# Medical Diagnostics

Tutorial 5 (1): Modelling data with simple regression models

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# O From learning to machine learning



### 0.1 What is learning?

- Learning (general): Acquiring skill with experience accumulated from observations.
  - Observations → learning → skill
- Machine learning (ML): Acquiring skill with experience accumulated/computed from data.
  - Data → ML algorithm → ML skill
- ML automates the process of learning from data to make predictions or decisions.



### 0.2 What is a skill?

- Improves some performance measure (e.g. prediction accuracy)
- Machine learning: Improving some performance measure with experience computed from data
  - Data → ML algorithm → improved performance measure
- An application in diagnostics:
  - Patient data → ML → Early detection of disease



# 0.3 Why use machine learning?



- 'Define' trees and implement an algorithm: difficult
- Learn from data: a 3-year-old can do it
- ML can be easier to build (if data is available) and provide an alternative to complex algorithms





### 0.4 When to use machine learning?

- 1. Exists some 'underlying pattern' to be learned —so 'performance measure' can be improved
- 2. But no programmable (easy) definition—so 'ML' is needed
- 3. Somehow there is data about the pattern—so ML has some 'inputs' to learn from



# 1 Supervised learning setup



### 1.1 Basic notations

- Input space:  ${\cal X}$
- Output space:  ${\cal Y}$
- ullet Training examples:  $D=\{(x_i,y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$
- ullet Unknown target function:  $f:\mathcal{X} o\mathcal{Y}$
- ullet Learning algorithm:  ${\cal A}$
- **Hypothesis set:**  ${\cal H}$  (set of possible models)
- ullet Final hypothesis: gpprox f



# 1.2 Statistics vs ML vs Artificial Intelligence (AI)

#### • Statistics:

Use data to make inferences about a population/process

#### • ML:

lacktriangle Use data to compute hypothesis g that approximates the target function f

#### • AI:

Compute something that shows intelligent behavior



# 2 Learning flow

- 1. Collect data:  $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}$
- 2. Choose hypothesis set:  $\mathcal{H}$  (e.g., linear functions)
- 3. Select learning algorithm: A
- 4. **Train:** Use  ${\mathcal A}$  on D to find  $g\in {\mathcal H}$
- 5. **Evaluate:** Assess g on new data
- 6. **Deploy:** Use g for predictions



# 2.1 Case study: Gene expression inference

Based on: Chen, Y., Li, Y., Narayan, R., Subramanian, A., & Xie, X. (2016). Gene expression inference with deep learning. Bioinformatics (Oxford, England), 32(12), 1832–1839.

- Problem: Sequencing of the human genome is expensive and time-consuming
- Motivation: Despite the large number of genes ( $\approx 22k$ ) across the whole human genome, most of their expression profiles are known to be highly correlated.



# 2.1 Case study: Gene expression inference

- Goal: Predict the expression of thousands of target genes from a subset of landmark genes
- Inputs:  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{943}$  (landmark gene expression levels)
- ullet Outputs:  $y\in\mathbb{R}^k$  (target gene expression levels, k=9,520 to 21,290)
- Datasets: GEO (microarray) and GTEx (RNA-seq)



# 3 A simple hypothesis set: linear regression (LR)



# 3.1 Simple LR (1-1)

- ullet Model:  $h_{ heta}(x) = heta_0 + heta_1 x$
- Parameters( $\theta$ ):  $a = \theta_1$  (weights),  $b = \theta_0$  (bias)
- How to choose  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_0$ ?
- Goal: Find  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_0$  that minimize the difference between predicted and true outputs



