# **UNIT 3 U3/0/2024**

# **Machine Learning COS4852**

**Year module**

# **Department of Computer Science**

# **School of Computing**

**CONTENTS** 

This document contains the material for UNIT 3 for COS4852 for 2024.





Define tomorrow.

A decision tree is a tree-like visual representation that work similarly to a flow-chart to make or support decisions. Each node in the decision tree is an attribute that splits the data set into subsets that correspond to specific values of that attribute. Each node then becomes a single decision point, where a specific value of the attribute leads to sub-trees, until all the attributes are assigned to a node, and final decision values are reached.

<span id="page-1-0"></span>

Figure 1: Example decision tree

Figure [1](#page-1-0) shows an example of a small decision tree that could be used to determine whether to play sport based on the values of three weather variables: *Outlook*, *Humidity* and *Wind*.

# **1 OUTCOMES**

In this Unit you will learn more about the theoretical basis of decision trees, and understand how to apply one of the algorithms used to construct a decision tree from a dataset. You will learn how to describe and solve a learning problem using decision tree learning.

You will:

- 1. Understand the relationship between Boolean function, binary decision trees and decision lists.
- 2. Learn about the theoretical basis of decision trees.
- 3. Understand what kinds of problems can be solved using decision trees.
- 4. Understand how the ID3 algorithm works.

5. Learn how to solve classification problems using ID3.

After completion of this Unit you will be able to:

- 1. Translate a Boolean function into a binary decision tree.
- 2. Convert a Boolean function into a decision list.
- 3. Understand and recognise appropriate learning problems that can be solved with decision tree learning.
- 4. Design a *Classification System* using decision trees.
- 5. Discuss the theoretical basis of decision trees.
- 6. Understand and describe how decision tree search is performed in hypothesis space, including the inductive bias implicit in decision tree learning.
- 7. Understand the advantages and limitations of decision trees, including overfitting of data, continuous-valued attributes, alternative methods for selecting attributes, missing attribute values and attributes with different costs.
- 8. Discuss what kinds of problems can be solved using decision trees.
- 9. Solve classification problems by implementing the ID3 algorithm on given data sets.

## **2 INTRODUCTION**

In this Unit you will investigate the theory of decision trees and learn how to describe and solve a learning problem using decision tree learning, using the ID3 algorithm.

There are many algorithms to construct decision trees. The most famous of these is Ross Quinlan's ID3 algorithm that are used to construct a decision tree on a set of discrete and integer data values. There are variants of ID3 that can operate on continuous-valued datasets, as well as variants that use a statistical approach. There are also more complex algorithms that construct a collection of trees, called a forest-of-trees, which, although more complex, give more options for making accurate decision based on complex data.

## **3 PREPARATION**

#### **3.1 Online textbooks**

Chapter 6 in Nilsson's book works through the ID3 algorithm for decision tree construction, using a slightly different notation from what we will be using.

#### **3.2 Textbooks**

Chapter 3 of Mitchell's book goes into some depth on decision trees.

Sections 18.1 to 18.4 in Russell and Norvig's 3rd edition is also a good source in decision lists.

#### **3.3 Online material**

[Here is simple explanation](https://victorzhou.com/blog/information-gain/) of Entropy and Information Gain.

The [original 1986 article by Ross Quinlan](https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/BF00116251) describes one of the most successful algorithms to create decision trees.

This [IBM article](https://www.ibm.com/topics/decision-trees) gives a detailed discussion on what a decision tree is and does, and how to do the basic ID3 calculations.

The [Wikipedia page on ID3](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ID3_algorithm) gives a good overview of the ID3 algorithm.

### **4 DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 Boolean Functions and Binary Decision Trees**

Boolean function:

$$
f_1(A, B) = \neg A \wedge B
$$

The truth table for this Boolean function is:



Start by choosing *A* as the root node. This gives us the binary decision tree as in Figure [2.](#page-4-0) On the diagram you can see the mapping between specific parts of the truth table and the binary decision tree. Each leaf node corresponds to one row in the truth table, while the level above the leaf nodes correspond to two rows in the truth table, etc. By merging leaf nodes with the same value the tree can be simplified, as in Figure [3.](#page-4-1)

Using *B* as the start node results in a different binary decision tree. In this particular case the tree turns out to be as simple as the first. This is not the case for all decision trees.

