

# Decision Trees

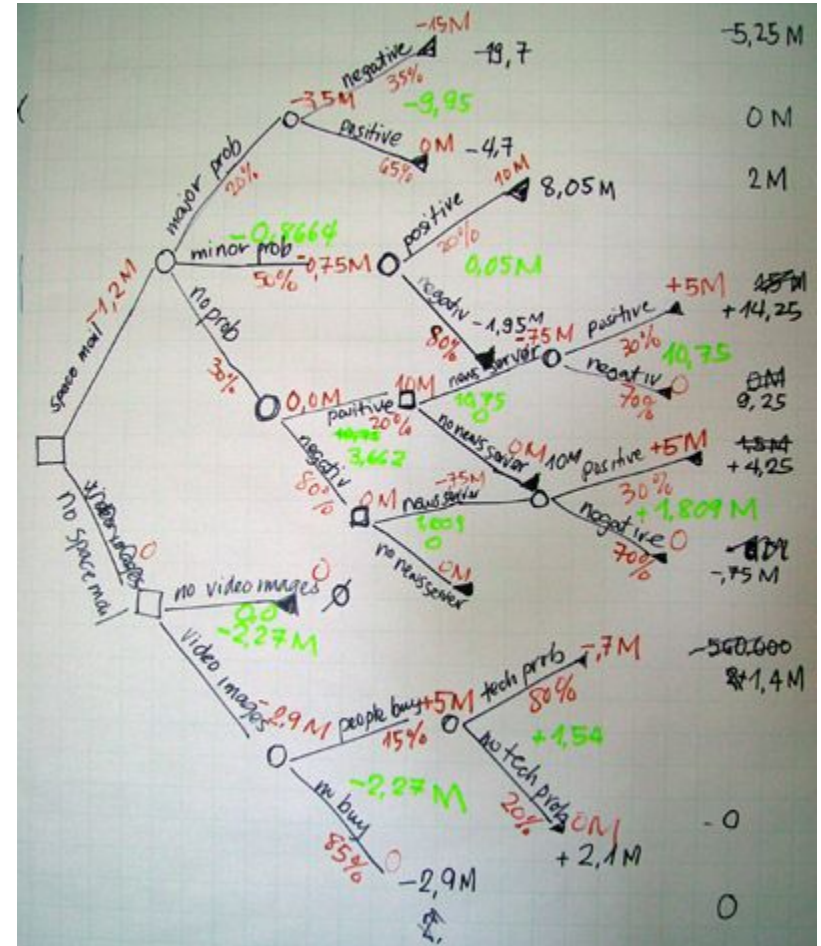
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# Topic for Discussion

- Introduction
- Working
- Mathematical Modelling
- Visualization
- Advantages
- Disadvantages
- Random Forest



# Introduction



# Introduction

- Decision Trees (DTs) are a non-parametric supervised learning method used for classification and regression.
- The goal is to create a model that predicts the value of a target variable by learning simple decision rules inferred from the data features.
- A decision tree is a decision support tool that uses a tree-like model of decisions and their possible consequences, including chance event outcomes, resource costs, and utility.
- It is one way to display an algorithm that only contains conditional control statements.

# Machine Learning Algorithms

```
graph TD; A[Machine Learning Algorithms] --> B[Parametric Algorithms]; A --> C[Non-Parametric Algorithms];
```

## Parametric Algorithms

- A parametric algorithm has a fixed number of parameters.
- A parametric algorithm is computationally faster, but makes stronger assumptions about the data.
- The algorithm may work well if the assumptions turn out to be correct, but it may perform badly if the assumptions are wrong.
- Example: Linear regression, Support Vector Machines etc.

## Non-Parametric Algorithms

- A non-parametric algorithm uses a flexible number of parameters, and the number of parameters often grows as it learns from more data.
- A non-parametric algorithm is computationally slower, but makes fewer assumptions about the data.
- Example: K-nearest neighbour, Decision Trees etc.



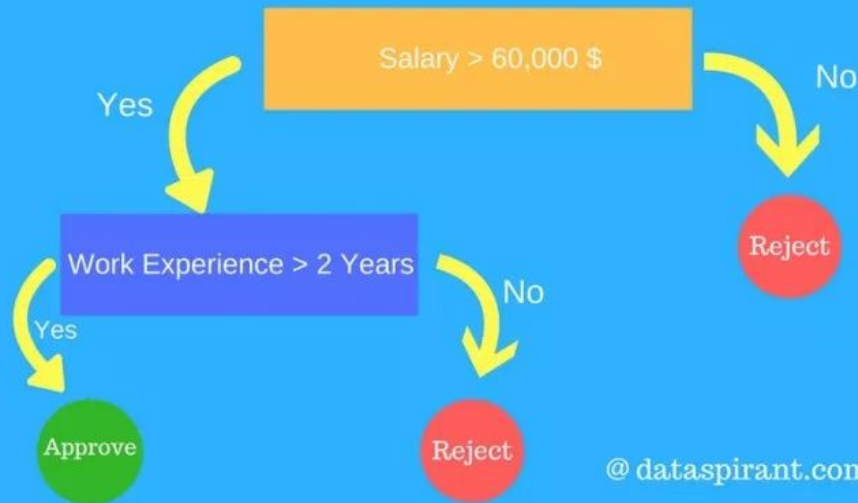
# Working

## Decision

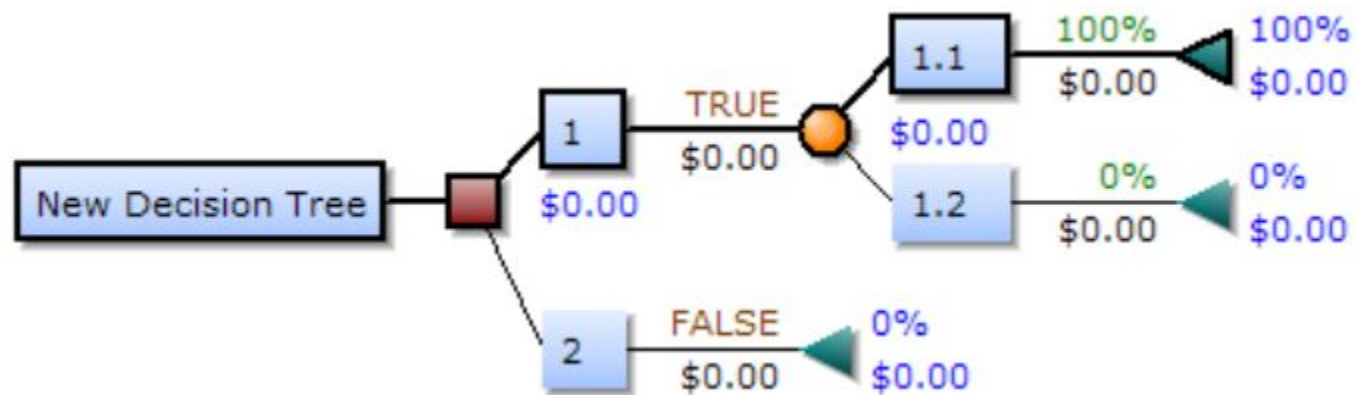


## Algorithm

Should We Issues Loan?







