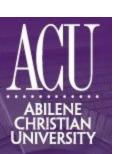


# **Decision Trees**

PHYS 453
Dr Daugherity



## Introduction

- 20 questions
- Guess Who?
- <a href="http://www.r2d3.us/visual-intro-to-machine-learning-part-1/">http://www.r2d3.us/visual-intro-to-machine-learning-part-1/</a>

### **Decision Trees**

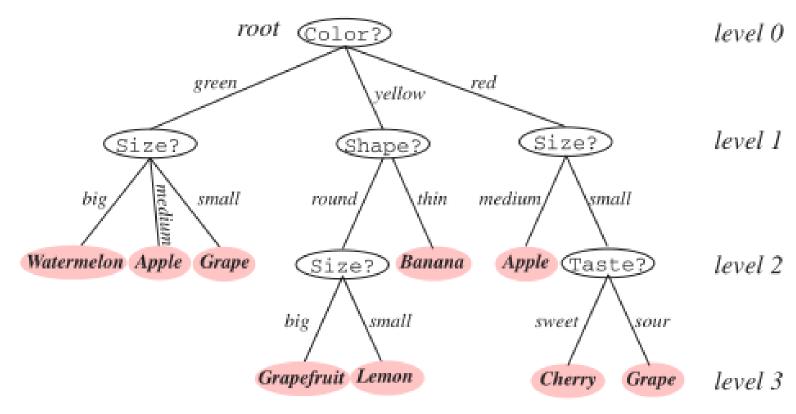
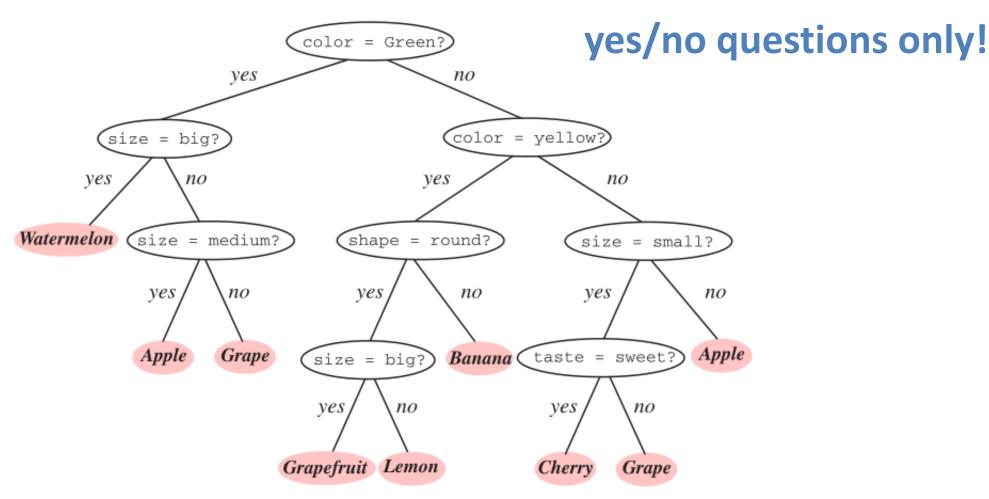


FIGURE 8.1. Classification in a basic decision tree proceeds from top to bottom. The questions asked at each node concern a particular property of the pattern, and the downward links correspond to the possible values. Successive nodes are visited until a terminal or leaf node is reached, where the category label is read. Note that the same question, Size?, appears in different places in the tree and that different questions can have different numbers of branches. Moreover, different leaf nodes, shown in pink, can be labeled by the same category (e.g., Apple). From: Richard O. Duda, Peter E. Hart, and David G. Stork, Pattern Classification. Copyright © 2001 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

## **Binary Decision Trees**



**FIGURE 8.2.** A tree with arbitrary branching factor at different nodes can always be represented by a functionally equivalent binary tree—that is, one having branching factor B = 2 throughout, as shown here. By convention the "yes" branch is on the left, the "no" branch on the right. This binary tree contains the same information and implements the same classification as that in Fig. 8.1. From: Richard O. Duda, Peter E. Hart, and David G. Stork, *Pattern Classification*. Copyright © 2001 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

