Chapter 18 (AIAMA)

Learning From Examples-02

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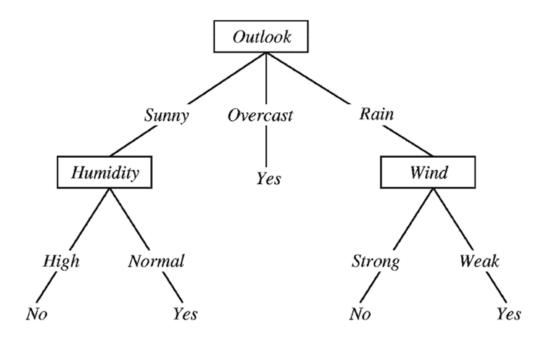
Decision Tree Interpretable

A decision tree:

- Represents a function that takes as input a vector of attribute values
- Returns a "decision"—a single output value.
- The input and output values can be discrete or continuous.
- For now we will concentrate on problems where
 - Inputs have discrete values
 - Output has exactly two possible values; this is Boolean classification,
 where each example input will be classified as *true* (a **positive** example) or
 false (a **negative** example).

Decision Tree

- A decision tree for rain forecasting.
 - Input: {Outlook=Sunny, Humidity=Normal, Wind=Strong}
 - Output: Yes [Rainy]



Decision Tree

- In a decision tree:
- Each **internal node** in the tree corresponds to a test of the value of one of the input attributes, A_i
- The **branches** from the node are labeled with the possible values of the attribute, $A_i = v_{ik}$.
 - Each **leaf node** in the tree is marked with a outcome to be returned by the function.

• **Problem:** Build a decision tree to decide whether to wait at a restaurant.

Learning Goal:

- WillWait to decide whether to wait for a table at a restaurant.
- Goal is binary valued (i.e., binary classification task)
 - Values: {Yes, No}

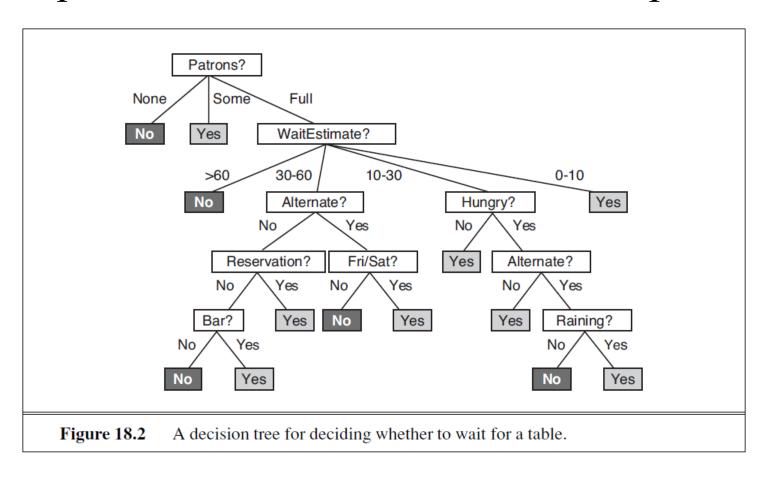
Input Attributes

- 1. *Alternate*: whether there is a suitable alternative restaurant nearby.
- 2. Bar: whether the restaurant has a comfortable bar area to wait in.
- 3. Fri/Sat: true on Fridays and Saturdays, false otherwise.
- 4. *Hungry*: whether we are hungry.
- 5. *Patrons*: how many people are in the restaurant (values are None, Some, and Full).
- 6. Price: the restaurant's price range (\$, \$\$, \$\$\$).

Input Attributes

- 7. Raining: whether it is raining outside.
- 8. *Reservation*: whether we made a reservation.
- 9. *Type*: the kind of restaurant (French, Italian, Thai, or burger).
- 10. WaitEstimate: the wait estimated by the host (0–10 minutes, 10–30, 30–60, or >60).
- Note that every variable has a small set of possible values; the value of *WaitEstimate*, for example, is not an integer, rather it is one of the four discrete values 0–10, 10–30, 30–60, or >60.