## Decision Tree Elements

- A decision tree consists of three types of nodes:
  - ❖ **Decision nodes** – typically represented by squares
  - ❖ **Chance nodes** – typically represented by circles
  - ❖ **End nodes** – typically represented by triangles

## Decision Rules

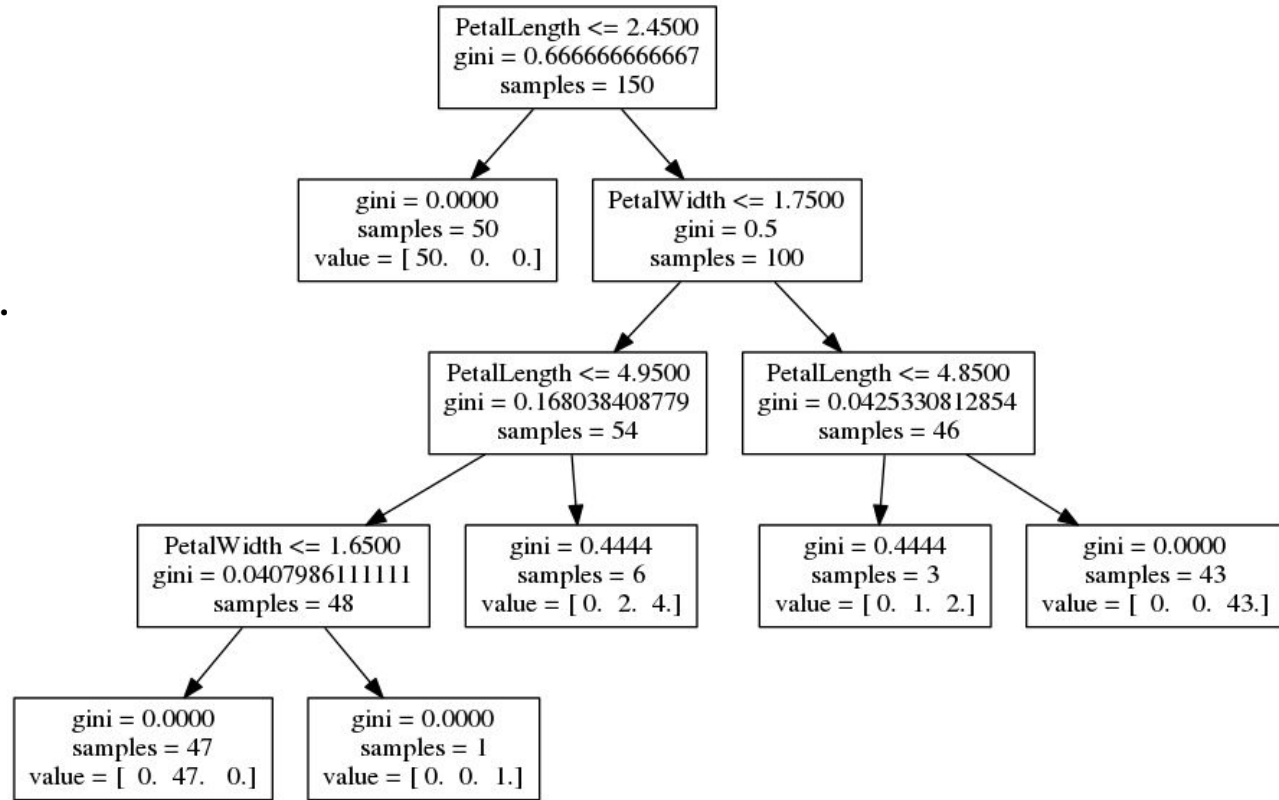
- The decision tree can be linearized into decision rules, where the outcome is the contents of the leaf node, and the conditions along the path form a conjunction in the if clause.
- In general, the rules have the form:

if condition1

and condition2

and condition 3

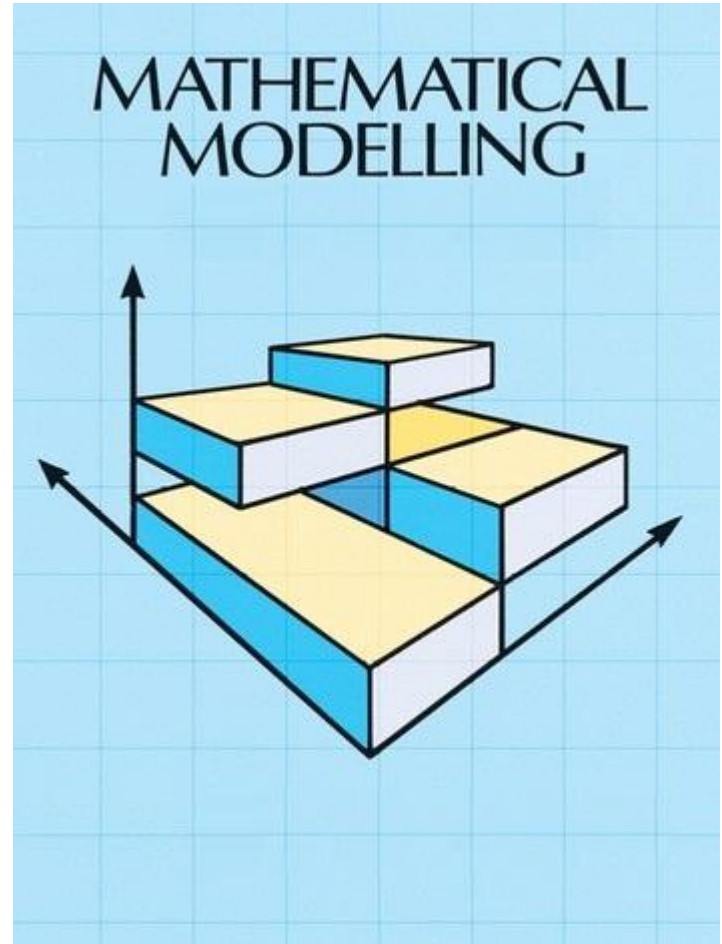
then outcome.



- Decision rules can be generated by constructing association rules with the target variable on the right. They can also denote temporal or causal relations.



# Mathematical Modelling



There are couple of algorithms there to build a decision tree , out of them some of the most popular are as follow:

- **CART (Classification and Regression Trees)** → uses Gini Index(Classification) as metric.
- **ID3 (Iterative Dichotomiser 3)** → uses Entropy function and Information gain as metrics.

We are going to discuss ID3 algorithm for this session.

