

Machine Learning

B. Supervised Learning: Nonlinear Models

B.3. Decision Trees

Lars Schmidt-Thieme

Information Systems and Machine Learning Lab (ISMLL)
Institute for Computer Science
University of Hildesheim, Germany

Syllabus

- Fri. 26.10. (1) 0. Introduction
- A. Supervised Learning: Linear Models & Fundamentals**
- Fri. 2.11. (2) A.1 Linear Regression
- Fri. 9.11. (3) A.2 Linear Classification
- Fri. 16.11. (4) A.3 Regularization
- Fri. 23.11. (5) A.4 High-dimensional Data
- B. Supervised Learning: Nonlinear Models**
- Fri. 30.11. (6) B.1 Nearest-Neighbor Models
- Fri. 7.12. (7) B.2 Neural Networks
- Fri. 14.12. (8) B.3 Decision Trees
- Fri. 21.12. (9) B.4 Support Vector Machines
- *Christmas Break* —
- Fri. 11.1. (10) B.5 A First Look at Bayesian and Markov Networks
- C. Unsupervised Learning**
- Fri. 18.1. (11) C.1 Clustering
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- Fri. 1.2. (13) C.3 Frequent Pattern Mining
- Fri. 8.2. (14) Q&A

Outline

1. What is a Decision Tree?
2. Splits
3. Regularization
4. Learning Decision Trees
5. Split Quality Criteria

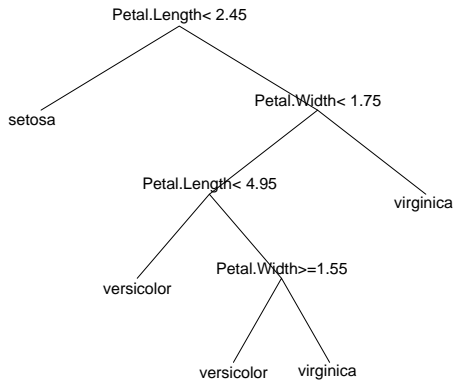
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Decision Tree

A **decision tree** is a tree that

1. at each **inner node** has a **splitting rule** that assigns instances uniquely to child nodes of the actual node, and
2. at each **leaf node** has a **prediction** (class label).

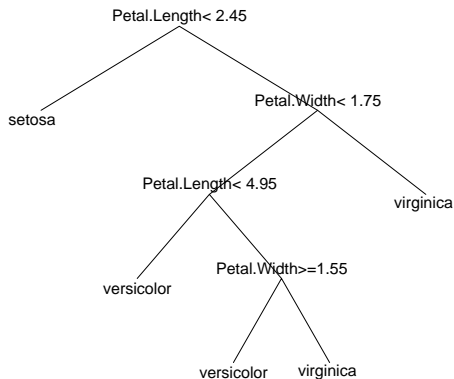


Note: The splitting rule is also called **decision rule**, the prediction the **decision**.

Using a Decision Tree

The class of a given case $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is predicted by

1. starting at the root node,
2. at each interior node
 - evaluate the splitting rule for x and
 - branch to the child node picked by the splitting rule, (default: left = “true”, right = “false”)
3. once a leaf node is reached,
 - predict the class assigned to that node as class of the case x .



Example:

x : Petal.Length = 6, Petal.Width = 1.6

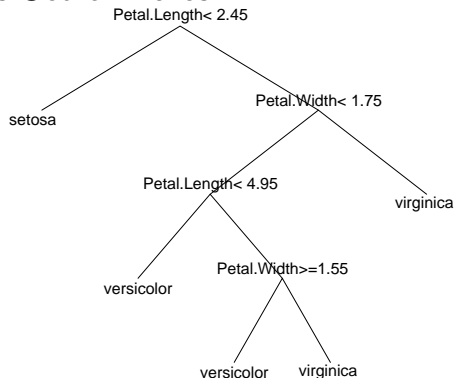
Decision Tree as Set of Rules

Each branch of a decision tree can be formulated as a single conjunctive rule

*if condition₁(x) and condition₂(x) and ... and condition_k(x),
then y = class label at the leaf of the branch.*

A decision tree is equivalent to a set of such rules,
one for each branch.