### **CONCEPTS**

Suppose we have the following five positive examples (the first three are the same as in Example 4.1):

```
p1: Length = 3 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many
p2: Length = 4 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many
p3: Length = 3 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few
p4: Length = 5 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many
p5: Length = 5 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few
```

and the following negatives (the first one is the same as in Example 4.2):

```
n1: Length = 5 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many
n2: Length = 4 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many
n3: Length = 5 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = no \land Teeth = many
n4: Length = 4 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = no \land Teeth = many
n5: Length = 4 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few
```

Can you tell "by eye" where to make the first split?

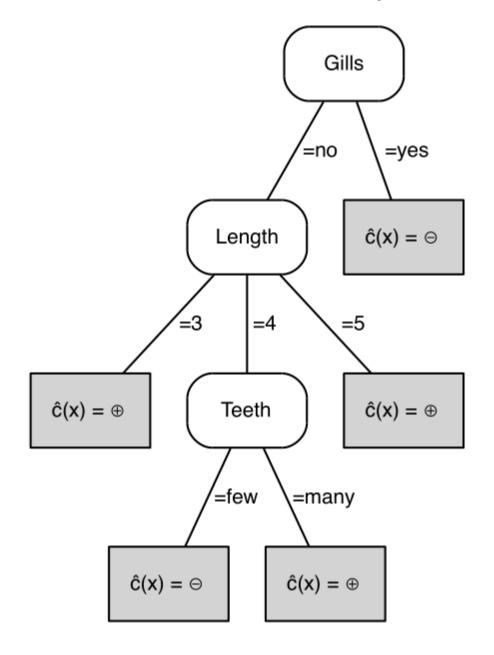
Suppose we have the following five positive examples (the first three are the same as in Example 4.1):

```
p1: Length = 3 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many p2: Length = 4 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many p3: Length = 3 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few p4: Length = 5 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many p5: Length = 5 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few
```

and the following negatives (the first one is the same as in Example 4.2):

```
n1: Length = 5 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = many
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n3: Length = 5 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = no \land Teeth = many
n4: Length = 4 \land Gills = yes \land Beak = no \land Teeth = many
n5: Length = 4 \land Gills = no \land Beak = yes \land Teeth = few
```

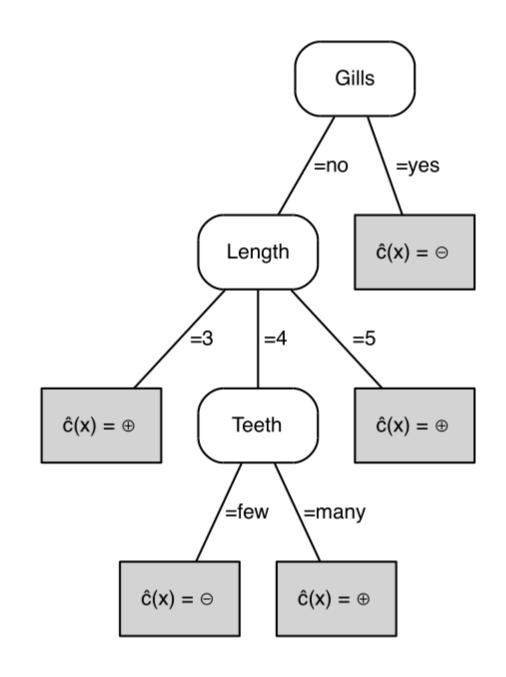
#### Not a binary tree



A **feature tree** is a tree such that each internal node (the nodes that are not leaves) is labelled with a feature, and each edge emanating from an internal node is labelled with a literal.

The set of literals at a node is called a split.