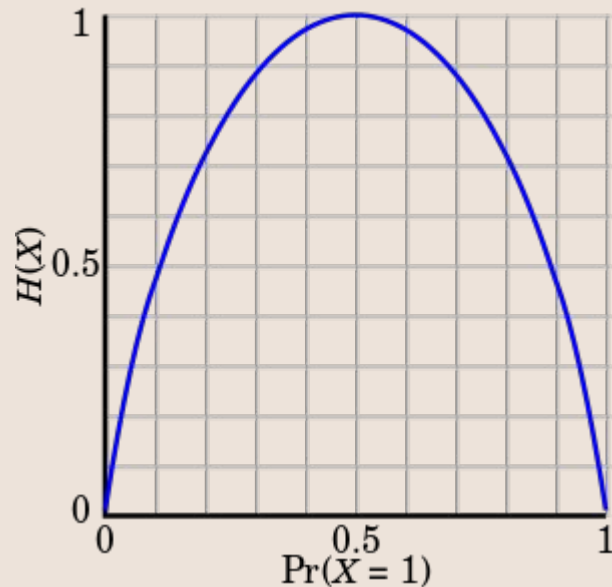
## Entropy:

Expected number of bits need to encode class of randomly drawn sampled from a Probability distribution.

$$\text{Entropy} = -\sum p_i \log_2(p_i) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[-\log(p(x))]$$

$$\text{Entropy} = H(S)$$

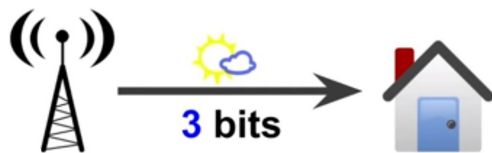
Here S is sample of training examples.





$$2^3 = 8$$

$$\log_2(8) = 3$$



Probability of each event =  $\frac{1}{8}$

Entropy =

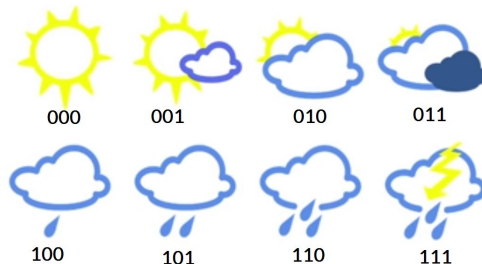
$$-1/8 \log(1/8) - 1/8 \log(1/8) - 1/8 \log(1/8) - 1/8 \log(1/8) - 1/8 \log(1/8) - 1/8 \log(1/8) - 1/8 \log(1/8) - 1/8 \log(1/8)$$

$$\text{Entropy} = 8 \times (-1/8) \times \log(1/8)$$

$$\text{Entropy} = -\log(1/8)$$

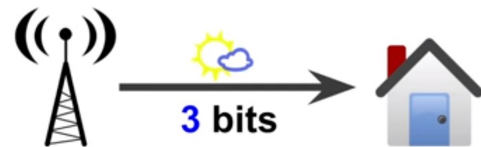
$$\text{Entropy} = \log(8)$$

$$\text{Entropy} = 3$$



$$2^3 = 8$$

$$\log_2(8) = 3$$





## Information Gain:

Expected reduction in entropy due to sorting on an attribute. Also known as KL Divergence (in general terms).

$$\text{IG}(S,A) = \text{Entropy}(\text{parent}) - [\text{weighted average}] \times \text{Entropy}(\text{children})$$

$$Gain(S, A) \equiv Entropy(S) - \sum_{v \in Values(A)} \frac{|S_v|}{|S|} Entropy(S_v)$$

$$Entropy([29+,35-]) = -\frac{29}{64} \log_2 \left( \frac{29}{64} \right) - \frac{35}{64} \log_2 \frac{35}{64} = 0.994$$

$$Entropy([21+,5-]) = -\frac{21}{26} \log_2 \left( \frac{21}{26} \right) - \frac{5}{26} \log_2 \frac{5}{26} = 0.706$$

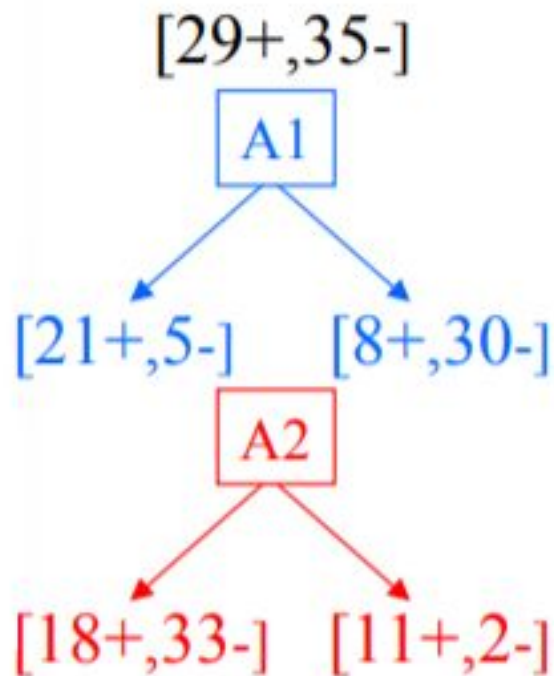
$$Entropy([8+,30-]) = 0.742$$

$$Gain(S, A1) = 0.994 - \left( \frac{26}{64} Entropy([21+,5-]) + \frac{38}{64} Entropy([8+,30-]) \right) = 0.266$$

$$Entropy([18+,33-]) = 0.937$$

$$Entropy([11+,2-]) = 0.619$$

$$Gain(S, A2) = 0.121$$



## Gini Index:

It is a measure of statistical dispersion intended to represent the income or wealth distribution of a nation's residents. Here dispersion simply means an extent upto which some distribution can be stretched.

$$GI = \sum_{i \neq j} p(i)p(j) = 1 - \sum_{t=0 \rightarrow t=k} p^2(t)$$

, where no of classes are from 0 to k.

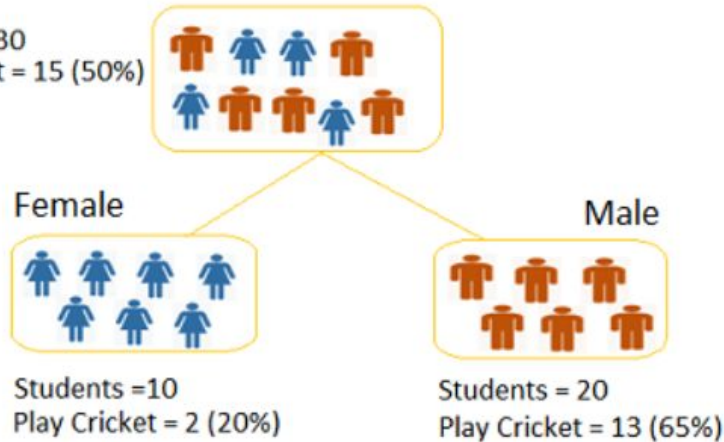
But it performs only binary split. Higher the value of Gini higher the homogeneity.

