# **Decision Trees**

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Introduction and Motivation

### The need for interpretability

#### How to maintain trust in AI

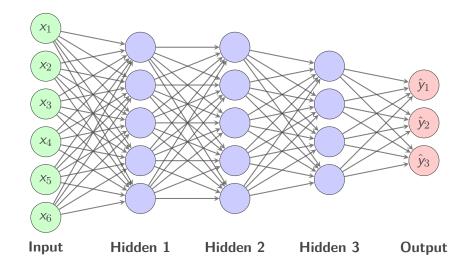
Beyond developing initial trust, however, creators of AI also must work to maintain that trust. Siau and Wang suggest seven ways of "developing continuous trust" beyond the initial phases of product development:

- Usability and reliability. Al "should be designed to operate easily and intuitively,"
   Siau and Wang write. "There should be no unexpected downtime or crashes."
- Collaboration and communication. At developers want to create systems that perform autonomously, without human involvement. Developers must focus on creating At applications that smoothly and easily collaborate and communicate with humans.
- Sociability and bonding. Building social activities into AI applications is one way to strengthen trust. A robotic dog that can recognize its owner and show affection is one example, Siau and Wang write.
- Security and privacy protection. Al applications rely on large data sets, so
  ensuring privacy and security will be crucial to establishing trust in the
  applications.
- Interpretability. Just as transparency is instrumental in building initial trust, interpretability – or the ability for a machine to explain its conclusions or actions – will help sustain trust.

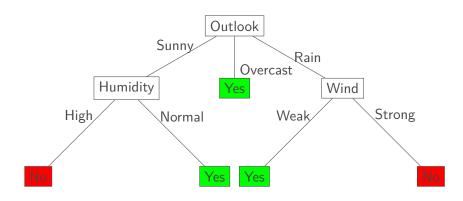
## Training Data

Day	Outlook	Temp	Humidity	Windy	Play
D1	Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
D2	Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
D3	Overcast	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
D4	Rain	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
D5	Rain	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D6	Rain	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
D7	Overcast	Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
D8	Sunny	Mild	High	Weak	No
D9	Sunny	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D10	Rain	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
D11	Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
D12	Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
D13	Overcast	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
D14	Rain	Mild	High	Strong	No

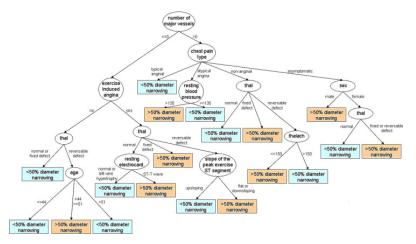
### Learning a Complicated Neural Network



#### Learnt Decision Tree



### Medical Diagnosis using Decision Trees



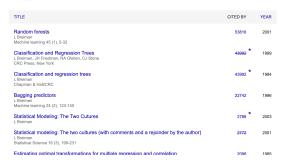
Source: Improving medical decision trees by combining relevant health-care criteria

## Leo Breiman (1928-2005)



#### Leo Breiman 1928-2005

Professor of Statistics, <u>UC Berkeley</u>
Verified email at stat.berkeley.edu - <u>Homepage</u>
Data Analysis Statistics Machine Learning





M FOLLOW

### Leo Breiman: Revolutionary Contributions to ML

#### **Key Points: Major Algorithmic Breakthroughs:**

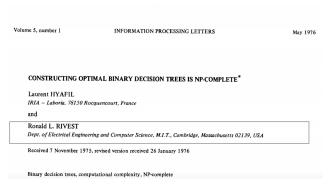
- CART (1984): Classification and Regression Trees
- Bagging (1994): Bootstrap Aggregating
- Random Forests (2001): Ensemble of Decision Trees
- Two Cultures (2001): Data Modeling vs. Algorithmic Modeling

### Computational Complexity Classes: A Quick Primer

#### **Definition: Key Complexity Classes**

- P: Problems solvable in polynomial time
  - Example: Sorting n numbers in  $O(n \log n)$  time
- · NP: Problems where solutions can be verified in polynomial time
  - Example: Given a sudoku solution, verify it's correct
- · NP-Complete: Hardest problems in NP
  - Both in NP and at least as hard as any NP problem
  - Example: Boolean satisfiability (SAT)
- NP-Hard: At least as hard as NP-Complete problems
  - May not be in NP (solutions might not be verifiable quickly)
  - Example: Optimization versions of NP-Complete problems

### Finding the Optimal Decision Tree



**The Problem**: Given training data, find the decision tree with the highest accuracy

### Optimal Decision Trees are NP-Complete

#### Important: Computational Complexity

#### Finding optimal decision tree is NP-Complete

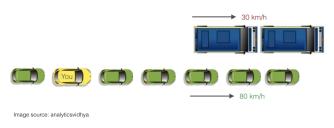
- Verification: Given a tree, check its accuracy quickly ✓
- Construction: Exponentially many trees to check X

#### **Example: What This Means**

- No efficient algorithm exists (unless P = NP)
- Must use heuristics like greedy algorithms
- ID3, C4.5, CART use greedy approaches
- Good solutions, but no optimality guarantee

### Greedy Algorithm

Core idea: At each level, choose an attribute that gives **biggest estimated** performance gain!



 $\mathsf{Greedy} \neq \mathsf{Optimal}$ 

# Discrete Input, Discrete Output

### Towards biggest estimated performance gain

Day	Outlook	Temp	Humidity	Windy	Play
Day D1 D2 D3 D4 D5 D6 D7 D8 D9 D10 D11	Sunny Sunny Overcast Rain Rain Overcast Sunny Sunny Rain Sunny	Hot Hot Hot Mild Cool Cool Cool Mild Cool Mild Mild	High High High Normal Normal Normal Normal Normal Normal	Weak Strong Weak Weak Weak Strong Strong Weak Weak Weak Strong	No No No Yes Yes No Yes No Yes No Yes Yes Yes Yes
D11	Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
D13 D14	Overcast Rain	Hot Mild	Normal High	Weak Strong	Yes No

- For examples, we have 9 Yes,
   5 No
- Would it be trivial if we had 14 Yes or 14 No?
- Yes!
- Key insight: Problem is "easier" when there is less disagreement
- Need some statistical measure of "disagreement"

### Claude Shannon (1948): The Birth of Information Theory

#### **Definition: The Big Idea**

Information is inversely related to probability. Rare events are more informative!

Think about it: Which headline tells you more?

- "The sun rose this morning"
- "It snowed in Gandhinagar in July"

The second one! Because it's unexpected.

**Shannon's insight:** The amount of information in an event should be inversely proportional to its probability.

### Measuring Surprise: Step by Step

#### **Shannon's Information Formula:**

$$I(x) = -\log_2 p(x)$$

#### Why the negative log?

- Probabilities are between 0 and 1
- $\log_2$  of values < 1 gives negative numbers
- We want information to be positive
- Hence the negative sign!

Why base 2? So information is measured in bits.