Each leaf of the tree represents a logical expression which is the combination of all nodes encountered on the path from root to leaf



### **Algorithm** GrowTree(D, F) – grow a feature tree from training data.

```
: data D; set of features F.
  Input
  Output: feature tree T with labelled leaves.
1 if Homogeneous(D) then return Label(D);
                                                 // e.g., BestSplit-Class (Algorithm 5.2)
2 S \leftarrow \mathsf{BestSplit}(D,F);
3 split D into subsets D_i according to the literals in S;
4 for each i do
      if D_i \neq \emptyset then T_i \leftarrow \text{GrowTree}(D_i, F);
      else T_i is a leaf labelled with Label(D);
7 end
```

8 return a tree whose root is labelled with S and whose children are  $T_i$ 

To find the best split we try all the features and choose the one that minimizes impurity

```
Algorithm BestSplit-Class(D, F) – find the best split for a decision tree.
   Input : data D; set of features F.
   Output: feature f to split on.
1 I_{\min} \leftarrow 1;
2 for each f \in F do
        split D into subsets D_1, \ldots, D_l according to the values v_i of f;
       if Imp(\{D_1,...,D_l\}) < I_{min} then
        I_{\min} \leftarrow \operatorname{Imp}(\{D_1, \dots, D_l\});
f_{\text{best}} \leftarrow f;
        end
8 end
```

9 return  $f_{\text{best}}$ 

## **Impurity**

Given two classes  $\bigoplus$  and  $\bigoplus$  with samples sizes  $n_+$  and  $n_-$ 

$$p = \frac{n_{+}}{n_{+} + n_{-}}$$
 proportion/fraction of + class

We want impurity that is:

- 0 whenever p is 0 or 1
- same if we swap p for 1-p
- maximum when p=1/2

## **Impurity**

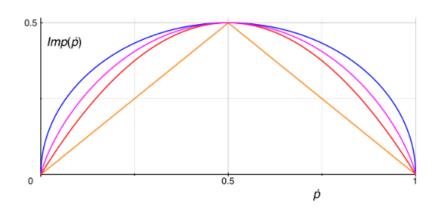
Minority class: min(p, 1-p)

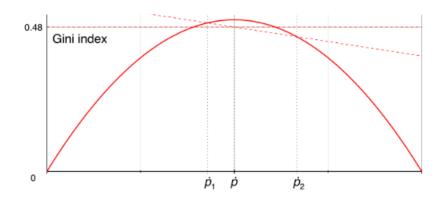
Gini Index: 2p(1-p) expected error if we labelled all samples randomly

Entropy:  $-p \log p - (1-p) \log (1-p)$ number of bits to describe classes

The most common choice is Gini or  $\sqrt{Gini}$ 

Entropy and Gini index are sensitive to fluctuations in the class distribution,  $\sqrt{\text{Gini}}$  isn't.





(left) Impurity functions plotted against the empirical probability of the positive class. From the bottom: the relative size of the minority class,  $\min(\dot{p},1-\dot{p})$ ; the Gini index,  $2\dot{p}(1-\dot{p})$ ; entropy,  $-\dot{p}\log_2\dot{p}-(1-\dot{p})\log_2(1-\dot{p})$  (divided by 2 so that it reaches its maximum in the same point as the others); and the (rescaled) square root of the Gini index,  $\sqrt{\dot{p}(1-\dot{p})}$  – notice that this last function describes a semi-circle. (right)

Indicating the impurity of a single leaf  $D_j$  as  $Imp(D_j)$ , the impurity of a set of mutually exclusive leaves  $\{D_1, \ldots, D_l\}$  is defined as a weighted average

Imp
$$({D_1,...,D_l}) = \sum_{j=1}^l \frac{|D_j|}{|D|}$$
Imp $(D_j)$ 

## **Impurity**

https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.tree.DecisionTreeClassifier.html

### sklearn.tree.DecisionTreeClassifier

class sklearn.tree. DecisionTreeClassifier (criterion='gini', splitter='best', max\_depth=None, min\_samples\_split=2, min\_samples\_leaf=1, min\_weight\_fraction\_leaf=0.0, max\_features=None, random\_state=None, max\_leaf\_nodes=None, min\_impurity\_decrease=0.0, min\_impurity\_split=None, class\_weight=None, presort=False)

[source]

A decision tree classifier.

Read more in the User Guide.

