Sapienza University of Rome

Master in Artificial Intelligence and Robotics Master in Engineering in Computer Science

Machine Learning

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3. Decision Trees

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3. Decision Trees

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Overview

- Decision tree representation
- ID3 learning algorithm
- Entropy, Information gain
- Inductive Bias
- Overfitting and pruning

References

T. Mitchell. Machine Learning. Chapter 3

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Concept Learning as search

Problem: Given a training set D for a target function c, compute consistent hypotheses wrt D.

Solution approach

- Define hypothesis space *H*
- Implement an algorithm to search $h \in H$ that are consistent with D

Decision Trees

Hypothesis space: set of decision trees.

Definition

Given an instance space X formed by values coming from a set of attributes, a *decision tree* is a tree with the following characteristics:

- Each internal node tests an attribute
- Each branch denotes a value of an attribute
- Each leaf node assigns a classification value

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Example PlayTennis

Instances $X = Outlook \times Temperature \times Humidity \times Wind$ tuples of attributes

$$Outlook = \{Sunny, Overcast, Rain\}$$
 $Temperature = \{Hot, Mild, Cold\}$
 $Humidity = \{Normal, High\}$
 $Wind = \{Weak, Strong\}$

Classification values:

$$PlayTennis = \{Yes, No\}$$

Example *PlayTennis*: Training data

| Day | Outlook | Temperature | Humidity | Wind | PlayTennis | |
|-----|----------|-------------|----------|--------|------------|--|
| D1 | Sunny | Hot | High | Weak | No | |
| D2 | Sunny | Hot | High | Strong | No | |
| D3 | Overcast | Hot | High | Weak | Yes | |
| D4 | Rain | Mild | High | Weak | Yes | |
| D5 | Rain | Cool | Normal | Weak | Yes | |
| D6 | Rain | Cool | Normal | Strong | No | |
| D7 | Overcast | Cool | Normal | Strong | Yes | |
| D8 | Sunny | Mild | High | Weak | No | |
| D9 | Sunny | Cool | Normal | Weak | Yes | |
| D10 | Rain | Mild | Normal | Weak | Yes | |
| D11 | Sunny | Mild | Normal | Strong | Yes | |
| D12 | Overcast | Mild | High | Strong | Yes | |
| D13 | Overcast | Hot | Normal | Weak | Yes | |
| D14 | Rain | Mild | High | Strong | No | |

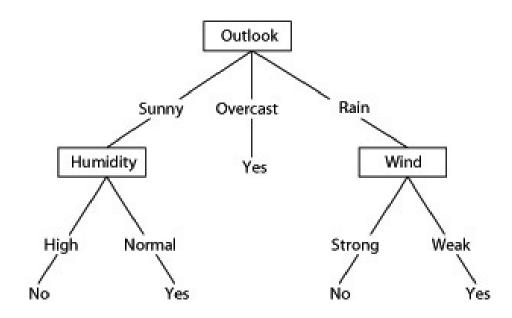
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Decision Tree for PlayTennis



Decision Tree for PlayTennis

Decision trees represent a disjunction of conjunctions of constraints on the attribute values of instances.

$$(Outlook = Sunny \land Humidity = Normal) \lor$$
 $(Outlook = Overcast) \lor$ $(Outlook = Rain \land Wind = Weak)$

Disjunction of conjunctions of all the paths to positive (true) leaf nodes.

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Converting a Tree to Rules

A rule is generated for each path to a leaf node.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{IF} & (\mathit{Outlook} = \mathit{Sunny}) \land (\mathit{Humidity} = \mathit{High}) \\ \mathsf{THEN} & \mathit{PlayTennis} = \mathit{No} \\ \\ \mathsf{IF} & (\mathit{Outlook} = \mathit{Sunny}) \land (\mathit{Humidity} = \mathit{Normal}) \\ \mathsf{THEN} & \mathit{PlayTennis} = \mathit{Yes} \\ \end{array}$$

Decisions are made explicit.

ID3 Algorithm

Input: Examples, Target_attribute, Attributes

Output: Decision Tree

- Create a Root node for the tree
- ② if all Examples are positive, then return the node Root with label +
- if all Examples are negative, then return the node Root with label −
- if Attributes is empty, then return the node Root with label = most common value of Target_attribute in Examples
- Otherwise ...

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ID3 Algorithm

5. Otherwise

- A ← the "best" decision attribute for Examples
- Assign A as decision attribute for Root
- For each value v_i of A
 - add a new branch from Root corresponding to the test $A = v_i$
 - $Examples_{v_i}$ = subset of Examples that have value v_i for A
 - **if** $Examples_{v_i}$ is empty **then** add a leaf node with label = most common value of $Target_attribute$ in Examples
 - else

add the tree ID3($Examples_{v_i}$, $Target_attribute$, Attributes–{A})

Which is the best attribute to choose?

Information gain measures how well a given attribute separates the training examples according to their target classification.

ID3 selects the attribute that has highest information gain.

Information gain measured as reduction in entropy.

