# Introduction to association analysis of quantitative traits

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### Outline

# 1 Introduction

# 2 Measuring association

- Coefficient of regression
- Scale-independent measures of association
- Yet another aspect of association
- Summary





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# 1 Introduction

# Measuring association

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### Few examples of association. Which one is stronger?





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#### Few examples of association. Which one is stronger?



• It looks like A > B > C (?)



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- It looks like *A* > *B* > *C* (?)
- To give quantitative answer we need to introduce a way to characterize association between two variables



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- It looks like *A* > *B* > *C* (?)
- To give quantitative answer we need to introduce a way to characterize association between two variables
- What about using coefficient of regression of y onto x?
- Does everybody expect that regression coefficients A > B > C?



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#### Linear regression model

- Let us denote y as "outcome" and x as "predictor" variables; let y<sub>i</sub> and x<sub>i</sub> are outcome and predictor values for particular sample
- Assume linear model

$$y_i = \mu + \beta \cdot x_i + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $\mu$  is a constant (intercept),  $\beta$  is regression coefficient and  $\epsilon$  is residual "noise"



### Linear regression model

• Estimates of parameters  $\mu$  and  $\beta$  are chosen in such a way that predicted value of outcome

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\beta} x_i$$

are as close as possible to the observed  $y_i$ 

 $\bullet\,$  In univariate case the estimate of  $\beta$  can be obtained with

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{Cov(x,y)}{Var(x)} = \frac{\Sigma(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\Sigma(x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$

where is  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  are mean values of x and y, respectively



### Interpretation of regression coefficients

- Both intercept and regression coefficient have clear physical interpretation
- Intercept  $\mu$  is expected value of y if the value of predictor x is zero
- Coefficient of regression  $\beta$  tells how much y change when x is changed by single unit



### Example of estimation of regression coefficients



- Regression model is y ~ μ + β · x, where outcome y is height (measured in cm) and predictor x is sex (denoted as '0' for females and '1' for males)
- In a data set of 48 males and 52 females, the following estimates are obtained:  $\{\hat{\mu} = 167.6, \hat{\beta} = 12.6\}$  (see figure )



### Example of interpretation of regression coefficients



- \u03c0 \u03c0 = 167.6: when x is zero, expected value of outcomey is 167.6. In other words, expected height of females is 167.6.
- $\hat{\beta} = 12.6$ : when x changes by 1, expected value of y changes by 12.6. In other words, expected difference between male and female height is 12.6; or average height of males is  $\hat{\mu} + \hat{\beta} = 180.2$



### Regression coefficients are scale-dependent



- Let height is **measured in millimeters** now
- Then the estimates are:  $\{\hat{\mu} = 1676, \hat{\beta} = 126\}$
- Measuring hight in mm instead of cm ≡ multiplying y by 10 ≡ multiplying the estimates by 10
- But the data set is exactly the same!



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#### Coefficient of regression

### Which association is stronger?



• Strength of association A > B > C (?)





- Strength of association A > B > C (?)
- Regression coefficient A > B > C?





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$$\hat{eta}_A=$$
 0.95,  $\hat{eta}_B=$  3.32 and  $\hat{eta}_C=$  0.28, so  $B>A>C$ 



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### How neatly *y* and *x* go together?

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• We can also estimate how much x (!) changes when y is changed by 1 unit with

$$\hat{eta}_{x \sim y} = rac{Cov(x, y)}{Var(y)}$$



#### Person's coefficient of correlation

• Scale independent measure of association can be obtained by "compensating" for the variance of y by use of the coefficient of correlation defined as

$$\rho_{xy} = \frac{Cov(x,y)}{\sqrt{Var(x) \cdot Var(y)}} = \frac{\Sigma(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\Sigma(x_i - \bar{x})^2 \cdot \Sigma(y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$



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- When
  - $\rho_{xy} = 1$ , there is perfect linear dependency (as x increases, y also increases)
  - $\rho_{xy} = -1$  there is perfect reciprocal al relation (as x increases, y decreases)
  - $\rho_{xy} = 0$ , there is no (linear) relation between two variables



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  - $\rho_{xy} = 0$ , there is no (linear) relation between two variables
- gives proportion of variance explained  $\rho_{xy}^2 = \beta_{y \sim x} \cdot \beta_{x \sim y}$ , gives proportion of variance explained



### Example correlations





### Correlations



- Strength of association A > B > C (?)
- Regression:  $\hat{\beta}_A = 0.95$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_B = 3.32$  and  $\hat{\beta}_C = 0.28$  (B > A > C)
- Correlation:  $\hat{\rho}_A = 1$ ,  $\hat{\rho}_B = 0.5$  and  $\hat{\rho}_C = 0.27$  (A > B > C!)



#### Yet another aspect of association

#### Other aspect of association



- Correlation and regression coefficients are similar between *A*, *B* and *C*
- Does that mean the same strength of association in all three panels?



#### Yet another aspect of association

#### Other aspect of association



- Correlation and regression coefficients are similar between *A*, *B* and *C*
- Does that mean the same strength of association in all three panels?
- What changes between A, B, and C?



