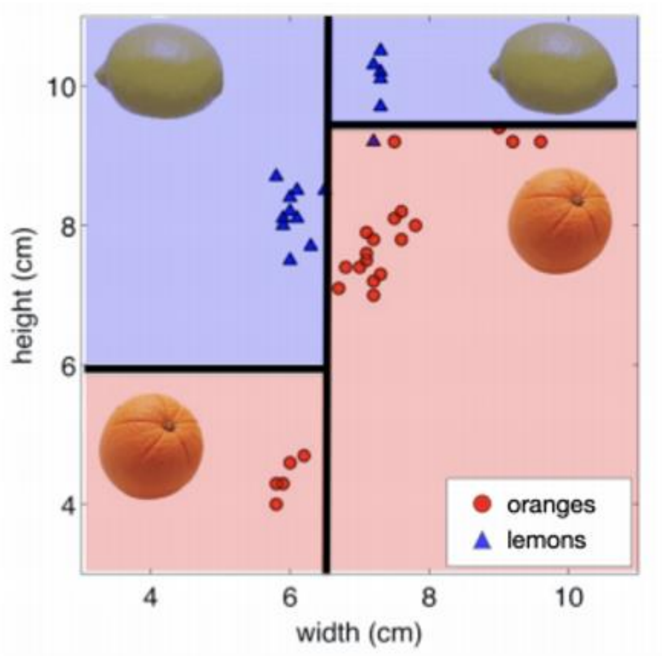
Revisiting Our Original Example

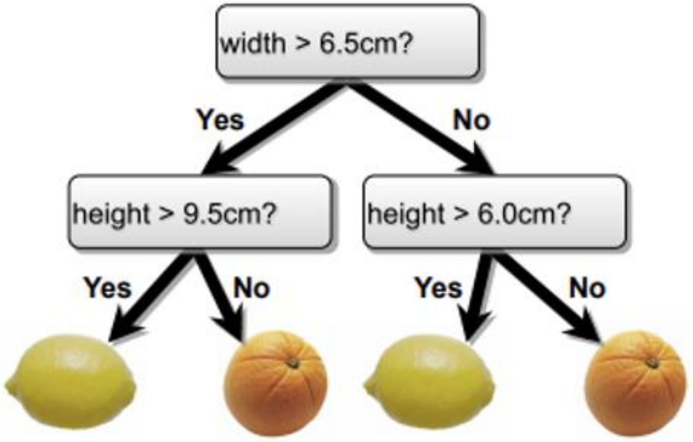
- What is the information gain of split A? Very informative!



- Root entropy of class outcome: $H(Y) = -\frac{2}{7}\log_2(\frac{2}{7}) - \frac{5}{7}\log_2(\frac{5}{7}) \approx 0.86$
- Leaf conditional entropy of class outcome: $H(Y|left) \approx 0, H(Y|right) \approx 0.97$
- $IG(split) \approx 0.86 - (\frac{2}{7} \cdot 0 + \frac{5}{7} \cdot 0.97) \approx 0.17!$

Constructing Decision Trees





- At each level, one must choose:
  1. Which feature to split.
  2. Possibly where to split it.
- Choose them based on how much information we would gain from the decision! (choose feature that gives the highest gain)

Decision Tree Construction Algorithm

- Simple, greedy, recursive approach, builds up tree node-by-node
  1. Pick a feature to split at a non-terminal node
  2. Split examples into groups based on feature value
  3. For each group:
     - If no examples – return majority from parent
     - Else if all examples in same class – return class
     - Else loop to step 1

- Terminates when all leaves contain only examples in the same class or are empty.