### Calculating Surprise: Detailed Examples

#### **Example 1: Summer weather in Phoenix**

- Sunny day: p = 0.9
- Information:  $I = -\log_2(0.9) = -(-0.152) = 0.152$  bits
- · Low surprise we expect sunny weather

#### **Example 2: Snow in Phoenix in July**

- Probability: p = 0.0001 (extremely rare!)
- Information:  $I = -\log_2(0.0001) = -(-13.29) = 13.29$  bits
- High surprise this would be shocking news!

**Notice:** Rare events carry  $\sim 90 \times$  more information!

### From Single Events to Distributions

**Question:** What if we have multiple possible outcomes? **Example:** Weather in Delhi (4 possibilities)

- Rainy: p = 0.5
- Cloudy: p = 0.3
- Sunny: p = 0.15
- Snowy: p = 0.05

**Problem:** Each day gives different amounts of information!

- If it's rainy:  $I = -\log_2(0.5) = 1.0$  bit
- If it's sunny:  $I = -\log_2(0.15) = 2.74$  bits
- If it's snowy:  $I = -\log_2(0.05) = 4.32$  bits

**Solution:** Take the **expected** (average) information!

### Entropy: Expected Information

#### **Definition: Entropy Formula**

$$H(X) = \mathbb{E}[I(X)] = -\sum_i p(x_i) \log_2 p(x_i)$$

**Entropy** = Expected amount of information per observation

#### Delhi weather calculation:

$$\begin{split} H &= -p(\mathsf{rain}) \log_2 p(\mathsf{rain}) - p(\mathsf{cloudy}) \log_2 p(\mathsf{cloudy}) \\ &- p(\mathsf{sunny}) \log_2 p(\mathsf{sunny}) - p(\mathsf{snow}) \log_2 p(\mathsf{snow}) \\ &= -0.5 \log_2(0.5) - 0.3 \log_2(0.3) - 0.15 \log_2(0.15) - 0.05 \log_2(0.05) \\ &= 0.5(1.0) + 0.3(1.74) + 0.15(2.74) + 0.05(4.32) \\ &= 0.5 + 0.52 + 0.41 + 0.22 = \textbf{1.65} \text{ bits} \end{split}$$

### Entropy Intuition: Extreme Cases

#### Case 1: Completely predictable

- Desert: Always sunny (p = 1.0)
- $H = -1.0 \log_2(1.0) = -1.0 \times 0 = 0$  bits
- **Zero entropy** = No surprise = Completely predictable

#### Case 2: Maximum uncertainty

- Fair coin: Heads/Tails equally likely (p=0.5 each)
- $H = -0.5 \log_2(0.5) 0.5 \log_2(0.5) = 0.5(1) + 0.5(1) = \mathbf{1.0}$  bit
- Maximum entropy = Maximum surprise = Completely unpredictable

**Key insight:** Entropy ranges from 0 (certain) to  $log_2(n)$  (uniform over n outcomes)

### Entropy in Decision Trees: The Connection

Why do we care about entropy in ML?

#### **Example: Decision Tree Goal**

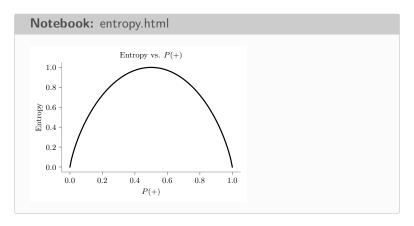
We want to split data into **pure** subsets where we can make confident predictions.

- Pure node: All examples same class  $\rightarrow$  Low entropy  $\rightarrow$  Good split
- **Mixed node**: Examples from different classes  $\rightarrow$  **High** entropy  $\rightarrow$  Bad split

**Strategy:** Choose splits that **reduce entropy** the most! This is exactly what **Information Gain** measures.

### Entropy

Statistical measure to characterize the (im)purity of examples  $H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{k} p(x_i) \log_2 p(x_i)$ 



### Towards biggest estimated performance gain

Day	Outlook	Temp	Humidity	Windy	Play
D1	Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
D2	Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
D3	Overcast	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
D4	Rain	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
D5	Rain	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D6	Rain	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
D7	Overcast	Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
D8	Sunny	Mild	High	Weak	No
D9	Sunny	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D10	Rain	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
D11	Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
D12	Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
D13	Overcast	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
D14	Rain	Mild	High	Strong	No

- Can we use Outlook as the root node?
- When Outlook is overcast, we always Play and thus no "disagreement"

#### Information Gain

Reduction in entropy by partitioning examples (S) on attribute A

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

### Pop Quiz #1

#### Answer this!

# What does entropy measure in the context of decision trees?

- A) The depth of the tree
- B) The impurity or "disagreement" in a set of examples
- C) The number of features in the dataset
- D) The accuracy of the tree

Answer: B) The impurity or "disagreement" in a set of examples — Higher entropy means more mixed classes, lower entropy means more pure subsets.

### ID3 (Examples, Target Attribute, Attributes)

- Create a root node for tree
- If all examples are +/-, return root with label =+/-
- If attributes = empty, return root with most common value of Target Attribute in Examples
- Begin
  - A ← attribute from Attributes which best classifies Examples
  - $\circ$  Root  $\leftarrow$  A
  - For each value (v) of A
    - Add new tree branch : A = v
    - Examples<sub>v</sub>: subset of examples that A = v
    - If Examples<sub>v</sub>is empty: add leaf with label = most common value of Target Attribute
    - Else: ID3 (Examples<sub>v</sub>, Target attribute, Attributes A)

## Training Data

Day	Outlook	Temp	Humidity	Windy	Play
D1	Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
D2	Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
D3	Overcast	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
D4	Rain	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
D5	Rain	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D6	Rain	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
D7	Overcast	Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
D8	Sunny	Mild	High	Weak	No
D9	Sunny	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D10	Rain	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
D11	Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
D12	Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
D13	Overcast	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
D14	Rain	Mild	High	Strong	No

### Entropy calculated

We have 14 examples in S: 5 No, 9 Yes

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{Entropy}(S) = -p_{\mathsf{No}} \log_2 p_{\mathsf{No}} - p_{\mathsf{Yes}} \log_2 p_{\mathsf{Yes}} \\ & = -\frac{5}{14} \log_2 \left(\frac{5}{14}\right) - \frac{9}{14} \log_2 \left(\frac{9}{14}\right) = 0.940 \end{split}$$

### Information Gain for Outlook

Outlook	Play
Sunny	No
Sunny	No
Overcast	Yes
Rain	Yes
Rain	Yes
Rain	No
Overcast	Yes
Sunny	No
Sunny	Yes
Rain	Yes
Sunny	Yes
Overcast	Yes
Overcast	Yes
Rain	No

### Information Gain for Outlook

Outlook	Play
Sunny	No
Sunny	No
Sunny	No
Sunny	Yes
Sunny	Yes

We have 2 Yes, 3 No Entropy =  $-\frac{3}{5}\log_2(\frac{3}{5}) - \frac{2}{5}\log_2(\frac{2}{5}) = 0.971$ 

Outlook	Play
Overcast	Yes

We have 4 Yes, 0
No Entropy = 0(pure subset)

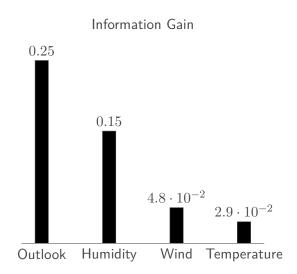
Outlook	Play
Rain	Yes
Rain	Yes
Rain	No
Rain	Yes
Rain	No