Decision Tree as Set of Rules



set of rules:

$\text{Petal.Length} < 2.45 \rightarrow \text{class}=\text{setosa}$

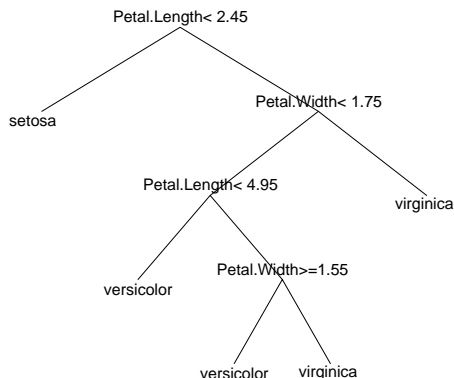
$\text{Petal.Length} \geq 2.45$ and $\text{Petal.Width} < 1.75$ and $\text{Petal.Length} < 4.95 \rightarrow \text{class}=\text{versicolor}$

$\text{Petal.Length} \geq 2.45$ and $\text{Petal.Width} < 1.75$ and $\text{Petal.Length} \geq 4.95$ and $\text{Petal.Width} \geq 1.55$
 $\rightarrow \text{class}=\text{versicolor}$

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 $\rightarrow \text{class}=\text{virginica}$

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Decision Tree as Set of Rules

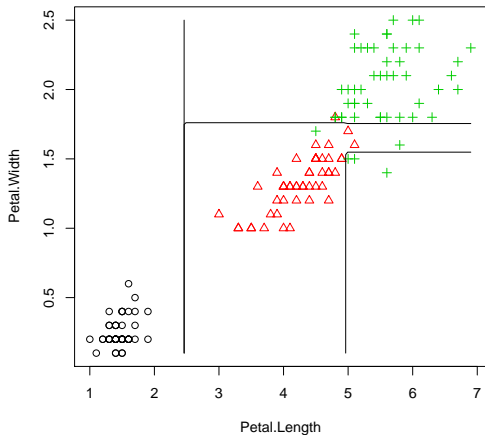
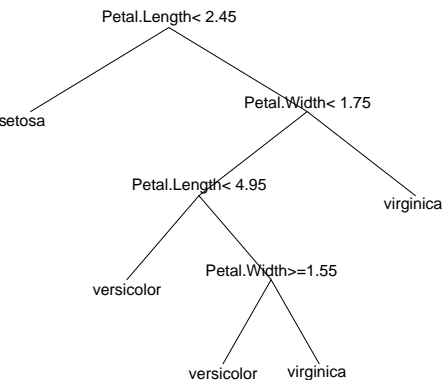


set of rules:

$\text{Petal.Length} < 2.45$		$\rightarrow \text{class}=\text{setosa}$
$\text{Petal.Length} \in [2.45, 4.95[$	and $\text{Petal.Width} < 1.75$	$\rightarrow \text{class}=\text{versicolor}$
$\text{Petal.Length} \geq 4.95$	and $\text{Petal.Width} \in [1.55, 1.75[$	$\rightarrow \text{class}=\text{versicolor}$
$\text{Petal.Length} \geq 4.95$	and $\text{Petal.Width} < 1.55$	$\rightarrow \text{class}=\text{virginica}$
$\text{Petal.Length} \geq 2.45$	and $\text{Petal.Width} \geq 1.75$	$\rightarrow \text{class}=\text{virginica}$

Decision Boundaries

Decision boundaries are rectangular.



Regression Tree

A **regression tree** is a tree that

1. at each **inner node** has a **splitting rule** that assigns instances uniquely to child nodes of the actual node, and
2. at each **leaf node** has a **target value**.

Regression Tree & Probability Trees

A **regression tree** is a tree that

1. at each **inner node** has a **splitting rule** that assigns instances uniquely to child nodes of the actual node, and
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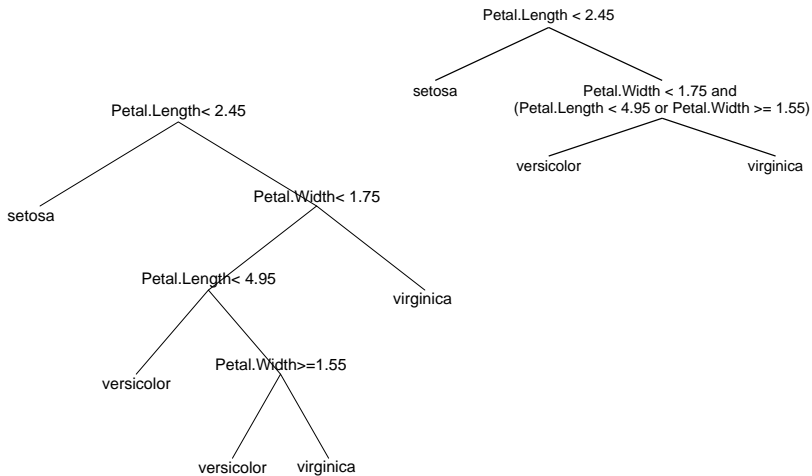
A **probability tree** is a tree that