Back to Our Example

Example	Input Attributes										Goal
	Alt	*Bar*	*Fri*	*Hun*	*Pat*	*Price*	*Rain*	*Res*	*Type*	*Est*	*WillWait*
$\mathbf{x}_1$	Yes	No	No	Yes	Some	$$$	No	Yes	French	0–10	$y_1 =$ Yes
$\mathbf{x}_2$	Yes	No	No	Yes	Full	$	No	No	Thai	30–60	$y_2 =$ No
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$\mathbf{x}_5$	Yes	No	Yes	No	Full	$$$	No	Yes	French	>60	$y_5 =$ No
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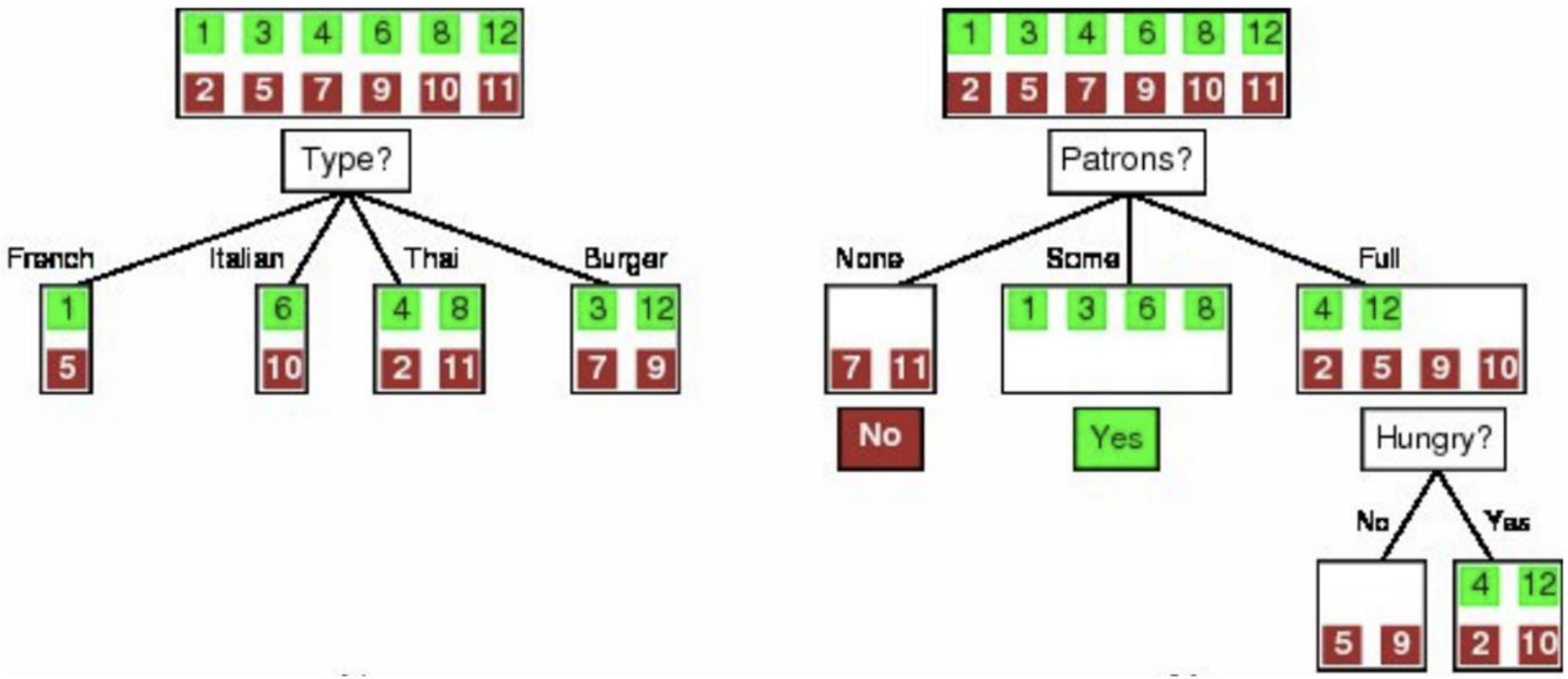
$\mathbf{x}_{10}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	$$$	No	Yes	Italian	10–30	$y_{10} =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_{11}$	No	No	No	No	None	$	No	No	Thai	0–10	$y_{11} =$ No
$\mathbf{x}_{12}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	$	No	No	Burger	30–60	$y_{12} =$ Yes

Features:

1. Alternate: whether there is a suitable alternative restaurant nearby.
2. Bar: whether the restaurant has a comfortable bar area to wait in.
3. Fri/Sat: true on Fridays and Saturdays.
4. Hungry: whether we are hungry.
5. Patrons: how many people are in the restaurant (values are None, Some, and Full).
6. Price: the restaurant's price range ($, $$, $$$).
7. Raining: whether it is raining outside.
8. Reservation: whether we made a reservation.
9. Type: the kind of restaurant (French, Italian, Thai or Burger).
10. WaitEstimate: the wait estimated by the host (0-10 minutes, 10-30, 30-60, >60).

