

# Logistic Regression, cont.

## Decision Trees

Machine Learning – 10701/15781

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# Logistic Regression

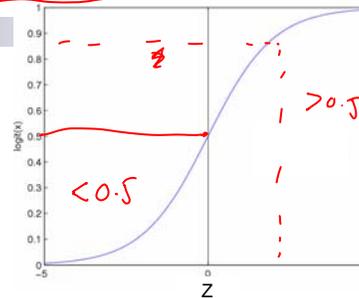
Logistic function (or Sigmoid):

$$\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}$$

Learn  $P(Y|\mathbf{X})$  directly!

- Assume a particular functional form
- Sigmoid applied to a linear function of the data:

$$P(Y = 1|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i X_i)}$$



**Features can be discrete or continuous!**

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# Loss functions: Likelihood v. Conditional Likelihood

- Generative (Naïve Bayes) Loss function:

## Data likelihood

$$\ln P(\mathcal{D} | \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=1}^N \ln P(\mathbf{x}^j, y^j | \mathbf{w})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^N \ln P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w}) + \sum_{j=1}^N \ln P(\mathbf{x}^j | \mathbf{w})$$

*Handwritten notes:*  
 $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathbf{x}^j, y^j \rangle_{j=1 \dots N}$   
 -  $\ln P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w})$ : classification  
 -  $\ln P(\mathbf{x}^j | \mathbf{w})$ : for generating data not important for classification

- Discriminative models cannot compute  $P(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{w})!$
- But, discriminative (logistic regression) loss function:

## Conditional Data Likelihood

$$\ln P(\mathcal{D}_Y | \mathcal{D}_X, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=1}^N \ln P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w})$$

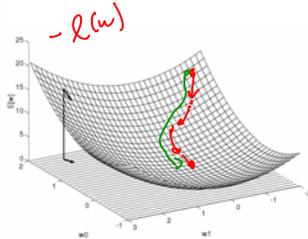
*Handwritten notes:*  
 - discriminative likelihood  
 -  $i = \text{training example}$   
 -  $c_j^i = 1$  if span,  $= 0$  if not span  
 -  $\mathbf{x}^j$ : list of words  
 - 3 in  $\mathbf{x}^j$

- Doesn't waste effort learning  $P(X)$  – focuses on  $P(Y|X)$  all that matters for classification

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# Optimizing concave function – Gradient ascent

- Conditional likelihood for Logistic Regression is concave → Find optimum with gradient ascent



**Gradient:**  $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} l(\mathbf{w}) = \left[ \frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_0}, \dots, \frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_n} \right]^T$

**Update rule:**  $\Delta \mathbf{w} = \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} l(\mathbf{w})$

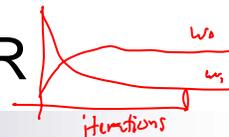
*Handwritten notes:*  
 - step size  
 - Learning rate,  $\eta > 0$   
 - 0.01

$$w_i^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_i^{(t)} + \eta \frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_i}$$

- Gradient ascent is simplest of optimization approaches
  - e.g., Conjugate gradient ascent much better (see reading)

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# Gradient Descent for LR



Gradient ascent algorithm: iterate until change  $< \epsilon$

$$w_0^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_0^{(t)} + \eta \sum_j [y^j - \hat{P}(Y^j = 1 | x^j, w)]$$

*Handwritten notes:  $w_0^{(t)}$  is  $w_0$  at  $t^{\text{th}}$  iteration.  $\eta$  is step size.  $x_0^j = 1$ .  $x_i^j$  is  $x_i$ .*

For  $i = 1 \dots n$ ,

$$w_i^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_i^{(t)} + \eta \sum_j x_i^j [y^j - \hat{P}(Y^j = 1 | x^j, w)]$$

*Handwritten notes:  $w_i^{(t)}$  is  $w_i$  at  $t^{\text{th}}$  iteration.*

repeat

Question about

$$\frac{e^{w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i^j}}{1 + e^{w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i^j}}$$

Equation is correct, in the last lecture I inadvertently changed the notation to:  
 Sorry about the change, both definitions are really equivalent, the equations on this slide are consistent with this definition.

$$P(Y = 1 | X, w) = \frac{\exp(w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i X_i)}{1 + \exp(w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i X_i)}$$

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# That's all M(C)LE. How about MAP?

$$p(w | Y, X) \propto P(Y | X, w) p(w)$$

*Handwritten notes:  $P(Y | X, w)$  is conditional likelihood.  $p(w)$  is prior.*

- One common approach is to define priors on  $w$

- Normal distribution, zero mean, identity covariance
- "Pushes" parameters towards zero

$$p(w) \sim \prod_{\sigma} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I)$$

- Corresponds to **Regularization**

- Helps avoid very large weights and overfitting
- More on this later in the semester

- MAP estimate

$$w^* = \arg \max_w \ln \left[ p(w) \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | x^j, w) \right]$$

*Handwritten notes:  $p(w)$  is prior.  $\prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | x^j, w)$  is conditional likelihood.*

MAP

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# M(C)AP as Regularization

$\ln a \cdot b = \ln a + \ln b$      $\ln e^a = a$

MAP  
 $\ln \left[ p(w) \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | x^j, w) \right]$

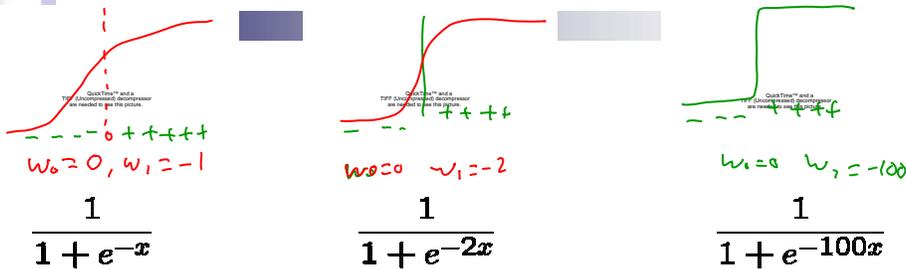
Gaussian, indep. over params, zero mean  $N(0, \kappa I)$   
 $p(w) = \prod_i \frac{1}{\kappa \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{w_i^2}{2\kappa^2}}$

$= \ln \prod_i \frac{1}{\kappa \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{w_i^2}{2\kappa^2}} \cdot \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | x^j, w)$

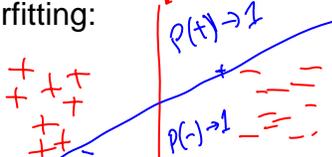
$= \ln \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | x^j, w) - \sum_i \frac{w_i^2}{2\kappa^2} + \sum_i \ln \frac{1}{\kappa \sqrt{2\pi}}$   
 Standard cond. likelihood      role of  $\kappa$ ?  
 if  $\kappa \rightarrow \infty \rightarrow$  back to MLE  
 if  $\kappa \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow$  ignore data set  $w=0$

