Machine Learning - Decision Trees Random Forests (Optional)



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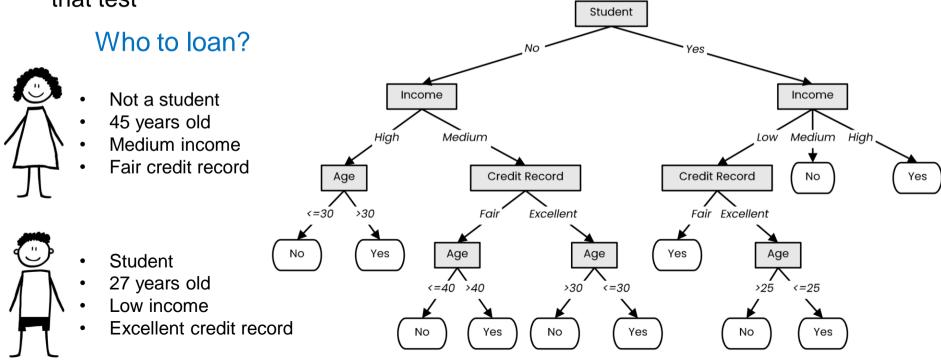
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Definition

A tree-like model that illustrates series of events/attr. leading to certain decisions

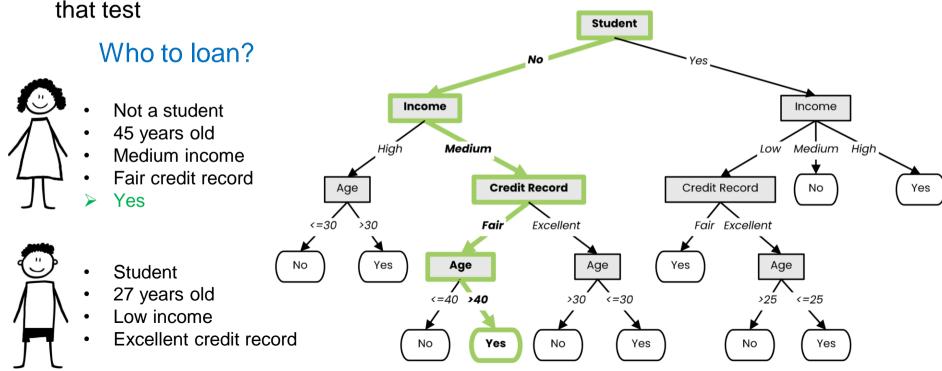
 Each node represents a test on an attribute and each branch is an outcome of that test



Definition

A tree-like model that illustrates series of events leading to certain decisions

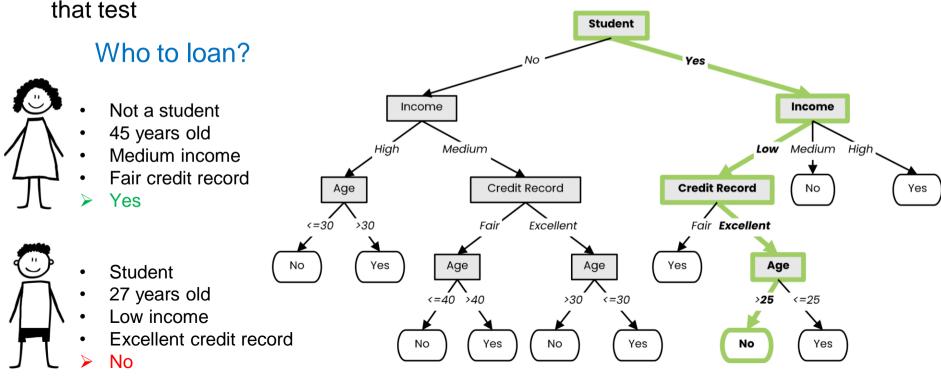
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Definition

A tree-like model that illustrates series of events leading to certain decisions

Each node represents a test on an attribute and each branch is an outcome of



Decision Trees

A decision tree is a non-parametric supervised learning algorithm,
 which is utilized for both classification and regression tasks.

 The hypothesis of decision trees has a hierarchical, tree structure, which consists of a root node, branches, internal nodes and leaf nodes.

Decision Trees

How does Decision Tree algorithm work?

- Begin the tree with the root node S, which contains the complete dataset.
- 2. Find the best criteria in the dataset using ASM (Attribute Selection Measure i.e., Information Gain, Gini Index etc.).
- Divide the S into subsets that contains possible values for the best attributes.
- 4. Generate the decision tree node, which contains the best attribute.
- 5. Repeat the step 3-4 continuously till the leaf node (pure node).

Decision Trees Algorithm

Principle

- Basic algorithm (adopted by ID3, C4.5 and CART): a greedy algorithm
- Tree is constructed in a top-down recursive divide-and-conquer manner

Iterations

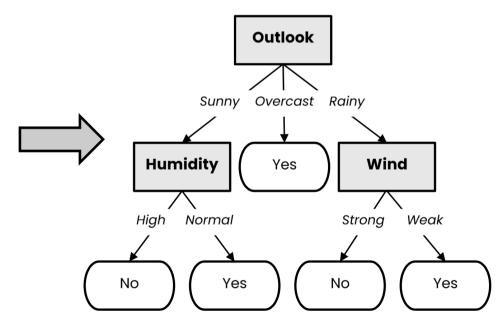
- At start, all the training tuples are at the root
- Tuples are partitioned recursively based on selected attributes
- Test attributes are selected on the basis of a heuristic or statistical measure (e.g, information gain)

Stopping Conditions

- All samples for a given node belong to the same class
- There are no remaining attributes for further partitioning i.e., majority voting is employed for classifying the leaf
- There are no samples left

- We use labeled data to obtain a suitable decision tree for future predictions
 - We want a decision tree that works well on unseen data, while asking as few questions as possible

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
Overcast	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
Overcast	Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
Sunny	Mild	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	High	Strong	No



- Basic step: choose an attribute and, based on its values, split the data into smaller sets
 - > Recursively repeat this step until we can surely decide the label

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
Overcast	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
Overcast	Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
Sunny	Mild	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	High	Strong	No

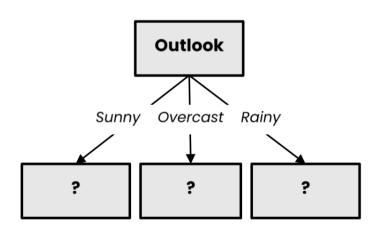
Outlook

- Basic step: choose an attribute and, based on its values, split the data into smaller sets
 - > Recursively repeat this step until we can surely decide the label

ار	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
N N	Hot	High	Strong	No
š	Mild	High	Weak	No
OUTIOOK	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
3	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes

Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Hot	High	Weak	Yes
Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
Mild	High	Strong	Yes
Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes

کر	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Kainy	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
=	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
8	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
Outlook	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
ರ	Mild	High	Strong	No

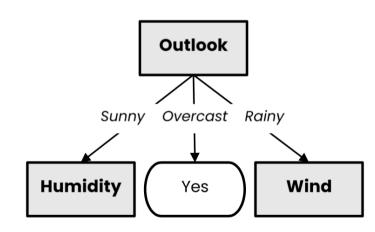


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 - Recursively repeat this step until we can surely decide the label

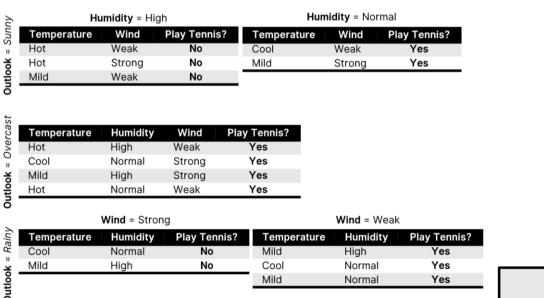
_Z	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
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Š	Mild	High	Weak	No
Outlook	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
5	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes

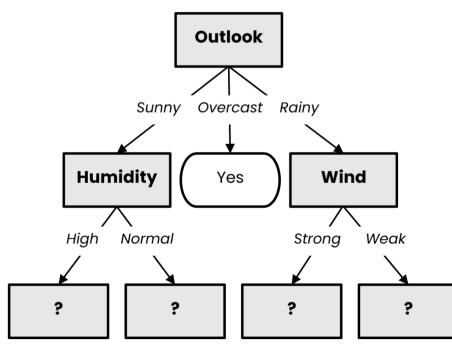
	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Ī	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
	Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
-				

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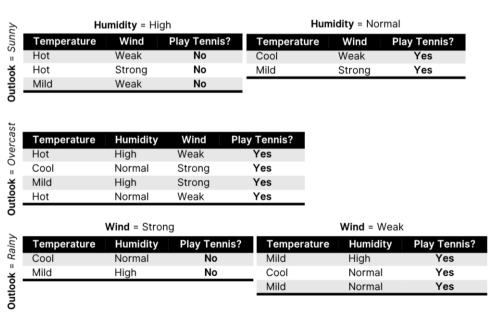


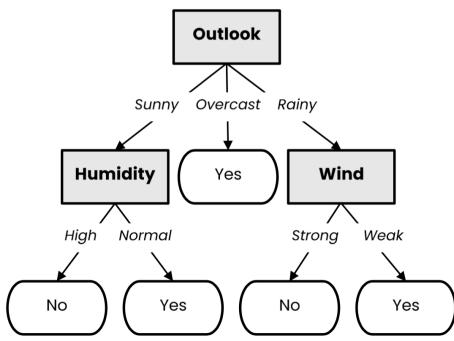
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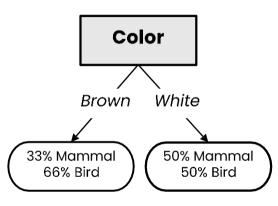


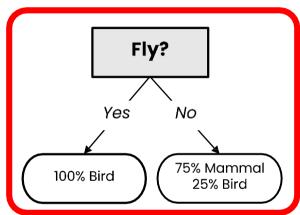
Decision Tree Learning (Python)

```
def make tree(X):
   node = TreeNode(X)
   if should be leaf node(X):
       node.label = majority label(X)
   else:
       a = select best splitting attribute(X)
       for v in values(a):
           X_{v} = \{x \in X \mid x \mid a \} = v\}
           node.children.append (make tree (X_v))
   return node
```

What is a good attribute?

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird





- Which attribute provides better splitting?
- Why?
 - Because the resulting subsets are more pure
 - Knowing the value of this attribute gives us more information about the label (the entropy of the subsets is lower)

Information Gain

Entropy

Entropy measures the degree of randomness in data

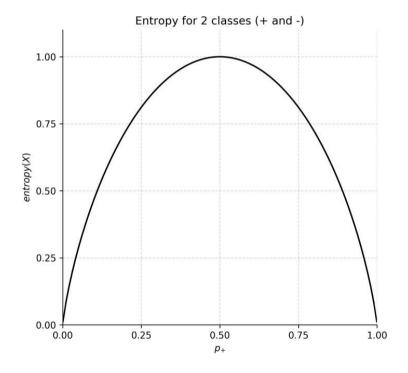


For a set of samples X with k classes:

$$entropy(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \log_2(p_i)$$

where p_i is the proportion of elements of class i

Lower entropy implies greater predictability!



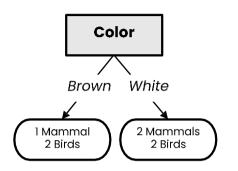
Information Gain

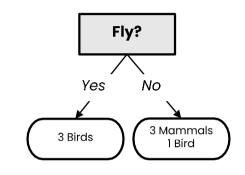
 The information gain of an attribute a is the expected reduction in entropy due to splitting on values of a:

$$gain(X, a) = entropy(X) - \sum_{v \in Values(a)} \frac{|X_v|}{|X|} entropy(X_v)$$

where X_v is the subset of X for which a = v

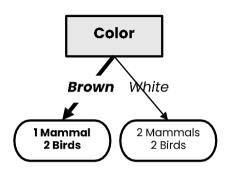
Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
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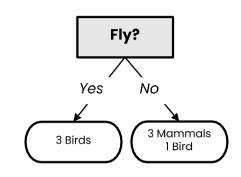




$$entropy(X) = -p_{\text{mammal}} \log_2 p_{\text{mammal}} - p_{\text{bird}} \log_2 p_{\text{bird}} = -\frac{3}{7} \log_2 \frac{3}{7} - \frac{4}{7} \log_2 \frac{4}{7} \approx 0.985$$

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
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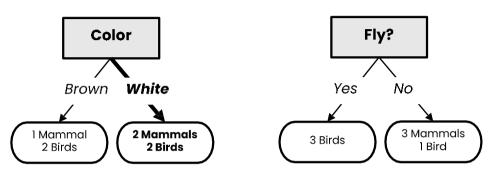




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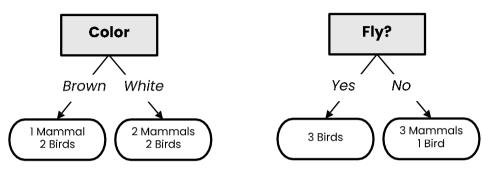
$$entropy(X_{color=brown}) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.918$$

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird



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 $entropy(X_{color=brown}) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.918$
 $entropy(X_{color=white}) = 1$

