



Decision Trees

Petr Pošík

This lecture is largely based on the book
Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach, 3rd ed.
by Stuart Russell and Peter Norvig (Prentice Hall, 2010).



Decision Trees



What is a decision tree?

Decision tree

- is a function that
 - takes a vector of attribute values as its input, and
 - returns a “decision” as its output.
 - Both input and output values can be measured on a nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio scales, can be discrete or continuous.
- The decision is formed via a sequence of tests:
 - each internal node of the tree represents a test,
 - the branches are labeled with possible outcomes of the test, and
 - each leaf node represents a decision to be returned by the tree.

Decision Trees

- What is a decision tree?
- Attribute description
- Expressiveness of decision trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary



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Decision trees examples:

- classification schemata in biology (určovací klíče)
- diagnostic sections in illness encyclopedias
- online troubleshooting section on software web pages
- ...

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Attribute description

Example: A computer game.

The main character of the game meets various robots along his way. Some behave like **allies**, others like **enemies**.

Decision Trees

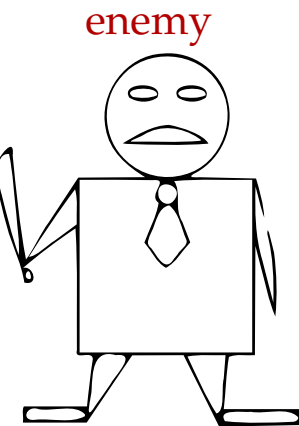
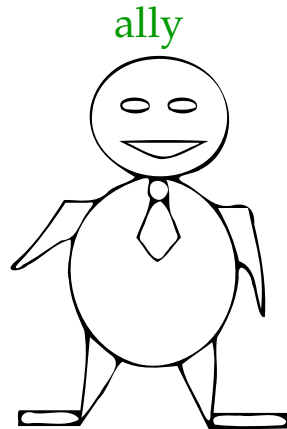
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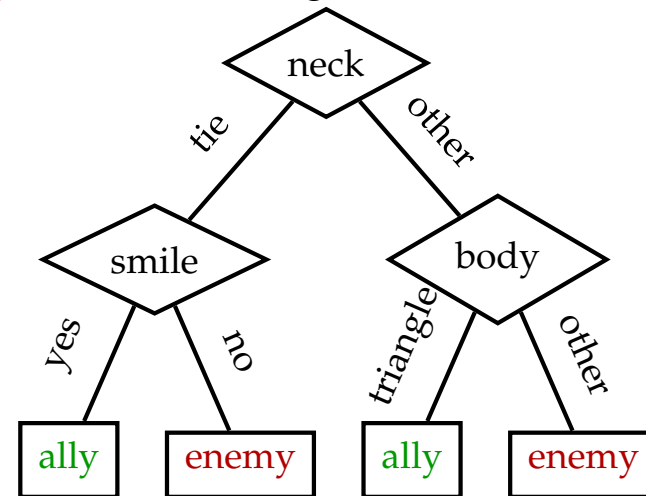
Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary



head	body	smile	neck	holds	class
circle	circle	yes	tie	nothing	ally
circle	square	no	tie	sword	enemy
...

The game engine may use e.g. the following tree to assign the **ally** or **enemy** attitude to the generated robots:





Expressiveness of decision trees

The tree on previous slide is a Boolean decision tree:

- the decision is a binary variable (true, false), and
- the attributes are discrete.
- It returns **ally** iff the input attributes satisfy one of the paths leading to an **ally** leaf:

$$ally \Leftrightarrow (neck = tie \wedge smile = yes) \vee (neck = \neg tie \wedge body = triangle),$$

i.e. in general

- $Goal \Leftrightarrow (Path_1 \vee Path_2 \vee \dots)$, where
- $Path$ is a conjunction of attribute-value tests, i.e.
- the tree is equivalent to a DNF of a function.

Any function in propositional logic can be expressed as a dec. tree.

- Trees are a suitable representation for some functions and unsuitable for others.
- What is the cardinality of the set of Boolean functions of n attributes?
 - It is equal to the number of truth tables that can be created with n attributes.
 - The truth table has 2^n rows, i.e. there is 2^{2^n} different functions.
 - The set of trees is even larger; several trees represent the same function.
- We need a clever algorithm to find good hypotheses (trees) in such a large space.

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Learning a Decision Tree



A computer game

Example 1:

Can you distinguish between **allies** and **enemies** after seeing a few of them?