[from: Russell & Norvig]

Feature Selection



$$IG(Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X)$$

$$IG(type) = 1 - \left[\frac{2}{12}H(Y|\text{Fr.}) + \frac{2}{12}H(Y|\text{It.}) + \frac{4}{12}H(Y|\text{Thai}) + \frac{4}{12}H(Y|\text{Bur.})\right] = 0$$

$$IG(Patrons) = 1 - [\frac{2}{12}H(0,1) + \frac{4}{12}H(1,0) + \frac{6}{12}H(\frac{2}{6},\frac{4}{6})] \approx 0.541$$

What Makes a Good Tree?

- Not too small: need to handle important but possibly subtle distinctions in data
- Not too big:
  - Computational efficiency (avoid redundant, spurious attributes)
  - Avoid over-fitting training examples
  - Human interpretability

- "Occam's Razor": find the simplest hypothesis that fits the observations
  - Useful principle, but hard to formalize (how to define simplicity?)
  - See Domingos, 1999, "The role of Occam's razor in knowledge discovery"

- We desire small trees with informative nodes near the root

Decision Tree Miscellany

- Problems:
  - You have exponentially less data at lower levels
  - Too big of a tree can overfit the data
  - Greedy algorithms don't necessarily yield the global optimum
- Handling continuous attributes
  - Split based on a threshold, chosen to maximize information gain

Comparison to some other classifiers

Advantages of decision trees over KNNs and neural nets

- Simple to deal with discrete features, missing values, and poorly scaled data
- Fast at test time
- More interpretable

Advantages of KNNs over decision trees

- Few hyperparameters
- Can incorporate interesting distance measures (e.g. shape contexts)

Advantages of neural nets over decision trees

- Able to handle attributes/features that interact in very complex ways (e.g. pixels)

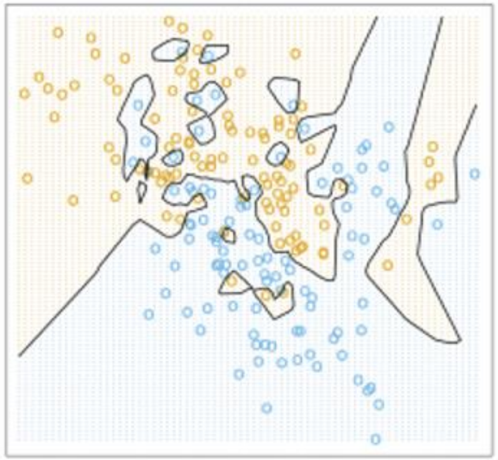
Comparison to some other classifiers

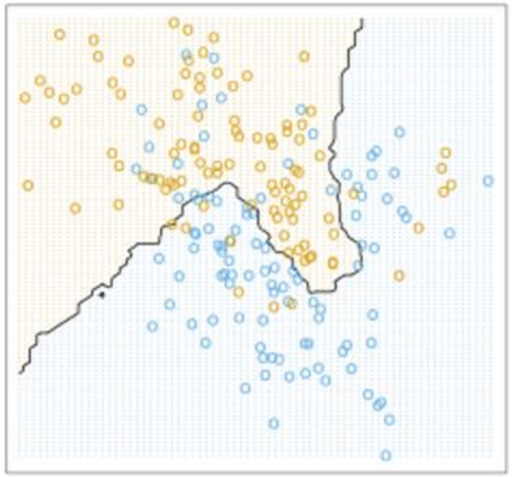
- We've seen many classification algorithms.
- We can combine multiple classifiers into an ensemble, which is a set of predictors whose individual decisions are combined in some way to classify new examples
  - E.g., (possibly weighted) majority vote
- For this to be nontrivial, the classifiers must differ somehow, e.g.
  - Different algorithm
  - Different choice of hyperparameters
  - Trained on different data
  - Trained with different weighting of the training examples
- Next lecture, we will study some specific ensembling techniques.

