#### **Decision Trees**

-Entrophy = gain information

Tian-Li Yu

Taiwan Evolutionary Intelligence Laboratory (TEIL)

Department of Electrical Engineering

National Taiwan University

tianliyu@ntu.edu.tw

Readings: AIMA 18.3, 18.4, 18.10

### Outline

- 1 Learning Decision Trees
  - Choosing Attributes
- Model Evaluation
  - Metrics
  - Cross-Validation
  - Comparison
- 3 Generalization and Overfitting
- 4 Ensemble

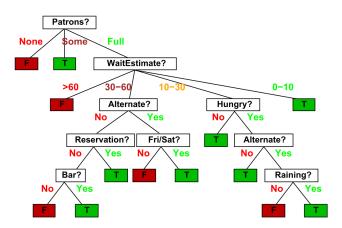
### Attribute-based Representations

• Restaurant example.

| Example  | Market Attributes |     |     |     |      |             |      |     |         | Target |          |
|----------|-------------------|-----|-----|-----|------|-------------|------|-----|---------|--------|----------|
|          | Alt               | Bar | Fri | Hun | Pat  | Price       | Rain | Res | Type    | Est    | WillWait |
| $X_1$    | T                 | F   | F   | T   | Some | \$\$\$      | F    | T   | French  | 0–10   | T        |
| $X_2$    | T                 | F   | F   | Τ   | Full | \$          | F    | F   | Thai    | 30–60  | F        |
| $X_3$    | F                 | T   | F   | F   | Some | \$          | F    | F   | Burger  | 0–10   | T        |
| $X_4$    | T                 | F   | T   | Τ   | Full | \$          | F    | F   | Thai    | 10–30  | T        |
| $X_5$    | T                 | F   | T   | F   | Full | \$\$\$      | F    | T   | French  | >60    | F        |
| $X_6$    | F                 | T   | F   | Τ   | Some | <i>\$\$</i> | T    | T   | Italian | 0–10   | T        |
| $X_7$    | F                 | T   | F   | F   | None | \$          | T    | F   | Burger  | 0–10   | F        |
| $X_8$    | F                 | F   | F   | Τ   | Some | <i>\$\$</i> | T    | T   | Thai    | 0–10   | T        |
| $X_9$    | F                 | T   | T   | F   | Full | \$          | T    | F   | Burger  | >60    | F        |
| $X_{10}$ | T                 | T   | T   | T   | Full | \$\$\$      | F    | T   | Italian | 10–30  | F        |
| $X_{11}$ | F                 | F   | F   | F   | None | \$          | F    | F   | Thai    | 0–10   | F        |
| $X_{12}$ | T                 | T   | T   | T   | Full | \$          | F    | F   | Burger  | 30–60  | T        |

#### **Decision Trees**

• One possible representation for hypotheses.



# Expressiveness of Decision Trees

- Goal  $\Leftrightarrow$  (Path<sub>1</sub>  $\vee$  Path<sub>2</sub>  $\vee \cdots$ ).
- $Path_i \Leftrightarrow (Attribute_1 = a_1 \land Attribute_2 = a_2 \land \cdots).$
- Decision trees can express any function of the input attributes.
- Trivially, there is a consistent decision tree for any training set with one path to leaf for each example, but it won't generalize to new examples.
- Prefer to find more compact decision trees.

## Hypothesis Space

- How many distinct decision trees with n Boolean attributes?
  - Truth table with 2<sup>n</sup> rows.
  - Every truth table can be expressed by one decision tree ⇒ At least 2<sup>2n</sup> decision trees.
  - If different order of attributes counts as ⇒ At least n! · 2<sup>2<sup>n</sup></sup> decision trees.
- More expressive hypothesis space
  - Increase the chance that c can be expressed.
  - May be weak at generalization if we let the decision tree be too expressive.

# Learning Decision Trees (ID3 [Quinlan, 1986])

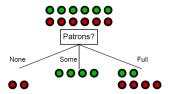
- Aim: Find a small tree consistent with training examples.
- Idea: Recursively choose the best attribute.

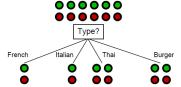
```
DTL(examples, attributes, examples_{parent})
```

```
if examples is empty then return Plurality-Value(examples<sub>parent</sub>)
     elseif all examples have same classification then return the classification
     elseif attributes is empty then return Plurality-Value(examples)
     else
          A \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in attributes} \operatorname{IMPORTACE}(a, examples)
 5
           tree \leftarrow a new decision tree with root A
 6
           for textbfeach value v_k of A
 8
                exs \leftarrow elements of examples with <math>A = v_k
 9
                subtree \leftarrow DTL(exs, attributes - A, examples)
                add a branch to tree with label A = v_k and subtree subtree
10
11
           return tree
```

# **Choosing Attributes**

- The restaurant example consist of 6 positive and 6 negative examples.
- Patrons is a better choice gives more information about the classification.