## Gini Gain:

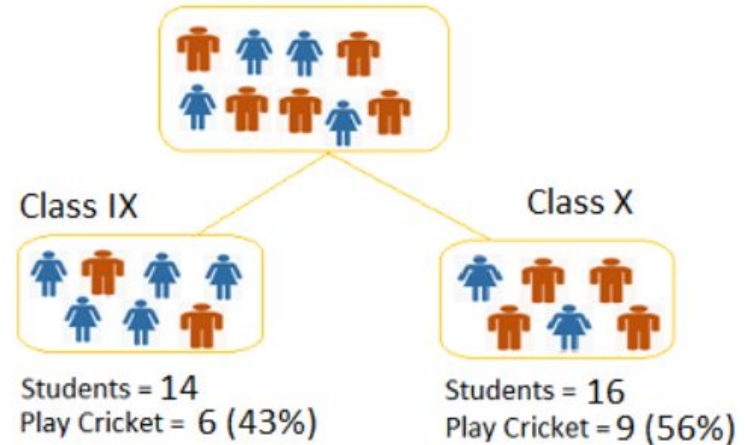
$$G(S,A) = \text{Gini\_Index}(\text{parent}) - [\text{weighted average}] \times \text{Gini\_Index}(\text{children})$$

### Split on Gender

Students = 30  
Play Cricket = 15 (50%)



### Split on Class



$$\text{Gini for Parent Node} = 1 - (0.5) \cdot (0.5) - (0.5) \cdot (0.5) = 0.5$$

### **Split on Gender:**

Gini for sub-node Female =  $1 - (0.2)*(0.2)+(0.8)*(0.8) = 0.32$

Gini for sub-node Male =  $1 - (0.65)*(0.65)+(0.35)*(0.35) = 0.45$

Gini Gain for Split Gender =  $0.5 - \{(10/30)*0.68+(20/30)*0.55\} = 0.0934$

### **Similar for Split on Class:**

Gini for sub-node Class IX =  $1 - (0.43)*(0.43)+(0.57)*(0.57) = 0.49$















Gini for sub-node Class X =  $1 - (0.56)*(0.56)+(0.44)*(0.44) = 0.49$

Gini Gain for Split Class =  $0.5 - \{(14/30)*0.51+(16/30)*0.51\} = 0.01$

Above, you can see that Gini Gain for Split on Gender is higher than Split on Class hence, the node split will take place on Gender.

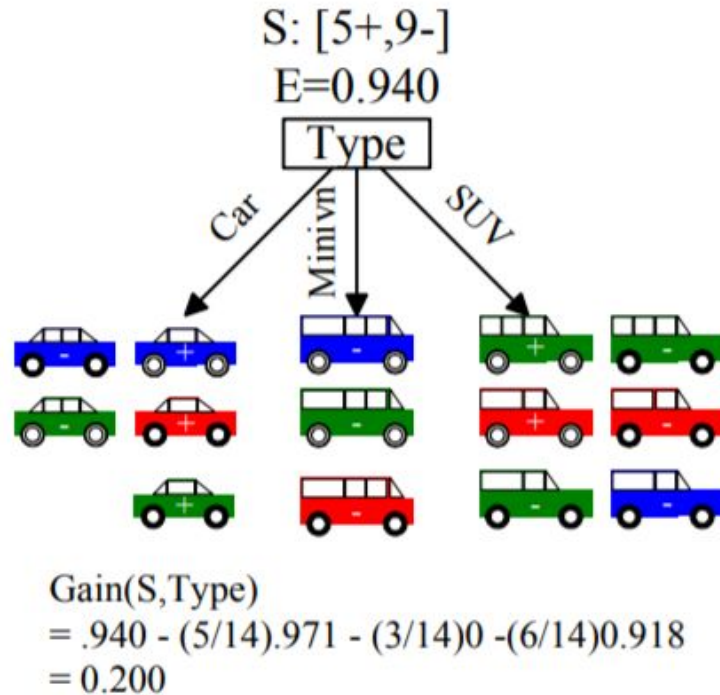
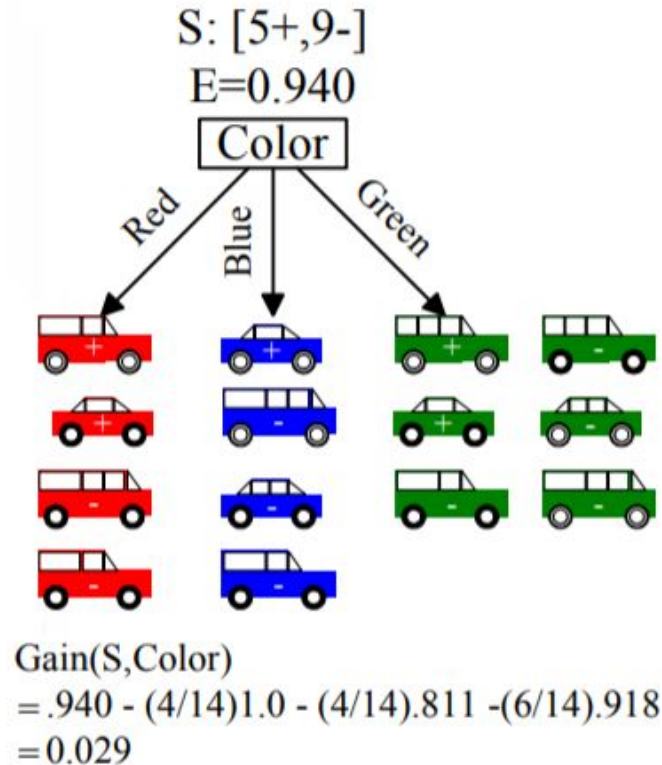


## Solved Example IG3 Method

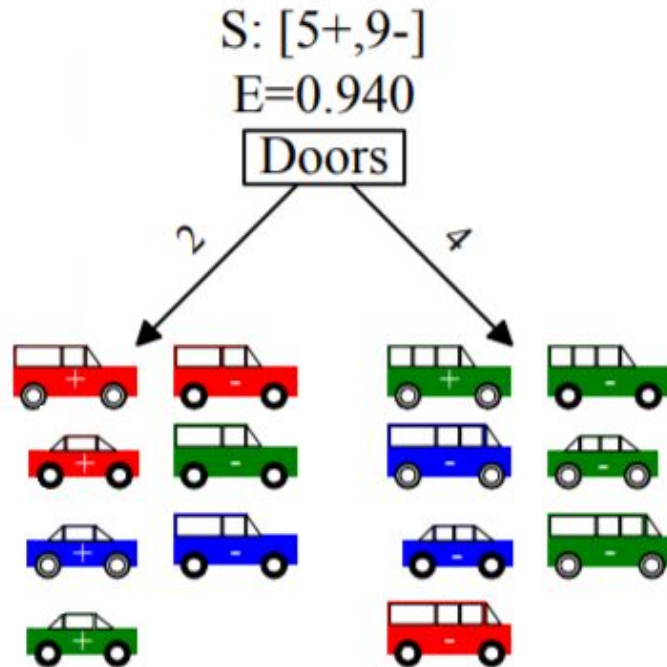
Color	Type	Doors	Tires	Class	
Red	SUV	2	Whitewall	+	
Blue	Minivan	4	Whitewall	-	
Green	Car	4	Whitewall	-	
Red	Minivan	4	Blackwall	-	
Green	Car	2	Blackwall	+	
Green	SUV	4	Blackwall	-	
Blue	SUV	2	Blackwall	-	
Blue	Car	2	Whitewall	+	
Red	SUV	2	Blackwall	-	
Blue	Car	4	Blackwall	-	
Green	SUV	4	Whitewall	+	
Red	Car	2	Blackwall	+	
Green	SUV	2	Blackwall	-	
Green	Minivan	4	Whitewall	-	



