

Model fitting

Thomas Lumley Ken Rice

Model Fitting

Seattle, June 2009

Regression commands

Two of the most important R commands;

• lm(): fits Linear Models

• glm(): fits **G**eneralized **L**inear **M**odels

(If you've used SAS, its glm is **not** the same as R's)

'Linear Regression' and 'Logistic Regression' are special cases.

The help files are huge (and generic) — how are lm(), glm() used in genetics?

For a continuous outcome,

$$lm(outcome \sim genetic.predictor, [...])$$

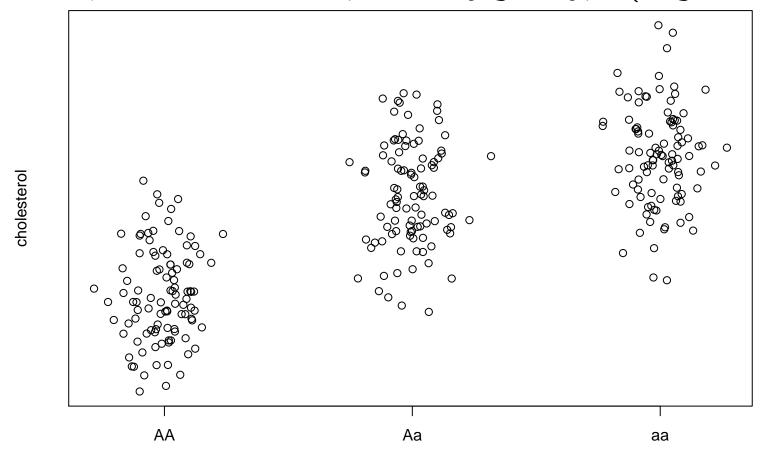
estimates the association between outcome and predictor

The **optional** arguments [...] might be

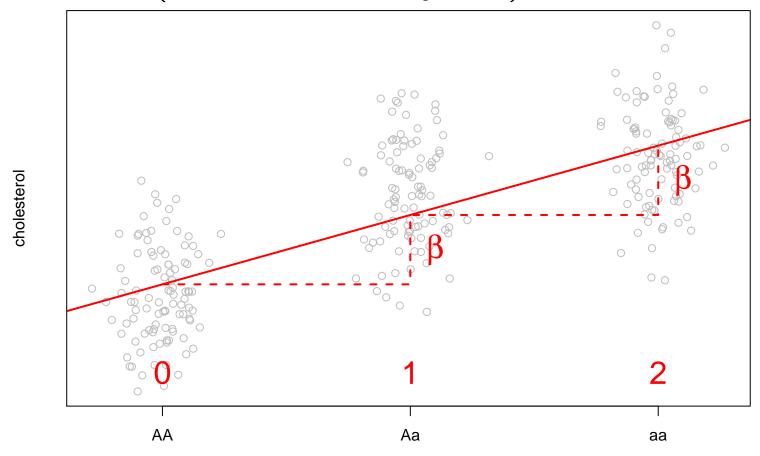
- data = my.data your dataset
- subset = race=="CEPH" use partial data
- weights = − for advanced analyses

Model Description	predictor	Common name
Number of minor alleles	(g=='Aa') + 2*(g=='aa')	Additive
	Or as.numeric(g)	
Presence of minor allele	(g=='Aa') (g=='aa')	Dominant
Homozygous for minor allele	g=='aa'	Recessive
Distinct effects	factor(g)	2 parameter,
for hetero/homozygous		or "2 df"

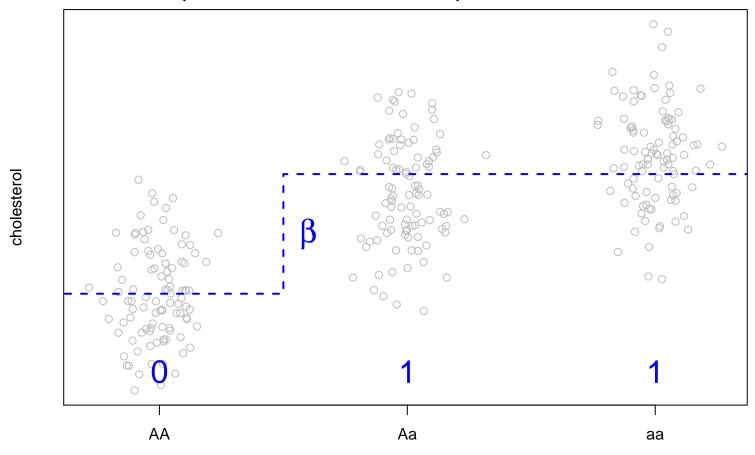
Some data; cholesterol levels plotted by genotype (single SNP)



