Introduction to R for Data Analysis in the Health Sciences: Lecture 6

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Today

- ► Linear regression
 - Interactions
 - Intercept-free
- ► Logistic regression
 - Fitting
 - Interpretation

As always...

library(tidyverse)

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Reading in the data

Let's look again at the FEV data set that we have analysed previously:

```
fev <- read csv("datasets/fev.csv")</pre>
## Parsed with column specification:
## cols(
##
     segnbr = col integer(),
##
     subjid = col integer(),
##
     age = col integer(),
##
     fev = col double(),
     height = col double(),
##
     sex = col_integer(),
##
##
     smoke = col_integer()
## )
```

Clarifying the data

We began by clarifying how variables are coded:

We are often interested in fitting a model where variables "interact"

► The value of the coefficient of one variable depends on the coefficient of another variable

e.g. The model for how age increases the expected value of FEV depends on sex:

- $E(FEV_i) = \beta_{0f} + \beta_{1f} \times age_i$ for female children
- $E(FEV_i) = \beta_{1m} + \beta_{1m} \times age_i$ for male children

Here we have a sex-specific intercept, and a sex-specific slope

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We fit this model as follows:

```
lm_i <- lm(fev ~ sex * age, data = fev_char)</pre>
```

- ► fev ~ sex * age fits an interactive model
 - A different linear model for fev on age for each sex
- fev ~ sex + age fits an additive model
 - A linear model for fev on age, with a different intercept for each sex

The output format is similar to before, but now intercept and slope terms indicate if they apply only for male subjects:

```
lm_i

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = fev ~ sex * age, data = fev_char)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) sexmale age sexmale:age
## 0.8495 -0.7759 0.1627 0.1107
```

The fitted values from this model are

- $ightharpoonup F\hat{E}V_i = 0.849 + 0.163 imes age_i$ for female children
- $F\hat{E}V_i = (0.849 0.776) + (0.163 + 0.111) \times age_i$ for male children

Add the values from the baseline category to the non-baseline category to get non-baseline category coefficient estimates.

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Note this fits (almost*) the same model as if we fit each sex individually:

```
lm(fev ~ age,
   data = fev_char %>% filter(sex == "female")) %>% coef
## (Intercept)
                       age
##
    0.8494671 0.1627289
lm(fev ~ age,
   data = fev char %>% filter(sex == "male")) %>% coef
## (Intercept)
                       age
    0.07360056 0.27347763
##
```

^{*}Almost, because the same variance is estimated for both groups in the interactive model, while different variances are estimated for the separate models.

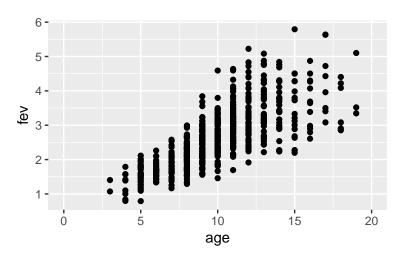
We can get more information with summary

```
lm_i %>% summary
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = fev ~ sex * age, data = fev_char)
##
## Residuals:
       Min 10 Median 30
                                        Max
##
## -1.64072 -0.34337 -0.04934 0.33206 1.86867
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 0.849467 0.102199 8.312 5.51e-16 ***
## sexmale -0.775867 0.142745 -5.435 7.74e-08 ***
## age 0.162729 0.009952 16.351 < 2e-16 ***
## sexmale:age 0.110749 0.013786 8.033 4.47e-15 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.5196 on 650 degrees of freedom
```

Questions?

What do we expect the FEV of a 0-year-old infant to be?

```
fev_char %>% ggplot(aes(x = age, y = fev)) +
  geom_point() + xlim(0, 20)
```



Recall that, by default, 1m includes an intercept in the model:

```
lm(fev ~ age, data = fev_char)

##

## Call:

## lm(formula = fev ~ age, data = fev_char)

##

## Coefficients:

## (Intercept) age

## 0.4316 0.2220
```

It is uncommon, but sometimes we want to fit a model without an intercept:

$$E(FEV_i) = \beta \times age_i$$

We can do this as follows:

```
lm(fev ~ age - 1, data = fev_char)

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = fev ~ age - 1, data = fev_char)
##
## Coefficients:
## age
## 0.262
```

Linear models with 1m

Any model fit with 1m produces the same type of output

► Additive, interactive, intercept-free

You can use coef, summary, anova on any 1m output

Questions?