Penalizes high weights, also applicable in linear regression

# Large parameters → Overfitting



- If data is linearly separable, weights go to infinity
- Leads to overfitting:



- Penalizing high weights can prevent overfitting...  
 again, more on this later in the semester

# Gradient of M(C)AP

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \ln \left[ p(\mathbf{w}) \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_i \frac{1}{\kappa \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{w_i^2}{2\kappa^2}}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \left( \ln \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w}) - \sum_i \frac{w_i^2}{2\kappa} \right)$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \ln \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w})}_{\text{we know from before}} - \frac{w_i}{\kappa}$$

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# MLE vs MAP

- Maximum conditional likelihood estimate

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \ln \left[ \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$

$$w_i^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_i^{(t)} + \eta \sum_j x_i^j [y^j - \hat{P}(Y^j = 1 | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w})]$$

- Maximum conditional a posteriori estimate

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \ln \left[ p(\mathbf{w}) \prod_{j=1}^N P(y^j | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$

if we have a lot of data  $\lambda w_i$  becomes irrelevant

$$w_i^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_i^{(t)} + \eta \left\{ -\lambda w_i^{(t)} + \sum_j x_i^j [y^j - \hat{P}(Y^j = 1 | \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{w})] \right\}$$

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## G. Naïve Bayes vs. Logistic Regression 1

[Ng & Jordan, 2002]

- Generative and Discriminative classifiers
  - focuses on setting when GNB leads to linear classifier
    - variance  $\propto \frac{1}{n}$ , (depends on feature  $i$ , not on class  $k$ )
- Asymptotic comparison (# training examples  $\rightarrow$  infinity)
- when GNB model correct
  - GNB, LR produce identical classifiers
- when model incorrect
  - LR is less biased – does not assume conditional independence
    - therefore LR expected to outperform GNB

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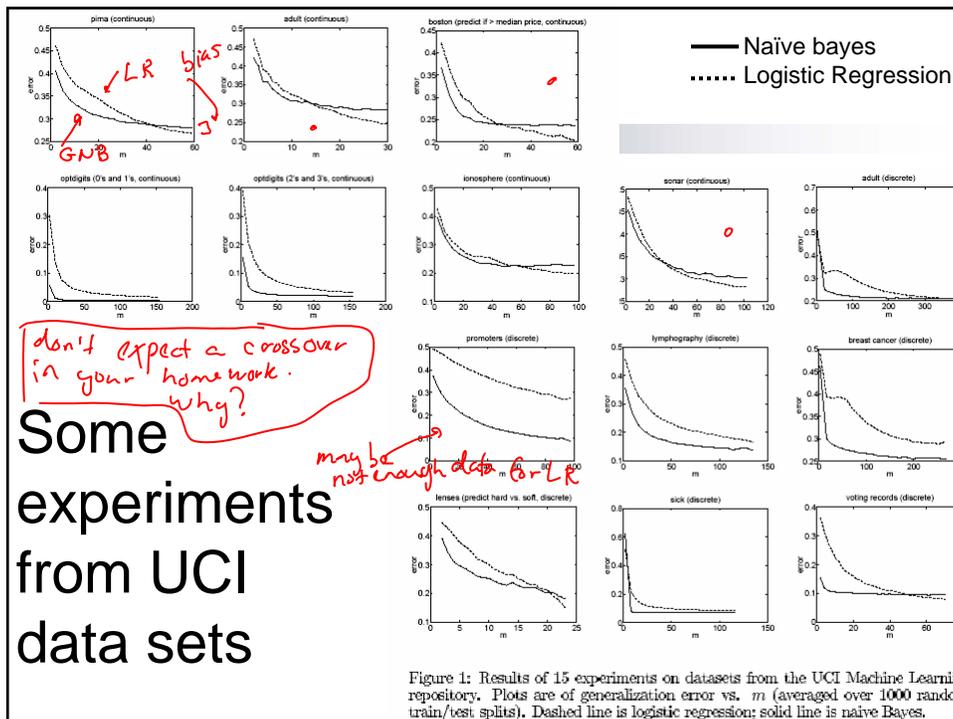
## G. Naïve Bayes vs. Logistic Regression 2

[Ng & Jordan, 2002]

- Generative and Discriminative classifiers
  - focuses on setting when GNB leads to linear classifier
- Non-asymptotic analysis *(finite data)*
  - convergence rate of parameter estimates,  $n = \#$  of attributes in  $X$ 
    - Size of training data to get close to infinite data solution
    - GNB needs  $O(\log n)$  samples  $\leftarrow$  *more bias*
    - LR needs  $O(n)$  samples
  - GNB converges more quickly to its (perhaps less helpful) asymptotic estimates

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## What you should know about Logistic Regression (LR)

- Gaussian Naïve Bayes with class-independent variances representationally equivalent to LR
  - Solution differs because of objective (loss) function
- In general, NB and LR make different assumptions
  - NB: Features independent given class  $\rightarrow$  assumption on  $P(\mathbf{X}|Y)$
  - LR: Functional form of  $P(Y|\mathbf{X})$ , no assumption on  $P(\mathbf{X}|Y)$
- LR is a linear classifier
  - decision rule is a hyperplane
- LR optimized by conditional likelihood
  - no closed-form solution
  - concave  $\rightarrow$  global optimum with gradient ascent
  - Maximum conditional a posteriori corresponds to regularization
- Convergence rates
  - GNB (usually) needs less data
  - LR (usually) gets to better solutions in the limit

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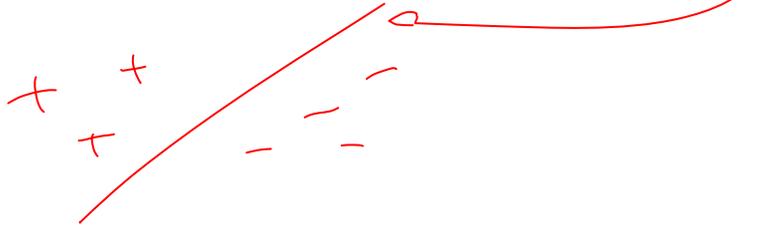
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# Linear separability

- A dataset is linearly separable iff  $\exists$  a separating hyperplane:

□  $\exists \mathbf{w}$ , such that:

- ■  $w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i > 0$ ; if  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  is a positive example
- ■  $w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i < 0$ ; if  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  is a negative example



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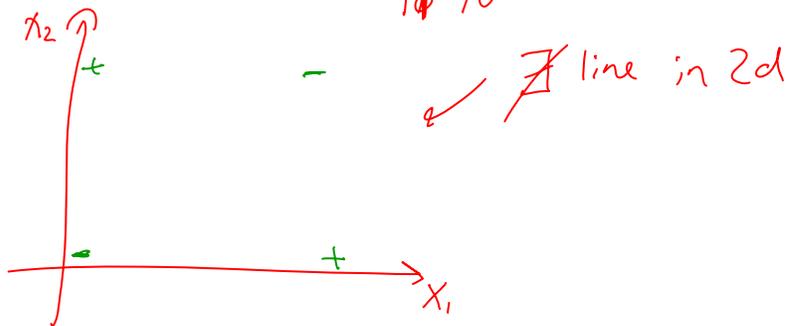
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# Not linearly separable data

- Some datasets are not linearly separable!

