

#### Basic terminology

- Data point: a sample from our dataset, e.g. a participant in the Covid-19 survey
- Features: quantifiable/qualifiable attributes of a data point, e.g. participant's age
- Class/label: the "category" assigned to a data point, e.g. participant classified as "at-risk"
- Classification (method): a type of model whose purpose is to classify data points into a class based on some explicitly (or implicitly) chosen features, e.g. our decision tree model
- Predict(ion): the class our model thinks a data point belongs to, based on its features

#### Motivation (1)

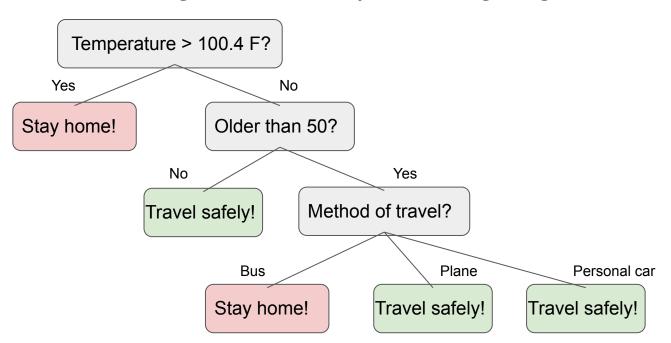
Suppose you want to visit family over winter break but are worried about your risk of contracting Covid-19. You try to assess your risk based on various features:

- Method of travel
- Travel time
- Travel distance
- Age
- Symptoms



#### Motivation (2)

Your process of evaluating whether or not you should go might look like this:



## Motivation (3)

#### Why decision trees?

- We can ask questions about both categorical and numerical features!
  - Numerical features: travel time, travel distance, age
  - o Categorical features: method of travel, symptoms
- Decision trees are visually easy for humans to interpret
- Recall binary trees: binary tree search is similar to DT classification, but we don't have to ask only "binary" questions

#### Definition

A decision tree (DT) is a classification method that models functions of features.

Input: data point (specifically the features)

Output: prediction of data point's true class label

Goal: get a "good" classifier--at least better than uniform distribution (why?)

 Uniform distribution is when all outcomes are equally likely, analogous to picking an outcome at random.

#### Structure of a DT

- Internal nodes: nodes where you ask a question (usually about some feature(s))
- Terminal nodes: node where you have determined which class a data point belongs to
- The branches that connect the nodes represent the answers to the questions (e.g. true/false values, categorical values, etc.)
- Recall example tree from before: internal nodes were grey, terminal nodes were green and red.

## A "good" decision tree (1)

What makes a good DT?

- Limit space complexity
  - How much space to store DT?
- Limit time complexity
  - How long to classify a point? On average? Worst case?
  - Recall binary search is O(log N). How long will classification take?
- Question: how could we improve our example DT?

# A "good" decision tree (2)

**Overfitting**: a phenomenon where your model follows training data too "closely", so the model performs poorly on test data; your model has a "narrow"/"inflexible" view of the world. Overfitting is bad!

Larger trees have a **higher** chance of **overfitting** training data, while shorter trees have a **lower** chance of **overfitting** training data.

Occam's razor: "the simplest explanation is usually the right one"

#### DT classification boundaries

Classification boundaries specify which regions belong to which class, according to the classifier.

- Points are represented by their true label (+ or -)
- Green region is where DT thinks + class are
- Red region is where DT thinks class are
- Notice the regions defined by DT are axis-aligned
  - How will DT represent diagonal decision boundaries?

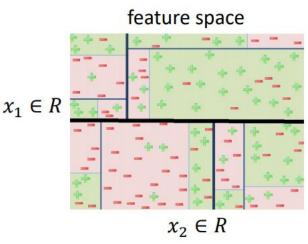
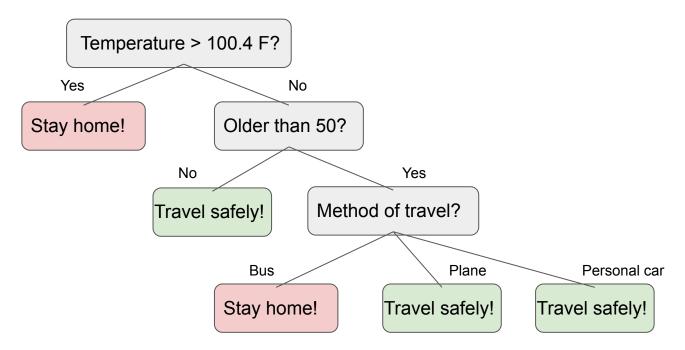


Image: Yisong Yue

# **Splitting**



We can choose features to **split** on. Here, we split on temperature, age, and method of travel.

## A "good" split

What makes a "good" split?

Think about the game 20 questions--the fewer questions you ask, the better you are at the game. Same idea here--less questions, smaller tree. But what question to ask?

#### **Probability Basics**

Random variable (RV): a variable that takes on certain values according to some probability distribution

**Probability distribution**: a function that tells you the likelihood of a RV taking on a value x, denoted P(x)

## **Entropy**

A measure of **uncertainty/surprise** in a random variable, denoted by **H(X)** where X is a RV. Also known as amount of **information** in a RV:

$$H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i) \log P(x_i)$$

Aside: this quantity is derived from taking the **expectation** of -log P(x). See <a href="https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Expected value">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Expected value</a> for more details.