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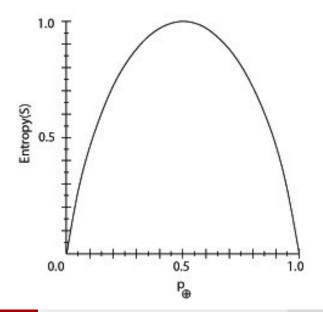
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Entropy

- p_{\oplus} is the proportion of positive examples in S
- ullet p_{\ominus} $(=1-p_{\oplus})$ is the proportion of negative examples in S
- Entropy measures the impurity of S

$$Entropy(S) \equiv -p_{\oplus} \log_2 p_{\oplus} - p_{\ominus} \log_2 p_{\ominus}$$



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Entropy example

Consider the set S = [9+, 5-] (9 positive examples, 5 negative examples)

$$Entropy(S) = -(9/14)log_2(9/14) - (5/14)log_2(5/14) = 0.940$$

Note: we define $0log_20 = 0$.

Maximum entropy when $p_{\oplus}=0.5$, minimum when $p_{\oplus}=0$ or 1. In case of multi-valued target functions (c-wise classification)

$$Entropy(S) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{c} -p_i \log_2 p_i$$

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Information Gain

Gain(S, A) = expected reduction in entropy of S caused by knowing the value of attribute A.

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

Values(A): set of all possible values of A $S_v = \{s \in S | A(s) = v\}$

Information Gain example

$$Values(Wind) = \{Weak, Strong\}$$

$$S = [9+,5-]$$

$$S_{Weak} = [6+,2-]$$

$$S_{Strong} = [3+,3-]$$

$$Gain(S, Wind) = Entropy(S) - \frac{8}{14}Entropy(S_{Weak}) - \frac{6}{14}Entropy(S_{Strong})$$

= $0.940 - \frac{8}{14}0.811 - \frac{6}{14}1.00$
= 0.048

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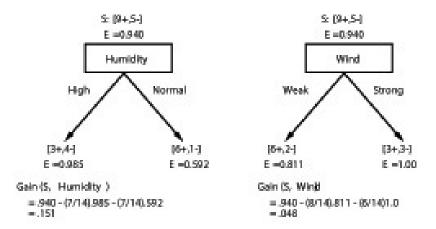
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Selecting the Next Attribute

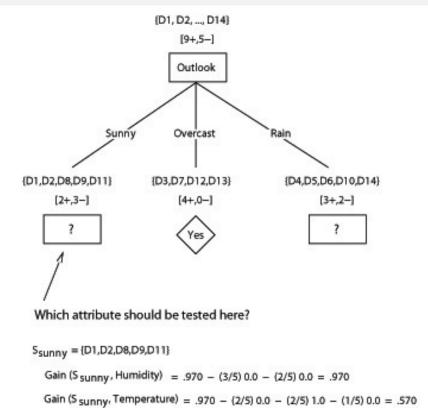
Which attribute is the best classifier?



$$Gain(S,Outlook) = 0.246$$

 $Gain(S,Humidity) = 0.151$
 $Gain(S,Wind) = 0.048$
 $Gain(S,Temperature) = 0.029$

Selecting the Next Attribute



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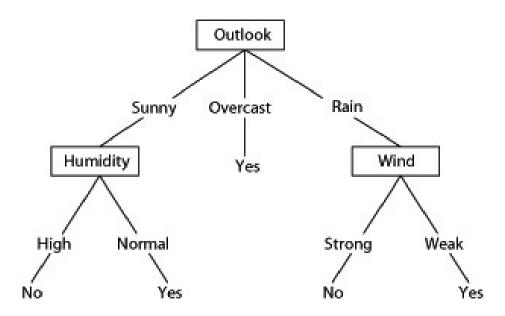
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Gain (S sunny Wind) = .970 - (2/5) 1.0 - (3/5) .918 = .019

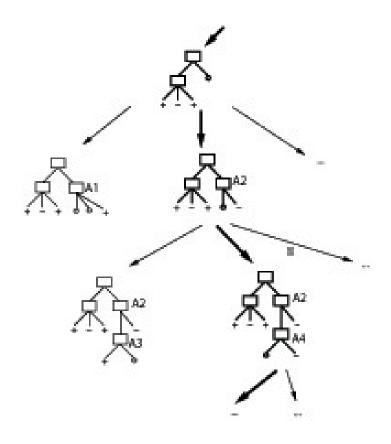
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Decision Tree for PlayTennis



Hypothesis Space Search by ID3



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Hypothesis Space Search by ID3

- Hypothesis space is complete (target concept is there!)
- Outputs a single hypothesis (cannot determine how many DTs are consistent!)
- No back tracking (local minima!)
- Statistically-based search choices (robust to noisy data!)
- Uses all the training examples at each step (not incremental!)

Issues in Decision Tree Learning

- Determining how deeply to grow the DT
- Handling continuous attributes
- Choosing appropriate attribute selection measures
- Handling training data with missing attribute values
- Handling attributes with different costs

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Overfitting in Decision Trees

Consider a new data set $D' = D \cup d_{15}$ adding a training example:

$$d_{15} = \langle Sunny, Hot, Normal, Strong, PlayTennis = No \rangle$$

ID3 will generate a different tree T'

Note: T is consistent with D and T' is consistent with D' (i.e., accuracy = 100%)

Is T' in general a better solution for our learning problem?

