CS485/685 Lecture 2: January 7th, 2016

Decision Trees

Readings: [RN] Sec. 18.1-18.4, [HTF] Sec. 9.2, [D] Chapt. 1, [B] Sec. 14.4, [M] Sec. 16.2

Inductive Learning (recap)

Induction

- Given a training set of examples of the form (x, f(x))
 - x is the input, f(x) is the output
- Return a function h that approximates f
 - *h* is called the hypothesis

Supervised Learning

- Two types of problems
 - 1. Classification:
 - 2. Regression

 NB: The nature (categorical or continuous) of the domain (input space) of f does not matter

Classification Example

- Problem: Will you enjoy an outdoor sport based on the weather?
- Training set:

Sky	Humidity	Wind	Water	Forecast	EnjoySport
Sunny	Normal	Strong	Warm	Same	yes
Sunny	High	Strong	Warm	Same	yes
Sunny	High	Strong	Warm	Change	no
Sunny	High	Strong	Cool	Change	yes
			f(x)		

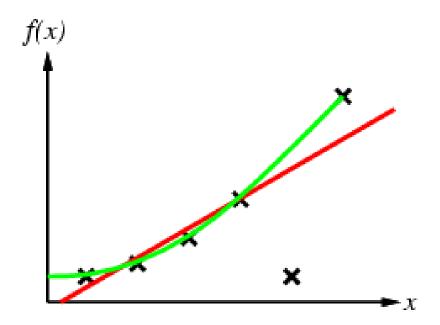
Possible Hypotheses:

$$- h_1: S = sunny \rightarrow ES = yes$$

$$- h_2$$
: *Wa* = *cool* or *F* = *same* → *enjoySport*

Regression Example

• Find function h that fits f at instances x



More Examples

Problem	Domain	Range	Classification / Regression
Spam Detection			
Stock price prediction			
Speech recognition			
Digit recognition			
Housing valuation			
Weather prediction			

Hypothesis Space

- Hypothesis space H
 - Set of all hypotheses h that the learner may consider
 - Learning is a search through hypothesis space
- Objective: find h that minimizes
 - Misclassification
 - Or more generally some error function
 with respect to the training examples
- But what about unseen examples?

Generalization

- A good hypothesis will generalize well
 - i.e., predict unseen examples correctly
- Usually ...
 - Any hypothesis h found to approximate the target function f well over a **sufficiently large set of training examples** will also approximate the target function well over any unobserved examples

Inductive learning

- Goal: find an h that agrees with f on training set
 - -h is **consistent** if it agrees with f on all examples
- Finding a consistent hypothesis is not always possible
 - Insufficient hypothesis space:
 - E.g., it is not possible to learn exactly f(x) = ax + b + xsin(x) when H = space of polynomials of finite degree
 - Noisy data
 - E.g., in weather prediction, identical conditions may lead to rainy and sunny days

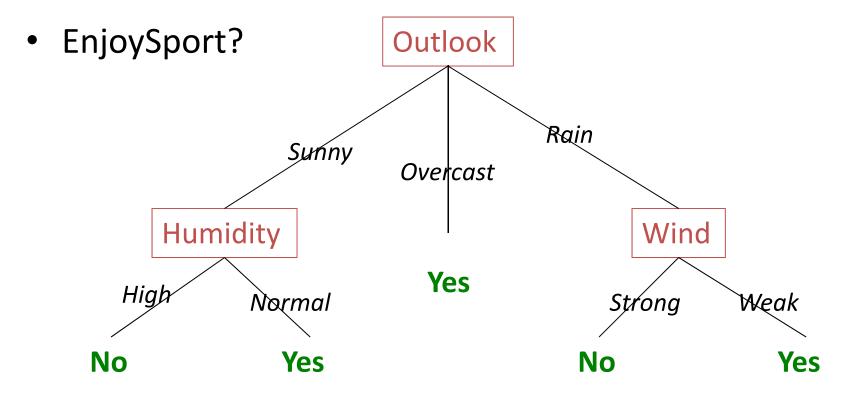
Inductive Learning

- A learning problem is if the hypothesis space contains the true function otherwise it is unrealizable.
 - Difficult to determine whether a learning problem is realizable since the true function is not known
- It is possible to use a very large hypothesis space
 - For example: H = class of all Turing machines
- But there is a tradeoff between expressiveness of a hypothesis class and the complexity of finding a good hypothesis

CART (Classification and Regression Trees)

- Tree
 - Nodes: labeled with attributes
 - Edges: labeled with attribute values
 - Leaves: labeled with
 - Classes (classification tree)
 - Values (Regression tree)
- Label an instance by following the branch consistent with the attribute values and returning the label stored in the resulting leaf.