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

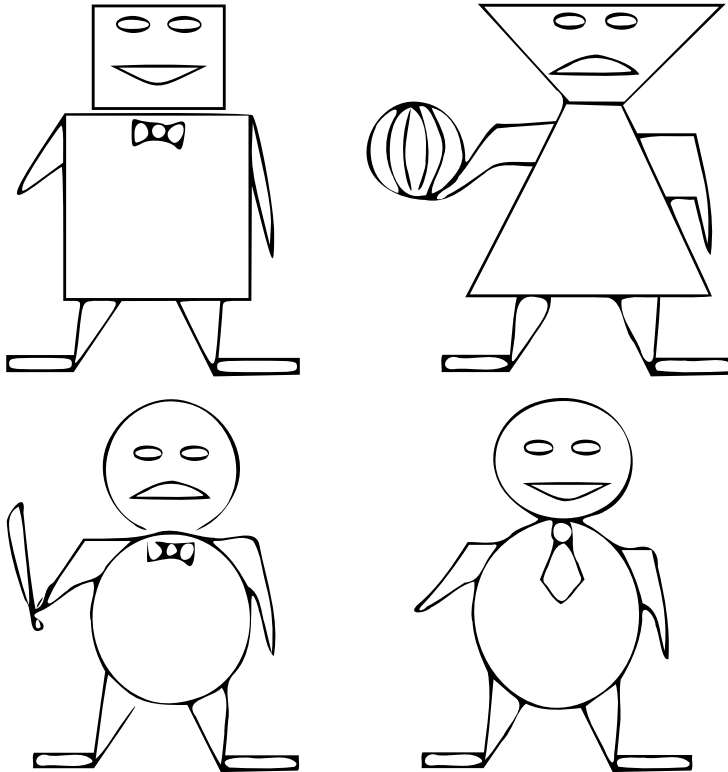
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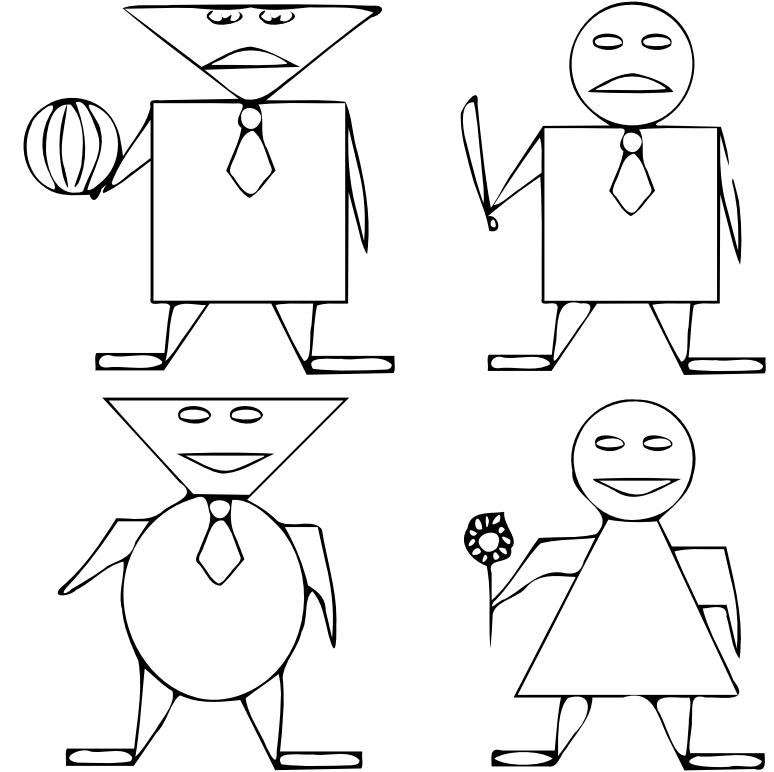
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Allies



Enemies





A computer game

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Decision Trees

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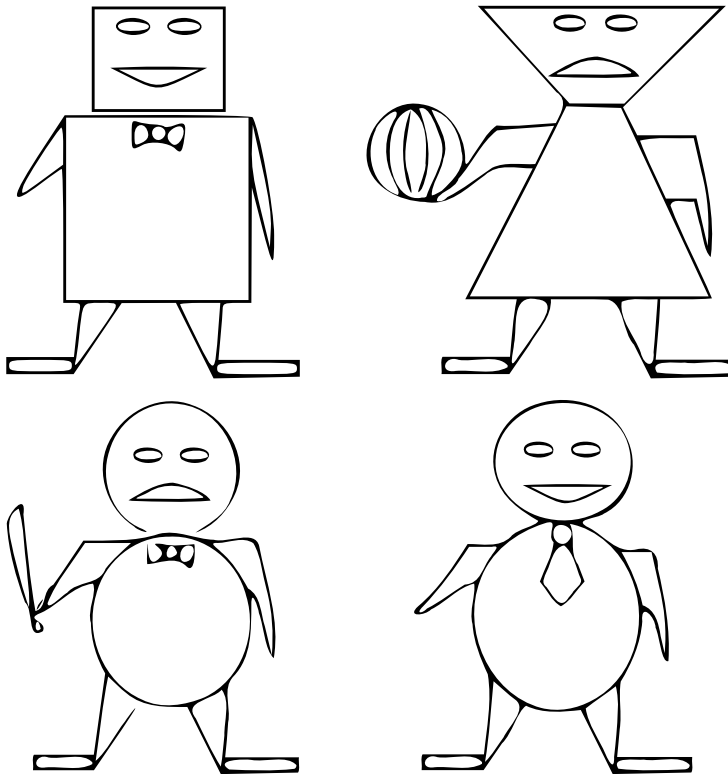
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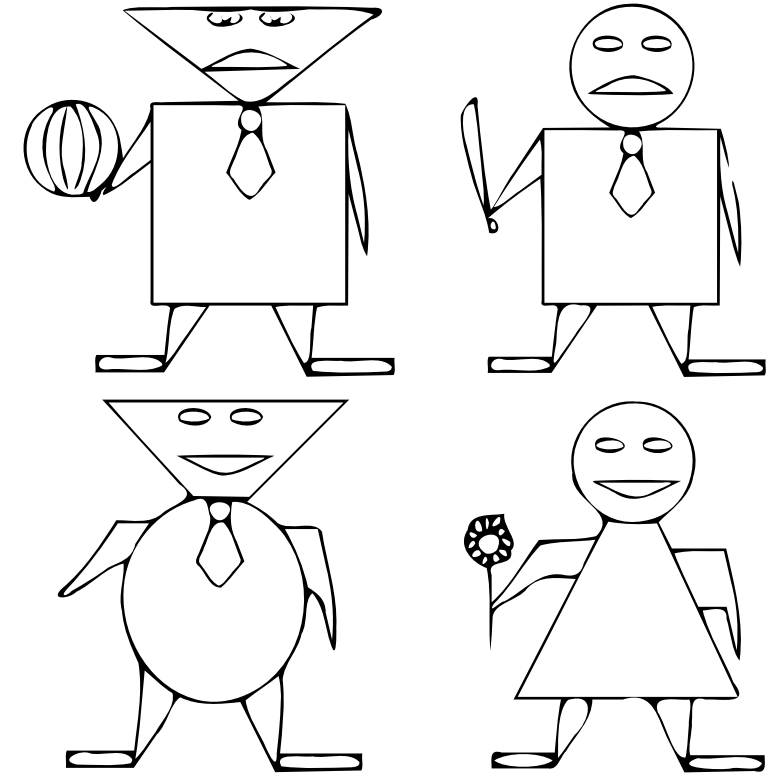
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Allies



Enemies



Hint: concentrate on the shapes of heads and bodies.



