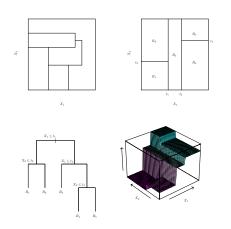
## Lecture 14: Decision trees

Reading: Section 9.2

GU4241/GR5241 Statistical Machine Learning

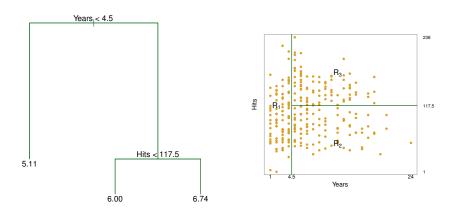
Linxi Liu April 5, 2019

### Decision trees, 10,000 foot view



- 1. Find a partition of the space of predictors.
- 2. Predict a constant in each set of the partition.
- The partition is defined by splitting the range of one predictor at a time.
  - $\rightarrow$  Not all partitions are possible.

## Example: Predicting a baseball player's salary



The prediction for a point in  $R_i$  is the average of the training points in  $R_i$ .

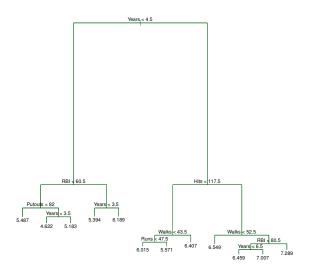
#### How is a decision tree built?

- ▶ Start with a single region  $R_1$ , and iterate:
  - 1. Select a region  $R_k$ , a predictor  $X_j$ , and a splitting point s, such that splitting  $R_k$  with the criterion  $X_j < s$  produces the largest decrease in RSS:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_m})^2$$

- 2. Redefine the regions with this additional split.
- Terminate when there are 5 observations or fewer in each region.
- ▶ This grows the tree from the root towards the leaves.

### How is a decision tree built?



## How do we control overfitting?

- ▶ Idea 1: Find the optimal subtree by cross validation.
  - → There are too many possibilities, so we would still over fit.
- ▶ Idea 2: Stop growing the tree when the RSS doesn't drop by more than a threshold with any new cut.
  - $\rightarrow$  In our greedy algorithm, it is possible to find good cuts after bad ones.

## How do we control overfitting?

#### Cost complexity pruning:

► Solve the problem:

minimize 
$$\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_m})^2 + \alpha |T|.$$

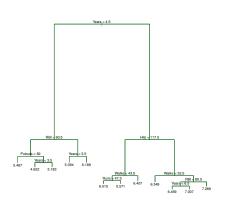
- ▶ When  $\alpha = \infty$ , we select the null tree.
- When  $\alpha = 0$ , we select the full tree.
- ▶ The solution for each  $\alpha$  is among  $T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_m$  from weakest link pruning.
- Choose the optimal  $\alpha$  (the optimal  $T_i$ ) by cross validation.

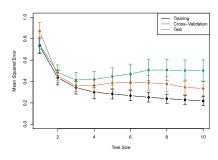
#### Cross validation

- 1. Split the training points into 10 folds.
- 2. For k = 1, ..., 10, using every fold except the kth:
  - ▶ Construct a sequence of trees  $T_1, \ldots, T_m$  for a range of values of  $\alpha$ , and find the prediction for each region in each one.
  - $\blacktriangleright$  For each tree  $T_i$ , calculate the RSS on the test set.
- 3. Select the parameter  $\alpha$  that minimizes the average test error.

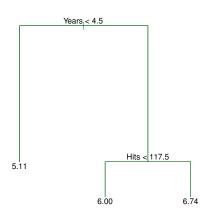
*Note:* We are doing all fitting, including the construction of the trees, using only the training data.

