Decision Trees Random Forests

Definition

- A tree-like model that illustrates series of events leading to certain decisions
- Each node represents a test on an attribute and each branch is an outcome of that test

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- We use labeled data to obtain a suitable decision tree for future predictions
	- \triangleright We want a decision tree that works well on unseen data, while asking as few questions as possible

Yes

- Basic step: choose an attribute and, based on its values, split the data into smaller sets
	- \triangleright Recursively repeat this step until we can surely decide the label

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Weak

Strong

Weak

Strong

Yes

No

Yes

No

Normal

Normal

Normal

High

Cool

Cool

Mild

Mild

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Dutlook

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What is a good attribute?

- Which attribute provides better splitting?
- Why?
	- \triangleright Because the resulting subsets are more pure
	- \triangleright Knowing the value of this attribute gives us more information about the label (the entropy of the subsets is lower)

Information Gain

Entropy

• Entropy measures the degree of randomness in data

• For a set of samples X with k classes:

$$
entropy(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i \log_2(p_i)
$$

where \overline{p}_i is the proportion of elements of class i

• Lower entropy implies greater predictability!

Information Gain

• The information gain of an attribute a is the expected reduction in entropy due to splitting on values of a:

$$
gain(X,a) = entropy(X) - \sum_{v \in Values(a)} \frac{|X_v|}{|X|} entropy(X_v)
$$

where X_{ν} is the subset of X for which $a\ =\ \nu$

$$
entropy (X) = -p_{\text{mammal}} \log_2 p_{\text{mammal}} - p_{\text{bird}} \log_2 p_{\text{bird}} = -\frac{3}{7} \log_2 \frac{3}{7} - \frac{4}{7} \log_2 \frac{4}{7} \approx 0.985
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entropy (X_{color=brown}) = $-\frac{1}{3} \log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \log_2 \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.918$

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$$
\n
$$
gain (X, color) = 0.985 - \frac{3}{7} \cdot 0.918 - \frac{4}{7} \cdot 1 \approx 0.020
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entropy $(X_{fly=yes}) = 0$

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$$
\n
$$
entropy (X_{fly=yes}) = 0 \qquad entropy (X_{fly=no}) = -\frac{3}{4} \log_2 \frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} \approx 0.811
$$

In practice, we compute $entropy(X)$ only once!

Gini Impurity

Gini Impurity

• Gini impurity measures how often a randomly chosen example would be incorrectly labeled if it was randomly labeled according to the label distribution

Error of classifying randomly picked fruit with randomly picked label

• For a set of samples X with k classes:

$$
gini(X) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i^2
$$

where \overline{p}_i is the proportion of elements of class i

• Can be used as an alternative to entropy for selecting attributes!

Best attribute = highest impurity decrease

In practice, we compute $gini(X)$ only once!

7

7

Entropy versus Gini Impurity

- Entropy and Gini Impurity give similar results in practice
	- \triangleright They only disagree in about 2% of cases "Theoretical Comparison between the Gini Index and Information Gain Criteria" [Răileanu & Stoffel, AMAI 2004]
		- \triangleright Entropy might be slower to compute, because of the log

Pruning

Pruning

- Pruning is a technique that reduces the size of a decision tree by removing branches of the tree which provide little predictive power
- It is a **regularization** method that reduces the complexity of the final model, thus reducing overfitting
	- \triangleright Decision trees are prone to overfitting!
- Pruning methods:
	- ➢ Pre-pruning: Stop the tree building algorithm before it fully classifies the data
	- ➢ Post-pruning: Build the complete tree, then replace some nonleaf nodes with leaf nodes if this improves validation error

Pre-pruning

- Pre-pruning implies early stopping:
	- \triangleright If some condition is met, the current node will not be split, even if it is not 100% pure
- \triangleright It will become a leaf node with the label of the majority class in the current set (the class distribution could be used as prediction confidence)
- Common stopping criteria include setting a threshold on:
	- \triangleright Entropy (or Gini Impurity) of the current set
	- \triangleright Number of samples in the current set
	- \triangleright Gain of the best-splitting attribute
	- \triangleright Depth of the tree

Post-pruning

Post-pruning

Post-pruning

- How does the ID3 algorithm handle numerical attributes?
	- ➢ Any numerical attribute would almost always bring entropy down to zero
	- \triangleright This means it will completely overfit the training data

Consider a numerical value for humidity

- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
	- \triangleright Find the best splitting value Gain of numerical attribute a if we split at value t

$$
gain(X,a,t) = entropy(X) - \frac{|X_{a \le t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a \le t}) - \frac{|X_{a > t}|}{|X|} entropy(X_{a > t})
$$

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	- \triangleright Find the best splitting value

93

96

97

Yes

Yes

No

Humidity

90.