1. at each **inner node** has a **splitting rule** that assigns instances uniquely to child nodes of the actual node, and
2. at each **leaf node** has a **class probability distribution**.

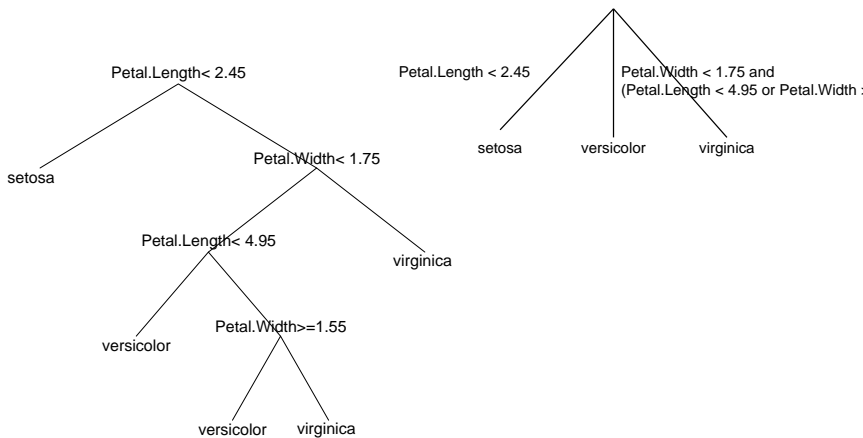
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An alternative Decision Tree?



An alternative Decision Tree?



Simple Splits

To allow all kinds of splitting rules at the interior nodes (also called **splits**) does not make much sense. The very idea of decision trees is that

- ▶ the **splits** at each node are rather **simple** and
- ▶ more complex structures are captured by **chaining several simple decisions** in a tree structure.

Therefore, the set of possible splits is kept small by opposing several types of restrictions on possible splits:

- ▶ by restricting the **number of variables** used per split (univariate vs. multivariate decision tree),
- ▶ by restricting the **number of children** per node (binary vs. n-ary decision tree),
- ▶ by allowing only some **special types** of splits (e.g., complete splits, interval splits, etc.).

Types of Splits: Univariate vs. Multivariate

A split is called **univariate** if it uses only a single variable, otherwise **multivariate**.

Example:

“Petal.Width $<$ 1.75” is univariate,

“Petal.Width $<$ 1.75 and Petal.Length $<$ 4.95” is bivariate.

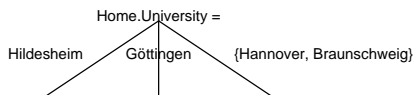
- ▶ Multivariate splits that are mere conjunctions of univariate splits better would be represented in the tree structure.
- ▶ But there are also multivariate splits than cannot be represented by a conjunction of univariate splits, e.g.,
“Petal.Width / Petal.Length $<$ 1”
 - ▶ can be represented by a univariate split on an additional predictor
“Petal.Width / Petal.Length”

Types of Splits: n -ary

A split is called **n -ary** if it has n children.
 (**Binary** is used for 2-ary, **ternary** for 3-ary.)

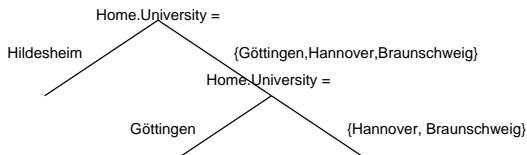
Example:

“Petal.Length < 1.75” is binary,



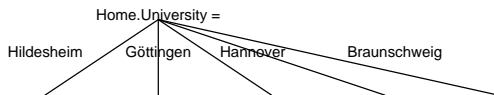
is ternary.