A computer game

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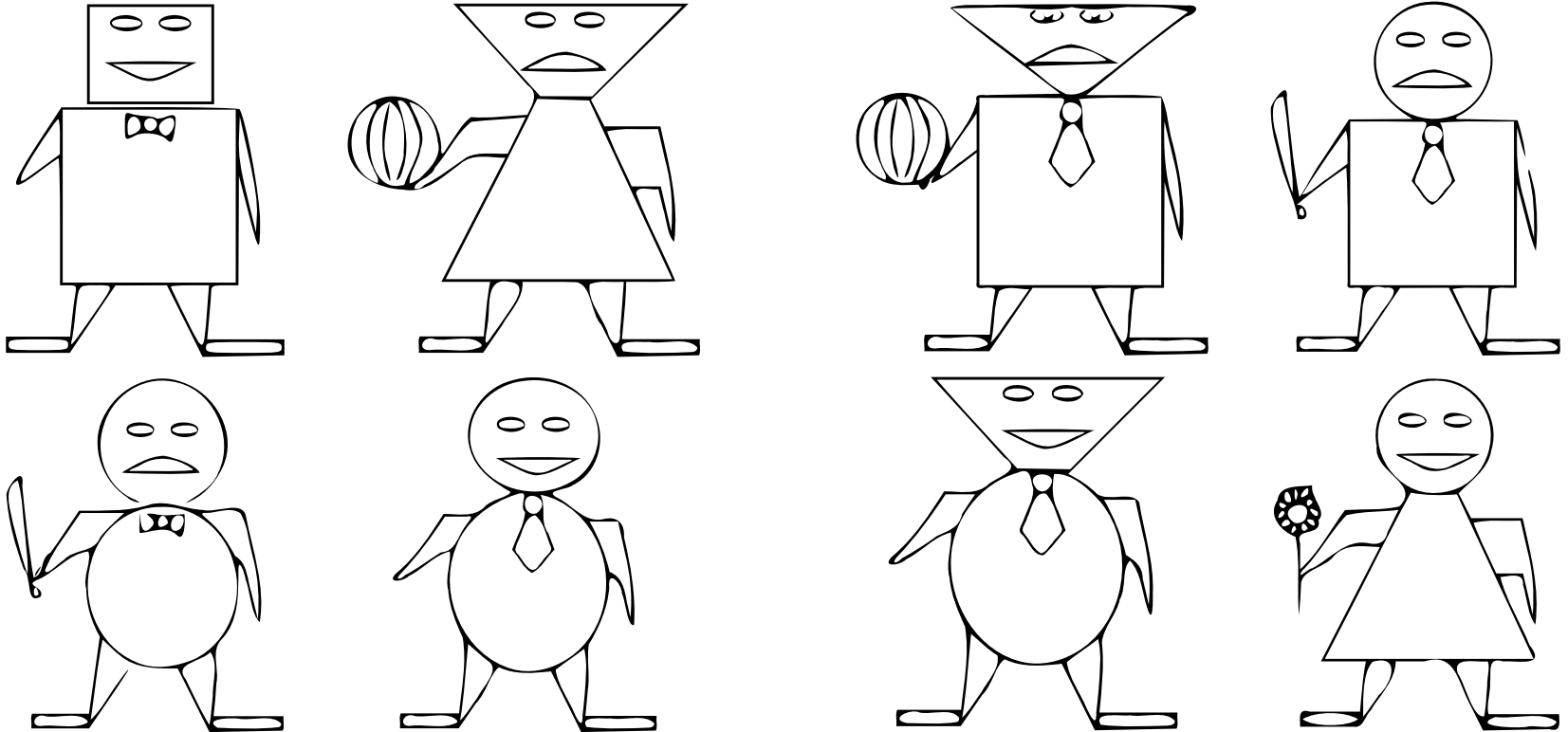
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Allies

Enemies



Hint: concentrate on the shapes of heads and bodies.

Answer: Seems like allies have the same shape of their head and body.

How would you represent this by a decision tree? (Relation among attributes.)



A computer game

Example 1:

Can you distinguish between **allies** and **enemies** after seeing a few of them?

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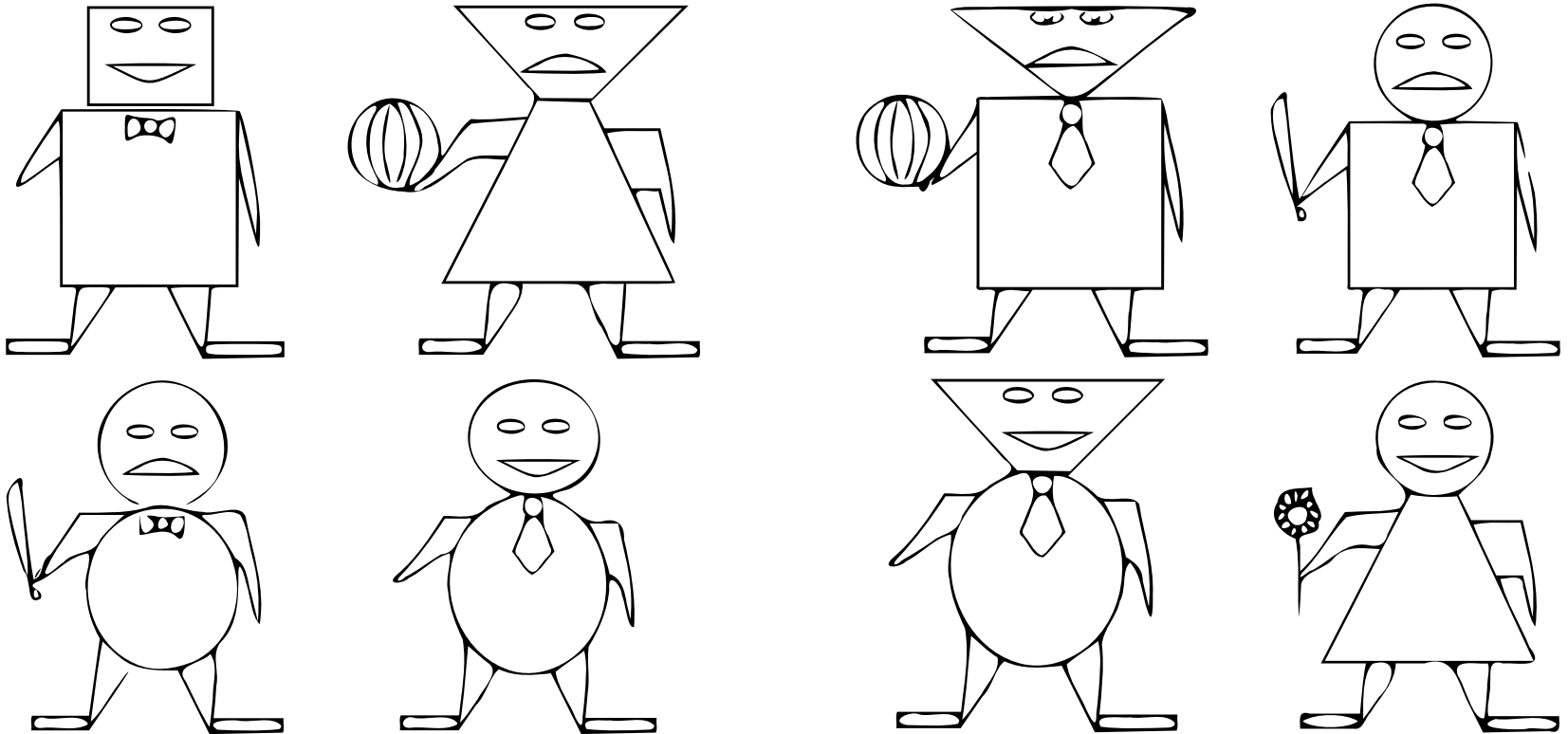
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Hint: concentrate on the shapes of heads and bodies.