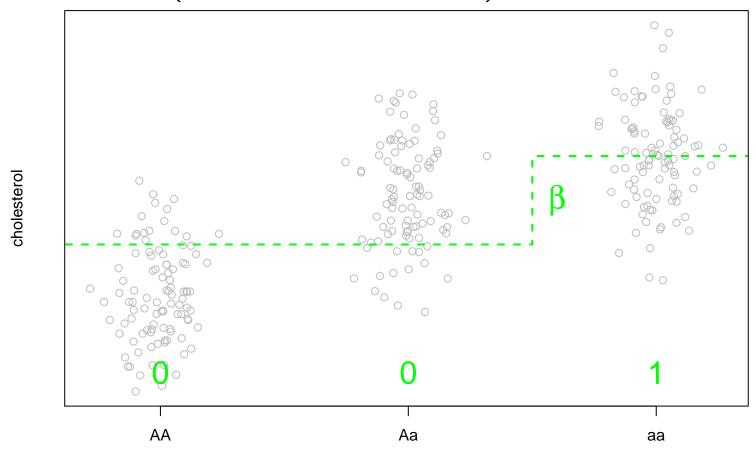
Additive model (the most commonly used)



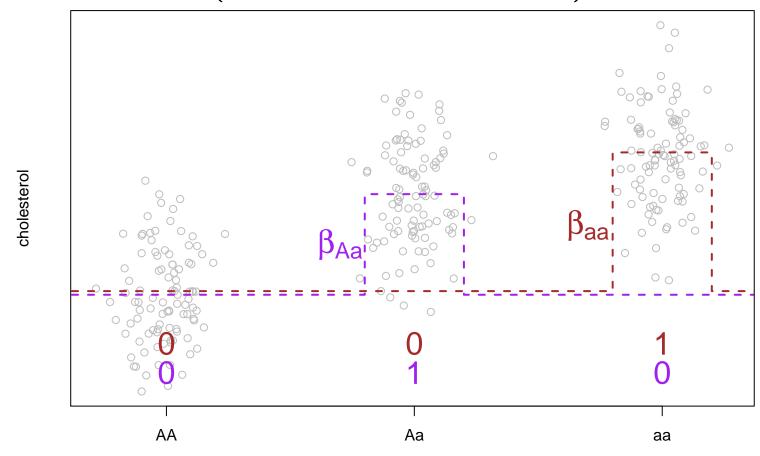
Dominant model (best fit to this data)



Recessive model (least stable for rare aa)



2 parameter model (robust but can be overkill)



lm(): Estimates, Intervals, p-values

lm() produces point estimates for your model;

also available via my.lm\$coefficients.

The coefficients in the output tell you the **additive increase** in outcome associated with a **one-unit** difference in the genetic predictor.

The coefficient for predictor is in units of cholesterol

lm(): Estimates, Intervals, p-values

You will also want confidence intervals;

Remember to **round these numbers** to an appropriate number of significant figures! (2 or 3 is usually enough)

We are **seldom** interested in the Intercept

lm(): Estimates, Intervals, p-values

Two-sided **p-values** are also available;

In this data, we have **strong evidence** of an **additive effect** of the minor allele on cholesterol

summary(my.lm) gives many other details — ignore for now

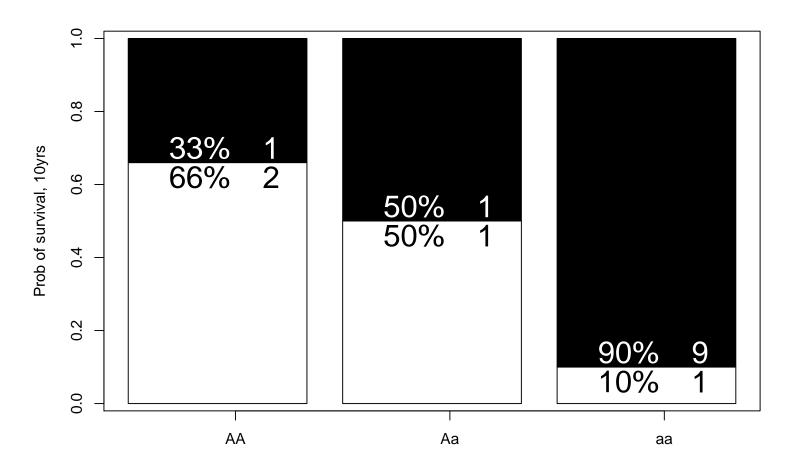
Confidence intervals are just Estimate \pm 2 \times Std.Error