# 3.2 Loss function for LR: mean squared error (MSE)

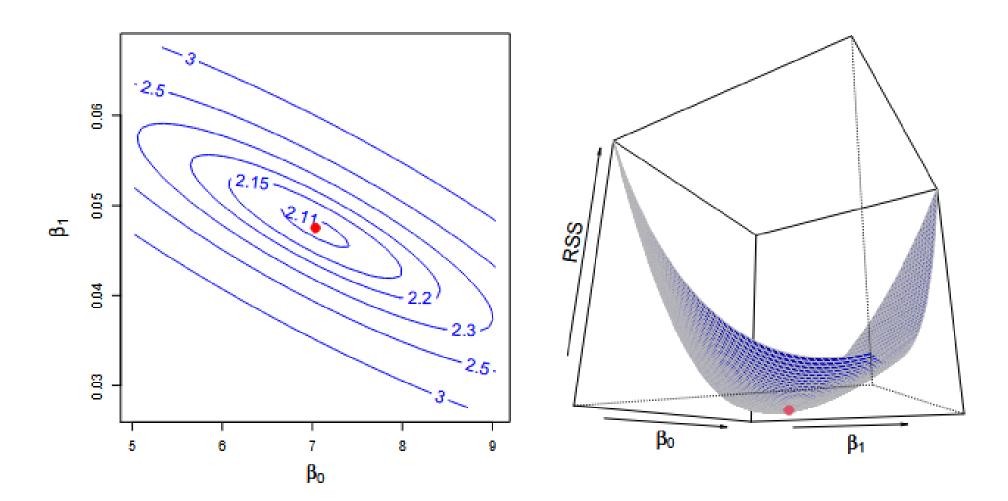
- Loss function: Quantifies how well the LR model fits the data.
- Mean squared error (MSE):

$$\mathcal{L}_{ ext{MSE}}( heta) = rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (h_ heta(x_i) - y_i)^2$$

• Goal: Find  $\theta$  that minimizes  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{MSE}}(\theta)$ 



### 3.3 MSE: visualization



ullet What is a good value for L ?



# 3.4 Multiple LR (many-1)



#### General case (multiple features):

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \theta_d x_d$$

#### Vector notation:

- $lacksquare Let x = [x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d]^T$  (feature vector)
- lacksquare Let  $w = [ heta_1, heta_2, \dots, heta_d]^T$  (weights)
- $\theta_0$  is the bias (intercept)

$$h_{ heta}(x) = w^T x + b$$

lacktriangle Here,  $b= heta_0$ 



### 3.5 Bias term in LR

#### • Bias trick:

- lacksquare Augment x with a constant 1:  $x' = [1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d]^T$
- lacksquare Augment w with  $heta_0 \mathpunct{:} w' = [ heta_0, heta_1, \dotsc, heta_d]^T$
- $lacksquare Now, h_{ heta}(x) = (w')^T x'$
- This allows us to write the model as a single dot product, including the bias term.
- What about Many-Many LR? (HW1!)



### 3.7 Multiple LR in practice

Multiple LR: overview

#### Scikit-learn API:

```
1 from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
2 model = LinearRegression()
3 # model.fit(X.numpy(), y.numpy())
4 # print(model.coef_)
```

Documentation: Scikit-learn Linear Regression



# 4 Gradient descent (GD)



### 4.1 Gradient descent: overview

- ullet Goal: Minimize a loss function  $\mathcal{L}( heta)$  over parameters heta
- **Used for:** Models where closed-form solution is not feasible
- Learning rate  $\eta$  controls step size (static (?))



# 4.2 Gradient descent: algorithm

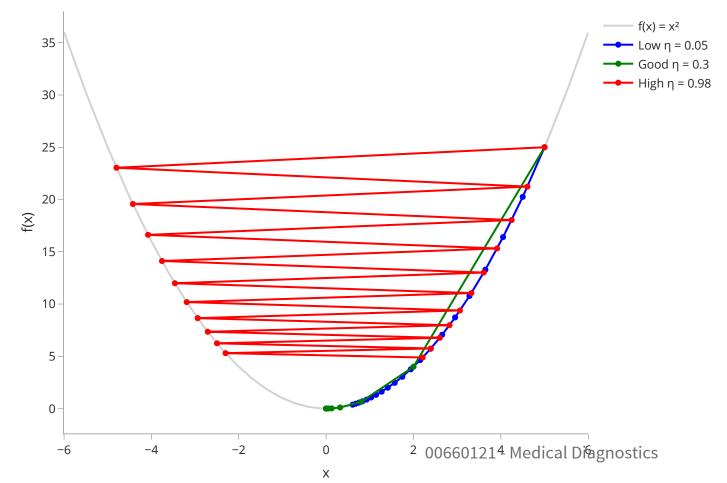
- Algorithm:
  - 1. Initialize  $\theta$
  - 2. Repeat:
    - Compute gradient  $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$
    - Update:  $\theta \leftarrow \theta \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$
  - 3. Until convergence



# 4.3 Gradient descent: the learning rate

• Hyperparameter ( $\eta$ ): Step size in parameter space, affects convergence speed

Gradient Descent Trajectories for Different Learning Rates





# 4.4 Stochastic/mini batch gradient descent

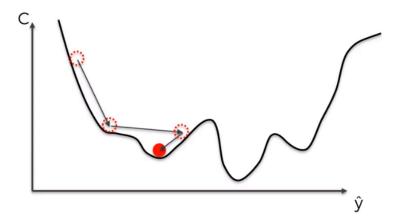
 Mini batch gradient descent: Update parameters using only a batch of training examples at a time.

