

# 4. Model fitting

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### Disclaimer

We can't teach regression in one session. But we will cover;

- Use of common regression and testing commands, in simple genetic settings
- Some useful post-processing commands, after the regression is done

NB Because regression is a vast subject, the help files for commands in this session are also vast. If you are new to regression, Dalgaard's book is a good place to look for more material.

### Comparing means: two groups

Simple data (below) suggests a simple model;

• All outcomes (Y) independent, i.e. one from each person in your study

• Within each group (defined by G) there is a mean outcome

• ... are the means different?

The *t*-test is the standard statistical tool for making this comparison. Common to recode G (carrier/non-carrier) as 1/0- and to call it X, or covariate/predictor/dependent variable.





# Comparing means: two groups

Straightforward R command to do this;

- $Y \sim X$  formula, just as in graphics
- Confidence interval is for difference in means (1st 2nd)
- *p*-value is two-sided (see alternative) and does not assume equal variances (see var.equal)
- Also accepts vector input, for one-sample & paired tests

In a new study, with more groups, how do the means compare?



... need to make/combine two comparisons, here

```
Assuming we have genotypes G coded "AA" /" Aa" /" aa";
```

```
> aov1 <- aov( chol ~ g, data=mynewdata )</pre>
> aov1
Call:
  aov(formula = chol ~ g)
Terms:
                     gg Residuals
Sum of Squares 193.0185 135.4168
Deg. of Freedom
                      2
                              297
Residual standard error: 0.6752397
Estimated effects may be unbalanced
> summary(aov1)
            Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
           2 193.0 96.51 211.7 <2e-16 ***
gg
Residuals 297 135.4 0.46
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
```

This is Analysis of Variance. Use model.tables(aov1, type="means") to see and compare the means (!)

A more direct way to say the same thing;

 $Mean(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_{Aa} \times (G = Aa) + \beta_{aa} \times (G = aa)$ 



With genotypes stored as a factor, we can perform the inference using lm() – for Linear Model;

```
> lm1 <- lm(chol~g, data=mynewdata)</pre>
> summary(lm1)
Call:
lm(formula = chol ~ g)
Residuals:
    Min
              10 Median
                               30
                                      Max
-1.70228 - 0.48623 - 0.02692 0.47186 1.79321
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.06757 0.06752 1.001 0.318
        1.37916 0.09549 14.442 <2e-16 ***
gAa
          1.90149 0.09549 19.912 <2e-16 ***
gaa
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 1
```

Residual standard error: 0.6752 on 297 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.5877, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5849 F-statistic: 211.7 on 2 and 297 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16 Notes on this fairly verbose summary();

- lm() takes formula input
- Get same F statistic as analysis of variance doing the same analysis, comparing means
- 'Wald tests' of individual coefficients also given; is the intercept zero, is the difference between mean Y in Aa and AA zero?
- Alpha-numerically 'first' level of factor is chosen as reference

   unless you specify otherwise, when making a factor(). Or
   relevel() an existing factor
- This analysis assumes variance of outcomes *is* constant across the groups slightly different to the default *t*-test.

Turn those #&%ing stars off with options(show.signif.stars=FALSE)

A more common use of lm();



 $Mean(Y) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \times \#minor$  alleles