XOR

$x_1$	$x_2$	$y$
0	0	0
1	0	1
0	1	1
1	1	0

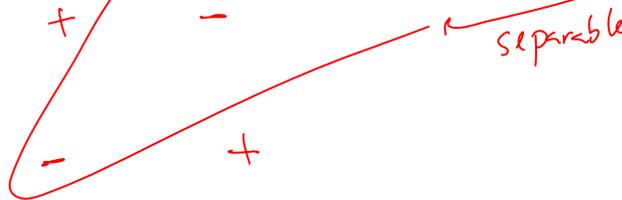


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## Addressing non-linearly separable data – Option 1, non-linear features

- Choose non-linear features, e.g.,
  - Typical linear features:  $w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i$
  - Example of non-linear features:  $x_i$   $x_{ij} = x_i x_j$ 
    - Degree 2 polynomials,  $w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_i + \sum_{ij} w_{ij} x_i x_j$
- Classifier  $h_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x})$  still linear in parameters  $\mathbf{w}$ 
  - As easy to learn
  - Data is linearly separable in higher dimensional spaces
  - More discussion later this semester



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## Addressing non-linearly separable data – Option 2, non-linear classifier

- Choose a classifier  $h_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x})$  that is non-linear in parameters  $\mathbf{w}$ , e.g.,
  - Decision trees, neural networks, nearest neighbor,...
- More general than linear classifiers
- But, can often be harder to learn (non-convex/concave optimization required)
- But, but, often very useful
- (BTW. Later this semester, we'll see that these options are not that different)

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# A small dataset: Miles Per Gallon

Suppose we want to predict MPG

mpg	cylinders	displacement	horsepower	weight	acceleration	modelyear	maker
good	4	low	low	low	high	75to78	asia
bad	6	medium	medium	medium	medium	70to74	america
bad	4	medium	medium	medium	low	75to78	europa
bad	8	high	high	high	low	70to74	america
bad	6	medium	medium	medium	medium	70to74	america
bad	4	low	medium	low	medium	70to74	asia
bad	4	low	medium	low	low	70to74	asia
bad	8	high	high	high	low	75to78	america
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
bad	8	high	high	high	low	70to74	america
good	8	high	medium	high	high	79to83	america
bad	8	high	high	high	low	75to78	america
good	4	low	low	low	low	79to83	america
bad	6	medium	medium	medium	high	75to78	america
good	4	medium	low	low	low	79to83	america
good	4	low	low	medium	high	79to83	america
bad	8	high	high	high	low	70to74	america
good	4	low	medium	low	medium	75to78	europa
bad	5	medium	medium	medium	medium	75to78	europa

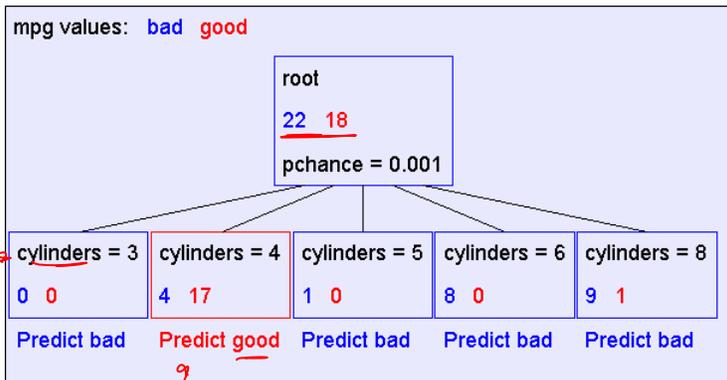
40 Records

From the UCI repository (thanks to Ross Quinlan)