#### Advantages:

- Faster convergence for large datasets.
- Can escape local minima due to noisy updates.

#### • Disadvantages:

- Noisy updates can lead to oscillations.
- May require careful tuning of learning rate.





# 6 Training models



### 6.1 Train-test-validate

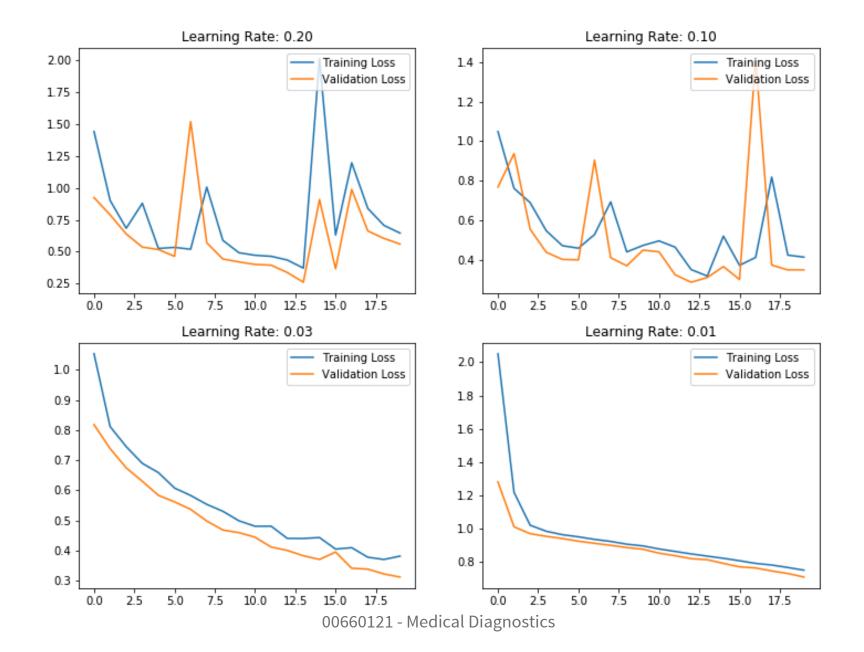
- Training set: Used to fit the model (e.g., find  $\theta$ )
- Validation set: Used to tune hyperparameters
- Test set: Used to evaluate final model performance
- Goal: Ensure model generalizes well to unseen data
- Partitioning: Usually 60% train, 20% validation, 20% test
- K-fold cross-validation: Split into K subsets, train on K-1 and validate on the remaining one, repeat K times
- Inference: Using the trained model to make predictions on new data

### 6.2 The training process

```
initialize model parameters
for each epoch:
for each batch in training_data:
    compute predictions using model
    compute loss using loss function
    compute gradients
    update model parameters using gradients and learning rate
if validation set available:
    evaluate model on validation set
```



## 6.2 The learning curve







# 6.3 Model evaluation: in-sample vs. out-of-sample error

- In-sample error  $E_{in}$ :
  - Error measured on the training data
  - May underestimate true error if model overfits
- ullet Out-of-sample error  $E_{out}$ :
  - Error measured on unseen (test/validation) data
  - Better estimate of model's real-world performance
- Goal: Achieve low  $E_{out}$  (good generalization)



# 6.3 Overfitting, underfitting, and generalization



#### Overfitting:

- Model fits training data too closely (captures noise)
- Low in-sample error, high out-of-sample error

#### Underfitting:

- Model too simple to capture underlying pattern
- High in-sample and out-of-sample error

#### Generalization:

- Model performs well on new, unseen data
- Achieved by balancing model complexity and training
- Goal: low out-of-sample error



# 8 Case study: linear regression for gene expression



### 8.1 Problem statement

- Goal: Predict the expression of thousands of target genes from a subset of landmark genes using linear regression.
- Inputs:  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{943}$  (landmark gene expression levels)
- ullet Outputs:  $y\in\mathbb{R}^k$  (target gene expression levels, k=9,520 to 21,290)
- Dataset: GEO (microarray) and GTEx (RNA-seq)



### 8.2 Data preprocessing steps

#### • Duplication removal:

 Removed duplicate samples to ensure each profile is unique.

