Chapter 11 Decision Tree

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Tree-based Models

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Machine Learning $1: 81-106$, 1986 \odot 1986 Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston $-$ Manufactured in The Netherlands

Induction of Decision Trees

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Abstract. The technology for building knowledge-based systems by inductive inference from examples has been demonstrated successfully in several practical applications. This paper summarizes an approach to synthesizing decision trees that has been used in a variety of systems, and it describes one such system, ID3, in detail. Results from recent studies show ways in which the methodology can be modified to deal with information that is noisy and/or incomplete. A reported shortcoming of the basic algorithm is discussed and two means of overcoming it are compared. The paper concludes with illustrations of current research directions.

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Tree-based Models

Feature importances with a forest of trees

This example shows the use of a forest of trees to evaluate the importance of features on an artificial classification task. The blue bars are the feature importances of the forest, along with their inter-trees variability represented by the error bars.

As expected, the plot suggests that 3 features are informative, while the remaining are not.

impurity-based importance

accumulation of the impurity decrease within each tree (random forest)

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Outline

- **n** Basic Process
- **n** Split Selection
- **n** Pruning
- **n** Continuous and Missing Values
- **n** Multivariate Decision Trees

Characteristics of Decision Trees

- \triangleright Non-linear classifier / regression.
- \triangleright Easy to use.
- \triangleright Easy to interpret.
- \triangleright Susceptible to overfitting but can be avoided.

Basic Process

n A decision tree makes decisions based on tree structures.

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Basic Process

- Every question asked in the decision process is a "test" on one feature.
- The conclusions at the end of the decision process correspond to the possible classifications.
- **Exery test leads to either the conclusion or an additional test** conditioned on the current answer.
- Each path from the root node to the leaf node is a decision sequence.

The goal is to produce a tree that can generalize to predict unseen samples.

Basic Process

Algorithm 4.1 Decision Tree Learning.

 (i) All samples in the current node belong to the same class.

(2) The current feature set is empty, or all samples have the same feature values.

 (3) There is no sample in the current node.

 D : return

class in D ; return

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Split Selection

- The core of the decision tree learning algorithm is selecting the optimal splitting feature. Generally speaking, as the splitting process proceeds, we wish more samples within each node to belong to a single class, that is, increasing the purity of each node.
- Classical Guidelines for Selecting the Splitting Features:
	- Information Gain
	- ^q Gain Ratio
	- \Box Gini Index

One of the most commonly used measures for purity is information entropy, or simply entropy. Let p_k denote the proportion of the k -th class in the current data set D , where $k = 1, 2, ..., |\mathcal{Y}|$. Then, the entropy is defined as

$$
\text{Ent}(D) = -\sum_{k=1}^{|\mathcal{Y}|} p_k \log_2 p_k
$$

The lower the $Ent(D)$, the higher the purity of *D*.

- In the calculation of entropy, $p \log_2 p = 0$ when $p = 0$.
- The minimum of $Ent(D)$ is 0 and the maximum is $log_2 |y|$.

Suppose that the discrete feature a has V possible values $\{a^1, a^2, ..., a^V\}$. Then, splitting the data set D by feature a produces V child nodes, where the *U*th child node D^v includes all samples in D taking the value a^v for feature a . Then, the *information gain* of splitting the data set D with feature a is calculated as

$$
Gain(D, a) = Ent(D) - \sum_{v=1}^{V} \frac{|D^v|}{|D|} Ent(D^v)
$$

is the importance of each node. The greater the number of samples, the greater the impact of the branch node.

- In general, the higher the information gain, the more purity improvement we can expect by splitting D with feature α .
- The decision tree algorithm ID_3 [Quinlan, 1986] takes information gain as the guideline for selecting the splitting features.

What is Information?

- \triangleright If the probability of this event happening is small and it happens, the information is large.
- Observing the outcome of a coin flip is head.

$$
I = -\log_2 \frac{1}{2} = 1
$$

• Observe the outcome of a dice is 6.

$$
I = -\log_2 \frac{1}{6} = 2.58
$$

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What is Entropy?