Parameters: criterion : string, optional (default="gini")

The function to measure the quality of a split. Supported criteria are "gini" for the Gini impurity and "entropy" for the information gain.

- choose a feature and sort training data along it
- calculate impurity splitting between every point
- add Gini values weighted by number of samples:

$$impurity = \frac{n_1 * Gini_1 + n_2 * Gini_2 + \cdots}{n_1 + n_2 + \cdots}$$

Choose feature that gives biggest impurity decrease

```
Length = [3,4,5] [2+,0-][1+,3-][2+,2-]

Gills = [yes, no] [0+,4-][5+,1-]

Beak = [yes, no] [5+,3-][0+,2-]

Teeth = [many, few] [3+,4-][2+,1-]
```

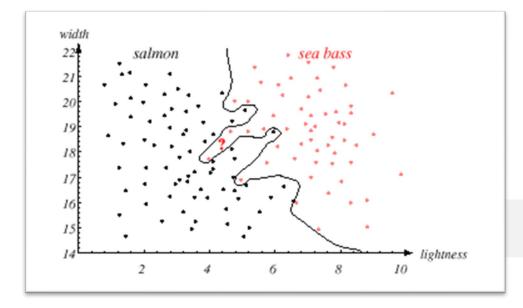
```
Length 2/10 \cdot 2 \cdot (2/2 \cdot 0/2) + 4/10 \cdot 2 \cdot (1/4 \cdot 3/4) + 4/10 \cdot 2 \cdot (2/4 \cdot 2/4) = 0.35

Gills 4/10 \cdot 0 + 6/10 \cdot 2 \cdot (5/6 \cdot 1/6) = 0.17;

Beak 8/10 \cdot 2 \cdot (5/8 \cdot 3/8) + 2/10 \cdot 0 = 0.38;

Teeth 7/10 \cdot 2 \cdot (3/7 \cdot 4/7) + 3/10 \cdot 2 \cdot (2/3 \cdot 1/3) = 0.48.
```

## **OVERFITTING**



### Overfitting

Imagine you are preparing for your *Machine Learning 101* exam. Helpfully, Professor Flach has made previous exam papers and their worked answers available online. You begin by trying to answer the questions from previous papers and comparing your answers with the model answers provided.

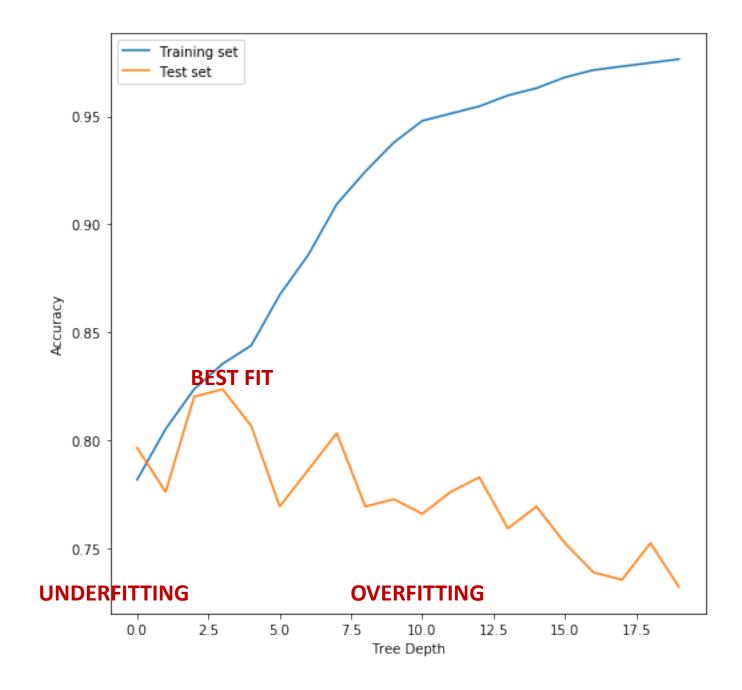
Unfortunately, you get carried away and spend all your time on memorising the model answers to all past questions. Now, if the upcoming exam completely consists of past questions, you are certain to do very well. But if the new exam asks different questions about the same material, you would be ill-prepared and get a much lower mark than with a more traditional preparation.