An example decision tree for the restaurant problem



- In a Boolean decision tree, the goal attribute is true if and only if the input attributes satisfy one of the paths leading to a leaf with value true.
- $Goal \Leftrightarrow (Path1 \lor Path2 \lor \cdots)$, where each Path is a conjunction of attribute-value tests required to follow that path.
- Thus, the whole expression is equivalent to *disjunctive normal form*, which means that any function in propositional logic can be expressed as a decision tree.

- Any Boolean function can be represented by a decision tree.
 - Consider the following Boolean function: f(A, B) = A + B.
 - Draw a decision tree for the function:

- For a wide variety of problems, the decision tree format yields a nice, concise result.
- But some functions cannot be represented concisely:
 - For example, the majority function, which returns true if and only if more than half of the inputs are true, requires an exponentially large decision tree.
- Decision trees are good for some kinds of functions and bad for others.

- How many different decision trees can be obtained for a Boolean function with n variables?
 - A truth table over n attributes has 2^n rows, one for each combination of values of the attributes.
 - There are 2^{2^n} different functions.
 - Each function can be represented by a decision tree. Hence, number of decision trees at least 2^{2ⁿ} [why more?]

- How many different decision trees can be obtained for a Boolean function with n variables?
 - For 10 Boolean attributes of our restaurant problem there are 2¹⁰²⁴ or about 10³⁰⁸ different functions to choose from.
 - Number of possible decision trees $\geq 10^{308}$

• Training data: A set of examples where α ach example a pair (x, y) pair where α is a vector of values for the input attributes, y is a single Boolean output value.

Example	Input Attributes										Goal
Zampie	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
\mathbf{x}_1	Yes	No	No	Yes	Some	\$\$\$	No	Yes	French	0–10	$y_1 = Yes$
\mathbf{x}_2	Yes	No	No	Yes	Full	\$	No	No	Thai	30–60	$y_2 = No$
\mathbf{x}_3	No	Yes	No	No	Some	\$	No	No	Burger	0–10	$y_3 = Yes$
\mathbf{x}_4	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Full	\$	Yes	No	Thai	10-30	$y_4 = Yes$
\mathbf{x}_5	Yes	No	Yes	No	Full	\$\$\$	No	Yes	French	>60	$y_5 = No$
x ₆	No	Yes	No	Yes	Some	\$\$	Yes	Yes	Italian	0–10	$y_6 = Yes$
X 7	No	Yes	No	No	None	\$	Yes	No	Burger	0–10	$y_7 = No$
X 8	No	No	No	Yes	Some	\$\$	Yes	Yes	Thai	0–10	$y_8 = Yes$
X 9	No	Yes	Yes	No	Full	\$	Yes	No	Burger	>60	$y_9 = No$
${\bf x}_{10}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	\$\$\$	No	Yes	Italian	10-30	$y_{10} = No$
x_{11}	No	No	No	No	None	\$	No	No	Thai	0–10	$y_{11} = No$
x_{12}	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	\$	No	No	Burger	30–60	$y_{12} = Yes$
Figure 18.3 Examples for the restaurant domain.											

Build a decision tree that is -

- Consistent with the examples [Not always expected though, generalization may suffer]
- Is as small as possible. [Occam's razor]

- Question: Can we always find a consistent decision tree given a set of training examples?.
- Answer: Yes.
 - However, if two training examples (x, y) and (x', y') have different outputs but same input attributes (x = x'), then a consistent decision tree is not possible.