The binary decision tree starting with *B* is shown in Figure [4.](#page-5-0)

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

<span id="page-4-1"></span>Figure 2: A binary decision tree for  $f_1$  starting with A.



Figure 3: A simplified binary decision tree for  $f_1(A, B) = \neg A \wedge B$  starting with A.

#### *Decision lists*

[Rivest wrote a paper](https://people.csail.mit.edu/rivest/pubs/Riv87b.pdf) on how to create decision lists from a Boolean function. The paper goes into some depth in how to do this.

[Nilsson's book](https://ai.stanford.edu/~nilsson/MLBOOK.pdf) summarises the concept on p.22.

You can think of a decision list as a binary decision tree where each node divides the data set into two so that one branch has a binary value  $((0, 1)$  or  $\{T, F\}$  as output, and the other branch leads leads to further subdivision of the dataset. By writing a Boolean function in a DNF form, this becomes reasonably obvious. Another method that works well is to draw a Karnaugh diagram of the function and reduce the function through the diagram using the same process that would be used to create a DNF form.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Figure 4: A binary decision tree for  $f_1$  starting with  $B$ .

#### **4.2 The ID3 algorithm**

The ID3 algorithm can be described by the following pseudocode:

```
Require: ID3( node, instances, targets values, attributes )
```

```
Root ← node
V ← {instances}
T \leftarrow \{ \text{target values} \}A \leftarrow \{attributes\}if all v<sub>i</sub> ∈ V = ⊕ then return Root with label ⊕
end if
if all v<sub>i</sub> ∈ V = \ominus then return Root with label \ominusend if
if A = \emptyset then return single node tree Root with label = majority value of t in A
else
    A \leftarrow the attribute that best classifies instances in subset
    Root = A
    while vi ∈ A do
        add new branch where A = v_iV(v_i) \leftarrow subset of instances of A that have value v_iif V(v_i) \in \emptyset then
            add leaf node with label = majority value of T in A
        else
            add subtree ID3( node, V(vi), T, A)
        end if
    end while
end if
return Root
```
Constructing a decision tree is a recursive process to decide which attribute to use at each node of the decision tree. We want to choose the attribute that is the "best" at classifying the instances in the data set. "Best" here is a quantitative measure (a number). One such measure is a statistical measure called *Information Gain*. This determines how well a given attribute separates the data set as measured against the target classification.

ID3 uses the attribute with the highest *Information Gain* as the next node in constructing the tree. The ID3 algorithm is a recursive algorithm that constructs sub-trees for attribute values of each node, using the sub-sets of the data matching the attribute value of the sub-tree.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Figure 5: Decision tree showing how nodes are selected in the ID3 algorithm

Figure [5](#page-6-0) shows a decision tree with labels indicating how ID3 selects nodes in the construction of the tree.

To understand *Information Gain* we need to first look at the concept of *Entropy*.

#### *Entropy*

Entropy is an important concept in thermodynamics. Claude Shannon saw that the concept could be used to describe how much information there is in the outcome of a random discrete variable (such as determining if a coin will land heads up or not, or to make sure that communication over a network does not lose information). We can use the concept to measure the "usefulness" of a variable in terms of its information content. This idea forms the core of the decision tree construction process in ID3.

Given a discrete random variable  $X$ , which takes values in the alphabet  $X$  and is distributed according to  $p : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$ :

$$
H(X) \coloneqq -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log p(x) = \mathbb{E}[-\log p(X)]
$$

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

Figure 6: Entropy of a single variable

where the sum is calculated over all possible alphabet values  $\mathcal{X}$ . The base of the log matches the distribution of  $\rho$ . For example log<sub>2</sub> is used when the target values in the data is binary (yes/no or  $T/F$ ).

Figure [6](#page-7-0) shows the Entropy for a single variable. Here you can see that Entropy is always positive and can never be larger than 1.