Answer: Seems like allies have the same shape of their head and body.

How would you represent this by a decision tree? (Relation among attributes.)

How do you know that you are right?



A computer game

Example 2:
Some robots changed their attitudes:

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

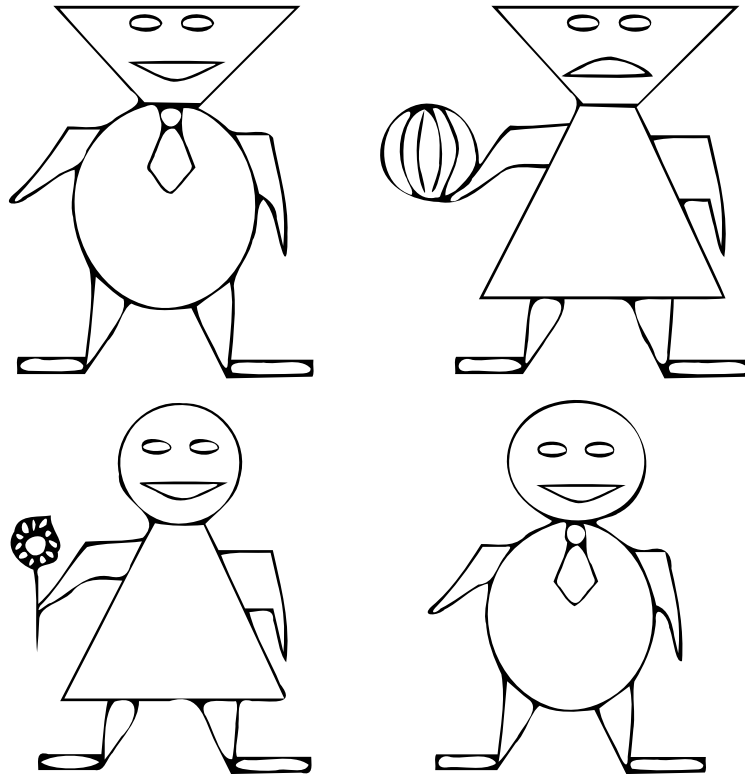
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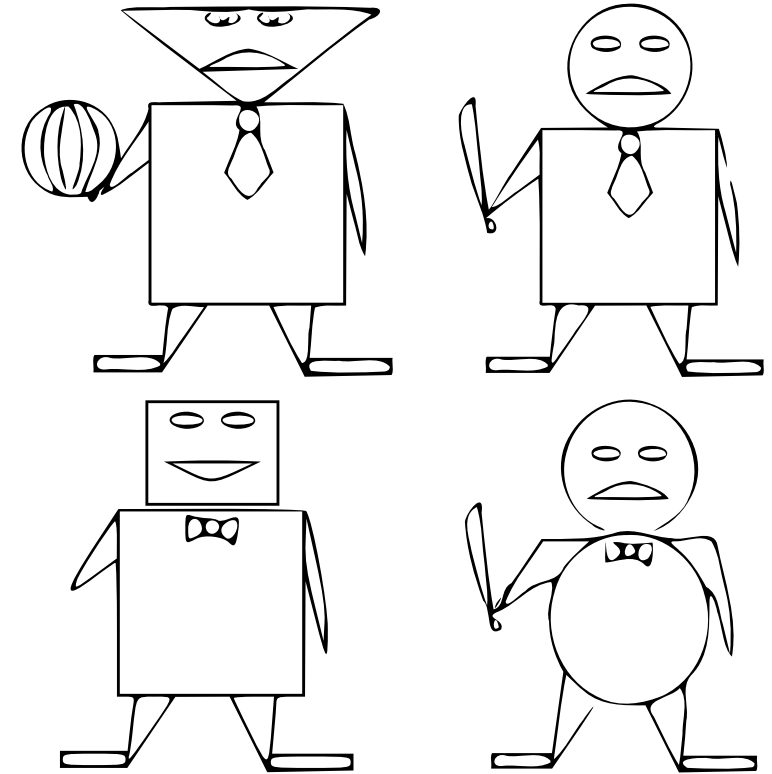
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Allies