 \triangleright The expected amount of information when observing the output of a random variable X .

$$
H(X) = E(I(X)) = \sum_{i} p(x_i)I(x_i) = \sum_{i} p(x_i) \log_2 p(x_i)
$$

 \triangleright If the X can have 8 outcomes and all are equally likely.

$$
H(X) = -\sum_{i} \frac{1}{8} \log_2 \frac{1}{8} = 3
$$

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\blacksquare A Concrete Example

This data set includes 17 training samples. $8/17$ of them are positive and $9/17$ of them are negative. the entropy of the root node is

$$
Ent(D) = -\sum_{k=1}^{2} p_k \log_2 p_k = -\left(\frac{8}{17} \log_2 \frac{8}{17} + \frac{9}{17} \log_2 \frac{9}{17}\right) = 0.998
$$

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 \blacksquare If D is split by color, then there are 3 subsets: D^1 (color = green), D^2 (color = dark) and D^3 (color = light).

Q Subset D^1 includes 6 samples $\{1, 4, 6, 10, 13, 17\}$, in which of them are positive and $p_2 = \frac{3}{6}$ of them are negative. D^2 and D^3 can be discussed similarly. The entropy of the 3 child nodes are

 $\text{Ent}(D^1) = -(\frac{3}{6}\log_2\frac{3}{6} + \frac{3}{6}\log_2\frac{3}{6}) = 1.000$ $\text{Ent}(D^2) = -(\frac{4}{6}\log_2 \frac{4}{6} + \frac{2}{6}\log_2 \frac{2}{6}) = 0.918$ $Ent(D^3) = -(\frac{1}{5}\log_2\frac{1}{5} + \frac{4}{5}\log_2\frac{4}{5}) = 0.722$ \Box The information gain of splitting by color is $Gain(D, color) = Ent(D) - \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{|D^v|}{|D|} Ent(D^v)$ $= 0.998 - (\frac{6}{17} \times 1.000 + \frac{6}{17} \times 0.918 + \frac{5}{17} \times 0.722)$ $= 0.109$

Similarly, we calculate the information gain of other features:

 $Gain(D, root) = 0.143;$ $Gain(D, sound) = 0.141;$ $Gain(D, \text{texture}) = 0.381;$ $Gain(D, umbilicus) = 0.289;$ $Gain(D, surface) = 0.006.$

Since splitting by texture gives the highest information gain, it is chosen as the splitting feature.

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Then, each child node is further split by the decision tree algorithm. We can obtain the final decision tree:

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ID3 Algorithm

Algorithm 1 ID3

procedure $ID3(T)$

if T only consists of the same target values then

return Leaf with target value

else if T has the same values for the same attributes but different target values then

return Leaf with target value that occurs most end if

 $a \leftarrow$ Attribute in T with highest information gain $node \leftarrow Node$ with attribute a $partitions \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(T,a)$ for *partition* in *partitions* do $subtree \leftarrow ID3(partition)$ Add *subtree* to node end for return *node* end procedure

ID3 Algorithm

Algorithm 2 Partitioning

procedure PARTITION(T, a)

 $partitions \leftarrow \emptyset$

for every value v that the attribute a can have in T do $partition \leftarrow all sets in T that have the value v on$ attribute a

Add partition to partitions end for return *partitions* end procedure

Bias

If we consider ID as a candidate splitting feature, its information gain will be much higher than that of any other features in general. However, such a decision tree does not have generalization ability and cannot effectively predict new samples.

It turns out that the information gain criterion is biased towards features with more possible values.

Split Selection: Gain Ratio

 \blacksquare The *gain ratio (normalized)* of feature a is defined as Gain_ratio(D, a) = $\frac{\text{Gain}(D,a)}{\text{IV}(a)}$

where

$$
IV(a) = -\sum_{v=1}^{V} \frac{|D^v|}{|D|} \log_2 \frac{|D^v|}{|D|}
$$
 Gain (D, a) = Ent $(D) - \sum_{v=1}^{V} \frac{|D^v|}{|D|} Ent(D^v)$

is called the *intrinsic information (value)* of feature a. It penalizes features with a large number of distinct values, favoring simpler splits.

Gain ratio is biased towards features with fewer possible values.