In this case, one could say that you were *overfitting* the past exam papers and that the knowledge gained didn't *generalise* to future exam questions.

### Validation Curve Schematic



model complexity -----



### **Tree Size**

By default sklearn keeps growing the tree until no more splits are possible:

### overfitting by default

There are options to limit tree size:

#### max\_depth: int, default=None

The maximum depth of the tree. If None, then nodes are expanded until all leaves are pure or until all leaves contain less than min\_samples\_split samples.

#### min\_samples\_split : int or float, default=2

The minimum number of samples required to split an internal node:

- If int, then consider min\_samples\_split as the minimum number.
- If float, then min\_samples\_split is a fraction and ceil(min\_samples\_split \* n\_samples) are the minimum number of samples for each split.

Changed in version 0.18: Added float values for fractions.

#### min\_samples\_leaf: int or float, default=1

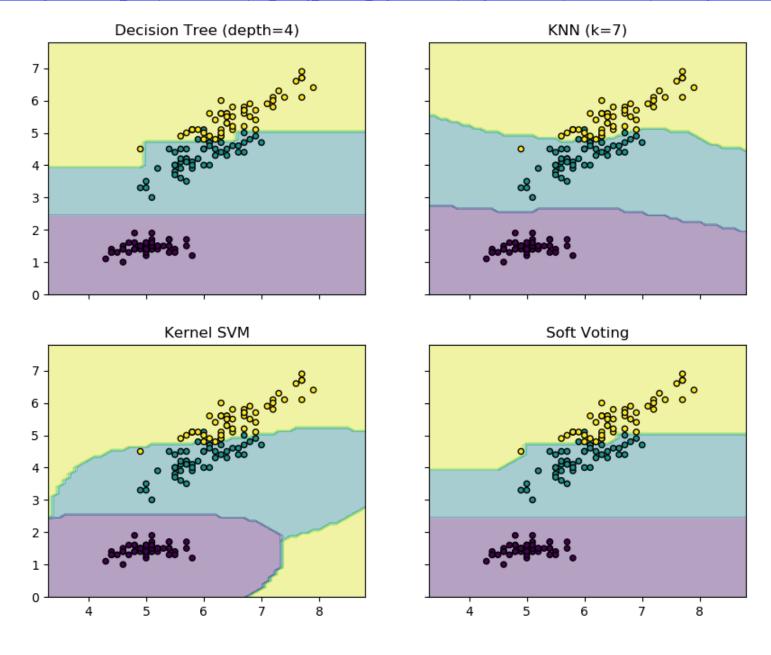
The minimum number of samples required to be at a leaf node. A split point at any depth will only be considered if it leaves at least min\_samples\_leaf training samples in each of the left and right branches. This may have the effect of smoothing the model, especially in regression.

- If int, then consider min\_samples\_leaf as the minimum number.
- If float, then min\_samples\_leaf is a fraction and ceil(min\_samples\_leaf \* n\_samples) are the minimum number of samples for each node.