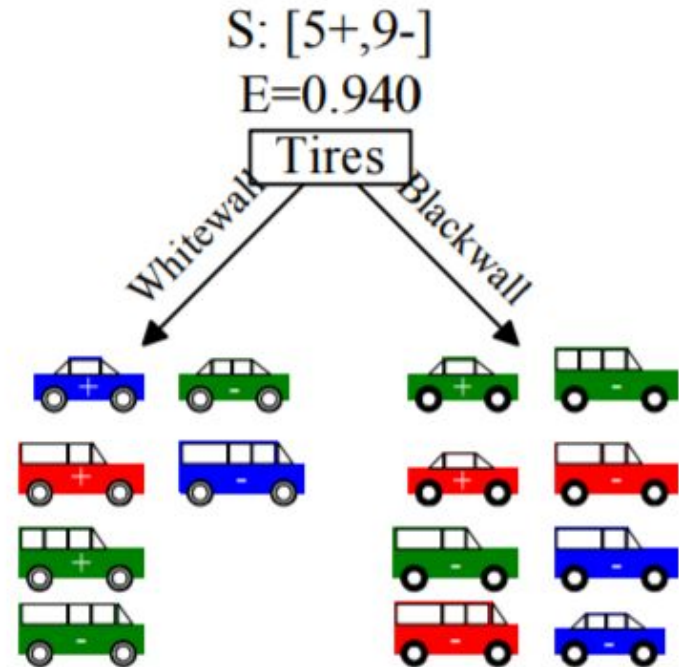
# Selection of Root Attribute



# Selection of Root Attribute

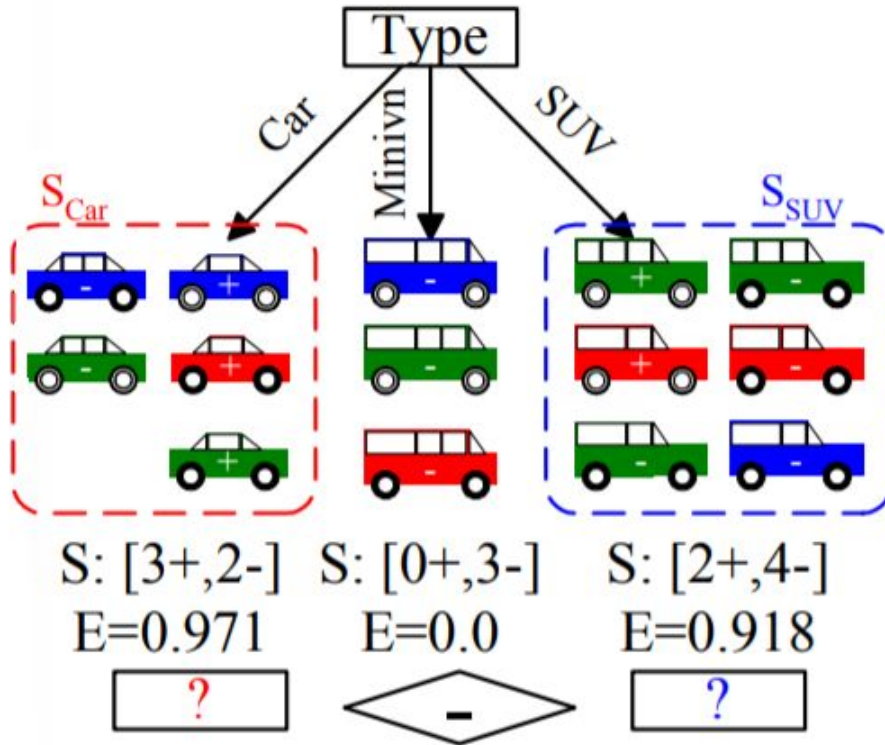


$$\begin{aligned}\text{Gain}(S, \text{Doors}) &= .940 - (7/14)0.985 - (7/14)0.592 \\ &= 0.152\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}\text{Gain}(S, \text{Type}) &= .940 - (6/14)1.0 - (8/14).811 \\ &= 0.048\end{aligned}$$

# Best Attribute is : TYPE



$$\text{Gain}(S_{Car}, \text{Color}) = .971 - (1/5)0.0 - (2/5)1.0 - (2/5)1.0 = .171$$

$$\text{Gain}(S_{Car}, \text{Doors}) = .971 - (3/5)0.0 - (2/5)0.0 = .971$$

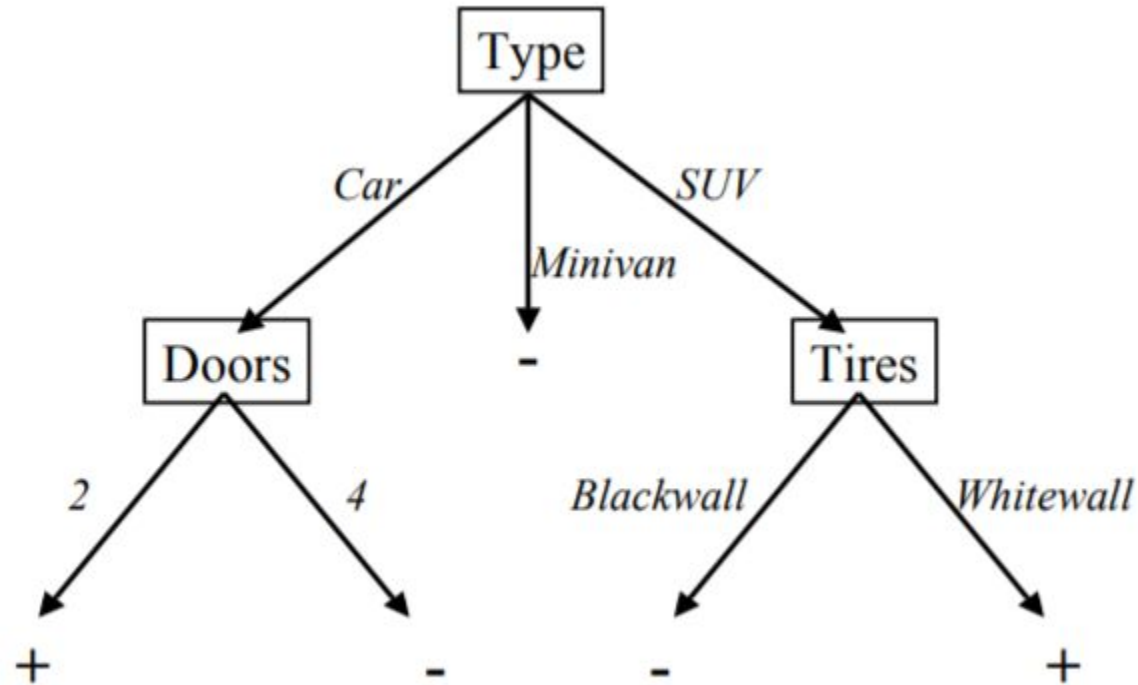
$$\text{Gain}(S_{Car}, \text{Tires}) = .971 - (2/5)1.0 - (3/5).918 = .020$$

$$\text{Gain}(S_{SUV}, \text{Color}) = .918 - (2/6)1.0 - (1/6)0.0 - (3/6).918 = .126$$