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# A Decision Stump

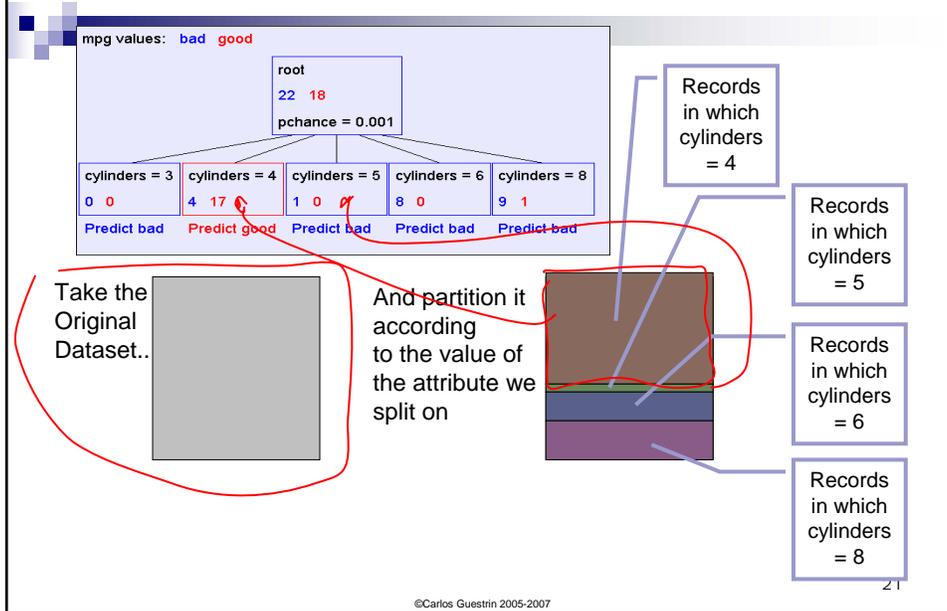


9  
17 74

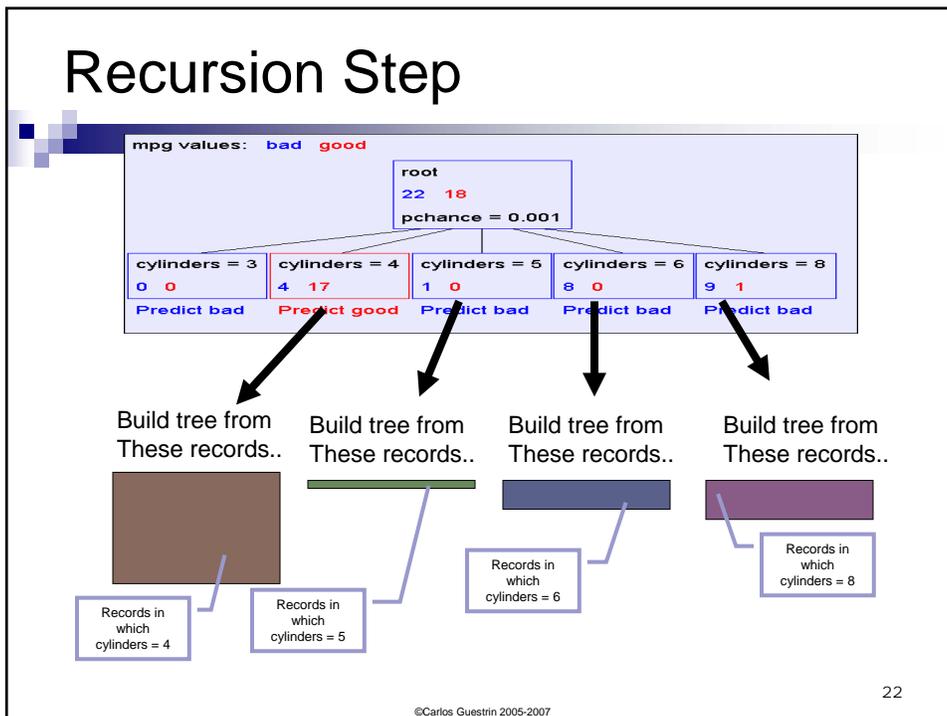
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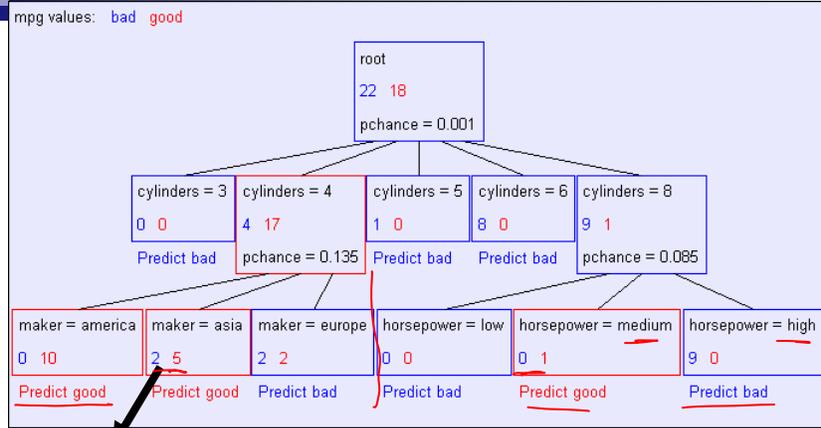
# Recursion Step



# Recursion Step



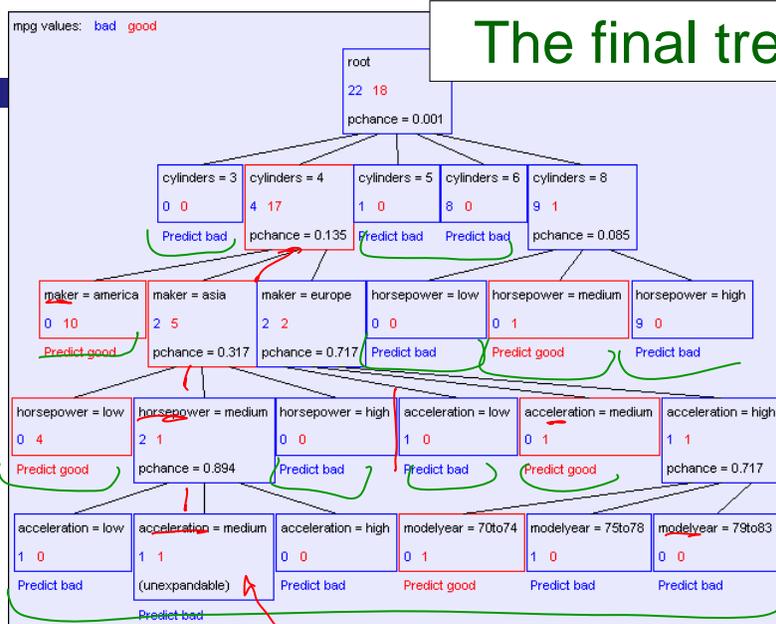
# Second level of tree



Recursively build a tree from the seven records in which there are four cylinders and the maker was based in Asia

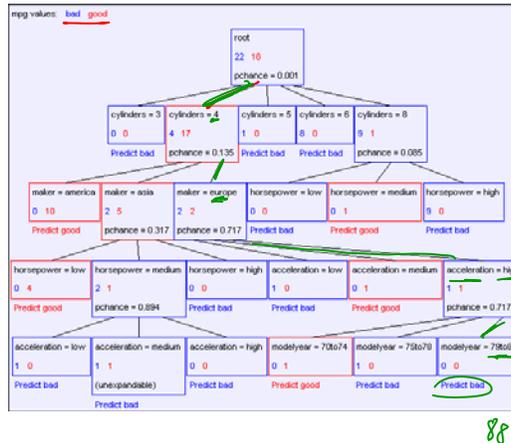
(Similar recursion in the other cases)

# The final tree



# Classification of a new example

- Classifying a test example – traverse tree and report leaf label



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# Announcements

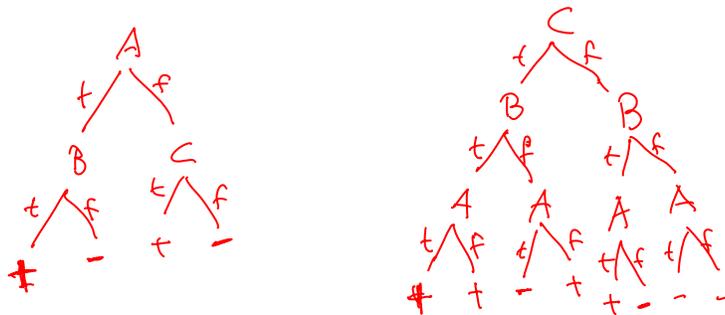
- **Pittsburgh won the Super Bowl !!**
  - Two years ago...
- Recitation this Thursday
  - Logistic regression, discriminative v. generative

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## Are all decision trees equal?

- Many trees can represent the same concept
- But, not all trees will have the same size!
  - e.g.,  $\phi = A \wedge B \vee \neg A \wedge C$  ((A and B) or (not A and C))



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## Learning decision trees is hard!!!