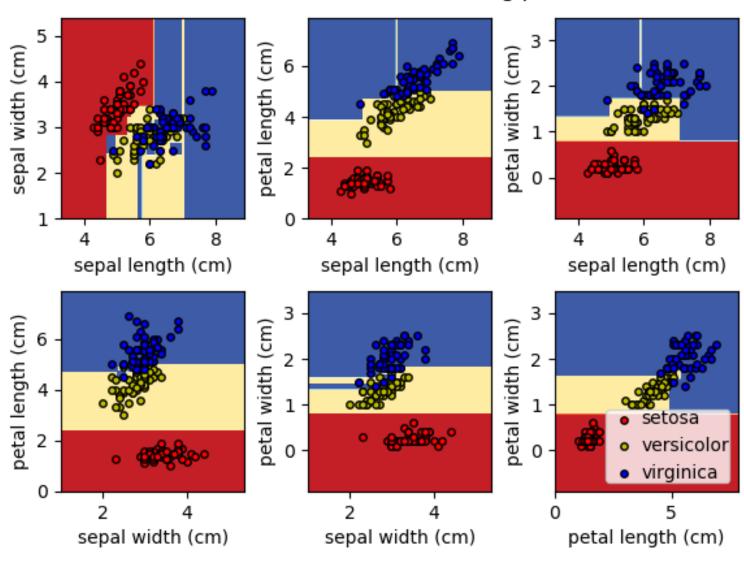
## **Prediction Probability**

Classify a new sample by following the decision tree down to a leaf. Then classify the sample as the majority class in the leaf. We even get a probability!

However, if we didn't restrict the depth of our tree and there weren't ties in the training data, we may end up with everything being 100% certain



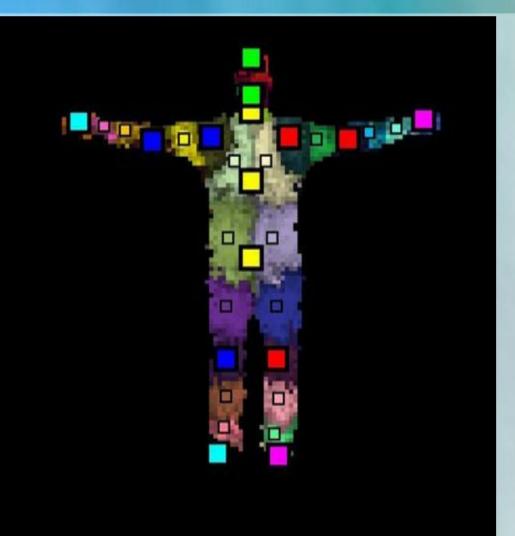
### Decision surface of a decision tree using paired features