### Correlations



- There are 10 observations in panel A, 30 observations in B, and 70 observations in C. While magnitude of association is similar, amount of evidence is different
- Given the same magnitude of association, experiment with more observations provides more evidence – the observed association is less likely to appear by chance



### **Statistical significance**

• Other way to characterize association is to ask the question 'What is the chance to observe this strong (or even stronger) association by pure chance?".



### **Statistical significance**

- Other way to characterize association is to ask the question 'What is the chance to observe this strong (or even stronger) association by pure chance?".
- This chance is termed *p*-value. The lower is *p*-value, the less likely is association to appear by pure chance; consequently the statistical significance measuring our confidence is higher



#### The score test

 To obtain *p*-value, we can use the *score* test, which is defined as

$$T^2 = \hat{\rho}_{xy}^2 \cdot n,$$

where  $\hat{\rho}_{xy}^2$  is the coefficient of determination and *n* is the sample size



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 To obtain *p*-value, we can use the *score* test, which is defined as

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where  $\hat{\rho}_{xy}^2$  is the coefficient of determination and *n* is the sample size

• Under the null hypothesis of no association this test is distributed as  $\chi^2_1$ , so that if  $T^2 > 3.84$  we can say that p < 0.05, etc.



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#### Yet another aspect of association

#### **Statistical significance**



• There are 10 observations in panel *A*, 30 observations in *B*, and 70 observations in *C*.



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#### Yet another aspect of association

#### **Statistical significance**



- There are 10 observations in panel *A*, 30 observations in *B*, and 70 observations in *C*.
- The coefficients of determination are approximately the same - 0.53, 0.45, and 0.53.



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#### Yet another aspect of association

#### **Statistical significance**



• The score test values for panels A is A, B, and C are  $T_A^2 = n \cdot \hat{\rho}_{xy}^2 = 10 \cdot 0.53 = 5.27$ ;  $T_B^2 = 13.63$  and  $T_C^2 = 37.14$ 



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#### Yet another aspect of association

#### **Statistical significance**



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- Resulting *p*-value are 0.017, 4.4*e* − 05, and 8.9*e* − 13



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#### Yet another aspect of association

### Which association is stronger?



The answer depends on how we characterize the association

- If we use regression coefficient, then predictor x1 (panel B) is "the champion"
- If we use correlation or coefficient of determination, then predictor x (panel A) is "the champion"
- If we use statistical strength (*p*-value), then predictor x2 (from panel C) is "the champion"



#### Summary

### Summary

There are several complementary ways to measure association

- Regression coefficient has clear physical interpretation and allows easy prediction. This coefficient is dependent on the scale of outcome and predictor.
- Coefficients of correlation and determination provide appealing measures of how "neatly"the outcome and the predictor go together; how "visible"is the relation
- *p*-value tells how much evidence are provided by the data to rule out the hypothesis of no association



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#### Summary Note



- Linear regression methods considered here do assume linear dependency between outcome and predictor
- While there may be a clear (non-linear) relation between two variables, methods considered here can not be used to study these



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#### **Genetic data**

- When studying genetic data, we are interested in relation between outcome y and genetic predictor g
- Let g is a Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) with two alleles, A and B
- Three genotypes are possible: {*AA*, *AB*, *BB*}
- We can formalize different genetic models by coding g in different ways



• Estimating single regression coefficient in the model

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\beta} \cdot \mathbf{g},$$



• Estimating single regression coefficient in the model

 $\mathbf{y} \sim \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\beta} \cdot \mathbf{g},$ 

where g is coded according to different models

• Additive ("B allele dose"):  $\{AA = 0, AB = 1, BB = 2\}$ 



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- "Dominant B":  $\{AA = 0, AB = 1, BB = 1\}$



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- "Recessive B": {*AA* = 0, *AB* = 0, *BB* = 1}



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- "Dominant B":  $\{AA = 0, AB = 1, BB = 1\}$
- "Recessive B": {*AA* = 0, *AB* = 0, *BB* = 1}
- Overdominant ("Heterosys") model:  $\{AA = 0, AB = 1, BB = 0\}$



### **Genotypic model**

• In genotypic model, we allow for differential effect between all three genotypes by use of two predictors

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \boldsymbol{\mu} + \beta_1 \cdot \mathbf{g}_1 + \beta_2 \cdot \mathbf{g}_2,$$



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•  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  can be defined in a number of ways, for example via  $g_1$  coded as  $\{AA = 0, AB = 1, BB = 2\}$  and  $g_2$  coded as  $\{AA = 0, AB = 1, BB = 0\}$ . In this case,  $\beta_1$  would give "additive effect of allele B" and  $\beta_2$  will estimate "dominance deviation"



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- This model is tested against the null model  $y \sim \mu$ , resulting in two degrees of freedom (2 d.f.) test



#### Summary

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- In general, genetic association analysis is done using standard statistical methods
- Specifics of analysis of genetic data comes from the specifics of the independent variable of interest (the genotype), which is an real object following particular (genetic) laws