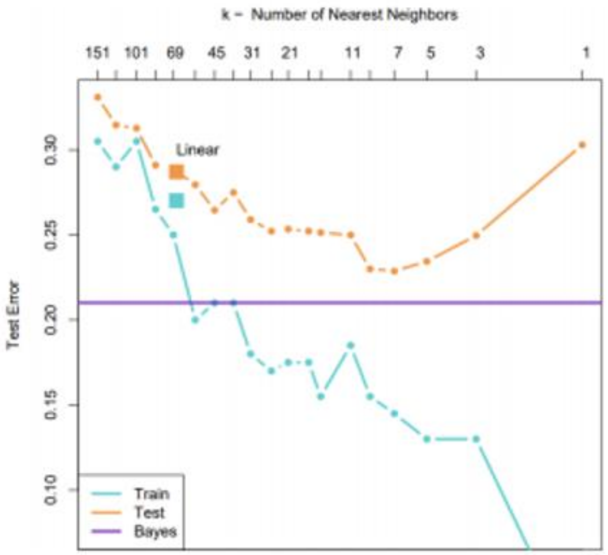
- Today, we deepen our understanding of generalization through a bias-variance decomposition.
  - ➢ This will help us understand ensembling methods.

Bias-Variance Decomposition

- Recall that overly simple models underfit the data, and overly complex models overfit.



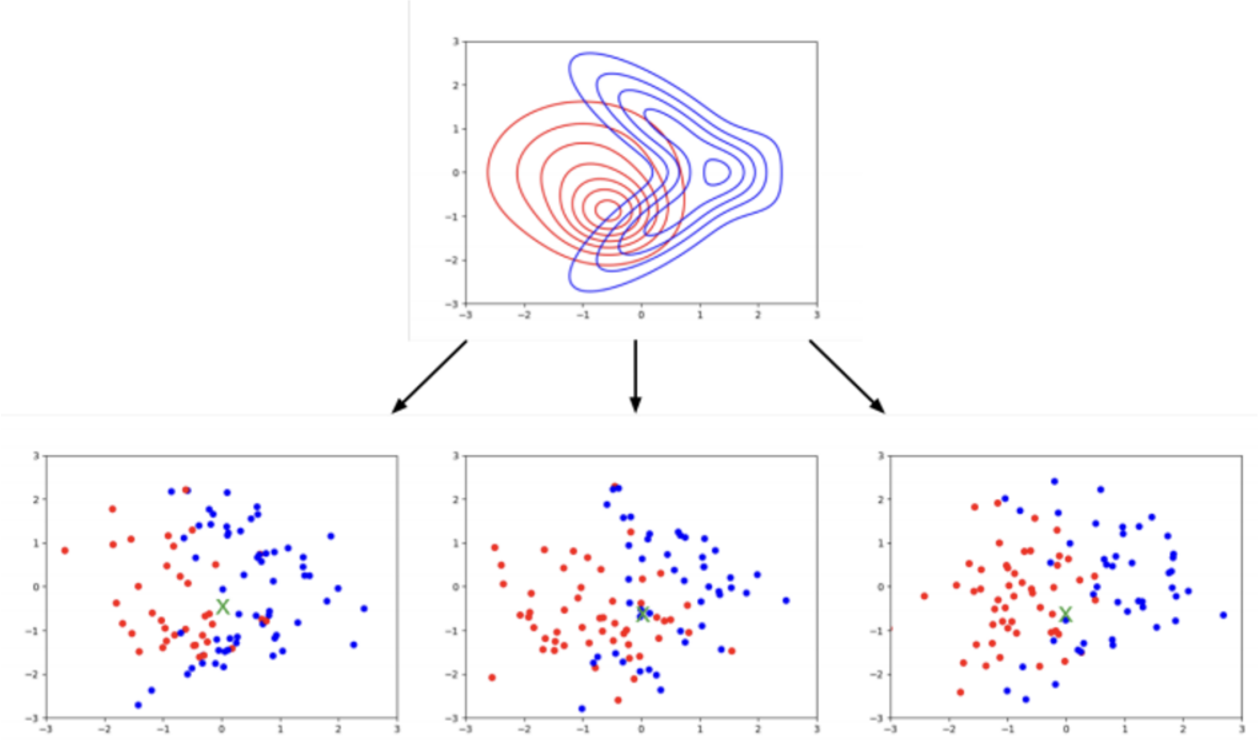




- We can quantify this effect in terms of the bias/variance decomposition.
  - ➢ Bias and variance of what?