- All n -ary splits can be also represented as a tree of binary splits, e.g.,



Types of Splits: Complete Splits

A univariate split on a nominal variable is called **complete** if each value is mapped to a child of its own, i.e., the mapping between values and children is bijective.



- ▶ A complete split is n -ary (where n is the number of different values for the nominal variable).

Types of Splits: Interval Splits

A univariate split on an at least ordinal variable is called **interval split** if for **each** child all the values assigned to that child are an interval.

Examples:

“Petal.Width < 1.75 ” is an interval split.

“(i) Petal.Width < 1.45 ,

(ii) Petal.Width ≥ 1.45 and Petal.Width < 1.75 ,

(iii) Petal.Width ≥ 1.75 ” also is an interval split.

“Petal.Width < 1.75 or Petal.Width ≥ 2.4 ” is not an interval split.

Types of Decision Trees

A decision tree is called

univariate,

n -ary,

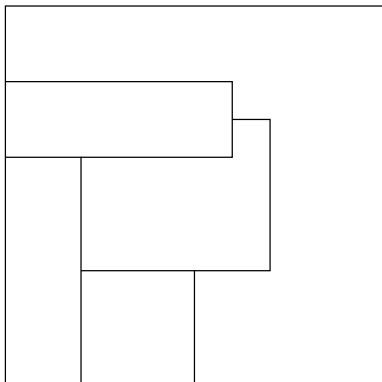
with complete splits or

with interval splits,

if **all** its splits have the corresponding property.

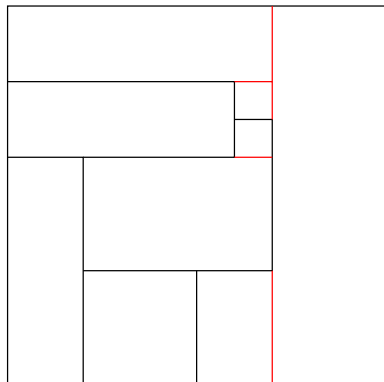
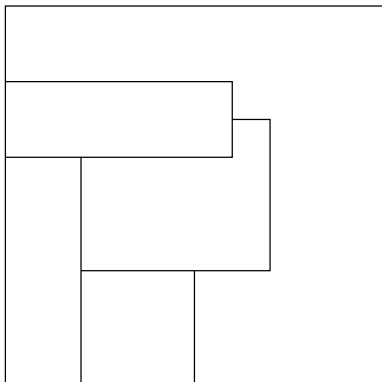
Binary Univariate Interval Splits

There are partitions (sets of rules)
that cannot be created by binary univariate splits.



Binary Univariate Interval Splits

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that cannot be created by binary univariate splits.



But all partitions can be refined
s.t. they can be created by binary univariate splits.

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Learning Regression Trees (1/2)

Imagine, the **tree structure is already given**,
thus the partition

$$R_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, K$$

of the predictor space is already given.

Then the remaining problem is to **assign a predicted value**

$$\hat{y}_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, K$$

to each cell.

Learning Regression Trees (2/2)

Fit criteria such as the **smallest residual sum of squares** can be decomposed in partial criteria for cases falling in each cell:

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - \hat{y}(x_n))^2 = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{n=1, x_n \in R_k}^n (y_n - \hat{y}_k)^2$$

and this sum is minimal if the partial sum for each cell is minimal.

This is the same as fitting a constant model to the points in each cell and thus the \hat{y}_j with smallest RSS are just the **means**:

$$\hat{y}_k := \text{average}\{y_n \mid n = 1, \dots, N; x_n \in R_k\}$$

Learning Decision Trees

The same argument shows that

- ▶ for a probability tree with given structure
the **class probabilities with maximum likelihood** are just
the **relative frequencies of the classes** of the points in that region:

$$\hat{p}(Y = y | x \in R_k) = \frac{|\{n | n = 1, \dots, N; x_n \in R_k, y_n = y\}|}{|\{n | n = 1, \dots, N; x_n \in R_k\}|}$$

- ▶ And for a decision tree with given structure, that
the **class label with smallest misclassification rate** is just
the **majority class label** of the points in that region:

$$\hat{y}(x \in R_k) = \arg \max_y |\{n | n = 1, \dots, N; x_n \in R_k, y_n = y\}|$$

Possible Tree Structures

- ▶ Even when possible splits are restricted,
 - ▶ e.g., only binary univariate interval splits are allowed,then tree structures can be built that separate all cases in tiny cells that contain just a single point (if there are no points with same predictors).
- ▶ For such a very fine-grained partition, the fit criteria would be optimal (RSS=0, misclassification rate=0, likelihood maximal).
- ▶ Thus, decision trees need some sort of regularization to make sense.