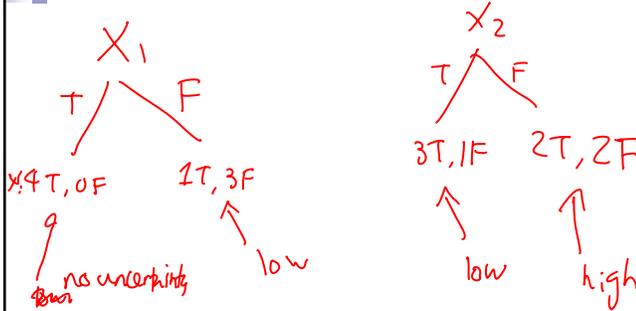
- Learning the simplest (smallest) decision tree is an NP-complete problem [Hyafil & Rivest '76]
- Resort to a greedy heuristic:
  - Start from empty decision tree
  - Split on **next best attribute (feature)**
  - Recurse

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# Choosing a good attribute

$X_1$	$X_2$	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F



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# Measuring uncertainty

- Good split if we are more certain about classification after split
  - Deterministic good (all true or all false)
  - Uniform distribution bad

lower entropy

$P(Y=A) = 1/2$	$P(Y=B) = 1/4$	$P(Y=C) = 1/8$	$P(Y=D) = 1/8$
----------------	----------------	----------------	----------------

$P(Y=A) = 1/4$	$P(Y=B) = 1/4$	$P(Y=C) = 1/4$	$P(Y=D) = 1/4$
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uniform high entropy

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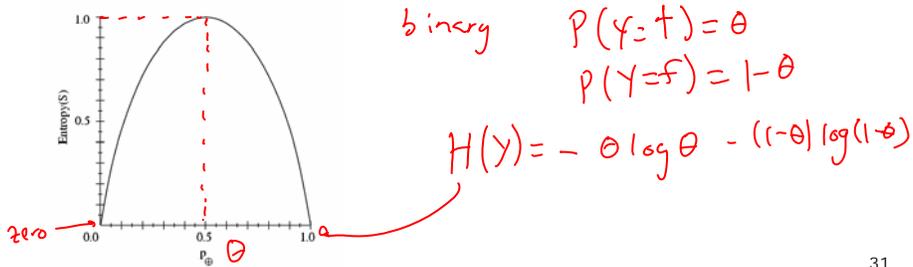
# Entropy

Entropy  $H(X)$  of a random variable  $Y$

$$H(Y) = - \sum_{i=1}^k P(Y = y_i) \log_2 P(Y = y_i)$$

**More uncertainty, more entropy!**

*Information Theory interpretation:*  $H(Y)$  is the expected number of bits needed to encode a randomly drawn value of  $Y$  (under most efficient code)



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## Andrew Moore's Entropy in a nutshell



Low Entropy



High Entropy

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# Andrew Moore's Entropy in a nutshell



Low Entropy

..the values (locations of soup) sampled entirely from within the soup bowl



High Entropy

..the values (locations of soup) unpredictable... almost uniformly sampled throughout our dining room

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## Information gain

### Advantage of attribute – decrease in uncertainty

- Entropy of Y before you split

$$H(Y) = -\frac{5}{6} \log_2 \frac{5}{6} - \frac{1}{6} \log_2 \frac{1}{6} = \dots$$

- Entropy after split

- Weight by probability of following each branch, i.e., normalized number of records

$$H(Y | X) = -\sum_{j=1}^v P(X = x_j) \sum_{i=1}^k P(Y = y_i | X = x_j) \log_2 P(Y = y_i | X = x_j)$$

$$H(Y | X) = -\frac{2}{3} \cdot [1 \cdot \log_2 1 + 0 \cdot \log_2 0] - \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \frac{1}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{3}$$

- Information gain is difference  $IG(X) = H(Y) - H(Y | X)$

$$IG(x_1) = H(Y) - H(Y | x_1) = H(Y) - \frac{1}{3} \geq IG(x_2)$$

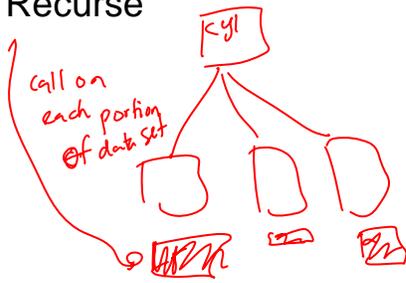
↓ if, split on  $x_1$  first

$X_1$	$X_2$	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

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# Learning decision trees

- Start from empty decision tree
- Split on **next best attribute (feature)**
  - Use, for example, information gain to select attribute
  - Split on  $\arg \max_i IG(X_i) = \arg \max_i H(Y) - H(Y | X_i)$
- Recurse



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Suppose we want to predict MPG

Look at all the information gains...

Information gains using the training set (40 records)

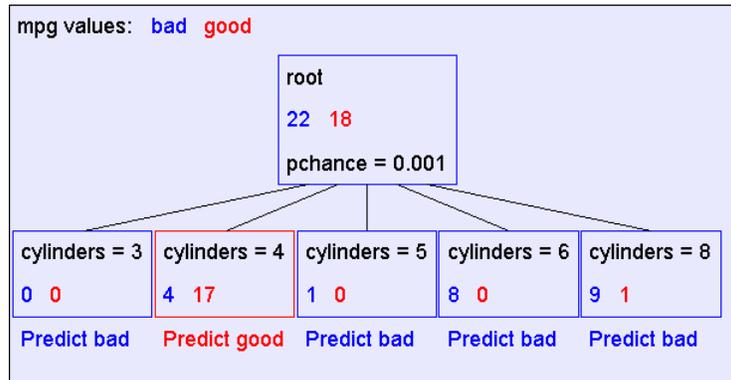
mpg values: bad good

Input	Value	Distribution	Info Gain
cylinders	3		0.506731
	4		
	5		
	6		
displacement	low		0.223144
	medium		
	high		
horsepower	low		0.387605
	medium		
	high		
weight	low		0.304018
	medium		
	high		
acceleration	low		0.0642088
	medium		
	high		
modelyear	70to74		0.267964
	75to78		
	79to83		
maker	america		0.0437265
	asia		

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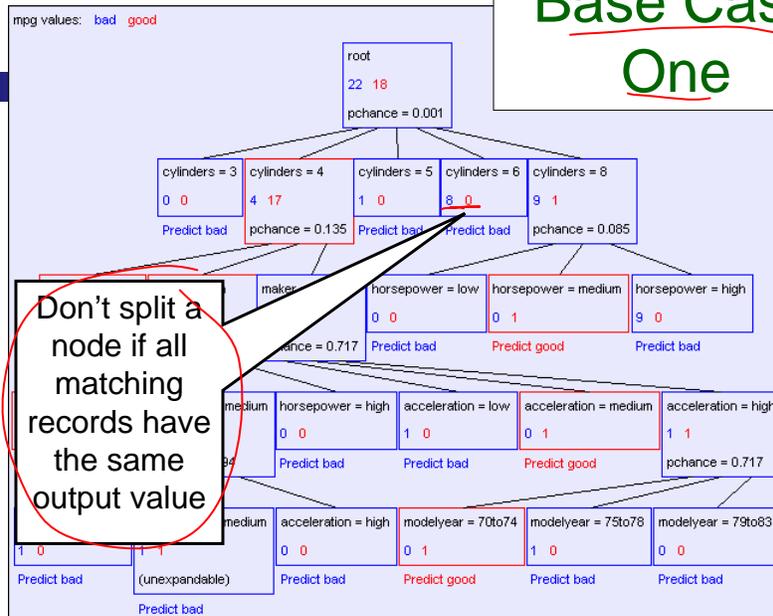
# A Decision Stump