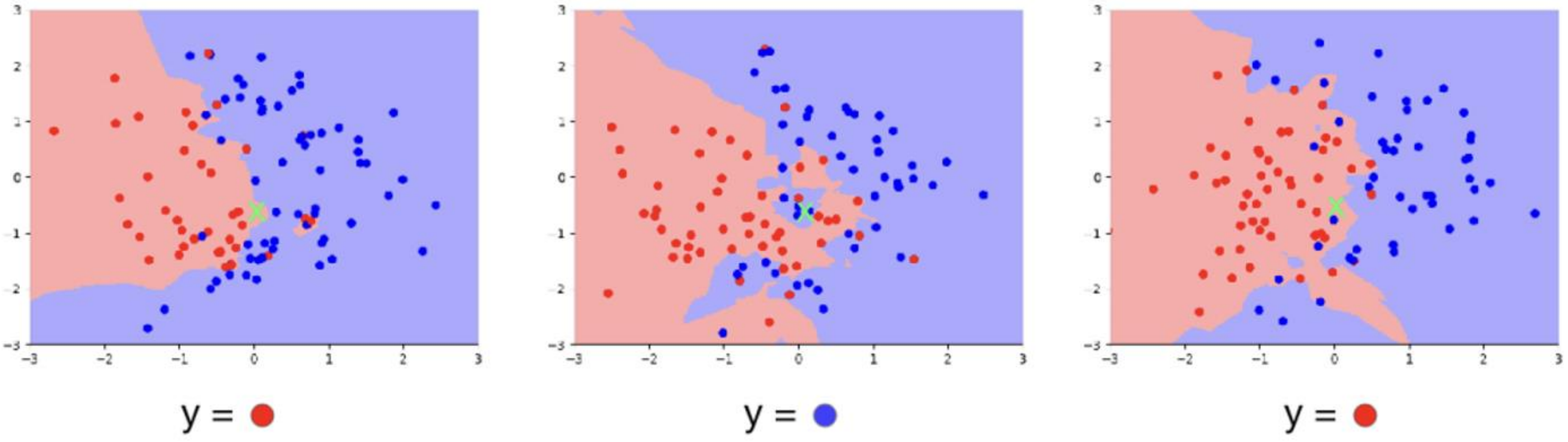
Bias-Variance Decomposition: Basic Setup

- Suppose the training set $\mathcal{D}$ consists of pairs $(\boldsymbol{x}_i, t_i)$ sampled independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) from a single data generating distribution p_{sample}.
- Pick a fixed query point $\mathbf{x}$ (denoted with a green x).
- Consider an experiment where we sample lots of training sets independently from p_{sample}.



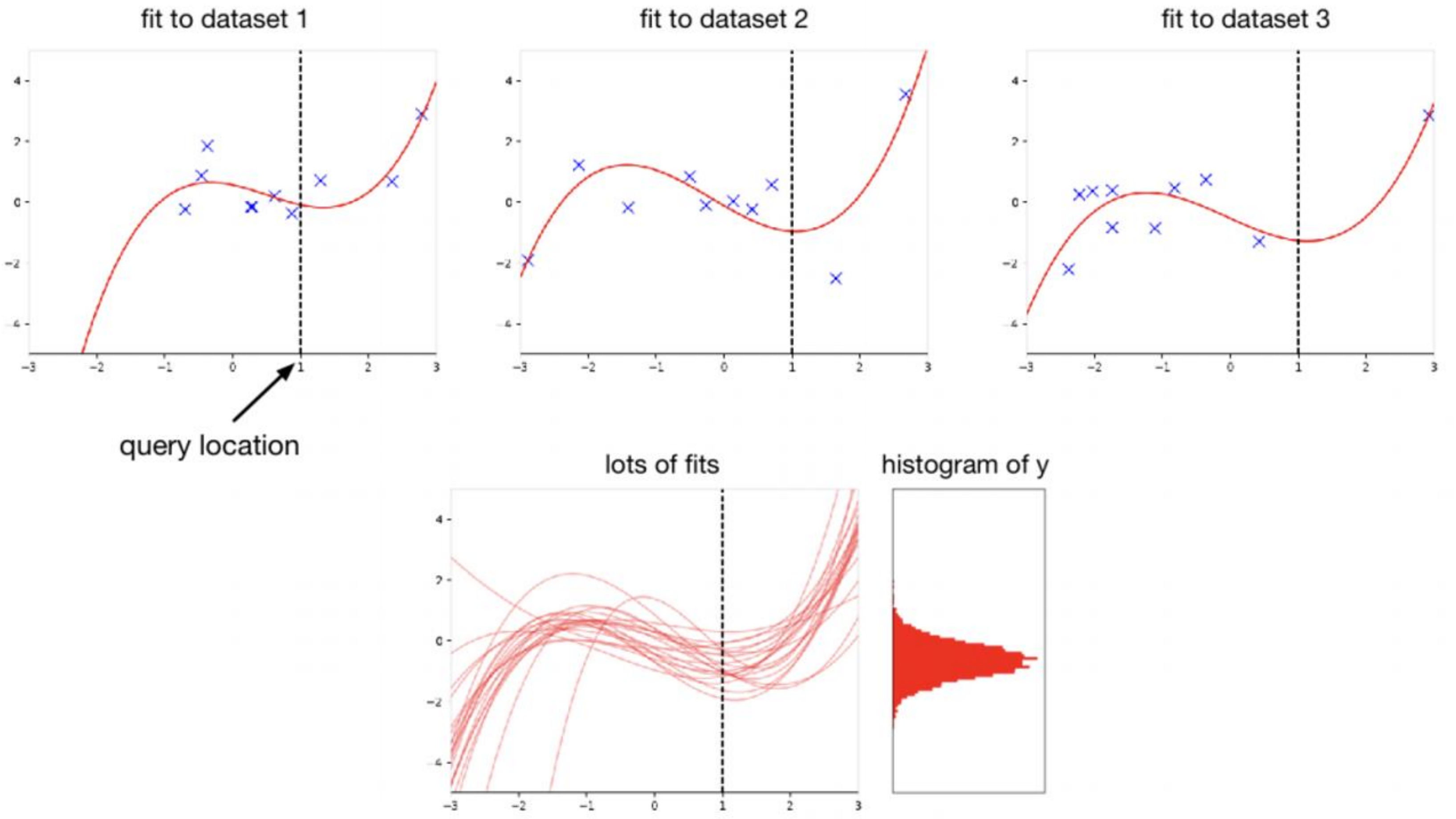
Bias-Variance Decomposition: Basic Setup