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird

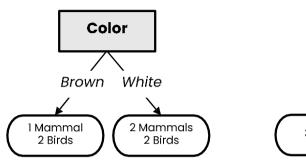


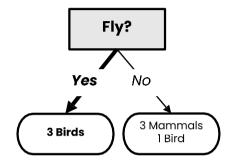
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$$entropy(X_{color=brown}) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.918 \qquad entropy(X_{color=white}) = 1$$

$$gain(X, color) = 0.985 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot 0.918 - \frac{4}{7} \cdot 1 \approx 0.020$$

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird





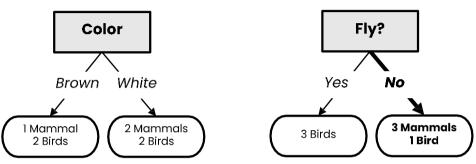
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$$entropy(X_{color=brown}) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.918 \qquad entropy(X_{color=white}) = 1$$

$$gain(X, color) = 0.985 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot 0.918 - \frac{4}{7} \cdot 1 \approx 0.020$$

$$entropy(X_{fly=yes}) = 0$$

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird



$$entropy(X) = -p_{\text{mammal}} \log_2 p_{\text{mammal}} - p_{\text{bird}} \log_2 p_{\text{bird}} = -\frac{3}{7} \log_2 \frac{3}{7} - \frac{4}{7} \log_2 \frac{4}{7} \approx 0.985$$

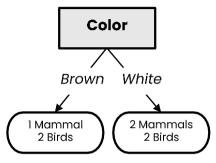
$$entropy(X_{color=brown}) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.918 \quad entropy(X_{color=white}) = 1$$

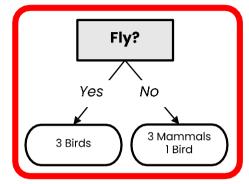
$$gain(X, color) = 0.985 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot 0.918 - \frac{4}{7} \cdot 1 \approx 0.020$$

$$entropy(X_{fly=yes}) = 0 \quad entropy(X_{fly=no}) = -\frac{3}{4} \log_2 \frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} \approx 0.811$$

In practice, we compute entropy(X) only once!

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird





$$entropy(X) = -p_{\text{mammal}} \log_2 p_{\text{mammal}} - p_{\text{bird}} \log_2 p_{\text{bird}} = -\frac{3}{7} \log_2 \frac{3}{7} - \frac{4}{7} \log_2 \frac{4}{7} \approx 0.985$$

$$entropy(X_{color=brown}) = -\frac{1}{3} \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.918 \quad entropy(X_{color=white}) = 1$$

$$gain(X, color) = 0.985 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot 0.918 - \frac{4}{7} \cdot 1 \approx 0.020$$

$$entropy(X_{fly=yes}) = 0 \quad entropy(X_{fly=no}) = -\frac{3}{4} \log_2 \frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} \approx 0.811$$

$$gain(X, fly) = 0.985 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot 0 - \frac{4}{7} \cdot 0.811 \approx 0.521$$

ID3 Algorithm (Python)

```
# ID = Iterative Dichotomiser ( it is to divide into two opposing
groups or kinds)
def ID3(X):
    node = TreeNode(X)
    if all points have same class(X):
        node.label = majority label(X)
    else:
        a = select attribute with highest information gain(X)
        if qain(X, a) == 0:
             node.label = majority label(X)
        else:
             for v in values(a):
                 X_{v} = \{x \in X \mid x[a] == v\}
                 node.children.append(ID3(X_n))
    return node
```

Gini Impurity

Gini Impurity

 Gini impurity measures how often a randomly chosen example would be incorrectly labeled if it was randomly labeled according to the label distribution



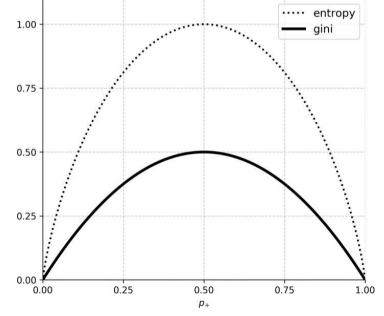
Error of classifying randomly picked fruit with randomly picked label



For a set of samples X with k classes:

$$gini(X) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i^2$$

where p_i is the proportion of elements of class i

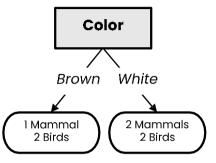


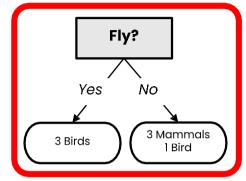
Can be used as an alternative to entropy for selecting attributes!

Best attribute = highest impurity decrease

In practice, we compute gini(X) only once!

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird





$$gini (X) = 1 - \left(\frac{3}{7}\right)^{2} - \left(\frac{4}{7}\right)^{2} \approx 0.489$$

$$gini (X_{color=brown}) = 1 - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{2} - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{2} \approx 0.444 \qquad gini (X_{color=white}) = 0.5$$

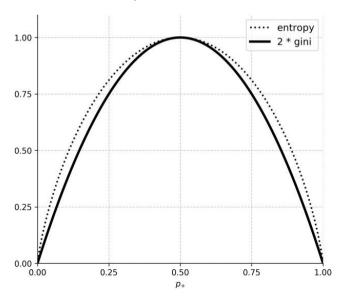
$$\triangle gini (X, color) = \mathbf{0}.489 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot \mathbf{0}.444 - \frac{4}{7} \cdot \mathbf{0}.5 \approx \mathbf{0}.013$$

$$gini (X_{fly=yes}) = 0 \qquad gini (X_{fly=no}) = 1 - \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{2} - \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{2} \approx 0.375$$

$$\triangle gini (X, fly) = \mathbf{0}.489 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot \mathbf{0} - \frac{4}{7} \cdot \mathbf{0}.375 \approx \mathbf{0}.274$$

Entropy versus Gini Impurity

- Entropy and Gini Impurity give similar results in practice
 - ➤ They only disagree in about 2% of cases "Theoretical Comparison between the Gini Index and Information Gain Criteria" [Răileanu & Stoffel, AMAI 2004]
 - > Entropy might be slower to compute, because of the log