87

 -93

89

79

59

77

91

68

80

72

96

74

97

Yes

Yes

No

92

94.5

96.5

 $gain(X, a, t) = \text{entropy}(X) - \frac{|X_{a \leq t}|}{|X|}$

 $X_{a>t}$

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best splitting value with an information gain of 0.152

- Numerical attributes have to be treated differently
	- \triangleright Find the best splitting value

- 83.5 is the best splitting value for **Humidity** with an information gain of 0.152
- **Humidity** is now treated as a categorical attribute with two possible values
- A new optimal split is computed at every level of the tree
- A numerical attribute can be used several times in the tree, with different split values

Handling Missing Values

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some attributes
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:

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- \triangleright Set them to the most common value

$$
P(Yes|Bird) = \frac{2}{3} = 0.66
$$

$$
P(No|Bird) = \frac{1}{3} = 0.33
$$

 $P(White | Mammal) = 1$

 $P(Brown |Mammal) = 0$

- Data sets might have samples with missing values for some **attributes**
- Simply ignoring them would mean throwing away a lot of information
- There are better ways of handling missing values:
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- \triangleright Set them to the most probable value given the label

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- There are better ways of handling missing values:
- \triangleright Set them to the most common value
- \triangleright Set them to the most probable value given the label
- \triangleright Add a new instance for each possible value

- $entropy(X_{color=hrown}) = 0$ entropy($X_{color=white}$) = 1
- gain(*X*|color) = 0.985 $\frac{2}{6}$ $\frac{2}{6} \cdot 0 - \frac{4}{6}$ $\frac{1}{6} \cdot 1$ $= 0.318$
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- There are better ways of handling missing values:
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- \triangleright Set them to the most probable value given the label
- \triangleright Add a new instance for each possible value
- \triangleright Leave them unknown, but discard the sample when evaluating the gain of that attribute
	- (if the attribute is chosen for splitting, send the instances with unknown values to all children)

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(if the attribute is chosen for splitting, send the instances with unknown values to all children)

 \triangleright Build a decision tree on all other attributes (including label) to predict missing values

(use instances where the attribute is defined as training data)

Handling missing values at inference time

• When we encounter a node that checks an attribute with a missing value, we explore all possibilities

Handling missing values at inference time

- When we encounter a node that checks an attribute with a missing value, we explore all possibilities
- We explore all branches and take the final prediction based on a (weighted) vote of the corresponding leaf nodes

-
- Not a student
- 49 years old
	- Unknown income
- Fair credit record
- Yes

Loan?

Decision Boundaries

• Decision trees produce non-linear decision boundaries

Support Vector Machines **Decision Tree**

color

mass

Decision Trees: Training and Inference

History of Decision Trees

- The first regression tree algorithm
- ➢ "Automatic Interaction Detection (AID)" [Morgan & Sonquist, 1963]
- The first classification tree algorithm
- ➢ "Theta Automatic Interaction Detection (THAID)" [Messenger & Mandel, 1972]
- Decision trees become popular
- ➢ "Classification and regression trees (CART)" [Breiman et al., 1984]
- Introduction of the ID3 algorithm
- ➢ "Induction of Decision Trees" [Quinlan, 1986]
- Introduction of the C4.5 algorithm
- ➢ "C4.5: Programs for Machine Learning" [Quinlan, 1993]

Summary

- Decision trees represent a tool based on a tree-like graph of decisions and their possible outcomes
- Decision tree learning is a machine learning method that employs a decision tree as a predictive model
- ID3 builds a decision tree by iteratively splitting the data based on the values of an attribute with the largest information gain (decrease in entropy)
	- \triangleright Using the decrease of Gini Impurity is also a commonly-used option in practice
- C4.5 is an extension of ID3 that handles attributes with continuous values, missing values and adds regularization by pruning branches likely to overfit

Random Forests (Ensemble learning with decision trees)

Random Forests

- Random Forests:
	- \triangleright Instead of building a single decision tree and use it to make predictions, build many slightly different trees and combine their predictions
- We have a single data set, so how do we obtain slightly different trees?
	- 1. Bagging (**B**ootstrap **Agg**regat**ing**):
	- \triangleright Take random subsets of data points from the training set to create N smaller data sets
	- \triangleright Fit a decision tree on each subset
	- 2. Random Subspace Method (also known as Feature Bagging):
	- \triangleright Fit N different decision trees by constraining each one to operate on a random subset of features

Bagging at training time

Bagging at inference time

Random Subspace Method at training time

Random Subspace Method at inference time

Random Forests

History of Random Forests

- Introduction of the Random Subspace Method
	- ➢ "Random Decision Forests" [Ho, 1995] and "The Random Subspace Method for Constructing Decision Forests" [Ho, 1998]

• Combined the Random Subspace Method with Bagging. Introduce the term Random Forest (a trademark of Leo Breiman and Adele Cutler) ➢ "Random Forests" [Breiman, 2001]

Ensemble Learning

- Ensemble Learning:
	- \triangleright Method that combines multiple learning algorithms to obtain performance improvements over its components
- **Random Forests** are one of the most common examples of ensemble learning
- Other commonly-used ensemble methods:
	- \triangleright Bagging: multiple models on random subsets of data samples
	- ➢ Random Subspace Method: multiple models on random subsets of features
	- \triangleright Boosting: train models iteratively, while making the current model focus on the mistakes of the previous ones by increasing the weight of misclassified samples

Reweight based on model's mistakes

Reweight based on current model's mistakes

Summary

- Ensemble Learning methods combine multiple learning algorithms to obtain performance improvements over its components
- Commonly-used ensemble methods:
	- ➢ Bagging (multiple models on random subsets of data samples)
	- ➢ Random Subspace Method (multiple models on random subsets of
	- ➢ Boosting (train models iteratively, while making the current model
- **Random Forests** are an ensemble learning method that employ decision tree learning to build multiple trees through **bagging** and **random subspace method**.
	- \triangleright They rectify the overfitting problem of decision trees!

Thank You!

Slide Courtesy: Prof. Radu Ionescu, PhD. *Faculty of Mathematics and Computer Science University of Bucharest*