 \Box The C4.5 algorithm [Quinlan, 1993] uses a heuristic method : selecting the feature with the highest gain ratio from the set of candidate features with an information gain above the average.

Split Selection: Gini Index

The Gini value of data set D is defined as

$$
Gini(D) = \sum_{k=1}^{|\mathcal{Y}|} \sum_{k' \neq k} p_k p_{k'} = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{|\mathcal{Y}|} p_k^2
$$

the probability of incorrectly classifying a randomly chosen sample if it is randomly labeled according to the class distribution.

The lower the $\mathrm{Gini}(D)$, the higher the purity of data set D.

 \blacksquare The *Gini index (impurity)* of feature a is defined as Gini_index $(D, a) = \sum_{v=1}^{V} \frac{|D^v|}{|D|}$ Gini (D^v)

 \Box We select the feature with the lowest Gini index as the splitting feature
 $a_* = \arg\!\min \text{ Gini}\!\!\!\!\mod (D,a)$

 $a \in A$

□ CART [Breiman et al., 1984] employs Gini index for selecting the splitting feature.

ChatGPT Poe

Certainly! Let's consider a simple example where we have a dataset with 10 elements and two classes: Class A and Class B. Here's the distribution of the classes within the dataset:

Class A: 6 elements Class B: 4 elements

To calculate the Gini impurity, we follow these steps:

- 1. Calculate the probability of each class label:
	- Probability of Class A: $6/10 = 0.6$
	- Probability of Class B: $4/10 = 0.4$
- 2. Calculate the Gini impurity using the formula: Gini impurity = $1 - (p1^2 + p2^2)$ Gini impurity = $1 - (0.6^2 + 0.4^2)$ Gini impurity = $1 - (0.36 + 0.16)$ Gini impurity = $1 - 0.52$ Gini impurity = 0.48

So, in this example, the Gini impurity of the dataset is 0.48. This value indicates the impurity or disorder within the dataset, with a higher value representing a less pure distribution of classes.

Note that the Gini impurity can also be calculated at each internal node of a decision tree to determine the impurity of the subsets created by different splits. The split with the lowest Gini impurity is typically chosen as it leads to more homogeneous child nodes and better separation of classes.

Regression tree?

Hint:

\Box standard deviation is used as the metric \Box leaf value typically set to the mean value

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information gain in regression tree

SU

 \circledS

In a regression tree, the goal is to minimize the variance of the target variable within each ⇧ \Box leaf node. The information gain for a split in a regression tree is given by:

$$
IG=Var(parent)-\frac{N_{left}}{N}Var(left)-\frac{N_{right}}{N}Var(right)
$$

where \$Var(parent)\$ is the variance of the target variable in the parent node before the split, \$N\$ is the total number of observations in the parent node, \$N_{left}\$ and \$N {right}\$ are the number of observations in the left and right child nodes resulting from the split, and \$Var(left)\$ and \$Var(right)\$ are the variances of the target variable in the left and right child nodes, respectively.

This formula calculates the reduction in variance between the parent node and the two child nodes resulting from the split. The split that maximizes the information gain is selected as the best split for the tree.

The information gain is a commonly used criterion for selecting the best split in decision trees, and it can also be applied in other types of trees, including regression trees.

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Pruning

Why pruning?

- **p** *Pruning* is the primary strategy of decision tree learning algorithms to deal with overfitting.
- \Box If there are too many branches, then the learner may be misled by the peculiarities of the training samples and incorrectly consider them as the underlying truth.
- **n** General Pruning Strategies
	- ^q *pre-pruning*
	- ^q *post-pruning*
- How to evaluate generalization ability after pruning?
	- □ We can use the hold-out method to reserve part of the data as a validation set for performance evaluation.