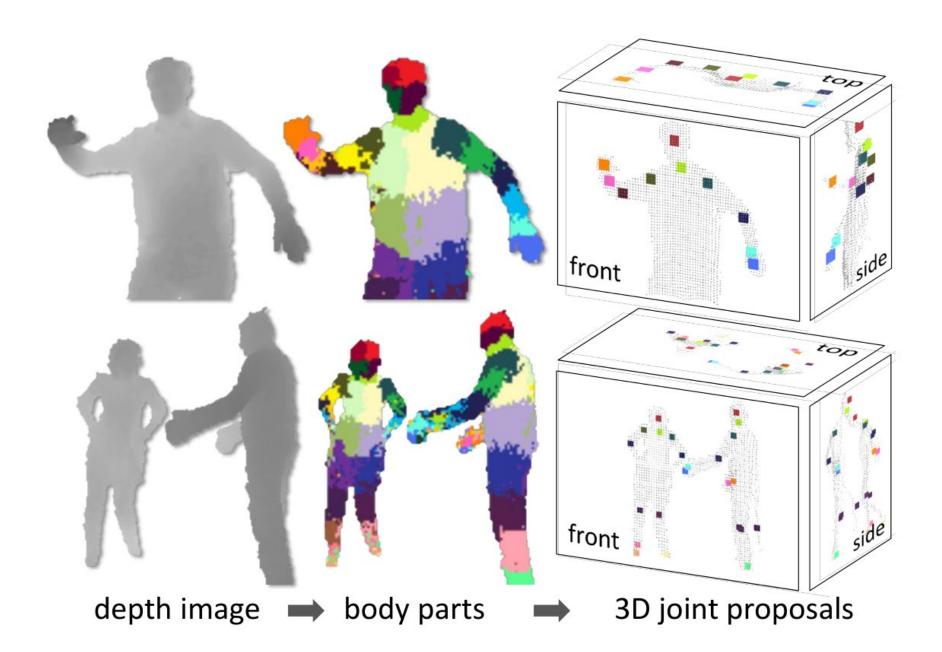
## **APPLICATIONS**

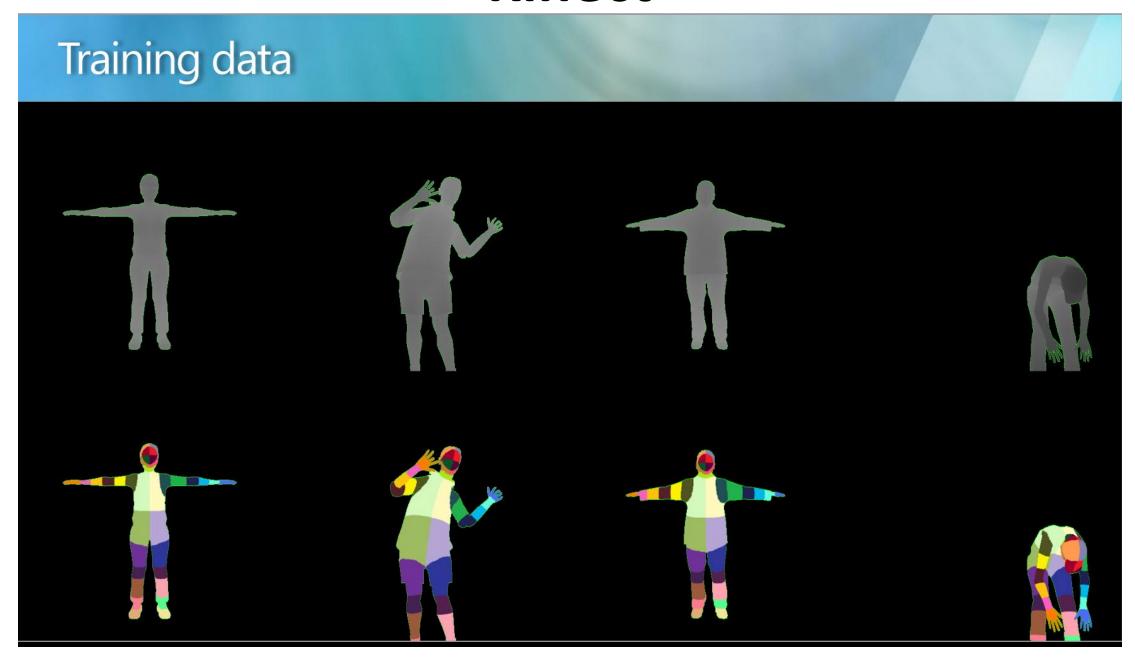
### How it works





- 1. Classify each pixel's probability of being each of 32 body parts
- Determine probabilistic cluster of body configurations consistent with those parts
- 3. Present the most probable to the user





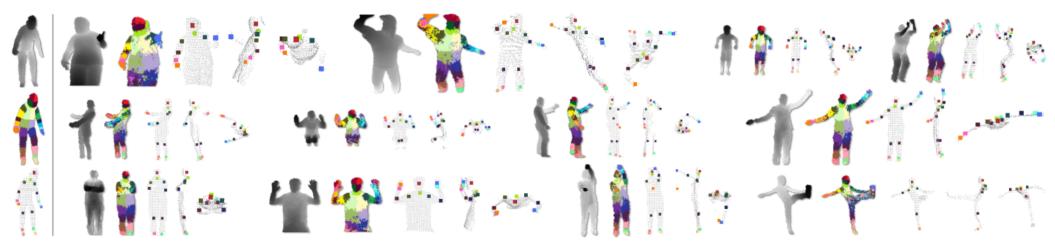


Figure 5. **Example inferences.** Synthetic (top row); real (middle); failure modes (bottom). Left column: ground truth for a neutral pose as a reference. In each example we see the depth image, the inferred most likely body part labels, and the joint proposals show as front, right, and top views (overlaid on a depth point cloud). Only the most confident proposal for each joint above a fixed, shared threshold is shown.