$$\text{Gain}(S_{SUV}, \text{Doors}) = .918 - (4/6).811 - (2/6)1.0 = .044$$

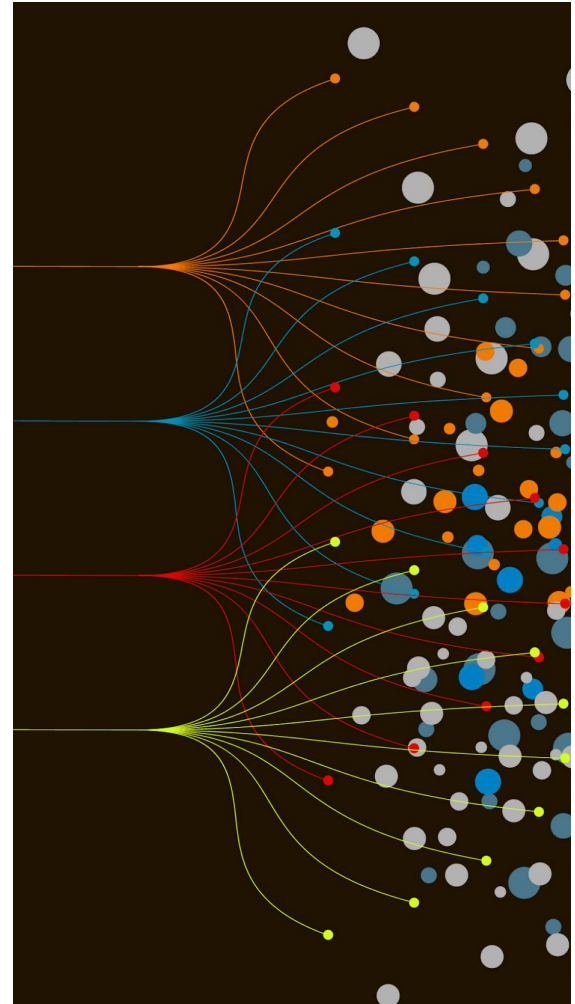
$$\text{Gain}(S_{SUV}, \text{Tires}) = .918 - (2/6)0.0 - (4/6)0.0 = .918$$