Enemies





A computer game

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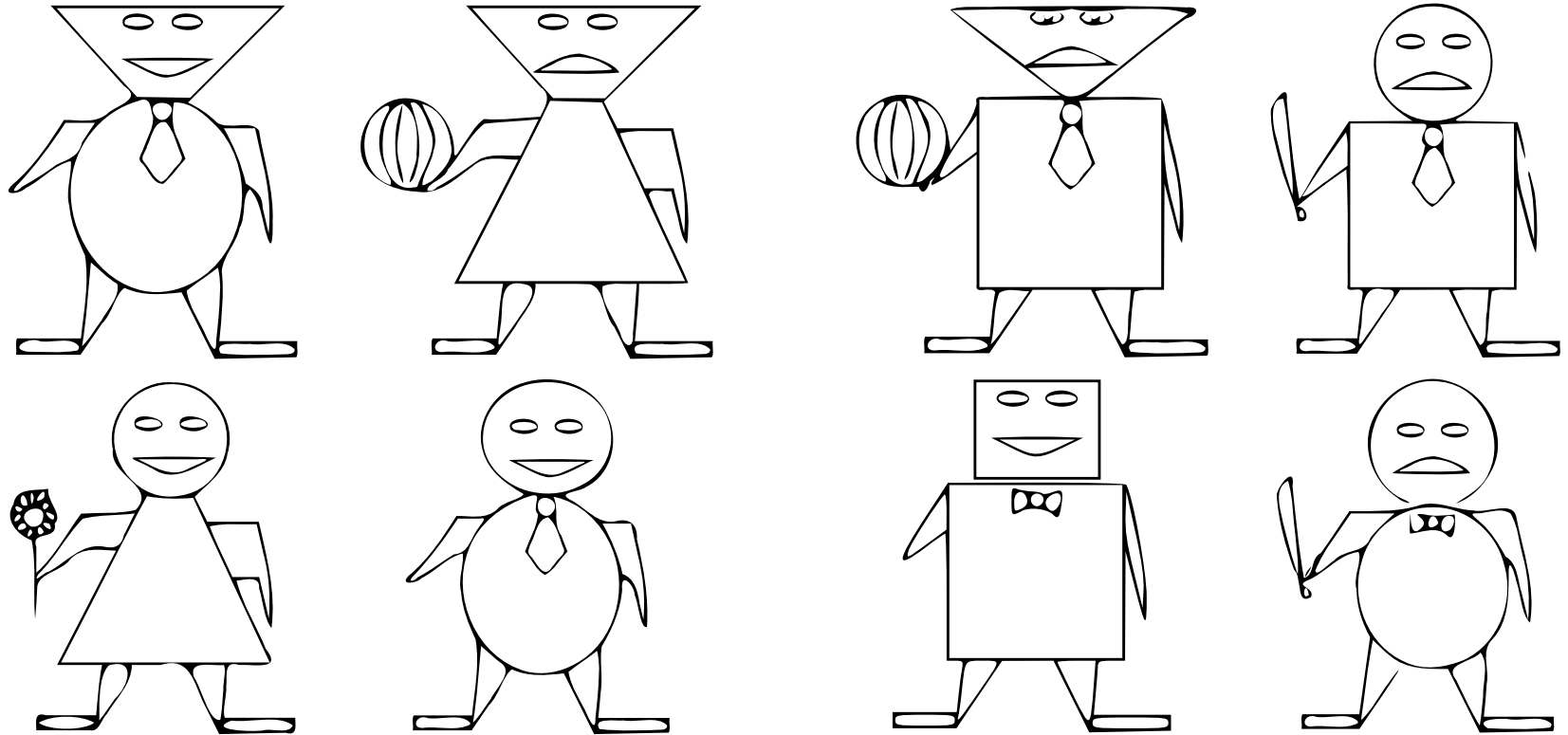
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No obvious simple rule.

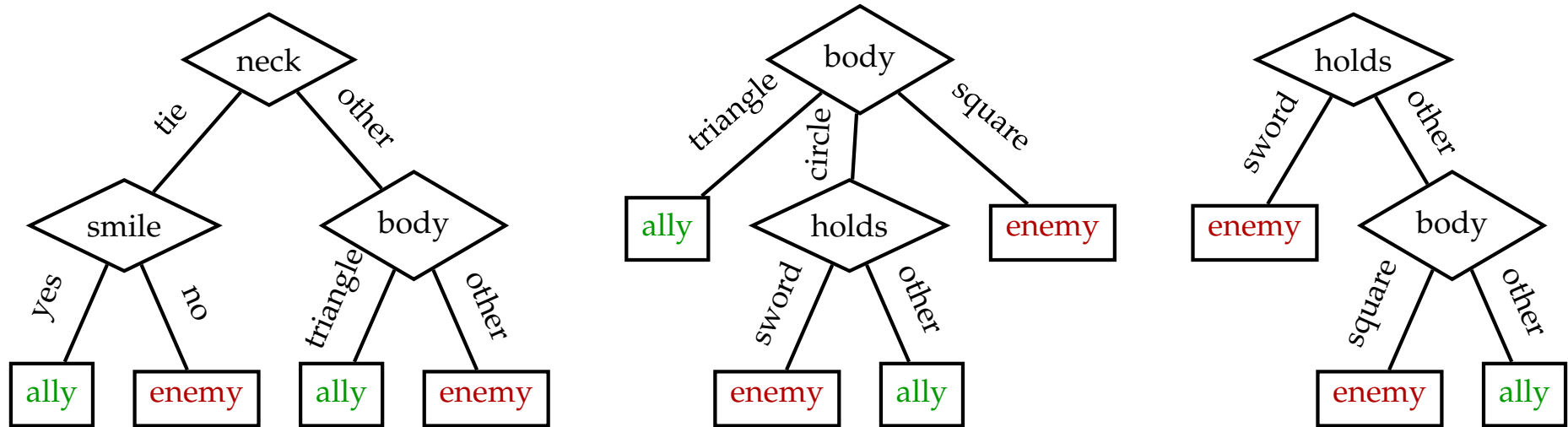
How to build a decision tree discriminating the 2 robot classes?

Alternative hypotheses

Example 2: Attribute description:

head	body	smile	neck	holds	class
triangle	circle	yes	tie	nothing	ally
triangle	triangle	no	nothing	ball	ally
circle	triangle	yes	nothing	flower	ally
circle	circle	yes	tie	nothing	ally
triangle	square	no	tie	ball	enemy
circle	square	no	tie	sword	enemy
square	square	yes	bow	nothing	enemy
circle	circle	no	bow	sword	enemy

Alternative hypotheses (suggested by an oracle for now): Which of the trees is the best (right) one?





How to choose the best tree?

We want a tree that is

- **consistent** with the data,
- is as **small** as possible, and
- which also **works for new data**.

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Consistent with data?

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Consistent with data?

- All 3 trees are consistent.

Small?

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Consistent with data?

- All 3 trees are consistent.

Small?

- The right-hand side one is the simplest one:

	left	middle	right
depth	2	2	2
leaves	4	4	3
conditions	3	2	2

Will it work for new data?

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How to choose the best tree?

We want a tree that is

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Consistent with data?