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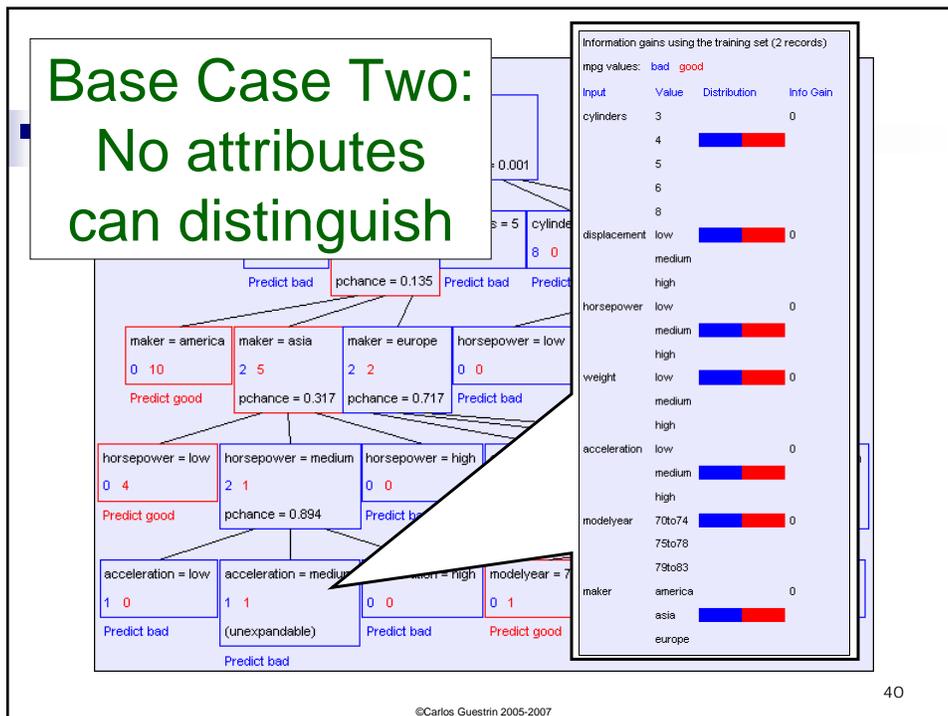
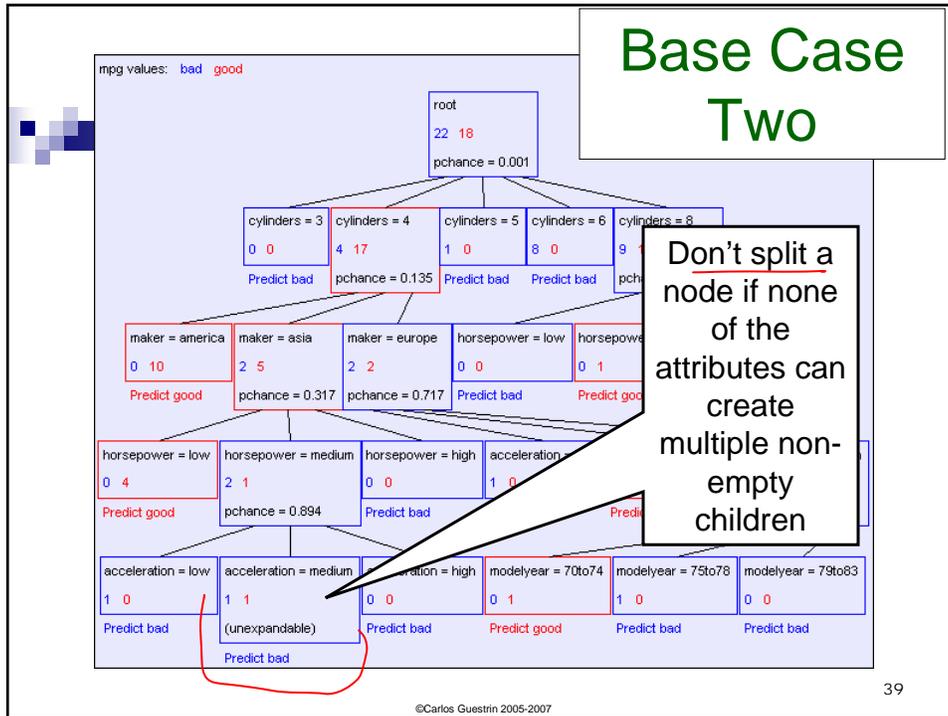
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## Base Case One



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# Base Cases

- Base Case One: If all records in current data subset have the same output then don't recurse
- Base Case Two: If all records have exactly the same set of input attributes then don't recurse

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# Base Cases: An idea

- Base Case One: If all records in current data subset have the same output then don't recurse
- Base Case Two: If all records have exactly the same set of input attributes then don't recurse

Proposed Base Case 3:  
If all attributes have zero information gain  
then don't recurse

•*Is this a good idea?*

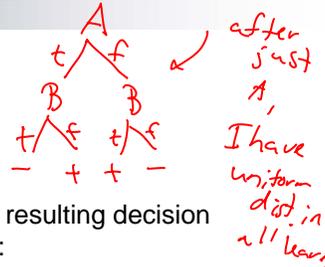
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# The problem with Base Case 3

a	b	y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

$y = a \text{ XOR } b$

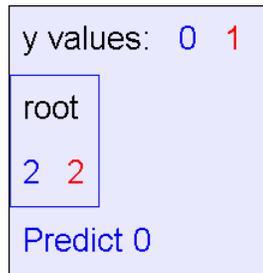


The information gains:

Information gains using the training set (4 records)  
y values: 0 1

Input	Value	Distribution	Info Gain
a	0		0
	1		0
b	0		0
	1		0

The resulting decision tree:

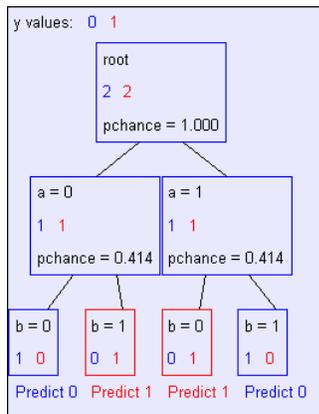


# If we omit Base Case 3:

a	b	y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

$y = a \text{ XOR } b$

The resulting decision tree:



# Basic Decision Tree Building Summarized

BuildTree(DataSet, Output)

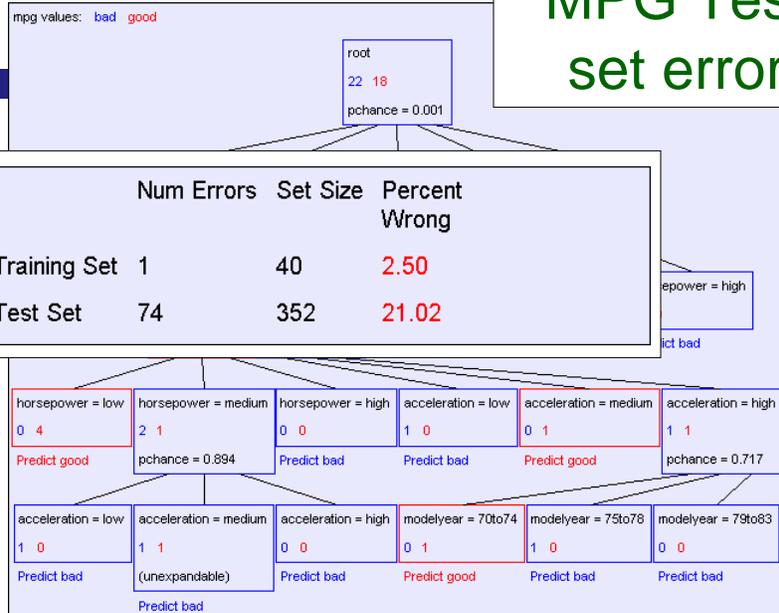
- If all output values are the same in DataSet, return a leaf node that says "predict this unique output"
- If all input values are the same, return a leaf node that says "predict the majority output"
- Else find attribute X with highest Info Gain
- Suppose X has  $n_x$  distinct values (i.e. X has arity  $n_x$ ).
  - Create and return a non-leaf node with  $n_x$  children.
  - The  $i$ th child should be built by calling  
BuildTree( $DS_i$ , Output)

*recursion on children*

Where  $DS_i$  built consists of all those records in DataSet for which  $X = i$ th distinct value of X.

*pick part of dataset consistent with child*

## MPG Test set error



# MPG Test set error

mpg values: bad good

root  
22 18  
pchance = 0.001

	Num Errors	Set Size	Percent Wrong
Training Set	1	40	2.50
Test Set	74	352	21.02

horsepower = low    horsepower = medium    horsepower = high    acceleration = low    acceleration = medium    acceleration = high

The test set error is much worse than the training set error...

...why?

Predict bad    (unexpandable)    Predict bad    Predict good    Predict bad    Predict bad

# Decision trees & Learning Bias

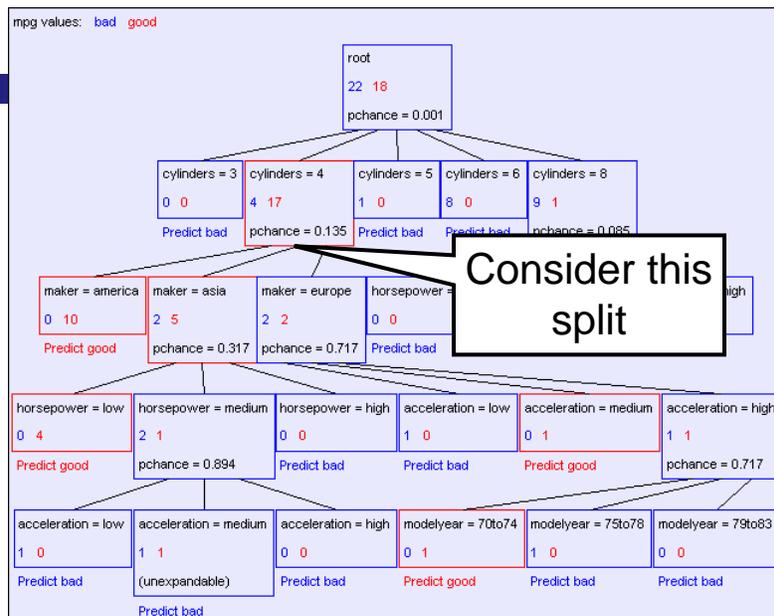
mpg	cylinders	displacement	horsepower	weight	acceleration	modelyear	maker
good	4	low	low	low	high	75to78	asia
bad	6	medium	medium	medium	medium	70to74	america
bad	4	medium	medium	medium	low	75to78	europa
bad	8	high	high	high	low	70to74	america
bad	6	medium	medium	medium	medium	70to74	america
bad	4	low	medium	low	medium	70to74	asia
bad	4	low	medium	low	low	70to74	asia
bad	8	high	high	high	low	75to78	america
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
bad	8	high	high	high	low	70to74	america
good	8	high	medium	high	high	79to83	america
bad	8	high	high	high	low	75to78	america
good	4	low	low	low	low	79to83	america
bad	6	medium	medium	medium	high	75to78	america
good	4	medium	low	low	low	79to83	america
good	4	low	low	medium	high	79to83	america
bad	8	high	high	high	low	70to74	america
good	4	low	medium	low	medium	75to78	europa
bad	5	medium	medium	medium	medium	75to78	europa

# Decision trees will overfit

- Standard decision trees are have no learning biased
  - Training set error is always zero!
    - (If there is no label noise)
  - Lots of variance
  - Will definitely overfit!!!
  - Must bias towards simpler trees
- Many strategies for picking simpler trees:
  - Fixed depth
  - Fixed number of leaves
  - Or something smarter...

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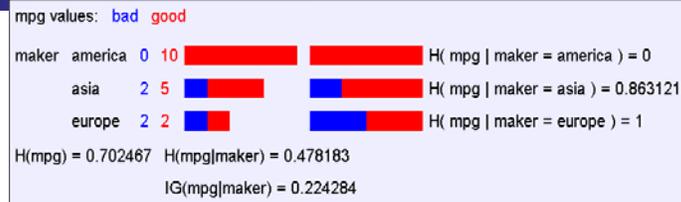
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# A chi-square test



- Suppose that mpg was completely uncorrelated with maker.
- What is the chance we'd have seen data of at least this apparent level of association anyway?

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# A chi-square test



- Suppose that mpg was completely uncorrelated with maker.
- What is the chance we'd have seen data of at least this apparent level of association anyway?