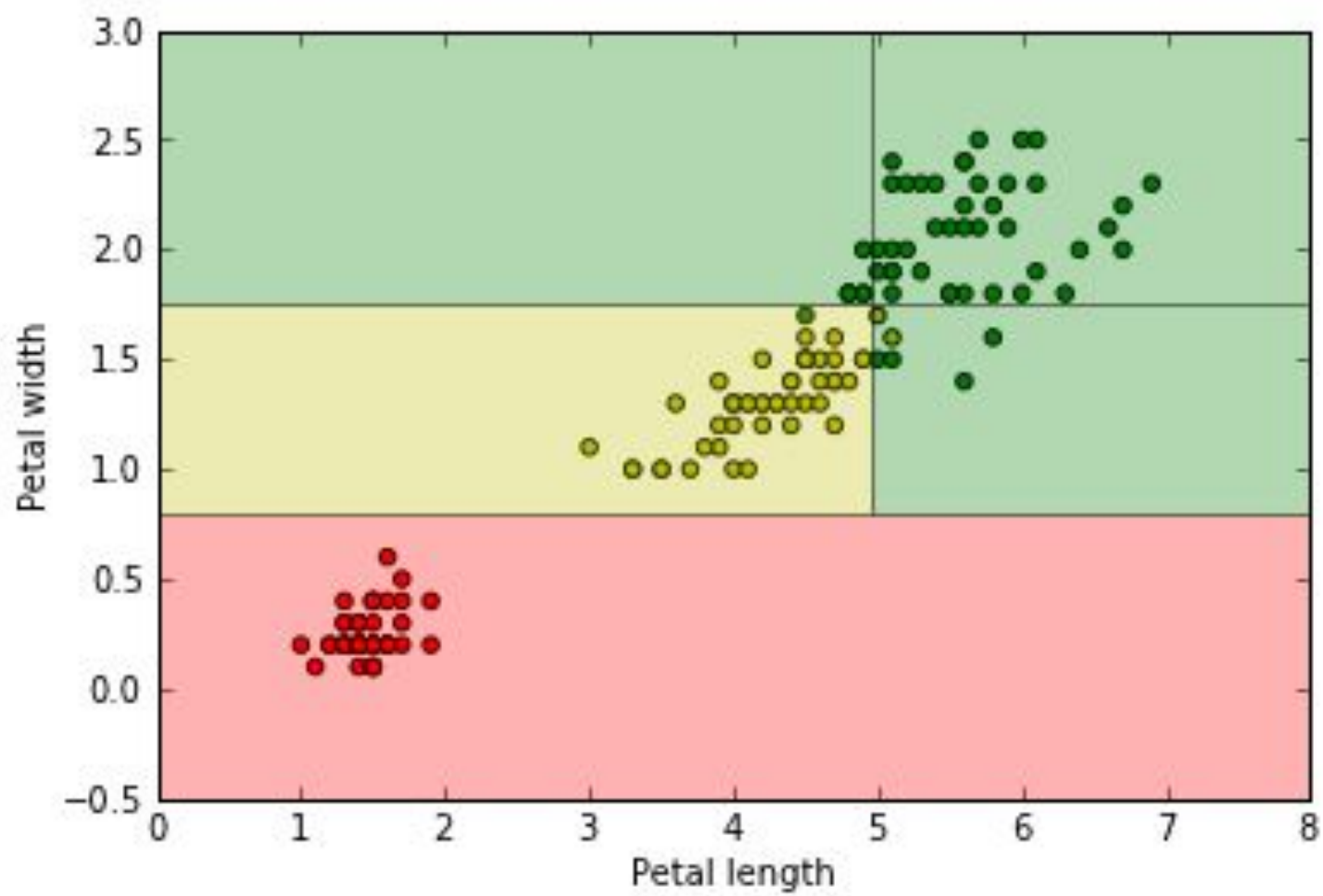
# Final Decision Tree

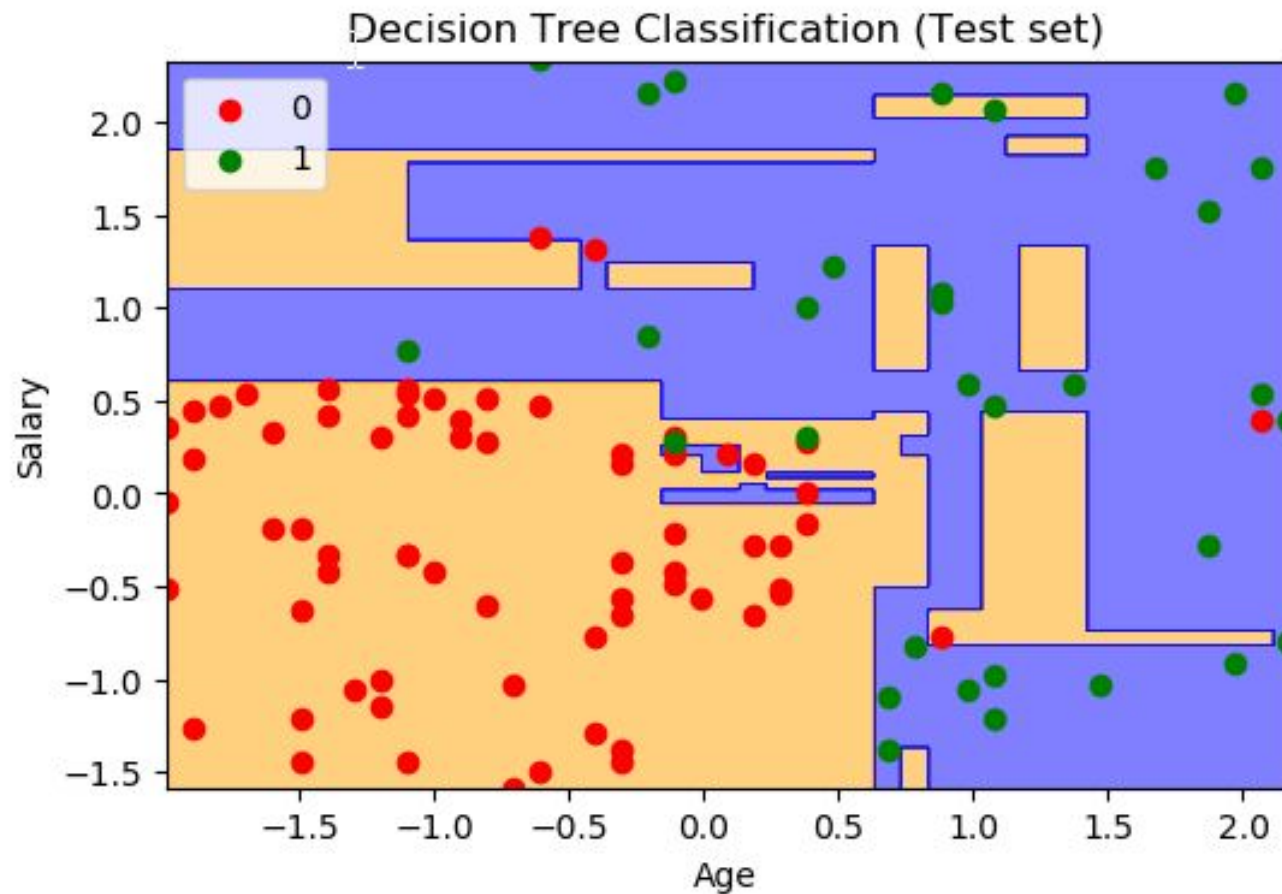




# Visualization



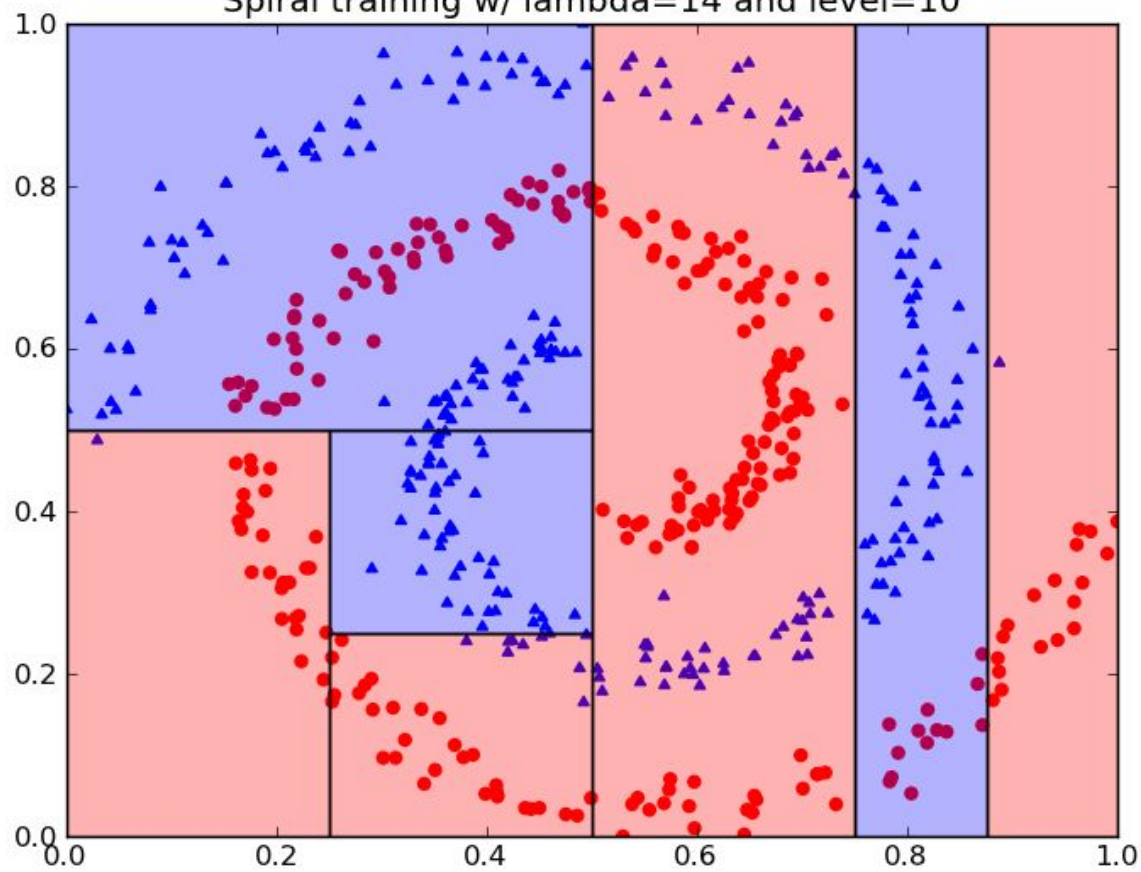




[http://arogozhnikov.github.io/2016/06/24/gradient\\_boosting\\_explained.html](http://arogozhnikov.github.io/2016/06/24/gradient_boosting_explained.html)

