

Exploring the Impact of Decision Tree Depth

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ABSTRACT

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CCS CONCEPTS

• **Computing methodologies** → **Machine learning**; *Supervised learning by classification*; *Classification and regression trees*; Cross-validation.

KEYWORDS

decision trees, model selection

1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

Machine learning algorithms fall into one of two categories: classification and regression. In regression, input data is consumed and transformed by a function which can produce values along a numeric range; in classification, data is categorized into a finite number of possible values, and machine learning algorithms seek only to label data sets. These classification problems can use both numeric and categorical data attributes. For purely categorical data, decision trees are a way to build machine learning algorithms that are understandable by both humans and machines. Rather than a sort of “black box” in which numbers are passed in and answers are returned, there is a logical tree hierarchy that is familiar to anyone who has played the game Twenty Questions.

Decision trees require both a way to construct them, and a way to use them to categorize data. This categorization is a trivial tree traversal, and so many of the innovations regarding decision trees has to do with their construction. Most decision tree construction algorithms use a two-phase approach: first a *growing* phase, followed by a *pruning* phase. In the growing phase, the decision tree is built out, trying to fit the provided training data as closely as possible. To combat over-fitting, the pruning phase determines which branches of the tree are too “noisy” using χ^2 tests and removes them.

Additionally, decision tree models can be constrained by size to combat overfitting. Russell and Norvig [6] showcase an implementation of restricting a decision tree to be beneath a maximum size by generating the tree in breadth-first fashion, and stopping when the maximum number of nodes has been reached. As stated in Garofalakis, Hyun, Rastogi, and Shim [3], there is no point in creating a branch when it is guaranteed to be pruned later.

The amount of pruning which occurs is heavily dependent on the data set chosen. As such, the exact values which optimize our trained decision trees are relatively unimportant. However, our goal was to examine how impactful depth-based pruning was, and how much it assisted with reducing overfitting.

2 METHODS

2.1 Dataset Selection

Our first step was selecting datasets to use as the foundation for our programs. We used four UCI data sets [2]:

- (1) MUSHROOMS, a dataset to classify mushrooms as edible or inedible
- (2) BALANCE, a dataset to classify whether or not a scale with objects of varying weights and distances was balanced
- (3) CARS, a dataset of car evaluations
- (4) TICTACTOE, a dataset of Tic-Tac-Toe board states.

These datasets were selected as they have a variety of both number of attributes and number of examples. MUSHROOMS has 8124 examples with 22 attributes, for example, while BALANCE only has 625 examples and 5 attributes. In addition, some of our datasets were calculated while others were collected from real-world data. We tried to choose a diverse selection of datasets so that our algorithm testing results would not be overly skewed towards certain types of datasets.

2.2 Decision Tree Generation

The foundation of our decision tree algorithm was the one provided by Russell and Norvig [6] which, in turn, is based on the ID3 algorithm [5].

A two-stage approach was used: first, a decision tree generator was developed, called dt1. This program would take in a flag to determine which of our data sets was represented by the input. As the ordering of attributes and classes was inconsistent between

Function `DecisionTreeLearning(examples, attributes, parent_examples, depth)`

```

1 if examples is empty then
2   return Plurality-Value(parent_examples)
3 else if depth = 0 then
4   return Plurality-Value(examples)
5 else if all examples have the same classification c then
6   return a leaf node c
7 else if attributes is empty then
8   return Plurality-Value(examples)
9 end
10  $A \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \text{attributes}} \text{Importance}(a, \text{examples})$ ;
11 tree  $\leftarrow$  a new decision tree with root test A;
12 foreach value  $v_k$  of A do
13   exs  $\leftarrow \{e : e \in \text{examples} \text{ and } e.A = v_k\}$ ;
14   subtree  $\leftarrow$ 
     DecisionTreeLearning(exs, attributes - A, examples, depth - 1);
15   add a branch to tree with label (A =  $v_k$ ) and subtree
     subtree;
16 end
17 return tree;

```

datasets, this allowed us to significantly simplify the process of importing data.

2.3 Classification

A second program, `classify`, was used to classify data using a decision tree generated from `dtl`. To communicate a decision tree between these two programs, a JSON representation of the decision tree was used. This data format allowed us to produce human-readable representations of the decision trees, which we could use as a sanity check during development.