#### Information

- Measure of information: Shannon's entropy.
  - Gives the lower bound of the most compact encoding of a random variable in bits.
- The entropy of a random variable V with values  $v_k$ , each with probability  $P(v_k)$ , is defined as

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

For Boolean variables, define

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

- The entropy of a fair coin:  $H = B(0.5) = -(0.5 \log_2 0.5 + 0.5 \log_2 0.5) = 1 bit.$
- The entropy of a unfair coin (99% head):  $H = B(0.99) = -(0.99 \log_2 0.99 + 0.01 \log_2 0.01) = 0.08 bits.$

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#### Information

- p positive and n negative examples at the root  $\Rightarrow B(p/(p+n))$  bits needed to classify a new example.
- Attribute A splits the examples E into subsets  $E_k$ , each of which (we hope) needs less information to complete the classification.
- Let  $E_k$  have  $p_k$  positive and  $n_k$  negative examples  $\Rightarrow B(p_k/(p_k + n_k))$  bits needed to classify a new example  $\Rightarrow$  expected number of bits per example over all branches is

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

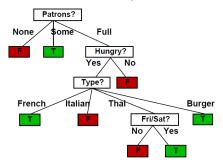
- For *Patrons*, this is 0.459 bits; for *Type*, this is (still) 1 bit
   ⇒ Choose the attribute that minimizes the remaining information.
  - ⇒ Choose the attribute with the most information gain:

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

4D> 4A> 4B> 4B> B 990

### Decision Tree Learned from the Examples

• Decision tree learned from the 12 examples:



• Substantially simpler than a full tree — a more complex hypothesis isn't justified by small amount of data.

#### Model Evaluation

- Metrics for Performance Evaluation
  - How to evaluate the performance of a model?
- Methods for Performance Evaluation
  - How to obtain reliable estimates?
- Methods for Model Comparison
  - How to compare the relative performance among competing models?

### Metrics for Performance Evaluation

Confusion matrix:

|        | PREDICTED CLASS |            |          |  |  |  |  |  |
|--------|-----------------|------------|----------|--|--|--|--|--|
|        | Те              | *Class=Yes | Class=No |  |  |  |  |  |
| ACTUAL | Class=Yes       | True       | False    |  |  |  |  |  |
| CLASS  |                 | Positive   | Negative |  |  |  |  |  |
| CLASS  | Class=No        | False      | True     |  |  |  |  |  |
|        |                 | Positive   | Negative |  |  |  |  |  |

### Accuracy

$$Accuracy = rac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$
對角線最大化約好

- Probably most widely-used metric.
- Can be misleading. Consider class 0 consisting of 9990 instances and class 1 consisting of 10 instances. Classifying everything as class 0 yields 99.9% accuracy.

#### Other Metrics

$$Precision(p) = rac{TP}{TP + FP}$$
 $Recall(r) = rac{TP}{TP + FN}$ 
 $F - measure(F) = rac{2pr}{p+r} = rac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN}$ 

#### Performance Measurement

- How do we know whether  $h \approx c$ ?
  - Use theorems of computational/statistical learning theory
  - 2 Try h on a new test set of examples (use same distribution over example space as training set)
- Learning curve = % correct on test set as a function of training set size



#### Cross-Validation

```
data 不會均分
test data < train data (e.g. 1:3, 1:4...)
```

- The idea of having training and testing sets is called cross-validation.
- Holdout cross-validation
  - Randomly split the available data into a training set and a testing set.
  - Simple, fast, but not able to use all available data.
- k-fold cross-validation
   random均分成k份
  第n次用第n組當testing data、剩下k-1組training data
  - Randomly split the data into k equal-sized subsets.
  - Perform k rounds of learning using k-1 subsets as training and the rest as testing.
  - Popular choice of k is 5 to 10.
  - Accurate statistics, but longer computation.

### **ROC**

- Receiver operating characteristic.
- ROC curve: FPR as x-axis; TPR as y-axis.

$$FPR(FP \ rate) = \frac{FP}{FP + TN}$$

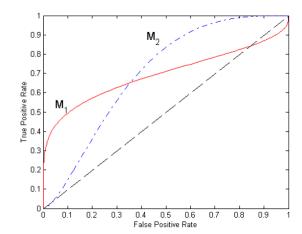
$$TPR(TP \ rate) = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

- (FPR, TPR):
  - (0,0): Classify everything as negative.
  - (1,1): Classify everything as positive.
  - (0,1): Ideal. 沒有東西弄錯



#### **AUC**

- Model 1 is better for small FPR.
- Model 2 is better for large FPR.
- Area under the ROC curve (AUC).
  - Ideal: 1.
  - Random guess: 0.5.



# Generalization and Overfitting

- If some attributes are irrelevant, DTL still outputs a large tree.
  - The outputs of fair dices with attributes of color, size, and so on.
- To overcome overfitting,
  - we can stop growing the tree before overfitting,
  - or we can allow overfitting, and then post-prune the tree (most common).
- How to decide what to post-prune?