Pruning

Data Set

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Pruning

The Unpruned Decision Tree

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- Pre-pruning decides by comparing the generalization abilities before and after splitting.
	- \Box If the validation accuracy decreases after pruning, the splitting is accepted.
	- \Box Otherwise, the splitting is rejected.
- \blacksquare When no splitting is performed, this node is marked as a leaf node and its label is set to the majority class.

validation accuracy

Node \circledcirc : When no splitting is performed, this node is marked as a leaf node and its label is set to the majority class $(i.e., *ripe*)$. In validation set, $\{4, 5, 8\}$ are correctly classified. Then the validation accuracy is

 $\frac{3}{7} \times 100\% = 42.9\%$

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Validation Set

validation accuracy before splitting: 42.9% "umbilicus=?" after splitting: 71.4% umbilicus=? decision by pre-pruning: split slightly hollow hollow flat 4 unripe ripe ripe

Node $\mathbb D$: After splitting, the samples are placed into 3 child nodes. We mark these 3 nodes as leaf nodes and set the labels to the majority classes. Then the validation accuracy is

 $\frac{5}{7} \times 100\% = 71.4\%$

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Validation Set

The pre-pruning strategy stops splitting node $\textcircled{3}$ and node $\textcircled{2}$. For node (4) , no splitting is needed since all samples belong to the same class. Finally, we obtain a decision tree with only one splitting. Such a decision tree is called a decision stump.

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Set

- **n** Advantage
	- \Box Reduce the risk of overfitting
	- \Box Reduce the computational cost of training and testing
- **n** Disadvantage
	- □ Risk of underfitting: Although some branches are prevented by pre-pruning due to little or even negative improvement on generalization ability, it is still possible that their subsequent splits can lead to significant improvement. These branches are pruned due to the greedy nature of pre-pruning, and it may introduce the risk of underfitting.

 \Box Post-pruning allows a decision tree to grow into a complete tree. Then it takes a bottom-up strategy to examine every non-leaf node in the completely grown decision tree.

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 \blacksquare Node \odot is the first one examined by post-pruning.

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 \blacksquare Node \odot is the first one examined by post-pruning.

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Next, post-pruning examines node \odot .

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Next, post-pruning examines node \odot .

validation accuracy before pruning: 57.1% after pruning: 71.4% decision: pruning

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Post-pruning examines node $\textcircled{3}$ and node $\textcircled{1}$ similarly.

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Finally, the post-pruning decision tree is

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n Advantage

- \Box Post-pruning keeps more branches than prepruning. In general, post-pruning is less prone to underfitting and leads to better generalization ability compared to pre-pruning.
- **n** Disadvantage
	- □ The training time of post-pruning is much longer since it takes a bottom-up strategy to examine every non-leaf node in a completely grown decision tree.

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Continuous Values

\Box Discretization Strategy (Bi-partition)

• Given a data set D and a continuous feature a , suppose n values of a are observed in D , and we sort these values in ascending order, denoted by $a^1, a^2, ... a^n$. With a split point t, D is partitioned into the subsets D_t^- and D_t^+ , where $D_t^$ includes the samples with the value of a not greater than t, and D_t^+ includes the samples with the value of a greater than t. There are $n-1$ elements in the following set of candidate split points:

$$
T_a = \left\{ \frac{a^i + a^{i+1}}{2} \mid 1 \le i \le n - 1 \right\}
$$

where the midpoint $\frac{a^i+a^{i+1}}{2}$ is used as the candidate split point for the interval $[a^i, a^{i-1})$.

Continuous Values

 \Box Discretization Strategy (Bi-partition)

• The split points are examined in the same way as discrete features, and the optimal split points are selected for splitting nodes.

$$
Gain(D, a) = \max_{t \in T_a} Gain(D, a, t)
$$

=
$$
\max_{t \in T_a} Ent(D) - \sum_{\lambda \in \{-, +\}} \frac{|D_t^{\lambda}|}{|D|} Ent(D_t^{\lambda})
$$

where $\text{Gain}(D, a, t)$ is the information gain of bi-partitioning D by t, and the split point with the largest $\text{Gain}(D, a, t)$ is selected.

Continuous Values

A Concrete Example

For the feature density, its candidate split point set includes 16 values:

 $T_{\text{density}} = \{0.244, 0.294, 0.351,$ $0.381, 0.420, 0.459, 0.518, 0.574,$ $0.600, 0.621, 0.636, 0.648, 0.661,$ $0.681, 0.708, 0.746$

The information gain of density is 0.262 , and the corresponding split point is 0.381 .

Unlike discrete features, a continuous feature can be used as a splitting feature more than once in a decision sequence.