- Unfortunately, it is an intractable problem to find the smallest consistent tree; there is no way to efficiently search through *hypotheses space*.
 - An NP-hard problem!
 - What can we do if cannot find the smallest decision tree?
 - **Solution**: Use heuristics to find a closest one.
 - With some simple heuristics, we can find a good approximate solution: a small (*but not the smallest*) consistent tree.
 - This is a greedy approach. [Remember what is *greedy*]

Decision Tree Learning

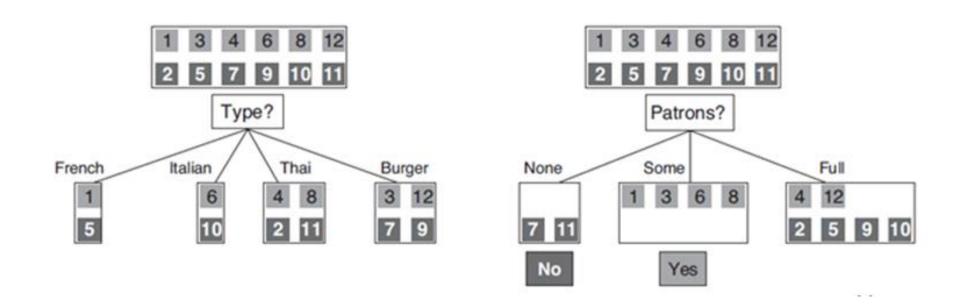
- Greedy approach to build a decision tree:
 - Start with empty decision tree.
 - Select an attribute to test at the next level [node]:
 - Always select the most important attribute to test first. [greedy strategy]
 - The test creates new branches and divides the problem into smaller subproblems.
 - Recurse on each child (created for each branch)

Decision Tree Learning

- Greedy strategy: Always select the most important attribute to test first.
 - *Most important attribute* implies the one that makes the most difference to the classification of an example. [*Get leaves as early as possible*]
 - Get correct classification with a small number of test
 - All paths in the tree will be short
 - Tree as a whole will be shallow.
 - Above greedy strategy is a local optimal choice, may not necessarily leads to the globally smallest tree!

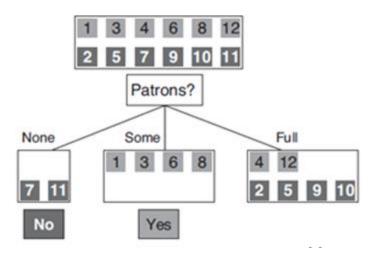
Decision Tree Learning

- Which attribute to test at root? Type vs Patron?
 - Type: all subsets (i.e., branches) needs further exploration.
 - Patron: two branches become leaves, only one needs further exploration.



Decision tree construction:

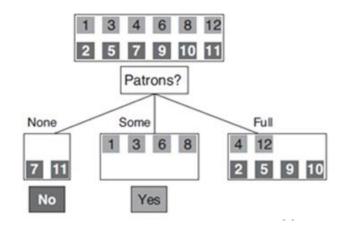
- Step 1: Test an attribute at each node.
- Step 2: Partition the examples according to values and create child nodes with relevant examples.



■ Step 3: Now consider child node for further tests of attributes except the one which have already been tested in the hierarchy (*recursive operation*)

Four cases to consider at a child node:

- Case 1: All examples are positive (or all negative) \rightarrow we are done; we can answer Yes or No. [e.g., Patron=None]
- Case 2: Some positive and some negative examples \rightarrow then choose the best attribute to split them recursively. [e.g., Patron=Full]



Four cases to consider at a child node:

- Case 3: No examples left \rightarrow No example has been observed for this combination of attribute values, and we return a default value (e.g., *plurality of parent node*)
- <u>Case 4:</u> No attributes left, but both positive and negative examples remain → These examples have exactly the same description, but different classifications. This can happen because there is an error or **noise** in the data.
 - *In this case return the plurality classification of the remaining examples.* [tree will not be consistent]

Algorithm pseudocode

■ Function PLURAITY-VALUE selects the most common class/output among the examples

Choosing the Most Important Attribute

- Which attribute is the most important now?
 - **Perfect attribute**: One that splits into subsets where each subset contain either all positive or all negative examples. [all branches become leaf nodes]
 - Useless attribute: One that splits into subsets where each subset contain fairly equal mix of positive and negative examples. [all branches need recursive exploration]

Choosing the Most Important Attribute

Perfect vs. useless? How to measure?