2.4 External Packages

To assist with the command-line interface, we used the `cmdliner` module. This allowed us to define data types and arguments for input, and then it handled the majority of the command-line parsing. It also automatically generated a `--help` option to inform users of what the different options were. This massively simplified developing optional new features, as we could simply add an optional flag and `cmdliner` would handle parsing it.

Additionally, we used `adtgen` to generate a JSON serializer and deserializer. This was done at the very start of the project, allowing us to work with and visualize decision tree data from the very beginning. This also meant that as our decision tree model was updated and changed, the JSON code was automatically shared and kept up-to-date between `dtl` and `classify`.

2.5 k -fold Cross-Validation

Finally, we split k -fold cross-validation into two implementations. The first, done in Python, was very simple to get working, and so we were able to start collecting data fairly early on in the process. At

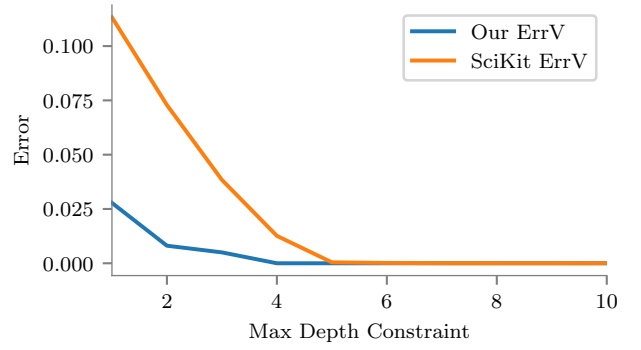


Figure 1: Error for our algorithm versus scikit-learn on the MUSHROOMS dataset

the same time, we developed a model selection program in OCaml, which used a similar algorithm to the one in the Python script.

Using Python to generate data for k -fold cross-validation allowed us to collect data from both our decision tree program as well as the decision tree algorithm provided by scikit-learn [4]. This provided a simple baseline for our experimentation.

We then ran each of our datasets through the `DecisionTreeLearning` algorithm with maximum depths ranging from 1 to 10 and performed k -fold cross-validation to determine error rates, with $k = 4$. As we noticed that subsequent experiments could obtain dramatically varying error rates, we repeated each of these experiments for 100 trials, to determine both average error rates and the variance of these error rates.

3 RESULTS

The results of our experimentation varied quite a bit between datasets. For MUSHROOMS in particular, our algorithm was able to achieve significantly greater accuracy than scikit-learn for smaller maximum depth constraints (figure 1). However, for other datasets, such as TICTACTOE, our algorithm produced consistently more error-prone results at all depth values (figure 2).

The CARS dataset proved the most interesting. While our algorithm had worse accuracy than scikit-learn for small depth values, as the allowed depth increased we began to outperform scikit-learn’s algorithm (figure 3).

4 DISCUSSION

Overall, we found that our algorithm performed much worse on datasets with a large amount of interconnected data, such as Tic-Tac-Toe, where the impact of one attribute was heavily dependent on all of the other attributes. However, for more traditional classification problems, such as evaluating cars or mushrooms, our algorithm was very accurate.

From our results, we saw that the only dataset we started overfitting on was TICTACTOE. This was likely due to the datasets we chose having significant complexity; although BALANCE had the fewest attributes, its classifications relied on combinations of all of them. Our simplest datasets were also calculated classifications,

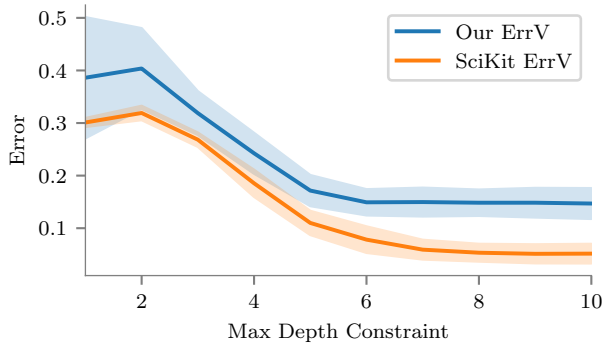


Figure 2: Error ($\pm 2 \times SD$) for our algorithm versus scikit-learn on the TICTACTOE dataset