Logistic regression is the 'default' analysis for binary outcomes

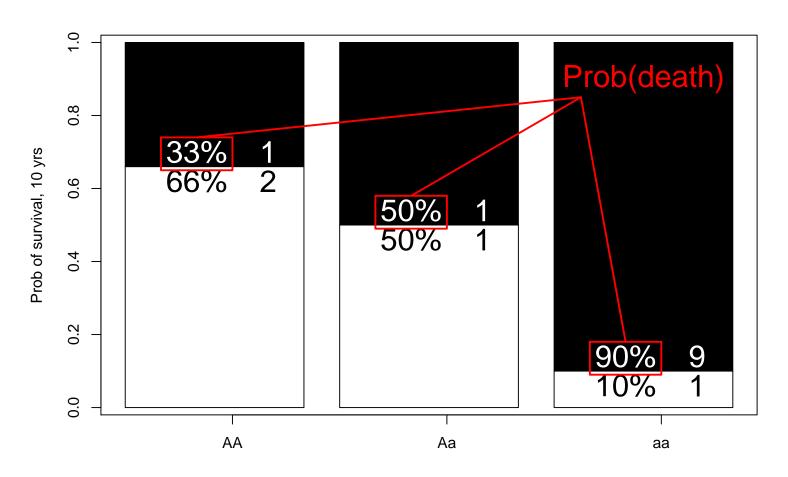
Outcome	Туре	Regression	Scale
Cholesterol			
Blood Pressure	Continuous	Linear	Difference in Outcome
BMI			
Death Stroke BMI>30	Binary	Logistic	Ratio of odds

What are **odds**? Really just **probability**...

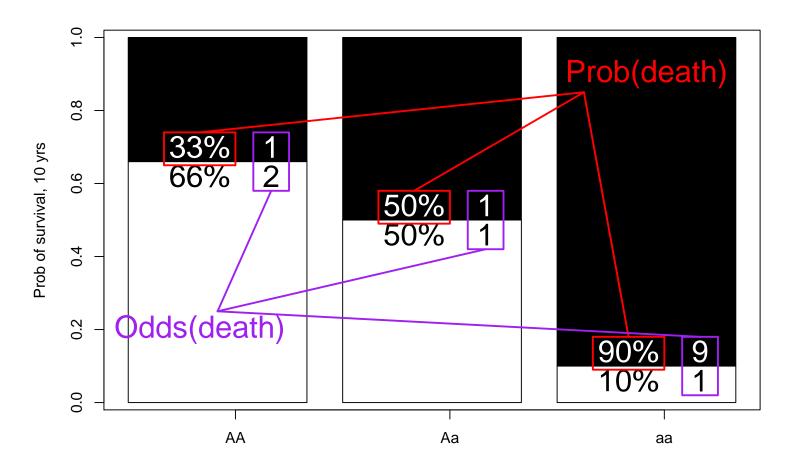
Odds are a [gambling-friendly] measure of chance;



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Odds are a [gambling-friendly] measure of chance;



– so what are odds ratios?

Using the data from the bar charts;

```
> pred2 <- factor(g)
> glm1 <- glm( dead10yrs ~ pred2, family=binomial)
> glm1
    pred2Aa    pred2aa
    0.6931    2.8904
```

These are \log odds ratio estimates; to transform to OR, use $e^{0.6931}=2, e^{2.8904}=18$

They are given **relative to the baseline group** – 'AA' in this case

Don't forget the family=binomial argument!

> confint.default(glm1)

Confidence intervals, p-values as with lm(), for the log odds ratios;

Use exp() to get odds ratio estimates, intervals; p-values are scale-independent

The formula syntax

We fit $lm(y\sim predictor)$ and $glm(y\sim pred2)$. To see how phenotype depends on *several* covariates, we specify e.g.

```
y \sim genotype.pred + age + sex
```

- formally, this gives *multivariate regression*; the genotype.pred coefficients reflect the genotype effects *adjusted for age and sex*
 - Separate covariates with '+'. This is not addition!
 - For now, make predictor variables first, then do regression; doing everything in one step is possible, but requires care when using e.g. addition (see above)
 - For keen people; in the formula syntax, * indicates that interactions should be fitted, I() insulates mathematical operations, -1 removes the intercept... see ?formula