#### Normalization:

 Each gene's expression was standardized (zero mean, unit variance) across samples.

#### Partitioning:

Data split into training, validation, and test sets.



## 8.3 Linear regression model & notation

- ullet Model:  $h_{ heta}(x) = x^T w + b$ 
  - x: Input vector (landmark genes)
  - w: Weights (one per target gene)
  - b: Bias term
- ullet Training set:  $S = \{(x_i,y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$
- **Hypothesis:**  $h_{ heta}$  parameterized by heta=(w,b)



### 8.4 Loss function

Mean squared error (MSE):

$$\mathcal{L}_{ ext{MSE}} = rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|h_{ heta}(x_i) - y_i\|_2^2$$

- Measures average squared difference between predicted and true target gene values.
- Training objective:

$$heta^* = rg\min_{ heta} \mathcal{L}_{ ext{MSE}}( heta|S)$$



### 8.5 Training: fitting the model

- 1. Remove duplicates and normalize data
- 2. Split data into train/validation/test
- 3. Fit a separate linear regression for each target gene:
  - For each gene j, solve:

$$w_j^*, b_j^* = rg\min_{w_j, b_j} rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i^T w_j + b_j - y_{ij})^2$$



# 8.6 Evaluation: measuring performance

Evaluate on test set using MAE (mean absolute error):

$$ext{MAE} = rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |h_ heta(x_i) - y_i|$$

- Key findings:
  - Linear regression provides a simple, interpretable baseline
  - Removing duplicates and normalization are critical
  - Performance is measured by MAE on held-out data
  - This baseline motivates the need for more complex models (not covered here)



## 9 Working with data: CSVs, tensors, and tensor operations



### 9.1 Loading data from CSV

- Read CSV file:
  - Open file, read each row as a list of values
  - Convert values to numbers (floats)
  - Store as a 2D array (matrix)

```
1 # Pseudocode for loading CSV data
2 open file.csv as f
3 for each line in f:
4    split line by ',')
5    convert each value to float
6    append to data matrix
```



### 9.2 Tensors and tensor arithmetic

- Tensor: Generalization of vectors (1D) and matrices (2D) to higher dimensions
- Create tensor:
  - From list, array, or data matrix

```
1 # Pseudocode for tensor arithmetic
2 A = tensor([[1, 2], [3, 4]])
3 B = tensor([[5, 6], [7, 8]])
4 C = A + B  # elementwise addition
5 D = A * B  # elementwise multiplication
6 E = A @ B  # matrix multiplication
```



## 9.3 Broadcasting and advanced tensor operations

- Broadcasting:
  - Automatically expands shapes for elementwise operations
  - Example: Adding a vector to each row of a matrix

```
1  # Pseudocode for broadcasting
2  A = tensor([[1, 2], [3, 4]])  # shape (2, 2)
3  b = tensor([10, 20])  # shape (2,)
4  C = A + b  # b is broadcast to (2, 2)
```



## 10 Putting it all together: a simple training loop

```
1  # X, y are 1-D arrays of length N
2  theta0, theta1 = 0.0, 0.0
3  lr = 1e-2 # eta
4
5  for epoch in epochs:
6    y_hat = theta1 * X + theta0
7    residual = y_hat - y
8    grad0 = 2 / len(X) * residual.sum()
9    grad1 = 2 / len(X) * (X * residual).sum()
10    theta0 -= alpha * grad0
11    theta1 -= alpha * grad1
```

$$egin{align*} \mathcal{L}( heta_0, heta_1) &= rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N ( heta_1 x_i + heta_0 - y_i)^2 \ rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial heta_0} &= rac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N ( heta_1 x_i + heta_0 - y_i) \ rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial heta_1} &= rac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i ( heta_1 x_i + heta_0 - y_i) \end{aligned}$$



### 11 Model training workflow

- 1. **Prepare data:** Clean, preprocess, and split into training/validation/test sets
- 2. Choose model: Select hypothesis set (e.g., linear regression)
- 3. Train model: Fit parameters using training data
- 4. **Tune hyperparameters:** Use validation set to adjust settings (e.g., learning rate)
- 5. Evaluate: Assess performance on test set
- 6. **Deploy:** Use trained model for predictions