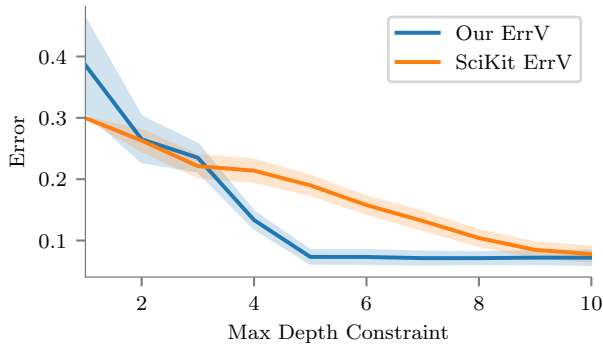


Figure 3: Error ($\pm 2 \times SD$) for our algorithm versus scikit-learn on the CARS dataset

reducing the amount of noise in the data; the more complex models were the ones gathered from real-world data and so were at the most risk of overfitting - but the number of attributes was so high that a maximum depth of 10 didn't appear to reach an optimal model selection value.

We were surprised at the discrepancies between our algorithm and the one provided by scikit-learn, as we expected both decision tree algorithms to produce similar results. While an effort was made to produce similar constraints on both algorithms (scikit-learn was used with the “entropy” heuristic, as well as the same tree depth constraint), there were a few differences that we were unable to resolve. First, scikit-learn uses “an optimised version of the CART [1] algorithm.”

Additionally, scikit-learn could not be used with categorical data. To get around this restriction, we used one-hot encoding for the scikit-learn algorithm. This causes a negative impact on the depth: scikit-learn's decision tree was forced to be a binary tree, and so depth constraints acted far more harshly than they did on our algorithm.

The algorithm used by scikit-learn resulted in much closer variance than ours; however, scikit tended to keep a constant variance,

while our algorithm produced one which decreased as we increased the maximum depth of the tree. This indicates to us that while scikit-learn's algorithm produces consistently good results for most datasets, our algorithm can produce very good (or very bad) results for those same datasets.

5 ROLE ASSIGNMENT & CONTRIBUTIONS

5.1 Alic

Alic was responsible for implementing the decision tree learning algorithm, the JSON decision tree representation, helped improve the binary executables, and implemented unit testing for several core functions. He implemented the decision tree learning algorithm from Russell and Norvig [6], and added an optional depth constraint. He also was responsible for constructing both the internal decision tree representation and determining the JSON representation for communicating between the dtl and classify binaries. Additionally, he improved the binary executable command-line experience, enabling order-independent options as well as a `--help` option. Finally, he wrote unit tests for core functions such as `Plurality-Value`, `Entropy`, and `DecisionTreeLearning` itself. He was the project checker.

5.2 Willem

Willem worked primarily on decision tree creation, data file read in, and model selection in ocaml. He created a data reader for CSV files, which was used by all of the OCaml binaries (dtl, classifier, and the OCaml-based model selection program). He helped program the dtl executable, which reads in a data file for the training data, then creates a decision tree. He also wrote up the large amount of hard coded information about the different sets of data, including information about the attributes, their possible values, the possible classification, etc. He also created the OCaml version of model selection using cross validation, which takes in various optional and required command line arguments and prints out the selected tree, error rate in the training set, error rate in the validation set, and the chosen max depth. He also elected to be the project recorder.

5.3 Diego

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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A SUPPLEMENTAL GRAPHS & DATA