- All 3 trees are consistent.

Small?

- The right-hand side one is the simplest one:

	left	middle	right
depth	2	2	2
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conditions	3	2	2

Will it work for new data?

- We have no idea!
- We need a set of new testing data (different data from the same source).

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Summary



Learning a Decision Tree

It is an intractable problem to find **the smallest consistent tree** among $> 2^{2^n}$ trees.
We can find approximate solution: **a small (but not the smallest) consistent tree**.

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Top-Down Induction of Decision Trees (TDIDT):

- A greedy divide-and-conquer strategy.
- Progress:
 1. Find the most important attribute.
 2. Divide the data set using the attribute values.
 3. For each subset, build an independent tree (recursion).
- “Most important attribute”: attribute that makes the most difference to the classification.
- All paths in the tree will be short, the tree will be shallow.

Attribute importance

head		body		smile		neck		holds		class
triangle		circle		yes		tie		nothing		ally
triangle		triangle		no		nothing		ball		ally
circle		triangle		yes		nothing		flower		ally
circle		circle		yes		tie		nothing		ally
triangle		square		no		tie		ball		enemy
circle		square		no		tie		sword		enemy
square		square		yes		bow		nothing		enemy
circle		circle		no		bow		sword		enemy
triangle:	2:1	triangle:	2:0	yes:	3:1	tie:	2:2	ball:	1:1	
circle:	2:2	circle:	2:1	no:	1:3	bow:	0:2	sword:	0:2	
square:	0:1	square:	0:3			nothing:	2:0	flower:	1:0	
								nothing:	2:1	

Attribute importance

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circle: 2:2	circle: 2:1	no: 1:3	bow: 0:2	sword: 0:2	
square: 0:1	square: 0:3		nothing: 2:0	flower: 1:0	
				nothing: 2:1	

A perfect attribute divides the examples into sets containing only a single class. (Do you remember the simply created perfect attribute from Example 1?)

A useless attribute divides the examples into sets containing the same distribution of classes as the set before splitting.

None of the above attributes is perfect or useless. Some are more useful than others.

Choosing the test attribute

Information gain:

- Formalization of the terms “useless”, “perfect”, “more useful”.
- Based on entropy, a measure of the uncertainty of a random variable V with possible values v_i :

$$H(V) = - \sum_i p(v_i) \log_2 p(v_i)$$

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- Entropy of the target class C measured on a data set S (a finite-sample estimate of the true entropy):

$$H(C, S) = - \sum_i p(c_i) \log_2 p(c_i),$$

where $p(c_i) = \frac{N_S(c_i)}{|S|}$, and $N_S(c_i)$ is the number of examples in S that belong to class c_i .

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- The entropy of the target class C **remaining in the data set S after splitting** into subsets S_k using values of attribute A (weighted average of the entropies in individual subsets):

$$H(C, S, A) = \sum_k p(S_k) H(C, S_k), \quad \text{where } p(S_k) = \frac{|S_k|}{|S|}$$

- The information gain of attribute A for a data set S is

$$\text{Gain}(A, S) = H(C, S) - H(C, S, A).$$

Choose the attribute with the highest information gain, i.e. the attribute with the lowest $H(C, S, A)$.



Choosing the test attribute (special case: binary classification)

- For a Boolean random variable V which is true with probability q , we can define:

$$H_B(q) = -q \log_2 q - (1 - q) \log_2(1 - q)$$

- Entropy of the target class C measured on a data set S with N_p positive and N_n negative examples:

$$H(C, S) = H_B \left(\frac{N_p}{N_p + N_n} \right) = H_B \left(\frac{N_p}{|S|} \right)$$

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Choosing the test attribute (example)

head	body	smile	neck	holds
triangle: 2:1	triangle: 2:0	yes: 3:1	tie: 2:2	ball: 1:1
circle: 2:2	circle: 2:1	no: 1:3	bow: 0:2	sword: 0:2
square: 0:1	square: 0:3		nothing: 2:0	flower: 1:0
				nothing: 2:1

head:

$$p(S_{\text{head=tri}}) = \frac{3}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{head=tri}}) = H_B\left(\frac{2}{2+1}\right) = 0.92$$

$$p(S_{\text{head=cir}}) = \frac{4}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{head=cir}}) = H_B\left(\frac{2}{2+2}\right) = 1$$

$$p(S_{\text{head=sq}}) = \frac{1}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{head=sq}}) = H_B\left(\frac{0}{0+1}\right) = 0$$

$$H(C, S, \text{head}) = \frac{3}{8} \cdot 0.92 + \frac{4}{8} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{8} \cdot 0 = 0.84$$

$$\text{Gain}(\text{head}, S) = 1 - 0.84 = 0.16$$

body:

$$p(S_{\text{body=tri}}) = \frac{2}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{body=tri}}) = H_B\left(\frac{2}{2+0}\right) = 0$$

$$p(S_{\text{body=cir}}) = \frac{3}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{body=cir}}) = H_B\left(\frac{2}{2+1}\right) = 0.92$$

$$p(S_{\text{body=sq}}) = \frac{3}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{body=sq}}) = H_B\left(\frac{0}{0+3}\right) = 0$$

$$H(C, S, \text{body}) = \frac{2}{8} \cdot 0 + \frac{3}{8} \cdot 0.92 + \frac{3}{8} \cdot 0 = 0.35$$

$$\text{Gain}(\text{body}, S) = 1 - 0.35 = 0.65$$

smile:

$$p(S_{\text{smile=yes}}) = \frac{4}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{smile=yes}}) = H_B\left(\frac{3}{3+1}\right) = 0.81$$

$$p(S_{\text{smile=no}}) = \frac{4}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{smile=no}}) = H_B\left(\frac{1}{1+3}\right) = 0.81$$

$$H(C, S, \text{smile}) = \frac{4}{8} \cdot 0.81 + \frac{4}{8} \cdot 0.81 + \frac{3}{8} \cdot 0 = 0.81$$

$$\text{Gain}(\text{smile}, S) = 1 - 0.81 = 0.19$$

neck:

$$p(S_{\text{neck=tie}}) = \frac{4}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{neck=tie}}) = H_B\left(\frac{2}{2+2}\right) = 1$$