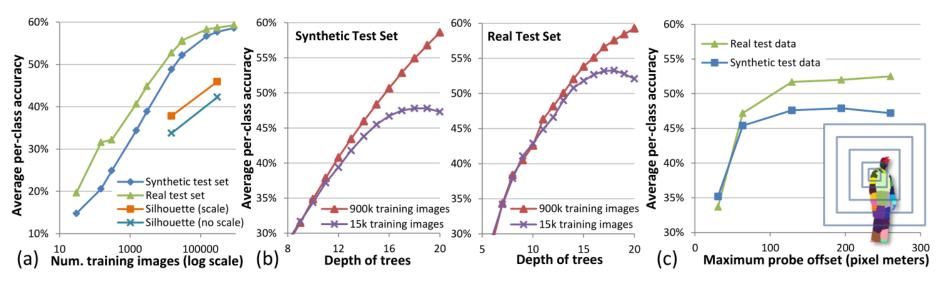


Figure 6. Training parameters vs. classification accuracy. (a) Number of training images. (b) Depth of trees. (c) Maximum probe offset.

## Summary

### Pros:

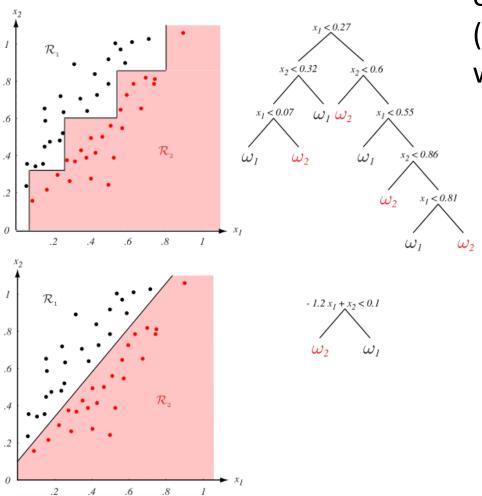
- extremely fast classification
- works with non-numeric data
- expressive

### Cons:

- prone to overfitting, LIMIT YOUR MAX DEPTH
- "stair-step" decision boundary

Bonus Tricks

## **EXTENSIONS**



**FIGURE 8.5.** If the class of node decisions does not match the form of the training data, a very complicated decision tree will result, as shown at the top. Here decisions are parallel to the axes while in fact the data is better split by boundaries along another direction. If, however, "proper" decision forms are used (here, linear combinations of the features), the tree can be quite simple, as shown at the bottom. From: Richard O. Duda, Peter E. Hart, and David G. Stork, *Pattern Classification*. Copyright © 2001 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

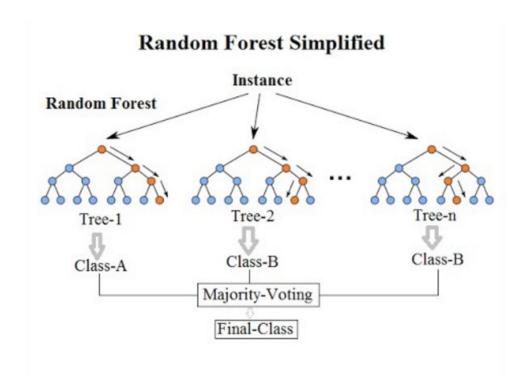
optimizing the features (e.g. PCA) can be a big help with trees

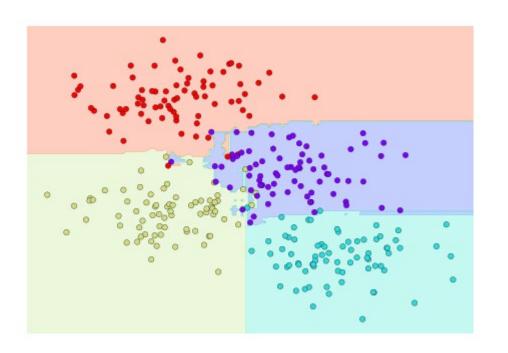
### **Random Forest**

One common approach to minimize problems is to create a random forest:

- train lots of trees on different random samples of data
- each tree splits on random feature (instead of minimum impurity)
- the whole forest votes on classification
- VERY powerful technique that forms basis for many high-performing classifiers (e.g. XGBoost)

https://xgboost.readthedocs.io/en/stable/tutorials/model.html





http://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/jakevdp/PythonDataScienceHandbook/blob/master/notebooks/05.08-Random-Forests.ipynb