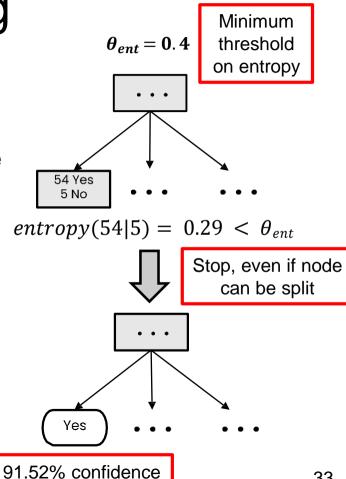
Pruning

Pruning

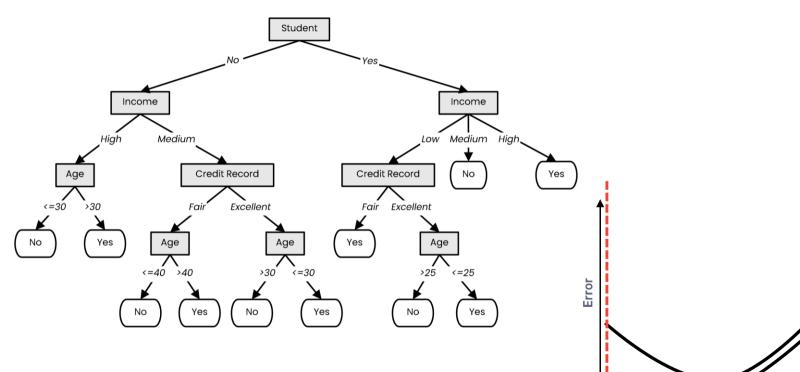
- Pruning is a technique that reduces the size of a decision tree by removing branches of the tree which provide little predictive power
- It is a regularization method that reduces the complexity of the final model, thus reducing overfitting
 - Decision trees are prone to overfitting!
- Pruning methods:
 - Pre-pruning: Stop the tree building algorithm before it fully classifies the data
 - ➤ Post-pruning: Build the complete tree, then replace some nonleaf nodes with leaf nodes if this improves validation error

Pre-pruning

- Pre-pruning implies early stopping:
 - If some condition is met, the current node will not be split, even if it is not 100% pure
- It will become a leaf node with the label of the majority class in the current set (the class distribution could be used as prediction confidence)
- Common stopping criteria include setting a threshold on:
 - > Entropy (or Gini Impurity) of the current set
 - > Number of samples in the current set
 - Gain of the best-splitting attribute
 - Depth of the tree



Post-pruning



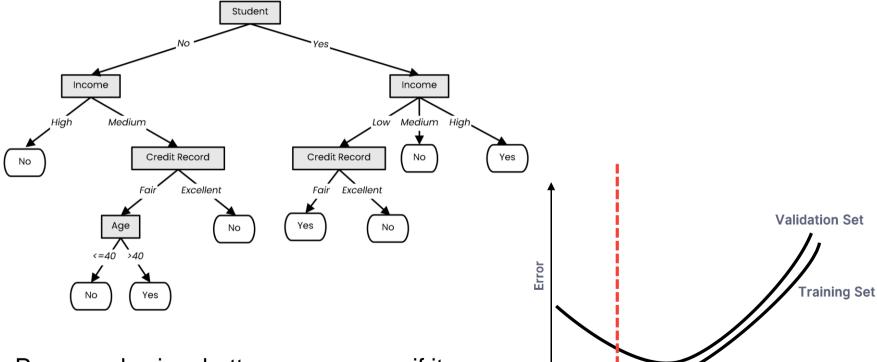
Prune nodes in a bottom-up manner, if it decreases validation error

Validation Set

Number of pruned nodes

Training Set

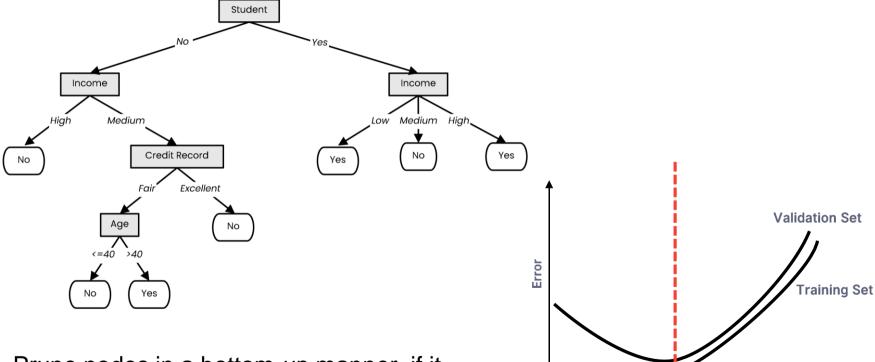
Post-pruning



Prune nodes in a bottom-up manner, if it decreases validation error

Number of pruned nodes

Post-pruning



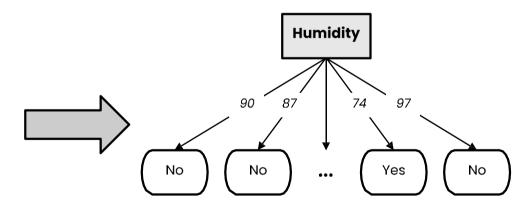
Prune nodes in a bottom-up manner, if it decreases validation error

Number of pruned nodes

- How does the ID3 algorithm handle numerical attributes?
 - Any numerical attribute would almost always bring entropy down to zero
 - This means it will completely overfit the training data

Consider a numerical value for humidity

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Sunny	Hot	90	Weak	No
Sunny	Hot	87	Strong	No
Overcast	Hot	93	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	89	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	79	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	59	Strong	No
Overcast	Cool	77	Strong	Yes
Sunny	Mild	91	Weak	No
Sunny	Cool	68	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	80	Weak	Yes
Sunny	Mild	72	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Mild	96	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Hot	74	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	97	Strong	No



- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - > Find the best splitting value

Gain of numerical attribute a if we split at value t

$$gain(X, a, t) = entropy(X) - \frac{|X_{a \le t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a \le t}) - \frac{|X_{a > t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a > t})$$

Humidity	Play Tennis?		Humidity	Play Tennis?		Candidate split values
90	No		59	No	Mean of	63
87	No		68	Yes		70
93	Yes		72	Yes	each	73
89	Yes	Sort	74	Yes	consecutive	75.5
79	Yes	Sort	77	Yes	pair	78
59	No		79	Yes		79.5
77	Yes		80	Yes		83.5
91	No		87	No		88
68	Yes		89	Yes	V	89.5
80	Yes		90	No		90.5
72	Yes		91	No		92
96	Yes		93	Yes		94.5
74	Yes		96	Yes		96.5
97	No		97	No		

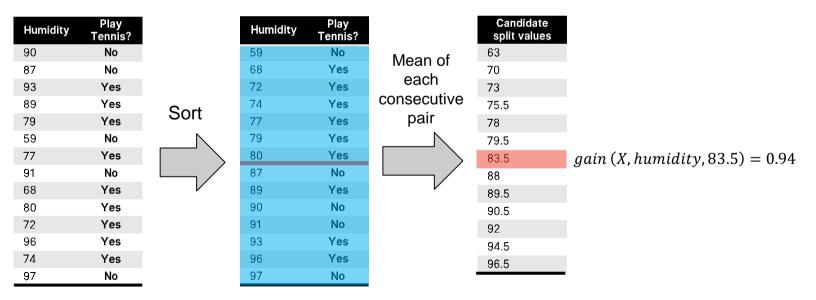
- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - Find the best splitting value

$$gain(X, a, t) = entropy(X) - \frac{|X_{a \le t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a \le t}) - \frac{|X_{a > t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a > t})$$