$$p(S_{\text{neck=bow}}) = \frac{2}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{neck=bow}}) = H_B\left(\frac{0}{0+2}\right) = 0$$

$$p(S_{\text{neck=no}}) = \frac{2}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{neck=no}}) = H_B\left(\frac{2}{2+0}\right) = 0$$

$$H(C, S, \text{neck}) = \frac{4}{8} \cdot 1 + \frac{2}{8} \cdot 0 + \frac{2}{8} \cdot 0 = 0.5$$

$$\text{Gain}(\text{neck}, S) = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5$$

holds:

$$p(S_{\text{holds=ball}}) = \frac{2}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{holds=ball}}) = H_B\left(\frac{1}{1+1}\right) = 1$$

$$p(S_{\text{holds=swo}}) = \frac{2}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{holds=swo}}) = H_B\left(\frac{0}{0+2}\right) = 0$$

$$p(S_{\text{holds=flo}}) = \frac{1}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{holds=flo}}) = H_B\left(\frac{1}{1+0}\right) = 0$$

$$p(S_{\text{holds=no}}) = \frac{3}{8}; H(C, S_{\text{holds=no}}) = H_B\left(\frac{2}{2+1}\right) = 0.92$$

$$H(C, S, \text{holds}) = \frac{2}{8} \cdot 1 + \frac{2}{8} \cdot 0 + \frac{1}{8} \cdot 0 + \frac{3}{8} \cdot 0.92 = 0.6$$

$$\text{Gain}(\text{holds}, S) = 1 - 0.6 = 0.4$$

The body attribute

- brings us the largest information gain, thus
- it shall be chosen for the first test in the tree!

Choosing subsequent test attribute

No further tests are needed for robots with triangular and squared bodies.

Dataset for robots with circular bodies:

head	body	smile	neck	holds	class
triangle	circle	yes	tie	nothing	ally
circle	circle	yes	tie	nothing	ally
circle	circle	no	bow	sword	enemy
triangle: 1:0		yes: 2:0	tie: 2:0	nothing: 2:0	
circle: 1:1		no: 0:1	bow: 0:1	sword: 0:1	

Choosing subsequent test attribute

No further tests are needed for robots with triangular and squared bodies.

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circle:	1:1	no:	0:1	bow:	0:1	sword:	0:1

All the attributes **smile**, **neck**, and **holds**

- take up the remaining entropy in the data set, and
- are equally good for the test in the group of robots with circular bodies.



Decision tree building procedure

Algorithm 1: BuildDT

Input : the set of examples S ,
the set of attributes \mathcal{A} ,
majority class of the parent node C_P

Output: a decision tree

```
1 begin
2   if  $S$  is empty then return leaf with  $C_P$ 
3    $C \leftarrow$  majority class in  $S$ 
4   if all examples in  $S$  belong to the same class  $C$  then return leaf with  $C$ 
5   if  $\mathcal{A}$  is empty then return leaf with  $C$ 
6    $A \leftarrow \arg \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \text{Gain}(a, S)$ 
7    $T \leftarrow$  a new decision tree with root test on attribute  $A$ 
8   foreach value  $v_k$  of  $A$  do
9      $S_k \leftarrow \{x \mid x \in S \wedge x.A = v_k\}$ 
10     $t_k \leftarrow \text{BuildDT}(S_k, \mathcal{A} - A, C)$ 
11    add branch to  $T$  with label  $A = v_k$  and attach a subtree  $t_k$ 
12 return tree  $T$ 
```

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

- A computer game
- A computer game
- Alternative hypotheses
- How to choose the best tree?
- Learning a Decision Tree
- Attribute importance
- Choosing the test attribute
- Choosing the test attribute (special case: binary classification)
- Choosing the test attribute (example)
- Choosing subsequent test attribute
- **Decision tree building procedure**
- Algorithm characteristics

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary



Algorithm characteristics

- There are many hypotheses (trees) consistent with the dataset S ; the algorithm will return any of them, unless there is some bias in choosing the tests.
- The current set of considered hypotheses has always only 1 member (greedy selection of the successor). The algorithm cannot provide answer to the question how many hypotheses consistent with the data exist.
- The algorithm does not use backtracking; it can get stuck in a local optimum.
- The algorithm uses batch learning, not incremental.

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Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary



Generalization and Overfitting

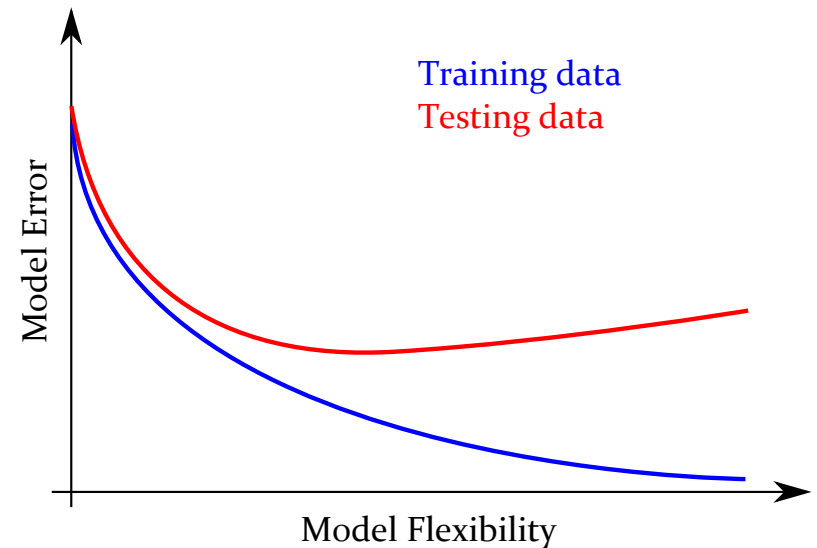
Overfitting

Definition of overfitting:

- Let H be a hypothesis space.
- Let $h \in H$ and $h' \in H$ be 2 different hypotheses from this space.
- Let $\text{Err}_{\text{Tr}}(h)$ be an error of the hypothesis h measured on the training dataset (training error).
- Let $\text{Err}_{\text{Tst}}(h)$ be an error of the hypothesis h measured on the testing dataset (testing error).
- We say that h is overfitted if there is another h' for which

$$\text{Err}_{\text{Tr}}(h) < \text{Err}_{\text{Tr}}(h') \wedge \text{Err}_{\text{Tst}}(h) > \text{Err}_{\text{Tst}}(h')$$

- “When overfitted, the model works well for the training data, but fails for new (testing) data.”
- Overfitting is a general phenomenon related to all kinds of inductive learning (i.e. it applies to all models, not only trees).