We have 3 Yes, 2 No Entropy =  $-\frac{3}{5}\log_2\left(\frac{3}{5}\right) - \frac{2}{5}\log_2\left(\frac{2}{5}\right) = 0.971$ 

### Information Gain

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Gain}(\textit{S}, \mathsf{Outlook}) &= \mathsf{Entropy}(\textit{S}) - \\ &\sum_{\textit{v} \in \{\mathsf{Rain}, \; \mathsf{Sunny}, \; \mathsf{Overcast}\}} \frac{|\textit{S}_{\textit{v}}|}{|\textit{S}|} \, \mathsf{Entropy}(\textit{S}_{\textit{v}}) \\ &= 0.940 - \frac{5}{14} \times 0.971 - \frac{4}{14} \times 0 - \frac{5}{14} \times 0.971 \\ &= 0.940 - 0.347 - 0 - 0.347 \\ &= 0.246 \end{aligned}$$

### Information Gain



#### Learnt Decision Tree

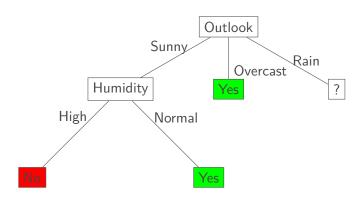


### Calling ID3 on Outlook=Sunny

Day	Temp	Humidity	Windy	Play
D1	Hot	High	Weak	No
D2	Hot	High	Strong	No
D8	Mild	High	Weak	No
D9	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D11	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes

- $Gain(S_{Outlook=Sunny}, Temp) = Entropy(2 Yes, 3 No) (2/5)*Entropy(0 Yes, 2 No) (2/5)*Entropy(1 Yes, 1 No) (1/5)*Entropy(1 Yes, 0 No)$
- Gain(S<sub>Outlook=Sunny</sub>, Humidity) = Entropy(2 Yes, 3 No) (2/5)\*Entropy(2 Yes, 0 No) -(3/5)\*Entropy(0 Yes, 3 No) ⇒ maximum possible for the set
- $Gain(S_{Outlook=Sunny}, Windy) = Entropy(2 Yes, 3 No) (3/5)*Entropy(1 Yes, 2 No) (2/5)*Entropy(1 Yes, 1 No)$

## Learnt Decision Tree

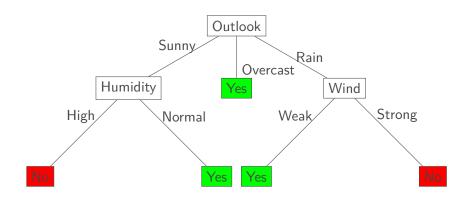


# Calling ID3 on (Outlook=Rain)

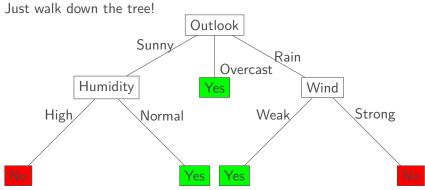
Day	Temp	Humidity	Windy	Play
D4	Mild	High	Weak	Yes Yes
D5	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
D6	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
D10	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
D14	Mild	High	Strong	No

• The attribute Windy gives the highest information gain

## Learnt Decision Tree



## Prediction for Decision Tree



Prediction for <High Humidity, Strong Wind, Sunny Outlook, Hot Temp> is ? No

# Limiting Tree Depth

## **Definition: Depth-Limited Trees**

When depth limit is reached, assign the **most common class** in that path as the leaf node prediction.

- Depth-0 tree (no decisions):
  - Always predict the most common class
  - For our dataset: Always predict Yes
- **Depth-1 tree** (single decision):



# Pop Quiz #3

## **Answer this!**

# In the tennis dataset, why did "Outlook" have the highest information gain?

- A) It was the first feature in the dataset
- B) When Outlook=Overcast, all examples have Play=Yes (pure subset)
- C) It has the most possible values
- D) It was chosen randomly

Answer: B) When Outlook=Overcast, all examples have Play=Yes - This creates a pure subset with entropy=0, maximizing information gain.

# Discrete Input, Real Output

## Modified Dataset

Day	Outlook	Temp	Humidity	Wind	Minutes Played
D1	Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	20
D2	Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	24
D3	Overcast	Hot	High	Weak	40
D4	Rain	Mild	High	Weak	50
D5	Rain	Cool	Normal	Weak	60
D6	Rain	Cool	Normal	Strong	10
D7	Overcast	Cool	Normal	Strong	4
D8	Sunny	Mild	High	Weak	10
D9	Sunny	Cool	Normal	Weak	60
D10	Rain	Mild	Normal	Weak	40
D11	Sunny	Mild	High	Strong	45
D12	Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	40
D13	Overcast	Hot	Normal	Weak	35
D14	Rain	Mild	High	Strong	20

# Regression Trees: From Classification to Regression

- Classification trees predict discrete classes (Yes/No, categories)
- Regression trees predict continuous numeric values
- Key Question: How do we measure impurity for continuous outputs?
- For classification: Used entropy, information gain
- For regression: Use Mean Squared Error (MSE)

## **Key Points: Why MSE for Regression?**

MSE measures how far predicted values are from actual values. Lower MSE = Better predictions = Less "impurity" in the data

# Mean Squared Error (MSE): The Mathematics

## **Definition: Mean Squared Error**

For a dataset S with n data points and target values  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$ :

$$MSE(S) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

where  $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$  is the mean of target values

- $(y_i \bar{y})^2$ : Squared difference between actual and mean
- Squaring ensures positive values and penalizes large errors
- MSE = 0 when all values are identical (perfect homogeneity)
- Higher MSE = More variation = Higher impurity

# MSE Calculation: Step 1 - The Complete Dataset

Wind	Minutes Played
Weak	20
Strong	24
Weak	40
Weak	50
Weak	60
Strong	10
Strong	4
Weak	10
Weak	60
Weak	40
Strong	45
Strong	40
Weak	35
Strong	20

- Tennis Dataset: Predicting minutes played (continuous target)
- Goal: Calculate MSE for the entire dataset S
- Step 1: Find the mean  $\bar{y}$  of all target values

# MSE Calculation: Step 2 - Computing the Mean

## **Example: Calculating Mean Minutes Played**

**All target values:** 20, 24, 40, 50, 60, 10, 4, 10, 60, 40, 45, 40, 35, 20

Step 1: Sum all values

$$\sum y_i = 20 + 24 + 40 + 50 + 60 + 10 + 4 + 10$$
$$+ 60 + 40 + 45 + 40 + 35 + 20$$
$$= 458$$

**Step 2:** Divide by number of data points (n = 14)

$$\bar{y} = \frac{458}{14} = 32.71$$
 minutes

# MSE Calculation: Step 3 - Computing Squared Differences

## **Example:** Calculating $(y_i - \bar{y})^2$ for Each Data Point

With  $\bar{y} = 32.71$ :

Уi	$y_i - \bar{y}$	$(y_i - \bar{y})^2$
20	20 - 32.71 = -12.71	$(-12.71)^2 = 161.54$
24	24 - 32.71 = -8.71	$(-8.71)^2 = 75.86$
40	40 - 32.71 = 7.29	$(7.29)^2 = 53.14$
50	50 - 32.71 = 17.29	$(17.29)^2 = 299.14$
60	60 - 32.71 = 27.29	$(27.29)^2 = 744.74$
10	10 - 32.71 = -22.71	$(-22.71)^2 = 515.74$
4	4 - 32.71 = -28.71	$(-28.71)^2 = 824.26$

Continue this for all 14 data points...

# MSE Calculation: Step 4 - Complete Squared Differences

## **Example: All Squared Differences**

Уi	$y_i - \bar{y}$	$(y_i - \bar{y})^2$
20	-12.71	161.54
24	-8.71	75.86
40	7.29	53.14
50	17.29	299.14
60	27.29	744.74
10	-22.71	515.74
4	-28.71	824.26
10	-22.71	515.74
60	27.29	744.74
40	7.29	53.14
45	12.29	151.04
40	7.29	53.14
35	2.29	5.24
20	-12.71	161.54
Sum		4358.86

# MSE Calculation: Step 5 - Final MSE Computation

#### **Example: Computing MSE for Complete Dataset**

Formula:

$$MSE(S) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

Substituting our values:

$$MSE(S) = \frac{1}{14} \times 4358.86 = 311.35$$

#### Interpretation:

- MSE = 311.35 square-minutes
- · This measures the "impurity" or variation in our dataset
- Higher MSE = More variation in target values
- · When we split the data, we want to reduce this MSE

# MSE Reduction: The Splitting Criterion

#### **Definition: MSE Reduction Formula**

For a split on attribute A with values  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k$ :

$$\mathsf{MSE} \; \mathsf{Reduction} = \mathsf{MSE}(S) - \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{|S_{v_j}|}{|S|} \times \mathsf{MSE}(S_{v_j})$$

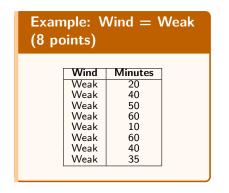
#### where:

- S is the original dataset
- $S_{v_i}$  is the subset with attribute value  $v_j$
- $|S_{v_j}|$  is the size of subset  $S_{v_j}$
- |S| is the size of original dataset

#### Key Points: Key Insight

MSE Reduction >0 means the split improves our model! Choose the split with highest MSE Reduction

# Splitting on Wind: Step 1 - Partition the Data



Example: Wind = Strong (6 points)			
	Wind	Minutes	
	Strong	24	
	Strong	10	
	Strong	4	
	Strong	45	
	Strong	40	
	Strong	20	
	,		

• Original dataset: 14 points, MSE = 311.35

• **After split:** 8 points (Weak) + 6 points (Strong)

• Next: Calculate MSE for each subset

# Splitting on Wind: Step 2 - MSE for Wind=Weak

## **Example:** Calculating $MSE(S_{Wind=Weak})$

Data points: 20, 40, 50, 60, 10, 60, 40, 35

Step 1: Calculate mean

$$\begin{split} \bar{y}_{\text{weak}} &= \frac{20 + 40 + 50 + 60 + 10 + 60 + 40 + 35}{8} \\ &= \frac{315}{8} = 39.375 \end{split}$$

Step 2: Calculate squared differences

Уi	$y_i - 39.375$	$(y_i - 39.375)^2$
20	-19.375	375.39
40	0.625	0.39
50	10.625	112.89
60	20.625	425.39
10	-29.375	862.89
60	20.625	425.39
40	0.625	0.39
35	-4.375	19.14
Sum		2221.87

# Splitting on Wind: Step 3 - Complete MSE for Wind=Weak

## **Example: Final MSE Calculation for Wind=Weak**

$$MSE(S_{Wind=Weak}) = \frac{1}{8} \times 2221.87 = 277.73$$

## **Example: Verification Check**

- Original MSE for all data: 311.35
- MSE for Wind=Weak subset: 277.73
- Good sign: MSE decreased (less variation within this group)
- This subset is more "homogeneous" than the full dataset

# Splitting on Wind: Step 4 - MSE for Wind=Strong

## **Example:** Calculating $MSE(S_{Wind=Strong})$

Data points: 24, 10, 4, 45, 40, 20

Step 1: Calculate mean

$$\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathsf{strong}} = \frac{24 + 10 + 4 + 45 + 40 + 20}{6} = \frac{143}{6} = 23.83$$

## **Step 2:** Calculate squared differences

Уi	$y_i - 23.83$	$(y_i - 23.83)^2$
24	0.17	0.03
10	-13.83	191.27
4	-19.83	393.23
45	21.17	448.17
40	16.17	261.47
20	-3.83	14.67
Sum		1308.84

$$MSE(S_{Wind=Strong}) = \frac{1}{6} \times 1308.84 = 218.14$$

# Splitting on Wind: Step 5 - Computing MSE Reduction

#### **Example: Final MSE Reduction Calculation**

#### We have:

- MSE(S) = 311.35 (original dataset)
- $MSE(S_{Wind=Weak}) = 277.73$  (8 points)
- $MSE(S_{Wind=Strong}) = 218.14$  (6 points)

#### Weighted Average MSE:

Weighted MSE = 
$$\frac{8}{14} \times 277.73 + \frac{6}{14} \times 218.14$$
  
=  $0.571 \times 277.73 + 0.429 \times 218.14$   
=  $158.60 + 93.58 = 252.18$ 

#### MSE Reduction:

MSE Reduction = 
$$311.35 - 252.18 = 59.17$$

## MSE Reduction: Interpretation and Decision Making

#### Key Points: What Does MSE Reduction = 59.17 Mean?

- Positive value: The split improves our model!
- Magnitude: We reduced prediction error by 59.17 square-minutes
- **Percentage:**  $(59.17/311.35) \times 100\% = 19\%$  improvement
- Intuition: Wind attribute helps separate high/low playing minutes

#### **Example: Decision Tree Building Process**

- Step 1: Calculate MSE reduction for all possible splits
- Step 2: Choose the split with highest MSE reduction
- Step 3: Recursively apply to child nodes
- Stop when: MSE reduction becomes too small or max depth reached

# MSE Reduction: Interpretation and Decision Making

## **Example: Decision Tree Building Process**

- Step 1: Calculate MSE reduction for all possible splits
- **Step 2:** Choose the split with *highest* MSE reduction
- Step 3: Recursively apply to child nodes
- Stop when: MSE reduction becomes too small or max depth reached

### Important: Key Difference from Classification

**Classification:** Use Information Gain (maximize information) **Regression:** Use MSE Reduction (minimize prediction error)

# Pop Quiz #5

### **Answer this!**

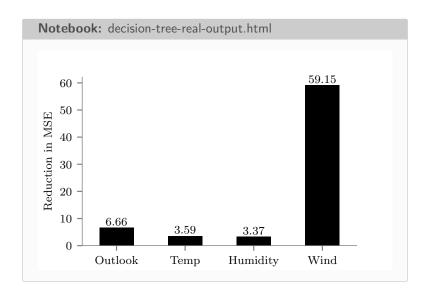
# For regression trees, what criterion do we use instead of Information Gain?

- A) Information Gain
- B) Gini Impurity
- C) Mean Squared Error (MSE) Reduction
- D) Accuracy

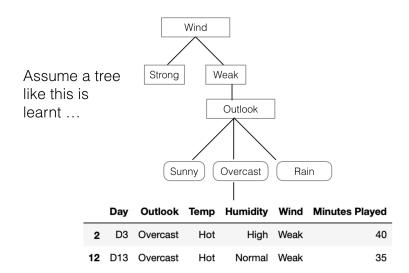
## Answer: C) Mean Squared Error (MSE) Reduction

- For regression, we minimize MSE instead of maximizing information gain.

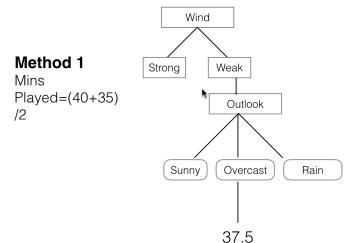
# MSE Reduction for Regression Trees



## Learnt Tree



## Learnt Tree



# Real Input, Discrete

Output

# Moving to Our Third Case

### Key Points: Our Journey Through Decision Tree Types

- Discrete Input, Discrete Output: Simple categorical splits
- Real Input, Real Output: Continuous features, regression trees
- Real Input, Discrete Output: Continuous features, classification

#### What's different now?

- Input: Continuous/real-valued features (like temperature, age, income)
- Output: Discrete classes (Yes/No, Low/Medium/High, etc.)
- Challenge: Where exactly should we split the continuous feature?

# The Key Challenge: Infinite Split Points

#### Important: The Problem

With continuous features, we have potentially infinite split points!

- Temperature could be split at 45°C, 45.1°C, 45.01°C, ...
- We need a systematic approach to find the best split points

#### The Intuitive Solution:

- 1. Look for "natural boundaries" between different classes
- 2. Focus on points where class labels actually change
- 3. Test splits that maximize information gain

# The Tennis Example - Setting the Stage

**Scenario:** Should we play tennis based on temperature?

Day	Temperature	PlayTennis
D1	40	No
D2	48	No
D3	60	Yes
D4	72	Yes
D5	80	Yes
D6	90	No

**Question:** How do we find the best split point in this continuous temperature data?

# The Sorting Intuition - Why Start Here?

## **Example: Why Sort the Data First?**

- · Sorting reveals the natural class boundaries in the data
- We can see where labels change: No ightarrow Yes ightarrow No
- Only need to consider splits between different class labels
- · Eliminates millions of irrelevant split points!

## **Sorted Data:** (already sorted in our example)

Day	Temperature	PlayTennis
D1	40	No
D2	48	No
D3	60	Yes
D4	72	Yes
D5	80	Yes
D6	90	No

# Finding Smart Split Points

## **Definition: The Midpoint Strategy**

Only consider splits at midpoints between consecutive different classes:

- Between 48(No) and 60(Yes): split at (48 + 60)/2 = 54
- Between 80(Yes) and 90(No): split at (80 + 90)/2 = 85

**All candidate splits:** 44, 54, 66, 76, 85

## Key Points: Why These 5 Splits?

- 44: Separates D1 from rest
- 54: Separates No's from Yes's
- 66, 76: Split within the Yes region
- 85: Separates last Yes from final No

# Evaluating Split at Temperature ≤ 44

Day	Temperature	PlayTennis
D1	40	No
D2	48	No
D3	60	Yes
D4	72	Yes
D5	80	Yes
D6	90	No

## **Example: Split Analysis**

**Left side (Temp**  $\leq$  **44):** 1 example, all "No"  $\rightarrow$  Perfect purity!

Right side (Temp > 44): 5 examples, 3 "Yes", 2 "No"  $\rightarrow$ 

Mixed

Entropy(Left) = 0, Entropy(Right) = 0.971

Weighted Entropy =  $\frac{1}{6} \times 0 + \frac{5}{6} \times 0.971 = 0.808$ 

# Evaluating Split at Temperature ≤ 54

Day	Temperature	PlayTennis
D1	40	No
D2	48	No
D3	60	Yes
D4	72	Yes
D5	80	Yes
D6	90	No

## **Example: Split Analysis**

**Left side (Temp**  $\leq$  **54):** 2 examples, all "No"  $\rightarrow$  Perfect purity!

Right side (Temp > 54): 4 examples, 3 "Yes", 1 "No"  $\rightarrow$ 

Better!

Entropy(Left) = 0, Entropy(Right) = 0.811

Weighted Entropy =  $\frac{2}{6} \times 0 + \frac{4}{6} \times 0.811 = 0.541$ 

# Comparing All Candidate Splits

Split Point	Left Side	Right Side	Weighted Entropy	Info Gain
44	1 No	3 Yes, 2 No	0.808	0.142
<b>54</b>	2 No	3 Yes, 1 No	<b>0.541</b>	<b>0.409</b>
66	2 No, 1 Yes	2 Yes, 1 No	0.918	0.032
76	2 No, 2 Yes	1 Yes, 1 No	1.000	-0.050
85	2 No, 3 Yes	1 No	0.650	0.300

### Key Points: Winner: Split at 54!

- Lowest weighted entropy (0.541)
- Highest information gain (0.409)
- · Creates the best class separation

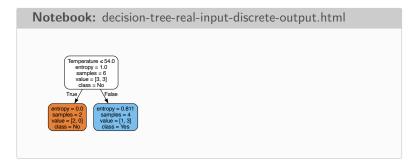
### The Algorithm Summary

## Definition: Decision Tree Algorithm for Continuous Features

- 1. **Sort** data by feature values
- Identify candidate split points (midpoints between different classes)
- 3. Evaluate each split using information gain:
  - Calculate weighted entropy for the split
  - Information Gain = Original Entropy Weighted Entropy
- 4. Choose split with highest information gain
- 5. Recurse on left and right subsets

### Visual Example: The Resulting Decision Tree

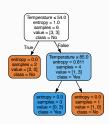
Day	Temperature	PlayTennis
D1	40	No
D2	48	No
D3	60	Yes
D4	72	Yes
D5	80	Yes
D6	90	No



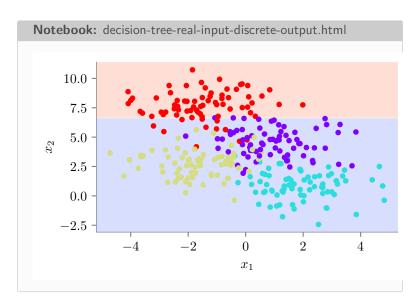
### Finding splits

Day	Temperature	PlayTennis
D1	40	No
D2	48	No
D3	60	Yes
D4	72	Yes
D5	80	Yes
D6	90	No

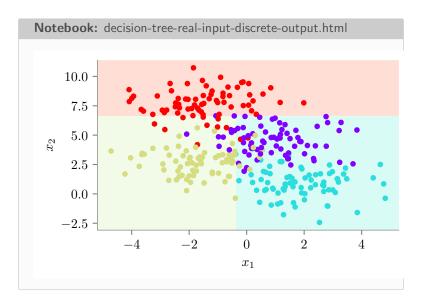
#### Notebook: decision-tree-real-input-discrete-output.html



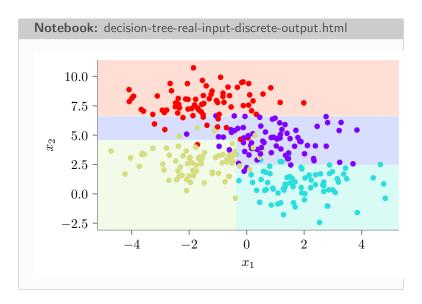
### Example (DT of depth 1)



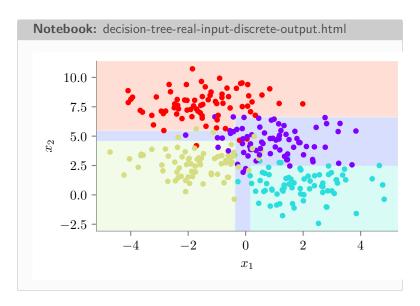
## Example (DT of depth 2)



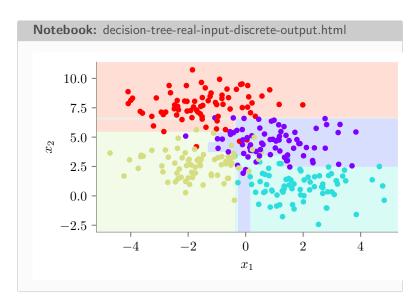
## Example (DT of depth 3)



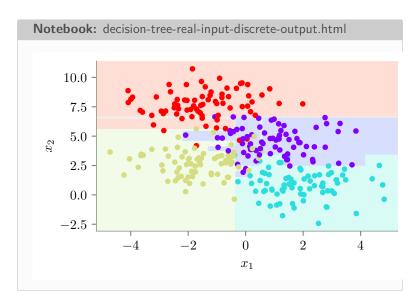
## Example (DT of depth 4)



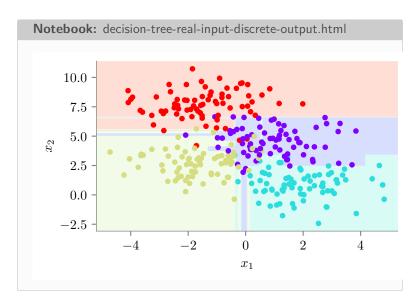
### Example (DT of depth 5)



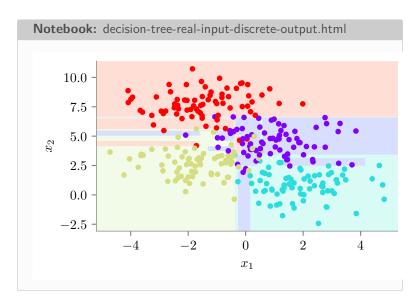
## Example (DT of depth 6)



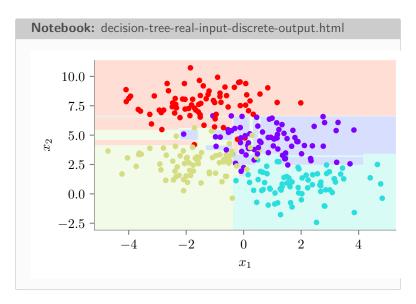
## Example (DT of depth 7)



## Example (DT of depth 8)



### Example (DT of depth 9)



## Pop Quiz #7

#### **Answer this!**

# When finding splits for continuous features, how do we determine candidate split points?

- A) Use all feature values as split points
- B) Use midpoints between consecutive sorted feature values
- C) Use random values within the feature range
- D) Use only the minimum and maximum values

Answer: B) Use midpoints between consecutive sorted feature values - This ensures we test all meaningful boundaries between different class regions.

Real Input, Real Output

### Completing Our Journey: The Fourth Case

#### Key Points: Our Decision Tree Journey - Final Stop:

- Discrete Input, Discrete Output: Categorical splits, entropy
- Real Input, Discrete Output: Continuous features, classification (Case 3)
- Real Input, Real Output: Continuous features, regression (Case 2 revisited!)
- Real Input, Real Output: Let's build intuition from Cases 2 & 3!

#### What we learned:

- From Case 2: Use MSE for regression, predict means in leaves
- From Case 3: Sort data, find midpoint splits, evaluate systematically
- Case 4: Combine both approaches for regression trees!

### The Key Insights from Previous Cases

#### **Example: From Case 3 (Real Input, Discrete Output)**

- Sorting Strategy: Sort by feature values to find natural boundaries
- · Candidate Splits: Only consider midpoints between different points
- Systematic Evaluation: Test each split, choose best information gain

#### **Example: From Case 2 (Regression Trees)**

- MSE Criterion: Use Mean Squared Error instead of entropy
- · Leaf Predictions: Predict mean of target values in each region
- Weighted Loss: Consider subset sizes in evaluation

### The Challenge: Regression with Continuous Features

#### Important: What Makes This Different?

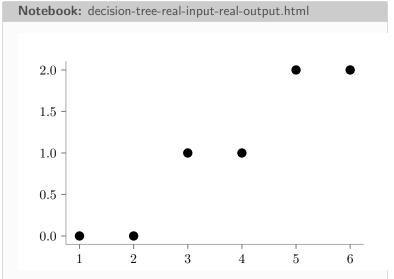
- Input: Continuous features (like Case 3)
- Output: Continuous targets (like Case 2)
- Challenge: Where to split continuous features for best regression performance?

#### Our Strategy:

- 1. Apply Case 3's sorting and candidate generation approach
- 2. Use Case 2's MSE-based evaluation criteria
- 3. Weight by sample sizes for fair comparison

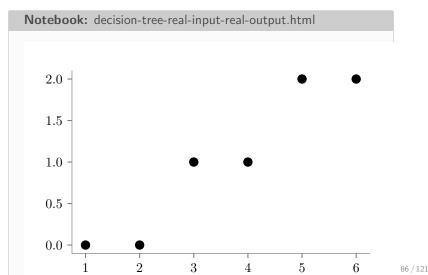
### Example Dataset

Let us consider the regression dataset below:



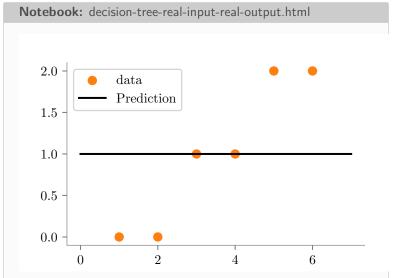
### Baseline: Decision Tree with Depth 0

**Question:** What would be the prediction for decision tree with depth 0 (no splits)?



#### Baseline Performance Visualization

**Depth 0 Prediction:** Horizontal line = average of all Y values



### Finding Split Candidates - Learning from Case 3

### **Definition: Split Candidate Strategy (from Case 3)**

1. **Sort** data points by X values:  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ 

Split candidates = 
$$\left\{ \frac{x_i + x_{i+1}}{2} \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1 \right\}$$

3. **Evaluate** each split using MSE reduction (not entropy!)

Why midpoints? They ensure we capture all meaningful boundaries where the trend might change.

### Objective Function for Regression Trees - Setup

Feature is denoted by X and target by Y.

Let the split be at X = s.

Define regions:  $R_1 = \{x : x \le s\}$  and  $R_2 = \{x : x > s\}$ .

For each region, compute the mean prediction:

$$c_1 = \frac{1}{|R_1|} \sum_{x_i \in R_1} y_i$$
 and  $c_2 = \frac{1}{|R_2|} \sum_{x_i \in R_2} y_i$ 

### Objective Function - Weighted MSE

#### **Example: Sample-Weighted MSE**

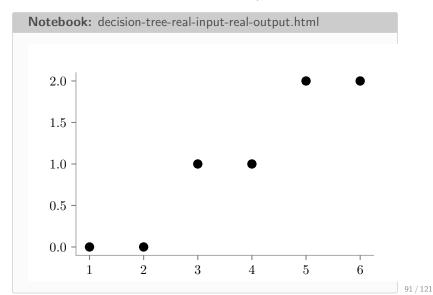
$$\mathsf{Weighted}\ \mathsf{Loss}(\mathit{s}) = \frac{|R_1|}{|R_1| + |R_2|} \cdot \mathsf{MSE}(R_1) + \frac{|R_2|}{|R_1| + |R_2|} \cdot \mathsf{MSE}(R_2)$$

Where: 
$$\mathsf{MSE}(R_i) = \frac{1}{|R_i|} \sum_{x_j \in R_i} (y_j - c_i)^2$$

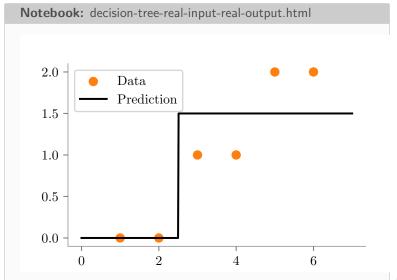
Our objective:  $s^* = \arg\min_s \text{Weighted Loss}(s)$ 

### Example: Finding the Best Split

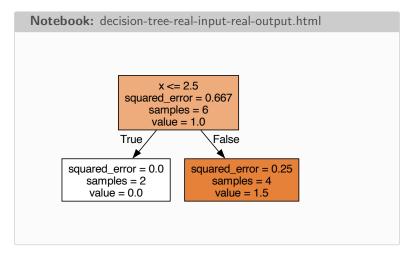
What would be the decision tree with depth 1?



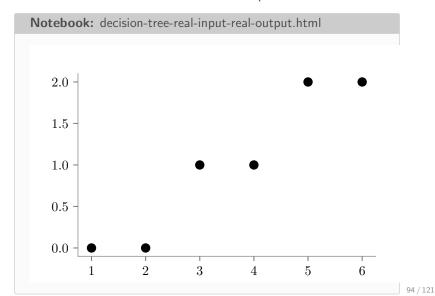
Decision tree with depth 1



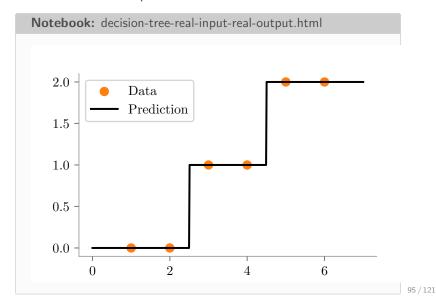
#### The Decision Boundary



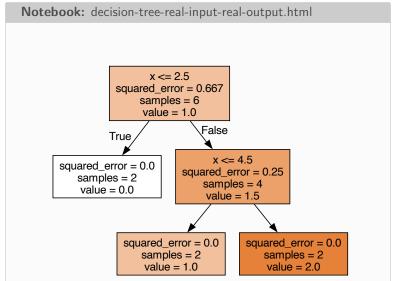
What would be the decision tree with depth 2?



Decision tree with depth 2



#### The Decision Boundary



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### Algorithm: Finding the Optimal Split

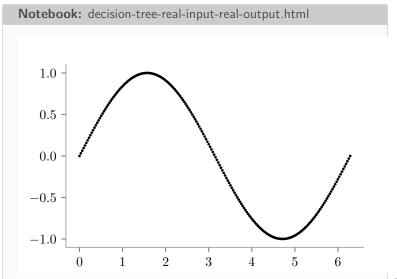
- 1. Sort all data points  $(x_i, y_i)$  in increasing order of  $x_i$ .
- 2. Evaluate the loss function for all candidate splits:

$$s = \frac{x_i + x_{i+1}}{2}$$
 for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ 

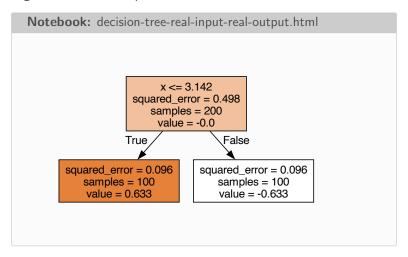
3. Select the split  $s^*$  that minimizes the loss function.

Draw a regression tree for Y =  $\sin(X)$ ,  $0 \le X \le 2\pi$ 

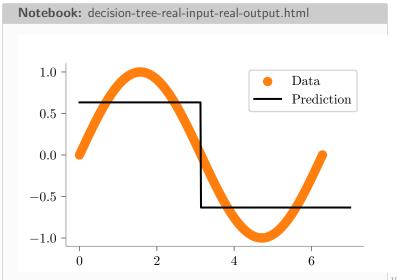
Dataset of Y =  $\sin(X)$ ,  $0 \le X \le 7$  with 10,000 points



#### Regression tree of depth 1

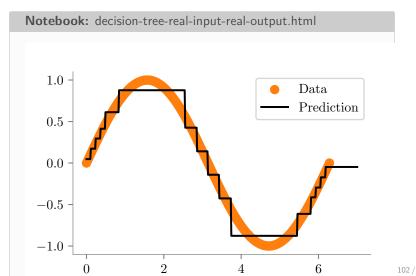


#### **Decision Boundary**



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Regression tree with no depth limit is too big to fit in a slide. It has of depth 4. The decision boundaries are in figure below.



## Pop Quiz #8

#### **Answer this!**

## What is the prediction function for a regression tree leaf node?

- A) The median of target values
- B) The mode of target values
- C) The mean of target values
- D) A linear function

Answer: C) The mean of target values

## Weighted Entropy

#### Why Weighted Entropy?

#### **Key Points: Weighted Entropy**

- Sometimes points have different importance:
  - From resampling (e.g., Boosting)
  - Class imbalance correction
  - Prior knowledge about reliability of examples
- Standard entropy assumes equal weight for all points.
- Weighted entropy respects point importance.