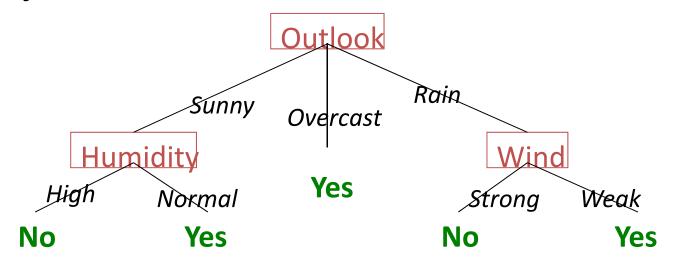
Example: classification



- Instance:
- Classification:

Decision tree representation

 Decision trees can represent disjunctions of conjunctions of constraints on attribute values



Disjunction:

Decision tree representation

- Decision trees are fully expressive within the class of propositional languages
 - Any Boolean function can be written as a decision tree
 - Trivially by allowing each row in a truth table correspond to a path in the tree
 - Can often use small trees
 - Some functions require exponentially large trees (majority function, parity function)
 - However, there is no compact representation for all functions

Inducing a decision tree

Aim: find a small tree consistent with the training examples

 Idea: (recursively) choose "most significant" attribute as root of (sub)tree

Decision Tree Learning

```
function DTL(examples, attributes, default) returns a decision tree if examples is empty then return default else if all examples have the same classification then return the classification else if attributes is empty then return Mode(examples) else best \leftarrow \texttt{Choose-Attribute}(attributes, examples) \\ tree \leftarrow \texttt{a} \text{ new decision tree with root test } best \\ \text{for each value } v_i \text{ of } best \text{ do} \\ examples_i \leftarrow \{\text{elements of } examples \text{ with } best = v_i\} \\ subtree \leftarrow \texttt{DTL}(examples_i, attributes - best, \texttt{Mode}(examples)) \\ \texttt{add a branch to } tree \text{ with label } v_i \text{ and subtree } subtree \\ \textbf{return } tree
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Choosing attribute tests

 The central choice is deciding which attribute to test at each node

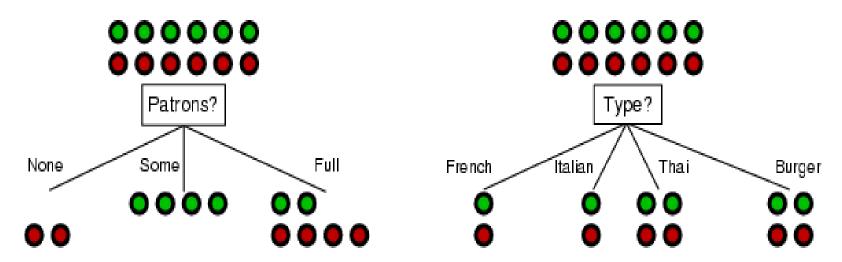
 We want to choose an attribute that is most useful for classifying examples

Example: Restaurant

Example	Attributes								Target		
	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	Wait
X_1	Т	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	0–10	Т
X_2	Т	F	F	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	30–60	F
X_3	F	Т	F	F	Some	\$	F	F	Burger	0-10	Т
X_4	Т	F	Т	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	10–30	Т
X_5	Т	F	Т	F	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	>60	F
X_6	F	Т	F	Т	Some	\$\$	Т	Т	Italian	0-10	Т
X_7	F	Т	F	F	None	\$	Т	F	Burger	0-10	F
X_8	F	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$	Т	Т	Thai	0–10	Т
