CSC 411: Lecture 06: Decision Trees

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• Decision Trees

- entropy
- mutual information

Another Classification Idea

• We could view the decision boundary as being the composition of several simple boundaries.



Decision Tree: Example





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- Leaf nodes are outputs (class assignments)
- In general, a decision tree can represent any binary function

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- We use information theory to guide us

Sequence 1: 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 ... ? Sequence 2: 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 ... ? Sequence 1: 000100000000000100 ... ? Sequence 2: 010101110100110101...? 16 10 8 versus 2

0

1

0

1

Quantifying Uncertainty

$$H(X) = -\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log_2 p(x)$$



Quantifying Uncertainty





• How surprised are we by a new value in the sequence?

Quantifying Uncertainty





• How surprised are we by a new value in the sequence?

• How much information does it convey?

$$H(X) = -\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log_2 p(x)$$

- Shannon Entropy is an extremely powerful concept.
- It tells you how much you can compress your data!

Entropy

• For a discrete random variable X, where $P(X=x_i) = p(x_i)$, the entropy of a random variable is:

$$\mathcal{H}(p) = -\sum_{i} p(x_i) \log p(x_i).$$

• Distributions that are sharply picked around a few values will have a relatively low entropy, whereas those that are spread more evenly across many values will have higher entropy



• Histograms of two probability distributions over 30 bins.

The largest entropy will arise from a uniform distribution H = -ln(1/30) = 3.40.

• For a density defined over continuous random variable, the differential entropy is given by: $\mathcal{H}(p) = -\int p(x) \log p(x) dx.$

Decision Tree: Algorithm



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	Cloudy	Not Cloudy
Raining	24/100	1/100
Not Raining	25/100	50/100

$$H(X, Y) = -\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y) \log_2 p(x, y)$$

= $-\frac{24}{100} \log_2 \frac{24}{100} - \frac{1}{100} \log_2 \frac{1}{100} - \frac{25}{100} \log_2 \frac{25}{100} - \frac{50}{100} \log_2 \frac{50}{100}$
 ≈ 1.56 bits

Specific Conditional Entropy

	Cloudy	Not Cloudy			
Raining	24/100	1/100			
Not Raining	25/100	50/100			

• What is the entropy of cloudiness, given that it is raining?

$$H(X|Y = y) = \sum_{x \in X} p(x|y) \log_2 p(x|y)$$

= $-\frac{24}{25} \log_2 \frac{24}{25} - \frac{1}{25} \log_2 \frac{1}{25}$
 ≈ 0.24 bits

(Non-Specific) Conditional Entropy

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Raining	24/100	1/100
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• The expected conditional entropy:

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} p(y)H(X|Y = y)$$
$$= -\sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} p(x, y) \log_2 p(x|y)$$

(Non-Specific) Conditional Entropy

	Cloudy	Not Cloudy
Raining	24/100	1/100
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• What is the entropy of cloudiness, given the knowledge of whether or not it is raining?

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} p(y)H(X|Y = y)$$

= $\frac{1}{4}H(\text{clouds}|\text{is raining})) + \frac{3}{4}H(\text{clouds}|\text{not raining})$
 $\approx 0.75 \text{ bits}$

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	Cloudy	Not Cloudy		
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• How much information about cloudiness do we get by discovering whether it is raining?

$$IG(X|Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$

 $\approx 0.25 \text{ bits}$

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- Also called information gain in X due to Y
- For decision trees, X is the class/label and Y is an attribute

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- At each level, one must choose:
 - 1. Which variable to split.
 - 2. Possibly where to split it.
- Choose them based on how much information we would gain from the decision!

- Simple, greedy, recursive approach, builds up tree node-by-node
- 1. pick an attribute to split at a non-terminal node
- 2. split examples into groups based on attribute value
- 3. for each group:
 - if no examples return majority from parent
 - else if all examples in same class return class
 - else loop to step 1

Ex.	Attributes								Target		
	Alt	Ba^r	Fri	Hu^n	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
X_1	T	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$\$	F	T	French	0-10	Т
X_2	T	F	F	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	30-60	F
X_3	F	T	F	F	Some	\$	F	F	Burger	0-10	Т
X_4	T	F	Т	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	10-30	Т
X_5	T	F	Т	F	Full	\$\$\$	F	T	French	>60	F
X_6	F	T	F	Т	Some	\$\$	Т	T	Italian	0-10	Т
X_7	F	T	F	F	None	\$	Т	F	Burger	0-10	F
X_8	F	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$	Т	T	Thai	0-10	Т
X_9	F	T	Т	F	Full	\$	Т	F	Burger	>60	F
X_{10}	T	T	T	Т	Full	\$\$\$	F	T	Italian	10-30	F
X_1^1	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0-10	F
X_{1}^{2}	T	T	Т	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Burger	30–60	Т

Russell & Norvig example

Attribute Selection



$$IG(Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$

$$IG(type) = 1 - \left[\frac{2}{12}H(\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}) + \frac{2}{12}H(\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}) + \frac{4}{12}H(\frac{2}{4},\frac{2}{4}) + \frac{4}{12}H(\frac{2}{4},\frac{2}{4})\right] = 0$$

$$IG(Patrons) = 1 - \left[\frac{2}{12}H(0,1) + \frac{4}{12}H(1,0) + \frac{6}{12}H(\frac{2}{6},\frac{4}{6})\right] \approx 0.541$$

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Which Tree is Better?



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- Inductive bias: small trees with informative nodes near the root

- Problems:
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- In practice, one often regularizes the construction process to try to get small but highly-informative trees.
- Decision trees can also be used for regression on real-valued outputs, but it requires a different formalism.

K-Nearest Neighbors

- Decision boundaries: piece-wise
- Test complexity: non-parametric, few parameters besides (all?) training examples

Decision Trees

- Decision boundaries: axis-aligned, tree structured
- Test complexity: attributes and splits

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- Practical Applications:
 - Flight simulator: 20 state variables; 90K examples based on expert pilot's actions; auto-pilot tree
 - Yahoo Ranking Challenge
 - Random Forests