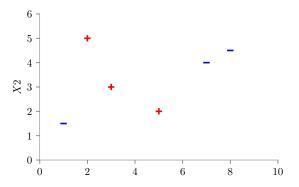
#### Weighted Entropy Formula

For dataset S with points  $(x_j, y_j)$  and weights  $w_j$ :

$$H_w(S) = -\sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \underbrace{\sum_{j \in c} w_j}_{\text{Weighted } P(c)} \log_2 \left( \frac{\sum_{j \in c} w_j}{\sum_{j \in S} w_j} \right)$$

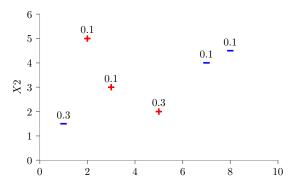
- w<sub>j</sub>: weight of point j (can be fractional)
- C: set of classes

#### Weighted Entropy



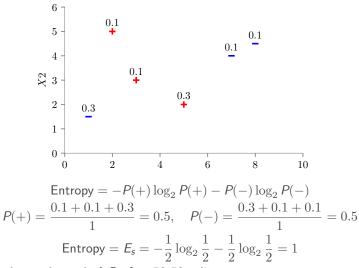
**Setup:** We start with mixed data - let's see how splitting helps us achieve purity

#### Weighted Entropy



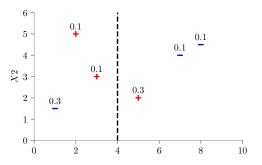
**Original Entropy Calculation:** 

#### Computing Original Entropy



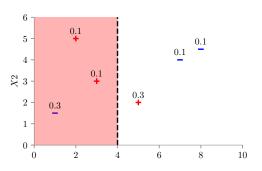
Maximum impurity! Perfect 50-50 split

#### Choosing a Split



**Candidate Split:**  $X_1 = 4$  (denoted as  $X_1^*$ ) Let's see if this vertical line creates purer subsets!

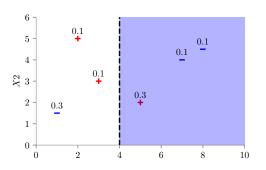
#### Left Subset: $X_1 \leq X_1^*$



#### Computing entropy of left subset:

$$\begin{split} P(+) &= \frac{0.1 + 0.1}{0.1 + 0.1 + 0.3} = \frac{2}{5} = 0.4 \\ P(-) &= \frac{0.3}{0.5} = \frac{3}{5} = 0.6 \\ H(\text{left}) &= -0.4 \log_2(0.4) - 0.6 \log_2(0.6) \approx 0.971 \end{split}$$

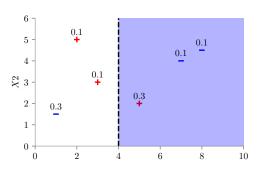
#### Right Subset: $X_1 > X_1^*$



#### Computing entropy of right subset:

$$\begin{split} P(+) &= \frac{0.3}{0.3+0.2} = \frac{3}{5} = 0.6 \\ P(-) &= \frac{0.2}{0.5} = \frac{2}{5} = 0.4 \\ H(\text{right}) &= -0.6 \log_2(0.6) - 0.4 \log_2(0.4) \approx 0.971 \end{split}$$

#### Computing Weighted Entropy



# Example: Weighted Entropy Calculation $\begin{aligned} \text{Weighted Entropy} &= \frac{|S_{\text{left}}|}{|S|} \cdot \textit{H}(\text{left}) + \frac{|S_{\text{right}}|}{|S|} \cdot \textit{H}(\text{right}) \\ &= \frac{0.5}{1.0} \cdot 0.971 + \frac{0.5}{1.0} \cdot 0.971 \\ &= 0.5 \times 0.971 + 0.5 \times 0.971 = 0.971 \end{aligned}$

#### Information Gain Calculation

#### **Key Points: Information Gain**

Information Gain = Original Entropy - Weighted Entropy

$$IG(X_1 = X_1^*) = E_S$$
 – Weighted Entropy

$$= 1.0 - 0.971 = 0.029$$

**Interpretation:** Small gain means this split doesn't help much in creating purer subsets. We should try other splits!

#### Key Takeaways

- · Weighted entropy generalizes normal entropy.
- Handles fractional and non-uniform point importance.
- · Essential for boosting and class imbalance handling.
- · Always normalize weights before computing probabilities.

## Pruning and Overfitting

#### The Problem: Overfitting in Decision Trees

- Unpruned trees: Can grow very deep and complex
- Perfect training accuracy: Each leaf contains single training example
- But: Poor generalization to new data
- Symptoms:
  - High training accuracy, low test accuracy
  - Very deep trees with many leaves
  - Rules that are too specific to training data
- Solution: Pruning to control model complexity

#### Pre-pruning (Early Stopping)

#### Stop growing tree before it becomes too complex:

- Maximum depth: Limit tree depth (e.g., max\_depth = 5)
- Minimum samples per split: Don't split if node has < N samples</li>
- Minimum samples per leaf: Ensure each leaf has ≥ M samples
- Maximum features: Consider only subset of features at each split
- Minimum impurity decrease: Only split if improvement > threshold

Advantages: Simple, computationally efficient

Disadvantages: May stop too early, miss good splits later

#### Post-pruning (Tree Simplification)

#### Grow full tree, then remove unnecessary branches:

- · Algorithm:
  - 1. Grow complete tree on training data
  - 2. Use validation set to evaluate subtree performance
  - 3. Remove branches that don't improve validation accuracy
  - 4. Repeat until no beneficial removals remain
- Cost Complexity Pruning: Minimize  $Error + \alpha \times Tree Size$
- Advantages: More thorough, can recover from early stopping mistakes
- Disadvantages: More computationally expensive

#### Cost Complexity Pruning Algorithm

#### Systematic approach to find optimal tree size:

- Cost function:  $R_{\alpha}(T) = R(T) + \alpha |T|$ 
  - $\circ$  R(T): Misclassification error on validation set
  - |T|: Number of terminal nodes (tree size)
  - $\alpha$ : Complexity parameter (penalty for larger trees)

#### Process:

- 1. Start with full tree ( $\alpha = 0$ )
- 2. Gradually increase  $\alpha$
- 3. At each  $\alpha$ , prune branches that increase cost
- 4. Select  $\alpha$  with best cross-validation performance

#### Bias-Variance Trade-off in Trees

- Unpruned trees:
  - Low bias (can fit complex patterns)
  - High variance (sensitive to training data changes)
  - Prone to overfitting
- Heavily pruned trees:
  - High bias (may miss important patterns)
  - Low variance (more stable predictions)
  - Risk of underfitting
- Optimal pruning: Balances bias and variance
- Cross-validation: Essential for finding this balance

#### Practical Pruning Guidelines

- Start simple: Begin with restrictive pre-pruning parameters
- Cross-validation: Always use CV to select pruning parameters
- Validation curves: Plot training/validation error vs. tree complexity
- Common parameters (sklearn):
  - max\_depth: Start with 3-10
  - min\_samples\_split: Try 10-100
  - min\_samples\_leaf: Try 5-50
  - ccp\_alpha: Use for cost complexity pruning
- Domain knowledge: Consider interpretability requirements

### Summary and Key Takeaways

#### Summary and Key Takeaways

- Interpretability an important goal
- Decision trees: well known interpretable models
- Learning optimal tree is hard
- · Greedy approach:
- Recursively split to maximize "performance gain"
- Issues:
  - Can overfit easily!
  - Empirically not as powerful as other methods