By using a particular kind of chi-square test, the answer is 7.2%

(Such simple hypothesis tests are very easy to compute, unfortunately, not enough time to cover in the lecture, but in your homework, you'll have fun! :))

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## Using Chi-squared to avoid overfitting

- Build the full decision tree as before
- But when you can grow it no more, start to prune:
  - Beginning at the bottom of the tree, delete splits in which  $p_{chance} > MaxPchance$
  - Continue working your way up until there are no more prunable nodes

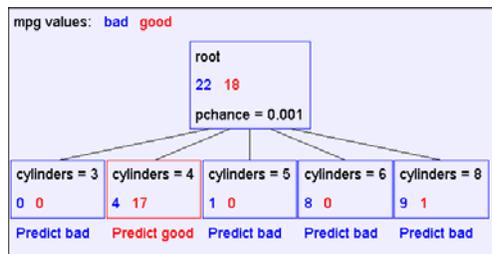
*MaxPchance* is a magic parameter you must specify to the decision tree, indicating your willingness to risk fitting noise

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## Pruning example

- With  $MaxPchance = 0.1$ , you will see the following MPG decision tree:



Note the improved test set accuracy compared with the unpruned tree

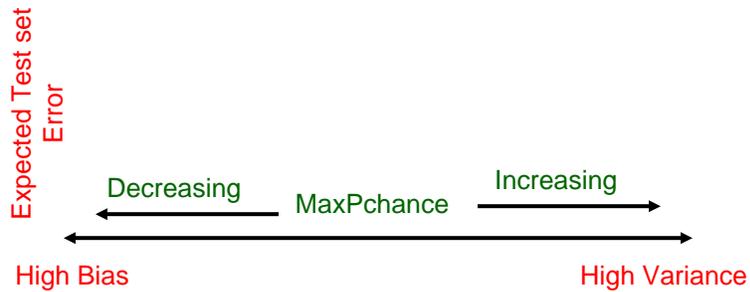
	Num Errors	Set Size	Percent Wrong
Training Set	5	40	12.50
Test Set	56	352	15.91

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# MaxPchance

- Technical note MaxPchance is a regularization parameter that helps us bias towards simpler models



- We'll learn to choose the value of these magic parameters soon!

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# Real-Valued inputs

- What should we do if some of the inputs are real-valued?

mpg	cylinders	displacemen	horsepower	weight	acceleration	modelyear	maker
good	4	97	75	2265	18.2	77	asia
bad	6	199	90	2648	15	70	america
bad	4	121	110	2600	12.8	77	europa
bad	8	360	175	4100	13	73	america
bad	6	198	95	3102	16.5	74	america
bad	4	108	94	2379	16.5	73	asia
bad	4	113	95	2228	14	71	asia
bad	8	302	139	3570	12.8	78	america
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
good	4	120	79	2625	18.6	82	america
bad	8	455	225	4425	10	70	america
good	4	107	86	2464	15.5	76	europa
bad	5	131	103	2830	15.9	78	europa

Infinite number of possible split values!!!

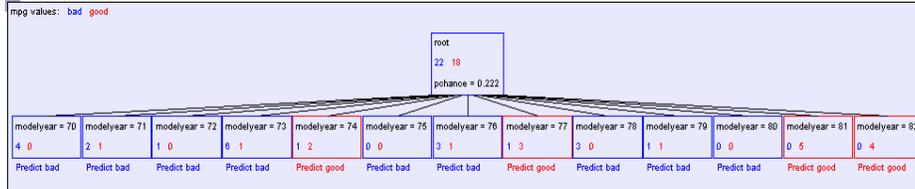
Finite dataset, only finite number of relevant splits!

Idea One: Branch on each possible real value

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## “One branch for each numeric value” idea:



Hopeless: with such high branching factor will shatter the dataset and overfit

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## Threshold splits

- Binary tree, split on attribute X
  - One branch:  $X < t$
  - Other branch:  $X \geq t$

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## Choosing threshold split

- Binary tree, split on attribute  $X$ 
  - One branch:  $X < t$
  - Other branch:  $X \geq t$
- Search through possible values of  $t$ 
  - Seems hard!!!
- But only finite number of  $t$ 's are important
  - Sort data according to  $X$  into  $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$
  - Consider split points of the form  $x_i + (x_{i+1} - x_i)/2$

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## A better idea: thresholded splits

- Suppose  $X$  is real valued
- Define  $IG(Y|X:t)$  as  $H(Y) - H(Y|X:t)$
- Define  $H(Y|X:t) =$   
$$H(Y|X < t) P(X < t) + H(Y|X \geq t) P(X \geq t)$$
  - $IG(Y|X:t)$  is the information gain for predicting  $Y$  if all you know is whether  $X$  is greater than or less than  $t$
- Then define  $IG^*(Y|X) = \max_t IG(Y|X:t)$
- For each real-valued attribute, use  $IG^*(Y|X)$  for assessing its suitability as a split
- Note, may split on an attribute multiple times, with different thresholds

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# Example with MPG

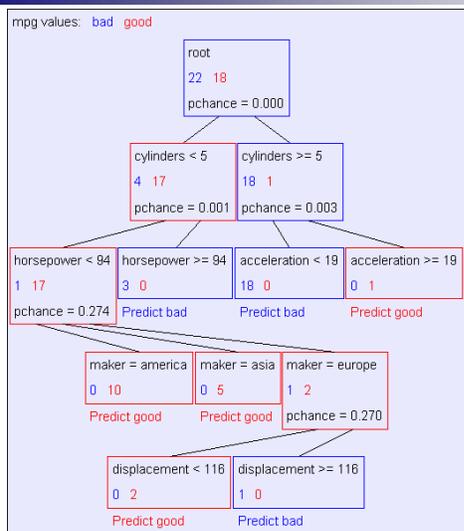
Information gains using the training set (40 records)  
mpg values: bad good

Input	Value	Distribution	Info Gain
cylinders	< 5		0.48268
	>= 5		
displacement	< 198		0.428205
	>= 198		
horsepower	< 94		0.48268
	>= 94		
weight	< 2789		0.379471
	>= 2789		
acceleration	< 18.2		0.159982
	>= 18.2		
modelyear	< 81		0.319193
	>= 81		
maker	america		0.0437265
	asia		
	europa		

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# Example tree using reals



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## What you need to know about decision trees

- Decision trees are one of the most popular data mining tools
  - Easy to understand
  - Easy to implement
  - Easy to use
  - Computationally cheap (to solve heuristically)
- Information gain to select attributes (ID3, C4.5,...)
- Presented for classification, can be used for regression and density estimation too
- Decision trees will overfit!!!
  - Zero bias classifier → Lots of variance
  - Must use tricks to find “simple trees”, e.g.,
    - Fixed depth/Early stopping
    - Pruning
    - Hypothesis testing

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## Acknowledgements

- Some of the material in the decision trees presentation is courtesy of Andrew Moore, from his excellent collection of ML tutorials:
  - <http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~awm/tutorials>

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