Optimal splits for continuous attributes

Optimal splits for continuous attributes

 \blacksquare Moving split point along the empty space between two observed values has no effect on information gain or empirical loss; so just use midpoint

$$
-0.00 - 0.0 - 0.0 - 0.0 - 0.00 - 0.0 - 0.00 - 0.0 - 0.00
$$

 \blacksquare Moreover, only splits between examples from different classes can be optimal for information gain or empirical loss reduction

$$
-0.00000 - 0.0000 - -0.0000 - -0.000
$$

- In practice, data is often incomplete, that is, some feature values are missing in some samples.
- Can we simply discard the incomplete samples?

It is a huge waste of data.

Learning from incomplete samples raises two problems:

Q1: how to choose the splitting features when there are missing values

 Q_2 : how to split a sample with the splitting feature value missing?

- \Box Given a training set D and a feature a , let \ddot{D} be the subset of samples in D that have values of a , \tilde{D}^v denote the subset of samples in \tilde{D} taking the value a^v , \tilde{D}_k denote the subset of samples in \tilde{D} belonging to the kth class. We assign a weight w_x to each sample x , and define:
	- \bullet the proportion of samples without missing values

$$
\rho = \frac{\sum_{x \in \tilde{D}} w_x}{\sum_{x \in D} w_x}
$$

 $\bullet\,$ the proportion of the k th class in all samples without missing values

$$
\tilde{p}_k = \frac{\sum_{x \in \tilde{D}_k} w_x}{\sum_{x \in \tilde{D}} w_x} \quad (1 \le k \le |\mathcal{Y}|)
$$

 \bullet the proportion of samples taking the feature value a^v in all samples without missing values

$$
\tilde{r}_v = \frac{\sum_{x \in \tilde{D}^v} w_x}{\sum_{x \in \tilde{D}} w_x} \quad (1 \le v \le V)
$$

 \Box For Q1, with the above definitions, we extend the information gain to

$$
Gain(D, a) = \rho \times \text{Gain}(\tilde{D}, a)
$$

= $\rho \times \left(\text{Ent}(\tilde{D}) - \sum_{v=1}^{V} \tilde{r}_v \text{Ent}(\tilde{D}^v) \right)$

where

$$
\operatorname{Ent}(\tilde{D}) = -\sum_{k=1}^{|\mathcal{Y}|} \tilde{p}_k \log_2 \tilde{p}_k
$$

 \Box For Q2,

- when the value of a is known, we place the sample x into the corresponding child node without changing its weight w_x .
- when the value of a is unknown, we place the sample x into all child nodes, and set its weight in the child node of value a^v to $\tilde{r}_v \cdot w_x$. In other words, we place the same sample into different child nodes with different probabilities.

A Concrete Example

- In the beginning, the root node includes all of the 17 samples in D , and all samples have the weight of 1.
	- Taking color as an example, the set of samples without missing values of this feature, denoted by \tilde{D} , includes 14 samples. The entropy of D is calculated as

Ent(
$$
\tilde{D}
$$
) = $-\sum_{k=1}^{2} \tilde{p}_k \log_2 \tilde{p}_k = -(\frac{6}{14} \log_2 \frac{6}{14} + \frac{8}{14} \log_2 \frac{8}{14}) = 0.985$

 \blacksquare Let \tilde{D}^1 , \tilde{D}^2 , and \tilde{D}^3 be the subsets of samples with color $=$ green, $color = dark$, and $color = light$, respectively. Then, we have

 $Ent(\tilde{D}^1) = -(\frac{2}{4}\log_2\frac{2}{4} + \frac{2}{4}\log_2\frac{2}{4}) = 1.000 \quad Ent(\tilde{D}^2) = -(\frac{4}{6}\log_2\frac{4}{6} + \frac{2}{6}\log_2\frac{2}{6}) = 0.918$ $\text{Ent}(\tilde{D}^3) = -\left(\frac{0}{4}\log_2\frac{0}{4} + \frac{4}{4}\log_2\frac{4}{4}\right) = 0.000$