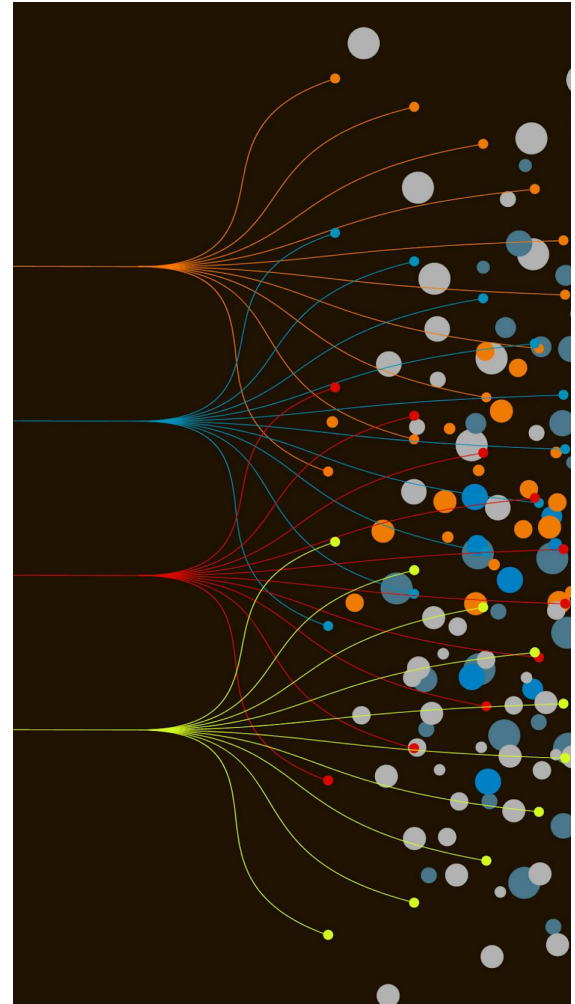


Spiral training w/ lambda=14 and level=10





# Advantages

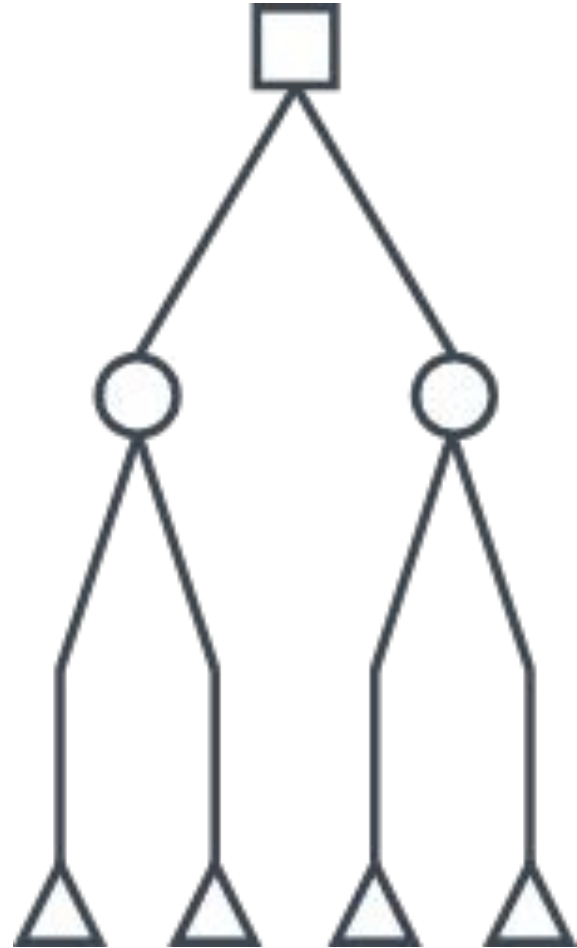


- **Graphic**: You can represent decision alternatives, possible outcomes, and chance events schematically. The visual approach is particularly helpful in comprehending sequential decisions and outcome dependencies.
- **Efficient**: You can quickly express complex alternatives clearly. You can easily modify a decision tree as new information becomes available. Set up a decision tree to compare how changing input values affect various decision alternatives. Standard decision tree notation is easy to adopt.
- **Revealing**: You can compare competing alternatives-even without complete information-in terms of risk and probable value. The Expected Value (EV) term combines relative investment costs, anticipated payoffs, and uncertainties into a single numerical value. The EV reveals the overall merits of competing alternatives.
- **Complementary**: You can use decision trees in conjunction with other project management tools. For example, the decision tree method can help evaluate project schedules.

- Decision trees are **self-explanatory** and when compacted they are also easy to follow. In other words if the decision trees has a reasonable number of leaves, it can be grasped by non-professional users. Furthermore decision trees can be converted to a set of rules. Thus, this representation is considered as comprehensible.
- Decision trees can handle both **nominal and numerical attributes**.
- Decision trees representation is rich enough to represent any **discrete-value classifier**.
- Decision trees are capable of handling datasets that may have errors.
- Decision trees are capable of handling datasets that may have missing values.
- Decision trees are considered to be a **nonparametric method**. This means that decision trees have no assumptions about the space distribution and the classifier structure.



# Disadvantages

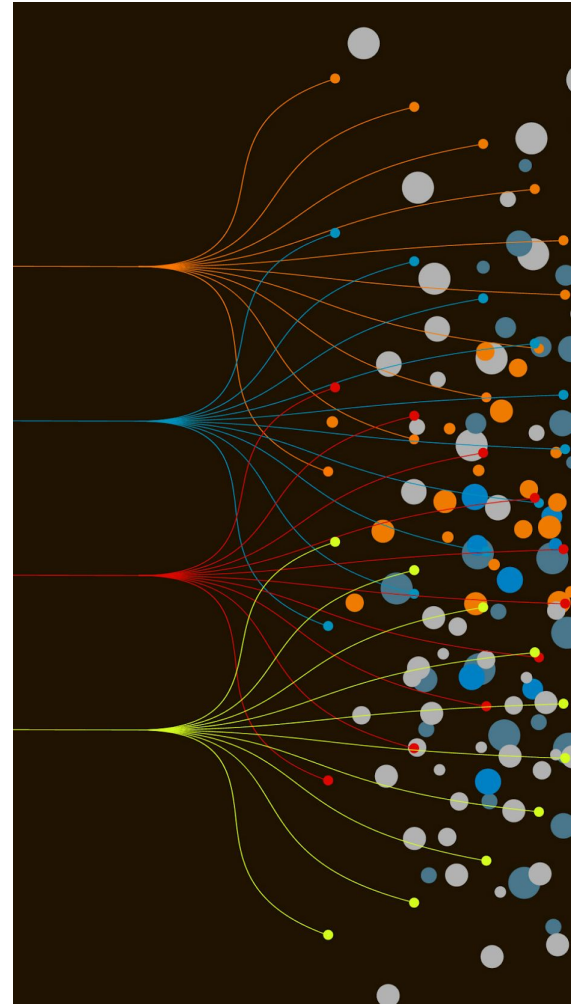


- Most of the algorithms (like ID3 and C4.5) require that the target attribute will have only discrete values.
- As decision trees use the “divide and conquer” method, they tend to perform well if a few highly relevant attributes exist, but less so if many complex interactions are present. One of the reasons for this is that other classifiers can compactly describe a classifier that would be very challenging to represent using a decision tree.
- The greedy characteristic of decision trees leads to another disadvantage that should be pointed out. This is its over-sensitivity to the training set, to irrelevant attributes and to noise.
- Decision tree learners create biased trees if some classes dominate. It is therefore recommended to balance the dataset prior to fitting with the decision tree.





# Random Forest



- This method falls under the category of Bootstrap aggregation ensemble method.
- Given a training set  $X = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$  with responses  $Y = [y_1, \dots, y_n]$ , bagging repeatedly (B times) selects a random sample with replacement of the training set and fits trees to these samples:

For  $b = 1, \dots, B$ :

Sample, with replacement, n training examples from X, Y; call these  $X_b, Y_b$ .

Train a classification or regression tree  $f_b$  on  $X_b, Y_b$ .

- Final result can be calculated using majority voting in case of classification and averaging in case of regression problem.
- [http://arogozhnikov.github.io/2016/06/24/gradient\\_boosting\\_explained.html](http://arogozhnikov.github.io/2016/06/24/gradient_boosting_explained.html)



# References

- Cristina Petri:  
<http://www.cs.ubbcluj.ro/~gabis/DocDiplome/DT/DecisionTrees.pdf>
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Decision\\_tree](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Decision_tree)
- <https://www.datasciencecentral.com/profiles/blogs/random-forests-explained-intuitively>
- [http://arogozhnikov.github.io/2016/06/24/gradient\\_boosting\\_explained.html](http://arogozhnikov.github.io/2016/06/24/gradient_boosting_explained.html)
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NsUqRe-9tb4>
- <https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/tree.html>
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ErfnhcEV1O8>