Other regression-type models

The linear model is a common choice when we have a continuous response (Y) variable.

What happens when we have a binary response variable?

Models for binary data

Binary/dichotomous variables can be coded as 0 or 1. A value of 1 indicates which option occurred – hence these are sometimes called *indicator* variables.

Common examples include

- ► Mortality: 0 = alive; 1 = dead
- Remission: 0 = no; 1 = yes
- ightharpoonup Sex: 0 = male; 1 = female
- ▶ Intervention: 0 = control; 1 = treated

We're going to look at a dataset containing information about malignant and benign breast cancers:

```
bc <- read_csv("datasets/breastcancer.csv")</pre>
```

```
## Parsed with column specification:
## cols(
     Id = col_integer(),
##
##
     Cl.thickness = col_integer(),
##
     Cell.size = col_integer(),
##
     Cell.shape = col integer(),
##
     Marg.adhesion = col_integer(),
     Epith.c.size = col_integer(),
##
##
     Bare.nuclei = col integer(),
##
     Bl.cromatin = col_integer(),
     Normal.nucleoli = col integer(),
##
##
     Mitoses = col integer(),
##
     Class = col_character()
## )
```

This dataset is from a clinician at UW Madison (for details, see the package mlbench). Each row describes a cancer presented to the clinician with respect to

- categorical unordered: Sample ID
- categorical ordered 0 to 10: Clump Thickness, Uniformity of Cell Size, Uniformity of Cell Shape, Marginal Adhesion, Single Epithelial Cell Size, Bare Nuclei, Bland Chromatin, Normal Nucleoli. Mitoses
- categorical unordered (benign or malignant): Class

Let's take a quick look at the dataset:

```
bc %>% names
##
    [1] "Id"
                          "Cl.thickness"
                                            "Cell.size"
## [4] "Cell.shape"
                          "Marg.adhesion"
                                            "Epith.c.size"
## [7] "Bare.nuclei"
                                            "Normal.nucleo
                          "Bl.cromatin"
## [10] "Mitoses"
                          "Class"
bc$Class %>% unique
## [1] "benign"
                   "malignant"
bc$Cell.size %>% unique %>% sort
    [1]
##
```

The response variable that we want to model is whether the cancer is malignant. We create an indicator variable Y that takes value 0 when the cancer is benign and 1 if the cancer is malignant.

```
bc_y <- bc %>%
mutate(y = ifelse(Class == "benign", 0, 1))
```

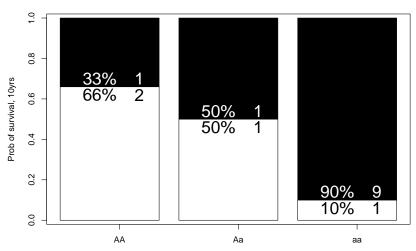
Logistic regression fits the model

$$\log\left(\frac{Pr(Y_i=1|X_i=x_i)}{Pr(Y_i=0|X_i=x_i)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$

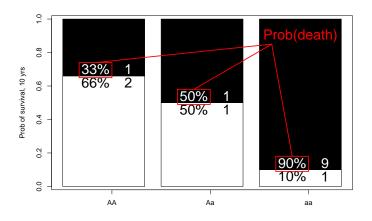
It is linear model for the logarithm of the *odds* that Y = 1.

How can we interpret odds?

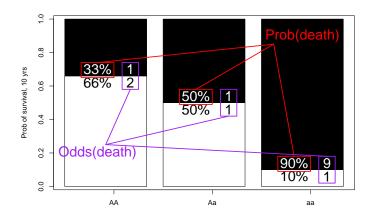
Suppose that patients' survival after diagnosis depends on cancer subgroup (AA, Aa, or aa). Patients survival after 1 year is given below:



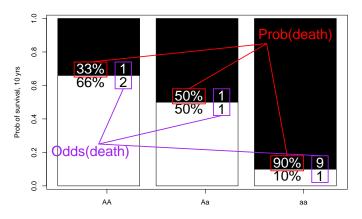
What is the probability of death for each group?



What is the odds of death for each group?



What is the *odds ratio* of death for group Aa relative to group AA?