The work here is constructing the 0/1/2 covariate; one approach (below) exploits R's 'coercion' of TRUE/FALSE to 1/0, in math expressions;

```
> mynewdatag.num <- with(mynewdata, 0 + 1*(g=="Aa") + 2*(g=="aa"))
> lm2 <- lm(chol~g.num, data=mynewdata)</pre>
> summary(lm2)
Call:
lm(formula = chol ~ g.num)
Residuals:
              10 Median
                                30
     Min
                                        Max
-1.84509 - 0.47012 - 0.08037 0.52075 1.66926
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.21037 0.06426
                                 3.274 0.00119
            0.95074 0.04977 19.101 < 2e-16
g.num
Residual standard error: 0.7039 on 298 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.5504, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5489
F-statistic: 364.9 on 1 and 298 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

As well as the point estimates and p-values, we probably want confidence intervals for the parameters;

For tests that do not require constant variance – but that do require large sample sizes;

It is possible to extract most of what you need from 1m2 or summary(1m2) using the \$ syntax. But it's easier to use extractor functions;

- coef(); the estimated coefficients
- predict(); predicted values at given covariates
- fitted.values(); fitted values for original data
- residuals(); residuals for original data
- confint(); see earlier slides
- vcov(); variance-covariance matrix for the point estimates
- vcovHC(); robust version in the sandwich package
- AIC(), BIC(); An Information Criterion (and another one)

These can also be used on output from other regression functions. See also ?influence.measures for diagnostic tools.

To fit the 'dominant model';

 $Mean(Y) = \delta_0 + \delta_1 \times (G \neq AA)$ 



...define g.num2 <- g!="AA" and regress Y~g.num2.

To fit the 'recessive model';

 $Mean(Y) = \zeta_0 + \zeta_1 \times (G = = AA)$ 



...define g.num3 <- g=="AA" and regress  $Y \sim g.num3$ .

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#### Notes

- There are many ways to convert stored genotypes to the 0/1/2 variables R uses in regression
- Check you got it right, before doing regression. Use e.g. table() to ensure everything matches up
- Regressing on a factor, R actually sets up multiple binary covariates, and regresses on each of them
- When missing values are present in outcome or any covariates in the formula, R drops that row of the data before starting analysis
- Intercepts are implicit in R regression formula. Should you need to, take them out with e.g.  $Y \sim -1 + g$ . See ?formula for more tricks like this

# **Comparing means: adjustments**

Imagine, in a huge sample, we see association between phenotype and genotype;



...  $lm(y \sim g)$  would report a positive slope, very unlikely by chance alone – and this is statistically 'right'.

## **Comparing means: adjustments**

But this is *scientifically* unimpressive, if breaking the same data down by ancestry group we see this;



The effect is known as *population stratification* – statisticians know it as *confounding*.

### **Comparing means: adjustments**

To fit models where

$$Mean(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times G + \beta_2 \times Z$$

the R formula syntax is

$$y \sim g + z$$

... so on the previous slide, with Z = (colour = red), the g coefficient  $(\beta_1)$  tells us about how the Mean(Y) varies with G in both red and blue populations; should fit  $\beta_1 \approx 0$ , here.

To adjust for multiple covariates (e.g. age & sex & different principal components of genotype data, representing ancestry);

$$y \sim g + age + sex + pc1 + pc2 + pc3 + pc4 + pc5$$

Note PCs can be obtained with princomp() and/or prcomp().

### **Comparing means: interaction**

When we have data on genotype (G=0/1/2) and environment  $(0 \le E \le 1)$  – here presented in two sub-optimal ways;



(These results using persp() and bwplot() )

### **Comparing means: interaction**

And two simpler ways; (using xyplot() and plot())



Does the slope of the Y - E relationship differ according to G?

# **Comparing means: interaction**

With e.g. G=number of minor alleles, we might fit

```
Mean(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 G + \beta_2 E + \beta_3 G \times E
```

- In formulas, colons (:) denote interaction
- Shorthand  $y \sim g * e$  denotes interactions and all main effects
- For math in formulas, can use I() to *insulate*, for example y~ g\*I(sbp-dbp), for interactions with pulse pressure

Logistic regression is the 'default' analysis for binary outcomes

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

What are odds? Really just probability...

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



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



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



- so what are odds ratios?

Using the data from the previous slide, with g stored as a factor, levels "AA" /" Aa" /" aa";

> glm1 <- glm( dead10yrs ~g, family=binomial, data=myposthocdata)
> coef(glm1)
(Intercept) gAa gaa
-0.6931472 0.6931472 2.8903717

- First term is estimate of *log odds* in reference group (AA) to transform to an estimate of odds, use  $e^{-0.6931}=0.5$
- Other terms are estimates of *log odds ratios*, relative to the reference group; to transform to OR, use exp() to obtain  $e^{0.6931} = 2, e^{2.8904} = 18$
- If/when you forget the family=binomial argument, default is linear regression, also given by lm()

Confidence intervals and p-values are obtained as with lm() output – as here for the log odds ratios;

```
> confint(glm1)
Waiting for profiling to be done...
                2.5 %
                          97.5 %
            0.1242838 1.2723849
gAa
            2.1529671 3.7154673
gaa
> confint.default(glm1)
                2.5 %
                          97.5 %
            0.1201986 1.2660957
gAa
            2.1148912 3.6658523
gaa
> summary(glm1)
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(|z|)
                        0.2923 2.371 0.01773
             0.6931
gAa
                        0.3957 7.305 2.77e-13
             2.8904
gaa
```

- Most users expect the confint.default() intervals
- Use exp() on confint() output (either version) to get intervals for the corresponding odds ratios.

# Other model-fitting commands

For an inclusive definition of 'model';

- fisher.test() and chisq.test() perform Fisher's exact test and Pearson's  $\chi^2$  test, on contingency tables
- coxph() in the survival package, for Cox Proportional Hazards regression
- gee() in the gee package, for Generalized Estimating Equations
- lmer() and glmer() in the lme4 package fit (Generalized) Linear Mixed Models
- ns() and bs() in the splines package calculate natural and B-splines

Search the R/Bioconductor sites to see how to fit many other models.