#### **Conditional Entropy**

The conditional entropy of a random variable Y given a random variable X is

$$H(Y|X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i)H(Y|x_i)$$

We can apply conditional entropy to tree splits where we split the data into subsets where  $x_j < v$ ,  $x_j \ge v$  repre $x_j$  its a data point and v is the value that we are splitting the data on:

$$H(Y|X_{j,v}) := P(X_{j,v} = 1)H(Y|X_{j,v} = 1) + P(X_{j,v} = 0)H(Y|X_{j,v} = 0)$$

### Properties of Entropy

- H is non-negative
- H(X,Y) = H(X|Y) + H(Y) = H(X) + H(Y|X)
- If X is independent, then H(Y|X) = H(Y)
- $\bullet \quad \mathsf{H}(\mathsf{Y}|\mathsf{Y}) = 0$
- $H(Y|X) \leq H(Y)$ 
  - In other words, if we know X, we can only have less uncertainty about Y
    (in the worst case, X tells you nothing about Y)

## Information Gain (aka Mutual Information)

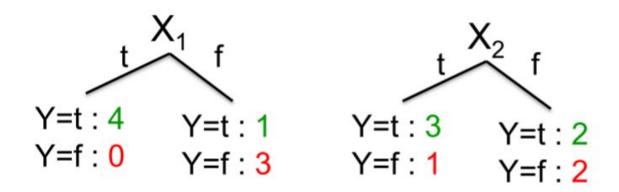
If you knew some information a, how much more will you know about RV X?

- $\bullet \quad IG(X,a) = H(X) H(X|a)$
- **Nonnegative**: information gain is always greater than or equal to zero. Why? Since  $H(X|a) \le H(X)$ , it follows that  $H(X) H(X|a) \ge 0$ . This makes sense since we can never lose information about X if we know a, we can only gain information about X! In the worst case, we don't gain any additional information about X at all!

### Purity (and impurity)

A **pure** split is a split that cleanly divides data points into their correct classes. So we want to find splits that maximize purity (i.e. minimize impurity).

Which tree would you prefer? Hint: notice purity of each split.



Example: J. Listgarten, Nov. 16, 2020 lecture

### Gini impurity (aka Gini index)

 Gini impurity measures how often a data point would be incorrectly labeled if it were randomly labeled according to the distribution of the labels in the test set. The formula is as follows:

$$G(Y) = \sum_{k} P(Y = k) \sum_{j \neq k} P(Y = j) = \sum_{k} P(Y = k) (1 - P(Y = k)) = 1 - \sum_{k} P(Y = k)^{2}$$

- P(Y=k) represents probability that the data point's true label is k,  $\sum_{j\neq k} P(Y=j)$  represents the chance that you mislabel the point (i.e. don't choose k), and finally sum over all possible choices of k to get G(Y)
- Properties:
  - max(G(Y)) = k / k-1
  - o min(G(Y)) = 0 (nonnegativity)
  - $\circ$  G(X, Y) = G(Y, X)

#### **Decision Tree Induction**

- Greedy algorithms maximize some value at every iteration
  - Because of this, they tend to be short-sighted and are usually not optimal
- Greedy attempt #1: Split on maximum information gain.
  - Why? Can think of maximizing the amount of information you know with the fewest number of questions possible
- Greedy attempt #2: split on minimum Gini index.
  - Why? We split on purest splits first.
- When do we stop splitting?



#### Recursive Decision Tree Induction (Pseudocode)

#### BuildTree(DataSet,Output)

- If all output values are the same in DataSet, return a leaf node that says "predict this unique output"
- If all input values are the same, return a leaf node that says "predict the majority output"
- Else find attribute X with highest Info Gain
- Suppose X has  $n_X$  distinct values (i.e. X has arity  $n_X$ ).
  - Create a non-leaf node with  $n_x$  children.
  - The i'th child should be built by calling

BuildTree(DS<sub>i</sub>,Output)

Where  $DS_i$  contains the records in DataSet where X = ith value of X.

#### Recursive Decision Tree Induction: Base Cases

See else statement: can we instead stop splitting when information gain is zero?

 Greedy is not always optimal--in this case, we should continue splitting even if information gain is zero

What else is wrong with our algorithm?

It keeps splitting until the data points are identical or the labels are identical-perfect recipe for overfitting

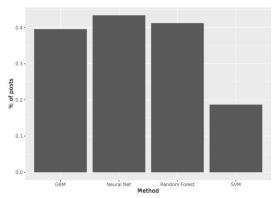
#### Gini index vs. entropy

#### Which value should we use?

- Although using the Gini index produces similar decision trees to entropy, it is faster because we don't have to take logs to calculate it.
- Recall the overfitting problem--if we let our tree get too deep, we are more likely to overfit. So when to stop splitting?
  - If information gain below some threshold
  - If purity of remaining points above some threshold
  - If depth over some threshold
- Picking these thresholds: validation
  - Can train our DT with a separate set of data points called validation set to help us tune our threshold values (called hyperparameters)

#### **Improvements**

- Single decision tree can easily overfit!
  - High **variance**, i.e. lots of variability in classifier's results on test set
- Use multiple decision trees -- ensemble methods
  - Random forests: something something
  - Bagging (bootstrap aggregating): train each tree using random sample of data points and average all results
  - Boosting: iteratively improve model by training trees that fix mis-classifications
    - Ex: AdaBoost (adaptive boosting)



https://www.kaggle.com/msjgriffiths/r-what-algorit hms-are-most-successful-on-kaggle/report