- Let's run our learning algorithm on each training set, and compute its prediction y at the query point $\mathbf{x}$.
- we can view y as a random variable, where the randomness comes from the choice of training set.
- The classification accuracy is determined by the distribution of y.



Bias-Variance Decomposition: Basic Setup

Here is the analogous setup for regression:



Since y is a random variable, we can talk about its expectation, variance, etc.

Bias-Variance Decomposition: Basic Setup

- Recap of basic setup:
  - Fix a query point $\mathbf{x}$.
  - Repeat:
    - Sample a random training dataset $\mathcal{D}$ i.i.d. from the data generating distribution p_{sample}.
    - Run the learning algorithm on $\mathcal{D}$ to get a prediction y at $\mathbf{x}$.
    - Sample the (true) target from the conditional distribution $p(t|\mathbf{x})$.
    - Compute the loss $L(y, t)$.

- Notice: y is independent of t.
- This gives a distribution over the loss at $\mathbf{x}$, with expectation $\mathbb{E}[L(y, t)|\mathbf{x}]$.
- For each query point $\mathbf{x}$, the expected loss is different. We are interested in minimizing the expectation of this with respect to $\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\text{sample}}$.

Bayes Optimality

- For now, focus on squared error loss, $L(y, t) = \frac{1}{2}(y - t)^2$.
- A first step: suppose we knew the conditional distribution $p(t|\mathbf{x})$. What value y should we predict?
  - ➢ Here, we are treating t as a random variable and choosing y.

- **Claim**: $y_* = \mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}]$ is the best possible prediction.
- **Proof**:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[(y - t)^2|\mathbf{x}] &= \mathbb{E}\left[y^2 - 2yt + t^{\mathbf{2}}|\mathbf{x}\right] \\
&= y^2 - 2\mathrm{y}\mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] + \mathbb{E}\left[t^{\mathbf{2}}|\mathbf{x}\right] \\
&= y^2 - 2\mathrm{y}\mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] + \mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}]^2 + \mathrm{Var}[t|\mathbf{x}] \\
&= y^2 - 2yy_* + y_*^2 + \mathrm{Var}[t|\mathbf{x}] \\
&= (y - y_*)^2 + \mathrm{Var}[t|\mathbf{x}]
\end{aligned}
$$

Bayes Optimality

$$\mathbb{E}[(y-t)^2|\mathbf{x}] = (y-y_*)^2 + \mathrm{Var}[t|\mathbf{x}]$$

- The first term is nonnegative, and can be made 0 by setting $y = y_*$.
- The second term corresponds to the inherent unpredictability, or noise, of the targets, and is called the Bayes error.
  - This is the best we can ever hope to do with any learning algorithm. An algorithm that achieves it is Bayes optimal.
  - Notice that this term doesn't depend on y.
- This process of choosing a single value y_* based on $p(t|\mathbf{x})$ is an example of decision theory.