#### *Information Gain*

Entropy can be viewed as a measure of the impurity of a collection of instances (a data set). In order to construct a decision tree we want to repeatedly sub-divide our data set in such a way that we create the largest reduction in entropy with each sub-division. The *Information Gain* of an attribute *A* relative to a dataset *S* is defined as:

$$
Gain(S, A) \equiv Entropy(S) - \sum_{v \in Values(A)} \frac{|S_v|}{|S|} Entropy(S_v)
$$

where *Values*(*A*) is the set of all possible values attribute *A* can have, |*S<sup>v</sup>* | is the subset of *S* where *A* has the values *v*.

ID3 uses *Information Gain* to find the attribute that splits the dataset in such a way that we have the highest reduction in entropy, or, as calculated above the highest *Information Gain*. The worked example in Subsection [4.3](#page-8-0) below will illustrate this in more detail.

#### <span id="page-8-0"></span>**4.3 Worked example**

<span id="page-8-1"></span>We will use the data set in Table [1](#page-8-1) to work through an example of the ID3 algorithm.



Table 1: A set of object, their attributes and classes (positive or negative)

First, we calculate the Entropy for the entire data set. We do this as a baseline against which to compare which attribute will become our root note. This is in turn is done by calculating the *Information Gain* for each attribute.

This is a binary classification problem. There are 14 instances, of which 5 result in **Class** =  $\oplus$  and 9 gives  $Class = \bigoplus$ . In other words:

$$
Entropy(S) \equiv Entropy([5_{\oplus}, 9_{\ominus}])
$$

There are four attributes, which we can shorten to  $(C, F, H, T)$  whose combination of values determine the value of the target attribute, **Class**.

Calculate the Entropy of the data set:

Entropy(S) 
$$
\equiv \sum_{i=1}^{c} -p_{i}log_{2}(p_{i})
$$

$$
= -p_{\oplus} log_{2}(p_{\oplus}) - p_{\ominus} log_{2}(p_{\ominus})
$$

$$
= -5/14 log_{2}(5/14) - 9/14 log_{2}(9/14)
$$

$$
= (-0.3571 \times -1.4854) + (-0.6429 \times -0.6374)
$$

$$
= 0.9403
$$

Attribute *C* can take on three values (shortened here):

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\text{Values}(C) & = & R, G, B \\
\mathbf{S}_C & = & [5_{\oplus}, 9_{\ominus}] \\
\mathbf{S}_{C=R} & \leftarrow & [2_{\oplus}, 2_{\ominus}] \\
\mathbf{S}_{C=G} & \leftarrow & [2_{\oplus}, 4_{\ominus}] \\
\mathbf{S}_{C=B} & \leftarrow & [1_{\oplus}, 3_{\ominus}] \\
\end{array}
$$

Calculate the Entropy values of the three subsets of the data associated with the values of the attribute *C*:

Entropy(S<sub>C=R</sub>) = 
$$
-^2/4 \log_2(\frac{2}{4}) - \frac{2}{4} \log_2(\frac{2}{4})
$$
  
\n= 1.0000  
\nEntropy(S<sub>C=G</sub>) =  $-\frac{2}{6} \log_2(\frac{2}{6}) - \frac{4}{6} \log_2(\frac{4}{6})$   
\n= 0.9183  
\nEntropy(S<sub>C=B</sub>) =  $-\frac{1}{4} \log_2(\frac{1}{4}) - \frac{3}{4} \log_2(\frac{3}{4})$   
\n= 0.8112

Calculate the *Information Gain* for attribute *C*:

Gain(S, C) = Entropy(S) - 
$$
\sum_{v \in \{R, G, B\}} \frac{|S_v|}{|S|} Entropy(S_v)
$$
  
= Entropy(S) - <sup>4</sup>/<sub>14</sub> Entropy(S<sub>C=R</sub>) - <sup>6</sup>/<sub>14</sub> Entropy(S<sub>C=G</sub>) - <sup>4</sup>/<sub>14</sub> Entropy(S<sub>C=B</sub>)  
= 0.9403 - <sup>4</sup>/<sub>14</sub> × 1.0000 - <sup>6</sup>/<sub>14</sub> × 0.9183 - <sup>4</sup>/<sub>14</sub> × 0.8112  
= 0.0292