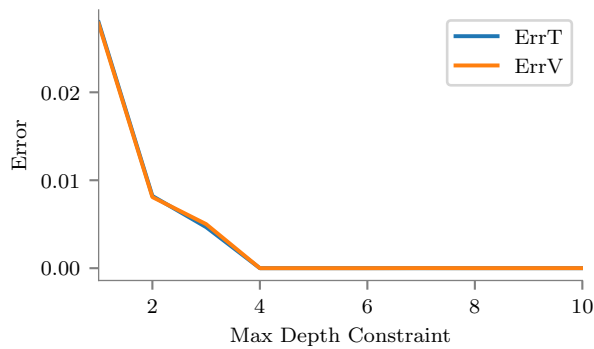


Figure 4: The error on training and validation data for the MUSHROOMS data set

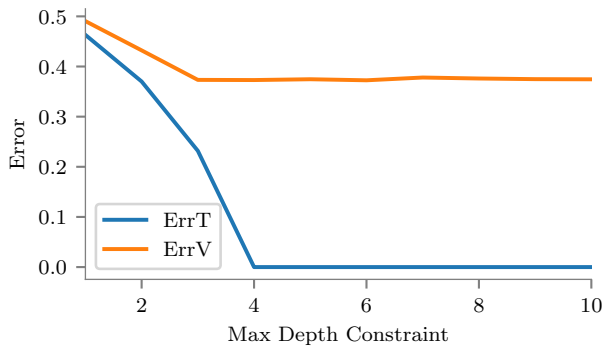


Figure 5: The error on training and validation data for the BALANCE data set

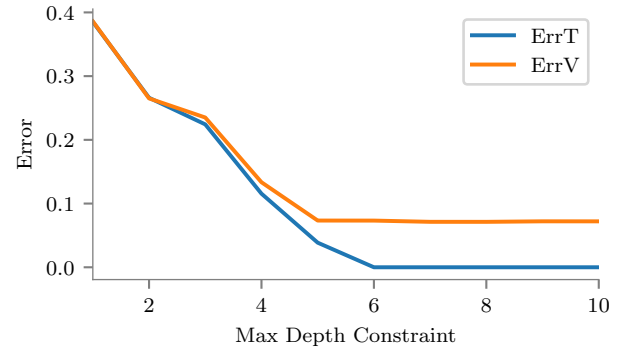


Figure 6: The error on training and validation data for the CARS data set

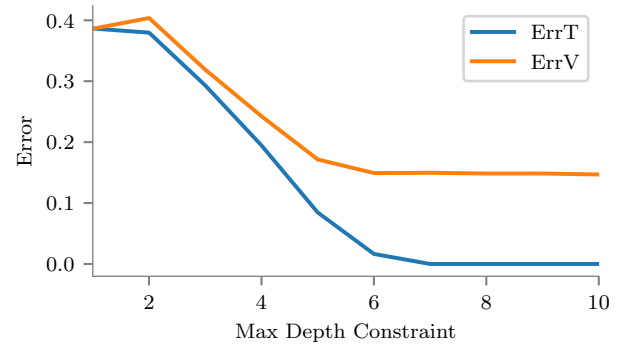


Figure 7: The error on training and validation data for the TICTACTOE data set

Exploring the Impact of Decision Tree Depth

MaxDepth	BALANCE		CARS		MUSHROOMS		TICTACTOE	
	Avg Error	SD	Avg Error	SD	Avg Error	SD	Avg Error	SD
1	0.404191	0.012534	0.299769	6.409876e-17	0.113245	6.927670e-17	0.301035	0.004068
2	0.359704	0.019186	0.262998	8.538287e-03	0.072871	6.937492e-17	0.319115	0.006669
3	0.299806	0.013906	0.221366	8.831223e-03	0.038405	3.836886e-17	0.268329	0.006638
4	0.253065	0.012958	0.213860	8.886552e-03	0.012629	1.224688e-04	0.185432	0.012746
5	0.227718	0.011899	0.190035	7.656538e-03	0.000446	1.144321e-04	0.110016	0.011334
6	0.235505	0.011984	0.157795	6.878887e-03	0.000137	1.420214e-04	0.078250	0.012445
7	0.234140	0.011871	0.131944	7.268610e-03	0.000027	9.986264e-05	0.059186	0.009237
8	0.227516	0.011412	0.104103	6.179355e-03	0.000025	9.896975e-05	0.053361	0.008296
9	0.224897	0.010037	0.084815	5.794818e-03	0.000022	8.814005e-05	0.051273	0.008884
10	0.222565	0.009456	0.077986	5.976894e-03	0.000016	7.951336e-05	0.051618	0.009168

Table 1: Errors and standard deviations of decision trees for different datasets