Humidity	Play Tennis?		Humidity	Play Tennis?		Candidate split values	
90	No		59	No	Mean of	63	
87	No		68	Yes		70	
93	Yes		72	Yes	each	73	
89	Yes	Sort	74	Yes	consecutive	75.5	
79	Yes	Suit	77	Yes	pair	78	
59	No		79	Yes		79.5	
77	Yes		80	Yes		83.5	gain(X, humidity, 83.5) =
91	No		87	No		88	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
68	Yes	V	89	Yes	V	89.5	
80	Yes		90	No		90.5	
72	Yes		91	No		92	
96	Yes		93	Yes		94.5	
74	Yes		96	Yes		96.5	
97	No		97	No			

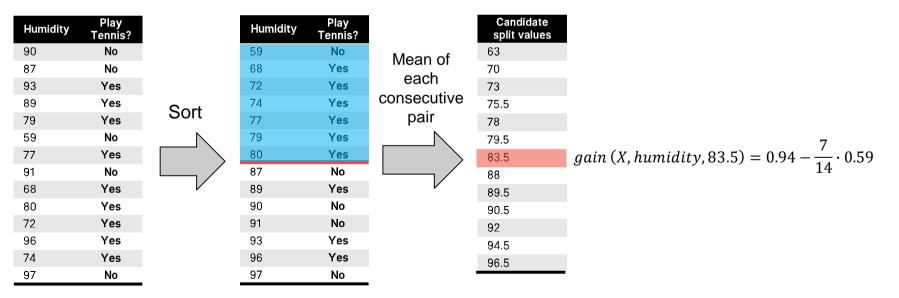
- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - Find the best splitting value

$$gain(X, a, t) = \underbrace{entropy(X)}_{entropy} - \frac{|X_{a \le t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a \le t}) - \frac{|X_{a > t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a > t})$$



- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - Find the best splitting value

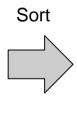
$$gain(X, a, t) = entropy(X) - \frac{|X_{a \le t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a \le t}) - \frac{|X_{a > t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a > t})$$



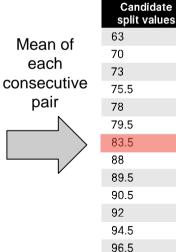
- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - Find the best splitting value

$$gain(X, a, t) = entropy(X) - \frac{|X_{a \le t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a \le t}) - \frac{|X_{a > t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a > t})$$

Humidity	Play Tennis?
90	No
87	No
93	Yes
89	Yes
79	Yes
59	No
77	Yes
91	No
68	Yes
80	Yes
72	Yes
96	Yes
74	Yes
97	No



Humidity	Play Tennis?
59	No
68	Yes
72	Yes
74	Yes
77	Yes
79	Yes
80	Yes
87	No
89	Yes
90	No
91	No
93	Yes
96	Yes
97	No

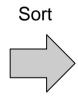


gain(X, humidity, 83.5) = 0	$0.94 - \frac{7}{14} \cdot 0.59$	$9 - \frac{7}{14} \cdot 0.98$

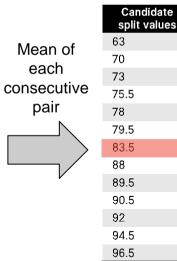
- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - Find the best splitting value

$$gain(X, a, t) = entropy(X) - \frac{|X_{a \le t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a \le t}) - \frac{|X_{a > t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a > t})$$

Humidity	Play Tennis?
90	No
87	No
93	Yes
89	Yes
79	Yes
59	No
77	Yes
91	No
68	Yes
80	Yes
72	Yes
96	Yes
74	Yes
97	No



Humidity	Play Tennis?
59	No
68	Yes
72	Yes
74	Yes
77	Yes
79	Yes
80	Yes
87	No
89	Yes
90	No
91	No
93	Yes
96	Yes
97	No

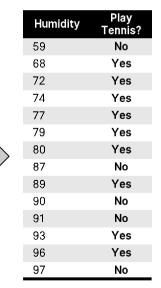


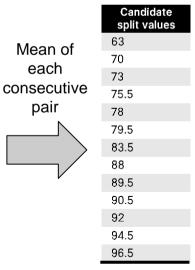
7 7
$gain(X, humidity, 83.5) = 0.94 - \frac{7}{14} \cdot 0.59 - \frac{7}{14} \cdot 0.98$
14 14
pprox 0.152
V. 202

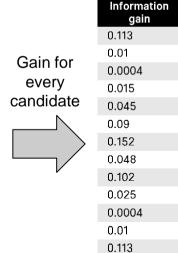
- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - Find the best splitting value

Sort

Humidity	Tennis?
90	No
87	No
93	Yes
89	Yes
79	Yes
59	No
77	Yes
91	No
68	Yes
80	Yes
72	Yes
96	Yes
74	Yes
97	No







83.5 is the best splitting value with an information gain of 0.152

- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
 - > Find the best splitting value

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis?
Sunny	Hot	> 83.5	Weak	No
Sunny	Hot	> 83.5	Strong	No
Overcast	Hot	> 83.5	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	> 83.5	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	≤ 83.5	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Cool	≤ 83.5	Strong	No
Overcast	Cool	≤ 83.5	Strong	Yes
Sunny	Mild	> 83.5	Weak	No
Sunny	Cool	≤ 83.5	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	≤ 83.5	Weak	Yes
Sunny	Mild	≤ 83.5	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Mild	> 83.5	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Hot	≤ 83.5	Weak	Yes
Rainy	Mild	> 83.5	Strong	No

- 83.5 is the best splitting value for Humidity with an information gain of 0.152
- Humidity is now treated as a categorical attribute with two possible values
- A new optimal split is computed at every level of the tree
- A numerical attribute can be used several times in the tree, with different split values

Handling Missing Values

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	?	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
?	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some attributes
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	White	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird

4 No 2 Brown 2 Yes 4 White

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some attributes
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:
- > Set them to the most common value

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	White	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird

$$P(Yes|Bird) = \frac{2}{3} = 0.66$$

$$P(No|Bird) = \frac{1}{3} = 0.33$$

P(White|Mammal) = 1

P(Brown|Mammal) = 0

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some attributes
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:
- Set them to the most common value
- Set them to the most probable value given the label

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
Yes	Brown	Bird
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some attributes
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:
- > Set them to the most common value
- Set them to the most probable value given the label
- > Add a new instance for each possible value

Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	?	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
?	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird

$$\mathrm{entropy}(X_{color=brown}) = 0$$

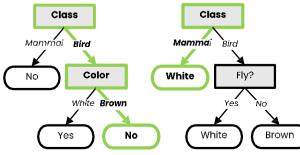
$$entropy(X_{color=white}) = 1$$

$$gain(X|color) = 0.985 - \frac{2}{6} \cdot 0 - \frac{4}{6} \cdot 1$$
$$= 0.318$$

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some attributes
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:
- Set them to the most common value
- Set them to the most probable value given the label
- > Add a new instance for each possible value
- Leave them unknown, but discard the sample when evaluating the gain of that attribute
 - (if the attribute is chosen for splitting, send the instances with unknown values to all children)

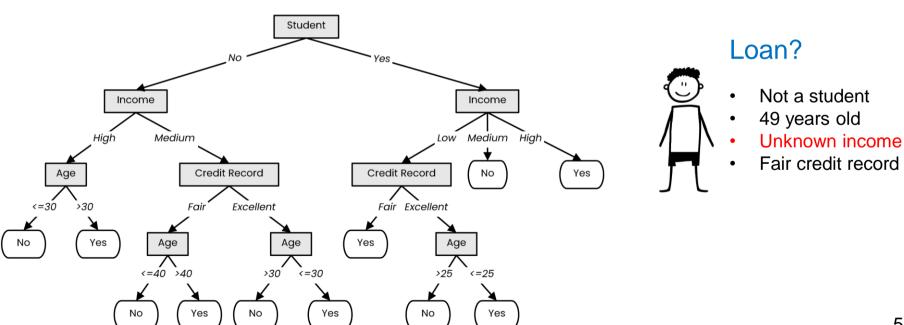
Does it fly?	Color	Class
No	White	Mammal
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird
No	White	Mammal
No	Brown	Bird
Yes	White	Bird

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some attributes
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:
- Set them to the most common value
- Set them to the most probable value given the label
- > Add a new instance for each possible value
- Leave them unknown, but discard the sample when evaluating the gain of that attribute (if the attribute is chosen for splitting, send the instances with unknown values to all children)
- Build a decision tree on all other attributes (including label) to predict missing values
 (use instances where the attribute is defined as training data)



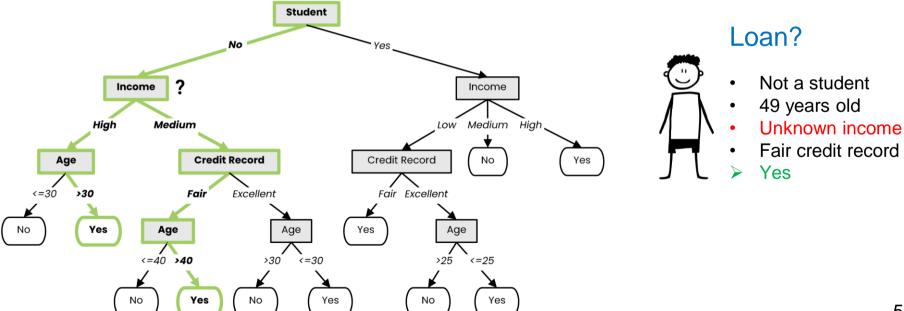
Handling missing values at inference time

 When we encounter a node that checks an attribute with a missing value, we explore all possibilities



Handling missing values at inference time

- When we encounter a node that checks an attribute with a missing value, we explore all possibilities
- We explore all branches and take the final prediction based on a (weighted) vote of the corresponding leaf nodes

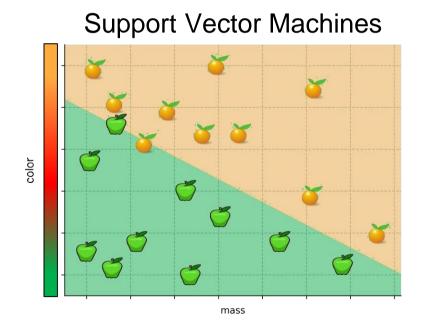


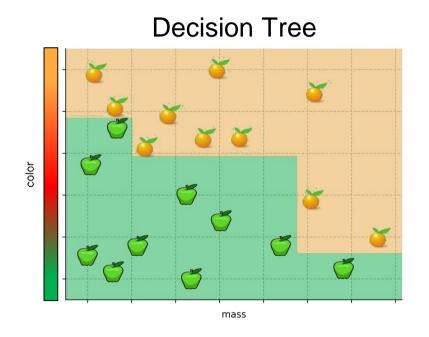
C4.5 Algorithm

- C4.5 algorithm is an extension of ID3 algorithm that brings several improvements:
 - Ability to handle both categorical (discrete) and numerical (continuous) attributes
 (continuous attributes are split by finding a best-splitting threshold)
 - ➤ Ability to handle missing values both at training and inference time (missing values at training are not used when information gain is computed; missing values at inference time are handled by exploring all corresponding branches)
 - > Ability to handle attributes with different costs
 - ➤ Post-pruning in a bottom-up manner for removing branches that decrease validation error (i.e., that increase generalization capacity)

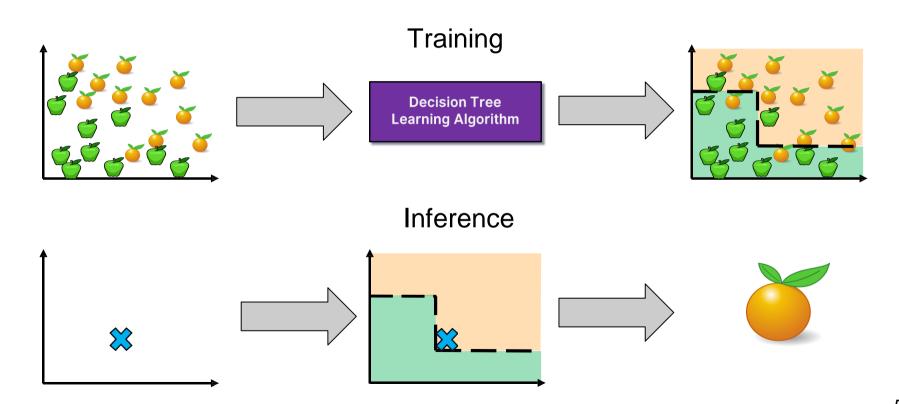
Decision Boundaries

Decision trees produce non-linear decision boundaries





Decision Trees: Training and Inference



History of Decision Trees

- The first regression tree algorithm
- "Automatic Interaction Detection (AID)" [Morgan & Sonquist, 1963]
- The first classification tree algorithm
- "Theta Automatic Interaction Detection (THAID)" [Messenger & Mandel, 1972]
- Decision trees become popular
- "Classification and regression trees (CART)" [Breiman et al., 1984]
- Introduction of the ID3 algorithm
- "Induction of Decision Trees" [Quinlan, 1986]
- Introduction of the C4.5 algorithm
- "C4.5: Programs for Machine Learning" [Quinlan, 1993]