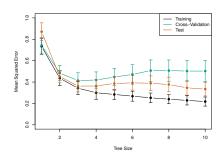
# Example. Predicting baseball salaries





## Example. Predicting baseball salaries





#### Classification trees

- ▶ They work much like regression trees.
- ▶ We predict the response by **majority vote**, i.e. pick the most common class in every region.
- ▶ Instead of trying to minimize the RSS:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_m})^2$$

we minimize a classification loss function.

#### Classification losses

▶ The 0-1 loss or misclassification rate:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} q_m \sum_{x_i \in R_m} \mathbf{1}(y_i \neq \hat{y}_{R_m})$$

The Gini index:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} q_m \sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{p}_{mk} (1 - \hat{p}_{mk}),$$

where  $\hat{p}_{m,k}$  is the proportion of class k within  $R_m$ , and  $q_m$  is the proportion of samples in  $R_m$ .

The cross-entropy:

$$-\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} q_m \sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{p}_{mk} \log(\hat{p}_{mk}).$$

### Classification losses

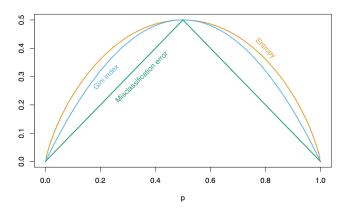


Figure: Node impurity measures for two-class classification

#### Classification losses

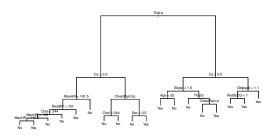
► The Gini index and cross-entropy are better measures of the purity of a region, i.e. they are low when the region is mostly one category.

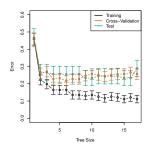
#### Motivation for the Gini index:

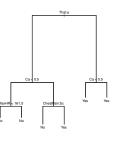
If instead of predicting the most likely class, we predict a random sample from the distribution  $(\hat{p}_{1,m},\hat{p}_{2,m},\ldots,\hat{p}_{K,m})$ , the Gini index is the expected misclassification rate.

▶ It is typical to use the Gini index or cross-entropy for growing the tree, while using the misclassification rate when pruning the tree.

## Example. Heart dataset.







## Some advantages of decision trees

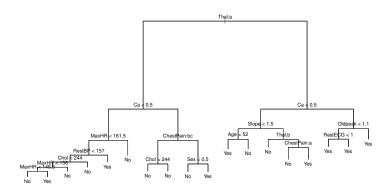
- ▶ Very easy to interpret!
- Closer to human decision-making.
- Easy to visualize graphically.
- ▶ They easily handle qualitative predictors and missing data.

## Classification and Regression trees, in a nut shell

- ▶ Grow the tree by recursively splitting the samples in the leaf  $R_i$  according to  $X_j > s$ , such that  $(R_i, X_j, s)$  maximize the drop in RSS.
  - $\rightarrow$  Greedy algorithm.
- ► Create a sequence of subtrees  $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_m$  using a **pruning** algorithm.
- ▶ Select the best tree  $T_i$  (or the best  $\alpha$ ) by cross validation.
  - ightarrow Why might it be better to choose lpha instead of the tree  $T_i$  by cross-validation?

## Example. Heart dataset.

How do we deal with categorical predictors?



## Categorical predictors

- ▶ If there are only 2 categories, then the split is obvious. We don't have to choose the splitting point s, as for a numerical variable.
- ▶ If there are more than 2 categories:
  - ▶ Order the categories according to the average of the response:

```
ChestPain: a > ChestPain: c > ChestPain: b
```

- ► Treat as a numerical variable with this ordering, and choose a splitting point s.
- One can show that this is the optimal way of partitioning.

### Missing data

- ▶ Suppose we can assign every sample to a leaf  $R_i$  despite the missing data.
- ▶ When choosing a new split with variable  $X_j$  (growing the tree):
  - ▶ Only consider the samples which have the variable  $X_j$ .
  - ► In addition to choosing the best split, choose a second best split using a different variable, and a third best, ...
- ► To propagate a sample down the tree, if it is missing a variable to make a decision, try the second best decision, or the third best, ...