Bayes Optimality

- Now return to treating y as a random variable (where the randomness comes from the choice of dataset).
- We can decompose out the expected loss (suppressing the conditioning on $\mathbf{x}$ for clarity):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[(y-t)^2] &= \mathbb{E}[(y-y_\star)^2] + \mathrm{Var}(t) \\
&= \mathbb{E}[y_\star^2 - 2y_\star y + y^2] + \mathrm{Var}(t) \\
&= y_\star^2 - 2y_\star \mathbb{E}[y] + \mathbb{E}[y^2] + \mathrm{Var}(t) \\
&= y_\star^2 - 2y_\star \mathbb{E}[y] + \mathbb{E}[y]^2 + \mathrm{Var}(y) + \mathrm{Var}(t) \\
&= \underbrace{(y_\star - \mathbb{E}[y])^2}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathrm{Var}(y)}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathrm{Var}(t)}_{\text{Bayes error}}
\end{aligned}
$$

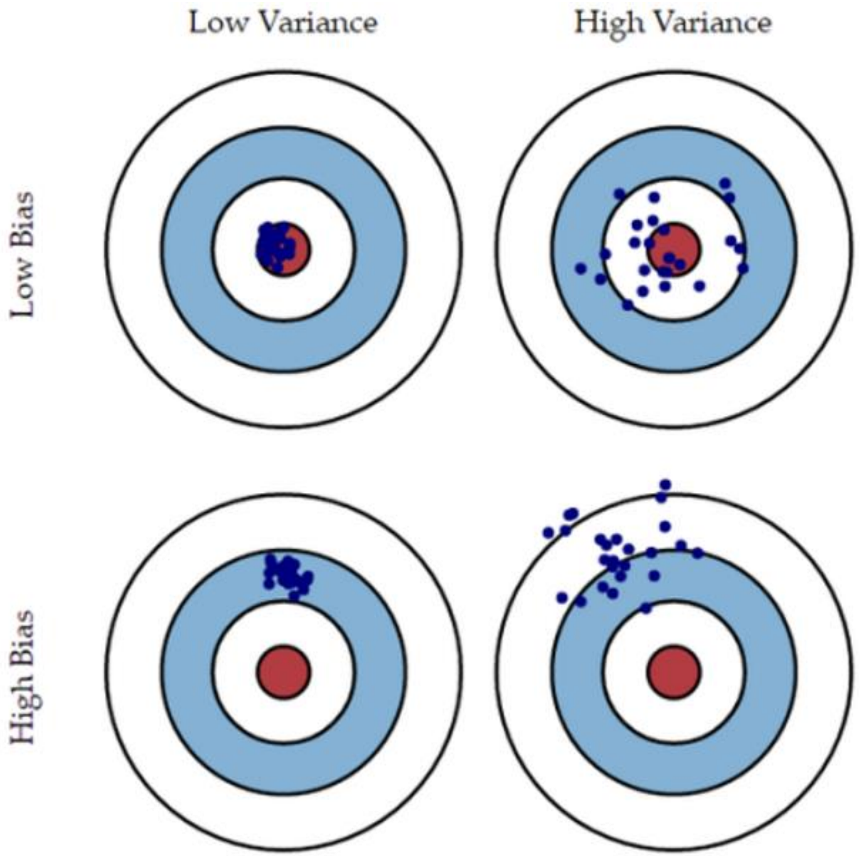
Bayes Optimality

$$\mathbb{E}[(y-t)^2] = \underbrace{(y_\star - \mathbb{E}[y])^2}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathrm{Var}(y)}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathrm{Var}(t)}_{\text{Bayes error}}$$

- We just split the expected loss into three terms:
  - bias: how wrong the expected prediction is (corresponds to underfitting)
  - variance: the amount of variability in the predictions (corresponds to overfitting)
  - Bayes error: the inherent unpredictability of the targets
- Even though this analysis only applies to squared error, we often loosely use "bias" and "variance" as synonyms for "underfitting" and "overfitting".

Bias and Variance

- Throwing darts = predictions for each draw of a dataset



- Be careful, what doesn't this capture?
  - ➢ We average over points x from the data distribution.