Repeat these calculations for the other three attributes as well. We now get all the *Information Gain* values:

$$
Gain(S, C) = 0.0292
$$
  
\n
$$
Gain(S, F) = 0.2000
$$
  
\n
$$
Gain(S, H) = 0.1518
$$
  
\n
$$
Gain(S, T) = 0.0481
$$

The attribute with the highest *Information Gain* causes the highest reduction in entropy. This is the attribute **Form** with Gain(S, F) = 0.2000, which then becomes the root node of the decision tree, as shown in Figure [7.](#page-10-0)

The ID3 algorithm now recurses over the subsets of the data associated with the three branches of the root node of the decision tree.

<span id="page-10-0"></span>

<span id="page-10-1"></span>Figure 7: Decision tree after the first set of calculations

<b>Colour</b>		Form Hollow	<b>Transparent</b>	Class
<b>RED</b>	cube	yes	yes	⊕
<b>GREEN</b>	cube	no	no	$\ominus$
<b>BLUE</b>	cube	yes	no	$\ominus$
<b>RED</b>	cube	yes	no	$\ominus$
<b>GREEN</b>	cube	no	yes	$\oplus$
<b>GREEN</b>	cube	yes	no	⊖

Table 2: Subset of the data with **Form**=cube

In Table [2](#page-10-1) are 6 instances, of which 2 result in **Class** =  $\oplus$  and 4 gives **Class** =  $\ominus$ . Therefore:

 $Entropy(S_{F=c}) \equiv Entropy([2_{\oplus}, 4_{\ominus}])$ 

Calculate the Entropy of this sub-set of the data:

Entropy(S<sub>F=c</sub>) 
$$
\equiv \sum_{i=1}^{c} -p_i log_2(p_i)
$$
  
\n $\qquad = -p_{\oplus} log_2(p_{\oplus}) - p_{\ominus} log_2(p_{\ominus})$   
\n $\qquad = -2/6 log_2(2/6) - 4/6 log_2(4/6)$   
\n $\qquad = (-0.3333 \times -1.5850) + (-0.6667 \times -0.5850)$   
\n $\qquad = 0.9183$ 

Calculate the Entropy values of the three subsets of the data associated with the values of the attribute *C*:

> $\mathsf{Entropy}(\mathsf{S}_{\mathrm{F=c},\mathsf{C=R}}) = -\frac{1}{2} \log_2(\frac{1}{2}) - \frac{1}{2} \log_2(\frac{1}{2})$  $= 1.0000$  $Entropy(S_{F=c, C=G}) = -\frac{1}{3} log_2(\frac{1}{3}) - \frac{2}{3} log_2(\frac{2}{3})$  $= 0.9183$  $\mathsf{Entropy}(\mathsf{S}_{\mathrm{F=c},\mathsf{C=B}}) = -\frac{0}{1} \log_2(\frac{0}{1}) - \frac{1}{1} \log_2(\frac{1}{1})$  $= 0.0000$

<span id="page-11-0"></span>

Table 3: Subset of the data with **Form**=sphere

COIOUI FOIII			<b>HOIIOW Transparent Giass</b>	
<b>BLUE</b>	sphere	no	ves	$\leftrightarrow$
<b>RED</b>	sphere	no	no	$\ominus$
GREEN sphere		no	<b>ves</b>	⊖

Table 4: Subset of the data with **Form**=pyramid

<span id="page-11-1"></span>

Calculate the *Information Gain* for attribute *C*, where **Form**=cube:

Gain(S, C<sub>F=c</sub>) = Entropy(S) - 
$$
\sum_{v \in \{R, G, B\}} \frac{|S_v|}{|S|} Entropy(S_v)
$$
  
= Entropy(S) - <sup>2</sup>/6 Entropy(S<sub>C=R</sub>) - <sup>3</sup>/6 Entropy(S<sub>C=G</sub>) - <sup>1</sup>/6 Entropy(S<sub>C=B</sub>)  
= 0.9183 - <sup>2</sup>/6 × 1.0000 - <sup>3</sup>/6 × 0.9183 - <sup>1</sup>/6 × 0.0000  
= 0.1258