Regularization Methods

There are several simple regularization methods:

minimum number of points per cell:

require that each cell (i.e., each leaf node) covers a given minimum number of training points.

maximum number of cells:

limit the maximum number of cells of the partition (i.e., leaf nodes).

maximum depth:

limit the maximum depth of the tree.

The number of points per cell, the number of cells, etc. can be seen as a **hyperparameter** of the decision tree learning method.

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Decision Tree Learning Problem

The decision tree learning problem could be described as follows:

Given a dataset

$$\mathcal{D}^{\text{train}} := \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}$$

find a decision tree $\hat{y} : X \rightarrow Y$ that

- ▶ is binary, univariate, and with interval splits,
- ▶ contains at each leaf a given minimum number m of examples,
- ▶ and has minimal misclassification rate

$$\text{mr}(\hat{y}; \mathcal{D}^{\text{train}}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{I}(y_n \neq \hat{y}(x_n))$$

among all those trees.

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among all those trees.

Unfortunately, this problem is **not feasible** as there are **too many tree structures** / partitions to check and no suitable optimization algorithms to sift efficiently through them.

Greedy Search

Therefore, a greedy search is conducted that

- ▶ starting from the root
- ▶ builds the tree **recursively**
- ▶ by selecting the **locally optimal decision** in each step.
 - ▶ or alternatively, even just **some locally good** decision.

Greedy Search / Possible Splits (1/2)

At each node one tries **all possible splits**.

For an univariate binary tree with interval splits at the actual node let there still be the data

$$(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$$

Then check for each predictor variable X with domain \mathcal{X} :

- if X is a **nominal variable**: (with m levels)
all $2^m - 1$ possible splits in two subsets $X_1 \dot{\cup} X_2$.

E.g., for $\mathcal{X} = \{\text{Hi, Gö, H}\}$ the splits

$$\begin{array}{ll} \{\text{Hi}\} & \text{vs. } \{\text{Gö, H}\} \\ \{\text{Hi, Gö}\} & \text{vs. } \{\text{H}\} \\ \{\text{Hi, H}\} & \text{vs. } \{\text{Gö}\} \end{array}$$

Greedy Search / Possible Splits (2/2)

2. if X is an **ordinal** or **interval-scaled variable**:

sort the x_n as

$$x'_1 < x'_2 < \dots < x'_{n'}, \quad N' \leq N$$

and then test all $N' - 1$ possible splits at

$$\frac{x'_n + x'_{n+1}}{2}, \quad n = 1, \dots, N' - 1$$

E.g.,

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_8) = (15, 10, 5, 15, 10, 10, 5, 5), \quad N = 8$$

are sorted as

$$x'_1 := 5 < x'_2 := 10 < x'_3 := 15, \quad N' = 3$$

and then split at 7.5 and 12.5.

Greedy Search / Original Fit Criterion

All possible splits – often called **candidate splits** – are assessed by a **quality criterion**.

For all kinds of trees the **original fit criterion** can be used, i.e.,

for regression trees:

the **residual sum of squares**.

for decision trees:

the **misclassification rate**.

for probability trees:

the **likelihood**.

The split that gives the best improvement is chosen.

Example

Artificial data about visitors of an online shop:

	x_1	x_2	x_3	y
	referrer	num.visits	duration	buyer
1	search engine	several	15	yes
2	search engine	once	10	yes
3	other	several	5	yes
4	ad	once	15	yes
5	ad	once	10	no
6	other	once	10	no
7	other	once	5	no
8	ad	once	5	no

Build a decision tree that tries to predict if a visitor will buy.

Example / Root Split

Step 1 (root node): The root covers all 8 visitors.