X_9	F	Т	Т	F	Full	\$	Т	F	Burger	>60	F
X_{10}	Т	Т	Т	Т	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	Italian	10–30	F
X_{11}	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0-10	F
X_{12}	Τ	Т	Т	Τ	Full	\$	F	F	Burger	30–60	T

Choosing an attribute

 Idea: a good attribute splits the examples into subsets that are (ideally) "all positive" or "all negative"



• *Patrons*? is better choice

Residual error for classification

- Let τ denote a leaf
- Let $Q_{ au}$ denote the residual error at leaf au
- Some residual error functions for classification
 - Error frequency: $Q_{\tau} = \#\tau \max_{k} \#k$
 - Gini Index: $Q_{\tau} = \sum_{k} p_{\tau}(k) (1 p_{\tau}(k))$
 - Entropy: $Q_{\tau} = -\sum_{k} p_{\tau}(k) \log_2 p_{\tau}(k)$

Here k denotes the k^{th} class $\#\tau = amount\ of\ data\ in\ leaf\ \tau$ $\#k = amount\ of\ data\ in\ leaf\ \tau\ that\ belongs\ to\ class\ k$ and $p_{\tau}(k) = \frac{\#k}{\#\tau}$

Residual Error for Classification

Gini Index:

$$Q_{\tau} = \sum_{k} p_{\tau}(k) (1 - p_{\tau}(k))$$

Entropy:

$$Q_{\tau} = \sum_{k} p_{\tau}(k) \left[-\log_2 p_{\tau}(k) \right]$$

Expected misclassification when choosing the class according to $p_{\tau}(k)$

Expected #of bits to encode the class of an instance chosen at random according to $p_{\tau}(k)$

Residual Error for Regression

- Let $t_n = f(x_n)$ be the target for the n^{th} example
- Let y_{τ} be the value returned by leaf τ
- Common residual error function for regression
 - Euclidean error: $E_{\tau} = \sum_{n \in R_{\tau}} (t_n y_{\tau})^2$

Choosing attribute tests

• In leaf τ , choose attribute A that reduces residual error the most when expanded

$$A^* = argmax_A \ Q_{\tau} - \sum_a p_{\tau}(A = a) \ Q_{\tau a}$$

Where
$$p_{\tau}(A = a) = \frac{\#(A = a)}{\#\tau}$$

Example

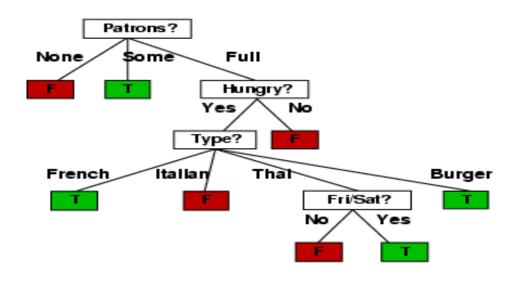
- Consider restaurant example (slide 19)
- Error frequency reduction:

• Gini index reduction:

Entropy reduction:

Example

Decision tree learned from the 12 examples:

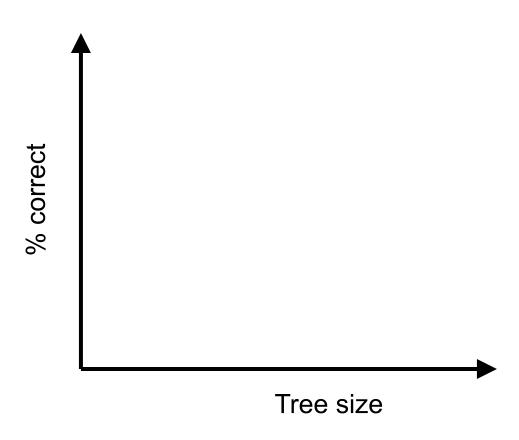


- Substantially simpler than "true" tree
 - a more complex hypothesis isn't justified by small amount of data

Performance of a learning algorithm

- A learning algorithm is good if it produces a hypothesis that does a good job of predicting classifications of unseen examples
- Verify performance with a test set
 - 1. Collect a large set of examples
 - 2. Divide into 2 disjoint sets: training set and test set