- A formal measure of perfect vs useless: Entropy
- The fundamental quantity in information theory (*Shannon and Weaver, 1949*).
- Entropy is a measure of the uncertainty of a random variable.
- Acquisition of information corresponds to a reduction in entropy.
- A random variable with only one value—a coin that always comes up heads—has no uncertainty and thus its entropy is defined as zero; thus, we gain no information by observing its value.

Choosing the Most Important Attribute

- **Entropy:** Average number of bits per symbol to encode information.
 - The roll of a fair *four*-sided die has 2 bits of entropy, because it takes two bits to describe one of four equally probable choices.
 - An unfair coin that comes up heads 99% of the time.
 - This coin has less uncertainty than the fair coin—if we guess heads we'll be wrong only 1% of the time—it's entropy measure should be close to zero, but positive.

Entropy Measure

■ In general, the entropy H(V) of a random variable V with values v_k , each with probability $P(v_k)$, is defined as :

$$H(V) = \sum_{k} P(v_k) \log_2 \frac{1}{P(v_k)} = -\sum_{k} P(v_k) \log_2 P(v_k)$$

Entropy Measure

Verify that entropies measures are correct.

We can check that the entropy of a fair coin flip is indeed 1 bit:

$$H(Fair) = -(0.5 \log_2 0.5 + 0.5 \log_2 0.5) = 1$$
.

If the coin is loaded to give 99% heads, we get

$$H(Loaded) = -(0.99 \log_2 0.99 + 0.01 \log_2 0.01) \approx 0.08$$
 bits.

Entropy Measure

• Define B(q) as the entropy of a Boolean random variable that is true with probability q:

$$B(q) = -(q \log_2 q + (1 - q) \log_2 (1 - q))$$

• If a training set contains p positive examples and n negative examples, then the entropy of the goal attribute on the whole set is:

$$H(Goal) = B\left(\frac{p}{p+n}\right).$$

Entropy Measure in Decision Tree

- **Decision tree contest**: Entropy represents an impurity measure of the set.
 - A set with 5 positive and 5 negative examples: Most impure, entropy should be highest.
 - A set with 10 positive and 0 negative examples: Purest, entropy should be the lowest.

Entropy Before Split

 \blacksquare A set with p positive and n negative examples.

■ Entropy of the set is:
$$B\left(\frac{p}{p+n}\right)$$

Entropy After Splitting

- An attribute A with d distinct values divides the training set E into subsets E_1 , E_2 , ..., E_d .
- Each subset E_k has p_k positive examples and n_k negative examples, with entropy of $B(p_k/(p_k + n_k))$ bits of information. $[E_k$ contains examples with A = kth value]
- A randomly chosen example from the training set has the kth value for the attribute with probability $(p_k + n_k)/(p + n)$, so the expected entropy (weighted average) of the d subsets after splitting on attribute A is:

$$Remainder(A) = \sum_{k=1}^{d} \frac{p_k + n_k}{p + n} B(\frac{p_k}{p_k + n_k})$$

Information Gain

- **Information Gain:** The amount of information gain is the amount of entropy reduction after the split on attribute A.
- Assume E_{BS} = Entropy before split, E_{AS} = Entropy after split [weighted average]
 - Hence, information gain (= *reduction of entropy*):

$$Gain = E_{BS} - E_{AS}$$
 [reduction of entropy]