We do similar calculations for the rest of the subset to get:



The attribute with the highest *Information Gain* is **Transparent**, which then becomes the next node in the decision tree, under the branch with the value **Form**=cube. The data in Table [3](#page-11-0) show that all the instances have output  $\ominus$ , which means that we can define a leaf node under **Form**=sphere. The result of these calculations gives the decision tree as in Figure [8.](#page-12-0)

In Table [4,](#page-11-1) where **Form**=pyramid, are 5 instances, of which 3 result in **Class** = ⊕ and 2 gives **Class** =  $\ominus$ . Therefore:

$$
\mathsf{Entropy}(S_{\mathrm{F=p}}) \equiv \mathsf{Entropy}([3_\oplus, 2_\ominus])
$$

We do the same calculations are above to get:

Gain(S, C*F*=*<sup>c</sup>* ) = 0.9710

<span id="page-12-0"></span>



and

Gain(S, C*F*=*<sup>p</sup>* ) = 0.1710 Gain(S, H*F*=*<sup>p</sup>* ) = 0.9710 Gain(S, T*F*=*<sup>p</sup>* ) = 0.9710

<span id="page-12-1"></span>We now see an interesting phenomenon. The highest *Information Gain* values are the same for two possible branches. We can choose either, as they have the same effect in reducing Entropy. We have already used **Transparent** in another branch, so choosing **Hollow** will result in a simpler tree (Occam's razor) to get the decision tree as in Figure [9.](#page-12-1)



Figure 9: Decision tree after the 4th set of calculations

<span id="page-13-0"></span>We now have four branches of the tree to investigate, and possibly repeat the calculations. These branches correspond to sub-sets of the data. Tables [5](#page-13-0) and [6](#page-13-1) are the subsets under the branches of **Transparent**.

			Colour Form Hollow Transparent Class	
RED	cube	ves	yes	$\oplus$
GREEN cube		no	yes	Ð

Table 5: Subset of the data with **Form**=cube and **Transparent**=yes

<span id="page-13-1"></span>



<span id="page-13-2"></span>In both of these we see that there is only one output class in each. This means that we have two more leaf nodes, as in Figure [10.](#page-13-2)



Figure 10: Decision tree after the 5th set of observations

We are now left with two more subsets to investigate - those for the branches of **Hollow**. Tables [7](#page-14-0) and [8](#page-14-1) show these sub-sets.

Again, we observe a similar phenomenon as with the previous two subsets, namely that there is only a single class in each. This means that we have our final two leaf nodes, as in Figure [11.](#page-14-2)

<b>Colour</b>	Form		<b>Hollow Transparent Class</b>	
<b>GREEN</b>	pyramid	<b>ves</b>	no	⊕
<b>BLUE</b>	pyramid	yes	yes	$\oplus$
<b>RED</b>	pyramid	yes	no	⊕

<span id="page-14-0"></span>Table 7: Subset of the data with **Form**=pyramid and **Hollow**=yes

Table 8: Subset of the data with **Form**=pyramid and **Hollow**=no

<span id="page-14-2"></span><span id="page-14-1"></span>

Figure 11: Decision tree after the final set of observations

## **5 ACTIVITIES**

#### **5.1 TASK 1 - STUDY THE MATERIAL**

Find and read all the online material shown earlier in this document. Study the relevant concepts carefully and thoroughly.

#### **5.2 TASK 2 - OTHER DECISION TREE ALGORITHMS**

Find resources (some of this will be in the textbooks and material you have already studied in the first task) on other algorithms for contructing decision trees. Some of these algorithms include ID3 (what you've studied here), C4.5, and CART.

Study these algorithms so that you understand how they work, and on what kinds of data sets they can be applied. What are the differences? What are the advantages and shortcomings of these algorithms. What would you do with missing or incorrect data? How would you handle non-categorical or continuous data? Can you use other costs functions? Can you use different cost functions in different parts of the data set? Why and when would you do so?

#### **5.3 TASK 3**

Find resources on more advanced extentions of decision-tree learning. Look specifically at ensemble methods, such as bagging an boosting, and their further extension into random forests.

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