Overfitting in Decision Trees

Let's consider a more complex problem with $|D|\gg 15$ and containing noisy data and two decision trees T and T' obtained with different configuration of an ID3-like algorithm.

$$accuracy_D(T') > accuracy_D(T)$$

Is T' in general a better solution for our learning problem?

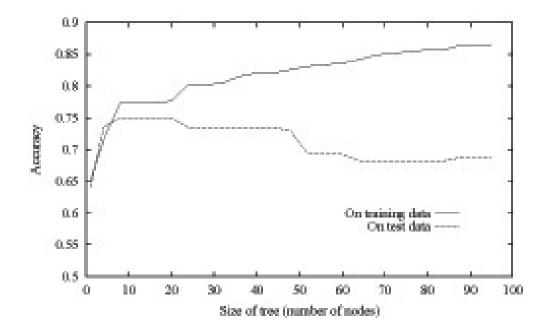
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Overfitting in Decision Tree Learning



Avoiding Overfitting

How can we avoid overfitting?

- stop growing when data split not statistically significant
- grow full tree, then post-prune

To determine the correct tree size

- use a separate set of examples (distinct from the training examples)
 to evaluate the utility of post-pruning
- apply a statistical test to estimate accuracy of a tree on the entire data distribution
- using an explicit measure of the complexity for encoding the examples and the decision trees.

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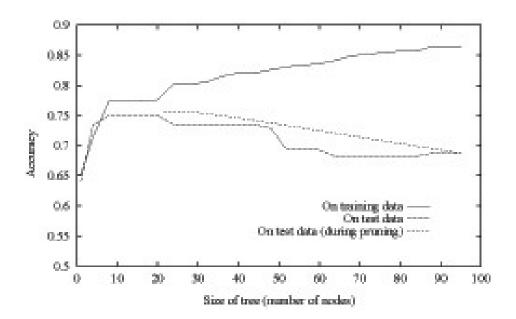
Reduced-Error Pruning

Split data into training and validation set

Do until further pruning is harmful (decreases accuracy):

- Evaluate impact on validation set of pruning each possible node (remove all the subtree and assign the most common classification)
- @ Greedily remove the one that most improves validation set accuracy

Effect of Reduced-Error Pruning



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Remarks on Reduced-Error Pruning

- it produces smallest version of most accurate subtree (removing sub-trees added due to coincidental irregularities).
- When data set is limited, reducing the set of training examples (used as validation examples) can give bad results.

Rule Post-Pruning (C4.5)

- Infer the decision tree allowing for overfitting
- Convert the learned tree into an equivalent set of rules
- 3 Prune (generalize) each rule independently of others
- Sort final rules into desired sequence for use

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Continuous Valued Attributes

Create a discrete attribute to test continuous variables

- *Temperature* = 82.5
- (Temperature > 72.3) = t, f

| Temperature: | 40 | 48 | 60 | 72 | 80 | 90 |
|--------------|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|
| PlayTennis: | No | No | Yes | Yes | Yes | No |

Attributes with Many Values

Problem:

- If attribute has many values, Gain will select it
- Imagine using Date = Jun_3_1996 as attribute

One approach: use GainRatio instead

$$GainRatio(S, A) \equiv \frac{Gain(S, A)}{SplitInformation(S, A)}$$

$$SplitInformation(S, A) \equiv -\sum_{i=1}^{c} \frac{|S_i|}{|S|} \log_2 \frac{|S_i|}{|S|}$$

where S_i is subset of S for which A has value v_i

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Attributes with Costs

Consider

- medical diagnosis, BloodTest has cost \$150
- robotics, *Width_from_1ft* has cost 23 sec.

How to learn a consistent tree with low expected cost? Replace gain by

Tan and Schlimmer (1990)

$$\frac{Gain^2(S,A)}{Cost(A)}$$

• Nunez (1988) ($w \in [0,1]$ determines importance of cost)

$$\frac{2^{Gain(S,A)}-1}{(Cost(A)+1)^w}$$

Unknown Attribute Values

What if some examples missing values of A? Use training example anyway, sort through tree

- If node *n* tests *A*, assign most common value of *A* among other examples sorted to node *n*
- assign most common value of A among other examples with same target value
- assign probability p_i to each possible value v_i of A
 - assign fraction p_i of example to each descendant in tree

Classify new examples in same fashion

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Other algorithms based on Decision Trees

Random Forest: ensemble method that generates a set of decision trees with some random criteria and integrates their values into a final result.

Random criteria: 1) random subsets of data (bagging), 2) random subset of attributes (feature selection), ...

Integration of results: majority vote (most common class returned by all the trees).

Random Forests are less sensitive to overfitting.

Summary

- Decision Trees can represent classification function by making decisions explicit
- Learning as search in the hypothesis space with heuristics based on information gain
- Statistical method (some robustness to noisy data)
- Overfitting and pruning
- Used as basis of randomized ensemble methods