■ Hence, this is simply:

$$Gain(A) = B(\frac{p}{p+n}) - Remainder(A)$$

Information Gain

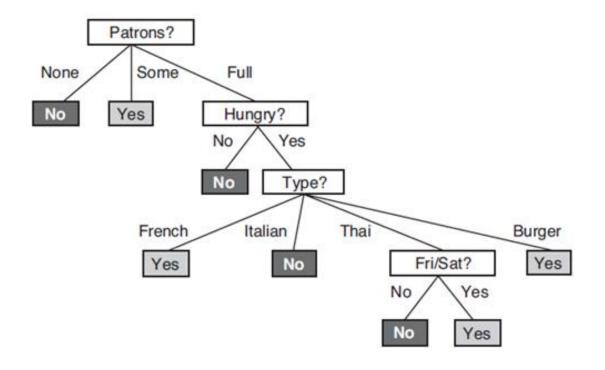
- Information Gain: $Gain(A) = B(\frac{p}{p+n}) Remainder(A)$
- Compute the information gain for the attributes Patron and Type:

$$\begin{aligned} Gain(Patrons) &= 1 - \left[\frac{2}{12} B(\frac{0}{2}) + \frac{4}{12} B(\frac{4}{4}) + \frac{6}{12} B(\frac{2}{6}) \right] \approx 0.541 \text{ bits,} \\ Gain(Type) &= 1 - \left[\frac{2}{12} B(\frac{1}{2}) + \frac{2}{12} B(\frac{1}{2}) + \frac{4}{12} B(\frac{2}{4}) + \frac{4}{12} B(\frac{2}{4}) \right] = 0 \text{ bits,} \end{aligned}$$

- Patron is a better attribute than Gain! Hence, choose Patron over Type.
- Choose the attribute which gives the highest information gain!

Final Decision Tree

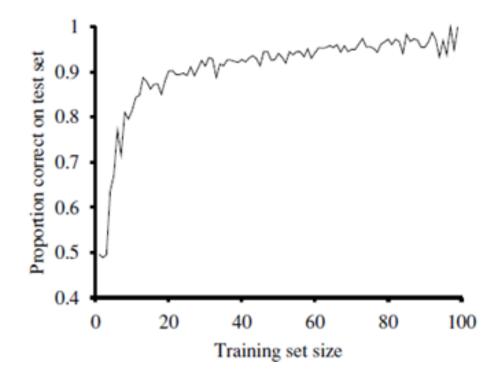
• Final decision tree constructed from given examples.



Question: What is the information gain for Type attribute at level 3?

Decision Tree Learning Curve

- Experiment with 100 examples: Construct decision trees
 - Split into train and test (e.g., 1 and 99, 2 and 98, etc.)
 - Random split 20 times and report average accuracy on test set
 - Note: As the training size grows, accuracy increases.



Overfitting

- Overfitting: Too much importance on every training example
 - Complex tree
 - Suffers generalization: very low training error, but very high test error.
 - Misses important concepts
- A consistent decision tree over training data may result in a complex tree
 - Noisy data may also induce complexity in the tree

Overfitting Solution

- **Pre-prune**: Prune the tree before it gets large
 - Early stopping: limit depth during tree construction
- **Post-pruning**: Prune the tree after construction
 - Remove irrelevant nodes
 - Replace internal nodes with most common class [Only replace if test error do not increase]

Decision Tree Issues

- Missing values: Some examples have missing value in some attributes
 - Solution: Replace missing value with mean of the attribute over the entire dataset
- Continuous-valued attribute: For example, height is continuous-valued.
 - Convert to categorical attribute:
 - Height > 40cm: *Tall* and Height <40cm: *Short*

 A_3) and one binary output y:

Example	A_1	A_2	A_3	Output y
x_1	1	0	0	0-
x_2	1	0	1	0
 <i>x</i> ₃	0 1	1	0	0
 x4	1	1	1	1
x_5	1	1	0	1

Construct a decision tree for these data. Show the entropy and information-gain computations made to determine the attribute to split at each node.

Suppose a bank wants to decide whether to approve a small loan (output y). They use three simple binary attributes about an applicant:

training



 \triangle A1 = Has a stable job? (1 = Yes, 0 = No)

A2 = Has no unpaid loans? (1 = Yes, 0 = No)

A3 = Owns a house? (1 = Yes, 0 = No)

Output y = Loan approved? (1 = Yes, 0 = No)



PrA2 A3