 - 3. Learn hypothesis *h* with training set
 - 4. Measure percentage of correctly classified examples by h in the test set
 - Repeat 2-4 for different randomly selected training sets of varying sizes

Learning curves



Overfitting

- Decision-tree grows until all training examples are perfectly classified
- But what if...
 - Data is noisy
 - Training set is too small to give a representative sample of the target function
- May lead to Overfitting!
 - Common problem with most learning algorithms

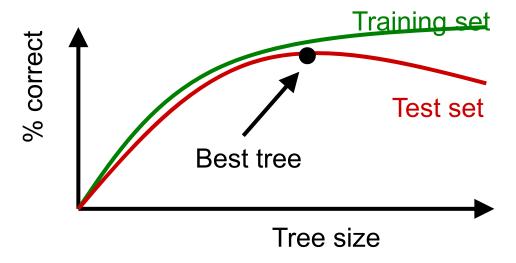
Overfitting

• **Definition**: Given a hypothesis space H, a hypothesis $h \in H$ is said to overfit the training data if there exists some alternative hypothesis $h' \in H$ such that h has smaller error than h' over the training examples but h' has smaller error than h over the entire distribution of instances

 Overfitting has been found to decrease accuracy of decision trees by 10-25%

Avoid overfitting

- Two popular techniques
 - Stop growing tree when test set performance starts decreasing
 - Use cross-validation
 - Prune statistically irrelevant nodes



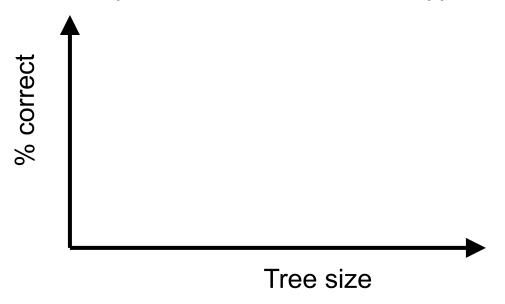
Cross-validation

 Split data in two parts, one for training, one for testing the accuracy of a hypothesis

• K-fold cross validation means you run k experiments, each time putting aside 1/k of the data to test on and compute average accuracy of the k experiments.

Early stopping is difficult

- Performance curves:
 - Train accuracy: monotonically increasing curve, but not smooth
 - Test accuracy: curve is not concave typically

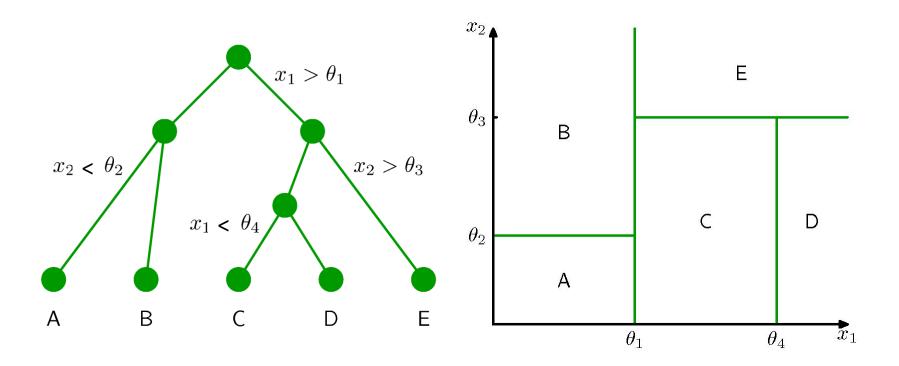


Pruning

- Pruning is more common in practice
- Prune nodes in a bottom up fashion
- Two approaches:
 - Remove nodes that improve test accuracy by less than some threshold based on cross-validation
 - Regularization: add penalty term that reflects tree complexity (e.g., |T| = #leaves in the tree)
 - $Q_{\tau} \sum_{a} p_{\tau}(A=a)Q_{\tau a} \lambda |T|$ is a weight that adjusts the importance of the penalty
 - Remove leaves with negative "regularized" error reduction

Decision tree with continuous attributes

Tree partitions the input space



Decision tree with continuous attributes

- How do we come up with good partitions?
- Common approach: thresholding
 - Single attribute: $x_j > \theta_j$
 - Multi-attribute: $f(x_1, ..., x_M) > \theta$
 - Where f can be linear or non-linear
- Alternative: nearest neighbour (next class)