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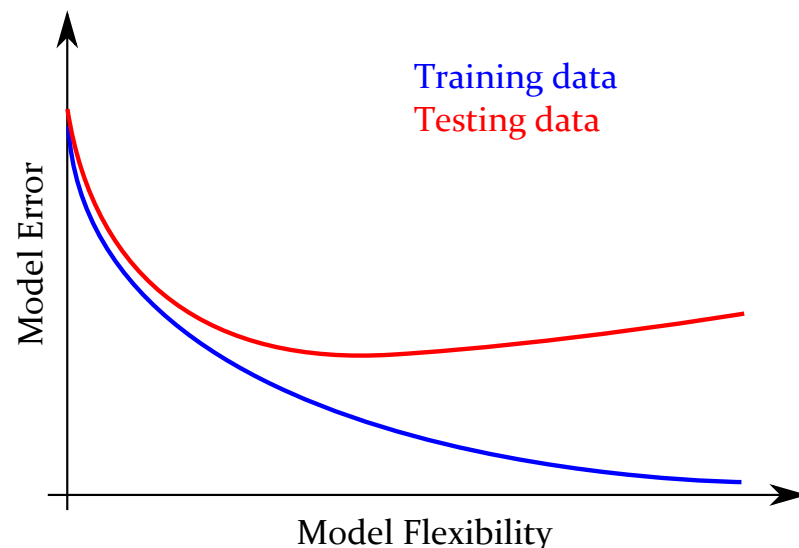
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We want models and learning algorithms with a good **generalization ability**, i.e.

- we want models that encode *only the patterns valid in the whole domain*, not those that learned the specifics of the training data,
- we want algorithms able to find *only the patterns valid in the whole domain* and ignore specifics of the training data.





How to prevent overfitting for trees?

Tree pruning:

- Let's have a fully grown tree T .
- Choose a test node having only leaf nodes as descendants.
- If the test appears to be irrelevant, remove the test and replace it with a leaf node with the majority class.
- Repeat, until all tests seem to be relevant.

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

- Overfitting
 - How to prevent overfitting for trees?

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary



How to prevent overfitting for trees?

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How to check if the split is (ir)relevant?

1. Using statistical χ^2 test:
 - If the distribution of classes in the leaves does not differ much from the distribution of classes in their parent, the split is irrelevant.
2. Using an (independent) validation data set:
 - Create a temporary tree by replacing a subtree with a leaf.
 - If the error on validation set decreased, accept the pruned tree.

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

- Overfitting
- **How to prevent overfitting for trees?**

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary



How to prevent overfitting for trees?

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Early stopping:

- Hmm, if we grow the tree fully and then prune it, why cannot we just stop the tree building when there is no good attribute to split on?
- Prevents us from recognizing situations when
 - there is no single good attribute to split on, but
 - there are combinations of attributes that lead to a good tree!

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

- Overfitting
- How to prevent overfitting for trees?

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary



Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees



Missing data

Decision trees are one of the rare model types able to handle missing attribute values.

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

- Missing data
- Multivalued attributes
- Attributes with different prices
- Continuous input attributes
- Continuous output variable

Summary

1. Given a complete tree, how to classify an example with a missing attribute value needed for a test?
 - Pretend that the object has all possible values for this attribute.
 - Track all possible paths to the leaves.
 - The leaf decisions are weighted using the number of training examples in the leaves.
2. How to build a tree if the training set contains examples with missing attribute values?
 - Introduce a new attribute value: “Missing” (or N/A).
 - Build tree in a normal way.



Multivalued attributes

What if the training set contains e.g. name, social insurance number, or other id?

- When each example has a unique value of an attribute A , the information gain of A is equal to the entropy of the whole data set!
- Attribute A is chosen for the tree root; yet, such a tree is useless (overfitted).

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

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Solutions:

1. Allow only Boolean test of the form $A = v_k$ and allow the remaining values to be tested later in the tree.
2. Use a different split importance measure instead of $Gain$, e.g. $GainRatio$:
 - Normalize the information gain by a maximal amount of information the split can have:

$$GainRatio(A, S) = \frac{Gain(A, S)}{H(A, S)},$$

where $H(A, S)$ is the entropy of attribute A and represents the largest information gain we can get from splitting using A .

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

- Missing data
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Summary



Attributes with different prices

What if the tests in the tree are also cost something?

- Then we would like to have the cheap test close to the root.
- If we have $Cost(A) \in \langle 0, 1 \rangle$ then we can use e.g.

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

or

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

to bias the preference for cheaper tests.

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

- Missing data
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- **Attributes with different prices**
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Summary



Continuous input attributes

Continuous or integer-valued input attributes:

- have an infinite set of possible values. (Infinitely many branches?)
- Use a binary split with the highest information gain.
 - Sort the values of the attribute.
 - Consider only split points lying between 2 examples with different classification.

Temperature	-20	-9	-2	5	16	26	32	35
Go out?	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No

- Previously used **attributes can be used again** in subsequent tests!

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

- Missing data
- Multivalued attributes
- Attributes with different prices
- **Continuous input attributes**
- Continuous output variable

Summary



Continuous output variable

Regression tree:

- In each leaf, it can have
 - a **constant value** (usually an average of the output variable over the training set), or
 - a **linear function** of some subset of numerical input attributes
- The learning algorithm must decide when to stop splitting and begin applying linear regression.

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

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Summary



Summary



Summary

Decision Trees

Learning a Decision Tree

Generalization and Overfitting

Broadening the Applicability of Decision Trees

Summary

- [Summary](#)

- Decision trees are one of the simplest, most universal and most widely used prediction models.
- They are not suitable for all modeling problems (relations, etc.).
- TDIDT is the most widely used technique to build a tree from data.
- It uses greedy divide-and-conquer approach.
- Individual variants differ mainly
 - in what type of attributes they are able to handle,
 - in the attribute importance measure,
 - if they make enumerative or just binary splits,
 - if and how they can handle missing data,
 - etc.