Odds ratio for Aa vs AA: $\frac{\text{Odds(death | Group Aa)}}{\text{Odds(death | Group AA)}} = \frac{1/1}{1/2} = 2$

The odds of death in group Aa is **two times** the odds of death in group AA

Logistic regression fits a linear model for the logarithm of the odds that Y=1:

$$\log\left(\frac{Pr(Y_i=1|X_i=x_i)}{Pr(Y_i=0|X_i=x_i)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$$

Interpretation: The odds that Y=1 among those who have a given value of X is estimated to be e^{β_1} times the odds of Y=1 among those who have a unit less of X

This is not necessarily an intuitive way to think about modeling binary data. **Want more practice?** Consider taking a course that introduces generalized linear models.

The function glm with family="binomial" performs logistic regression

```
glm1 <- glm(y ~ Cell.size, family="binomial", data = bc_y)</pre>
```

Syntax:

- glm(response ~ predictor, family="binomial", data = dataset)
 - response is between 0 and 1 (inclusive)

The output of a glm is similar to the output of lm. We can print out the results as follows:

```
##
## Call: glm(formula = y ~ Cell.size, family = "binomial", data = bc_y
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) Cell.size
## -4.960 1.489
##
## Degrees of Freedom: 698 Total (i.e. Null); 697 Residual
## Null Deviance: 900.5
## Residual Deviance: 275.6 AIC: 279.6
```

We can get more information as follows:

```
glm1 %>% summary
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = y ~ Cell.size, family = "binomial", data = bc_y)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
      Min
              10 Median
                               30
                                       Max
##
## -4.1081 -0.2474 -0.2474 0.0099 2.6465
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
##
## (Intercept) -4.960 0.360 -13.78 <2e-16 ***
## Cell.size 1.489 0.121 12.30 <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
  (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
      Null deviance: 900.53 on 698 degrees of freedom
##
```

The coefficients of the variables are *log* odds ratios. So, for a confidence interval for the log odds ratio of Cell.size:

All the extractor functions we saw before for linear regression are available for logistic regression (coef, fitted, predict...)

To obtain an estimate of the odds ratio and the corresponding 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio, just exponentiate:

```
glm1$coefficients %>% exp
## (Intercept) Cell.size
## 0.007011619 4.431374991
confint(glm1, "Cell.size") %>% exp %>% round(3)
## Waiting for profiling to be done...
## 2.5 % 97.5 %
## 3.547 5.709
```

The odds of malignant diagnosis are estimated to be 4.43 times higher for a one unit increase in Cell size.

Logisitic regression

We can fit a logistic regression with multiple covariates by adding the variables to the model with +:

```
glm(y ~ Cell.shape + Cell.size,
   family="binomial", data = bc y)
##
## Call: glm(formula = y ~ Cell.shape + Cell.size, family = "binomial"
      data = bc_y)
##
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) Cell.shape Cell.size
##
      -5.4771
                    0.8223
                                0.7672
##
## Degrees of Freedom: 698 Total (i.e. Null); 696 Residual
## Null Deviance:
                      900.5
## Residual Deviance: 239.6 ATC: 245.6
```

Other regressions

Other family arguments provide other forms of regressions. Some of the regression analyses available with glm are:

- family = poisson
 - Often useful if you have count data as a response
- family = Gamma(link = "log")
 - Often useful if you have a response that is positively skewed
- family = Gamma(link = "inverse")
 - Often useful if you have a response that can only be positive

Remember last week's disclaimer – it is important to understand the models you are fitting; please take care (and perhaps courses) before using the above.

Summary

- Linear models can be fit with interactions between variables, and without intercepts
- Logistic regression can be performed with glm() with family="binomial"
 - Logistic regression fits a linear model on the log-odds scale
 - To obtain odds and odds ratios, you exponentiate the coefficients
- There are many other regression methods (generalized linear models) available using glm(), including Poisson and Gamma regression

Next week: advanced data manipulation, including working with multiple datasets

The plan

- 5 minute break
- In-class exercise available via Canvas
 - Designed to be completed by 3:20 p.m.
 - ▶ Due today 6:30 p.m.
 - Yellow sticky note = urgent; blue sticky note = non-urgent
- ► Homework due next week by 1 p.m. Friday
- Office hours as always: Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday