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1 Introduction

2 Supervised Learning: A First Approach

2.1 From Traditional Programming to Machine Learning

In traditional computer science, a program is explicitly written to map inputs to outputs:

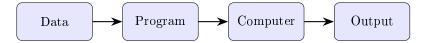
$$Data + Program \rightarrow Computer \rightarrow Output$$

Here, the program defines deterministic rules, such as if-else statements.

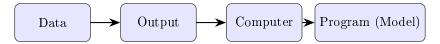
Machine learning inverts this paradigm:

$$Data + Output \rightarrow Computer \rightarrow Program (Model)$$

The computer now learns the mapping from examples rather than explicit programming. The more representative the data, the better the learned model.



Traditional Programming: Rules are explicitly coded.



Machine Learning: The computer learns the program from data.

2.2 Learning from Data

2.2.1 Example: ECG Data

Electrocardiogram (ECG) signals vary in time and across individuals. Each signal segment can be labeled as one of several heartbeat types:

$$y = egin{cases} {
m NA} & {
m Normal\ Activity} \\ {
m AF} & {
m Atrial\ Fibrillation} \\ {
m RB} & {
m Resting\ Beat} \\ \end{cases}$$

The task is to learn a model that maps input signals to the correct label.

2.2.2 Defining Learning

An **agent** learns from experience E with respect to a task T and a performance measure P if its performance on T, measured by P, improves with experience E.

2.3 Supervised Datasets

A supervised dataset consists of labeled examples:

$$T = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}\$$

where x_i is a feature vector and y_i is the known output.

Examples:

- Housing Prices: $y_i = \text{price}, x_i = \text{location}, \text{ size}, \text{ year}, \text{ etc.}$
- Stock Prediction: $y_i = \text{up/down}, x_i = \text{time-based features}.$

2.4 Types of Supervised Problems

- Binary Classification: $y \in \{0, 1\}$
- Multiclass Classification: $y \in \{1, 2, ..., K\}$
- Regression: $y \in \mathbb{R}$

The goal is to find a function h(x) that approximates y:

$$h(x_i) \approx y_i, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n$$

2.5 The Hypothesis Space

Let \mathcal{H} denote the set of candidate functions (hypotheses). Each $h \in \mathcal{H}$ represents one possible model:

$$h(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p$$

The objective is to select the hypothesis that best fits the data.

2.6 Loss Function and Model Selection

The **loss function** quantifies how well a hypothesis performs:

$$L_{\text{MSE}}(h,T) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h(x_i) - y_i)^2$$

$$L_{\text{MAE}}(h, T) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |h(x_i) - y_i|$$

A perfect fit (L=0) may indicate overfitting — the model memorizes the training data and fails to generalize.

2.6.1 Expected Loss

We aim to minimize the expected loss:

$$\mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim P}[L(h(x),y)]$$

Since the population distribution P is unknown, we approximate it with train/validation/test splits:

80% train, 10% validation, 10% test.

2.6.2 No Free Lunch Theorem

No single model works for every problem — each dataset has its own structure. Model choice must depend on the problem context.

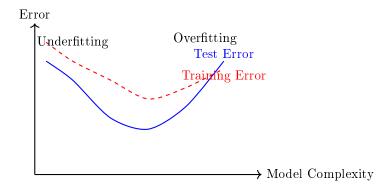
2.7 Supervised Learning Workflow



2.8 Underfitting and Overfitting

- Underfitting: Model too simple; fails to capture structure.
- Overfitting: Model too complex; captures noise.

Balancing bias and variance is crucial for generalization.



2.9 k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN)

In k-NN, predictions are based on the labels of the k closest data points to a query x_* :

$$||x_i - x_*|| = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - x_{*j})^2}$$

Hyperparameter: k

- Low k: possible overfitting.
- High k: possible underfitting.

Input: Training set $T = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$, query x_* , number of neighbors k

Output: Predicted label \hat{y}_*

foreach $(x_i, y_i) \in T$ do

| Compute distance $d_i = ||x_i - x_*||$ (e.g., Euclidean)

end

Sort d_i in ascending order;

Select k nearest neighbors;

if classification then

 $\hat{y}_* \leftarrow \text{majority label among } k \text{ neighbors}$

else

$$\hat{y}_* \leftarrow \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k y_i$$
 (mean for regression) end

Algorithm 1: k-Nearest Neighbors Algorithm

2.9.1 Normalization

Since distances depend on scale, normalize each feature:

$$x_j' = \frac{x_j - \mu_j}{\sigma_j}$$

where μ_j and σ_j are the mean and standard deviation of feature j.

2.10 Summary

Supervised learning aims to infer a mapping from inputs to outputs based on labeled data. The process involves:

- 1. Defining the hypothesis space \mathcal{H}
- 2. Choosing a suitable loss function L
- 3. Optimizing $h \in \mathcal{H}$ to minimize L
- 4. Validating and testing to ensure generalization

A good model balances complexity and performance, avoiding both underfitting and overfitting.

3 Linear Regression