  - Use statistical tests.
  - Use explicit measures the complexity of the encoding of the tree and training examples (minimum description length principle).

# $\chi^2$ Pruning

- Information gain of an irrelevant attribute is expected to be zero, but the sampling noise may still yield some gain.
- Assuming true irrelevant, the expected number of  $p_k$  and  $n_k$  can be expressed as

$$\hat{p}_k = \frac{p}{p+n} \times (p_k + n_k)$$
  $\hat{n}_k = \frac{n}{p+n} \times (p_k + n_k)$ 

- Define  $\triangle = \sum_k \frac{(p_k \hat{p}_k)^2}{\hat{p}_k} + \frac{(n_k \hat{n}_k)^2}{\hat{n}_k}$ ,  $\triangle$  is of  $\chi^2$  distribution with (n + p 1) degree of freedom.
- For example, with 3 degree of freedom,  $\triangle \le 7.82$  encourages the pruning with 5% level of significance.

# Rule Post-Pruning

J48 v8

• Used by C4.5rules [Quinlan, 1993].

tree 沒有避免 overfititng

- ① Convert the decision tree into rules (one rule per path).
- 3 Sort the the pruned rules by their accuracy, and consider them in this sequence when classifying instances.
  - For example,

```
rule (Patron = Full) \land (Hungry = No) \Rightarrow (WillWait = False).
```

 Rule post-pruning considers removing (Patron = Full) and (Hungry = NO) in this example.

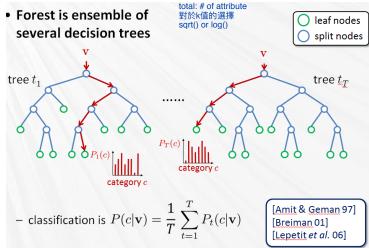
#### Ensemble

- Use multiple weak classifiers to prevent from overfitting.
- Embedding
- Bagging
- Boosting

# **Embedding**

#### ≈ Kernel method

ullet Random forest: randomly select k attributes to create weak classifiers.



# Bagging

• Sampling with replacement from the dataset to form new datasets.

| Original Data     | 1 | 2 | 3  | 4  | 5 | 6 | 7  | 8  | 9 | 10 |
|-------------------|---|---|----|----|---|---|----|----|---|----|
| Bagging (Round 1) | 7 | 8 | 10 | 8  | 2 | 5 | 10 | 10 | 5 | 9  |
| Bagging (Round 2) | 1 | 4 | 9  | 1  | 2 | 3 | 2  | 7  | 3 | 2  |
| Bagging (Round 3) | 1 | 8 | 5  | 10 | 5 | 5 | 9  | 6  | 3 | 7  |

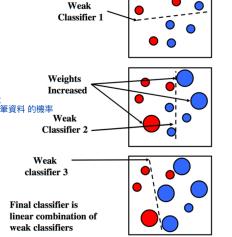
- Build classifier on each bootstrap sample (supposedly n items).
- Probability  $(1-1/n)^n$  of not being selected.n 個通通沒被選到
- When *n* is large, it is about  $1/e \simeq 37\%$
- About 37% of noise (if any) not being selected.

好處: 有可能完全沒有noise

### Boosting

if preprocessing is good, boosting if not, bagging is better.

- An iterative procedure to adaptively change distribution of training data by focusing more on previously misclassified records.
- Initially, all n items are assigned equal weights.
- Unlike bagging, weights vary at the end of boosting round.



#### AdaBoost

- Weak classifiers: C<sub>i</sub>
- Error rates:

$$\epsilon_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=i}^{N} w_j \cdot \delta[C_i(x_j) \neq y_j]$$

• Importance of a classifier:

錯誤率越小 越重要

$$\alpha_i = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1 - \epsilon_i}{\epsilon_i}$$

• Weight update (c normalization factor):

$$w_j \leftarrow c \cdot w_j egin{cases} e^{-lpha_i} & C_i(x_j) = y_j & ext{ yi find} \\ e^{lpha_i} & C_i(x_j) \neq y_j & ext{ find} \end{cases}$$

#### AdaBoost

- The equations of the previous slide are such to minimize the total error. We omit the derivations here.
- Initially,  $w_j = \frac{1}{N}$ .
- Any intermediate round yields error rate higher than 0.5, weights are reverted back to  $\frac{1}{N}$ .
- Classification:

$$C^*(x) = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{j} \alpha_j \cdot \delta[C_j(x) = y]$$



## Summary

- Decision tree learning using information gain.
- Learning performance = prediction accuracy measured on test set.
- Cross-validation combats overfitting.
- Bayesian learning is reasonable, but computationally expensive. A common simplification is the MAP learning.
- MAP learning reduces to finding the ML hypothesis when assuming all hypotheses are equally probable.
- Prior that penalizes complexity combat overfitting and results in MDL.
- Bayesian networks provide a natural representation for (causally induced) conditional independence.
- Topology + CPTs = compact representation of joint distribution.
- Bayesian networks are generally easy to construct with human knowledge or other machine learning techniques.