

```

if examples is empty then return PLURALITY-VALUE(parent_examples)
else if all examples have the same classification then return the classification
else if attributes is empty then return PLURALITY-VALUE(examples)
else
   $A \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \text{attributes}} \text{IMPORTANCE}(a, \text{examples})$ 
  tree  $\leftarrow$  a new decision tree with root test A
  for each value  $v_k$  of A do
     $\text{exs} \leftarrow \{e : e \in \text{examples} \text{ and } e.A = v_k\}$ 
    subtree  $\leftarrow$  DECISION-TREE-LEARNING(exs, attributes - A, examples)
    add a branch to tree with label ( $A = v_k$ ) and subtree subtree
  return tree

```

Figure 18.5 The decision-tree learning algorithm. The function IMPORTANCE is described in Section 18.3.4. The function PLURALITY-VALUE selects the most common output value among a set of examples, breaking ties randomly.

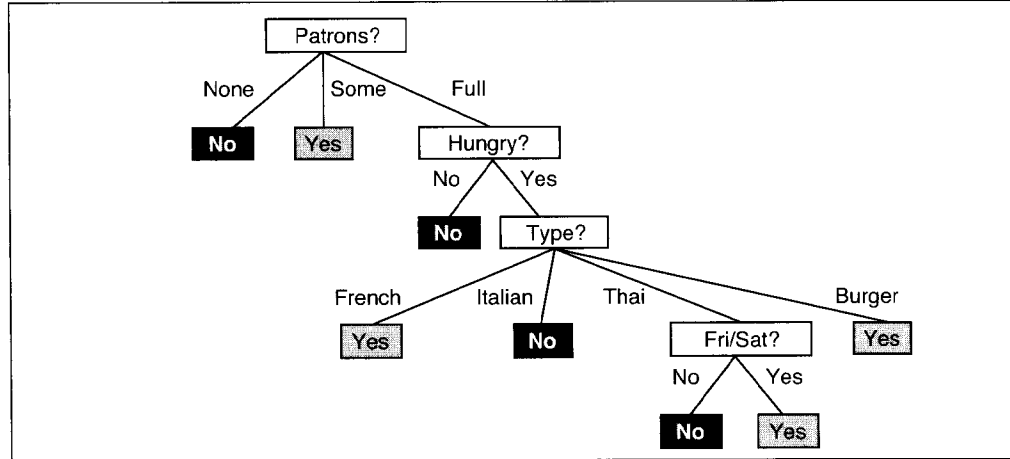


Figure 18.6 The decision tree induced from the 12-example training set.

In that case it says not to wait when *Hungry* is false, but I (SR) would certainly wait. With more training examples the learning program could correct this mistake.

We note there is a danger of over-interpreting the tree that the algorithm selects. When there are several variables of similar importance, the choice between them is somewhat arbitrary: with slightly different input examples, a different variable would be chosen to split first, and the whole tree would look completely different. The function computed by the tree would still be similar, but the structure of the tree can vary widely.

LEARNING CURVE

We can evaluate the accuracy of a learning algorithm with a **learning curve**, as shown in Figure 18.7. We have 100 examples at our disposal, which we split into a training set