 \blacksquare The information gain of color for subset \tilde{D} is Gain $(\tilde{D}, \text{color}) = \text{Ent}(\tilde{D}) - \sum \tilde{r}_v \text{Ent}(\tilde{D}^v)$ $= 0.985 - \left(\frac{4}{14} \times 1.000 + \frac{6}{14} \times 0.918 + \frac{4}{14} \times 0.000\right)$ $= 0.306.$ \blacksquare The information gain of color for data set D is

$$
Gain(D, color) = \rho \times Gain(\tilde{D}, color) = \frac{14}{17} \times 0.306 = 0.252.
$$

n Similarly, we have

 $Gain(D, color) = 0.252;$

 $Gain(D, sound) = 0.252;$

 $Gain(D, umbilicus) = 0.289;$

 $Gain(D, root) = 0.171;$

 $Gain(D, \text{texture}) = 0.424;$

 $Gain(D, texture) = 0.006.$

clear slightly blurry blurry

The weights of these samples $(i.e., 1)$ remain unchanged in the child nodes.

> Missing. The sample is placed into all of the three child nodes with different weights:

$$
\frac{7}{15}
$$
, $\frac{5}{15}$, and $\frac{3}{15}$.

ID umbilicus surface color root. sound texture ripe muffled clear hollow hard curly true $\overline{2}$ dark dull clear hollow curly true 3 dark clear hollow curly hard true $\overline{4}$ dull clear hollow hard green curly true $5⁵$ muffled clear hollow \sim curly hard true 6 muffled green slightly curly clear soft true $\overline{7}$ dark slightly curly muffled slightly blurry slightly hollow soft true 8 dark slightly curly muffled slightly hollow hard true $\overline{9}$ dull dark slightly blurry slightly hollow hard false straight 10 crisp flat soft false green 11 light straight blurry flat ц. false crisp 12 light blurry flat false curly \sim soft 13 \sim slightly curly muffled slightly blurry hollow false hard 14 slightly curly dull slightly blurry hollow hard false light 15 slightly curly muffled clear false dark ÷. soft 16 flat hard false light curly muffled blurry $17[°]$ dull slightly blurry slightly hollow false green \sim hard

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Any other approaches? Imputation of missing values

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> from sklearn.impute import SimpleImputer
>>> imp = SimpleImputer(missing_values=np.nan, strategy='mean')
\gg imp.fit([[1, 2], [np.nan, 3], [7, 6]])
SimpleImputer()
\Rightarrow X = [[np, nan, 2], [6, np, nan], [7, 6]]\Rightarrow print(imp.transform(X))
\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 4 & 1 \end{array} \right]2.[6. 3.666...]\overline{7}.
                           116.
```
strategy : str, default='mean'

The imputation strategy.

- If "mean", then replace missing values using the mean along each column. Can only be used with numeric data.
- If "median", then replace missing values using the median along each column. Can only be used with numeric data.
- If "most_frequent", then replace missing using the most frequent value along each column. Can be used with strings or numeric data. If there is more than one such value, only the smallest is returned.
- If "constant", then replace missing values with fill_value. Can be used with strings or numeric data.

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n Multivariate Decision Trees

Multivariate Decision Trees

- For decision trees, the decision boundaries are axis-parallel.
- *Multivariate Decision Tree*

- Each non-leaf node is no longer a test for a particular feature but a linear combination of features.
- Each non-leaf node is a linear classifier in the form of $\sum_{i=1}^{d} w_i a_i = t$, where w_i is the weight of feature a_i , and w_i and t are learned from the data set and feature set of the node.

Multivariate Decision Trees

n Decision Tree

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Multivariate Decision Trees

n Multivariate Decision Trees

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Take Home Message

- **n** Splitting Features Selection
- **n** Pruning (Pre-pruning and Post-pruning)
- **n** Continuous and Missing Values
- Multivariate Decision Tree

Software Packages

- ⁿ Scikit-learn https://scikit[learn.org/stable/modules/tree.html](http://www.cs.waikato.ac.nz/ml/weka/)
- $ID_3, C_4.5, C_5.0$ http://www.rulequest.com/Personal/

\blacksquare J₄8 http://www.cs.waikato.ac.nz/ml/weka/

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feature importance

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