There are the following splits:

variable	values	buyer		errors
		yes	no	
referrer	{s}	2	0	2
	{a, o}	2	4	
referrer	{s, a}	3	2	3
	{o}	1	2	
referrer	{s, o}	3	2	3
	{a}	1	2	
num.visits	once	2	4	2
	several	2	0	
duration	<7.5	1	2	3
	≥7.5	3	2	
duration	< 12.5	2	4	2
	≥ 12.5	2	0	

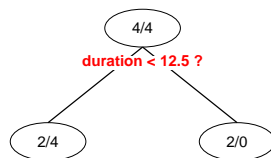
Example / Root Split

The splits

- ▶ `referrer = search engine` ?
- ▶ `num.visits = once` ?
- ▶ `duration < 12.5` ?

are locally optimal at the root.

We choose “`duration < 12.5`”:



Note: See backup slides after the end for more examples.

Decision Tree Learning Algorithm

```

1 expand-decision-tree(node  $T$ , training data  $\mathcal{D}^{\text{train}}$ ):
2   if stopping-criterion ( $\mathcal{D}^{\text{train}}$ ):
3      $T.\text{class} := \arg \max_{y'} |\{(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}^{\text{train}} \mid y = y'\}|$ 
4     return
5    $s := \arg \max_{\text{split } s} \text{quality-criterion}(s)$ 
6   if  $s$  does not improve:
7      $T.\text{class} = \arg \max_{y'} |\{(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}^{\text{train}} \mid y = y'\}|$ 
8     return
9    $T.\text{split} := s$ 
10  for  $z \in \text{Im}(s)$ :
11    create new node  $T'$ 
12     $T.\text{child}[z] := T'$ 
13    expand-decision-tree( $T'$ ,  $\{(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}^{\text{train}} \mid s(x) = z\}$ )

1 learn-decision-tree(training data  $\mathcal{D}^{\text{train}}$ ):
2   create new node  $T$ 
3   expand-decision-tree( $T$ ,  $\mathcal{D}^{\text{train}}$ )
4   return  $T$ 
  
```


Decision Tree Learning Algorithm / Remarks (1/2)

- ▶ stopping-criterion(X):
e.g.,
 - ▶ all cases in X belong to the same class,
 - ▶ all cases in X have the same predictor values (for all variables),
 - ▶ there are less than the minimum number of cases per node to split.
- ▶ split s :
all possible splits, e.g., all binary univariate interval splits.
- ▶ quality-criterion(s):
e.g., misclassification rate in X after the split (i.e., if in each child node suggested by the split the majority class is predicted).

Decision Tree Learning Algorithm / Remarks (2/2)

- ▶ s does not improve:
e.g., if the misclassification rate is the same as in the actual node (without the split s).
- ▶ $\text{Im}(s)$:
all the possible outcomes of the split,
e.g., $\{ 0, 1 \}$ for a binary split.
- ▶ $T.\text{child}[z] := T'$:
keep an array that maps all the possible outcomes of the split to the corresponding child node.

Decision Tree Prediction Algorithm

```
1 predict-decision-tree(node  $T$ , instance  $x \in \mathbb{R}^M$ ):  
2   if  $T.\text{split} \neq \emptyset$ :  
3      $z := T.\text{split}(x)$   
4      $T' := T.\text{child}[z]$   
5   return predict-decision-tree( $T', x$ )  
6 return  $T.\text{class}$ 
```

Outline

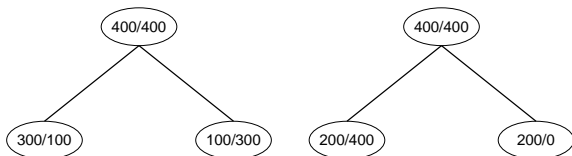
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Why Misclassification Rate is a Bad Split Quality Criterion

Although it is possible to use misclassification rate as quality criterion, it usually is not a good idea.

Imagine a dataset with a binary target variable (zero/one) and 400 cases per class (400/400).

Assume there are two splits:



Both have 200 errors / misclassification rate 0.25.

But the right split may be preferred as it contains a pure node.

Split Contingency Tables

The effects of a split on training data can be described by a **contingency table** $(C_{j,k})_{j \in J, k \in K}$, i.e., a matrix

- ▶ with rows indexed by the different child nodes $j \in J$,
- ▶ with columns indexed by the different target classes $k \in K$,
- ▶ and cells $C_{j,k}$ containing the number of points in class k that the split assigns to child j :

$$C_{j,k} := |\{(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}^{\text{train}} \mid s(x) = j \text{ and } y = k\}|$$

Entropy

Let

$$\Delta_n := \{(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N) \in [0, 1]^N \mid \sum_n p_n = 1\}$$

be the set of multinomial probability distributions on the values $1, \dots, N$.

An **entropy function** $q : \Delta_N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_0^+$ has the properties

- ▶ q is maximal for uniform $p = (\frac{1}{N}, \frac{1}{N}, \dots, \frac{1}{N})$.
- ▶ q is 0 iff p is deterministic
(one of the $p_n = 1$ and all the others equal 0).

Entropy / Examples

Cross-Entropy / Deviance:

$$H(p_1, \dots, p_N) := - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n \log(p_n)$$

Shannons Entropy:

$$H(p_1, \dots, p_N) := - \sum_{i=1}^n p_n \log_2(p_n)$$

Quadratic Entropy:

$$H(p_1, \dots, p_N) := \sum_{i=1}^n p_n(1 - p_n) = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^N p_n^2$$

Entropy measures can be extended to \mathbb{R}_0^+ via

$$q(x_1, \dots, x_N) := q\left(\frac{x_1}{\sum_i x_i}, \frac{x_2}{\sum_i x_i}, \dots, \frac{x_N}{\sum_i x_i}\right)$$

Entropy for Contingency Tables

For a contingency table $C_{j,k}$ we use the following abbreviations:

$$C_{j,.} := \sum_{k \in K} C_{j,k} \quad \text{sum of row } j$$

$$C_{.,k} := \sum_{j \in J} C_{j,k} \quad \text{sum of column } k$$

$$C_{,..} := \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} C_{j,k} \quad \text{sum of matrix}$$

and define the following entropies:

row entropy:

$$H_J(C) := H(C_{j,.} \mid j \in J)$$

column entropy:

$$H_K(C) := H(C_{.,k} \mid k \in K)$$

conditional column entropy:

$$H_{K|J}(C) := \sum_{j \in J} \frac{C_{j,.}}{C_{,..}} H(C_{j,k} \mid k \in K)$$

Entropy for Contingency Tables

Suitable split quality criteria are
entropy gain:

$$HG(C) := H_K(C) - H_{K|J}(C)$$

entropy gain ratio:

$$HG(C) := \frac{H_K(C) - H_{K|J}(C)}{H_J(C)}$$

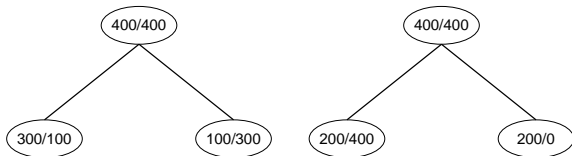
Shannon entropy gain is also called **information gain**:

$$IG(C) := - \sum_k \frac{C_{\cdot,k}}{C_{\cdot,\cdot}} \log_2 \frac{C_{\cdot,k}}{C_{\cdot,\cdot}} + \sum_j \frac{C_{j,\cdot}}{C_{\cdot,\cdot}} \sum_k \frac{C_{j,k}}{C_{j,\cdot}} \log_2 \frac{C_{j,k}}{C_{j,\cdot}}$$

Quadratic entropy gain is also called **Gini index**:

$$Gini(C) := - \sum_k \left(\frac{C_{\cdot,k}}{C_{\cdot,\cdot}} \right)^2 + \underbrace{\sum_j \frac{C_{j,\cdot}}{C_{\cdot,\cdot}} \sum_k \left(\frac{C_{j,k}}{C_{j,\cdot}} \right)^2}_{=: \text{gini-impurity}(C)}$$

Entropy Measures as Split Quality Criterion



Both have 200 errors / misclassification rate 0.25.

But the right split may be preferred as it contains a pure node.

	Gini-Impurity		Gini-Impurity
$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\left(\frac{3}{4} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)^2 \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\left(\frac{3}{4} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)^2 \right)$		$= \frac{3}{4} \left(\left(\frac{1}{3} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{2}{3} \right)^2 \right) + \frac{1}{4} (1^2 + 0^2)$	
	= 0.625		≈ 0.667

Popular Decision Tree Configurations

name	ChAID	CART	ID3	C4.5
author	Kass 1980	Breiman et al. 1984	Quinlan 1986	Quinlan 1993
selection measure	χ^2	Gini index, twoing index	information gain	information gain ratio
splits	all	binary nominal, binary quantitative, binary bivariate quantitative	complete	complete, binary nominal, binary quantitative
stopping criterion	χ^2 independence test	minimum number of cases/node	χ^2 independence test	lower bound on selection measure
pruning technique	none	error complexity pruning	pessimistic error pruning	pessimistic error pruning, error based pruning

Summary

- ▶ Decision trees are trees having
 - ▶ **splitting rules** at the **inner nodes** and
 - ▶ **predictions** (decisions) at the **leaves**.
- ▶ Decision trees use only **simple splits**
 - ▶ univariate, binary, **interval splits**.
- ▶ Decision trees have to be regularized by **constraining their structure**
 - ▶ minimum number of examples at inner nodes, maximum depth, etc.
- ▶ Decision trees are learned by greedy **recursive partitioning**.
 - ▶ As **split quality criteria** entropy measures are used
 - ▶ **Gini index**, **information gain ratio**, etc.
- ▶ Outlook (see lecture Machine Learning 2):
 - ▶ Sometimes **pruning** is used to make the search less greedy.
 - ▶ Decision trees use **surrogate splits** to cope with missing data.
 - ▶ Decision trees can be boosted yielding very competitive models (**random forests**, **gradient boosted decision trees**).

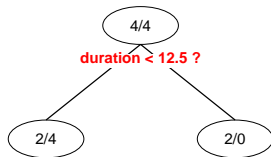
Further Readings

- ▶ [Hastie et al., 2005, chapter 9.2+6+7], [Murphy, 2012, chapter 16.1–2], [James et al., 2013, chapter 8.1+3].

References

- Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani, Jerome Friedman, and James Franklin. *The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference and Prediction*, volume 27. Springer, 2005.
- Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani. *An Introduction to Statistical Learning*. Springer, 2013.
- Kevin P. Murphy. *Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective*. The MIT Press, 2012.

Example / Node 2 Split



The right node is pure and thus a leaf.

Step 2 (node 2): The left node (called "node 2") covers the following cases:

	referrer	num.visits	duration	buyer
2	search engine	once	10	yes
3	other	several	5	yes
5	ad	once	10	no
6	other	once	10	no
7	other	once	5	no
8	ad	once	5	no

Example / Node 2 Split

At node 2 are the following splits:

variable	values	buyer		errors
		yes	no	
referrer	{s}	1	0	1
	{a, o}	1	4	
referrer	{s, a}	1	2	2
	{o}	1	2	
referrer	{s, o}	2	2	2
	{a}	0	2	
num.visits	once	1	4	1
	several	1	0	
duration	<7.5	1	2	2
	≥ 7.5	1	2	

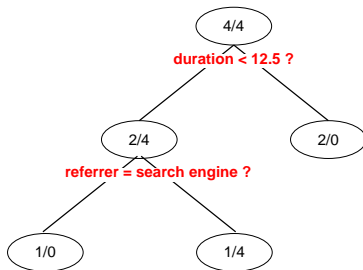
Again, the splits

- ▶ referrer = search engine ?
- ▶ num.visits = once ?

are locally optimal at node 2.

Example / Node 5 Split

We choose the split “referrer = search engine”:



The left node is pure and thus a leaf.

The right node (called "node 5") allows further splits.

Example / Node 5 Split

Step 3 (node 5): The right node (called "node 5") covers the following cases:

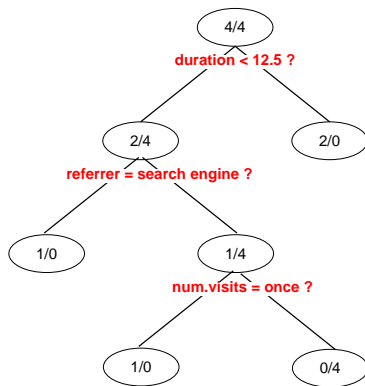
	referrer	num.visits	duration	buyer
3	other	several	5	yes
5	ad	once	10	no
6	other	once	10	no
7	other	once	5	no
8	ad	once	5	no

It allows the following splits:

variable	values	buyer		errors
		yes	no	
referrer	{a}	0	2	1
	{o}	1	2	
num.visits	once	1	0	0
	several	0	4	
duration	<7.5	1	2	1
	≥ 7.5	0	2	

Example / Node 5 Split

The split “num.visits = once” is locally optimal.



Both child nodes are pure thus leaf nodes.

The algorithm stops.