Summary

- Decision trees represent a tool based on a tree-like graph of decisions and their possible outcomes
- Decision tree learning is a machine learning method that employs a decision tree as a predictive model
- ID3 builds a decision tree by iteratively splitting the data based on the values of an attribute with the largest information gain (decrease in entropy)
 - Using the decrease of Gini Impurity is also a commonly-used option in practice
- C4.5 is an extension of ID3 that handles attributes with continuous values, missing values and adds regularization by pruning branches likely to overfit

Slides onward are not part of the course but are very important

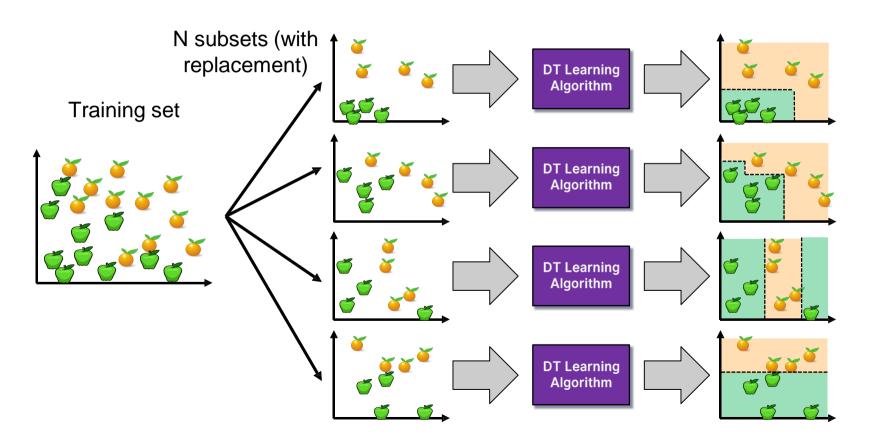
Random Forests

(Ensemble learning with decision trees)

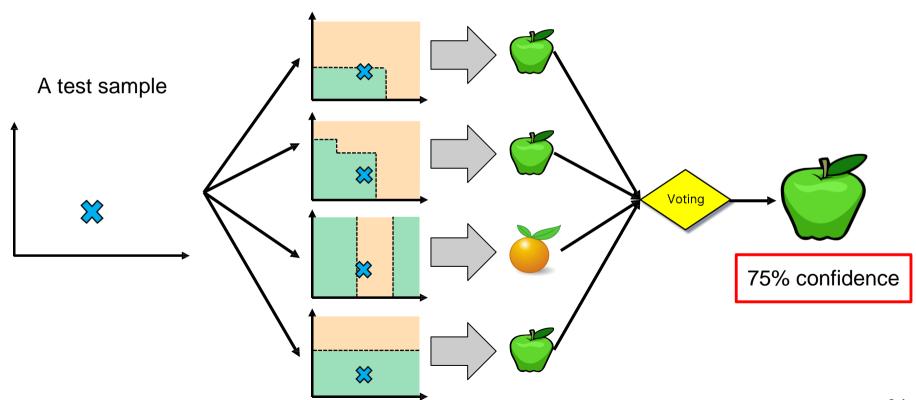
Random Forests

- Random Forests:
 - Instead of building a single decision tree and use it to make predictions, build many slightly different trees and combine their predictions
- We have a single data set, so how do we obtain slightly different trees?
 - 1. Bagging (Bootstrap Aggregating):
 - Take random subsets of data points from the training set to create N smaller data sets
 - Fit a decision tree on each subset
 - 2. Random Subspace Method (also known as Feature Bagging):
 - Fit N different decision trees by constraining each one to operate on a random subset of features

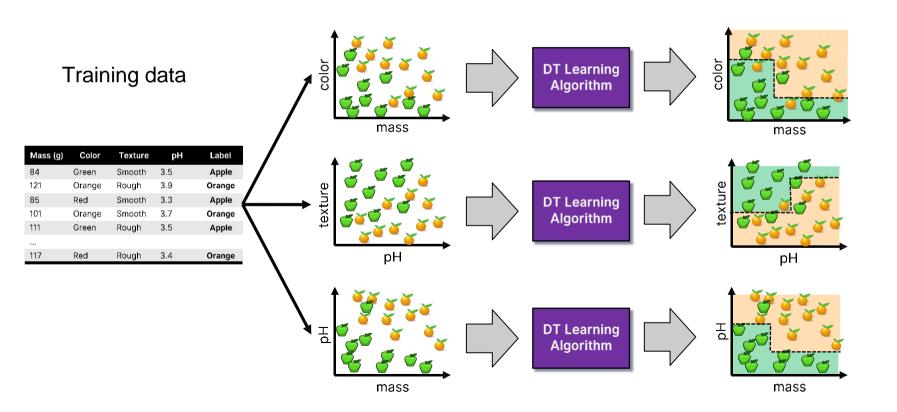
Bagging at training time



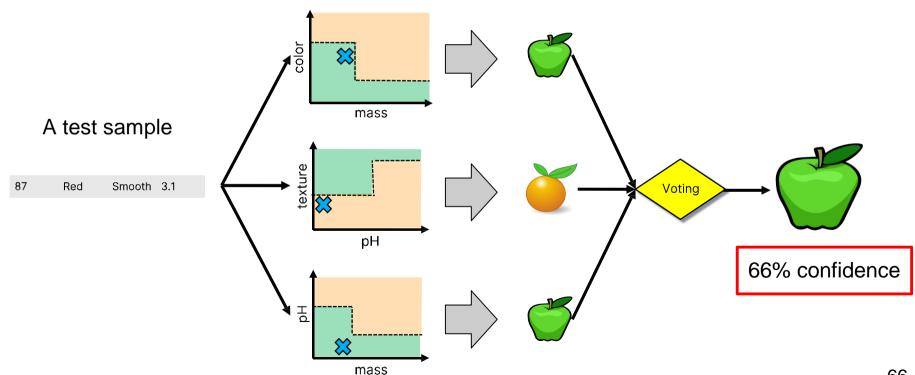
Bagging at inference time



Random Subspace Method at training time

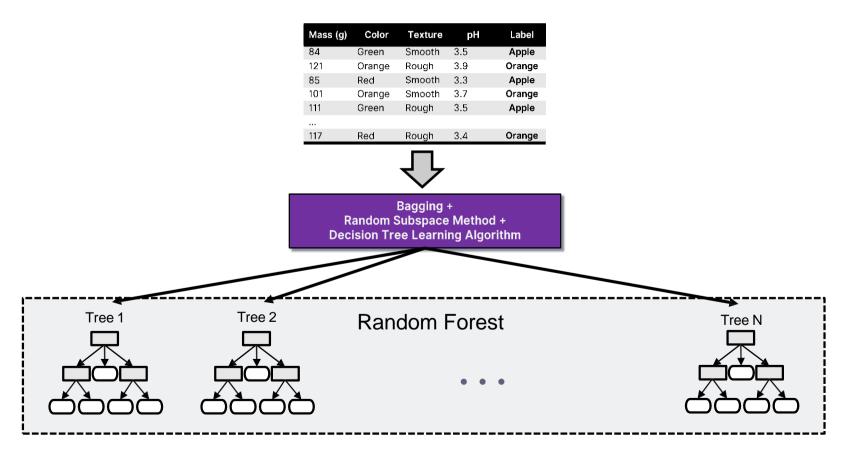


Random Subspace Method at inference time



66

Random Forests



History of Random Forests

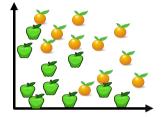
- Introduction of the Random Subspace Method
 - "Random Decision Forests" [Ho, 1995] and "The Random Subspace Method for Constructing Decision Forests" [Ho, 1998]

- Combined the Random Subspace Method with Bagging. Introduce the term Random Forest (a trademark of Leo Breiman and Adele Cutler)
 - "Random Forests" [Breiman, 2001]

Ensemble Learning

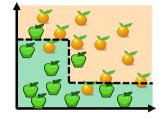
- Ensemble Learning:
 - Method that combines multiple learning algorithms to obtain performance improvements over its components
- Random Forests are one of the most common examples of ensemble learning
- Other commonly-used ensemble methods:
 - Bagging: multiple models on random subsets of data samples
 - Random Subspace Method: multiple models on random subsets of features
 - Boosting: train models iteratively, while making the current model focus on the mistakes of the previous ones by increasing the weight of misclassified samples

All samples have the same weight

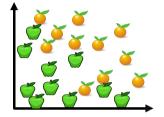








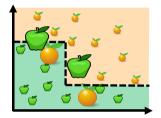
All samples have the same weight



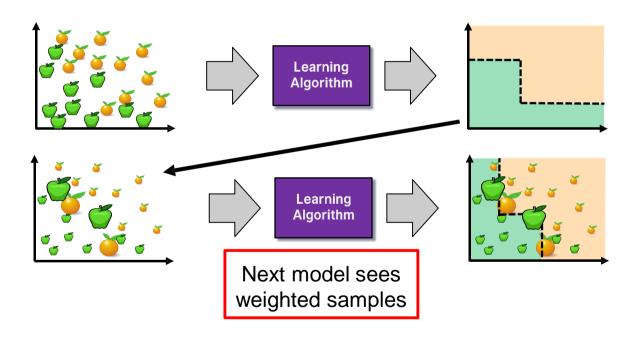


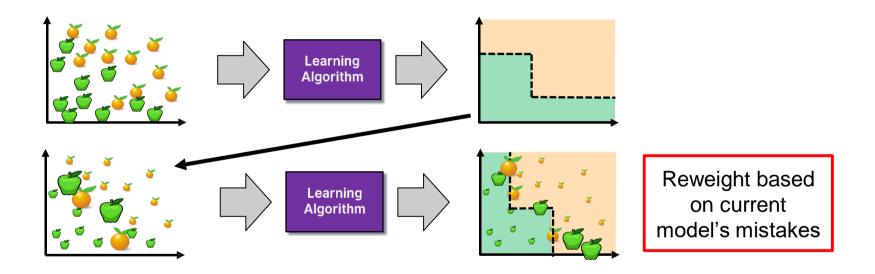


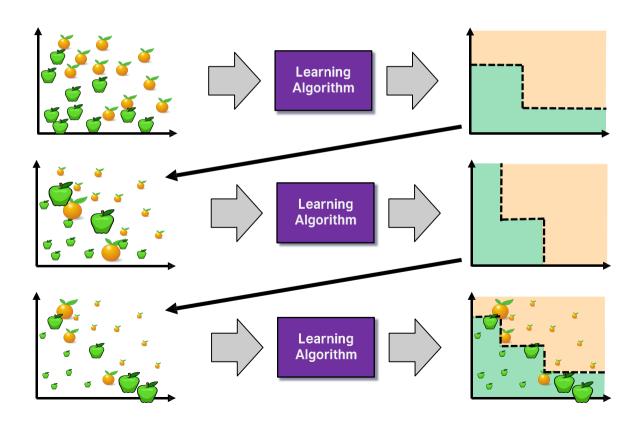


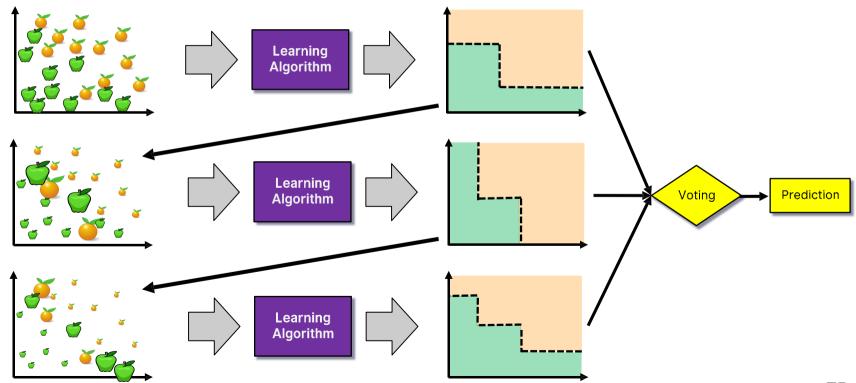


Reweight based on model's mistakes









Summary

- Ensemble Learning methods combine multiple learning algorithms to obtain performance improvements over its components
- Commonly-used ensemble methods:
 - Bagging (multiple models on random subsets of data samples)
 - Random Subspace Method (multiple models on random subsets of features)
 - Boosting (train models iteratively, while making the current model focus on the mistakes of the previous ones by increasing the weight of misclassified samples)
- Random Forests are an ensemble learning method that employ decision tree learning to build multiple trees through bagging and random subspace method.
 - > They rectify the overfitting problem of decision trees!

Decision Trees and Random Forest (Python)

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
clf = DecisionTreeClassifier(criterion = "entropy", min samples leaf = 3)
# Lots of parameters: criterion = "gini" / "entropy";
#
                      max depth;
                      min impurity split;
clf.fit(X, y) # It can only handle numerical attributes!
# Categorical attributes need to be encoded, see LabelEncoder and OneHotEncoder
clf.predict([x]) # Predict class for x
clf.feature importances # Importance of each feature
clf.tree # The underlying tree object
clf = RandomForestClassifier(n estimators = 20) # Random Forest with 20 trees
```